The development of efficient thermal energy management devices such as thermoelectrics and barrier coatings often relies on compounds having low lattice thermal conductivity ($\kappa_l$). Here, we present the computational discovery of a large family of 628 thermodynamically stable quaternary chalcogenides, $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ (A = alkali/alkaline earth/post-transition metals; M/M' = transition metals, lanthanides; Q = chalcogens) using high-throughput density functional theory (DFT) calculations. We validate the presence of low $\kappa_l$ in these materials by calculating $\kappa_l$ of several predicted stable compounds using the Peierls–Boltzmann transport equation. Our analysis reveals that the low $\kappa_l$ originates from the presence of either a strong lattice anharmonicity that enhances the phonon-scatterings or rattler cations that lead to multiple scattering channels in their crystal structures. Our thermoelectric calculations indicate that some of the predicted semiconductors may possess high energy conversion efficiency with their figure-of-merits exceeding 1 near 600 K. Our predictions suggest experimental research opportunities in the synthesis and characterization of these stable, low $\kappa_l$ compounds.

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INTRODUCTION

An important focus in materials science research has been to discover hitherto unknown materials with properties that might hold the keys to solving the most pressing problems in renewable energy, energy harvesting, or semiconductor power electronics. The augmentation of new materials discovery and the prediction of their properties have been accelerated by the advent of advanced computer algorithms coupled with high-throughput (HT) screening methods using accurate quantum mechanical calculations based on density functional theory (DFT). In the recent past, several computational predictions have led to the successful synthesis of new solid-state compounds in a variety of chemistry and structure types in the family of half-Heuslers$^{9,10}$, double half-Heuslers$^{11}$, electrides$^{12}$, $\text{A}\text{B}_2\text{X}_4$-based chalcogens$^{13}$, and rocksalt-based compounds$^{14}$. Crystalline solids with extreme thermal transport properties are technologically important for the efficient management of thermal energy$^{15}$. While materials with high lattice thermal conductivity ($\kappa_l$) are used in microelectronic devices for heat dissipation, materials with low $\kappa_l$ are used in thermal barrier coatings$^{16}$, thermal data-storage devices$^{17}$, and high-performance thermoelectrics (TEs)$^{18,19}$ which can convert heat into electrical energy. The conversion efficiency of the TEs is defined by the figure-of-merit (ZT):

$$ZT = S^2\sigma T / (\kappa_e + \kappa_l),$$

where $S$, $\sigma$, $\kappa_e$, and $\kappa_l$ are the Seebeck coefficient, electrical conductivity, electronic thermal conductivity, and lattice thermal conductivity, respectively. Engineering the electronic band structures of crystalline compounds that already possess low $\kappa_l$ has emerged to be a very popular strategy to increase the ZT. Therefore, crystalline semiconductors with intrinsically low $\kappa_l$ are highly sought after in TEs and other thermal energy management devices.

In pursuit of finding new low $\kappa_l$ materials, different classes of crystalline compounds like the perovskites$^{20}$, half-Heuslers$^{21}$, full-Heuslers$^{22}$, and double half-Heuslers$^{11}$ have been explored using HT computational methods, and subsequently, some of the predicted compounds were experimentally synthesized successfully$^{23-25}$. Despite the existence of a large number of crystalline compounds in various materials databases, e.g., the Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD)$^{26}$, Open Quantum Materials Database (OQMD)$^{27,28}$, Materials Project$^9$, and Afflowlib$^{29}$, it is quite important to look for hitherto unknown stable and metastable compounds which might exhibit exciting physical and chemical properties. In this work, we present the computational discovery of a large number of stable (628) and low-energy metastable (852) quaternary chalcogenides $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ (A = alkali, alkaline earth, post-transition metals; M/M' = transition metals, lanthanides; Q = chalcogens) that span a huge chemical space across the periodic table. Our results are based on reliable, accurate, and robust HT-DFT calculations where (1) we generated initial $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ compositions following the experimentally known $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ compounds formation criteria, (2) calculated their energetics in all known seven crystallographic prototypes that are found in this materials family, and (3) performed thermodynamic phase stability analysis of these compositions against all possible competing phases that are present in the OQMD.

About 192 quaternary chalcogenides (see Supplementary Note for a complete list) with the generic formula $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ have been synthesized experimentally$^{25-33}$ which reveal that these compounds possess rich chemistries and structure types like the perovskites and Heusler compounds. Koscielski et al.$^{34}$ noted that these known $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ compounds contain no Q–Q bonds and the elements (A, M, M', Q) balance the charge in their crystal structures with their expected formal oxidation states, making them charge balanced. The $\text{AMM}^\prime\text{Q}_3$ compounds are further classified into three categories depending on the nominal oxidation states of the three cations A, M, and M', namely:
where the oxidation states of the cations are indicated with the superscripts. In all cases, we assume that the chalcogen atoms Q (S, Se, and Te) have a nominal 2− charge. Examining the experimentally known AMM′Q3 compounds (see Supplementary Fig. 1), we observe the following: (1) The A-site in these compounds is always occupied by alkali, alkaline earth, or post-transition metals with the only exception of Eu in a 2+ charge state) which occupies the A-site of some of the Type-II compounds. (2) Whereas only transition metals occupy the M site, the M′ site can be filled either by the transition metals, lanthanides, or actinides. (3) No observed AMM′Q3 compound contains more than one alkali, alkaline earth, or post-transition metals. As detailed later, we will use these criteria in designing our HT workflow for generating the initial crystal structures through prototype decoration. Although the chemical natures of these compounds have been characterized somewhat in detail35−37, their properties have remained largely unexplored. Recently, it was shown experimentally34 and theoretically34−37 that many known semiconducting compounds in this crystal family exhibit ultralow κQ. In addition, some compounds are shown to possess electronic bands favorable to support high TE performance34,36,37.

From the distribution of the elements forming the known AMM′Q3 compounds, we see that all the cations (A, M, M′) are in their common oxidation states of 1+, 2+, 3+, or 4+ coming from the chemical groups (i.e., alkali, alkaline earth, transition, post-transition metals, lanthanides, actinides) that span a large part of the periodic table. Yet, although a large number (192) of these compounds have been reported experimentally, this number is small compared to the vast number of possible compounds that can be obtained based on charge balanced combinatorial substitutions of the elements in a prototype crystal structure of AMM′Q3. Performing this combinatorial exercise experimentally would require an enormous amount of resources and time to discover new AMM′Q3 compounds. However, computational screening can be very helpful in narrowing down the search space of the target compounds that would have higher chances of synthesizability in the laboratory.1,8−11,38−43 Here, we have performed HT-DFT calculations followed by accurate ground-state phase stability analysis, and suggest (T = 0 K) thermodynamically stable and metastable AMM′Q3 compounds for experimental synthesis and exploration of their properties. Our calculations of the thermal transport properties of some of the predicted stable compounds using the Peierls–Boltzmann transport equation (PBTE) show that these compounds exhibit innate low κQ due to the presence of strong lattice anharmonicity or rattler cations.

RESULTS

Structural prototypes

The experimentally known AMM′Q3 compounds crystallize in seven structure types35−37, 46, 62: KCuZrSe3 (space group (SG): Cmcm, #63), Eu2CuS3 (SG: Pnma, #62), BaCuLaS3 (SG: Pnma, #62), Ba2MnS3 (SG: Pnma, #62), NaCuTiS3 (SG: Pnma, #62), BaAgErS3 (SG: C2/m, #12), and TlCuTiTe3 (SG: P21/m, #11). All these structure types are visualized in their extended unit cells in Fig. 1, where the conventional unit cell is outlined with black lines. Among these, five structure types (KCuZrSe3, Eu2CuS3, Ba2MnS3, NaCuTiS3, TlCuTiTe3) are layered where the rows of A+n cations stack alternatively with the [MM′Q3]n− layers and interact through electrostatic interactions35,37. The strength of the interactions vary with the charges on the cations (i.e., m+n) and induce modifications in the structures as well as in their properties36. When the interactions between the layers increase significantly, the atoms from the neighboring [MM′Q3]m− layers interact, giving rise to the three-dimensional channel structures (BaCuLaS3 and BaAgErS3). In BaCuLaS3 (Fig. 1c) and BaAgErS3 (Fig. 1f), two rows of the A-site cations occupy the empty spaces inside the channels formed by the M, M′, and Q atoms. Figure 1h shows that 71% of the known AMM′Q3 compounds crystallize in the KCuZrSe3 structure followed by 16% of the compounds crystallizing in the Eu2CuS3 structure type. The rest of the known AMM′Q3 compounds (13%) crystallize in the other five structure types. It is worth noting that in Eu2CuS3, the Eu atoms have mixed oxidation states (Eu2+3Cu3+4S5) and sit in two different sites in the crystal structure. Similarly, the Ba atoms in Ba2MnS3 also occupy two different sites. We have used all these structure types in our HT-DFT design and discovery of new AMM′Q3 compounds. We note that the KCuZrSe3 and TlCuTiTe3 structure types have 12 atoms in their primitive unit cells and the rest of the structure types have 24 atoms.

Materials design strategy

The discovery of new compounds through HT-DFT method often starts with the decoration of prototype crystal structures with chemically similar elements from the periodic table to generate their initial crystal structures. DFT calculations are then performed on these newly decorated compounds followed by rigorous thermodynamic phase stability analysis to screen for stable and metastable compounds. Rather than generating the input crystal structures in a brute-force manner by substituting every element of the periodic table at all atomic sites in the prototype structures, in this work we restricted ourselves by the following screening criteria which are derived by examining the experimentally known AMM′Q3 compounds: (1) we substitute alkali, alkaline earth, or post-transition metal elements at the A-site. The M and M′ sites are populated with the transition metals and lanthanides. Three chalcogens, i.e., S, Se, and Te are substituted at the Q site. (2) We choose A-site cations with nominal oxidation states of 1+ or 2+, and M/M′-site cations with nominal oxidation states of 1+, 2+, 3+ or 4+. The elements that are chosen for substitutions at the A, M, M′ and Q sites along with their oxidation states are shown in Fig. 2. (3) We only consider compound compositions that are charge balanced. (4) We exclude any radioactive elements during the prototype decorations although some of the known AMM′Q3 compounds contain them. Adhering to these preconditions helps us narrow down our search space of compound exploration, reduces the computational cost, and most importantly it increases the success rates of stable compound prediction through HT-DFT calculations which will be evident later.

First, we generate the crystal structures of 4659 AMM′Q3 compositions (see Table 1) using the KCuZrSe3 structure as (1) it is the most prevalent structure type in this family and (2) all experimentally known AMM′Q3 compounds have low energies (within 50 meV/atom above the convex hull) in this structure type. After performing DFT calculations for all these compositions followed by T = 0 K phase stability analysis, we kept only those compositions (−1700) that have an energy within 100 meV/atom of the ground-state convex hull and discarded the rest from our search space. The DFT relaxed structures of all these 1700 compositions retain the KCuZrSe3 structure type. In the next step, we take these 1700 compositions and regenerate their crystal structures in each of six additional structure types to perform DFT calculations of 6 × 1700 = 10,200 AMM′Q3 compounds. Next, we perform T = 0 K thermodynamic phase stability analysis of those 1700 compositions considering all seven structure types and their competing phases that are available in the OQMD. In the final step, we obtain 628 thermodynamically stable and 852 metastable hitherto unknown AMM′Q3 compounds after performing a total number of 4659 + 10,200 = 14,859 DFT calculations. The stable 628 compounds include 69 Type-I, 231 Type-II, and 328 Type-III compounds, and among them, a total number of 570 compounds
possess finite band gaps. A schematic of the HT-DFT flowchart is shown in Fig. 3a, and a summary is given in Table 1.

**Phase stability analysis**

We now present a detailed analysis of the T = 0 K ground-state phase stability of all (known and predicted) AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$ compounds. We begin our assessment with the phase stability analysis of the experimentally known AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$. Out of 192 known compounds, we find only 119 compounds (Type-I: 39, Type-II: 30, and Type-III: 50) in OQMD before we performed any new calculations from this work. We designate these 119 compounds as Set-I. As the initial crystal structures of the experimentally known compounds in OQMD mostly come from the ICSD, the DFT calculations of Set-I compounds in OQMD were performed based on their experimental crystal structures taken from the ICSD. We designate the rest of the known 192 − 119 = 73 compounds (Type-I: 1, Type-II: 60, and Type-III: 12) as Set-II, which were not present in OQMD due to (1) the absence of their structures in the ICSD and (2) no previous HT-DFT calculations were performed based on the prototype decorations in this AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$ family. However, our HT-DFT calculations of all the decorated AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$ compositions include the experimentally known AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$ compounds in Set-II. Hence, we will first analyze the phase stability of the Set-I compounds to see if our DFT calculations are able to correctly capture the energetics of the known compounds in Set-I and then we will utilize the phase stability data of Set-II compounds to validate the reliability of our approach for the discovery of new stable AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$ compounds based on prototype decoration through HT-DFT calculations.

As detailed in the “Methods” section and as well as in other references $^{1,3-6,24,41,44}$, the hull distance (hd) is a metric of the thermodynamic stability of a compound. If the formation energy of the compound breaks the convex hull, then it is considered to be thermodynamically stable with hd = 0, indicating the likelihood of its synthesizability. On the other hand, compounds with a small positive hd (typically within a few tens of meV/atom) are called metastable and may also be in some cases experimentally synthesized$^{39,40}$. According to these criteria, all experimentally known AMM$^{\prime}$Q$_3$ compounds should possess zero or small positive hds. Our analysis reveals that in Set-I, all (39) Type-I compounds and all but one (29) Type-II compounds have hd = 0, which is in line with our expectations. The one Type-II compound that has a small positive hd is Eu$_2^{+}$CuEu$_3^{+}$S$_3$ (hd = 37 meV/atom). Also, all but three (47) Type-III compounds of Set-I have hd = 0. These three Type-III compounds are CsCoYbS$_3$ (hd = 192 meV/atom), CsCoYbSe$_3$ (hd = 31 meV/atom), and CsZnYbSe$_3$ (hd = 31 meV/atom). So, 115 of 119 experimentally synthesized compounds in
DFT calculations reveal that BaAgErS$_3$ is metastable at 0 K in this structure. Interestingly, our HT-DFT mental crystal structure having C$^{2}$/m SG (#12), indicating that it is 12 meV/atom when its calculation is performed on the experience.

From this analysis, we also find that one of the Type-II compounds in Set-I, BaAgErS$_3$, possesses a small positive hd of 6 meV/atom when its calculation is performed on the experimental crystal structure having C$^{2}$/m SG (#12), indicating that it is metastable at 0 K in this structure. Interestingly, our HT-DFT calculations reveal that BaAgErS$_3$ is stable T = 0 K in the KCuZrSe$_3$ structure type (see Supplementary Fig. 2).

Since the 73 compounds in Set-II did not exist in OQMD before our HT-DFT calculations, we generate their crystal structures through prototype decorations as mentioned before to perform DFT calculations and T = 0 K phase stability analysis. As these compounds have already been synthesized experimentally, our DFT calculations and phase stability analysis provide a key test of our methodology. It also gives us an opportunity to examine how reliably our calculations can predict hitherto unknown stable AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds. After performing the thermodynamic stability analysis, we found that among the 73 compounds in Set-II (type-I: 1, type-II: 60, type-III: 12), 64 compounds have hd = 0, and only four compounds (SrCuYbS$_3$: hd = 84 meV/atom, BaCuYbTe$_3$: hd = 62 meV/atom, EuCuYbS$_3$: hd = 72 meV/atom, PbCuYbS$_3$: hd = 104 meV/atom) of Type-II and five compounds (CsMnYbSe$_3$: hd = 8 meV/atom, CsZnYbS$_3$: hd = 163 meV/atom, CsZnYbTe$_3$: hd = 71 meV/atom, RbZnYbSe$_3$: hd = 102 meV/atom, RbZnYbTe$_3$: hd = 82 meV/atom) of Type-III have positive hd’s.

Thus, our HT-DFT calculations based on the decorated structures successfully capture the stability of all but 13 (out of 192) of the experimentally known AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds. The 13 compounds which are experimentally observed but with hd > 0 all contain Eu and Yb, and the calculated energetics of these compounds may originate from the choice of incorrect pseudo-potentials as discussed later. These results and analysis give us strong confidence in designing and discovering new AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds using the HT-DFT calculations and thermodynamic T = 0 K stability as a metric for synthesizable compounds. We have

### Table 1. A table summarizing the design and discovery of materials through prototype decoration.

| Compounds | Type-I | Type-II | Type-III | Total |
|-----------|--------|---------|----------|-------|
|           | A      | M      | M$^′$    | Q     |
| A         | Li, Na, K, Rb, Cs, In, Ti (7) | Cu, Ag, Au (3) | Ti, Mn, Zr, Mo, Ru, Pd, Hf, W, Re, Os, Ir, Pt, Ce (13) | S, Se, Te (3) |
| M         | Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba, Ge, Sn, Pb, Eu (8) | Cu, Ag, Au (3) | Sc, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (16) | S, Se, Te (3) |
| M$^′$     | Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cd, Hg, Eu (8) | Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cd, Hg, Eu (8) | Sc, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (16) | S, Se, Te (3) |
| Q         | Li, Na, K, Rb, Cs, In, Ti (7) | Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cd, Hg, Eu (8) | Sc, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (16) | S, Se, Te (3) |

Elements chosen for decorating the prototype AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ structures and results of HT-DFT calculations are shown here. The values within the parentheses indicate the total number of elements used in each of three categories of compounds for substitutions at the A, M, M$^′$, and Q sites. All generated initial compositions satisfy the charge neutrality criteria based on their nominal oxidation states. The numbers of predicted stable (hd = 0) and low-energy metastable (0 < hd ≤ 50 meV/atom) compounds in the table exclude the experimentally known 192 AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds.

### Set-I are thermodynamically stable in the OQMD. Hence, stability is an excellent metric for the synthesizability of the predicted compounds. From this analysis, we also find that one of the Type-II compounds in Set-I, BaAgErS$_3$, possesses a small positive hd of 12 meV/atom when its calculation is performed on the experiment.

Fig. 2. Elementary distributions of the experimentally known and theoretically decorated AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds. The AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds are categorized into three types depending on the nominal oxidation states of the cations: Type-I (A$^{′}$M$^+$M$^{′+}$Q$_3$), Type-II (A$^{′}$M$^+$M$^{′3+}$Q$_3$), and Type-III (A$^{′}$M$^+$M$^{′+}$Q$_3$). The color-coded periodic table indicates the group of elements (whose oxidation states are written in blue color) that are used for prototype decorations in our HT-DFT calculations. Elements that are denoted with the check marks constitute the experimentally known AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds. Salmon, cyan, and yellow colors represent elements that occupy A, M/M$^′$, and Q sites, respectively. The gray color represents the elements that were not used for prototype decoration. Eu has mixed oxidation states and occupies both A and M$^′$ sites. Although Ba occupies A/M$^′$ sites in Ba$_2$MnS$_3$, we have kept Ba fixed only to the A-site in this work during prototype decoration. All experimental and decorated compounds are charge balanced.

### Table 1. A table summarizing the design and discovery of materials through prototype decoration.

| Compounds | Type-I | Type-II | Type-III | Total |
|-----------|--------|---------|----------|-------|
|           | A      | M      | M$^′$    | Q     |
| A         | Li, Na, K, Rb, Cs, In, Ti (7) | Cu, Ag, Au (3) | Ti, Mn, Zr, Mo, Ru, Pd, Hf, W, Re, Os, Ir, Pt, Ce (13) | S, Se, Te (3) |
| M         | Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba, Ge, Sn, Pb, Eu (8) | Cu, Ag, Au (3) | Sc, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (16) | S, Se, Te (3) |
| M$^′$     | Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cd, Hg, Eu (8) | Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cd, Hg, Eu (8) | Sc, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (16) | S, Se, Te (3) |
| Q         | Li, Na, K, Rb, Cs, In, Ti (7) | Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cd, Hg, Eu (8) | Sc, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu (16) | S, Se, Te (3) |

Total number of initial compositions

7 × 3 × 13 × 3 = 819
8 × 3 × 16 × 3 = 1152
7 × 8 × 16 × 3 = 2688

Thermodynamically stable compounds

69
231
328
628

Thermodynamically metastable compounds

59
282
511
852

Elements chosen for decorating the prototype AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ structures and results of HT-DFT calculations are shown here. The values within the parentheses indicate the total number of elements used in each of three categories of compounds for substitutions at the A, M, M$^′$, and Q sites. All generated initial compositions satisfy the charge neutrality criteria based on their nominal oxidation states. The numbers of predicted stable (hd = 0) and low-energy metastable (0 < hd ≤ 50 meV/atom) compounds in the table exclude the experimentally known 192 AMM$^{′}$Q$_3$ compounds.
provided the phase stability data of all 192 experimentally known AMM′Q₃ compounds in the Supplementary information.

**Discovery of AMM′Q₃ compounds**

After performing the T = 0 K stability analysis of all newly decorated AMM′Q₃ compounds for which HT-DFT calculations are performed in all seven structure types, we discover a large number of 628 (type-I: 69, type-II: 231, type-III:328) thermodynamically stable compounds that exclude the experimentally known 192 compounds. To put this number into perspective, the OQMD (containing more than 900,000 entries as of September 2020) has stable (hd = 0) 1161 full-Heuslers (SG: Fm3m, #225), 618 half-Heuslers (SG: F43m, #216), 353 cubic (SG: Pn3m, #221) perovskites, 242 orthorhombic (SG: Pnma, #62) perovskites. Similar to the experimentally known AMM′Q₃ compounds, the KCuZrSe₃ and Eu₂CuS₃ structure types are the most common, which constitute 41% and 25% of the predicted stable compounds, respectively (Fig. 3b). Among the other structure types, NaCuTiSe₃ and TlCuTiTe₃ are quite common, which constitute 19% and 9% of the predicted stable compounds. The rest 6% compounds have the BaCuLaS₃ and BaAgErS₃ structure types. However, we found no new stable compound in the Ba₂MnS₃ structure type. Our analysis shows that 570 out of 628 compounds possess finite band gaps, among which most of the compounds have band gaps within 1.5 eV (Fig. 3c). This is not surprising since all the decorated compositions are charge balanced. In addition, we found 852 potentially synthesizable metastable compounds (Type-I: 59, Type-II: 282, Type-III: 511) with small positive hds (i.e., 0 < hd ≤ 50 meV/atom). A summary of the HT-DFT calculations is shown in Table 1, and the lists of all predicted stable and metastable compounds are given in the Supplementary information.

We further examine the predicted stable compounds within each type in terms of their chemistries (sulfides, selenides, and tellurides) and the cations (A, M, M′). The results are displayed as bar charts in Fig. 4, where the bar corresponding to an element represents the number of stable compounds that contain it. We see that: (1) the elements that form the stable compounds constitute almost the entire periodic table. (2) There are more Cu-containing compounds in Type-I and Type-II categories compared to Ag or Au. In Type-III, there are more Mn compounds than other M elements with a 2+ oxidation state. (3) The number of stable compounds increases from Type-I (69) to Type-II (231) to Type-III (328). This is not surprising given that the number of elements that can occupy the M and M′ sites (satisfying the charge neutrality criteria) increase from Type-I to Type-III compounds (Table 1). A general trend that is noticeable across three types is that as we go from sulfides to selenides to tellurides, the number of compounds with smaller A cations decrease whereas the number increases with larger A cations. For example, there are two, two, and no Li-containing compounds in sulfides, selenides, and tellurides of Type-I compounds, respectively. Similarly, the number of compounds that have Sr increase from sulfides (7) to selenides (20) to tellurides (34) in Type-II.

**Lattice thermal transport properties**

We now focus on exploring the lattice thermal transport properties of the predicted stable AMM′Q₃ compounds. An accurate estimation of κ_l of a compound within a first-principles DFT framework is computationally very expensive. Hence, the calculations of κ_{l} for all the predicted stable compounds would require a massive amount of computational resources. However, to demonstrate the thermal transport properties of our newly predicted stable compounds, we randomly select a handful of compounds with some criteria. We first screen for non-magnetic and semiconducting compounds, where the lattice contribution dominates the total thermal conductivity. Next, we search for those compounds which have the KCuZrSe₃ structure type as it possesses the highest crystal symmetry (SG: Cmcm, #63) and the smallest unit cell (12 atoms). Finally, we randomly select ten compounds for κ_{l} calculations. The selected compounds, which include sulfides, selenides, and tellurides, are: CsCuZrS₃, CuS, CuSe, CuTe, BaCuZrS₃, BaCuZrSe₃, BaCuZrTe₃, NaCuZrS₃, NaCuZrSe₃, and NaCuZrTe₃.
Type-I
\[ A^1 + M^1 + M' + Q_3 \]

Type-II
\[ A^2 + M^1 + M' + Q_3 \]

Type-III
\[ A^1 + M^2 + M'^3 + Q_3 \]

BaCuScSe_3, BaCuTeSe_3, BaCuTeS_3, BaAgGdSe_3, CsZnYSe_3, CsZnGdS_3, CsZnSeS_3, CsZnSeTe_3, CsCdYTe_3. We note that this list also includes Type-I (the first in the list), Type-II (the next 4) as well as Type-III (the last 5) compounds. The electronic structures and phonon dispersions of these compounds are given in the Supplementary information.

We calculate the \( \kappa_l \) of these ten compounds using the PBTE (see “Methods” section) and present the results in Fig. 5. We see that all these compounds exhibit very low \( \kappa_l \) where the in-plane \( (\kappa_{l}^k) \) and the cross-plane \( (\kappa_{l}^k) \) components are lower than 3 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\) and 1.2 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\), respectively, for \( T \geq 300 \) K. Here, \( \kappa_{l}^k \) is perpendicular to the stacking direction of the layers in the crystal structure of the AMM\( Q_3 \) compounds and \( \kappa_{l}^k \) is parallel to it. As a reference, we compare our calculated \( \kappa_l \) with that of a prototypical TE material SnSe, which was experimentally shown to possess low \( \kappa_l \) that leads to a very high TE figure-of-merit. The measured \( \kappa_{l}^k \) and \( \kappa_{l}^k \) for single-crystalline stoichiometric samples of SnSe are 1.9 and 0.9 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\), respectively, at 300 K, which become much lower in the off-stoichiometric polycrystalline samples. Further examination of the results in Fig. 5 reveals that in terms of the anisotropy of the \( \kappa_{l}^k \) and \( \kappa_{l}^k \) components, Type-I and Type-III compounds are quite similar, but Type-II compounds are different from the rest i.e., \( \kappa_{l}^k / \kappa_{l}^k \) (Type-I/III) > \( \kappa_{l}^k / \kappa_{l}^k \) (Type-II). The difference in the anisotropy of the properties arises from the fact that in Type-II compound the electrostatic attractions between \( A^2^+ \) and \( [MM'Q_3]^\kappa_3^- \) layers are stronger than that of between \( A^1^+ \) and \( [MM'O_3]^\kappa_3^- \) layers in Type-I/III compounds. The stronger interlayer interactions give rise to a shorter interlayer distance in Type-II, which make \( \kappa_{l}^k \) and \( \kappa_{l}^k \) less anisotropic.

To gain a deeper understanding, we examine the lattice dynamics and thermal transport properties of BaCuScTe_3 (Type-II) and CsCdYTe_3 (Type-III) in detail. Our analysis reveals that the underlying physical principles governing the low \( \kappa_l \) in Type-II compounds are different from the Type-I/III compounds. We start our analysis with the phonon dispersion of BaCuScTe_3 (Fig. 6a), which shows the presence of very low-frequency acoustic (<45 cm\(^{-1}\)), and optical (~15 cm\(^{-1}\) along X-S-R directions) phonon modes, which give rise to low phonon group velocities. The phonon dispersion and the phonon density of states (Fig. 6b) of BaScCuTe_3 show that a strong hybridization exists between the phonon branches up to 100 cm\(^{-1}\), where Ba and Te atoms have large contributions. Soft acoustic phonon branches give rise to very low-sound velocities and a strong hybridization between the phonons at low energies enhances the phonon scattering phase space. Both these factors help suitably to give rise to a very low \( \kappa_l \) (\( \kappa_{l}^k = 1.7 \) Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\) and \( \kappa_{l}^k = 0.76 \) Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\) at 300 K). On the other hand, the phonon dispersion of CsCdYTe_3 (Fig. 6d) features nearly dispersion-less optical phonon branches along the X-S-R-A directions in the Brillouin zone at low energies, which are the characteristics of rattler vibrations in the crystal structure. In addition, it also has soft acoustic phonon branches (~35 cm\(^{-1}\)). The calculated \( \kappa_l \) of CsCdYTe_3 becomes ultralow with \( \kappa_{l}^k \) and \( \kappa_{l}^k \) being 0.82 and 0.25 Wm\(^{-1}\)K\(^{-1}\), respectively, at 300 K.

Rattler phonon modes are highly localized, which strongly inhibit the transport of phonons, giving rise to ultralow \( \kappa_l \) in many crystalline solids such as TlnTe_2\(^{56}\), CsAg_5Te_3\(^{59}\), etc. It was shown that the filler atoms in clathrates\(^{56}\) and skutterudites\(^{57}\) act as ideal rattlers, which give rise to dispersion-less phonon branches where
the phonon frequencies remain highly localized having very small participation ratio (PR) values ~0.2 (see “Methods” section). The PRs of the phonon modes of BaCuScTe₃ and CsCdYTe₃ are color coded in Fig. 6a, d, respectively. We see that while most of the low-energy phonon modes (<100 cm⁻¹) of BaCuScTe₃ have PR values close to 1, signifying the absence of phonon localization, the low-energy dispersion-less phonon branches of CsCdYTe₃ have small PRs (<0.2), indicating the highly localized nature of the phonon modes. The phonon density of states (Fig. 6e) also reveals that these localized phonons primarily arise from the Cs atoms (confined in 25–55 cm⁻¹) that act as rattlers. Thus, our analysis shows that the ultralow κᵢ in CsCdYTe₃ is primarily caused by the localized vibrations of the rattling phonons.

We further investigate the origin of such poor thermal transport properties in BaCuScTe₃ in terms of a more fundamental material quantity, the lattice anharmonicity. Strong lattice anharmonicity is one of the important factors that induces very low κᵢ in compounds like SnSe⁵², NaSbTe₂⁵³, etc. To estimate the strength...
of the intrinsic anharmonicity, we calculate the macroscopic average Gruneisen parameter,
\[
\gamma = \sum_i \gamma_i C_{v,i} / \sum_i C_{v,i},
\]
where \(\gamma_i\) and \(C_{v,i}\) are the Gruneisen parameter and specific heat capacity at constant volume for the \(i\)th phonon mode. The calculated value of \(\gamma\) of BaCuScTe\(_3\) (1.5) is larger than that of CsCdYTe\(_3\) (1.2), signifying the presence of stronger anharmonicity in the former. These \(\gamma\) values are comparable to that of NaSbSe\(_2\) (1.7), NaSbTe\(_2\) (1.6), NaBiTe\(_2\) (1.5), etc. compounds which are experimentally\(^{53}\) shown to possess ultralow \(\kappa\). Thus, we see that while the low \(\kappa\) in Type-II compounds is caused by the low-sound velocities and a stronger lattice anharmonicity, the presence of rattler cations in Type-III as well Type-I compounds (see Supplementary Fig. 4) are primarily responsible for inducing low \(\kappa\) in them.

To examine which phonons are primarily responsible for the conduction of heat in BaCuScTe\(_3\) and CsCdYTe\(_3\), we plot the cumulative \(\kappa\) and their first-order derivatives \(\kappa'_l\) with respect to the frequency at \(T = 300\) K. We see from Fig. 6c that while the acoustic and low-energy optical phonons up to 90 cm\(^{-1}\) mainly contribute to \(\kappa\), \(\kappa'_l\) is primarily contributed by the phonons up to 45 cm\(^{-1}\) in BaCuScTe\(_3\). On the other hand, Fig. 6f shows that while the acoustic as well as the optical phonons up to 100 cm\(^{-1}\) have large contributions toward \(\kappa\), only the acoustic phonons (up to 35 cm\(^{-1}\)) primarily carry heat for \(\kappa\) in CsCdYTe\(_3\). We also notice that the anisotropy \(\kappa'_l/\kappa'_l = 3.3\) at \(T = 300\) K in CsCdYTe\(_3\) is much larger that of BaCuScTe\(_3\) \(\kappa'_l/\kappa'_l = 2.2\) at \(T = 300\) K. The origin of this anisotropy can be attributed to the contrasting interlayer and intralayer interactions in BaCuScTe\(_3\) and CsCdYTe\(_3\). For example, the analysis of the interatomic force constants (IFCs) reveals that interlayer interactions in CsCdYTe\(_3\) are much weaker (IFC(Cs – Te) = –0.333 eV/Å\(^2\)) compared to BaCuScTe\(_3\) (IFC(Ba – Te) = –1.204 eV/Å\(^2\)), which makes the transport of optical phonons (above 25 cm\(^{-1}\)) along the stacking direction (i.e., \(\kappa'_l\)) of CsCdYTe\(_3\) less effective. On the other hand, the intralayer interactions in CsCdYTe\(_3\) are much stronger (IFC(Cd – Te) = –3.923 eV/Å\(^2\), IFC(Y – Te) = –2.216 eV/Å\(^2\) than those of BaCuScTe\(_3\) (IFC(Cu – Te) = –2.396 eV/Å\(^2\)). As a result, while phonons up to 90 cm\(^{-1}\) mainly carry the heat for \(\kappa'_l\) in BaCuScTe\(_3\), in CsCdYTe\(_3\) they are carried by phonons with frequencies up to 100 cm\(^{-1}\) very effectively.

**DISCUSSION**

We notice that in Set-I and Set-II, all the known compounds that have positive \(h\)'s have either Yb\(^{3+}\) or Eu\(^{3+}\) cations in them. Given the fact OQMD used Yb\(_2\) and Eu\(_2\) PPs which are intended for compounds having Yb\(^{2+}\) and Eu\(^{2+}\) cations, those energetic results are somewhat suspect. However, we note that our HT-DFT calculations predict the stability of other rare-earth elements containing known compounds in this family correctly. Hence, the newly predicted compounds containing Eu\(^{3+}\) and Yb\(^{3+}\) should be taken with caution. We note that none of our predicted stable compounds contain these cations. However, 11 and 7 of the predicted metastable compounds contain Eu\(^{3+}\) and Yb\(^{3+}\) cations, respectively.

Concerning the experimental validation of our prediction, we note that the experimental synthesis of a large number of compounds is a daunting task. While automated synthesis of a large number of compounds is now possible through HT experimental facilities\(^{54}\), here, we suggest only four compounds (Table 2) that can be immediately picked up for experimental verification of our prediction. These compounds contain no toxic element and their calculated lattice thermal conductivity is very...
low. In Table 2, we provide their DFT-calculated band gaps, $\gamma$, and average $\kappa_{l}$ calculated at 300 K. These calculated quantities along with $\kappa_{l}$ can be compared with the experimentally measured values of these materials. Finally, we note that $\kappa_{l}$ for each compound has been calculated using only three-phonon scattering processes. The inclusion of additional four-phonon scattering rates\textsuperscript{25,26} and grain-boundary\textsuperscript{57} limited phonon scattering mechanisms could further lower the calculated $\kappa_{l}$ in this family of compounds. Also, as the electronic structure of the compounds features nearly flat bands and multiple peaks near the valence/conduction band extrema (Supplementary Fig. 3), some of these compounds are expected to exhibit good potential for TE applications as well.

To estimate the usefulness of these materials as TES, we perform detailed TE calculations (see “Methods” section for details) on the four compounds in Table 2. Our analysis shows that ZT of three compounds (BaAgGdSe$_3$, CsZnScTe$_3$, and CsCdYTe$_3$) exceeds 1 at 600 K, indicating their high TE performance. To highlight the TE efficiency of these four compounds, in Table 2, we provide the Seebeck coefficient, power factor and ZT (at 600 K) at a nominal carrier concentration ($2 \times 10^{19} \text{cm}^{-3}$) for $\tau = 10$ fs along the crystallographic direction and doping type for which ZT exhibits the maximum value.

**METHODS**

**DFT calculations**

We performed DFT calculations using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package\textsuperscript{58} and utilizing the projector-augmented wave\textsuperscript{59} potentials with the Perdew–Burke–Erzerhöf\textsuperscript{60} generalized gradient approximation to the exchange-correlation functional. The atomic positions and other cell degrees of freedom of the compounds were fully relaxed and spin-polarized calculations were performed for compounds that contain partially filled d or f-shells elements with a ferromagnetic arrangement of spins in accordance with the HT framework as laid out in the qmpy suite\textsuperscript{61,62}. For more details on the calculation parameters, we refer to refs. 3, 4. $T = 0$ K phase stability analysis often serves as an excellent indicator for the possibility of synthesizability of a predicted compound in the laboratory\textsuperscript{4,11}. To assess the $T = 0$ K thermodynamic stability of the compounds, we calculate their formation energies ($\Delta H_{f}$) utilizing the DFT total energy (ground-state) of each compound using the formula:

$$\Delta H_{f}(\sigma) = E(\sigma) - \sum_{i} n_{i} \mu_{i},$$

where $E$ is the DFT total energy (at 0 K) of an AMM’Q$_{3}$ compound in a crystal structure denoted by $\sigma$, $\mu_{i}$ is the chemical potential of element $i$ with its fraction $n_{i}$ in that compound. For each composition, we used a number of prototype crystal structures, $\sigma$, based on structural prototypes of known AMM’Q$_{3}$ compounds. To determine the thermodynamic stability of a compound, we need to compare its formation energy against all its competing phases, not only against other compounds at the same composition. To this end, we generated the quaternary phase diagram (i.e., the $T = 0$ K convex hull of the A-M’-M’-Q phase space) for every AMM’Q$_{3}$ compound considering all elemental, binary, ternary, and quaternary phases present in the OQMD, which (as of September 2020) corresponded to nearly 900,000 entries of DFT-calculated energies. The calculated convex hull (explained in the next section) then serves as a metric to determine whether a compound is stable (i.e., $\text{hd} = 0$), metastable (small positive $\text{hd}$), or unstable (large positive $\text{hd}$).

![Table 2. Suggested compounds for experimental synthesis and characterization.](image)

| Compound       | Band gap (eV) | Average $\gamma$ at 300 K | Average $\kappa_{l}$ (Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$) at 300 K | | | \(\mu \text{V} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}\) at 600 K | PF (\(\mu \text{W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-2}\)) at 600 K | ZT at 600 K | Direction/doping |
|----------------|---------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| BaCuScTe$_3$  | 0.39          | 1.51                      | 1.23                                          |                |                | 254            | 11                           | 0.63            | In-plane/n-type            |
| BaAgGdSe$_3$  | 1.45          | 1.60                      | 1.24                                          |                |                | 260            | 14                           | 1.1             | Out-of-plane/p-type        |
| CsZnScTe$_3$  | 1.20          | 1.30                      | 0.79                                          | 400            | 25             | 1.3            | Out-of-plane/p-type          |
| CsCdYTe$_3$   | 1.74          | 1.30                      | 0.54                                          | 390            | 13             | 1.4            | In-plane/n-type              |

A list of four predicted stable compounds is suggested for the experimental synthesis and measurement of their properties. The DFT-calculated band gap, macroscopic average Gruneisen parameter ($\gamma$), the average $\kappa_{l}$ are provided to compare against experiments. To highlight the thermoelectric performance of these compounds, we provide the Seebeck coefficient ($\mu \text{V} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$), power factor ($\mu \text{W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-2}$), and ZT of these compounds at 600 K and at a nominal carrier concentration ($2 \times 10^{19} \text{cm}^{-3}$) for $\tau = 10$ fs along the crystallographic direction and doping type for which ZT exhibits the maximum value.

**Table 2. Suggested compounds for experimental synthesis and characterization.**

| Compound       | Band gap (eV) | Average $\gamma$ at 300 K | Average $\kappa_{l}$ (Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$) at 300 K | \(\mu \text{V} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}\) at 600 K | PF (\(\mu \text{W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-2}\)) at 600 K | ZT at 600 K | Direction/doping |
|----------------|---------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| BaCuScTe$_3$  | 0.39          | 1.51                      | 1.23                                          |                |                | 254            | 11                           | 0.63            | In-plane/n-type            |
| BaAgGdSe$_3$  | 1.45          | 1.60                      | 1.24                                          |                |                | 260            | 14                           | 1.1             | Out-of-plane/p-type        |
| CsZnScTe$_3$  | 1.20          | 1.30                      | 0.79                                          | 400            | 25             | 1.3            | Out-of-plane/p-type          |
| CsCdYTe$_3$   | 1.74          | 1.30                      | 0.54                                          | 390            | 13             | 1.4            | In-plane/n-type              |

Seebeck coefficients ($\mu \text{V} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$), power factors (PF, $\mu \text{W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-2}$) and ZT (at 600 K) at a nominal carrier concentration ($2 \times 10^{19} \text{cm}^{-3}$) for $\tau = 10$ fs along the crystallographic direction and doping type for which ZT exhibits the maximum value.

In summary, we use HT-DFT calculations to discover a large number of 628 thermodynamically stable quaternary chalcogenides (AMM’Q$_{3}$). As all compositions in this family are charge balanced, our analysis shows that 570 of 628 compounds possess finite band gaps which vary between 0.2 and 5.34 eV. Our calculations of the thermal transport properties show that AMM’Q$_{3}$ compounds exhibit intrinsically very low $\kappa_{l}$ and the anisotropy in $\kappa_{l}$ is much smaller in Type-II compounds compared to Type-I/III compounds. Our analysis further reveals that low $\kappa_{l}$ in this family originates either due to the presence of rattling cations (in Type-I/III compounds) or stronger lattice anharmonicity (Type-II compound). While the rattler cations give rise to localized phonon modes that inhibit the propagation of phonons, a stronger lattice anharmonicity enhances the phonon scattering phase space, leading to a low $\kappa_{l}$. In addition, there exists a strong coupling between the acoustic and low-energy optical phonon modes in Type-II compounds which increases the phonon scattering rates of the heat-carrying phonons. A detailed TE characterization of some of the predicted compounds shows the potential of the AMM’Q$_{3}$ compounds to be efficient TEs. Our work is thus interesting not just from the perspective of materials discovery but also for finding the presence of low $\kappa_{l}$ in them, which hold promises for further research and possible applications in energy materials, particularly in TES and related devices.
**Convex hull construction**

To construct the convex hull of an AMM′Q₃ compound, it is necessary to identify the set of phases (elemental, binary, ternary as well as quaternary) in the four-dimensional composition space of A-M-M′-Q that have the lowest formation energies at their compositions. In OQMD, we present the convex hull of a quaternary compound through a four-dimensional phase diagram which is represented as an isometric shot of the Gibbs diagram of the Cu-Zr-S ternary system which is presented as the Gibbs triangle. Each cyan node in a and b represents a stable compound. For clarity, we do not show any metastable/ unstable compounds and mark only few stable compounds in this figure. LiCuZr₃S₃ is one of the predicted stable compounds in this work, and which and its competing phases are denoted with dashed arrows in a.

**Phonon participation ratio**

Phonon dispersions have been calculated using 2×2×1 supercell of the primitive unit cell using Phonopy. The high-symmetry paths in the Brillouin zones were adopted following the conventions used by Setyawan et al. To examine the extent of localization of the phonon modes, we calculate their phonon PR using the formula:

$$P(\omega_q) = \left( \sum_i \frac{|\epsilon_i(\omega_q)|^2}{M_i} \right)^2 / \sum_i N \frac{|\epsilon_i(\omega_q)|^4}{M_i^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $\epsilon_i(\omega_q)$ is the eigenvector of the phonon mode at wavevector $q$ with frequency $\omega_q$, $M_i$ is the mass of the $i$th atom in the unit cell containing a total number of $N$ atoms. The value of $P(\omega_q)$ ranges between 0 and 1. In an ordered crystal, when $P(\omega_q)$ becomes close to 1, it indicates that the phonon mode is propagative where all the atoms in the unit cell participate. On the other hand, very low values of PR (~0.2) indicate the strong localization of the phonon modes (e.g., rattling phonons) where only a few atoms in the unit cell participate in the vibrations. Examples of rattler atoms containing compounds include filled clathrates (Ba₈Si₆S₈ and Ba₈Ga₂₆Ge₆S₈) where the filler atoms act as ideal rattlers that induce ultralow $\kappa_i$ in them.

**Thermal conductivity calculations**

We calculate the $\kappa_i$ utilizing the phonon lifetimes obtained from the third-order IFCs, which was shown to reproduce $\kappa_i$ within 5% of the experimentally measured $\kappa_i$ in this AMM′Q₃ family of compounds. We constructed the third-order IFCs of each compound based on DFT calculations of displaced supercell configurations by limiting the cut-off distance ($r_c$) up to the third nearest neighbor. We used 2×2×1 supercell (containing 48 atoms) of the primitive unit cell (with 12 atoms) using thirdorder-pr utility for the calculation of IFCs. Using the second and third-order IFCs in the ShengBTE code, we calculate the temperature-dependent phonon scattering rates and $\kappa_i$ utilizing a full iterative solution to the PBTE for phonons using a 12×12×12 q-point mesh. The calculated $\kappa_i$ generally depends on the $r_c$ which accounts for the maximum range of interaction in the third-order IFCs. It was shown that good convergence of $\kappa_i$ was obtained by limiting $r_c$ to the third nearest neighbor within the crystal structure in this family of compounds.

**Calculation of thermoelectric properties**

We calculate the TE properties of the four compounds in Table 2, i.e., BaCuScTe₃, BaAgGdSe₃, CsZnScTe₃, CsCdYTe₃ to assess their energy conversion efficiencies. We have calculated their electrical transport properties i.e., the Seebeck coefficient ($S$), power factor ($S^2\sigma$), where $\sigma$ is the electrical conductivity using the BoltzTrap code within the constant relaxation time approximation, which has been widely used to estimate the thermoelectric performance of semiconductors. We have estimated the TE figure-of-merit (ZT) using Eq. (1). While $\kappa_i$ is calculated using the PBTE, we have determined $\kappa_e$ employing the Wiedemann–Franz law. BoltzTrap code employs the Boltzmann transport equation (BTE) for electrons to calculate the electrical transport properties. We use a dense 20×20×20 k-mesh to obtain the electronic band energy which is used in the BoltzTrap code while solving the BTE. Since the compounds in Table 2 have layered crystal structures, we have plotted all TE properties along two crystallographic directions: out-of-plane direction, which is parallel ($\perp$) to the stacking direction of the layers in the crystal structure and in-plane direction, which is perpendicular ($\parallel$) to the stacking direction. Further, we plot the properties as a function of electron (i.e., n-type doping) and hole (i.e., p-type doping) carrier concentrations. We provide the figures showing the TE properties of those four compounds in the Supplementary Information (Supplementary Figs. 5–8).

The determination of realistic values of the power factor and ZT crucially depends on the electronic relaxation time ($\tau$) and its accurate determination using first-principles quantum mechanical methods are computationally very expensive. Although $\tau$ has been calculated for elemental metal.
It is known that $\tau$ in doped semiconductors and metals can vary from few fs ($1 \text{ fs} \approx 10^{-15} \text{s}$) to a few tens of fs and shows strong dependence on temperature as well as carrier concentration. For example, from the fit to the experimentally measured electrical conductivity data, Hao et al. showed that $\tau$ of SnSe varies from 27 to 4 fs as temperature increases from 300 to 800 K for hole concentrations that change from 4 × $10^{19}$ to 6.5 × $10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. On the other hand, it was theoretically shown that $\tau$ varies from 108 to 6 fs between 300 and 900 K in BaAu$_3$.P$_x$. Hence, to get an estimate of the TE performance of the AMM$Q_3$ compounds considered in this work, here, we take three conservative choices of relaxation times, namely 5, 10, and 20 fs, and evaluate the power factor and ZT of the four $Q_3$ compounds, remains an important yet challenging future work.

Finally, we note that the constant relaxation time approximation used in this study assumes that (1) $\tau$ for both holes and electrons is independent of the wave vector and energy and (2) all the details of electron scattering (of which the electron-phonon processes are usually the most important) are lumped into the constant, $\tau$. Hence, a large degree of uncertainty may be involved in our assumed values of $\tau$s. As a result, the calculated TE properties, particularly, the power factor and ZT of the compounds should be taken with caution. A reliable method of estimation of $\tau$ would be through the calculations the full electron-phonon matrix elements, which are generally computationally very expensive

**Predictive statistical modeling of $\kappa_l$**

The creation of predictive and transferable model of $\kappa_l$ is an active field of research. Such a model in principle can be made using machine learning methods such as transfer learning or deep learning. However, like any accurate machine learning model, training a high-quality model requires a large set of high-quality data which is quite scarce as the generation of the $\kappa_l$ data using PBTE or any other first-principles method is computationally prohibitive.

Here, we have made a linear regression model which can be used to predict the $\kappa_l$ of any AMM$Q_3$ compound without explicitly doing PBTE calculations. To this end, we calculate bulk ($B$) and shear ($G$) moduli of the ten compounds for which we already calculated $\kappa_l$ using the PBTE (Fig. 5).

Using $B$ and $G$, we calculated the longitudinal ($v_l$) and transverse ($v_t$) speed of sounds:

$$v_l = \frac{\sqrt{(B + \frac{4}{3}G)/\rho}}{\rho}$$

$$v_t = \frac{\sqrt{G/\rho}}{\rho}$$

where $\rho$ is the density of a compound. Next, we calculate the average speed of sound ($v_{0.5}$) using the formula:

$$3v_{0.5}^{-3} = v_l^{-3} + 2v_t^{-3}$$

We plot the directionally averaged $v_{0.5}$ (at 300 K) against the average speed of sound ($v_{0.5}$) for those ten compounds in Fig. 5k. It can be seen that the average $v_{0.5}$ shows almost linear correlation with the average $\kappa_l$. Next, we train a linear regression model on these data which form the training set.

We fit a linear regression model, $f(x)$, to the data in Fig. 5k which yields an $R^2$ value of 0.71, which implies that the average speed of sound of any AMM$Q_3$ compound, this model can predict its $\kappa_l$ with 71% accuracy. Given the very small size of the training data, the performance of the model can be considered to be quite good. To validate this model, we calculate the average speed of sound and $\kappa_l$ of another four compounds (BaCuScS$_5$, BaAgGaSe$_5$, TlCuHfSe$_3$, BaCuYTe$_3$) that belong to the validation set using the DFT and PBTE. Next, we predict their $\kappa_l$ using the above regression model, compare them with their actual calculated values (at $T = 300 \text{ K}$), and estimate the error in prediction: BaCuScS$_5$ ($\kappa_l$ (actual) = 2.87 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, $\kappa_l$ (predicted) = 3.14 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, error = 9.4%), BaAgGaSe$_5$ ($\kappa_l$ (predicted) = 1.94 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, $\kappa_l$ (predicted) = 2.29 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, error = 18.0%), TlCuHfSe$_3$ ($\kappa_l$ (actual) = 1.29 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, $\kappa_l$ (predicted) = 1.45 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, error = 12.4%), and BaCuYTe$_3$ ($\kappa_l$ (actual) = 1.75 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, $\kappa_l$ (predicted) = 1.59 Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$, error = 9.1%). Hence, the average error in prediction is $12.3\%$ which falls within the error of the trained regression model. We provide the bulk modulus, shear modulus, speed of sound, $\kappa_l$ data of the compounds in the training, validation, and test sets in the Supplementary Information in Supplementary Tables 1–3, respectively.

**DATA AVAILABILITY**

The data that support the findings of the work are in the manuscript and Supplementary Information. The structures and energetics of the predicted compounds would be made available through the Open Quantum Materials database (OQMD) in a future release. Additional data will be available upon reasonable request.

**CODE AVAILABILITY**

Open-source codes are used throughout this work.

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K.P. conceived and designed the project. K.P. performed calculations and analysis with help and suggestions from Y.X., J.S., J.H., Y.L., M.G.K., and C.W. C.W. supervised the whole project. All authors discussed the results, provided comments, and contributed to writing the manuscript.

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