

Accelerated Design of Proton Exchange Membranes for Green Hydrogen Production with Artificial Intelligence

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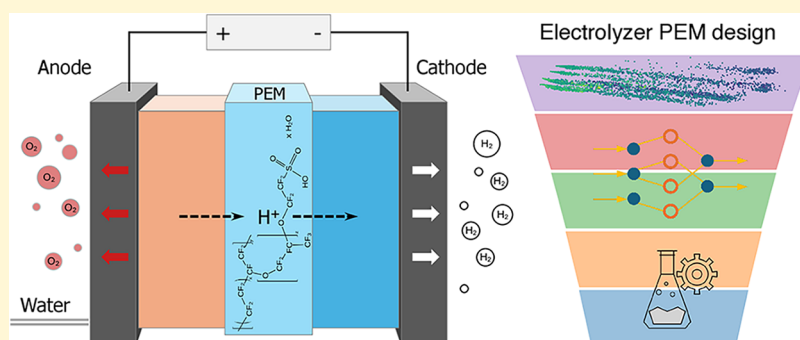


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ABSTRACT: Water electrolysis is an eco-friendly method for hydrogen production that has reached significant levels of technological maturity. Among commercialized water-electrolysis technologies, proton-exchange membrane electrolyzers offer high current density, fast dynamic response, and compact system design, among other advantages. On the other hand, managing their high capital cost and the “forever-chemistry” nature of Nafion, a perfluorinated proton-exchange membrane widely used in such devices, remains a major challenge. Searches for fluorine-free replacements for Nafion, pursued largely through physical experimentation, have been active for decades with limited success. In this work, we develop and demonstrate an AI-based strategy for designing proton-exchange membranes for electrolyzers. Two key components of this strategy are an implementation of the virtual forward-synthesis approach and a set of machine-learning predictive models for essential application-inspired membrane properties; the former generates a vast space of millions of synthesizable polymers, which are then evaluated and screened by the latter. The strategy is validated against experimental data for known membranes and then applied to design over 1700 synthesizable candidates. This article concludes with a forward-looking vision in which the strategy could be elevated into an interactive and iterative scheme that is based on large language models to facilitate materials design in multiple ways.

1. INTRODUCTION

Hydrogen is an ideal “fuel” that can be efficiently converted to multiple forms of end-use energy, e.g., electricity (using fuel cells) and mechanical energy (using hydrogen internal combustion engines).^{1–3} At the industrial scale, hydrogen is primarily produced from natural gases using steam reforming, gasification, and pyrolysis, during which a great volume of carbon dioxide is also generated.^{4,5} *Electrolysis*, the process in which water molecules are decomposed into hydrogen (H₂) and oxygen (O₂) gases using electrical energy, is a *green* method with essentially no carbon footprint.^{5–10} In an electrolytic cell, schematically shown in Figure 1(a), a direct current runs between the anode and cathode, driving two electrochemical reactions, i.e., oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), that create H₂ and O₂ from water. An electrolyte layer sandwiched between the electrodes enables the transport of designed ions

(e.g., H⁺ or OH[−]) while preventing the crossover of electrons, H₂, and O₂. Categorized by the cell architecture and electrolyte, major types of electrolyzers are alkaline water electrolyzers, proton-exchange membrane (PEM) water electrolyzers, anion exchange membrane water electrolyzers, and solid oxide electrolysis cells.^{5,7} Technically, water electrolysis is scalable and insusceptible to the intermittency and variability of renewable electricity, typically generated from wind, solar, hydro, geothermal, and tidal sources. Toward a

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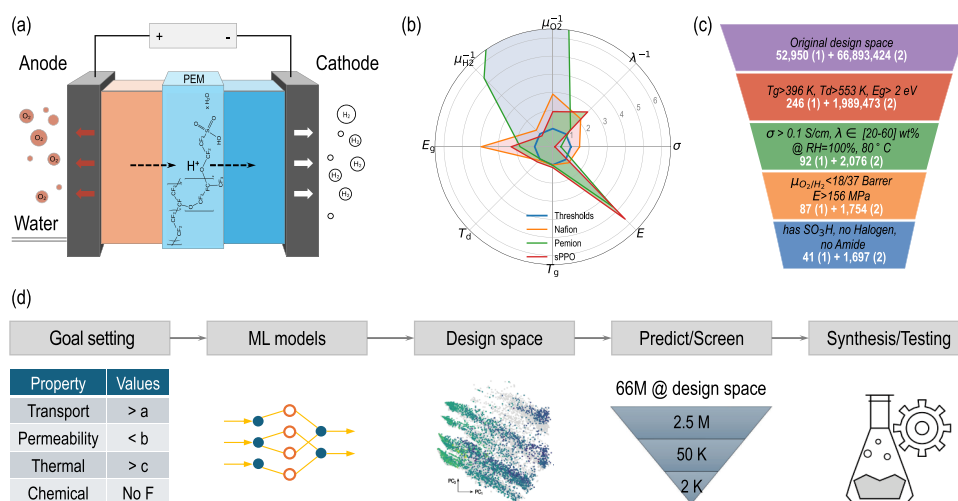


Figure 1. (a) A (schematic) cross-sectional view of a PEM electrolyzer in which a direct-current power source is used to split provided water molecules into hydrogen and oxygen gases in cathode and anode, (b) the chemical structure and a visualization of Nafion membrane, (c) the performances of Nafion, Pemion, and sPPO, given with respect to the application-inspired thresholds, and (d) the employed design strategy for PEMs. In (c), the design criteria are represented by a threshold polygon, outside of which good candidates for PEMs are expected to be.

Table 1. Required Performances of an Electrolyzer's Proton Exchange Membrane^{4a}

no.	key property	unit	desired value	Nafion value
1	proton conductivity σ	S/cm	>0.1 @ $T = 80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, RH = 100%	≈ 0.1 @ $T = 80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, RH = 100% ^{53–58}
2	water uptake λ	wt %	<50 wt %	>50 wt % ^{54,57}
3	Young's modulus E	MPa	>156	50–220 ^{54,59,60}
4	glass transition temperature T_g	K	>396	396–398 ^{61,62}
5	thermal decomposition temperature T_d	K	>553	553 ^{63,64}
6	O_2 permeability μ_{O_2}	Barrer	<18	1.1–34.3 ^{54,65–67}
7	H_2 permeability μ_{H_2}	Barrer	<37	9.3–65.0 ^{54,65–67}
8	electronic band gap E_g	eV	>2.0	N/A
9	having halogen species	N/A	No	Yes
10	having amide $-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{NH}-$	N/A	No	No
11	having sulfonate $-\text{SO}_3^-$	N/A	Yes	Yes

^aFor Young's modulus E , glass transition temperature T_g , thermal decomposition temperature T_d , O_2 permeability μ_{O_2} , and H_2 permeability μ_{H_2} , the thresholds reflect the actual performances of Nafion.

green future, this hydrogen production method is attractive for both commercial and policy reasons.⁹

PEM electrolyzers are a commercialized technology, offering high current density, fast dynamic response, high pressure operation, compact system design, and long lifetime.⁵ Compared to alkaline water electrolyzers, another mature technology,^{11,12} PEM electrolyzers are expensive because of their precious-metal electrocatalysts and proton-exchange membranes, typically Nafion [see Figure 1(b)], known for its remarkable proton conductivity and durability under harsh working conditions. Beyond the capital cost considerations, recycling this perfluorinated sulfonic acid copolymer is economically and environmentally highly unfavorable due to its superior stability, which arises from the exceptionally strong carbon–fluorine bonds dominating the membrane.^{5–10}

These long-standing issues motivate numerous active searches for sustainable (e.g., halogen-free), degradable, and more cost-effective PEMs during the last decades with limited successes.^{7,13–19} The primary challenge is that the polymer space is prohibitively large for traditional methods, typically relying on laborious and time-consuming physical experiments and computer simulations. Artificial intelligence (AI)-based methods have also been developed and introduced in the

field.^{17–28} Recent AI efforts were devoted to various important PEM material properties and/or device performances,²⁸ including proton conductivity and water uptake,^{17–19} mechanical, thermal, and permeability properties,¹⁸ degradation,^{21–23} voltage,^{23,24} current density and hydrogen flow rate,²⁵ operating temperature,²⁶ and cathodic H_2 recovery.²⁷ Such promising AI approaches, while still limited in scale and scope for various reasons, could potentially accelerate the optimization of PEM materials and devices in the future. At the level of material discoveries, some halogen-free membranes, including Pemion^{29–31} and sulfonated poly(2,6-dimethyl-1,4-phenylene oxide) (sPPO),^{32–38} have been identified, studied, and even commercialized.^{39,40} Compared to Nafion, their proton conductivity, stability, and/or durability under working conditions, as shown in Figure 1(b), remain behind.^{29–31}

This paper describes a large-scale, closed-loop AI-driven materials-design effort to develop halogen-free PEMs for water electrolyzers. The employed strategy, visualized in Figure 1(d),^{17,18} involves creating a set of 11 application-inspired property requirements for PEMs, developing the machine-learning (ML) models required to predict the properties,^{41,42} generating a massive design space of millions of polymers using virtual forward synthesis (VFS) approach,^{43–46} screening the

space using the developed ML models for candidates, and testing them experimentally. After Nafion, Pemion, sPPO, and other sulfonate copolymers were “rediscovered” and validated, over 1700 synthesizable polymers were identified from the screening, detailed in Figure 1(c). For some of them, synthesis and testing are ongoing, and results are anticipated. The described AI-based polymer design strategy could be leveraged to develop an interactive, iterative large language model-based scheme for future polymer research and development.

2. METHODS

The critical steps of the employed AI-driven strategy, described below, are closely interconnected and driven by the application-specific requirements of target materials. The criteria must be derived from material properties for which reliable data are available. The technical criteria and sizing can only be stringent if the candidate space is sufficiently large; otherwise, no candidates can be effectively downselected. As more and/or new data become available in the future, each step and the overall strategy can be further refined accordingly.

2.1. Design Criteria

Taking the respective specifications of Nafion as reference, the property requirements for water electrolyzer PEMs were crafted and summarized in Table 1. Among them, a high proton conductivity σ is critically important. Because proton transport requires the presence of water molecules and a network of interconnected water channels in PEMs,^{47–51} the proton conductivity σ correlates strongly with the water uptake λ while both σ and λ are functions of the temperature T and the relative humidity RH of the working environment. For Nafion, high σ can only be reached when λ and RH are high, i.e., $\lambda \approx 100$ wt % and RH $\approx 100\%$, an undesirable requirement for practical operations.^{48,49,52} Therefore, a moderate level of water uptake λ , i.e., about 50 wt % or below is targeted. Then, as the water channels must withstand internal pressure to remain connected during the membrane's lifetime, which could extend to tens of thousands of operating hours at ≈ 80 °C, PEMs should be mechanically strong and thermally robust. These requirements are translated into some thresholds that must be exceeded by the Young's modulus E , the glass transition temperature T_g , and the thermal decomposition temperature T_d (see Table 1 for details).¹⁸

While promoting proton and water transports, the PEM layer in an electrolyzer should block the crossover of O₂ and H₂ gases. Therefore, the oxygen and hydrogen permeabilities, i.e., μ_{O_2} and μ_{H_2} , of a good PEM should be low. Likewise, a PEM must be electronically insulating, and this requirement could be translated into a large enough electronic “band gap” E_g . A high value of E_g is also needed to secure the electrochemical stability of the PEM.¹⁸ As a voltage of about 1.23 V (on top of ≈ 2.0 eV between the anode and cathode in working conditions) is theoretically needed to split water molecules into O₂ and H₂,⁵ a criterion of $E_g \geq 2.0$ eV was used in this work. For the Young's modulus E , glass transition temperature T_g , thermal decomposition temperature T_d , oxygen permeability μ_{O_2} , and hydrogen permeability μ_{H_2} , the thresholds, given in Table 1, approximate the reported performances of Nafion.

Some chemistry considerations were also considered for the design. First, avoiding halogen species is a primary objective; thus, the candidates should not have them. Then, amide groups -C(=O)NH- tend to make strong hydrogen bonds with water molecules, trapping them and limiting proton mobility. They are also prone to hydrolysis and can be a site for radical-based degradation, leading to long-term degradation of the membranes, typically soaked in water. Therefore, amide groups should also be excluded. Finally, a vast majority of the proton conductivity σ and water uptake λ data reported in the literature and curated for this project contain sulfonate (-SO₃⁻), the hydrophilic functional groups that are essential for capturing water molecules in the membranes (see Section 2.2).^{14,49,68} Consequently, we consider only candidates that have -SO₃⁻ to make our σ and λ

predictions reliable. Some other key materials-level properties such as the degradation of PEM under working conditions^{21–23} are not considered here due to the current lack of sufficient and reliable data, but may be the subject of future work.

2.2. Training Data and ML Models

Previously curated data^{18,41,42} were substantially expanded, creating the training data sets summarized in Table 2. The data sets of proton conductivity σ and water uptake λ , two strongly related properties, contain 2462 and 2120 data points, respectively. About 97.8% (2409 entries) of the σ data set and 48.7% (1034 entries) of the λ data set involve -SO₃⁻ sulfonate group, highlighting the focus of the field in the last several decades. Likewise, two data sets of O₂ and H₂ permeabilities are parts of a bigger data set, containing 4,377 entries of the permeabilities of six gases, including O₂, H₂, N₂, He, CO₂, and CH₄. Except for the band gap E_g data set that was prepared by using density functional calculations,^{69–71} the other data sets are experimental in nature. Polymers in these data sets are represented by SMILES, which stands for Simplified Molecular-Input Line-Entry System,⁷² from which a set of hierarchical chemical fingerprints^{41,42,73–75} will be computed for the development of the ML models. For proton conductivity σ and water uptake λ , the model development needs some additional descriptors, including the temperature T , the relative humidity RH, and another important measurement condition, i.e., whether the samples are submerged in liquid or vapor water.

Table 2. Summary of the Dataset Curated and the ML Models Trained on These Datasets^a

property	unit	data size	data range	R ²	error
σ	S/cm	2462	5×10^{-6} – 3.9×10^{-1}	0.84	0.12 _Q
λ	wt %	2120	0.03–2500	0.96	0.10 _Q
E	MPa	915	0.02–4000	0.82	0.15 _Q
T_g	K	8962	80–873	0.99	10.0
T_d	K	6585	291–1173	0.96	21.9
μ_{O_2}	Barrer	1021	1.5×10^{-8} – 1.9×10^4	0.95	0.07 _Q
μ_{H_2}	Barrer	603	1.9×10^{-6} – 3.7×10^4	0.97	0.06 _Q
E_g	eV	3879	0.1–9.8	0.97	0.25

^aThe error metrics of the models are the coefficient of determination R² and either “root-mean-square error”, given by the same unit with the data, or “order of magnitude”, given by “order” and indicated by “_Q”.

We used Gaussian Process Regression,^{76,77} a similarity-based algorithm, integrating a radial basis function (RBF) kernel and an additive white-noise component, to develop the ML predictive models.^{41,42} By assuming the output is a realization of a Gaussian process, the prediction uncertainty provided by GPR is useful for signaling whether a specific domain is well represented in the training data. An internal cross-validation mechanism was integrated to balance training and validation performance, thereby minimizing potential overfitting. As σ and λ are strongly correlated, a multitask ML model was trained to predict both of them simultaneously. The rationale behind this solution is that for properties that are explicitly or implicitly related, multitask algorithms are expected to exploit the possible correlations among them and make the models more robust and accurate.^{78–80} Likewise, another multitask model was trained on the data set combining the permeabilities of O₂, H₂, N₂, He, CO₂, a CH₄ for predicting μ_{O_2} and μ_{H_2} as needed for this strategy. Finally, four other ML models were trained to predict Young's modulus E , glass transition temperature T_g , thermal decomposition temperature T_d , and band gap E_g .

2.3. Design Space

The design space (of homopolymers and copolymers) was constructed from about 30,000 known polymers,^{41,42} i.e., those that have been synthesized, studied, and reported, and about 66 millions

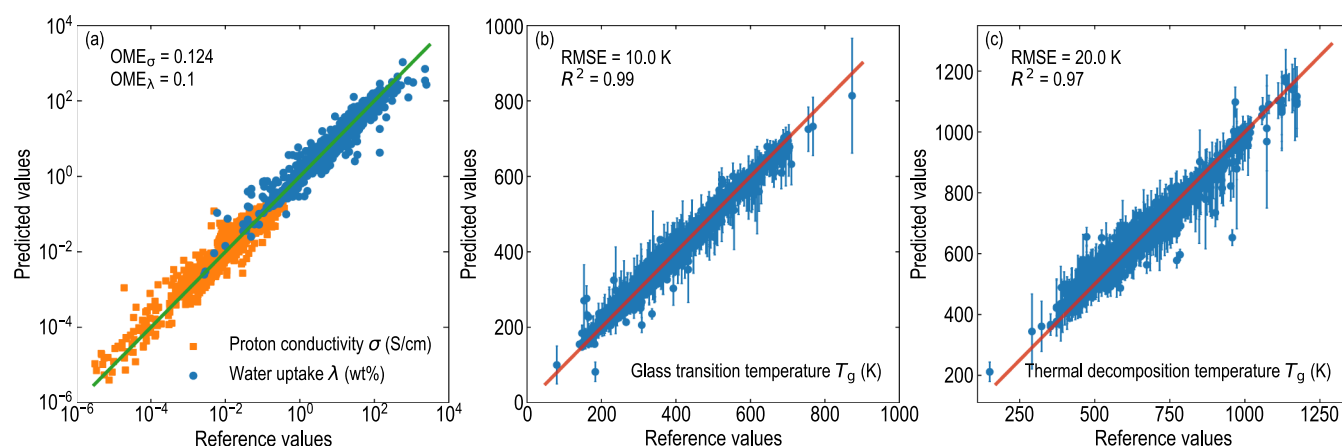


Figure 2. ML models for (a) proton conductivity and water uptake, (b) glass transition temperature, and (c) thermal decomposition temperature.

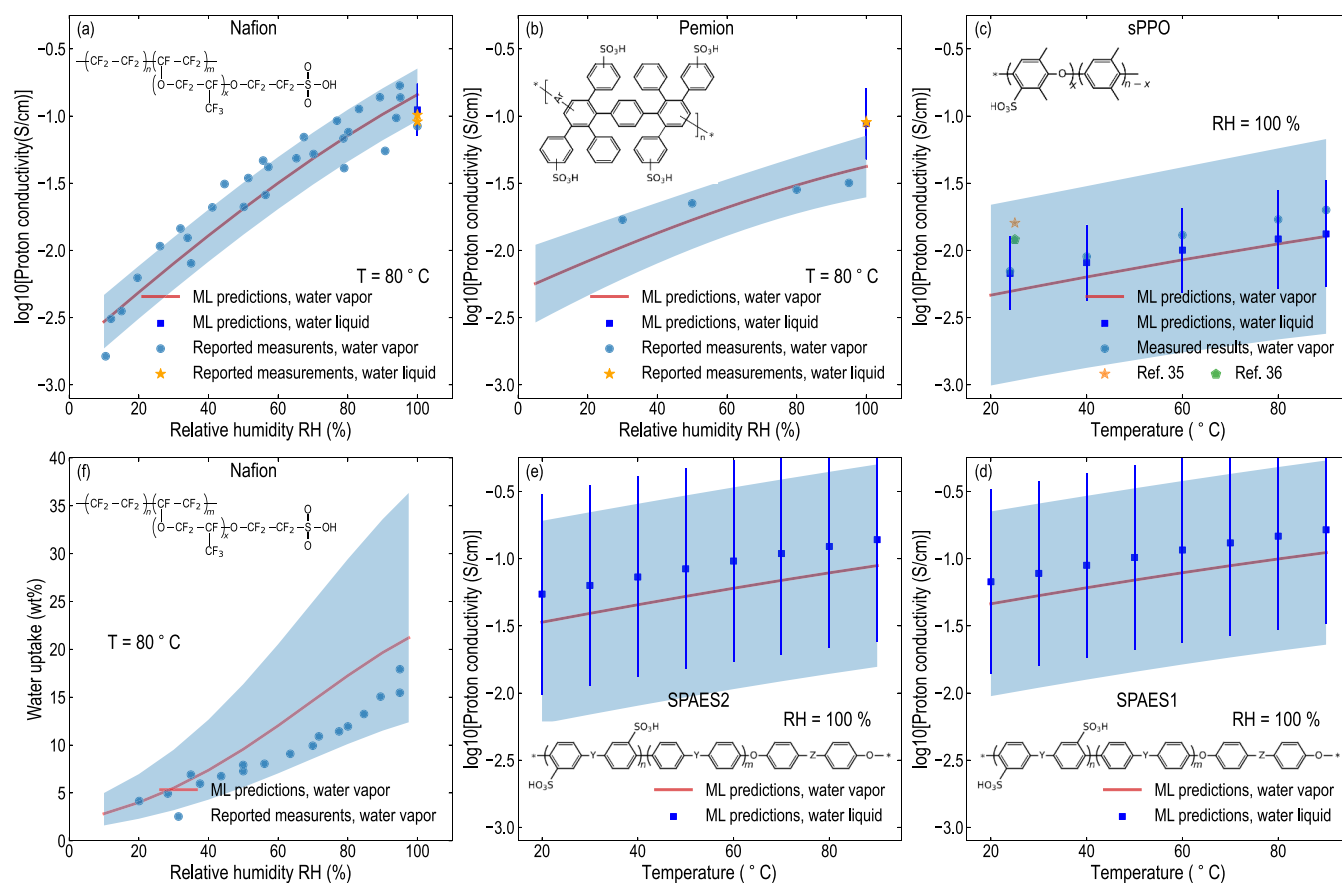


Figure 3. Chemical structure, predicted proton conductivity (a) and water uptake (b) of Nafion, given in comparison with experimental data, taken from refs 53–58. and refs 54,57, respectively. In (b)–(e), the predicted proton conductivity of Pemion, sPPO, SPAES1, and SPAES2 are given. Measured proton conductivity of Pemion was taken from refs 29,39. For sPPO, $x = 0.2$, and the data were measured in this work. In SPAES1, Y is -S-, Z is -SO $_2$ -, and $n/(m + n) = 0.3$, while for SPAES2, Y is -S-, Z is -C(=O)-, and $n/(m + n) = 0.3$. Shaded areas in (b)–(f) represent the uncertainty of the predictions for “water vapor” (given in solid lines).

synthesizable polymers generated using RxnChainer,⁸¹ an implementation of the virtual forward synthesis (VFS) approach.^{43–46} In a nutshell, VFS starts with millions of commercially available monomers, which can be found from multiple sources, including TSCA inventory,⁸² ZINC-22,⁸³ ChemBL,⁸⁴ and eMolecules.⁸⁵ These reactants are then propagated through numerous reaction chains, each of which is constructed from hundreds of rule-based polymerization templates, such as step growth, chain-growth addition, ring-opening, and metathesis, to generate the product polymers. In other words, VFS mimics the real polymerization reactions to create highly

synthesizable polymers. Given the vast number of available monomers^{82–85} and polymerization templates,^{45,46} the number of polymers that can be generated using this approach is essentially unlimited.^{43–46} Technical details of VFS and RxnChainer can be found in ref 81.

The considered design space contains nearly 66 million synthesizable and/or synthesized polymers, categorized into 2 subsets. Subset 1 has 52,950 polymers, including 26,958 polymers that have been synthesized, studied, and reported in the literature^{41,42} and 25,992 copolymers generated from known homopolymers. Subset 2 is

Table 3. Summary of the Agreements between Predicted and Measured Data of Nafion, Pemion, and sPPO^a

property	Nafion		Pemion		sPPO		SPAES1	SPAES2
	measured	predicted	measured	predicted	measured	predicted	predicted	predicted
E (MPa)	50–220 ^{54,59,60}	195 ± 0.4 _Q	405–930 ⁸⁸	729 ± 0.6 _Q	N/A	880 ± 0.7 _Q	1,060 ± 0.8 _Q	1,104 ± 0.8 _Q
T_g (K)	396–398 ^{61,62}	369 ± 32	>393 ⁸⁹	408 ± 33	463 ± 17 ^{38,90}	455 ± 13	516 ± 46	517 ± 45
T_d (K)	553 ^{63,64}	589 ± 18	>533 ⁹¹	529 ± 10	682 ⁹⁰	658 ± 18	622 ± 48	624 ± 47
μ_{O_2} (Barrer)	1.1–34.3 ^{54,65–67}	6.2 ± 0.5 _Q	≤0.1 $\mu_{O_2}^{Naf92}$	0.3 ± 1.5 _Q	6.4 ⁹³	9.3 ± 0.6 _Q	0.1 ± 1.7 _Q	0.1 ± 1.7 _Q
μ_{H_2} (Barrer)	9.3–65.0 ^{54,65–67}	28.7 ± 0.4 _Q	≤0.1 $\mu_{H_2}^{Naf92}$	6.9 ± 0.9 _Q	30.9 ⁹³	43.6 ± 0.3 _Q	4.0 ± 1.0 _Q	4.1 ± 1.0 _Q
E_g (eV)	N/A	7.9 ± 0.2	N/A	3.6 ± 0.5	N/A	4.6 ± 0.4	3.3 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 0.3

^aReferences are given for the experimental data collected from the literature.

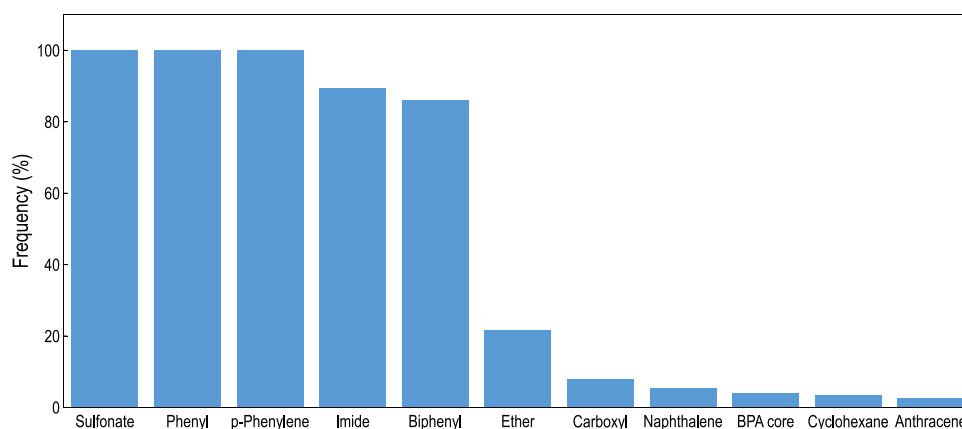


Figure 4. Ten most-frequent functional groups/blocks found in 1,738 candidates identified from subset 2, containing 66 M polymers generated using VFS.

much bigger, encompassing 66,893,424 homopolymers and copolymers generated from more than 7 million commercial monomers obtained from TSCA inventory.⁸² For practical reasons, four typical polymer families, namely polyimides, polyesters, polyureas, and polyurethanes, were considered for subset 2.

Results reported herein, including model training, design space creation, and the subsequent candidate screening (based on the established design criteria), were performed using PolymRize, a cloud-based polymer informatics software.⁸⁶

3. RESULTS

3.1. Machine-Learning Models

The training process of the ML models is summarized in Table 2. Each trained ML model is characterized by a coefficient of determination R^2 and an error measure, which, depending on the training data distribution, can either be the root-mean-square error (RMSE) or the order of magnitude error (OME). For T_g , T_d , and E_g , the data range is not too large, i.e., the upper bound is about 10 times the lower bound or less, RMSE was used. On the other hand, as the data of σ , λ , E , μ_{O_2} , and μ_{H_2} are highly scattered, i.e., spanning for 4–6 orders of magnitude, OME is a more suitable error metric. Formally, OME is defined as $\langle \text{abs}(\log_{10}(p_{\text{pred}}/p_{\text{ref}})) \rangle$, where p_{pred} and p_{ref} are the predicted and reference values and $\langle \dots \rangle$ stand for the average over the predictions. With this definition, OME provides the anticipated error of the predictions, given in “orders of magnitude” and denoted by _Q. Both RMSE and OME should be examined in comparison with the range of the training data.

The coefficient of determination R^2 of all the models is high. Except for σ and E models whose R^2 is 0.84 and 0.82, respectively, $R^2 > 0.95$ for other models. Two error measures, namely RMSE and OME, are small. In particular, RMSE

obtained for T_g , T_d , and E_g models is about 3–7% of the training data range, while OME is about 0.1_Q for all the ML models developed for σ , λ , E , μ_{O_2} , and μ_{H_2} . This error measure is roughly 3–5% of the training data range, which is about 4–6_Q. Figure 2 provides a visualization of the models trained for predicting λ , σ , T_g , and T_d .

3.2. Discovered PEM Candidates

As visualized in Figure 1(c), a set of 1738 candidates for electrolyzer PEMs were down-selected from the original design space, containing 41 polymers in subset 1 and 1,697 polymers (136 polyesters and 1569 polyimides) in subset 2. While our experimental tests for sPPO were completed, synthesis and testing work for some other candidates are ongoing, and the results may be anticipated.

3.2.1. Known Membranes: Experimental Validations.

Among the polymers identified from subset 1, Nafion, Pemion, and sPPO are examined in Figure 3(a)–(c) with respect to available measured data. In Figures 3(a),(b), the predicted proton conductivity captures very well the order and the trend of the experimental data previously reported for Nafion^{53–58} and Pemion^{29,39} in both water vapor and water liquid measurement conditions, showing an excellent overall accuracy. For sPPO, we performed necessary measurements on the commercial membranes (InnoSep-C) acquired from Innochemtech Inc.⁴⁰ Using a BT-110 conductivity clamp, our electrochemical impedance spectroscopy measurements were performed to determine the high-frequency resistance R at temperatures ranging from 24 to 90 °C. Then, the in-plane proton conductivity σ was calculated using $\sigma = L/Rwt$ where L is the distance between the reference electrodes while w and t are the width and thickness of the membrane. Our measured proton conductivity σ , together with data reported in refs 35,

Interactive AI Agent for Materials Design

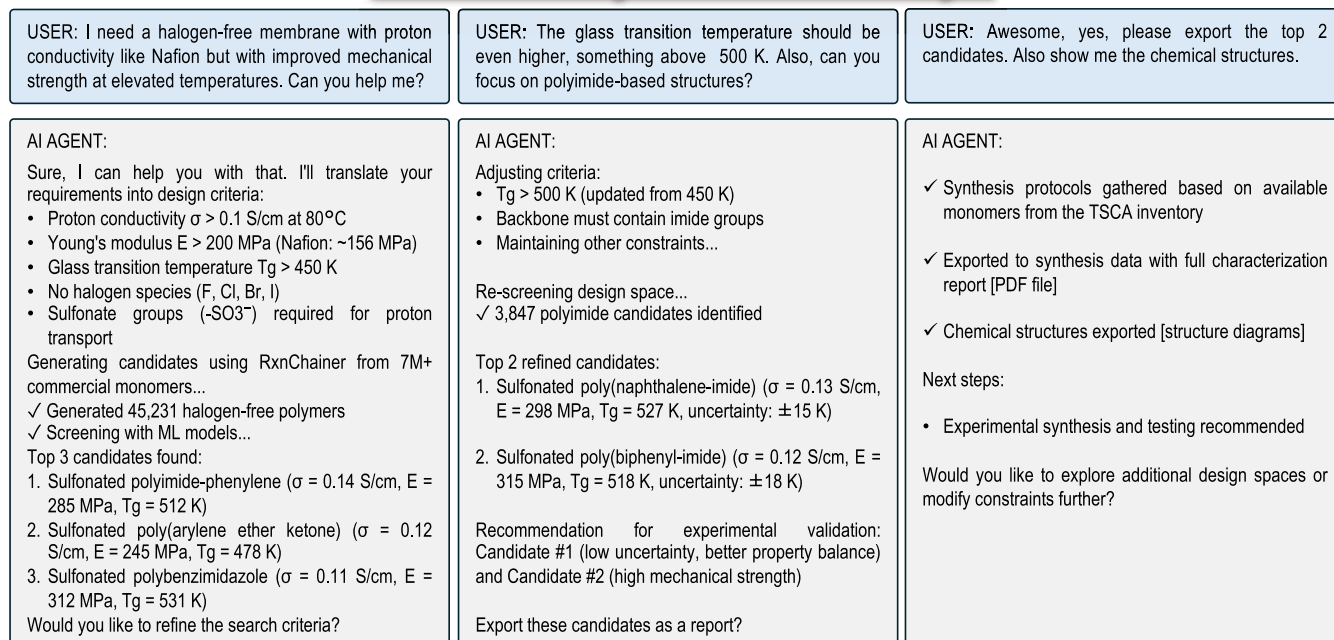


Figure 5. Schematic illustration of the envisioned interactive AI agent workflow for application-driven polymer design. User-specify performance requirements through a natural language interface; the AI agent translates the requirements into quantitative design criteria, generates polymer candidates using RxnChainer, predicts their properties using trained ML models, and engages in an iterative refinement loop based on user feedback. The agent provides explanations of structure–property relationships and presents ranked candidates with predicted property values, uncertainty estimates, and synthesizability scores.

36, are presented Figure 3 (c), providing another compelling confirmation of our ML predictions.

Reference 87 claims several series of sulfonated aromatic poly(ether sulfone) copolymers (SPAES); for one of them, the generic chemical structure is shown in Figure 3(d),(e). In this series, Y may come from a group consisting of $-\text{S}-$, $\text{S}(\text{O})$, $-\text{S}(\text{O})_2-$, $-\text{C}(\text{O})-$, $-\text{P}(\text{O})(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)-$, and their combinations, Z may come from a group consisting of $-\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_2-$, $-\text{C}(\text{CF}_3)_2-$, $-\text{C}(\text{CF}_3)(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)-$, $-\text{C}(\text{O})-$, $-\text{S}(\text{O})_2-$, or $-\text{P}(\text{O})(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)-$, while $n/(m+n)$ may range from 0.001 to 1.⁸⁷ By screening over all the nonhalogen possibilities, we identified 2 candidates, denoted by SPAES1 and SPAES2, that meet our design criteria. SPAES1 includes the $-\text{S}-$ block for Y, the $-\text{SO}_2-$ block for Z, and $n/(m+n) = 0.3$, while for SPAES2, Y is $-\text{S}-$, Z is $-\text{C}(=\text{O})-$, and $n/(m+n) = 0.3$.

The predicted water uptake of Nafion is shown in Figure 3(f). Compared to the measured data, obtained from refs 54,57, the predictions capture well both the order of magnitude and the trend of this important property, given as a function of the relative humidity. Nevertheless, the predictions shown in Figure 3(c)-(f) feature relatively high uncertainty, implying that the proton conductivity and water uptake models have not been exposed to enough volume of related data, and their training data should further be augmented. All of the data predicted and measured for other properties are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3 summarizes the predictions for other required performances of Nafion, Pemion, sPPO, SPAES1, and SPAES2. While the good agreement between the predicted and measured data of Nafion resembles our recent report,¹⁸ similar agreements can also be found for Pemion and sPPO. The predicted glass transition temperature $T_g = 485 \pm 26$ K

and thermal decomposition temperature $T_d = 619 \pm 59$ K agree very well with experimental values, namely $T_g = 483$ K³⁸ and $T_d = 682$ K.⁹⁰ The prediction of Young's modulus $E = 746 \pm 0.8$ GPa has no apparent experimental counterpart, but there is a report⁹⁴ on three sulfonated polyphenylene-based copolymers with similar rigid backbone with reasonable measured Young's modulus of $E \approx 1100$ MPa. Likewise, within an uncertainty of about 0.3–0.6 GPa (see Table 2), the predicted μ_{O_2} and μ_{H_2} are reasonably good compared to the experimental values. The predicted band gap $E_g = 4.6 \pm 0.4$ eV indicates that sPPO is a good insulating material that could be suitable for the harsh working conditions of an electrolyzer.

3.2.2. Uncharted Territory: PEM Candidates. Beyond the known polymers identified and validated in Section 3.2.1, the subset of 1697 candidates identified from the essentially unexplored space of 66 M generated polymers are expected to yield interesting and useful discoveries. While experimental syntheses and tests for some of them are ongoing, we analyzed their chemical structures for critical functional groups and chemical features.

Starting from the design criteria, more than 50 functional groups (blocks) that may be relevant to any property were compiled. The chemical structure of the candidates, given in their SMILES, was then examined, returning the 10 most-frequent blocks shown in Figure 4. Because water molecules are critical for the dominant proton transport mechanisms in PEM, a vast majority of the reported literature data of proton conductivity σ and water uptake λ involve the hydrophilic pendant sulfonate functional groups $-\text{SO}_3^-$, needed for capturing and holding water molecules.^{14,49,68,95–97} Therefore, this group is required as a screening criterion.¹⁸ In the future, when data involving promising alternative functional groups

such as sulfonimide ($-\text{SO}_2\text{NH}-\text{SO}_2-$)^{98,99} become more abundant, the presence of sulfonate groups in the PEM candidates would be lower.

Phenyl (C_6H_5-) and 1,4-phenylene ($-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-$) groups were found in every candidate, while biphenyl ($-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-$) occurs in 86% of them. The very high rotational barrier of 1,4-phenylene and the bulky, rigid phenyl side group strongly suppress segmental mobility and raise the glass transition temperature T_g . Likewise, $\text{C}(\text{sp}^2)-\text{C}(\text{sp}^2)$ and aromatic C-H bonds are strong with high bond-dissociation energies (~ 110 kcal/mol, versus ~ 100 kcal/mol for aliphatic sp^3 bonds), thereby increasing the thermal decomposition temperature T_d . Moreover, the quasi-planar geometry of phenyl and 1,4-phenylene also promotes tighter packing, limiting the crossover of gases such as O_2 and H_2 , as required for a PEM. The imide group ($-\text{CO}-\text{NH}-\text{CO}-$), present in 89% of the candidate set, possesses dipoles that improve cohesion and the thermal and mechanical properties of the membranes. Overall, sulfonate, phenyl, 1,4-phenylene, biphenyl, and imide are the most important groups of our candidate set, reasonably and collectively promoting the critical properties required for electrolyzer PEMs.

4. OUTLOOK

The AI-based application-driven design strategy, demonstrated herein and in recent works,¹⁰⁰ is inherently generic and opens several avenues for future polymer research and development. A particularly promising direction is the development of a large-language-model-based (AI) agent that integrates multi-objective optimization algorithms with the demonstrated VFS-ML workflow. Such an agent would enable interactive, application-driven polymer design while minimizing significant technical efforts currently required to train ML models, generate suitable polymer spaces, and identify optimal candidates. In this envisioned framework, users will interact with an AI agent through a natural language chat interface, specifying the desired performance metrics, constraints, and other requirements in conversational terms rather than through rigid parameter inputs. For example, a user may request “a halogen-free membrane with proton conductivity similar to Nafion but with improved mechanical strength at elevated temperatures.” The AI agent would then parse the requirements, translate them into quantitative design criteria, e.g., $\sigma > 0.1$ S/cm at 80 °C, $E > 200$ MPa, $T_g > 450$ K, and leverage the VFS-ML framework to generate and evaluate the candidate materials.

An example of such an interaction is illustrated in Figure 5. Having a user request, the agent would utilize RxnChainer⁸¹ to generate polymer candidates from the vast space of commercially available monomers, applying the user-specified chemical constraints (e.g., excluding halogen species, requiring sulfonate groups). The candidates would then be screened using the trained ML models to predict their properties. Critically, the agent would not simply return a ranked list of candidates but also engage in an iterative refinement process based on user feedback. If the initial candidates do not meet expectations, the user could provide additional guidance, e.g., “increase the glass transition temperature threshold” or “focus on polyimide-based structures”, and the agent would adjust the search accordingly. Throughout this process, the agent would provide explanations of the underlying structure–property relationships, highlighting which chemical moieties contribute to specific properties. For instance, it might explain that “the

presence of rigid aromatic rings in the backbone enhances T_g and E , while the sulfonate side groups enable high σ through water uptake.”

Finally, the agent could also suggest experimental validation priorities based on the prediction uncertainties and the potential impact. This interactive and iterative approach could transform the polymer design process from a one-time screening exercise into a dynamic collaboration between human expertise and AI capabilities. Such an intelligent framework could significantly accelerate the discovery of high-performance materials not only for PEMs but also for a broad range of functional polymer applications, making advanced materials design accessible to researchers without extensive ML expertise. An experimental version of such an agentic capability (ASKPOLY) is available.¹⁰¹

5. SUMMARY

We have demonstrated an AI-based, application-driven design scheme to develop sustainable (halogen-free) proton-exchange membranes for PEM electrolyzers. Central to this strategy are a virtual forward-synthesis approach, used to generate a large design space of synthesizable polymers, and a set of ML predictive models developed to evaluate candidates within this space. The ML models were validated against experimental data curated and/or generated for Nafion, Pemion, and sPPO. The strategy was then used to discover 1,738 promising PEM candidates, some of which are undergoing experimental synthesis and testing, with further results anticipated. This strategy also suggests avenues for future polymer research and development. A particularly promising direction is the development of an AI agent that enables seamless interactions between users and the demonstrated AI-based strategy, fostering interactive and iterative human–machine collaboration for accelerated materials design.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

The data used for this work were collected from public sources cited in the manuscript. Derivatives and data analysis results that support the discussions and conclusions of this work are available in the main text.

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Notes

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