COSY INFINITY
Version 6
User's Guide
and
Reference Manual

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and
Reference Manual *

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Abstract

This is a reference manual for the arbitrary order beam physics code COSY IN-FINITY. It is current as of January 13, 1993. COSY INFINITY is a powerful new generation code for the study and design of beam physics systems including accelerators, spectrometers, beamlines, electron microscopes, and glass optical systems. At its core it is using differential algebraic (DA) methods, which allow a systematic calculation of arbitrary order effects of arbitrary particle optical elements. At the same time, it allows the computation of dependences on system parameters, which is often important and can also be used for fitting.

COSY INFINITY has a full structured object oriented language environment. This provides a simple interface for the casual user. At the same time, it offers the demanding user a very flexible and powerful tool for the study and design of systems. Elaborate optimizations are easily customized to the problem. The inclusion of new particle optical elements is straightforward.

COSY INFINITY provides a powerful environment for efficient utilization of DA techniques. The power and generality of the environment is perhaps best demonstrated by the fact that all the physics routines of COSY INFINITY are written in its own input language.

Altogether, the uniqueness of COSY lies in the ability to handle high order maps, and the ability to compute maps of arbitrary systems. Furthermore, its

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powerful work environment adopts to any conceivable problem. Its interactive, flexible graphics helps visualize even complicated connections between quantities.

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1 Before Using COSY INFINITY

1.1 User's Agreement

COSY INFINITY can be obtained from M. Berz under the following conditions.

Users are requested not to make the code available to others, but ask them to obtain it from us. We maintain a list of users to be able to send out regular updates, which will also include features supplied by other users.

The FORTRAN portions and the high-level COSY language portions of the code should not be modified without our consent. This does not include the addition of new optimizers and new graphics drivers as discussed in sections 7.1 and 7.2; however, we would like to receive copies of new routines for possible inclusion in the master version of the code.

Though we do our best to keep the code free of errors and hope that it is so now, we do not mind being convinced of the contrary and ask users to report any errors. Users are also encouraged to make suggestions for upgrades, or send us their tools written in the COSY language.

If the user thinks the code has been useful, we would like to see this acknowledged by referencing some of the papers related to the code, for example [1, 2]. Finally, we do neither guarantee correctness nor usefulness of this code, and we are not liable for any damage, material or emotional, that results from its use.

By using the code COSY INFINITY, users agree to be bound by the above conditions.

1.2 How to Obtain Help and to Give Feedback

While this manual is intended to describe the use of the code as completely as possible, there will most likely arise questions that this manual cannot answer. Furthermore, we encourage users to contact us with any suggestions, criticism, praise, or other feedback they may have. We also appreciate receiving COSY source code for utilities users have written and find helpful.

We prefer to communicate by electronic mail. We can be contacted as follows:

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1.3 How to Install the Code

The code for COSY INFINITY consists of the following files:

- FOXY.FOP
- DAFOX.FOP
- FOXFIT.FOP
- FOXGRAF.FOP
- COSY.FOX

If obtained by electronic mail, each of these files will be split into several pieces. The pieces can be identified by the filename followed by the part number in the subject; for example, DAFOX.FOP003 identifies the third part of the file DAFOX. The files then have to be reassembled before compilation.

FOXY.FOP is the compiler and executer of the COSY language. DAFOX.FOP contains the routines to perform operations with objects, in particular the differential algebraic routines. FOXFIT.FOP contains the package of nonlinear optimizers. FOXGRAF.FOP contains the available graphics output drivers. These four files are written in FORTRAN and have to be compiled and linked.

COSY.FOX contains all the physics of COSY INFINITY, and is written in COSY INFINITY's own input language. It has to be compiled by FOXY as part of the installation process. For this purpose, FOXY has to be run with the input file COSY.

All the FORTRAN parts of COSY INFINITY are written in standard ANSI FORTRAN 77. However, certain aspects of FORTRAN 77 are still system dependent; in particular, this concerns the file handling. All system dependent features of COSY INFINITY are coded for various machines, including VAX/VMS, SUN/UNIX, IBM, and CRAY (which is not fully complete at this time).

The type of machine can be changed by selectively adding and removing comment identifiers from certain lines. To go from VAX to SUN, for example, all lines that have the identifier *VAX somewhere in columns 72 through 80 have to be commented, and all lines that have the comment *SUN in columns 1 through 4 have to be un-commented. To automatize this process, there is a utility FORTRAN program called VERSION that performs all these changes automatically. Should there be additional problems, a short message to us would be appreciated in order to facilitate life for future users on the same system.

1.3.1 VAX systems

The FORTRAN source is by default compatible with VAX/VMS systems. Compilation should be done without any options. In order to link and run the code, it may be necessary to increase certain working set parameters. The following parameters, generated with the VMS command SHOW WORK, are sufficient:

Working Set /Limit= 1024 /Quota= 2500 /Extent= 8192 Adjustment enabled Authorized Quota= 2500 Authorized Extent= 8192

If GKS graphics is desired, the code has to be linked with the local GKS object code. It can be executed on workstations with UIS graphics, with Xwindows graphics, and on terminals supporting Tektronix.

1.3.2 SUN systems

On SUN systems, all lines that contain the string *SUN in columns 1 to 4 should be un-commented, and all the lines containing the string *VAX in columns 72 to 80 should be commented. This can be done using the small program VERSION, which has to be adjusted manually to perform the proper file handling.

Compilation should be performed with the compiler option "-Bstatic".

If GKS graphics is desired, the code should be linked to the local GKS object code. On workstations, the graphics can be utilized under Xwindows and Tektronix.

1.3.3 HP systems

On HP systems, all lines that contain the string *HP in columns 1 to 3 should be uncommented, and all the lines containing the string *VAX in columns 72 to 80 should be commented. This can be done using the small program VERSION, which has to be adjusted manually to perform the proper file handling.

Compilation should be performed with the compiler option setting static memory handling.

If GKS graphics is desired, the code should be linked to the local GKS object code. GKS on HP systems usually requires the use of INCLUDE files in the beginning of FOX-GRAF.FOP as well as in all subroutines. These INCLUDE statements are contained in the HP version, but they have to be moved from column 6 to column 1, and possibly the address of the libraries has to be changed. On workstations, the graphics can be utilized under Xwindows and Tektronix.

1.3.4 IBM Mainframes

On IBM mainframe systems, all lines that contain the string *IBM in columns 72 to 80 should be un-commented, and all the lines containing the string *VAX in columns 72 to 80 should be commented. This can be done using the small program VERSION, which has to be adjusted manually to perform the proper file handling.

On IBM mainframes it may be desirable to use COSY INFINITY in a menu-driven way like most other programs in that environment. This can be achieved by using the following command procedure kindly supplied by Ghislain Roy.

```
/* RUN FOXY */
ARG F1 T1 M1
Say 'FOXY called...'
IF FI='' THEN Do
   Say '** No input file specified'
   Exit
End
'FILEDEF 6 TERMINAL (lrecl 133)'
FI FOX
           DISK F1
                      FOX
                            M1 '(LRECL 80 RECFM F)'
FI LIS
           DISK F1
                      LIS
                            M1 '(LRECL 80 RECFM F)'
FI COD
           DISK F1
                      COD
                            M1 '(LRECL 80 RECFM F)'
FI 10
           DISK F1
                      OUT
                            M1 '(LRECL 80 RECFM F)'
FI DEB
           DISK F1
                      DEB
                            M1 '(LRECL 80 RECFM F)'
LOAD FOXY DAFOX FOXFIT '(NOMAP CLEAR )'
START
'FILEDEF
          * CLEAR'
Exit rc
```

1.3.5 IBM PC

On IBM personal computers, all lines that contain the string *PC in columns 1 to 3 should be un-commented, and all the lines containing the string *VAX in columns 72 to 80 should be commented. This can be done using the small program VERSION, which has to be adjusted manually to perform the proper file handling. The PC version is fully compatible with the Lahey Fortran 77 compiler. The necessary adjustments were performed by Phil Meads.

COSY INFINITY can be run on IBM PC systems with 386 or higher processors. For the large version allowing computations of very high orders, the memory should be

16 or 32 megabytes to limit extensive disk paging. It should also be possible to install COSY with other compilers; however, it is essential that the compiler can address arrays of lengths exceeding 64 k. An arithmetic coprocessor is highly recommended.

1.3.6 CRAY

On CRAY machines, all lines that contain the string *CRAY in columns 1 to 5 should be un-commented, and all the lines containing the string *VAX in columns 72 to 80 should be commented. This can be done using the small program VERSION, which has to be adjusted manually to perform the file handling properly.

Since the latest version of COSY INFINITY has not been explicitly tested on CRAYs yet, additional changes may be necessary.

1.3.7 Possible Memory Limitations

Being based on FORTRAN, which does not allow dynamic memory allocation, COSY INFINITY has its own memory management within a large FORTRAN COMMON block. On machines supporting virtual memory, the size of this block should not present any problem. On some other machines, it may be necessary to scale down the length. This can be achieved by changing the parameter LMEM at all occurrences in FOXY.FOP, DAFOX.FOP and FOXGRAF.FOP to a lower value. Values of around 500 000 should be enough for many applications, which brings total system memory down to about 8 Megabytes.

In the case of limited memory resources, it may also be necessary to scale down the lengths of certain variables in COSY.FOX to lower levels. In particular, this holds for the variables MAP and MSC which are defined at the very beginning of COSY.FOX. Possible values for the length are values down to about 500 for work through around fifth order. For higher orders, larger values are needed.

1.4 How to Avoid Reading This Manual

The input of COSY INFINITY is based on a programming language which is described in detail in section 6 beginning on page 53. The structure and features are quite intuitive, and we are confident that one can quickly pick up the key ideas following some examples.

COSY INFINITY is written in this language, and all particle optical elements and control features are invoked by calls to library procedures written in this language. A detailed description of these features is provided in sections 3 and 4.

Section 5 beginning on page 42 gives several examples for problems occurring in the computation and analysis of particle optical systems. Reading these sections should

enable the user to get a head start in using COSY INFINITY. Another source of information is the demonstration file DEMO.FOX.

For sophisticated problems or the development of customized features, the user may find it helpful to study section 7 beginning on page 62. The appendix beginning on page 72 contains a complete list of all data types and operations as well as all intrinsic functions and procedures available in the COSY language. Finally, the few pages of the listing of COSY INFINITY can be consulted for existing structures and programming ideas.

1.5 New Features of Version 5

This version of COSY INFINITY contains several new features which are outlined below. With very minor exceptions, it is downward compatible to the previous version, so any user deck for version 5 should run under version 6. An exception is the slightly modified syntax for INCLUDE and SAVE statements, which now allows the use of directory paths.

- A general conversion utility to allow the use of MAD input is now shipped with the code.
- There is now a new very efficient rather accurate symplectic approximate fringe field mode.
- Symplectic tracking via global generating functions is now available, and the syntax of the procedure TR is slightly different.
- There are now all generating functions and a larger number of Lie factorizations, and they can all be used with parameters.
- It is now possible to produce formatted output with text and numbers.
- There is a rather efficient new optimizer, LMDIF.
- The SAVE and INCLUDE statements now allow the use of directory paths and their syntax is slightly changed.
- There are now enhanced string operations including string comparison.
- The direct POSTSCRIPT driver has been fixed. It is now also possible to output to a graphics meta file for later processing.

1.6 Features Under Development

In the near future, the following new features are anticipated to be available in the code:

- Provide a tool to plot any quantity as it varies along the beamline
- DA-based optimization, resulting in speed gains
- Spin and radiation dynamics
- Strict Nekoroshev-type estimates for long term stability

Please contact us if you have any other suggestions or wishes.

2 What is COSY INFINITY

The design and analysis of particle optical systems is quite intimately connected with the computer world. There are numerous more or less widespread codes for the simulation of particle optical systems. Generally, these codes fall into two categories. One category includes ray tracing codes which use numerical integrators to determine the trajectories of individual rays through external and possibly internal electromagnetic fields. The core of such a code is quite robust and easy to set up; for many applications, however, certain important information can not be directly extracted from the mere values ray coordinates. Furthermore, this type of code is often quite slow and does not allow extensive optimization.

The other category of codes are the map codes, which compute Taylor expansions to describe the action of the system on phase space. These codes are usually faster than integration codes, and the expansion coefficients often provide more insight into the system. On the other hand, in the past the orders of the map, which are a measure of the accuracy of the approach, have been limited to third order [3, 4, 5] and fifth order [6, 7]. Furthermore, traditional mapping codes have only very limited libraries for quite standardized external fields and lack the flexibility of the numerical integration techniques. In particular, fringe fields can only be treated approximately.

2.1 COSY's Algorithms and their Implementation

Recently we could show that it is indeed possible to have the best of both worlds: using the new differential algebraic techniques, any given numerical integration code can be modified such that it allows the computation of Taylor maps for arbitrarily complicated fields and to arbitrary order [8, 9, 10, 11]. An offspring of this approach is the computation of maps for large accelerators where often the system can be described by inexpensive, low order kick integrators [12, 13].

The speed of this approach is initially determined by the numerical integration process. Recently it has been possible to use DA techniques to overcome this problem: DA can be used to automatically emulate numerical integrators of very high orders in

the time step, yet at the computational expense of only little more than a first order integrator [8, 9]. This technique is very versatile, works for a very large class of fields, and the speeds obtained are similar to classical mapping codes.

In order to make efficient use of DA operations in a computer environment, it has to be possible to invoke the DA operations from a language. In the conventional languages used for numerical applications it is not possible to introduce new data types and operations on them. Only recently have object oriented languages been developed which routinely have such features. One such language which is slowly gaining ground is C++; FORTH is another example which has been around for a longer time.

There are strong reasons to stay within the limits of a FORTRAN environment, however. Firstly, virtually all software in this field is written in this language, and the desire to interface to such software is easier if FORTRAN is used. Furthermore, there are extensive libraries of support software which are only slowly becoming available in other languages, including routines for nonlinear optimization and various graphics packages. Finally, the necessity for portability is another strong argument for FORTRAN; virtually every machine that is used for numerical applications, starting from personal computers, continuing through the workstation and mainframe world to the supercomputers, has a FORTRAN compiler.

So it seemed natural to stay within this world, and this lead to the development of the DA precompiler [14]. This precompiler allows the use of a DA data type within otherwise standard FORTRAN by transforming arithmetic operations containing DA variables into a sequence of calls to subroutines. This technique has been extensively used [9, 10, 15, 16, 17, 18]. It was particularly helpful that one could use old FORTRAN tracking codes and just replace the appropriate real variables by DA variables to very quickly obtain high order maps.

2.2 The User Interface

On the other end of the problems using an accelerator code is the command language of the code and the description of the beamlines. Various approaches have been used in the past, starting from coding numbers as in the old versions of TRANSPORT [3] over more easily readable command structures like in TRIO [4], GIOS [5, 19], COSY 5.0 [6, 16] and MARYLIE [20] to the standardized commands of MAD, for which there is a conversion utility to COSY (see section 3.4) [21, 22].

COSY INFINITY approaches this problem by offering the user a full programming language; in fact, the language is so powerful that all the physics of COSY INFINITY was written in it, and the results fit on a few pages.

For ease of use such a language should have a simple syntax. For the user demanding special-purpose features, it should be powerful. It should allow direct and complex interfacing to FORTRAN routines, and it should allow the use of DA as a type. Finally,

it should be widely portable. Unfortunately, there is no language readily available that fulfills all these requirements, so COSY INFINITY contains its own language system.

The problem of simplicity yet power has been quite elegantly solved by the PASCAL concept. In addition, this concept allows compilation in one pass and no linking is required. This facilitates the connection of the user input, which will turn out to be just the last procedure of the system, with the optics program itself.

To be machine independent, the output of the compilation is not machine code but rather an intermediate code that can be easily interpreted. For the same reason, it is essential to write the source code of the compiler in a very portable language. We chose FORTRAN for the compiler, even though clearly it is considerably easier to write it in a recursive language.

For reasons of speed it is helpful to allow the splitting of the program into pieces, one containing the optics program and one the user commands. While the PASCAL philosophy does not have provisions for linking, it allows the splitting of the input at any point. For this purpose, a complete momentary image of the compilation status is written to a file. When compilation continues with the second portion, this image is read from the file, and compilation continues in exactly the same way as without the splitting.

The full syntax of the COSY language is described in detail in section 6 beginning on page 53. Most of the syntax will become apparent from the detailed examples supplied in the following sections, and we think that it is possible to write most COSY inputs without explicitly consulting the language reference.

3 Computing Systems with COSY

This section describes some core features of COSY's particle optics and accelerator physics environment. This provides the backbone for practical use in particle optics. We assume that the reader has a fundamental knowledge about particle optics, and refer to the literature, for example [23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28].

3.1 General Properties of the COSY Language Environment

The physics part of COSY INFINITY is written in its own input language. In this context, most commands are just calls to previously defined procedures. If desired, the user can create new commands simply by defining procedures of his own. All commands within COSY INFINITY consist of two or three letters which are abbreviations for two or three words describing the action of the procedure. This idea originated in the GIOS language [5, 19], and many commands of COSY INFINITY are similar to respective

commands in GIOS. All units used in COSY are SI, except for voltages, which are in kV, and angles, which are in degrees.

Particle optical systems and beamlines are described by a sequence of calls to procedures representing individual elements. The supported particle optical elements can be found in section 3.3 beginning on page 20; section 5.7 beginning on page 51 shows how to generate new particle optical elements.

In a similar way, elements can be grouped, which is described in section 5.3 beginning on page 45. Besides the commands describing particle optical elements, there are commands to instruct the code what to do.

3.2 Control Commands

All user commands for COSY INFINITY are contained in a file which is compiled by FOXY. The first command of the file must be

INCLUDE 'COSY';

which makes all the compiled code contained in COSY.FOX known to the user input. The user input itself is contained in the COSY procedure RUN. Following the syntax of the COSY language described in section 6, all commands thus have to be included between the statements

PROCEDURE RUN:

and

ENDPROCEDURE;

In order to execute the commands, the ENDPROCEDURE statement has to be followed by the call to the procedure,

RUN;

and the command to complete the COSY input file,

END:

Like any language, the COSY language supports the use of variables and expressions which often simplifies the description of the system. For the declaration of variables, see section 6.

The first command sets up the DA tools and has to be called before any DA operations, including the computation of maps, can be executed. The command has the form

OV <order> <phase space dimension> <number of parameters>;

3.2 Control Commands

and the parameters are the maximum order that is to occur as well as the dimensionality of phase space (1,2 or 3) and the number of system parameters that are requested. If the phase space dimensionality is 1, only the x-a motion is computed; if it is 2, the y-b motion is computed as well, obviously at a slightly higher computation time. If it is 3, the time of flight and chromatic effects are computed also.

The number of parameters is the number of additional quantities besides the phase space variables that the final map shall depend on. This is used in connection with the "maps with knobs" discussed in section 5.2 o page 43 and to obtain mass and charge dependences if desired, and it is also possible to compute energy dependence without time-of-flight terms at a reduced computational expense.

The order is arbitrary and denotes the maximum order that computations can be performed in. It is possible to change the computation order at run time using the command

CO <order>;

however, the new order can never exceed the one set in OV. Note that the computation time naturally increases drastically for higher orders. Under normal circumstances, orders should not exceed ten very much.

3.2.1 The Coordinates

COSY INFINITY performs all its calculations in the following scaled coordinates:

$$r_1 = x,$$
 $r_2 = a = p_x/p_0,$
 $r_3 = y,$ $r_4 = b = p_y/p_0,$
 $r_5 = l = -(t - t_0)v_0\gamma/(1 + \gamma)$ $r_6 = \delta_K = (K - K_0)/K_0)$
 $r_7 = \delta_m = (m - m_0)/m_0$ $r_8 = \delta_z = (z - z_0)/z_0$

The first six variables form three canonically conjugate pairs in which the map is symplectic. The units of the positions x and y is meters. p_0 , K_0 , v_0 , t_0 and γ are the momentum, kinetic energy, velocity, time of flight, and total energy over c^2 , respectively. m and z denote mass and charge, respectively.

3.2.2 Defining the Beam

All particle optical coordinates are relative to a reference particle which can be defined with the command

RP <kinetic energy in MeV> <mass in amu> <charge in units>;

For convenience, there are two procedures that set the reference particle to be protons or electrons:

RPP <kinetic energy in MeV>

RPE <kinetic energy in MeV>

For the masses of the proton and electron and all other quantities in COSY, the values in [29] have been used. Finally, there is a command that allows to set the reference particle from the magnetic rigidity in Tesla meters and the momentum in GeV/c:

RPR <magnetic rigidity in Tm> <mass in amu> <charge in units>;

RPM <momentum in MeV/c> <mass in amu> <charge in units>;

The command

sets half widths of the beam in the x, a, y, b, t, d, g and z directions of phase space. The units are meters for PX and PY, radians for PA and PB, $v_0\gamma/(1+\gamma)$ times time for PT, and $\Delta E/E$ for PD, $\Delta m/m$ for PG, and $\Delta z/z$ for PZ. The command

$$SP < P1 > < P2 > < P3 > < P4 > < P5 > < P6 > ;$$

sets the maxima of up to six parameters that can be used as knobs in maps (see section 5.2 beginning on page 43).

3.2.3 The Computation of Maps

COSY INFINITY has a global variable called MAP that contains the accumulated transfer map of the system. Each particle optical element being invoked updates the momentary contents of this global variable.

The following command is used to prepare the computation of maps. It sets the transfer map to unity. It can also be used again later to re-initialize the map.

UM;

The command

SM <name>;

saves the momentary transfer matrix to the array name, which has to be specified by the user. The array can be specified using the VARIABLE command of the COSY language (see section 6). It could have the form

VARIABLE <name> 1000 8;

which declares a one dimensional array with eight entries. Each entry can hold a maximum of 1000 16 byte blocks, which should be enough to store the DA numbers occurring in calculations of at least seventh order. The command

AM <name>;

applies the previously saved map <name> to the momentary map. AM and PM are particularly helpful for the handling of maps of subsystems that are expensive to calculate. In particular in the context of optimization, often substantial amounts of time can be saved by computing certain maps only once and then re-using them during the optimization.

It is also sometimes necessary to compose two individual maps into one map without acting on the current transfer map. This can be achieved with the command

which composes the maps N and M to O=N o M. The command

PM <unit>;

prints the momentary transfer matrix to unit. This number can be associated with a file name with the FOPEN procedure (see index); if FOPEN is not used, the name associated with the unit follows the local FORTRAN conventions. Unit 6 corresponds to the screen. The different columns of the output belong to the final values of x a, y, b and t of the map, and different lines describe different coefficients of the expansion in terms of initial values. The coefficients are identified by the last columns which describe the order as well as the exponents of the initial values of the variables. An example of the output of a transfer map can be found in section 5 on page 42.

Besides the easily legible form of output of a transfer map produced by PM, it is also possible to write the map more accurately but less readable with the command

WM <unit>; .

In this case, the transformation of the local coordinate system is also stored and can be reused when read. Maps written by PM or WM can be read with the command

RM <unit>;

reads a map generated by PM from the specified unit and applies it to the momentary transfer map. Often a significant amount of computer time can be saved by computing certain submaps ahead of time and storing them either in a variable or a file. In particular this holds for maps which are expensive to compute, for example the ones of electrostatic cylindrical lenses.

Besides storing maps of an element or system with one specific setting of parameters, using the technique of symplectic scaling it is possible to save maps with a certain setting of filed strengths and lengths and later re—use them for different settings of lengths or strengths. This is particularly useful for elements that require a lot of calculation time, including fringe fields and solenoids. A representation of the map of an element with typical dimensions and field strength for a typical beam is saved using

$$WSM < unit > \langle L \rangle \langle B \rangle \langle D \rangle$$
;

This map has to be calculated either in three dimensions (OV order 30;) or with the energy as a parameter (OV order 21;). The parameters are the output unit, length, pole—tip field, and aperture of the element that created the momentary map. The map of the motion of a different type of beam through any similar element that differs in scale or field strength can be approximated quickly by

These features were added by Georg Hoffstätter. It is also possible to extract individual matrix elements of transfer maps. This is achieved with the COSY function

The element identifier follows TRANSPORT notation; for example, ME(1,122) returns the momentary value of the matrix element (x,xaa).

Often it is necessary to determine the map of the reversed system, i.e. the system transversed backwards. In case M is the map of the system, the map MR of the corresponding reversed system can be computed with the command

Note again that the current transfer map is stored in the global variable MAP. Similarly, it is sometimes necessary to determine the map of the system in which the coordinates are twisted by a certain angle. For example, if the direction of bending of all magnets is exchanged, this corresponds to a rotation by 180 degrees. In case M is the map of the system, the map MT of the system twisted by angle can be computed with the command

3.2.4 The Computation of Trajectories

Besides the computation of maps, COSY can also trace rays through the system. The trajectories of these rays can be plotted or their coordinates printed. If rays are selected, they are pushed through every new particle element that is invoked. Note that COSY can also push rays through maps repetitively and display phase space plots. This uses different methods and is discussed in section 4.5 beginning on page 40.

The following command sets a ray that is to be traced through the system. The parameters are the eight particle optical coordinates

$$SR < X > < A > < Y > < B > < T > < D > < G > < Z > < color > ;$$

Here X and Y are the positions of the ray in meters, A and B are the angles in radians, T is the time of flight multiplied by $v_0\gamma/(1+\gamma)$. D, G and Z are the half energy, mass and charge deviations. For graphics purposes, it is also possible to assign a

color. Different colors are represented by numbers as follows. 1: black, 2: blue, 3: red, 4: yellow, 5: green.

It is also possible to automatically set an ensemble of rays. This can be achieved with the command

$$ER < NX > < NA > < NY > < NB > < NT > < ND > < NG > < NZ > ;$$

Here NX, NA ... denote the number of rays in the respective phase space dimension. The ray coordinates are equally spaced according to the values set with the command SB, which has to be called before ER. In case any of the N's is 1, only rays with the respective variable equal to 0 will be shown. Note that the total number of rays is given by NX · NY ·...· NZ, which should not exceed 200. The command

CR;

clears all the rays previously set. The command

PR <unit>;

prints the momentary coordinates of the rays to the specified unit. Unit 6 corresponds to the screen. Note that using the WRITE command of the COSY language, it is also possible to print any other quantity of interest either to the screen or to a file.

3.2.5 Plotting System and Trajectories

Besides computing matrices and rays, COSY also allows to plot the system or any part of it and the rays going through it. The command

```
PTY < scale > ;
```

selects the type of system plot. If scale is zero, the reference trajectory will be plotted as a straight line; this is also the default if PTY is not called. If scale is nonzero, all rays including the reference trajectory are displayed in laboratory coordinates. To account for the fact that in such a view rays are rather close to the reference trajectory and hence may be hard to distinguish, the coordinates transverse to the optic axis will be magnified by the value of scale. This feature was added by Georg Hoffstätter.

BP;

defines the beginning of a section of the system that is to be plotted, and the command

EP:

defines the end of the section. The command

PP <unit> <phi> <theta>;

plots the system to unit. Following the convention of printing graphics objects discussed in section 7.2 beginning on page 65, positive units produce a low-resolution ASCII plot of 80 columns by 24 lines, which does not require any graphics packages. Negative units correspond to various graphics standards.

The picture of the trajectories and elements is fully three dimensional and can be viewed from different angles. Phi=0 and Theta=90 correspond to the standard x projection; Phi=0 and Theta=90 correspond to the y projection; and Phi=90 and Theta=0 correspond to viewing the rays along the beam.

For use on workstations, there is also an abbreviated way to produce both an x projection and a y projection simultaneously. The command

```
PG <Unit1> <Unit2>;
```

produces both x and y pictures, including length (lower right), height (upper left) and depth (lower left) of the system. Unit1 and Unit2 denote the Graphics units (see section 7.2)

In a picture, it is sometimes advantageous to identify a particular location on the reference trajectory, for example to identify a focal plane or a plane of interest in a ring. This can be achieved with the command

```
PS < d>;
```

which draws an poincare section plane with width d at the momentary position of the reference trajectory.

3.3 Supported Elements

In this section we present a list of all elements available in COSY. They range from standard multipoles and sectors over glass lenses and electromagnetic cylindrical lenses to a general element, which allows the computation of the map of any element from measured field data. The maps of all elements can be computed to arbitrary order and with arbitrarily many parameters.

Elements based on so-called strong focusing devices like multipoles and sectors can be computed with their fringe fields or without, which is the default. Section 3.3.4 beginning on page 25 describes various fringe field computation modes available.

The simplest particle optical element, the field- and material free drift, can be applied to the map with the command

```
DL <length>;
```

The element

CB;

changes the bending direction of bending magnets and deflectors. Initially, the bending direction is clockwise. The procedure CB changes it to counterclockwise, and each additional CB switches it to the other direction. Note that it is also possible to change the bending direction of all the elements in an already computed map using the command MX (see index).

COSY supports a large ensemble of other particle optical elements, and it is very simple to add more elements. The following subsections contain a list of momentarily available elements.

3.3.1 Multipoles

COSY supports magnetic and electric multipoles in a variety of ways. There are the following magnetic multipoles:

```
MQ <length> <flux density at pole tip> <aperture>;
MH <length> <flux density at pole tip> <aperture>;
MO <length> <flux density at pole tip> <aperture>;
MD <length> <flux density at pole tip> <aperture>;
MZ <length> <flux density at pole tip> <aperture>;
```

which let a magnetic quadrupole, sextupole, octupole, decapole or duodecapole act on the map. The aperture is the distance from reference trajectory to pole tip. For the sake of speed, direct formulas for the aberrations are used for orders up to two. This feature was added by Georg Hoffstätter. There is also a superimposed multipole for multipole strengths up to order five:

```
M5 <length> <BQ >< BH >< BO >< BD >< BZ> <aperture> ;
```

And finally, there is a general superimposed magnetic multipole with arbitrary order multipoles:

```
MM <length> <MA> <NMA> <aperture>;
```

Contrary to the previous procedure, the arguments now are the array MA and the number NMA of supplied multipole terms. Besides the magnetic multipole just introduced, which satisfies midplane symmetry, there is also a routine that allows the computation of skew multipoles. The routine

```
MMS <length> <MA> <MS> <NMA> <aperture>;
```

lets a superposition of midplane symmetric and skew multipoles act on the map. The array MA contains the strengths of the midplane symmetric multipoles in the same units as above. The array MS contains the strengths of the skew multipoles; the units

are such that a pure skew 2n pole corresponds to the midplane symmetric multipole with the same strength rotated by an angle of $\pi/2n$.

Similar procedures are available for electrostatic multipoles

```
EQ <length> <voltage at pole tip> <aperture>;
EH <length> <voltage at pole tip> <aperture>;
EO <length> <voltage at pole tip> <aperture>;
ED <length> <voltage at pole tip> <aperture>;
EZ <length> <voltage at pole tip> <aperture>;
```

which let an electric quadrupole, sextupole, octupole, decapole or duodecapole act on the map. The strengths of the multipoles are described by their voltage in kV. There is an electric multipole

```
E5 <length >< EQ >< EH >< EO >< ED >< EZ> <aperture>;
```

which lets a superimposed electric multipole with components EQ through EZ act on the map, and there is the procedure

```
EM <length> <EA> <NEA> <aperture> ;
```

which lets a general electrostatic multipole with arbitrary order multipoles act on the map. Similar to the magnetic case, there are also electric skew multipoles. The routine

```
EMS <length> <EA> <ES> <NEA> <aperture> ;
```

lets a superposition of midplane symmetric and skew multipoles act on the map. The array EA contains the strengths of the midplane symmetric multipoles in the same units as above. The array ES contains the strengths of the skew multipoles; like in the magnetic case, the units are such that a pure skew 2n pole corresponds to the midplane symmetric multipole with the same strength rotated by an angle of $\pi/2n$.

3.3.2 Bending Elements

COSY INFINITY supports both magnetic and electrostatic elements including so called combined function elements with superimposed multipoles. In the case of magnetic elements, edge focusing and higher order edge effects are also supported. By default, all bending elements bend the reference trajectory clockwise, which can be changed with the command CB (see index).

The following commands let an inhomogeneous combined function bending magnet and a combined function electrostatic deflector act on the map:

MS <radius> <angle> <aperture> < n_1 >< n_2 >< n_3 >< n_4 >< n_5 >;

ES <
$$n_1$$
 >< n_2 >< n_3 >< n_4 >< n_5 >;

The radius is measured in meters, the angle in degrees, and the aperture is in meters and corresponds to half of the gap width. The indices n_i describe the midplane radial field dependence which is given by

$$F(r) = F_0 \cdot [1 - \sum_{i=1}^{5} n_i \cdot (\frac{x}{r})^i]$$

where r is the bending radius. Note that an electric cylindrical condenser has $n_1 = 1$, $n_2 = -1$, $n_3 = 1$, $n_4 = -1$, $n_5 = 1$, etc, and an electric spherical condenser has $n_1 = 1$, $n_2 = -2$, $n_3 = 3$, $n_4 = -4$, $n_5 = 5$, etc. Homogeneous dipole magnets have $n_i = 0$. The element

DI <
$$\epsilon_1$$
 > < h_1 > < ϵ_2 > < h_2 > ;

lets a homogeneous dipole with entrance edge angle ϵ_1 and entrance curvature h_1 as well as exit edge angle ϵ_2 and exit curvature h_2 act on the map. All angles are in degrees, the curvatures in 1/m, the radius is in m, and the aperture is half of the gap width. Positive edge angles correspond to weaker x focusing, and positive curvatures to weaker nonlinear x focusing.

In the sharp cut off approximation, the horizontal motion in the homogeneous dipole is based on geometry; the corresponding routines were developed by Georg Hoffstätter. The vertical effects of edge angle and curvatures is approximated by a linear and quadratic kick, which is a common approximation of hard-edge fringe field effects. As described in section 3.3.4, it is also possible to treat the influence of extended fringe fields on horizontal and vertical motion in detail and full accuracy.

A special case of the homogeneous dipole just described is the magnetic rectangle or parallel-faced dipole, in which both edge angles equal one half of the deflection angle and the curvatures are zero. For convenience, there is a dedicated routine that lets a parallel faced magnet act on the map:

Finally, there is a very general combined function bending magnet with shaped entrance and exit edges

Here N is an array containing the above n_i , and S1 and S2 are arrays containing the n coefficients $s_1, \ldots s_n$ of two n-th order polynomials describing the shape of the entrance and exit edges as

$$S(x) = s_1 \cdot x + \dots + s_n \cdot x^n$$

Again positive zeroth order terms entail weaker x focusing. In the sharp cut off approximation, the edge effects of the combined function magnet are treated as follows. All horizontal edge effects of order up to two are treated geometrically like in the case of the dipole. The vertical motion as well as the contribution to the horizontal motion due to the non-circular edges are treated by kicks. The treatment of the element in the presence of extended fringe fields is described in section 3.3.4.

Note that when comparing COSY bending elements without extended fringe fields to those of other codes, it is important to realize that some codes actually lump some fringe field effects into the terms of the main fields. For example, the code TRANSPORT gives nonzero values for the matrix elements (x,yy), which is produced by a fringe field effect, even if all fringe field options are turned off.

3.3.3 Wien Filters

Besides the purely magnetic and electric bending elements, there are routines for superimposed electric and magnetic deflectors, so-called Wien Filters or E cross B devices. The simplest Wien Filter consists of homogeneous electric and magnetic fields which are superimposed such that the reference trajectory is straight. This element is called by

The radii describe the bending power of the magnetic and electric fields, respectively. The strengths are chosen such that each one of them alone would deflect the beam with the specified radius. For positive radii, the electric field bends in the direction of positive x, and the magnetic field bends in the direction of negative x. For equal radii, there is no net deflection. There is also a combined function Wien Filter:

Here NE and NM describe the inhomogeneity of the electric and magnetic fields, respectively via

$$F(x) = F_0 \cdot [1 + \sum_{i=1}^n N(i) \cdot x^i]$$

3.3.4 Fringe Fields

A detailed analysis of particle optical systems usually requires the consideration of the effects of the fringe fields of the elements. While in the default, COSY INFINITY does

not take fringe fields into account, there are commands that allow the computation of their effects with varying degrees of accuracy and computational expense.

There are two ways of computing fringe fields of particle optical elements. The first way is based on the standardized description of the s-dependence of multipole strengths by an Enge function as in the program RAYTRACE [30]. The Enge function has the form

$$F(s) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(a_1 + a_2 \cdot (z/d) + \dots + a_6 \cdot (z/d)^5)}$$

where z is the cartesian distance to the effective field boundary. In the case of multipoles, this coincides with the arc length along the reference trajectory. The quantity d is the full aperture (in case of multipoles twice the radius) of the particle optical element, and a_1 through a_6 are the Enge coefficients.

The Enge coefficients depend on the details of the geometry of the element including shimming and saturation effects in magnetic elements. The coefficients have to be adjusted such that the Enge function fits the specific measured or computed data. There are various existing fitting programs for this purpose, one of which we believe can be obtained together with RAYTRACE [30]. Note that in the optimization process it is important that the Enge coefficients be chosen such that the effective field boundary coincides with the origin. It is also important that the fringe-field coefficients lead to an Enge function which represents the fringe field well over an interval ranging from at least three gap widths inside the element to at least four gap widths outside the element.

While the details of the fringe-field effects depend on the exact values of the Enge coefficients a_1 through a_6 and requires their exact knowledge, in many cases the bulk of the effects can be described well with default values for the coefficients. COSY uses a set of default values representing measurements of a family of unclamped multipoles used for PEP [31]. If a higher degree of accuracy is required, it is possible to input specific Enge coefficients directly. This is achieved with the command

FC <
$$a_1$$
 > < a_2 > < a_3 > < a_4 > < a_5 > < a_6 > ;

which sets the Enge coefficients a_1 through a_6 . IMP is the multipole order (1 for dipoles, 2 for quadrupoles etc). IEE identifies the data belonging to entrance (1) and exit (2) fringe fields. IME denotes magnetic (1) or electric (2) elements. Using FC repeatedly, it is possible to set coefficients for the description of all occurring elements. Any combination not explicitly set remains at the default.

Note that if all the elements in the system are of the same type, it is sufficient to call FC once for every element. In case there are different types, FC has to be called again before an element of a different type is executed. Sometimes it has proven helpful to lump several calls to FC into a procedure. One such procedure that is already part of COSY is

FD;

which sets all values to the default.

Since very detailed fringe-field calculations are sometimes rather expensive computationally, COSY allows to compute their effects with varying degrees of accuracy, which is controlled by

FR <mode>;

If mode is 0, fringe fields are disregarded, which is the default. Mode 1 entails approximate fringe fields with an accuracy comparable to the fringe-field integral method. Mode 2 entails fringe fields with an accuracy higher yet. It uses parameter dependent symplectic map representations of fringe field maps stored on files to approximate the fringe field via symplectic scaling. The default reference maps are stored in the files FF2<element>1.DAT for the entrance fringe fields and FF2<element>2.DAT for the exit fringe fields. If needed, other reference files that represent the user data more closely can be created and stored on files by WSM (see index). Such maps can be declared to be the new standard with the command

FC2 <IMP> <IEE> <file>;

which declares file to be the actual reference file for the fringe field described by IMP and IEE; the meaning of IMP and IEE is discussed above for the command FC. The original default files can be reactivated by

FD2;

the fringe field mode 2 is especially helpful in the final design stages of a realistic system after approximate parameters of the elements have been obtained by neglecting fringe fields or with fringe field mode 1. The last step of the optimization can then be made using the default scaled fringe field maps. A very high degree of accuracy almost equal to that of the fringe field mode 3 discussed below can be obtained by computing new fringe field reference maps with the command WSM based on the approximate values obtained by the previous fits. The fringe field mode 2 was implemented by Georg Hoffstätter.

Mode 3 finally produces the most accurate fringe fields, at a computational expense typically more than one order of magnitude higher than that of mode 2. In this case, the accuracy is limited only by the accuracy of the numerical integrator which can be set with the procedure

ESET $<\epsilon>$;

where ϵ is the maximum error in the weighted phase space norm discussed in connection with the procedure WSET (see index). The default for ϵ is 10^{-8} and can be adjusted downwards somewhat if needed.

It is possible to change the computation mode within the computation. Whenever a new fringe-field mode is desired, FR has to be called again with the new mode. This

mode remains in effect until FR is called again.

It is also possible to calculate fringe fields of elements alone. If mode is set to -1, only entrance fringe fields of all listed elements are computed, and if mode is set to -2, only exit fringe fields are computed. In both cases, the computation is fully accurate. These maps can be used in two ways: if the fringe fields do not change anymore, the data can stored and re-used with the commands SM and AM or also PM and RM (see section 3.2.3. In the case the maps of entrance or exit fringe fields are re-used in this way, it is important to turn all fringe fields off with the command FR 0 because otherwise the fringe fields are taken into account twice. It is also important that in the case of bending elements with non-perpendicular entrance or exit (see section 3.3.2), the fringe-field maps computed using FR -1 and FR -2 do not contain the effects of any curved entrance and exit plane. In the case fringe-field maps are re-used later with turned off fringe fields, it is thus important to leave all edge effects in the body of the element.

Using modes -1 and -2, it is also possible to determine new fringe-field reference maps that can be used with symplectic scaling using the commands WSM and RSM.

Besides the computation of fringe-field effects in the formalism of Enge type multipole functions, fringe-field effects can also be computed with the general particle optical element GE discussed in section 3.3.8 beginning on page 30. This allows the treatment of strongly overlapping fringe fields or fringe fields that cannot be represented well by Enge functions.

In the case of straight multipole elements, in the midplane the total fringe field is the sum of the individual multipole components which fall off with their respective Enge functions. The nonlinearities of the off-plane fields are computed from this information in agreement with Maxwell's equations [1] In the case of the dipole element DI, the Enge function modulates the fall off of the midplane dipole field perpendicular to the edge of the magnet. As long as the edges are long enough, this allows a very accurate description both for straight and circular edges, where circular edges may require Enge coefficients that differ slightly from those of straight edges with the same aperture. Again, the off midplane fields are computed in agreement with Maxwell's equations.

In the case of all other bending elements, certain models have to be used to describe the details of the fringe field fall off in the Enge model. In the case of the inhomogeneous magnet MS, the inhomogeneity of the field which is determined by the distance to the center of deflection is modulated with an Enge fall off. In the case of the combined function magnet MC, the inhomogeneity of the field is modulated by a fall off function following as in the case of the dipole whose edge angles and curvatures are chosen to match the linear and quadratic parts of the curves described by S1 and S2. The remaining higher order edge effects are superimposed by nonlinear kicks before and after the element.

For general purpose bending magnets, it is rather difficult to formulate field models

that describe all details to a high accuracy, and hence the accuracy of the computation of aberrations is limited by these unavoidable deficiencies. In case field measurements are available, the general element GE allows a detailed analysis of such measured data.

3.3.5 Wigglers and Undulators

COSY INFINITY allows the computation of the maps of wigglers. For the midplane field inside the wiggler, we use the following model:

$$B_m(x,z) = B_0 \cos(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}z + k \cdot z^2)$$

At the entrance and exit, the main field is tapered by an Enge function

$$B(x,z) = \frac{B_m(x,z)}{1 + \exp(a_1 + a_2 \frac{z}{d} + \dots + a_{10} (\frac{z}{d})^9)}$$

The wiggler is represented by the following routine:

$$WI < B_0 > < \lambda >$$

where L is the length and d is the half gap. If I=0, the fringe field is modeled with some default values of the coefficients a_i . If I=1, the user is required to supply the values of a_1 to a_{10} for the entrance fringe field in the array A. The exit fringe field is assumed to have the same shape as the entrance fringe field. The Wiggler Routine was developed by M. Zhao.

3.3.6 Cavities

There is a model for a simple cavity in COSY INFINITY. It provides an energy gain that is position dependent but occurs over an infinitely thin region. The potential gain is described by

$$V = P(x, y) \cdot \sin(\omega \cdot t - \phi)$$

The cavity is represented by the following routine:

RF
$$\langle V \rangle \langle I \rangle \langle \omega \rangle \langle \phi \rangle \langle d \rangle$$
;

where V is a two dimensional array containing the coefficients of a polynomial of order I describing the influence of the position as

$$P(x,y) = \sum_{j,k=0}^{I} V(j+1,k+1) \cdot x^{j} \cdot y^{k}$$

and d is the aperture. This procedure was supplied by Meng Zhao.

3.3.7 Cylindrical Electromagnetic Lenses

COSY INFINITY also allows the use of a variety of cylindrical lenses, in which focusing effects occur only due to fringe field effects. The simplest such element consists of only one ring of radius d that carries a current I. The on-axis field of such a ring is given by

$$B(s) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2d} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(1 + (z/d)^2\right)^{3/2}}$$
.

This current ring is represented by the procedure

CMR $\langle I \rangle \langle d \rangle$;

A magnetic field of more practical significance is that of the so-called Glaser lens, which represents a good approximation of the fields generated by strong magnetic lenses with short magnetic pole pieces [28]. The lens is characterized by the field

$$B(s) = \frac{B}{1 + (s/d)^2} ,$$

where B is the maximum field in Tesla and d is the half-width of the field. The Glaser lens is invoked by calling the procedure

A third magnetic round lens available in COSY is the solenoid with the following field distribution:

$$B(s) = B(\cdot \tanh[s/d] - \tanh[(s-l)/d])$$

where B is the field strength inside the solenoid, d is its aperture and l its length. The solenoid is invoked by the procedure

CMS
$$\langle B \rangle \langle d \rangle \langle l \rangle$$
;

There is a fourth magnetic round lens with a Gaussian potential

$$A(s) = A_0 \cdot \exp[-(s/d)^2]$$

which is invoked with the procedure

Besides the magnetic round lenses, there are various electrostatic round lenses. The element

$$CEL < L > < V > < d > < c >$$
;

lets an electrostatic lens consisting of three tubes act on the map. The geometry of the lens consists of three coaxial tubes with identical radii d, of which the outer ones are on ground potential and the inner one is at potential V. The length of the middle tube is L, and the distance between the central tube and each of the outside tubes is c. Such an arrangement of three tubes can be shown to produce an axis potential of the form

$$V(s) = \frac{V}{2\omega/dc} \left(\ln \frac{\cosh\left(\omega(s+L/2)/d\right)}{\cosh\left(\omega(s+L/2+c)/d\right)} + \ln \frac{\cosh\left(\omega(s-L/2)/d\right)}{\cosh\left(\omega(s-L/2-c)/d\right)} \right) \ ,$$

where the value of the constant ω is 1.315. For details, refer to [26]. An often used approximation for electrostatic lenses is described by a potential distribution of the following form

$$V(s) = V_0 \cdot \exp[-(s/d)^2] .$$

A lens with this field can be invoked by calling the routine

$$\mathbf{CEG} < V_0 > < d > ;$$

All round lenses are computed using COSY's 11th order Runge Kutta DA integrator. The computational accuracy can be changed from its default of 10^{-8} using the procedure ESET (see index).

3.3.8 General Particle Optical Element

In this section, we present a procedure that allows the computation of an arbitrary order map for a completely general optical element whose fields are described by measurements along the independent variable s. Its use ranges from special measured fringe fields over dedicated electrostatic lenses to the computation of maps for cyclotron orbits. It can also be used to custom build new elements that are frequently used (see section 5.7 on page 51).

$$GE < n > < m > < S > < H > < V > < W > ;$$

lets an arbitrary particle optical element act on the map. The element is characterized by arrays specifying the values of multipole strengths at the n positions along the independent variable contained in the array S. The array H contains the corresponding curvatures at the positions in S. V and W contain the electric and magnetic scalar potentials in S.

The elements in V and W have to be DA variables containing the momentary derivatives in the x direction (variable 1) and s direction (variable 2). m is the order of the s-derivatives. One way to compute these DA variables is to write two COSY functions that compute V and W as a function of x and s. Suppose these functions are called VFUN(X,S) and WFUN(X,S), then the requested DA variable can be stored in V and W with the commands

```
V(I) := VFUN(0+DA(1),S(I)+DA(2));
W(I) := WFUN(0+DA(1),S(I)+DA(2));
```

The map of the general element is computed using COSY's 11th order Runge Kutta DA integrator. The computational accuracy can be changed from its default of 10⁻⁸ using the procedure ESET (see index).

3.3.9 Glass Lenses and Mirrors

COSY INFINITY also allows the computation of higher order effects of general glass optical systems. At the present time, it contains elements for spherical lenses and mirrors, parabolic lenses and mirrors, and general surface lenses and mirrors, where the surface is described by a polynomial. There is also a prism. All these elements can be combined to systems like particle optical elements, including misalignments. The dispersion of the glass can be treated very elegantly by making the index of refraction a parameter using the function PARA. The routines were written by Meng Zhao.

The command

lets a spherical glass lens act on the map. R1 and R2 are the radii of the spheres; positive radii correspond to the center of the sphere to be to the right. N is the index of refraction, L is the thickness, and d the aperture radius. The command

$$GL < P1 > < I1 > < P2 > < I2 > < N > < L > < d > :$$

lets a glass lens whose surface is specified by two polynomials of orders I1 and I2 act on the map. P1 and P2 are two dimensional arrays containing the coefficients of the polynomials in x and y that describe the s position of the entrance and exit surface as a function of x and y in the following way:

$$P(x,y) = \sum_{k,l}^{I} P(k+1,l+1)x^{k}y^{l}$$

= $P(1,1) + P(2,1) \cdot x + P(1,2) \cdot y + ...$

N is the index of refraction, L the thickness of the lens and d its aperture. The command GP <PHI1> <PHI2> <N> <L> <d>;

lets a glass prism act on the map. PHI1 and PHI2 are the entrance and exit angles measured with respect to the momentary reference trajectory, N is the index of refraction, L the thickness along the reference trajectory, and d is the aperture radius.

Besides the refractive glass optical elements, there are mirrors. The command

GMS < R >;

lets a spherical mirror with radius R act on the map. The command

GMP < R > ;

lets a parabolic mirror with central radius of curvature R act on the map. The command

GMF;

lets a flat mirror act on the map. The command

GM < P > < I > ;

lets a general glass mirror act on the map. P is a two dimensional array containing the coefficients of the polynomial in x and y that describes the surface in the same way as with GL, and is the dimension.

3.4 MAD Input

Many existing accelerator lattices are described in the MAD standard [21, 22]. To allow the use of such MAD lattices in COSY, there is a conversion utility that transforms MAD lattices to the COSY lattices. This utility was written by Roger Servranckx using the original MAD compiler source code which was written by Christopher Iselin. The MAD to COSY conversion utility is a separate FORTRAN program with the name MADCOSY and is included in the shipment of COSY files.

The program MADCOSY is based on MAD version 5. The important beamline elements are translated into the respective ones in COSY; these include drifts, multipoles, superimposed multipoles, and bends. Some elements supported by MAD are translated to drifts and may have to be adjusted manually.

To generate a COSY deck from a MAD deck, the end of the MAD deck should have the form

USE, <name of beamline>

STOP

where according to the MAD syntax, the USE command specifies the beamline to be translated, and the command COSY actually generates the COSY source.

3.5 Misalignments

The differential algebraic concept allows a particularly simple and systematic treatment of misalignment errors in optical systems. Such an error is represented by a coordinate change similar to the one discussed in section 4.1. COSY offers three different misalignment commands. The command

The first command offsets the optic axis by DX in x direction and DY in y direction. DX and DY are counted positive if the optic axis is shifted in direction of positive x and y, respectively. The command

represents a tilt of the optic axis by an angle in degrees of AX in x direction and AY in y direction. AX and AY are counted positive if the direction of tilt is in the direction of positive x and y, respectively. The command

RA < ANGLE > ;

represents a rotation of the optic axis around ANGLE measured in degrees. ANGLE is counted positive if the rotation is counterclockwise if viewed in the direction of the beam. The routine RA can be used to rotate a given particle optical element by placing it between counteracting rotations. This can for example be used for the study of skew multipoles. However, note that it is not possible to rotate different multipole components by different angles. This can be achieved with the routines MMS and EMS discussed in section 3.3.1.

In order to simulate a single particle optical element that is offset in positive x direction, it is necessary to have the element preceded by an axis shift with negative value and followed by an axis shift with positive value. Similarly simple geometric considerations tell how to treat single tilted and rotated elements.

The misalignment routines can also be used to study beams that are injected off the optical axis of the system. In this case, just one of each misalignment commands is necessary at the beginning of the system.

We note that the misalignment routines, like most other COSY routines, can be called both with real number and differential algebraic arguments, in particular using the PARA argument (see section 5.2). The first case allows the simulation of a fixed

given misalignment, whereas the second case allows to compute the map depending on the misalignment.

In the first case, the values of the computed transfer map are only approximate if SA and TA are used. The accuracy increases with decreasing misalignments and increasing calculation orders. For the study of misalignments of elements, the actual accuracy is usually rather high since the values of the misalignments are usually very small. In the case of a deliberate offset of the beam, for example for the study of injection and extraction processes, it may be necessary to increase the computation order to obtain accurate results. In the second case, the results are always accurate. The command RA always produces accurate results in both cases.

4 Analyzing Systems with COSY

4.1 Image Aberrations

Very often not the matrix elements of the transfer map are of primary significance, but rather the maximum size of the resulting aberration for the phase space defined with SB and the parameters defined with SP. COSY provides two tools to obtain the aberrations directly. The command

PA <unit>

prints all aberrations to unit in a similar way as PM. If not all aberrations are of interest, the COSY function

MA (<phase space variable>,<element identifier>)

returns the momentary value of the aberration. The phase space variable is a number from 1 to 6 corresponding to x, a, y, b, t, d, and the element identifier is an integer whose digits denote the above variables. For example, MA(1,122) returns the momentary value of the aberration due to the matrix element (x,xaa).

For comparison and other reasons, it is often helpful to express the map in other coordinates than those used by COSY (see section 3.2.1, for example the ones used in TRANSPORT [3] and GIOS [5, 19]. The routine

PT <unit>:

prints the map in Transport and GIOS coordinates to unit. This feature was partly developed by Georg Hoffstätter.

We want to point out that in the differential algebraic concept, it is particularly simple to perform such nonlinear coordinate changes to arbitrary orders. In order to print maps in yet different coordinates, the user can make a procedure that begins with

a unity map, applies the transformation to COSY coordinates, applies the COSY map, and then applies the transformation back to the original coordinates.

4.2 Analysis of Spectrographs

To first order, the resolution $\Delta \delta$ of an imaging spectrograph is given by the following simple formula:

$$\Delta \delta = \frac{(x,x) \cdot 2X_0}{(x,d)}$$

where X_0 is the half width of the slit or aperture at the entrance of the device. Here δ can be any one of the quantities δ_k , δ_m and δ_z , and it is assumed that to first order, the final position does not depend on the other quantities, or all particles have the same initial values for the other quantities.

In all but the simplest spectrographs, however, it is important to consider higher order effects as well as the finite resolution of the detectors. Usually these effects decrease the resolution, more so for larger initial phase spaces and low detector resolutions. The resolution of the spectrograph under these limitations can be computed with the following command

$$AR < MAP > < X > < A > < Y > < B > < D > < PR > < N > < R > ;$$

where MAP is the map of the spectrograph to be studied, X, A, Y, B and D are the half widths of the beam at the entrance of the spectrograph, PR is the resolution of the detector, and R is the resulting resolution of the spectrograph. To compute the resolution, a total of N particles are distributed randomly and uniformly within a square initial phase space and then sent through the map. Then the measurement error is introduced by adding a uniformly distributed random number between -PR and PR to the x coordinate. The width of the resulting blob of measurements is computed, where it is assumed that the blob is again filled uniformly.

In many cases the resolution of spectrographs can be increased substantially with the technique of trajectory reconstruction [32]. For this purpose, positions of each particle are actually measured in two detector planes, which is equivalent to knowing the particle's positions and directions.

Assuming that the particle went through the origin, the energy of the particle is uniquely determined by some complicated nonlinear implicit equations [32]. Using DA methods, it is possible to solve these equations analytically and relate the energy of the particle to the four measured quantities. Besides the energy, it is also possible to compute the initial angle in the dispersive plane, the initial position in the non-dispersive plane, and the angle in the non-dispersive plane. The accuracy of these equations is limited

only by the measurement accuracy and by the entering spot size in the dispersive plane. This is performed by the command

$$RR < MAP > < X > < A > < Y > < B > < D > < PR > < AR > < N > < O > < MR > < R > ;$$

where the parameters are as before, except that AR is the resolution in the measurement of the angle, and O is the order to which the trajectory reconstruction is to be performed. On return, MR is the nonlinear four by four map relating initial a, y, b and d to the measured final x, a, y, b Using these relationships as well as the measurement errors and the finite dispersive spot size, the resolution array R containing the resolutions of the initial a, y, b and d is computed by testing N randomly selected rays and subjecting them to statistical measurement errors similarly as with the computation of the uncorrected resolution.

4.3 Analysis of Rings

Instead of by their transfer matrices, the linear motion in particle optical systems is often described by the tune and twiss parameters. These quantities being particularly important for repetitive systems, they allow a direct answer to questions of linear stability, beam envelopes, etc. In many practical problems, their dependence on parameters is very important. For example, the dependence of the tune on energy, the chromaticity, is a very crucial quantity for the design of systems. Using the maps with knobs, they can be computed totally automatically without any extra effort. The command

TP < MU > ;

computes the tunes which are stored in the one dimensional array with three entries MU which is defined by the user. In most cases, an allocation length of 100 should be sufficient, and so the declaration of MU could read

VARIABLE MU 100 3;

If the system is run with parameters, MU will contain DA vectors describing how the respective tunes depend on the parameters. Note that COSY INFINITY can also compute amplitude dependent tune shifts in the framework of normal form theory. This is described in detail in section 4.6 beginning on page 41.

Often the Twiss parameters as well as the fixed points are also of importance. They can be computed using the command

$$GT < MM > < F > < NU > < ALPHA > < BETA > < GAMMA > < R > ;$$

It computes the fixed point F, the tunes NU and the Twiss parameters ALPHA, BETA and GAMMA from the map MM. It also computes the determinant of the linear map R, which is relevant for damped systems. Note again that as soon as the computation of the map is performed with parameters, all the quantities computed by GT

automatically contain the dependence on these knobs. So a direct computation of the parameter dependent fixed point or the energy dependence of ALPHA is possible.

Finally there is also the routine

which allows to set the linear part of the matrix to the specified values. This is often helpful to set a certain pre-specified orientation of the phase space ellipse.

The linear and nonlinear momentum compaction $(dl/dp) \cdot p/l$ can be computed with the routine

Alternatively, it also possible to compute the Energy compaction (dr_5/dr_6) with the routine

The momentum compaction routines were added by Georg Hoffstätter.

4.4 Symplectic Representations

In this section, we will present two different representations for symplectic maps, each one of which has certain advantages. Particle optical systems described by Hamiltonian motion satisfy the symplectic condition

$$M^t \cdot J \cdot M = J$$

where M is the Jacobian Matrix of partial derivatives of \mathcal{M} , and J has the form

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

As long as there is no damping, all particle optical systems are Hamiltonian, and so the maps are symplectic up to possibly computation errors if they are generated numerically. There is a COSY function that checks if a certain map satisfies the symplectic condition:

SE < M > ;

Here <M> is an array of DA quantities describing the map. Note that the momentary value of the transfer map is stored in the global COSY variable MAP. The value of the function is the weighted maximum norm of the matrix $(M \cdot J \cdot M^t - J)$. The weighting is done such that the maximum error on a cubic phase space with half edge W is computed. The default value for W is .1, which may be too large for many cases. The value of W can be set with the procedure

WSET $\langle W \rangle$;

In some instances, it may be desirable to symplectify maps that are not fully symplectic. While the standard elements of COSY are symplectic to close to machine precision, the low accuracy fringe field modes (see section 3.3.4) violate symplecticity noticeably. Depending on the coarseness of the measured field data, this may also occur in the general element discussed in section 3.3.8. To a much lesser extent symplecticity is violated by intrinsic elements requiring numerical integration, like the high-precision fringe fields and the round lenses discussed in section 3.3.7. The command

SY < M > ;

symplectifies the map M using the generating function (see below) which is most accurate for the given map.

Symplectic maps can be represented by at least one of four generating functions in mixed variables:

$$\begin{split} F_1(q_i,q_f) \text{ satisfying } (\vec{p}_i,\vec{p}_f) &= (\vec{\nabla}_{q_i}F_1,-\vec{\nabla}_{q_f}F_1) \\ F_2(q_i,p_f) \text{ satisfying } (\vec{p}_i,\vec{q}_f) &= (\vec{\nabla}_{q_i}F_2,\vec{\nabla}_{P_f}F_2) \\ F_3(p_i,q_f) \text{ satisfying } (\vec{q}_i,\vec{p}_f) &= (-\vec{\nabla}_{p_i}F_3,-\vec{\nabla}_{q_f}F_3) \\ F_4(p_i,p_f) \text{ satisfying } (\vec{q}_i,\vec{q}_f) &= (-\vec{\nabla}_{p_i}F_4,\vec{\nabla}_{p_f}F_4) \end{split}$$

In the generating function representation there are no interrelationships between the coefficients due to symplecticity like in the transfer map, so the generating function representation is more compact. Furthermore, it is often an important tool for the symplectification of tracking data. The command

attempts to compute the I th generating function of the specified map M. If IER is equal to zero, this generating function exists and is contained in F. If IER is nonzero, it does not exist. While in principle, any generating function that exists represents the map, especially for high order maps, certain inaccuracies often result for numerical reasons. If I is chosen to be -1, the generating function representing the linear part of

the map best is determined. For I equal to -2, the generating function representing the whole map best is computed. The case I = -2 is very expensive computationally and should only be used in crucial cases for high orders. In both cases, on return I contains the number of the chosen generating function.

The map which corresponds to a generating function F of type I is obtained by $\mathbf{GFM} < \mathbf{M} > < \mathbf{F} > < \mathbf{I} > ;$

Other redundancy free representations of symplectic transfer maps are Lie factorizations including the Dragt-Finn factorization [33, 34, 8]. They are based on Lie transformation operators of the form

$$\exp(:f:) = 1 + :f: + \frac{:f:^2}{2} + ...$$

where f is a function of the canonical coordinates q_i and p_i . The colon denotes a Poisson bracket waiting to happen, i.e. $: f : g = \{f, g\}$. When \vec{x}_f describes a final set of canonical coordinates with $\vec{x} = (q_1, p_1, \ldots, q_n, p_n)$ and \vec{x}_i describes an initial set, then $\vec{x}_f = \exp(: f :) \vec{x}_i$ is a symplectic mapping. Those Lie transformation operators have the property

$$e^{:f:}(g(\vec{x})) = g(e^{:f:}\vec{x})$$

for any function $g:\Re^{2n}\to\Re$ with n being the dimension of the required configuration space. Therefore we find

$$e^{:f:}(e^{:g:}\vec{x}) = (e^{:g:}\vec{x}) \circ (e^{:f:}\vec{x})$$

The circle o symbolizes the composition of maps. Two composed symplectic maps are therefore represented by the product of their Lie transformation operators in reversed order. As an example, a symplectic map can be written in the form

$$\tilde{L}e^{:f_{>}:}\vec{x}+\vec{C}$$

were \tilde{L} is an operator such that $\tilde{L}\vec{x}$ is the linear part of the map, $f_{>}$ is a polynomial in the x_i containing only orders higher than 2. Finally \tilde{C} represents the constant part of the map. As mentioned previously this representation is equal to

$$(e^{:f>:}\vec{x})\circ(\tilde{L}\vec{x})+\vec{C}$$

Besides this factorization, there are various others that are similar and have certain advantages [8]. They are shown in the table below. As shown in [8], it is one of the strong points of the map representation and the differential algebraic techniques that the computation of these Dragt-Finn factorization is possible to arbitrary order with a relatively simple algorithm. It is actually much easier to compute them from the map than using Lie algebraic techniques alone. The command

computes the factorization from the transfer map MA. On return, the vector C contains the constant part, M the linear part and F contains the f_i from the table. In case of the last four factorization F has to be an array. I is the identifier of the factorization following the numbering in the table.

```
\begin{array}{lll} 1 & : & \mathcal{M}(\vec{x}) =_n \tilde{L} \exp(:f_{>}:)\vec{x} + \vec{C} \\ -1 & : & \mathcal{M}(\vec{x}) =_n \exp(:f_{>}:)\tilde{L}\vec{x} + \vec{C} \\ 2 & : & \mathcal{M}(\vec{x}) =_n \tilde{L} \exp(:f_3:) \exp(:f_4:) \ldots \exp(:f_{n+1}:)\vec{x} + \vec{C} \\ -2 & : & \mathcal{M}(\vec{x}) =_n \exp(:f_{n+1}:) \ldots \exp(:f_3:)\tilde{L}\vec{x} + \vec{C} \\ 3 & : & \mathcal{M}(\vec{x}) =_{2^{n+1}} \tilde{L} \exp(:f_{3,3}:) \exp(:f_{4,5}:) \exp(:f_{6,9}:) \ldots \exp(:f_{(2^n+2),(2^{n+1}+1)}:)\vec{x} + \vec{C} \\ -3 & : & \mathcal{M}(\vec{x}) =_{2^{n+1}} \exp(:f_{2^n+2,2^{n+1}+1}:) \ldots \exp(:f_{6,9}:) \exp(:f_{4,5}:) \exp(:f_{3,3}:)\tilde{L}\vec{x} + \vec{C} \end{array}
```

Here f_i denotes homogeneous polynomials of exact order i and $f_{i,j}$ polynomials with orders from i to j. Given a factorization, the command

LFM
$$<$$
MA> $<$ C> $<$ M> $<$ F> $<$ I>:

calculates the according map. The command

$$\mathbf{LFLF} < \mathbf{C} > < \mathbf{M} > < \mathbf{F} > < \mathbf{P} > < \mathbf{I} > < \mathbf{J} > ;$$

computes the factorization of type J with exponent P from a factorization of type I with exponent F. Without the map representation this would be a very elaborate task, because the Campbell-Baker-Hausdorff formula would be needed to the appropriate order. Several of the features described in this section were developed by Georg Hoffstätter.

4.5 Repetitive Tracking

COSY allows very efficient repetitive tracking of particles through maps. The command

tracks the momentary particles through the momentary map for the required number of iterations N. After each Np iterations the position of the phase space projection ID1-ID2 is drawn to unit IU. If these projections get larger than d1, d2, they will not be drawn. The tracking is performed with the generating function F of type TY (see page 38). If F and TY are chosen to be 0, the track is performed without symplectification. In case F is 0 and TY is negative, symplectic tracking is performed by symplectifying the linear map \mathcal{M}_L and representing the map $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{M} \circ \mathcal{M}_L^{-1}$ by the generating function of type |TY|. Because the linear part of \mathcal{N} is the unity map, TY can only be -2 or -3 for that purpose. As discussed in section 7.2.2, if needed the coordinates can also be output

directly for future manipulation. The symplectic tracking modes were added by Georg Hoffstätter.

The algorithm used for tracking is highly optimized for speed. Using the vector data type for particle coordinates, it works most efficiently if many particles are tracked simultaneously. On scalar machines, optimum efficiency is obtained when more than about 20 particles are tracked simultaneously. On vector machines, the algorithm vectorizes completely, and for best efficiency, the number of particles should be a multiple of the length of the hardware vector.

In both cases, logistics overhead necessary for the bookkeeping is almost completely negligible, and the computation time is almost entirely spent on arithmetic. It is also worth mentioning that using an optimal tree transversal algorithm, zero terms occurring in a map do not contribute to computation time.

4.6 Amplitude Tune Shifts and Normal Form

COSY INFINITY contains an implementation of the DA normal form algorithm described in [35]. This replaces the COSY implementation of the somewhat less efficient and less general mixed DA-Lie normal form [15]. Normal Form algorithms provide nonlinear transformations to new coordinates in which the motion is simpler. They allow the determination of pseudo invariants of the system, and they are the only tool so far to compute amplitude tune shifts. As pointed out in [36], chromaticities and parameter dependent tune shifts can be computed more directly. Their computation is described in section 4.3 beginning on page 36. The command

NF < EPS > < MA >;

computes the normal form transformation map MA of the momentary transfer map. This variable has to be allocated by the user, and in most cases

VARIABLE MA 1000 8;

should be sufficient. Since the normal form algorithm has a small denominator problem, it is not always possible to perform a transformation to coordinates in which the motion is given by circles. The variable EPS sets the minimum size of a resonance denominator that is not removed. The command

TS < MU > ;

employs the normal form algorithm to compute all the tune shifts of the system, both the ones depending on amplitude and the ones depending on parameters like chromaticities, which alone can be computed more efficiently as shown in section 4.3. MU is a one dimensional array with three entries which is defined by the user. In most cases, an allocation length of 100 should be sufficient, and so the declaration of MU could read

VARIABLE MU 100 3;

On return, MU will contain the tune shifts with amplitudes and parameters as DA vectors. If the system is run with parameters, MU will contain DA vectors describing how the respective tunes depend on the amplitudes (first, third and possibly fifth exponents for x, y and t) and parameters (beginning in columns five or 7)

Note that in some cases when the system is on or very near a resonance or is even unstable, the normal form algorithm fails because of a small denominator problem. In this case, the respective tunes will be returned as zero. This also happens sometimes if the map is supposed to be symplectic yet is slightly off because of computational inaccuracies. In this case, the use of the procedure SY (see index) is recommended.

The normal form method can also be used to compute resonance strengths, which tell how sensitive a system is to certain resonances. Often the behavior of repetitive systems can be substantially improved by reducing the resonance strengths. These are computed with the procedure

$$RS < RES >$$
;

where upon return RES is a complex DA vector that contains the resonance strengths. The $2 \cdot N$ exponents n_i^+, n_i^- in each component describe the resonance of the tunes ν as

$$(\vec{n}_i^+ - \vec{n}_i^-) \cdot \vec{\nu}.$$

5 Examples

This section provides several examples for the use of core features of COSY. The code DEMO.FOX which is sent out with COSY contains many more programs that can serve as demonstrations. Further ideas how to use the COSY language can also be obtained by studying COSY.FOX.

5.1 A Simple Sequence of Elements

After having discussed the particle optical elements and features available in COSY INFINITY in the previous sections, we now discuss the computation of maps of simple systems.

We begin with the computation of the transfer map of a quadrupole doublet to tenth order. Here the COSY input resembles the input of many other optics codes [6, 5].

```
INCLUDE 'COSY';

PROCEDURE RUN;

OV 10 2 0; {order 10, phase space dim 2, # of parameters 0}

RP 10 4 2; {kinetic energy 10 MeV, mass 4 amu, charge 2}
```

```
UM; {sets map to unity}
DL .1; {drift of length .1 m}
MQ .2 .1 .05; {quad; length .2 m, field .1 T, aperture .05 m}
DL .1;
MQ .2 -.1 .05; {defocussing quad}
DL .1;
PM 11; {prints map to unit 11}
ENDPROCEDURE;
RUN; END;
```

The first few lines of the resulting transfer map on unit 11 look like this:

```
0.7084974
              -0.1798230
                             0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 100000
0.6952214
                1.234984
                             0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 010000
0.000000E+00 0.000000E+00 1.234984
                                          -0.1798230
                                                        0.0000000E+00 001000
0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.6952214
                                           0.7084974
                                                        0.000000E+00 000100
-0.7552782E-01-0.5173663E-01 0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.000000E+00 300000
0.2751172
              0.1728297
                             0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.000000E+00 210000
                             0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 120000
-0.4105719
             -0.2057598
0.3541071
              0.8137949E-01 0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.000000E+00 030000
0.0000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.5676311E-01-0.5150457E-01 0.0000000E+00 201000
```

The different columns correspond to the final coordinates x, a, y, b and t. The lines contain the various expansion coefficients, which are identified by the exponents of the initial condition. For example, the last entry in the third column is the expansion coefficient (y,xxy).

5.2 Maps with Knobs

The DA approach easily allows to compute maps not only depending on phase space variables, but also on system parameters. This can be very helpful for different reasons. For example, it directly tells how sensitive the system is to errors in a particular quantity. In the same way it can be used to find out ideal positions to place correcting elements. Furthermore, it can be very helpful for the optimization of systems, and sometimes very fast convergence can be achieved with it (for details, see section 7.1).

In the context of COSY INFINITY, the treatment of such system parameters or knobs is particularly elegant.

In the following example, we compute the map of a system depending on the strength of one quadrupole. The COSY function PARA(I) is used, which identifies the quantity as parameter number I by turning it into an appropriate DA vector.

```
INCLUDE 'COSY';
```

In this context it is important that the COSY language supports freedom of types at compile time; so the second argument of the quad can be either real or DA. For details, consult section 6.

The idea of maps with knobs can also be used to compute the dependence on the particle mass and charge as well as on energy in case time of flight terms are not needed. In the following example, the map of the quad doublet is computed including the dependence on energy, mass and charge.

```
INCLUDE 'COSY' :
PROCEDURE RUN :
                           {order 5, phase space dim 2, parameters 3}
   OV 5 2 3 ;
   RP 10*PARA(1) 4*PARA(2) 2*PARA(3);
                                          {sets kinetic energy, mass
                                          and charge as DA quantities}
   UM ;
   DL .1;
   MQ .2 .1 .05;
   DL .1:
   MQ .2 -.1 .05 ;
   DL .1;
   PM 11 ;
                           {prints map with dependence on energy,
                            mass and charge, to unit 11}
   ENDPROCEDURE :
RUN ; END ;
```

5.3 Grouping of Elements

Usually it is necessary to group a set of elements together into a cell. For example, since most circular accelerators are built of several at least almost identical cells, it is

5.4 Optimization 45

desirable to refer to the cell as a block. Similar situations often occur for spectrometers or microscopes if similar quad multiplets are used repetitively.

Grouping is easily accomplished in COSY by just putting the elements into a procedure. In the following example, the strength of a quadrupole in the cell of an accelerator is adjusted manually such that the motion in both planes is stable. Since the motions are stable if the two traces are less than two in magnitude, the map is printed to the screen which allows a direct check.

```
INCLUDE 'COSY' :
PROCEDURE RUN ; VARIABLE QS 1 :
                                   {declare a real variable}
  PROCEDURE CELL Q H1 H2 ;
                                   {defines a cell of a ring}
     DL .3 ; DI 10 20 .1 0 0 0 0 ; DL .1 ; MH .1 H1 .05 ;
     DL .1 ; MQ .1 Q .05 ;
                               DL .3; MH .1 H2 .05;
  ENDPROCEDURE ;
 OV 3 2 0 ; RPP 1000 ;
                             {third order, one GeV protons}
  QS := .1 ;
                               {set initial value for quad}
  WHILE QS#0; WRITE 6 'GIVE QS '; READ 5 QS ;
     UM ; CELL QS 0 0 ; PM 6 ; WRITE 6 ME(3,3) ;
     ENDWHILE :
ENDPROCEDURE ; RUN ; END ;
```

Obviously, such groupings can be nested if necessary, and parameters on which the elements in the group depend can be passed freely. Note that calling a group entails that all elements in it are executed; so grouping is not a means to reduce execution time, but a way to organize complicated systems into easily manageable parts. Reduction of execution time can be achieved by saving maps of subsystems that do not change using SM and AM discussed above.

5.4 Optimization

One of the most important tasks in the design of optical systems is the optimization of certain parameters of the system to meet certain specifications. Because of the importance of optimization, there is direct support from the COSY language via the FIT and ENDFIT commands. COSY provides several FORTRAN based optimizers; a detailed description of the optimizers available in COSY can be found in section 7.1.

In the first example we illustrate a simple optimization task: to fit the strengths of the quadrupoles of a symmetric triplet to perform stigmatic point-to-point imaging. To monitor the optimization process, the momentary values of the quad strengths and the objective function are printed to the screen. Furthermore, a graphic display of the system at each step of the optimizer is displayed in two graphic windows, one for each phase space projection, creating a movie-like effect. At the end, the final picture of the x projection of the system is printed in LATEX picture format for inclusion in this manual.

```
INCLUDE 'COSY' :
PROCEDURE RUN :
   VARIABLE Q1 1 ; VARIABLE Q2 1 ; VARIABLE OBJ 1 ;
  PROCEDURE TRIPLET A B ;
     MQ .1 A .05; DL .05; MQ .1 -B .05; DL .05; MQ .1 A .05;
     ENDPROCEDURE:
  OV 1 2 0 ;
  RP 1 1 1;
  SB .15 .15 .15 .15 0 0 ;
  Q1 := .5 ; Q2 := .5 ;
  FIT Q1 Q2 :
     UM; CR; ER 1 3 1 3 1 1 1 1;
     BP; DL .2; TRIPLET Q1 Q2; DL .2; EP;
     PP -1 0 0 ; PP -51 0 90 ;
     OBJ := ABS(ME(1,2)) + ABS(ME(3,4)) ;
     WRITE 6 'STRENGTHS Q1, Q2, OBJECTIVE FUNCTION: ' Q1 Q2 OBJ;
     ENDFIT 1E-5 1000 1 OBJ ; PP -7 0 0 ; PP -7 0 90 ;
  ENDPROCEDURE; RUN; END;
```

The picture of the system after optimization is shown in figure 1. Note that the LATEX file of this picture produced by COSY has been copied into the LATEX source of this manual and is now a permanent part of it.

Besides providing "canned" optimization strategies, the COSY language allows to follow one's own path of optimizing a system, which typically consists of several runs with varying parameters and subsequent optimizations.

In the following example, the goal is to vary several parameters of the system manually, fit the quad strengths, and then look at the spherical aberrations. This process is repeated by inputting different values for the parameters until the spherical aberrations have been reduced to a satisfactory level. When this is achieved, the picture of the system is printed in LATEX format, which is identified with unit -7, to the file with the name PICTURE.TEX.

```
INCLUDE 'COSY';
PROCEDURE RUN;
VARIABLE Q1 1 ; VARIABLE Q2 1 ; VARIABLE L1 1 ; VARIABLE L2 1 ;
VARIABLE OBJ 1 ; VARIABLE ISTOP 1 ;
PROCEDURE TRIPLET ;
UM ; CR ; ER 1 4 1 4 1 1 1 1 ; BP ;
DL L1 ; MQ .1 Q1 .05 ; DL L2 ; MQ .1 -Q2 .05 ;
DL L2 ; MQ .1 Q1 .05 ; DL L1 ; EP ; PP -1 0 0 ;
ENDPROCEDURE ;
```

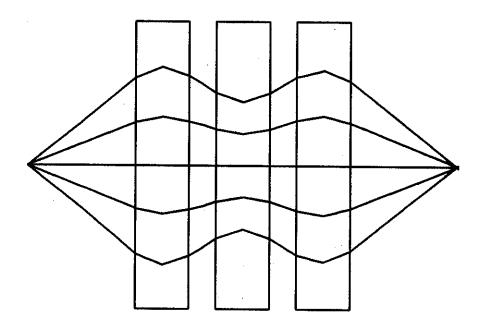


Figure 1: COSY LaTeX picture of the stigmatically focusing system

```
OV 3 2 0 ; RP 1 1 1 ; SB .08 .08 .08 .08 .08 0 0 ; ISTOP := 1 ;
WHILE ISTOP#0 ;

WRITE 6 ' GIVE VALUES FOR L1, L2: ' ; READ 5 L1 ; READ 5 L2 ;
Q1 := .5 ; Q2 := .5 ; C0 1 ;
FIT Q1 Q2 ; TRIPLET ; OBJ := ABS(ME(1,2))+ABS(ME(3,4)) ;
        ENDFIT 1E-5 1000 1 OBJ ;
        C0 3 ; TRIPLET ;
        WRITE 6 ' SPHERICAL ABERRATION FOR THIS SYSTEM: ' ME(1,222) ;
        WRITE 6 ' CONTINUE SEARCH? (1/0) ' ; READ 5 ISTOP ;
        ENDWHILE ; PP -7 0 0 ; PP -7 0 90 ;
ENDPROCEDURE ; RUN ; END ;
```

This example shows how it is possible to phrase more complicated interactive optimization tasks in the COSY language. One can even go far beyond the level of sophistication displayed here; by nesting sufficiently many WHILE, IF and LOOP statements, it is often possible to optimize a whole system in one interactive session without ever leaving COSY. For example, the first order design in [37] which is subject to quite a number of constraints and requires a sophisticated combination of trial and optimization was performed in this way.

5.5 Normal Form, Tune Shifts and Twiss Parameters

The following example shows the use of normal form methods and parameter dependent Twiss parameters for the analysis of a repetitive system. For the sake of simplicity, we choose here a simple FODO cell that is described by the procedure CELL. The map of the cell is computed to fifth order, with the energy as a parameter. In the cell itself, the quadrupole strength is another parameter.

As a first step, the parameter dependent tunes are computed and written to unit 7, following the algorithm in [36]. Next follow the tunes depending on parameters and amplitude; this is done with DA normal form theory [35]. Finally, several other quantities and their parameter dependence are computed using the procedure TP. They include the parameter dependent fixed point, the parameter dependent Twiss parameters, as well as the parameter dependent damping (which here is unity because no radiation effects are taken into account).

```
INCLUDE 'COSY' :
  PROCEDURE RUN
     VARIABLE A 100 3; VARIABLE B 100 3; VARIABLE G 100 3;
     VARIABLE R 100 3; VARIABLE MU 100 3; VARIABLE F 100 10;
     VARIABLE MN 2000 8 ; VARIABLE MA 2000 8 ;
     PROCEDURE CELL ;
        DL .1; DI 1 45 .1 0 0 0 0; DL .1; MQ .1 -.1*PARA(2) .1; DL .2;
        ENDPROCEDURE;
     OV 5 2 2 ; RP 1*PARA(1) 1 1 ; UM ; CELL ;
     TP MU ; WRITE 7 ' DELTA DEPENDENT TUNES '
                                                       MU(1) MU(2) ;
     TS MU; WRITE 7 ' DELTA AND EPS DEPENDENT TUNES ' MU(1) MU(2);
     GT MAP F MU A B G R
     WRITE 7 ' DELTA DEPENDENT FIXED POINT ' F(1) F(2) F(3) F(4) ;
     WRITE 7 ' DELTA DEPENDENT ALPHAS '
                                              A(1) A(2);
     WRITE 7 ' DELTA DEPENDENT BETAS '
                                              B(1) B(2);
     WRITE 7 ' DELTA DEPENDENT GAMMAS '
                                              G(1) G(2):
     WRITE 7 ' DELTA DEPENDENT DAMPINGS '
                                              R(1) R(2);
     ENDPROCEDURE ; RUN ; END ;
```

5.6 Repetitive Tracking

In the following example, we want to study the nonlinear behaviour of a ring by a qualitative analysis of tracking data. The ring consists of 18 identical cells. Nine of these cells are packed into a half cell by the procedure HALFCELL. At execution, the system asks for the values of the strengths of the two hexapoles which influence its degree of nonlinearity. The tracking data for each setting are displayed and then also

output in LATEX format for inclusion in this manual. In order to keep the size of the LATEX source file limited, only 100 turns were tracked for five particles.

```
INCLUDE 'COSY' :
PROCEDURE RUN ; VARIABLE QS 1 ; VARIABLE H1 1 ; VARIABLE H2 1 ; VARIABLE N 1 ;
   PROCEDURE CELL Q H1 H2 ;
                                   {defines a cell of a ring}
     DL .3 ; DI 10 20 .1 0 0 0 0 ; DL .1 ; MH .1 H1 .05 ;
      DL .1 ; MQ .1 Q .05 ;
                               DL .3; MH .1 H2 .05;
  ENDPROCEDURE ;
  PROCEDURE HALFRING Q H1 H2 ; VARIABLE I 1 ;
     LOOP I 1 9 ; CELL Q H1 H2 ; ENDLOOP ; ENDPROCEDURE ;
   OV 3 2 0 ; RPP 1000 ;
                             {third order, one GeV protons}
   QS := -.05 ; H1 := .01 ;
  WHILE H1#0; WRITE 6 'GIVE HEXAPOLE STRENGTHS '; READ 5 H1; READ 5 H2;
     UM ; HALFRING QS H1 H2 ;
     WRITE 6 ' GIVE NUMBER OF TURNS '; READ 5 N;
     SR .005 0 .005 0 0 0 0 0;
     SR .01 0 .01 0 0 0 0 0;
     SR .015 0 .015 0 0 0 0 0 ;
     SR .02 0 .02 0 0 0 0 0;
     TR N 1
             1 2
                             0 0 -1 ; CR ;
                 .03 .002
     SR .005 0 .005 0 0 0 0 0;
     SR .01 0 .01 0 0 0 0 0;
     SR .015 0 .015 0 0 0 0 0 ;
     SR .02 0 .02 0 0 0 0 0;
     TR N 1 1 2 .03 .002
                            0 0 -7; ENDWHILE:
  ENDPROCEDURE ; RUN ; END ;
```

5.7 Introducing New Elements

When looking into the physics part of COSY INFINITY, it becomes apparent that all particle optical elements described above are nothing but procedures written in the COSY language. Due to the openness of the approach, users can construct their own particle optical elements.

Here we want to show how a user can define his own particle optical element and work with it. As a first example, we begin with a skew quadrupole that is rotated against the regular orientation by the angle ϕ . The action of such a quad can be obtained by first rotating the map by $-\phi$, then let the quad act, and finally rotate back. All these steps are performed on the DA variable containing the momentary value of the transfer map, which is the global COSY array MAP. For the conversion of degrees to radians, the global COSY variable DEGRAD is used. Note that many important global variables of COSY are described in section 5.8.

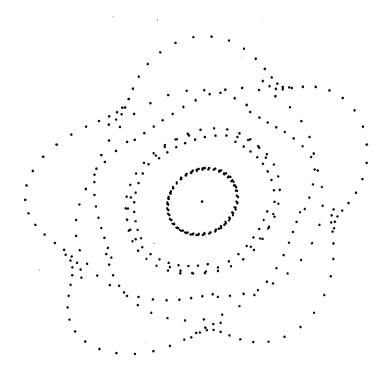


Figure 2: COSY LaTeX tracking picture

```
INCLUDE 'COSY';
PROCEDURE RUN ;
  PROCEDURE SQ PHI L B D :
                               {computes the action of a skew quad}
      PROCEDURE ROTATE PHI :
                                     {local procedure for rotation}
      VARIABLE M 1000 4 ; VARIABLE I 1 ;
         M(1) := COS(PHI*DEGRAD) *MAP(1) + SIN(PHI*DEGRAD) *MAP(3) :
        M(3) := -SIN(PHI*DEGRAD)*MAP(1) + COS(PHI*DEGRAD)*MAP(3);
        M(2) := COS(PHI+DEGRAD)+MAP(2) + SIN(PHI+DEGRAD)+MAP(4) :
        M(4) := -SIN(PHI*DEGRAD)*MAP(2) + COS(PHI*DEGRAD)*MAP(4);
        LOOP I 1 4 ; MAP(I) := M(I) ; ENDLOOP ; ENDPROCEDURE ;
     ROTATE -PHI ; MQ L B D ; ROTATE PHI ; ENDPROCEDURE ;
   OV 5 2 0 ;
  UM:
  DL .1;
  SQ -30 .2 .1 .1;
  DL .1;
  SQ 30 .2 .1 .1 ;
  PM 6 ;
  ENDPROCEDURE ; RUN ; END ;
```

It is clear that a similar technique can be used to study misaligned elements. In a similar way, it is easily possible to generate a "kick-environment" in COSY INFINITY, where every particle optical element is just represented by a kick in its center.

This technique is also useful in many other ways. For example, if a certain element is rather time consuming to compute, which can be the case with cylindrical lenses to high orders, one can write a procedure that computes the map of the element, including the dependence on some of its parameters, and saves the map somewhere. When called again with different values, the procedure decides if the values are close enough to the old ones to just utilize the previously computed map with the parameters plugged in, or if it is necessary to compute the element again. In case the parameters are varied only slightly, a very significant speed up can be achieved in this way, yet for the user the procedure looks like any other element.

5.8 Introducing New Features

The whole concept of COSY INFINITY is very open in that it easily allows extensions for specific tasks. The user is free to provide his own procedures for particle optical elements or for many other purposes. To interface with COSY INFINITY most efficiently, it is important to know the names of certain key global variables, functions and procedures. Furthermore it is important to know that all quantities in COSY INFINITY are in SI units, with the exception of voltages, which are in kV.

For some applications, it is helpful to access some of COSY INFINITY's global

variables. Since the physics of the code is written in its own language, all these variables are directly visible to the user. The first set of relevant global variables are the natural constants describing the physics. These variables are set after the routine RP is called and can be utilized for calculations by the user. The data are taken from [29]. In order to match other codes, the variables can be changed by the user in COSY.FOX if necessary.

AMU	Atomic Mass Unit	1.6605402 · 10 ⁻²⁷ kg
AMUMEV	Atomic Mass Unit in MeV	931.49432 MeV
EZERO	The charge unit	1.60217733 · 10 ⁻¹⁹ C
CLIGHT	The speed of light	2.99792458 · 10 ⁸ m/s
PI	the value of π	computed as 4 atan (1)

The second set of variables describes the reference particle. These variables are updated every time the procedure **RP** is called.

E0	Energy in MeV	
M0	Mass in AMU	
Z0	Charge in units	
V0	Velocity	
P0	Momentum	
CHIM	Magnetic Rigidity	
CHIE	Electric Rigidity	
ETA	Kinetic Energy over mc^2	

Finally, there are the variables that are updated by particle optical elements:

MAP	Array of 8 DA vectors containing Map
RAY	Array of 8 VE vectors containing Coordinates
SPOS	Momentary value of the independent variable

COSY INFINITY contains several procedures that are not used explicitly by the user but are used internally for certain operations. Firstly, there are the three DA functions

$$\mathbf{DER}(\langle n \rangle, \langle a \rangle)$$

INTEG(<n>,<a>)

which compute the DA derivation with respect to variable n, the integral with respect to variable n, and the Poisson bracket between a and b. Another helpful function is

$$\mathbf{NMON} \ (<\!NO\!>,<\!NV\!>)$$

which returns the maximum number of coefficients in a DA vector in NV variables to order NO. An important procedure is

$$POLVAL < L > < P > < NP > < A > < NA > < R > < NR > ;$$

which lets the polynomial described by the NP DA vectors stored in the array P act on the NA arguments A, and the result is stored in the NR Vectors R. Note that the type of A is free; it can be either DA or CD, in which case the procedure acts as a concatenator, it can be real or complex, in which case it acts like a polynomial evaluator, or it can be of vector type VE, in which case it acts as a very efficient vectorizing map evaluator and is used for repetitive tracking.

6 The COSY Language

6.1 General Aspects

In this section we will discuss the syntax of the COSY language. A brief summary of the commands can be found in section 6.6 on page 61. It will become apparent that the language has the flavor of PASCAL, which has a particularly simple syntax yet is relatively easy to analyze by a compiler and rather powerful.

The language of COSY differs from PASCAL in its object oriented features. New data types and operations on them can easily be implemented by putting them into a language description file described in the appendix. Furthermore, all type checking is done at run time, not at compile time. This has significant advantages for the practical use of DA and will be discussed below.

Throughout this section, curly brackets like "{" and "}" denote elements that can be repeated.

Most commands of the COSY language consist of a keyword, followed by expressions and names of variables, and terminated by a semicolon. The individual entries and the semicolon are separated by blanks. The exceptions are the assignment statement, which does not have a keyword but is identified by the assignment identifier :=, and the call to a procedure, in which case the procedure name is used instead of the keyword.

Line breaks are not significant; commands can extend over several lines, and several commands can be in one line. To facilitate readability of the code, it is possible to include comments. Everything contained within a pair of curly brackets "{" and "}" is ignored.

Each keyword and each name consist of up to 32 characters, of which the first has to be a letter and the subsequent ones can be letters, numbers or the underline sign "_". The case of the letters is not significant.

6.2 Program Segments and Structuring

The language consists of a tree-structured arrangement of nested program segments. There are three types of program segments. The first is the main program, of which there has to be exactly one and which has to begin at the top of the input file and ends at the end. It is denoted by the keywords

BEGIN;

and

END:

The other two types of program segments are procedures and functions. Their beginning and ending are denoted by the commands

```
PROCEDURE <name> { <name> };
   and
ENDPROCEDURE;
   as well as
FUNCTION <name> { <name> };
ENDFUNCTION;
```

The first name identifies the procedure and function for the purpose of calling it. The optional names define the local names of variables that are passed into the routine. Like in other languages, the name of the function can be used in arithmetic expressions, whereas the call to a procedure is a separate statement. Procedures and functions must contain at least one executable statement.

Inside each program segment, there are three sections. The first section contains the declaration of local variables, the second section contains the local procedures and functions, and the third section contains the executable code. A variable is declared with the following command:

```
VARIABLE <name> <expression> { <expression> };
```

Here the name denotes the identifier of the variable to be declared. As mentioned above, the types of variables are free at declaration time. The next expression contains the amount of memory that has to be allocated when the variable is used. The amount of memory has to be sufficient to hold the various types that the variable can assume. A real or double precision number number requires a length of 1, a complex double precision number a length of 2. A DA vector requires a length of at least the number of derivatives to be stored, and a CD vector requires twice that. The maximum number of derivatives through nth order in v variables can be obtained using the function NMON(n,v). Note

that during allocation, the type and value of the variable is set to the real zero.

If the variable is to be used with indices as an array, the next expressions have to specify the different dimensions. Different elements of an array can have different types. This also allows to emulate most of the record concept found in PASCAL using arrays. As an example, the command

VARIABLE X 100 5 7 ;

declares X to be a two dimensional array with 5 respectively 7 entries, each of which has room for 100 memory locations.

Note that different from PASCAL practice, names of variables that are being passed into a function or procedure do not have to be declared.

All variables are visible inside the program segment in which they are declared as well as in all other program segments inside it. In case a variable has the same name as one that is visible from a higher level routine, its name and dimension override the name and properties of the higher level variable of the same name for the remainder of the procedure and all local procedures.

The next section of the program segment contains the declaration of local procedures and functions. Any such program segment is visible in the segment in which it was declared and in all program segments inside the segment in which it was declared, as long as the reference is physically located below the declaration of the local procedure. Recursive calls are permitted. Altogether, the local and global visibility of variables and procedures follows standard structured programming practice.

The third and final section of the program segment contains executable statements. Among the permissible executable statements is the assignment statement, which has the form

```
<variable or array element> := <expression> ;
```

The assignment statement does not require a keyword. It is characterized by the assignment identifier :=. The expression is a combination of variables and array elements visible in the routine, combined with operands and grouped by parentheses, following common practice. Note that due to the object oriented features, various operands can be loaded for various data types, and default hierarchies for the operands can be given. Parentheses are allowed to override default hierarchies. The indices of array elements can themselves be expressions.

Another executable statement is the call to a procedure. This statement does not require a keyword either. It has the form

```
cedure name> { <expression> };
```

The name is the identifier of the procedure to be called which has to be visible at the current position. The rest are the arguments passed into the procedure. The number of

arguments has to match the number of arguments in the declaration of the procedure.

6.3 Flow Control Statements

Besides the assignment statement and the procedure statement, there are statements that control the program flow. These statements consist of matching pairs denoting the beginning and ending of a control structure and sometimes of a third statement that can occur between such beginning and ending statements. Control statements can be nested as long as the beginning and ending of the lower level control structure is completely contained inside the same section of the higher level control structure.

The first such control structure begins with

IF <expression> ;

which later has to be matched by the command

ENDIF;

If desired, there can be an arbitrary number of statements of the form

ELSEIF <expression>;

between the matching IF and ENDIF statements.

If there is a structure involving IF, ELSEIF and ENDIF, the first expression in the IF or ELSEIF is evaluated. If it is not of logical type, an error message will be issued. If the value is true, execution will continue after the current line and until the next ELSEIF, at which point execution continues after the ENDIF.

If the value is false, the same procedure is followed with the logical expression in the next ELSEIF, until all of them have been reached, at which point execution continues after the ENDIF. So at most one of the sections of code separated by IF and the matching optional ELSEIF and the ENDIF statements is executed.

Note that there is nothing equivalent of a FORTRAN ELSE statement in the COSY language, but the same effect can be achieved with the statement ELSEIF 1=1;

The next such control structure consists of the pair

WHILE <expression>;

and

ENDWHILE;

If the expression is not of type logical, an error message will be issued. Otherwise, if it has the value true, execution is continued after the WHILE statement; otherwise, it is continued after the ENDWHILE statement. In the former case, execution continues

until the ENDWHILE statement is reached. After this, it continues at the matching WHILE, where again the expression is checked. Thus, the block is run through over and over again as long as the expression has the proper value.

Another such control structure is the familiar loop, consisting of the pair

```
LOOP <name> <expression> {<expression>};
```

and

ENDLOOP;

Here the first entry is the name of a visible variable which will act as the loop variable, the first and second expressions are the first and second bounds of the loop variable. If a third expression is present, this is the step size; otherwise, the step size is set to 1. Initially the loop variable is set to the first bound.

If the step size is positive or zero and the loop variable is not greater than the second bound, or the step size is negative and the loop variable is not smaller than the second bound, execution is continued at the next statement, otherwise after the matching ENDLOOP statement. When the matching ENDLOOP statement is reached after execution of the statements inside the loop, the step size is added to the loop variable. Then, the value of the loop variable is compared to the second bound in the same way as above, and execution is continued after the LOOP or the ENDLOOP statement, depending on the outcome of the comparison. Note that it is allowed to alter the value of the loop variable inside the loop, which allows a premature truncation of the loop.

The final control structure in the syntax of the COSY language allows nonlinear optimization as part of the syntax of the language. This is an unusual feature not found in other languages, and it could also be expressed in other ways using procedure calls. But the great importance of nonlinear optimization in applications of the language and the clarity in the code that can be achieved with it seemed to justify such a step. The structure consists of the pair

```
FIT <name> {<name>};
   and

ENDFIT <expression> <expression> {<expression>};
```

Here the names denote the visible variables that are being adjusted. The first expression is the tolerance to which the minimum is requested. The second expression is the maximum number of evaluations of the objective function permitted. If this number is set to zero, no optimization is performed and the commands in the fit block are executed only once. The third expression gives the number of the optimizing algorithm that is being used. For the various optimizing algorithms, see section 7.1. The following expressions are of real or integer type and denote the objective quantities, the quantities that have to be minimized.

This structure is run through over and over again, where for each pass the optimization algorithm changes the values of the variables listed in the FIT statement and attempts to minimize the objective quantity. This continues until the algorithm does not succeed in decreasing the objective quantity anymore by more than the tolerance or the allowed number of iterations has been exhausted. After the optimization terminates, the variables contain the values corresponding to the lowest value of the objective quantity encountered by the algorithm.

Note that it is possible to terminate execution at any time by calling the intrinsic procedure QUIT. The procedure has one argument which determines if system information is provided. If this is not desired, the value 0 is used.

6.4 Input and Output

The COSY language has provisions for fully formatted or unformatted I/O. All input and output is performed using the two fundamental routines

```
READ <expression> <name>;
```

and

The first expression stands for a unit number, where using common notation, unit 5 denotes the keyboard and unit 6 denotes the screen. Unit numbers can be associated with particular file names by using the FOPEN and FCLOSE procedures, which can be found in the index.

In the **READ** command, the name denotes the variable to be read. If the information that is read is a legal format free number, the variable will be of real type and contain the value of the number. In any other case, the variable will be of type string and contain the text just read.

For the case of formatted input, this string can be analyzed using the functions SS (<string variable>,<I1>,<I2>)

which returns the substring from position I1 to position I2, as well as the function

which converts the string representation of the real number contained in the substring from position I1 to I2 to the real number.

There are also dedicated read commands for other data types; for example, DA vectors can be read with the procedure DAREA (see index), and graphics meta files can be read with the procedure GRREA (see index).

In the WRITE command, the expressions following the unit are the output quantities. Each quantity will be printed in a separate line. As described a few lines below, by using the utilities to convert reals to strings SF and S and the concatenation of strings, full formatted output is also possible.

Depending on the momentary type of the expression, the form of the output will be as follows.

Strings are printed character by character, if necessary over several lines with 80 characters per line, followed by a line feed.

Real numbers will be printed in the FORTRAN format G20.12, followed by a line feed. Complex numbers will be printed in the Form (R,I), where R and I are the real and imaginary parts which are printed in the FORTRAN format G17.9; the number is followed by a line feed.

Differential Algebraic numbers will be output in several lines. Each line contains the expansion coefficient, the order, and the exponents of the independent variables that describe the term. Vanishing coefficients are not printed. Complex Differential Algebraic variables are printed in a similar way, except instead of one real coefficient, the real and imaginary parts of the complex coefficient is shown. We note that it is also possible to print several DA vectors simultaneously such that the coefficients of each vector correspond to one column. This can be achieved with the intrinsic procedure DAPRV (see index) and is used for example for the output of transfer maps in the procedure PM (see index).

Vectors are printed componentwise such that five components appear per line in the format G14.7. As discussed above, this can be used to output several reals in one line.

Logicals are output as TRUE or FALSE followed by a line feed. Interval numbers are output in the form [L,U], where L and U are the lower and upper bounds which are output as G17.9. Graphics objects are output in the way described in section 7.2.

As described above, each quantity in the WRITE command is output in a new line. To obtain formatted output, there are utilities to convert real numbers to strings, several of which can be concatenated into one string and hence output in one line. The concatenation is performed with the string operator "&" described in the appendix. The conversion of a real number to a string can be performed with the procedure REFST described in the appendix, as well as with the more convenient COSY function

SF (<real variable>,<format string>)

which returns the string representation of the real variable using the FORTRAN format specified in the format string. There is also a simplified version of this function

S (<real variable>)

which uses the FORTRAN format G20.12.

Besides the input and output of variables at execution, there are also commands that allow to save and include code in compiled form. This allows later inclusion in another program without recompiling, and thus achieves a similar function as linking The command

SAVE <name> ;

saves the compiled code in a file with the extension 'bin'; <name> is a string containing the name of root of the file, including paths and disks. The command

INCLUDE <name> ;

includes the previously compiled code. The name follows the same syntax as in the SAVE command.

Each code may contain only one INCLUDE statement, and it has to be located at the very top of the file. The SAVE and INCLUDE statements allow to break the code into a chain of easily manageable pieces and decrease compilation times considerably.

6.5 Error Messages

COSY distinguishes between five different kinds of error messages which have different meanings and require different actions to correct the underlying problem. The five types of error messages are identified by the symbols ###, \$\$\$, !!!, 600 and ***. In addition, there are informational messages, denoted by ---. The meaning of the error messages is as follows:

- ***: This error message denotes errors in the syntax of the user input. Usually a short message describing the problem is given, including the command in error. If this is not enough information to remedy the problem, the file <inputfile>.lis can be consulted. It contains an element-by-element listing of the user input, including the error messages at the appropriate positions.
- **\$\$\$:** This error message denotes runtime errors in a syntactically correct user input. Circumstances under which it is issued include array bound violations, type violations, missing initialization of variables, exhaustion of the memory of a variable, and illegal operations like division by zero.
- !!!: This error message denotes exhaustion of certain internal arrays in the compiler. Since the basis of COSY is FORTRAN which is not recursive and requires a fixed memory allocation, all arrays used in the compiler have to be previously declared. This entails that in certain cases of big programs etc., the upper limits of the arrays can be reached. In such a case the user is told which parameter has to be increased. The problem can be remedied by replacing the value of the parameter by a larger value and re-compiling. Note that all occurrences of the parameter have to be changed; usually the parameters occur under the same name in many subroutines.

eee: This message describes a catastrophic error, and should never occur with any kind of user input, erroneous or not. It means that COSY has found an internal error in its code by using certain self checks. In the rare case that such an error message is encountered, the user is kindly asked to contact us and submit the user program.

***: This error message denotes errors in the use of COSY INFINITY library procedures. It includes messages about improper sequences and improper values for parameters.

In case execution cannot be continued successfully, a system error exit is produced by deliberately attempting to compute the square root of -1.D0. Depending on the system COSY is run on, this will produce information about the status at the time of error. In order to be system independent, this is done by attempting to execute the computation of the root of a negative number.

6.6 List of Keywords

As a summary, below follows a complete list of keywords of the COSY language.

BEGIN END

VARIABLE PROCEDURE ENDPROCEDURE

FUNCTION ENDFUNCTION

IF ELSEIF ENDIF
WHILE ENDWHILE
LOOP ENDLOOP

LOOP ENDLOOP ENDFIT

WRITE READ
SAVE INCLUDE

7 Optimization and Graphics

7.1 Optimization

Many problems in the design of particle optical systems require the use of nonlinear optimization algorithms. COSY INFINITY supports the use of nonlinear optimizers at its language level using the commands FIT and ENDFIT (see section 6 beginning on page 53). The optimizers for this purpose are given as FORTRAN subroutines. For a list of momentarily available optimizers, see section 7.1.1. Because of a relatively simple

interface, it is also possible to include new optimizers relatively easily. Details can be found in section 7.1.2.

Besides the FORTRAN algorithms for nonlinear optimization, the COSY language allows the user to design his own optimization strategies depending on the problem. Some thoughts about problem dependent optimizers can be found in section 7.1.3.

7.1.1 Optimizers

The FIT and ENDFIT commands of COSY allow the use of various different optimizers supplied in FORTRAN to minimize an objective function that depends on several variables. For details on the syntax of the commands, we refer to section 6 beginning on page 53. The choice of the proper objective function is up to the user, and it sometimes influences the success or failure of the optimization attempt.

While many problems are directly minimizations of a single intuitive quantity, others often require the simultaneous satisfaction of a set of conditions. In this later case, it is clearly possible to construct a total objective function that has a minimum if and only if the conditions are satisfied; this can for example be achieved by writing the conditions in the form $f_i(\vec{x}) = 0$ and then forming the objective function as a sum of absolute values or a sum of squares. By using factors in front of the summands, it is possible to give more or less emphasis on certain conditions.

At the present time, COSY supports three different optimizers with different features and strengths and weaknesses to minimize such objective functions. In the following we present a list of the various optimizers with a short description of their strengths and weaknesses. Each number is followed by the optimizer it identifies.

1. The Simplex Algorithm

This optimizer is suitable for rather general objective functions that do not have to satisfy any smoothness criteria. It is quite rugged and finds local (and often global) minima in a rather large class of cases. In simple cases, it requires more execution time than algorithms for almost linear functions. Because of its generality it is often the algorithm of choice.

2. The Parabolic Minimizer

This optimizer is particularly suitable for functions that are nearly quadratic in the variables. For suitable objective functions, it is rather fast and reliable. It often also works for other functions, but with a lower success rate than the Simplex Algorithm and a degradation of speed. Note that the user has significant freedom in choosing the objective function, and it is often possible to formulate the problem such that it can be represented by a nearly quadratic function.

3. The Simulated Annealing Algorithm

This algorithm is often able to find the total minimum for very complicated

objective functions, especially in cases where all other optimizers fail. This comes at the expense of a very high and often prohibitive number of function evaluations. Often this algorithm is also helpful for finding start values for the subsequent use of other algorithms.

4. The LMDIF optimizer

This optimizer is a generalized least squares Newton method and very fast if it works, but not as robust as the simplex algorithm. For most cases, it should be the first optimizer to try.

7.1.2 Adding an Optimizer

COSY INFINITY has a relatively simple interface that allows the addition of other FORTRAN optimizers. All optimizers that can be used in COSY must use "reverse communication". This means that the optimizer does not control the program flow, but rather acts as an oracle which is called repeatedly. Each time it returns a point and requests that the objective function be evaluated at this new point, after which the optimizer is to be called again. This continues until the optimum is found, at which time a control variable is set to a certain value.

All optimizers are interfaced to COSY INFINITY via the routine FIT at the beginning of the file FOXFIT, which is the routine that is called from the code executer in FOXY. The arguments for the routine are as follows:

IFIT	→	identification number of optimizer
XV	+	current array of variables
NV	→	number of variables
EPS	→	desired accuracy of function value
ITER	→	maximum allowed iteration number
IEND		status identifier

The last argument, the status identifier, communicates the status of the optimization process to the executer of COSY. As long as it is nonzero, the optimizer requests evaluation of the objective function at the returned point X. If it is zero, the optimum has been found up to the abilities of the optimizer, and X contains the point where the minimum occurs.

The subroutine FIT branches to the various supported optimizers according to the value IFIT. It also supplies the various parameters required by the local optimizers. To include a new optimizer merely requires to put another statement label into the computed GOTO statement and to call the routine with the proper parameters.

We note that when writing an optimizer for reverse communication, it is very important to have the optimizer remember the variables describing the optimization status from one call to the next. This can be achieved using the FORTRAN statement SAVE.

If the optimizer can return at several different positions, it is also important to retain the information from where the return occurred.

In case a user interfaces an optimizer of his own into COSY, we would appreciate receiving a copy of the amended file FOXFIT in order to be able to distribute the optimizer to other users as well.

7.1.3 Problem Dependent Optimization Strategies

In the case of very complicated optimization tasks, the use of any optimization algorithm alone is often too restrictive and inefficient. In practice it is more often than not necessary to combine certain "hand-tuning" tasks with the use of optimizers or to just check the terrain by evaluating the objective function on a coarse multidimensional grid.

We want to point out that because of its language structure, COSY INFINITY gives the demanding user very far reaching freedom to taylor his own optimization strategy. This can be achieved by properly nested structures involving loops, while blocks or if blocks. Manual tuning can be performed by reading certain variables from the screen in a while loop and then printing other quantities of interest or even the system graphics to the screen.

Besides being powerful, these strategies have also proved quite economical. In most cases it is possible to reduce the number of required runs considerably by choosing appropriate combinations of interactive tuning and hard wired as well as self made optimization strategies. With some advance thought this at least in principle makes it possible to design even rather complicated systems with only one COSY run.

7.2 Graphics

The object oriented language on which COSY INFINITY is based supports graphics via the graphics object. This is used for all the graphics generated by COSY and allows a rather elegant generation and manipulation of pictures.

The operand "&" allows the merging of graphics objects, and COSY INFINITY has functions that return individual moves and draws and various other elementary operations which can be glued together with "&". For details, we refer to the appendix beginning on page 72.

7.2.1 Simple Pictures

There are a few utilities that facilitate the interactive generation of pictures. The following command generates a frame, coordinate system, title, and axis marks:

where PIC is a variable that has to be allocated by the user and that will contain the frame after the call. XL, XR, YB, YT are the x coordinates of the left and right corners and the y coordinates of the bottom and top corners. DX and DY are the distances between axis ticks in x and y directions. TITLE is a string containing the title or any other text that is to be displayed. I=0 produces a frame with aspect ratio 1.5 to 1 which fills the whole picture, whereas I=1 produces a square frame. This procedure was written by M. Zhao.

There is also a procedure that allows drawing simple curves:

where PIC is again the variable containing the picture, and X and Y are arrays with N coordinates describing the corner of the polygon. Note that it is necessary to produce a frame with FG before calling this routine.

7.2.2 Supported Graphics Drivers

COSY INFINITY allows to output graphics objects with a variety of drivers which are addressed by different unit numbers. A graphics object is output like any other variable in the COSY language using COSY's WRITE command. The different unit numbers correspond to the following drivers:

- positive: Low-Resolution ASCII output to respective unit; 6: screen.
- -1: GKS-based output to primary VMS/UIS workstation window
- -2: GKS-based Tektronix output
- -3: GKS-based X-Windows workstation output
- -4: GKS-based postscript output to POSTSCRIPT.PLT
- -5: GKS-based HP 7475 plotter output to file HP7475.PLT
- -6: GKS-based HP Paintjet / DEC JL250 to file HPPAINT.PLT
- -7: LATEX picture mode output to file PICTURE.TEX
- -8: VGA IBM PC output with Lahey F77 compiler
- -9: Direct Tektronix output without external graphics library
- -10: Direct PostScript output to file POSTSCRIPT.PLT
- -11: Direct output to the low level graphics meta file METAGRAF.DAT.

- -51 ... -60: GKS-based secondary VMS/UIS workstation windows output
- -61 ... -70: GKS-based secondary XWINDOWS workstation windows output
- -71: GKS-based secondary Tektronix output

Positive unit numbers produce a low resolution 80 column by 24 lines ASCII output of the picture written to the respective unit, where unit 6 again corresponds to the screen.

Note that the units -1 through -6 require linking to a GKS package, whereas all the other graphics drivers are self contained. As reported by many users, unfortunately GKS is not as standardized as desirable, and often adaptations to the local implementation may be necessary. If linking to GKS is not desired, the GKS driver routines in FOXGRAF.FOP should be removed and replaced by the dummy routines also provided.

Graphics written to a meta file can be read from a unit to a variable PIC with the command

GRREAD <unit> <PIC>;

The metafile options were developed by Georg Hoffstätter.

7.2.3 Adding Graphics Drivers

To facilitate the adaptation to new graphics packages, COSY INFINITY has a very simple standardized graphics interface in the file FOXGRAF.FOP. In order to write drivers for a new graphics package, the user has to supply a set of seven routines interfacing to the graphics package. For ease of identification and uniformity, the names of the routines should begin with a three letter identifier for the graphics system, and should end with three letters identifying their task. The required routines are

- 1. ...BEG: Begins the picture. Allows calling all routines necessary to initiate a picture.
- 2. ...MOV(X,Y): Performs a move of the pen to coordinates X,Y. Coordinates range from 0 to 1.
- 3. ...DRA(X,Y): Performs a draw from the current position to coordinates X,Y. Coordinates range from 0 to 1.
- 4. ...CHA(I): Prints ASCII character I to momentary position. Size of the character has to be 1/80 of the total picture size. After the character, the position is advanced in x direction by 1/80.
- 5. ...COL(I): Sets a color. If supported by the system, the colors are referred to by the following integers: 1: black, 2: blue, 3: red, 4: yellow, 5: green.

- 6. ...WID(I): Sets the width of the pen. I ranges from 1 to 10, 1 denoting the finest and 10 the thickest line.
- 7. ...END: Concludes the picture. Allows calling all routines necessary to close the picture and print it.

The arguments X and Y are DOUBLE PRECISION, and I is INTEGER. After these routines have been created, the routine GRPRI in FOXGRAF. FOP has to be modified to include calls to the above routines at positions where the other corresponding routines are called for other graphics standards.

We appreciate receiving drivers for other graphics systems written by users to include them into the master version of the code.

7.2.4 The COSY Graphics Meta File

In case it is not desired to write driver routines at the FORTRAN level, it is possible to utilize the COSY graphics meta file, which is written in ASCII to the file META-GRAF.DAT via unit -11. This meta file can be easily read by standard Graphics programs such as TOPDRAWER, DISPLA, or GNUPLOT, or by programs written by users.

The meta file consists of a list of elementary operations discussed in the last subsection. Each of these seven elementary operations is output in a separate line, where the first three characters identify the command, then follows a blank, and then the parameters. The positions X and Y are output as 2E24.16, the character A as A1, and the numbers I as I1.

BEG

MOV X Y

DRA X Y

CHA A

COL I

WID I

END

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9 Appendix: The Supported Types and Operations

The language of COSY INFINITY is object oriented, and it is very simple to create new data types and define operations on them. Details about the types and operations are described in the language description data file GENFOX.DAT which is read by the program GENFOX, which then updates the source code of the compiler.

The first entry in GENFOX.DAT is a list of the names of all data types. The second entry is a list containing the elementary operations, information for which combinations of data types are allowed, and the names of individual FORTRAN routines to perform the specific operations.

The third entry contains all the intrinsic functions and the types of their results. The fourth entry finally contains a list of FORTRAN procedures that can be called from the environment.

All these data are read from a program that updates the compiler; in particular, it includes all the intrinsic operations, functions and procedures into the routine that interprets the intermediate code.

Below follows a list of all object types as well as a list of all the operands available for various combinations of objects, the available intrinsic functions, and the available intrinsic procedures. These lists are automatically produced in LATEX format by the program GENFOX with each compiler update.

This information is current as of 4-JAN-93.

In this version, the following types are supported:

RE	8 Byte Real Number
ST	String
LO	Logical
DA	Differential Algebra Vector
VE	Real Number Vector
CM	8 Byte Complex Number
IN	8 Byte Interval Number
GR	Graphics
CD	Complex Differential Algebra Vector

Now follows a list of all operations available for various combinations of types. For each operation, a relative priority is given which determines the hierarchy of the operations in expressions if there are no parentheses.

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
+	3	RE	RE	RE
+	3	RE	DA	DA
+	3	RE	VE	VE
+	3	RE	CM	CM
+	3	RE	IN	IN
+	3	RE	CD	CD
+	3	LO	LO	LO
+	3	DA	RE	DA
+	3	DA	DA	DA
+	3	DA	CM	CD
+	3	DA	CD	CD
+	3	VE	RE	VE
+	3	VE	VE	VE
+	3	CM	RE	CM
+	3	CM	DA	CD
+	3	CM	CM	CM
+	3	СМ	CD	CD
+	3	IN	RE	IN
+	3	IN	IN	IN
+	3	CD	RE	CD
+	3	CD	DA	CD
+	3	CD	CM	CD
+	3	CD	CD	CD

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
-	3	RE	RE	RE
-	3	RE	DA	DA
_	3	RE	VE	VE
-	3	RE	CM	CM
-	3	RE	IN	IN
-	3	RE	CD	CD
-	3	DA	RE	DA
	3	DA	DA	DA
_	3	DA	CM	CD
-	3	DA	CD	CD
-	3	VE	RE	VE
_	3	VE	VE	VE
_	3	СМ	RE	СМ
_	3	CM	DA	CD
_	3	CM	CM	CM
_	3	CM	CD	CD
_	3	IN	RE	IN
_	3	IN	IN	IN ·
_	3	CD	RE	CD
_	3	CD	DA	CD
-	3	CD	CM	CD
	3	CD	CD	CD

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
+	4	RE	RE	RE
*	4	RE	DA	DA
*	4	RE	VE	VE
*	4	RE	CM	CM
*	4	RE	IN	IN
*	4	RE	CD	CD
*	4	LO	LO	LO
*	4	DA	RE	DA
*	4	DA	DA	DA
*	4	DA	CM	CD
*	4	DA	CD	CD
*	4	VE	RE	VE
*	4	VE	VE	VE
*	4	CM	RE	CM
*	4	CM	DA	CD
*	4	CM	CM	CM
*	. 4	CM	CD	CD
*	4	IN	RE	IN
*	4	IN	IN	IN
*	4	CD	RE	CD
*	4	CD	DA	CD
*	4	CD	СМ	CD
*	4	CD	CD	CD

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
	4	RE	RE	RE
/	4	RE	DA	DA
/	4	RE	VE	VE
/	4	RE	CM	CM
/	4	RE	IN	IN
/	4	RE	CD	CD
/	4	DA	RE	DA
/	4	DA	DA	DA
/	4	DA	CM	CD
/	4	DA	CD	CD
/	4	VE	RE	VE
/	4	VE	VE	VE
/	4	CM	RE	CM
/	4	CM	DA	CD
/	4	CM	CM	CM
/	4	CM	CD	CD
/	4	IN	RE	IN
/	4	IN	IN	IN
/	4	CD	RE	CD
/	4	CD	DA	CD
/	4	CD	CM	CD
/	4	CD	CD	CD

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
•	5	RE	RE	RE

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
<	2	RE	RE	LO
<	2	ST	ST	LO

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
>	2	RE	RE	LO
>	2	ST	ST	LO

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
**	· 2	RE	RE	LO
=	2	ST	ST	LO

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
#	2	RE	RE	ro
#	2	ST	ST	LO

Operation	Priority	Left Type	Right Type	Type of Result
Ł	2	RE	RE	VE
a.	2	RE	VE	VE
*	2	ST	ST	ST
Ł	2	VE	RE	VE
Ł	2	VE	VE	VE
a .	2	GR	GR	GR

Now follows a list of all intrinsic functions available in the momentary version with a short description and the allowed types.

• TYPE returns the type of an object as a number

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
TYPE	RE	RE
TYPE	ST	RE
TYPE	LO	RE
TYPE	DA	RE
TYPE	VE	RE
TYPE	CM	RE
TYPE	IN	RE
TYPE	GR	RE
TYPE	CD	RE

• LENGTH returns the momentary length of a variable in 8 byte blocks

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
LENGTH	RE	RE
LENGTH	ST	RE
LENGTH	LO	RE
LENGTH	DA	RE
LENGTH	VE	RE
LENGTH	CM	RE
LENGTH	IN	IN
LENGTH	GR	RE
LENGTH	CD	RE

• VARMEM returns the current memory address of an object

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
VARMEM	RE	RE
VARMEM	ST	RE
VARMEM	LO	RE
VARMEM	DA	RE
VARMEM	VE	RE
VARMEM	CM	RE
VARMEM	GR	RE
VARMEM	CD	RE

• VARPOI returns the current pointer address of an object

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
VARPOI	RE	RE
VARPOI	ST	RE
VARPOI	LO	RE
VARPOI	DA	RE
VARPOI	VE	RE
VARPOI	CM	RE
VARPOI	GR	RE
VARPOI	CD	RE

• NOT returns the negation of a logical

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
NOT	LO	LO

• EXP computes the exponential function

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
EXP	RE	RE
EXP	DA	DA
EXP	VE	VE

• LOG computes the natural logarithm

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
LOG	RE	RE
LOG	DA	DA
LOG	VE	VE

• SIN computes the sine

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
SIN	RE	RE
SIN	DA	DA
SIN	VE	VE

• COS computes the cosine

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
COS	RE	RE
COS	DA	DA
COS	VE	VE

• TAN computes the tangent

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
TAN	RE	RE
TAN	DA	DA
TAN	VE	VE

• ASIN computes the arc sine

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
ASIN	RE	RE
ASIN	DA	DA
ASIN	VE	VE

• ACOS computes the arc cosine

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
ACOS	RE	RE
ACOS	DA	DA
ACOS	VE	VE

• ATAN computes the arc tangent

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
ATAN	RE	RE
ATAN	DA	DA
ATAN	VE	VE

• SINH computes the hyperbolic sine

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
SINH	RE	RE
SINH	DA	DA
SINH	VE	VE

• COSH computes the hyperbolic cosine

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
COSH	RE	RE
COSH	DA	DA
COSH	VE	VE

• TANH computes the hyperbolic tangent

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
TANH	RE	RE
TANH	DA	DA
TANH	VE	VE

• SQRT computes the square root

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
SQRT	RE	RE
SQRT	DA	DA
SQRT	VE	VE
SQRT	CM	CM

• ISRT computes the reciprocal of square root

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
ISRT	RE	RE
ISRT	DA	DA
ISRT	VE	VE

• SQR computes the square

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
SQR	RE	RE
SQR	DA	DA
SQR	VÉ	VE
SQR	CD	CD

• ABS computes the absolute value

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
ABS	RE	RE
ABS	DA	RE
ABS	VE	VE
ABS	CD	RE

• NORM computes the norm of a vector

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
NORM	DA	RE

• CONS determines the constant part

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
CONS	RE	RE
CONS	DA	RE
CONS	VE	RE
CONS	CM	CM
CONS	IN	RE
CONS	CD	CM

• REAL determines the real part

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
REAL	RE	RE
REAL	DA	DA
REAL	СМ	RE
REAL	CD	DA

• IMAG determines the imaginary part

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
IMAG	RE	RE
IMAG	DA	DA
IMAG	CM	RE
IMAG	CD	DA

• INT determines the integer part

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
INT	RE	RE

• NINT determines the nearest integer

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
NINT	RE	RE

• DA returns the i th elementary DA vector

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
DA	RE	DA

• CMPLX converts to complex

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
CMPLX	RE	CM
CMPLX	DA	CD

CONJ conjugates a complex number

Function	Argument Type	Type of Result
CONJ	CM	CM
CONJ	$^{ m CD}$	CD

In addition to the just listed operators and intrinsic functions, the following intrinsic procedures are available:

- Procedure FOPEN (3 arguments) opens a file. Parameters are unit number, filename (string), and status (string, same as in FORTRAN open).
- Procedure FCLOSE (1 argument) closes a file. Parameter is unit number.
- Procedure FREW (1 argument) rewinds a file. Parameter is unit number
- Procedure FBACK (1 argument) backspaces a file. Parameter is unit number
- Procedure MEMALL (1 argument) returns the amount of memory allocated at this time
- Procedure MEMFRE (1 argument) returns the amount of memory still available at this time
- Procedure CPUSEC (1 argument) returns the elapsed CPU time in seconds since last midnight
- Procedure QUIT (1 argument) terminates execution; Argument = 1 triggers traceback

- Procedure SCRLEN (1 argument) sets the amount of space scratch variables are allocated with
- Procedure DAINI (4 arguments) initializes the order and number of variables of DA. Arguments are order, number of variables, output unit number, number of monomials (return).
- Procedure DANOT (1 argument) sets momentary truncation order for DA.
- Procedure DAEPS (1 argument) sets zero tolerance for components of DA vectors.
- Procedure DAPEW (4 arguments) prints the part of DA vector that has a certain order in a specified variable. Arguments are unit, DA vector, column number, and order.
- Procedure DAREA (3 arguments) reads a DA vector. Arguments are the unit number, the variable name and the number of independent variables.
- Procedure DAPRV (5 arguments) prints an array of DA vectors. Arguments are the array, the number of components, maximum and current main variable number, and the unit number.
- Procedure DAREV (5 arguments) reads an array of DA vectors. Arguments are the array, the number of components, maximum and current main variable number, and the unit number.
- Procedure DAFLO (4 arguments) computes the flow of x' = f(x) for time step 1.
 Arguments: the initial condition, array of right hand sides, result, and dimension of f.
- Procedure CDFLO (4 arguments) same as DAFLO but with complex arguments
- Procedure DARAN (2 arguments) fills DA vector with random entries. Arguments are DA vector and fill factor.
- Procedure DADIU (3 arguments) performs a division by a unit vector if possible. Arguments are the number of the unit vector and the two DA vectors.
- Procedure DADER (3 arguments) performs the derivation operation on DA vector. Arguments are the number with respect to which to differentiate and the two DA vectors.
- Procedure DAINT (3 arguments) performs an integration of a DA vector. Arguments are the number with respect to which to integrate and the two DA vectors.
- Procedure DAPLU (4 arguments) replaces power of independent variable I by constant C. Arguments are the DA or CD vector, I, C, and the resulting DA or CD vector.

- Procedure DAPEE (3 arguments) returns a component of a DA vector. Arguments are the DA vector, the id for the coefficient in TRANSPORT notation, and the real component.
- Procedure DAPEP (4 arguments) returns a parameter dependent component of a DA vector. Arguments are the DA vector, the coefficient id, number of variables, and the result.
- Procedure DANOW (3 arguments) computes the order weighted norm of the DA
 vector in the first argument. Second argument: weight, third argument: result
- Procedure CDF2 (5 arguments) Lets $\exp(:f_2:)$) act on first argument in Floquet variables. Other Arguments: 3 tunes (2π) , result
- Procedure CDNF (8 arguments) Lets $1/(1 \exp(: f_2:))$ act on first argument in Floquet variables. Other Arguments: 3 tunes (2π) , array of resonances with dimensions, result
- Procedure CDNFDA (7 arguments) Lets C_j^{\pm} act on the first argument. Other Arguments: moduli, arguments, coordinate number, total number, epsilon, and result
- Procedure MTREE (7 arguments) computes the tree representation of a DA array.
 Arguments: DA array, elements, coefficient array, 2 steering arrays, elements, length of tree.
- Procedure LINV (5 arguments) inverts a quadratic matrix. Arguments are the matrix, the inverse, the number of actual entries, the allocation dimension, and an error flag.
- Procedure LDET (4 arguments) computes the determinant of a matrix. Arguments are the matrix, the number of actual entries, the allocation dimension, and the determinant.
- Procedure MBLOCK (5 arguments) transforms a quadratic matrix to blocks on diagonal. Arguments are matrix, the transformation and its inverse, allocation and momentary dimension
- Procedure SUBSTR (4 arguments) returns a substring. Arguments are string, first and last numbers identifying substring, and substring.
- Procedure STCRE (2 arguments) converts a string to a real. Argument are the string and the real.
- Procedure RECST (3 arguments) converts a real to a string using a FORTRAN format. Arguments are the real, the format, and the string.

- Procedure VELSET (3 arguments) sets a component of a vector of reals. Arguments are the vector, the number of the component, and the real value for the component to be set.
- Procedure VELGET (3 arguments) returns a component of a vector of reals.
 Arguments are the vector, the number of the component, and on return the real value of the component.
- Procedure VEZERO (3 arguments) used in repetitive tracking to prevent overflow due to lost particle.
- Procedure IMUNIT (1 argument) returns the imaginary unit i.
- Procedure LTRUE (1 argument) returns the logical value true.
- Procedure LFALSE (1 argument) returns the logical value false.
- Procedure INTERV (3 arguments) produces an interval from 2 numbers. Arguments are the lower and upper bounds and on return the resulting interval.
- Procedure INLO (2 arguments) returns the lower bound of an interval. Arguments are the interval and on return the lower bound.
- Procedure INUP (2 arguments) returns the upper bound of an interval. Arguments are the interval and on return the upper bound.
- Procedure INTPOL (2 arguments) determines coefficients of Polynomial satisfying $P(\pm 1) = \pm 1$, $P^{(i)}(\pm 1) = 0$, i = 1, ..., n. Arguments: coefficient array, n.
- Procedure CLEAR (1 argument) clears a graphics object
- Procedure GRMOVE (4 arguments) produces a graphics object containing just one move. Arguments are the three coordinates and the graphics object.
- Procedure GRDRAW (4 arguments) produces a graphics object containing just one draw. Arguments are the three coordinates and the graphics object.
- Procedure GRCOLR (2 arguments) produces a graphics object containing just one color change. Arguments are the new color id and the graphics object.
 - Procedure GRWDTH (2 arguments) produces a graphics object containing just one width change. Arguments are the new width id and the graphics object.
 - Procedure GRCHAR (2 arguments) produces a graphics object containing just one character. Arguments are the character and the graphics object.

- Procedure GRPROJ (3 arguments) produces a graphics object containing just one 3D projection identifier. Arguments are phi and theta in degrees and the graphics object.
- Procedure GRMIMA (7 arguments) finds the minimal and the maximal coordinates in a grafics object, arguments are the object and the minima and maxima for x, y, and z.
- Procedure RKCO (5 arguments) sets the coefficient arrays used in the COSY eighth order Runge Kutta integrator.

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