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# Optimizing the IFMIF-DONES Particle Accelerator with Differentiable Deep Learning Surrogate Models

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Galo Gallardo Romero<sup>1</sup> \* † Guillermo Rodríguez Llorente<sup>1,2,3</sup> \* †  
Lucas Magariños Rodríguez<sup>1</sup> Rodrigo Morant Navascués<sup>1</sup>  
Nikita Khvatkin Petrovsky<sup>1</sup> Roberto Gómez-Espinosa Martín<sup>1</sup> †

<sup>1</sup>HI Iberia <sup>2</sup>University Carlos III of Madrid <sup>3</sup>Gregorio Millán Barbany Institute  
{ggallardo, grodriguez, robertogemartin}@hi-iberia.es

## Abstract

In this work, Deep Learning Surrogate Models are employed to optimize the quadrupole values in the initial section of the High Energy Beam Transport Line of the IFMIF-DONES accelerator. Two Fourier Neural Operator models were trained: one for predicting two-dimensional beam profiles and another for forecasting one-dimensional beam statistics along the accelerator’s longitudinal axis. These models offer up to 3 orders of magnitude speedup compared to traditional simulations, with a trade-off of maintaining accuracy within percentage errors below 6%. Moreover, their differentiability allows seamless integration with optimization algorithms, enabling efficient tuning of quadrupole values to achieve specific beam objectives. This approach offers a robust solution for enhancing the performance of IFMIF-DONES accelerator and other scientific experiments.

## 1 Introduction

One of the key challenges in advancing nuclear fusion power plants is understanding the effects of neutron irradiation on reactor materials [1]. To tackle this, the IFMIF-DONES (International Fusion Materials Irradiation Facility DEMO Oriented Neutron Source) facility is developing a linear accelerator that will produce a neutron spectrum resembling that of fusion reactions, achieved through the collision of deuterons with a lithium target [2]. This research, conducted as part of the DONES-FLUX project, explores the application of differentiable Deep Learning Surrogate Models (DLSMs) in order to optimize the quadrupoles of the first section of the High Energy Beam Transport (HEBT-S1) [3] in the IFMIF-DONES accelerator. DLSMs are deep learning-based models designed to approximate complex physical, chemical, or biological processes, providing computationally efficient substitutes for resource-intensive simulations [4]. Their differentiable nature enables their integration with optimization algorithms, such as Gradient Descent (GD) [5], to identify parameter sets that satisfy specific beam objectives. Neural operators (NOs) are a branch of DLSMs that extend neural network architectures to approximate operators mapping between infinite-dimensional function spaces [6]. This extension is particularly valuable for solving systems of partial differential equations, which model physical phenomena. In these NO models, input functions  $a(x)$  are processed to predict output functions  $u(x)$ , as illustrated in Appendix A. The architecture includes a layer  $P$  that transforms the input function into its first hidden representation. This is then processed through a series of kernels with non-linear activation functions, culminating in the output representation generated by layer  $Q$ . Notably, the Fourier Neural Operator (FNO), which is the chosen architecture for this work, leverages the Fourier transform to compute these kernels [7]. This FNO architecture is selected for three key reasons: it is purely data-driven, it is discretization invariant (unlike standard neural networks), and it

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\*Joint first authorship

†Corresponding authors

has demonstrated success across various fields with positive results [8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. The trained models are able to successfully predict deuteron beam functions along the longitude of the HEBT-S1, which is displayed in the first panel of Fig. 1. For details on the methodology, refer to Section 2, while the results are shown in Section 3 and the discussion and outlook are presented in Section 4.

## 2 Methodology

The workflow, outlined in Fig. 1, begins by constructing a lattice with HEBT-S1 measurements from [3] (Appendix F). Following this, beam simulations were performed with OPAL [13]. Data was generated from 8192 simulations of deuteron bunches with 100k particles<sup>3</sup> traveling through the lattice, with varying normal quadrupole magnetic field values  $k_j$  ranging from 4 to 8 Tm<sup>-1</sup>. Given the six quadrupoles in the system, the distances and signs of each element were fixed to prevent an exponential increase in the number of possible combinations, and thus computational resources.

Two FNO models were trained with 80% of the dataset, leaving the rest for testing. The first model, a 2D FNO, predicts the normalized two-dimensional beam profile deuteron distributions  $\rho_x(x, z)$  and  $\rho_y(y, z)$ , where  $z$  (in m) represents the longitudinal position along the accelerator. As the discretization of these two output functions is the same in all axes, they are treated as a general output function  $\rho(x, z)$  with two channels, one for each transversal profile in  $x$  and  $y$  (in mm). The second model, a 1D FNO, predicts the root mean square and maximum beam envelope size for both transversal components ( $\text{RMS}_x(z)$ ,  $\text{RMS}_y(z)$ ,  $\text{MAX}_x(z)$ ,  $\text{MAX}_y(z)$ ), as well as the particle count  $n(z)$  divided by the total number of particles. Finally, the parameter space was explored using the GD optimization algorithm Adam [14] to address the inverse problem, determining the optimal quadrupole settings that achieve desired beam configurations at the end of the lattice. This is only possible because the trained models are differentiable with respect to the input parameters,  $k_j$ . The loss function is described in C, and minimizes the distance between the target configuration and the current one. The frameworks used are NVIDIA Modulus [15] and Pytorch [16]. Diagrams for both models are displayed in Appendix A, while their hyperparameters are detailed in Appendix B.

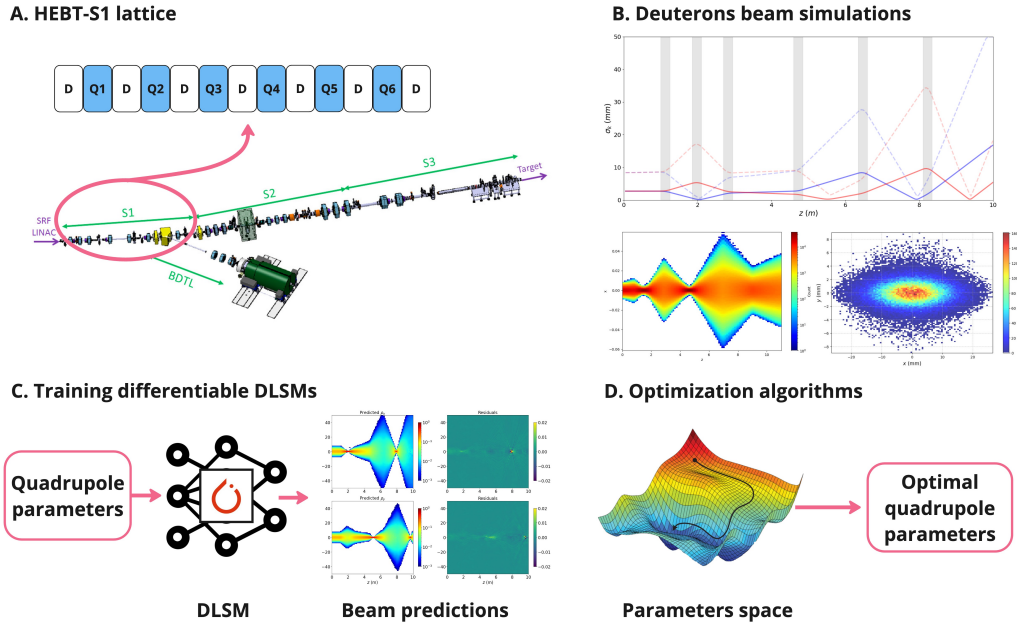


Figure 1: (A) IFMIF-DONES HEBT sections and diagram of the S1 lattice with drift zones and quadrupoles. (B) Deuteron beams simulation results from OPAL, with the beam statistics, profile and footprints. (C) Training DLSEMs for fast inference. (D) Optimization algorithms applied to the differentiable models in order to solve inverse problems and obtain optimal parameters for design.

<sup>3</sup>These particles are injected as gaussian distributions with parameters seen in Table 5.

### 3 Results

An example of prediction results for the 1D model is displayed in Fig. 2, where the predicted beam statistics are compared to the simulated values. Overall, this 1D model has a maximum mean average percentage error (MAPE) of 5.63%. For the 2D model, Fig. 3, shows a test case comparing the predicted two-dimensional beam profile functions with simulated results. This model demonstrates a mean absolute error (MAE) of  $4.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$  for  $\rho_x(x, z)$  and  $5.6 \cdot 10^{-3}$  for  $\rho_y(y, z)$ . The speed up factor is the same for both models, with inference times  $10^3$  times faster than OPAL simulations (Each simulation takes approximately 20 seconds to complete). A comprehensive summary of the error metrics (MAE and MAPE) for both models, covering all relevant variables, is provided in Appendix I, allowing for a detailed assessment of their performance in the test set. Furthermore, a few  $n(z)$  test predictions can be seen in Appendix J, as well as other test examples that are available in Appendix G, offering a broader view of model performance under varied conditions.

Finally, Table 1 presents the results of the optimization process for five different examples, detailing the target and achieved configurations for RMS and MAX evaluated at  $z = 10$  m for both axes. The table includes the optimized quadrupole settings, the time  $t$  in minutes required to reach a solution, and the normalized number of particles as reported by OPAL during the evaluation. A fixed point of  $n(10)/10^5 = 0.98$  was used as optimization threshold for the losses, as can be seen in Appendix E, so the solutions never lose more than 2% of the particles. The optimization process effectively meets the predefined objectives in approximately 10 minutes, achieving minimal particle loss and ensuring optimal beam performance. These results highlight the efficiency and effectiveness of the proposed models, demonstrating their capability to deliver desired outcomes within practical time constraints.

### 4 Discussion

The trained FNO models demonstrate remarkable accuracy and speed in predicting beam statistics and profile distributions, being up to  $10^3$  times faster than traditional OPAL simulations while maintaining minimal error rates. This acceleration enables near-instantaneous inference of beam properties, which, combined with the differentiable nature of the models, makes them ideal for integration into optimization loops. These loops can be used to solve inverse problems, such as identifying the optimal set of quadrupole values needed to achieve a desired beam configuration.

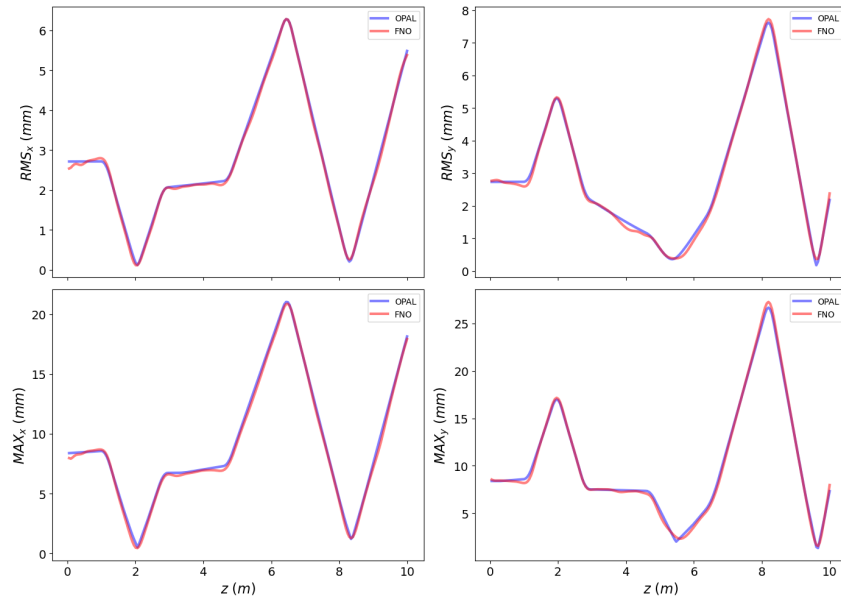


Figure 2: Test prediction results for the 1D beam statistics functions along the accelerator longitude for the axes  $x$  and  $y$ . Blue: OPAL simulations. Red: FNO predictions. This example was obtained by solving the inverse problem for the first objective in Table 1.

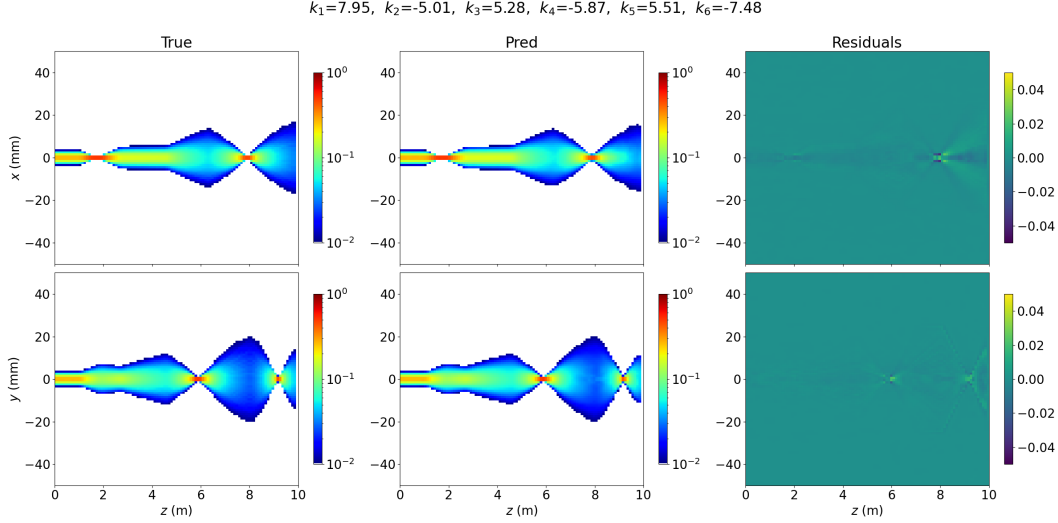


Figure 3: Test prediction results for the 2D beam profile distributions along the accelerator longitude for the axes  $x$  and  $y$ . Left: OPAL simulations. Middle: FNO predictions. Right: residual errors.

Furthermore, as highlighted in other studies, such as [17], the significantly reduced inference times allow DLSSMs to serve as environments for Deep Reinforcement Learning agents [18], where the sheer number of training steps required would not be feasible with traditional simulators. These results highlight the powerful synergy between DLSSMs and other deep learning techniques, offering new possibilities for enhancing optimization and control in complex scientific facilities, such as the IFMIF-DONES accelerator, that will benefit future nuclear fusion power plants. The next phase of this research will address the limitation of quadrupole range by tackling the exponential growth in computational resources needed as the number of magnetic elements increases. This is the reason why only the HEBT-S1 section has been optimized. Future work will expand these techniques to other parts of the accelerator and explore models with additional channels, incorporating particle momentum data to provide the optimization algorithm with information of the phase space, widely used in particle accelerators [19].

Table 1: Optimization summary. These are just a few varied examples, but the algorithm is able to find solutions, as long as they exist in the space of possible solutions. Some of the footprints achieved with these solutions can be seen in Appendix D.

Target (mm)				Achieved (mm)				$k_j$ (Tm <sup>-1</sup> )						$t$ (min)	$n(10)/10^5$
RMS <sub><math>x</math></sub>	RMS <sub><math>y</math></sub>	MAX <sub><math>x</math></sub>	MAX <sub><math>y</math></sub>	RMS <sub><math>x</math></sub>	RMS <sub><math>y</math></sub>	MAX <sub><math>x</math></sub>	MAX <sub><math>y</math></sub>	k1	k2	k3	k4	k5	k6		
5.4	2.4	18.0	8.0	5.4	2.4	17.9	8.0	5.9	-7.1	6.9	-5.2	5.0	-6.3	10.42	1.00
4.7	2.6	16.0	7.0	4.7	2.6	15.6	6.9	5.1	-5.7	7.6	-6.4	5.1	-6.0	3.42	0.99
2.5	3.4	9.0	12.0	2.6	3.1	8.9	12.0	5.0	-8.0	7.4	-7.7	5.0	-6.9	10.44	1.00
3.0	3.0	11.0	10.0	3.0	3.0	10.5	9.8	5.3	-6.7	7.9	-8.0	5.0	-6.0	1.52	0.99
6.4	8.5	22.0	30.0	6.3	8.5	21.5	27.0	5.4	-6.2	7.9	-6.3	5.4	-7.2	3.34	0.99
11.8	10.4	38.9	33.0	11.7	10.3	39.0	32.5	5.0	-6.3	7.9	-6.6	5.9	-7.5	10.45	0.99
16.5	1.0	50.0	3.4	16.5	1.0	49.8	3.3	6.5	-7.5	7.1	-5.6	6.5	-5.8	2.30	0.99
9.8	10.2	33.4	37.3	9.8	10.2	32.5	31.3	5.0	-6.0	7.6	-6.3	5.6	-7.4	3.7	0.99
7.0	6.6	23.5	19.5	7.0	6.0	23.2	19.5	6.4	-7.8	6.2	-5.0	5.0	-7.8	10.43	0.99
13.3	4.3	48.6	14.2	13.3	4.3	45.7	13.6	5.5	-6.5	7.7	-6.5	6.2	-6.4	1.48	0.99
7.7	11.6	25.9	29.9	7.7	11.6	25.9	29.4	6.0	-5.0	5.1	-6.0	5.0	-7.3	4.31	0.98
4.2	13.1	14.5	37.5	4.1	13.1	14.5	36.7	5.0	-5.5	5.0	-6.9	5.0	-7.6	10.47	0.99

## Acknowledgments

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## A FNO architecture

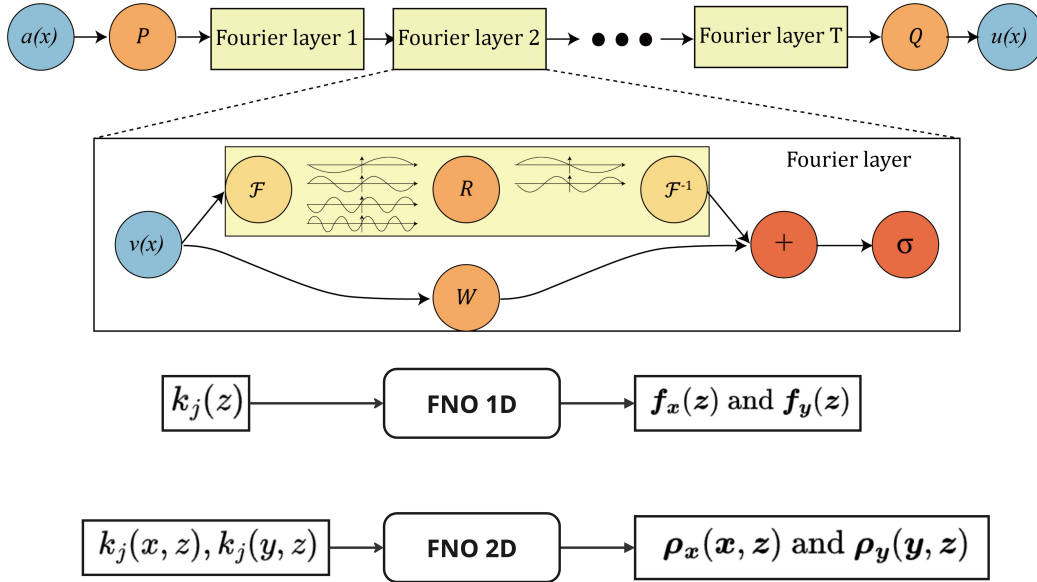


Figure 4: Top: FNO architecture from [7]. It processes input functions  $a(x)$  to predict output functions  $u(x)$ , where  $x$  is the discretization space of the problem. The input is first transformed into a hidden representation by a layer  $P$ . This hidden representation is then passed through a series of layers where kernels are computed using the Fourier transform. After processing, the final layer  $Q$  produces the output function  $u(x)$ . The Fourier transform enables the FNO to efficiently compute these kernels, making it a key feature of this architecture. Bottom: inputs and outputs of the trained models. The quadrupole values  $k_j$  (where  $j$  stands for the quadrupole number, from 1 to 6) are taken as constants formatted as tensors with the dimensions of the output functions (with the same discretization). The functions  $f(z)$  represent the beam statistics one-dimensional functions presented in the main text and the number of particles, while  $\rho$  are the 2D beam profile distributions for both axes  $x$  and  $y$ .

## B Hyperparameters

Table 2: NVIDIA Modulus FNO architecture hyperparameters for both models. If there are two values, the first corresponds to the one dimensional model. The hyperparameters were chosen based in positive results from previous works.

Hyperparameter	Value
scheduler	tf_exponential_lr
optimizer	adam
loss	sum
decoder.nr_layers	1
decoder.layer_size	256-512
fno.dimension	1-2
fno.nr_fno_layers	4
fno.fno_modes	12
scheduler.decay_rate	0.95
scheduler.decay_steps	1000
training.max_steps	10000
batch_size.grid	32-8
batch_size.validation	32-8

Table 3: Optimization hyperparameters for GD.

Hyperparameter	Value
scheduler	exponential_lr
optimizer	adam
loss	custom distance
scheduler.gamma	0.999
max_steps	100000
early_stop_loss	0.005
learning_rate	1

## C Loss function

The custom loss function is defined as the euclidean distance between the  $RMS_i$  target configuration (subindex  $T$ ) and the current one, plus penalization terms that punish out of bound solutions. These are computed for the quadrupoles, for the  $MAX_i$  variables and for the number of particles  $n$  to establish a threshold. The described loss components are displayed below:

$$d(RMS_{T,i}, RMS_i) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (RMS_{T,i} - RMS_i)^2} \quad (1)$$

$$f(x, u, l, w) = \begin{cases} (x - u) \times w & \text{if } x > u \\ (l - x) \times w & \text{if } x < l \\ 0 & \text{if } l \leq x \leq u \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Where  $x$  describes  $k_j$ ,  $MAX_i$  and  $n$ . The values  $l$  and  $u$  stand for the lower and upper bounds of each variable, respectively. The quadrupoles ranges are set between 4 and  $8 \text{ Tm}^{-1}$ , the  $MAX_i$  ranges are set between 0 and the target to reach and the  $n$  range is set from 0.98 to 1. The weights  $w$  are 10 for both  $MAX$  variables and 100 for the quadrupoles and  $n$ . The index  $i$  defines the  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates and  $j$  stands for the number of quadrupoles.



## D Footprints

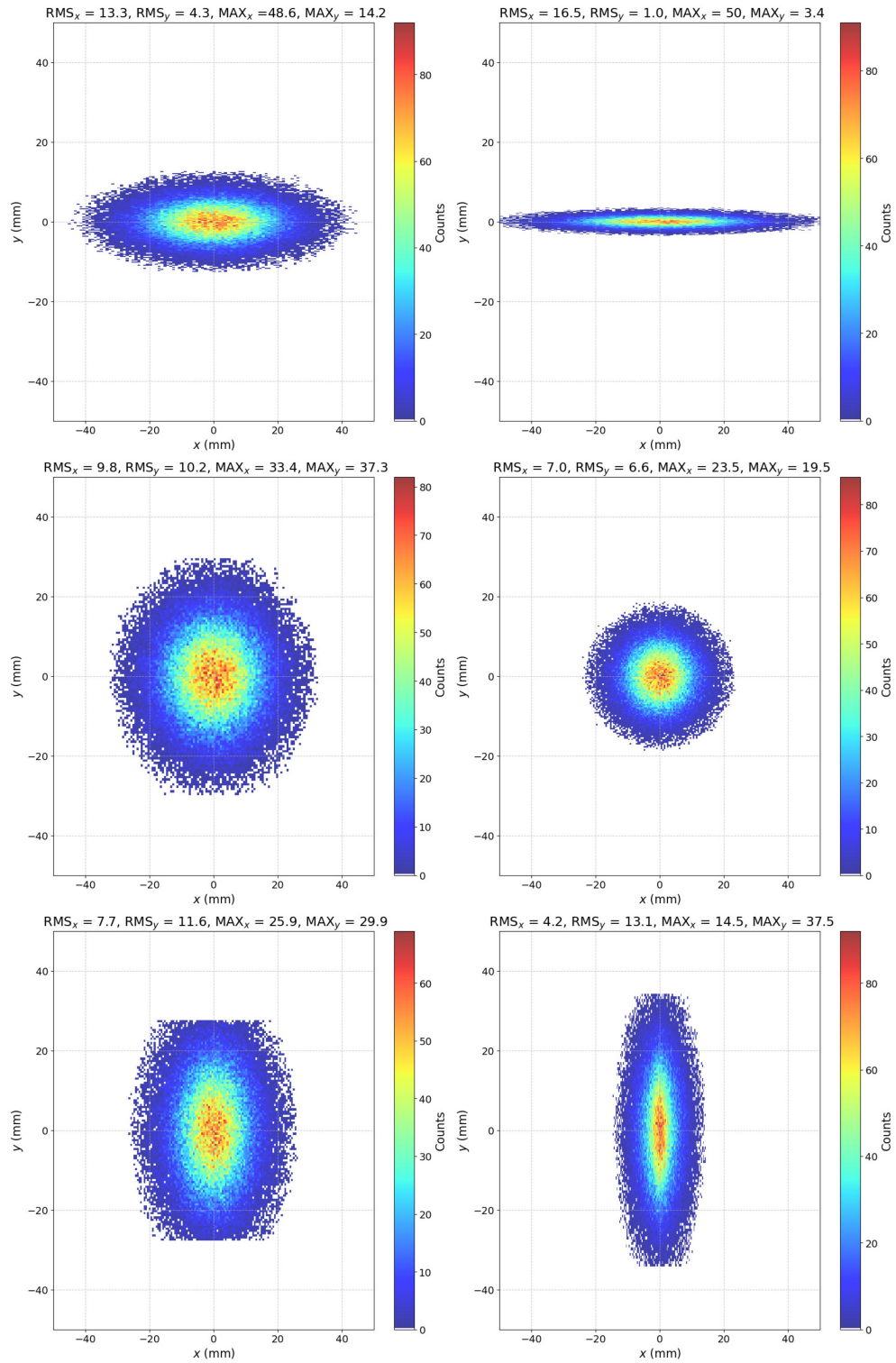


Figure 5: Examples of footprints achieved in OPAL with the optimal quadrupole parameters found for 6 of the targets from Table 1.

## E Losses distributions

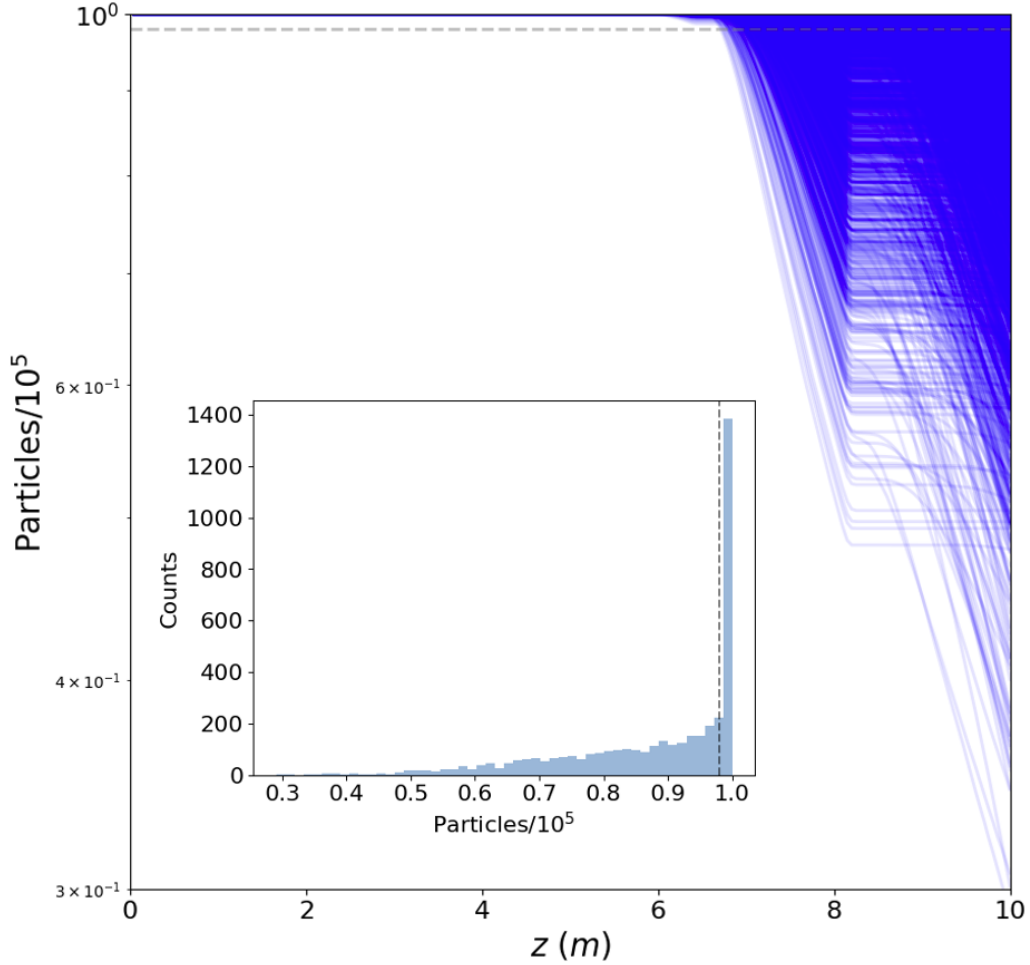


Figure 6: Normalized number of particles  $n(z)$  for some of the simulations, which indicate losses in the accelerator. The dashed line corresponds to the 0.98 threshold used in the optimization algorithm, to exclude solutions with losses above that number. The histogram represents the particles distribution at the end of the lattice.

## F OPAL lattice parameters and dataset creation

The following tables summarize the parameters for the lattice.in file that OPAL requires to perform the simulations. As stated in the main text, the quadrupole values range from  $4$  to  $8 T \cdot m^{-1}$ . 8192 simulations are performed varying these values and keeping the remaining fixed. Roughly 20% of the instances are used for training, that is 6560 elements for training and 1632 for testing. Once each simulation is finished, its data functions are transformed to tensors for creating HDF5 files. The FNO implementation of nvidia-modulus requires input tensors of shape [Variable, N, channel, discretization]. The variables are explained in Section 2 and Appendix A. Each instance of the 1D model has 199 values for  $z$  and each instance of the 2D model has shape (200, 201) for  $(x, z)$  or  $(y, z)$ . The  $(x, y)$  coordinates are confined within a circular aperture of radius 50 mm, defining the two-dimensional spatial domain. The  $z$  coordinate ranges from 0 to 10 m, representing the depth or longitudinal extent of the lattice.

Table 4: Magnetic elements dimensions, length and edge where it starts relative to the beginning of the lattice. The aperture radius of all the elements is  $r=50$  mm.

Element	Length (m)	Edge (m)
DR1 (Drift)	1.00	0.00
Q1 (Quadrupole)	0.25	1.00
DR2 (Drift)	0.60	1.25
Q2 (Quadrupole)	0.25	1.85
DR3 (Drift)	0.60	2.10
Q3 (Quadrupole)	0.25	2.70
DR4 (Drift)	1.65	2.95
Q4 (Quadrupole)	0.25	4.60
DR5 (Drift)	1.50	4.85
Q5 (Quadrupole)	0.25	6.35
DR6 (Drift)	1.50	6.60
Q6 (Quadrupole)	0.25	8.10
DR7 (Drift)	1.65	8.35

Table 5: Important parameters for the OPAL-T configuration.in file. Variables are given as they appear in the file. Fields are: particles information, injection, integration and solver.

Variable	Value
Particle	Deuteron
Number of particles	100000
Energy	40 MeV
Injection type	Gauss
$\sigma_{x,y,z}$	28 mm
$\sigma_{p_x,p_y}$	$0.023 \cdot 10^{-3}$
$\sigma_{p_z}$	$0.039 \cdot 10^{-3}$
MAXSTEPS	10000
DT	$1.65 \cdot 10^{-10}$
ZSTOP	10
METHOD	PARALLEL-T
FIELDSOLVER	FFT
$M_{X,Y,T}$	16
PARFFT $_{X,Y,T}$	true
BCFFT $_{X,Y,T}$	open
BBOXINCR	1
GREENSF	STANDARD

## G Predictions examples (1D)

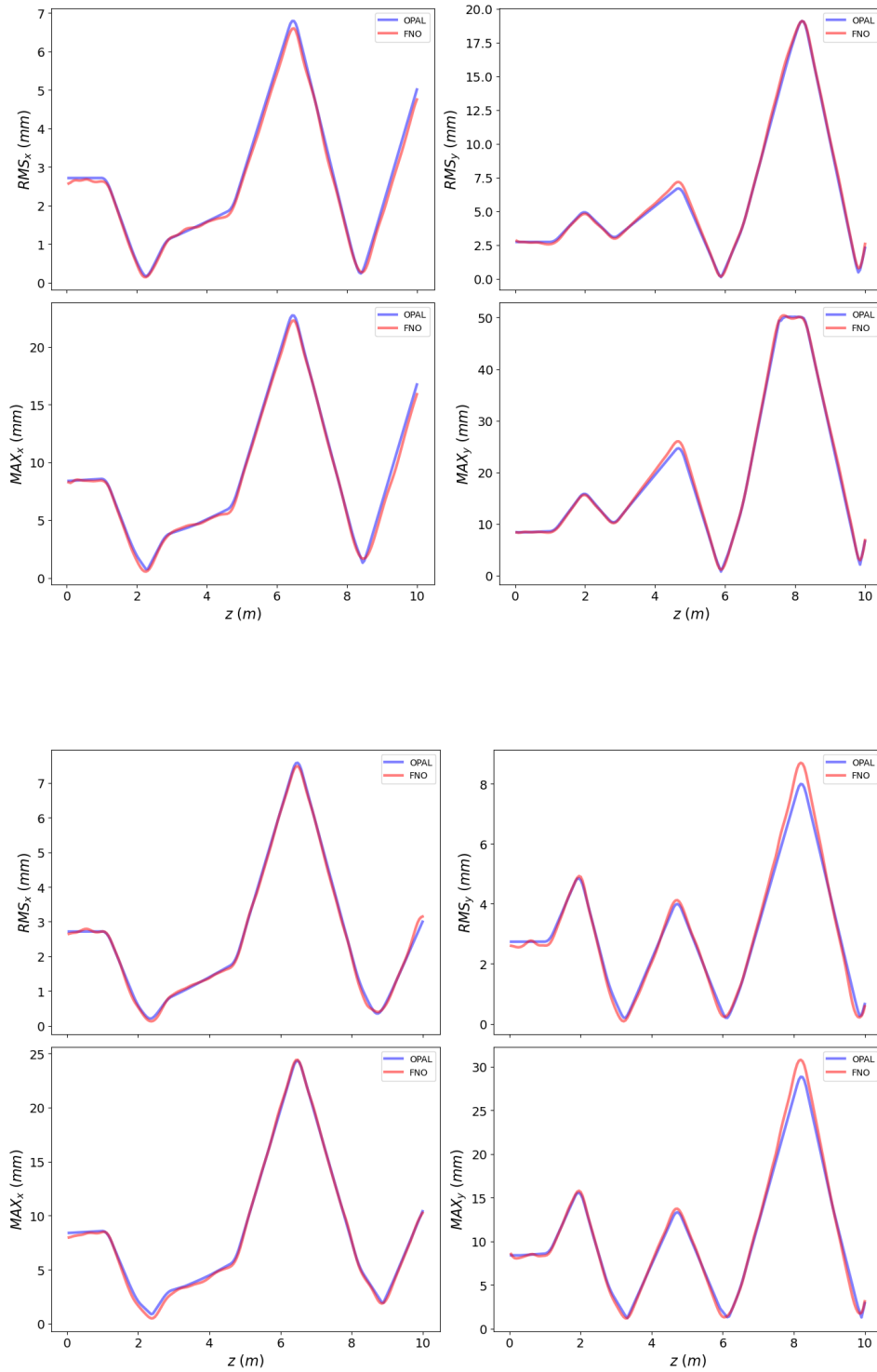


Figure 7: Two more examples for the one-dimensional beam statistics predicted by the model and compared to simulations. Blue: OPAL simulations. Red: FNO predictions. These two solutions correspond to other two configurations of Table 1.

## H Predictions examples (2D)

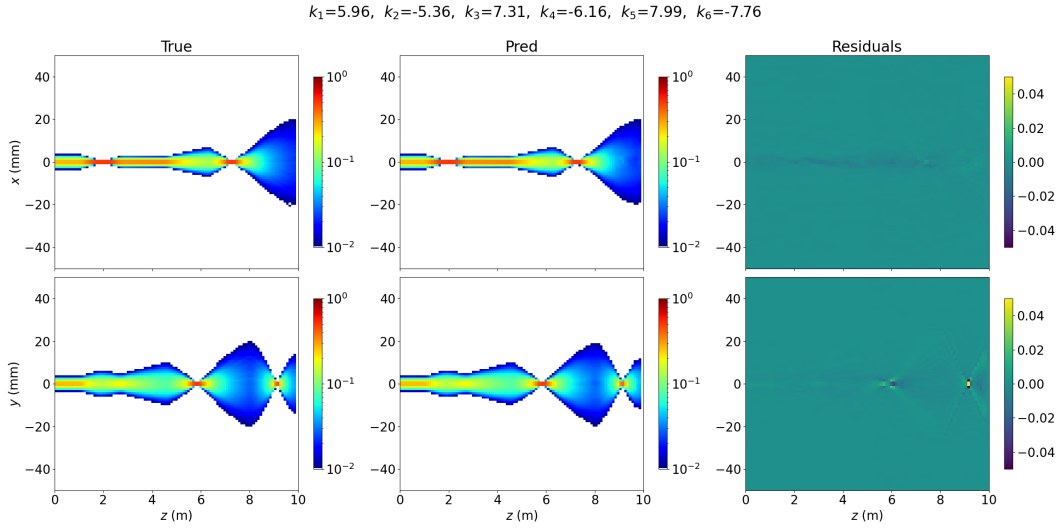
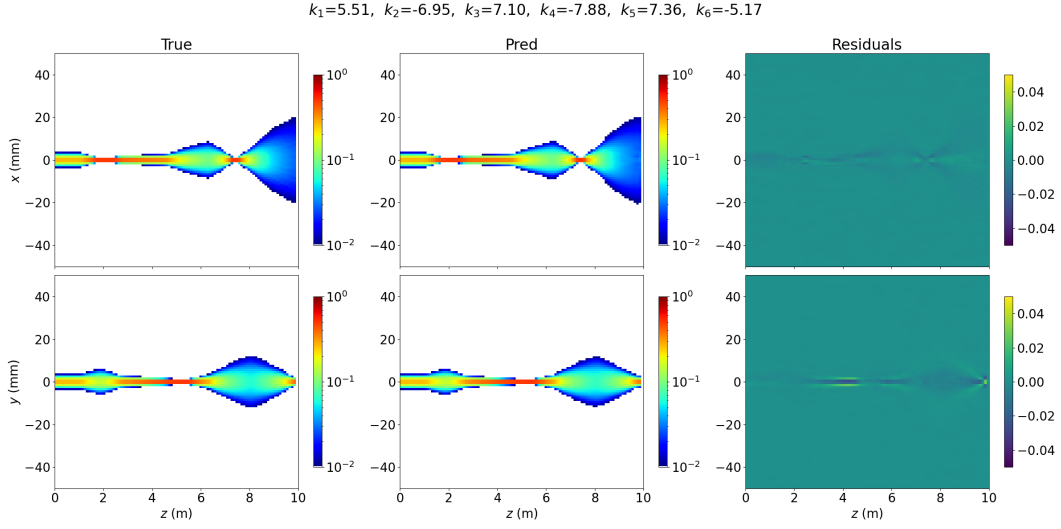


Figure 8: Two more examples for the two-dimensional beam profile distributions predicted by the model and compared to simulations. Left: OPAI simulations. Middle: FNO predictions. Right: residual errors.

## I Model errors

Table 6: FNO 1D Model errors evaluated in all the test set.

Variable	MAPE (%)	MAE
$\text{RMS}_x(z)$	4.38	0.11
$\text{RMS}_y(z)$	5.63	0.16
$\text{MAX}_x(z)$	3.92	0.30
$\text{MAX}_y(z)$	3.76	0.39
$n(z)$	0.92	0.01

Table 7: FNO 2D Model errors evaluated in all the test set.

Variable	MAE
$\rho_x(x, z)$	$4.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$
$\rho_y(y, z)$	$5.6 \cdot 10^{-4}$

## J FNO model predictions for the number of particles

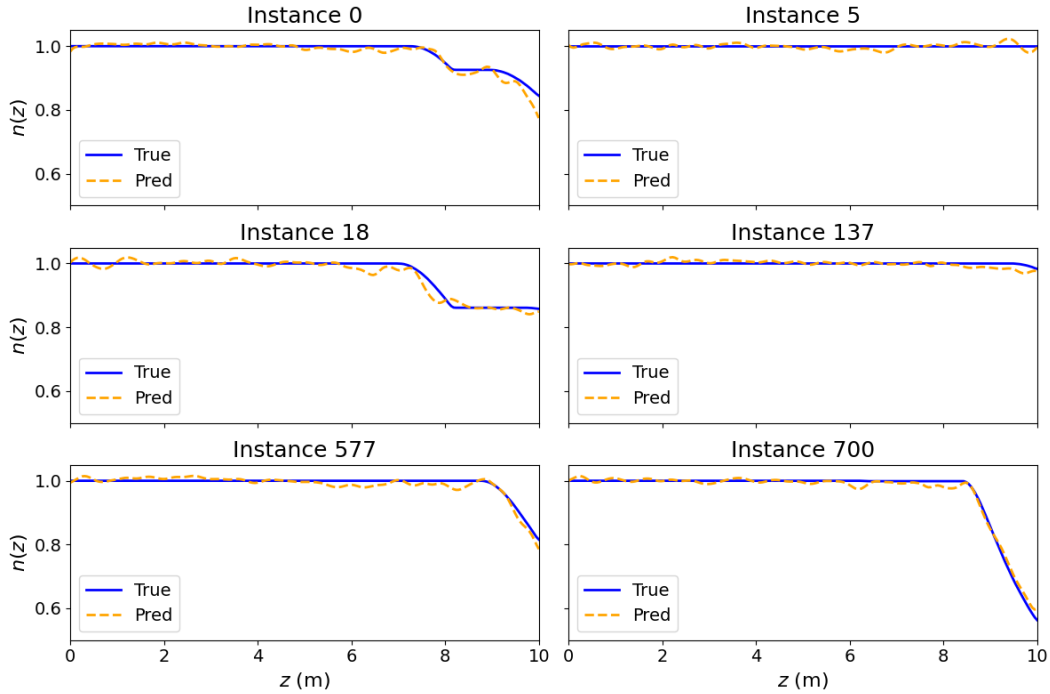


Figure 9: Test examples of the model predictions for the number of particles along  $z$ .

## K System specifications

Table 8: System specifications

GPU Model	NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3060
CUDA version	12.2
CPU Model	Intel(R) Core(TM) i9-10900K CPU @ 3.70GHz
CPUs	12

Table 9: Software

Software/Code	Version
OS	Ubuntu 22.04.4 LTS (Docker)
nvidia-modulus.sym	1.5.0
OPAL	2022.1.0
openmpi	4.1.4
Torch	2.3.0

## NeurIPS Paper Checklist

### 1. Claims

Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We successfully trained the FNO models to achieve the reported speed improvements and accuracy, and effectively implemented the 1D model within an optimization loop to determine the optimal quadrupole settings that satisfy the beam requirements.

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