

ML/AI for Materials: Introduction and Overview

LANL Computational Condensed Matter Summer School 2026

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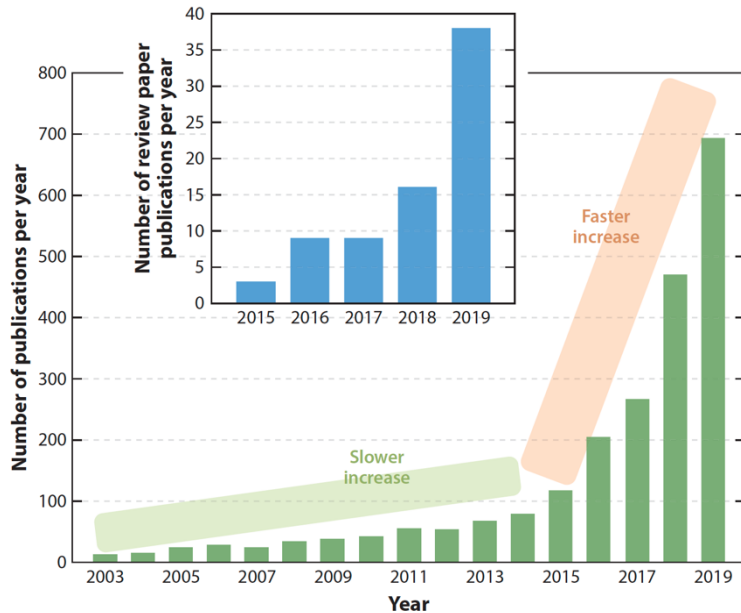
June 25, 2026



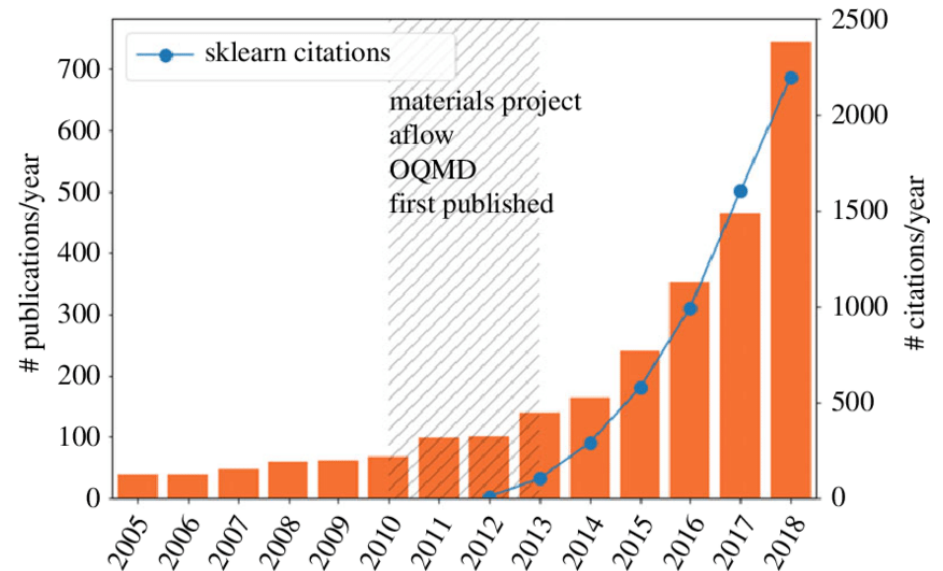
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Increase in machine learning adoption in materials science

Number of publications per year in materials science:

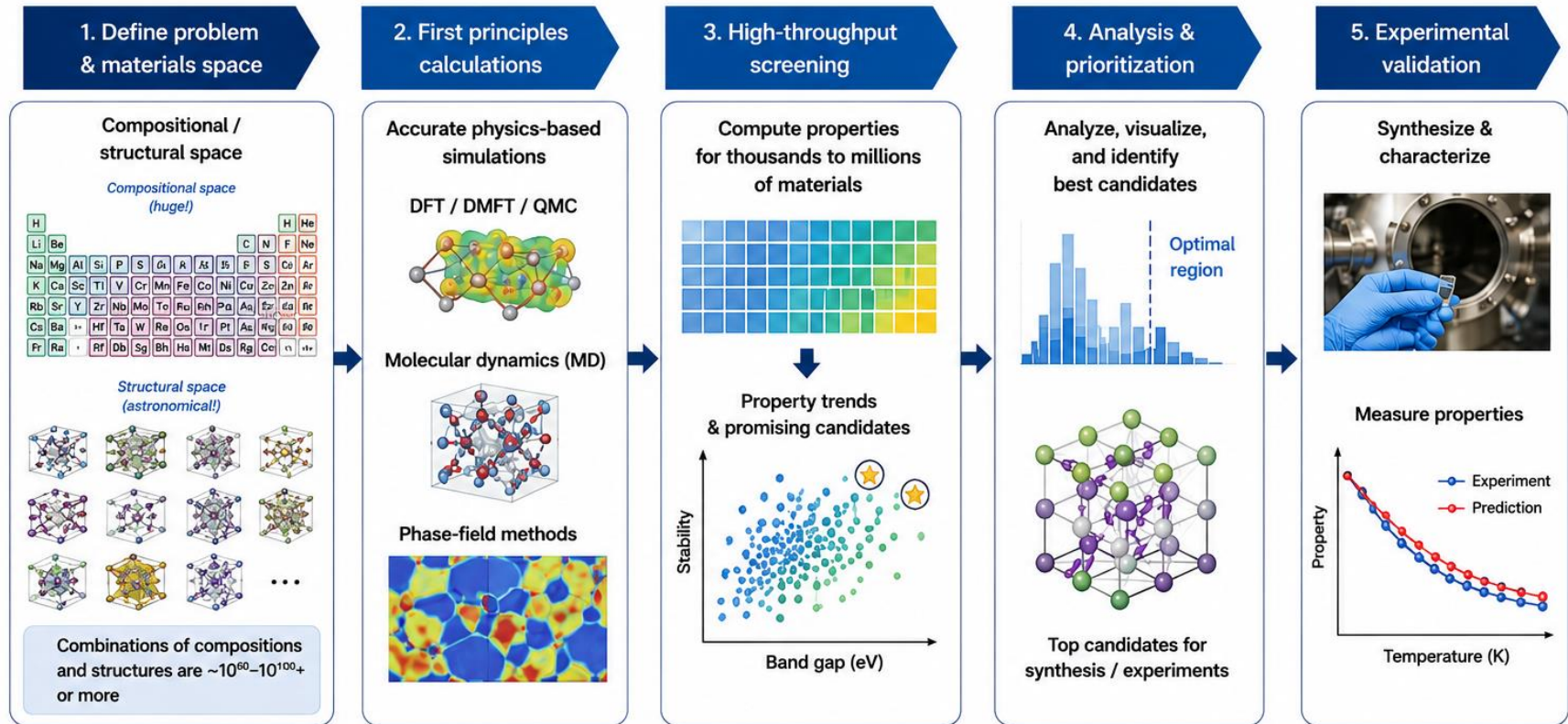


D. Morgan & R. Jacobs,
Annu. Rev. Mater. Res. **50**, 71-103 (2020)



T. Hey et al.,
Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A. **378**, 20190054 (2020)

Traditional computational materials discovery



Important materials databases

First-principles computational databases



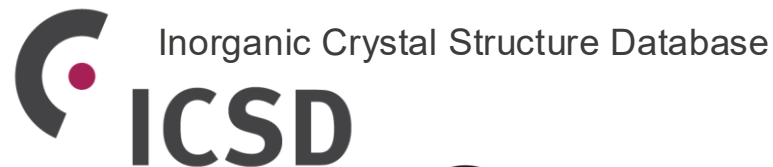
NOVEL - MATERIALS
DISCOVERY LABORATORY
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scientific **data**

(a journal)

Experimental/Crystallographic Databases



Crystallography Open Database

bilbao crystallographic server

Why ML/AI in condensed matter physics?

Fundamental bottlenecks in traditional approaches:

1. **Combinatorial explosion**

- 10^{60} – 10^{100} possible materials
- Impossible to search exhaustively

2. **Computationally expensive simulations**

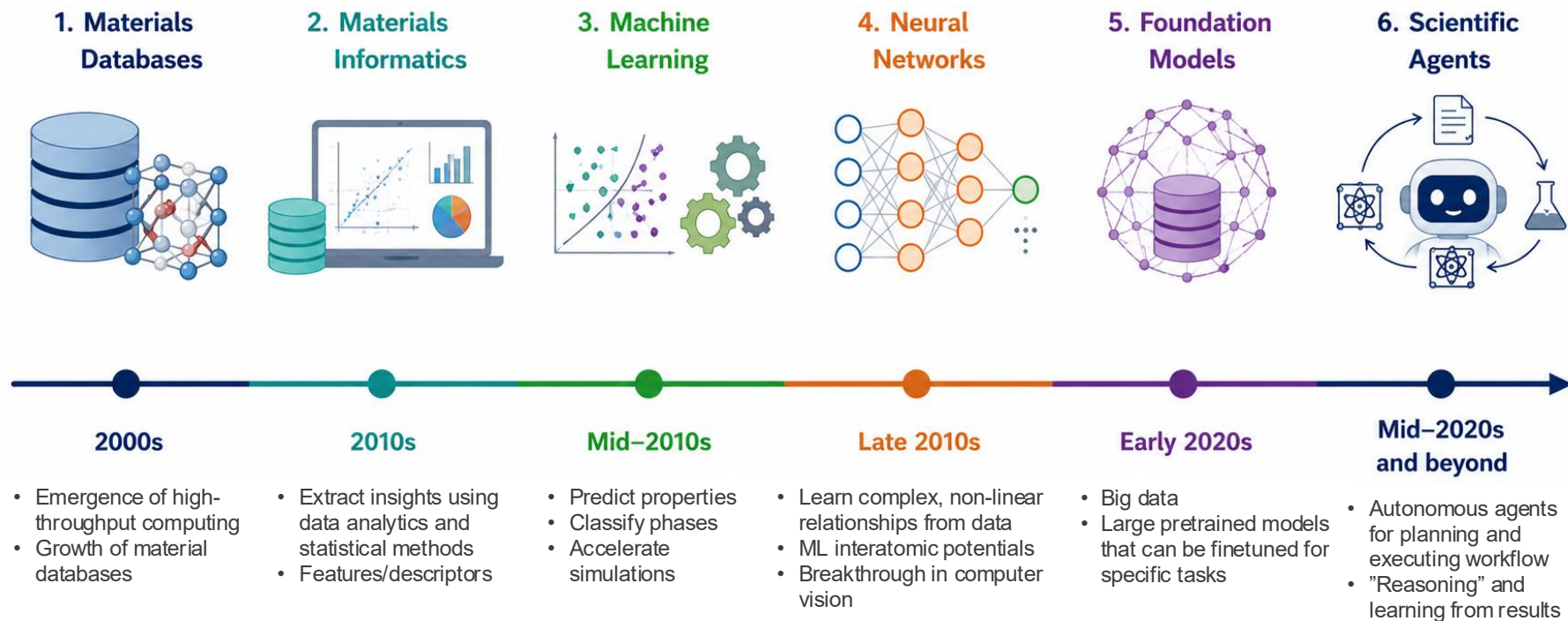
- DFT: minutes to hours per structure
- Beyond-DFT: days to weeks on supercomputers

3. **Data explosion in materials science**

- Modern experiments generate GB–TB of data
- Computational databases reaching millions of calculations

AI helps prioritize and accelerate physics-based modeling and experiments; analyze and extract patterns from data

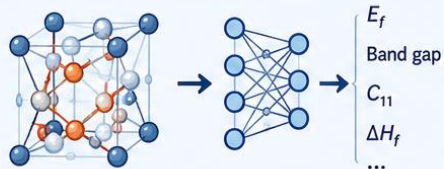
Evolution of ML/AI for materials discovery



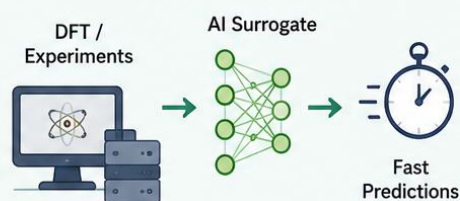
ML/AI is a collection of tools for learning structure-property relationships and accelerating materials discovery in simulation, experiment, and theory

Major ML/AI applications in materials science

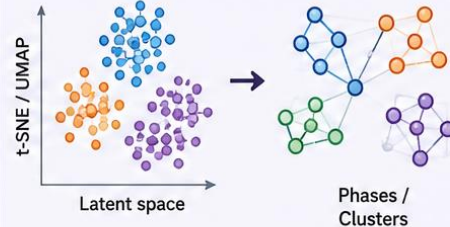
1 Property Prediction



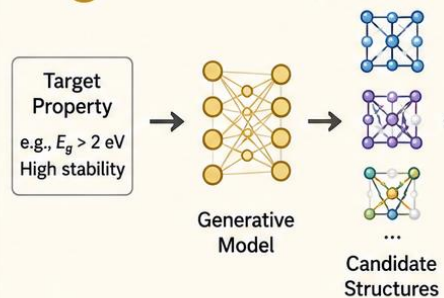
2 Surrogate Modeling



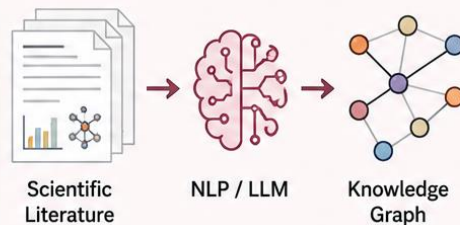
3 Pattern Discovery



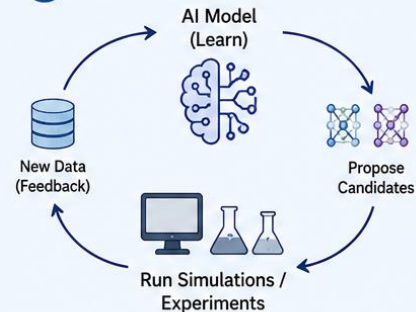
4 Inverse Design



5 Knowledge Extraction



6 Autonomous Discovery



From linear regression to supervised learning

- Linear regression: $y = f(x) = mx + c$

$$x \rightarrow \boxed{f(x)} \rightarrow y$$

- Fitting $f(x)$ amounts to finding m and c with least-square fit
- Supervised learning: $x \rightarrow \boxed{ML} \rightarrow y$

$$x \rightarrow \boxed{\text{Neural Network Diagram}} \rightarrow y$$

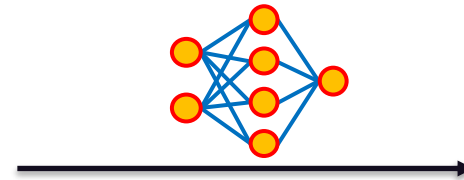
- Training a model:
fitting of **model parameters** such that the **loss function is minimized**

Supervised learning

- Regression: $y = f(x)$
- Classifications
- Given a labeled dataset $D = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots\}$, learn the mapping function f

MNIST data: handwritten digits (28x28 pixels)

Labels



0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

Kernel methods

Polynomial regression

Data

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_D)$$
$$\mathbf{x}' = (x'_0, x'_1, \dots, x'_i, \dots, x'_D)$$

Feature
space

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^i, \dots, x^N)$$
$$f(\mathbf{x}') = (1, x', x'^2, \dots, x'^i, \dots, x'^N)$$

Similarities

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot f(\mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2$$

Model

$$\hat{y}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^N w_i f_i(x)$$

N : number of features

Kernel method

bypasses features to
directly define similarities

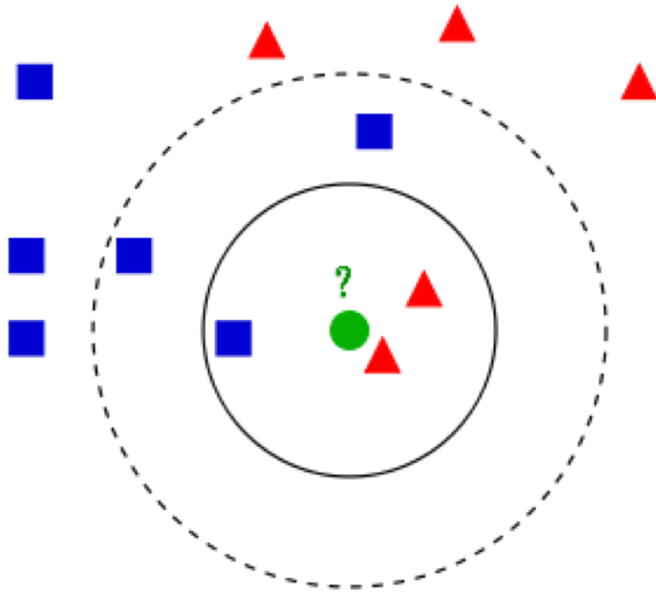
$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2$$

$$\hat{y}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^M w_j K(x, x_j)$$

M : number of training data points

Clustering with Kernel methods

- A kernel $K(x_1, x_2)$ measures *similarity* between x_1 and x_2
- An instance-based learners
- Effectively *interpolates* nearby data
- Model ***grows automatically*** with new data



***k*-NN algorithm:**

Majority vote of k -nearest neighbors

$k = 3$: $y = \text{red}$

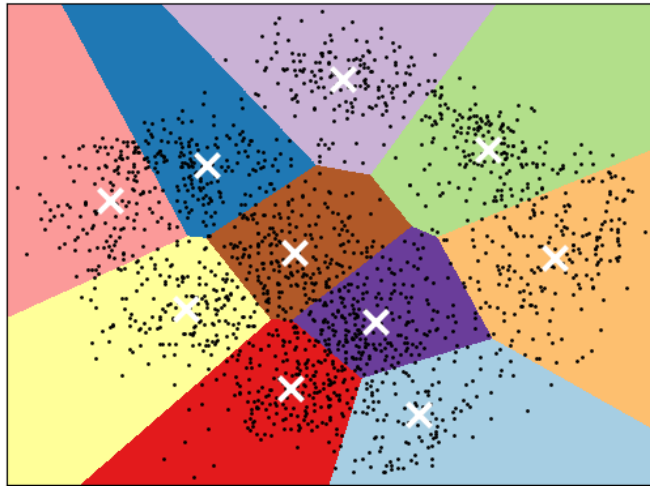
$k = 5$: $y = \text{blue}$

Methods belonging to this class

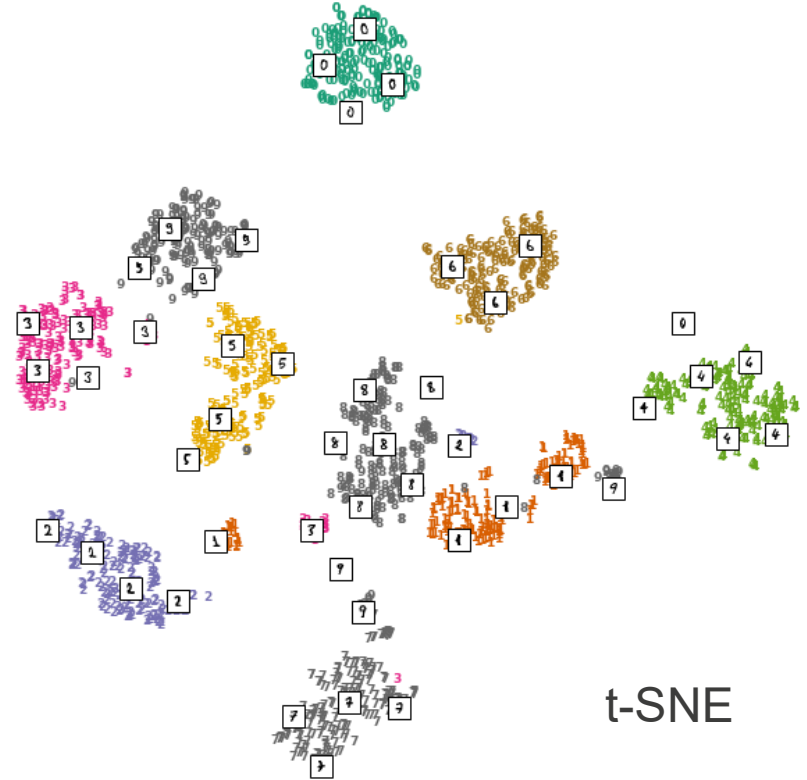
- Support Vector Machines
- Kernel Ridge Regression
- Gaussian Process Regression

Unsupervised learning

- Dimensionality reduction algorithms; manifold learning (e.g. t-SNE)
- Principal Component Analysis
- Clustering (e.g. k-means)



k-means

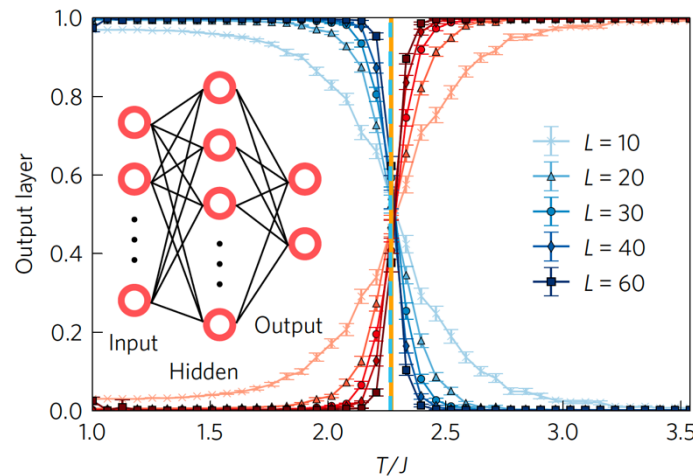


t-SNE

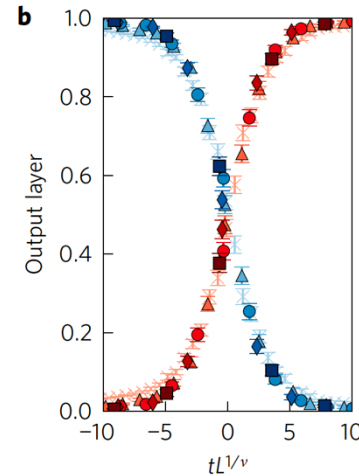
Applications of supervised learning:

Identification of phases and phase transitions of matter

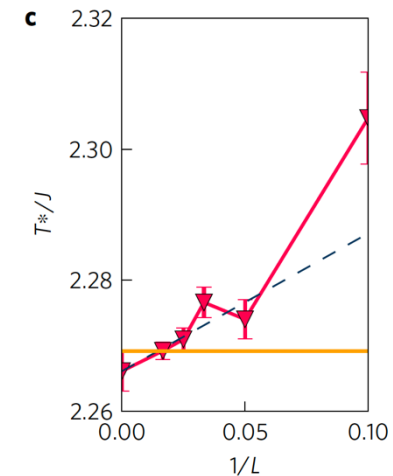
- Classifying “phases” in classical Ising spin models
- Supervised learning with fully-connected or convolutional neural network
- Possible when configurations from all different phases are available
- Could be useful when order parameters are not known (e.g. topological phase transitions)



J. Carrasquilla and R.G. Melko, Nature Physics **13**, 431-434 (2017)

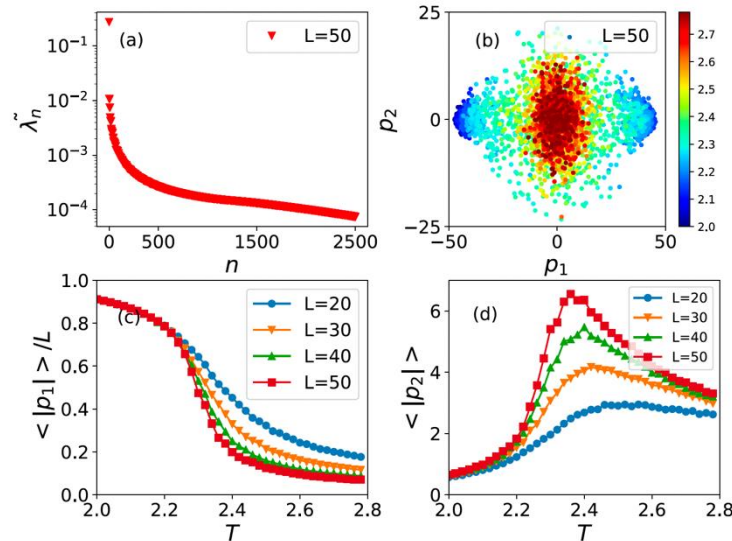


E.P.L. van Nieuwenburg et al., Nature Physics **13**, 435-440 (2017)



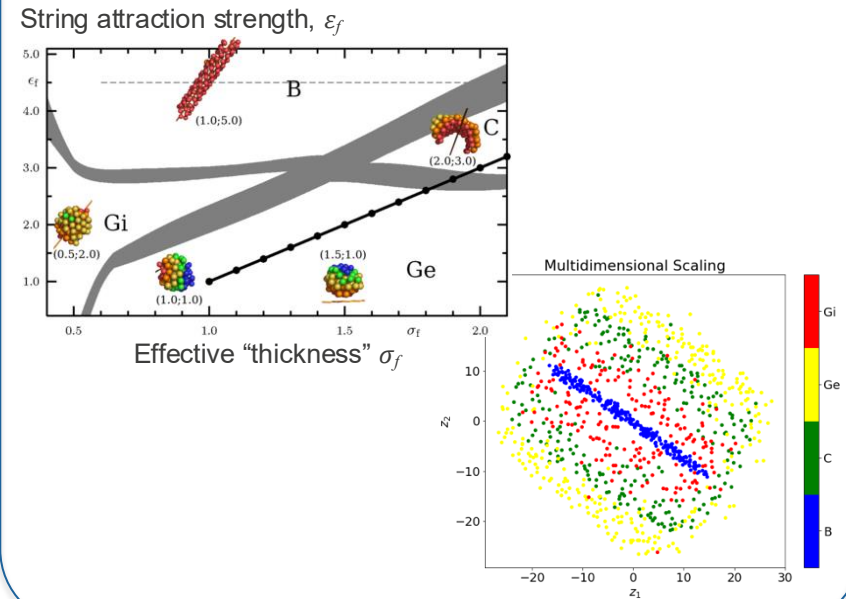
Applications of unsupervised learning: identifying phase transitions

- Classifying phases in classical spin models
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA) identifies order parameters for fully frustrated systems; distinguishes between crossovers, first- and second-order transitions



W. Hu, R. R. P. Singh, and R. T. Scalettar. Phys. Rev. E **95**, 062122 (2017).

- PCA, multidimensional scaling, t -SNE, isomap, etc. identify structural “phases” in polymers in similarly as human-defined “order parameters”



Q. Parker, D. Perera, YWL, and T. Vogel. Phys. Rev. E **105**, 035304 (2022).

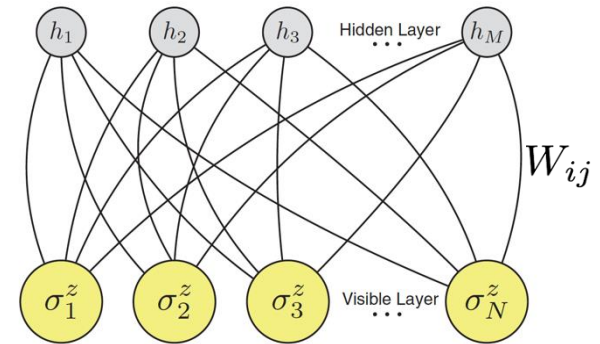
Applications of supervised learning: quantum many-body wavefunction

- Variational representation of a quantum wavefunction using an artificial neural network (restricted Boltzmann machine)
- Able to find ground state and time-dependent states of a quantum Hamiltonian
- Neural-network quantum states (NQS):

$$\Psi_M(\mathcal{S}; \mathcal{W}) = \sum_{\{h_i\}} \exp \left(\sum_j a_j \sigma_j^z + \sum_i b_i h_i + \sum_{ij} W_{ij} h_i \sigma_j^z \right)$$

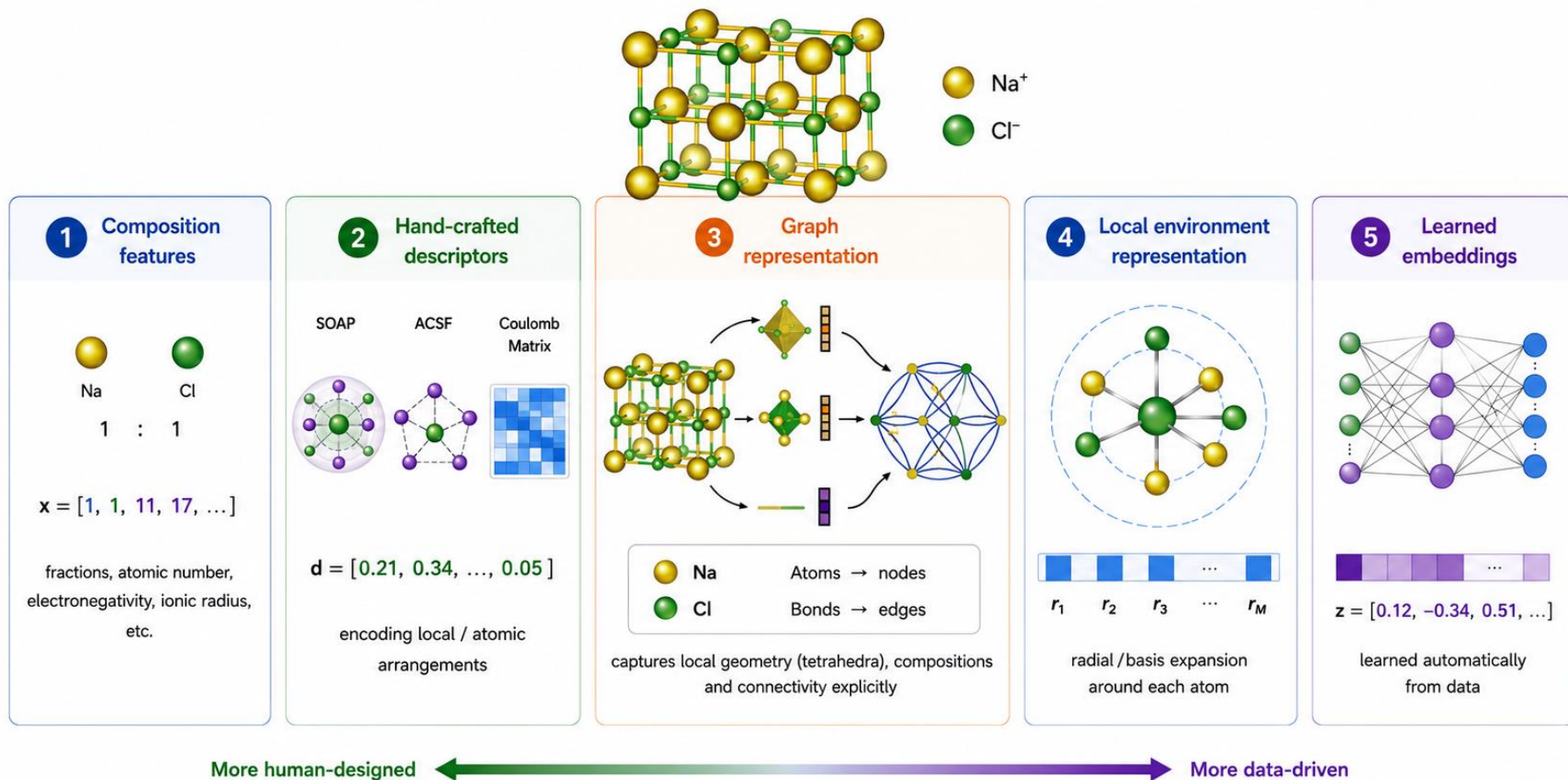
$\mathcal{S} = \sigma_1^z, \dots, \sigma_N^z \quad \leftarrow$ spin configurations (input)

$\mathcal{W} = \{a, b, W\} \quad \leftarrow$ to be trained by reinforcement learning



Arbitrary precision can be obtained by increasing the number of hidden units h

Materials representations (“descriptors”, “fingerprints”)

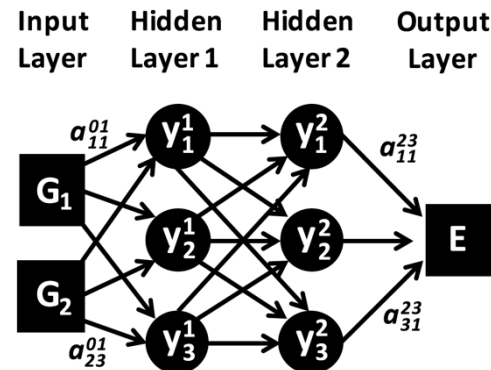


Interatomic potentials for atomistic simulations

1. Neural networks (NN)

- First ML method applied to fit DFT potential energy surfaces [1]
- “Behler-Parrinello” NN, deep NN [2]

$$E = f \left(b_1^3 + \sum_{k=1}^3 a_{k1}^{23} \cdot f \left(b_k^2 + \sum_{j=1}^3 a_{jk}^{12} \cdot f \left(b_j^1 + \sum_{i=1}^2 G_i \cdot a_{ij}^{01} \right) \right) \right)$$



2. Kernel-based ML potentials

- Gaussian Approximation Potentials (GAPs) [3]

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{atoms}}} E_i, \quad E_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\text{train}}} \alpha_j K(\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{d}^j), \quad K_{\text{SE}}(\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{d}') = \exp \left(- \sum_j \frac{(d - d')^2}{\theta_j} \right)$$

3. Descriptor-based ML potentials

- SNAP, SOAP, ACE, MACE...

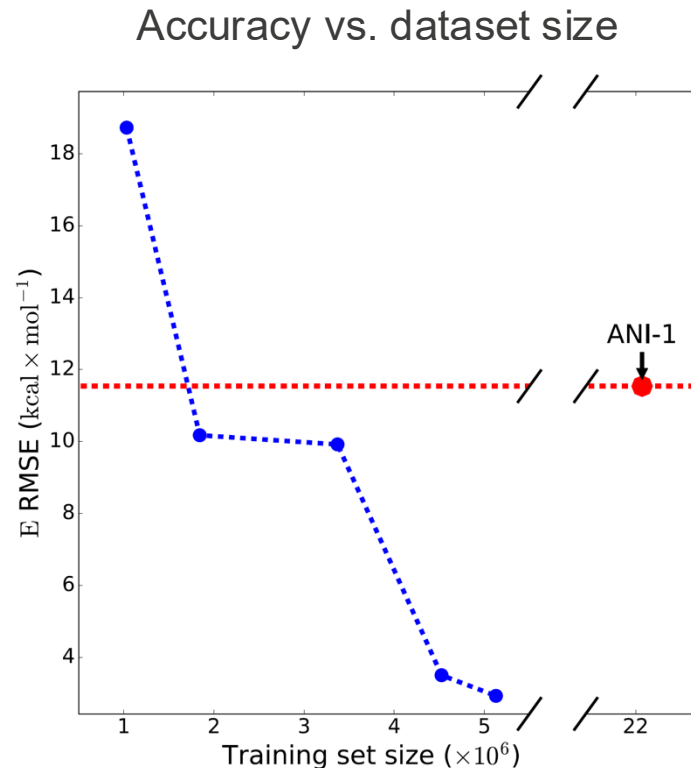
[1] T.B. Blank et al., J. Chem. Phys. **103**, 4129 (1995).

[2] J. Behler and M. Parrinello, Phys. Rev. Lett. **98**, 1464-1 (2007); J. Behler, J. Chem. Phys. **145**, 170901 (2016).

[3] A.P. Bartok et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. **104**, 136403 (2010).

Active learning for data acquisition

- Quality of data determines **model accuracy** and **training efficiency** of ML potentials
- Developing **diverse, representative** datasets is a challenge for any ML problem
- ANI-1x, ANI-1ccx in organic chemistry^[1]:
 - Efficient sampling using **active learning** reduces dataset size by 4x yet achieving higher accuracy
 - “Query-by-committee”^[2] is a widely-used method for acquiring new training data
- Reminiscent to reinforcement learning



[1] J. S. Smith et al., Sci. Data 7, 134 (2020)

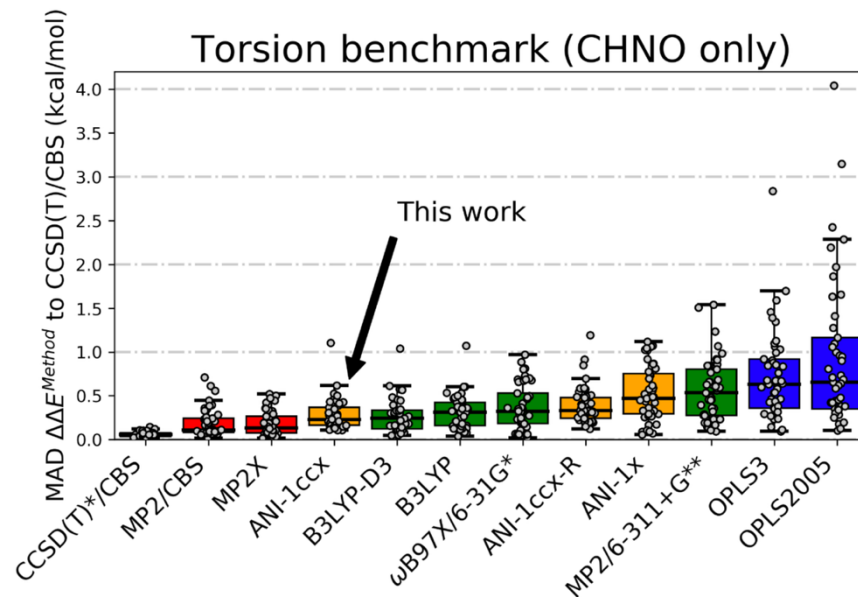
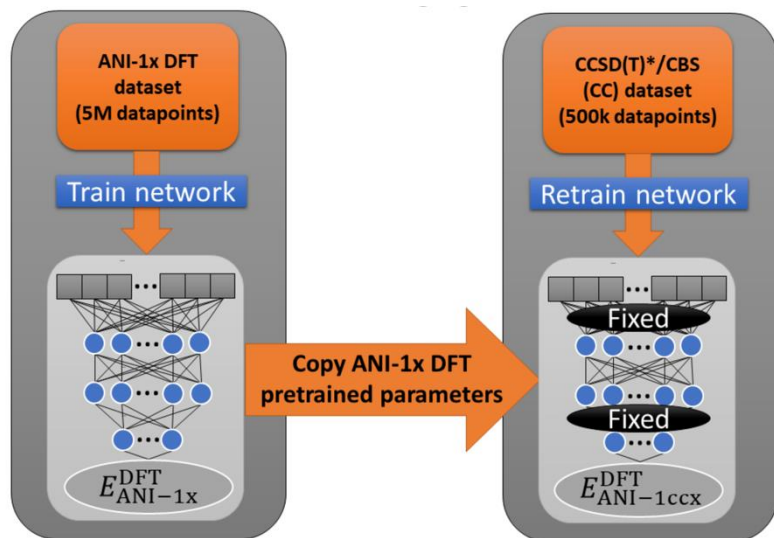
[2] H. S. Seung et al., In Proceedings of COLT'92, pp. 287–294 (1992).

J. S. Smith et al., Nat. Comm. 12, 1257 (2021).

Transfer learning for model finetuning

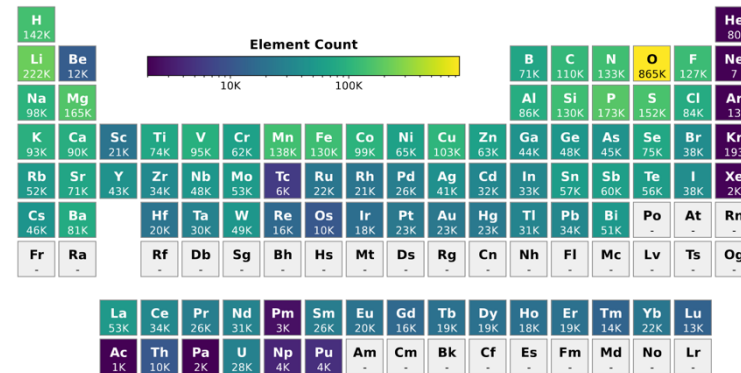
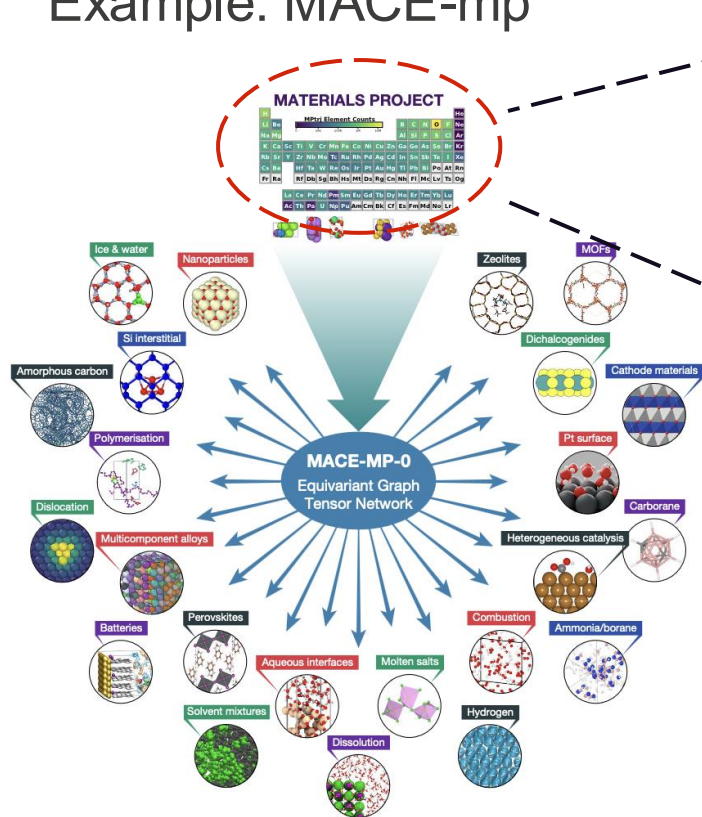
Training neural network potentials with transfer learning

- NN first trained with lots of “cheap” data from density functional theory
- Retrained with a “small” number of high accuracy CCSD(T) data
- Obtained quantum chemistry accuracy



Foundation models for materials

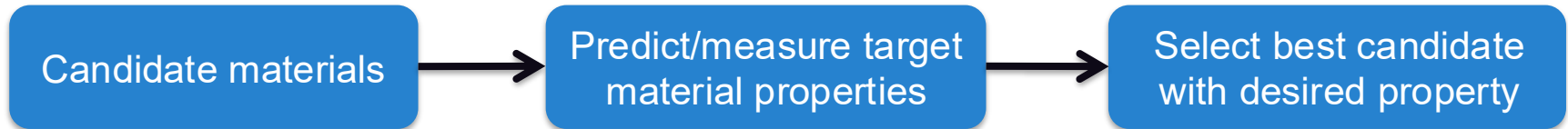
Example: MACE-mp



- Instead of training a new model for every property or every material, train a large, general model on massive datasets
- Adapted to downstream tasks via transfer learning

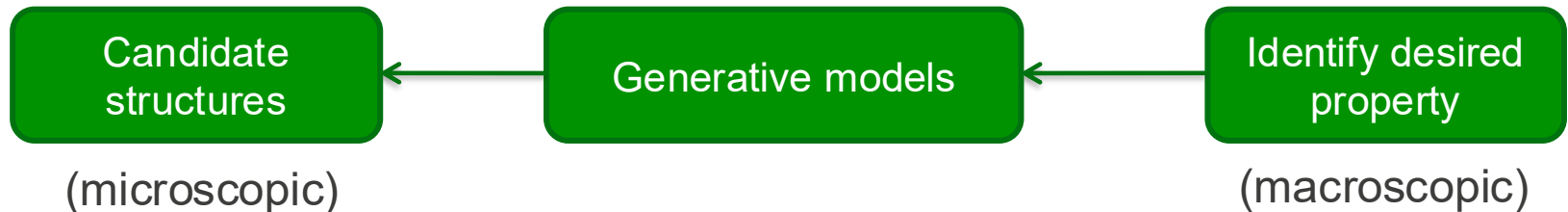
Materials inverse design

Traditional forward design of materials:



Drawback: High-throughput *ab initio* calculations is an exhaustive search in a massive design space → high computational cost

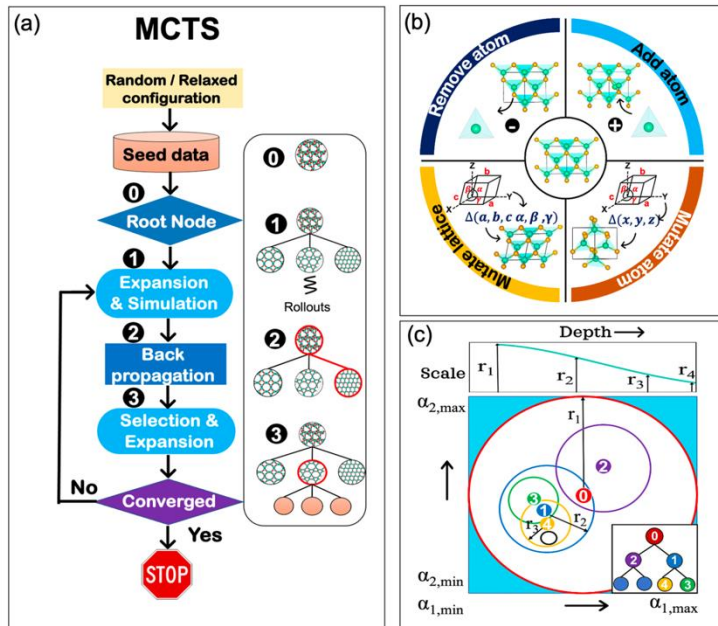
Can we design a material by starting from a desired property?



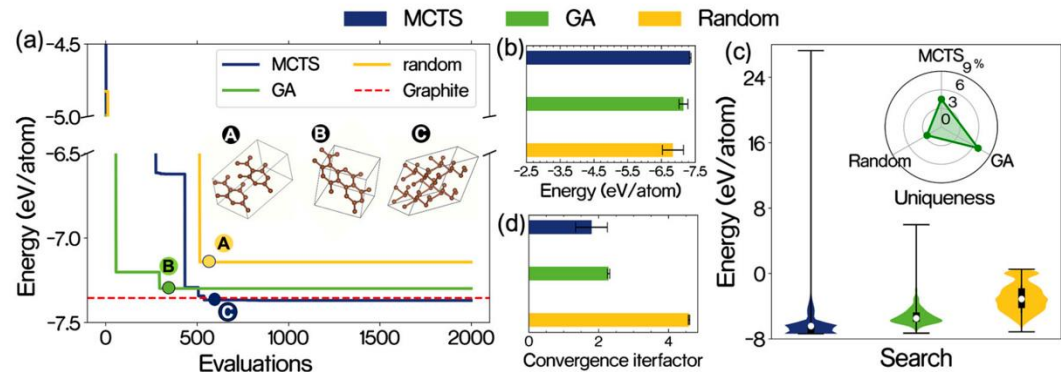
Intelligent search algorithms for inverse materials design

Crystal structure optimization using Monte Carlo tree search algorithm

MCTS algorithm



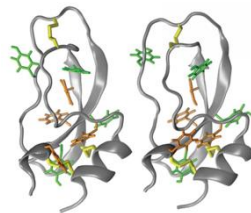
Structure prediction for carbon polymorphs compared with genetic algorithm (GA) and random search



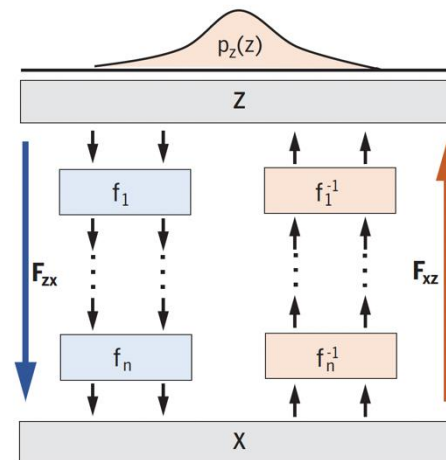
Learning distributions and generating molecules

Example: Boltzmann generators

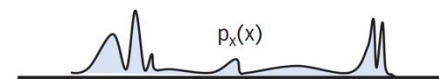
- Goal: sampling (long-lived) equilibrium states
- Learn series of transformations to transform original, rugged distribution into smooth one (e.g. Gaussian)
- Sample the smooth distribution
- Transform back to the original distribution to yield equilibrium states



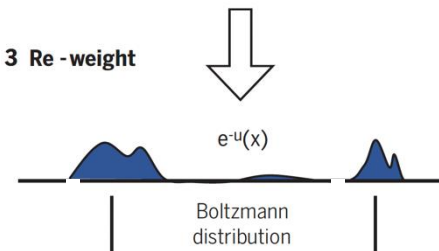
1 Sample Gaussian distribution



2 Generate distribution

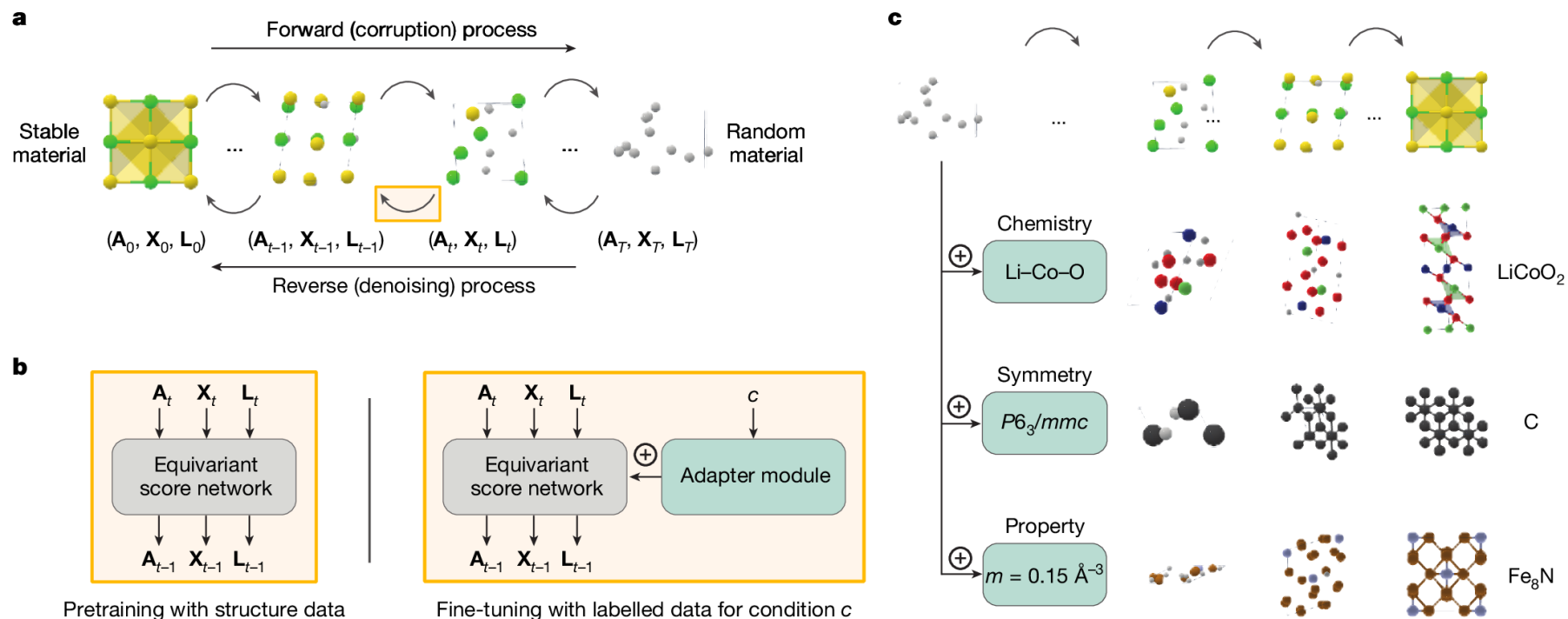


3 Re-weight



Diffusion models for inverse materials design

Example: MatterGen



Limitations and open challenges

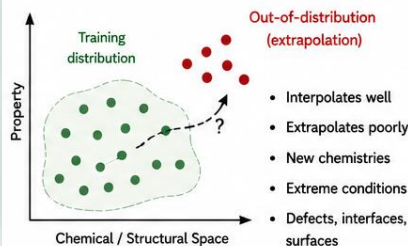
1 Data quantity and quality



- Limited data
- Experimental noise
- DFT approximation errors
- Data imbalance
- Missing labels and missing physics

Models are only as good as the data they learn from.

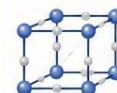
2 Out-of-distribution generalization



- Interpolates well
- Extrapolates poorly
- New chemistries
- Extreme conditions
- Defects, interfaces, surfaces

Real discovery requires reliable predictions beyond the training domain.

3 Physical consistency



Symmetry
 $E(R) = E(gR)$



Conservation laws
 $\sum_i F_i = 0$

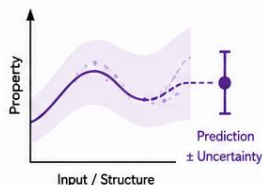


Thermodynamics
 $\Delta G < 0$

- Rotational and translational symmetry
- Conservation of energy, momentum, charge
- Thermodynamic stability
- Charge neutrality and boundary conditions

Predictions must obey known physical laws and symmetries.

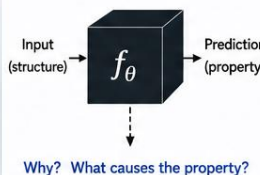
4 Uncertainty quantification



- Confidence estimates are essential
- Active learning
- Experimental planning
- Risk assessment

AI predictions should come with quantified uncertainty.

5 Interpretability and causality



- Why did the model predict this?
- Which features or patterns matter?
- Correlation ≠ causation
- Identify causal mechanisms

Understanding and causal insight are crucial for scientific discovery.

6 Reliable AI for science



- ✗ Fabricated references
- ✗ Incorrect equations
- ✗ Misinterpreted physical concepts
- ✗ Overconfident explanations



LLMs can generate plausible but incorrect scientific information. Human verification remains essential.

Take home messages

- ML/AI are now core research tools in data analysis, constructing surrogate models, data-driven information discovery, etc.
- Foundation models and scientific agents are emerging rapidly
- Try to understand the underlying principles of ML algorithms instead of using it as a black box
- Physics remains essential!
- Always ask yourself:
 - **Is ML necessary to perform the task?**
 - **Can ML be beneficial over traditional methods?**
(Computational cost, accuracy, generality, etc.)
 - **Can I build in more physics insights into the model/ML workflow?**
 - **Do the results align with physical insights?**