
Controlled Generation with Equivariant Variational Flow Matching

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Abstract

We derive a controlled generation objective within the framework of Variational Flow Matching (VFM), which casts flow matching as a variational inference problem. We demonstrate that controlled generation can be implemented two ways: (1) by way of end-to-end training of conditional generative models, or (2) as a Bayesian inference problem, enabling post hoc control of unconditional models without retraining. Furthermore, we establish the conditions required for equivariant generation and provide an equivariant formulation of VFM tailored for molecular generation, ensuring invariance to rotations, translations, and permutations. We evaluate our approach on both uncontrolled and controlled molecular generation, achieving state-of-the-art performance on uncontrolled generation and outperforming state-of-the-art models in controlled generation, both with end-to-end training and in the Bayesian inference setting. This work strengthens the connection between flow-based generative modeling and Bayesian inference, offering a scalable and principled framework for constraint-driven and symmetry-aware generation.

1. Introduction

Generative modeling has seen remarkable advances in recent years, particularly in image generation (Ramesh et al., 2022; Rombach et al., 2022), where diffusion-based approaches based on score matching (Vincent, 2011) have proven highly effective (Ho et al., 2020a; Song et al., 2020b). However, these methods rely on stochastic dynamics that require iterative denoising steps during sampling, leading to significant computational overhead (Song et al., 2020a; Zhang & Chen, 2022). An alternative approach, continuous normalizing

flows (CNFs) (Chen et al., 2018), models a continuous-time transformation between distributions (Song et al., 2021), enabling direct sampling without Markov chain steps. Yet, CNFs have historically been hindered by their reliance on solving high-dimensional ordinary differential equations (ODEs), making both training and sampling computationally expensive (Ben-Hamu et al., 2022; Rozen et al., 2021; Grathwohl et al., 2019).

To address these challenges, Lipman et al. (2023) introduced Flow Matching (FM), a simulation-free method for training CNFs by regressing onto vector fields that define probability paths between noise and data distributions. Unlike traditional CNF training, which requires maximum likelihood estimation through ODE solvers, FM directly learns vector fields through a per-sample objective, enabling scalable training without numerical integration. FM generalizes beyond diffusion methods by accommodating arbitrary probability paths, including those based on optimal transport (Chen & Lipman, 2024; Klein et al., 2023), enabling faster training while maintaining expressiveness. Empirically, FM has outperformed diffusion models in likelihood estimation and sample quality on datasets such as ImageNet (Wildberger et al., 2024; Dao et al., 2023; Kohler et al., 2023).

Variational Flow Matching (VFM) (Eijkelboom et al., 2024) frames flow matching as posterior inference in the distribution over trajectories induced by the used interpolation. The key idea is to approximate the *posterior probability path*, i.e. the probability distributions (for different points in time) over endpoints given the current point in space, using a sequence of variational distributions. For generation, VFM approximates the true vector field with the expected vector field based on the learned variational approximation. This approach achieves state-of-the-art results in categorical data generation while maintaining the computational efficiency that makes FM practical. While VFM has demonstrated considerable success in categorical data generation and shows initial promising results on general geometries and molecular generation tasks (Zaghen et al., 2025; Guzmán-Cordero et al., 2025), its broader potential, both methodologically and in terms of real-world applications, has not been explored. In particular, a key distinguishing feature of VFM is its ability to directly reason about (approximate) posterior

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probability paths, which makes it well suited to address two fundamental challenges in flow-matching-based generative modeling: controlled generation and the incorporation of inductive biases such as symmetries.

Controlled generation is a fundamental challenge in generative modeling, requiring models to produce outputs that satisfy specific constraints while maintaining natural variation in unconstrained aspects. This is particularly crucial for applications like molecular design, where the interplay between discrete (atom types, bonds) and continuous (spatial positions) properties typically necessitates combining multiple generative approaches. VFM’s unified treatment of mixed modalities could potentially address this challenge, though developing effective control mechanisms remains an open problem. Additionally, many real-world applications exhibit inherent symmetries – for instance, molecular structures should remain valid under rotations, translations, and permutations. Incorporating such domain-specific constraints into VFM would be essential for producing outputs with consistent structure and improved generalization. Thus, extending VFM to handle both controlled generation and symmetry constraints represents a key direction for developing more practical and reliable generative models.

In this work, we address both of the aforementioned challenges. We extend VFM to controlled generation, deriving a principled formulation that enables generative models to satisfy explicit constraints. We show that this formulation naturally emerges from the connection between flow matching and variational inference (Eijkelboom et al., 2024), allowing conditional generation to be understood as a Bayesian inference problem. Additionally, this perspective enables post-hoc control of pretrained generative models without requiring conditional training, providing cheap and flexible alternative to standard end-to-end approaches.

Furthermore, we show how we can design variational approximations that are group-equivariant with respect to its expectation, which ensures that the generative dynamics respect key invariances. We demonstrate the utility of these advancements on problems in molecular generation, a field that, as of late, has received great attention and as a result many advances of the state-of-the-art.

Our key contributions are:

- **Controlled Generation as Variational Inference:** We derive a controlled generation objective within VFM and show that it can be used in two ways: 1) for end-to-end training of conditional generative models, or 2) as a Bayesian inference problem, enabling post hoc control of unconditional models without retraining.
- **Equivariant Formulation:** We establish the conditions required for equivariant generation and provide an

equivariant formulation of VFM, ensuring that the generative process respects symmetries such as rotations, translations, and permutations – critical for molecular modeling.

- **Results for Molecular Generation:** We validate our method on both unconditional and controlled molecular generation, achieving state-of-the-art results on unconditional tasks and significantly outperforming existing models in conditional generation – both with and without end-to-end training. Notably, Bayesian inferencematches or surpasses explicitly trained conditional models, demonstrating its flexibility and scalability.

These advances establish VFM as a robust and efficient framework for constraint-driven generative modeling, with broad applications in molecule generation, e.g. material design, drug discovery, and beyond.

2. Background

2.1. Transport Dynamics for Generative Modeling

Generative modeling through transport dynamics is a flexible framework for approximating complex distributions, such distributions over valid molecular structures, by transforming a simple distribution p_0 (e.g., a standard Gaussian) into a target distribution p_1 . This transformation is typically described by a time-dependent process, governed by an ordinary differential equation (ODE):

$$\frac{d}{dt}\varphi_t(x) = u_t(\varphi_t(x)), \text{ with } \varphi_0(x) = x, \quad (1)$$

where $u_t : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ is a velocity field that guides the evolution over time. The task is to approximate u_t using a parameterized model $v_t^\theta(x)$, such as a neural network. While ODEs are invertible (under Lipschitz continuity of u_t) – defining a likelihood through a change-of-variables computation – solving ODEs during training is computationally expensive.

Flow Matching addresses this limitation by directly learning the time-dependent vector field u_t on $[0, 1]$ through:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{FM}}(\theta) := \mathbb{E}_{t,x} \left[\|u_t(x) - v_t^\theta(x)\|^2 \right]. \quad (2)$$

While u_t is intractable, we can make an assumption on the velocity field $u_t(x | x_1)$ for a generative process that is conditioned on a specific endpoint x_1 (e.g., a target molecule). The marginal field $u_t(x)$ can then be expressed as an expected value with respect to the posterior probability path $p_t(x_1 | x)$, which defines the distribution over possible endpoints for interpolations intersect x at time t ,

$$u_t(x) = \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x)} [u_t(x | x_1)], \quad (3)$$

enabling efficient estimation through conditional samples. A key insight is that minimizing the loss for the conditional velocity field yields the same gradient as minimizing it for the marginal field, leading to the conditional flow matching loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}}(\theta) := \mathbb{E}_{t,x_1,x} \left[\|u_t(x | x_1) - v_t^\theta(x)\|^2 \right]. \quad (4)$$

2.2. Variational Flow Matching

Variational Flow Matching (VFM) extends Flow Matching by introducing a variational perspective. Instead of directly regressing to the true vector field, VFM parameterizes it through a variational distribution $q_t^\theta(x_1 | x)$:

$$v_t^\theta(x) := \mathbb{E}_{q_t^\theta(x_1|x)} [u_t(x | x_1)]. \quad (5)$$

This reformulation transforms the problem into one of variational inference, minimizing the Kullback-Leibler divergence between the true posterior $p_t(x_1 | x)$ and its variational approximation $q_t(x_1 | x)$:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{VFM}}(\theta) := \mathbb{E}_t [\text{KL}(p_t(x_1, x) || q_t^\theta(x_1, x))] \quad (6)$$

$$= -\mathbb{E}_{t,x_1,x} [\log q_t^\theta(x_1 | x)] + \text{const.} \quad (7)$$

When the conditional velocity field is linear in x_1 (e.g. straight-line interpolation, diffusion), this objective simplifies to matching only the posterior mean, as then

$$\mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x)} [u_t(x | x_1)] = u_t(x | \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x)} [x_1]). \quad (8)$$

Moreover, the latter expectation only depends element-wise on the marginal expectation, implying we can use a fully factorized variational form without loss of generality, which results in the simplified mean-field objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MF-VFM}}(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}_{t,x_1,x} \left[\log \left(\prod_{d=1}^D q_t^\theta(x_1^d | x) \right) \right] \quad (9)$$

$$= -\mathbb{E}_{t,x_1,x} \left[\sum_{d=1}^D \log q_t^\theta(x_1^d | x) \right]. \quad (10)$$

Notice that this reduces learning a single high-dimensional distribution into learning D univariate distributions, a much simpler task.

VFM’s flexibility in terms of the choice of variational distribution q_t makes it particularly well-suited for molecular generation tasks. For instance, using categorical factors enables modeling of discrete molecular features like atom types and bond orders, which can be combined with Gaussian factors to represent continuous atomic coordinates. This unified treatment of discrete and continuous variables, combined with the efficiency inherited from Flow Matching, makes VFM attractive for mixed-modality tasks.

3. Controlled and Equivariant VFM

Controlled generation is crucial for practical applications in generative modeling. In this section, we 1) extend VFM to controlled generation by deriving a unified objective for both end-to-end training and control using post-hoc Bayesian inference and 2) develop a fully equivariant framework that ensures invariance to key symmetries.

3.1. Controlled Variational Flow Matching

Controlled generation extends generative modeling by guiding the generative process to satisfy constraints imposed by conditioning on additional information y . In Flow Matching, the primary goal is to learn a sequence of distributions $(p_t)_{0 < t < 1}$ that evolve from a source distribution p_0 to a target distribution p_1 . In the context of controlled generation, we introduce a controlled velocity field $u_t(\cdot | y)$ and a corresponding controlled probability density path $p_t(\cdot | y)$, which dictates how the distribution evolves in response to y . To distinguish this from standard conditional modeling, we explicitly use the terms controlled velocity field and controlled probability (density) path to emphasize the dependence on the control variable y .

The main observation we make is that, given a datapoint x_1 , the intermediate latent variables $(x_t)_{0 < t < 1}$ are conditionally independent of y ,

$$p_t(x | x_1, y) = p_t(x | x_1). \quad (11)$$

This makes intuitive sense: once the final sample x_1 is known, it encapsulates all the information about the control variable y , rendering the intermediate states x_t unnecessary for inferring y . Or, equivalently, given x_1 , the control variable y does not inform our noising process. We can therefore express the probability path conditioned on y as the marginal,

$$\begin{aligned} p_t(x | y) &= \int_{x_1} p_t(x, x_1 | y) dx_1 \\ &= \int_{x_1} p_t(x | x_1) p_1(x_1 | y) dx_1. \end{aligned}$$

To arrive at a formulation similar to standard VFM we have to find the velocity field that generates this probability path. We establish the corresponding controlled velocity field in Proposition 3.1.

Proposition 3.1. *The controlled (marginal) velocity field*

$$u_t(x | y) := \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)} [u_t(x | x_1)],$$

generates the controlled probability path $p_t(x | y)$.

Proof. See Appendix A.1. □

Algorithm 1 Sampling Controlled VFM

Require: $p(y | x_1), \mu_t^\theta$
 $x_0 \sim p_0$
for $k = 0, \dots, K$ **do**
 $t \leftarrow k/K$
 $\hat{x}_{1,0} = \mu_t^\theta(x_k)$
 for $s = 0, \dots, S$ **do**
 $x_{1,s+1} \leftarrow x_{1,1} + \Sigma_t \nabla_{x_1} \log p(y | x_{1,s})$
 end for
 $v_t = (x_{1,S} - x_t)/(1 - t)$
 $x_{k+1} \leftarrow x_k + (1/T)v_t$
end for
Return x_T

In short, we can generate samples from $p_t(x | y)$ by integrating the ODE defined by the controlled velocity field $u_t(x | y)$. If we can approximate $p_t(x_1 | x, y)$, then this allows us to compute $u_t(x | y)$ in terms of $\mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)}[x_1]$ in a manner that analogous to the uncontrolled case in (8), as long as $u_t(x | x_1)$ is linear in x_1 . Note that a similar result was found in Zheng et al. (2023).

A straightforward way to approximate $p_t(x_1 | x, y)$ model it directly by means of a variational distribution $q_t^\theta(x_1 | x, y)$ that additionally conditions on the control y . This leads to the *Controlled Variational Flow Matching* objective:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}_{t,x_1,x,y} [\log q_t^\theta(x_1 | x, y)] + \text{const.} \quad (12)$$

As before, when $u_t(x | x_1)$ is linear in x_1 , it suffices to employ a mean-field variational distribution. In practice, this allows for an efficient and scalable implementation of controlled generation, where the model only needs to learn how the expectation of x_1 influences the velocity field, rather than explicitly modeling the full posterior. This simplification makes Controlled VFM computationally feasible, preserving its ability to handle complex constraints while maintaining the efficiency advantages of Flow Matching.

3.2. Controlled Generation as Inference

Rather than directly training a conditional model $p_t(x_1 | x, y)$ from scratch, we can leverage the structure of VFM and formulate controlled generation as a Bayesian inference problem. Specifically, we observe that the target posterior distribution can be written as

$$p_t(x_1 | x, y) \propto \underbrace{p_t(x_1 | x)}_{\text{VFM}} \cdot \underbrace{p(y | x_1)}_{\text{Classifier}}. \quad (13)$$

This decomposition highlights two key components: (1) the base generative model $p_t(x_1 | x)$, which is learned using VFM, and (2) the task-specific likelihood $p(y | x_1)$, which enforces the desired constraints. That is, the unnormalised density $\tilde{p}(x_1) \propto p_t(x_1 | x)p(y | x_1)$ can be interpreted as

a reweighted version of $p_t(x_1 | x)$, where $p(y | x_1)$ acts as a task-specific weight. Approximating the influence of $p(y | x_1)$ near the mean of $p_t(x_1 | x)$, we treat the prior as the dominant component.

We can view the (approximate) solution to the task-specific generation problem as a fixed-point equation. The mode of the unnormalized density $\tilde{p}(x_1)$ satisfies the fixed-point equation:

$$\nabla_{x_1} \log p_t(x_1 | x) + \nabla_{x_1} \log p(y | x_1) = 0. \quad (14)$$

Using this formulation we propose an iterative method to approximate the mean of $\tilde{p}(x_1)$ using fixed-point iteration. Assuming $p_t(x_1 | x)$ is Gaussian with mean $\mu_t(x)$ and covariance Σ_t , the mean can iteratively be refined as follows:

$$x_1^{(k+1)} = \mu_t(x) + \Sigma_t \nabla_{x_1} \log p(y | x_1^{(k)}), \quad (15)$$

where the initialization is $x_1^{(0)} = \mu_t(x)$. See provided pseudo code for details.

This iterative process serves as a practical method to approximate the mean of $\tilde{p}(x_1)$ without directly normalizing the density. The step size in each iteration is governed by the covariance Σ_t , and convergence depends on properties such as the smoothness and log-concavity of $\log p(y | x_1)$. This underscores the modularity: the pretrained generative model $p_t(x_1 | x)$ serves as a reusable prior, while task-specific constraints are incorporated through $p(y | x_1)$. By iteratively refining the samples, we enable controlled generation tailored to specific tasks without requiring retraining of the generative backbone. The fixed-point approach provides an efficient and adaptable solution for incorporating task-specific constraints into generative modeling. Note that our aim is not a full Bayesian treatment, but to show that minimal inference-time updates – without retraining and with negligible overhead – enable effective post-hoc control. It hence serves as a proof of concept for integrating traditional inference techniques with SOTA generative models *without the need of extra training*. Note that work by e.g. Park et al. (2024) achieves a similar slightly goal through the Tweedie approximation, though said approximation provides a arguably noisier estimate of the gradient and would be more difficult to learn.

By explicitly separating the generative model from the task-specific component, this formulation introduces a modular and flexible approach to controlled generation. Pretrained VFM models can be reused across multiple tasks by simply adapting or replacing the classifier $p(y | x_1)$, avoiding the need to retrain the generative model entirely. This is particularly well-suited for scenarios where tasks or control variables y frequently change. Moreover, unlike standard classifier-guidance methods in diffusion (e.g. Chung et al. (2022)), which require a time-dependent classifier $p_t(y | x)$,

classification in VFM is performed on data pairs (x_1, y) . This allows direct usage of off-the-shelf classifiers or reward functions, which are typically trained on x_1 rather than intermediate states x , enabling controlled generation without approximations or modifications to the underlying flow matching framework.

This modularity is particularly valuable in applications like molecular generation, where a pretrained model $p_t(x_1 | x)$ can remain fixed while $p(y | x_1)$ is tailored to predict specific molecular properties. Specifically, it opens up the door to using recent complex graph models that are e.g. based on geometry (Zhdanov et al., 2024), topology (Bodnar et al., 2021a;b), or both (Eijkelboom et al., 2023; Kovač et al., 2024; Battiloro et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024). Similarly, in image generation, the same generative backbone can be paired with new classifiers to enforce style or content-specific constraints, facilitating efficient domain adaptation. From a practical standpoint, this framework also opens the door to a variety of inference tools for controlled generation. For instance, energy-based approaches such as Langevin dynamics can be applied iteratively to guide the generation process by exploiting the gradient of the unnormalized posterior.

3.3. Group Equivariant Variational Flow Matching

Equivariance describes the property that a model’s output transforms in the same way as the input under a symmetry, such as a rotation or translation, leading to consistent preservation of the underlying structure. In (Variational) Flow Matching, we aim for all p_t to be invariant, ensuring the generative process respects the symmetries of the target distribution. This is crucial for modeling real-world data with inherent symmetries, improving both efficiency and alignment with the data’s structure.

Informally, since we only access the mean of the posterior distribution during generation, this can be achieved by designing the model $q_t^\theta(x_1 | x)$ to be group-equivariant with respect to the expectation of the distribution. Specifically, for all $g \in G$ in a given group G , we require that:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_t^\theta(x_1 | g \cdot x)}[x_1] = g \cdot \mathbb{E}_{q_t^\theta(x_1 | x)}[x_1]. \quad (16)$$

In addition, we must ensure that the prior distribution adheres to the same symmetry constraints; otherwise, the symmetry cannot be preserved. Moreover, the conditional velocity field used to compute the marginal field must satisfy bi-equivariance, expressed as:

$$u_t(g \cdot x | g \cdot x_1) = g \cdot u_t(x | x_1). \quad (17)$$

This leads to the following proposition:

Proposition 3.2. *Let G be an arbitrary group, and suppose that 1) the prior distribution is invariant under G , 2) the*

conditional velocity field is bi-equivariant under G , and 3) the variational posterior is equivariant under G with respect to its expected value. Then the marginal path $p_t(x)$ is invariant under G .

Proof. See Appendix A.2. \square

When G acts linearly, the optimal transport conditional velocity naturally satisfies the bi-equivariance property, as:

$$\frac{g \cdot x_1 - g \cdot x}{1 - t} = g \cdot \left(\frac{x_1 - x}{1 - t} \right). \quad (18)$$

This is particularly relevant for groups such as S_n (the symmetric group) and $SO(n)$ (the special orthogonal group), both of which act linearly on \mathbb{R}^n . Consequently, under appropriate choices of prior distribution and model architecture, G-VFM ensures that the generative dynamics are invariant under S_n and $SO(n)$ when employing the optimal transport conditional velocity field, arguably the two most relevant groups in real-life applications.

4. VFM for Molecular Generation

A Unified Perspective on Molecular Generation Tasks.

Molecular generation can be divided into three distinct tasks, each addressing different aspects of molecular generation¹:

- **Discrete-Molecular Generation** focuses on molecular graphs (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{E}) , i.e. only considers atom types and bond types. Both are treated as categorical variables, with models capturing relationships between atoms and bonds without considering spatial positions.
- **Continuous-Molecular Generation** focuses on atomic positions \mathbf{R} to define the molecular geometry. Features like atom and bond types are inferred later using external tools, making this approach ideal for applications where spatial configuration is key, such as molecular docking. Sometimes, the atom type is included as a continuous variable in this formulation as well.
- **Joint-Molecular Generation** is the most comprehensive setting, which considers both discrete and continuous features, typically of the form $(\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{E})$, representing positions (continuous), atom types, formal charges, and edge types (discrete), capturing the full complexity of molecular data.

Variational Flow Matching (VFM) provides a unified approach that can be applied to any combination of discrete

¹Here, we ignore string representations such as SMILES, as these are primarily studied in the context of auto-regressive modeling.

Table 1. Results **discrete** molecular generation QM9 and Zinc250k. Architecture used for VFM is the one used in Digress.

	QM9			ZINC250k		
	Valid \uparrow	Unique \uparrow	FCD \downarrow	Valid \uparrow	Unique \uparrow	FCD \downarrow
MoFlow	91.36	98.65	4.467	63.11	99.99	20.931
EDP-GNN	47.52	99.25	2.680	82.97	99.79	16.737
GraphEBM	8.22	97.90	6.143	5.29	98.79	35.471
GDSS	95.72	98.46	2.900	97.01	99.64	14.656
Digress	99.00	96.20	-	-	-	-
Dirichlet FM	99.10	98.15	0.888	97.52	99.20	14.222
Discrete FM	98.01	99.90	0.991	96.21	100.00	14.252
VFM	99.84	99.92	0.471	98.80	99.99	13.805

and continuous molecular features. This makes it applicable to all three molecular generation tasks, unlike approaches that require separate techniques for different modalities.

The variational distribution in VFM is defined using a network that outputs variational parameters for each feature in the model. For continuous features such as atomic positions \mathbf{R} , the network can define a Gaussian variational form, whereas for discrete features, like atomic and bond types (\mathbf{A} , \mathbf{E}), it can output a categorical form. This data-driven posterior formulation results in a flow-matching objective that matches the specific structure of the data, eliminating the need for separate sampling strategies, auxiliary networks, or discrete-continuous hybridization techniques. As a result, VFM provides a fully general and efficient framework for molecular generation, allowing any combination of discrete and continuous molecular features to be modeled without modifying the underlying generative process.

Experiments. We evaluate VFM through two sets of experiments designed to assess both its general generative performance and its controlled generation capabilities.

First, we investigate how the transition from Flow Matching to Variational Flow Matching impacts geometric-informed generative performance. To this end, we take state-of-the-art FM models and retrain them using VFM rather than FM, allowing for a direct comparison. We evaluate this across discrete, continuous, and joint molecular generation tasks to determine whether VFM maintains or improves performance while preserving the benefits of the FM framework.

Second, we assess the effectiveness of our controlled generation formulations by comparing against state-of-the-art conditional generative models. We evaluate VFM in two settings: (1) end-to-end training with property constraints and (2) post-hoc conditioning via variational inference on a pretrained unconditional model. This allows us to test whether our approach can match or exceed dedicated conditional models while benefiting from the flexibility and efficiency of inference-based control.

Our focus is not on introducing new architectures but on demonstrating how VFM enables a unified generative framework across discrete and continuous data types while also providing a scalable approach to controlled generation. Through these experiments, we assess both VFM’s suitability as a general-purpose approach to flow-based modeling and its advantages for property-targeted generation.

4.1. Unconditional Generation

Discrete-Molecular Generation. As part of this work, we have reproduced the discrete molecular generation results presented in Eijkelboom et al. (2024) and compared them against discrete flow matching (which was published after VFM) as that is the strongest existing discrete flow model at this moment. Our results in Table 1 confirm strong performance across both QM9 and ZINC250k datasets, and we observe that VFM outperforms discrete flow matching, though we do not claim this as a contribution of this work.

Continuous-Molecular Generation. We evaluate G-VFM on the QM9 dataset using established metrics including negative log-likelihood (NLL), atom stability, and molecule stability. Our model achieves competitive results (-120.7 NLL, 98.7% atom stability, 82.0% molecule stability), matching or exceeding its flow-based approach. These results suggest that our variational treatment of flow matching enhances model performance.

While recent work like PONITA (Bekkers et al., 2024), which leverages molecular symmetries through weight-sharing and a specialized Sphere2Vec architecture, has pushed the state-of-the-art further (-137.4 NLL, 98.9% atom stability, 87.8% molecule stability), our focus was not on achieving absolute best performance but rather on exploring the potential of variational approaches within the flow matching framework. We deliberately built upon existing flow-matching architectures to isolate the impact of our methodological contributions. The strong performance of G-VFM, despite using a simpler architecture, suggests that

Table 2. Results **continuous** molecular generation on QM9. Architecture used is the one in Klein et al. (2023).

Models	NLL ↓	Atom stability ↑	Mol stability ↑
E-NF	-59.7	85.0	4.9
G-Schnet	N.A.	95.7	68.1
GDM	-94.7	97.0	63.2
GDM-aug	-92.5	97.6	71.6
EDM	-110.7	98.7	82.0
EFM	-115.7	98.7	82.0
G-VFM	-120.7	98.7	82.0

our variational approach provides a promising direction for improving flow-matching methods while maintaining their computational advantages. Incorporating PONITA’s architectural innovations into the VFM framework represents an exciting direction for future work.

Joint-Molecular Generation. We evaluate G-VFM’s capabilities for joint molecular generation on the QM9 and GEOM-Drugs datasets, focusing on key metrics including atom stability, molecular stability, validity, uniqueness, and the Jensen-Shannon divergence of energy distributions (JS(E)). On QM9, G-VFM achieves strong results (99.6% atom stability, 99.5% molecular stability, 98.9% validity) that are comparable to SemlaFlow, while maintaining the same computational efficiency advantage of requiring only 100 function evaluations (NFE) compared to diffusion-based approaches that need 500-1000 NFEs. On GEOM-Drugs, G-VFM achieves competitive performance (99.8% atom stability, 96.5% molecular stability, 95.3% validity) closely matching SemlaFlow (99.8%, 97.7%, and 95.2% respectively), though with a slightly higher JS(E) (0.18 vs 0.14). Note that only MiDi, SemlaFlow, and EQGAT-diff generate *everything* jointly, whereas the other methods use external tools to infer e.g. bond information, which could affect the relatively strong performance of these models.

Using the same underlying architecture as SemlaFlow but replacing its discrete flow matching approach with VFM allows us to handle both discrete and continuous variables in a unified framework. This unified treatment not only simplifies implementation by eliminating separate sampling procedures for different variable types but also maintains strong performance across datasets of varying complexity. The ability of G-VFM to match SemlaFlow’s results while reducing architectural complexity demonstrates the potential of variational approaches in flow matching, particularly for challenging mixed-modality tasks like molecular generation.

Though not explicitly provided in the table, we want to emphasize that the performance of G-VFM drops when equivariance is not enforced, e.g. atomic and molecular

stability drop for tasks below 80%.

4.2. Conditional Generation

In the conditional generation experiments, we compare both end-to-end VFM and variational inference VFM (VI-VFM) with state-of-the-art conditional models on QM9 dataset. For end-to-end VFM, we train the model with property supervision, while for VI-VFM we use a pre-trained unconditional model and frame the property control as Bayesian inference using a property classifier $p(y | x_1)$. We target key molecular properties including polarizability (α), orbital energies (ϵ_{HOMO} , ϵ_{LUMO}) and their gap ($\Delta\epsilon$), dipole moment (μ), and heat capacity (C_v). Property classifiers are trained following (Hoogeboom et al., 2022a).

For evaluation, we measure the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) between target and predicted property values from the classifier on generated molecules, as well as standard molecular quality metrics: atom stability (percentage of atoms with valid valency), molecule stability (percentage of molecules with all atoms stable), and validity (ability to be parsed by RDKit (Landrum, 2016)).

Results and Discussion. Our end-to-end VFM achieves 2.05 MAE on polarizability prediction, outperforming previous methods like EDM (2.76), EQUIFM (2.41), and GE-OLDM (2.37). The VI-VFM approach achieves competitive results with 2.25 MAE using only an unconditional model. By combining both approaches - training end-to-end and then applying variational inference steering - we achieve our best results of 1.98 MAE.

These results demonstrate the effectiveness of our variational inference framework for controlled generation. The strong performance of VI-VFM (2.25 MAE) compared to specialized conditional models like EDM (2.76 MAE) suggests a promising new direction for post-hoc conditional generation. While D-Flow achieves better performance (1.39 MAE), it requires significantly more computational resources during inference. D-Flow searches over many candidate initializations (high NFE), where our sampler needs one forward pass plus a short fixed-point calibration (low NFE, no gradients), i.e. where D-Flow needs $\mathcal{O}(k \times N)$ NFEs, we need only $\mathcal{O}(N)$, where k denotes the number of ‘starting points’ considered by D-Flow and N denotes the number of integration steps. That is, our approach offers an effective compromise, with the flexibility to choose between pure VI for simplicity or the combined approach for enhanced performance. Most importantly, the success of VI-VFM demonstrates that pre-trained unconditional models can be effectively repurposed for controlled generation through variational inference, opening new possibilities for adapting existing models to conditional generation tasks.

Table 3. Results **joint** molecular generation on QM9 and GEOM-Drugs. Architecture used for G-VFM is the one in SemlaFlow.

Dataset	Model	Atom Stab \uparrow	Mol Stab \uparrow	Valid \uparrow	Unique \uparrow	JS(E) \downarrow	NFE \downarrow
QM9	EDM	98.7	82.0	91.9	98.9	0.12	1000
	GCDM	98.7	85.7	94.8	98.4	0.10	1000
	MUDiff	98.8	89.9	95.3	99.1	0.09	1000
	GFMDiff	98.9	87.7	96.3	98.8	0.09	500
	EquiFM	98.9	88.3	94.7	98.7	0.08	210
	SemlaFlow	99.9	99.6	99.4	97.9	0.08	100
	G-VFM	99.6	99.5	98.9	97.5	0.09	100
GEOM	MiDi	99.8	91.6	77.8	100.0	0.23	500
	EQGAT-diff	99.8	93.4	94.6	100.0	0.11	500
	SemlaFlow	99.8	97.7	95.2	100.0	0.14	100
	G-VFM	99.8	96.5	95.3	100.0	0.18	100

Table 4. Quantitative evaluation of conditional molecule generation. Values reported in the table are MAE (over 10K samples) for molecule property predictions (lower is better).

Property Units	α Bohr ³	$\Delta\varepsilon$ meV	$\varepsilon_{\text{HOMO}}$ meV	$\varepsilon_{\text{LUMO}}$ meV	μ D	C_v $\frac{\text{cal}}{\text{mol K}}$
QM9*	0.10	64	39	36	0.043	0.040
EDM	2.76	655	356	584	1.111	1.101
EQUiFM	2.41	591	337	530	1.106	1.033
GEOLDM	2.37	587	340	522	1.108	1.025
D-Flow	1.39	344	182	330	0.300	0.784
G-VFM (End-to-End)	2.05	512	298	445	0.923	0.901
G-VFM (Bayesian Inference)	2.25	534	312	468	0.978	0.956
G-VFM (Both)	1.98	498	289	432	0.901	0.889

5. Related Work

Diffusion and Flow-based Methods for Discrete Data.

Recent advances in diffusion models have enabled various approaches for discrete data generation. (Luo et al., 2021) introduced GraphDF, using discrete latent variables for molecular graphs, while GDSS (Jo et al., 2022) developed a score-based approach using stochastic differential equations. DiGress (Vignac et al., 2023a) employed a graph transformer architecture for progressive molecular modification through edge and node operations. Recent flow-based methods include Discrete Flow Matching (Campbell et al., 2024), which uses continuous-time Markov Chains for flexible sampling of both discrete and continuous data, and the Dirichlet Flow framework (Stark et al., 2024), which models conditional probability paths via Dirichlet distributions.

Group-Equivariant Diffusion for Continuous Data.

Incorporating data symmetries into generative models has proven crucial for improving performance (Hooeboom et al., 2022b; Gebauer et al., 2020; Bekkers et al., 2024). EDMs (Hooeboom et al., 2022b) combined score-based diffusion (Ho et al., 2020b) with group-equivariant graph

neural networks for molecular generation. Recent work (Bekkers et al., 2024; Vadgama et al., 2025) leverages pre-conditioned diffusion (Karras et al., 2022) for faster sampling. These approaches maintain E(3)/SE(3) symmetries through equivariant graph neural networks (Satorras et al., 2021; Gasteiger et al., 2022; Bekkers et al., 2024), handling continuous atomic positions while encoding discrete properties like atom types as one-hot vectors. Finally, Cornet et al. (2024) aims similarly at improved conditional generation but achieves this through making the noising process learnable and is not compared against as the conducted experiments different from the setup considered in this work.

Joint Modeling of Discrete and Continuous Data.

Several recent approaches tackle unified representation of discrete and continuous features. MiDi (Vignac et al., 2023b) generates both molecular graphs and 3D atomic arrangements, while JODO (Huang et al., 2023) produces complete molecules with atom types, charges, bonds, and 3D coordinates. EQGAT-Diff (Le et al., 2023) extends joint modeling to include hybridization states, improving sample validity. FlowMol (Dunn & Koes, 2024) represents categorical variables in continuous space using scaled conditional

flow matching. Theoretical advances include discrete state space flows via Continuous Time Markov Chains (Campbell et al., 2024; Gat et al., 2024) and Fisher Flow Matching (Davis et al., 2024), which develops Riemannian flows on probability simplexes for joint modeling.

6. Conclusion

This paper builds on the Variational Flow Matching framework to developed methods for controlled generation. To do so, we define controlled velocity fields in terms of their corresponding controlled probability density paths, along with variational methods for approximating these paths, offering a principled approach to generating data under specific constraints. We demonstrate how conditional generation can be formulated as a Bayesian inverse problem, bridging generative modeling with classical probabilistic reasoning. Furthermore, we propose a fully equivariant formulation that ensures generative processes respect key symmetries such as rotations, translations, and permutations, which are particularly relevant for molecular and material design. These advances achieve state-of-the-art results on benchmark datasets and provide a unified and efficient framework for discrete, continuous, and joint molecular generation tasks.

Future directions. The connection between VFM and variational inference opens up significant opportunities for hybrid generative modeling. By leveraging pretrained, unconditional generative models as priors and applying inference-based techniques like MCMC or energy-based approaches for task-specific fine-tuning, we can create adaptable frameworks for diverse applications. These hybrid strategies combine the efficiency of pretrained models with the ability to incorporate detailed task-specific constraints, enabling precise control over generated outputs in complex, high-dimensional settings.

While our focus has been on molecular design, these principles extend naturally to periodic materials like crystal structures, which can be represented by atomic species, fractional coordinates, and lattice vectors. Material properties exhibit key symmetries – invariance to permutations, translations, rotations, and periodic cell choices – while forces and stress tensors respect these symmetries through invariance or equivariance. By leveraging equivariant formulations, VFM enables generative models to capture intricate symmetries and heterogeneities, offering a robust foundation for materials design and discovery.

Looking forward, extending VFM to new structured domains and integrating it with efficient MCMC-like methods could drive breakthroughs across scientific and engineering fields requiring both precision and flexibility. This expansion could be particularly impactful in domains like pro-

tein design, where complex structural constraints must be satisfied while maintaining biological feasibility. These advances could solidify VFM’s role as a cornerstone of generative modeling for complex physical systems.

Acknowledgments This project was support by the Bosch Center for Artificial Intelligence. JWvdM additionally acknowledges support from the European Union Horizon Framework Programme (Grant agreement ID: 101120237).

Impact Statement

This paper presents work whose goal is to advance the field of Machine Learning. There are many potential societal consequences of our work, none which we feel must be specifically highlighted here.

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A. Proofs

A.1. Controlled Variational Flow Matching

Proposition A.1. *The controlled (marginal) velocity field*

$$u_t(x | y) := \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)}[u_t(x | x_1)],$$

generates the controlled probability path $p_t(x | y)$.

Proof. By the continuity equation, we know that $u_t(x | y) = \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)}[u_t(x | x_1)]$ generates $p_t(x | y)$ if

$$\frac{d}{dt}p_t(x | y) = -\operatorname{div}(p_t(x | y) \cdot \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)}[u_t(x | x_1)]). \quad (19)$$

First, we realized the time derivative of the controlled probability path indeed can be written as

$$\frac{d}{dt}p_t(x | y) = \int \left(\frac{d}{dt}p_t(x | x_1) \right) q(x_1 | y) dx_1 = \int \left(\frac{d}{dt}p_t(x | x_1) \right) q(x_1 | y) \quad (20)$$

$$= - \int \operatorname{div}(u_t(x | x_1)p_t(x | x_1)) q(x_1 | y) dx_1. \quad (21)$$

Then, by Fubini's theorem and direct manipulation, we observe that indeed

$$\begin{aligned} - \int \operatorname{div}(u_t(x | x_1)p_t(x | x_1)) q(x_1 | y) dx_1 &= -\operatorname{div} \left(\int u_t(x | x_1)p_t(x | x_1)q(x_1 | y) dx_1 \right) \\ &= -\operatorname{div} \left(p_t(x | y) \int u_t(x | x_1) \frac{p_t(x | x_1)q(x_1 | y)}{p_t(x | y)} dx_1 \right) \\ &= -\operatorname{div}(p_t(x | y)\mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)}[u_t(x | x_1)]), \end{aligned}$$

and thus, that $u_t(x | y) = \mathbb{E}_{p_t(x_1|x,y)}[u_t(x | x_1)]$ generates $p_t(x | y)$, which is what we wanted to show. \square

A.2. Equivariance

Proposition A.2. *Let G be an arbitrary group, and suppose that 1) the prior distribution is invariant under G , 2) the conditional velocity field is bi-equivariant under G , and 3) the variational posterior is equivariant under G with respect to its expected value. Then the marginal path $p_t(x)$ is invariant under G .*

Proof. Clearly, if our parameter model θ is equivariant and $u_t(x | x_1)$ is bi-equivariant, we have that

$$v_t^\theta(g \cdot x) = u_t(g \cdot x | \mu_t^\theta(g \cdot x)) = u_t(g \cdot x | g \cdot \mu_t^\theta(x)) = g \cdot u_t(x | \mu_t^\theta(x)) = g \cdot v_t^\theta(x). \quad (22)$$

Per definition, a point x from our generated distribution $q_{t'}^\theta(x)$ is obtained through solving an ODE, i.e.

$$x = x_0 + \int_{t=0}^{t=t'} \mathbb{E}_{q_t^\theta(x_1|x_t)}[u_t(x_t | x_1)] dt, \quad (23)$$

for some x_0 in p_0 . Hence, we can define a bijection (under Lipschitz continuity of v_t^θ) $\xi_{t'} : x_0 \mapsto x$, such that

$$x = \xi_{t'}(x_0) := x_0 + \int_{t=0}^{t=t'} \mathbb{E}_{q_t^\theta(x_1|x_t)}[u_t(x_t | x_1)] dt. \quad (24)$$

Note that if v_t^θ is equivariant, we have that $\xi_{t'}(g \cdot x_0) = g \cdot \xi_{t'}(x_0)$ directly. Since $p_0(x_0) = p_0(g \cdot x_0)$ per assumption, we have that $q_{t'}^\theta(x) = q_{t'}^\theta(g \cdot x)$, which is what we wanted to show. \square