Hamiltonian Dynamics

Lecture 1

David Kelliher

RAL

November 12, 2019

Bibliography

- The Variational Principles of Mechanics - Lanczos
- Classical Mechanics - Goldstein, Poole and Safko
- A Student's Guide to Lagrangians and Hamiltonians - Hamill
- Classical Mechanics, The Theoretical Minimum - Susskind and Hrabovsky
- Theory and Design of Charged Particle Beams - Reiser
- Accelerator Physics - Lee
- Particle Accelerator Physics II - Wiedemann
- Mathematical Methods in the Physical Sciences - Boas
- Beam Dynamics in High Energy Particle Accelerators - Wolski

Content

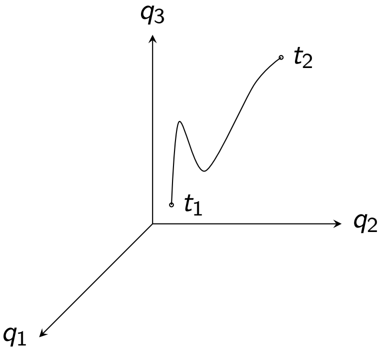
Lecture 1

- Comparison of Newtonian, Lagrangian and Hamiltonian approaches.
- Hamilton's equations, symplecticity, integrability, chaos.
- Canonical transformations, the Hamilton-Jacobi equation, Poisson brackets.

Lecture 2

- The "accelerator" Hamiltonian.
- Dynamic maps, symplectic integrators.
- Integrable Hamiltonian.

Configuration space



The state of the system at a time t can be given by the value of the n generalised coordinates q_i. This can be represented by a point in an n dimensional space which is called "configuration space" (the system is said to have n degrees of freedom). The motion of the system as a whole is then characterised by the line this system point maps out in configuration space.

Newtonian Mechanics

The equation of motion of a particle of mass m subject to a force $\mathbf{F}$ is

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m\dot{\mathbf{r}}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}, \dot{\mathbf{r}}, t) \tag{1}$$

In Newtonian mechanics, the dynamics of the system are defined by the force $\mathbf{F}$, which in general is a function of position $\mathbf{r}$, velocity $\dot{\mathbf{r}}$ and time t. The dynamics are determined by solving N second order differential equations as a function of time.
Note: coordinates can be the vector spatial coordinates $\mathbf{r_i}(t)$ or generalised coordinates $q_i(t)$.

Lagrangian Mechanics

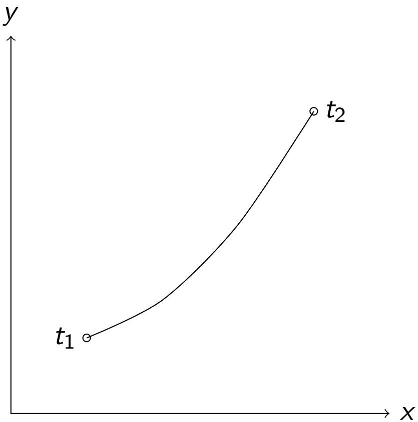
In Lagrangian mechanics the key function is the Lagrangian

$$L = L(q, \dot{q}, t) \tag{2}$$

The solution to a given mechanical problem is obtained by solving a set of N second-order differential equations known as the Euler-Lagrange equations,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = 0 \tag{3}$$

Action



The action S is the integral of L along the trajectory

$$S = \int_{t1}^{t2} L(q, \dot{q}, t)t \tag{4}$$

Principle of least action

The *principle of least action* or *Hamilton's principle* holds that the system evolves such that the action S is stationary. It can be shown that the Euler-Lagrange equation defines a path for which.

$$\delta S = \delta \left[\int_{t1}^{t2} L(q, \dot{q}, t) t \right] = 0 \tag{5}$$

Derivation of Euler-Lagrange equation

Adding a perturbation ϵ, $\dot{\epsilon}$ to the path one obtains

$$\delta S = \int_{t1}^{t2} \left[L(q+\epsilon, \dot{q}+\dot{\epsilon}) - L(q, \dot{q}) \right] dt \tag{6}$$

$$= \int_{t1}^{t2} \left(\epsilon \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} + \dot{\epsilon} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) dt \tag{7}$$

Integration by parts leads to

$$\delta S = \left[\epsilon \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right]_{t_1}^{t_2} + \int_{t1}^{t2} \left(\epsilon \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} - \epsilon \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) dt \tag{8}$$

Since we are varying the path but not the end points, $\epsilon(t_1) = \epsilon(t_2) = 0$

$$\delta S = \int_{t1}^{t2} \epsilon \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial q} - \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) dt \tag{9}$$

Advantages of Lagrangian approach

- The Euler-Lagrange is true regardless of the choice of coordinate system (including non-inertial coordinate systems). We can transform to convenient variables that best describe the symmetry of the system.
- It is easy to incorporate constraints. We formulate the Lagrangian in a configuration space where ignorable coordinates are removed (e.g. a mass constrained to a surface), thereby incorporating the constraint from the outset.

Conservative force

In the case of a convervative force field the Lagrangian is the difference of the kinetic and potential energies

$$L(q, \dot{q}) = T(q, \dot{q}) - V(q) \tag{10}$$

where

$$F = \frac{\partial V(q)}{\partial q} \tag{11}$$

Example: mass on a spring

The Lagrangian

$$L = T - V = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx^2. \tag{12}$$

Plugging this into Lagrange's equations

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}}\right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = 0 \tag{13}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{x}}\left(\frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx^2\right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx^2\right) = 0 \tag{14}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(m\dot{x}) + kx = 0 \tag{15}$$

$$m\ddot{x} + kx = 0. \tag{16}$$

Relativistic free particle - Lagrangian

The momentum for a free particle is

$$p_i = \gamma m \dot{x}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3; \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \tag{17}$$

where $m = m_0$ the rest mass and β is the velocity relative to c. To ensure

$$p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}_i} = \frac{m\dot{x}_i}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}. \tag{18}$$

the Lagrangian should be of the form

$$L(x, \dot{x}, t) = -mc^2\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = -mc^2\sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{c^2}\left(\dot{x}_1^2 + \dot{x}_2^2 + \dot{x}_3^2\right)}. \tag{19}$$

General electromagnetic fields

Now include general EM fields $U(x, \dot{x}, t) = e(\phi - \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{A})$

$$L(x, \dot{x}, t) = -mc^2\sqrt{1-\beta^2} - e\phi + e\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{A}. \tag{20}$$

The conjugate momentum is

$$P_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}_i} = \frac{m\dot{x}_i}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} + eA_i \tag{21}$$

i.e. the field contributes to the conjugate momentum.

Legendre transformation

The Legendre transform takes us from a *convex*[1] function $F(u_i)$ to another function $G(v_i)$ as follows. Start with a function

$$F = F(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n). \tag{22}$$

Introduce a new set of *conjugate* variables through the following transformation

$$v_i = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_i}. \tag{23}$$

We now define a new function G as follows

$$G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i v_i - F \tag{24}$$

[1] F is convex in u if $\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial u^2} > 0$

Apply Legendre's transformation to the Lagrangian

Start with the Lagrangian

$$L = L(q_1, \ldots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \ldots, \dot{q}_n, t), \quad (25)$$

and introduce some new variables we are going to call the p_is

$$p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}. \quad (26)$$

We can then introduce a new function H defined as

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \dot{q}_i - L \quad (27)$$

We now have a function which is dependent on q, p and time.

$$H = H(q_1, \ldots, q_n, p_1, \ldots, p_n, t) \tag{28}$$

L and H have a dual nature:

$$H = \sum p_i \dot{q}_i - L, \qquad\qquad L = \sum p_i \dot{q}_i - H,$$

$$p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}, \qquad\qquad \dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}.$$

We can also use the passive variables q and t to demonstrate that

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}, \tag{29}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial t}. \tag{30}$$

Hamilton's canonical equations

Starting from Lagrange's equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}\right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q}$$

and combining with

$$p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$$

leads to

$$\dot{p}_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \tag{31}$$

So we have

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \qquad (32) \qquad\qquad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \qquad (33)$$

which are called Hamilton's canonical equations. They are the equations of motion of the system expressed as $2n$ first order differential equations.

Symmetry and Conservation Laws

A *cyclic* coordinate in the Langrangian is also cyclic in the Hamiltonian. Since $H(q, p, t) = \dot{q}_i p_i - L(q, \dot{q}, t)$, a coordinate q_j absent in L is also absent in H.
A symmetry in the system implies a cyclic coordinate which in turn leads to a conservation law (*Noether's theorem*).

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_j} = 0 \implies \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_j} = 0 \tag{34}$$

Hence

$$\dot{p}_j = 0 \tag{35}$$

so the momentum p_j is conserved.
Often we wish to simplify our problem by applying a transformation that exploits any symmetry in the system.

Canonical transformations

Transform from one set of canonical coordinates (p_i, q_i) to another (P_i, Q_i). The transformation should preserve the form of Hamilton's equations.

Old coordinates
Hamiltonian: $H(q, p, t)$

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \quad (36)$$

$$\dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \quad (37)$$

New coordinates
Hamiltonian: $K(Q, P, t)$

$$\dot{Q}_i = \frac{\partial K}{\partial P_i} \quad (38)$$

$$\dot{P}_i = -\frac{\partial K}{\partial Q_i} \quad (39)$$

Preservation of Hamiltonian form

For the old Hamiltonian H it was true that

$$\delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left(\sum_i p_i \dot{q}_i - H(q_i, p_i, t) \right) \mathrm{d}t = 0 \tag{40}$$

Likewise, for the new Hamiltonian K

$$\delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left(\sum_i P_i \dot{Q}_i - K(Q_i, P_i, t) \right) \mathrm{d}t = 0 \tag{41}$$

In order for this to be true we require

$$\lambda(p\dot{q} - H) = P\dot{Q} - K + \frac{\mathrm{d}F}{\mathrm{d}t} \tag{42}$$

where, in order to ensure no variation at the endpoints it is required

$$\delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}F}{\mathrm{d}t}\,\mathrm{d}t = \delta(F(t_2) - F(t_1)) = 0 \tag{43}$$

If $\lambda = 1$ the transformation is said to be canonical[2]. We assume this condition in the following.

[2] If $\lambda \neq 1$ the transformation is said to be *extended canonical*.

The function F is called the generating function of the canonical transformation and it depends on old and new phase space coordinates. It can take 4 forms corresponding to combinations of (q_i, p_i) and (Q_i, P_i):

$$F = F_1(q_i, Q_i, t) \tag{44}$$

$$F = F_2(q_i, P_i, t) \tag{45}$$

$$F = F_3(p_i, Q_i, t) \tag{46}$$

$$F = F_4(p_i, P_i, t) \tag{47}$$

Generating function $F_1(q, Q, t)$

$$p_i \dot{q}_i - H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \frac{\mathrm{d}F_1}{\mathrm{d}t} \tag{48}$$

$$= P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q_i}\dot{q}_i + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial Q_i}\dot{Q}_i + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial t} \tag{49}$$

$$\left(p_i - \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q_i}\right)\dot{q}_i - \left(P_i + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q_i}\right)\dot{Q}_i + K - \left(H + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial t}\right) = 0 \tag{50}$$

The old and new coordinates are separately independent so the coefficients of $\dot{q}_i$ and $\dot{Q}_i$ must each vanish leading to

$$p_i = \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q_i} \tag{51}$$

$$P_i = -\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial Q_i} \tag{52}$$

$$K = H + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial t} \tag{53}$$

F_1 example

$$F_1(q, Q, t) = qQ \tag{54}$$

This does not depend on time, so by equation 53 the new and original Hamiltonians are equal.

$$p = \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q} = Q \tag{55}$$

$$P = -\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial Q} = -q \tag{56}$$

This generating function essentially swaps the coordinates and momenta.

Generating function $F_2(q, P, t)$

Look for a function of the form

$$F = F_2(q, P, t) - Q_i P_i \tag{57}$$

so that

$$p_i \dot{q}_i - H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(F_2 - Q_i P_i) \tag{58}$$

$$= P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \frac{\mathrm{d}F_2}{\mathrm{d}t} - \dot{Q}_i P_i - Q_i \dot{P}_i \tag{59}$$

$$= -K + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial q_i}\dot{q}_i + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial P_i}\dot{P}_i + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial t} - Q_i \dot{P}_i \tag{60}$$

Equating terms we find

$$p_i = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial q_i} \tag{61}$$

$$Q_i = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial P_i} \tag{62}$$

$$K = H + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial t}. \tag{63}$$

F_2 example

$$F_2(q, P, t) = \sum_i q_i P_i \tag{64}$$

This example generating function also does not depend on time so the new and original Hamiltonians are again equal. So

$$p_i = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial q_i} = P_i \tag{65}$$

$$Q_i = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial P_i} = q_i \tag{66}$$

This generating function is just the identity transformation, the coordinates and Hamiltonian are swapped into themselves.

Generating function $F_3(p, Q, t)$

We define

$$F = q_i p_i + F_3(p, Q, t) \tag{67}$$

so can then say

$$p_i \dot{q}_i - H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(q_i p_i + F_3(p, Q, t)) \tag{68}$$

$$p_i \dot{q}_i - H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \dot{q}_i p_i + q_i \dot{p}_i + \frac{\mathrm{d}F_3(p, Q, t)}{\mathrm{d}t} \tag{69}$$

$$-H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + q_i \dot{p}_i + \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial p_i}\dot{p}_i + \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial Q_i}\dot{Q}_i + \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial t}. \tag{70}$$

Equating the terms

$$q_i = -\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial p_i} \tag{71}$$

$$P_i = -\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial Q_i} \tag{72}$$

$$K = H + \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial t}. \tag{73}$$

F_3 example

$$F_3(p, Q, t) = p_i Q_i \tag{74}$$

We can express

$$q_i = -\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial p_i} = -Q_i \tag{75}$$

$$P_i = -\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial Q_i} = -p_i. \tag{76}$$

This generating function inverts the coordinates and momenta and keeps the Hamiltonians the same. Is anyone's head spinning yet?

Generating function $F_4(p, P, t)$

Let

$$F = q_i p_i - Q_i P_i + F_4(p, P, t) \tag{77}$$

so we can express

$$p_i \dot{q}_i - H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(q_i p_i - Q_i P_i + F_4(p, P, t)) \tag{78}$$

$$p_i \dot{q}_i - H = P_i \dot{Q}_i - K + \dot{q}_i p_i + q_i \dot{p}_i - \dot{Q}_i P_i - Q_i \dot{P}_i \tag{79}$$
$$+ \frac{\partial F_4}{\partial p_i} \dot{p}_i + \frac{\partial F_4}{\partial P_i} \dot{P}_i + \frac{\partial F_4}{\partial t}$$

Equating terms

$$q_i = -\frac{\partial F_4}{\partial p_i} \tag{80}$$

$$Q_i = \frac{\partial F_4}{\partial P_i} \tag{81}$$

$$K = H + \frac{\partial F_4}{\partial t}. \tag{82}$$

F_4 example

$$F_4(p_i, P_i, t) = pP \tag{83}$$

$$K = H \tag{84}$$
$$q = -P \tag{85}$$
$$Q = p \tag{86}$$

This transformation flips the coordinates and momenta and inverts the transformed momenta.

Summary of generating functions

Generating function	Transformation equations	
$F = F_1(q, Q, t)$	$p_i = \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q_i}$	$P_i = -\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial Q_i}$
$F = F_2(q, P, t) - Q_i P_i$	$p_i = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial q_i}$	$Q_i = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial P_i}$
$F = F_3(p, Q, t) + q_i p_i$	$q_i = -\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial p_i}$	$P_i = -\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial Q_i}$
$F = F_4(p, P, t) + q_i p_i - Q_i P_i$	$q_i = -\frac{\partial F_4}{\partial p_i}$	$Q_i = \frac{\partial F_4}{\partial P_i}$

Example: Harmonic oscillator

The Hamiltonian for a harmonic oscillator is given

$$H = \frac{\omega}{2}\left(q^2 + p^2\right). \tag{87}$$

This Hamiltonian is the sum of two squares, which suggest that one of the new coordinates is cyclic. Try a transformation of the form

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega}} f(P) \sin Q \tag{88}$$

$$p = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega}} f(P) \cos Q. \tag{89}$$

Then the new Hamiltonian

$$K = H = f^2(P)(\sin^2 Q + \cos^2 Q) = f^2(P). \tag{90}$$

Take the ratio of the transformation equations

$$p = q \cot Q. \tag{91}$$

This is independent of f(P), and has the form of the $F_1(q, Q, t)$ type of generating function

$$p = \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial q}. \tag{92}$$

The simplest form for F_1 agreeing with the above is

$$F_1(q, Q) = \frac{1}{2} q^2 \cot Q. \tag{93}$$

We can then find P using the other transformation equation for F_1

$$P = -\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial Q} = \frac{1}{2} q^2 \csc^2 Q = \frac{1}{2} \frac{q^2}{\sin^2 Q}. \tag{94}$$

Rearrange for q

$$q = \sqrt{2P\sin^2 Q} = \sqrt{2P}\sin Q. \tag{95}$$

Comparing this with equation 88 gives the function $f(P)$

$$f(P) = \sqrt{\omega P}. \tag{96}$$

The new Hamiltonian is therefore

$$K = \omega P. \tag{97}$$

This is cyclic in Q, so P is constant. The energy is constant and equal to K so

$$P = \frac{E}{\omega}. \tag{98}$$

$$\dot{Q} = \frac{\partial K}{\partial P} = \omega \tag{99}$$

The solution for Q is

$$Q = \omega t + \alpha \tag{100}$$

for some constant α. Finally the solution is

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{\omega}} \sin \omega t + \alpha. \tag{101}$$

The Hamilton-Jacobi equation

The Hamilton-Jacobi equation (HJE) is written

$$H(q_1,\dots,q_n,\frac{\partial S}{\partial q_1},\dots,\frac{\partial S}{\partial q_n},t)+\frac{\partial S}{\partial t}=0. \tag{102}$$

where S is called *Hamilton's principle function*. S is equivalent to the action.

In order to obtain the HJE we seek a transformation to coordinates and momenta from the known initial condition, keeping the end points fixed.

$$q = q(q_0, p_0, t) \tag{103}$$

$$p = p(q_0, p_0, t). \tag{104}$$

We can achieve this by choosing a generator function of type F_2 that satisfies

$$H + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial t} = 0. \tag{105}$$

For historical reasons F_2 is denoted by S (in fact it is equivalent to the action)

$$S = S(q, P, t). \tag{106}$$

In Hamilton-Jacobi theory, the function S is called Hamilton's principle function.

We can then use the transformation equations to state

$$p_i = \frac{\partial S}{\partial q_i} \tag{107}$$

$$Q_i = \frac{\partial S}{\partial P_i} \tag{108}$$

$$K = H + \frac{\partial S}{\partial t}. \tag{109}$$

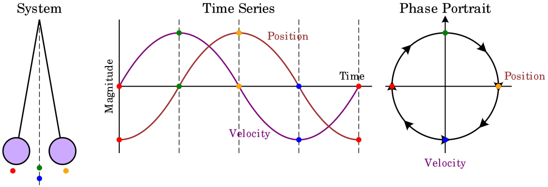
From Equation 105 we can write

$$H(q_1, \ldots, q_n, p_1, \ldots, p_n, t) + \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = 0. \tag{110}$$

Replacing the p_is we obtain the Hamilton-Jacobi equation.

$$H(q_1, \ldots, q_n, \frac{\partial S}{\partial q_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial S}{\partial q_n}, t) + \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = 0. \tag{111}$$

Phase space



In Hamiltonian mechanics, the canonical momenta $p_i = \delta L$ are promoted to coordinates on equal footing with the generalized coordinates q_i. The coordinates (q, p) are canonical variables, and the space of canonical variables is known as phase space.

Symplecticity

A symplectic transformation M satisfies

$$M^T \Omega M = \Omega \tag{112}$$

where

$$\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathcal{I} \\ -\mathcal{I} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{113}$$

Hamilton's equations in matrix form are

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{q}_i \\ \dot{p}_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \\ \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \end{pmatrix} \tag{114}$$

or in vector form

$$\dot{\zeta} = \Omega \nabla H(\zeta) = \Omega J \zeta \tag{115}$$

where ζ is the vector of phase space coordinates.

This has solution

$$\zeta(t) = Mz(t_0) = e^{t\Omega J} \tag{116}$$

From here its easy to show

$$M^T(t)\Omega M(t) = e^{-t\Omega J}\Omega e^{t\Omega J} = e^{-t\Omega J}e^{t\Omega J}\Omega = \Omega \tag{117}$$

In Hamiltonian systems the equations of motion generate symplectic maps of coordinates and momenta and as a consequence preserve volume in phase space. This is equivalent to *Liouville theorem* which asserts that the phase space distribution function is constant along the trajectories of the system.

Action-angle variables

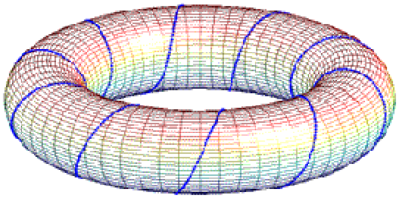
A Hamiltonian system can be written in action-angle form if there is a set of canonical variables (θ, I) such that H only depends on the action

$$H = H(I) \tag{118}$$

Then

$$\dot{\theta} = \nabla H(I) = \Omega(I), \quad \dot{I} = 0 \tag{119}$$

Liouville Integrability



The Liouville-Arnold theorem states that existence of n invariants of motion is enough to fully characterize a for an n degree-of-freedom system. In that case a canonical transformation exists to action angle coordinates in which the Hamiltonian depends only on the action.

Henon-Heiles system

The Hénon-Heiles potential can be written

$$V(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}\left(x^2 + y^2\right) + x^2 y - \frac{1}{3}y^3 \tag{120}$$

with Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{1}{2}\left(p_x^2 + p_y^2 + x^2 + y^2\right) + x^2 y - \frac{1}{3}y^3 = E \tag{121}$$

The Hamiltonian is integrable only for limited number of initial conditions.

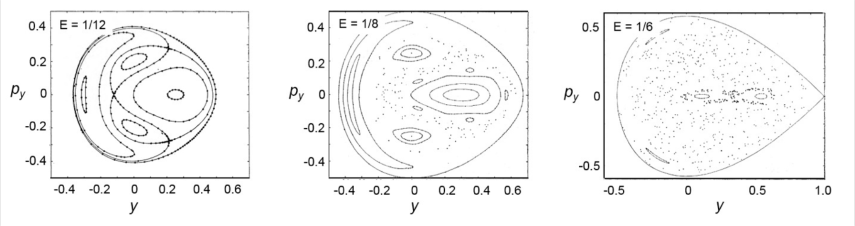


Figure 2: Poincare cross sections of the plane $x = 0$ for three values of parameter E: regular motion at $E = 1/24$, mix of regular and irregular motion at $E = 1/8$, and chaotic motion at $E = 1/6$. The particles are placed with the initial $y = 0$. The dots, which appear at random for E = 1/8 and E = 1/6, are generated by a single particle trajectory [1].

The motion is bounded for energy $E \leq 1/6$. As E increases, the dynamics look increasingly chaotic[3].

[3] S. A. Antipov and S. Nagaitsev, Proc. of IPAC2017, Cophenhagen, Denmark, WEOAB1.

Poisson brackets

Let p and q be canonical variables and let u and v be functions of p and q. The Poisson bracket of u and v is defined as

$$[u, v]_{p,q} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial q}\frac{\partial v}{\partial p} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial p}\frac{\partial v}{\partial q}. \tag{122}$$

Generalising to a system of n variables this becomes

$$[u, v] = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial q_i}\frac{\partial v}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial p_i}\frac{\partial v}{\partial q_i} \right). \tag{123}$$

Using the Einstein summation convention this is just

$$[u, v] = \frac{\partial u}{\partial q_i}\frac{\partial v}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial p_i}\frac{\partial v}{\partial q_i}. \tag{124}$$

From the definition of the Poisson bracket

$$[q_i, q_j] = [p_i, p_j] = 0 \tag{125}$$

$$[q_i, p_j] = -[p_i, q_j] = \delta_{i,j}. \tag{126}$$

A Poisson bracket is invariant under a change in canonical variables

$$[u, v]_{p,q} = [u, v]_{P,Q}. \tag{127}$$

In other words, Poisson brackets are canonical invariants, which gives us an easy way to determine whether a set of variables is canonical.

Equations of motion with brackets

Hamilton's equations may be written in terms of Poisson brackets
For a function $u = u(q_i, p_i, t)$ the total differential is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial q_i}\dot{q}_i + \frac{\partial u}{\partial p_i}\dot{p}_i + \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}. \tag{128}$$

We can replace $\dot{q}_i$ and $\dot{p}_i$ with their Hamiltonian solutions to obtain

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial q_i}\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial p_i}\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \tag{129}$$

which is just

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}t} = [u, H] + \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}. \tag{130}$$

If u is constant, then $\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}t} = 0$ and $[u, H] = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$. If u does not depend explicitly on t $[u, H] = 0$.

If $u = q$

$$\dot{q} = [q, H]. \tag{131}$$

If $u = p$

$$\dot{p} = [p, H]. \tag{132}$$

Which are just the equations of motion in terms of Poisson brackets.

Lie Transformations

Suppose we have some function of the phase space variables

$$f = f(x_i, p_i) \tag{133}$$

which has no explicit dependence on the independent variable, s. However if we evaluate f for a particle moving along a beamline, the value of f will evolve with s as the dynamical variables evolve.
The rate of change of f with s is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}s} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\mathrm{d}x_i}{\mathrm{d}s}\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\mathrm{d}p_i}{\mathrm{d}s}\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i}. \tag{134}$$

Using Hamilton's equations

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}s} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i}\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i}. \tag{135}$$

We now define the Lie operator $:g:$ for any function $g(x_i, p_i)$

$$:g: = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}\frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial g}{\partial p_i}\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}. \tag{136}$$

Compare with the definition of a Poisson bracket

$$[u, v]_{p,q} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial q}\frac{\partial v}{\partial p} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial p}\frac{\partial v}{\partial q}. \tag{137}$$

If the Hamiltonian H has no explicit dependence on s we can write

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}s} = -:H:f. \tag{138}$$

We can express f at $s = s_0 + \Delta s$ in terms of f at $s = s_0$ in terms of a Taylor series

$$f\Big|_{s=s_0+\Delta s} = f\Big|_{s=s_0} + \Delta s \frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}s}\Big|_{s=s_0} + \frac{\Delta s^2}{2}\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 f}{\mathrm{d}s^2}\Big|_{s=s_0} + \dots \tag{139}$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Delta s^m}{m!}\frac{\mathrm{d}^m f}{\mathrm{d}s^m}\Big|_{s=s_0} \tag{140}$$

$$= e^{\Delta s \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}s}} f\Big|_{s=s_0}. \tag{141}$$

This suggests the solution for equation 138 can be written as

$$f\Big|_{s=s_0+\Delta s} = e^{-\Delta s:H:} f\Big|_{s=s_0}. \tag{142}$$

The operator $e^{-\Delta s:g:}$ is known as a Lie transformation, with generator g. In the context of accelerator beam dynamics, applying a Lie transformation with the Hamiltonian as the generator to a function f produces a transfer map for f.

- f can be any function of the dynamical variables
- Any Lie transformation represents the evolution of a conservative dynamical system, with Hamiltonian corresponding to the generator of the Lie transformation
- The map represented by a Lie transformation must be symplectic