A PERIODIC BAYESIAN FLOW FOR MATERIAL GENER-ATION

Anonymous authorsPaper under double-blind review

000

001

003 004

006

008 009

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

018

019

021

024

025

026

027

028

031

033

034

037

038

040

041

043

044

046

047

048

051

052

ABSTRACT

Generative modeling of crystal data distribution is an important yet challenging task due to the unique periodic physical symmetry of crystals. Diffusion-based methods have shown early promise in modeling crystal distribution. More recently, Bayesian Flow Networks were introduced to aggregate noisy latent variables, resulting in a variance-reduced parameter space that has been shown to be advantageous for modeling Euclidean data distributions with structural constraints (Song et al., 2023). Inspired by this, we seek to unlock its potential for modeling variables located in non-Euclidean manifolds e.g. those within crystal structures, by overcoming challenging theoretical issues. We introduce CrysBFN, a novel crystal generation method by proposing a periodic Bayesian flow, which essentially differs from the original Gaussian-based BFN by exhibiting non-monotonic entropy dynamics. To successfully realize the concept of periodic Bayesian flow, CrysBFN integrates a new entropy conditioning mechanism and empirically demonstrates its significance compared to time-conditioning. Extensive experiments over both crystal ab initio generation and crystal structure prediction tasks demonstrate the superiority of CrysBFN, which consistently achieves new state-of-the-art on all benchmarks. Surprisingly, we found that CrysBFN enjoys a significant improvement in sampling efficiency, e.g., $\sim 100 \times$ speedup (10 v.s. 2000 steps network forwards) compared with previous Diffusion-based methods on MP-20 dataset.

1 Introduction

Deep generative models, with their strong ability to approximate data distribution with complex geometries, have recently emerged as a promising approach to de novo drug design (Hoogeboom et al., 2022), protein engineering (Shi et al., 2022), and material science (Liu et al., 2017). To discover new functional materials (Wang et al., 2023; Peng et al., 2022), there has been an active line of research on crystal generative modeling (Ren et al., 2021; Hoffmann et al., 2019; Noh et al., 2019; Court et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2023; Nouira et al., 2018). Recent diffusion-based models learns through an iterative reverse process with multi-level noise perturbation, and has been demonstrated as a powerful tool for capturing complex geometries of crystals. Studies show that these models can generate crystal samples with realistic structures that well satisfy physical constraint (Xie et al., 2021; Jiao et al., 2023; 2024; Lin et al., 2024).

Despite promising results, significant challenges persist. The search space for crystal structures grows exponentially with the number of atoms, while thermodynamically stable materials represent only a small fraction (Miller et al., 2024). This presents challenges in the multi-step generation process, the variance of which might cause structures to deviate from stable distributions. Moreover, the current widely-adapted diffusion-based approaches (Jiao et al., 2023; 2024) for crystal structure modeling tend to learn the score function of wrapped normal distribution for periodic variables, where the approximation of a sum of infinite terms is needed which could bring in extra bias. Recently, BFN (Graves et al., 2023) has been successfully applied to the geometry generative modeling of molecules (Song et al., 2023), a scenario that shares the above-mentioned challenges similar to crystal generation, by modeling in a much lower variance parameter space. However, the periodic geometry of crystals differs from that of small molecules and raises significant challenges.

To tackle these challenges, this paper aim to break the barrier of extending the paradigm of BFN into those variables located non-Euclidean space, *e.g.*, atom fractional coordinates in crystal structure.

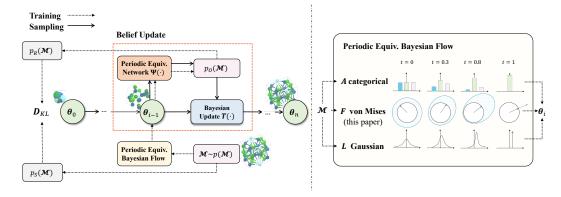


Figure 1: **Framework of CrysBFN**. Left: overview of training and sampling process. At training time, the network receives θ_{i-1} from Bayesian flow based on data distribution, and tries to improve the belief θ_{i-1} over the groundtruth \mathcal{M} by outputting an estimated distribution p_O and minimizing the gap between estimation and groundtruth. At sampling time with the trained network, the uninformative prior θ_0 is gradually improved by belief updates until θ_n with high fidelity. Right: illustration of the periodic equivariant Bayesian flow.

We introduce the first non-Euclidean Bayesian flow over the periodic space, *i.e.* the hyper-torus. To successfully implement such concept, we introduce a generalized training paradigm based on simulation of the Bayesian flow and further propose a non-auto-regressive equivalent formulation of Bayesian flow distribution that guarantees computational efficiency. By integrating all these innovations, we introduce CrysBFN, the first periodic E(3) equivariant Bayesian flow network designed for crystal generation. Extensive experiments demonstrate the significant superiority of CrysBFN over current methods in both sampling quality and efficiency.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We present the first periodic Bayesian flow in non-Euclidean space (hyper-torus) with a novel training paradigm and entropy conditioning mechanism tackling the unprecedented and pivotal non-additive accuracy theoretical challenge.
- We introduce the first periodic-E(3) equivariant Bayesian flow networks for crystal generation tasks with appealing theoretical guarantees.
- Extensive experiments demonstrate that CrysBFN consistently outperforms previous methods on both ab initio crystal generation (99.1% COV-P on Carbon-24) and crystal structure prediction tasks (64.35% match rate on MP-20). Efficiency experiments on MP-20 prove that CrysBFN enjoys a $\sim 100 \times$ sampling efficiency with performance on par with previous Diffusion-based methods.

2 Related Work

Modeling and generating stable materials with data-driven approaches has been applied to discovering new functional materials (Peng et al., 2022). One line of approaches indirectly models crystal space by transforming crystals into human-designed representations (Ren et al., 2021; Hoffmann et al., 2019; Noh et al., 2019; Court et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2023), though the encoding and decoding process often leads to physical geometry loss In contrast, another line of research directly models crystals in the sample space, drawing inspiration from the success of Diffusion models (Ho et al., 2020b; Song et al., 2020a; Song & Ermon, 2019). For instance, CD-VAE (Xie et al., 2021) and SyMat (Luo et al., 2024b) employ score-matching (Song & Ermon, 2019) to learn scores for generating stable materials, while their modeled distribution lacks geometric invariance (Zhang et al., 2023). DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023) addresses this by transforming Cartesian atom coordinates into fractional coordinates, introducing the periodic E(3) equivariance of crystals, and designing an equivariant diffusion crystal generation model based on periodic diffusion (Jing et al., 2022). More recently, Miller et al. (2024) applies Riemannian Flow Matching (Chen & Lipman, 2023) to crystal generation tasks offering improved sampling efficiency, while at the expense of quality ¹.However, we argue that

¹For a more detailed discussion of related work, please refer to Appendix F.

these methods struggle to balance sampling quality and efficiency due to insufficient guidance during each transition from the noise prior to the data distribution. This issue is particularly pronounced for crystals, where thermodynamically stable materials constitute only a small fraction of the search space (Miller et al., 2024). For instance, early generation states x_{t-1} with low confidence should be retained less than later states to achieve the next state x_t .

In this work, we propose to use BFN (Graves et al., 2023) to model crystals in a principally different way. BFN provides a framework to accurately update each generation state according to its entropy/confidence, the effectiveness of which has been proved in Song et al. (2023). However, there are no established explorations on the challenging topic of non-Euclidean BFN which is essential to many real-world applications Jing et al. (2022); Jumper et al. (2021). To address the above issues, in this paper, we build a non-Euclidean Bayesian flow from scratch, identifying and tackling the non-additive accuracy via introducing a novel entropy conditioning mechanism.

3 Preliminaries

Crystal Representation and Related Manifold Crystals can be represented as a structure composed of infinite, periodic and repeating unit cells defined by a triplet $\mathcal{M}=(\boldsymbol{A},\boldsymbol{F},\boldsymbol{L})$. Denote the number of atoms in the unit cell as N, $\boldsymbol{A}=(\boldsymbol{a}_1,\boldsymbol{a}_2,\ldots,\boldsymbol{a}_N)\in\mathcal{S}^{K\times N}$ is the representation of atom types with the length of vocabulary K, and every such one-hot discrete variable locates in the simplex \mathcal{S}^K represented by:

$$S^{K} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ s \in \mathbb{R}^{K} | \sum_{i=1}^{K} s_{i} = 1, s_{i} \ge 0, i = 1, \dots, K \}$$
 (1)

which requires the designed generative path for \boldsymbol{A} should be well defined on the simplex. Following Jiao et al. (2023), $\boldsymbol{F} = [\boldsymbol{f}_1, \boldsymbol{f}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{f}_N] \in [0,1)^{3\times N}$ is the fractional coordinates of atoms located in quotient space $\mathbb{R}^{3\times N}/\mathbb{Z}^{3\times N}$ equivalent to the hypertorus $\mathbb{T}^{3\times N}$ (Jing et al., 2022). The hypertorus $\mathbb{T}^{3\times N}$ can be represented as the Cartesian product of $3\times N$ toruses \mathbb{T}^1 :

$$\mathbb{T}^1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : ||\boldsymbol{z}|| = 1 \}$$
 (2)

And $L = [l_1, l_2, l_3] \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ denotes the lattice matrix, every column vector of which is the periodic basic vector of the crystal. We can get the Cartesian coordinates representation of unit cell's atom coordinates X by $X = LF \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times N}$. The ideal infinite periodic crystal structure of \mathcal{M} can be represented by $\{(a_i', x_i') | a_i' = a_i, x_i' = x_i + Lk, \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^{3 \times 1}\}$. Based on the above notations, the symmetry of crystal geometry is defined as $periodic\ E(3)\ invariance^2$ (Jiao et al., 2023), including periodic translational invariance of F and rotational invariance of L (details in Appendix B).

Bayesian Flow Networks Different from the well-established SDE-based approaches, *e.g.* Diffusion Models (Ho et al., 2020a; Song et al., 2020b;a) and ODE-based approaches *e.g.* Flow Matching (Lipman et al., 2022), Bayesian Flow Networks define a generative process driven by consecutive Bayesian updates on noised samples from the uninformative prior distribution θ_0 to posteriors θ_i with higher confidence and more information.

To define the consecutive Bayesian update process, Bayesian Flow Networks contain a process to add noise to the clean data samples which is an analogy to the forward process in Diffusion Models. In BFN, such a process is explicitly defined by the so-called *sender distribution* $p_S(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x};\alpha)$ where α is the parameter of sender distribution which corresponds to noise level, *e.g.* variance for Gaussian-formed p_S .

BFN aims to establish a procedure that gradually acquires information from the ground truth data \mathbf{x} to provide a training signal. To this end, the framework will sample a series of noisy samples $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, ..., \mathbf{y}_n$ independently from the *sender distribution* p_S with various accuracy levels $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n$. Based on samples, the framework would simulate an auto-regressive update of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ based on the *Bayesian update function* to reflect an information gathering process from prior to data

²Actually some crystal structures are chiral (Flack, 2003) and their structures are SE(3) invariant. In this paper, we follow Jiao et al. (2023) to build an E(3) invariant framework for fair comparison, while the SE(3) equivariance can be simply achieved by transforming an E(3) invariant network into an SE(3) equivariant network by excluding invariance to reflections in the Markov chain.

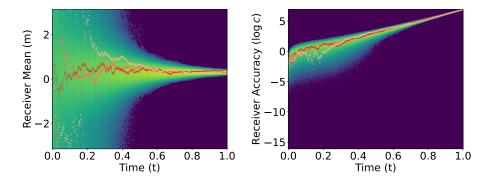


Figure 2: Visualization of the proposed periodic Bayesian flow with mean parameter μ and accumulated accuracy parameter c which corresponds to the entropy/uncertainty. For $x=0.3, \beta(1)=1000$ and α_i defined in Appendix A, this figure plots three colored stochastic parameter trajectories for receiver mean parameter m and accumulated accuracy parameter c, superimposed on a log-scale heatmap of the Bayesian flow distribution $p_F(m|x,\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i)$ and $p_F(c|x,\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i)$. Note the non-monotonicity and non-additive property of c which could inform the network the entropy of the mean parameter m as a condition and the periodicity of m.

as:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_i = h(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}, \mathbf{y}_i, \alpha_i) \tag{3}$$

The neural network Ψ is trained in a teacher-forcing fashion: approximate the sender distribution $p_S(\cdot|\mathbf{x};\alpha_i)$ generating \mathbf{y}_i according to $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}$, which has integrated the information of $(\mathbf{y}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{y}_{i-1})$ through Eq. (3). The network Ψ hence takes $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ obtained by Bayesian update as input, and the distribution implied by $p_I(\cdot|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is termed *input distribution*. The network output $\Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is interpreted as the parameter of an updated distribution $p_O(\cdot|\Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}))$ over sample space, referred to as *output distribution*. Combining the network output $\Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and the sender distribution, we obtain the approximation to $p_S(\mathbf{y}_i|\mathbf{x};\alpha_i)$ as:

$$p_R(\mathbf{y}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}, \Psi, \alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{p_O(\mathbf{x}' \mid \Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}))} p_S(\mathbf{y}_i \mid \mathbf{x}'; \alpha_i)$$
(4)

Such distribution is named as receiver distribution p_R . Note that θ_{i-1} can be seen as a deterministic function mapping, given $(\mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_{i-1})$ as $\theta_{i-1} = f(\mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_{i-1})$ based on the deterministic update function in Eq. (3). By combining the objectives of different timesteps and taking expectation over trajectories, we obtain the training objective of BFN as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\Psi) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} \mathbb{E}_{\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{S}(\mathbf{y}_{i} | \mathbf{x}, \alpha_{i})} D_{KL}(p_{S}(\mathbf{y}_{i} | \mathbf{x}, \alpha_{i}) || p_{R}(\mathbf{y}_{i} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}, \Psi, \alpha_{i}))$$
(5)

Here p_{data} is the empirical distribution. Detailed derivation and discussion are provided in Appendix A. Additionally, we provide two toy examples with minimal components illustrating how Gaussian-based BFN and hyper-torus BFN work in our code link https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CrystalBFN-BC42.

4 METHOD

In this section, we explain the detailed design of CrysBFN tackling theoretical and practical challenges. First, we describe how to derive our new formulation of Bayesian Flow Networks over hyper-torus \mathbb{T}^D from scratch. Next, we illustrate the two key differences between CrysBFN and the original form of BFN: 1) a meticulously designed novel base distribution with different Bayesian update rules; and 2) different properties over the accuracy scheduling resulted from the periodicity and the new Bayesian update rules. Then, we present in detail the overall framework of CrysBFN over each manifold of the crystal space (*i.e.* fractional coordinates, lattice vectors, atom types) respecting periodic E(3) invariance.

4.1 Periodic Bayesian Flow on Hyper-torus \mathbb{T}^D

For generative modeling of fractional coordinates in crystal, we first construct a periodic Bayesian flow on \mathbb{T}^D by designing every component of the totally new Bayesian update process which we demonstrate to be distinct from the original Bayesian flow (please see Fig. 3).

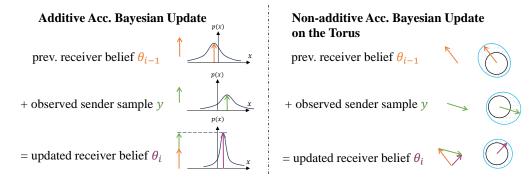


Figure 3: An intuitive illustration of non-additive accuracy Bayesian update on the torus. The lengths of arrows represent the uncertainty/entropy of the belief (e.g. $1/\sigma^2$ for Gaussian and c for von Mises). The directions of the arrows represent the believed location (e.g. μ for Gaussian and m for von Mises).

The fractional atom coordinate system (Jiao et al., 2023) inherently distributes over a hyper-torus support $\mathbb{T}^{3\times N}$. Hence, the normal distribution support on \mathbb{R} used in the original (Graves et al., 2023) is not suitable for this scenario.

To tackle this problem, the circular distribution (Mardia & Jupp, 2009) over the finite interval $[-\pi,\pi)$ is a natural choice as the base distribution for deriving the BFN on \mathbb{T}^D . Specifically, circular distributions enjoy desirable periodic properties: 1) the integration over any interval length of 2π equals 1; 2) the probability distribution function is periodic with period 2π . Sharing the same intrinsic with fractional coordinates, such periodic property of circular distribution makes it suitable for the instantiation of BFN's input distribution, in parameterizing the belief towards ground truth \mathbf{x} on \mathbb{T}^D .

von Mises Distribution and its Bayesian Update We choose von Mises distribution (Mardia & Jupp, 2009) from various circular distributions as the form of input distribution, based on the appealing conjugacy property required in the derivation of the BFN framework. That is, the posterior of a von Mises distribution parameterized likelihood is still in the family of von Mises distributions. The probability density function of von Mises distribution with mean direction parameter m and concentration parameter c (describing the entropy/uncertainty of m) is defined as:

$$f(x|m,c) = vM(x|m,c) = \frac{\exp(c\cos(x-m))}{2\pi I_0(c)}$$
(6)

where $I_0(c)$ is zeroth order modified Bessel function of the first kind as the normalizing constant. Given the last univariate belief parameterized by von Mises distribution with parameter $\theta_{i-1} = \{m_{i-1}, c_{i-1}\}$ and the sample y from sender distribution with unknown data sample x and known accuracy α describing the entropy/uncertainty of y, Bayesian update for the receiver is deducted as:

$$h(\{m_{i-1}, c_{i-1}\}, y, \alpha) = \{m_i, c_i\}, \text{ where}$$
 (7)

$$m_i = \operatorname{atan2}(\alpha \sin y + c_{i-1} \sin m_{i-1}, \alpha \cos y + c_{i-1} \cos m_{i-1})$$
 (8)

$$c_i = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + c_{i-1}^2 + 2\alpha c_{i-1} \cos(y - m_{i-1})}$$
(9)

The proof of the above equations can be found in Appendix A.3. The atan2 function refers to 2-argument arctangent. Independently conducting Bayesian update for each dimension, we can obtain the Bayesian update distribution by marginalizing y:

$$p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}'|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{S}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}; \alpha)} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}' - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{y}, \alpha)) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \alpha)} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}' - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{y}, \alpha))$$
(10)

Non-additive Accuracy The additive accuracy is a nice property held with the Gaussian-formed sender distribution of the original BFN expressed as:

$$p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{"} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a} + \alpha_{b}) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{"} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a})} p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{"} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}^{"}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{b})$$
(11)

Such property is mainly derived based on the standard identity of Gaussian variable:

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2\right), Y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2\right) \Longrightarrow X + Y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_X + \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2\right)$$
 (12)

The additive accuracy property makes it feasible to derive the Bayesian flow distribution $p_F(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x}; i) = p_U\left(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \mathbf{x}, \sum_{k=1}^i \alpha_i\right)$ for the simulation-free training of Eq. (5). It should be noted that

the standard identity in Eq. (11) does not hold in the von Mises distribution. Hence there exists an important difference between the original Bayesian flow defined on Euclidean space and the Bayesian flow of circular data on \mathbb{T}^D based on von Mises distribution. With prior $\theta = \{0, 0\}$, we could formally represent the non-additive accuracy issue as:

$$p_{U}(c'' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a} + \alpha_{b}) = \delta(c - \alpha_{a} - \alpha_{b}) \neq \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a})} p_{U}(c'' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}', \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{b})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_{b} \mid \mathbf{x}, \alpha_{a})} \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_{a} \mid \mathbf{x}, \alpha_{b})} \delta(c - ||[\alpha_{a} \cos \mathbf{y}_{a} + \alpha_{b} \cos \mathbf{y}_{b}, \alpha_{a} \sin \mathbf{y}_{a} + \alpha_{b} \sin \mathbf{y}_{b}]^{T}||_{2})$$
(13)

A more intuitive visualization could be found in Fig. 3. This fundamental difference between periodic Bayesian flow and that of Graves et al. (2023) presents both theoretical and practical challenges, which we will explain and address in the following contents.

Entropy Conditioning As a common practice in generative models (Ho et al., 2020a; Lipman et al., 2022; Graves et al., 2023), timestep t is widely used to distinguish among generation states by feeding the timestep information into the networks. However, this paper shows that for periodic Bayesian flow, the accumulated accuracy e_i is more effective than time-based conditioning by informing the network about the entropy and certainty of the states θ_i . This stems from the intrinsic non-additive accuracy which makes the receiver's accumulated accuracy e_i not bijective function of e_i , but a distribution conditioned on accumulated accuracies e_i instead. Therefore, the entropy parameter e_i is taken logarithm and fed into the network to describe the entropy of the input corrupted structure. We verify this consideration in Sec. 5.3.

Reformulations of BFN. Recall the original update function with Gaussian sender distribution, after receiving noisy samples $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_i$ with accuracies $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_i$, the accumulated accuracies of the receiver side could be analytically obtained by the additive property and it is consistent with the sender side. However, as previously mentioned, this does not apply to periodic Bayesian flow, and some of the notations in original BFN (Graves et al., 2023) need to be adjusted accordingly. We maintain the notations of sender side's one-step accuracy α and added accuracy β , and alter the notation of receiver's accuracy parameter as c, which is needed to be simulated by cascade of Bayesian updates. We emphasize that the receiver's accumulated accuracy c is no longer a function of t (differently from the Gaussian case), and it becomes a distribution conditioned on received accuracies $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_i$ from the sender. Therefore, we represent the Bayesian flow distribution of von Mises distribution as $p_F(\theta | \mathbf{x}; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_i)$. And the original simulation-free training with Bayesian flow distribution is no longer applicable in this scenario.

Fast Sampling from Equivalent Bayesian Flow Distribution Based on the above reformulations, the Bayesian flow distribution of von Mises distribution is reframed as:

$$p_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i|\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\dots,\alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{p_U(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0,\mathbf{x};\alpha_1)}\dots\mathbb{E}_{p_U(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-2},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{i-1})}p_U(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1},\mathbf{x};\alpha_i)$$
(14)

Naively sampling from Eq. (14) requires slow auto-regressive iterated simulation, making training unaffordable. Noticing the mathematical properties of Eqs. (8) and (9), we transform Eq. (14) to the equivalent form:

$$p_F(\boldsymbol{m}_i|\,\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_1\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_1)\ldots vM(\mathbf{y}_i\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_i)}\delta(\boldsymbol{m}_i - \operatorname{atan2}(\sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \cos \mathbf{y}_j, \sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \sin \mathbf{y}_j))$$
(15)

$$p_F(\boldsymbol{c}_i|\,\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_1\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_1)\ldots vM(\mathbf{y}_i\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_i)}\delta(\boldsymbol{c}_i - ||[\sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \cos \mathbf{y}_j, \sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \sin \mathbf{y}_j]^T||_2)$$
(16)

which bypasses the computation of intermediate variables and allows pure tensor operations, with negligible computational overhead.

Proposition 4.1. The probability density function of Bayesian flow distribution defined by Eqs. (15) and (16) is equivalent to the original definition in Eq. (14).

Numerical Determination of Linear Entropy Sender Accuracy Schedule Original BFN designs the accuracy schedule $\beta(t)$ to make the entropy of input distribution linearly decrease. As for crystal generation task, to ensure information coherence between modalities, we choose a sender accuracy schedule $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_i$ that makes the receiver's belief entropy $H(t_i) = H(p_I(\cdot|\boldsymbol{e}_i)) = H(p_I(\cdot|\boldsymbol{e}_i))$ linearly decrease w.r.t. time t_i , given the initial and final accuracy parameter c(0) and c(1). Due

to the intractability of Eq. (30), we first use numerical binary search in [0,c(1)] to determine the receiver's $c(t_i)$ for $i=1,\ldots,n$ by solving the equation $H(c(t_i))=(1-t_i)H(c(0))+tH(c(1))$. Next, with $c(t_i)$, we conduct numerical binary search for each α_i in [0,c(1)] by solving the equations $\mathbb{E}_{y\sim vM(x,\alpha_i)}[\sqrt{\alpha_i^2+c_{i-1}^2+2\alpha_ic_{i-1}\cos(y-m_{i-1})}]=c(t_i)$ from i=1 to i=n for arbitrarily selected $x\in [-\pi,\pi)$.

After tackling all those issues, we have now arrived at a new BFN architecture for effectively modeling crystals. Such BFN can also be adapted to other type of data located in hyper-torus \mathbb{T}^D .

4.2 EQUIVARIANT BAYESIAN FLOW FOR CRYSTAL

With the above Bayesian flow designed for generative modeling of fractional coordinate \mathbf{F} , we are able to build equivariant Bayesian flow for each modality of crystal. In this section, we first give an overview of the general training and sampling algorithm of CrysBFN (visualized in Fig. 1). Then, we describe the details of the Bayesian flow of every modality. The training and sampling algorithm can be found in Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2.

Overview Operating in the parameter space $\theta^{\mathcal{M}} = \{\theta^A, \theta^L, \theta^F\}$, CrysBFN generates high-fidelity crystals through a joint BFN sampling process on the parameter of atom type θ^A , lattice parameter $\theta^L = \{\mu^L, \rho^L\}$, and the parameter of fractional coordinate matrix $\theta^F = \{m^F, c^F\}$. We index the n-steps of the generation process in a discrete manner i, and denote the corresponding continuous notation $t_i = i/n$ from prior parameter $\theta^{\mathcal{M}}_0$ to a considerably low variance parameter $\theta^{\mathcal{M}}_n$ (i.e. large ρ^L, m^F , and centered θ^A).

At training time, CrysBFN samples time $i \sim U\{1,n\}$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}$ from the Bayesian flow distribution of each modality, serving as the input to the network. The network Ψ outputs $\Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}},t_{i-1}) = \Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{A},\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{E},t_{i-1})$ and conducts gradient descents on loss function Eq. (5) for each modality. After proper training, the sender distribution p_{S} can be approximated by the receiver distribution p_{R} .

At inference time, from predefined $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0^{\mathcal{M}}$, we conduct transitions from $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}$ to $\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^{\mathcal{M}}$ by: (1) sampling $\mathbf{y}_i \sim p_R(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}};t_i,\alpha_i)$ according to network prediction $\hat{\Psi}_M(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}},t_{i-1})$; and (2) performing Bayesian update $h(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}},\mathbf{y}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}},\alpha_i)$ for each dimension.

Bayesian Flow of Fractional Coordinate F The distribution of the prior parameter θ_0^F is defined as:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0^F) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{vM(\boldsymbol{m}_0^F | \mathbf{0}_{3\times N}, \mathbf{0}_{3\times N}), \delta(\boldsymbol{c}_0^F - \mathbf{0}_{3\times N})\} = \{U(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}), \delta(\boldsymbol{c}_0^F - \mathbf{0}_{3\times N})\}$$
(17)

Note that this prior distribution of m_0^F is uniform over [0,1), ensuring the periodic translation invariance property in Definition 1. The training objective is minimizing the KL divergence between sender and receiver distribution (deduction can be found in Appendix A.7):

$$\mathcal{L}_{F} = n \mathbb{E}_{i \sim U\{1, n\}, p_{F}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{F} | \boldsymbol{F}; \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \dots, \alpha_{i})} \alpha_{i} \frac{I_{1}(\alpha_{i})}{I_{0}(\alpha_{i})} (1 - \cos(\boldsymbol{F} - \hat{\Psi}_{F}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1})))$$
(18)

where $I_0(x)$ and $I_1(x)$ are the zeroth and the first order of modified Bessel functions. The transition from θ_{i-1}^F to θ_i^F is the Bayesian update distribution based on network prediction:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F | \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \alpha_i)} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^F, \mathbf{y}, \alpha_i))$$
(19)

Proposition 4.2. With Ψ_F as a periodic translation equivariant function namely $\Psi_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, w(\boldsymbol{\theta}^F + \boldsymbol{t}), \boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t) = w(\Psi_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}^F, \boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t) + \boldsymbol{t}), \forall \boldsymbol{t} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, the marginal distribution of $p(\boldsymbol{F}_n)$ defined by Eqs. (17) and (19) is periodic translation invariant.

Bayesian Flow of Lattice Parameter L Noting the lattice parameter L located in Euclidean space, we set prior as the parameter of a isotropic multivariate normal distribution $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0^L \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0^L, \boldsymbol{\rho}_0^L\} = \{\mathbf{0}_{3\times3}, \mathbf{1}_{3\times3}\}$ such that the prior distribution of the Markov process on $\boldsymbol{\mu}^L$ is the Dirac distribution $\delta(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \mathbf{0})$ and $\delta(\boldsymbol{\rho}_0 - \mathbf{1})$, which ensures O(3)-invariance of prior distribution of L. By Eq. 77 from Graves et al. (2023), the Bayesian flow distribution of the lattice parameter L is:

$$p_F^L(\boldsymbol{\mu}^L|\boldsymbol{L};t) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^L|\gamma(t)\boldsymbol{L},\gamma(t)(1-\gamma(t))\boldsymbol{I})$$
(20)

where $\gamma(t)=1-\sigma_1^{2t}$ and σ_1 is the predefined hyper-parameter controlling the variance of input distribution at t=1 under linear entropy accuracy schedule. The variance parameter ρ does not need to be modeled and fed to the network, since it is deterministic given the accuracy schedule. After sampling μ_i^L from p_F^L , the training objective is defined as minimizing KL divergence between sender and receiver distribution (based on Eq. 96 in Graves et al. (2023)):

$$\mathcal{L}_{L} = \frac{n}{2} \left(1 - \sigma_{1}^{2/n} \right) \mathbb{E}_{i \sim U\{1,n\}} \mathbb{E}_{p_{F}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L}|\boldsymbol{L};t_{i-1})} \frac{\left\| \boldsymbol{L} - \hat{\Psi}_{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}},t_{i-1}) \right\|^{2}}{\sigma_{1}^{2i/n}},$$
(21)

where the prediction term $\hat{\Psi}_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1})$ is the lattice parameter part of network output. After training, the generation process is defined as the Bayesian update distribution given network prediction:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}) = p_{U}^{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\hat{\Psi}_{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L}; t_{i-1})$$
(22)

Proposition 4.3. With Ψ_L as O(3)-equivariant function namely $\Psi_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}^F, \boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t) = \boldsymbol{Q}\Psi_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}^F, \boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t), \forall \boldsymbol{Q}^T\boldsymbol{Q} = \boldsymbol{I}$, the marginal distribution of $p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_n^L)$ defined by Eq. (22) is O(3)-invariant.

Bayesian Flow of Atom Types A Given that atom types are discrete random variables located in a simplex \mathcal{S}^K , the prior parameter of A is the discrete uniform distribution over the vocabulary $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0^A \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{K} \mathbf{1}_{1 \times N}$. With the notation of the projection from the class index j to the length K one-hot vector $(\mathbf{e}_j)_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \delta_{jk}$, where $\mathbf{e}_j \in \mathbb{R}^K$, $\mathbf{e}_A \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mathbf{e}_{a_1}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_{a_N}) \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$, the Bayesian flow distribution of atom types A is derived in Graves et al. (2023):

$$p_F^A(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A \mid \boldsymbol{A}; t) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} \mid \beta^A(t)(K\mathbf{e}_{\boldsymbol{A}} - \mathbf{1}_{K \times N}), \beta^A(t)K\mathbf{I}_{K \times N \times N})} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A - \frac{e^{\mathbf{y}}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0^A}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{\mathbf{y}_k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)_k^A}\right). \tag{23}$$

where $\beta^A(t)$ is the predefined accuracy schedule for atom types. Sampling θ_i^A from p_F^A as the training signal, the training objective is the *n*-step discrete-time loss for discrete variable (Graves et al., 2023):

$$\mathcal{L}_{A} = n \mathbb{E}_{i \sim U\{1, n\}, p_{F}^{A}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{A} | \boldsymbol{A}; t_{i-1}), \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} | \alpha_{i}(K\mathbf{e}_{\boldsymbol{A}} - \mathbf{1}), \alpha_{i}K\boldsymbol{I})} \ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} | \alpha_{i}(K\mathbf{e}_{\boldsymbol{A}} - \mathbf{1}), \alpha_{i}K\boldsymbol{I})$$

$$- \sum_{d=1}^{N} \ln \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_{O}^{(d)}(k | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{A}; t_{i-1}) \mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{y}^{(d)} | \alpha_{i}(K\mathbf{e}_{k} - \mathbf{1}), \alpha_{i}K\boldsymbol{I}\right) \right)$$
(24)

where $I \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N \times N}$ and $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times D}$. When sampling, the transition from $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^A$ to $\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^A$ is derived as:

$$p(\theta_i^A | \theta_{i-1}^M) = p_{i}^A(\theta_i^A | \theta_{i-1}^A, \hat{\Psi}_A(\theta_{i-1}^M, t_{i-1}); t_{i-1})$$
(25)

The detailed training and sampling algorithm could be found in Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2.

5 EXPERIMENTS

We evaluate on two crystal generation tasks: ab initio generation in Sec. 5.1 and stable structure prediction task in Sec. 5.2. Ablation studies are detailed in Sec. 5.3 to validate design choices. We provide the implementation details in Appendix C.

Following Xie et al. (2021); Jiao et al. (2023), we choose the following datasets for evaluation: 1) **Perov-5** (Castelli et al., 2012a;b) is composed of 18,928 perovskite crystals of similar structures, with 5 atoms in a unit cell sharing the chemical formula ABX₃. 2) **Carbon-24** (Pickard, 2020) contains 10,153 crystals with 6~24 atoms in a cell, and all atom types are carbon. 3) **MP-20** (Jain et al., 2013) selects 45,231 stable inorganic materials from Material Projects (Jain et al., 2013), including the majority of experimentally-verified materials with at most 20 atoms in a unit cell. 4) **MPTS-52** (Jiao et al., 2023) consists of 40,476 crystals up to 52 atoms per cell, which is a more challenging extension of MP-20. All crystals are reduced as Niggli cells (Niggli, 1928). The procedure to split the datasets into training, validation, and testing subsets adheres to prior practices (Xie et al., 2021; Jiao et al., 2023).

Table 1: Results on ab initio generation task. Baseline results are from Xie et al. (2021); Jiao et al. (2023); Miller et al. (2024).

Data	ta Method		y (%) ↑	Coverag	ge (%) †	Property ↓		
Data	Method	Struc.	Comp.	COV-R	COV-P	$d_{ ho}$	d_E	d_{elem}
Perov-5	Cond-DFC-VAE (Court et al., 2020)	73.60	82.95	73.92	10.13	2.268	4.111	0.8373
	G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019)	99.92	98.79	0.18	0.23	1.625	4.746	0.0368
	P-G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019)	79.63	99.13	0.37	0.25	0.2755	1.388	0.4552
	CDVAE (Xie et al., 2021)	100.0	98.59	99.45	98.46	0.1258	0.0264	0.0628
	DiffCSP(Jiao et al., 2023)	100.0	98.85	99.74	98.27	0.1110	0.0263	0.0128
	CrysBFN	100.0	98.86	99.52	98.63	0.0728	0.0198	0.0098
Carbon-24	G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019)	99.94	_	0.00	0.00	0.9427	1.320	_
	P-G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019)	48.39	_	0.00	0.00	1.533	134.7	_
	CDVAE (Xie et al., 2021)	100.0	_	99.80	83.08	0.1407	0.2850	-
	DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023)	100.0	-	99.90	97.27	0.0805	0.0820	-
	CrysBFN	100.0	-	99.90	99.12	0.0612	0.0503	-
MP-20	G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019)	99.65	75.96	38.33	99.57	3.034	42.09	0.6411
	P-G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019)	77.51	76.40	41.93	99.74	4.04	2.448	0.6234
	CDVAE (Xie et al., 2021)	100.0	86.70	99.15	99.49	0.6875	0.2778	1.432
	DiffCSP(Jiao et al., 2023)	100.0	83.25	99.71	99.76	0.3502	0.1247	0.3398
	FlowMM (Miller et al., 2024)	96.85	83.19	99.49	99.58	0.239	-	0.083
	CrysBFN	100.0	87.51	99.09	99.79	0.2067	0.0632	0.1628

Table 2: Results on stable structure prediction task. Baseline results are from Jiao et al. (2023); Miller et al. (2024).

	Perov-5		MP-20		MPTS-52	
	Match rate \uparrow	$RMSE\!\!\downarrow$	$Match\ rate \uparrow$	$RMSE\!\!\downarrow$	$Match\ rate \uparrow$	$RMSE\!\!\downarrow$
CDVAE (Xie et al., 2021)	45.31	0.1138	33.90	0.1045	5.34	0.2106
DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023)	52.02	0.0760	51.49	0.0631	12.19	0.1786
FlowMM (Miller et al., 2024)	53.15	0.0992	61.39	0.0566	17.54	0.1726
CrysBFN	54.69	0.0636	64.35	0.0433	20.52	0.1038

5.1 AB INITIO GENERATION

Baselines For this task, the compared baselines include: 2) two-stage VAE-based methods Cond-DFC-VAE (Court et al., 2020) and CD-VAE (Xie et al., 2021); 2) auto-regressive method G-SchNet (Gebauer et al., 2019), and its periodic adaptation P-G-SchNet (Xie et al., 2021); 3) diffusion-based joint generation approach DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023). 4) flow-matching-based approach FlowMM (Note that FlowMM only reports results on MP-20 and excludes d_E). We follow (Hoogeboom et al., 2022; Jiao et al., 2023) to sample atom numbers from a distribution that is pre-computed based on atom numbers in the training dataset. Performance Indicators Following previous work (Xie et al., 2021), we evaluate the efficacy of our model from three aspects: 1) Validity: Structure and compositional validity of randomly generated 10000 materials. 2) Coverage: Coverage score between generated 10000 materials and test set, defined by average minimum structure distance and average minimum compositional distance. 3) Property Statistics: the earth mover's distance (EMD) between the property distribution of generated crystals and test dataset crystals. Monitored properties include density (ρ , unit g/cm³), energy predicted by an independent GNN (E, unit eV/atom), and the number of unique elements (# elem.).

Results The evaluation metrics for ab initio generation tasks are listed in Tab. 1. Our method consistently achieves better or competitive property statistics and generation precision on three datasets compared to baseline generative models. For compositional metrics including d_{elem} and compositional validity, our method demonstrates bigger performance improvement for the more challenging dataset MP-20 (+4.34% compared to DiffCSP with the same level of d_{elem}), underscoring the importance of modeling atom types in the simplex space.

5.2 STABLE STRUCTURE PREDICTION

In this section, we extend our method to stable structure prediction task 3 , where the modeling target is p(L, F|A). The condition of atom types A is incorporated into the network by concatenating node

³We also report the stability rate of the crystal structure prediction task in Tab. 7 due to the space limit here.

feature and atom type embedding, following Jiao et al. (2023). **Baselines** Following the practices in Jiao et al. (2023), we select baselines generative approaches including Diffusion-based approaches **CD-VAE** and **DiffCSP** and the recent flow-matching-based method, **FlowMM**, which only reports results on the MP-20 dataset for this task. **Performance Indicators** The measured performance indicators for this task are **Match Rate** and **RMSD** computed by StructureMatcher class with thresholds stol=0.5, $angle_tol=10$, ltol=0.3 in pymatgen (Ong et al., 2013), between the predicted structure candidates and the groundtruth structure given the composition. **Results** As summarized in Tab. 2, CrysBFN achieves consistent performance improvement over baseline methods, especially for more challenging datasets ($\sim 13\%$ higher match rate than DiffCSP for MP-20 and $\sim 40\%$ lower RMSE compared to FlowMM for MPTS-52).

5.3 ABLATION STUDY

 Using MP-20 dataset and stable structure prediction task, we validate the necessity of proposed components of CrysBFN with results summarized in Tab. 3: 1) By removing the entropy parameter condition c^F and using time as condition, match rate drops to 52.16%, proving that, different from original BFN, the non-additive accuracy dynamics requires the network to model both mean parameter m and entropy parameter condition c. 2) By altering the approximated linear-entropy sender accuracy schedule to the hand-designed roughly linear-entropy schedule

Table 3: Ablation studies on MP-20.

Match rate (%) ↑	$RMSE \downarrow$		
64.35	0.0433		
52.16 49.76 6.17	0.0631 0.0643 0.3822		
1k Batches Sim.	Time (s)		
356.1 92.6			
	64.35 52.16 49.76 6.17 1k Batches Sim. 356.1		

 $c(t)=tc^t(1)$, we validate the effect of exact searched linear entropy schedule. 3) By replacing the proposed hyper-torus BFN with the original continuous BFN, we observe poor match rate at 6.17%, indicating the importance of redesigning BFN for crystal data. Calculating the computational time for simulating 1000 batches, we observe $\sim 4\times$ efficiency, verifying fast sampling rate considering the full training procedure of MP-20 requires $\sim 150 \mathrm{k}$ steps.

5.4 SAMPLING EFFICIENCY EXPERIMENT

We compare the sampling efficiency of Crys-BFN and DiffCSP⁴ over the CSP task on the MP-20 dataset, based on the Number of Function Evaluations (NFE), *i.e.*, the number of network forward passes. The experimental results is plotted in Fig. 4. Notably, CrysBFN achieves a remarkable match rate of 60.02% with only 10 step network forwards, surpassing DiffCSP's performance of 51.49% at 2000 step network forwards. This illustrates the exceptional sampling efficiency of CrysBFN.

Figure 4: Experimental results on MP-20 with different Number of Function Evaluations (NFE) *i.e.* number of network forward passes.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we present the first periodic Bayesian flow modeling on the hyper-torus, addressing an unprecedented theoretical issue related to non-additive accuracy. Specifically, we introduce a novel entropy conditioning mechanism, theoretical reformulations of BFN, a fast sampling algorithm, and a numerical method for determining the accuracy schedule. Leveraging the proposed periodic Bayesian flow, we implement the first periodic E(3) equivariant Bayesian flow networks for crystal generation. Our approach achieves state-of-the-art performance in crystal generation, with efficiency improved by two orders of magnitude. Additionally, our methodology can be adapted to a wide range of data types and tasks involving hyper-torus data.

⁴We exclude FlowMM from this comparison because its larger parameter size (28.3M) makes the comparison based on NFE unfair. However, readers can find the figure that includes FlowMM in Fig. 7.

ETHICS STATEMENT

We confirm that our work complies with the ICLR Code of Ethics, and we have carefully considered potential ethical concerns related to the development and use of our proposed method, CrysBFN, for crystal generation. Our method is designed for general crystal generative modeling tasks and does not involve sensitive data or tasks. We strongly encourage users to ensure compliance with relevant privacy regulations and critically assess the model's outputs. We are confirmed that there is no conflict of interest, financial sources or other factors, that could influence the development or presentation of this work.

With these considerations, we do not anticipate any violations of the ICLR Code of Ethics in the development or use of this model. And we stress once again that CrysBFN should not be used for malicious purposes, such as creating harmful structures.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

To ensure reproducibility, we give a detailed derivation of the periodic Bayesian flow in Appendix A and the proof of the propositions in Appendix B. All datasets and performance evaluation method used in our experiments are publicly available and clearly specified or cited in Sec. 5. We provide our implementation details including training and sampling procedure, hyper-parameters, used computational resources and anonymous code repository link in Appendix C.

REFERENCES

- Mila AI4Science, Alex Hernandez-Garcia, Alexandre Duval, Alexandra Volokhova, Yoshua Bengio, Divya Sharma, Pierre Luc Carrier, Michał Koziarski, and Victor Schmidt. Crystal-gfn: sampling crystals with desirable properties and constraints. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.04925*, 2023.
- Zhendong Cao, Xiaoshan Luo, Jian Lv, and Lei Wang. Space group informed transformer for crystalline materials generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.15734*, 2024.
- Ivano E Castelli, David D Landis, Kristian S Thygesen, Søren Dahl, Ib Chorkendorff, Thomas F Jaramillo, and Karsten W Jacobsen. New cubic perovskites for one-and two-photon water splitting using the computational materials repository. *Energy & Environmental Science*, 5(10):9034–9043, 2012a.
- Ivano E Castelli, Thomas Olsen, Soumendu Datta, David D Landis, Søren Dahl, Kristian S Thygesen, and Karsten W Jacobsen. Computational screening of perovskite metal oxides for optimal solar light capture. *Energy & Environmental Science*, 5(2):5814–5819, 2012b.
- Ricky TQ Chen and Yaron Lipman. Riemannian flow matching on general geometries. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.03660*, 2023.
- Callum J Court, Batuhan Yildirim, Apoorv Jain, and Jacqueline M Cole. 3-d inorganic crystal structure generation and property prediction via representation learning. *Journal of chemical information and modeling*, 60(10):4518–4535, 2020.
- Howard D Flack. Chiral and achiral crystal structures. Helvetica Chimica Acta, 86(4):905–921, 2003.
- Johannes Gasteiger, Florian Becker, and Stephan Günnemann. Gemnet: Universal directional graph neural networks for molecules. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34: 6790–6802, 2021.
- Niklas Gebauer, Michael Gastegger, and Kristof Schütt. Symmetry-adapted generation of 3d point sets for the targeted discovery of molecules. In H. Wallach, H. Larochelle, A. Beygelzimer, F. d'Alché-Buc, E. Fox, and R. Garnett (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 32, pp. 7566–7578. Curran Associates, Inc., 2019.
- Ian Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, Sherjil Ozair, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. Generative adversarial networks. *Communications of the ACM*, 63(11):139–144, 2020.

- Alex Graves, Rupesh Kumar Srivastava, Timothy Atkinson, and Faustino Gomez. Bayesian flow networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.07037*, 2023.
 - Nate Gruver, Anuroop Sriram, Andrea Madotto, Andrew Gordon Wilson, C Lawrence Zitnick, and Zachary Ulissi. Fine-tuned language models generate stable inorganic materials as text. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2402.04379, 2024.
 - Peter Guttorp and Richard A Lockhart. Finding the location of a signal: A bayesian analysis. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 83(402):322–330, 1988.
 - Jonathan Ho, Ajay Jain, and Pieter Abbeel. Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:6840–6851, 2020a.
 - Jonathan Ho, Ajay Jain, and Pieter Abbeel. Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:6840–6851, 2020b.
 - Jordan Hoffmann, Louis Maestrati, Yoshihide Sawada, Jian Tang, Jean Michel Sellier, and Yoshua Bengio. Data-driven approach to encoding and decoding 3-d crystal structures. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.00949*, 2019.
 - Emiel Hoogeboom, Victor Garcia Satorras, Clément Vignac, and Max Welling. Equivariant diffusion for molecule generation in 3d. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 8867–8887. PMLR, 2022.
 - Anubhav Jain, Shyue Ping Ong, Geoffroy Hautier, Wei Chen, William Davidson Richards, Stephen Dacek, Shreyas Cholia, Dan Gunter, David Skinner, Gerbrand Ceder, et al. Commentary: The materials project: A materials genome approach to accelerating materials innovation. *APL materials*, 1(1):011002, 2013.
 - Rui Jiao, Wenbing Huang, Peijia Lin, Jiaqi Han, Pin Chen, Yutong Lu, and Yang Liu. Crystal structure prediction by joint equivariant diffusion on lattices and fractional coordinates. In *Workshop on "Machine Learning for Materials" ICLR* 2023, 2023.
 - Rui Jiao, Wenbing Huang, Yu Liu, Deli Zhao, and Yang Liu. Space group constrained crystal generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03992*, 2024.
 - Bowen Jing, Gabriele Corso, Jeffrey Chang, Regina Barzilay, and Tommi Jaakkola. Torsional diffusion for molecular conformer generation. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:24240–24253, 2022.
 - John Jumper, Richard Evans, Alexander Pritzel, Tim Green, Michael Figurnov, Olaf Ronneberger, Kathryn Tunyasuvunakool, Russ Bates, Augustin Žídek, Anna Potapenko, Alex Bridgland, Clemens Meyer, Simon A A Kohl, Andrew J Ballard, Andrew Cowie, Bernardino Romera-Paredes, Stanislav Nikolov, Rishub Jain, Jonas Adler, Trevor Back, Stig Petersen, David Reiman, Ellen Clancy, Michal Zielinski, Martin Steinegger, Michalina Pacholska, Tamas Berghammer, Sebastian Bodenstein, David Silver, Oriol Vinyals, Andrew W Senior, Koray Kavukcuoglu, Pushmeet Kohli, and Demis Hassabis. Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature*, 596 (7873):583–589, 2021. doi: 10.1038/s41586-021-03819-2.
 - Sungwon Kim, Juhwan Noh, Geun Ho Gu, Alan Aspuru-Guzik, and Yousung Jung. Generative adversarial networks for crystal structure prediction. *ACS central science*, 6(8):1412–1420, 2020.
 - Toru Kitagawa and Jeff Rowley. von mises-fisher distributions and their statistical divergence. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2202.05192, 2022.
 - Astrid Klipfel, Yaël Frégier, Adlane Sayede, and Zied Bouraoui. Unified model for crystalline material generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.04510*, 2023.
 - Christophe Ley and Thomas Verdebout. *Modern directional statistics*. Chapman and Hall/CRC, 2017.
 - Peijia Lin, Pin Chen, Rui Jiao, Qing Mo, Cen Jianhuan, Wenbing Huang, Yang Liu, Dan Huang, and Yutong Lu. Equivariant diffusion for crystal structure prediction. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2024.

- Yaron Lipman, RickyT.Q. Chen, Heli Ben-Hamu, Maximilian Nickel, and Matt Le. Flow matching for generative modeling. Oct 2022.
 - Yue Liu, Tianlu Zhao, Wangwei Ju, and Siqi Shi. Materials discovery and design using machine learning. *Journal of Materiomics*, pp. 159–177, Sep 2017. doi: 10.1016/j.jmat.2017.08.002. URL http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jmat.2017.08.002.
 - Xiaoshan Luo, Zhenyu Wang, Pengyue Gao, Jian Lv, Yanchao Wang, Changfeng Chen, and Yanming Ma. Deep learning generative model for crystal structure prediction. *npj Computational Materials*, 10(1):254, 2024a.
 - Youzhi Luo, Chengkai Liu, and Shuiwang Ji. Towards symmetry-aware generation of periodic materials. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024b.
 - Kanti V Mardia and SAM El-Atoum. Bayesian inference for the von mises-fisher distribution. *Biometrika*, 63(1):203–206, 1976.
 - Kanti V Mardia and Peter E Jupp. *Directional statistics*. John Wiley & Sons, 2009.
 - Benjamin Kurt Miller, Ricky T. Q. Chen, Anuroop Sriram, and Brandon M Wood. FlowMM: Generating materials with Riemannian flow matching. In Ruslan Salakhutdinov, Zico Kolter, Katherine Heller, Adrian Weller, Nuria Oliver, Jonathan Scarlett, and Felix Berkenkamp (eds.), Proceedings of the 41st International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 235 of Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, pp. 35664–35686. PMLR, 21–27 Jul 2024. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v235/miller24a.html.
 - Paul Niggli. Krystallographische und strukturtheoretische Grundbegriffe, volume 1. Akademische verlagsgesellschaft mbh, 1928.
 - Juhwan Noh, Jaehoon Kim, Helge S Stein, Benjamin Sanchez-Lengeling, John M Gregoire, Alan Aspuru-Guzik, and Yousung Jung. Inverse design of solid-state materials via a continuous representation. *Matter*, 1(5):1370–1384, 2019.
 - Asma Nouira, Nataliya Sokolovska, and Jean-Claude Crivello. Crystalgan: learning to discover crystallographic structures with generative adversarial networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.11203*, 2018.
 - Shyue Ping Ong, William Davidson Richards, Anubhav Jain, Geoffroy Hautier, Michael Kocher, Shreyas Cholia, Dan Gunter, Vincent L Chevrier, Kristin A Persson, and Gerbrand Ceder. Python materials genomics (pymatgen): A robust, open-source python library for materials analysis. *Computational Materials Science*, 68:314–319, 2013.
 - Jiayu Peng, Daniel Schwalbe-Koda, Karthik Akkiraju, Tian Xie, Livia Giordano, Yang Yu, C John Eom, Jaclyn R Lunger, Daniel J Zheng, Reshma R Rao, et al. Human-and machine-centred designs of molecules and materials for sustainability and decarbonization. *Nature Reviews Materials*, 7 (12):991–1009, 2022.
 - Chris J. Pickard. Airss data for carbon at 10gpa and the c+n+h+o system at 1gpa, 2020.
 - Zekun Ren, Siyu Isaac Parker Tian, Juhwan Noh, Felipe Oviedo, Guangzong Xing, Jiali Li, Qiaohao Liang, Ruiming Zhu, Armin G. Aberle, Shijing Sun, Xiaonan Wang, Yi Liu, Qianxiao Li, Senthilnath Jayavelu, Kedar Hippalgaonkar, Yousung Jung, and Tonio Buonassisi. An invertible crystallographic representation for general inverse design of inorganic crystals with targeted properties. *Matter*, 2021. ISSN 2590-2385. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matt.2021.11.032.
 - Hannes Risken and Hannes Risken. Fokker-planck equation. Springer, 1996.
 - Chence Shi, Chuanrui Wang, Jiarui Lu, Bozitao Zhong, and Jian Tang. Protein sequence and structure co-design with equivariant translation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.08761*, 2022.
 - Anshuman Sinha, Shuyi Jia, and Victor Fung. Representation-space diffusion models for generating periodic materials. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.07213*, 2024.

- Yang Song and Stefano Ermon. Generative modeling by estimating gradients of the data distribution. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 32, 2019.
 - Yang Song, Jascha Sohl-Dickstein, Diederik P Kingma, Abhishek Kumar, Stefano Ermon, and Ben Poole. Score-based generative modeling through stochastic differential equations. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:2011.13456, 2020a.
 - Yang Song, Jascha Sohl-Dickstein, DiederikP. Kingma, Abhishek Kumar, Stefano Ermon, and Ben Poole. Score-based generative modeling through stochastic differential equations. *Cornell University arXiv, Cornell University arXiv*, Nov 2020b.
 - Yuxuan Song, Jingjing Gong, Hao Zhou, Mingyue Zheng, Jingjing Liu, and Wei-Ying Ma. Unified generative modeling of 3d molecules with bayesian flow networks. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023.
 - Hanchen Wang, Tianfan Fu, Yuanqi Du, Wenhao Gao, Kexin Huang, Ziming Liu, Payal Chandak, Shengchao Liu, Peter Van Katwyk, Andreea Deac, et al. Scientific discovery in the age of artificial intelligence. *Nature*, 620(7972):47–60, 2023.
 - Tian Xie, Xiang Fu, Octavian-Eugen Ganea, Regina Barzilay, and Tommi Jaakkola. Crystal diffusion variational autoencoder for periodic material generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.06197*, 2021.
 - Minkai Xu, Lantao Yu, Yang Song, Chence Shi, Stefano Ermon, and Jian Tang. Geodiff: A geometric diffusion model for molecular conformation generation. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2021.
 - Minkai Xu, Alexander S Powers, Ron O Dror, Stefano Ermon, and Jure Leskovec. Geometric latent diffusion models for 3d molecule generation. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 38592–38610. PMLR, 2023.
 - Mengjiao Yang, KwangHwan Cho, Amil Merchant, Pieter Abbeel, Dale Schuurmans, Igor Mordatch, and Ekin Dogus Cubuk. Scalable diffusion for materials generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.09235*, 2023.
 - Claudio Zeni, Robert Pinsler, Daniel Zügner, Andrew Fowler, Matthew Horton, Xiang Fu, Sasha Shysheya, Jonathan Crabbé, Lixin Sun, Jake Smith, et al. Mattergen: a generative model for inorganic materials design. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2312.03687, 2023.
 - Xuan Zhang, Limei Wang, Jacob Helwig, Youzhi Luo, Cong Fu, Yaochen Xie, Meng Liu, Yuchao Lin, Zhao Xu, Keqiang Yan, et al. Artificial intelligence for science in quantum, atomistic, and continuum systems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.08423*, 2023.
 - Yaolong Zhang, Ce Hu, and Bin Jiang. Embedded atom neural network potentials: Efficient and accurate machine learning with a physically inspired representation. *The journal of physical chemistry letters*, 10(17):4962–4967, 2019.

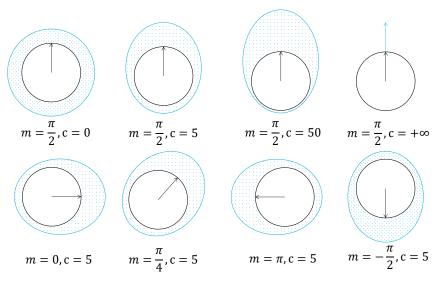


Figure 5: Depiction of von Mises distributions with different directions parameters m and concentration parameters c. The parameter m denotes the central location about which the distribution is centered, while c functions as a measure of the distribution's concentration. When c=0, the distribution is uniform on the circle. As c increases, the distribution becomes more concentrated around the value m, with c serving as a measure of this concentration. In the limit as $c \to +\infty$, the distribution converges to $\delta(m)$, a Dirac delta distribution centered at m.

A BAYESIAN FLOW NETWORKS FOR CIRCULAR DATA

In this section, we provide a detailed derivation of Bayesian flow networks considering periodicity.

A.1 CIRCULAR DATA AND VON MISES DISTRIBUTION

One-dimensional circular data x refers to observations of random variables supporting on the circumference of the unit circle defined in directional statistics (Mardia & Jupp, 2009; Ley & Verdebout, 2017). This space can be represented by the torus:

$$\mathbb{T}^1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : ||\boldsymbol{z}|| = 1 \}$$
 (26)

For *n*-dimensional data $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the set of x with every dimension located in \mathbb{T}^1 form a compact Riemannian manifold named hyper-torus \mathbb{T}^n formally.

Wrapped normal distribution used in Jiao et al. (2023) and von Mises distribution used in this paper are both circular distributions defined in this space, the probability density function of von Mises distribution with mean direction parameter m and concentration parameter c is

$$f(x|m,c) = vM(x|m,c) = \frac{\exp(c\cos(x-m))}{2\pi I_0(c)}$$
 (27)

where $I_0(c)$ is the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order 0 as the normalizing constant. The parameters m and 1/c are analogous to mean μ and variance σ^2 in the normal distribution: 1) m represents the central location around which the distribution is clustered, while c serves as a measure of concentration. 2) We give a depiction of von Mises distributions with different directions parameters in Fig. 5. When c equals zero, the distribution is uniform. As c becomes large, the distribution becomes tightly concentrated around the value m, with c quantifying this concentration. In the limit as $c \to +\infty$, the distribution becomes a Dirac delta distribution centered at m. Its support can be chosen as any interval of length 2π and we in this paper choose $[-\pi,\pi)$. Note that the fractional coordinate can be transformed to this interval easily by a linear transformation $g(x) = 2\pi x - \pi$. For this modeled interval, the map function from $\mathbb R$ to $[-\pi,\pi)$ is

$$w_{[-\pi,\pi)}(x) = (x-\pi)\%2\pi - \pi = x + 2\pi k, \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$$
(28)

Such map function is equivalent to the map function $w(x) = x - \lfloor x \rfloor = x + k, \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ used in Jiao et al. (2023) if we choose the modelled interval as [0,1). Then, we can prove that the probability density distribution of von Mises distribution is equivariant to the periodic translation transformation:

$$\forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \quad f(w_{[-\pi,\pi)}(x+t)|w_{[-\pi,\pi)}(m+t),c) = f(x+2\pi k'|m+2\pi k+t,c)$$

$$= \frac{\exp(c\cos(x+2\pi k'-(m+2\pi k+t)))}{2\pi I_0(c)}$$

$$= \frac{\exp(c\cos((x-m))}{2\pi I_0(c)}$$

$$= f(x|m,c)$$
(29)

The differential entropy of von Mises distribution with mean direction parameter m and concentration parameter c is

$$H(vM(x|m,c)) = -c\frac{I_1(c)}{I_0(c)} + \ln[2\pi I_0(c)] \quad \text{(Mardia & Jupp, 2009)}$$
(30)

We opt for von Mises distribution rather than the wrapped normal distribution used in Jiao et al. (2023); Jing et al. (2022) mainly because of the Bayesian conjugacy of von Mises distribution the posterior of which is conjugate to the prior distribution if the likelihood is parameterized as von Mises distribution which is the fundamental basis of constructing a Bayesian flow. Interestingly, there is an intriguing connection between von Mises distribution and crystal force field that the von Mises distribution is the stationary distribution of a drift and diffusion process on the circle in a harmonic potential corresponding to the harmonic force field of crystals (Risken & Risken, 1996).

A.2 INPUT DISTRIBUTION $p_I(\cdot | \boldsymbol{\theta})$ AND SENDER DISTRIBUTION $p_S(\boldsymbol{y} | \boldsymbol{x}; \alpha)$

For circular data \mathbf{x} which locates in a quotient space $\mathbb{T}^n = \mathbb{R}^{3 \times N}/[-\pi,\pi)^{3 \times N}$, we define the input distribution of the Bayesian Flow Networks as independently factorized von Mises distribution over the interval $[-\pi,\pi)$.

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{c}\} \tag{31}$$

$$p_I(\mathbf{x}|\theta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pi_{d=1}^D v M(x^{(d)}|m^{(d)}, c^{(d)})$$
(32)

where $m^{(d)} \in [-\pi,\pi)$ and $c^{(d)} \in [0,\infty)$.

In this paper, to ensuring the periodic translational invariance, the prior parameter of CrysBFN's Bayesian flow is chosed as

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0^F) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{vM(\boldsymbol{m}_0|\mathbf{0}_{3\times N}, \mathbf{0}_{3\times N}), \delta(\boldsymbol{c}_0 - \mathbf{0}_{3\times N})\} = \{U(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}), \delta(\boldsymbol{c}_0 - \mathbf{0}_{3\times N})\}$$
(33)

where $\mathbf{0}$ is the length of D vector whose entries are all 0. Note that this input prior $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ defines a multivariate uniform distribution

$$p_I(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \prod_{d=1}^D vM(x^{(d)}|0,0) = \prod_{d=1}^D U(-\pi,\pi)$$
(34)

which ensures *periodic E*(3) *invariance* of the prior distribution.

The sender space \mathcal{Y} is identical to the data space \mathcal{X} for circular data. And the sender distribution is von Mises distribution centered on \boldsymbol{x} with concentration parameter α represented by

$$p_S(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x};\alpha) = \prod_{d=1}^D vM(y^{(d)}|x^{(d)},\alpha) := vM(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x},\alpha)$$
(35)

A.3 Bayesian Update Function $h(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1},\mathbf{y},\alpha)$ and Bayesian Update Distribution $p_{\scriptscriptstyle U}(\cdot\mid\boldsymbol{\theta},\mathbf{x};\alpha)$

For the receiver, given his last univariate belief parameterized by von Mises distribution with parameter $\theta_{i-1} = \{m_{i-1}, c_{i-1}\}\$, he now observes a sample y from sender distribution with unknown

x and known α . Now, by Bayesian theorem,

$$p(x|y;\alpha, m_{i-1}, c_{i-1}) = \frac{p(y|x;\alpha)p(x; m_{i-1}, c_{i-1})}{p(y)}$$
(36)

$$\propto p(y|x;\alpha)p(x;m_{i-1},c_{i-1}) \tag{37}$$

$$= vM(y|x,\alpha)vM(x|m_{i-1},c_{i-1})$$
(38)

$$\propto \exp\{\alpha \cos(x-y) + c_{i-1} \cos(x-m_{i-1})\}\tag{39}$$

The last expression has the form of a von Mises distribution in x and hence:

$$p(x|y;\alpha, m_{i-1}, c_{i-1}) = vM(x; m_i, c_i)$$
(40)

where

$$m_i = \operatorname{atan2}(\alpha \sin y + c_{i-1} \sin m_{i-1}, \alpha \cos y + c_{i-1} \cos m_{i-1})$$
(41)

$$c_i = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + c_{i-1}^2 + 2\alpha c_{i-1} \cos(y - m_{i-1})}$$
(42)

We refer readers interested in more detailed deduction to Mardia & El-Atoum (1976); Guttorp & Lockhart (1988). Defining the notation for scaler x in circular space as $\dot{x} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [\cos x, \sin x]^T$, these two expressions will be much simpler, intuitive and more similar to the Gaussian form:

$$h(\{\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i-1}, c\}, \dot{\boldsymbol{y}}, \alpha) = \{\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_i, c_i\}$$

$$(43)$$

where

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i} = \frac{\alpha \dot{\boldsymbol{y}} + c_{i-1} \dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i-1}}{c_{i}} \tag{44}$$

$$c_i = ||\alpha \dot{\mathbf{y}} + c_{i-1} \dot{\mathbf{m}}_{i-1}||_2 \tag{45}$$

The Bayesian update distribution $p_{tt}(\cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha)$ could be obtained by marginalizing y:

$$p_{U}(\theta'|\theta, \mathbf{x}; \alpha) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{S}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}; \alpha)} \delta(\theta' - h(\theta, \mathbf{y}, \alpha)) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \alpha)} \delta(\theta' - h(\theta, \mathbf{y}, \alpha))$$
(46)

A.4 Non-Additive ACCURACY ISSUE

Although all cases including continuous and discrete data are proven to enjoy the so-called additive accuracy property considered in Graves et al. (2023) defined as:

$$p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}'' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a} + \alpha_{b}) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a})} p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}'' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}', \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{b}). \tag{47}$$

this property does not hold for von Mises distribution. The untenability of this property for von Mises distribution can be checked out by considering two steps Bayesian updates with prior $\theta = \{0, 0\}$, $\alpha_a, \alpha_b, \mathbf{y}_a, \mathbf{y}_b$,

$$p_{U}(c'' \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{a} + \alpha_{b}) = \delta(c - \alpha_{a} - \alpha_{b})$$
(48)

$$\neq \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}'|\boldsymbol{\theta},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{a})} p_{U}(c''\mid\boldsymbol{\theta}',\mathbf{x};\alpha_{b}) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x},\alpha_{a})} \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x},\alpha_{b})} \delta(c-||\alpha_{a}\,\mathbf{y}_{a}+\alpha_{b}\,\mathbf{y}_{b}\,||)$$
(49)

Consequently, the Bayesian flow distribution does not equal to one-step Bayesian update distribution with $\beta(t)$:

$$p_{E}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x}; t) \neq p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{0}, \mathbf{x}; \beta(t)).$$
 (50)

With an accuracy schedule $\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_n$ and $\beta(t)=\sum_{j=1}^{t_i}\alpha_j$, this untenability will cause the incongruity between sender's accumulated accuracy $\beta(t)$ and the confidence of receiver's belief c_i over his location parameter m_i . Hence we should differentiate the sender's accuracy schedule α_i and the receiver's belief confidence c_i . And c_i is no longer a function but a distribution over t_i . In consequence, we should define the Bayesian flow distribution parameterized by received sender's accuracies $\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i$ rather than t. Furthermore, the information of receiver confidence c_i should be part of the network input as well.

A.5 Bayesian Flow Distribution $p_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i)$ and Sender Accuracy Schedule α_i

$$p_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\dots,\alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{II}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0,\mathbf{x};\alpha_1)}\dots\mathbb{E}_{p_{II}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1},\mathbf{x};\alpha_i)}p_U(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1},\mathbf{x};\alpha_i)$$
(51)

The original definition of Bayesian flow distribution in Eq. (51) provides an iterative algorithm to sample from p_F but which practically is slow resulting the training unaffordable. In fact, noticing the "additive" property of $c_i \dot{m}_i$ by Eqs. (44) and (45), we can sample from p_F without iteration:

$$p_F(\boldsymbol{m}|\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{x},\alpha_1)}\ldots\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_i|\mathbf{x},\alpha_i)}\delta(\boldsymbol{m} - \operatorname{atan2}(\sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_i \cos \mathbf{y}_i, \sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_i \sin \mathbf{y}_i))$$
(52)

$$p_F(\boldsymbol{c}|\,\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_i) = \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_1\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_1)}\ldots\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_i\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_i)}\delta(\boldsymbol{c} - ||(\sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_i \cos \mathbf{y}_i, \sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_i \sin \mathbf{y}_i)||_2)$$
(53)

Eqs. (52) and (53) provides an algorithm allowing sampling from p_F by pure tensor operations without simulating the flow iteratively. Next, we can define the entropy of the receiver's belief as H(t):

$$H(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}_{p_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,...,\alpha_i)} H(p_I(\cdot|\boldsymbol{\theta}))$$
(54)

$$= \mathbb{E}_{p_F(c_i|\mathbf{x};\alpha_1,\alpha_2,...,\alpha_i)} - c_i \frac{I_1(c_i)}{I_0(c_i)} + \ln[2\pi I_0(c_i)], \text{ where } i = nt$$
 (55)

To ensure the information coherence between modalities, we choose to find a sender accuracy schedule to make the receiver's belief entropy H(t) linearly decrease with predefined c_n . Formally, we would like to find an accuracy schedule α_i such that

$$H(t) = (1 - t)H(0) + tH(1) = \ln 2\pi - c_n \frac{I_1(c_n)}{I_0(c_n)} + \ln[2\pi I_0(c_n)]$$
 (56)

Note that Eq. (56) can not be solved analytically but we can solve it numerically by firstly getting the target sender's accumulated accuracy $\beta(t)$ via binary search due to the monotonicity of Eq. (30). Next, we could iteratively search α_i from i=1 to i=n by matching the average accuracy toward c_i . This process could be done only once and the resultant α_i can be cached for each pre-confirmed hyper-parameter (c_n,n) pair.

A.6 OUTPUT DISTRIBUTION $p_{Q}(\cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}; t)$ AND RECEIVER DISTRIBUTION $p_{R}(\cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}; \alpha, t)$

Given samples $\theta = \{m, c\}$ from Bayesian flow distribution as input, the receiver uses network output $\Psi(\theta, t)$ to rebuild his belief over ground truth x termed output distribution. Following Graves et al. (2023), we parameterize p_0 using $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(\theta, t) = \Psi(\theta, t)$ to be δ prediction of \mathbf{x} :

$$p_O(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta};t) = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}(\boldsymbol{\theta},t))$$
(57)

Therefore, the receiver distribution is:

$$p_R(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta};\alpha,t) = \mathbb{E}_{p_O(\mathbf{x}'|\boldsymbol{\theta};t)} p_S(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}';\alpha) = vM(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\mathbf{x}}(\boldsymbol{\theta},t),\alpha)$$
(58)

A.7 DISCRETE-TIME LOSS $L^n(\mathbf{x})$

From Kitagawa & Rowley (2022), the KL divergence between $vM(m_1, c_1)$ and $vM(m_2, c_2)$ is

$$D_{KL}(vM(m_1, c_1)||vM(m_2, c_2)) = -\ln\frac{I_0(c_1)}{I_0(c_2)} + \frac{I_1(c_1)}{I_0(c_1)}(c_1\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_1 - c_2\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_2)'\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_1$$
 (59)

From Eq. (5), the discrete-time loss for circular data is

$$L^{n}(\mathbf{x}) = n\mathbb{E}_{i \sim U\{1,n\}, p_{E}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \dots, \alpha_{i})} D_{KL} \left(p_{S} \left(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}; \alpha_{i} \right) \parallel p_{R}(\cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}; t_{i-1}, \alpha_{i}) \right)$$
(60)

$$= n \mathbb{E}_{i \sim U\{1,n\}, p_F(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x}; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_i)} \frac{I_1(\alpha_i)}{I_0(\alpha_i)} \alpha_i (1 - \cos(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}, t_{i-1})))$$
(61)

Continuous-time loss is not tractable because the Bayesian flow distribution is not analytical due to the non-additive accuracy property.

B PROOF OF PROPOSITIONS

In this section, we first prove the crystal geometric invariance of CrysBFN. Crystals remain the same under transformations including permutation, orthogonal transformation, and periodic translation defined as follows:

Definition 1 (Permutation Invariance (Jiao et al., 2023)). For any permutation matrix P, p(L, F, A) = p(L, FP, AP), i.e., changing the order of atoms will not change the distribution.

Definition 2 (O(3) Invariance (Jiao et al., 2023)). For any orthogonal transformation $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$ satisfying $Q^{\top}Q = I$, p(QL, F, A) = p(L, F, A), namely, any rotation/reflection of L keeps the distribution unchanged.

Definition 3 (Periodic Translation Invariance (Jiao et al., 2023)). For any translation $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 1}$, $p(\mathbf{L}, w(\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{t}\mathbf{1}^{\top}), \mathbf{A}) = p(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{A})$, where the function $w(\mathbf{F}) = \mathbf{F} - \lfloor \mathbf{F} \rfloor \in [0, 1)^{3\times N}$ returns the fractional part of each element in \mathbf{F} , and $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 1}$ is a vector with all elements set to one. It explains that any periodic translation of \mathbf{F} will not change the distribution.

The combination of the above invariances is abbreviated in a compact manner termed periodic E(3) invariance proposed by Jiao et al. (2023). The permutational invariance can be easily achieved by using GNN frameworks. Periodic translation and rotation are both space group transformations. We first introduce the basic concept of G-invariant.

Definition 4. We call a distribution p(x) is G-invariant if for any transformation g in the group G, $p(g \cdot x) = p(x)$, and a conditional distribution p(x|c) is G-equivariant if $p(g \cdot x|g \cdot c) = p(x|c)$, $\forall g \in G$.

With a lemma from Xu et al. (2021), we can prove a Markov-process-generated distribution *G-invariant* by proving the G-invariance of the prior distribution and the G-equivariance of every transition kernel.

Lemma 1 (Xu et al. (2021)). Consider the generation Markov process $p(\theta_n) = \int p(\theta_0)p(\theta_{n:1}|\theta_0)d\theta_{1:n}$. If the prior distribution $p(\theta_0)$ is G-invariant and the Markov transitions $p(\theta_{t+1}|\theta_t), 0 \le t \le n-1$ are G-equivariant, the marginal distribution $p(\theta_n)$ is also G-invariant.

Proof.

$$\forall g \in G, \quad p(g \cdot \theta_n) = p(g \cdot \theta_0) \int p(\theta_{n:1}|\theta_0) d\theta_{1:n}$$

$$= p(g \cdot \theta_0) \int \prod_{t=0}^{n-1} p(g \cdot \theta_{t+1}|g \cdot \theta_t) d\theta_{1:n}$$

$$= p(\theta_0) \int \prod_{t=0}^{n-1} p(g \cdot \theta_{t+1}|g \cdot \theta_t) d\theta_{1:n}$$

$$= p(\theta_0) \int \prod_{t=0}^{n-1} p(\theta_{t+1}|\theta_t) d\theta_{1:n}$$

$$= p(\theta_0) \int p(\theta_0) p(\theta_{n:1}|\theta_0) d\theta_{1:n}$$

$$= p(\theta_n).$$

Therefore, the marginal distribution $p(\theta_n)$ is G-invariant.

With Lemma 1, we can prove the following propositions mentioned in the main text:

Proposition 4.3. With Ψ_L as O(3)-equivariant function namely $\Psi_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}^F, \boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t) = \boldsymbol{Q}\Psi_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}^F, \boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t), \forall \boldsymbol{Q}^T\boldsymbol{Q} = \boldsymbol{I}$, the marginal distribution of $p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_n^L)$ defined by Eq. (22) is O(3)-invariant.

Proof. The prior is O(3) invariant since $p(\mu_0^L) = \delta(\mu - \mathbf{0}) = \delta(Q\mu - \mathbf{0}), \forall Q^TQ = I$. The transition probability of

$$\begin{split} &p(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{A},\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{F})\\ &=p_{U}^{L}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{L}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\cdot),t_{i-1})\\ &=\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\frac{\alpha\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{L}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\cdot)+\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L}\rho_{i-1}}{\rho_{i}},\frac{\alpha}{\rho_{i}^{2}}\boldsymbol{I})\\ &=\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\frac{\alpha\boldsymbol{Q}\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\cdot)+\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L}\rho_{i-1}}{\rho_{i}},\frac{\alpha}{\rho_{i}^{2}}\boldsymbol{I})\quad\text{(by equivariance of }\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{L})\\ &=\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\boldsymbol{Q}\frac{\alpha\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\cdot)+\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L}\rho_{i-1}}{\rho_{i}},\frac{\alpha}{\rho_{i}^{2}}\boldsymbol{I})\\ &=\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\frac{\alpha\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\cdot)+\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L}\rho_{i-1}}{\rho_{i}},\frac{\alpha}{\rho_{i}^{2}}\boldsymbol{I})\quad\text{(by property of isotropic Normal p.d.f)}\\ &=p_{U}^{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}_{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\cdot),t_{i-1})\\ &=p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{L}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}^{L},\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{A},\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{F})\end{split}$$

is equivariant. By Lemma 1, the marginal distribution $p(\mu_n^L)$ is O(3)-invariant.

Proposition 4.2. With Ψ_F as a periodic translation equivariant function namely $\Psi_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, w(\boldsymbol{\theta}^F + \boldsymbol{t}), \boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t) = w(\Psi_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}^F, \boldsymbol{\theta}^L, t) + \boldsymbol{t}), \forall \boldsymbol{t} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, the marginal distribution of $p(\boldsymbol{F}_n)$ defined by Eqs. (17) and (19) is periodic translation invariant.

Proof. We first prove that the Bayesian update is periodic translational equivariant. Based on Eqs. (44) and (45), we can interpret the Bayesian update of $\{\dot{m}_{i-1}, c_{i-1}\}$ observing \dot{y} with α , as the *vector addition* between \dot{m}_{i-1} and \dot{y} with weight c_{i-1} and α . And the periodic translation t for x corresponds to the rotation of \dot{x} with angle t:

$$[\cos(x+t+2\pi k), \sin(x+t+2\pi k)]^T = [\cos(x+t), \sin(x+t)]^T$$

$$= [\cos x \cos t - \sin x \sin t, \sin x \cos t + \cos x \sin t]^T$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos t & -\sin t \\ \sin t & \cos t \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos x \\ \sin x \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R}_t \dot{\mathbf{x}}$$

where R_t is the 2-dimensional rotation matrix with angle t. Due to the rotational equivariance of 2D vector addition, we can infer that the Bayesian update function h is periodic translational equivariant:

$$h(\{w(m_{i-1}+t), c_{i-1}\}, w(y+t), \alpha) = h(\{R_t \dot{m}_{i-1}, c_{i-1}\}, R_t \dot{y}, \alpha)$$

$$= \{\frac{\alpha R_t \dot{y} + c_{i-1} R_t \dot{m}_{i-1}}{||\alpha R_t \dot{y} + c_{i-1} R_t \dot{m}_{i-1}||_2}, ||\alpha R_t \dot{y} + c_{i-1} R_t \dot{m}_{i-1}||_2\}$$

$$= \{\frac{\alpha R_t \dot{y} + c_{i-1} R_t \dot{m}_{i-1}}{||\alpha \dot{y} + c_{i-1} \dot{m}_{i-1}||_2}, ||\alpha \dot{y} + c_{i-1} \dot{m}_{i-1}||_2\}$$

$$= \{R_t \dot{m}_i, c_i\} = \{w(m_i + t), c_i\}$$
(62)

The prior is periodic translation invariant because $m^F \sim U(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$. We prove that the Bayesian update distribution $p_U(m_i^F | m_{i-1}^F, c_{i-1}^F, g(m_{i-1}^F); \alpha)$ is periodic translationary.

tion equivariant if Ψ^F is periodic translation equivariant:

1082
$$p_{U}(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})|w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t}),\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t}));\alpha)$$
1083
$$=\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})),\alpha)}\delta(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})-h(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t}),\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},\mathbf{y},\alpha))$$
1084
$$=\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|w(\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F})+\boldsymbol{t}),\alpha)}\delta(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})-h(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t}),\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},\mathbf{y},\alpha))(\text{by equiv.}\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F})$$
1086
$$=\mathbb{E}_{vM(w(\mathbf{y}+\boldsymbol{t})|w(\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F})+\boldsymbol{t}),\alpha)}\delta(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})-h(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t}),\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},w(\mathbf{y}+\boldsymbol{t}),\alpha))$$
1088
$$=\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F})),\alpha)}\delta(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})-h(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t}),\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},w(\mathbf{y}+\boldsymbol{t}),\alpha))(\text{by Eq. (29)})$$
1089
$$=\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F})),\alpha)}\delta(w(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}+\boldsymbol{t})-w(h(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F},\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},\mathbf{y},\alpha)+\boldsymbol{t}))(\text{by Eq. (62)})$$
1091
$$=\mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F})),\alpha}\delta(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}-h(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F},\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},\mathbf{y},\alpha))(\text{by equivariance of }\delta\text{ function})$$
1092
$$=p_{U}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}^{F}|\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F},\boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}^{F},\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i-1}^{F});\alpha)$$

Next, we prove the following proposition:

Proposition 4.1. The probability density function of Bayesian flow distribution defined by Eqs. (15) and (16) is equivalent to the original definition in Eq. (14).

 Proof. Combining Eqs. (44) and (45),

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i}\boldsymbol{c}_{i} = \alpha_{i}\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_{i} + \boldsymbol{c}_{i-1}\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i-1}$$

$$= \alpha_{i}\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_{i} + \alpha_{i-1}\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_{i-1} + \boldsymbol{c}_{i-2}\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i-2}$$

$$= \alpha_{i}\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_{i} + \dots + \alpha_{1}\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_{1} + \boldsymbol{c}_{0}\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{0}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i}\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_{i} = \left[\sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i}\cos\boldsymbol{y}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i}\sin\boldsymbol{y}_{i}\right]^{T}$$

Taking the 2-norm to each side.

 $||\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_{i}\boldsymbol{c}_{i}||_{2} = ||[\sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \cos \mathbf{y}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \sin \mathbf{y}_{i}]^{T}||_{2}$ $\boldsymbol{c}_{i} = ||[\sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \cos \mathbf{y}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \sin \mathbf{y}_{i}]^{T}||_{2}$

The vector direction of \dot{m}_i is irrelevant to the scaler c_i . Therefore,

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{m}}_i = \operatorname{atan2}(\sum_{i=1}^i \alpha_i \cos \mathbf{y}_i, \sum_{i=1}^i \alpha_i \sin \mathbf{y}_i)$$
(63)

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} & p_{F}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}|\,\mathbf{x};\alpha_{1},\alpha_{2},\ldots,\alpha_{i}) \\ = & \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{1}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{0},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{1})} \ldots \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-2},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{i-1})} p_{U}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{i}) \\ = & \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_{1}\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_{1})} \ldots \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_{i}\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_{i})} \delta(\boldsymbol{m}_{i} - \operatorname{atan2}(\sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \cos \mathbf{y}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \sin \mathbf{y}_{i})) \\ & p_{F}(\boldsymbol{c}_{i}|\,\mathbf{x};\alpha_{1},\alpha_{2},\ldots,\alpha_{i}) \\ = & \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{1}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{0},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{1})} \ldots \mathbb{E}_{p_{U}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-2},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{i-1})} p_{U}(\boldsymbol{m}_{i}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1},\mathbf{x};\alpha_{i}) \\ = & \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_{1}\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_{1})} \ldots \mathbb{E}_{vM(\mathbf{y}_{i}\,|\,\mathbf{x},\alpha_{i})} \delta(\boldsymbol{c}_{i} - ||[\sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \cos \mathbf{y}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_{i} \sin \mathbf{y}_{i}]^{T}||_{2}) \end{aligned}$$

C IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

We provide our code in the anonymous link https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CrystalBFN-BC42.

Training and Sampling Procedure We provide the training and sampling procedure in Algorithm 1 and in Algorithm 2.

Network Architecture We use CSPNet proposed by Jiao et al. (2023) with minor modifications: (1) We add a residual connection from the input to the output of fractional coordinates ensuring the equivariance of the network:

$$\Psi^F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^L, t_i) = w(\varphi_F(\boldsymbol{h}_i^{(S)}) + \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F), \tag{64}$$

By the periodic translational invariance of $\varphi_F(\boldsymbol{h}_i^{(S)})$ proved by Jiao et al. (2023), the equivariance of $\hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^{\mathcal{M}}, t_i)$ can be easily checked:

$$\begin{split} \Psi^F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^A, w(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F + \boldsymbol{t}), \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^L, t_i) = & w(\varphi_F(\boldsymbol{h}_i^{(S)}) + w(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F + \boldsymbol{t})) \\ = & w(w(\varphi_F(\boldsymbol{h}_i^{(S)}) + \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F) + \boldsymbol{t}) \\ = & w(\Psi^F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i^A, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^F, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^L, t_i) + \boldsymbol{t}) \end{split}$$

(2)We alter the frequency of the Fourier transformation features to model in the interval $[-\pi,\pi)$ with length 2π . (3)The concentration parameter of each fractional coordinate c^F is taken logarithm, normalized and concatenated to time embedding. The network hyper-parameters follows the setting of Jiao et al. (2023) including the number of hidden states and layers.

Hyper-parameters For the network, the CSPNet has 6 layers, 512 hidden states, 128 frequencies for the Fourier feature for each task and dataset following (Jiao et al., 2023). For BFN hyper-parameters, we set $\sigma_1^2=0.001$ for continuous variable generation, $\beta_1=1000$ for circular variables generation across all datasets and tasks. For discrete variables, we set $\beta_1=0.4$ for the MP-20 dataset and $\beta_1=3.0$ for the Perov-5 dataset. The number of steps is searched in $\{50,100,500,1000,2000\}$. For optimizations, we apply an AdamW optimizer with an initial learning rate 1×10^{-3} and a plateau scheduler with a decaying factor of 0.6, a patience of 100 epochs, and a minimal learning rate 1×10^{-4} . The weight of every loss is 5×10^{-2} . The network is trained for 4000, 5000, 1500, and 1000 epochs for Perov-5, Carbon-24, MP-20, and MPTS-52 respectively.

Computational Resources All training experiments are conducted on a server with $8 \times NVidia RTX$ 3090 GPU, $64 \times Intel Xeon Platinum 8362 CPU and 256GB memory. Each training task requires one GPU. We also report the required GPU hour across methods to converge in our experimental environment in Tab. 4.$

Table 4: Comparison of GPU hours required for training across different methods.

GPU Hour	Perov-5	MP-20	MPTS-52
DiffCSP Jiao et al. (2023)	8.59	92.22	10.42
FlowMM Miller et al. (2024)	16.36	106.37	16.49
CrysBFN	10.19	85.71	12.31

D More Results

Visualizations Here we give visualizations of the ab-initio generated structures from CrysBFN and DiffCSP in Fig. 6. We also provide a gif animation of the generation process in the anonymous link https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CrystalBFN-BC42.

Error Bars We report the error bar for the crystal structure prediction task following Jiao et al. (2023) in Tab. 5 running three experiments with different random seeds. The results are similar to Tab. 2.

Uniqueness, Novelty, and Stability Here we compare the uniqueness, novelty, and stability of ab initio generated samples across methods on MP-20. Using StructureMatcher in pymatgen with default

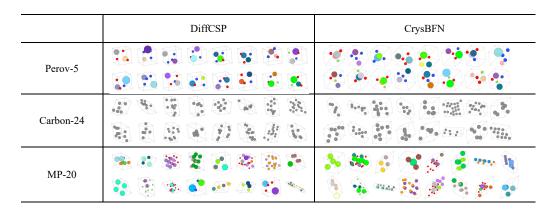


Figure 6: Visualizations comparison of the ab-initio generated structures from CrysBFN and DiffCSP.

Table 5: Results on Perov-5 and MP-20 with error bars.

	Pero	ov-5	MP-20		
	Match rate (%)↑ RMSE↓		Match rate (%)↑	$RMSE \downarrow$	
CDVAE (Xie et al., 2021)	45.31±0.49	0.1123±0.0026	33.93±0.15	0.1069 ± 0.0018	
DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023)	52.35 ± 0.26	0.0778 ± 0.0030	51.89 ± 0.30	0.0611 ± 0.0015	
CrysBFN	54.58±0.13	0.0691±0.0011	64.33±0.24	0.0445±0.0010	

parameters, a generated crystal is considered: 1) unique if it does not match any other generated samples; and 2) novel if it does not match any crystals in the training set, following prior practices (Zeni et al., 2023; Miller et al., 2024). The stability evaluation procedure follows the approach in Gruver et al. (2024). Finally, a sample is considered stable, unique, and novel (S.U.N.) if it satisfies all three conditions. The results are reported in Tab. 6.

Table 6: Uniqueness, novelty, and stability experimental results comparison on ab initio generation task on MP-20 dataset.

Method	Unique / %	Novel / %	Metastable / $\%$	Stable / %	S.U.N. Rate / %
DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023)	96.11	90.95	37.91	12.16	9.44
FlowMM (Miller et al., 2024)	94.79	91.63	32.77	9.23	8.31
CrysBFN	95.29	92.37	45.91	15.82	12.16

Table 7: Stability results on crystal structure prediction task. Metastability and stability calculations follow the method in Gruver et al. (2024).

	Perov-5		MP-20		MPTS-52	
	Metastable↑ Stable↑		$Metastable \uparrow$	Stable [↑]	$Metastable \uparrow$	Stable [↑]
DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023)	4.96	1.48	27.94	7.42	11.21	2.91
FlowMM (Miller et al., 2024)	4.62	1.32	23.94	6.98	9.19	2.83
CrysBFN	5.31	1.66	32.41	9.73	14.38	4.08

E SAMPLING EFFICIENCY COMPARISON TO ODE SAMPLERS

We do not include FlowMM in Fig. 4. due to its larger parameter size which makes the comparison based on NFE unfair. Nonetheless, we present the comparison among them in Fig. 7 and find that FlowMM fails in extremely small NFE (20 steps) settings with only 16.18% match rate, while

Table 8: Ablation study results of entropy-conditioning mechanism across datasets.

	Perov-5		MP-20		MPTS-52	
	Match rate↑	$RMSE\!\!\downarrow$	Match rate↑	$RMSE\!\!\downarrow$	Match rate \uparrow	$RMSE\!\!\downarrow$
w/o entropy conditioning CrysBFN	51.33 54.69	0.0753 0.0636	52.16 64.35	0.0631 0.0433	13.41 20.52	0.1547 0.1038

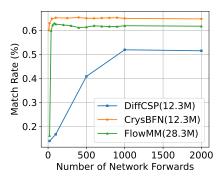


Figure 7: Experimental results on MP-20 with different Number of Function Evaluations (NFE) *i.e.* number of network forward passes including FlowMM. Note that FlowMM has a larger parameter size resulting in a less fair comparison.

CrysBFN enjoys 60.02% match rate with 10 steps and consistently achieves the best sampling quality.

F DETAILED DISCUSSION OF RELATED WORKS

Discovering new functional materials has been a long-standing scientific problem. Recently, datadriven approaches have been seen as a promising solution to address this challenge Peng et al. (2022).

Two-stage crystal generation methods based on implicit crystal representations One line of approaches indirectly generates crystals in the implicit representation space. Prior practices includes transforming crystals into human-designed fingerprint FTCP (Ren et al., 2021), 3D voxels images (Hoffmann et al., 2019), 2D images (Noh et al., 2019), 3D electron-density maps (Court et al., 2020), video-like representation (Yang et al., 2023), embedded atom density (Zhang et al., 2019) in StructRepDiff (Sinha et al., 2024). However, their generation quality is hampered by the encoding and reconstruction processes, which may not be fully reversible or fail to respect physical symmetries such as rotational and translational invariance. For example, 3D voxel grids (Hoffmann et al., 2019) and 3D density maps (Court et al., 2020) are invariant to periodic transformations but not to E(3) transformations (Zhang et al., 2023), and the video-like representation (Yang et al., 2023) is not invariant to permutation, rotation, translation, and periodic transformations.

Direct crystal generation methods Direct material generation in sample space could bypass the above reversibility problem. Prior works (Nouira et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2020) employ Generative Adversarial Networks (Goodfellow et al., 2020) to generate crystal structures, while their methods fail to respect crystal geometric invariance. Inspired by the success of Diffusion models on images (Ho et al., 2020b; Song et al., 2020a; Song & Ermon, 2019), the multi-step generation paradigm has been introduced into generative modeling of atom systems including molecular conformations (Xu et al., 2023). The geometric invariance of the generation path can be guaranteed by designing a Markov chain with an invariant prior and equivariant transitions (Xu et al., 2021). CDVAE (Xie et al., 2021), its CSP adaptation Cond-CDVAE (Luo et al., 2024a) and SyMat (Luo et al., 2024b), generate crystalline materials levearging E(3)-equivariant graph neural network models (Klipfel et al., 2023; Gasteiger et al., 2021) on 3D multi-edge graphs. Utilizing VAE models, they generate lattice parameters, randomly initialize atom coordinates, and iteratively refine these coordinates using score-matching models Song & Ermon (2019). With the fractional coordinate system, DiffCSP (Jiao et al., 2023) firstly introduces the periodic E(3) equivariance of crystals and designs an equivariant

 diffusion crystal generation model based on periodic diffusion (Jing et al., 2022). Subsequently, FlowMM (Miller et al., 2024) recently introduced Riemannian Flow Matching (Chen & Lipman, 2023) for the task of crystal generation, offering improved sampling efficiency, albeit at the expense of quality.

We argue that such struggles of balancing between sampling quality and efficiency stems from the lack of proper guidance on each transition from noise prior to data distribution especially for crystals, where thermodynamically stable materials represent only a small fraction in the search space (Miller et al., 2024). For example, early generation states x_{t-1} with low confidence should be preserved less than the later ones to get the next state x_t . From the perspective of Bayesian updates, Bayesian Flow Networks (Graves et al., 2023) provides a framework to accurately update each m_{t-1} according to its confidence parameter α_i , the effectiveness of which has been proved in Song et al. (2023). However, periodicity is not considered in Graves et al. (2023) and incorporating it into BFN is non-trivial without desirable distributions with mathematical properties like Gaussian. To address above issues, in this paper, we build a Bayesian flow almost from scratch, identifying and tackling the non-additive accuracy via introducing a novel entropy conditioning mechanism, theoretical reformulations of BFN, a fast sampling algorithm, etc. We demonstrate the effectiveness of the guidance of entropy in Tab. 3 and Tab. 8 and its higher sampling effiency and quality in Figs. 4 and 7.

Additionally, recently various techniques have also been introduced to boost the performance tailored for crystal generation considering crystal's inductive bias, including Jiao et al. (2024); Cao et al. (2024); AI4Science et al. (2023) which incorporate the space group constraint into the generation process. Recently, EquiCSP (Lin et al., 2024) proposed to utilize a periodic CoM-free noising method and introduce lattice permutation invariance loss. Those techniques are orthogonal to the proposed method in this paper.

Algorithm 1 Training Procedure

```
1320
                       1: Require: number of steps n \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma_1 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \beta_1 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \alpha_1^F, ..., \alpha_n^F \in \mathbb{R}^+.
1321
                      2: Input: atom types A, fractional coordinates F, lattice parameter L, length of vocabulary K
1322
                      3: Sample i \sim U\{1, n\}, t \leftarrow \frac{(i-1)}{n}
1323
                      4: # sampling from Bayesian flow distribution of lattice
1324
                      5: \gamma^L \leftarrow 1 - \sigma_1^{2t}
1325
                      6: \boldsymbol{\mu}_L \sim \mathcal{N}(\gamma^L \boldsymbol{L}, \gamma^L (1 - \gamma^L) \boldsymbol{I})
                      7: # sampling from Bayesian flow distribution of atom type
1326
                      8: \beta^A \leftarrow \beta_1 t^2
1327
                    9: \mathbf{y}_{A}' \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\beta\left(K\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{1}KD\right), \beta K\mathbf{I}\right)

10: \boldsymbol{\theta}^{A} \leftarrow \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{y}_{A}')
1329
                    11: # sampling from Bayesian flow distribution of fractional coordinates
1330
                    12: \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_i \leftarrow vM(\mathbf{F}, \alpha_1^F), \dots vM(\mathbf{F}, \alpha_i^F)

13: \mathbf{m}_i \leftarrow \operatorname{atan2}(\sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \cos \mathbf{y}_j, \sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \sin \mathbf{y}_j)
1331
1332
                    14: # calculate the accumulated accuracy i.e. entropy
                    15: \boldsymbol{c}_i \leftarrow ||[\sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \cos \mathbf{y}_j, \sum_{j=1}^i \alpha_j \sin \mathbf{y}_j]^T||_2
1333
                    16: # use network to do inter-dependency modeling across dimensions conditioning on entropy 17: \theta^{\mathcal{M}} \leftarrow (\mu_L, \theta^A, m_i, c_i)
1334
1335
                    18: \hat{\Psi}_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}) \leftarrow \Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathcal{M}}, t)
1336
                    19: # calculate the losses of all modalities
                    20: \alpha_i^A \leftarrow \beta_1^A \left(\frac{2i-1}{n^2}\right)
1337
1338
                    21: \mathbf{y}_A \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\alpha \left(K\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{1}KD\right), \alpha K\mathbf{I}\right)
1339
                    22: \mathcal{L}_A \leftarrow n \ln \mathcal{N} \left( \mathbf{y}_A \mid \alpha_i^A \left( K \mathbf{e}_A - \mathbf{1} \right), \alpha_i^A K \mathbf{I} \right)
1340
                                                  -\sum_{d=1}^{N} \ln \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} p_O^{(d)}(k \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}^A; t_{i-1}) \mathcal{N}\left( y_A^{(d)} \mid \alpha_i^A \left( K \mathbf{e}_k - \mathbf{1} \right), \alpha_i^A K \boldsymbol{I} \right) \right)
1341
                   24: \mathcal{L}_F \leftarrow n \ \alpha_i^F \frac{I_1(\alpha_i^F)}{I_0(\alpha_i^F)} (1 - \cos(\mathbf{F} - \hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1})))
1342
1343
                   25: \mathcal{L}_L = \frac{n}{2} \left( 1 - \sigma_1^{2/n} \right) \frac{\left\| \mathbf{L} - \hat{\Psi}_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}) \right\|^2}{\sigma_1^{2i/n}}
1344
                    26: Minimize \mathcal{L}_A + \mathcal{L}_F + \mathcal{L}_L
1345
```

```
1352
1353
1354
1355
1356
1357
1358
1359
1360
1361
1362
                     Algorithm 2 Sampling Procedure
1363
1364
                           Require: number of steps n \in \mathbb{R}, length of vocabulary K, \sigma_1 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \beta_1 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \alpha_1^F, \dots, \alpha_n^F \in \mathbb{R}^+
1365
                           # initialize the prior parameters
                          egin{aligned} oldsymbol{\mu}_0, 
ho_0 &\leftarrow \mathbf{1} \ oldsymbol{	heta}_0 &\leftarrow rac{1}{K} \mathbf{1}_{1 	imes N} \ oldsymbol{m}_0 &\leftarrow U(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}), oldsymbol{c}_0 \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}
1367
1368
                           for i \leftarrow 1, \cdots, n do
1369
                                t \leftarrow \frac{i-1}{2}
1370
                                 # use network to do inter-dependency modeling across dimensions of all modalities
                                 oldsymbol{	heta}^{\mathcal{M}} \leftarrow (oldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1}, oldsymbol{	heta}_{i-1}, oldsymbol{m}_{i-1}, oldsymbol{c}_{i-1})
1371
                                 \hat{\Psi}_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}) \leftarrow \Psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathcal{M}}, t)
1372
                                 if i < n then
1373
                                      # do Bayesian update for lattice parameter \alpha_i^L \leftarrow \sigma_1^{-2i/n} (1 - \sigma_1^{2/n}) \mathbf{y}^L \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\Psi}_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \frac{1}{\alpha_i^L} \mathbf{I})
1374
1375
1376
                                       \boldsymbol{\mu}_i \leftarrow rac{
ho_{i-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{i-1} + lpha_i^L \, \mathbf{y}^L}{
ho_{i-1} + lpha_i^L}
1377
1378
                                       \rho_i \leftarrow \rho_{i-1} + \alpha_i^L
1379
                                       # do Bayesian update for fractional coordinates
1380
                                       \mathbf{y}^F \sim vM(\hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{i-1}), \alpha_i^F)
                                       m_i \leftarrow \operatorname{atan2}(\alpha_i^F \sin \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}_{i-1} \sin \mathbf{m}_{i-1}, \alpha_i^F \cos \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}_{i-1} \cos \mathbf{m}_{i-1})
1381
                                       c_i \leftarrow ||[\alpha_i^F \sin \mathbf{y} + c_{i-1} \sin m_{i-1}, \alpha_i^F \cos \mathbf{y} + c_{i-1} \cos m_{i-1}]^T||_2
1382
                                       # do Bayesian update for atom types
                                       \alpha_i^A \leftarrow \beta_1 \left( \frac{2i-1}{n^2} \right)
1384
                                       \mathbf{y}^{A} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\alpha_{i}^{A}\left(K\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{k}} - \mathbf{1}\right), \alpha_{i}^{A}KI\right)
1385
                                       \theta' \leftarrow e^{\mathbf{y}^{A}} \theta_{i-1}
\theta_{i} \leftarrow \frac{\theta'}{\sum_{k} \theta'_{k}}
1386
1387
                                 end if
1388
                           end for
1389
                           \hat{A} \sim \hat{\Psi}_A(\theta_{n-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{n-1}) # sample from the final probability prediction
1390
                          Return \hat{A}, \hat{\Psi}_F(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{n-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{n-1}), \hat{\Psi}_L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{n-1}^{\mathcal{M}}, t_{n-1})
```