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Graph theory and graph neural network assisted high-throughput crystal structure prediction and screening for energy conversion and storage†

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Prediction of crystal structures with desirable material properties is a grand challenge in materials research, due to the enormous search space of possible combinations of elements and their countless arrangements in 3D space. Despite the recent progress of a few crystal structure prediction algorithms, most of those methods only target a few specific material families or are restricted to simple systems with limited element diversity. Moreover, these algorithms are usually coupled with first principles calculations and thus are computationally expensive and very time consuming. Therefore, establishing a workflow that can generate a large number of hypothetical structures with diverse elements and quickly optimize and screen out stable structures is urgently needed for the crystal structure prediction field. In this study, we take 17277 compositions involving 63 elements across the periodic table from the open quantum materials database (OQMD) and use a graph theory assisted universal structure searcher (MAGUS) to generate more than 3.4 million hypothetical structures. We employ a pre-trained universal interatomic potential named Crystal Hamiltonian Graph neural Network (CHGNet) to rapidly optimize this large number of hypothetical structures. Subsequently, we validate these optimized structures using density functional theory (DFT) and find 4145 structures are successfully optimized and 2368 structures have energy lower than those from the original OQMD. 647 structures are further identified to be dynamically stable using CHGNet. Moreover, the stability of 123 out of 200 randomly chosen structures are validated by DFT, corresponding to a high success rate of 61.5%. We further use 4706 DFT data points to train 3 graph neural network models to predict lattice thermal conductivity (LTC) and heat capacity. Numerous structures with ultralow LTC and high heat capacity, which are promising for advanced energy conversion and energy storage, have been identified. The success of our workflow demonstrates that combining graph theory with pre-trained universal interatomic potential is highly expected to accelerate the search for new both thermodynamically and dynamically stable structures with target material properties.

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1 Introduction

Crystal structures with desired material properties are the starting point and cornerstone of modern materials research. Determining both chemically and dynamically stable crystal structures is the first step to achieve this but remains a pivotal challenge across various research disciplines, mainly because

most stable crystal structures only have the lowest Gibbs free energy at certain chemical compositions as well as given external conditions, such as temperature and pressure.¹ To evaluate whether a compound is thermodynamically stable, one needs to compare its Gibbs free energy with that of its competing phases.² Finding a structure with the lowest Gibbs free energy is cumbersome because each crystal structure has $3N - 3$ atomic coordinates, where N is the number of atoms in the unit cell. Considering 6 additional lattice parameters (a , b , c , α , β , and γ), the search space is thus $3N + 3$ -dimensional. However, the complexity of searching for stable crystals does not solely scale linearly with the number of atoms, because during the search one also needs to consider the possibility of different combinations of elements occupying the lattice sites, which usually leads to exponential scaling with the number of atoms in the unit cell. Also, it is hard to obtain the global minima among many local minima in the complex potential

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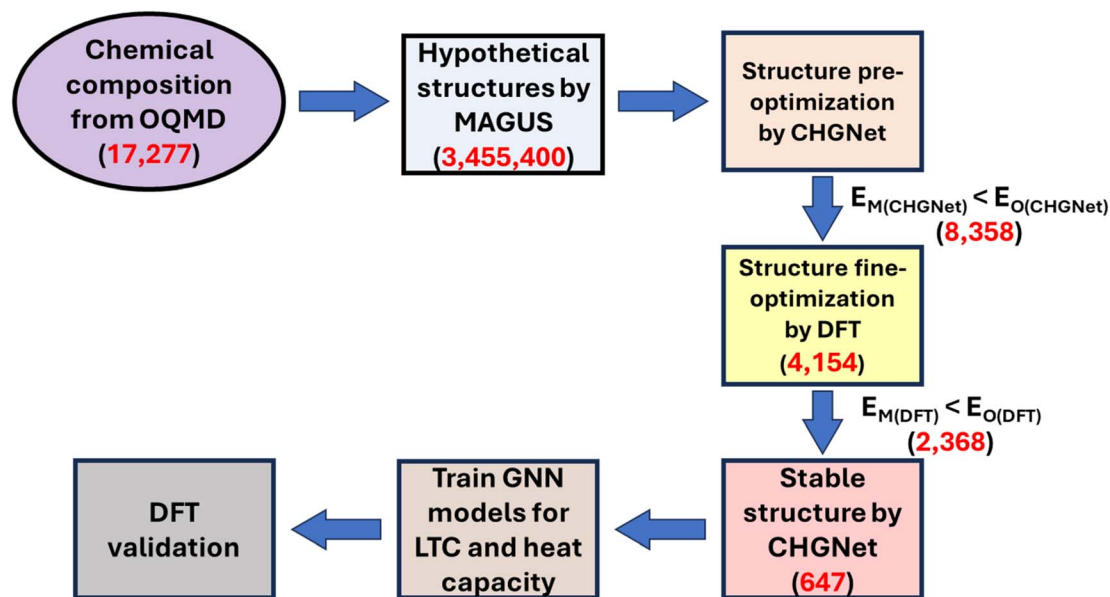
In this paper, we established a workflow consisting of hypothetical structure generation, fast structure optimization, and quick screening of dynamical stability for searching for ultralow LTC for thermoelectric energy conversion and high heat capacity for thermal energy storage. We first use an ML algorithm called “machine learning and graph theory assisted universal structure searcher (MAGUS)”⁴⁹ for the generation of large-scale hypothetical structures, followed by fast structure optimization and quick screening of dynamical stability using a pre-trained MLP named “Crystal Hamiltonian Graph neural Network (CHGNet)”.²⁸ The LTC and heat capacity of the filtered structures in the previous steps are predicted by our separately trained graph neural network (GNN) models. Selected promising candidates were validated by full DFT calculations. In all, after generating 200 hypothetical structures each for the 17 277 unstable structures from the OQMD, we found 4145 of those structures to be successfully optimized by DFT. Furthermore, 647 structures were found to be dynamically stable by our CHGNet model, and 123 out of 200 randomly selected

formula. Here, the compositions refer to the constituent elements and their ratios, such as K_2YTiBr_6 , while the hypothetical structures refer to the corresponding atomic arrangements in space including lattice parameters, symmetry, and internal atomic positions. To generate completely new crystalline structures to the greatest extent that are different from the existing open quantum materials database (OQMD), we selected 17 277 chemical compositions as individuals. In order to save some computational cost, we first narrow down our new search to compositions containing less than 10 atoms and also exclude lanthanide and actinide elements (very hard to calculate in the DFT optimization step). For noncubic structures we also exclude zero bandgap materials. There were much more unstable cubic structures from the beginning but in order to have a balanced distribution with cubic structures and also due to computational limitation, we finally only randomly chose 10 000 cubic compositions. This finally leads to 10 000 compositions from cubic structures and 7277 compositions from noncubic structures. All 17 277 structures have been predicted to have negative frequencies in the Brillouin zone, *i.e.*, dynamically unstable. The dynamical instability was either checked by direct DFT calculations or predicted by our recently developed high-fidelity Elemental Spatial Density Neural Network Force Field (Elemental-SDNFF).^{29,30} Our hypothesis is that there could exist a different structure other than those in the OQMD but with the same chemical composition. For each chemical composition we use the MAGUS package to generate 200 hypothetical structures (population).

Our workflow comprises six major steps as shown in Fig. 1: (1) hypothetical structure generation by MAGUS; (2) structure pre-optimization by CHGNet; (3) fine structure optimization by DFT; (4) dynamical stability screening by CHGNet; (5) training a regression ML model to recommend structures with ultralow LTC and high heat capacity; (6) DFT calculations of selected promising material candidates for ML model validation.

In this work, we use MAGUS for the generation of hypothetical structures, which uses EA in the generation of hypothetical structures. EA is inspired by the mechanism of biological evolution in nature. When adapting the algorithm for CSP, we treat a single potential structure as an individual and a collection of these individuals as a population. These individuals produce new populations with the fittest individual having a greater chance of survival. The fundamental difference between MAGUS and the recent new ML-assisted CSP methods⁹⁻¹¹ is that the MAGUS algorithm does not learn the pattern of arrangements of atoms in space. Instead, MAGUS generates new populations called offspring by crossover and mutation, and the individuals with good fitness are superior and survive. One of the important input parameters to the MAGUS package is the composition or chemical

CHGNet is an ML potential trained on energies, atomic forces, virial stresses, and magnetic moments from the Materials



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After successfully finding hypothetical structures that are lower in energy than the original OQMD structures, we further screen the structures for dynamical stability by using the pre-trained CHGNet MLP. For each structure, we construct a supercell and generate 50 different configurations with random atomic displacements using the PHONOPY package.³¹ The supercell size in a specific crystallographic direction depends on the lattice parameter in the same direction, and we try to make the length of the supercell in all three directions the same to a large extent. The supercell is generated to ensure that the total number of atoms in the supercell should be at least 80 but generally not more than 300. The magnitude of random atomic displacements is set as 0.01 Å, which is a widely used number if only the second order interatomic force constants (IFCs) are concerned most. After evaluating the atomic forces in the supercell configurations by CHGNet, the second order IFCs are extracted and fitted by PHONOPY, followed by the imaginary phonon frequency check in the full Brillouin zone. A threshold value of negative frequency of -0.01 THz is applied, *i.e.*, if any frequency less than -0.01 THz is found in the Brillouin zone, the corresponding structure is discarded.

After filtering out dynamically unstable structures by the CHGNet MLP, we continue to optimize the rest of the structures by full DFT calculations with the projector augmented wave (PAW) method as implemented in the Vienna *Ab Initio* Simulation Package (VASP) software.^{32–34} The exchange–correlation functional implemented in this work is the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) generalized gradient approximation (GGA).³⁵ A plane wave energy cutoff of 520 eV is used for all DFT calculations. For global structure optimization, a criterion of 10^{-8} eV

and 10^{-6} eV $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ for energy and atomic force convergence respectively was applied. For electrons, the Brillouin zone was sampled using the Monkhorst–Pack k -mesh depending on the lattice constants, with the product of the number of k -points in the crystallographic direction of the primitive cell and the corresponding lattice constant at least 60 $\text{\AA}$ to guarantee high quality DFT structure optimization. The structures with successfully converged DFT optimization will go to the next step.

We trained 3 graph neural networks, namely atomistic line graph neural network (ALIGNN),³⁶ orbital graph convolution neural network (OGCNN)³⁷ and global attention graph neural network (deeperGATGNN),³⁸ for LTC and heat capacity and then used the models to predict the LTC and heat capacity of the final structure pool we obtained. The data used for the training were obtained from our separate DFT calculations on 4706 crystal structures taken from the OQMD (specifically, 3827 cubic structures and 879 noncubic structures). Part of the data has been used in our recent work.^{29,30} 80% of our data was used for training, while 20% was used for testing. In the case of noncubic structures where the LTC typically exhibits anisotropy, we opted to train our ML models using the mean LTC values along the crystallographic x , y , and z directions. It is important to note that our previous experience shows the ML models were trained with much higher accuracy when using the log-scale values for the LTC. We thus used the log-scale values of the LTC for training and prediction of all GNN models.

For DFT validation of randomly selected structures predicted by the ML LTC model, we use the same supercells as in the previous step of fast screening of dynamic stability but this time we displace the atoms by 0.03 Å in random directions to ensure better capture of the complex potential energy landscape and facilitate accurate fitting of higher order IFCs, the quality of which is crucial for the accuracy of LTC calculation. For each structure, 30 supercell configurations with random atomic displacements are generated by PHONOPY. Self-consistent DFT calculations are then conducted to evaluate the atomic forces in the displaced supercells. The same plane wave energy cutoff is used in the DFT calculations. An energy convergence criterion of 10^{-6} eV is used. For electrons the Monkhorst–Pack k -mesh depends on the lattice constants of the supercells, with the product of the number of k -points in a crystallographic direction and the corresponding lattice constant being at least 60 Å. The second and third order IFCs are then fitted by the compressive sensing lattice dynamics (CSLD).³⁹ The LTC of the structures is obtained subsequently by iteratively solving the phonon Boltzmann transport equation (BTE) with the ShengBTE package.⁴⁰ The n -grids for sampling q -points for phonons when solving the phonon BTE are dense enough to ensure that the total number of scattering channels is larger

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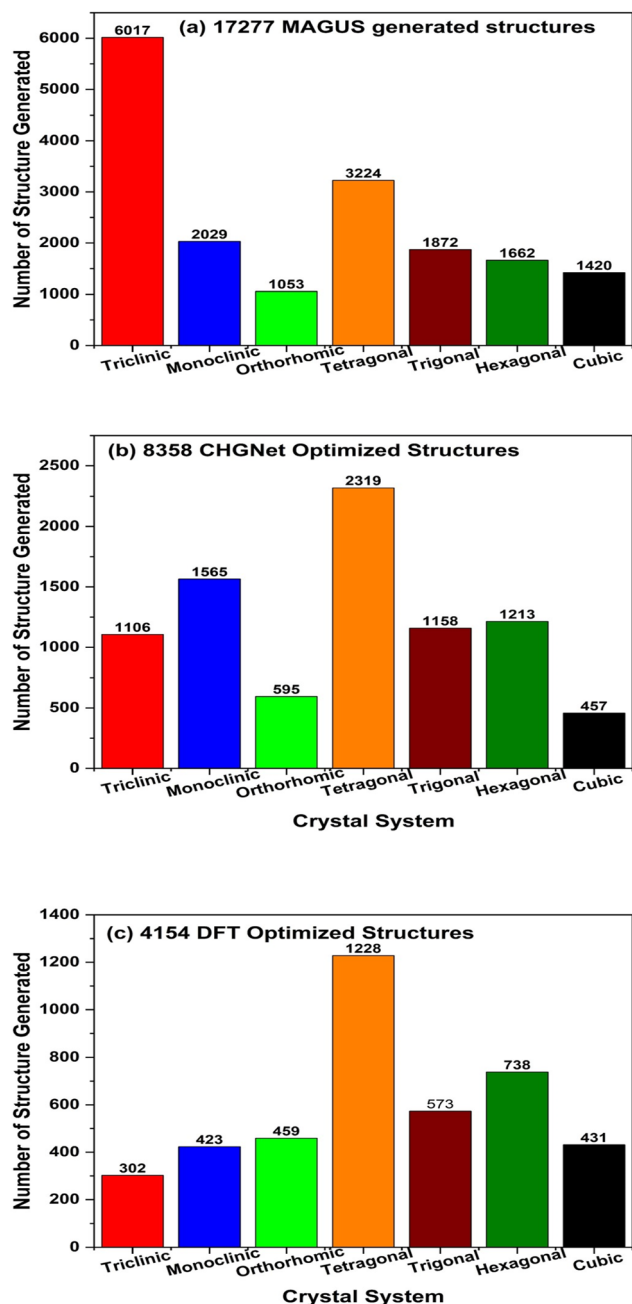


Fig. 2 Distribution of the crystal system of our structures: (a) 17 277 MAGUS generated structures, (b) 8358 CHGNet optimized structures with energy lower than that of the original OQMD structures, (c) 4154 successfully optimized structures by DFT with energy lower than that of the original OQMD structures.

on Jan. 3rd, 2022). Therefore, it is not surprising that the CHGNet model that was trained on different materials datasets has poor performance on predicting the lanthanide/actinide dominated material pool. Comprehensive evaluation of the accuracy of CHGNet would require more careful work and a fair materials dataset for comparison.

Regarding the difference in the number of structures between CHGNet screening and DFT confirmation, one of the main reasons is there could be tons of new local atomic

environments that have not been seen in the training data of the CHGNet MLP and thus will be poorly predicted by the ML model. Such phenomenon is very common when dealing with huge numbers of hypothetical structures. A very standard procedure is to use the ML model to do screening first, due to its fast speed. In this step, accuracy is not a big concern since the finally obtained “good” structures will still be large. Nevertheless, despite some discrepancies as compared with full DFT calculations, CHGNet is a great success in predicting the energy of a given cell and atomic forces therein with fast speed. In fact, our success rate of 28.3% is way higher than in a recent study using transfer learning to predict stable materials.⁴³ The relatively higher success rate is due to the different screening/filtering procedure and the different ML model used.

We then combine the CHGNet MLP and PHONOPY package to obtain the second order IFCs for all 2368 MAGUS structures. After checking phonon frequencies in the full Brillouin zone, we identify 647 structures to be dynamically stable (a positive dispersion percentage of 27.3%), *i.e.*, no negative phonon frequencies are found. We would rate the percentage of positive frequency as normal, although the total number of dynamically stable structures is not impressively large. This judgement is based on our recent observation of generally positive dispersion percentages between 23% and 28% on some other material datasets and families. We would like to emphasize that it is much stricter for a crystal structure to be dynamically stable than simply being optimized. Negative formation energy and even energy above hull close to zero does not necessarily guarantee dynamical stability. In other words, the low percentage of predicted dynamically stable structures is more likely due to the small amount of truly stable structures found. Nevertheless, we are still able to use the workflow developed herein to discover some new stable structures. A higher success rate of finding dynamically stable structures would require a more sophisticated ML model to understand the intrinsic nature and physical/chemical feature of dynamic stability, and an equally important thing is to generate structures in the previously unexplored vast space of compositions and arrangements of atoms.

To validate the success rate of dynamic stability screening by CHGNet, we randomly selected 200 structures and performed full DFT calculations for their phonon dispersions. Due to the expensive computational cost by DFT calculations of full interatomic force constants required for evaluating phonon frequencies, in particular for complex structures with low material symmetry, we only randomly selected 200 structures for DFT validation. We found 123 out of 200 structures to be dynamically stable, corresponding to a success rate of 61.5%. Despite one-time sampling, the success rate is comparable to our separate validation on another material family with prototype ABC_2D_6 and noncubic symmetry (results have not been published yet). Therefore, we believe that the CHGNet MLP has decent accuracy in predicting dynamic stability. The 61.5% success rate of positive dispersions as validated by DFT calculations is good enough for high-throughput screening of a large number of previously unexplored structures if the initial screening pool is very large



(say $>10^4$ predicted positive dispersions). The DFT validation result confirms the high success rate of using the pre-trained CHGNet MLP for quickly screening dynamic stability, which would have taken much longer simulation time and resources if running by full DFT calculations. Fig. 3a–f show the phonon dispersion comparison between CHGNet and DFT for 6 selected structures. All 6 structures show no imaginary frequency along the high symmetry paths. It should be noted that there are indeed some discrepancies between the phonon dispersions by CHGNet and DFT. For instance, it seems that there is a systematic underestimation of frequencies by CHGNet as compared with DFT. The discrepancy is understandable considering that the DFT data used for training

CHGNet is quite different from the DFT calculations performed by us, in terms of both structure and element diversity. This leaves some room for further improvement of the CHGNet model. It is well-known that the size and quality of the training data determine the accuracy of an MLP. When more DFT data is added into training in the future, the CHGNet MLP will be more accurate. Nevertheless, generally speaking, the frequency near the Γ -point is well predicted by CHGNet, while the high frequency optical phonons are under-predicted as compared with DFT results, and the pre-trained CHGNet is efficient in predicting a wide range of structures with elements across the entire periodic table and material symmetry across all 230 space groups.

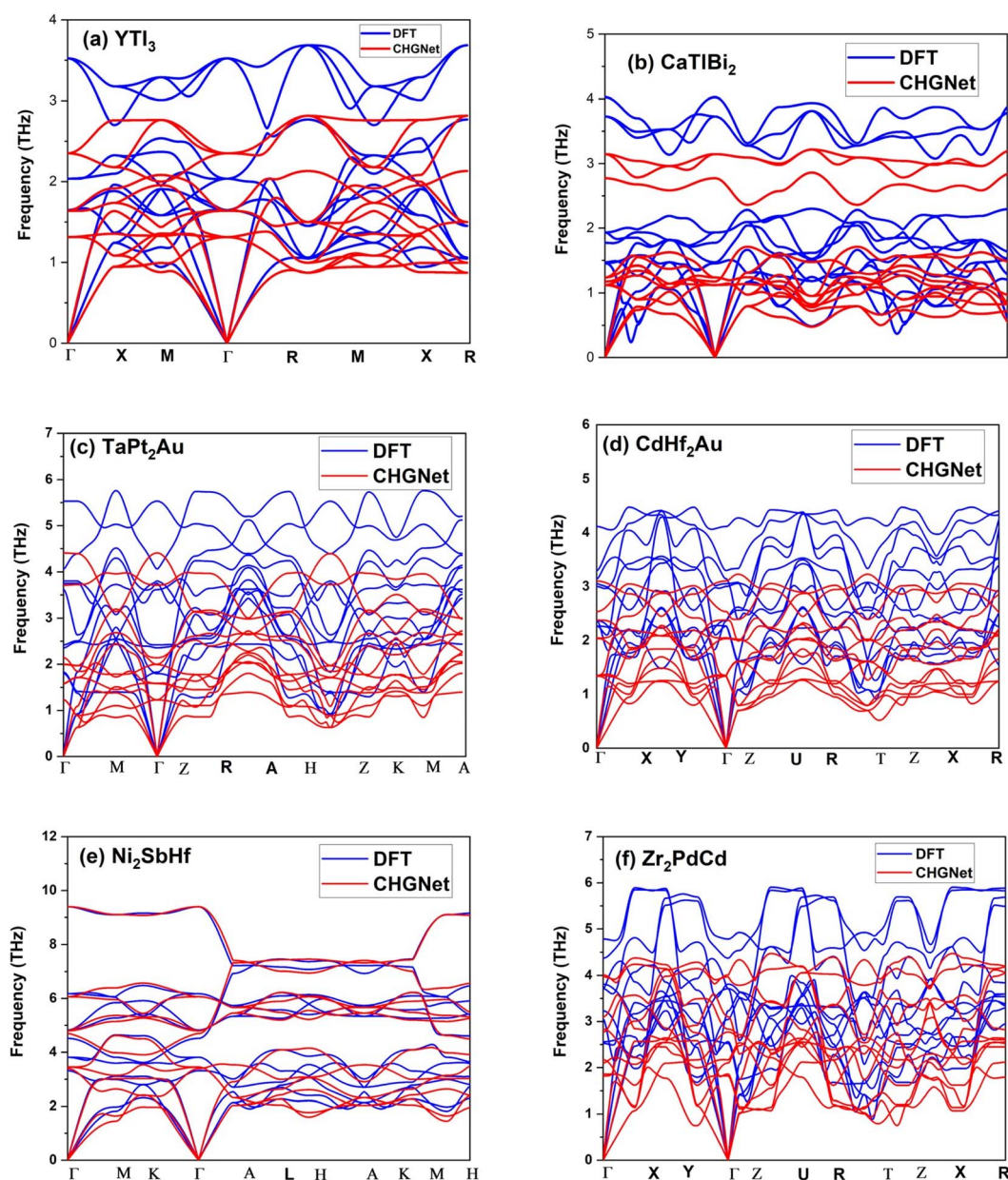


Fig. 3 Phonon dispersions along high symmetry paths of 6 selected structures by CHGNet and DFT calculations: (a) YTi_3 , (b) CaTiBi_2 , (c) TaPt_2Au , (d) CdHf_2Au , (e) Ni_2SbHf and (f) Zr_2PdCd . The non-negative phonon frequencies by DFT prove the dynamic stability of the structures.



large number of atoms (on the order of at least a few hundreds). In general, all our trained GNN models are at the same accuracy level as previous studies.^{29,44} We then further used the trained ALIGNN model to predict on the 647 reoptimized stable structures to find ultralow LTC structures which are suitable candidates for thermoelectrics and thermal insulation. We validate the model prediction by randomly selecting 200 structures predicted by the ALIGNN model. 123 out of the 200 structures turned out to be dynamically stable as verified by our DFT calculations. The comparison between ALIGNN predicted LTC and DFT calculations is shown in Fig. 5. It is found that the LTC above $1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ is well predicted by the ALIGNN model, while ultralow LTC materials (below $1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$) are over-predicted by the model. This can be explained by three plausible aspects: (1) the majority of our LTC training data is above $1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, *i.e.*, smaller percentage in the ultralow LTC region, making the medium LTC region well presented by training data and thus it is natural to see the trained model has better prediction performance in the same region as well. As shown in the inset of Fig. 5, only about 22% of our LTC training data are below $1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$. Separate training tests by removing partial training data in the medium to high LTC region turns out not to improve the overall performance of the GNN models in predicting the ultralow LTC region. In general, the behavior in Fig. 5 is very common to see in

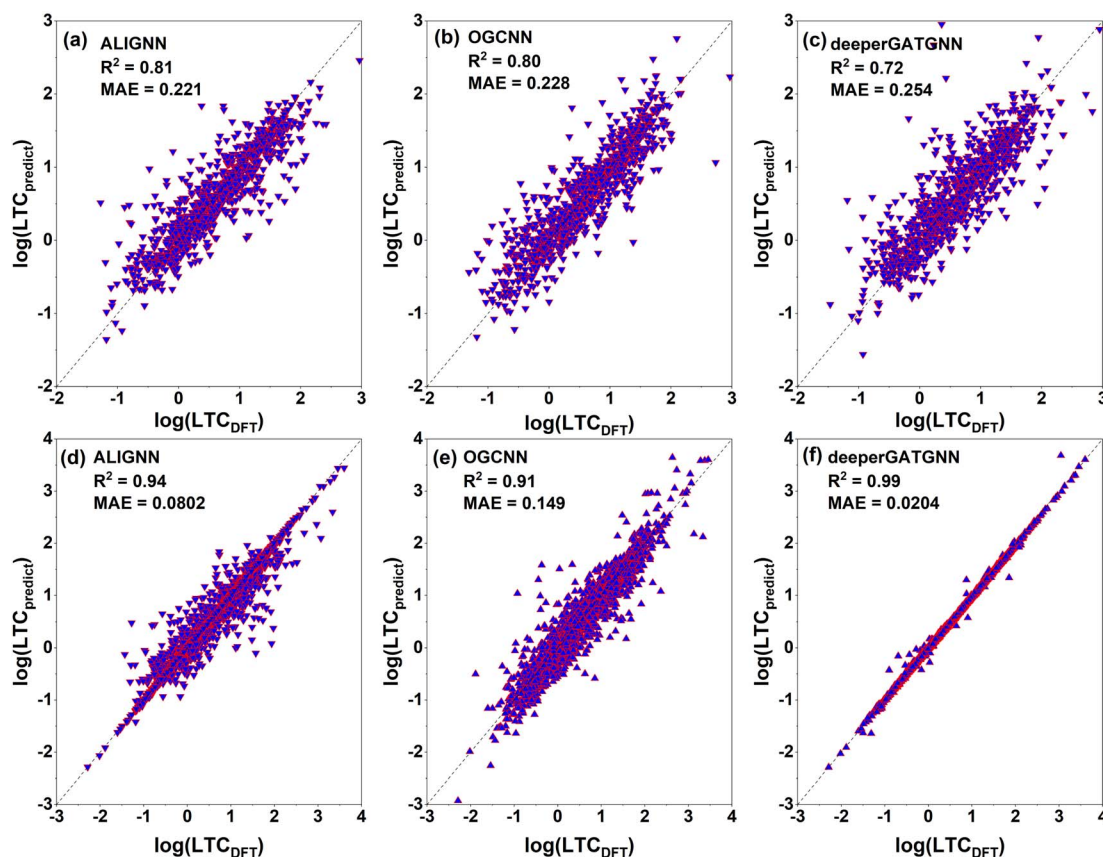
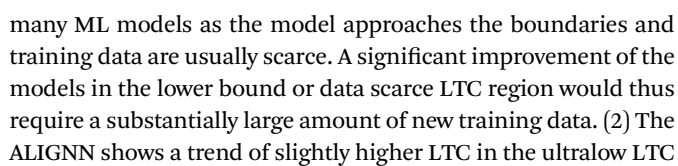
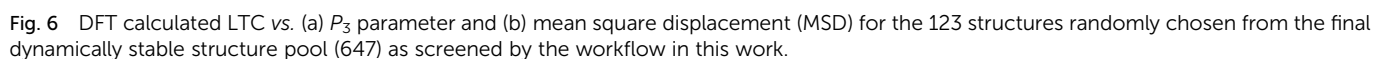


Fig. 4 Testing (top panels) and training (bottom panels) results of lattice thermal conductivity (LTC) for the three predictive graph neural network (GNN) models for 942 and 3769 structures, respectively: (a) ALIGNN, (b) OGCNN, (c) deeperGATGNN, (d) ALIGNN, (e) OGCNN, and (f) deeperGATGNN. The ALIGNN model shows the best performance for the testing (unseen) data.



We further show the relationship between the material properties P_3 parameter and mean square displacement (MSD) with LTC in Fig. 6a and b, respectively. The P_3 parameter corresponds to the availability of three-phonon scattering opportunities throughout the entire Brillouin zone. A high P_3 parameter value indicates the presence of numerous pathways for phonon-phonon interaction (scattering) within the crystal lattice, which in turn usually results in a low LTC.^{45,46} The MSD offers information about how atomic positions in crystals change with temperature, shedding light on how atoms deviate from their equilibrium positions in a harmonic phonon lattice. The large MSD value leads to the identification of rattling atoms within the crystal.^{47,48} Both the P_3 parameter and MSD serve as



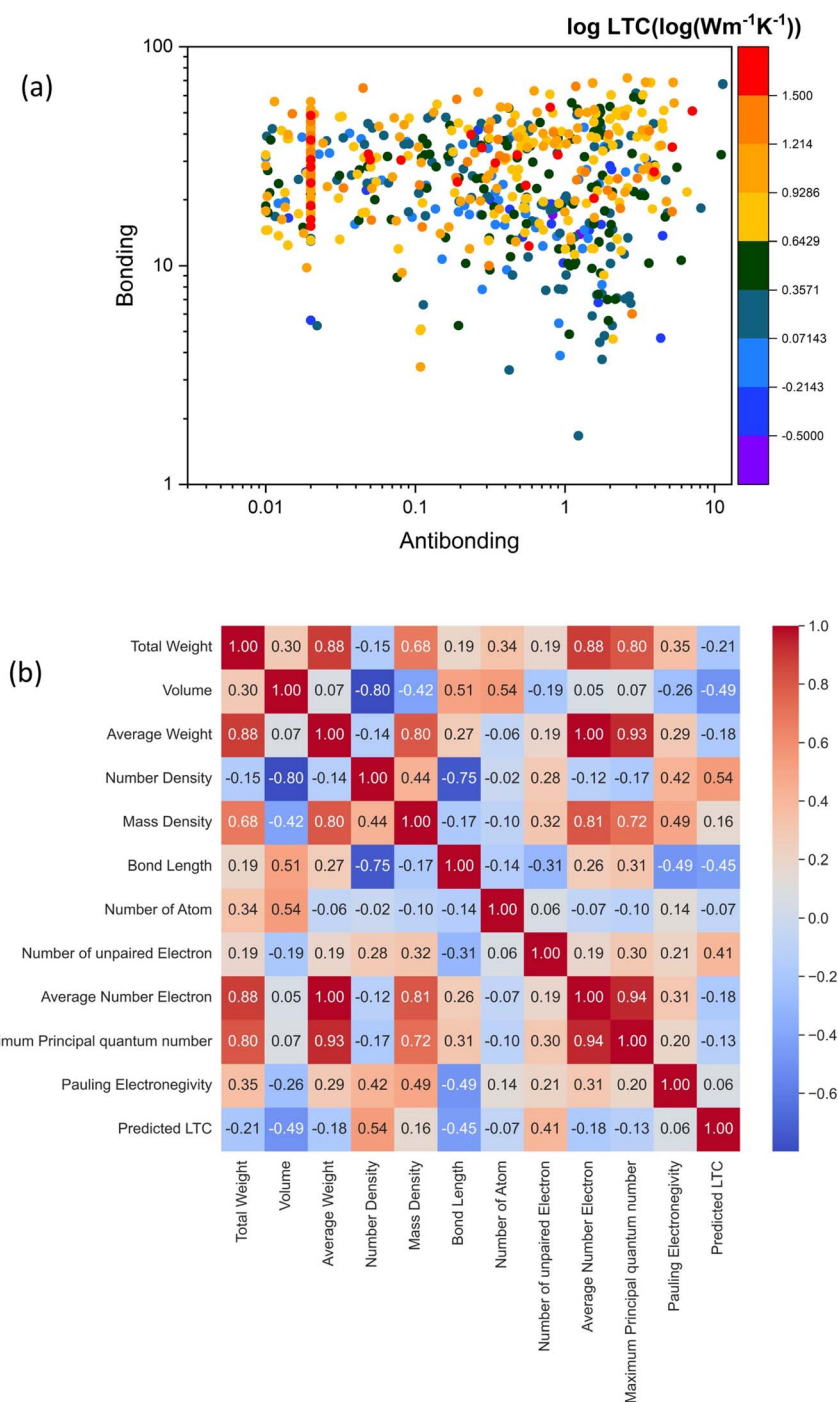


Fig. 7 (a) Insight into the relationship between bonding and antibonding with color coded by the log-value of predicted LTC. (b) Pearson correlation between material descriptors and LTC.

valuable material descriptors, allowing for a rapid screening of crystalline materials with exceptionally ultralow LTC. These plots depict the relationship between LTC and the P_3 parameter and MSD for the 123 DFT verified structures. It is evident that this observation is consistent with the established knowledge that the LTC generally decreases as the MSD or P_3 parameter increases, showcasing an inverse proportionality.

To gain deep insight into the electronic level understanding of ultralow LTC materials, we conducted a more in-depth analysis of our predicted LTC using Crystal Orbital Hamilton Population (COHP)⁴⁹ to measure the contribution of bonding and antibonding states. The single values of bonding and antibonding for each structure are obtained by performing integration over COHP curves for each atomic pair as evaluated by the LOBSTER package and then taking the average for all



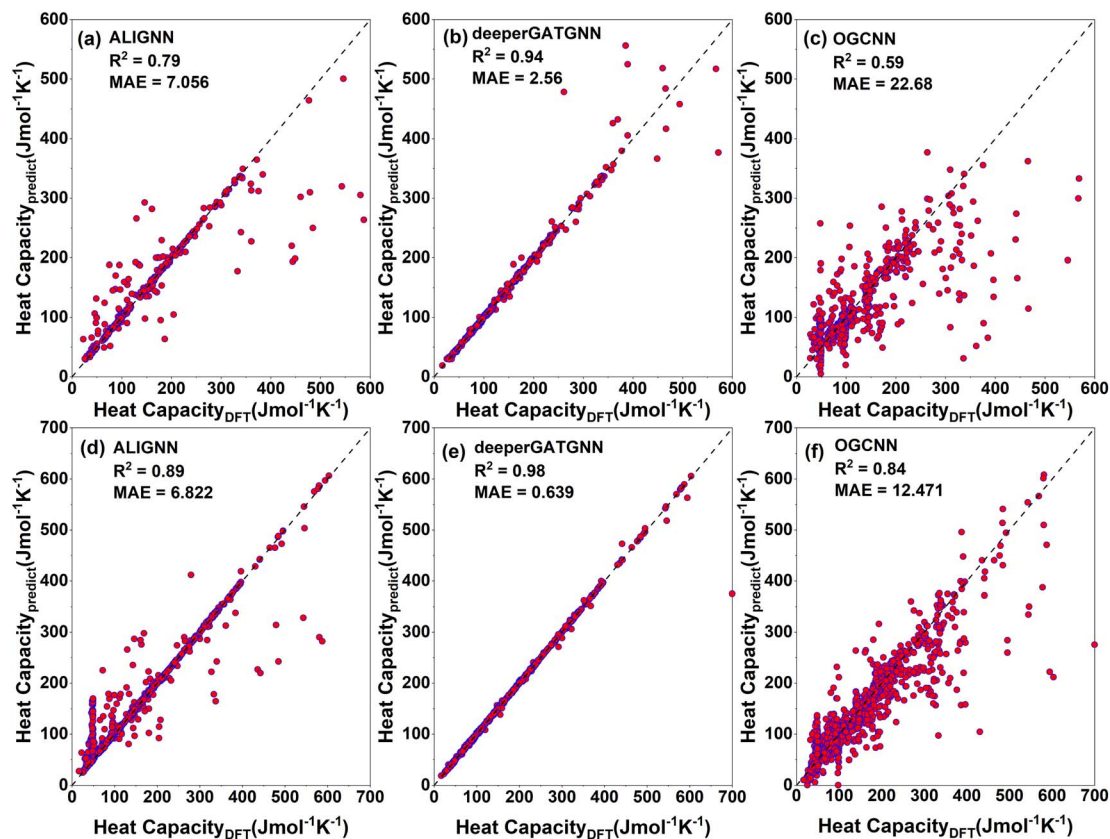


Fig. 8 Testing (top panels) and training (bottom panels) results of heat capacity for the three predictive graph neural network (GNN) models for 942 and 3769 structures, respectively: (a) ALIGNN, (b) deeperGATGNN, (c) OGCNN, (d) ALIGNN, (e) deeperGATGNN, and (f) OGCNN. The deeperGATGNN model shows the best performance for the testing (unseen) data.

pairs in the primitive cell. This analysis helps us to understand how chemical bonding influences thermal transport properties such as LTC. In Fig. 7a, we illustrate bonding and antibonding states, highlighting the log value of predicted LTC. From the kinetic theory of phonon transport, the lattice thermal conductivity of a crystal can be expressed as $\kappa = \frac{1}{3}C_v v^2 \tau$, where C_v , v , and τ are the volumetric heat capacity, average phonon group velocity, and average phonon relaxation time, respectively. In principle, the group velocity and relaxation time are determined by the harmonic and anharmonic characteristics of the lattice, respectively, which can be roughly correlated with the bonding and antibonding COHP, respectively. Generally speaking, low bonding COHP and high antibonding COHP would more likely lead to low LTC, as reflected by the lower-right corner of Fig. 7a. When bonding values are less than 10 and antibonding greater than 0.01, the structures exhibit LTC less than $1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, i.e., the LTC is ultralow. In this region, the interatomic bonding strengths are weak while phonon anharmonicity is strong, resulting in exceptionally low LTC. This observation is consistent with our recent big data analysis of bonding–antibonding states on 13 718 stable structures.²⁹ In contrast, high antibonding COHP does not necessarily lead to low LTC. This is because the phonon group velocity (the harmonic term in the kinetic theory) competes with the phonon

relaxation time (the anharmonic term). Therefore, medium to high LTC materials can happen in a broad range of antibonding. Also note that the absolute value of high LTC materials

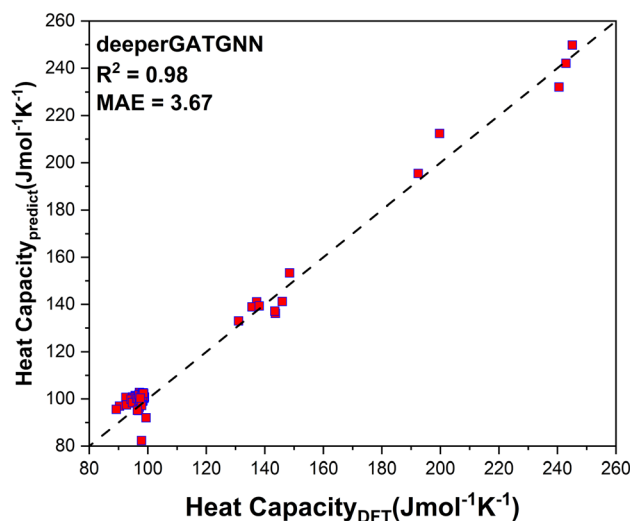


Fig. 9 DFT validation of deeperGATGNN prediction for the 123 structures randomly selected from the final dynamically stable structure pool (647) as screened by the workflow in this work.



Furthermore, we explore the correlation between our predicted LTC values and material descriptors which are simple characteristics that can help quickly screen structures with low LTC. This serves as a bridge between DFT accuracy and classical level efficiency. In Fig. 7b, we present the Pearson correlation between some representative material descriptors with LTC. The Pearson correlation coefficient is the most common way of measuring a linear correlation between two variables. The Pearson correlation number is between -1 and $+1$ that measures the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables, with -1 meaning strong negative correlation and $+1$ meaning strong positive correlation. Volume of the primitive cell, bond length, total weight and average number of electrons exhibit negative correlations with LTC, with Pearson correlation values of -0.49 , -0.45 , -0.21 and -0.18 , respectively. This means higher values of these descriptors correspond to structures with low LTC. Physically speaking, this trend is understandable since a larger cell volume or longer bond length usually corresponds to loose bonding between atoms, and thus leads to low phonon group velocities. On the other hand, atom number density, the number of unpaired electrons, and mass density are positively correlated with LTC, with Pearson correlation values of 0.54 , 0.41 and 0.16 , respectively. Higher atom number density means denser packing of atoms in space and thus usually corresponds to strong interatomic bonding and thus high phonon group velocities, which facilitates phonon energy transport in the

lattice. Meanwhile, descriptors like the total number of atoms, maximum principal quantum number, and Pauling electronegativity show almost no correlations or weak correlations with LTC. The positive and negative correlated descriptors identified herein are expected to accelerate the screening process of even larger-scale hypothetical structures in the future.

After training 3 GNN models for heat capacity with the same 4706 DFT data points, we test the performance of our heat capacity training by comparing with DFT calculations. The testing result is shown in Fig. 8a–c. This time the deeperGATGNN model shows the best performance compared to other models with a smaller MAE value and higher R^2 score. The deeperGATGNN model trains a very deep neural network with the number of layers being greater than those of the OGCNN and ALIGNN models, and thus has better performance. We then used the trained deeperGATGNN model to predict on the 647 reoptimized stable structures to find high heat capacity materials, which hold great potential for thermal energy storage (TES) systems. Like LTC, we continue to validate our heat capacity model with the 123 structures calculated by DFT, and the validation result is shown in Fig. 9. We could not find any structures with heat capacity exceeding the Dulong–Petit limit at room temperature.²³ However, we do find some structures with heat capacity very close to the Dulong–Petit limit. Here, the Dulong–Petit limit for constant volume heat capacity is calculated as $3NR$, where R is the universal gas constant ($8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$) and N is the number of atoms in the unit cell. Table 1 shows the top 20 structures with the highest ratio of heat capacity to the Dulong–Petit limit. The phonon dispersions

Table 1 Top 20 MAGUS generated stable structures with the highest heat capacity compared to the Dulong–Petit limit at room temperature

MAGUS ID	Formula	Symmetry	Space group number	Formation energy (eV per atom)	LTC (W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	Heat capacity (J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	Ratio of heat capacity to Dulong–Petit limit
313 161_167	YTi ₃	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.23374	1.780	98.7352	0.9896
546 287_12	CaTiBi ₂	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.47185	1.078	98.7321	0.9896
310 222_80	CaBi ₃	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.50218	1.471	98.7256	0.9896
313 873_43	CaPb ₃	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.32828	4.031	98.5031	0.9873
371 322_34	YTi ₂ In	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.28082	2.228	98.4791	0.9871
453 343_147	YIn ₂ Bi	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.41288	1.512	98.4355	0.9866
499 515_125	LiBiPb ₂	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.19219	0.742	98.3930	0.9862
468 937_47	BiPd ₂ Pt	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.20358	1.003	98.1140	0.9834
454 575_137	ScIn ₂ Pb	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.21603	1.474	98.0507	0.9828
1 548 987_90	K ₂ YTiBr ₆	<i>P</i> $\bar{3}$	147	−1.67237	0.096	245.111	0.9827
314 264_194	Ag ₃ Ge	<i>Amm</i> 2	38	0.113334	0.029	97.9828	0.9821
416 611_76	Hf ₂ CdAu	<i>P</i> 1	2	−0.19819	0.177	97.9752	0.9820
308 064_41	TaAu ₃	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.05549	0.628	97.8864	0.9811
312 610_45	CaIn ₃	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.31326	1.804	97.7639	0.9799
314 157_46	RhAu ₃	<i>P</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i> 1	164	0.138769	0.150	97.7346	0.9796
515 810_43	CdPdAu ₂	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.26516	2.601	97.7262	0.9795
308 890_145	TaPt ₃	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.54038	2.168	97.7192	0.9795
463 270_167	Pd ₂ PtPb	<i>P4</i> / <i>mmm</i>	123	−0.24499	3.143	97.5625	0.9779
311 765_44	ScIn ₃	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.28857	3.058	97.4223	0.9765
308 939_100	Pd ₃ Pb	<i>Pm</i> $\bar{3}$ <i>m</i>	221	−0.30703	3.652	97.3603	0.9759

of the top two structures (YTi₃ with space group no. 221 and CaTiBi₂ with space group no. 123) with the highest ratio of heat capacity to the Dulong–Petit limit are shown in Fig. 3a and b, respectively. Their high heat capacity can be understood in terms of the relatively low cutoff frequencies below 4 THz, which is attributed to the medium to heavy elements in materials such as Y, Ti, and Bi. The Bose–Einstein distribution function of phonons says $\langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\hbar\omega/k_B T} - 1}$, where $\hbar$ is Planck's constant, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, ω is the phonon frequency, and T is the absolute temperature. Thus, we can estimate the characteristic frequency for the phonon energy comparable to $k_B T$ at room temperature as $\omega^* = \frac{k_B T}{\hbar} = \frac{1.381 \times 10^{-23} \times 300}{6.626 \times 10^{-34}} = 6.25 \times 10^{12} \text{ s}^{-1} = 6.25 \text{ THz}$. This means the phonon modes with frequency less than 6.25 THz can be excited near room temperature. As shown in Fig. 3a and b, the phonon frequencies in the two structures YTi₃ and CaTiBi₂ are below 4 THz, and then all phonon modes can be populated near room temperature and thus contribute to the heat capacity. This is the fundamental reason for these two materials having high heat capacities.

4 Conclusion

In summary, recent crystal structure prediction algorithms are only targeting a few specific material families or are restricted to simple systems with limited element diversity. Moreover, these algorithms invoke frequent first principles calculations and thus are time and resource consuming. To alleviate these issues, in this work we establish a workflow that can generate a large number of hypothetical structures with diverse atom species and then quickly optimize and screen out stable structures. Specifically, using a machine learning and graph theory assisted universal structure searcher, we generated more than 3.4 million hypothetical structures covering 63 elements across the periodic table with unstable structure composition and formula screened from the OQMD, with hypothesis to find phases that are stable. We optimized these structures with pre-trained universal CHGNet machine learning potential and obtained 8358 successfully optimized structures. We compared the energy of these structures with the original OQMD structures optimized by CHGNet, to obtain structures with lower energy than the original OQMD structures. We further used CHGNet to generate a second order interatomic force constant to quickly screen dynamically stable structures. Finally, 647 structures were obtained, and we randomly verified 200 of these structures with DFT and got 123 new structures with dynamic stability confirmed by DFT, *i.e.*, success rate of 61.5%. We also trained 3 GNN models, namely ALIGNN, deeperGATGNN, and OGCNN, and predicted on the new stable structures to find structures with ultralow LTC and high heat capacity. The ALIGNN model gave the best performance for the LTC while the deeperGATGNN model gave the best performance for heat capacity, which were used to predict LTC and heat capacity, respectively, for the 647 stable structures. Among all stable structures, we found 71 structures with LTC less than $1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ with 13 confirmed by full DFT calculations. We also found some

structures whose heat capacities are very close to the Dulong–Petit limit at room temperature. This study of combining MAGUS with CHGNet has paved the way for accelerating the discovery of new stable structures for broad materials applications.

Data availability

The data for the 647 screened dynamically stable structures with predicted LTC, along with relevant information and LTC for the 123 DFT verified structures, are available in the ESI† as an Excel file, “SI_pred_val_data_pub.xlsx”. The POSCAR files for the 647 dynamically stable structures are provided in “POSCAR_MAGUS_647str.json”.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interests.

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