













PAPER

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XPEAK: an XRD-driven machine learning platform for predicting the catalyst-enhanced dehydrogenation peak temperature of MgH₂

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MgH₂ offers high hydrogen capacity but suffers from an excessively high desorption temperature, which severely restricts its practical application. Developing effective catalysts is essential, yet their structural complexity makes quantitative description and performance prediction notoriously difficult. To overcome the long-standing challenge of catalyst representation, we extracted structural fingerprints directly from standardized X-ray Diffraction (XRD) patterns using dimensionality reduction. These XRD features integrated with catalyst mass fraction and heating rate, were employed to build the machine learning models in the field of MgH₂ catalysis. To predict the dehydrogenation peak temperature (T_p) and its variation (ΔT_p), we compiled a curated dataset from 420 experimental publications, containing over 2000 records. Ensemble regression models were trained separately on experimental and ICDD-based XRD data. Model interpretation using SHAP highlights that XRD-derived features dominate prediction accuracy, while catalyst loading and heating rate show nonlinear but interpretable effects. Based on ICDD-based XRD data, we developed a high-throughput screening workflow coupled with t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding visualization, enabling the rapid evaluation of over 100 000 ICDD XRD entries and the identification of 12 promising catalyst candidates ($T_p < 230$ °C). Based on experimental XRD data, we established a predictive framework for dehydrogenation peak temperatures, capable of integrating user-provided catalyst XRD data. Importantly, we implemented this workflow in XPEAK (an XRD-driven machine learning platform for predicting peak temperatures, <http://cat-mh.top>), the first platform providing the research community with practical AI-assisted tool for catalyst screening, performance prediction, and design for MgH₂ dehydrogenation. This work demonstrates how XRD fingerprints can resolve the bottleneck of catalyst description and establish a new pathway for data-driven catalyst design.

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1. Introduction

MgH₂ has a high theoretical hydrogen capacity of 7.6 wt%,^{1–4} while catalysts enhance its kinetics by providing additional active sites, weakening the Mg–H bond, and promoting hydrogen diffusion and surface reactions.⁵ In recent years, various strategies have been developed to significantly reduce the dehydrogenation peak temperature (T_p) of MgH₂, thereby enhancing its practical applicability. Zhang *et al.* highlighted in

their review that nanostructuring and phase transition engineering can effectively tune the thermodynamic properties of the Mg/MgH₂ system without compromising hydrogen storage capacity.⁶ For instance, Liang *et al.* constructed *in situ* Ni/Ni_xB dual-functional catalysts;⁷ Li *et al.* introduced single-atom Ni interface engineering;⁸ and Ren *et al.* confined MgH₂ within MOF-derived pCNF.⁹ Although these strategies reduce T_p by approximately 100 °C, the operating temperature remains above 200 °C, which is still relatively high.

However, traditional catalyst development still relies heavily on empirical trial-and-error, limiting the efficient and systematic exploration of the vast catalyst design space.^{10–13} With advances in computational methods and artificial intelligence,^{14–19} data-driven models can learn structure–property relationships from existing datasets, enabling high-throughput screening and rapid performance prediction. Such models achieve speed gains of over four orders of magnitude compared to conventional approaches,²⁰ while maintaining

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accuracy and capturing key composition–structure–property correlations.^{21–23} Katarina *et al.* employed a graph neural network approach within the MEGNet framework to achieve high-precision predictions of formation energies.²⁴ Matthew *et al.* used the Magpie tool to extract elemental and electronic structure features of materials and combined them with gradient boosting tree models to construct a regression model for predicting platform pressure.²⁵

Despite the existence of large materials databases such as OQMD,²⁶ Materials Project, International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD), and ICSD, open-source resources dedicated to solid-state hydrogen storage remain scarce. Only a few databases, such as HyDPark, support data-mining studies on hydrogen storage alloys,^{27–30} yet no database focuses on catalyst effects.³¹ Experimental literature provides a low-cost and high-quality data source. ML models trained on experimental data can offer direct insights into observed behaviors and guide materials design.^{32–34}

However, beyond data scarcity, most current machine learning studies on solid-state hydrogen storage materials rely on features that inadequately represent crystal structures and struggle with structurally complex or non-standard materials.³⁵ Magpie features are based on elemental statistics, lacking information on crystal symmetry and atomic arrangements; one-hot encoding is sparse and contains no structural information; SMILES representations are mainly restricted to organic ligands and are ill-suited for inorganic solids. These limitations hinder them in describing catalyst structures.

To improve the generalization ability and practical applicability of models, feature extraction should be increasingly based on experimental characterization results, as experiments are currently the only means of revealing non-ideal structures and complex behaviors of materials. Among these, X-ray diffraction (XRD) is widely used in material characterization and has been gradually applied to various machine learning tasks in recent years. Oviedo *et al.* developed a physics-informed data-augmentation strategy combined with a fully convolutional neural network, enabling rapid and highly accurate classification of small thin-film X-ray diffraction datasets.³⁶ Lee *et al.* employed a fully convolutional architecture together with large-scale synthetic data augmentation that accounts for peak perturbations, achieving an accuracy of 90.38% in crystal-system classification on real experimental XRD data.³⁷ However, Prior studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of XRD data for materials classification and phase identification,^{38–44} their applications to domain-specific problems remain limited. Compared to high-dimensional and complex characterization techniques such as electron microscopy,⁴⁵ XRD patterns provide more consistent and stable feature representations, while encoding rich information on phase composition, structural characteristics, and certain aspects of processing history. Owing to their concise form yet rich informational content, XRD patterns demonstrate greater applicability and improved modeling efficiency in small-sample learning scenarios.^{46–49} Using XRD patterns as machine learning descriptors addresses the limitation in MgH₂-related studies where other approaches fail to characterize catalysts that cannot

be represented solely by chemical formulas. This strategy expands the feature space from elemental attributes to experimentally derived phase and structural information. Although XRD-based representations are not new, their systematic application in AI-driven MgH₂ research and catalyst studies remains limited.

Driven by the needs of solid-state hydrogen storage research, this study systematically collected literature and extracted over 2000 differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)-measured T_p and ΔT_p as target variables, along with relevant environmental features. These data were incorporated into our parallel database, *Digital Hydrogen-S*. Experimental XRD (EXP XRD) and ICDD XRD data were used as structural descriptors. After spectral matrix standardization, regression models were developed using ensemble methods.^{50,51} In parallel, a convolutional neural network (CNN) regressor was trained for benchmarking, and class-activation-based XRD attribution maps were employed to elucidate the roles of different phases and grain boundaries in catalytic behavior. Subsequently, t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) was applied to select 5000 structurally similar samples from over 100 000 candidates, which were rapidly evaluated using the model. To facilitate broader accessibility, an online interface was provided as a convenient resource for researchers.

2. Database and method

2.1 Framework

All data processing and modeling tasks in this study were completed using Python and its third-party libraries. The extraction of experimental literature data and regression modeling can be performed in a standard computer environment. However, for data processing tasks involving large databases such as ICDD, high-performance computing servers were used, along with multiprocessing and memory optimization strategies, to enable efficient parallel processing and significantly improve data processing speed.

The overall workflow of this study is illustrated in Fig. 1, the workflow begins with literature mining and data extraction from both research publications and large-scale databases. For each material, XRD data are extracted as coordinate pairs of diffraction angle and relative intensity, which are then processed into one-dimensional vectors on a standardized angle grid through a normalization procedure. The aligned XRD data are subjected to dimensionality reduction, and combined with target variables and auxiliary features to form a structured dataset. After dataset compilation and partitioning, machine learning models are trained with iterative hyperparameter tuning. For prediction, a test set derived from ICDD entries is screened for similarity and fed into the ICDD-trained model, with radioactive or invalid samples removed from the final results.

2.2 Dataset construction

Data for regression model development were systematically collected from 420 publications on catalyst-modulated MgH₂

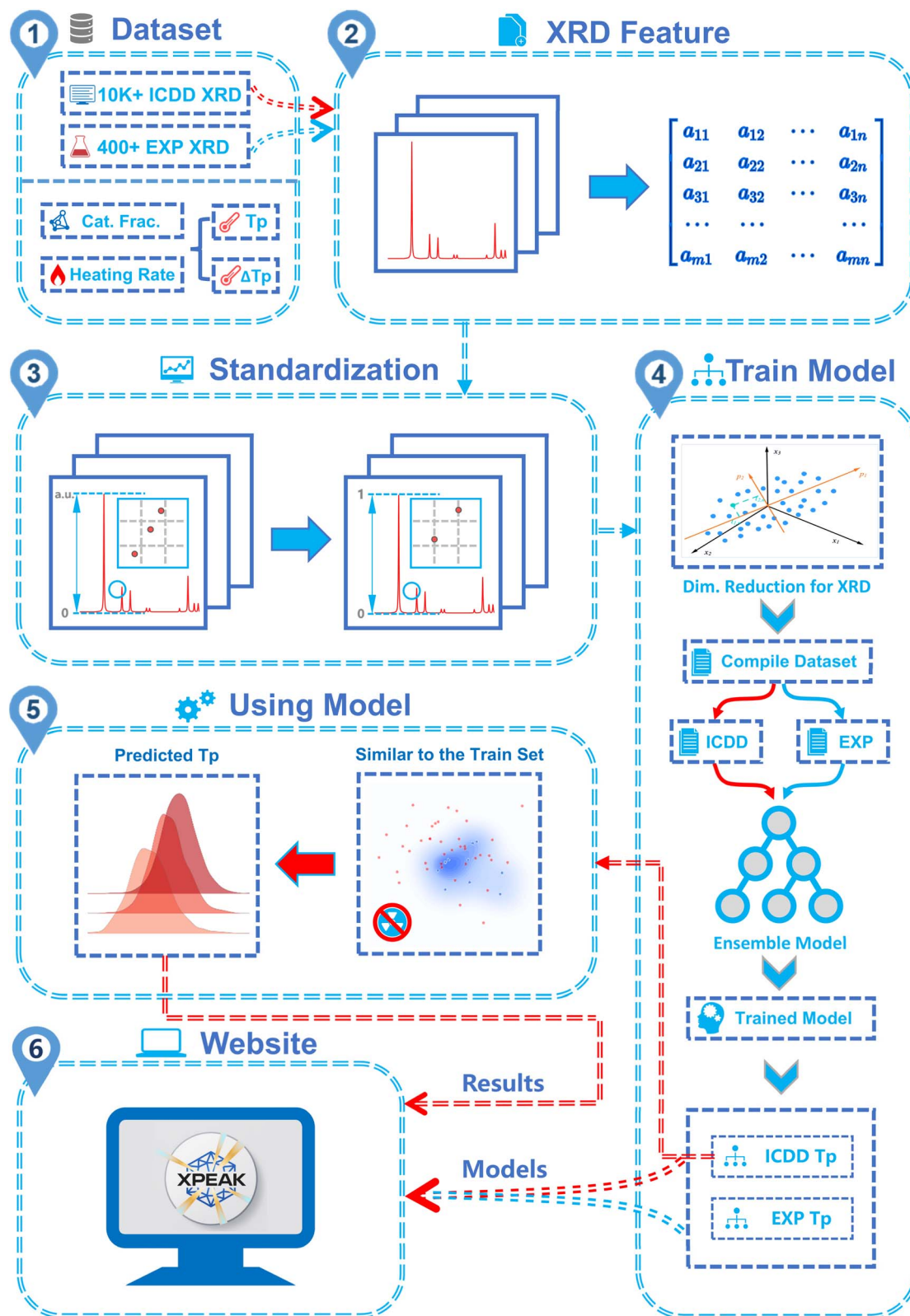


Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of the research workflow, from dataset construction to data processing, model building, and application.

hydrogen storage and release performance spanning the years 2005 to 2024. In total, 2011 DSC-derived samples were compiled, including both T_p and ΔT_p values for 1349 samples,

together with information on heating rate and catalyst dosage. Furthermore, over 100 000 standard reference phase XRD patterns were extracted from the ICDD database, and an

additional 393 experimental catalyst patterns were extracted from the paper and used as structural features for model training and prediction. The *Digital Hydrogen-S* platform is a database website developed in our separate work, the procedures for literature retrieval, screening, data digitization, and integration into the *Digital Hydrogen-S* platform are described in the Method S1.

The dataset includes the title, DOI, journal, and publication year of the corresponding literature for each sample to ensure traceability and facilitate data verification. Due to limitations in current multimodal data-recognition technologies, all T_p and XRD data were manually extracted using WebPlotDigitizer.⁵² XRD patterns were digitized by color-indexed curve recognition and converted into quasi-continuous coordinate pairs.

2.3 Extracting data from the ICDD database

XRD is a technique that utilizes the interaction between X-rays and crystalline materials to form diffraction peaks.⁵³ Its fundamental principle is described by Bragg's law:

$$n\lambda = 2d \sin \theta \quad (1)$$

where n is the diffraction order, typically set to $n = 1$, λ is the X-ray wavelength, d is the interplanar spacing, and θ is the incident angle, which is also half of the diffraction angle.

In this study, the experimental diffraction patterns of materials were batch-extracted from the ICDD database using the PDF4+ software. To achieve structured processing, the extracted data were saved in XML files, with the copper target excitation wavelength (Cu $K\alpha_1$, $\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$) consistently selected. Details of the normalization procedures applied to all datasets are presented in Method S2.

2.4 Construction and utilization of the regression model

After initial Standardization, the XRD spectra were resampled to a common grid, resulting in a 4251-dimensional intensity vector. To reduce the dimensionality of the XRD matrix, kernel principal component analysis (kPCA) and non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) were employed.⁵⁴ Dimensionality reduction techniques were applied with the objective of preserving 95% of the original information. The maximum number of iterations for the NMF algorithm was set to 2000 to ensure convergence. To prevent data leakage, the training and test sets were strictly separated throughout the modeling process.

Due to the limited scale of domain literature data, which makes it difficult to support the training of deep neural networks. Ensemble models, including XGBoost (XGB), LightGBM (LGBM), and Random Forest (RF), were selected to construct the regression models.⁵⁵ All models were trained using a 9 : 1 split between the training and test sets, and 10-fold cross-validation was employed to enhance model robustness and generalization performance.

Using ensemble machine learning algorithms, a black-box model was constructed with the following mapping relationship:

$$T_p = f(W_c, \beta, \text{XRD}) \quad (2)$$

In eqn (2), W_c indicates the catalyst mass fraction, β denotes the heating rate, and XRD corresponds to the reduced feature set derived from the XRD patterns.

To increase the confidence in the prediction results, the t-SNE method was used to select samples in the prediction set that are similar to those in the training set. The remaining samples were input into the best-performing ICDD XRD model for prediction.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Database analysis

To provide an overview of the current status of dehydrogenation kinetics and catalyst research, we constructed visual statistical charts based on the dataset. As shown in Fig. S1, the manually extracted T_p and XRD data demonstrate acceptable error ranges, thereby providing a reliable basis for subsequent analysis. It is worth noting that during the extraction of T_p , the smoothness of the exothermic peak slightly influences the human judgment of peak positions, while the thickness of XRD spectral lines moderately affects the precision of data extraction by the software. As shown in Fig. 2(a), the KDE (Kernel Density Estimate) curves of dehydrogenation T_p and ΔT_p both exhibit an approximately normal distribution trend. The box plot further indicates that in approximately 50% of the experimental samples, the T_p is concentrated between 275.81 °C and 359.59 °C, while half of the catalysts reduced the dehydrogenation temperature by 33.98 °C to 94.00 °C.

The database includes 695 materials used to catalyze the dehydrogenation of MgH_2 . These catalysts are broadly classified into transition metals, alloys, oxides, inorganic salts, nitrides and halides, carbon materials, and carbon-supported types. As shown in Fig. 2(b), current research mainly focuses on transition metals and supported catalysts. The former offer high catalytic activity due to their partially filled d orbitals, while the latter improve stability and dispersion through large surface areas and anchoring sites, reducing agglomeration and enhancing kinetics *via* confinement effects. As shown in Fig. 2(c) and S2, Ni, Fe, Ti, and carbon-based supports are the most commonly used catalysts,^{56–58} Ti-based and V-based catalysts exhibit low median T_p values and narrow, positively shifted ΔT_p distributions,⁵⁹ consistent with their good mutual solubility with Mg, which facilitates the formation of Mg–Ti/V solid solutions or Mg–Ti–H phases at surfaces or grain boundaries.⁶⁰ These intrinsic effects are relatively insensitive to microstructural variations, leading to concentrated performance outcomes. Fe-based, Co-based catalysts show much broader ΔT_p ranges, as their activity depends on H_2 dissociation and spillover on surface nanoparticles, which are highly sensitive to particle size, dispersion, and surface chemistry.^{61,62} Carbon-supported catalysts display the most favorable overall characteristics, with T_p concentrated in the low-temperature region and ΔT_p distributions that are narrow with high medians, reflecting stable enhancements from dispersion and interfacial synergy. Despite extensive studies on transition metals, their

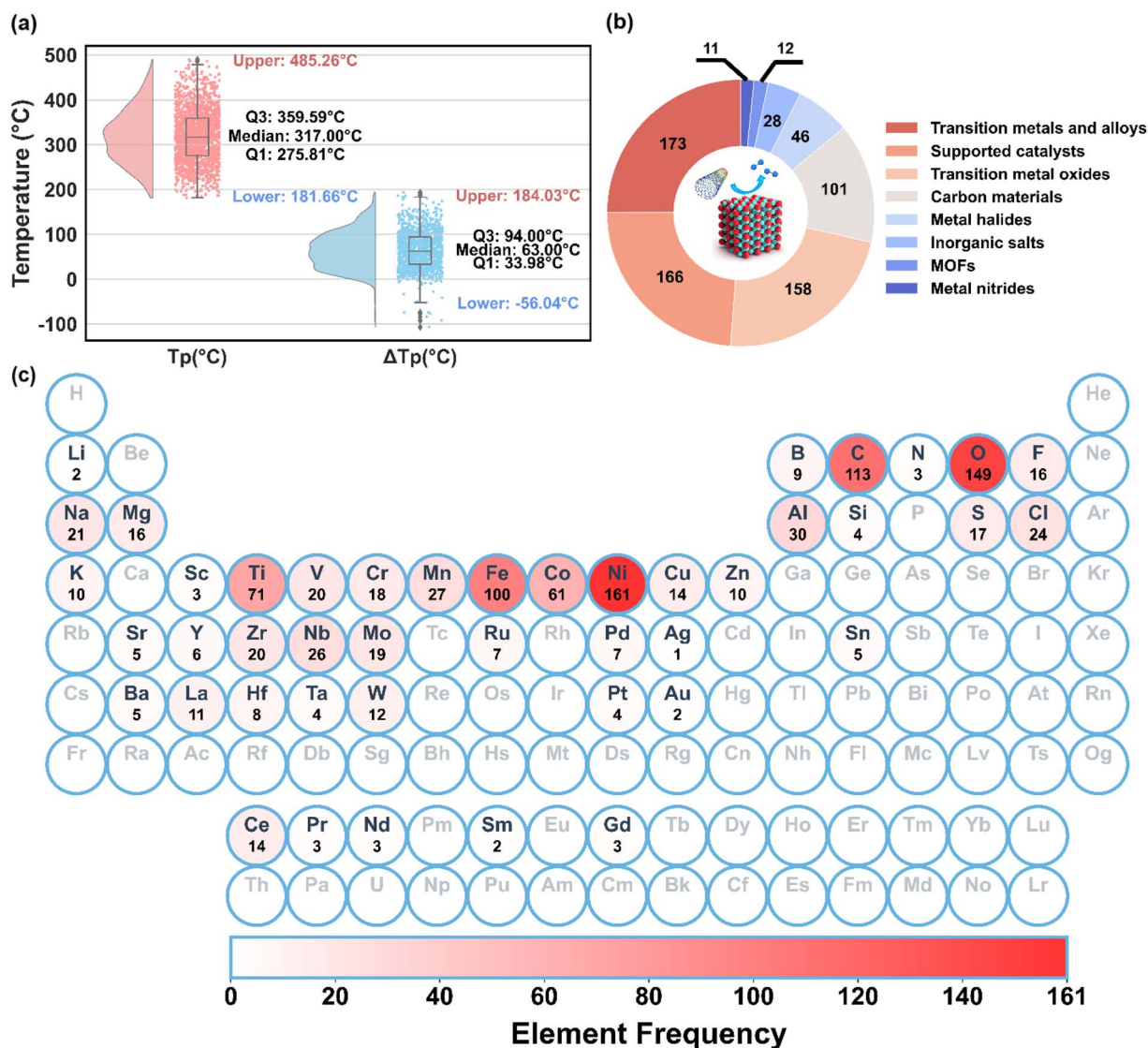


Fig. 2 Analysis of the database extracted from the literature. (a) Cloud plot showing the dehydrogenation T_p (red) and ΔT_p (blue) of MgH_2 after catalyst addition, illustrating the distribution of the two types of data. (b) Analysis of the material research in the database, with the numbers in the pie chart representing the frequency of occurrence of each type of catalyst. (c) Analysis of the elements contained in the catalysts studied in the database, with the numbers under the element symbols indicating the frequency of occurrence for each element.

highly scattered performance distributions indicate significant uncertainty in composition tuning for alloy-type catalyst systems.^{63–66}

As shown in Fig. S3, joint dimensionality reduction and clustering analysis of selected catalyst XRD patterns from the database reveals a certain similarity between the clusters generated by unsupervised learning and manually defined material categories. This suggests that XRD data inherently contain sufficient structural information to distinguish intrinsic differences among materials, even in data-scarce scenarios. Meanwhile, the relatively dispersed distribution of supported catalysts indicates potential limitations of current machine learning models in effectively capturing and interpreting the complex features of supported catalyst systems.

3.2 Preprocessing results

The data structure of the XRD patterns still does not fully meet the consistency requirements for input features in machine learning models. In particular, because XRD spectra are continuous variables, the sampling points vary across different data sources. Therefore, interpolation algorithms were applied to re-sample the spectra at equal intervals.

To optimize the interpolation strategy for XRD data, this study evaluated combinations of linear, quadratic, and cubic interpolation methods with varying step sizes on the training dataset, using the global MAE between the interpolated and original spectra as the evaluation metric. As shown in Fig. 3(a) and Table S1, all three interpolation methods applied to standardized ICDD XRD patterns yielded near-zero MAE when the step size was below 0.02° . As shown in Fig. 3(d), for the

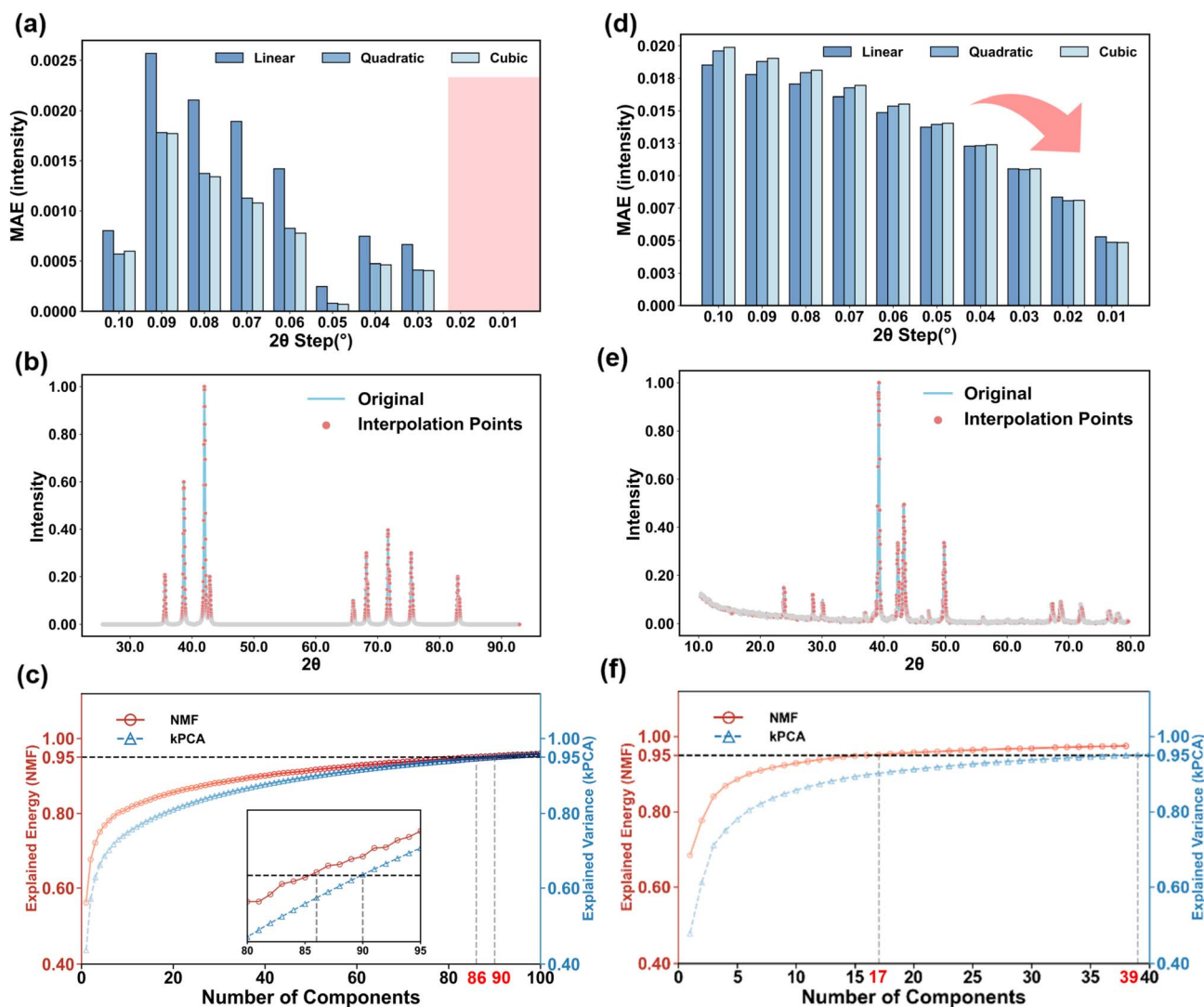


Fig. 3 Results and analysis of XRD normalization and dimensionality reduction. Subfigures (a–c) correspond to ICDD XRD data, while (d–f) pertain to EXP XRD data. Subfigures in the same row represent the same type of analysis: (a and d) Mean reconstruction error of interpolated relative intensities using linear, quadratic, and cubic interpolation methods at varying step sizes; (b and e) visualization of interpolation results for randomly selected samples, where the original spectrum is shown as a light blue line and the interpolated data points are plotted in light red for clearer comparison; (c and f) trends of explained energy for NMF (red) and explained variance for kPCA (blue) as a function of the number of components.

normalization of EXP XRD patterns, the MAE decreased consistently with smaller step sizes across all methods. As shown in Fig. S4, the XRD signals of the training samples are predominantly distributed within $2\theta = 5^\circ$ – 90° , consistent with established knowledge.

To further validate the structural fidelity of interpolated patterns, Fig. 3(b and e) visualizes linear interpolation results for a randomly selected sample after normalization. The interpolated spectrum retains the main peak positions, shapes, and relative intensities of the original, with no observable peak shifting or artificial peak generation. For consistency, the prediction set of ICDD XRD was processed using the same interpolation method and step size, and representative examples are shown in Fig. S5. As shown in Fig. S6, a KNN imputation combined with a weighted loss function was tested to fill

missing boundary points; although it improved local smoothness, it introduced spurious peaks and error accumulation, thereby reducing the physical interpretability of the data.

To mitigate the curse of dimensionality, we performed dimensionality reduction on the XRD feature matrices before model training.⁶⁷ As shown in Fig. 5(c and f), NMF reduced the dimensionality of the ICDD XRD data to 86 and that of the EXP XRD data to 17. In comparison, kPCA reduced the dimensionality to 90 for ICDD XRD and 39 for EXP XRD.

As shown in Table 1, dimensionality reduction markedly improves the statistical robustness of the models, with the sample-to-feature ratio (N/P) increasing from below 0.32 in the raw ICDD and EXP XRD data to values exceeding 10 for all NMF and kPCA configurations. This substantial enhancement in N/P

Table 1 Sample-to-feature ratio (N/P ratio) analysis before and after dimensionality reduction

Method	Dimensionality processing	ICDD		EXP	
		T_p (°C)	ΔT_p (°C)	T_p (°C)	ΔT_p (°C)
NMF	Before dimensionality reduction	0.32	0.22	0.17	0.12
	After dimensionality reduction	15.38	10.82	71.21	50.16
KPCA	Before dimensionality reduction	0.32	0.22	0.17	0.12
	After dimensionality reduction	14.71	10.35	33	23.24

effectively mitigates overfitting risk and provides a more stable foundation for ensemble regression modeling.

As shown in Fig. 4 and S7–S11, the low Pearson correlation coefficients between features and the absence of well-fitted regression lines in the scatter plots indicate minimal linear dependencies among features. The environmental variables are largely independent of the structural features, effectively

mitigating multicollinearity issues. As shown in Fig. 4(a and b) and S9, aside from a weak linear correlation between heating rate and T_p , no clear linear relationships are observed between T_p and other features. Fig. S10 and S11 further indicate that ΔT_p shows no linear correlation with any feature. Therefore, tree-based regression models are well-suited for this task, as they

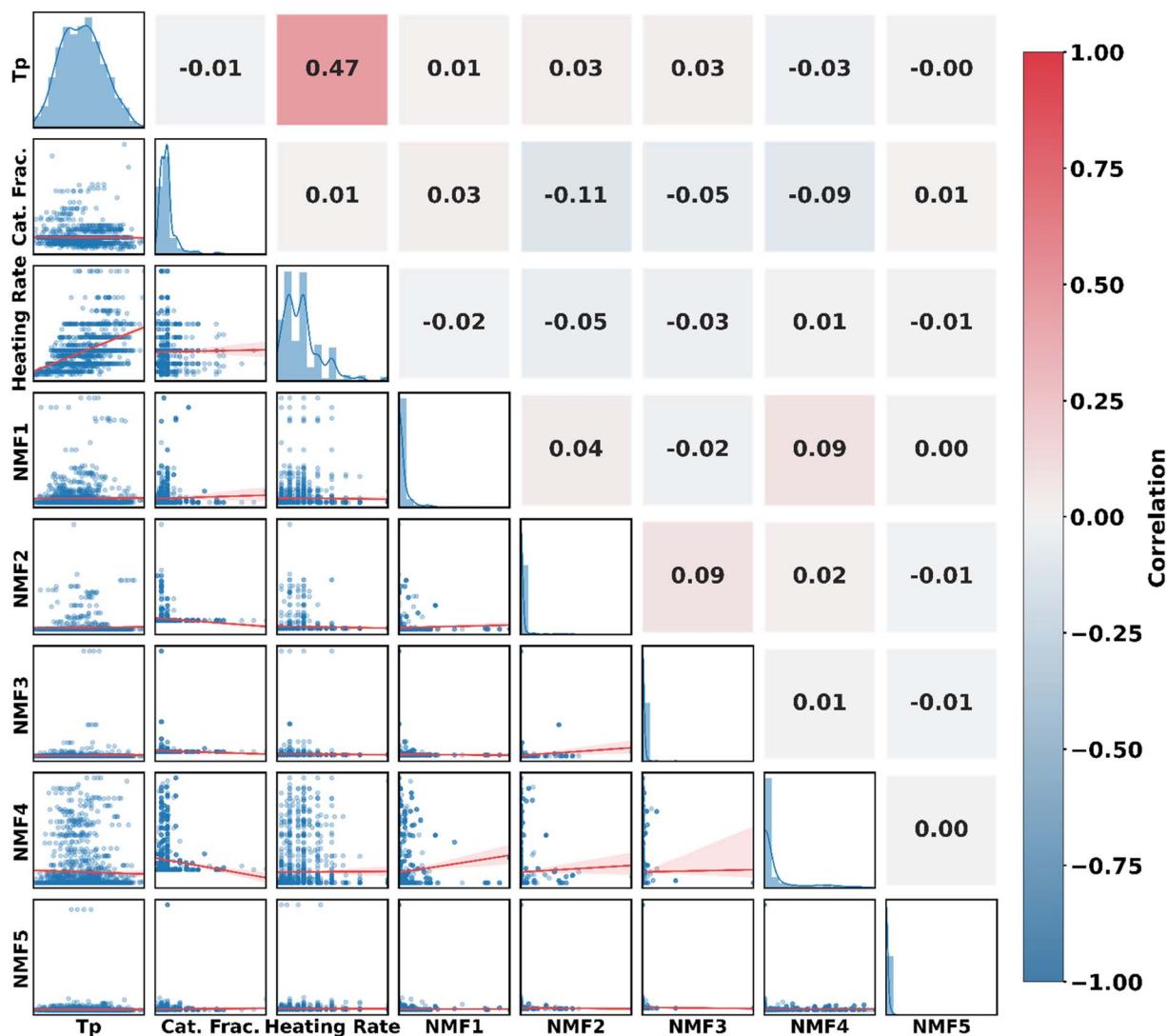


Fig. 4 Relationships among local NMF features, environmental variables, and the T_p . Correspond to ICDD XRD data. Variables are ordered as follows from top to bottom on the left and left to right along the bottom: T_p , Cat. Frac., Heating Rate, NMF1, NMF2, NMF3, NMF4, NMF5. Each panel includes marginal distribution histograms on the diagonal, pairwise scatter plots with linear regression fits in the lower triangle, and a Pearson correlation heatmap in the upper triangle.

naturally capture feature interactions and uncover nonlinear relationships between the target variables and predictors.

3.3 Machine learning model construction and analysis

To systematically evaluate the performance of different machine learning models in predicting T_p and ΔT_p , this study constructed six models for each target variable using two dimensionality reduction strategies and three ensemble regression algorithms. In addition, a 1D-CNN model was trained for direct comparison with the ensemble models.

As shown in Table S3, most ensemble models trained using ICDD XRD features performed well on the training set for the T_p prediction task, but their generalization ability varied on the test set and in cross-validation. Considering the metrics in Table S3 and the visualizations in Fig. 5(a and b), the NMF + LGBM model demonstrated the best overall performance, achieving a test $R^2 = 0.848$, and MAE = 12.74 °C. It also maintained stable results in ten-fold cross-validation, with an average $R^2 = 0.822$. The residual distribution shown in Fig. 5(b) further confirms that the errors are relatively small and well-concentrated, with only a few outliers and a slight left skew. As shown in Table S3 and Fig. S13(a1 and a2), the ΔT_p prediction models trained on ICDD XRD data exhibit slightly weaker generalization performance.

Based on the metrics presented in Table S4, ensemble models trained on EXP XRD generally exhibit superior performance. As shown in Table S4 and Fig. 5(c and d), the kPCA +

XGB model achieves the best performance in T_p prediction, with an $R^2 = 0.88$ and MAE = 9.94 °C on the test set. It also reaches $R^2 = 0.88$ in ten-fold cross-validation. The residuals show a relatively small standard deviation and a skewness of 0.80, indicating minimal systematic bias. As shown in Table S4 and Fig. S15(e1 and e2), the kPCA + LGBM model performs best in ΔT_p prediction, with a test $R^2 = 0.885$, RMSE = 11.80 °C, and MAE = 7.74 °C. Both ΔT_p and T_p prediction tasks demonstrate a higher level of generalization compared to models based on ICDD XRD.

Compared to ensemble models trained on ICDD XRD data (Table S3 and Fig. 5(a and b), S12–S13), models trained on EXP XRD data (Table S4 and Fig. 5(c and d), S14–S15) demonstrate superior predictive performance despite using fewer samples. This advantage stems from the more comprehensive retention of the intrinsic three-dimensional features of the catalyst in the experimental data: surface geometry and electronic environment capturing lattice stress, strain, solid solution formation, and crystal plane exposure; bulk structure involving grain size, defects, phase transformations, and amorphous/crystalline ratio; and the real material state reflecting microstructural changes induced by preparation and treatment. However, the lack of large, publicly available experimental databases still limits their broader application in high-throughput scenarios.

Ding *et al.* reported model performance test set $R^2 = 0.834$ on the test set. Our model achieves slightly higher predictive accuracy.⁶⁸ We argue that the effectiveness of XRD patterns as

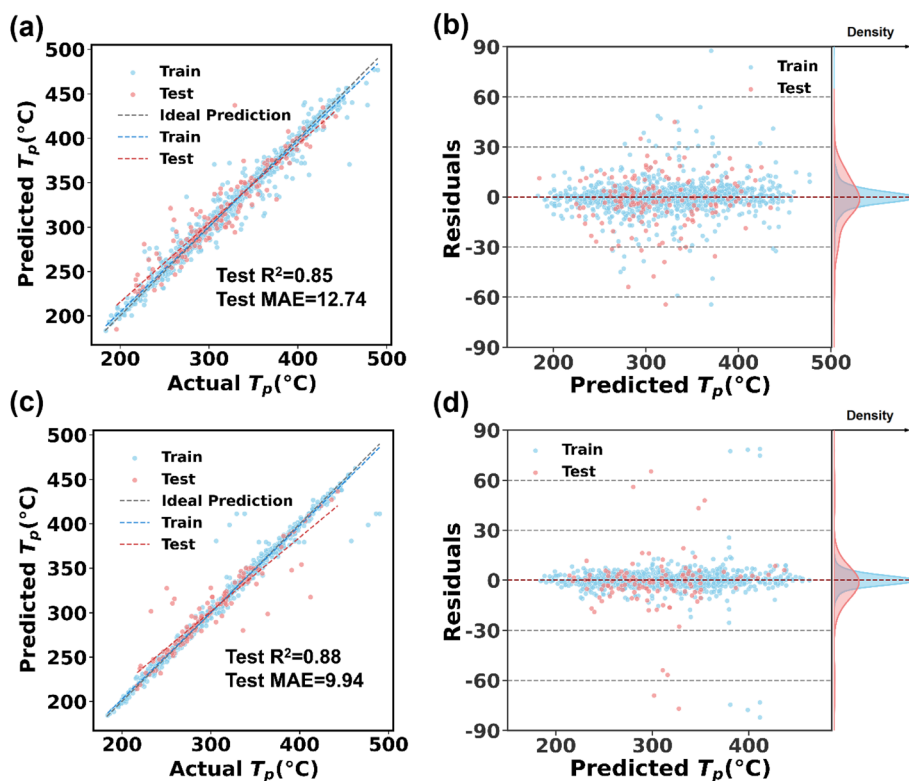


Fig. 5 Performance of the optimal ensemble models for predicting T_p based on ICDD XRD and EXP XRD data. (a) and (b) show the scatter plot and residual distribution with KDE for the model trained with NMF + LGBM to predict T_p with ICDD XRD input data. (c) and (d) show the scatter plot and residual distribution with KDE for the model trained with kPCA + XGB to predict T_p with EXP XRD input data.

input features lies in their ability to encode not only crystal structure and phase information, but also to directly reflect parameters such as lattice constants, phase composition, grain size, crystalline defects, and microstrain through the position, intensity, and shape of diffraction peaks. While idealized structural descriptors or purely atomic graph representations excel at capturing periodic crystal structures and are suitable for predicting intrinsic properties of ideal crystals such as band gaps, XRD inherently incorporates parameters closely related to catalytic performance, such as grain size and lattice defects.⁶⁹ This makes XRD features more appropriate for predicting experimentally relevant macroscopic properties like catalytic activity. In addition, to benchmark against conventional feature engineering, we extracted Materials Project descriptors *via* the MP API. As summarized in Table S5, the resulting models reached only $\sim 0.7 R^2$ on the training set, substantially lower than those trained on XRD-derived features.

As shown in Table S6, the CNN regression models achieve train set $R^2 = \sim 0.8$ and test set $R^2 = 0.7-0.8$, with generally higher MAE, performing inferior to ensemble tree models. This performance gap arises because neural networks require substantially larger datasets for stable parameter optimization, whereas tree-based models remain effective even under limited sample sizes.

As shown in Table S7, we performed an ablation study by removing all XRD features and retraining the models. The

substantial drop in predictive accuracy confirms the critical contribution of XRD-derived information to model performance.

3.4 Feature analysis

Feature importance analysis serves as a key step in understanding the driving factors behind model predictions. By uncovering trends in these latent mechanisms, it provides insights that can inform and guide experimental design. Leveraging a unified theoretical framework, SHAP quantifies the marginal contribution of each feature while accounting for feature interactions; Class activation maps derived from CNN enable visualization of the critical input regions that the model attends to during prediction.

As shown in Fig. 6(a and b), S16, S18(a1-f1), and S22(a1-f1), SHAP analyses indicate that lower heating rates cause the blue data clusters to shift leftward, reducing the predicted values, whereas higher rates drive the red clusters rightward, increasing the predictions. When the heating rate is below $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$, the SHAP values increase nearly linearly with the rate, consistent with the behavior described by the Kissinger equation.⁷⁰⁻⁷⁴ Once the rate exceeds $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$, the slope decreases markedly, indicating that heat-transfer delays begin to significantly influence the reaction.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁸ The model results align with experimental observations, and the heating rate emerges as a highly influential factor in T_p prediction,

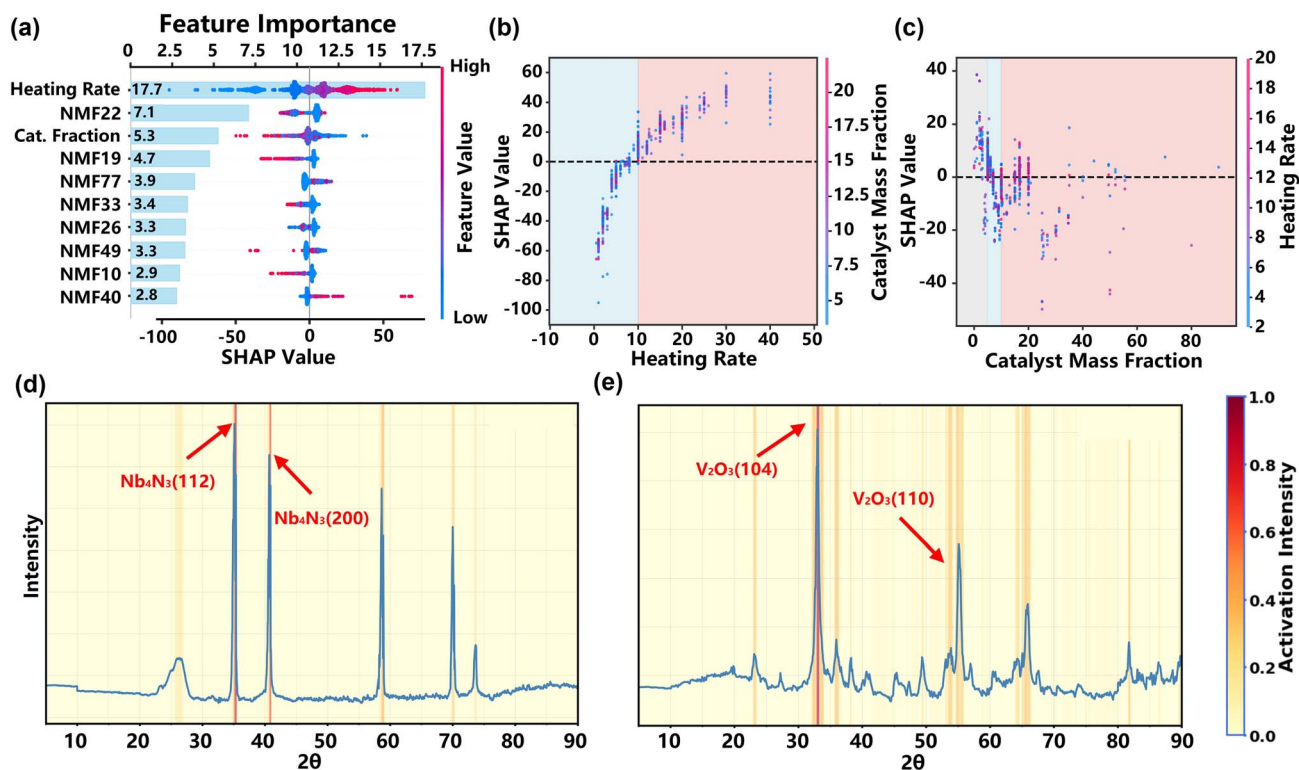


Fig. 6 SHAP-based feature interpretation of the ensemble models: (a) top 10 features ranked by global importance, where bar plots indicate global importance and the adjacent scatter plots show the distribution of SHAP values across samples. (b) Univariate SHAP dependence plot showing how SHAP values vary with heating rate; point colors represent catalyst mass fraction. (c) Univariate SHAP dependence plot showing how SHAP values vary with catalyst mass fraction; point colors represent heating rate. CNN-based class activation map (CAM) interpretation of XRD fingerprint features: (d) Nb_4N_3 ; (e) V_2O_3 .

highlighting the need for more systematic control and standardization in experimental measurements.

As shown in Fig. 6(c), S18(a2-f2), S19(a2-f2), S22(a2-f2), and S23(a2-f2), the overall SHAP trends indicate that low catalyst loadings produce only limited reductions in T_p , likely due to insufficient catalyst dispersion or incomplete interface formation.^{79–82} As the loading increases, the SHAP values remain negative but begin to rise, suggesting diminishing catalytic returns, which may result from catalyst agglomeration, excessive surface coverage, or obstructed diffusion pathways.^{83–88}

Inspired by Szymanski *et al.*,⁴⁰ we have employed class activation maps derived from the CNN to propose exploratory mechanistic interpretations. As shown in Fig. 6(d), the model identifies the (200) and (112) facets of the Nb_4N_3 phase as the structural descriptors governing the catalytic dehydrogenation performance of MgH_2 . These specific facets provide optimal interfacial atomic arrangements that support the multivalent $\text{Nb}^{3+}/\text{Nb}^{5+}$ “electronic pump” mechanism, thereby facilitating

efficient electron transfer. Their structurally stable crystal configuration may further ensure durable catalytic activity, consistent with the experimental findings reported by Zhang *et al.*⁸⁹ As shown in Fig. 6(e), the diffraction angles corresponding to high-index facets such as (104) and (110) exhibit pronounced activation intensities. In addition, the broadened peak regions display noticeable activation signals, consistent with the 8 nm V_2O_3 nanoparticles and their high specific surface area of $209 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ observed by Wang *et al.*⁹⁰ Via TEM. This agreement suggests that the machine-learning model may capture the nanoscale effects associated with increased active-site density and optimized surface defects.

Across multiple class-activation maps, the XRD peaks with the highest diffraction intensity consistently align with the most prominent activation regions, implying that the dominant crystal facets of the catalyst play a central role in governing the reaction. These highly ordered surfaces provide stable and efficient pathways for charge transfer and define the primary

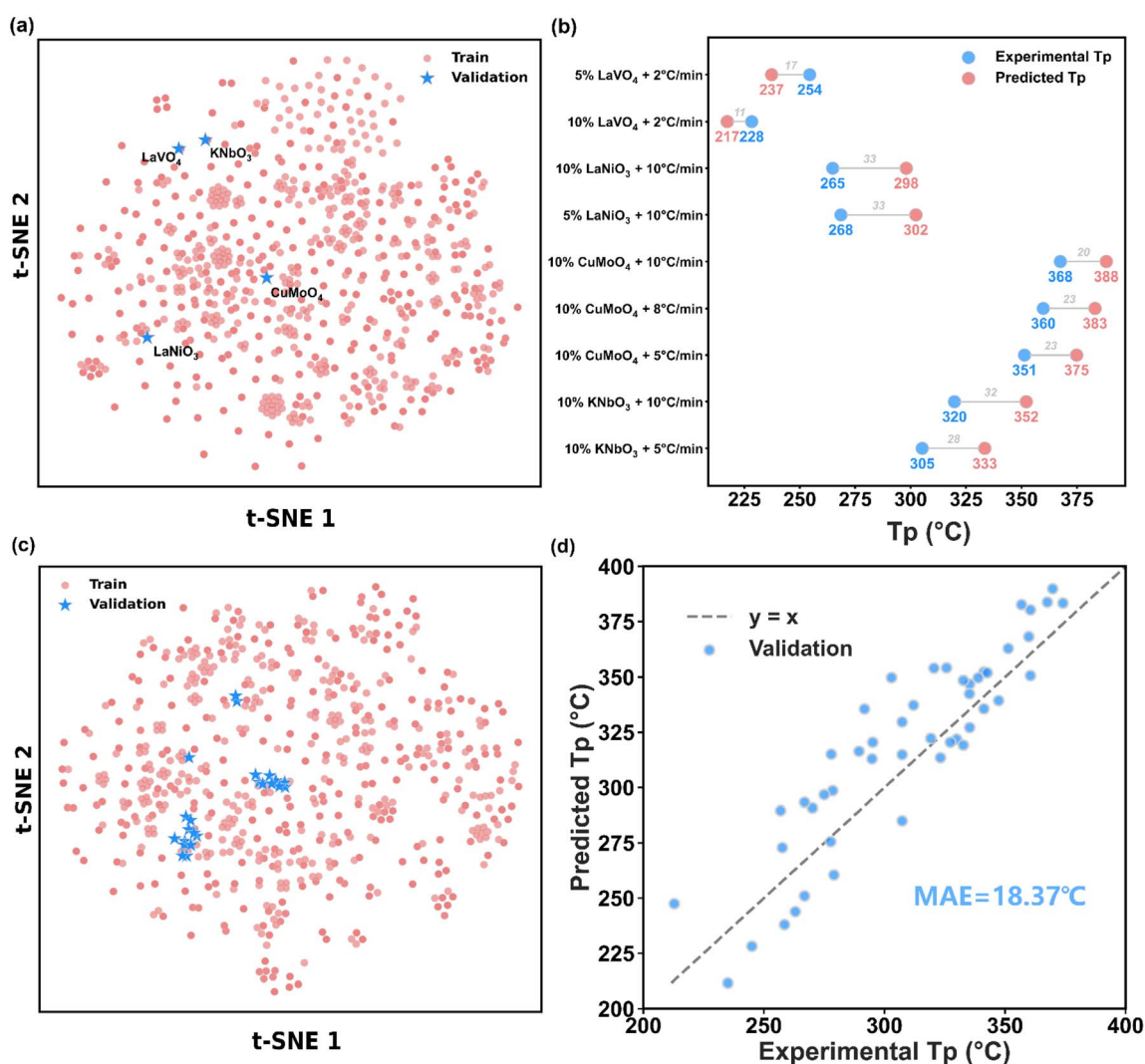


Fig. 7 t-SNE sample similarity analysis and validation of prediction results. (a) Distribution analysis of the shared samples between the newly reported 2025 experiments and the prediction set, alongside the training set samples. (b) Comparison of high-throughput T_p predictions from the optimal ICDD XRD-based model with new experimental results. (c) Distribution analysis of newly tested samples versus training set samples. (d) Validation of EXP XRD model predictions against new experimental truths.

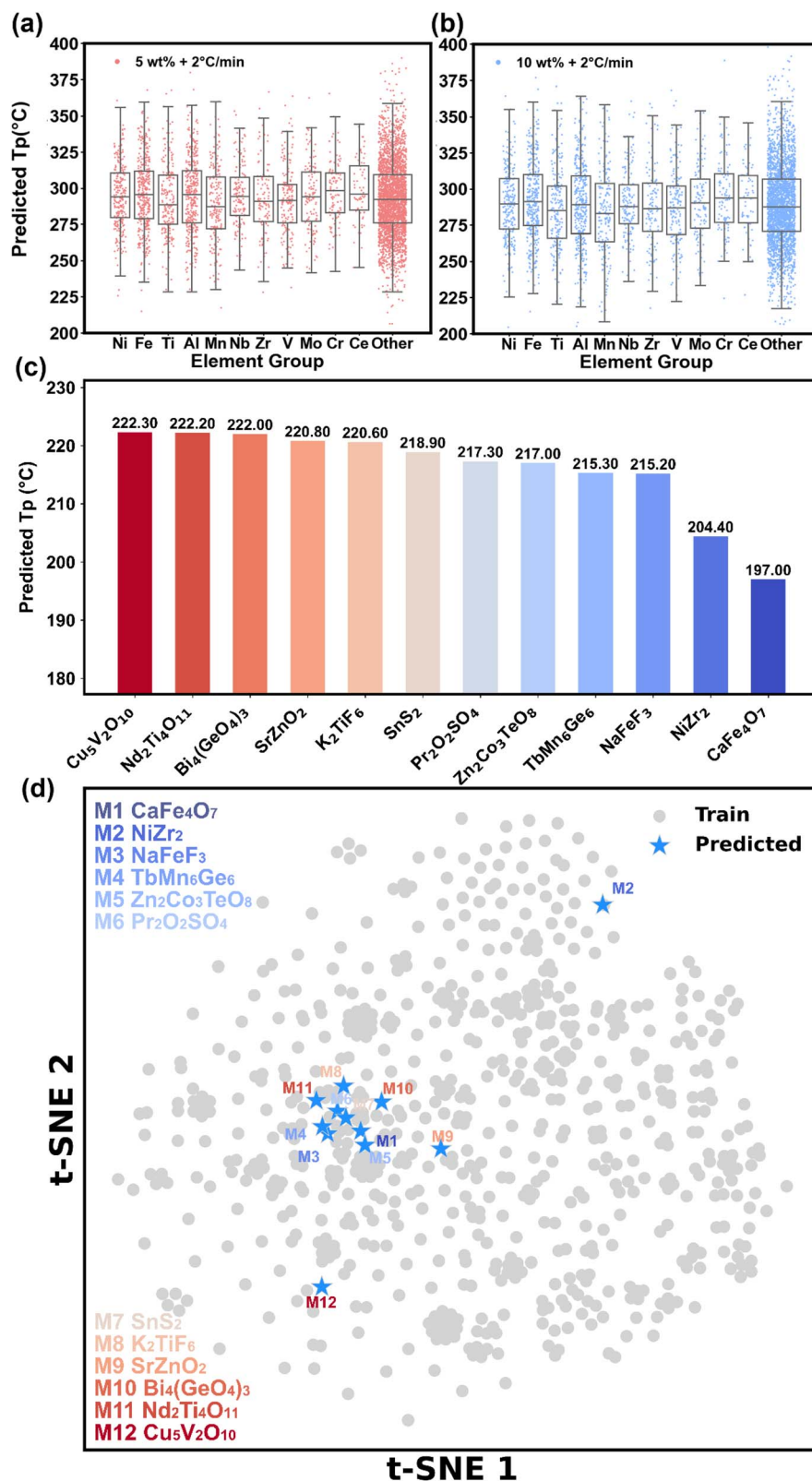


Fig. 8 Predicted performance of 5000 catalyst materials heated at 2°C min^{-1} under (a) 5 wt% and (b) 10 wt% loadings. Y-axis elements are common catalyst components; box plots with overlaid scatter points represent materials containing each element. (c) Dehydrogenation temperatures of the promising catalysts identified through high-throughput screening at a heating rate of 2°C min^{-1} (bar color is for visual distinction only). (d) t-SNE visualization of the distribution of promising catalysts in the prediction set compared with those in the training set.

low-energy channels for Mg–H bond activation. Meanwhile, the secondary activation signals associated with broadened diffraction peaks indicate that nanoscale effects and crystal defects are likewise essential. Defect structures and low-coordination sites can increase the density of local active sites, introduce strain fields, and modulate surface electronic states, thereby enhancing adsorption and bond rearrangement processes and further lowering local reaction barriers. Collectively, the principal crystal facets may establish the fundamental reaction pathways, whereas controllable defects and nanoscale features contribute additional local strengthening effects. These complementary mechanisms operate at different structural levels to jointly promote the dehydrogenation of MgH_2 .

3.5 Model utilization

To enable the application of the EXP XRD model, we simulated experimental factors such as grain refinement, preferred orientation, and thermal diffuse scattering on the ICDD XRD spectra. However, as shown in Fig. S24(a), as described in Method S4, the simulated ICDD samples and the experimental samples extracted from literature form two clearly separated clusters, with one being significantly larger than the other. This separation indicates a systematic difference in data patterns between the two sources. The result suggests that current simulation methods in this field are still inadequate for making the prediction set compatible with the EXP XRD model. In contrast, when both the training and prediction sets are

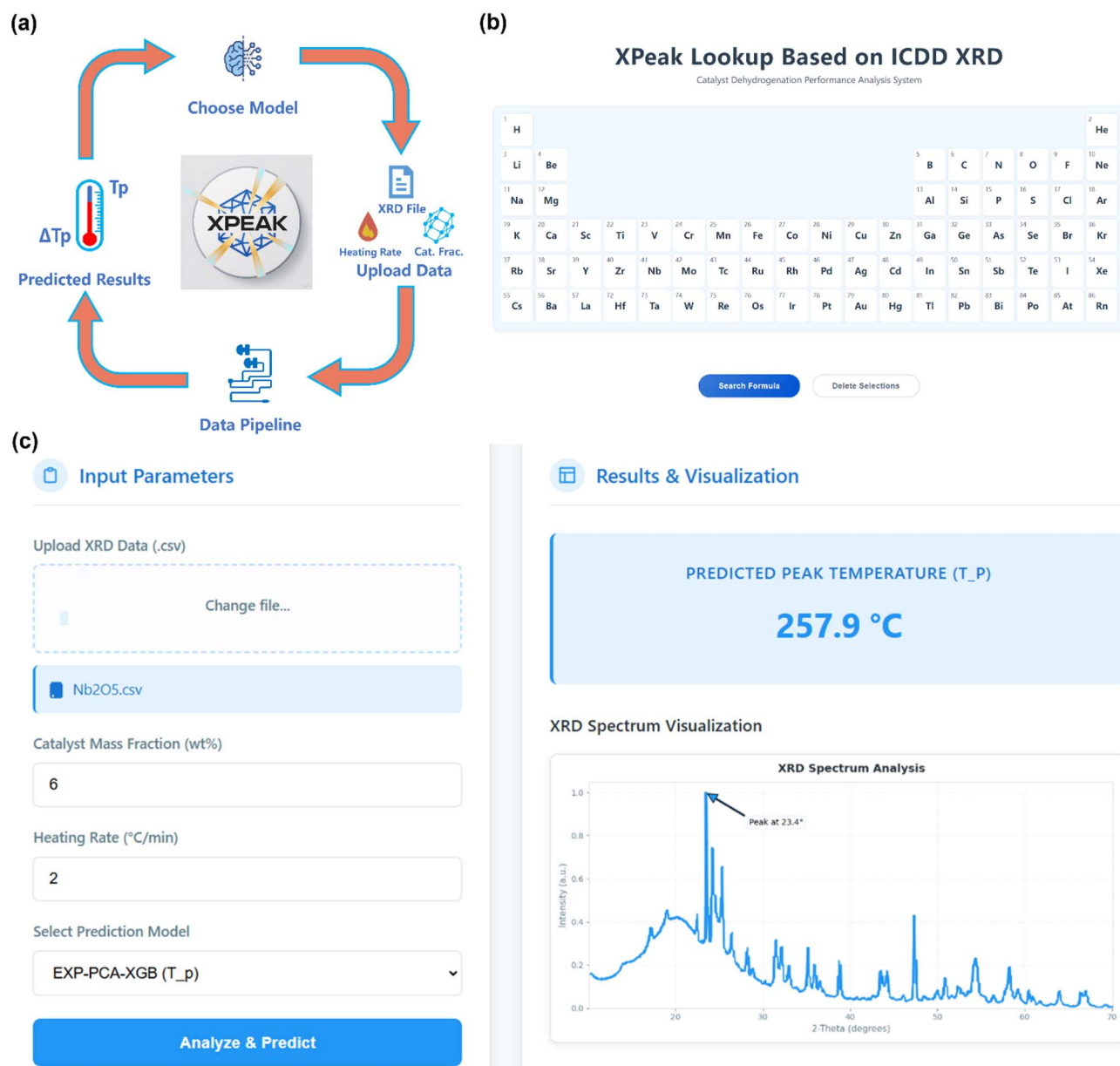


Fig. 9 Schematic diagram of the XPEAK model website. (a) Workflow diagram. (b) High-throughput prediction results query website. (c) Machine learning model website.

constructed using ICDD-derived XRD data, their distributions, as illustrated in Fig. S24(b), tend to be more similar.

t-SNE was employed to identify samples in the high-dimensional space that exhibit structural similarity to the training set. A total of 5000 candidate materials with XRD patterns closely resembling those of the training samples were selected. Model inference was conducted on a 128-core workstation, and all predictions and output processing were completed within 3 minutes.

To provide a more intuitive validation of the high-throughput prediction results, we compared the predictions with data reported in newly published literature from 2025. As shown in Fig. 7(a and b), four catalysts including KNbO_3 ,⁹¹ CuMoO_4 ,⁹² LaNiO_3 (ref. 93) and LaVO_4 (ref. 94) were identified in both the newly published literature and the prediction set. In Fig. 7(a and c), these catalysts exhibit nearly the same distribution as the training set, while in Fig. 7(b), their prediction errors range from 11 to 33 °C. Fig. 7(d) indicates that the model demonstrates acceptable performance on the newly reported literature data, with detailed comparative data provided in Table S8.

As shown in Fig. 8(a and b) and S25, the Ti and Mn groups exhibit significantly lower medians and interquartile ranges compared to other element groups. To further clarify the promising catalysts identified through high-throughput screening, Fig. 8(c) shows their corresponding T_p values at 2 °C min⁻¹, with detailed experimental conditions provided in Table S9. As shown in Fig. 8(d), these promising catalysts exhibit strong similarity in feature-space distribution to the training set, suggesting that their prediction errors are likely to be small.

To facilitate user accessibility, as illustrated in Fig. 9, we designated the optimal combination of prediction models as XPEAK, which has been deployed on the Cat-MH platform and is accessible at <http://cat-mh.top>. Specifically, Fig. 9(a) presents the input data processing pipeline, developed in strict accordance with the preprocessing procedures described earlier. Fig. 9(b) illustrates the element-indexed query website, which allows readers to conveniently explore the outcomes of our high-throughput predictions, this functional module can be directly accessed at <http://cat-mh.top/lookup>. Fig. 9(c) shows the T_p and ΔT_p prediction model platform, including a representative case study of applying the EXP XRD model,⁹⁵ this module is available at <http://cat-mh.top/predict>.

4. Conclusion

In this study, we developed the first machine learning model for predicting the T_p and ΔT_p in MgH_2 -based systems. This model was trained on experimental data compiled from over 400 published studies, addressing a critical gap in the prediction of key performance metrics within the solid-state hydrogen storage field. By integrating catalyst dosage, heating rate, and XRD structural features, particularly those reduced *via* NMF and kPCA, we demonstrated the feasibility and accuracy of using tree-based models for performance prediction. SHAP-based analysis and CNN class activation inference revealed that XRD-derived structural components play a dominant role. Furthermore, a high-throughput screening workflow was

established using ICDD XRD data, enabling efficient performance prediction for 5000 candidate materials. An online platform (<http://cat-mh.top>) was developed based on the optimal predictive model to facilitate community-wide catalyst sharing.

This work not only provides a structured and experimentally grounded database for MgH_2 catalyst design, but also expands the application of XRD fingerprints in data-driven materials and catalysts research. Based on the intrinsic properties of catalysts, we consider catalyst-related descriptors to be an effective and general-purpose feature in materials machine learning. Since crystallographic fingerprints encode information on phase composition, crystallinity, microstrain, defects, and grain size, XRD-based models can be applied to predict hydrogen sorption kinetics, activation energy, cycling stability, and catalyst-induced structural evolution. Existing regression models in the solid-state hydrogen storage field remain fundamentally limited by insufficient training samples and challenges in data collection. Machine learning in this domain is still emerging. Building upon this work, future research could integrate more comprehensive datasets, develop models better suited for small-sample scenarios, incorporate additional experimental characterization modalities as features, and construct frameworks capable of interpreting experimental data. This will further deepen the application of CAM-assisted XRD in revealing mechanisms, thereby enhancing model interpretability and enabling interpretable optimization of materials in downstream applications.

Author contributions

Weijie Yang: conceptualization, resources, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, writing – review & editing. Zhuoran Xu: conceptualization, data curation, software, formal analysis, visualization, writing – original draft. Jiongyang Li: software, validation. Leping Zhang: software, visualization. Man Shu: investigation, resources. Jianghao Cai: investigation, data Curation. Tongao Yao: resources, project administration. Xiaotian Tang: validation, visualization. Yuxuan Liu: funding acquisition, supervision. Shiwen Luo: funding acquisition, supervision. Xuqiang Shao: supervision. Wenjing Wang: supervision. Zhengyang Gao: resources.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Data availability

All data can be obtained from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. The experimental data extracted from published literature are available through the *Digital Hydrogen-S Platform* (<http://digital-hydrogen.com/storage/index-white.html>). The XRD data obtained from the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD) are subject to data-use agreements and can be accessed upon formal request to the ICDD. The code and the dimensionality-reduced dataset for

training and testing used in this study can be accessed at <https://github.com/Weijie-Yang/XPEAK>.

Supplementary information (SI) is available. See DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1039/d5ta08221h>.

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