

Fast Inverse Design of Microstructures via Generative Invariance Networks

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ABSTRACT

The problem of efficient design of material microstructures exhibiting desired properties spans a variety of engineering and science applications. An ability to rapidly generate microstructures that exhibit user-specified property distributions transforms the iterative process of traditional microstructure-sensitive design. We reformulate the microstructure design process as a *constrained* Generative Adversarial Network (GAN). This approach explicitly encodes invariance constraints within a GAN to generate two-phase morphologies for photovoltaic applications obeying design specifications: specifically, various short circuit current density and fill-factor combinations. Such invariance constraints can be represented by deep learning-based surrogates of full physics models mapping microstructure to photovoltaic properties. To circumvent data generation bottlenecks, we utilize a multi-fidelity surrogate that reduces the requirements of expensive labels by 5X. Our approach enables fast generation of microstructures (in ≈ 190 ms) with user-defined properties. Such physics-aware data-driven methods for inverse design problems are expected to democratize and accelerate the field of microstructure-sensitive design.

1 Introduction

Advances in manufacturing (additive manufacturing, 3D printing, layer-by-layer deposition, real time control) allow us to precisely tailor the spatial distribution (i.e. microstructure) of materials. This opens up the possibility of microstructure-sensitive design, which involves identification of optimal material configurations that produce a desired property. Microstructure-sensitive design can impact a diverse array of applications ranging from membranes design to enhance water reclamation, battery electrode design to improve energy transport, and organic electronics active layer design to improve energy harvesting or sensing^{1,2}. The systematic creation of *fast methods* for microstructure-sensitive design is, however, a challenging problem, usually due to the complexity of the ‘forward model’ that maps the microstructure to property. The availability of a fast inverse design framework will transform the field of microstructure-sensitive design, and significantly impact how we harvest, store and distribute energy and mass.

Over the past decade, a wide variety of approaches have been explored for solving the inverse microstructure design problem³⁻⁵. Traditionally, iterative optimization approaches have been the most popular strategy to search for microstructures that yield desirable characteristics. These approaches are typically time-consuming, computationally expensive, and often require manual supervision by domain experts. Furthermore, such approaches often lack the ability to generalize to new design constraints and require repeated exploration of the design space for each new design constraint or user choice. More generally, optimization based approaches are susceptible to challenges arising from (a) the combinatorial explosion of plausible microstructures, and (b) the computational complexity of function evaluation, i.e., solving the forward problem, especially for complex multi-physics problems. Thus, conventional optimization strategies based on using the full-physics forward model is a very challenging proposition, with limited deployment by groups with the skill set to use, and dedicated access to large computational clusters. As an example, current microstructure optimization approaches which rely on multiple forward-model PDE calculations for the discovery of a single optimal (inverse) design may typically require up to 160,000 CPU-hours for a given chemical system³. The push to democratize microstructure-sensitive design led to efforts focused on relaxing the challenges described above. Some approaches relied on developing cheaper, but less accurate surrogates for the forward model (example, using graphs³), while other approaches made the problem computationally tractable by severely constraining the design space (allowing only specific parameterized shapes)⁴.

In this context, recent advances in the field of deep learning and scientific machine learning show promise for solving inverse design problems⁶⁻¹². Particularly promising are Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)¹³, a class of generative

28 deep learning models. Given a set of data, these generative models are capable of learning the underlying data distribution to
29 generate new, realistic-looking samples. In the context of engineered systems, GANs have been successfully applied to areas
30 such as differential equations¹⁴, system-modelling^{15,16}, and material and drug discovery¹⁷⁻¹⁹.

31 Generative models can be trained to reconstruct realistic looking microstructures^{17,20,21}. The challenge is to train them
32 to reconstruct microstructures that satisfy a user-defined set of properties – or more generally, satisfying a set of constraints.
33 Recently, a modified version of generative models called Invariance Networks (InvNets), have been proposed to enable
34 imposition of explicit constraints on the model outputs²². The formulation of InvNet, which allows constraints to be defined
35 independently, provides great flexibility in terms of incorporating domain knowledge or user specifications, cast as constraints.
36 In this work, we formulate the microstructure-sensitive design problem into that of training an InvNet with physics-based
37 constraints. We deploy this framework to generate candidate two-phase microstructures/morphologies for organic photovoltaic
38 (OPV) applications due to this microstructure’s potential aspect in addressing a broad range of problems elaborated below.
39 Flexible, light-weight, and wearable electronics and solar cells made from organic components provide a promising solution to
40 wide array of societal needs. The potential application of these devices range from sensing (for precision and personalized
41 medicine) to ambient energy harvesting (indoor solar cells) and energy efficient lighting and electronics. For example, the
42 newest generation of small molecule acceptors have pushed single-junction organic photovoltaic (OPV) efficiencies over
43 14% and tandem efficiencies over 17%, potentially revolutionizing cheap, flexible, and green energy harvesting. A large
44 body of work has demonstrated that the morphology in the active layer of OPV devices is key to enabling high-performance
45 devices²³⁻²⁵. Thus, controlling the morphology in the active layer of these devices continues to be crucial for maximizing
46 performance. Tremendous advances in self-assembly of flexible polymers suggest remarkable control of hierarchical structure,
47 but the impact on high-performance organic electronics has been limited. This is because, despite the importance of active layer
48 mesoscale morphology to OPV device performance, it remains a challenge to identify “ideal” microstructures that maximize
49 power conversion efficiencies. A key question is whether multiple ‘families’ of optimal morphology exist, and whether these
50 morphological characteristics depend on material specific parameters such as electron mobility, exciton diffusion length and
51 biomolecular recombination (i.e. the molecular chemistry). Thus, a rapid, physics-aware microstructure design strategy will
52 enable practitioners to systematically explore and unravel questions of how materials limitations affect optimal morphological
53 features, thereby accelerate materials design leading to high-performance devices.

54 Here, we train an InvNet to generate microstructures that simultaneously obey multiple constraints, specifically a user
55 defined short-circuit current density J_{sc} and fill-factor FF . These two properties characterize the current-voltage performance
56 of an OPV (for a given material system). The short circuit current density, J_{sc} , represents the maximum amount of current per
57 unit area that can be drawn across a solar cell (when the applied voltage is zero). Meanwhile, the fill-factor FF denotes the
58 maximum amount of power that can be supplied by the solar cell as a ratio of peak theoretical power. These properties are
59 intimately (and non-trivially) influenced by morphology²⁶. We first demonstrate that a deep neural network (DNN) can be
60 trained as a surrogate model to accurately predict the values of J_{sc} and FF given a two-phase microstructure. This requires a
61 substantial amount of full fidelity training data, and only serves as a baseline forward model surrogate. Next, we propose a
62 multi-fidelity neural network that achieves a similar predictive accuracy while utilizing a small fraction of full fidelity labels
63 alongside low-fidelity labels. We then formulate an InvNet based inverse design framework where these surrogate (baseline as
64 well as multi-fidelity) models are used as invariances to generate morphologies that satisfy user-design specifications.

65 Results

66 We begin with a brief overview of our proposed methodology of using InvNets for fast generation of targeted two-phase
67 morphologies. Figure 1(a) illustrates the overall InvNet framework with a Wasserstein-GAN (WGAN)²⁷ formulation. The
68 WGAN model architecture ensures that the distribution of generated morphologies matches the true data distribution. Design
69 specifications are enforced via an explicit invariance constraint, whereby the invariance loss is computed using the surrogate
70 physics model represented by a deep neural network. This invariance loss ensure that the generator produces morphologies that
71 satisfies the invariance constraint. Figure 1(b) and (c) shows two alternatives of surrogate models: a high-fidelity convolutional
72 neural network (CNN) trained with a large amount of expensive labels obtained from high-fidelity simulations, and a multi-
73 fidelity network trained with a mixture of high- and low-fidelity labels. The multi-fidelity network is trained on low-fidelity but
74 computationally cheap labels alongside a fraction of high-fidelity labels to reduce the overall computation cost.

75 We present our results in the following order. First, we validate our CNN surrogate model for accurately predicting
76 photovoltaic properties of a given morphology, followed by comparative assessment of prediction results of the multi-fidelity
77 surrogate model. We then provide illustrative results of the microstructures generated by InvNet using both the high-fidelity
78 network as well as the multi-fidelity network.

79 [Figure 1 about here.]

High-fidelity short circuit current and fill-factor estimation

In this section, we validate the approach of utilizing a deep neural network as a surrogate of the physics-based forward model. This surrogate model also serves as the invariance constraint within the InvNet framework. As deep neural networks are known to be powerful function approximators with fast prediction times²⁸, we hypothesize that they are suitable candidates for representing the physics-based forward models.

We previously showed that a CNN can accurately classify microstructures in binned classes of J_{sc} ⁵. Here, extend the idea to train a regressor that is capable of predicting J_{sc} and FF as continuous values. We train a CNN-based high-fidelity regressor R_{HF} on a dataset of two-phase morphology images with high-fidelity simulated J_{sc} values ranging from 0 to 7 mA/cm² and FF values ranging from 0.4 to 0.8 (see Methods and Supplemental Materials for details on full physics simulations and material properties). The output of this surrogate model is a vector which consists of the estimated J_{sc} and FF values. Training this model yields a R^2 statistic of 0.994 for the estimations of J_{sc} and R^2 statistic of 0.928 for estimations of FF as seen in bottom two scatter plots of Figures 2(a). This suggests that the surrogate model is capable of estimating the properties with sufficiently high accuracy. The top two plots in Figure 2(a) shows the histograms of absolute error for both J_{sc} and FF respectively. The error distribution of J_{sc} has a mean of 0.002 ± 0.08 mA/cm² while the error distribution of FF have a mean magnitude of $7.68E-5 \pm 0.02$.

[Figure 2 about here.]

Reducing data cost with multi-fidelity labels

An expected bottleneck of training a surrogate model on high-fidelity labels is the challenge of initial data generation, which may be computationally expensive. Various works in literature have previously explored the idea of leveraging both high- and low-fidelity data to accelerate computational models^{29–32}. We exploit a similar idea by proposing a multi-fidelity surrogate model to circumvent the challenge of generating computationally expensive high-fidelity labels.

Having demonstrated that the high-fidelity surrogate is capable of estimating J_{sc} and FF , we next provide a preliminary overview of the computation of low-fidelity labels, followed by results of estimating such low-fidelity labels via another neural network surrogate. Then, we present the results of the multi-fidelity surrogate model which alleviates the requirement of a large-labelled dataset required for training. We achieve this by using computationally inexpensive low-fidelity labels and a fraction of expensive high-fidelity labels to train the multi-fidelity surrogate model.

We use our prior work where a mechanistic consideration of the photo physics as three distinct processes (absorption and generation of excitons; exciton diffusion and dissociation; charge transport and collection) allowed identification of three morphology descriptors that together showed high correlation with J_{sc} ^{33,34}. These descriptors are computed by representing the two-phase morphology as a weighted-graph and evaluating standard graph measures (like connected components and path lengths). Since the complexity of graph-based problems and corresponding algorithms are well understood, these descriptors are computationally inexpensive to compute. These morphology descriptors thus provide a low fidelity link between morphology and performance. We next describe how using only a small fraction of simulated high-fidelity labels (J_{sc} and FF) along with information from low-fidelity labels (morphology descriptors), we train a surrogate model that has the similar predictive performance as a model trained purely using high-fidelity labels. Training this multi-fidelity surrogate required availability of differentiable low-fidelity descriptors, which we get by training another neural network, R_g , that maps a morphology to the low-fidelity descriptors (see SI for results, network and training details)

Multi-fidelity short circuit current and fill-factor estimation

We train a multi-fidelity model that estimates the magnitudes of J_{sc} and FF using a limited amount of high-fidelity labels with the help of the low-fidelity descriptors. This multi-fidelity network consists of the low-fidelity network, R_g and a separate shared-embedding network, as illustrated in Figure 1(c). The purpose of the shared embedding network is to learn additional features that are useful in estimating the properties which were not captured by the low-fidelity model. In our experiments, we used only 20% of randomly sampled high-fidelity labels to train the multi-fidelity network, which resulted in a R^2 of 0.989 and 0.894 for J_{sc} and FF respectively. The absolute error distributions of the J_{sc} and FF predictions have a mean of -0.009 ± 0.12 mA/cm² and -0.003 ± 0.02 respectively. Figure 2(b) shows the scatter plots of the properties estimated by the multi-fidelity model against the ground truth values as well as the distribution of errors. As seen in Figure 2(a) and (b), the R^2 of the R_{HF} and R_{MF} models are similar although the label requirements of the multi-fidelity model is reduced by 80%. We stress that while the low-fidelity network was trained using the entire dataset, the multi-fidelity model was only trained with 20% of the high-fidelity labels, which are significantly more expensive to generate (e.g., evaluating the J_{sc} and FF of one morphology needs about 1 cpu-hr, whereas the low fidelity metrics can be computed in less than a minute). Hence, by using the multi-fidelity network, we alleviate the problem of requiring a large labelled dataset to train a surrogate physics model as the invariance constraint evaluator in the InvNet.

132 Targeted Microstructure Generation

133 [Figure 3 about here.]

134 We present the results of generating targeted morphologies that are tailored to design specifications using our proposed
135 *InvNet* with multi-fidelity surrogate model framework. In Figure 3(a), we show samples of microstructures generated with
136 *InvNet* for different design specifications. In the top row, we show examples of morphologies with low J_{sc} values and high FF
137 values. As we traverse down the rows of Figure 3(a), the specified J_{sc} values are increased while the FF values are decreased.
138 It is observed that the *InvNet*-trained generator is able to generate a variety of candidate microstructures with different
139 morphologies given the same design specifications. This signifies that the generator has learnt the underlying distribution of the
140 actual data and no mode collapse occurred during training which can result in only similar morphologies being generated. This
141 also anecdotally validates a hypothesis in the OPV community that there exist multiple families of morphologies that produce
142 identical performance.

143 To further verify that the generated morphologies satisfy the imposed design constraints, we generated an additional 1000
144 morphologies for different ranges of J_{sc} and FF values and compared the estimated properties of these morphologies with the
145 actual design specifications. The values of these estimated properties and design specifications are plotted as densities and
146 shown in Figure 3(b). We observe that the specified values and generated values for both J_{sc} and FF have highly overlapping
147 densities. These overlapping densities show that generator is capable of creating morphologies that satisfy the imposed design
148 specifications, hence enabling targeted design of candidate two-phases microstructures.

149 Nonetheless, we observe that there are situations where the generated morphologies do not adhere to the design specifications,
150 as seen in the first row of Figure 3(b), where the density of generated morphologies (in solid green) had a range of J_{sc} values that
151 are higher than the specified range of J_{sc} values (in dotted blue). Since the proposed framework is fundamentally data-driven,
152 we hypothesize that this failure mode was caused by an imbalanced dataset where samples from the low J_{sc} and high FF
153 regions might be sparse. To confirm this hypothesis, we visualize the training data distribution in Figure 3(c). Based on the
154 visualization of the joint density, we observe that there are indeed very few samples in the top left region, where morphologies
155 have a low J_{sc} and high FF values. However, it is interesting to recognize that even when the generator fails to generate
156 morphologies with specified J_{sc} in such sparse training data regions, the rank order of the morphologies' J_{sc} are still preserved.
157 Instead of generating morphologies with random J_{sc} 's, the generated morphologies defaulted to morphologies with low J_{sc} and
158 high FF values which are well supported with data.

159 Comparing high-fidelity and multi-fidelity *InvNets*

160 Next, we provide qualitative results to compare the effects of using the high-fidelity, R_{HF} , and multi-fidelity R_{MF} surrogate
161 model as the invariance constraint evaluator in *InvNet* framework. In Figure 2, we have shown that the performances of the high-
162 and multi-fidelity surrogate models are comparable. Moreover, we are also interested in investigating if the higher variance
163 of the multi-fidelity surrogate will compound and affect the results of the generated morphologies. To study this, we trained
164 *InvNet* with the same network architecture and replaced the R_{MF} with R_{HF} . We illustrate the results from both methods in
165 Figure 4. In terms of the generated morphologies, we do not observe any significant difference between the two methods. Both
166 the high- and multi-fidelity *InvNets* are capable of generating microstructures of varying morphologies without signs of mode
167 collapse. However, the density plots which are used to validate the constraint invariances reveal two interesting observations.

168 First, we observe that the high-fidelity *InvNet* is more capable of generating low J_{sc} /high FF morphologies in comparison
169 with the multi-fidelity *InvNet*. This is evident in the first row, where the density of morphologies generated by high-fidelity
170 *InvNet* has a higher overlapping area with the design specifications as compared to the density of morphologies created by
171 multi-fidelity *InvNet*. We attribute this to the fact that R_{HF} was exposed to a much larger and diverse set of morphologies as
172 compared to R_{MF} , which results in the high-fidelity *InvNet* being able to learn the underlying structure of the low J_{sc} /high FF
173 morphologies better when training for the invariance. Thus, this suggests we can expect the performance of high-fidelity *InvNet*
174 to be more robust and consistent when queried in regions where training data is sparser.

175 The second interesting observation we make is that the high-fidelity *InvNet* also tends to generate morphologies that are
176 a little more biased in terms of the FF . This can be observed in the second, third, and fourth rows where the densities of
177 high-fidelity FF are slightly shifted from the FF design specifications. Referring back to Figure 3(c), we observe that the
178 marginal density of FF data is highly skewed towards the lower regions. Therefore, it is possible that by training R_{HF} on
179 the entire high-fidelity dataset and subsequently using it as the invariance constraint evaluator to train *InvNet* does result in
180 generated morphologies that are more biased in terms of the design specifications. This highlights the importance of having a
181 balanced dataset when using our proposed framework for morphology generation.

182 [Figure 4 about here.]

Efficiency of neural-network based methods versus physics-based models

In Table 1, we compare the wall-clock running times of our proposed neural-network based methods with physics-based methods for a few different scenarios. All timings were performed on the same platform using a NVIDIA Titan RTX GPU and averaged across 100 function evaluations. In the first two columns, we show the average computation times for evaluating the J_{sc} and FF properties of a given morphology. We observe that both multi- and high-fidelity methods are several orders of magnitude faster than a high-fidelity physics simulation. A second advantage is that with the surrogate models, only one evaluation is required to estimate both J_{sc} and FF simultaneously. In comparison, performing the physics simulation requires separate individual evaluations for J_{sc} and FF . Comparing the multi-fidelity surrogate model R_{MF} with the high-fidelity surrogate model R_{HF} , we note that R_{HF} is an order of magnitude faster than R_{MF} . However, training R_{HF} comes at the cost of requiring a large dataset with high-fidelity labels. On the other hand, R_{MF} requires a smaller amount of high-fidelity labels, but requires training a more complex model architecture, which increases computation time. Hence, we view the benefits of each method as a trade-off between availability of data with computation time.

In the third column, we show the total time required to train InvNet for 1E5 epochs. We observe that the high-fidelity InvNet is $\approx 3X$ faster than multi-fidelity InvNet, which is expected since the training of InvNet is dependent on the surrogate model to compute the invariance loss. We also include an estimate of the time required to train the InvNet if we were to replace the invariance constraint evaluator with an actual physics-based model to compute the invariance loss. As observed, training such an InvNet will require $\approx 60k$ hours, which is not tractable in compared to using a neural network-based surrogate model.

Last but not least, we provide the morphology generation time for a single morphology. Since the process of generating a morphology using InvNet during inference is independent of surrogate model, there is no significant difference time difference between using the high-fidelity versus multi-fidelity InvNet. In summary, we conclude that there is no significant difference in terms of the querying a trained high-fidelity versus multi-fidelity InvNet to generate targeted morphologies. Instead, the deciding factor of which model to apply depends on the availability of high-fidelity labels or computation resources. The high-fidelity InvNet framework is faster to train but requires a large dataset of high-fidelity labels to pre-train the surrogate model. Conversely, the multi-fidelity InvNet model requires less high-fidelity labels but requires a more complex network architecture which results in longer training times.

[Table 1 about here.]

Discussion

The ability to rapidly synthesize targeted microstructure designs is essential in a broad range of scientific and engineering applications. We propose a data-efficient generative framework (InvNet) that casts user-specifications as explicit invariance constraints to generate candidate two-phase microstructures that adheres to design specifications. While recent works with similar objectives have proposed frameworks that demonstrated promising results^{12,22}, we highlight that those approaches is not capable of solving our specific application in a tractable manner. This is particularly due to the extremely long and expensive computation required to evaluate the constraints, which is a common bottleneck in the community. Hence, to remedy this challenge, we leverage neural network-based surrogates for the purpose of fast constraint evaluation. Using a surrogate, our framework addresses the challenge of expensive constraint evaluation while simultaneously circumventing the need of having a differentiable and explicit, closed-form expression of the constraints. Combining these advantages, we believe that our method results in a far more general-purpose framework that is applicable to a wider range of inverse design problems. Additionally, we have also supplemented our surrogate-based generative framework with a multi-fidelity approach to improve the data requirements of the model. This multi-fidelity approach reduces foreseeable expensive label generation procedures, which is an obstacle that is not present in inverse design problems where design constraints can be tractably computed. For further discussion on the motivation of our framework, we defer reader to the Methods section. From our experimentation, our results illustrate that neural networks are capable of being accurate surrogates of expensive full-physics simulations and the InvNets trained with multi-fidelity surrogates are capable of generating various candidate morphologies which caters to both J_{sc} and FF specifications. Furthermore, comparing the results of InvNet trained with high-fidelity and multi-fidelity surrogates reveals no significant differences in performance, thus reinforcing the fact of data-efficiency benefits of using the multi-fidelity surrogate. A wall-clock comparison of training times reveals that a trade-off exists between the high-fidelity and multi-fidelity modes, with the multi-fidelity version of the surrogate and InvNet having longer training times.

While we have demonstrated our proposed framework through the lens of a material microstructure design problem that uses a data-driven surrogate, we emphasize that our InvNet framework is certainly not limited to purely data-driven surrogate approaches. Since the invariance constraint of InvNet is explicit, it can be easily replaced or combined with other data-free approaches. In this regard, a key future direction is to develop InvNets that explicitly incorporate complex physics/domain knowledge in a computationally tractable manner. This approach will significantly reduce the dependency of the proposed framework on data availability and extend the capability of the framework to extrapolate beyond the support of data. Other

236 promising directions include extending the current framework to generate morphologies with more than two phases as well as
 237 validating the generalizability of the framework on a dataset with more than two target properties. To conclude, our vision is
 238 that the computational tools developed in this paper will serve to democratize and accelerate the area of microstructure-sensitive
 239 design.

240 Methods

241 Description of two-phase morphology microstructures

242 **Microstructures:** We use a large dataset of microstructure images arising from solving the Cahn-Hilliard (CH) equation
 243 with varying initial conditions. The Cahn-Hilliard equation³⁵ describes phase separation occurring in a binary alloy under
 244 thermal annealing. It tracks the evolution of local volume fraction of each phase, in the presence of spatial gradients in
 245 chemical potential of the system. Hence, in the time evolution process, one first observes an initial rapid separation of the
 246 well-mixed system into its constituent phases, followed by slow coarsening of the respective domains. Thus, the microstructures
 247 generated will have lower energy compared to those at the beginning stages of the simulation, according to the second law of
 248 thermodynamics. Image data arising from the simulations provide a rich dataset for design of microstructures. Specifically, the
 249 morphologies obtained through the simulation will be similar to the morphologies in a real active layer of organic photovoltaic
 250 cells⁵. We use an in-house solver for generating the microstructure images.

251 **Photophysics Annotation of Microstructures:** Each of the morphologies is virtually interrogated to extract its current-
 252 voltage characteristics, by solving a morphology aware (i.e. spatially heterogeneous) photophysics device model. We deploy
 253 a validated, in-house software that uses a finite element based solution strategy for solving the photophysics device model.
 254 The photophysics model is described by the steady state *excitonic drift diffusion (XDD) equations*. The XDD equations are a
 255 set of four tightly coupled partial differential equations that model the optoelectronic physics of energy harvesting in organic
 256 photovoltaic devices. The photophysics consists of the following stages:

- 257 • Incident solar radiation causes the generation of energetically active electron-hole pairs, called excitons (denoted by X),
 258 in the donor regions of the microstructure. These excitons diffuse across the microstructure and have a finite lifetime
 259 before becoming ground state electron-hole pairs;
- 260 • Excitons that diffuse and reach the donor-acceptor interface undergo dissociation into electrons (denoted by n) and holes
 261 (denoted by p) at the donor-acceptor interface. The dissociation mechanism is material and field dependent (denoted by
 262 D);
- 263 • These generated charges (n,p) traverse the microstructure and reach their corresponding electrodes (cathode and anode)
 264 to produce a current. Two mechanisms are responsible for driving carrier transport or current flow. First, the drift, which
 265 is caused by the presence of an electric field (denoted as the gradient of the potential, $\nabla\phi$, and second, the diffusion,
 266 which is caused by a spatial gradient of electron or hole concentration;
- 267 • The distribution of electrons and holes in the microstructure interacts with the applied voltage and influences the
 268 electrostatic potential ϕ across the microstructure. Finally, electrons and holes can recombine (denoted by R) to create
 269 excitons

The photophysics described above is encoded as the exciton drift diffusion (XDD) equations²⁶.

$$\nabla \cdot J_n - R + D = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$-\nabla \cdot J_p - R + D = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \nabla \phi) = q(n - p) \quad (3)$$

$$-\nabla \cdot (V_t \mu_x \nabla X) - f D_{[\nabla \phi, X]} - R_{[X]} = -G - R_{[n,p]} \quad (4)$$

270 Here, X, n, p represent the exciton, electron and hole distributions respectively. ϕ represents the electric potential. q
 271 represents the elementary charge. V_t represents the thermal voltage. ϵ is the dielectric constant in the donor and recipient
 272 materials. $\mu_{n/p/X}$ are the mobilities of electron/hole/exciton respectively. The current densities J_n and J_p are given by the
 273 constitutive equations

$$J_n = -qn\mu_n \nabla \phi + qV_t \mu_n \nabla n \quad (5)$$

$$J_p = -qp\mu_p \nabla \phi - qV_t \mu_p \nabla p \quad (6)$$

274 These set of high-dimensional, complex PDEs are solved to get the performance of the solar cell device, which is
 275 characterized by the short-circuit current, and fill factor.

276 Framework development

277 In this section, we discuss the motivation of creating a data-driven framework capable of generating microstructures with
278 various targeted morphologies while adhering to design specifications. Previous studies have demonstrated that InvNets can
279 effectively generate novel two-phase microstructures that satisfy explicit constraints such volume fractions and domain size and
280 also generate poly-crystalline microstructures (a discrete-valued generation problem) by relaxing the generation problem to a
281 probabilistic assignment problem²². However, we consider a couple of drawbacks of the existing InvNet in terms of scalability.
282 Previously, it has only been shown that InvNet worked with explicitly defined constraints or invariances. Nevertheless, existing
283 works have not addressed what happens when the invariances cannot be explicitly defined. Additionally, evaluation of the
284 invariances are often computationally expensive and time-consuming. For example, in the case of our application, evaluating J_{sc}
285 and FF of a given morphology involves solving a set of differential equations that can take up to approximately several hours.

286 As such, this limitation hampers the scalability of training InvNet. Hence, we represent such invariance constraints, which
287 cannot be explicitly expressed or are too computationally expensive with a deep neural network. By representing the invariance
288 with a deep neural network surrogate, the evaluation of the invariance constraints can be significantly accelerated since the
289 forward evaluation of a neural network is fast once the model is trained. Utilizing a neural network surrogate also has the benefit
290 of not requiring the invariances, such as the equations governing a physical system, to be explicitly known as long as labeled
291 data are available to train the surrogate model. Also, a neural network representation of the invariance simplifies the training of
292 InvNet. During training of the InvNet, the parameters of the entire model are optimized by utilizing gradient information from
293 the invariance loss function. Since neural network models are differentiable, gradient information with respect to the invariance
294 loss can be easily computed using modern deep learning libraries with automatic-differentiation capabilities. In comparison,
295 using other forms of explicit invariances will necessitate the constraints to be differentiable, and the gradients will have to be
296 calculated separately.

297 Nonetheless, as alluded above, representing the invariance with a deep neural network does result in a second drawback,
298 which is the availability of labeled data. In the context of our application, creating a labeled data set of morphologies with
299 corresponding J and FF values is computationally expensive, and defeats the goal of avoiding costly physics-based simulations.
300 This second drawback motivates the development the multi-fidelity surrogate which alleviates the problem of generating
301 expensive labels.

302 Training details

303 **High-fidelity surrogate model:** To improve the robustness of the surrogate model, we first performed standard image
304 augmentation techniques, image rotation and flipping, which resulted in an augmented dataset of $\approx 38k$ images of augmented
305 morphologies. To ensure a stable training process, we also scaled the labels of J_{sc} and FF to belong in the same numerical
306 range. Following standard practices, we partitioned 80% of the data as training data and reserved 20% of data as a test data.
307 Since the task of the surrogate model is to essentially perform a multi-target regression, the loss function of the regressor is
308 formulated as:

$$L_{R_{HF}} = \|R_{HF_{\phi, J_{sc}}}(I) - J_{sc}\|_2^2 + \|R_{HF_{\phi, FF}}(I) - FF\|_2^2 \quad (7)$$

309 where R_{HF} denotes the high-fidelity surrogate model, parameterized by parameters ϕ , I is the input image of the microstructure
310 and J_{sc} and FF are the true label values. The high-fidelity model architecture we used is a sequential model which consists
311 of two convolution layers, each followed by batch normalization layer, ReLU activation, and a max pooling layer. Two dense
312 layers were used after the two convolution blocks along with dropout layers to avoid over-fitting during training. The output
313 of R_{HF} is a vector of two values that corresponds to the estimated J_{sc} and FF values. The model was trained using Adam
314 optimizer with a learning rate of $3E-4$ for 25 epochs. Additionally, we also investigated network architectures with separate
315 final layers that do not share parameters. We observed no significant improvement in prediction accuracy while the cost of
316 computational memory requirement was increased.

317 **Multi-fidelity surrogate model:** Before describing the training details, we briefly justify the need to replace the graph-based
318 computation of low-fidelity descriptors with another neural network surrogate, R_g in the multi-fidelity model. While multi-
319 fidelity frameworks are effective in reducing the requirement of expensive labels³², they are currently not tractable for application
320 as an invariance constraint in InvNets. This is because updating the generator’s parameters in InvNet requires the gradient
321 computation of the invariance-loss function. However, graph-based methods used to compute the low-fidelity descriptors are
322 often non-differentiable. Therefore, optimizing the parameters of the generator via conventional back-propagation becomes
323 a non-trivial problem. Additionally, evaluating the low-fidelity descriptors using previously proposed graph-based method
324 requires that the generated images be converted into nodes and edges on-the-fly during training, which incurs additional
325 computational cost and time. Hence, a neural network surrogate which is differentiable and can directly evaluate graph features
326 of morphologies in the pixel domain circumvents both of these challenges.

327 As illustrated in Figure 1(c), the multi-fidelity network encompasses both low-fidelity network (described in SI) and a
 328 shared-embedding network. The purpose of the shared-embedding network is to learn additional features that are not already
 329 captured by the low-fidelity network for estimating J_{sc} and FF . During training of the multi-fidelity network, the low-fidelity
 330 network predicts the low-fidelity descriptors of a given microstructure, which are combined with the image embeddings from
 331 the shared embedding network. These two vectors are then passed through a dense layer to estimate J_{sc} and FF . As we are only
 332 using a limited amount of high-fidelity labels, it is possible that training the multi-fidelity network might lead to a biased model
 333 due to label imbalance. To avoid such issues, we constructed the following weighted loss function with empirically-determined
 334 scaling constants that balances the errors between the estimations of J_{sc} and FF . R_{MF} denotes the multi-fidelity surrogate
 335 model where χ and ω represents the parameters of the shared-embedding network and low-fidelity network respectively.

$$L_{R_{MF}} = L_{J_{sc}} + L_{FF} \quad (8)$$

$$L_{J_{sc}} = \lambda_1 (J_{sc}^2 + J_{sc}) \|R_{MF_{\chi, \omega, J_{sc}}}(I) - J_{sc}\|_2^2 \quad (9)$$

$$L_{FF} = \lambda_2 \|R_{MF_{\chi, \omega, FF}}(I) - FF\|_2^2 \quad (10)$$

338 with λ_1 and λ_2 heuristically set to 0.008 and 0.0005, respectively. We highlight that in principle, the weights of the low-fidelity
 339 network R_g are already trained and can be frozen. Nevertheless, in practice, we find that allowing the weights of the low-fidelity
 340 network to optimized alongside the entire network does result in a slightly better estimations. To train the multi-fidelity network,
 341 we used SGD optimizer with a learning rate of 1E-3 and trained the network for 100 epochs.

342 **Generator and Discriminator of InvNet:** In this section, we provide the training description of InvNet with the multi-fidelity
 343 surrogate model as the invariance constraint evaluator. Since the main modification that we've proposed occurs in the invariance
 344 constraint, the formulation of InvNet's loss function remains as

$$L_{InvNet} = L_G(\theta, \psi) + L_I(\theta) \quad (11)$$

345 where L_G denotes the standard loss function of the WGAN, with θ being the parameters of the generator, ψ being the
 346 parameters of the discriminator. Both the generator and discriminator are also represented using deep neural networks. The
 347 invariance loss L_I is expressed as:

$$L_I = \|R_{MF_{J_{sc}}}(G_\theta(z)) - R_{MF_{J_{sc}}}(I)\|_2^2 + \|R_{MF_{FF}}(G_\theta(z)) - R_{MF_{FF}}(I)\|_2^2 \quad (12)$$

348 with G_θ denoting the generator, z denoting a latent vector sampled from a uniform distribution, $G_\theta(z)$, denoting the image of
 349 generated morphology and I denoting a real morphology sampled from the dataset. During training, the weights of the surrogate
 350 physics model, ϕ are kept frozen, and R_{MF} acts purely as an invariance constraint evaluator that estimates the morphological
 351 properties of the generated microstructures. Only the parameters of the discriminator ψ , and generator θ are optimized.

352 To train the InvNet, we instantiate the generator with an architecture that consists of one dense layer, five residual blocks
 353 with skipped connections, and one convolution layer. Each residual block is made up of two batch-normalization layers and
 354 two convolution layers with up-sampling operations. ReLU activation functions were used after every layer, except for the
 355 last convolution layer. We used the sigmoid activation function on the output of the convolution layer to generate 128 x 128
 356 images of microstructures. The Discriminator network consists of one convolution layer, four residual blocks, and a dense
 357 layer. The residual blocks are similar to the blocks used in the Generator, with the exception that the convolution layers are
 358 paired with down-sampling operations and layer-normalization is used instead of batch-normalization. As we've chosen to use
 359 the WGAN-GP³⁶ variant of GAN, the output of the discriminator is a single scalar value estimating the Wasserstein distance
 360 between the distributions of generated and real microstructures. To compute the invariance loss, we use the multi-fidelity
 361 surrogate model R_{MF} to ensure that generated morphologies had properties that are similar to the properties of the real
 362 morphologies. Both the Generator and Discriminator are trained alternatively using Adam optimizer with a learning rate of
 363 3E-4 for 1E5 epochs. We include specific details of network layers we used in the generator, discriminator and multi-fidelity
 364 network in the Supplementary Materials. Note that in the methodology presented, we have described the InvNet framework
 365 using the multi-fidelity surrogate, R_{MF} as the invariance constraint evaluator. We highlight that the methodology for training
 366 the framework using high-fidelity network is exactly the same, with only R_{HF} replacing R_{MF} .

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443 **Author contributions**

444 CH, BG, SS initiated the project; BP, BG planned and generated dataset. XYL, AJ, CH, BG, SS designed the ML framework;
445 XYL, JW, CH-Y performed the training; XYL, AJ and AB analyzed the data; all authors contributed to writing the manuscript.

446 **Competing interests**

447 The authors declare no competing interests.

448 **Data and materials availability**

449 The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study will be available upon acceptance of the paper.

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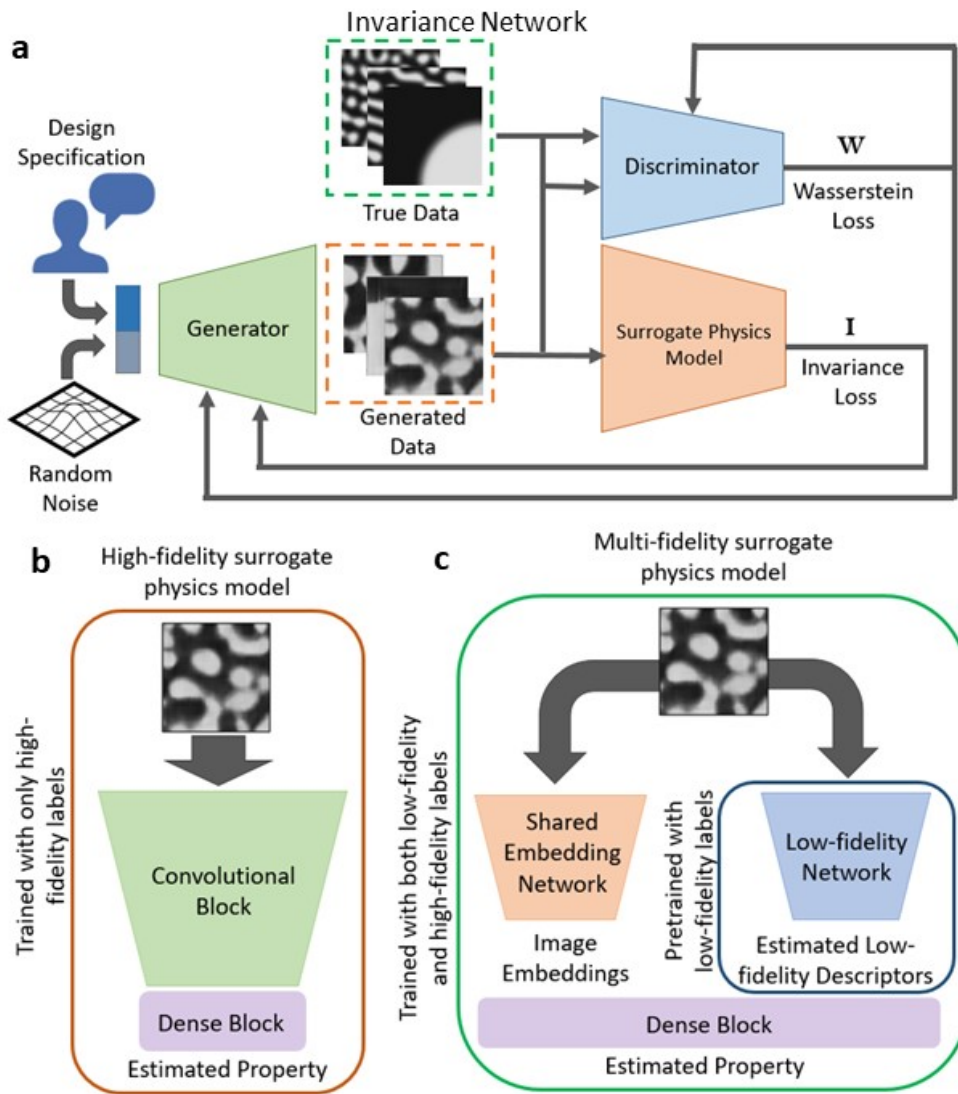


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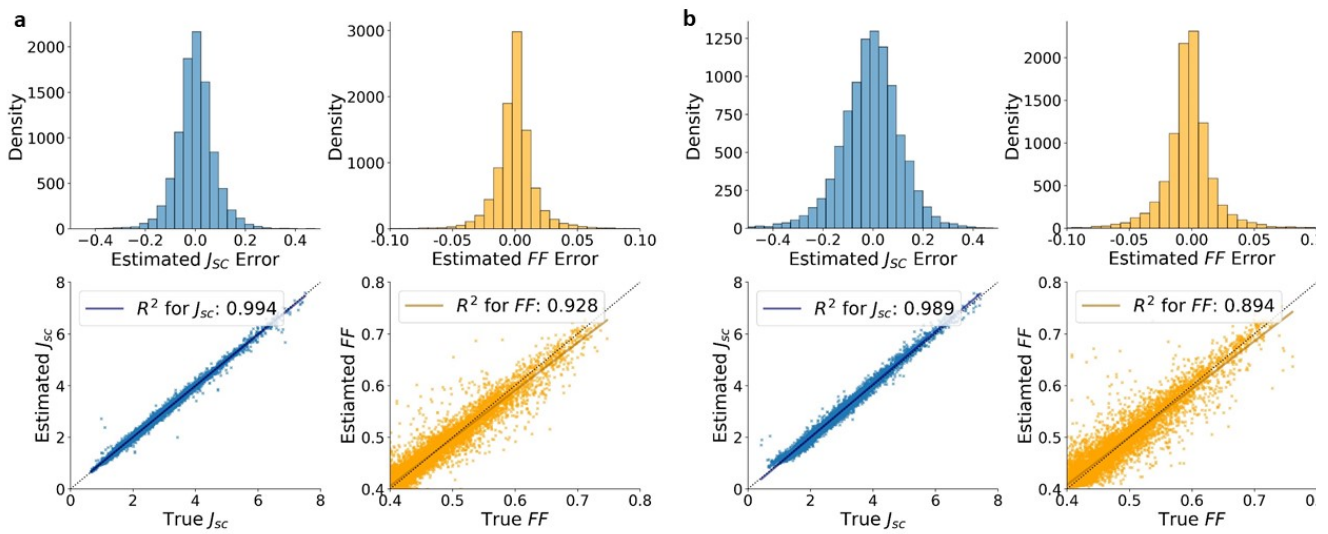


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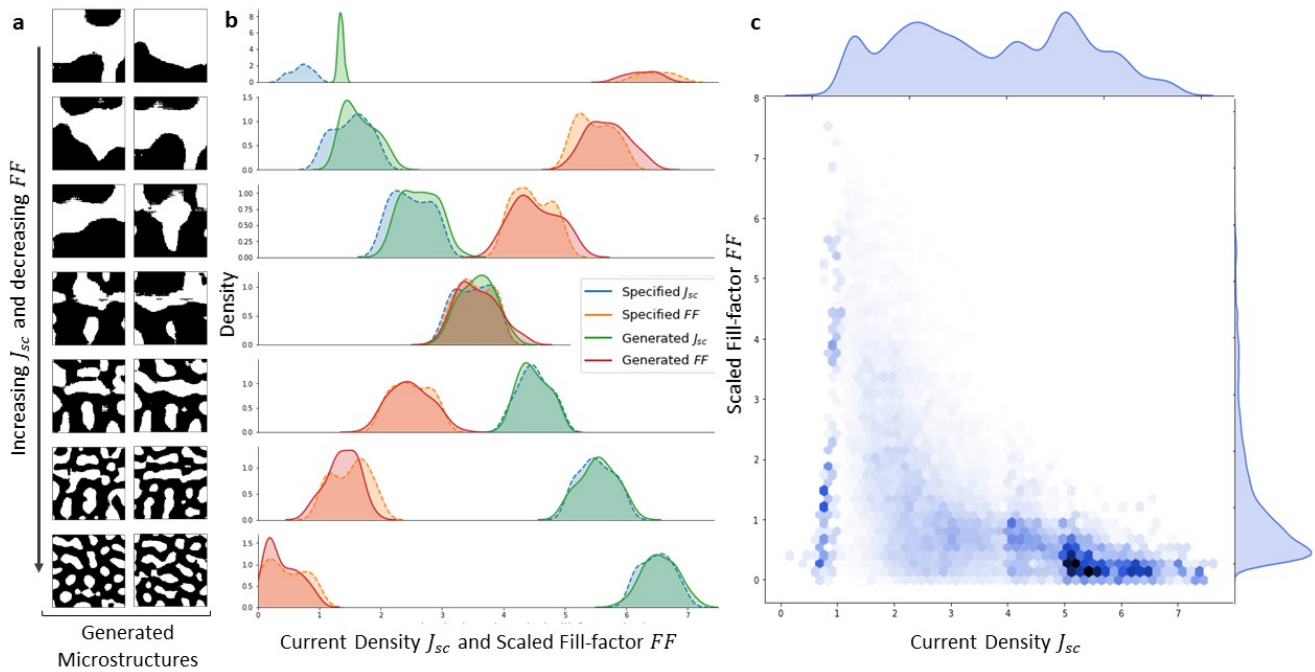


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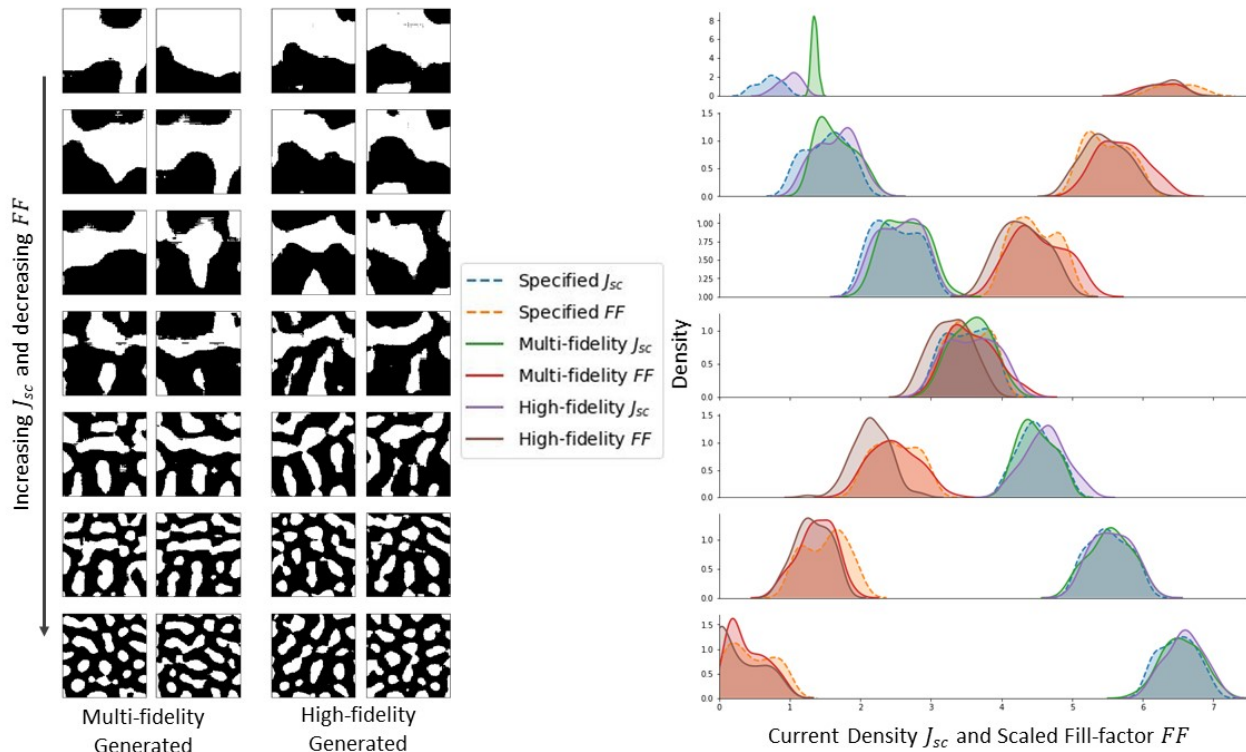


Figure 4. Qualitative comparison of morphologies generated by the high-fidelity InvNet vs multi-fidelity InvNet.

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484 1 **Comparison of average computation times of neural network-based methods vs physics-based methods**
485 **for different processes.** J_{sc} and FF columns denotes the time required to evaluate the corresponding properties
486 given a morphology. InvNet training times are based on our training scheme of 1E5 epochs. *Physics model-
487 based InvNet training is based on an estimate if the invariance loss were to be computed using high-fidelity
488 physics simulation. Morphology Generation column denotes the time required for a trained InvNet to generate
489 a single morphology given design specification values of J_{sc} and FF 17

	J_{sc} Evaluation	FF Evaluation	InvNet Training	Morphology Generation
High-Fidelity	5.9 ms	5.9 ms	5.8 hr	191.0 ms
Multi-Fidelity	55.3 ms	55.3 ms	18.7 hr	192.0 ms
Physics-Model	9.0 min	72.0 min	60,017.0 hr*	N/A

Table 1. Comparison of average computation times of neural network-based methods vs physics-based methods for different processes. J_{sc} and FF columns denotes the time required to evaluate the corresponding properties given a morphology. InvNet training times are based on our training scheme of $1E5$ epochs. *Physics model-based InvNet training is based on an estimate if the invariance loss were to be computed using high-fidelity physics simulation. Morphology Generation column denotes the time required for a trained InvNet to generate a single morphology given design specification values of J_{sc} and FF .