Supplementary Materials for Learning Superconductivity from Ordered and Disordered Material Structures

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Contents

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 The appendix is organized as follows: Section [1](#page-2-0) details the collection method and distribution of the SuperCon3D dataset. Section [2](#page-3-0) presents more details of disordered graph and models. Section [3](#page-4-0) elaborates on the implementation specifics of both property prediction and generative models. The identification of potential superconductors and their corresponding DFT computational outcomes are presented in Section [4.](#page-7-5) A systematic approach for the design of practical superconductors is expounded in Section [5.](#page-12-0) We present the limitation of our data and models in Section [6.](#page-13-0) Section [7](#page-13-1) provides the repository link for the associated coding resources.

1 SuperCon3D data details

 We extracted approximately 33,000 superconductors, including their chemical formulas and critical [1](#page-2-1) temperatures, from the SuperCon database¹. After eliminating duplicates and non-superconductors, we retained 11,949 superconducting materials. Over 200,000 ordered and disordered crystal structures were collected from the ICSD database. We then matched the 11,949 SuperCon entries with 208,425 ICSD entries based on chemical composition, space group and lattice parameter. Specifically, we first performed an initial matching based on chemical composition, which may result in one-to-one or one-to-many matches. We then further refined the matches using additional information provided in the literature, such as space groups and lattice constants. Additionally, T_c values and structural data for hydrogen-enriched superconductors were obtained from literature sources. Ultimately, we 49 compiled 1,578 superconductors with both T_c and crystal structure information.

Figure 4: The data distribution of SuperCon3D dataset. (a). The probability of crystals containing a given element in the dataset. (b). The distribution of ordered and disordered superconductors. (c). The distribution of superconducting types. (d). The distribution of T_c values.

 We plot the data distribution of SuperCon3D dataset in Fig. [4.](#page-2-2) In dataset, there are 83 different elements, which encompass most of elemental types found in the periodic table. The most frequent

https://github.com/vstanev1/Supercon

 elements are O, Cu, La, Ba, Y as shown in Fig. [4a](#page-2-2). Fig. [4b](#page-2-2) depicts the order and disorder distribution. We classify superconducting materials according to cuprate, H riched, heavy fermion, iron based, and others, and distribute the types in Fig. [4c](#page-2-2). The distribution of the Tc values of superconducting materials is shown in Fig. [4d](#page-2-2). The SuperCon3D dataset can be obtained from the source code package, and the access address is proveide in Sec. [7.](#page-13-1)

⁵⁷ 2 Methods

⁵⁸ 2.1 Interstitial disorder

 Interstitial disorder (ID). ID refers to the presence of atoms occupying interstitial sites within a crystal lattice, which are not part of the regular lattice positions. These interstitial atoms introduce additional disorder into the structure. The total occupancy, including both regular lattice sites and interstitial sites, can be expressed as:

$$
\boldsymbol{w}_{i,1} + \boldsymbol{w}_{i,2} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{w}_{i,m_i} + \boldsymbol{w}_{i,interstitial} = 1 + \Delta
$$
\n(1)

63 where w_{i,m_i} represents the occupancy weight of m_i at site i, $w_{i,interstellar}$ represents the occupancy

64 weight of interstitial atoms at site i, Δ is the excess occupancy due to interstitial atoms, with $\Delta > 0$ ⁶⁵ indicating the presence of ID. In this case, our disordered graph encoding method remains effective.

⁶⁶ ID mixed with substitutional disorder (SD) and positional disorder (PD), would result in more new

⁶⁷ types. However, given the lack of observation of ID in the SuperCon3D dataset, we will not elaborate ⁶⁸ further on it.

⁶⁹ 2.2 Gate layer

⁷⁰ We employ the gate activation mechanism [Weiler et al.](#page-14-0) [\[2018\]](#page-14-0) for the equivariant activation function. 71 Standard activation functions are applied to type-0 vectors. For higher order vectors $(L > 0)$, we achieve ⁷² equivariance by multiplying them with non-linearly transformed type-0 vectors. Specifically, for an τ_3 input x comprising non-scalar C_L type-L vectors (where $0 < L \le L_{\text{max}}$) and $(C_0 + P_L \sum_{L=1}^{L_{\text{max}}} C_L)$ 74 type-0 vectors, we apply SiLU [Elfwing et al.](#page-14-1) [\[2018\]](#page-14-1) to the first C_0 type-0 vectors and a sigmoid τ 5 function to the remaining $P_L \sum_{L=1}^{L_{\text{max}}} C_L$ type-0 vectors. This process generates non-linear weights, ⁷⁶ which are then used to scale each type-L vector. After gate activation, the number of channels for 77 type-0 vectors is reduced to C_0 .

⁷⁸ 2.3 The denoising method of DiffCSP

79 We introduce the denoising model $\phi(L, F, A, t)$ as part of the original DiffCSP model, which is ⁸⁰ related to the *Transformer-based Architecture* section in the main text.

81 Node representations in the s-th layer, $H^{(s)} = [h_1^{(s)}, \cdots, h_N^{(s)}]$, are initialized as $h_i^{(0)} =$ 82 $\rho(f_{\text{atom}}(a_i), f_{\text{pos}}(t))$, combining atomic embeddings f_{atom} and sinusoidal positional encoding f_{pos} [Ho](#page-14-2) 83 [et al.](#page-14-2) [\[2020\]](#page-14-2), [Vaswani et al.](#page-14-3) [\[2017\]](#page-14-3), processed by MLP $ρ$.

84 Incorporating EGNN [Satorras et al.](#page-14-4) [\[2021\]](#page-14-4), the message-passing in layer s is:

$$
\boldsymbol{m}_{ij}^{(s)} = \varphi_m(\boldsymbol{h}_i^{(s-1)}, \boldsymbol{h}_j^{(s-1)}, \boldsymbol{L}^\top \boldsymbol{L}, \psi_{\text{FT}}(\boldsymbol{f}_j - \boldsymbol{f}_i)),
$$
\n(2)

$$
\mathbf{m}_i^{(s)} = \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{m}_{ij}^{(s)},\tag{3}
$$

$$
h_i^{(s)} = h_i^{(s-1)} + \varphi_h(h_i^{(s-1)}, m_i^{(s)}).
$$
\n(4)

85 Here, φ_m and φ_h are MLPs. ψ_{FT} executes Fourier Transformation on relative fractional coordinates,

ensuring periodic translation invariance.

87 Following S message-passing layers, lattice noise $\hat{\epsilon}_L$ is computed as follows:

$$
\hat{\epsilon} \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L} \varphi_L \Big(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{1}^N \mathbf{h}_i^{(S)} \Big), \tag{5}
$$

88 with φ_L shaping output as 3×3 . For fractional coordinate score $\hat{\epsilon}_F$, we have:

$$
\hat{\epsilon}_F[:,i] = \varphi_F(\mathbf{h}_i^{(S)}),\tag{6}
$$

- 89 where $\hat{\epsilon}_F$: i is the *i*-th column, and φ_F operates on the final layer's output.
- 90 The inner product $L^\top L$ in Eq.[\(2\)](#page-3-4) ensures O(3)-invariance, as $(QL)^\top (QL) = L^\top L$ for any orthog-91 onal $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$. This guarantees the O(3)-invariance of φ_L in Eq.[\(6\)](#page-4-5), and L left-multiplied with φ_L 92 ensures O(3)-equivariance of $\hat{\epsilon}_L$. Thus, $\phi(L, F, A, t)$ satisfies the proposed properties. More details

⁹³ are described in [Jiao et al.](#page-14-5) [\[2023\]](#page-14-5).

94 3 Hyper-parameters and training details

⁹⁵ In this section, we provide the training details of property predicting models and generative models.

⁹⁶ 3.1 Property predicting models

97 We employ the codebase from SchNet [Schütt et al.](#page-14-6) $[2018]^2$ $[2018]^2$ $[2018]^2$, CGCNN [Xie and Grossman](#page-14-7) $[2018]^3$ $[2018]^3$, 98 DimNet++ [Gasteiger et al.](#page-14-8) [\[2020\]](#page-14-8)^{[4](#page-4-8)}, SphereNet [Liu et al.](#page-14-9) [\[2022\]](#page-14-9)^{[5](#page-4-9)}, ALIGNN [Choudhary and DeCost](#page-14-10) 99 $[2021]^6$ $[2021]^6$ $[2021]^6$, Matformer [Yan et al.](#page-14-11) $[2022]^7$ $[2022]^7$ $[2022]^7$ and MEGNet [Chen et al.](#page-14-12) $[2019]^8$ $[2019]^8$ $[2019]^8$ for baseline implementations. ¹⁰⁰ All models are conducted 10-fold experiments based data splited method of 8:1:1. The training details ¹⁰¹ of each model are as follows:

¹⁰² 3.1.1 SchNet.

 Employing the SchNet framework, our method integrates six 64-dimensional message passing layers. SchNet was trained over 500 epochs, using a 5e-4 learning rate and 64 batch size. We optimized using Adam with 1e-5 weight decay, and a one-cycle learning rate scheduler. Atomic radii were determined by the 12th smallest distance between an atom and its neighbors.

107 3.1.2 CGCNN.

 A batch size of 64 is employed, and the model consists of three layers of CGCNN message passing layer with 128 hidden dimensions. The training process utilizes the Adam optimizer. Initially, a learning rate of 1e-3 is set for the 200 epochs. During the training, a radius cutoff of 8.0 is applied to all crystals, and the 32 nearest neighbors are selected.

¹¹² 3.1.3 DimNet++.

¹¹³ In our approach, we apply a radius cutoff of 8.0 to all crystals and select the 12 nearest neighbors.

¹¹⁴ To represent each node, we utilize Gaussian radial basis function (RBF) kernels. This results in a

¹¹⁵ 64-dimensional embedding for each node. To optimize the model, we employ the Adam optimizer

¹¹⁶ with a weight decay of 1e-6. The model is trained for 500 epochs using a batch size of 128.

3 https://github.com/txie-93/cgcnn

4 https://github.com/gasteigerjo/dimenet

5 https://github.com/divelab/DIG

6 https://github.com/usnistgov/alignn

7 https://github.com/YKQ98/Matformer

8 https://github.com/materialsvirtuallab/megnet

²https://github.com/atomistic-machine-learning/SchNet

3.1.4 SphereNet.

 In our method, we utilize multi-graph representations of materials as inputs to SphereNet models. The input embedding size is set to 256, and the output embedding size is set to 64 for both the 8 LB2 and LB blocks. A cutoff distance of 6 is used. For each model, we initially perform a warm-up on the learning rate, starting at 1e-3. Subsequently, two learning rate strategies—ReduceLROnPlateau and StepLR—are employed for training. In the StepLR strategy, the learning rate is decayed by a specified ratio every fixed number of epochs, known as the step size. The batch size is set to 32, and training is conducted for 300 epochs.

3.1.5 ALIGNN.

 ALIGNN is trained for 150 epochs with a learning rate of 5e-4 and a batch size of 64. The model architecture follows the original paper, consisting of four GCN layers and four ALIGNN layers. The atom feature dimension is set to 92, and the edge feature dimension is set to 80. The training process utilize the Adam optimizer with a weight decay of 1e-5. Additionally, a one-cycle learning rate scheduler is employed. For all crystals, a radius cutoff of 8.0 is applied, and the nearest 12 neighbors are selected.

3.1.6 Matformer.

 In constructing the crystal graph, we follow a specific procedure. The radius for the neighborhood of a given atom is determined by the 12-th smallest distance between that atom and its neighboring atoms. All atoms within this radius are considered part of the neighborhood for the given atom. Each node is then represented by mapping its atomic number to a 92-dimensional embedding using the CGCNN atomic embedding. This embedding is further transformed into a 128-dimensional vector through a linear transformation. Similarly, for each edge, we utilize a 128-dimensional embedding mapping of the Euclidean distance. This mapping is achieved by employing 128 radial basis function (RBF) kernels with centers ranging from 0.0 to 8.0. During the training process, we employ the Adam optimizer with a weight decay of 1e-5. Additionally, a one-cycle learning rate scheduler is utilized. A batch size of 64 is employed and trained for 150 epochs.

3.1.7 MEGNet.

 To construct the crystal graph, we employ three layers of the MEGNET message passing with with 64,32,16 hidden units, and utilize the Set2Set readout function. Following the configuration described in the original paper, MEGNET is trained for 200 epochs using a batch size of 64 and a learning rate of 1e-3. The Adam optimizer with a weight decay of 1e-5 is used for optimization, and a one-cycle learning rate scheduler is implemented. A radius of 8.0 is set for all crystals.

Table 7: Hyper-parameters for SODNet.

3.1.8 SODNet

 During training, we use a batch size of 64 and trained the model for 150 epochs. A radius of 8.0 is applied to define the neighborhood of each crystal. We utilize 128 basis functions to capture the

No.	Material	Type	(K)
	CaH ₆ @ 172 GPa	Order	215 Ma et al. [2022]
\mathfrak{D}	Ti @248 GPa	Order	26 Zhang et al. [2022]
3	CsV ₃ Sb ₅	Order	2.3 Ge et al. [2022]
	$Cs(V_{0.93}Nb_{0.07})_3Sb_5$	SD	4.45 Li et al. [2022]
5	Zr_4Rh_2O		Order 3.73 Watanabe et al. [2023]
6	Zr4Pd2O		Order 2.73 Watanabe et al. [2023]
	LaFeSiO _{0.9}	PD.	10 Hansen et al. [2022]

Table 8: Recently discovered superconductors (not included in the training data).

 features of the crystals. To control overfitting, a weight decay of 5e-3 is applied. The learning rate is set to 5e-5, with a minimum learning rate of 1e-6. We employ the AdamW optimizer for efficient optimization. The model architecture consisted of 6 Transformer blocks, each with 8 attention heads. This allowed the model to effectively capture the relationships and dependencies within the 156 crystal structures. Irreps features consist of channels of vectors with degrees up to L_{max} . We denote C_L type-L vectors as (C_L, L) and $C_{(L,p)}$ type- (L, p) vectors as $(C_{(L,p)}, L, p)$. Brackets denote concatenations of vectors. we set irreps features containing 512 type-0 vectors and 128 type-1 vectors, 159 which can be expressed as $[(512, 0), (128, 1)].$

¹⁶⁰ Table [7](#page-5-5) summarizes the hyper-parameters for the model.

Table 9: The predicted potential candidates of high- T_c cuprate and h-riched superconductors. Candidates of high confidence are marked in gray.

Type	ICSD code	Chemical formula $O/SD/PDT_c$ (K)			Reported SC.
Cuprate	68675	CuO ₂ Sr _{0.075}	PD	93.42	CuO ₂ Sr 91K Takahashi et al. [1994]
	50774	$Ca_{0.779}CuO_{2}Y_{0.041}$	PD	65.70	
	50773	$Ca0$ s ₂ CuO ₂	PD	64.72	CaCuO ₂ 89K Schön et al. [2001]
	68217	Ba ₂ CuO ₃	Ω	59.89	$Ba2CuO3$ ₂ 70K Li et al. [2019]
	67394	Ba ₂ CuIO ₂	Ω	43.80	
	187375	ErH ₃	Ω	193.03	٠
	635802	GdH_3	Ω	143.19	۰
H-riched	623739	$H_{2.57}Co_{0.14}U_{0.84}$	PD	136.76	۰
	42009	TbH _{2.25}	SD	135.13	۰
	424154	$H_6Mg_{1.02}Ti_{1.98}$	Ω	134.34	
	230140	$Li_{0.14}Y_{0.86}H_{2.7}$	PD	125.94	
	93250	YFe ₂ H ₅	PD.	125.00	

¹⁶¹ 3.2 Generative models

[W](#page-14-5)e apply the codebases from CDVAE [Xie et al.](#page-15-9) $[2022]^9$ $[2022]^9$ $[2022]^9$, SyMat [Luo et al.](#page-15-10) $[2024]^{10}$ $[2024]^{10}$ $[2024]^{10}$ $[2024]^{10}$ and DiffCSP [Jiao](#page-14-5) [et al.](#page-14-5) [\[2023\]](#page-14-5)^{[11](#page-6-3)} for baseline implementations. All models are conducted experiments based data splited method of 6:2:2. For pretraining, we obtain crystal structures from the databases of Materials 165 Project^{[12](#page-6-4)}, Open Quantum Materials Database^{[13](#page-6-5)}, Matgen^{[14](#page-6-6)}, and ICSD^{[15](#page-6-7)}. Molecular crystals are excluded from the dataset. Subsequently, we perform deduplication on all crystal structures, resulting in approximately 1.14 million unique structures. The training specifics for each model are outlined ¹⁶⁸ below:

 9 <https://github.com/txie-93/cdvae>

 10 <https://github.com/divelab/AIRS>

¹¹https://github.com/jiaor17/DiffCSP

¹²https://next-gen.materialsproject.org

¹³https://www.oqmd.org

¹⁴https://matgen.nscc-gz.cn

¹⁵https://icsd.products.fiz-karlsruhe.de/

3.2.1 CDVAE.

 For CDVAE model, We replaced the original DimNet++ [Gasteiger et al.](#page-14-8) [\[2020\]](#page-14-8) with SODNet to ensure a fair comparison with other generation models. Regarding the decoder, we utilize the

GemNet-T [Gasteiger et al.](#page-15-11) [\[2021\]](#page-15-11), which consists of 3 layers and 128 hidden states.

3.2.2 SyMat.

 For the SyMat model, the property predictor employs SphereNet, which consists of four message- passing layers with a hidden size of 128. The VAE decoder utilizes MLP models composed of two linear layers with a ReLU activation function between them and a hidden size of 256. During training, we use a learning rate of 0.001, a batch size of 128, and run for 1,000 epochs. We assign different weights to various loss terms: 1.0 for atom type set size, 30.0 for atom types, 1.0 for the number of each atom type, and 10.0 for lattice items. Additionally, we apply a weight of 0.01 for the KL-divergence loss and 10.0 for the denoising score matching loss.

3.2.3 DiffCSP.

 We employ a configuration of 6 layers with 512 hidden states for datasets other than specified ones. The dimension of the Fourier embedding is set to 256. To control the variance of the DDPM 184 (Diffusion-Driven Probabilistic Modeling) process on L_t , we utilize the cosine scheduler with 0.008. 185 Additionally, we use an exponential scheduler with $\sigma_1 = 0.005$, $\sigma_T = 0.5$ to control the noise scale 186 of the score matching process on F_t . The diffusion step is set to 1000. Our model is trained for 1000 epochs, employing the same optimizer and learning rate scheduler as CDVAE.

3.2.4 DiffCSP-SC.

 We utilize SODNet as the property predictor, and the parameter configuration aligns with Table [7.](#page-5-5) The parameters for the diffusion process also follow the original DiffCSP setup. The difference lies in the message passing layer, where we employ a transformer. Specifically, we use a 512-dimensional hidden state encoding and set the number of heads to 8.

3.3 Pre-training dataset

 we pre-trained our model on approximately 1.14 million unique 3D crystals sourced from existing 195 databases, including Project^{[16](#page-7-7)}, OQMD^{[17](#page-7-8)}, Matgen^{[18](#page-7-9)}, and ICSD^{[19](#page-7-10)}.

4 Potential superconductors

197 In this section, we initially validate our model using the T_c values of superconducting materials reported in recent literature, noting that these data points are not included in the SuperCon3D dataset. Subsequently, we present the potential superconducting materials using property prediction model based on SODNet and generative model based on DiffCSP-SC, respectively.

4.1 Real-world superconductors validation

 As shown in Table [8,](#page-6-8) we have collected the structures of superconducting materials along with their corresponding Tc values, as reported in the latest literature over the past three years. This includes a total of seven superconducting materials with both ordered and disordered structures.

¹⁶https://next-gen.materialsproject.org

https://www.oqmd.org

https://matgen.nscc-gz.cn

https://icsd.products.fiz-karlsruhe.de

Type	ICSD code	Chemical formula	$O/SD/PDT_c$ (K)		Reported SC.
	168466	$LaMg_{12}$	Ω	23.83	
	161141	$LaMg_{11.196}Al_{0.804}$	SD	21.13	
Heavy-Fermion	69897	$C_2Ce_{0.75}U_{0.25}$	PD	11.88	
	647197	$Np_{1,1}Pu_{0,9}$	SD	11.75	
	614236	TmFe ₄ B	О	10.81	
	427163	$Ba0.83Fe2Rb0.17As2$	SD	23.21	$Ba_{0.6}Fe_2Rb_{0.4}As_2$ 37.5K Peschke et al. [2014]
Iron-based	188347	BaFe ₂ As ₂	Ω	23.27	
	39530	FeCl ₇ Te	O	19.57	
	633401	FeSb _{0.4} Te _{1.6}	SD	16.83	
	165523	$As2Ba0.777Fe2$ - $K_{0.126}$ Sn _{0.096}	PD	15.55	
	96031	$Ba_{1.1432}Co_{0.1429}$ $O_{3.0009}Rh_{0.8574}$	PD.	202.12	
Others	58639	Ba _{0.515} Ca _{0.485}	SD	160.95	
	616160	BaSr	SD	123.51	
	106111	SrTI ₂	Ω	63.52	
	428028	$Ge_{0.6}Sb_{0.27}Te$	SD	47.48	

Table 10: The predicted potential candidates of high- T_c heavy-fermion, iron-based and others superconductors. Candidates of high confidence are marked in gray.

²⁰⁵ 4.2 Screening based method

²⁰⁶ We apply our superconductivity predicting model for screening the entire ICSD database. Potential ²⁰⁷ superconductors are show in Table [9](#page-6-9) and [10.](#page-8-2) To elaborate on the candidates with high confidence, ²⁰⁸ we provide the subsequent details:

- 209 1. CuO₂Sr_{0.075} and Ca_{0.82}CuO₂ exhibit disordered structures, and their respective parent ²¹⁰ compounds demonstrate superconductivity [Takahashi et al.](#page-15-6) [\[1994\]](#page-15-6), [Schön et al.](#page-15-7) [\[2001\]](#page-15-7). ²¹¹ Consequently, these disordered structures are more likely to be superconducting materials ²¹² as well.
- 213 2. Ba₂CuO_{3.2} exhibits superconductivity with a Tc of 70K [Li et al.](#page-15-8) [\[2019\]](#page-15-8). Its corresponding 214 parent structure Ba_2CuO_3 may also be a superconductor, albeit with a comparatively lower ²¹⁵ probability.
- 216 3. Ba_{0.83}Fe₂Rb_{0.17}As₂ and Ba_{0.6}Fe₂Rb_{0.4}As₂ share the same parent structure and have closely 217 related compositions. Given that $Ba_{0.6}Fe_2Rb_{0.4}As_2$ exhibits superconductivity with a 218 Tc of 37.5K [Peschke et al.](#page-15-12) [\[2014\]](#page-15-12), it is highly likely that $Ba_{0.83}Fe₂Rb_{0.17}As₂$ is also a ²¹⁹ superconducting material.

²²⁰ 4.3 Interpretability on SODNet

²²¹ We attempt to interpret our SODNet predictor by determining which feature(s) a given model weighs ²²² most heavily when making the prediction. As shown in Fig. [5,](#page-9-0) we extract the node embedding of the 223 whole graph in the last layer of SODNet, and present the contributions of each atom to T_c values. We ²²⁴ can observe that the B sites contributes more significantly to the property of Tc compared to the Mg ²²⁵ site in Fig. [5](#page-9-0) (a-d). Moreover, conducting atomic doping and atomic translation on the cation Mg 226 results in a decrease in T_c with 39.0 K \rightarrow 38.4 K \rightarrow 34.3 K. This phenomenon demonstrates that 227 attempting to enhance the T_c value by disrupting the symmetry of Mg site within the lattice may ²²⁸ be not workable. Another case of cuprate superconductor has shown in Fig. [5](#page-9-0) (e-f), there are three 229 types of oxygen sites that contribute significantly to the T_c value: Hg-O-Hg (PD disorder), Cu-O-Cu ²³⁰ (order), and Hg-O-Ba (order). Among them, the contribution of disordered Hg-O-Hg is the greatest, ²³¹ indicating that disrupting the symmetry of oxygen atoms within the lattice might potentially further 232 enhance the property of T_c .

Type	Index	Chemical formula	T_c (K)	Reported SC.
	1	$Ba2CuCl2O2$	33.56	
	2	$Tl_2Ca_2Ba_2Cu_3O_{10}$	14.09	
	3	$Ba_3Cala_2GdCu_7O_{17}$	10.12	
Cuprate	4	YCu ₃ O ₇	9.73	
	5	BaCaCu ₃ O ₇	9.65	
	6	Cu ₇ BO ₁₆	7.87	
	$\overline{7}$	CsMgCu ₃ BiAuO ₈	7.82	
				TbH_3
	8	TbH_3	164.33	20K Hai et al. [2021]
				Calculated by DFT
				SeH ₃
H-riched	9	SeH ₃		139.89 113K Novakovic et al. [2023]
				Predicted by ML
	10	CaGe ₂ H ₉	103.55	
	11	Ca ₂ MnCrH ₆	58.07	
				SbH_3
	12	SbH_3	46.42	20K Fu et al. [2016]
				Calculated by DFT
	13	$MgCoCuH_{42}CS_2N_{16}$	44.27	
	14	$Rb_2Ca_2H_4$	13.05	

Table 11: The novel high- T_c cuprate and h-riched superconducting candidates. Candidates of high confidence are marked in gray.

Figure 5: Contribution of each atom to T_c value. (a). Feature relative importance of each site in three type MgB₂ superconductors. Snapshots of (b) SD Mg_{0.9}Al_{0.1}B₂, (c) PD Mg_{0.98}B₂, and (d) ordered MgB² crystals. Here, B Mg and Al sites are colored by light pink, atrovirens and dark atrovirens. (e). Feature relative importance of Ba₂CuHgO_{4.27} superconductor. (f). Snapshot of Ba₂CuHgO_{4.27} superconductor (Ba: green, Cu: blue, Hg: pink, O: red).

²³³ 4.4 Generative superconducting candidates

 We apply our generative model for generating new superconducting candidates. We present the crystal structures of the 20 superconducting candidate materials from Table 6 in Fig. [6.](#page-11-0) Additionally, we display the 32 superconducting candidate materials in Table [11](#page-9-1) and [12,](#page-10-2) arranged in descending order 237 of predicted T_c values. The structures of all superconducting candidate materials can be obtained in the source code package. We collected superconducting materials that have been reported and observed that five candidates are more likely to be superconducting materials. Among them, four can- didates obtained Tc through theoretical calculations, and another material displayed superconducting properties through doping. Specific descriptions are as follows:

Table 12: The novel high- T_c heavy-fermion, iron-based and others superconducting candidates. Candidates of high confidence are marked in gray.

²⁵⁵ 4.5 DFT calculations

 We conduct DFT calculation using the Vienna ab initio package (VASP[\)Wang and Pickett](#page-16-4) [\[1983\]](#page-16-4), [Chan and Ceder](#page-16-5) [\[2010\]](#page-16-5). The structures are fully relaxed using the generalized gradient approximation (GGA[\)Perdew et al.](#page-16-6) [\[1996\]](#page-16-6) of the SCAN meta-GGA functional, employing the pseudopotentials of the projector augmented wave (PAW) metho[dBlöchl](#page-16-7) [\[1994\]](#page-16-7). A plane wave cutoff of 500 eV is employed for all simulations. Brillouin-zone integrations are performed using the τ -centered Monkhorst-Pack (MP) schem[eMonkhorst and Pack](#page-16-8) [\[1976\]](#page-16-8) . We initiate the calculations with a

Figure 6: The geometric structures of novel superconducting candidates in Table 6.

Figure 7: The electronic structures of novel superconducting candidates.

262 k-point meth featuring a dense sampling density of $2\pi \times 0.04$. The convergence criteria for energy and force is set to 0.1 meV and 0.001 eV/Å, respectively.

 The van Hove singularity (VHS) is a notable occurrence in condensed matter physics, specifically in the density of states (DOS) of a material. It manifests as a distinct peak or divergence in the DOS at a particular energy level. We select materials from Table [11](#page-9-1) and [12](#page-10-2) for DFT calculations and display their band structures and density of states (DOS) in Fig. [7.](#page-12-1) From the density of states (DOS) plot, we can observe the van Hove singularity (VHS) phenomenon. Additionally, we can 269 also observe the presence of flat bands in the band structures of materials such as $Ba_2CuCl_2O_2$, Lu, Ba4Sb2, and others. The integration of flat bands in the electronic architecture, along with the Van Hove Singularities (VHS) in the Density of States (DOS), markedly amplifies the likelihood of these candidates being superconducting materials.

5 Pipeline for designing real-world superconductors.

 Fig. [8](#page-13-2) presents a pipeline for designing SC., validating our dataset and models for real-world scenarios. We initially generate potential, ordered superconducting structures using the DiffCSP-SC model trained on the SuperCon3D database. Candidate materials are selected based on Tc values predicted by SODNet, followed by DFT verification to confirm the presence of superconducting electronic 278 structures, such as VHS. Subsequently, selected candidates undergo wet lab synthesis, with T_c values characterized and recorded in the SuperCon3D database. Further, if a superconductor is

 discovered, methods such as doping, which may transform ordered structures into disordered ones, 281 are explored to enhance the T_c value. SODNet is employed to investigate the relationship between disordered structures and doping ratios, aiming to design optimal doping proportions for experimental verification. These experimental outcomes are also recorded in the database. Continuous expansion of the database will incrementally improve the accuracy of the DiffCSP-SC and SODNet models trained on this dataset, creating a reinforcing cycle of enhancement.

Figure 8: Flowchart for designing novel SC materials.

6 Limitations

287 Our SuperCon3D dataset, featuring experimental structures and T_c values, paves the way for real-world superconductor applications. Combined with SODNet, which addresses disordered graph issues previously overlooked by the AI community, and DiffCSP-SC for novel designs. However, the accuracy of data-driven models remains constrained by the collected superconducting dataset. As Figure 4 in the Appendix shows, data unevenness and elemental skewness (especially in Cu and O) may bias the model. Additionally, as Table [8](#page-6-8) indicates, atomic distributions under extreme pressures contribute to predictive errors. Addressing these, Figure 8 presents our pipeline, combining DiffCSP-SC and SODNet, to design and validate novel superconductors through wet experiments, iteratively enriching the dataset for improved model training and accuracy.

7 Code

 We have provided the source code of SODNet and DiffCSP-SC, which are mentioned in this article, on an anonymous GitHub repository. The access address is as follows: https://anonymous.4open.science/r/SODNet-F569, https://anonymous.4open.science/r/DiffCSP-SC-8F3F.

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