

DESING AND SIMULATION SOFTWARE FOR RHODOTRON TYPE
ELECTRON ACCELERATORS

by

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DESING AND SIMULATION SOFTWARE FOR RHODOTRON TYPE
ELECTRON ACCELERATORS

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ABSTRACT

DESING AND SIMULATION SOFTWARE FOR RHODOTRON TYPE ELECTRON ACCELERATORS

The focus of this study is to design and optimize rose-pattle-type electron accelerators; a new simulation tool called *Rhodotron Simulation* has been developed for this purpose. A coaxial cavity with an operating frequency of 107.5 MHz is currently being manufactured in the Kandilli Detector Accelerator and Instrumentation Laboratory (KAHVELab). This new tool's capabilities will be tested with the cavity and will be used to design complementary bending magnets for reaching 1 – 5 MeV beam energy.

ÖZET

RHODOTRON TİPİ ELEKTRON HIZLANDIRICILARI İÇİN TASARIM VE SİMÜLASYON YAZILIMI

Bu çalışma, gül yaprağı tipi elektron hızlandırıcıları tasarlamak ve optimize etmek üzerine odaklanmaktadır. Bu amaçla *Rhodotron Simulation* adında yeni bir benzetim uygulaması geliştirilmiş, 107.5 MHz hedef frekansında çalışmak üzere tasarlanmış bir koaksiyal kavitesinin üretimi, Kandilli Algıç Hızlandırıcı ve Enstrümentasyon Laboratuvarı'nda devam etmektedir. Yeni benzetim uygulaması, kabiliyetleri üretilen kavite ile test edildikten sonra bükme mıknatısları tasarım ve optimizasyonunda 1 – 5 MeV demet enerjisine ulaşmak için kullanılacaktır.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

\vec{a}	Acceleration
\vec{B}	Magnetic field
c	Speed of light in vacuum
E	Energy
e^-	Electron
$e^- - \vec{E}$	Electron Electric Field Interaction
$e^- - \vec{B}$	Electron Magnetic Field Interaction
$e^- - EM$	Electron Electro-Magnetic Field Interaction
\vec{E}	Electric field
f	Frequency
\vec{F}	Force
\vec{p}	Momentum
\vec{r}	Position
t	Time
T	Period
\vec{v}	Velocity
Z	Shunt Impedance
γ	Lorentz Factor
β	Beta Factor
ϕ_{lag}	Phase Lag
μX	Mean Value of X
σX	Standard Deviation of X

LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS

1D	One Dimensional
2D	Two Dimensional
3D	Three Dimensional
eV	Electron Volt
Hz	Hertz
KAHVELab	Kandilli Detector Accelerator and Instrumentation Laboratory
LF	Leap-Frog
Linac	Linear Particle Accelerator
ODE	Ordinary Differential Equation
RF	Radio Frequency
RK	Runge-Kutta
RK4	Forth Order Runge-Kutta
RMS	Root Mean Square
POC	Proof of Concept
CPU	Central Processing Unit
s	Second
T	Tesla
V	Volt
W	Watt

1. INTRODUCTION AND THEORY

Particle accelerators are essential tools for scientific research. They enable scientists to probe the fundamental constituents of matter, study particle interactions, and explore the laws of physics. Accelerators have been instrumental in discovering and characterizing fundamental particles, such as quarks, leptons, and more recently the Higgs boson. They also facilitate the production of high-intensity particle beams for applications in industrial processes. A conservative estimate puts the number of industrial high-current electron accelerators to be in the thousands, worldwide.

MeV-level electron beams, both as is and as X-Ray sources, are especially useful for industrial and medical applications. For instance, high-energy beams (ranging from 5 to 10 MeV) find application in medical accelerators and in services such as sterilizing medical devices and irradiating food. Meanwhile, medium-energy devices (ranging from 400 keV to 5 MeV) contribute to the improvement of wires, cables, and tires, and also play a role in treating factory flue gases and wastewater. Although most of the industrial electron accelerators operating at MeV-level are linear accelerators at the moment, due to their compact nature, circular accelerators have been gaining prominence.

Rose-paddle accelerator is a type of circular accelerator suitable for producing electron beams at MeV-level energy. It was developed in 1989 and was named *Rhodotron* [1]. This name was trademarked by *IBA Group* in the following years.

1.1. Accelerating Charged Particles

1.1.1. Relation between momentum and acceleration

In classical mechanics, Newton's second law defines force, \vec{F} , and relation

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = m \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = m\vec{a}, \quad (1.1)$$

where \vec{p} is the momentum, $m\vec{v}$ of the particle.

In special relativity however, relativistic momentum is defined as $\vec{p} = \gamma m_0 \vec{v}$, where

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v})/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{\beta}}} \quad (1.2)$$

is the Lorentz Factor.

Considering these two statements, we can find the relation between momentum and acceleration as

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = m_0 \frac{d(\gamma \vec{v})}{dt} = m_0 \left\{ \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \vec{v} + \gamma \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \right\}, \quad (1.3)$$

$$\frac{d\gamma}{dt} = \gamma^3 \vec{\beta} \cdot \frac{d\vec{\beta}}{dt} = \frac{\gamma^3}{c} \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{a}, \quad (1.4)$$

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = m_0 \left\{ \frac{\gamma^3}{c} (\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{a}) \vec{v} + \gamma \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \right\}. \quad (1.5)$$

Therefore force can be written as

$$\vec{F} = \gamma m_0 \left\{ \vec{a} + \gamma^2 (\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{a}) \vec{\beta} \right\}. \quad (1.6)$$

It is clear that acceleration is not necessarily parallel to the force. To start separating the parallel and perpendicular components relative to $\vec{\beta}$, we can find $\vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{||}$ as

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} = \frac{(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\beta})}{\beta^2} \beta, \quad \vec{\mathbf{F}}_{||} = \frac{(\vec{F} \cdot \vec{\beta})}{\beta^2} \beta, \quad (1.7)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \vec{\beta} &= \gamma m_0 \{ \vec{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \vec{\beta} + \gamma^2 (\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{a}}) \beta^2 \} \\ &= \gamma m_0 (\vec{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \vec{\beta}) \{ \gamma^2 \beta^2 + 1 \}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.8)$$

Then, $\gamma^2 \beta^2 + 1 = \gamma^2$ and *Equation 1.7* can be used to achieve

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \vec{\beta} &= m_0 \gamma^3 (\vec{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \vec{\beta}), \\ \vec{\mathbf{F}}_{||} &= \frac{(\vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \vec{\beta})}{\beta^2} \beta \\ &= m_0 \gamma^3 \frac{(\vec{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \vec{\beta})}{\beta^2} \beta \\ &= m_0 \gamma^3 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.9)$$

Therefore from *Equations 1.6 and 1.9*, force can be rearranged as

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\mathbf{F}} &= m_0 \gamma^3 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} \beta^2 + m_0 \gamma \vec{\mathbf{a}} \\ &= m_0 \gamma^3 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} \beta^2 + m_0 \gamma \{ \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} + \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\perp} \} \\ &= m_0 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} \gamma \{ \gamma^2 \beta^2 + 1 \} + m_0 \gamma \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\perp} \\ &= m_0 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} \gamma^3 + m_0 \gamma \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\perp} \\ &= \vec{\mathbf{F}}_{||} + m_0 \gamma \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\perp}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.10)$$

We finally have two separate equations which are in similar form with *Equation 1.1*,

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{||} = \gamma^3 m_0 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||}, \quad \vec{\mathbf{F}}_{\perp} = \gamma m_0 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\perp}. \quad (1.11)$$

1.1.2. Lorentz Force

Force acting on a charged particle moving in electromagnetic fields is called Lorentz Force and is given by

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \vec{F}_L = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}), \quad (1.12)$$

where the q is the charge and \vec{v} is the velocity of the particle.

1.1.3. Relativistic Lorentz Force

Similar to non-relativistic version, relativistic Lorentz Force is given by the 4-vector equality

$$\frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau} = qF^{\mu\nu}u_\nu, \quad (1.13)$$

where $d\tau = dt/\gamma$, greek letters are Lorentz indices and p, F, u are

$$p^\mu = \begin{bmatrix} W/c \\ p_x \\ p_y \\ p_z \end{bmatrix}, \quad F^{\mu\nu} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -E_x/c & -E_y/c & -E_z/c \\ E_x/c & 0 & -B_z & B_y \\ E_y/c & B_z & 0 & -B_x \\ E_z/c & -B_y & B_x & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u_\nu = \gamma \begin{bmatrix} c \\ -v_x \\ -v_y \\ -v_z \end{bmatrix},$$

where W is the energy of the particle and γ is the Lorentz factor mentioned in the previous section.

For $\mu = 0$, we have the time component of the equation as

$$\frac{\gamma}{c} \frac{dW}{dt} = \frac{q\gamma \vec{E} \cdot \vec{v}}{c} = \frac{q\gamma}{c} \frac{\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}}{dt}, \quad (1.14)$$

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = q \frac{\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{r}}{dt}. \quad (1.15)$$

This is the definition of work done by an electric field. For $\mu = 1, 2, 3$, we have the spacial components

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{d\tau} = \gamma \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = q\gamma(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}),$$

which simplifies to non-relativistic Lorentz Force in *Equation 1.12*.

1.1.4. Acceleration caused by Lorentz force

Due to the nature of the cross product, Lorentz force caused by a magnetic field is always perpendicular to the velocity of the particle. Therefore the acceleration of the magnetic field is straightforward,

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_B = \vec{\mathbf{F}}_\perp = \gamma m_0 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_\perp = \gamma m_0 \vec{\mathbf{a}}_B.$$

The same thing cannot be said about electric field however. It can create force in any direction with respect to velocity. Therefore, we have the equality

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} = \frac{q}{\gamma^3 m_0} \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||}, \quad \vec{\mathbf{a}}_\perp = \frac{q}{\gamma m_0} \{ \vec{\mathbf{E}}_\perp + \vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} \}. \quad (1.16)$$

Acceleration due to electric field can be simplified as

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\{B=0\}} = \vec{\mathbf{a}}_E &= \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{||} + \vec{\mathbf{a}}_{\perp\{B=0\}} \\ &= \frac{q}{m_0 \gamma} \left\{ \frac{\vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||}}{\gamma^2} + \vec{\mathbf{E}}_\perp \right\} \\ &= \frac{q}{m_0 \gamma} \{ \{1 - \beta^2\} \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||} + \vec{\mathbf{E}}_\perp \} \\ &= \frac{q}{m_0 \gamma} \{ \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||} + \vec{\mathbf{E}}_\perp - \beta^2 \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||} \} \\ &= \frac{q}{m_0 \gamma} \{ \vec{\mathbf{E}} - \beta^2 \vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||} \}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.17)$$

Using the fact that $\vec{\mathbf{E}}_{||} = \vec{\beta}(\vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot \vec{\beta})/\beta^2$, we finally have

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}}_E = \frac{q}{\gamma m_0} \{ \vec{\mathbf{E}} - \vec{\mathbf{v}} \frac{(\vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{v}})}{c^2} \}, \quad \vec{\mathbf{a}}_B = \frac{q}{\gamma m_0} (\vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}}), \quad (1.18)$$

where $\vec{\mathbf{a}}_E$ consists of two components in the direction of $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$. The component in the direction of $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$ depends on the $\vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{v}}$, resulting in $\vec{\mathbf{a}}_E \parallel \vec{\mathbf{E}}$ if $\vec{\mathbf{E}} \perp \vec{\mathbf{v}}$.

1.2. Particle Accelerators

Particle accelerators are sophisticated scientific instruments designed to accelerate charged particles, such as electrons, protons, or ions, to high speeds and energies. These accelerators play a crucial role in advancing our understanding of the fundamental properties of matter and the universe. They are widely used in various fields of research, including particle physics, nuclear physics, materials science, and medicine.

At their core, particle accelerators utilize electromagnetic fields to impart energy to particles and control their trajectories. These fields are generated by intricate arrangements of electromagnets and RF (radiofrequency) cavities within the accelerator structure. By precisely controlling these fields, accelerators can propel particles to speeds close to the speed of light, thus to high energies.

Accelerators can be categorized into two main types: linear accelerators (linacs) and circular accelerators. Linacs accelerate particles in a straight line, while circular accelerators use magnetic fields to bend the particle trajectory into a circular path.

The acceleration process in accelerators involves multiple stages. Initially, particles are injected into the accelerator at a relatively low energy. As they progress through the accelerator, they are subjected to electric fields that accelerate them, while magnetic fields guide their trajectories. Focusing elements, such as solenoid, dipole or quadrupole magnets, ensure the particles remain tightly controlled.

As particles gain energy in the accelerator, they approach relativistic speeds, where relativistic effects become significant. Special relativity governs the increase in mass and energy of the particles as they approach the speed of light, providing insights into the behavior of matter at high energies.

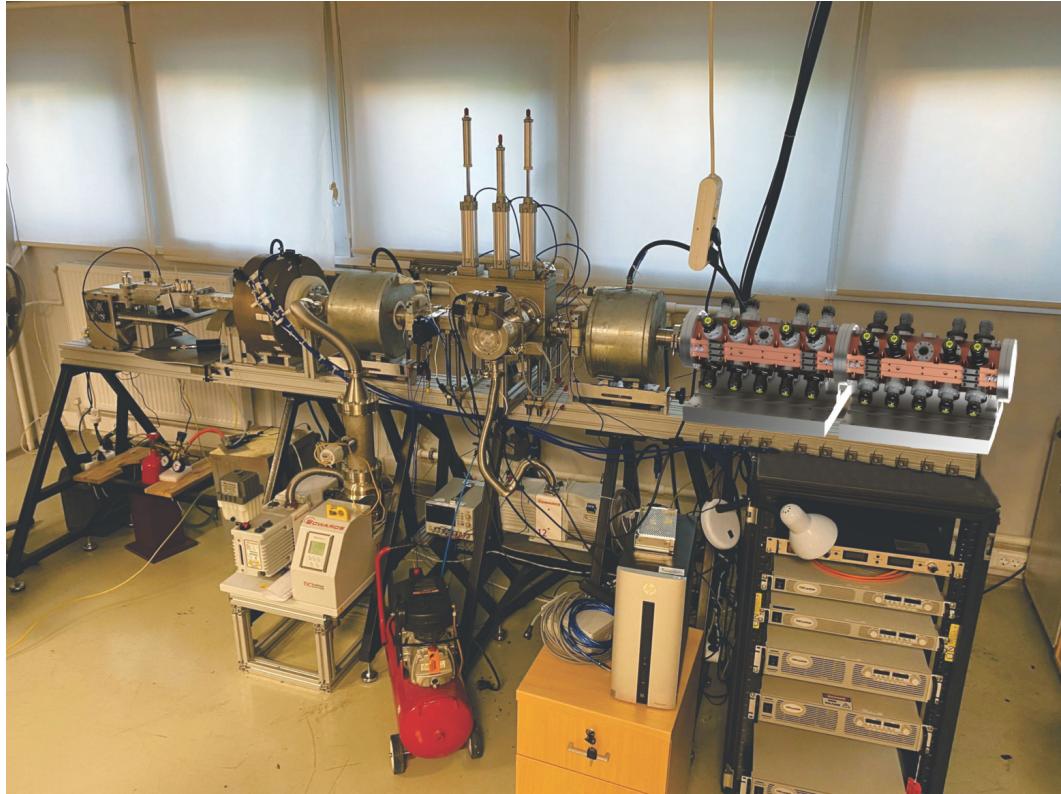


Figure 1.1. A linear proton accelerator in KAHVELab [2].

1.2.1. Acceleration Cavities

Radiofrequency (RF) cavities, also known as accelerating cavities or resonant cavities, are key components in particle accelerators. These cavities generate strong electromagnetic fields at specific frequencies to accelerate charged particles through clever engineering.

RF cavities are typically hollow metallic structures made of or coated with high-conductivity materials such as copper. The cavity is often cylindrical or spherical in shape, and its inner surface is polished to minimize energy losses through resistive heating. The RF cavity is designed to be resonant, meaning that it naturally amplifies the electric fields at its resonant frequency. The resonant frequency is determined by the cavity's dimensions and the speed of light in the cavity material.

To achieve efficient energy transfer to the particles, the RF cavity is driven by an external RF power source operating at the resonant frequency. The power source supplies radiofrequency energy to the cavity, which causes the electric fields inside the cavity to oscillate at the desired frequency. These oscillating fields then transfer energy to the passing particles, increasing their kinetic energy by pushing and pulling on the charged particles as they pass through the cavity.

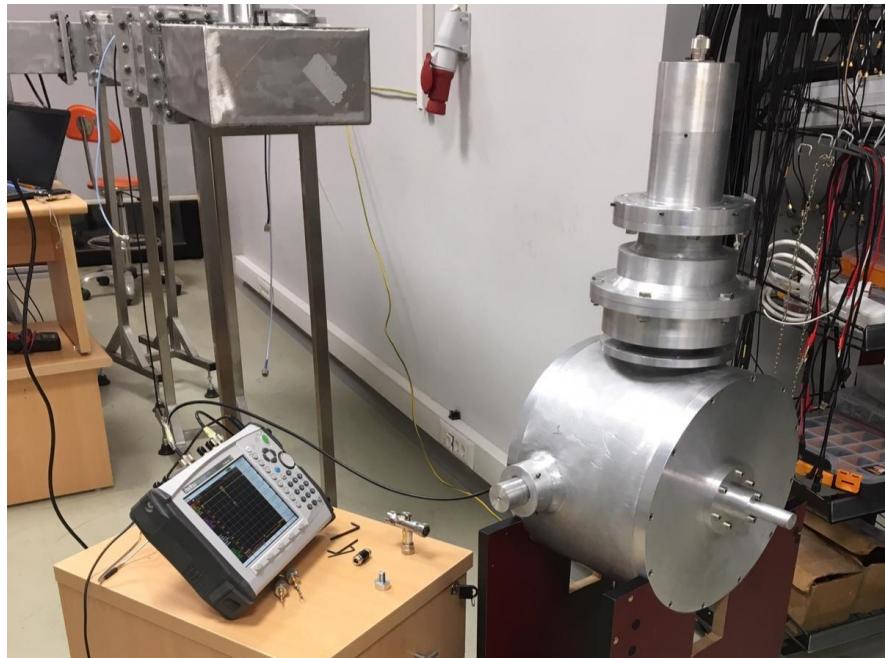


Figure 1.2. An RF cavity used in KAHVELab.

In addition to accelerating the particles, RF cavities are often designed to provide focusing forces. By carefully shaping the cavity and adjusting the electromagnetic fields, the particles can experience focusing effects as they pass through the cavity. This helps to maintain a tight and controlled beam. To ensure efficient acceleration, it is essential to maintain phase stability. This means that the particles should experience the strongest electric fields at the correct time during their passage through the cavity. Precise timing and synchronization of the RF power source with the particle beam are crucial to achieve phase stability and maximize energy transfer.

1.2.2. Bending Magnets

Bending magnets, also known as dipole magnets, are fundamental components used in particle accelerators to control the trajectory of charged particles. They utilize the Ampere's Law to exert a magnetic field that interacts with the charged particles in the accelerator.

According to the Lorentz Force Law (*Section 1.1.2*), when a charged particle moves through a magnetic field, it experiences a force perpendicular to both its velocity vector and the magnetic field direction. This force causes the particle's trajectory to curve, resulting in a bending effect.

1.2.3. Key Concepts

1.2.3.1. Resonance Frequency. Resonance frequency is the frequency in which the electromagnetic fields form standing waves in a cavity. It is determined by the physical dimensions and the speed of light in the cavity's medium. In a rectangular cavity for example, the resonance frequency can be calculated by

$$f_{klm} = \frac{c}{2\pi\sqrt{\mu_r\epsilon_r}} \sqrt{\left(\frac{k}{w}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{l}{u}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{m}{v}\right)^2}, \quad (1.19)$$

where w , u , v are the dimensions of the cavity, μ_r and ϵ_r are relative permability and permittivity of the cavity respectably.

1.2.3.2. Bunch. Bunch refers to a tightly grouped collection of charged particles, such as electrons or protons, that are accelerated and maintained close together within a particle accelerator.

1.2.3.3. Phase Stability. Phase stability refers to the preservation of the timing relationship between particles and fields within an accelerator. It ensures that the phases of various electromagnetic fields or particles remain synchronized, which is crucial for

achieving efficient particle acceleration. Maintaining phase stability is essential to prevent particles from becoming out of phase as they travel through accelerator structures, ensuring that they receive the correct energy boosts and interact predictably with detectors. Deviations in phase stability can lead to particle loss and decreased beam quality.

1.2.3.4. Phase Lag. Phase lag refers to the time delay between the oscillations of two interacting waveforms or particles. It describes the difference in phase angles within their respective cycles, between two signals.

1.2.3.5. Shunt Impedance. The shunt impedance of an RF accelerator is a measure of the efficiency at which the accelerator can transform the supplied RF power into acceleration. It is defined as

$$Z_s = \frac{V_{acc}^2}{P_{diss}}, \quad (1.20)$$

where V_{acc} is the accelerating potential in which the particle is subjected to, P_{diss} is the power dissipated on the cavity walls. An example *shunt impedance* calculation can be found in *Section 1.2.4.2*.

1.2.4. Rhodotron Accelerator

Rhodotron Accelerator is a type of particle accelerator that was proposed by *Jacques POTTIER* in 1989 [1]. First prototype was built at CEA Saclay later in 1992 [3]. It is named after the greek word for rose, *rhodos*, due to the shape of the design [4].

The design of a rhodotron mainly consists of a coaxial cylindrical RF cavity and bending magnets surrounding it. RF cavity is fed by an external RF source, accelerating the electrons entering from an attached electron injector.

1.2.4.1. Acceleration cycle of Rhodotron. Electrons undergo four different stages inside the accelerator. They are accelerated between the cylindrical plates and are shielded from the changing RF field while inside the inner cylinder and outside the cavity. These stages are explained further below.

- *First Acceleration:* Electrons in the rhodotron cavity are accelerated by the electric field created between two coaxial cylinders, towards the inner cylinder when they are ejected into the cavity (*Figure 1.7*).
- *Inner Shielding:* Inner shielding While inside the inner cylinder, the cylinder acts as a faraday cage and shields the electrons inside while the electric field is being reversed (*Figure 1.8*).
- *Second Acceleration:* Once the electrons leave the inner cylinder, they accelerate towards the outer cylinder by the reversed electric field until they leave the cavity (*Figure 1.9*).
- *Recirculating Magnets:* After leaving the cavity, an electromagnet placed in their path steers the electrons back into the cavity in which time the electric field changes the direction again (*Figure 1.10*).

This cycle can be repeated as long as real world constraints such as; placements and dimensions of the electromagnets, power requirements due to increasing magnetic field in order for sharper turns, can be overcome. After the desired amount of cycles, also called passes, has been completed, the electrons exit the accelerator.

This process is explained further in the *Figures 1.7, 1.8, 1.9 and 1.10* where T is the period of the electric field.

1.2.4.2. Cavity of a Rhodotron. Coaxial design of the cavity concentrates the electric field, while the magnetic field diminishes in the middle of the cylinders. Therefore the electrons are injected and accelerated in the plane of zero magnetic field where the electric field is strongest (*Figure 1.3*).

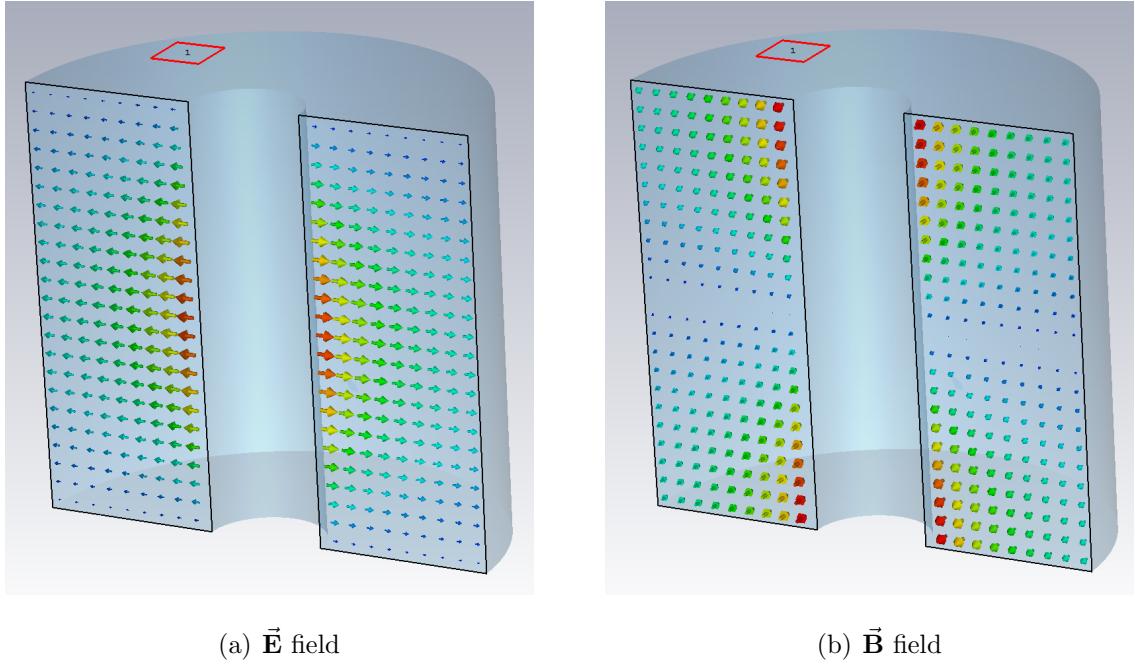


Figure 1.3. \vec{E} and \vec{B} eigenmode field distributions inside a coaxial cavity.

For a cavity defined by the volume between two coaxial cylinders of equal lengths (h) with radii of R_1 and R_2 , where $R_1 < R_2$, located at the origin (*Figure 1.4*), first eigenmode solution of the E and B fields are [1]

$$E = \frac{E_0}{r} \cos\left(\frac{\pi z}{h}\right) \sin(\omega t + \phi), \quad (1.21)$$

$$B = \frac{B_0}{r} \sin\left(\frac{\pi z}{h}\right) \cos(\omega t + \phi), \quad (1.22)$$

where $\omega = 2\pi f$, f is the resonance frequency.

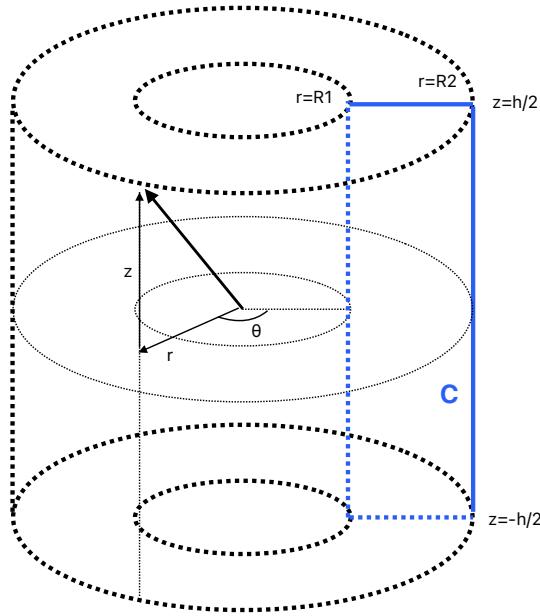


Figure 1.4. Illustration of a simple coaxial cavity with the curve \mathbf{C} in *Equation 1.24*.

Because acceleration potential is located on the $z = 0$ plane and $\vec{\mathbf{E}} \parallel \hat{r}$, V_{acc} can be found by

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{acc} &= 2 \int_{R_1}^{R_2} |E|^2 dr \\
 &= 2E_0 \int_{R_1}^{R_2} \frac{dr}{r} \\
 &= 2E_0 \ln\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right).
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.23}$$

Dissipated power P_{diss} , on the other hand, can be calculated as [5]

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{diss} &= \frac{1}{2} \int \int \rho_s |H_{||}|^2 dA \\
 &= \frac{\rho_s}{2\mu_0^2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_C |B_{||}|^2 r ds d\theta.
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.24}$$

where ρ_s is the areal skin resistivity ($\rho_s \approx 2.51 \times 10^{-7} f^{1/2}$ for copper [1]), $B = \mu H$, μ is permeability, μ_0 is the vacuum permability. Integral curve \mathbf{C} is defined as the

circumference of cylindrically symmetrical cross sectional area of the cavity (*Figure 1.4*). This curve can be separated to its line components and total power dissipation of this curve, P_C will be equal to sum of the power dissipated in these lines. Since \vec{B} is always parallel to the surface we can use \vec{B} directly as

$$\begin{aligned} P_{diss} &= \frac{\rho_s}{2\mu_0^2} \int_0^{2\pi} \left(2 \int_0^{\frac{h}{2}} |B|^2 r dz \Big|_{r=R_1} + 2 \int_0^{\frac{h}{2}} |B|^2 r dz \Big|_{r=R_2} + 2 \int_{R_1}^{R_2} |B|^2 r dr \Big|_{z=\frac{h}{2}} \right) d\theta \\ &= \frac{\rho_s}{2\mu_0^2} \int_0^{2\pi} (2I_A + 2I_B + 2I_C) d\theta = \frac{2\rho_s\pi}{\mu_0^2} (I_A + I_B + I_C), \end{aligned} \quad (1.25)$$

$$I_A = \int_0^{\frac{h}{2}} |B|^2 r dz \Big|_{r=R_1} = B_0^2 \frac{h}{4R_1}, \quad (1.26)$$

$$I_B = \int_0^{\frac{h}{2}} |B|^2 r dz \Big|_{r=R_2} = B_0^2 \frac{h}{4R_2}, \quad (1.27)$$

$$I_C = \int_{R_1}^{R_2} |B|^2 r dr \Big|_{z=\frac{h}{2}} = B_0^2 \ln\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right). \quad (1.28)$$

Inserting $H_0 = B_0/\mu_0$, finally we have the dissipated power

$$P_{diss} = \rho_s \pi H_0 \left(\frac{h}{2R_1} + \frac{h}{2R_2} + 2 \ln\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) \right). \quad (1.29)$$

Therefore, from *Equation 1.20*, using *Equations 1.23 and 1.29* also $E_0/H_0 = Z_0 \approx 120\pi$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} Z_s &= \frac{4E_0^2}{H_0^2 \pi \rho_s} \frac{\ln^2\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)}{\left(\frac{h}{2R_1} + \frac{h}{2R_2} + 2 \ln\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)\right)} \\ &= \frac{8\pi 60^2}{\rho_s} \frac{\ln^2\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)}{\left(\frac{h}{4}\left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}\right) + \ln\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)\right)}, \end{aligned} \quad (1.30)$$

where, time dependencies have been removed from \vec{E} and \vec{B} and the maximum values for V_{acc} and P_{diss} have been used. However, particles do not interact with constant \vec{E} field during acceleration. Therefore, a more useful parameter called *effective shunt impedance* can be defined as

$$Z_{se} = Z_s T^2, \quad (1.31)$$

where T is the *transit time factor*, a correctional coefficient that contain the changing field effects during acceleration.

For a relativistic electron crossing the axis at time 0, T can be found by [1]

$$T = \frac{S_i\left(\frac{2\pi R_2}{\lambda}\right) - S_i\left(\frac{2\pi R_1}{\lambda}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)}, \quad (1.32)$$

$$S_i(\theta) = \int_0^\theta \frac{\sin(x)}{x} dx. \quad (1.33)$$

For a relativistic electron crossing the axis at $2\pi ft_0 = \phi$ on the other hand, T needs to be multiplied by $\cos(\phi)$ as

$$T(\phi) = T \cos(\phi). \quad (1.34)$$

Putting all these calculations together, energy gain of a relativistic electron, passing the origin at ϕ/ω as calculated by *J. Pottier* is [1]

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta E &= qV_{acc}^{ef} \\ &= qZ_{se}^{1/2}P_{diss}^{1/2} \cos(\phi), \end{aligned} \quad (1.35)$$

where $V_{acc}^{ef} = V_{acc}T(\phi)$ is the effective accelerating potential. If ΔE is taken in *MeV*, Z_{se} in *MΩ* and P_{diss} in *MW*, this equality becomes

$$\Delta E = Z_{se}^{1/2}P_{diss}^{1/2} \cos(\phi) \quad MeV. \quad (1.36)$$

With the expectation that the electrons will accelerate to speeds $\approx c$ after the first pass, a rhodotron cavity is designed so that the length of the path between successive passes is an integer multiple of λ , wavelength of the RF field ($l = p\lambda$). This constraint helps with phase stability and synchronization of the beam. In the *Figure 1.5*, optimized characteristics of a rhodotron cavity can be observed.

Table 1
Optimized characteristics

P	R_2 (m)	R_1/R_2	Z_{se} (MΩ)	Z_{sp} (MΩ)
1	0.27λ	1/4	$5.77\lambda^{1/2}$	$4.9\lambda^{1/2}$
2	0.5λ	1/7	$10.4\lambda^{1/2}$	$8.83\lambda^{1/2}$

Figure 1.5. Optimized characteristics of a rhodotron cavity [1].

Here, p is the integer multiplier in the equation ($l = p\lambda$) mentioned above, R_1 is the radius of the inner cylinder, R_2 is the radius of the outer cylinder, Z_{se} is effective shunt impedance, Z_{sp} is practical shunt impedance which was taken to be $0.85Z_{se}$. Typically, phase lag ϕ is taken as 15° [1].

Considering $Z_{sp} \propto \lambda^{1/2}$, $\Delta E \propto \lambda^{1/4}$, $V \propto \lambda^3$, where V is the volume of the cavity, implementing the $p = 1$ design in *Figure 1.5* is much more space efficient.

Table 2
Energy W (MeV) for $P = 100$ kW and $f = 130$ MHz

R_2 (m)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.62	1.8	2.7	3.6	4.5	5.4	6.3	7.2	8.1	9	9.9	10.8
1.15	2.4	3.6	4.8	6	7.2	8.4	9.6	10.8	12	13.2	14.4

Figure 1.6. Energy of a synchronous electron after each pass for both $p = 1$ and $p = 2$ [1].

Total energy gain after n passes, ΔE_n , can then be found by *Equation 1.36*, taking $\phi = 15^\circ$, $p = 1$, i.e $R_2 = 0.27\lambda$, P in W , λ in m as

$$\Delta E_n \approx 2.14\lambda^{1/4}P^{1/2}n \text{ keV.} \quad (1.37)$$

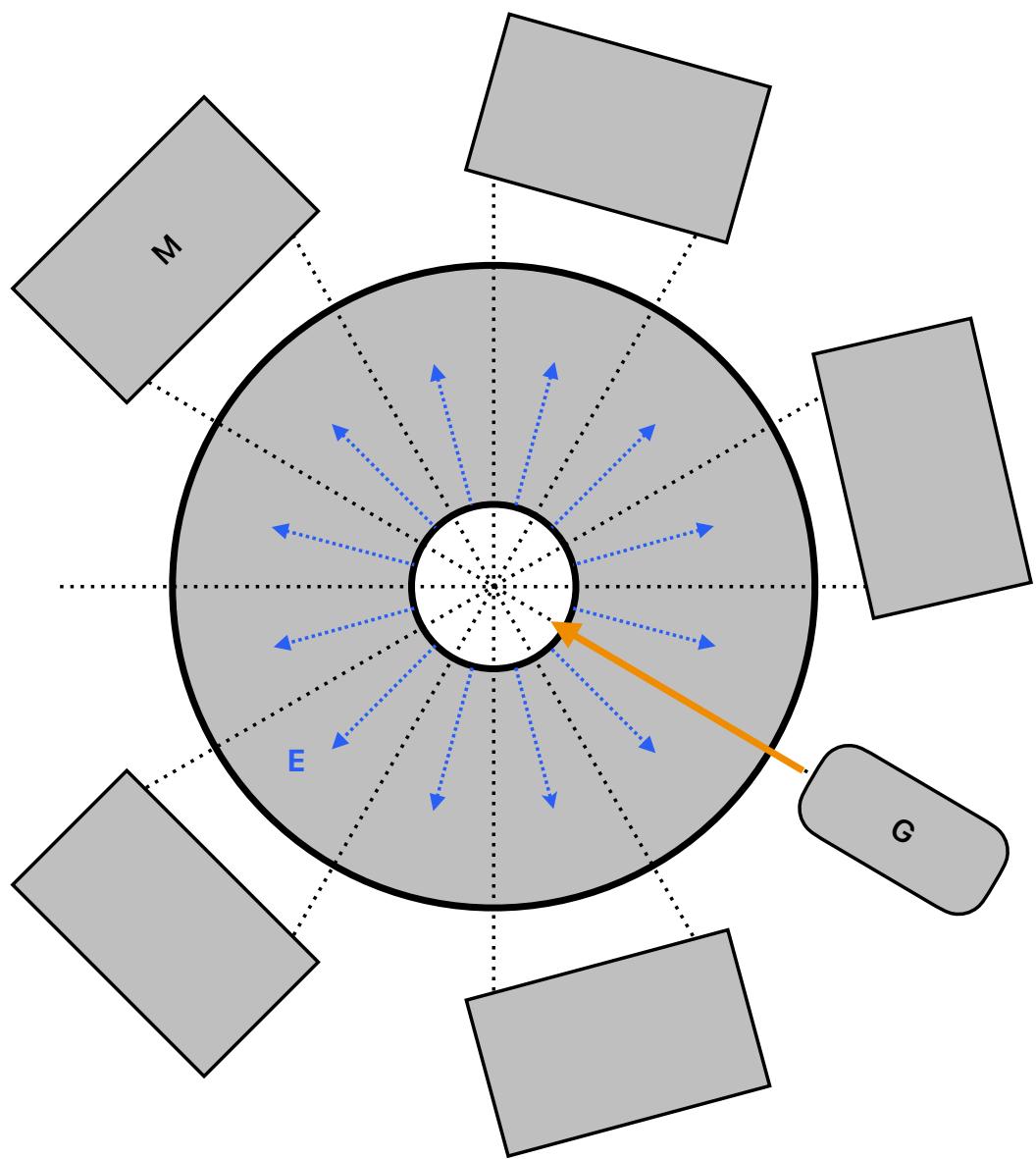


Figure 1.7. $[0, \frac{T}{4}]$ time frame of a rhodotron.

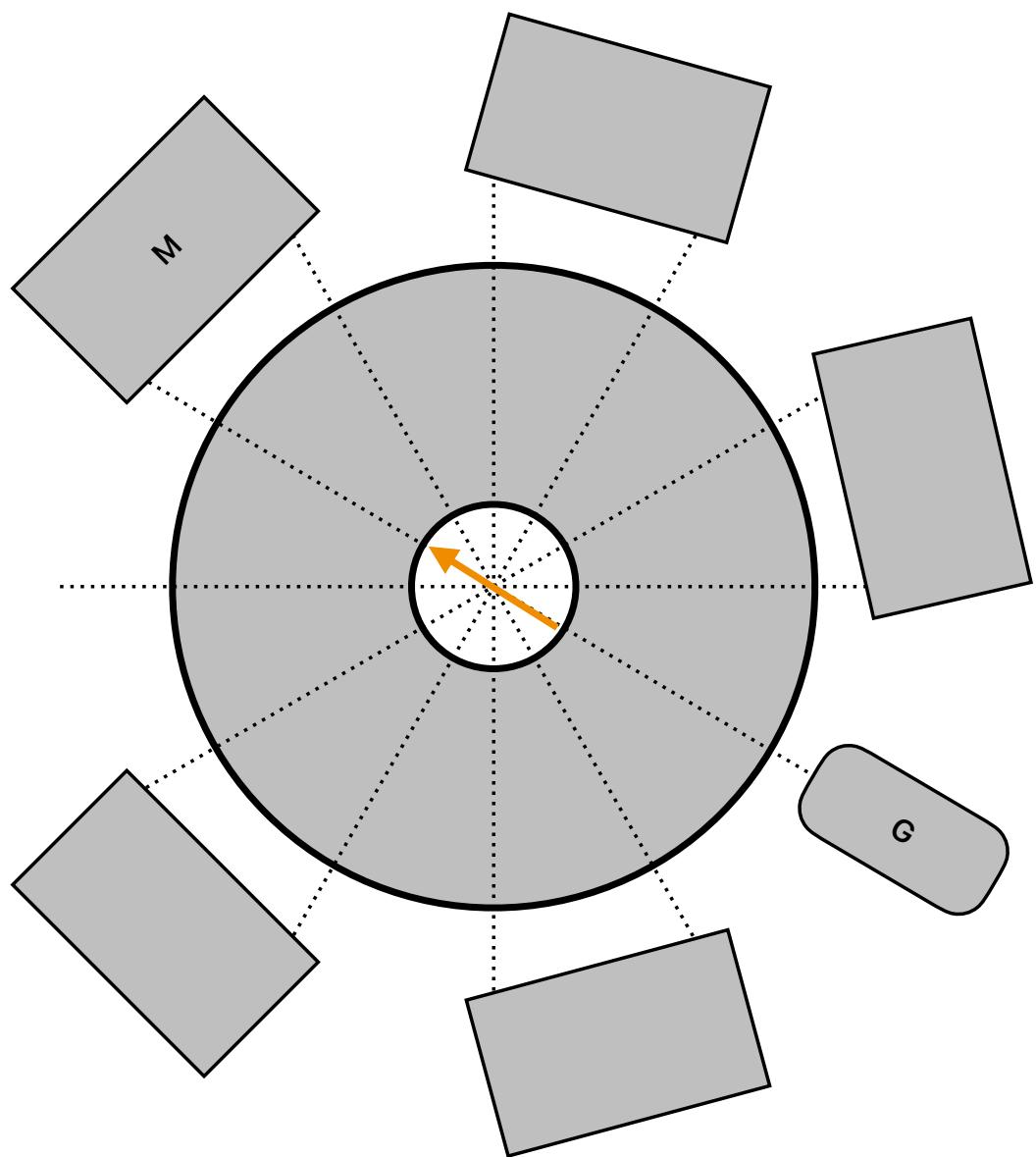


Figure 1.8. $[\frac{T}{4}, \frac{T}{2}]$ time frame of a rhodotron.

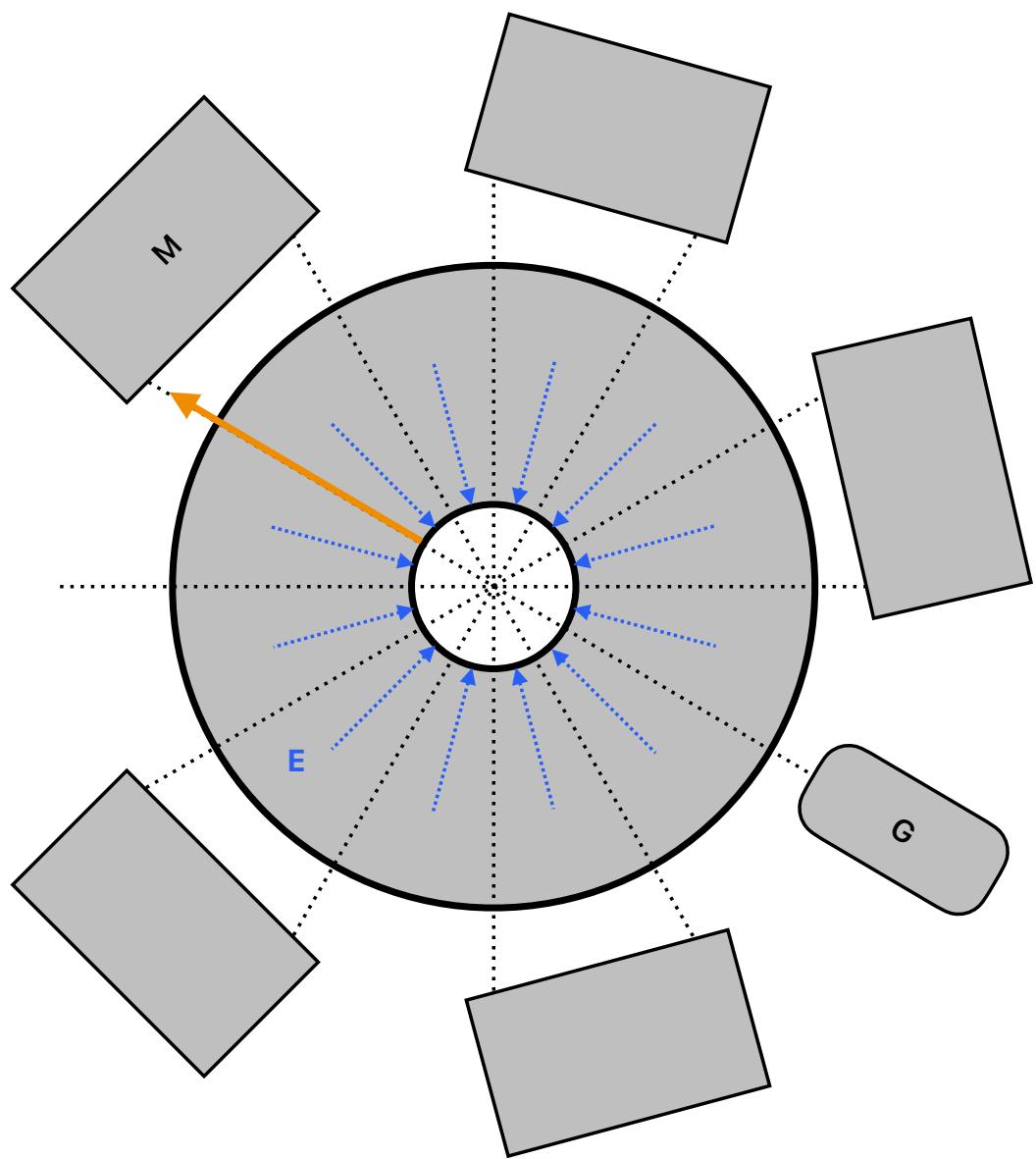


Figure 1.9. $[\frac{T}{2}, \frac{3T}{4}]$ time frame of a rhodotron.

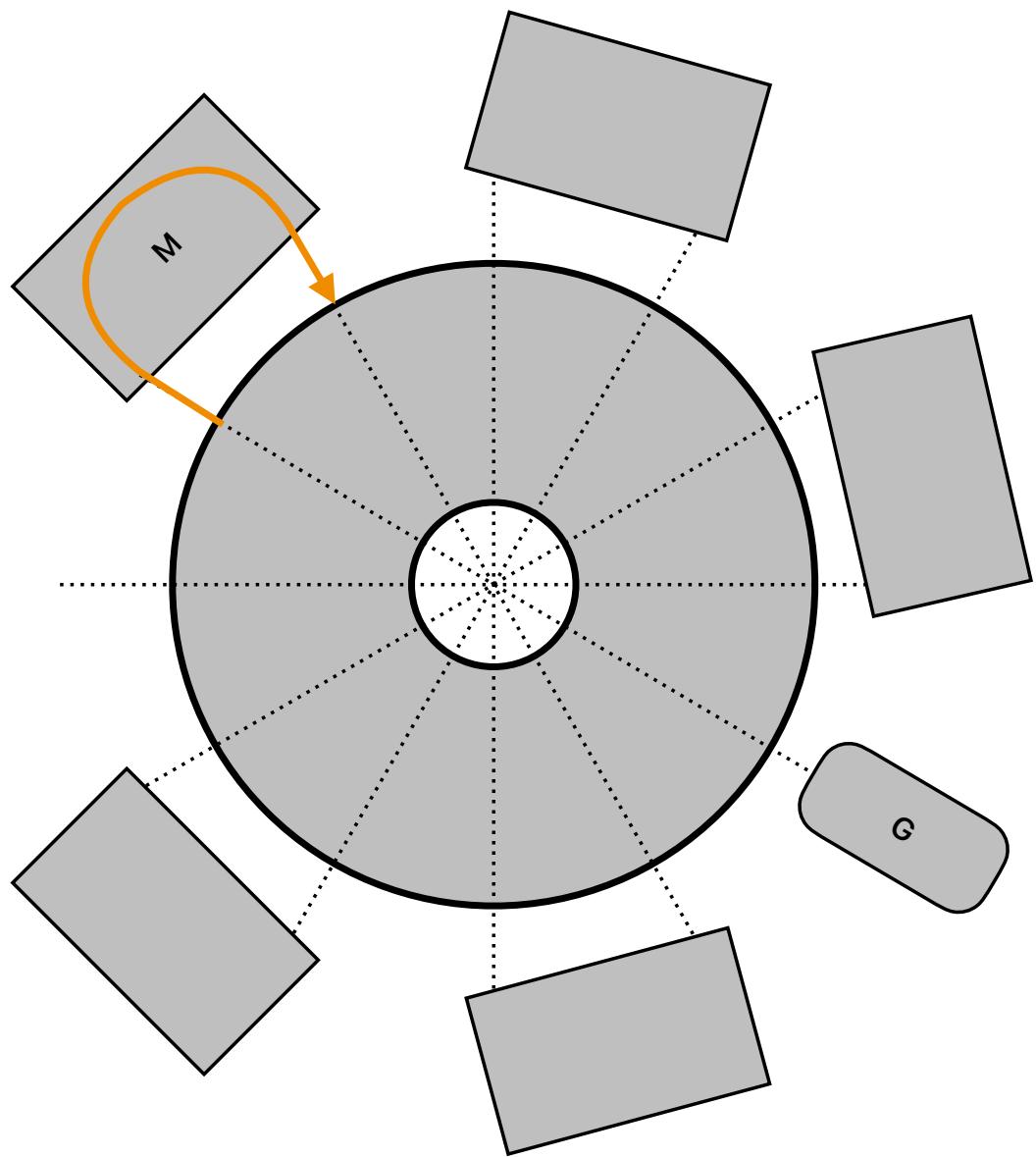


Figure 1.10. $[\frac{3T}{4}, T]$ time frame of a rhodotron.

1.3. Basic Concepts in Programming

1.3.1. Clock Cycle

In programming, a clock cycle refers to a fundamental unit of time measurement used in computer systems. It represents the basic rhythm or timing mechanism of a computer's central processing unit (CPU) and is typically measured in terms of the CPU's clock speed, expressed in hertz (Hz).

A clock cycle represents one complete pulse or oscillation of the CPU's clock signal. It serves as a synchronization mechanism, coordinating the execution of instructions and the timing of various operations within the CPU. Each clock cycle is associated with a specific duration, which is determined by the clock speed of the CPU.

The concept of clock cycles is often used when considering the performance and efficiency of algorithms and code. Since the execution time of instructions is influenced by the number of clock cycles required, minimizing the number of clock cycles needed for a program or algorithm can lead to faster and more efficient code execution. Table below shows the amount of clock cycles required for some mathematical calculations in various processors.

Note that *division* is by far the most time consuming basic mathematical operation between addition, subtraction and multiplication. Although not discussed in the following chapters, mathematical operations were reduced to addition, subtraction and multiplication when found to be possible while developing computationally intensive software in *Chapter 4*.

MEASURED CPU TIMES OF BASIC MATHEMATICAL OPERATIONS							
OPERATION	DOUBLE PRECISION				QUADRUPLE PRECISION		
	i486	Pentium	PA-7000	μ SPARC-II	Alpha	PA-7000	μ SPARC-II
$x = y \dots$	0.46	0.24	1.00	1.00	0.41	5.1	2.8
$x = y + z \dots$	0.91	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	131	11.3
$x = yz \dots$	1.09	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	457	99.5
$x = y/z \dots$	2.81	4.49	4.92	3.32	6.59	1100	168
$x = y^{1/2} \dots$	12.0	19.6	4.95	24.4	38.5	1100	149
$x = \sin y \dots$	19.8	23.3	49.8	22.0	18.5	9510	1740
$x = \log y \dots$	20.2	23.9	47.8	31.9	22.0	5420	1240
$x = \tan^{-1} y \dots$	19.8	27.3	46.3	37.3	23.5	5930	1270
$x = \tan y \dots$	18.0	28.3	63.2	30.0	35.1	8450	2040
$x = \exp y \dots$	24.9	32.7	42.0	19.0	23.2	6560	1370

Figure 1.11. Amount of clock cycle for mathematical operations in various processors [6].

1.3.2. Concurrency

Concurrency in programming refers to the ability of a program to execute multiple tasks or processes simultaneously. It allows different parts of a program to make progress independently, potentially improving performance, responsiveness, and resource utilization.

Concurrency in single core can be achieved by implementing clever scheduling of list of operations called *threads*. This results in non-blocking execution of multiple threads, but only one thread would be executed at any given time. True concurrency on the other hand, can only be achieved by using multiple cores. Each core would be able to execute one thread at any time.

Programs that implement concurrency using multiple cores executes more operations per clock cycle. However, this does not directly lead to an improved performance due to the heavy burden of scheduling and managing multiple threads.

Threads utilize *mutexes*, short for "mutual exclusion," to synchronize and manage

access to shared resources in a multi-threaded or multi-process environment.

1.3.3. Object Oriented Programming

Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) is a programming paradigm that revolves around the concept of objects. Definition called class serves as a blueprint that defines the structure and behavior of objects. Each object encapsulates both data, and the functions that manipulate that data. This encapsulation promotes modular code design and enhances data security by controlling access to the object's internal state.

In OOP, *inheritance* enables the creation of new classes based on existing ones, facilitating code reuse and hierarchy. *Polymorphism* allows objects of different classes to be treated uniformly through a common interface, enhancing flexibility and extensibility. By providing abstraction, OOP simplifies complex systems by focusing on essential features and interactions, making software development more manageable, scalable, and maintainable.

2. TOOLS

For the purpose of designing, enhancing, and optimizing particle accelerators, certain tools can be employed. The following sections will explore several of the software and algorithms that were put to use.

2.1. Simulation

A simulation software is a computer program or tool that enables the creation and execution of simulations to model and analyze real-world systems or processes. It allows users to replicate the behavior, interactions, and outcomes of the system or process under study, providing insights and predictions that can be valuable for decision-making, optimization, or understanding complex phenomena.

Simulation software provides a virtual environment where users can define the parameters, variables, and rules of the system being simulated. The software then uses mathematical and physical models, algorithms, and computational techniques to simulate the behavior of the system over time.

2.2. Available Tools

2.2.1. Poisson Superfish

Poisson Superfish is a software package developed by the *Los Alamos National Laboratory* for the design and analysis of electromagnetic fields, particularly those related to particle accelerators and high-energy physics experiments [7]. It is commonly used in the field of accelerator physics to simulate and optimize the behavior of charged particle beams as they pass through various electromagnetic structures, such as cavities and magnets.

2.2.2. CST Studio Suite

CST Studio Suite is a powerful software package developed by *Simulia* for electromagnetic simulation and analysis. It is widely used in various industries, including electronics, telecommunications, automotive, aerospace, and more, to design and optimize electromagnetic devices and systems. The software provides a comprehensive set of tools for simulating and analyzing the behavior of electromagnetic fields and their interactions with different materials, structures and charged particles.

2.2.3. ROOT

ROOT is a widely used open-source software framework developed by CERN (European Organization for Nuclear Research) for data analysis, visualization, and storage in the field of high-energy physics, particularly in experiments conducted at particle accelerators like the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) [8]. It has become an essential tool in particle physics research, and it is used by physicists around the world to analyze and interpret data.

2.2.4. gnuplot

GNUPLOT is a popular open-source software used for creating and visualizing data plots and graphs [9]. It is widely utilized in various fields, including scientific research, data analysis, engineering, and more, to represent and analyze data in a graphical format.

2.3. Algorithms

2.3.1. Leapfrog

The Leapfrog method is a numerical method commonly used to solve ordinary differential equations (ODEs) that involve second-order time derivatives. Such an ODE can be written as

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = f(x). \quad (2.1)$$

The Leapfrog method is a variant of the finite difference method, and it approximates the solution of an ODE by discretizing both time and space. The method gets its name from the way it calculates the values of the solution at each time step, which resembles a "leapfrogging" motion. It is a simple and efficient algorithm that is often used in simulations of physical systems, such as celestial mechanics or molecular dynamics. The idea is straight forward; in the time interval Δt ,

$$a(t_0) = f(x_0), \quad (2.2)$$

$$x(t_0 + \Delta t) = x(t_0) + v(t_0)\Delta t + a(t_0) \frac{\Delta t^2}{2}, \quad (2.3)$$

$$v(t_0 + \Delta t) = v(t_0) + \{a(t_0) + a(t_0 + \Delta t)\} \frac{\Delta t}{2}. \quad (2.4)$$

For more stability, this version can be rearranged to what is called 'kick-drift-kick' form as

$$v(t_0 + \Delta t/2) = v(t_0) + a(t_0) \frac{\Delta t}{2}, \quad (2.5)$$

$$x(t_0 + \Delta t) = x(t_0) + v(t_0 + \Delta t/2)\Delta t, \quad (2.6)$$

$$v(t_0 + \Delta t) = v(t_0 + \Delta t/2) + a(t_0 + \Delta t) \frac{\Delta t}{2}. \quad (2.7)$$

This version provides more time resolution to our calculation; however, it increases the number of calculations needed by about 50%.

2.3.2. Runge Kutta

The Runge-Kutta methods, named after the German mathematicians Carl Runge and Martin Wilhelm Kutta [10] [11], family of numerical methods used to solve ordinary differential equations (ODEs) that are in the form as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y). \quad (2.8)$$

The basic idea behind the Runge-Kutta method is to approximate the solution of an ODE by taking small steps and using a weighted average of function evaluations at different points within each step as

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \delta x \sum_{i=1}^m b_i k_i, \quad x_{n+1} = x_n + \delta x, \quad (2.9)$$

where

$$k_i = f(x_n + c_i \delta x, y_n + \delta x \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} k_j). \quad (2.10)$$

These *Equations 2.9 and 2.10* define the family of methods. To specify a particular method, order m , coefficients a_{ij} , b_i and c_i should be provided. The coefficients of any Runge-Kutta method can be visualized by a tableau called *Butcher Tableau* which can be observed in *Figure 2.1*.

	0				
c_1		a_{21}			
c_2		a_{31}	a_{32}		
\vdots			\dots		
c_m		a_{m1}	a_{m2}	\dots	$a_{m,m-1}$
		b_1	b_2	\dots	b_m

Figure 2.1. Butcher Tableau.

The simplest Runge-Kutta method is the *Euler's method* with the following *Butcher tableau*,

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & \\ \hline & 1 \end{array}$$

The most commonly used version of the Runge-Kutta method is the fourth-order Runge-Kutta method, also known as RK4. The RK4 method involves four function evaluations per step and has an error term that is proportional to the step size raised to the fifth power. Two of the most used *Butcher tableaus* for *RK4* given in *Figure 2.2*. The second tableau in *Figure 2.2* is called the "*3/8 rule*". Its main advantage is that its error coefficients are smaller than the other. But it costs more floating point operations per step. Resulting in slower calculations.

0		0	
1/2	1/2	1/3	1/3
1/2	0 1/2	-1/3 1	-1 1
1	0 0 1	1 -1 1	1/8 3/8 3/8 1/8
	1/6 1/3 1/3 1/6		

Figure 2.2. Butcher Tableau for RK4.

3. DESIGN

In this chapter, the primary design factors of rhodotron-type accelerators are examined, along with an exploration of the design created within the *KAHVELab*. Rhodotron-type accelerators are composed of two principal components: a coaxial acceleration cavity and recirculating magnets. The cavity's design is of utmost significance for attaining resonance and improving beam-RF interactions, while the magnet design focuses on preserving the beam's phase stability.

3.1. Cavity Design

The first and the most important design parameter for a cavity is the operating RF frequency. After an operating RF frequency is set and the desired $R1/R2$ relation in *Figure 1.5* is selected, design parameters of acceleration plane of the cavity is fully determined.

By following the cylindrical design mentioned in *Section 1.2.4*, the only main design parameter remaining is the height of the cylindrical cavity. This parameter can be found using the constraint mentioned in *Section 1.2.1*; the fact that operating RF frequency must be equal to resonant frequency of the cavity. For simple coaxial cavity, the height should be $\lambda/2$, where λ is the wavelength of the external RF supply [1]. Simulation tools such as *CST Studio*, *Poisson SUPERFISH* can be used to confirm this condition.

In the following examples, $p = 1$ from *Figure 1.5* was used, and it will be the focus of all further calculations. Using $f_{RF} = 107.5$ MHz & $f_{RF} = 180$ MHz for comparison:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{107.5} &= 107.5 \text{ MHz}, & f_{180} &= 180 \text{ MHz}, \\
 \lambda_{107.5} &= \frac{c}{f_{107.5}} = 2.789m, & \lambda_{180} &= \frac{c}{f_{180}} = 1.666m, \\
 R_2 &= 0.27 \times \lambda_{107.5} = 0.753m, & R_2 &= 0.27 \times \lambda_{180} = 0.450m, \\
 R_1 &= \frac{R_2}{4} = 0.188m, & R_1 &= \frac{R_2}{4} = 0.113m, \\
 h &= \frac{\lambda}{2} = 1.394m. & h &= \frac{\lambda}{2} = 0.833m.
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

In the *figures 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3*, Poisson Superfish and CST simulations of two cavities defined by *Equation 3.1* can be observed.

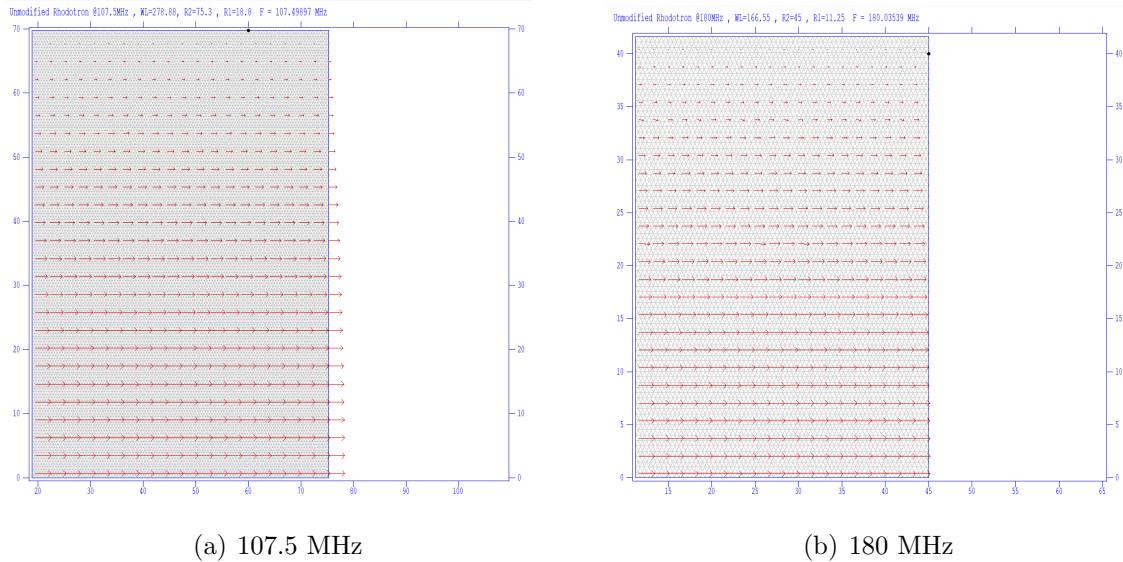
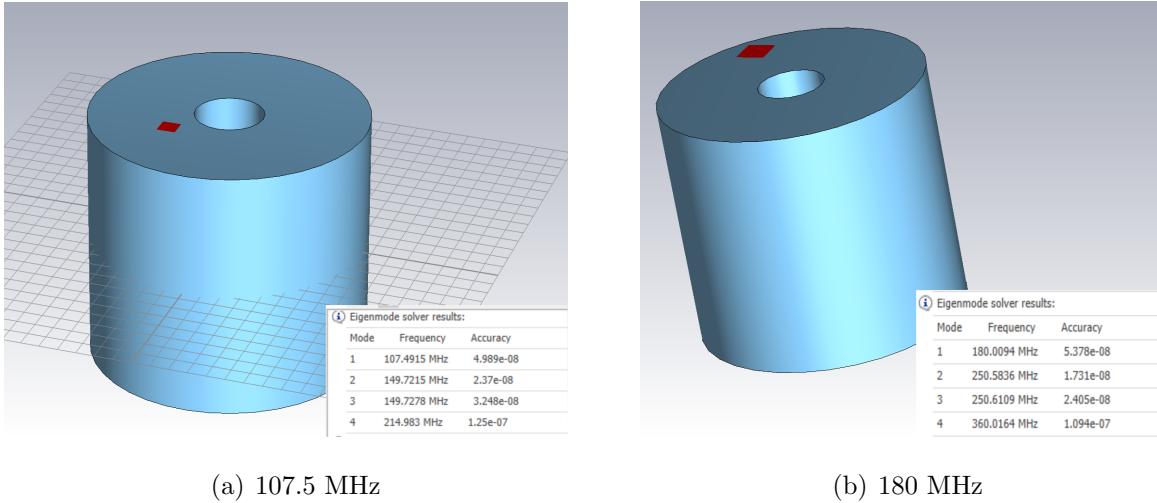
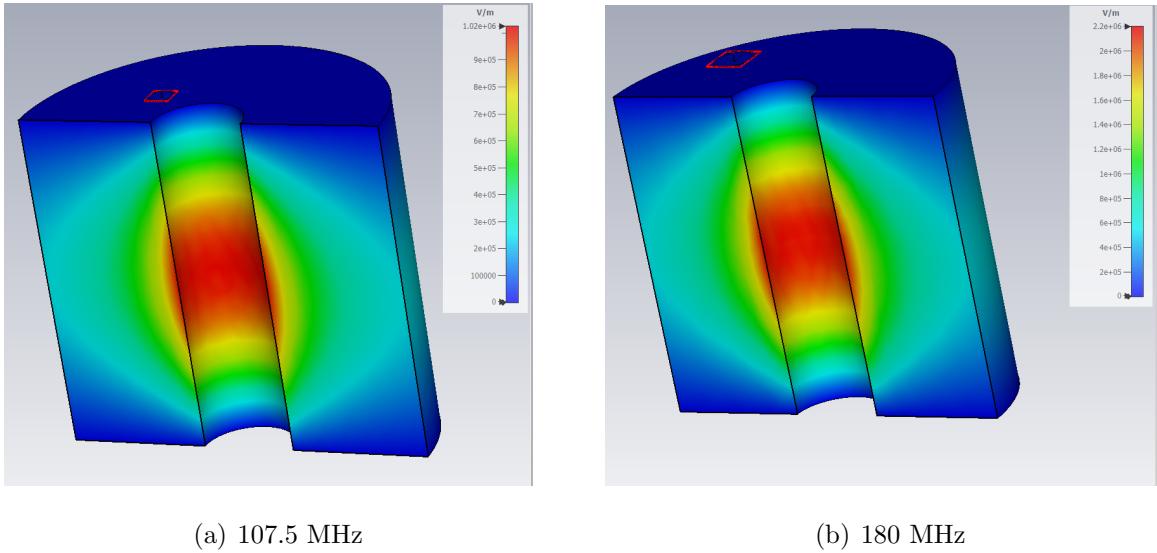


Figure 3.1. Poission Superfish results for *Equation 3.1*.

Figure 3.2. CST Eigenmode results for *Equation 3.1*.Figure 3.3. CST Electric field solutions for *Equation 3.1*.

As mentioned by *Pottier*, truncated cone terminations in inner cylinder can improve the shunt impedance Z of the cavity [1]. In the *Figure 3.4*, *Poisson Superfish* results of such a modification with matching height increase to keep resonant frequency can be found.

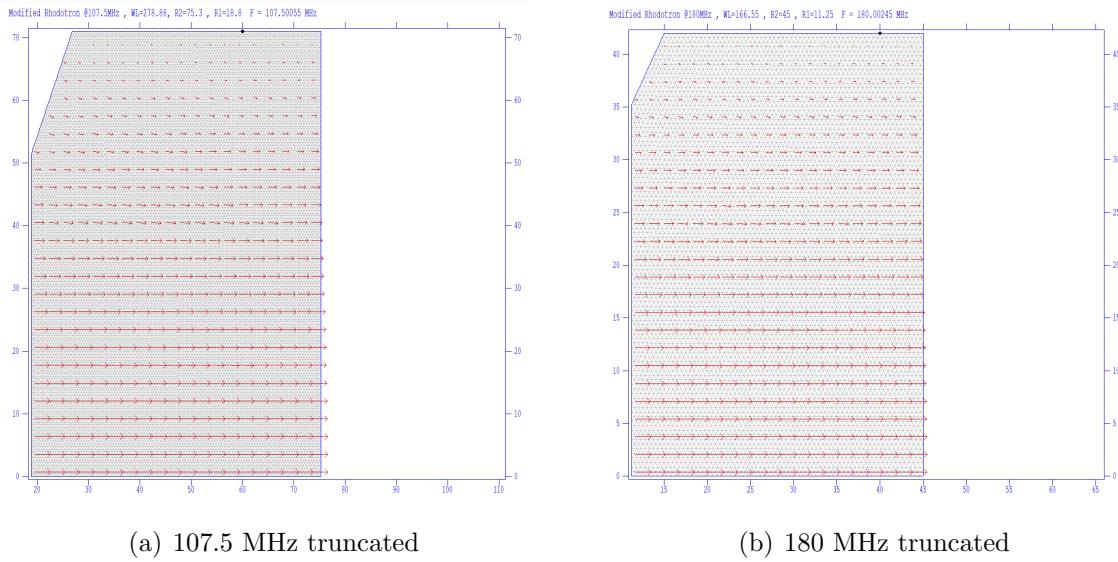


Figure 3.4. Poisson Superfish field results of truncated cavities.

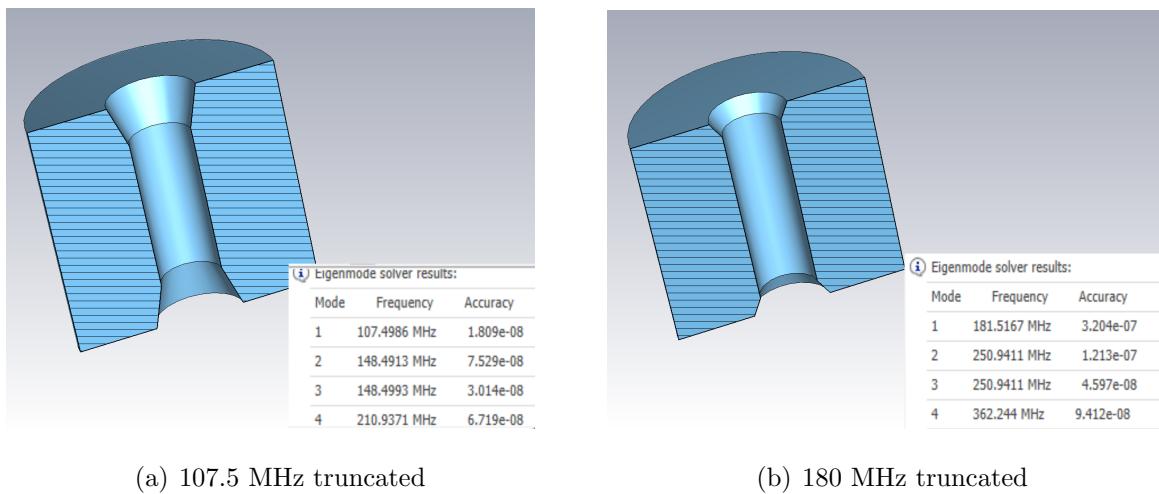
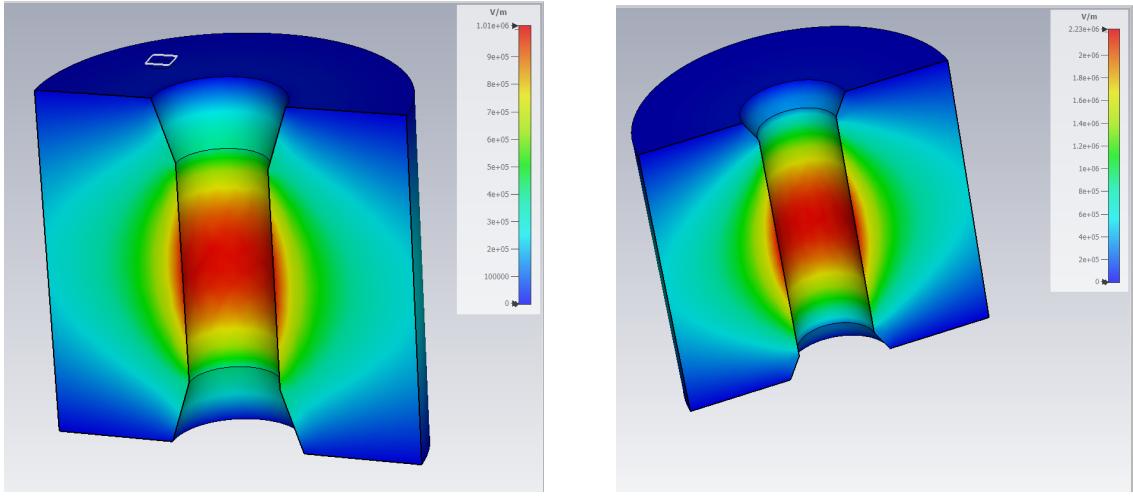


Figure 3.5. CST eigenmode results of truncated cavities.



(a) 107.5 MHz truncated (b) 180 MHz truncated

Figure 3.6. CST electric field results of truncated cavities.

```

1367 All calculated values below refer to the mesh geometry only.
1368 Field normalization (NORM = 0): EZERO = 1.00000 MV/m
1369 Frequency = 107.49897 MHz
1370 Normalization factor for E0 = 1.0000 MV/m = 10801.202
1371 Stored energy = 0.0087215 Joules/cm
1372 Using standard room-temperature copper.
1373 Surface resistance = 2.70497 milliohm
1374 Normal-conductor resistivity = 1.72410 microohm-cm
1375 Operating temperature = 20.0000 C
1376 Power dissipation = 126.32000 W/cm
1377 Q = 489.0 Shunt impedance = 6029.80000 MΩ
1378 r/Q = 54109.222 Ohm Wake loss parameter = 9.15051 V/pC
1379 Average magnetic field on the outer wall = 2654.74 A/m, 953.182 mili/cm²
1380 Maximum H (at X,Y = 61.05,69.72) = 2654.52 A/m, 953.03 mili/cm²
1381 Maximum E (at X,Y = 75.3,0.0) = 0.999598 MV/m, 0.085835 Kilp.
1382 Ratio of peak fields Bmax/Emax = 3.3359 mT/(MV/m)
1383 Peak-to-average ratio Emax/E0 = 1.0000
1384
1385 Wall segments:
1386 Segment Xend Yend Emax Power P/A dI/dX dI/dY
1387 (cm) (cm) (MV/m) (W) (mili/cm²) (MHz/mm) (MHz/mm)
1388
1389 18.800 0.0000
1390 1 18.800 69.720 0.9999 33.22 476.5 1.1154E-06 0.000
1391 2 75.300 69.720 7.2938E-03 53.85 953.0 0.000 -0.1542
1392 3 75.300 0.0000 1.000 33.22 476.5 1.1140E-06 0.000
1393
1394 Total 120.3
1395

```

(a) 107.5 MHz unmodified

```

875 -----
876 All calculated values below refer to the mesh geometry only.
877 Field normalization (NORM = 0): EZERO = 1.00000 MV/m
878 Frequency = 180.83239 MHz
879 Normalization factor for E0 = 1.0000 MV/m = 9985.526
880 Stored energy = 0.0031127 Joules/cm
881 Using standard room-temperature copper.
882 Surface resistance = 3.50958 milliohm
883 Normal-conductor resistivity = 1.72410 microohm-cm
884 Operating temperature = 20.0000 C
885 Power dissipation = 92.9927 W/cm
886 Q = 37863.7 Shunt impedance = 6029.917 MΩ
887 r/Q = 32356.061 Ohm Wake loss parameter = 9.14856 V/pC
888 Average magnetic field on the outer wall = 2655.62 A/m, 1.23436 W/cm²
889 Maximum H (at X,Y = 43.511,41.63) = 2654.93 A/m, 1.23372 W/cm²
890 Maximum E (at X,Y = 45.0,0.0) = 0.999942 MV/m, 0.070717 Kilp.
891 Ratio of peak fields Bmax/Emax = 3.3368 mT/(MV/m)
892 Peak-to-average ratio Emax/E0 = 0.9998
893
894 Wall segments:
895 Segment Xend Yend Emax Power P/A dI/dX dI/dY
896 (cm) (cm) (MV/m) (W) (mili/cm²) (MHz/mm) (MHz/mm)
897
898 1 11.250 0.0000
899 1 11.250 41.630 0.9998 25.68 0.6168 1.1704E-05 0.000
900 2 45.000 41.630 1.5343E-02 41.64 1.234 0.000 -0.4325
901 3 45.000 0.0000 0.9998 25.68 0.6168 1.1756E-05 0.000
902
903 Total 92.99

```

(b) 180 MHz unmodified

Figure 3.7. Poisson Superfish calculations with *unmodified* cavities.

```

All calculated values below refer to the mesh geometry only.
Field normalization (NORM = 0): EZERO = 1.00000 MV/m
Frequency = 107.50955 MHz
Normalization factor for E0 = 1.000 MV/m = 10177.202
Stored energy = 0.0087482 Joules/cm
Using standard room-temperature copper.
Surface resistance = 2.70409 milliohm
Normal-conductor resistivity = 1.72410 microohm-cm
Operating temperature = 20.0000 C
Power dissipation = 117.3652 W/cm
Q = 59246.6 Shunt impedance = 4054.032 MΩ/mm
r/Q = 54024.066 Ohm Wake loss parameter = 9.12528 V/pC
Average magnetic field on the outer wall = 2685.64 A/m, 975.509 mT/cm²
Maximum H (at X,Y = 73.55,71) = 2707.68 A/m, 991.587 mT/cm²
Maximum E (at X,Y = 75.3,0.0) = 1.00401 MV/m, 0.086182 Kilp.
Ratio of peak fields Bmax/Emax = 3.3898 mT/(MV/m)
Peak-to-average ratio Emax/E0 = 1.0040

Wall segments:
Segment Xend Vend Emax Power P/A dF/dx dF/dy
-----(cm) (cm) (MV/m) (W) (mA/cm²) (MHz/mm) (MHz/mm)
-----| | | | | | | |
1 18.000 51.400 0.9956 16.34 317.9 4.2318E-02 0.000
2 26.000 71.000 0.3137 18.47 872.4 -4.5918E-02 -1.8742E-02
3 75.300 71.000 4.0276E-02 47.31 975.5 0.000 -0.1350
4 75.300 0.0000 1.0004 35.25 496.4 -3.5967E-03 0.000
-----| | | | | | | |
Total 117.4

```

(a) 107.5 MHz truncated

```

939
940 All calculated values below refer to the mesh geometry only.
941 Field normalization (NORM = 0): EZERO = 1.00000 MV/m
942 Frequency = 180.00245 MHz
943 Normalization factor for E0 = 1.000 MV/m = 10888.517
944 Stored energy = 0.0031145 Joules/cm
945 Using standard room-temperature copper.
946 Surface resistance = 3.50026 milliohm
947 Normal-conductor resistivity = 1.72410 microohm-cm
948 Operating temperature = 20.0000 C
949 Power dissipation = 96.5379 W/cm
950 Q = 38985.8 Shunt impedance = 3727.719 MΩ/mm
951 r/Q = 32384.066 Ohm Wake loss parameter = 9.12528 V/pC
952 Average magnetic field on the outer wall = 2665.56 A/m, 1.24351 W/cm²
953 Maximum H (at X,Y = 43.5,42) = 2678.17 A/m, 1.2553 W/cm²
954 Maximum E (at X,Y = 45.0,0) = 1.00154 MV/m, 0.070842 Kilp.
955 Ratio of peak fields Bmax/Emax = 3.3603 mT/(MV/m)
956 Peak-to-average ratio Emax/E0 = 1.0015

958 Wall segments:
959 Segment Xend Vend Emax Power P/A dF/dx dF/dy
960 -----(cm) (cm) (MV/m) (W) (mA/cm²) (MHz/mm) (MHz/mm)
961 -----| | | | | | | |
962 1 11.250 0.0000
963 2 15.000 35.250 0.9981 17.74 0.5033 7.6469E-02 0.000
964 3 45.000 42.000 0.1761 9.122 1.181 -8.1176E-02 -4.5959E-02
965 4 45.000 0.0000 1.002 26.38 0.6282 -4.6971E-03 0.000
966 -----| | | | | | | |
967 Total 96.54
968
969

```

(b) 180 MHz truncated

Figure 3.8. Poisson Superfish calculations with *truncated* cavities.

One can observe the shunt impedance gain between truncated and unmodified cavities in *Figures 3.7 and 3.8* as

$$\Delta Z_{107.5} = 2.5\%, \quad \Delta Z_{180} = 2.7\%. \quad (3.2)$$

3.2. Magnet Design

Magnet design in rhodotron type accelerators depend heavily on the design of the cavities. Because the limiting factors usually are frequency and total volume of the accelerator, magnet design parameters are considered after cavity design has been completed. Considering the nature of coaxial cavity, simplest path for beams inside magnets is major segment of a circle, which was used as the reference for following discussions.

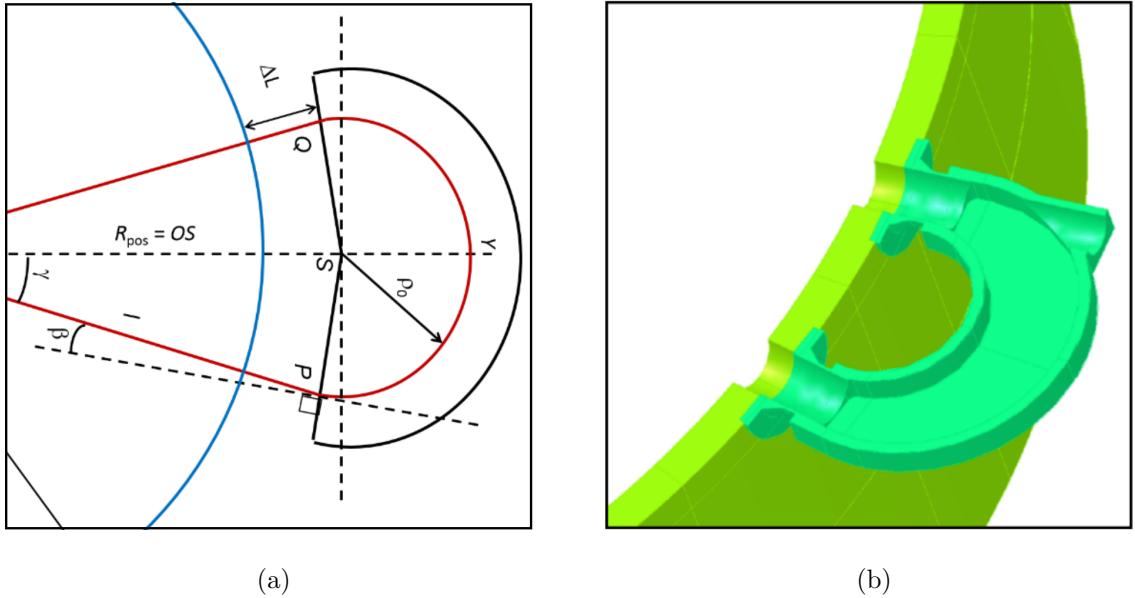


Figure 3.9. Geometry and modeling, outside trajectory of a rhodotron (TT300) [12].

In rhodotron accelerators, magnets are used for not only guiding the electron beam to desired path, but also for synchronizing them with the RF field in the cavity. This synchronization, also called phase stability, is the fundamental constraint of magnet design. Time spent outside of the RF cavity should be precisely tuned to maximize acceleration in the succeeding pass.

Two different approaches have been used to achieve phase stability. These approaches are discussed further in the following sections.

3.2.1. $n\lambda$ Technique

First approach for phase stability consideration assumes that from the start of the current pass, $\beta_{avg} \approx 1$ for a synchronous particle.

To maintain the phase synchronization, a particle that started the current pass at $t = 0$, should start the next pass at $t = nT$, where n is an integer and T is the period of RF field inside cavity. As discussed earlier, by assuming the electron is traveling at c , phase stability can be achieved by designing the whole trajectory to be $n\lambda$, where λ is the wavelength of the RF field. In other words, total trajectory of synchronous particle needs to satisfy

$$L_{pass} = n\lambda. \quad (3.3)$$

Since $n > 1$ would require unnecessarily long and expensive beam guide and magnets, $n = 1$ is the most efficient choice, which leads to

$$L_{pass} = \lambda. \quad (3.4)$$

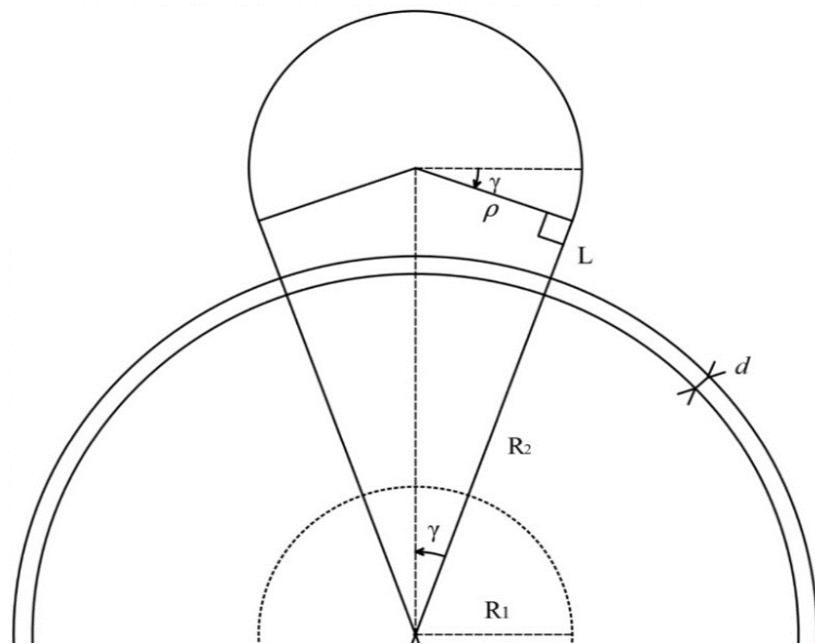


Figure 3.10. Trajectory of a particle in single pass.

From *Figure 3.10*, where γ is half the angle between trajectories of successive passes, ρ is the radius of the circular path inside magnet, L is the length of the magnet guide, d is the thickness of the RF cavity wall the constraints are

$$L_{in} = 2R_2, \quad (3.5)$$

$$L_{out} = 2L + 2d + (\pi + 2\gamma)\rho, \quad (3.6)$$

$$L_{pass} = L_{in} + L_{out}, \quad (3.7)$$

$$\lambda = 2R_2 + 2d + 2L + (\pi + 2\gamma)\rho. \quad (3.8)$$

After the cavity design is complete, only L , γ and ρ remain, which are the design parameters of magnets. Observing the *Figure 3.10* and using *Equation 3.8*,

$$\tan(\gamma) = \frac{\rho}{R_2 + d + L}, \quad (3.9)$$

$$\rho = \tan(\gamma)(R_2 + d + L), \quad (3.10)$$

$$2\rho = \tan(\gamma)(\lambda - (\pi + 2\gamma)\rho), \quad (3.11)$$

$$\rho(2 + \tan(\gamma)(\pi + 2\gamma)) = \tan(\gamma)\lambda, \quad (3.12)$$

$$\rho = \frac{\lambda}{\pi + 2\gamma + \frac{2}{\tan(\gamma)}}, \quad (3.13)$$

$$L + d = \frac{\rho}{\tan(\gamma)} - R_2. \quad (3.14)$$

Equations 3.13 and 3.14 define 2 constraints. As already discussed, it has been assumed that cavity design is set (*i.e* R_2 , λ , d are already defined). Therefore only the magnet design parameters ρ , γ and L are left. Together with the constraints, one free variable defines the whole magnet design. Considering the importance of γ for maximum number of possible passes, it will be used as the free magnet design variable in the further discussions.

3.2.2. L_{out} Parameter Sweep

As mentioned previously in *Section 3.2.1*, *Equation 3.8* assumes that the particles are fast enough so that $\Delta t_{pass} \approx nT$. This assumption is not guaranteed however, especially in the first few passes if the particles are not accelerated enough. This scenario can happen when RF power is not sufficiently high.

Consider an RF supply with $f = 1$ GHz, $P = 50$ kW. Using *Equation 1.37*, after the first pass the synchronous electron that entered the accelerator with 40 keV and $\phi = 15^\circ$ phase lag, it can be observed that

$$W_{gain} = 2.14 \times 0.2998^{1/4} \times 50000^{1/2} = 354\text{keV}, \quad (3.15)$$

$$W_{total} = 394\text{keV}, \quad (3.16)$$

$$\beta_{40\text{keV}} \approx 0.374, \quad (3.17)$$

$$\beta_{394\text{keV}} \approx 0.825. \quad (3.18)$$

It is clear that β_{avg} is not fast enough to sustain phase stability if the magnet is designed for $\beta = 1$. For these cases, *Equation 3.8* fails to deliver phase stability. Another approach for designing a magnet would be to find a new constraint, K for total path length.

$$L_{pass} = K, \quad (3.19)$$

$$L_{in} + L_{out} = K. \quad (3.20)$$

Since L_{in} is set previously from cavity design, we can remove it from our equation and continue with

$$L_{out} = K. \quad (3.21)$$

To start, an optimization criteria for the following pass such as

- Ensure the phase stability of the synchronous electron
- Maximize the energy gain of the synchronous electron
- Minimize the energy spread of the beam
- Minimize the phase lag spread of the beam
- All of the above with decided weights

needs be selected. Using a simulation software such as *CST Studio Particle Module*, the optimum value of K for the criteria can be found by simulating for different values of K (*sweeping*) and analyzing the results. This process can be repeated for each magnet until the desired beam characteristics in the end of the accelerator are achieved.

However, one caviat of this technique is that, available simulation softwares are not well suited for this kind of process. As mentioned above, *CST Studio Particle Module* has a *parameter sweep* functionality. But the calculation times are too slow to be useful in this particular problem. *A custom built software offering magnet optimizing sweep functionality will be discussed in the following chapter.*

3.3. Initial Design at KAHVELab

A rhodotron with operation frequency of 107.5 MHz was decided to be built at KAHVELab. Frequency was selected to benefit from the RF power supply units at hand. After considering the earlier simulations mentioned in *Sections 3.1 and 3.2*, an initial design was created.

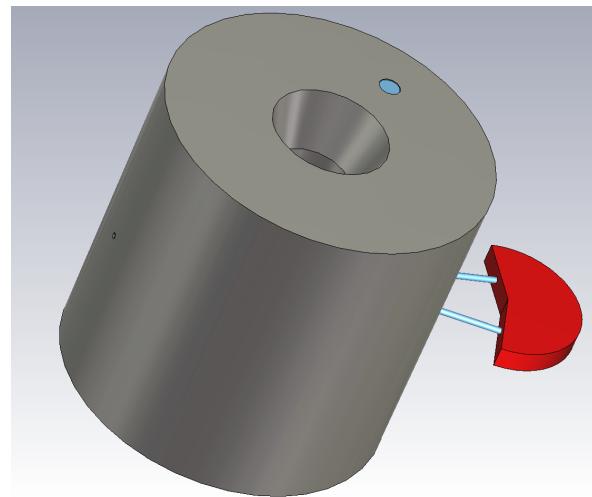
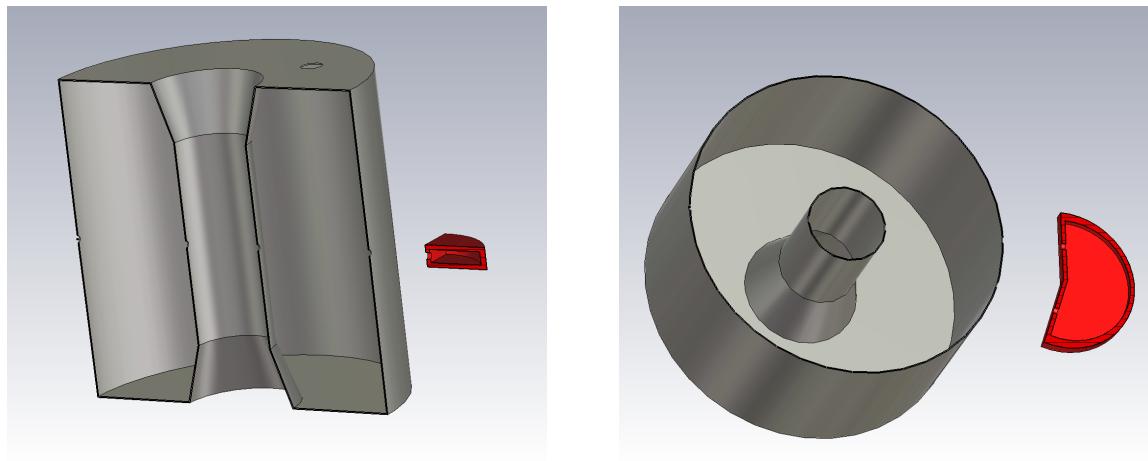


Figure 3.11. Initial design of the proposed rhodotron, $\gamma = 9^\circ$.



(a) Axial cross section

(b) Cross section at acceleration plane

Figure 3.12. Initial design of the proposed rhodotron.

The magnets used in this design is the simplest in terms of design parameters. It consists of an iron casing encapsulating the shape of desired magnetic field, which are created by two coils inside.

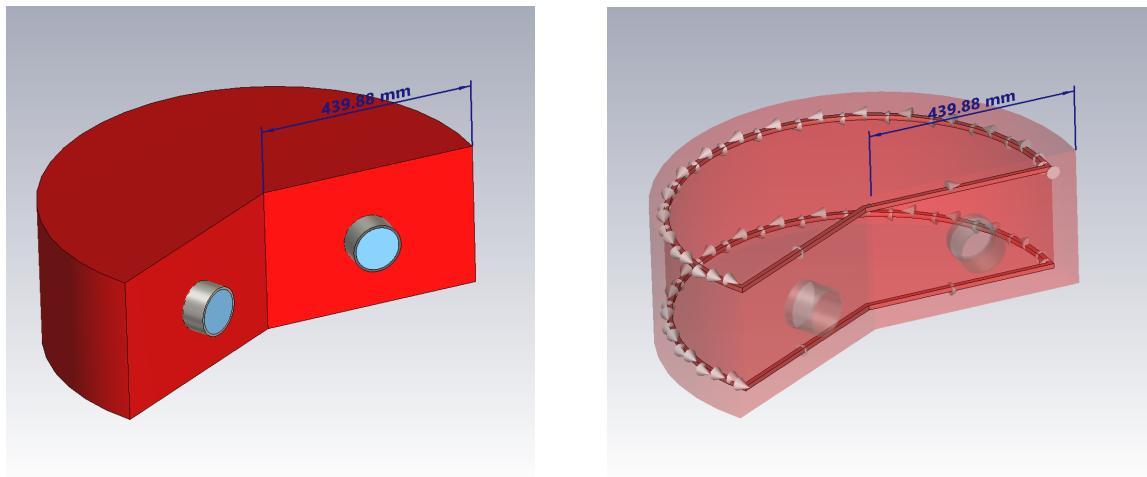


Figure 3.13. Initial magnet design.

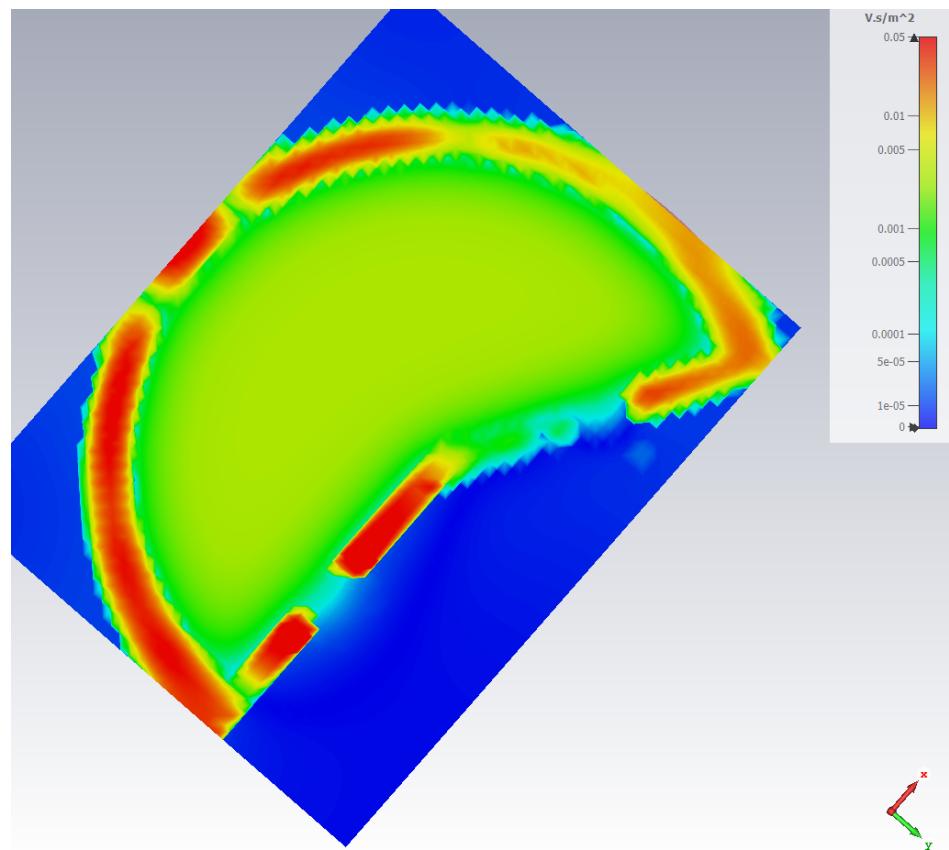


Figure 3.14. Magnetic field in acceleration plate of initial magnet design.

Figure 3.14 shows that this design provides relatively uniform magnetic field inside, although magnetic field gradient in the openings can be improved. After adding two more magnets and using $\gamma = 15^\circ$, the second prototype design was created (*Figure 3.15*).

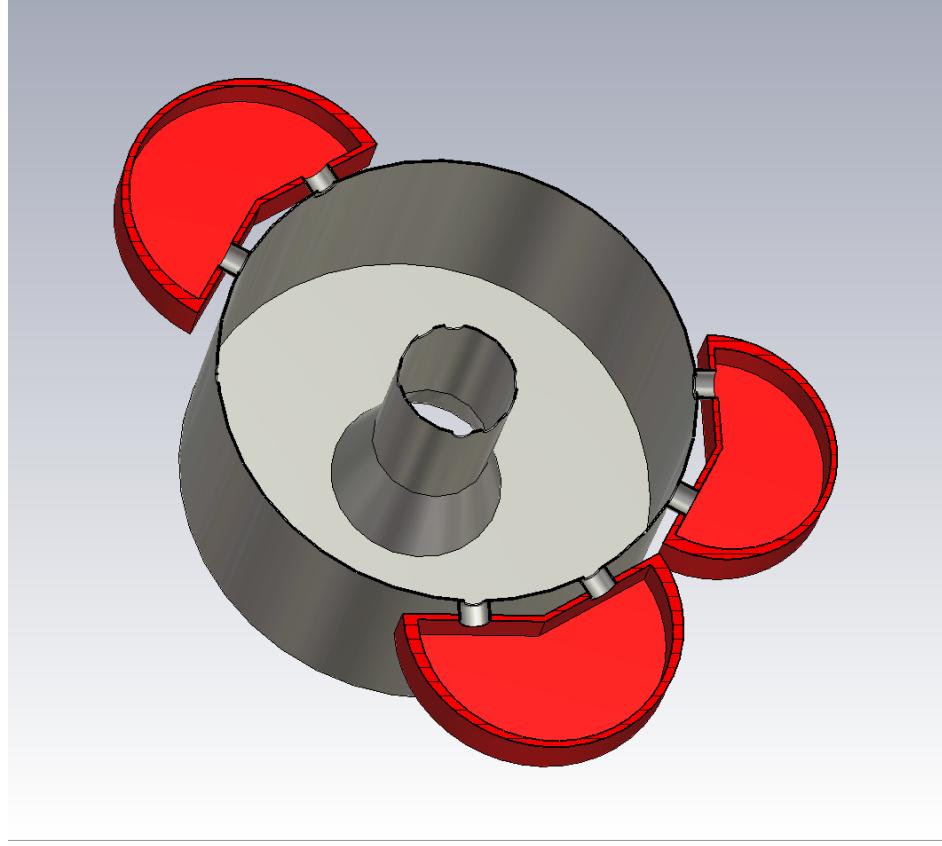
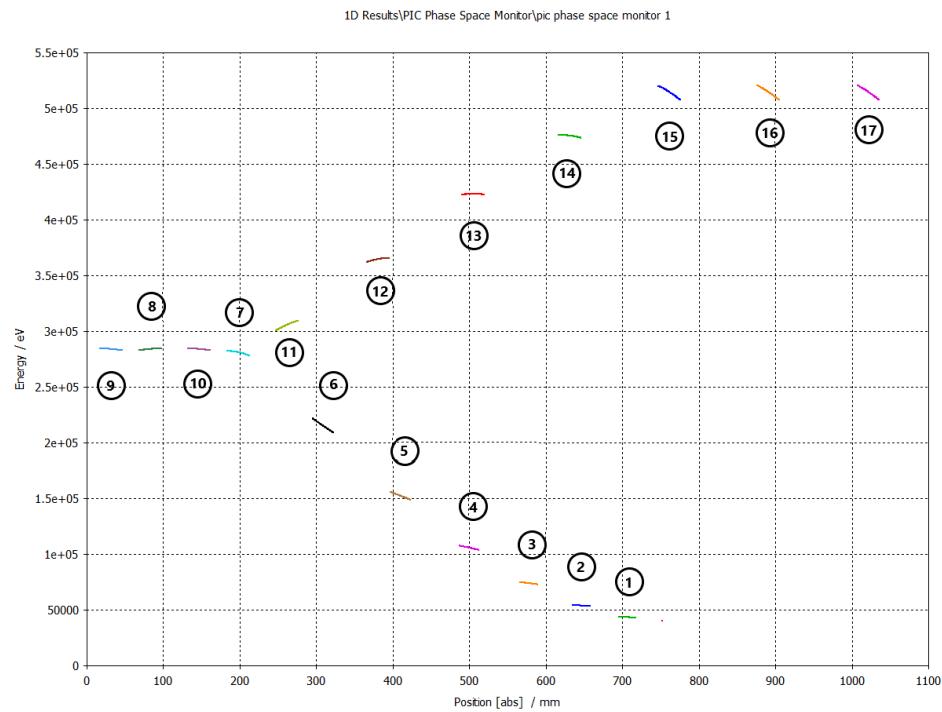
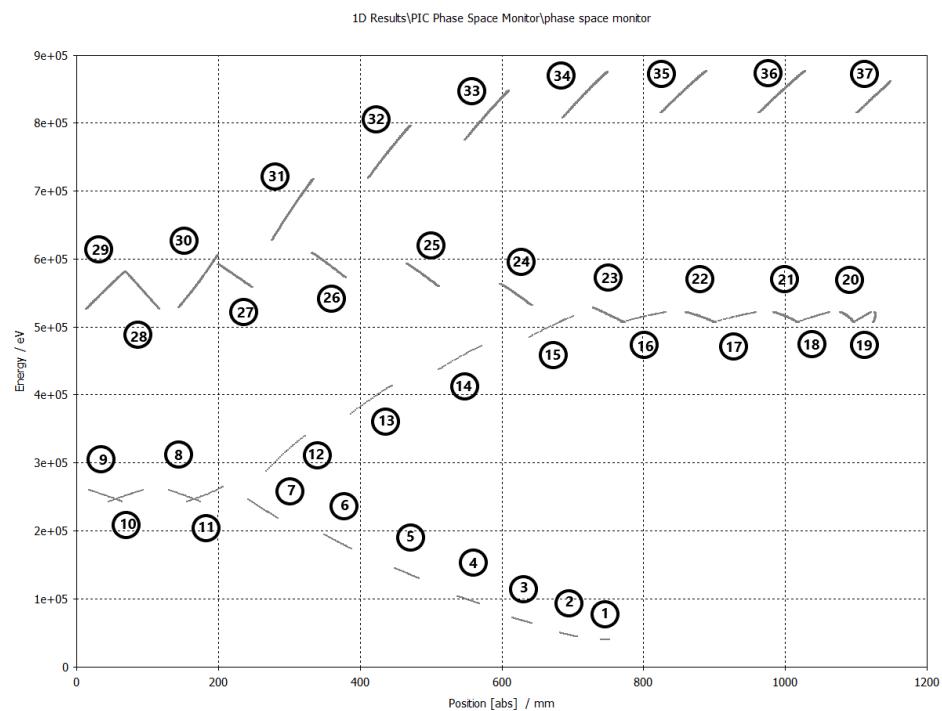


Figure 3.15. Initial cavity with three magnets as shown in *Figure 3.13*, $\gamma = 15^\circ$.

These designs, together with 40 keV e^- gun injecting with phase lag of 15° for 1 ns, was simulated at RF power of 12 kW using *CST Studio Particle Module PIC Solver*. Results of these simulations can be found in *Figure 3.16*.

(a) One pass simulation of *Figure 3.11*(b) Two pass simulation of *Figure 3.15*Figure 3.16. $|r|$ vs *Energy* simulation of initial design.

The behavior of the beam in the *Figure 3.16* after the first pass indicates that phase stability is not maintained. When the simulation results are examined further, it was observed that the beam started the second pass at $t \approx 12$ ns after the injection. Considering the starting phase lag $\phi_{lag} = 15^\circ$, this would mean phase lag of the second pass was $\phi_{lag2} = 120^\circ$. This result can be observed in *Figure 3.16*, as the beam decelerates after a short acceleration in the beginning of the second pass.

After various similar observations in *CST* simulations, underlying cause of this problem was thought to be the $L_{pass} = n\lambda$ approach on magnet design failing in low energies, as anticipated and discussed earlier in the *Section 3.2.2*. *The necessity for an alternative tool, capable of aiding researchers in improving beam behavior, was deemed evident.*

Several improvements were made to KAHVELab Rhodotron initial designs [13]. These include curved edges on cavity which reduce the power loss on cavity walls, and redesigned iron casing on magnets for ease of production and maintenance. Improved designs can be seen in the figures below.

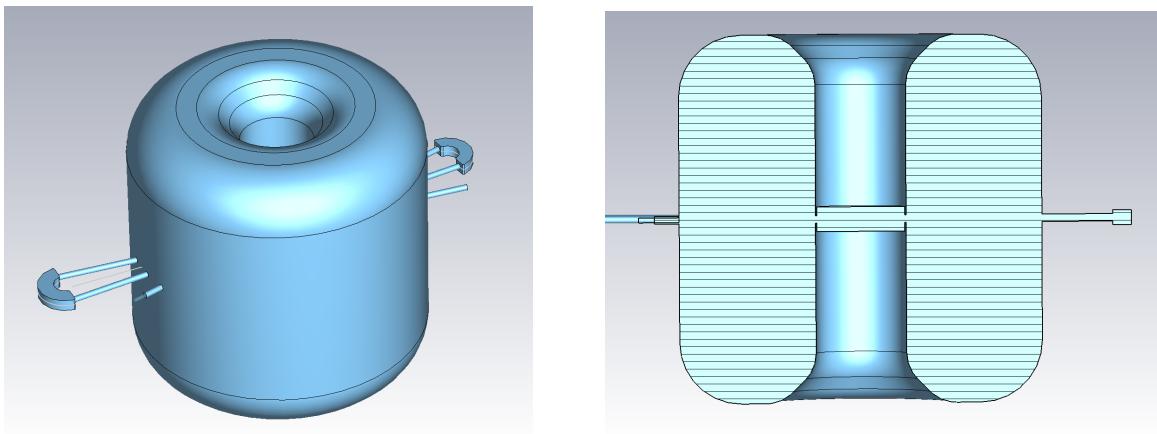


Figure 3.17. Improved cavity design.

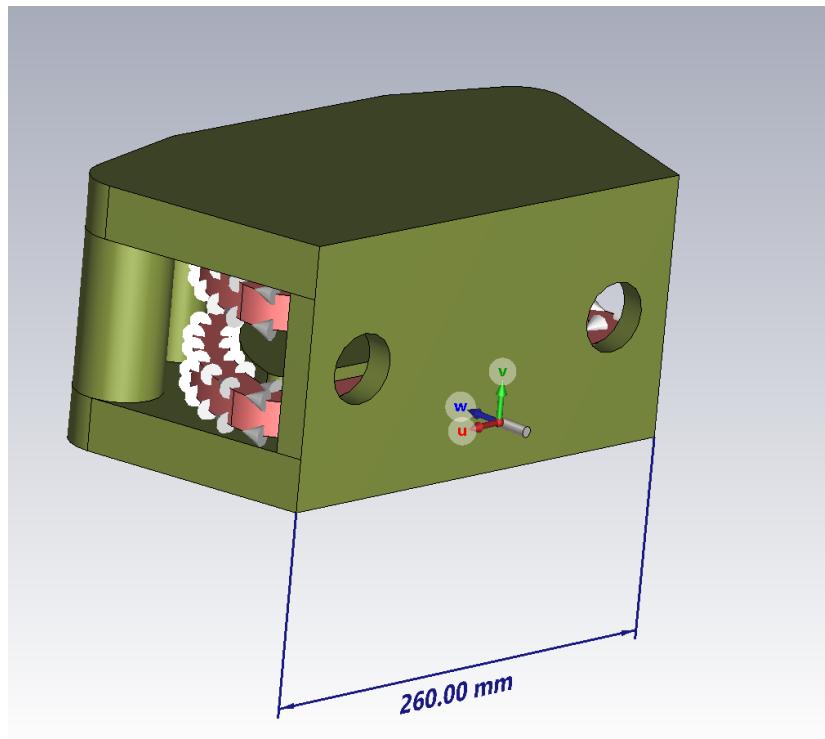


Figure 3.18. Improved magnet design.

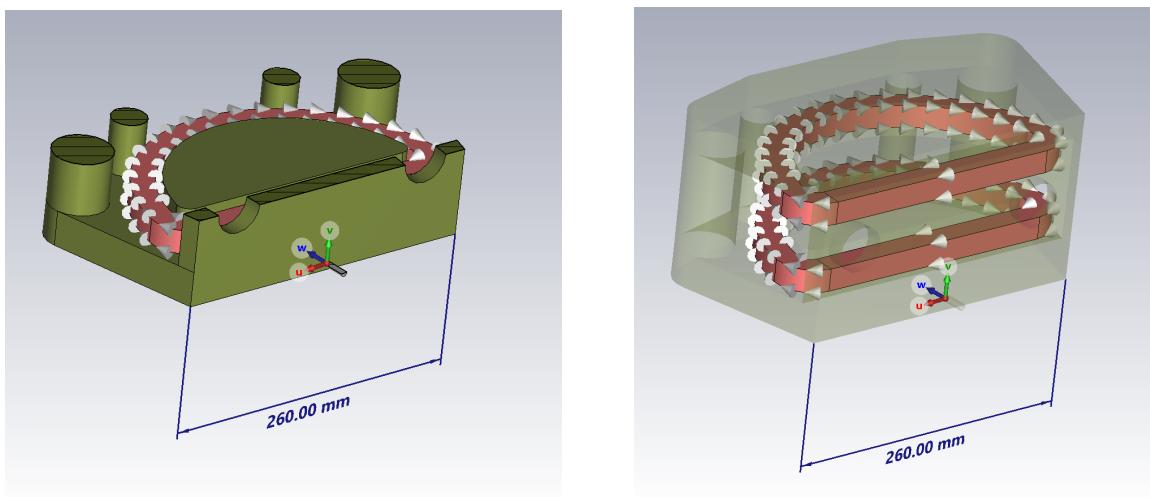


Figure 3.19. Cross section and coils of improved magnet design.

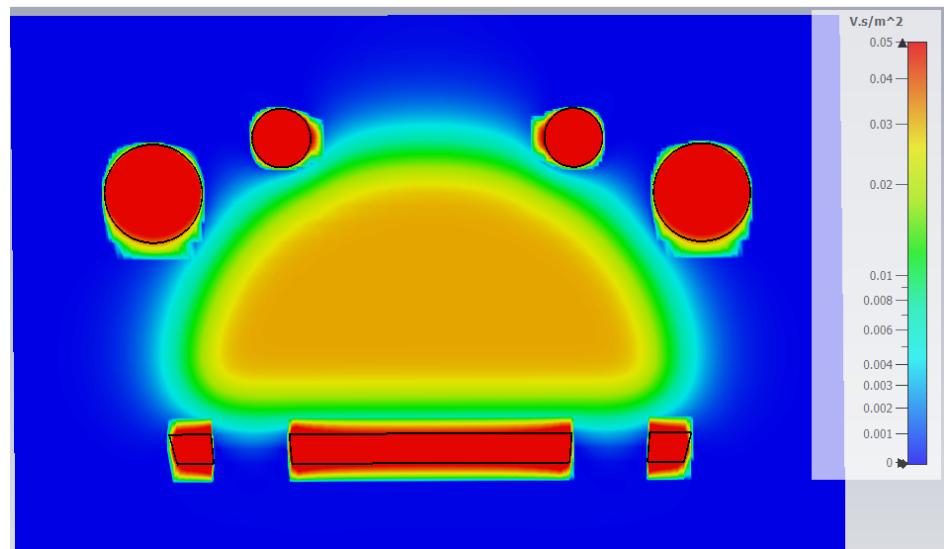


Figure 3.20. Magnetic field in acceleration plate of improved magnet design.

From *Figures 3.14 and 3.20*, it can be observed that improved magnet design reduces magnetic field leak in enter and exit openings considerably. This reduction helps containing the spread of entering beam, decreasing the amount of focusing needed further into trajectory.

4. SIMULATION

After considering the lack of design and simulation software available for *Rhodotron-type* accelerators, together with the energy gain disagreement between *CST Studio* and the calculations of *J. Pottier* in *Equation 1.36*, the need for a custom built tool became apparent. A simple 1D proof of concept was quickly implemented for this purpose.

4.1. Proof of Concept

The proof of concept (POC) worked with interacting an electron with the EM field provided, at discrete time steps dt . The core sequence of this software is provided below and the implementation of this logic can be observed in *Figure 4.1*. Where \vec{r} is the position, \vec{v} is the velocity of the e^- :

- Get electron energy E_{in} ,
- Get the RF field definitions,
- Get the magnet design parameters if there is any,
- Do following until the simulation time has ellapsed,
 - (i) Calculate $\vec{E}_{||}(\vec{r})$,
 - (ii) Calculate $\vec{a}_{E||}$ using *Equation 1.16*,
 - (iii) Calculate $\vec{r}(t + dt)$ using *Equation 2.3*,
 - (iv) Calculate $\vec{v}(t + dt)$ using *Equation 2.4*,
 - (v) Calculate new E_t .

```

1  for (double t=0; t<SimuTime; t+=dT){
2      double RelBeta = v/c;
3      double RelGamma = 1.0 / sqrt(1.0-RelBeta*RelBeta);
4
5      double ef=Eradiation(r_pos*1000,t,0); // convert position to mm
6      double acc=ef*1E6*eQMratio/(RelGamma*RelGamma*RelGamma);
7
8      r_pos = r_pos + v * dT*ns + 1/2*acc*(dT*ns)*(dT*ns);
9      v = v + acc*dT*ns;
10
11     RelBeta = v/c;
12     RelGamma = 1.0 / sqrt(1.0-RelBeta*RelBeta);
13     Et=RelGamma*E0;
14 }
```

Figure 4.1. Core logic loop of the POC.

After simulating the *synchronous electron* mentioned in *Section 1.2.4.2* with $\phi_{lag} = 15^\circ$, $P_{diss} = 40\text{kW}$, $R_1 = 0.188\text{m}$, $R_2 = 0.753\text{m}$, $f = 107.5\text{MHz}$ for one pass, the results from *POC*, *CST* and *Equation 1.36* were found to be

$$E_{Pottier} = 0.593\text{MeV}, \quad (4.1)$$

$$E_{CST} = 0.521\text{MeV}, \quad (4.2)$$

$$E_{POC} = 0.532\text{MeV}. \quad (4.3)$$

As can be observed in *Equation 4.2*, *POC software* and *CST* produced similar results; $\Delta E_{(POC-CST)}/E_{CST} \approx 2\%$. while *Equation 1.36* was noticeably different; $\Delta E_{(Pottier-CST)}/E_{CST} \approx 14\%$. This inconsistency between *Equation 1.36* and *CST* simulation was noticed in the earlier simulations as well, which supported the idea of using another simulation software to reduce reliance on *CST*. Since using a single software would have made the process error prone.

After the results obtained from *POC* were found to be promising, a decision was made to develop a more robust simulation software. This software was named *Rhodotron Simulation* for the current stage and started development in October, 2021. The development and improvement efforts are still ongoing.

During the development of *Rhodotron Simulation* software, several intermediate builds have been implemented and tested. The following sections in this chapter investigates their implementations further.

4.2. Intermediate Versions

4.2.1. L_{out} Optimization For Single e^-

Initial step of improving *POC* towards *Rhodotron Simulation* was to implement L_{out} optimizations to help optimazing magnet designs, as discussed in *Section 3.2.2*. First approach was to hang the e^- outside of the cavity for $t_{out} = L_{out}/v$, then inject it back to the cavity with reversed \vec{v} . One can sweep the t_{out} parameter to find the optimal value. This simple implementation can be found in *Figure A.1* of *Appendix A*.

Although the results from this optimization sweep were promising after they were simulated with *CST*, simulating one particle would not be sufficiently useful for designing a magnet.

4.2.2. ϕ_{lag} Optimization For Bunches

After successfully accelerating single e^- , particle bunches were implemented to approximate a real e^- gun. They were modeled as N electrons fired from an e^- gun at even time intervals. This approach was taken because the amount of time gun fires, defined as *Gun Active Time*, t_g , is a crucial part of pulsed e^- gun design.

Addition of bunches would immediately proven useful when finding optimal phase lag for bunch entry. ϕ_{lag} for a bunch was defined as the RF phase when the first e^- of the bunch has entered the cavity and it defines the starting time of the current pass. To use the *parameter sweep* method, as used in L_{out} optimization, relevant bunch characteristics are defined as

- μE : Average energy,
- E_{rms} : Root mean square of energy,
- R_{rms} : Root mean square of e^- positions.

Optimal ϕ_{lag} would produce maximum μE while minimizing E_{rms} & R_{rms} . For the first pass, E_{rms} and R_{rms} would be vaguely dependent of each other; therefore, initial implementation of ϕ_{lag} sweep was based on minimizing E_{rms} during simulation (see *Figure 4.2*). For μE considerations, data from the software would be analyzed either manually or by using external tools such as *ROOT framework*.

```

1 int phase_opt(int phase_sweep_range){
2     double minrms = 1;
3     int opt_phase;
4     for(int RFphase = -phase_sweep_range; RFphase <= phase_sweep_range; RFphase++){
5         Bunch bunch1(RFphase);
6         double t1 = 0;
7         bunch1.bunch_gecis_t(t1);
8         bunch1.reset_pos();
9
10        if( bunch1.E_rms() < minrms ){
11            minrms = bunch1.E_rms();
12            opt_phase = RFphase;
13        }
14    }
15    return opt_phase;
16 }
```

Figure 4.2. ϕ_{lag} Optimization For Initial Bunch Design.

Since ϕ_{lag} is relatively easy to change after production, another version of *Figure 4.2* that was modified for given magnet design parameters was also implemented (see *Figure A.2 in Appendix A*). This version can be useful for optimizing ϕ_{lag} in case of production issues in magnets.

After the bunch and ϕ_{lag} sweep implementations, L_{out} sweep was also updated to minimize E_{rms} . ρ and L calculations, using *Equations 3.13 and 3.14*, were also integrated. Two example runs from this intermediate build can be found in *Figures B.1 and B.2 of Appendix B*.

4.2.3. Simulation in 3D

After successfully implementing $e^- - \vec{E}$ interaction in 1D and confirming the usefulness of this tool, the decision was made to proceed with implementing a 3D version of the *Rhodotron Simulation*. Although complete refactoring of the software was necessary, this upgrade was crucial for implementation of $e^- - \vec{B}$ interaction. The refactoring effort included proper implementation of *OOP*, details of which can be seen in *Figures A.13, A.14, A.15, A.16, A.17 and A.18 of Appendix A*.

Magnets were modeled as major segments of a circle, defined with \vec{r}_{mag} , \mathbf{R} and $|\mathbf{B}|$. For the initial implementation, \vec{B} assumed to be uniform and has no leaks outside the magnet boundary (*Figure A.5 in Appendix A*).

Implementations for $e^- - \vec{E}$ and $e^- - \vec{B}$ interactions in 3D can be found in *Figures 4.3 and 4.4*, where * and % are, dot-product and cross-product respectably (*Figure A.3 of Appendix A*).

```

1 vector3d CoaxialRFField::actOn(Electron& e){
2     vector3d Efield = getField(e.pos);           // Calculate E vector
3     vector3d F_m = Efield*1E6*e.QMratio;        // Calculate F/m vector
4     vector3d acc = (F_m - e.vel*(e.vel*F_m)/(c*c))/e.gamma(); // Calculate a vector
5     return acc;
6 }
```

Figure 4.3. e^- - \vec{E} interaction logic from *Equation 1.18*.

```

1 vector3d MagneticField::actOn(Electron& e){
2     if (isInside(e.pos) == -1)
3         return vector3d(0,0,0);
4     vector3d Bfield = getField(e.pos);           // Calculate B vector
5     vector3d F_m = (e.vel % Bfield)*e.QMratio; // Calculate F/m vector
6     vector3d acc = (F_m)/e.gamma();             // Calculate a vector
7     return acc;
8 }
```

Figure 4.4. e^- - \vec{B} interaction logic from *Equation 1.18*.

Simulating in 3D had one other benefit; it was now possible to visualize the results by rendering the interaction data. For this purpose, *gnuplot* was integrated into *Rhodotron Simulation* to produce 2D visualization of acceleration plane. Rendered results could be stored as *gif* animations. Two of such renders can be seen in *Figure 4.5*.

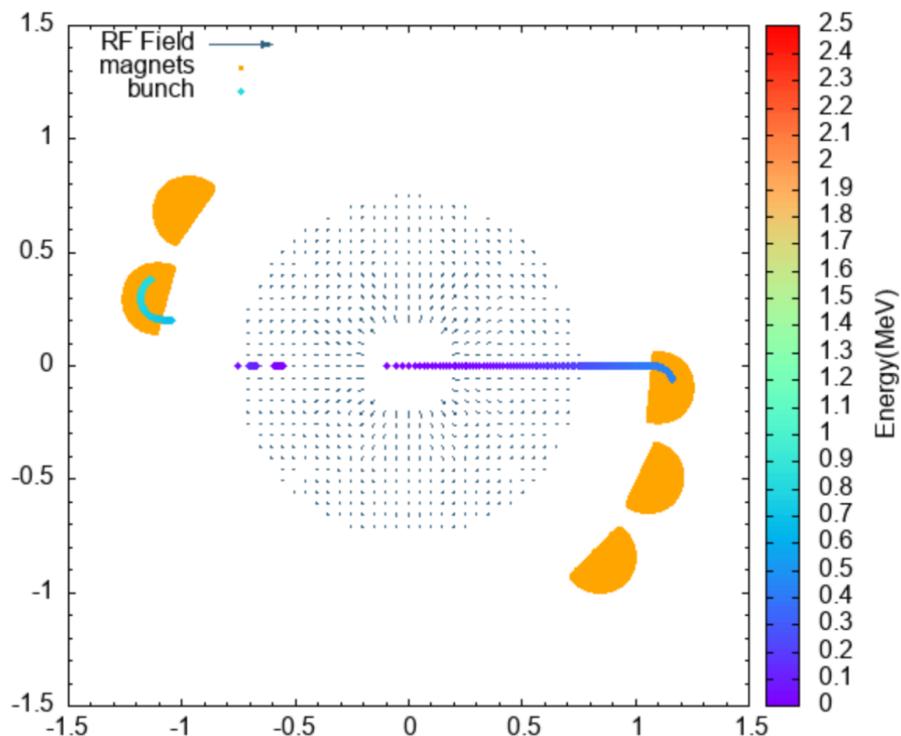
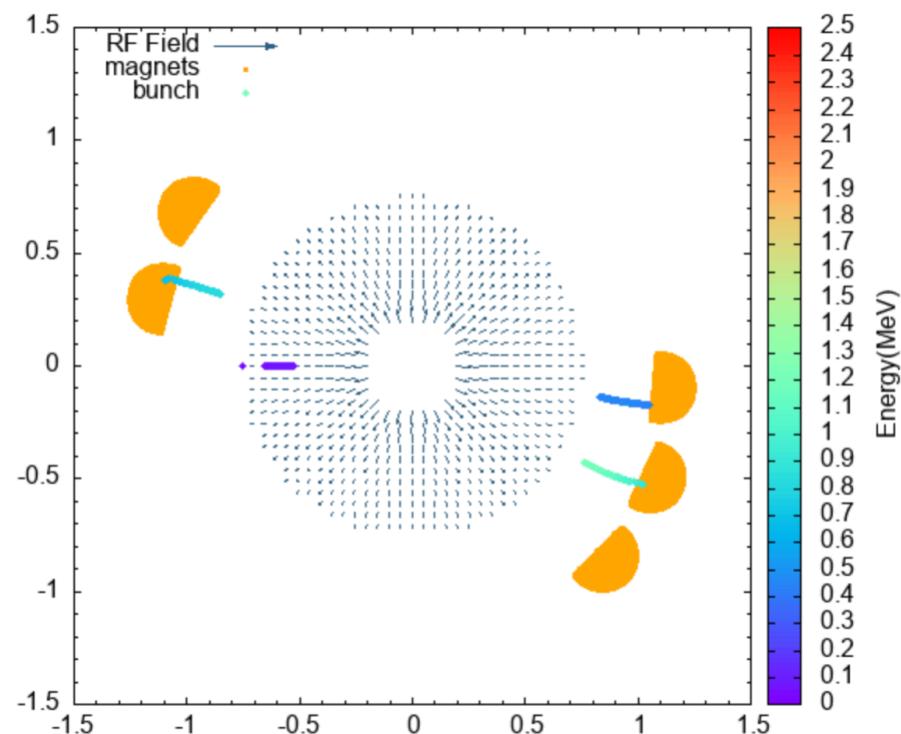
(a) Unsynchronized e^- gun period, $T_g = 5\text{ns}$ (b) Syncronized e^- gun period, $T_g = 9.3\text{ns}$

Figure 4.5. Example *gnuplot* renders of *Rhodotron Simulation*, $P = 40\text{kW}$,
 $f = 107.5\text{MHz}$.

4.2.4. Acceleration in Magnetic Field

An issue regarding the $e^- - \vec{B}$ interaction became apparent when energy gain during these interactions was observed. A setup simulation was implemented in which a bunch of $100e^-$ at 1MeV was fired into a uniform magnetic field of 0.1T located in $x > 0.05m$. Initial results at $dt = 0.01ns$ proved the suspicion of $e^- - \vec{B}$ interaction being broken. However, the energy gain would decrease tremendously as dt decreased. Decreasing dt would be the best way to increase accuracy of the results; however, this is not sustainable due to computing power limitations. Until this point, *Rhodotron Simulation* have been using *Section 2.3.1* for $e^- - \text{EM}$ interactions. To test newer approaches, two additional version of $e^- - \text{EM}$ interaction that are using *Section 2.3.2* were added.

4.2.4.1. RK4-1. First approach for integrating *Section 2.3.2* into $e^- - \text{EM}$ interaction was to calculate \vec{a}_E and \vec{a}_B from *Equation 1.18* using *RK4*. After $\vec{a}_{EM} = \vec{a}_E + \vec{a}_B$ was calculated, e^- would move and accelerate using the *Leap-frog* method. The idea was to produce more refined interaction results, leading to improved accuracy especially in $e^- - \vec{B}$. RF field was kept static during the *RK4* computation, due to ongoing *multithreading* implementation efforts. The implementation can be found in *Figures A.4 and A.6*.

4.2.4.2. RK4-2. Following the implementation of *RK4-1*, revisions were made to the integration method for *RK4* to replace *Leap-frog*. Instead of calculating \vec{a}_{EM} using *RK4*, \vec{r} and \vec{v} would be determined directly.

These three methods were then tested in the same setup as *Figure 4.6*. The results can be found in *Figure C.1* of *Appendix C*. *RK4-1* was decided to be abandoned as it produced the same accuracy in twice the simulation time of *RK4-2*.

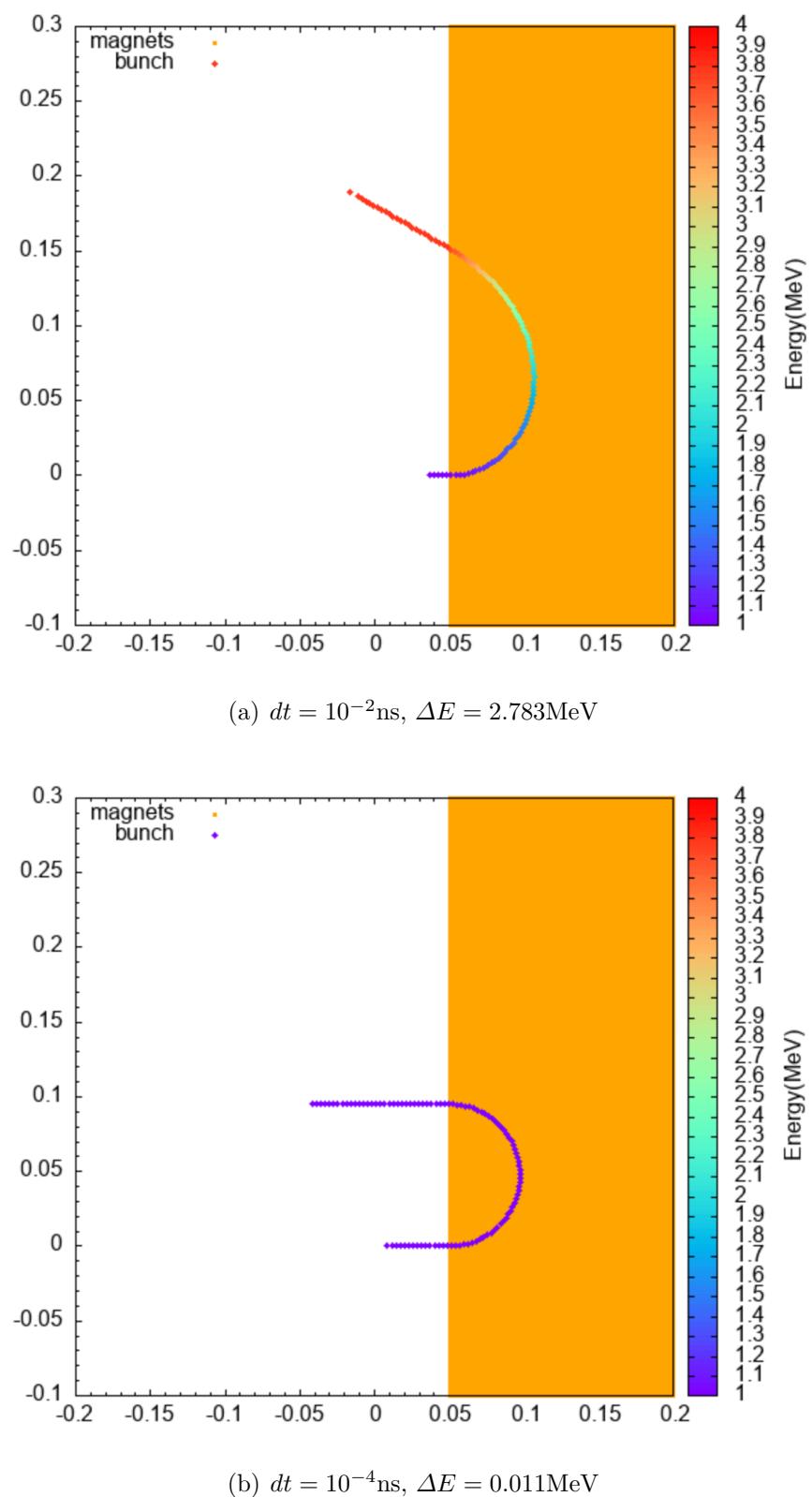


Figure 4.6. Energy gain of 1MeV bunch in $\mathbf{B}=0.1\text{T}$.

More rigorous testing was done with *Leap-frog* and *RK4-2* however. Still using the setup in *Figure 4.6*, each dt configuration was simulated 10 times, calculating average and standard deviations afterwards.

Example renders from these tests can be observed in *Figure 4.7* and the data from these tests can be found in *Tables C.1 and C.2* of *Appendix C*. To investigate the data further, one can define a performance measurement, F as

$$F \propto 1/T, \quad (4.4)$$

$$F \propto 1/\Delta E. \quad (4.5)$$

When $dt = 10^{-5}$ ns was taken as reference point due to providing a good balance of accuracy and computational intensity, relative performance can be calculated as

$$\Delta E_{LF} = 110 \times 10^{-5} MeV, \quad (4.6)$$

$$\Delta E_{RK}^1 = 64 \times 10^{-5} MeV, \quad (4.7)$$

$$T_{LF}^1 = 9.44 \pm 0.03s, \quad (4.8)$$

$$T_{RK}^1 = 21.33 \pm 0.02s, \quad (4.9)$$

$$\Delta E_{LF} \times T_{LF} = 104 \times 10^{-4} \pm 10^{-4} MeVs, \quad (4.10)$$

$$\Delta E_{RK} \times T_{RK} = 137 \times 10^{-4} \pm 2 \times 10^{-4} MeVs, \quad (4.11)$$

$$F_{LF}/F_{RK} = \frac{\Delta E_{RK} \times T_{RK}}{\Delta E_{LF} \times T_{LF}^1} = 1.32 \pm 0.01. \quad (4.12)$$

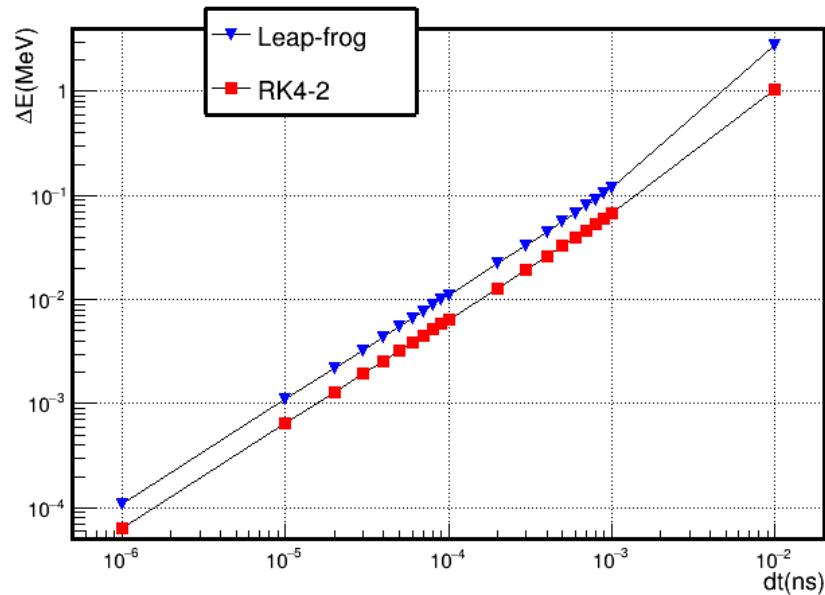
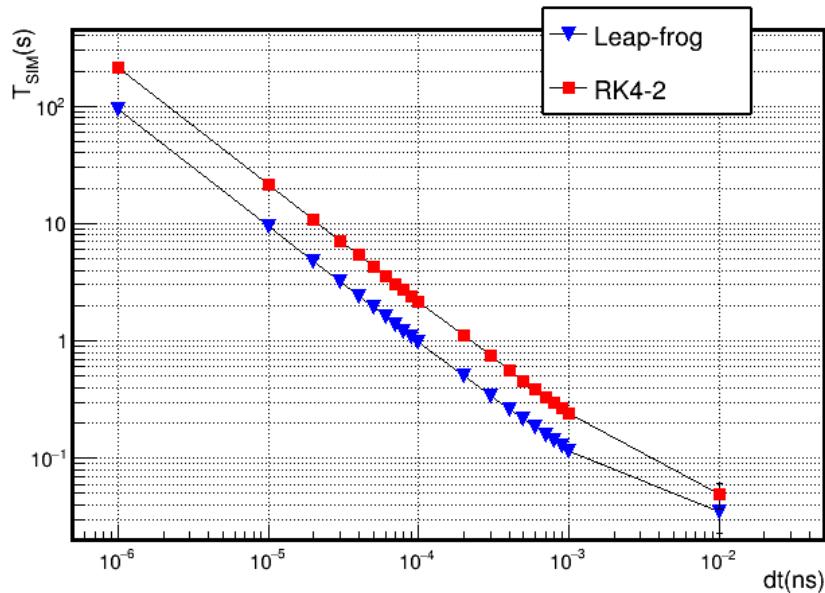
Also, another relative performance can be observed from the data as

$$\Delta E_{LF}(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5}) \approx \Delta E_{RK}(dt = 5 \times 10^{-5}) \approx 32.5 \times 10^{-4} MeV, \quad (4.13)$$

$$T_{LF}(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5}) = 3.18 \pm 0.02s, \quad (4.14)$$

$$T_{RK}(dt = 5 \times 10^{-5}) = 4.30 \pm 0.01s, \quad (4.15)$$

$$F_{LF}/F_{RK} = \frac{T_{RK}(dt = 5 \times 10^{-5})}{T_{LF}(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5})} = 1.4 \pm 0.1. \quad (4.16)$$

(a) dt vs ΔE (b) dt vs T_{sim} Figure 4.7. Comparing Leap-frog, RK4-2 performance on $e^- - \vec{B}$ interaction
$$E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}, \mathbf{B}=0.1\text{T}, t_{end} = 5\text{ns}.$$

Uncertainty of *Equation 4.13* was taken high due to the approximation. After combining *Equations 4.6 and 4.13*, F can be calculated as

$$F_{LF}/F_{RK} = 1.36 \pm 0.05. \quad (4.17)$$

Therefore, *Leap-frog* was found to be the better choice as it provided with 1.36 ± 0.05 times accuracy in $e^- - \vec{B}$ interactions at a given time with respect to *RK4*. However, *RK4* was promising in situations where decreasing the stepsize, dt , is not viable. Therefore both were integrated into *Rhodotron Simulation* for the user to decide. *RK4-2* renders from these test can be found in *Figure B.3 of Appendix B*.

4.2.5. Acceleration in Electric Field

After the accuracy concerns regarding the $e^- - \vec{B}$ interaction were raised, it was decided to test $e^- - \vec{E}$ and compare the performance of *Leap-frog* and *RK4*.

As test setups, two simulation configurations were made. They aimed to test the accuracy of acceleration of a beam in parallel and perpendicular static uniform electric fields. Both configurations had an e^- -gun located at $(-0.753, 0, 0)$ m, directed at $(1, 0, 0)$ firing electrons with the kinetic energy of 1MeV.

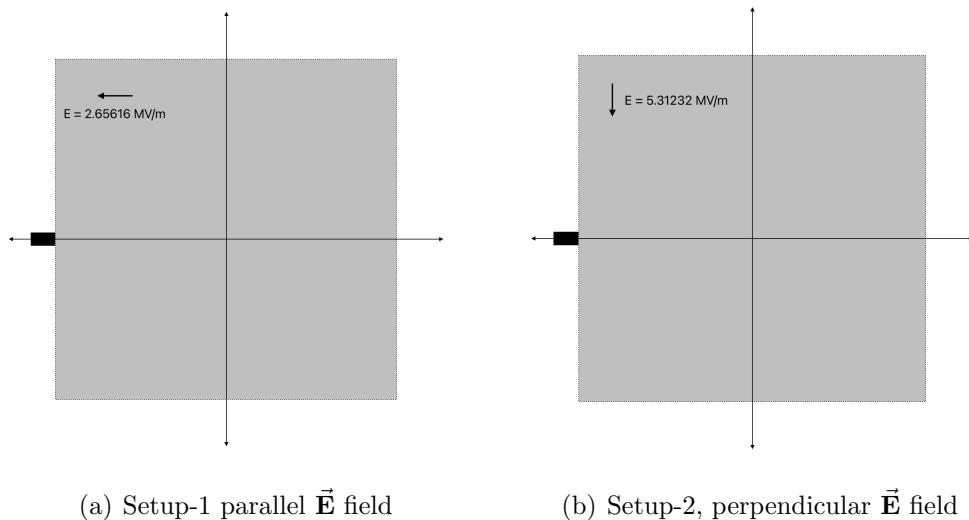


Figure 4.8. Illustration of test setups.

In the first test, the beam would be injected into a static uniform electric field $\vec{E} = (-2.65616, 0, 0)$ MV/m where $-0.753 < x < 0.753$ and $-0.753 < y < 0.753$, $\vec{E} = 0$ elsewhere. Considering the \vec{E} is parallel to the beam path, beam energy at exit can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta V^1 &= - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \\ &= - \int_{-0.753}^{0.753} -2.65616 \times dx \\ &= 2.65616 \times 1.506 \\ &= 4MV,\end{aligned}\tag{4.18}$$

$$\Delta E^1 = 4MeV,\tag{4.19}$$

$$E_{exitTH}^1 = 5MeV.\tag{4.20}$$

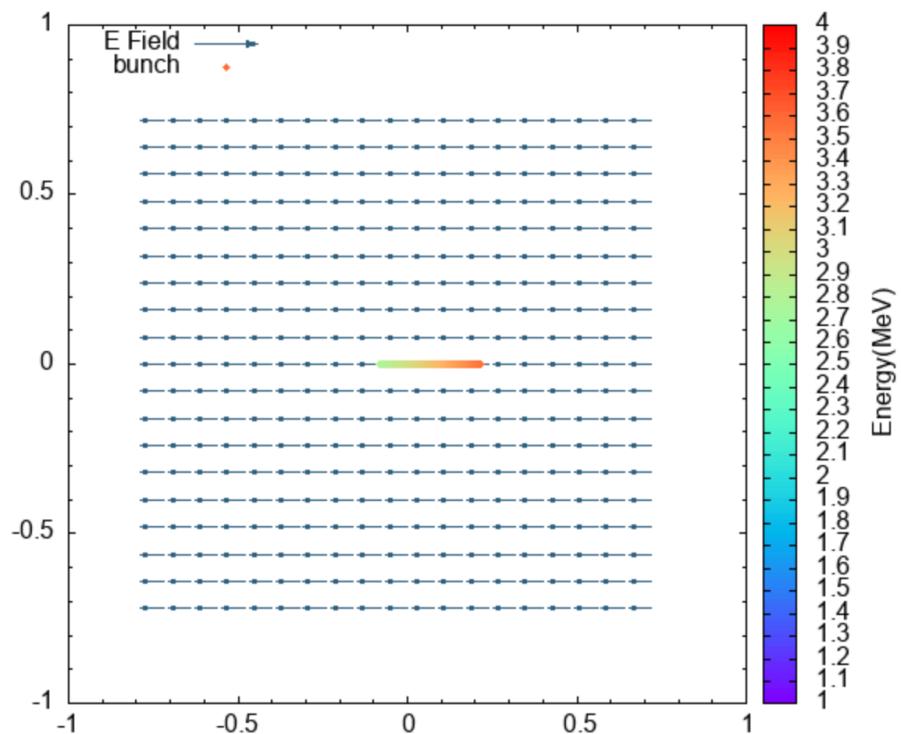
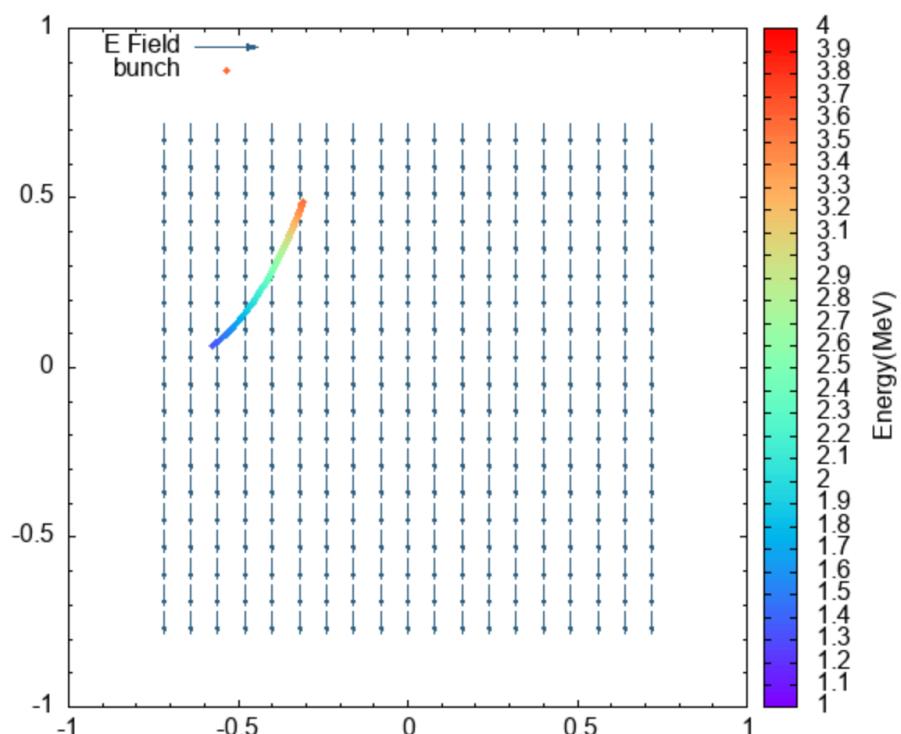
In the second test on the other hand, the beam would be injected into a different static uniform electric field, $\vec{E} = (0, -5.31232, 0)$ MV/m where $-0.753 < x < 0.753$ and $-0.753 < y < 0.753$, $\vec{E} = 0$ elsewhere. Beam energy at exit can be calculated as

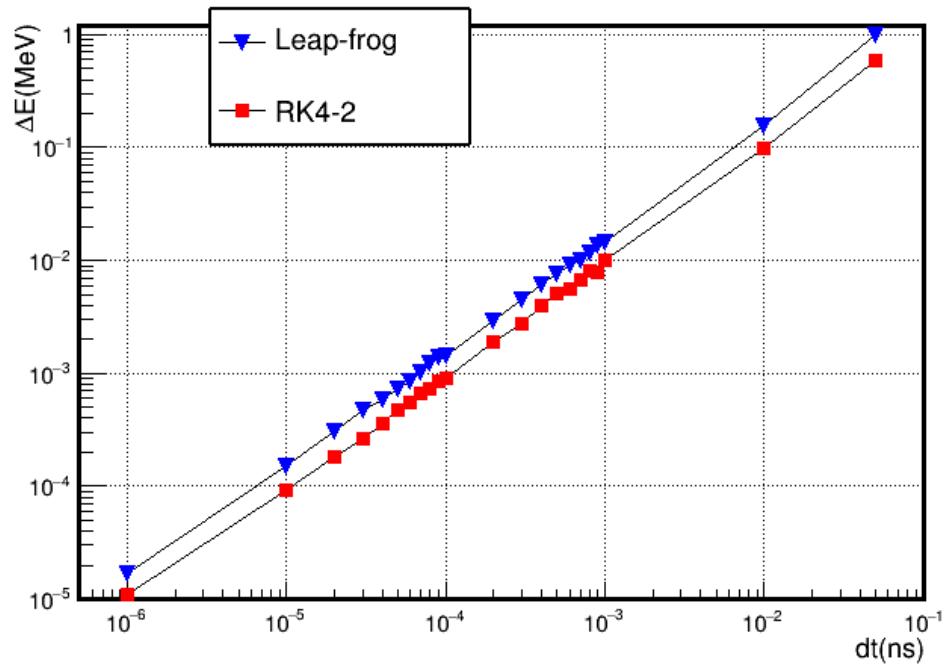
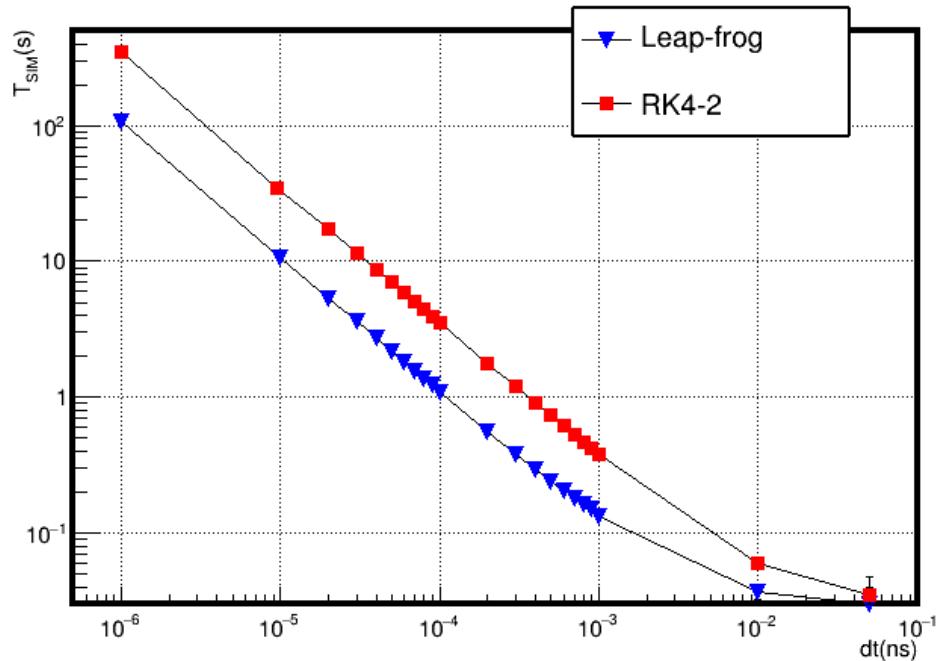
$$\begin{aligned}\Delta V^2 &= - \int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} \\ &= - \int_0^{0.753} -5.31232 \times dy \\ &= 5.31232 \times 0.753 \\ &= 4MV,\end{aligned}\tag{4.21}$$

$$\Delta E^2 = 4MeV,\tag{4.22}$$

$$E_{exitTH}^2 = 5MeV.\tag{4.23}$$

Therefore, in the both tests, the beam was expected to exit \vec{E} with $E_{exitTH} = 5$ MeV. To also measure the variance in simulation completion times, T_{sim} , set of 10 runs were completed at the configuration for each dt value. Results from these tests can be observed in *Figure 4.10* and *Figure C.2* of *Appendix C*.

(a) Setup-1, $\mathbf{V}_{\parallel}=4\text{MV}$ (b) Setup-2, $\mathbf{V}_{\perp}=4\text{MV}$ Figure 4.9. Render of the test setups. $E_{in} = 1 \text{ MeV}$, $t_{end} = 6 \text{ ns}$.

(a) dt vs ΔE (b) dt vs T_{sim} Figure 4.10. Comparing Leap-frog, RK4-2 performance on $e^- - \vec{E}$ interaction

$$E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}, \mathbf{V}_\perp = 4\text{MV}, t_{end} = 6 \text{ ns}.$$

Taking the $dt = 10^{-5}$ ns for the reference point as before, using the data

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta E_{LF}^1 &= 22 \times 10^{-6} MeV, & \Delta E_{LF}^2 &= 15 \times 10^{-5} MeV, \\ \Delta E_{RK}^1 &= 16 \times 10^{-6} MeV, & \Delta E_{RK}^2 &= 9.3 \times 10^{-5} MeV, \\ T_{LF}^1 &= 12.40 \pm 0.04s, & T_{LF}^2 &= 10.75 \pm 0.04s, \\ T_{RK}^1 &= 40.08 \pm 0.12s, & T_{RK}^2 &= 34.93 \pm 0.39s,\end{aligned}$$

the relative performances can be calculated as

$$\Delta E_{LF}^1 \times T_{LF}^1 = 270 \times 10^{-6} \pm 10^{-6} MeVs, \quad (4.24)$$

$$\Delta E_{RK}^1 \times T_{RK}^1 = 640 \times 10^{-6} \pm 2 \times 10^{-6} MeVs, \quad (4.25)$$

$$F_{LF}^1/F_{RK}^1 = \frac{\Delta E_{RK}^1 \times T_{RK}^1}{\Delta E_{LF}^1 \times T_{LF}^1} = 2.4 \pm 0.02, \quad (4.26)$$

and

$$\Delta E_{LF}^2 \times T_{LF}^2 = 160 \times 10^{-5} \pm 10^{-5} MeVs, \quad (4.27)$$

$$\Delta E_{RK}^2 \times T_{RK}^2 = 320 \times 10^{-5} \pm 10^{-5} MeVs, \quad (4.28)$$

$$F_{LF}^2/F_{RK}^2 = \frac{\Delta E_{RK}^2 \times T_{RK}^2}{\Delta E_{LF}^2 \times T_{LF}^2} = 2.0 \pm 0.03. \quad (4.29)$$

Leap-frog provides 2.4 times and 2.0 times less overacceleration per simulation time than *RK4* in parallel and perpendicular electric fields respectably. This results can be tested further with obsering from the data (see *Tables C.3, C.4, C.5 and C.6* of *Appendix C*) and calculating other relative performances as

$$\Delta E_{LF}^1(dt = 2 \times 10^{-5}) = \Delta E_{RK}^1(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5}) = 45 \times 10^{-6} MeV, \quad (4.30)$$

$$T_{LF}^1(dt = 2 \times 10^{-5}) = 6.23 \pm 0.02s, \quad (4.31)$$

$$T_{RK}^1(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5}) = 13.40 \pm 0.03s, \quad (4.32)$$

$$F_{LF}^1/F_{RK}^1 = \frac{T_{RK}^1(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5})}{T_{LF}^1(dt = 2 \times 10^{-5})} = 2.15 \pm 0.02, \quad (4.33)$$

and

$$\Delta E_{LF}^2(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5}) \approx \Delta E_{RK}^2(dt = 5 \times 10^{-5}) \approx 470 \times 10^{-6} MeV, \quad (4.34)$$

$$T_{LF}^2(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5}) = 3.62, \quad (4.35)$$

$$T_{RK}^2(dt = 5 \times 10^{-5}) = 7.00, \quad (4.36)$$

$$F_{LF}^2/F_{RK}^2 = \frac{T_{RK}^2(dt = 5 \times 10^{-5})}{T_{LF}^2(dt = 3 \times 10^{-5})} = 1.9 \pm 0.1. \quad (4.37)$$

The last uncertainty was taken high due to the approximation of $467 \approx 471$. After combining *Equations 4.26, 4.29, 4.30 and 4.34*, the performance of *Leap-frog* relative to *RK4* in $e^- - \vec{E}$ interaction can be calculated as

$$F_{LF}/F_{RK} = 2.11 \pm 0.03. \quad (4.38)$$

Therefore, it can be concluded that *Leap-frog* outperforms *RK4* with the relative performance of 2.11 ± 0.03 in $e^- - \vec{E}$ interactions with static uniform \vec{E} field.

4.2.6. Multithreading

As already mentioned before, multithreading implementation efforts were ongoing since right after the start of this project. There have been a number of different approaches for implementation. First implemenation was done when the *Rhodotron Simulation* was only capable of 1D simulations. After the sizable refactoring done for 3D capabilities, this implementation was obselete.

For the current version, a main thread that spawns and manages several other worker threads would be used as can be seen in *Figure 4.11*. The UI-Console thread would handle incoming and outgoing communication, notifying the user about the status of simulation (see *Figure B.5* in *Appendix B* for example console notification, *Figure A.12* in *Appendix A* for implemenation) or communicating with the *GUI* that will be dissussed in the next section.

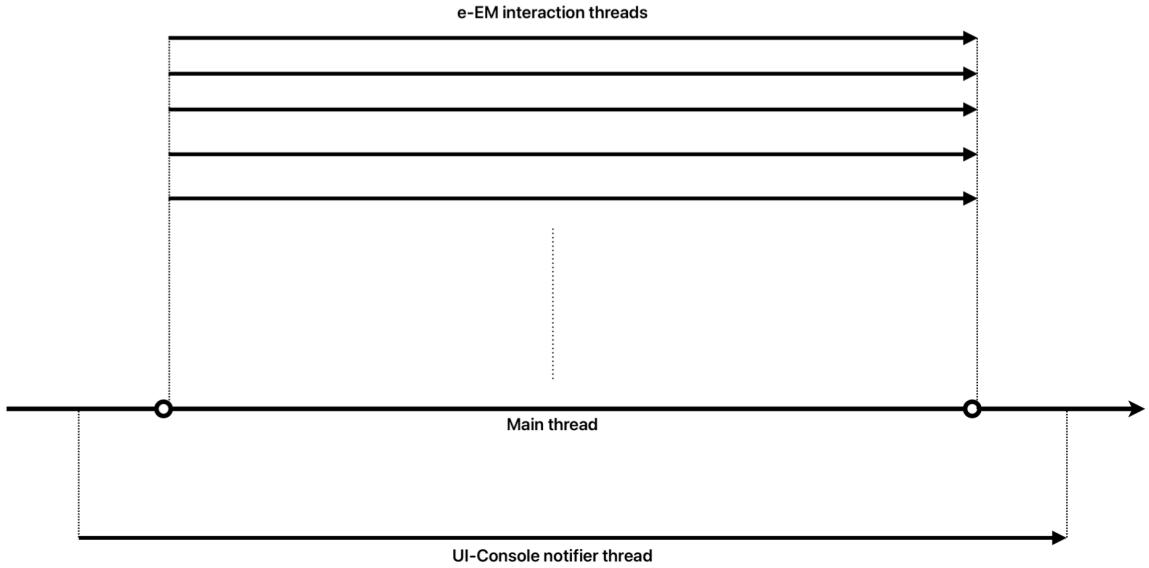


Figure 4.11. An Illustration of the multithreading architecture.

Focus of this section is the worker threads, also known as e^- - EM interaction threads. There were four competing architecture for these worker threads,

- *Architecture 1:* Have a thread pool that calculates e^- - EM in a queue.
- *Architecture 2:* Assign a thread to each bunch.
- *Architecture 3:* Assign random electrons to each thread and calculate e^- - EM with global time.
- *Architecture 4:* Assign random electrons to each thread and calculate e^- - EM with local thread time.

Architecture 1 would require constant waiting in worker threads to get mutexes of \vec{E} field, especially in *RK4*.

Architecture 2 was performing well in configurations with a large number of bunches, but was not increasing performance in lower bunch count configurations as expected.

Architecture 3 was inefficient and wasteful since all the worker threads would wait the main thread to get the next time after they finish calculation, while the main thread would be waiting for the slowest worker thread.

Architecture 4 was thought to be the best performer. It would give freedom to calculate the whole simulation to each thread while giving up the global time. This would also mean thread-safety is ensured since there is no shared data between the worker threads. However, this architecture can cause issues if $e^- - e^-$ interactions were decided to be implemented in the future.

Another caveat is that a copy operation of \vec{E} and \vec{B} objects for each worker thread would be needed. This would lead to larger memory allocations and more time spent setting up simulations. Therefore, *Architecture 4* is not ideal for fast calculations and when the memory is an important constraint. An implementation that can use both *Architecture 2 & Architecture 4* when necessary would be a better approach considering these methods; nevertheless, *Architecture 4* was chosen to be implemented.

The implementation of multithreading can be found in *Figures A.8, A.9, A.10 and A.11* in *Appendix A*.

4.3. Graphical User Interface

Until this point, *Rhodotron Simulation* could be used with a configuration file, defining the problem that would be simulated. An example of this configuration file can be found in *Figure B.4 of Appendix B*.

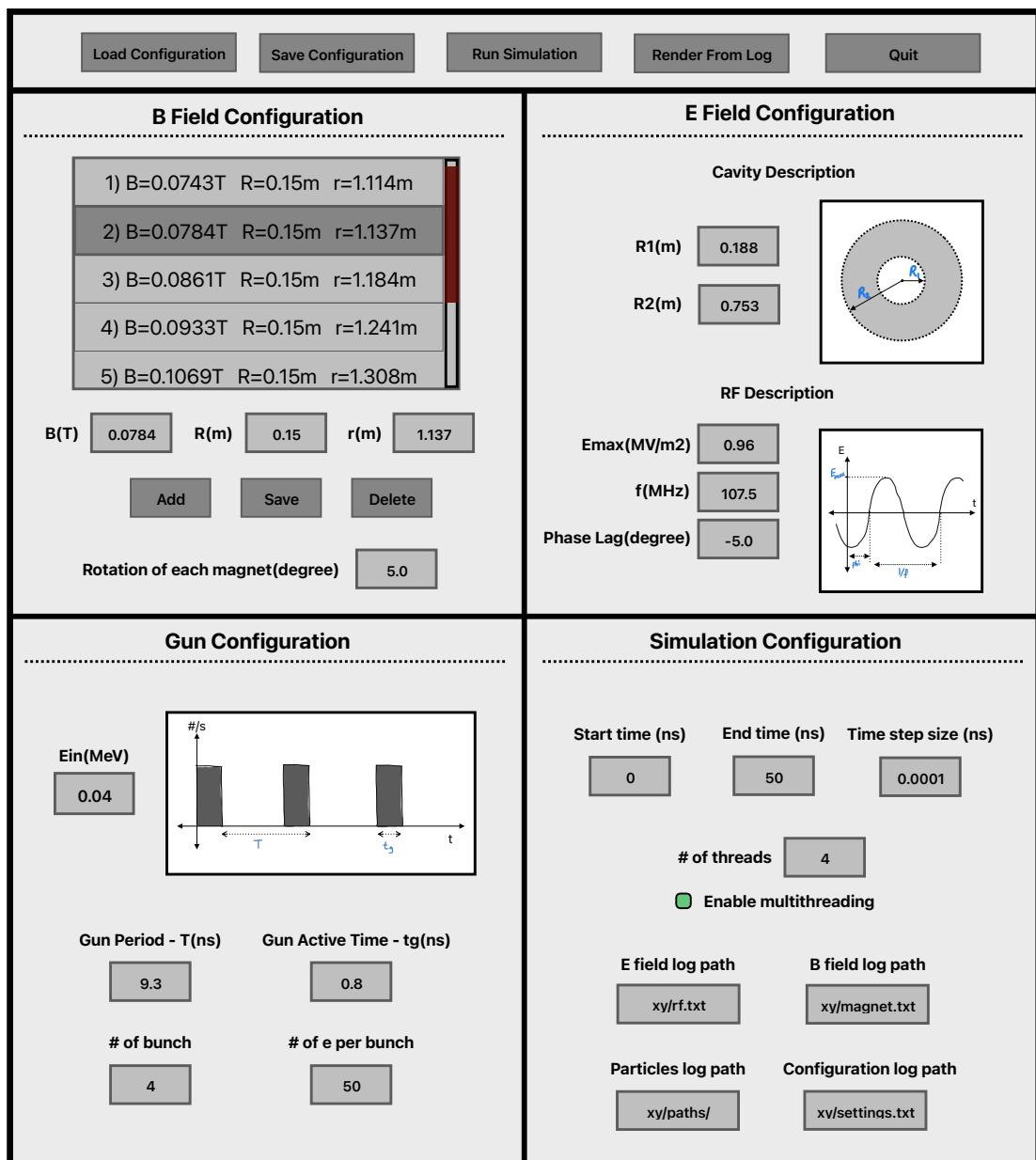


Figure 4.12. An Illustration of the first GUI design.

This approach was simple and fast; however, it was not suitable for the average target user since required basic knowledge of command line interface and was not up to modern standards. For this reason, a *GUI* was decided to be built, using *ROOT framework*. This would also enable *Rhodotron simulation* to make use of analysis tools offered by *ROOT*.

The initial design of the *Rhodotron Simulation GUI* can be observed in *Figure 4.12*. The *GUI* would be a standalone application, running the *Rhodotron Simulation* as a service when needed. For this reason, the now called *simulation engine* was updated to be able to run as a background service of *GUI*. By this approach, one could also ignore the *GUI* altogether and use the *simulation engine* as before, as these are two separate products.

In the *Figure 4.13*, the implemented version of *Figure 4.12* can be observed. Available frames of this version of the *GUI* are discussed further in the following sections.

4.3.1. Simulation Frame

This frame spawns and manages the *simulation engine*, configures and starts the simulation. It has a progress bar that shows the current progress of the simulation, communicating with *UI handler thread* in *simulation engine*. Simulation frame while a simulation is running can be observed in *Figure D.2* of *Appendix D*.

4.3.2. Configuration Frame

This frame provides an interface for specifying, saving or loading a configuration, consists of \vec{B} field, \vec{E} field, *RF* description, e^- -gun , *simulation* configuration regions. Each one having an illustration of what the parameters are as can be seen in *Figure 4.13.*

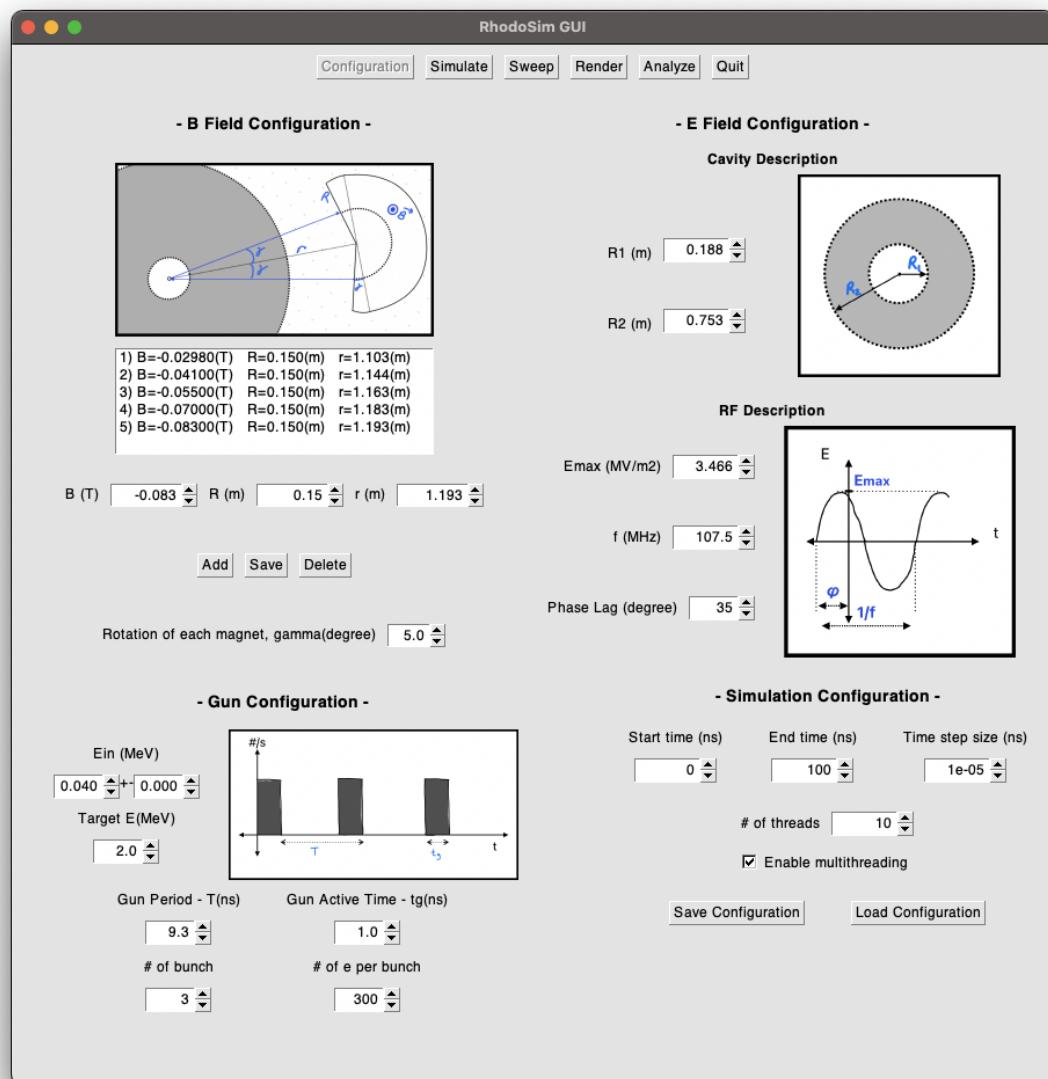


Figure 4.13. The configuration frame of implemented first GUI design.

4.3.3. Render Frame

Since the rendering capabilities of *ROOT* is superior than *gnuplot*, the user can render a playback of the simulation in real time, see a specific time frame, export as snapshot or animated gif file. Two example renders can be seen in *Figure 4.14* and *Figure D.3* of *Appendix D*.

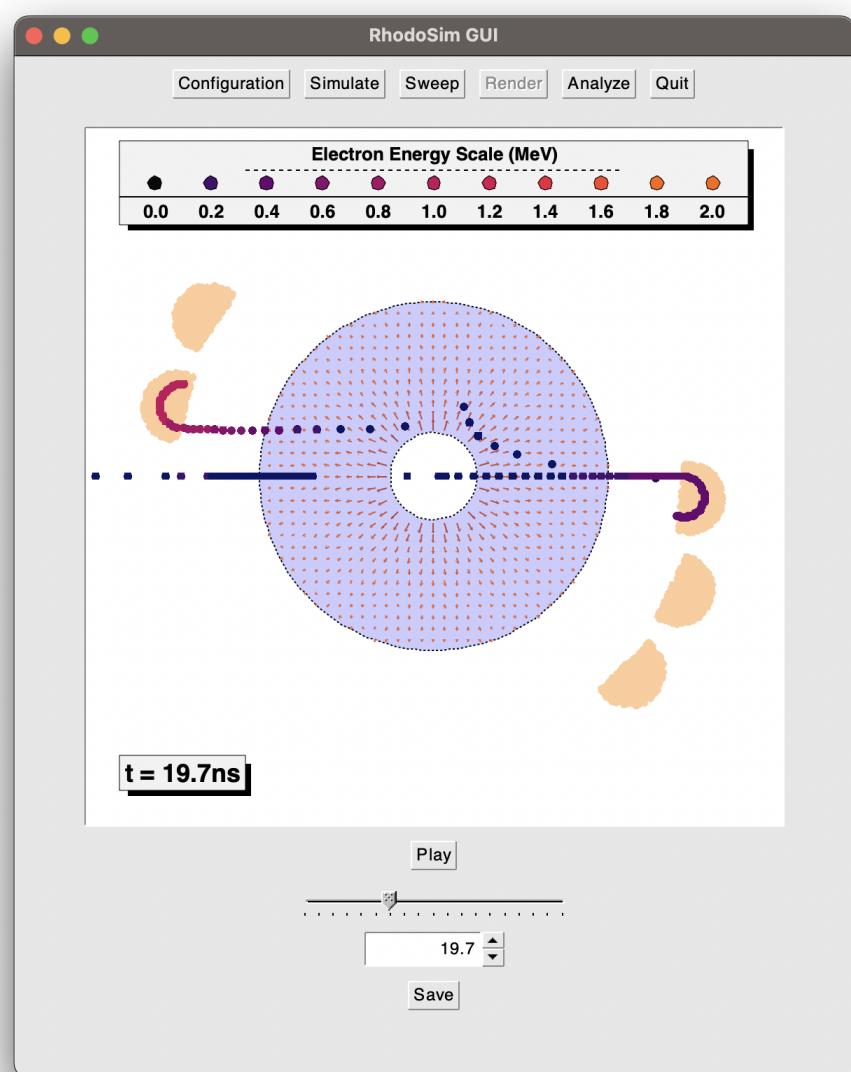


Figure 4.14. Render frame of *GUI*.

4.3.4. Analyze Frame

Analyze frame provides tools for analyzing and visualizing the simulation data. In the current version, energy distribution histogram and $E(t)$ graph of each electron are implemented into this frame. This frame is a work in progress and will be the focus of improvement and become a really powerfull tool in the near future. In *Figure 4.15*, *Analyze Frame* plotting energy distribution histogram, and in *Figure 4.16* and *Figure D.4* of *Appendix D*, *Analyze Frame* plotting $E(t)$ graphs can be observed.

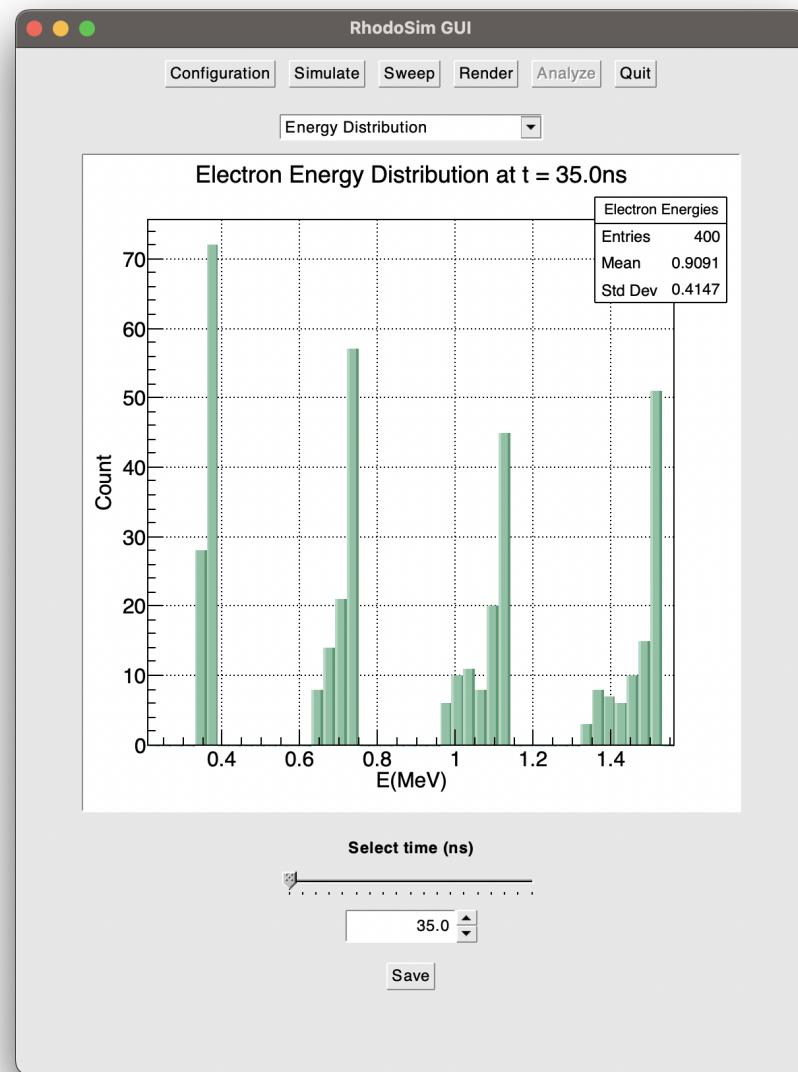


Figure 4.15. Analyze frame of *GUI* E distribution.

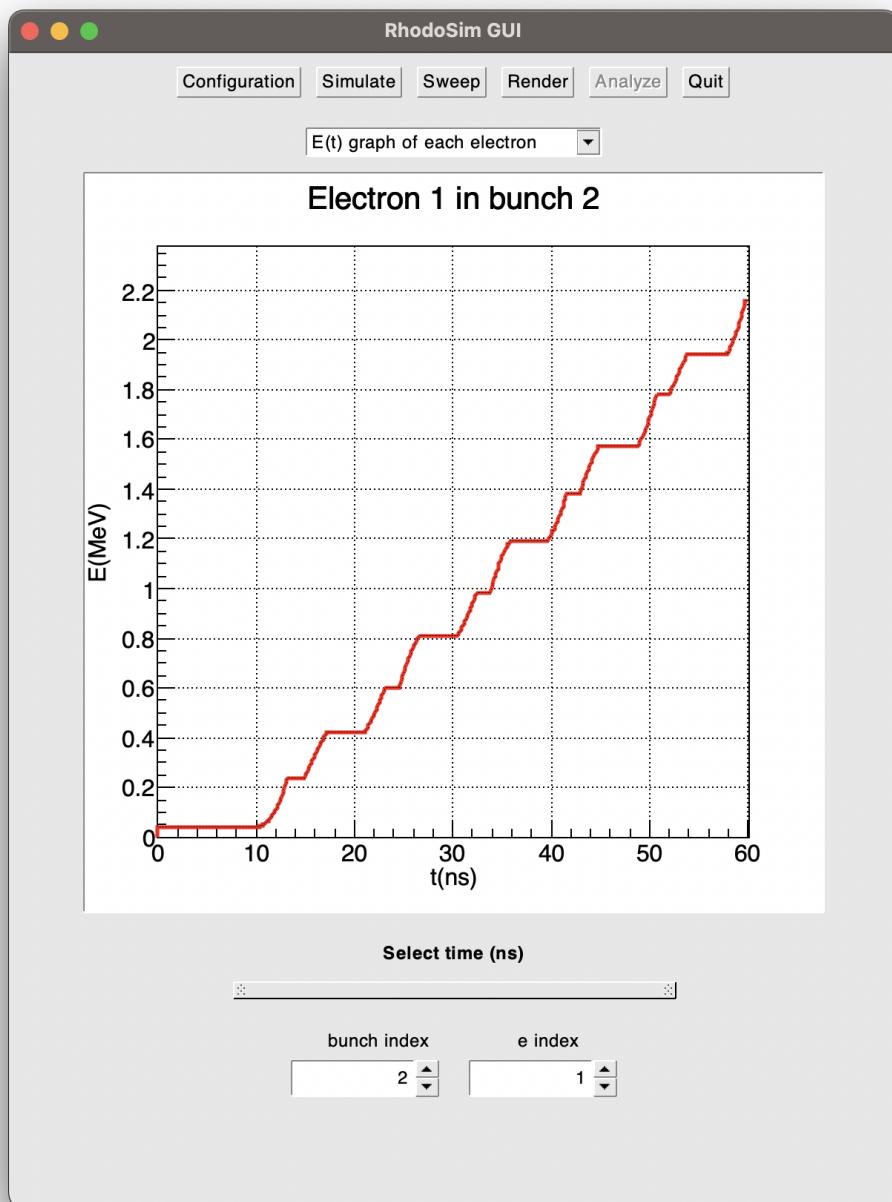


Figure 4.16. Analyze frame of *GUI E(t)*.

4.3.5. Sweep Frame

Parameter sweep method that was discussed in *Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2* was integrated into *GUI* in a separate frame named *Sweep Frame*. ϕ_{lag} sweep was the first parameter to be implemented.

It takes the range of sweep, draws ϕ_{lag} vs μE , ϕ_{lag} vs σE and ϕ_{lag} vs σR mentioned in *Section 4.2.2*. This enables user with an already built accelerator to optimize e^- -gun parameters quickly. In the *Figures 4.17, 4.18, D.5 and D.6 of Appendix D*, this frame can be inspected in detail.

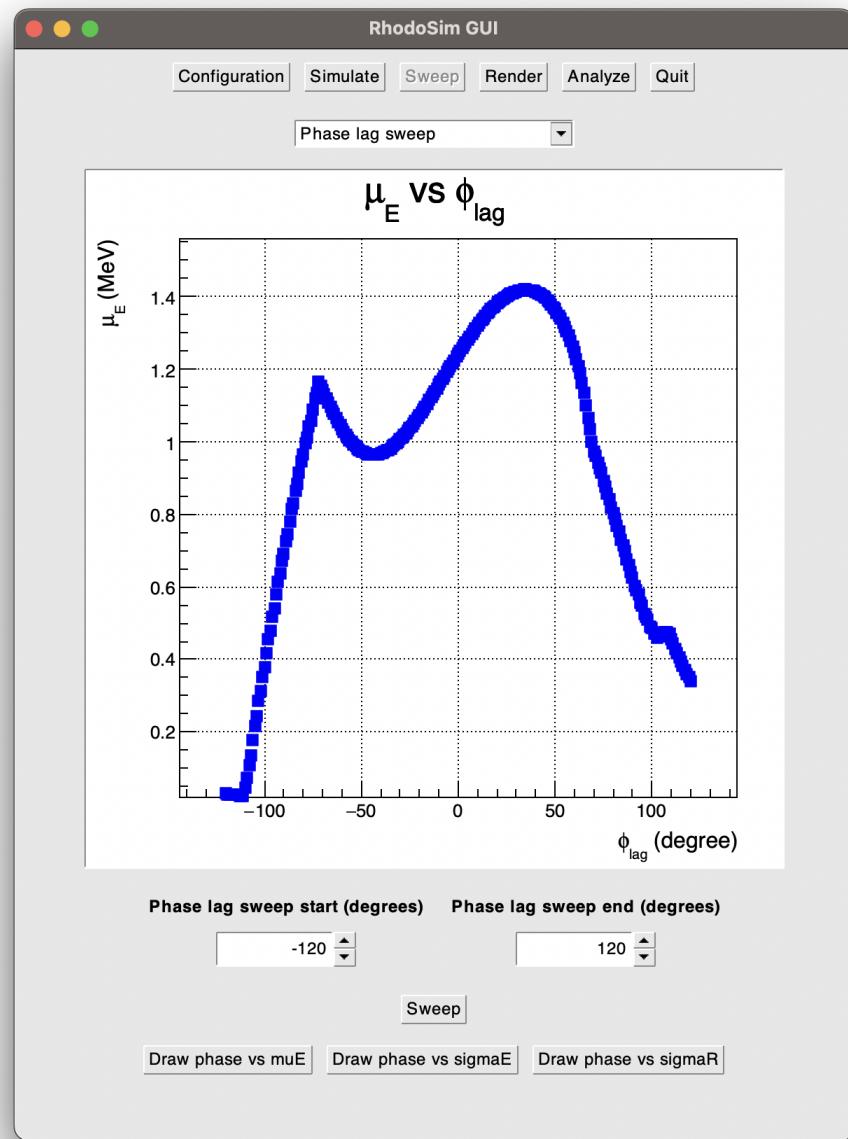


Figure 4.17. Sweep frame of *GUI* ϕ_{lag} μE result.

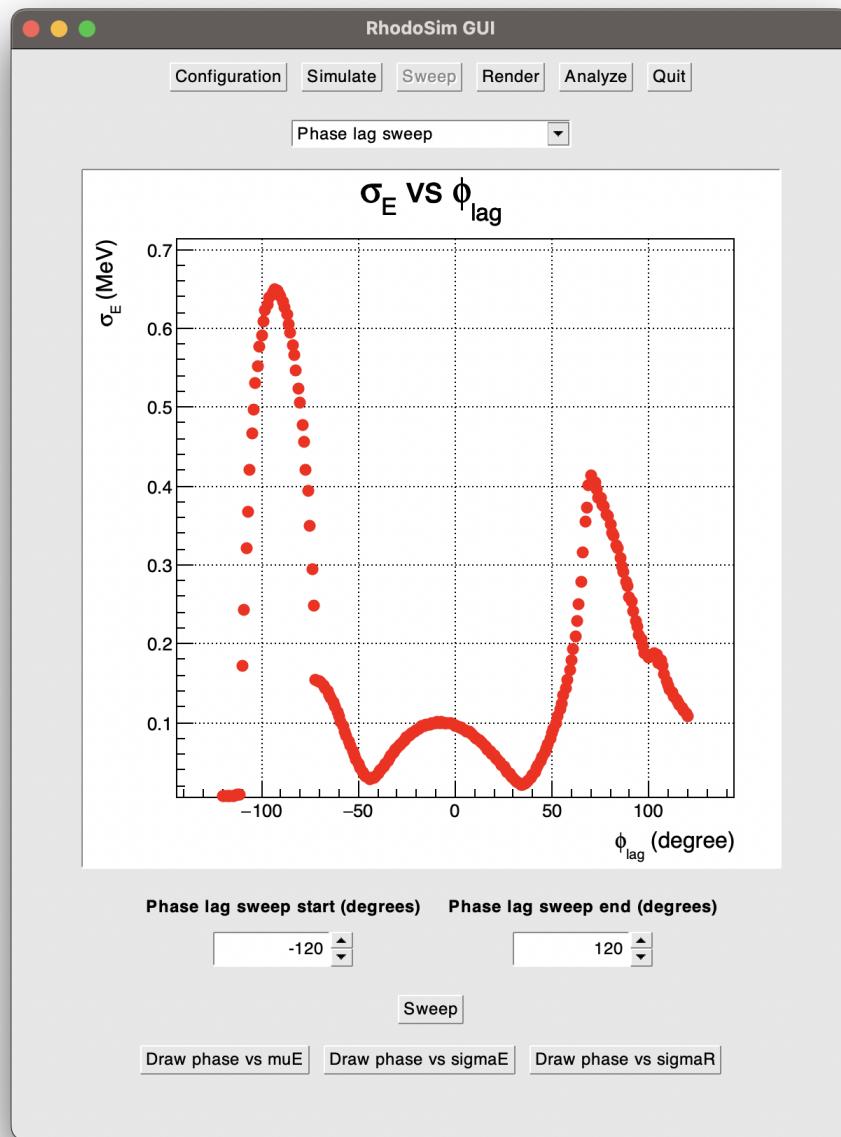


Figure 4.18. Sweep frame of *GUI* ϕ_{lag} sweep σE result.

As mentioned before, *GUI* is the latest and ongoing development effort in this project. New analysis and sweep features will be implemented and current capabilities will be improved in the near future.

5. PRODUCTION

As discussed before, production efforts of a *Rhodotron-type* accelerator are still ongoing in KAHVELab. This accelerator will be used at $f = 107.5\text{MHz}$ $P = 50 - 100\text{kW}$ to achieve beams with the energy range of $1 - 5\text{MeV}$.

5.1. Final Design

In the *Figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4*, rendered visuals of the final design can be observed [13].

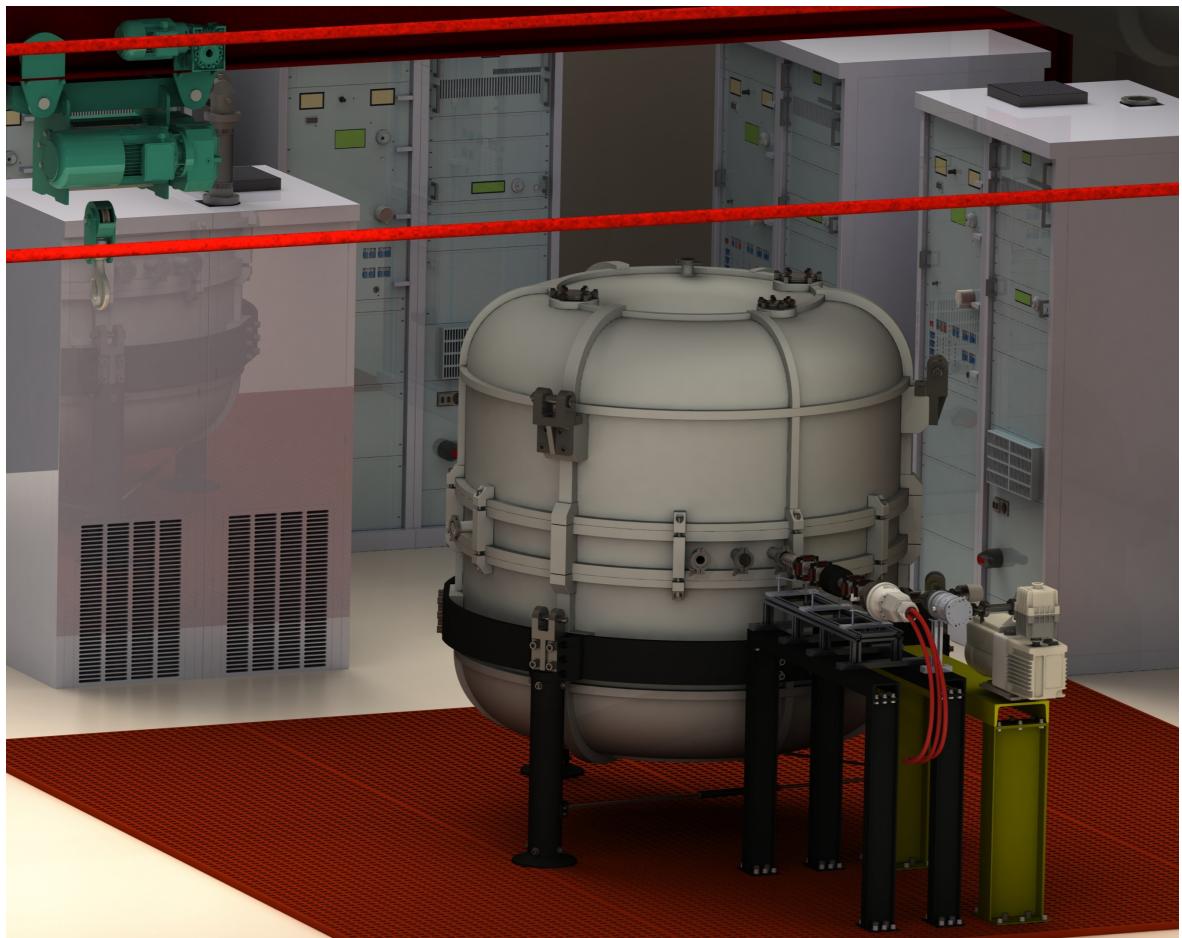


Figure 5.1. Rhodotron in KAHVELab.



Figure 5.2. Rhodotron cavity and e^- gun.

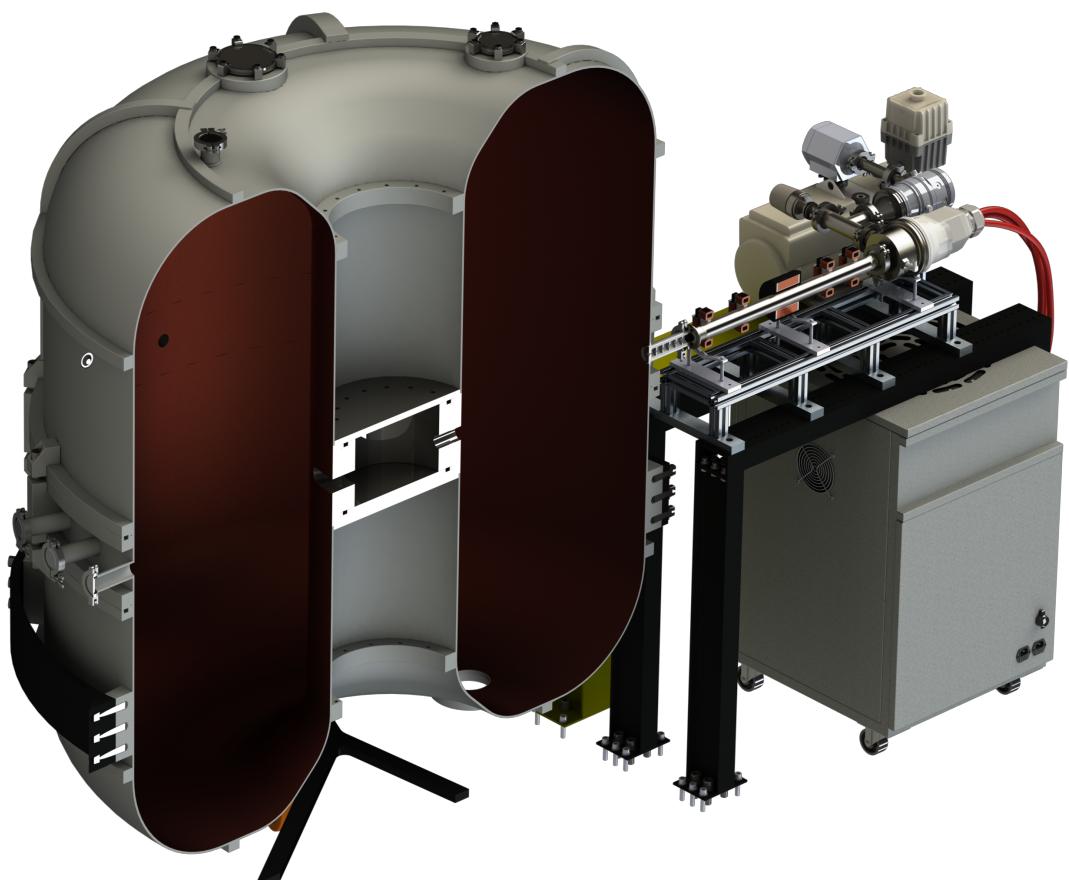


Figure 5.3. Vertical cross section of the beam injection line.

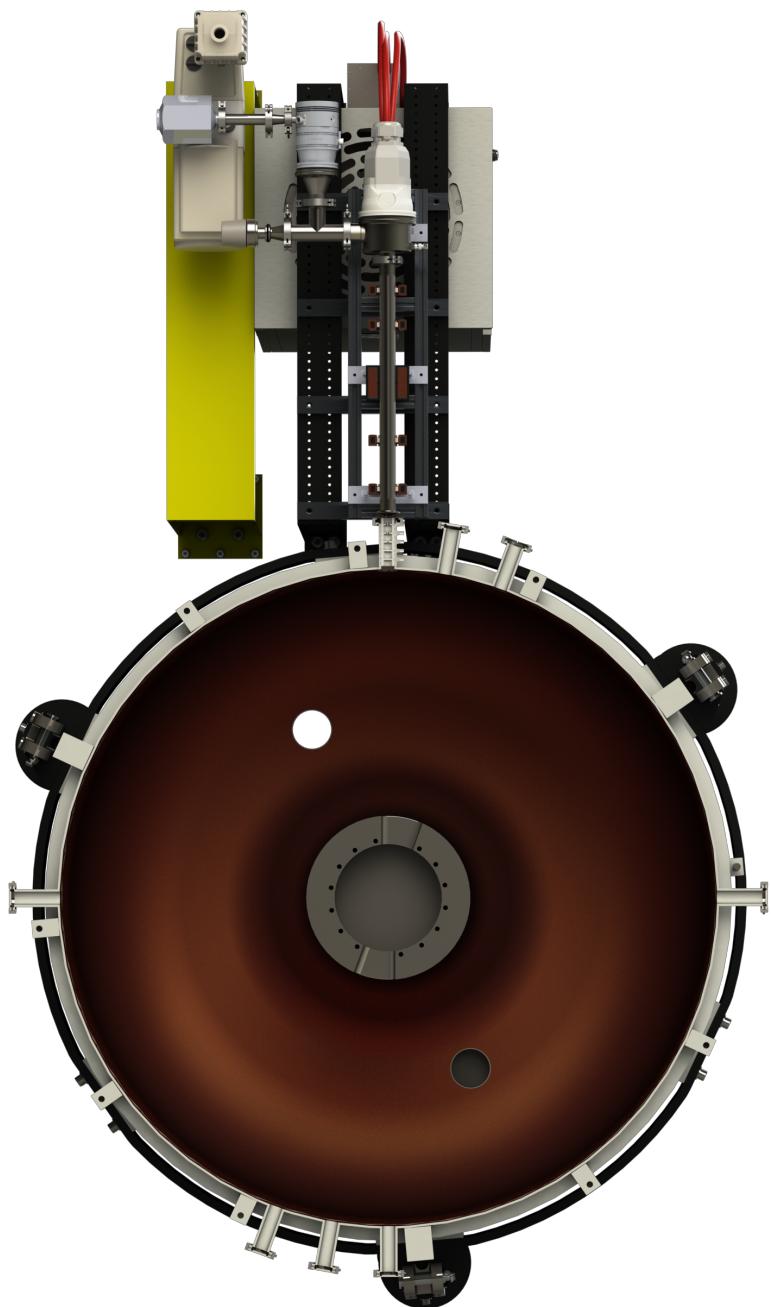


Figure 5.4. Cross section of the acceleration plane.

5.2. Technical Drawing

Technical drawings of the design mentioned in *Section 5.1* can be found in *Figures 5.5 and 5.6, Figure D.1 of Appendix D.*

5.3. Manufacturing

Manufacturing of the rhodotron cavity has been ongoing, planned to be completed in the following months.

The cavity itself was manufactured as 5 main parts, using 5mm thick stainless steel sheet.

Elastic version of the 304, 304L was chosen to be the production material for ease of bending. These sheets were then pressed to achieve the shapes of the parts. Several flanges were then machined, including

- 4.5in EIA RF flange for RF input,
- ISO-100KF vacuum connector flanges for vacuum pumps,
- ISO-63 KF flange for probe insertion,
- KF-40 flanges for beam line vacuum gauges.

After desired shapes were produced inside surface of the sheets were polished with 2000 grits. 304 stainless steel sheet bars of different sizes were then added by TIG welding to achieve pressure resistance.

Because the main body of the cavity was 5mm thick and 304L was used, deformations on cylindrical symmetry were encountered. This problem was solved by welding 6 10mm thick toroidal sheets between the coaxial cylinders, which would be removed after the heat treatment.

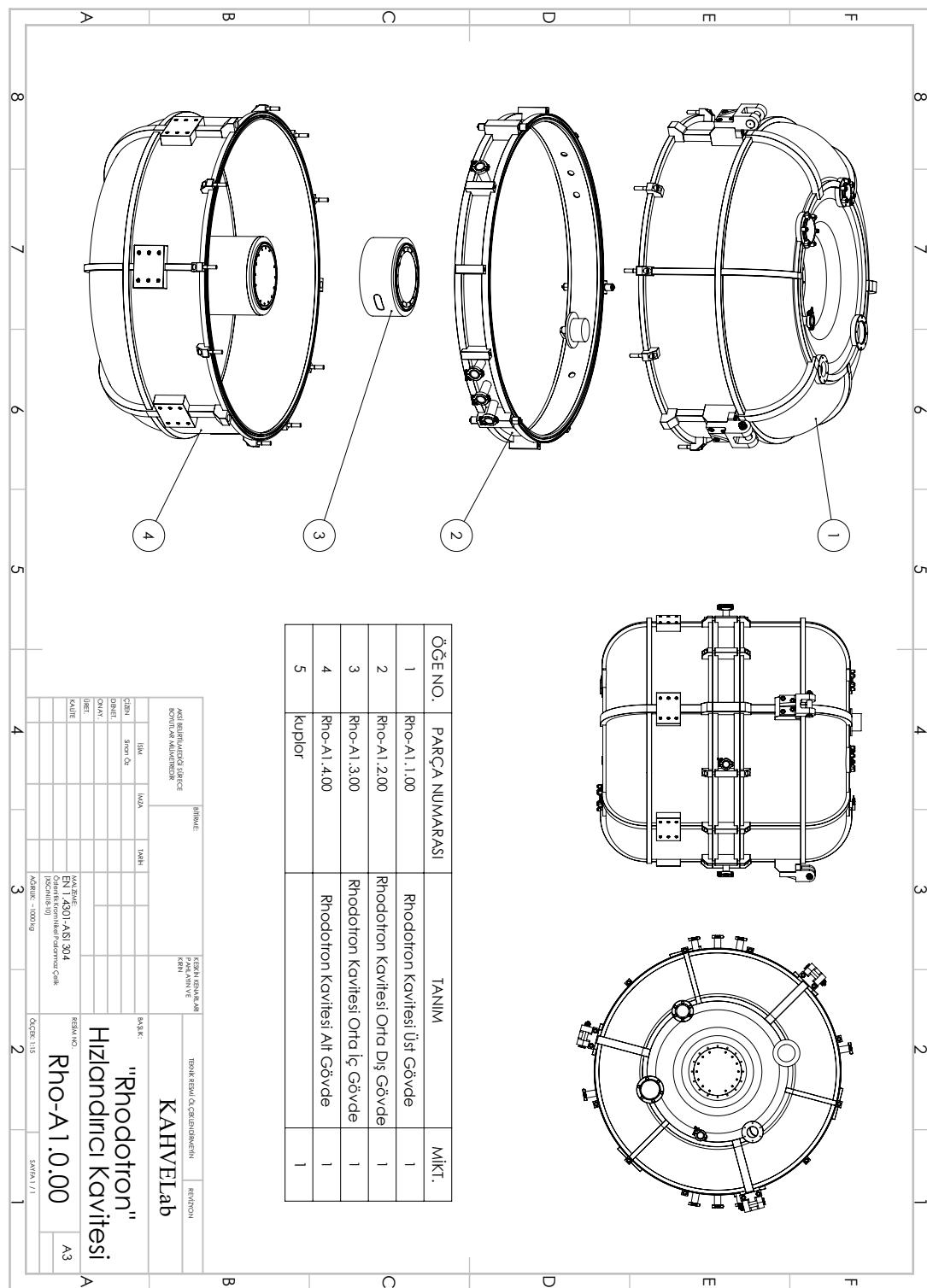


Figure 5.5. Technical drawing of the rhodotron cavity [13].

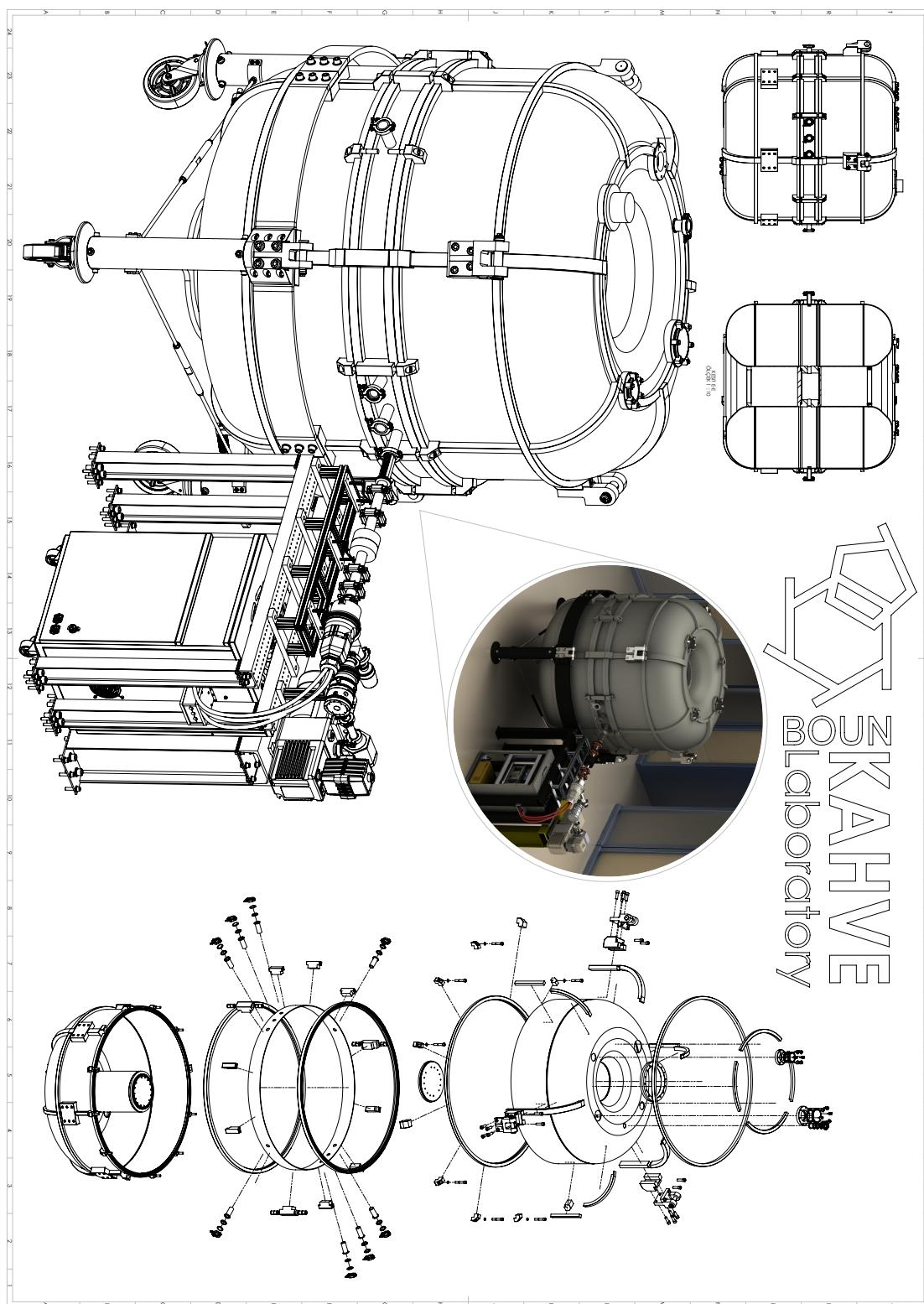


Figure 5.6. Technical drawing of middle part of the cavity which contains the beam line [13].



(a) Bottom part of the cavity while polishing

(b) Top part of the cavity after polishing

Figure 5.7. Polishing of the inner surface of cavity.



(a) Bottom part of the cavity with the exposed beam line in inner cylinder

(b) Bottom part of the cavity with the beam line assembled

Figure 5.8. Deformation prevention measure, 10 mm thick toroidal sheets.



Figure 5.9. Welded sheet bars.



Figure 5.10. Middle part of the cavity containing the beam line.



Figure 5.11. TIG welding.

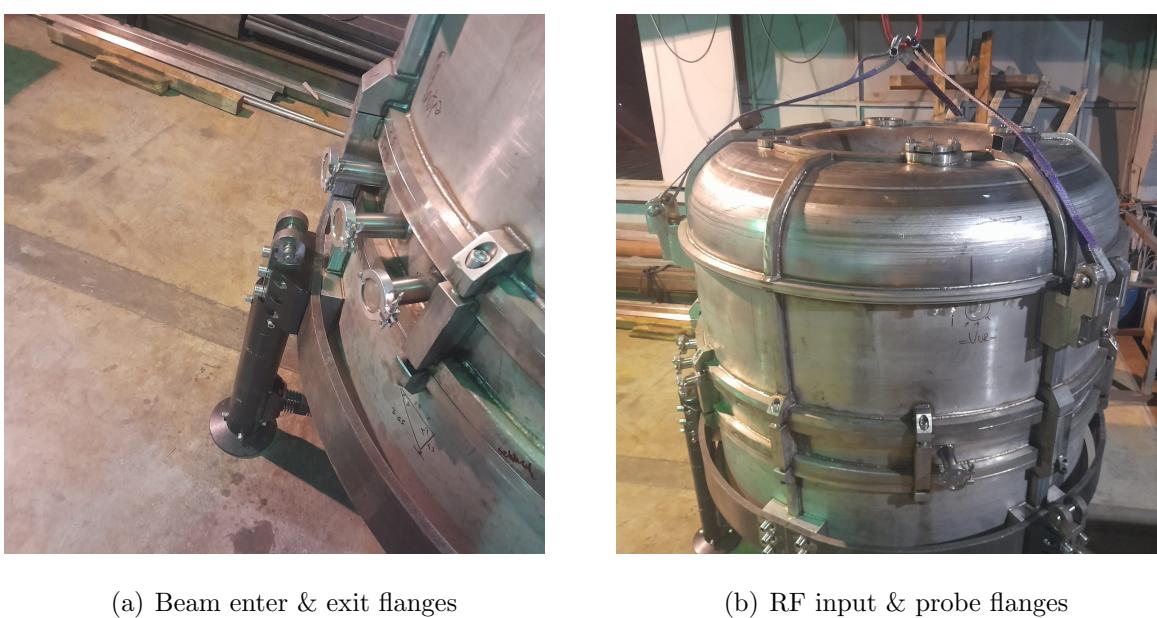


Figure 5.12. Flanges on the assembled cavity.



Figure 5.13. Current stage of the cavity.

TEST OF REMOTE COMPILE

6. CONCLUSION

At the time of publication, production efforts of a new rhodotron type electron accelerator are currently continuing in KAHVELab. Present bottleneck is the fabrication of the cavity.

6.1. Future Work

Regarding the cavity manufacturing process, it is in the concluding stages. The sheet bars and the flanges of the upper and the lower parts have been welded, the cavity is getting ready for heat treatment. After the heat treatment operation, the supporting toroidal sheets will be removed and the inside surface will be polished before cyanide copper plating.

As far as the magnets were concerned, it was decided to be kept on hold in the early stages of the project, due to the disagreement on the energy gain amount between the calculations of *J. POTTIER* [1] and the simulation results from *CST Studio Suite & Rhodotron Simulation*. The software is planned to be used in magnet design and beam optimizations in KAHVELab after the initial tests are completed.

Rhodotron Simulation, which has been the main focus of this thesis, is ready and waiting to be tested with the cavity that is being manufactured; Several improvements and new feature implementations are underway in the meantime:

- Electric and magnetic field import
- Field generator module to directly produce field files from specified cavity
- Synchrotron radiation calculations to determine radiation and energy loss
- $e^- - e^-$ interactions
- Redesign of the GUI
- 3D render in GUI
- Refactoring of the $e^- - \text{EM}$ interaction and logging to improve performance
- Refactoring of the GUI Render Frame to improve render speed
- Refactoring the magnet class to introduce field leaks
- Extension of analysis tools in Analyze Frame
- L_{out} sweep in Sweep Frame

After the cavity manufacturing is concluded, energy gain predictions of this software will be tested on this cavity. Complementary bending magnet design will be the first challenge of *Rhodotron Simulation*, which will provide tremendous testing and improvement opportunities.

6.2. Discussion

In conclusion, a new computational $e^- - \text{EM}$ interaction simulation and analysis tool that focuses on designing and improving *Rhodotron-type* accelerators has been successfully developed; a *Rhodotron-type* accelerator with an operating frequency of 107.5 MHz and a target energy of 1 – 5 MeV has been designed and is currently being manufactured.

The software features a robust GUI that is capable of rendering and analyzing simulation results. Leap-frog and Runge-Kutta numerical methods have been implemented for initial speed and accuracy tests. The real-world performance and accuracy of this new tool, on the other hand, cannot be tested before the cavity production is completed and the performance is compared with the predictions of the tool; However, the capabilities it presents, coupled with the analogous results obtained from other extensively utilized simulation tools, lead to the inference that it holds promise.

APPENDIX A: Intermediate Codes

```

1  for(double i = 2; i < 9; i += dT_out){
2      t_dum += i;
3      double enow = gecis(r_pos, vel, Et, t_dum);
4      if( enow > maxE ){
5          maxE = enow;
6          t_opt = i;
7      }
8      t_dum = t;
9  }

```

```

1  double gecis(double r_pos, double vel, double Et, double &t){
2      for(; r_pos >= -R2 && r_pos <= R2 ; t+=dT){
3          vel = c*sqrt(Et*Et-E0*E0)/Et;
4          double RelBeta = vel/c;
5          double RelGamma = 1.0 / sqrt(1.0-RelBeta*RelBeta);
6
7          double ef=Eradi(r_pos*1000,t,RFphase*deg_to_rad);
8
9          double acc=ef*1E6*eQMratio/(RelGamma*RelGamma*RelGamma);
10
11         r_pos = r_pos + vel * dT*ns + 1/2*acc*(dT*ns)*(dT*ns);
12         vel=vel+acc*dT*ns;
13         RelBeta = vel/c;
14         RelGamma = 1.0 / sqrt(1.0-RelBeta*RelBeta);
15         Et=RelGamma*E0;
16     }
17     return Et;
18 }
```

Figure A.1. L_{out} Optimization For Single e^- .

```

1 int phase_opt(const vector<double>& Louts, int phase_sweep_range){
2     double minrms = 1;
3     int opt_phase;
4     for(int RFphase = -phase_sweep_range; RFphase <= phase_sweep_range; RFphase++){
5         Bunch bunch1(RFphase);
6         double t1 = 0;
7         bunch1.bunch_gecis_t(t1);
8         bunch1.reset_pos();
9
10        for(int i = 0; i < Louts.size(); i++){
11            bunch1.bunch_gecis_d(Louts[i]);
12            bunch1.reset_pos();
13        }
14
15        if( bunch1.E_rms() < minrms ){
16            minrms = bunch1.E_rms();
17            opt_phase = RFphase;
18        }
19    }
20    return opt_phase;
21 }
```

Figure A.2. ϕ_{lag} Optimization For Initial Bunch Design.

```

1 double vector3d::operator* (const vector3d& other){
2     double dot = 0;
3     dot += this->x * other.x;
4     dot += this->y * other.y;
5     dot += this->z * other.z;
6     return dot;
7 }

1 vector3d vector3d::operator% (const vector3d& other){
2     double x_ = (this->y * other.z) - (this->z * other.y);
3     double y_ = (this->z * other.x) - (this->x * other.z);
4     double z_ = (this->x * other.y) - (this->y * other.x);
5     vector3d crossed(x_, y_, z_);
6     return crossed;
7 }
```

Figure A.3. * and % operators of *vector3d* class.

```

1  vector3d Electron2D::interactB_RK(const MagneticField& B, double time_interval){
2      if (B.isInside(pos) == -1){
3          return vector3d(0,0,0);
4      }
5      Electron2D e_dummy;
6      e_dummy.Et = Et;
7      e_dummy.pos = pos;
8      e_dummy.vel = vel;
9      double time_halved = time_interval*0.5;
10     // get k1
11     vector3d F_m = (e_dummy.vel % B.getField(pos))*eQMratio;
12     vector3d k1 = F_m * e_dummy.gamma_inv();
13     // get k2
14     e_dummy.move(time_halved);
15     e_dummy.accelerate(k1, time_halved);
16     F_m = (e_dummy.vel % B.getField(pos))*eQMratio;
17     vector3d k2 = F_m * e_dummy.gamma_inv();
18     // get k3
19     e_dummy.vel = vel;
20     e_dummy.accelerate(k2, time_halved);
21     vector3d k3 = F_m * e_dummy.gamma_inv();
22     // get k4
23     e_dummy.vel = vel;
24     e_dummy.move(time_halved);
25     e_dummy.accelerate(k3, time_interval);
26     F_m = (e_dummy.vel % B.getField(pos))*eQMratio;
27     vector3d k4 = F_m * e_dummy.gamma_inv();
28
29     return (k1 + k2*2 + k3*2 + k4)/6;
30 }
```

Figure A.4. RK4-1 implemenation of $e^- \cdot \vec{B}$

```

1  bool isInsideHalfSphere(vector3d e_position, double r, vector3d hs_position){
2      vector3d relative = e_position - hs_position;
3      // r/5 can be changed, use this for now
4      if (relative.magnitude() <= r && relative * hs_position.direction() >= -r/5){
5          return true;
6      }
7      return false;
8 }
```

Figure A.5. Logic of is e^- inside the shape of magnet.

```

1 void Electron2D::interactRK_ActorE(const RFField& E, const MagneticField& B, double time_interval){
2     vector3d run_kut_E = interactE_RK(E, time_interval);
3     vector3d run_kut_B = interactB_RK(B, time_interval);
4
5     vector3d acc = run_kut_E + run_kut_B;
6
7     move(acc, time_interval/2);
8     accelerate(acc, time_interval);
9     move(acc, time_interval/2);
10 }
```

Figure A.6. RK4-1 implemenation of e^- - EM .

```

1 void Electron2D::interactRK(RFField& E, MagneticField& B, const double time, double time_interval){
2     Electron2D e_dummy;
3     e_dummy.Et = Et;
4     e_dummy.pos = pos;
5     e_dummy.vel = vel;
6
7     // Calculate k1
8     vector3d acc_E = E.actOn(e_dummy);
9     vector3d acc_B = B.actOn(e_dummy);
10    vector3d acc = acc_E + acc_B;
11    e_dummy.move(time_interval);
12    e_dummy.accelerate(acc, time_interval);
13    vector3d pos_k1 = e_dummy.pos, vel_k1 = e_dummy.vel;
14
15    // Calculate k2
16    e_dummy.pos = (pos + pos_k1)*0.5;
17    e_dummy.vel = (vel + vel_k1)*0.5;
18    e_dummy.Et = e_dummy.gamma()*E0;
19    E.update(time + time_interval*0.5);
20
21    acc_E = E.actOn(e_dummy);
22    acc_B = B.actOn(e_dummy);
23    acc = acc_E + acc_B;
24    e_dummy.move(time_interval);
25    e_dummy.accelerate(acc, time_interval);
26    vector3d pos_k2 = e_dummy.pos, vel_k2 = e_dummy.vel;
27
28    // Calculate k3
29    e_dummy.pos = (pos + pos_k2)*0.5;
30    e_dummy.vel = (vel + vel_k2)*0.5;
31    e_dummy.Et = e_dummy.gamma()*E0;
32    E.update(time + time_interval*0.5);
33
34    acc_E = E.actOn(e_dummy);
35    acc_B = B.actOn(e_dummy);
36    acc = acc_E + acc_B;
37    e_dummy.move(time_interval);
38    e_dummy.accelerate(acc, time_interval);
39    vector3d pos_k3 = e_dummy.pos, vel_k3 = e_dummy.vel;
40
41    // Calculate k4
42    E.update(time + time_interval);
43
44    acc_E = E.actOn(e_dummy);
45    acc_B = B.actOn(e_dummy);
46    acc = acc_E + acc_B;
47    e_dummy.move(time_interval);
48    e_dummy.accelerate(acc, time_interval);
49    vector3d pos_k4 = e_dummy.pos, vel_k4 = e_dummy.vel;
50
51    E.update(time);
52    pos = (pos_k1 + pos_k2*2 + pos_k3*2 + pos_k4)/6;
53    vel = (vel_k1 + vel_k2*2 + vel_k3*2 + vel_k4)/6;
54    Et = gamma()*E0;
55 }
```

Figure A.7. RK4-2 implemenation of $e^- - EM$.

```

1 void RhodotronSimulator::_runMT(){
2     gun.fireAllWithFireTimesMT();
3
4     MTEngine.setupPool(time_interval, start_time, end_time, gun, E_field, B_field, gun.thread_bunchs);
5
6     STEPS_TAKEN = 0;
7     simulation_time = start_time;
8     while (simulation_time < end_time + time_interval ){
9         if (STEPS_TAKEN % log_interval() == 0){
10            E_field.update(simulation_time);
11            logEfield(simulation_time, simulation_time + time_interval > end_time);
12            notifyUI(MTEngine.getAverageTime());
13        }
14        simulation_time+=time_interval;
15        STEPS_TAKEN++;
16    }
17    bool end = false;
18    while (!end){
19        double time = MTEngine.getAverageTime();
20        notifyUI(time);
21        if ( time >= end_time ){
22            end = true;
23        }
24        this_thread::yield();
25    }
26    MTEngine.join();
27
28 }
```

Figure A.8. Multithreading main-thread logic.

```

1 void Gun::fireAllWithFireTimesMT(){
2     std::random_device rd;
3     std::mt19937 e2(rd());
4     std::normal_distribution<double> Edist(Ein, sEin);
5
6     for(_fired_bunch= 0; _fired_bunch < bunch_count; _fired_bunch++){
7         for(_fired_e_in_current_bunch= 0; _fired_e_in_current_bunch < e_per_bunch; _fired_e_in_current_bunch++){
8
9             double E = (sEin == 0 ) ? Ein : Edist(e2);
10
11             double fire_time = (ns_between_each_electron_fire * _fired_e_in_current_bunch) + _fired_bunch*gun_period;
12
13             auto burrowed_e = bunchs[_fired_bunch].AddElectronGiveAddress(E, gunpos, gundir, fire_time);
14
15             int thread_index = (_fired_e_in_current_bunch + _fired_bunch*e_per_bunch)%thread_bunchs.size();
16
17             thread_bunchs[thread_index]->push_back(burrowed_e);
18         }
19     }
20 }
```

Figure A.9. Multithreading electron assign logic.

```

1 void MultiThreadEngine::setupPool( double _time_interval, double _start_time, double _end_time, Gun& gun,
2   CoaxialRFField& RF, MagneticField& B, vector<shared_ptr<vector<shared_ptr<Electron2D>>>& e_list){
3   threads.reserve(thread_count);
4
5   for(int i = 0; i < thread_count && i == threads.size(); i++){
6
7     child_notifier_mutexes.push_back(make_shared<mutex>());
8     child_times.push_back(make_shared<double>());
9
10    auto _E = RF.Copy();
11    auto _B = B.LightWeightCopy();
12    double time_between_fires = thread_count*gun.getGunActiveTime()/gun.getElectronsPerBunch();
13    double first_fire_time = i*gun.getGunActiveTime()/gun.getElectronsPerBunch();
14    ThreadArguments thread_arguments(i, _time_interval, _start_time, _end_time, &gun, _E, _B, e_list[i], first_fire_time, time_between_fires);
15    thread_arguments.parent_notifier_mutex = child_notifier_mutexes[i];
16    thread_arguments.current_thread_time = child_times[i];
17    threads.push_back(thread(threadLoop, thread_arguments));
18  }
19 }
```

Figure A.10. Multithreading worker-threads setup logic.

```

1 void threadLoop(ThreadArguments thread_arguments){
2   uint64_t count = 0;
3
4   double sim_time = thread_arguments.start_time;
5
6   while(sim_time < thread_arguments.end_time + thread_arguments.time_interval){
7     thread_arguments.E->update(sim_time);
8     thread_arguments.i_args.time = sim_time;
9
10    if ( count % (unsigned long)(0.1/thread_arguments.time_interval) == 0){
11      saveElectronInfoForSingleThread(thread_arguments.i_args);
12      // Notify the main thread
13      if(thread_arguments.parent_notifier_mutex->try_lock()){
14        *thread_arguments.current_thread_time = sim_time;
15        thread_arguments.parent_notifier_mutex->unlock();
16      }
17    }
18
19    interactForSingleThread(thread_arguments.i_args);
20    // save electron info here
21    sim_time+= thread_arguments.time_interval;
22    count++;
23  }
24  thread_arguments.parent_notifier_mutex->lock();
25  *thread_arguments.current_thread_time = sim_time;
26  thread_arguments.parent_notifier_mutex->unlock();
27 }
```

Figure A.11. Multithreading worker-thread logic.

```

1 void UIThreadWork(UIThreadArgs args){
2     int UI_WORK_PIECE = SIM_WORK_MASK;
3     if ( !args.isService ) {
4         UI_WORK_PIECE = 50;
5     }
6
7     double piece = (args.end_time - args.start_time)/UI_WORK_PIECE;
8
9     if ( !args.isService ) {
10        std::string sim_running_msg = "...Simulation is running...";
11        for(int i = 0; i < 26 - sim_running_msg.size()/2 ; i++){
12            std::cout << " ";
13        }
14        std::cout << sim_running_msg <<"\n";
15    }
16
17    args.ui_mutex->lock();
18    double simtime = *(args.simulation_time);
19    args.ui_mutex->unlock();
20
21    if ( !args.isService ) {
22        std::cout << "V";
23        for(int i = 0; i < 51; i++){
24            std::cout << "_";
25        }
26        std::cout << "V\n[" << std::flush;
27    }
28
29    int count = 0;
30    bool running = true;
31    while(running && (simtime < args.end_time || count < UI_WORK_PIECE )) {
32        if( simtime > count * piece ){
33            if ( !args.isService ) {
34                std::cout << "#" << std::flush;
35            }
36            count++;
37            args.state_mutex->lock();
38            running = *args.state_ptr & SIM_RUNNING;
39            *args.state_ptr = (*args.state_ptr & ~SIM_WORK_MASK) | (count & SIM_WORK_MASK);
40            if (args.isService) write(args._fd, args.state_ptr, SIGNAL_SIZE);
41            args.state_mutex->unlock();
42        }
43        std::this_thread::sleep_for(std::chrono::milliseconds(25));
44        args.ui_mutex->lock();
45        simtime = *(args.simulation_time);
46        args.ui_mutex->unlock();
47    }
48
49    if ( !args.isService ) {
50        std::cout << "#]\n\n" << std::flush;
51        std::cout << "      ...Simulation is finished successfully...\n\n" << std::flush;
52    }
53
54    args.state_mutex->lock();
55    *args.state_ptr |= SIM_RENDERING;
56    if ( args.isService ) write(args._fd, args.state_ptr, SIGNAL_SIZE);
57    args.state_mutex->unlock();
58 }
```

Figure A.12. UI-Console handler thread logic.

```

1  class Electron{
2      std::vector<ElectronLog> log;
3      uint64_t index;
4      double Et;
5      vector3d pos;
6      vector3d vel;
7      double fire_time;
8  public:
9      Electron();
10     Electron(double Ein, vector3d position, vector3d direction, double _fire_time = 0);
11     ~Electron();
12
13     void setEin(double E_in);
14     void print_electron_info();
15
16     void move(double dt);
17     void move(const vector3d& acc, double dt);
18     void move(const vector3d& acc, const vector3d& jerk, double dt);
19     void accelerate(const vector3d& acc, double dt);
20     void accelerate(const vector3d& acc, const vector3d& jerk, double dt);
21
22     void interactLF(RFField& E, MagneticField& B, double time_interval);
23     void interactRK(RFField& E, MagneticField& B, double time_interval);
24     void interactRK(RFField& E, MagneticField& B, const double time, double time_interval);
25     void interactRK_ActorE(const RFField& E, const MagneticField& B, double time_interval);
26
27     vector3d interactE_RK(const RFField& E, double time_interval);
28     vector3d interactB_RK(const MagneticField& B, double time_interval);
29
30     void saveInfo(double t);
31     void setLogSize(size_t size);
32     void loge(DataStorage& path);
33     const vector<ElectronLog>& getLog();
34
35     double vel();
36     double beta();
37     double beta2();
38     double gamma();
39     double gamma_inv();
40 };

```

Figure A.13. Electron class definition.

```

1  class Bunch{
2  private:
3      int e_count = 0;
4      int index_fastest = 0;
5      double max_energy = 0;
6      double entry_time = 0;
7      double E_in = 0.04;
8
9      vector<Bunch> subBunchs;
10     vector<shared_ptr<Electron>> e;
11
12 public:
13     Bunch(unsigned int num_of_electrons, double Ein, vector3d gunpos, vector3d gundir, double gun_ns);
14     Bunch();
15     ~Bunch();
16
17     void saveInfo(double time);
18
19     Electron& getFastest();
20
21     void AddElectron(double Ein, const vector3d& gunpos, const vector3d& gundir, double fire_time);
22
23     shared_ptr<Electron> AddElectronGiveAddress(double Ein, const vector3d& gunpos, const vector3d& gundir, double fire_time);
24
25     void setEntryTime(double entry_time);
26     void setEin(double E_in);
27     void setNSLen(double len);
28
29     uint32_t get_e_count();
30     double getEin();
31     double E_ave();
32     double E_rms();
33
34     void interact(RFField& E, MagneticField& B, const double time, double time_interval);
35
36     void divide(unsigned int num);
37     void concat();
38     Bunch& subBunch(unsigned int index);
39     vector<Bunch*> subBunchPtr();
40
41     void reset();
42
43     void print_bunch_info();
44     void print_summary();
45
46     void logPaths(vector<DataStorage>& pathStorage, std::string header);
47 };

```

Figure A.14. Bunch class definition.

```

1  class Gun{
2      double Ein;
3      double sEin;
4      double gun_period;
5      double gun_active_time;
6      double ns_between_each_electron_fire;
7
8      vector3d gunpos;
9      vector3d gundir = vector3d(1,0,0);
10
11     uint64_t bunch_count = 0;
12     uint64_t e_per_bunch = 1;
13
14     uint32_t _fired_bunch = 0;
15     uint32_t _fired_e_in_current_bunch = 0;
16     bool _firing = false;
17
18     bool _mt_enabled = false;
19     uint32_t _child_thread_count = 0;
20
21     vector<Bunch> bunchs;
22
23     mutex _gun_mutex;
24     vector<shared_ptr<vector<shared_ptr<Electron>>> thread_bunchs;
25
26     void setNSLen(double len);
27 public:
28     Gun();
29     Gun(double Ein, double gun_active_time, double pulse_interval, vector3d gunpos);
30     ~Gun();
31     void interact(RFField& E, MagneticField& B, const double time, double time_interval);
32
33     void fireIfActive(double time);
34     void fireAllWithFireTimesMT();
35
36     void addBunch(unsigned int num_of_electrons, double Ein);
37
38     void setGunActiveTime(double gt);
39     double getGunActiveTime(){return gun_active_time;}
40     void setGunInterval(double guninterval);
41     void setGunPos(vector3d gun_pos);
42     void setGunDir(vector3d gun_dir);
43     void setEin(double Ein) ;
44     void setEinStd(double EinStd) ;
45     void setNumberOfElectrons(uint64_t e_num);
46     void getElectronsPerBunch(){return e_per_bunch;}
47     void setNumberOfBunchs(uint64_t b_num);
48     void enableMT(uint32_t thread_count);
49
50     void saveInfo(double time);
51     void logPaths(vector<vector<DataStorage> >& pathsStorage, std::string pathsPath, std::string header);
52 };

```

Figure A.15. Gun class definition.

```

1  class Simulator{           // E in MV/m,   En in MeV,   B in T,    t in ns
2  protected:
3      Gun gun;
4      double Emax; double freq = 107.5; double phase_lag = 0;
5      DataStorage EfieldStorage; DataStorage BfieldStorage;
6      vector<vector<DataStorage>> pathsStorage;
7      std::string configPath, pathsPath;
8      std::string EfieldLogHeader, BfieldLogHeader, eLogHeader;
9
10     double simulation_time = 0;
11     double start_time = 0;
12     double end_time = 45;
13     double time_interval = 0.0001;
14     uint64_t STEPS_TAKEN = 0;
15     double GUN_ACTIVE_TIME = 1;
16     double GUN_PERIOD = 9.3;
17     uint64_t NUM_OF_ELECTRONS = 1;
18     uint64_t NUM_OF_BUNCHS = 1;
19     double Ein = 0.04;
20     double EinStd = 0;
21     vector3d gunPosition;
22     vector3d gunDirection = vector3d(1,0,0);
23
24     shared_ptr<mutex> ui_mutex;
25     UIHandler ui_handler;
26     shared_ptr<mutex> state_mutex;
27     uint8_t state = 0x0;
28
29     MultiThreadEngine MTEngine;
30     unsigned int MAX_THREAD_COUNT = 1;
31 public:
32     Simulator();
33     ~Simulator(){}
34
35     void enableMultiThreading(unsigned int thread_count);
36     void setdT(double dT);
37     void setEin(double E_in);
38     void setEinStd(double Ein_Std);
39     void setNumberofElectrons(uint64_t num_of_electrons);
40     void setNumberofBunchs(uint64_t num_of_bunchs);
41     void setSimTime(double starttime, double endtime);
42     void setGunActiveTime(double gun_ns);
43     void setGunPeriod(double pi);
44     void setGunPosition(vector3d pos);
45     void setGunDirection(vector3d dir);
46     void setRFPath(std::string path);
47     void setBPath(std::string path);
48     void setPathsPath(std::string path);
49     void setConfigPath(std::string path);
50
51     virtual void run();
52     void openLogs();
53     void closeLogs();
54     virtual void getConfig(Configuration& config) = 0;
55     virtual void logEfield(double time, bool) = 0;
56     virtual void logBfield() = 0;
57     void logPaths();
58     shared_ptr<mutex> getUIMutex();
59 };

```

Figure A.16. Simulator class definition.

```
1 class RhodotronSimulator : public Simulator{
2     private:
3         double R1;
4         double R2;
5         CoaxialRFField E_field;
6         MagneticField B_field;
7
8         void _runMT();
9         void _runST();
10    public:
11        RhodotronSimulator(double phase_lag);
12        RhodotronSimulator(Configuration& config);
13
14        void StartUIHandler();
15        void StopUIHandler();
16        void DeclareService(std::string pipe_name);
17
18        void setFreq(double frequency);
19        void setPhaseLag(double phase_lag);
20        void setEmax(double E_max);
21        void setR1(double r1);
22        void setR2(double r2);
23        void addMagnet(double B, double r, vector3d position);
24        void addMagnet(Magnet m);
25
26        void updateSimulation();
27        void getConfig(Configuration& config);
28        void logEfield(double time, bool end);
29        void logBfield();
30
31        void run();
32        void notifyUI(double time);
33
34        void setState(uint8_t state_);
35    };
```

Figure A.17. RhodotronSimulator class definition.

```

1  class RFField{
2  protected:
3      double E;                      // MV/m
4      double E_max = 0;               // MV/m
5      double frequency = 107.5;       // MHz
6      double phase_lag = 0;          // degree
7  public:
8      RFField();
9      RFField(double phase_lag);
10     virtual ~RFField() {}
11
12     virtual vector3d getField(vector3d position);
13     virtual double getField(double R);
14     virtual int log(DataStorage& rf, double time, bool end = false);
15     vector3d actOn(Electron& e);
16     vector3d actOnAndGetRungeKuttaCoef(Electron& e, double dt);
17
18     double getE() {return E;}
19     void setEmax(double E_max) {this->E_max = E_max; update(0);}
20     void setFreq(double freq){ frequency = freq;}
21     void setPhaseLag(double phaselag){ phase_lag = phaselag; update(0);}
22     virtual void update(double time);
23 };


---


1  class CoaxialRFField : public RFField{
2  private:
3      double r1 = 0.188;                // m
4      double r2 = 0.753;                // m
5      double E_max_pos = r1;           // m
6      std::vector<CoaxialRFField*> _childs;
7      double E_radial(double R) const;
8  public:
9      CoaxialRFField();
10     CoaxialRFField(double phase_lag);
11     ~CoaxialRFField() override;
12     void setR1(double r1);
13     void setR2(double r2);
14     void setEmaxPos(double Emaxpos);
15
16     vector3d getField(vector3d position) const override;
17     double getField(double R) const override;
18     vector3d actOn(Electron& e);
19     vector3d actOnAndGetRungeKuttaCoef(Electron& e, double dt);
20     void update(double time) override;
21
22     int log(DataStorage& rf, double time, bool end = false) override;
23
24     std::shared_ptr<CoaxialRFField> Copy();
25     void split(uint32_t amount_of_child);
26     CoaxialRFField* child(uint32_t index);
27 };

```

Figure A.18. CoaxialRFField class definition.

APPENDIX B: Example Simulation Runs

```

1 Optimal phase with the least RMS : -5
2
3 Simulation settings :
4 ph = -5 deg, gt = 1 ns, enum = 1000
5 dT = 0.001 ns, dT_out = 0.01 ns
6
7 For the 1th magnet:
8 Optimum out path = 0.81044 m
9 Magnet guide = 0.25852 m
10 Rho = 0.088477 m
11 Drift time of the first electron in the bunch : 7.688 ns
12 Drift time of the last electron in the bunch : 7.487 ns
13 Max energy = 0.47581 MeV
14 RMS = 0.0058165 MeV
15
16 For the 2th magnet:
17 Optimum out path = 1.0833 m
18 Magnet guide = 0.37766 m
19 Rho = 0.098898 m
20 Drift time of the first electron in the bunch : 5.597 ns
21 Drift time of the last electron in the bunch : 5.617 ns
22 Max energy = 0.89172 MeV
23 RMS = 0.0099018 MeV
24
25 For the 3th magnet:
26 Optimum out path = 1.1705 m
27 Magnet guide = 0.41573 m
28 Rho = 0.10223 m
29 Drift time of the first electron in the bunch : 5.314 ns
30 Drift time of the last electron in the bunch : 5.325 ns
31 Max energy = 1.298 MeV
32 RMS = 0.013879 MeV
33
34 Electron with the most energy : 623) 1.6999 MeV,           RMS of bunch : 0.017981 MeV
35
36 Total steps calculated : 12468052652
37 Simulation finished in : 632050015 us      ( 632.1 s )
38

```

Figure B.1. ϕ_{lag} , ρ & L optimization at $P = 30\text{KW}$, $R_1 = 0.188\text{m}$, $R_2 = 0.753\text{m}$,

$$t_g = 1\text{ns}, E_{in} = 40\text{KeV}.$$

```

1 Optimal phase with the least RMS : 0
2
3 Simulation settings :
4 ph = 0 deg, gt = 0.8 ns, enum = 1000
5 dT = 0.001 ns, dT_out = 0.01 ns
6
7 For the 1th magnet:
8 Optimum out path = 0.80787 m
9 Magnet guide = 0.2574 m
10 Rho = 0.088379 m
11 Drift time of the first electron in the bunch : 7.629 ns
12 Drift time of the last electron in the bunch : 7.48 ns
13 Max energy = 0.47579 MeV
14 RMS = 0.0038689 MeV
15
16 For the 2th magnet:
17 Optimum out path = 1.0833 m
18 Magnet guide = 0.37765 m
19 Rho = 0.098898 m
20 Drift time of the first electron in the bunch : 5.589 ns
21 Drift time of the last electron in the bunch : 5.605 ns
22 Max energy = 0.89169 MeV
23 RMS = 0.0068848 MeV
24
25 For the 3th magnet:
26 Optimum out path = 1.1705 m
27 Magnet guide = 0.41573 m
28 Rho = 0.10223 m
29 Drift time of the first electron in the bunch : 5.311 ns
30 Drift time of the last electron in the bunch : 5.318 ns
31 Max energy = 1.298 MeV
32 RMS = 0.0096887 MeV
33
34 Electron with the most energy : 629) 1.6999 MeV,           RMS of bunch : 0.012318 MeV
35
36 Total steps calculated : 12455378454
37 Simulation finished in : 631136046 us      ( 631.1 s )

```

Figure B.2. ϕ_{lag} & ρ & L optimization at $P = 30\text{KW}$, $R_1 = 0.188\text{m}$, $R_2 = 0.753\text{m}$,

$$t_g = 0.8\text{ns}, E_{in} = 40\text{KeV}.$$

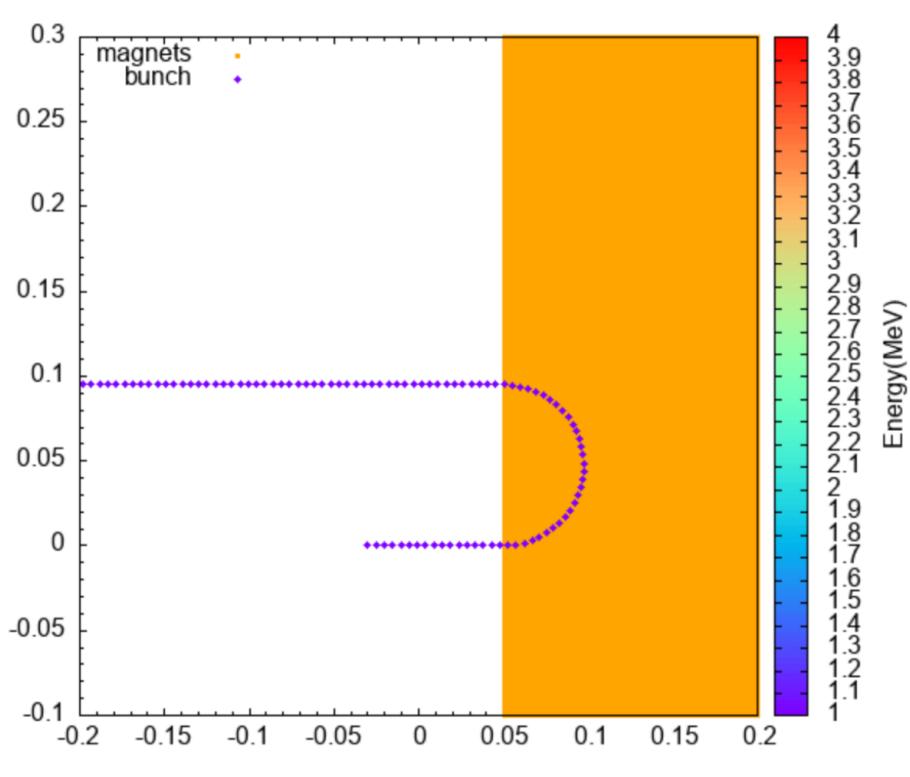
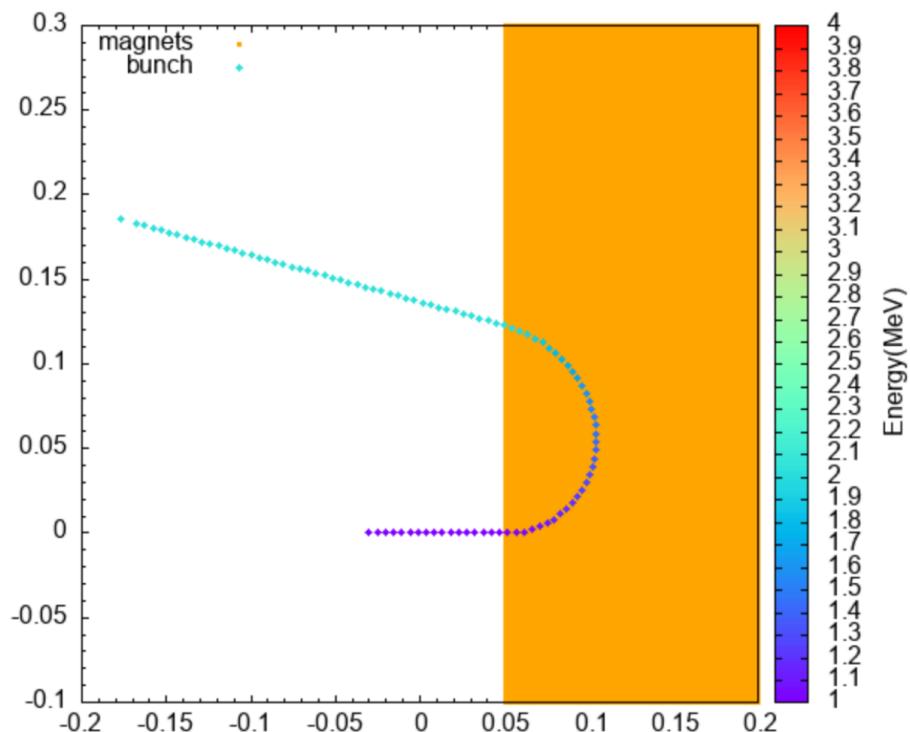


Figure B.3. Energy gain of 1MeV bunch in $\mathbf{B}=0.1\text{T}$ using RK4-2.

```

1 # Rhodotron Simulation Configuration File
2 # =====
3 # M.Furkan Er 22/09/2022
4 # =====
5 #
6 # emax = Maximum electric field strength (MV/m)
7 # ein = Energy of electrons coming out of the gun (MeV)
8 # einstd = Standard deviation of energy of electrons coming out of the gun (MeV)
9 # targeten = Max energy on the output gif (MeV)
10 # freq = Frequency of the RF field (MHz)
11 # phaselag = phase lag of the first electrons (degree)
12 # starttime = time to start firing the gun (ns)
13 # endtime = ns to run the simulation (ns)
14 # dt = time interval to do the calculations (ns)
15 # guntime = how long a gun pulse is (ns)
16 # gunperiod = time between two gun pulses (ns)
17 # enum = number of electrons to simulate in a bunch
18 # bunchnum = number of times the gun fires
19 # r1 = radius of the inner cylinder (m)
20 # r2 = radius of the outer cylinder (m)
21 # epath = path to store the electric field data
22 # bpath = path to store the magnetic field data
23 # cpath = path to store the settings
24 # ppath = path to store electron data
25 # multh = enable or disable multithreading
26 # thcount = set the maximum thread to be used
27 # magrotation = degrees of rotation to enter each magnet
28 # addmagnet = takes 3 input. (B , R, < Radial distance of center >)
29 # output = output file name
30
31
32 # E FIELD CONFIGURATION
33 emax=1.170
34 freq=107.3
35 phaselag=10.0
36 r1=0.1840
37 r2=0.7380
38
39 # B FIELD CONFIGURATION
40 magrotation=5.0
41
42 # GUN CONFIGURATION
43 einmean=0.040
44 einstd=0.0000
45 targeten=2.0
46 guntime=1.0
47 gunperiod=9.3
48 enum=50
49 bunchnum=1
50
51 # SIM CONFIGURATION
52 starttime=0
53 endtime=10
54 dt=0.0000010000
55 epath=xy/rf.dat
56 bpath=xy/magnet.dat
57 cpath=xy/settings.dat
58 ppath=xy/paths/
59 multh=1
60 thcount=10

```

Figure B.4. An example *config.in* file.

```
1 -- Simulation Configuration --
2 Emax : 0.96      MV/m
3 Freq : 107.5     MHz
4 Phase Lag : -5   degree
5 EndTime : 100    ns
6 dT : 0.0001     ns
7 guntime : 0.8    ns
8 gunperiod : 9.3 ns
9 enum : 100
10 bunchnum : 2
11 R1 : 0.188241   m
12 R2 : 0.752967   m
13 Magnet count : 5
14 Ein : 0.04       MeV
15 TargetE : 2.5    MeV
16 -----
17
18          ...Simulation is running...
19 V-----V
20 [#####] ]
```

Figure B.5. Example of console output while simulation is running.

APPENDIX C: Data and Graphs

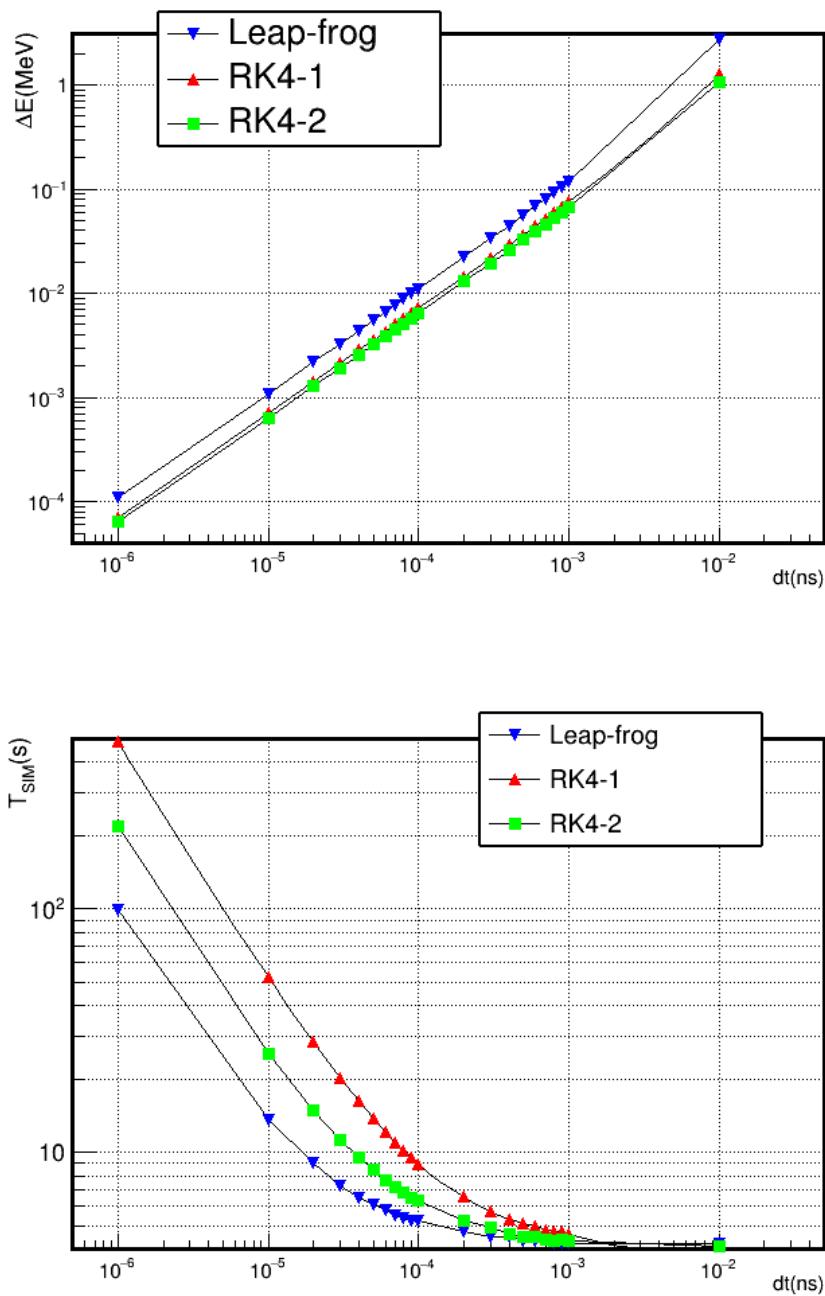


Figure C.1. Comparing Leap-frog, RK4-1, RK4-2 performance on $e^- - \vec{B}$ interaction

$$E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}, \mathbf{B}=0.1\text{T}, t_{end} = 5\text{ns}.$$

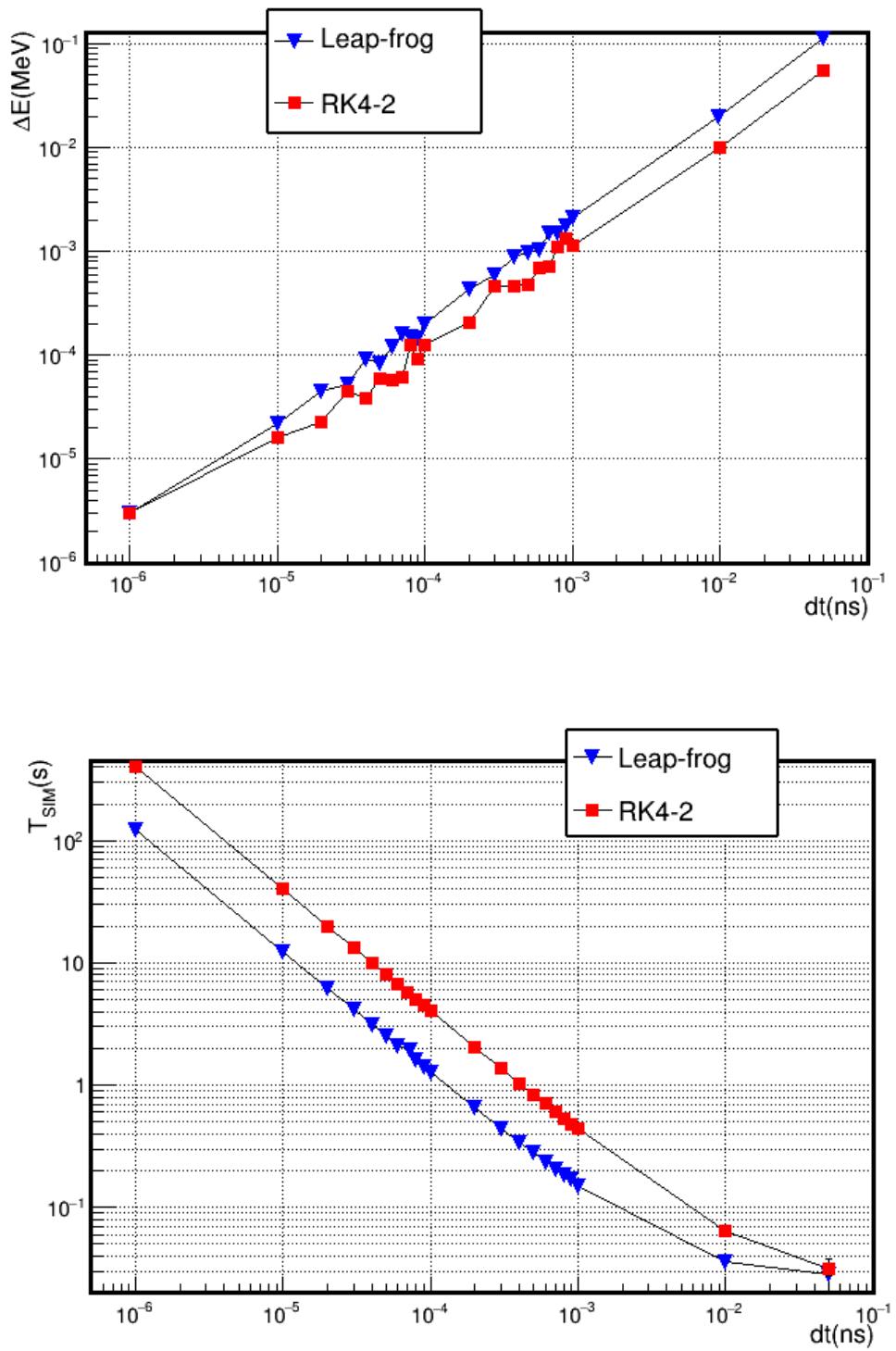


Figure C.2. Comparing Leap-frog, RK4-2 performance on $e^- - \vec{E}$ interaction

$$E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}, V_{||}=4\text{MV}, t_{end} = 6\text{ns}.$$

Table C.1. *Leap-frog* data on $E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}$, $\mathbf{B}=0.1\text{T}$, $t_{end} = 5\text{ns}$.

dt(ns)	$\Delta E_{avg}(\text{MeV})$	$\mu T_{sim}(\text{s})$	$\sigma T_{sim}(\text{s})$
1e-02	2.783228	0.034660	0.011537
1e-03	0.117124	0.115775	0.001071
9e-04	0.104552	0.128983	0.001820
8e-04	0.092252	0.143251	0.002585
7e-04	0.080144	0.158808	0.003228
6e-04	0.068258	0.182359	0.002426
5e-04	0.056554	0.215104	0.002807
4e-04	0.044931	0.262952	0.005119
3e-04	0.033467	0.341552	0.002610
2e-04	0.022158	0.501784	0.005709
1e-04	0.011006	0.973145	0.005849
9e-05	0.009899	1.084032	0.010985
8e-05	0.008792	1.216145	0.012486
7e-05	0.007688	1.387908	0.019031
6e-05	0.006586	1.604475	0.011775
5e-05	0.005485	1.926505	0.014535
4e-05	0.004384	2.395898	0.009702
3e-05	0.003286	3.178265	0.014099
2e-05	0.002189	4.740706	0.022709
1e-05	0.001094	9.441138	0.027266
1e-06	0.000109	93.888320	0.290820

Table C.2. *RK4-2* data on $E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}$, $\mathbf{B}=0.1\text{T}$, $t_{end} = 5\text{ns}$.

dt(ns)	$\Delta E_{avg}(\text{MeV})$	$\mu T_{sim}(\text{s})$	$\sigma T_{sim}(\text{s})$
1e-02	1.047130	0.048943	0.011642
1e-03	0.066912	0.239299	0.003483
9e-04	0.059899	0.268007	0.004530
8e-04	0.053028	0.296154	0.004146
7e-04	0.046183	0.333123	0.004259
6e-04	0.039452	0.384046	0.002458
5e-04	0.032734	0.456387	0.003888
4e-04	0.026072	0.563011	0.004803
3e-04	0.019474	0.742440	0.006169
2e-04	0.012926	1.103559	0.007649
1e-04	0.006437	2.178779	0.009733
9e-05	0.005791	2.411302	0.012266
8e-05	0.005145	2.704117	0.012683
7e-05	0.004500	3.078304	0.013281
6e-05	0.003856	3.589154	0.014472
5e-05	0.003212	4.297561	0.009546
4e-05	0.002568	5.369322	0.012127
3e-05	0.001925	7.136687	0.007845
2e-05	0.001283	10.679166	0.012126
1e-05	0.000641	21.325229	0.011661
1e-06	0.000064	212.824121	0.040967

Table C.3. *LF* data on $E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}$, $\vec{\mathbf{E}} = (-2.65616, 0, 0)$ MV/m, $t_{end} = 6\text{ns}$.

dt(ns)	$\Delta E_{avg}(\text{MeV})$	$\mu T_{sim}(\text{s})$	$\sigma T_{sim}(\text{s})$
5.00E-02	0.114422	0.028398	0.009294
1.00E-02	0.019233	0.036245	0.002182
1.00E-03	0.002141	0.147979	0.00125
9.00E-04	0.001749	0.172161	0.00794
8.00E-04	0.001516	0.184629	0.004359
7.00E-04	0.00152	0.20445	0.001919
6.00E-04	0.001049	0.234947	0.004416
5.00E-04	0.000974	0.278938	0.010969
4.00E-04	0.0009	0.336847	0.003028
3.00E-04	0.000587	0.441771	0.005859
2.00E-04	0.000433	0.652066	0.006637
1.00E-04	0.0002	1.280059	0.016027
9.00E-05	0.000145	1.41908	0.013122
8.00E-05	0.000153	1.592492	0.011332
7.00E-05	0.000162	1.806561	0.009931
6.00E-05	0.000123	2.103571	0.011143
5.00E-05	0.000084	2.515006	0.01393
4.00E-05	0.000092	3.140471	0.014138
3.00E-05	0.000053	4.158715	0.009474
2.00E-05	0.000045	6.231734	0.015236
1.00E-05	0.000022	12.39871	0.039575
1.00E-06	0.000003	123.318	0.299559

Table C.4. *RK4-2* data on $E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}$, $\vec{\mathbf{E}} = (-2.65616, 0, 0)$ MV/m, $t_{end} = 6\text{ns}$.

dt(ns)	$\Delta E_{avg}(\text{MeV})$	$\mu T_{sim}(\text{s})$	$\sigma T_{sim}(\text{s})$
5.00E-02	0.055355	0.031054	0.003281
1.00E-02	0.009868	0.063656	0.000893
1.00E-03	0.001141	0.435864	0.005332
9.00E-04	0.001325	0.478216	0.00595
8.00E-04	0.001112	0.533789	0.003897
7.00E-04	0.000705	0.60586	0.005441
6.00E-04	0.000687	0.703851	0.009447
5.00E-04	0.000474	0.840173	0.00913
4.00E-04	0.00046	1.039166	0.005874
3.00E-04	0.000456	1.378822	0.007995
2.00E-04	0.000207	2.045464	0.008499
1.00E-04	0.000127	4.052472	0.014711
9.00E-05	0.000091	4.500401	0.015404
8.00E-05	0.000124	5.048922	0.014392
7.00E-05	0.000062	5.773208	0.031443
6.00E-05	0.000057	6.726501	0.020609
5.00E-05	0.00006	8.045931	0.014246
4.00E-05	0.000039	10.04809	0.012756
3.00E-05	0.000045	13.39669	0.028057
2.00E-05	0.000023	20.03889	0.006436
1.00E-05	0.000016	40.0818	0.120627
1.00E-06	0.000003	400.2421	0.554172

Table C.5. LF data on $E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}$, $\vec{\mathbf{E}} = (0, -5.31232, 0)$ MV/m, $t_{end} = 6\text{ns}$.

dt(ns)	ΔE_{avg} (MeV)	μT_{sim} (s)	σT_{sim} (s)
5.00E-02	0.986005	0.030314	0.009209
1.00E-02	0.154314	0.036833	0.004068
1.00E-03	0.01476	0.131783	0.002352
9.00E-04	0.013618	0.150984	0.005618
8.00E-04	0.011863	0.161336	0.003117
7.00E-04	0.010109	0.179693	0.002658
6.00E-04	0.009277	0.205356	0.002912
5.00E-04	0.007527	0.242352	0.003093
4.00E-04	0.006084	0.294269	0.001551
3.00E-04	0.00449	0.383982	0.001711
2.00E-04	0.002897	0.563762	0.004214
1.00E-04	0.001458	1.101252	0.008064
9.00E-05	0.001376	1.229321	0.0089
8.00E-05	0.001232	1.381441	0.01057
7.00E-05	0.001027	1.574994	0.011933
6.00E-05	0.000853	1.833183	0.006065
5.00E-05	0.00074	2.184948	0.013416
4.00E-05	0.000596	2.72503	0.016356
3.00E-05	0.000467	3.617576	0.017581
2.00E-05	0.000308	5.394629	0.027885
1.00E-05	0.00015	10.75182	0.03301
1.00E-06	0.000017	106.9198	0.373175

Table C.6. *RK4-2* data on $E_{in} = 1\text{MeV}$, $\vec{\mathbf{E}} = (-2.65616, 0, 0)$ MV/m, $t_{end} = 6\text{ns}$.

dt(ns)	ΔE_{avg} (MeV)	μT_{sim} (s)	σT_{sim} (s)
5.00E-02	0.587777	0.034741	0.012735
1.00E-02	0.09943	0.059945	0.001318
1.00E-03	0.009987	0.38199	0.005941
9.00E-04	0.007946	0.417119	0.005683
8.00E-04	0.007999	0.466052	0.006398
7.00E-04	0.006732	0.525791	0.003782
6.00E-04	0.005541	0.612876	0.007114
5.00E-04	0.005022	0.732091	0.012129
4.00E-04	0.004031	0.906845	0.012156
3.00E-04	0.002779	1.199367	0.014536
2.00E-04	0.001897	1.782653	0.016993
1.00E-04	0.000895	3.52464	0.029778
9.00E-05	0.000858	3.916115	0.041066
8.00E-05	0.000731	4.409459	0.040828
7.00E-05	0.00066	5.012686	0.042727
6.00E-05	0.000561	5.851793	0.038488
5.00E-05	0.000471	7.002315	0.046152
4.00E-05	0.000363	8.747954	0.063936
3.00E-05	0.000264	11.64305	0.091404
2.00E-05	0.000184	17.44533	0.123198
1.00E-05	0.000093	34.93332	0.391012
1.00E-06	0.000011	348.494	3.237203

APPENDIX D: Supporting Figures

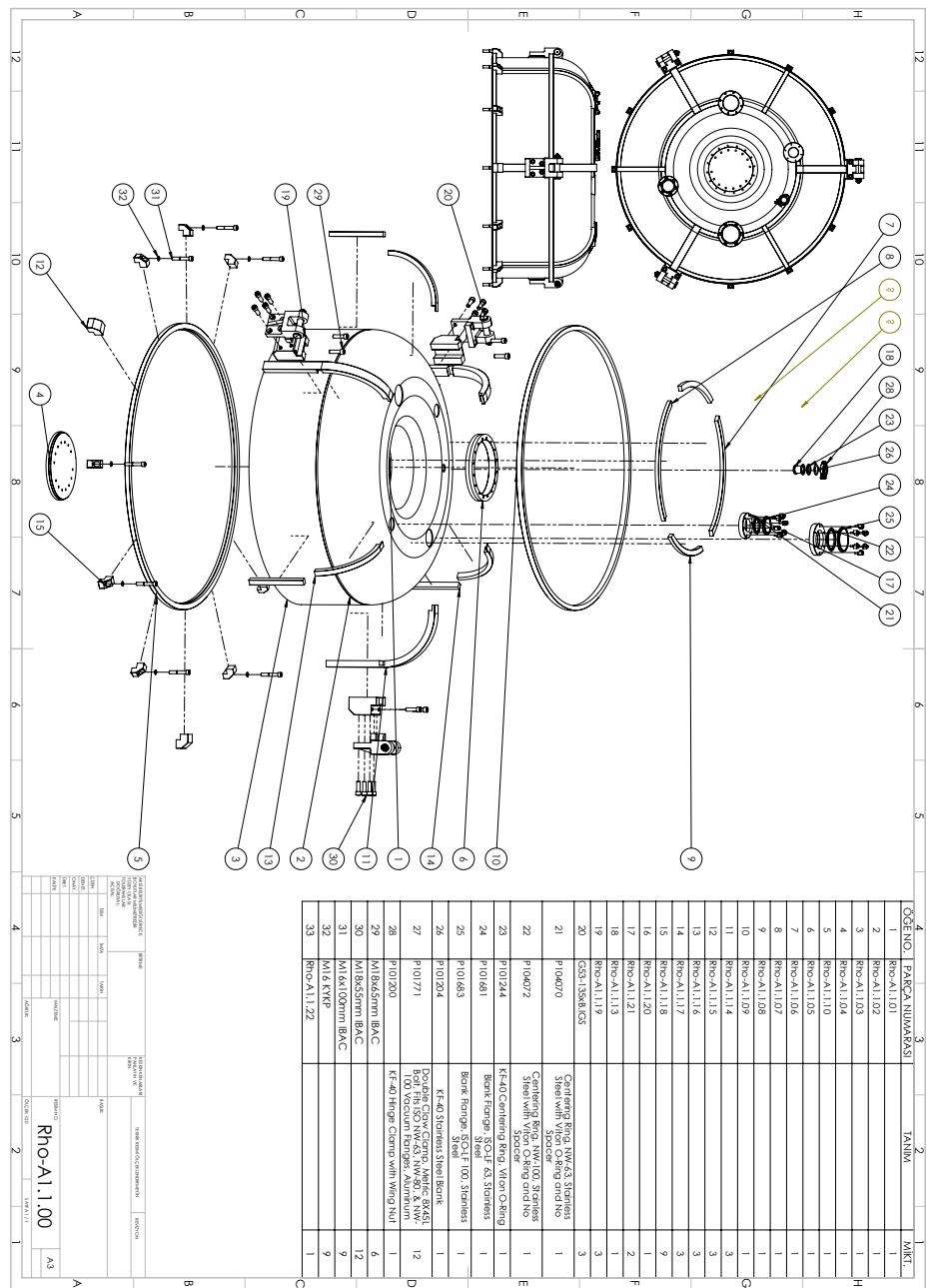


Figure D.1. Technical drawing of upper part of the cavity [13].



Figure D.2. Simulate frame of *GUI*.

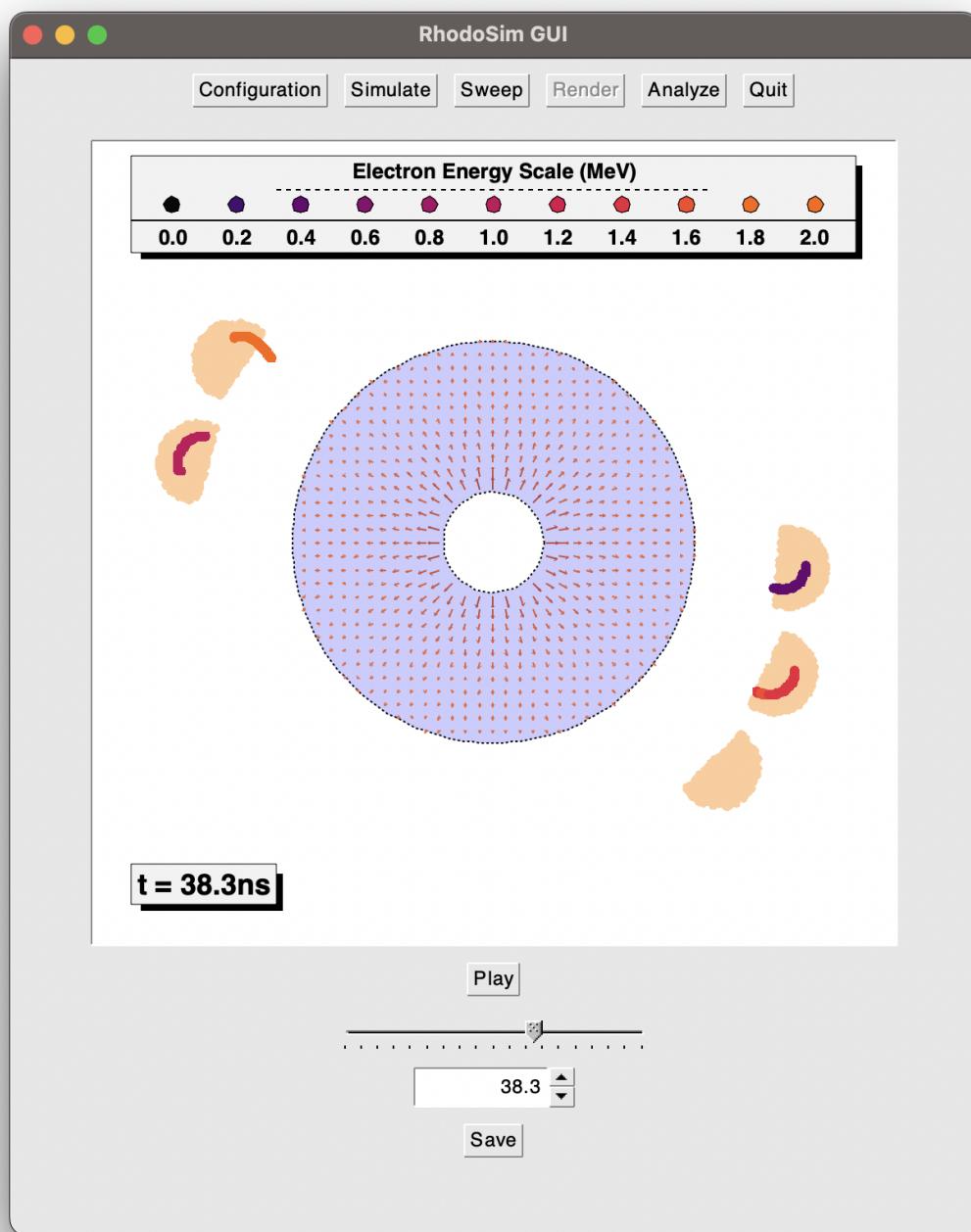


Figure D.3. Render frame of *GUI*.

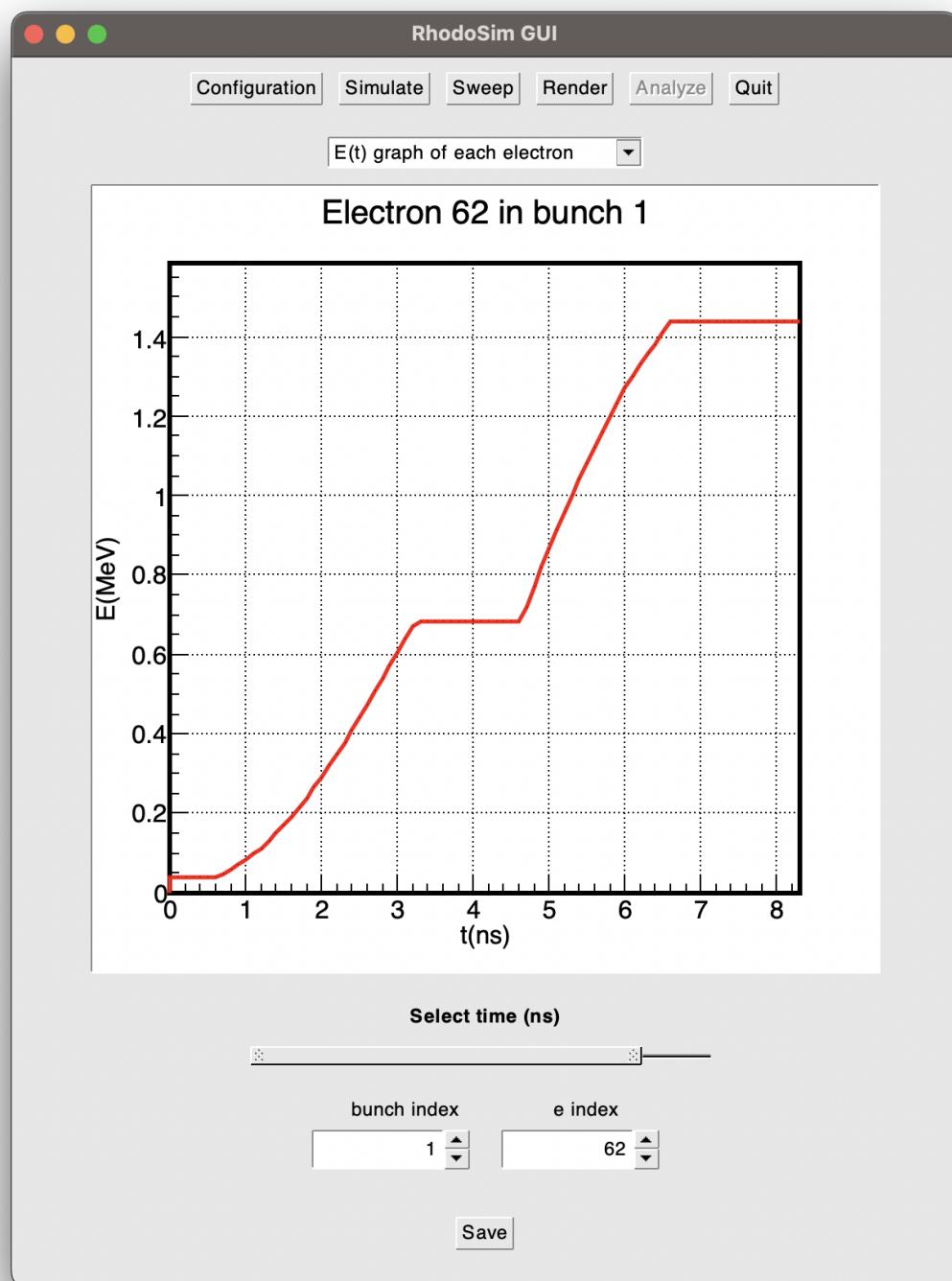


Figure D.4. Analyze frame of *GUI E(t)*.

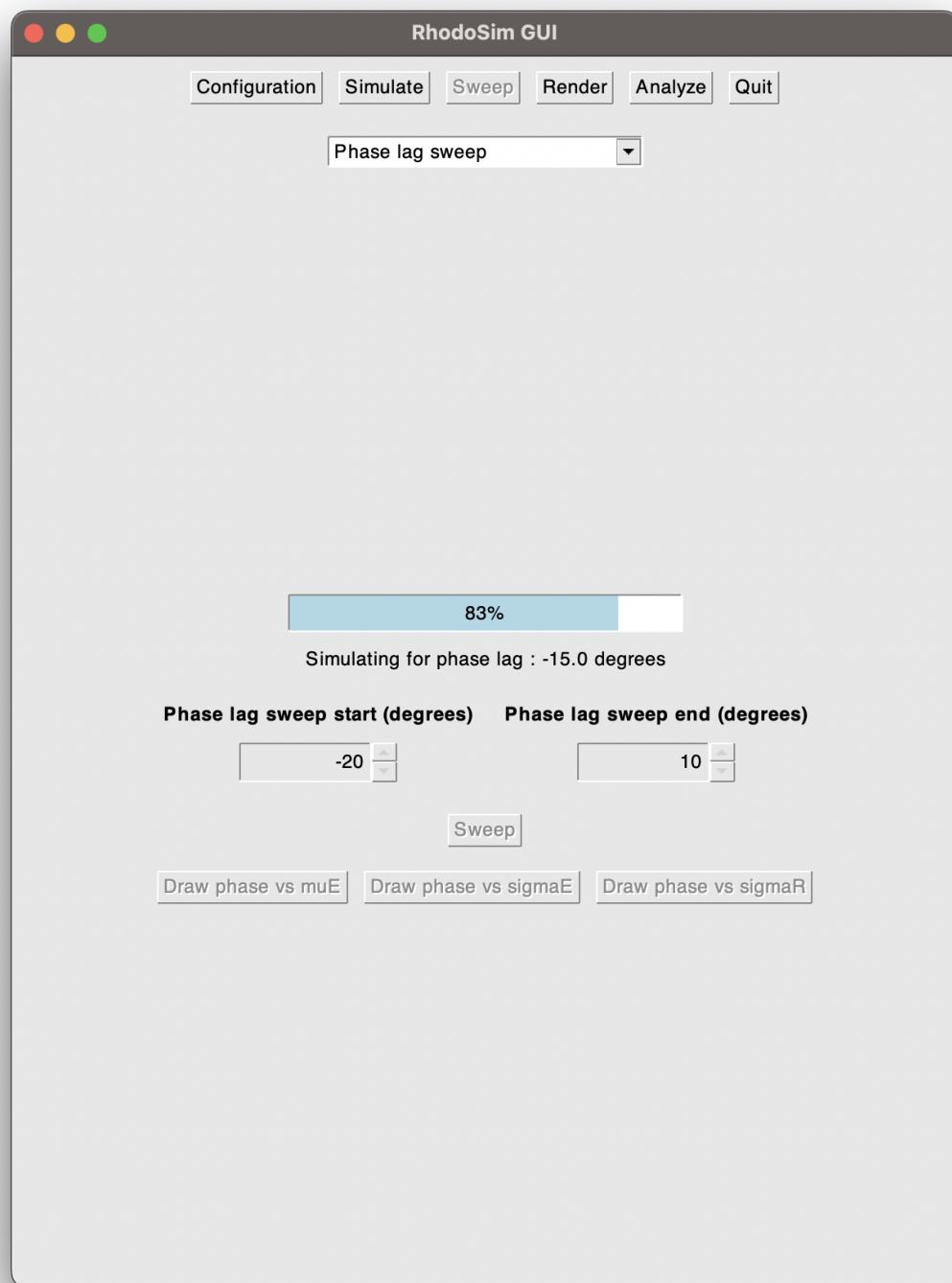


Figure D.5. Sweep frame of *GUI* ϕ_{lag} sweep running.

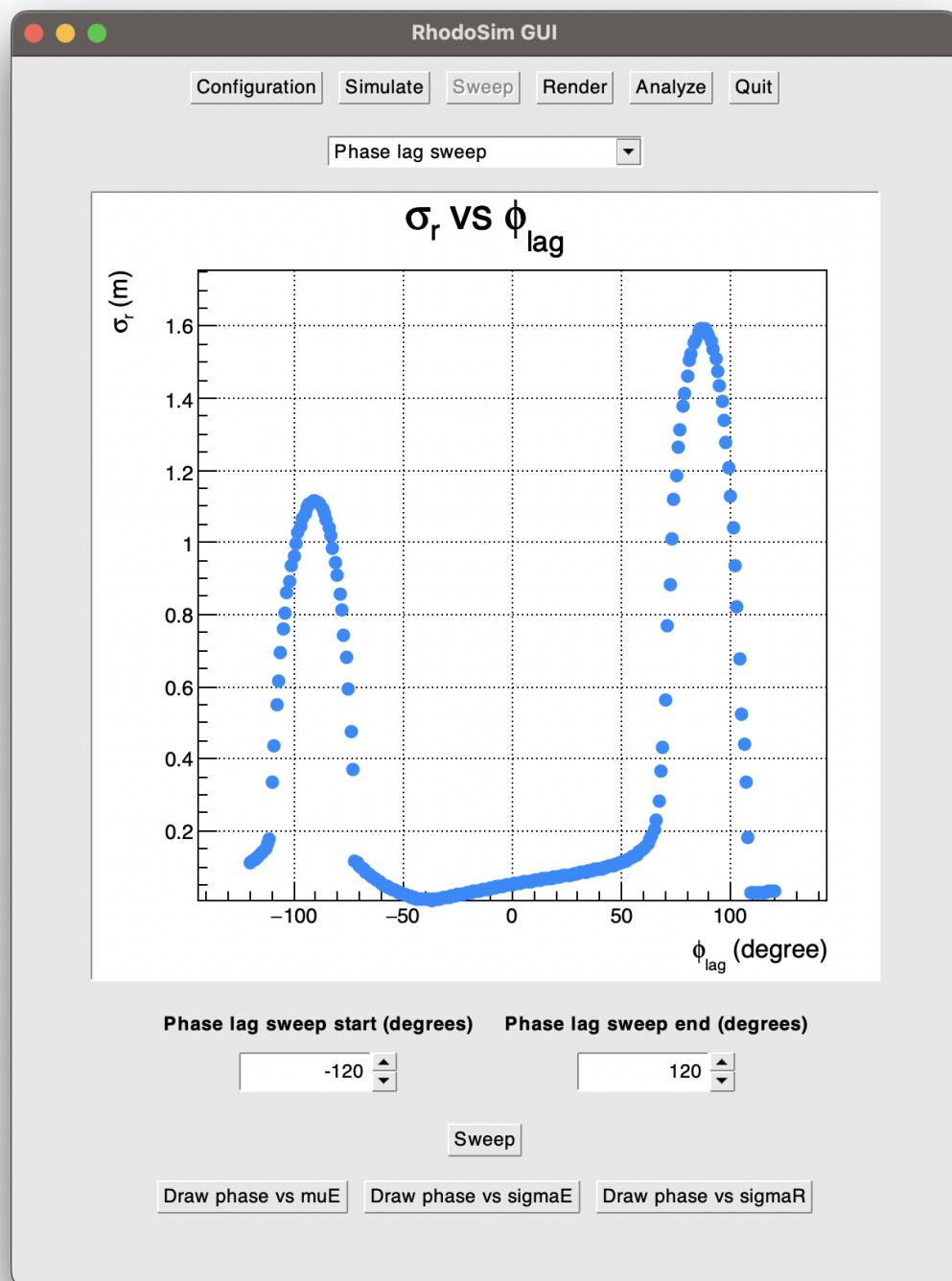


Figure D.6. Sweep frame of *GUI* ϕ_{lag} sweep σR result.

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