An introduction to Score-based Generative Models Lecture 2: Introduction to score-based generative models

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Outline

Goal of today's course:

- Score matching / Denoising score matching
- Introduce SGM with time-reversal (without relying on stochastic calculus).

Outline of the course:

- Introduction of SGM with discrete-time reversal following Sohl-Dickstein et al. (2015).
- Introduction of SGM with variational approaches following Ho et al. (2020).



Figure 1: Noising process in SGM. Image extracted from Song et al. (2020b).

Score matching and denoising score matching

- Consider the case $\lambda = \text{Leb}$ and $X = \mathbb{R}^d$.
- EBM consists in defining a family {μ_θ : θ ∈ Θ} directly from a family of potential/energy functions {U_θ : θ ∈ Θ}: for x ∈ ℝ^d

$$\begin{split} p_{\theta}(x) &= (\mathrm{d}\mu_{\theta}/\mathrm{dLeb})(x) = \exp[-U_{\theta}(x)]/\mathfrak{Z}(\theta) \ ,\\ \mathfrak{Z}(\theta) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp[-U_{\theta}(\tilde{x})]\mathrm{d}\tilde{x} \ . \end{split}$$

- U_{θ} is typically a **neural network** ($\theta \in \Theta$ is a set of parameters).
- We saw in the last course how to train an EBM based on maximum likelihood estimation (MLE).

- An alternative to MLE is score matching (SM)
- It consists in minimizing the Fisher divergence:

$$\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{F}}(\mu^{\star}|\mu_{\theta}) = \int \|\nabla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p_{\theta} - \nabla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p^{\star}\|^{2} \,\mathrm{d}\mu^{\star}$$

- Supposing $p^* \ll \text{Leb}$ with a smooth density p^*
- General principle in statistics not restrained on EBM... Hyvärinen (2005)

SM consists in minimizing the Fisher divergence:

$$\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{F}}(\mu^{\star}|\mu_{\theta}) = \int \left\| \nabla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p_{\theta} - \nabla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p^{\star} \right\|^{2} \mathrm{d}\mu^{\star}$$

- Problem: we do not have access to $\nabla_x \log p^* \dots$
- How we can show that minimizing θ → D_F(μ^{*}|μ_θ) is equivalent to a more tractable problem.

• SM consists in minimizing (w.r.t. θ) the Fisher divergence:

$$\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{F}}(\mu^{\star}|\mu_{ heta}) = \int \left\|
abla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p_{ heta} -
abla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p^{\star}
ight\|^2 \mathrm{d}\mu^{\star}$$

- **Problem**: we do not have access to $\nabla_x \log p^* \dots$
- It is equivalent to minimizing (w.r.t. θ)

$$\int \left\| \nabla_{\mathsf{x}} \log p_{\theta} \right\|^{2} \mathrm{d} \mu^{\star} + 2 \int \Delta_{\mathsf{x}} \log p_{\theta} \mathrm{d} \mu^{\star}$$

An empirical counterpart of the above functions is:

$$N^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \{ \left\|
abla_{ imes} \log p_{ heta}(x^{i})
ight\|^{2} + \Delta_{ imes} \log p_{ heta}(x^{i}) \} \; ,$$

where $\{x^i\}_{i=1}^N$ are observations of μ^* .

- In case μ^* do not admit a smooth density
- We can consider instead $\mu_{\varepsilon}^{\star} = \mu^{\star} * \varphi_{\varepsilon}$, where φ_{ε} is the density of N(0, ε Id)
- It has the smooth density:

$$p_{\varepsilon}^{\star}(y) = \int \mathrm{d}\mu^{\star}(x) \varphi_{\varepsilon}(y-x) \; .$$

■ It turns out that minimizing (w.r.t. θ) $D_F(\mu_{\varepsilon}^{\star}|\mu_{\theta})$ is equivalent to minimizing

$$\int \mathrm{d}\mu^{\star} \varphi_{\varepsilon}(y-x) \left\| \nabla_{x} \log \varphi_{\varepsilon}(y-x) - \nabla_{x} \log p_{\theta}(y) \right\|^{2} \ .$$

Discrete time-reversal and score-based generative modeling

- In this section we introduce SGM in a "direct" manner.
- A bit of "history":
 - ► First paper Sohl-Dickstein et al. (2015).
 - ► First successful application Song and Ermon (2019).
 - ► Concurrently (variational approach) Ho et al. (2020).
- We present some **techniques** to train SGM.
- In what follows:
 - ► Time-reversal in discrete-time.
 - Links with **annealed Langevin**.
 - A (very) few Implementation details and tricks.

Discrete-time

Principles of SGM

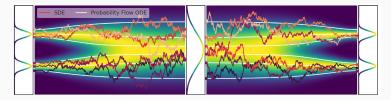


Figure 2: Noising and generative processes in SGM. Image extracted from Song et al. (2020b).

Interpolating between two distributions:

- The data distribution is denoted $\mu^* \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^p)$ with density p^* .
- The easy-to-sample distribution is denoted $\nu_0 \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^p)$ with density q_0 .
- \blacktriangleright ν_0 is usually the standard multivariate Gaussian distribution.
- Going from the data to the easy-to-sample distribution: noising process.
- Going from the easy-to-sample to the data distribution: generative process.
- How to invert the forward noising process?

First idea:

- **Progressively going from** ν_0 to μ^* in $n_s \in \mathbb{N}^*$ steps,
- defining $\{X_i\}_{i=0}^{n_s}$ such that $X_0 \sim \mu^*$ and $X_{n_s} \sim \nu_0$.
- How to define $\{X_i\}_{i=0}^{n_s}$?
- Second idea:
 - Consider {X_i}^{n_s}_{i=0} as a non-homogeneous Markov chain starting from X₀ ~ µ^{*},

• using a sequence of transition densities $\{p_{k+1|k}\}_{k=0}^{N-1}$ corresponding to $X_{k+1}|X_k \sim p_{k+1|k}(\cdot|X_k)$,

- and which converges to ν_0 : X_{n_s} has distribution $\approx \nu_0$.
- (X_0, \ldots, X_{n_s}) has for density for any $x_{0:n_s} = \{x_k\}_{k=0}^{n_s}$

 $p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k+1|k}(x_{k+1}|x_k)$

denoting for simplicity p^* by p_0 .

• $(X_0, \ldots X_{n_s})$ is called the noising process.

 $p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k+1|k}(x_{k+1}|x_k)$

denoting for simplicity p^* by p_0 .

■ Define the marginal associated with *X_k*:

$$p_k(x_k) =$$

- Let us pretend that the distribution of X_{n_s} , p_{n_s} , is approximately ν_0
- Question: starting from a sample Y₀ from p_{ns} ≈ ν₀, can we obtain a sample from μ^{*}?
- Alternative/equivalent question: can we sample from $p_{0:n_s}$ starting from $p_{n_s} \approx \nu_0$?

$$p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k+1|k}(x_{k+1}|x_k)$$

denoting for simplicity p^* by p_0 .

- Define the marginal associated with X_k : p_k .
- Alternative/equivalent question: can we sample from $p_{0:n_s}$ starting from $p_{n_s} \approx \nu_0$?
- Main remark: **?**

$$p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k+1|k}(x_{k+1}|x_k)$$

denoting for simplicity p^* by p_0 .

- Define the marginal associated with X_k : p_k .
- Alternative/equivalent question: can we sample from $p_{0:n_s}$ starting from $p_{n_s} \approx \nu_0$?
- Main remark: **?**
- Idea: sample iteratively $Y_{k+1}|Y_k$ with conditional distribution $X_k|X_{k+1}!$

 $p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k+1|k}(x_{k+1}|x_k)$

denoting for simplicity p^* by p_0 .

Alternative/equivalent question: can we sample from $p_{0:n_s}$ starting from $p_{n_s} \approx \nu_0$?

Main remark: the backward decomposition

 $p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_{n_s}(x_{n_s}) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k|k+1}(x_k|x_{k+1})$

Questions:

• Choice for $\{p_{k+1|k}\}_{k=0}^{n_s-1}$? • Estimation of $\{p_{k|k+1}\}_{k=0}^{n_s-1}$?

- How do we go from the data distribution to the easy-to-sample distribution?
 - Take inspiration from autoregressive process:

$$X_{k+1} = \alpha X_k + \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} Z_{k+1}$$

for $\{Z_k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ i.i.d. N(0, Id) Gaussian and $\alpha < 1$.

- $(X_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} \to \mathrm{N}(0, \mathsf{Id})$ exponentially fast as.
- Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process (continuous counterpart of AR):

$$\mathrm{d}\mathbf{X}_t = -\mathbf{X}_t \mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{2}\mathrm{d}\mathbf{B}_t \; .$$

- **Euler-Maruyama** discretization: $X_{k+1} = (1 \gamma)X_k + \sqrt{2\gamma}Z_{k+1}$, $\gamma > 0$ is the stepsize.
- ► Euler-Maruyama discretization of the Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process converges exponentially fast towards N(0, Id /(1 − γ/2)) if γ < 1.</p>

- Now let us try to invert the forward noising process
- \blacksquare Difficulty comes from the initial distribution μ^{\star}
- If μ^* is Gaussian, $(X_k)_{k=0}^{n_s}$ is a Gaussian vector: $p_{k|k+1}(x_k|x_{k+1})$ is a Gaussian density
- Can we still have a Gaussian approximation?
- \blacksquare Let us try to approximate γ small

$$p_{k|k+1}(x_k|x_{k+1}) = ?$$

Hence, we get that

 $p_{k|k+1}(\cdot|x_{k+1}) \approx N(\cdot; x_{k+1} + \gamma \{x_{k+1} + 2\nabla \log p_k(x_{k+1})\}, 2\gamma \operatorname{Id}).$

The approximation is up to a term of order γ in the exponential.
 Sampling from the backward chain: Y₀ ~ ν₀ = N(0, Id /(1 − γ/2))

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k + \gamma \{Y_k + 2\nabla \log p_k(Y_k)\} + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_{k+1} .$$

• $\nabla \log p_k$ is **untractable**. We are going to approximate this term.

Recall

$$p_k(x_k) = \int p_{0:k-1}(x_{0:k}) \mathrm{dLeb}(x_0 \dots x_{k-1}) \ .$$

- The term $\nabla \log p_k$ is the called the **(Stein) score**.
- Literature on score matching: Hyvärinen (2005); Vincent (2011)
- We have the Fisher identity; see e.g., Efron (2011)

$$abla \log p_k(x_k) = ?$$

Recall

$$p_k(x_k) = \int p_{0:k-1}(x_{0:k}) \mathrm{dLeb}(x_0 \ldots x_{k-1})$$
.

- The term $\nabla \log p_k$ is the called the **(Stein) score**.
- Literature on score matching: Hyvärinen (2005); Vincent (2011)
- We have the Fisher identity; see e.g., Efron (2011)

$$\nabla \log p_k(x_k) =$$

- An intermediate expression:
 - $\nabla \log p_{k|0}(x_k|x_0)$ is tractable (forward transition).
 - ► The **conditional expectation** is not (backward conditional).
- We are going to use the property of the conditional expectation to obtain a loss function.

We have

$$abla \log p_k(X_k) = \mathbb{E}[
abla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)|X_k].$$

Using properties of the conditional expectation we have

$$\nabla \log p_k =$$

• We use the following properties of the **conditional expectation**:

•
$$Y = \mathbb{E}[X | U]$$
 if $Y = f(U)$, with $f = \arg\min\{\mathbb{E}[\|X - f(U)\|^2] : f \in L^2(U)\}$.

Recall that we have

$$abla \log p_k(X_k) = \mathbb{E}[\nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)|X_k].$$

Using the previous property we have

 $\nabla \log p_k = \arg\min\{\mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k) - \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)\|^2] : f \in \mathrm{L}^2(p_k)\} .$

- We obtain a loss function:
 - $\nabla \log p_{k|0}(x_k|x_0)$ is tractable (forward transition).
 - The expectation can be approximated with Monte Carlo (joint distribution).
- Note that this is valid for $k \in \{0, \ldots, n_s 1\}$.

Recall that the loss function is given by

 $\nabla \log p_k = \arg\min\{\mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k) - \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)\|^2] : f \in L^2(p_k)\}.$

This loss function is called the Denoising Score Matching loss.

$$\blacktriangleright \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0) = ?.$$

Recall that the loss function is given by

 $\nabla \log p_k = \arg\min\{\mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k) - \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)\|^2] : f \in L^2(p_k)\}.$

This loss function is called the Denoising Score Matching loss.

$$\blacktriangleright \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0) = ?.$$

• f tries to predict the residual noise from X_k .

Another formulation: the loss satisfies

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k) - \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)\|^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k)\|^2 + 2 \mathrm{div}(f(X_k))] + \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)\|^2] \ . \end{split}$$

We obtain the Implicit Score Matching loss function

$$abla \log p_k = \arg \min \{ \mathbb{E}[1/2 \| f(X_k) \|^2 + \operatorname{div}(f(X_k))] : f \in \mathrm{L}^2(p_k) \} .$$

- Comparison between ISM/DSM:
 - **DSM**: access to $\nabla \log p_{k|0}$.
 - ► ISM: no need of the transition density but computation of a divergence.
 - Approximation with the Hutchinson estimator:

• We choose the **DSM** or **ISM** loss for all $k \in \{1, \ldots, n_s\}$

- $\blacktriangleright \text{ DSM}_k(f) = \mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k) \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)\|^2].$
- $\operatorname{ISM}_k(f) = \mathbb{E}[1/2 \| f(X_k) \|^2 + \operatorname{div}(f(X_k))].$

• Defining the **integrated** loss for $f : \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^p$.

•
$$\ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(f) = \sum_{k=1}^{n_s} \lambda_k \mathrm{DSM}_k(f(k\gamma, \cdot)),$$

•
$$\ell^{\mathrm{ISM}}(f) = \sum_{k=1}^{n_s} \lambda_k \mathrm{ISM}_k(f(k\gamma, \cdot)).$$

- We define a weighting function $\lambda_k \ge 0$.
- Let $\{s_{\theta}\}_{\theta \in \Theta}$ a parametric family of functions such that s_{θ} : $\mathbb{R}_{+} \times \mathbb{R}^{p} \to \mathbb{R}^{p}$.
 - Usually $\{\mathbf{s}_{\theta}\}_{\theta \in \Theta}$ is a family of **neural networks**.
 - We optimize $\ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(\theta) = \ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(\mathbf{s}_{\theta})$ or $\ell^{\mathrm{ISM}}(\theta) = \ell^{\mathrm{ISM}}(\mathbf{s}_{\theta})$.

Recall the goal:

• Sample from $p_{0:n_s}(x_{0:n_s}) = p_{n_s}(x_{n_s}) \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k|k+1}(x_k|x_{k+1})$ (ancestral sampling).

Approximate backward

 $p_{k|k+1}(x_k|x_{k+1}) \approx N(x_k; x_{k+1} + \gamma \{x_{k+1} + 2\nabla \log p_k(x_{k+1})\}, 2\gamma \operatorname{Id}).$

- ► Approximation of the score (DSM or ISM losses).
- Once \mathbf{s}_{θ^*} is learned via DSM or ISM losses, i.e. $\mathbf{s}_{\theta^*}(k, \cdot) \approx \nabla \log p_k$.
- Sampling scheme:
 - $Y_0 \sim N(0, Id)$ (approximate sampling from p_{n_s}).
 - Approximate ancestral sampling

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k + \gamma \{Y_k + 2\mathbf{s}_{\theta^*}(k\gamma, Y_k)\} + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_{k+1} .$$

• Y_{n_s} is approximately distributed according to the **data-distribution**.

- Some remarks:
 - ► Time-reversal can be obtained in **continuous-time**.
 - Original approach relies on annealed Langevin Song and Ermon (2019).
 - ▶ Other approaches Ho et al. (2020); Gao et al. (2020).

Links with annealed Langevin

Failure of the score-estimation

- We now present (one) original approach by Song and Ermon (2019).
- Goal: sampling from the data distribution p^* .
 - Langevin algorithm: $X_{k+1} = X_k + \gamma \nabla \log p^*(X_k) + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_{k+1}$.
 - Estimation of the **Stein score** $\nabla \log p^*$ with ISM

$$abla \log p^* = \arg \min \{ \mathbb{E}[1/2 \| f(X) \|^2 + \operatorname{div}(f(X))] : f \in L^2(p^*) \} .$$

•
$$X \sim p^*$$
.

- Problems:
 - Slow mixing with Langevin algorithm (non-convexity).
 - **Bad score** approximation.

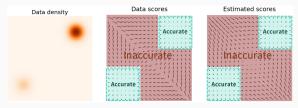


Figure 3: Image extracted from an online tutorial blogpost.

The power of smoothing

- A solution: **smoothing** the density.
 - Spreading the observations lead to better score estimations.
 - Smoothing leads to better landscapes of the potential and faster mixing (removal of spurious minima).
- Problem: we do not target the right density.

$$\blacktriangleright p_{\sigma} = p * N(0, \sigma^2).$$

- We have that $\operatorname{Var}(p_{\sigma}) = \operatorname{Var}(p) + \sigma^2$.
- Trade-off:
 - **Small value** of σ : close to p^* , hard to sample.
 - **Large value** of σ : far from p^* , easy to sample.



Figure 4: Image extracted from an online tutorial blogpost.

The best of both worlds

- The main of idea of Song and Ermon (2019): annealed Langevin dynamics.
 - Starting from a large value of σ_T, sample easily using the Langevin dynamics.
 - Reduce the value of σ_T > σ_{T-1} and warm-start the new Langevin dynamics with the previous samples.
 - Repeat the procedure with σ_0 very small (close to the target density).
 - ► This is an **annealed** procedure.

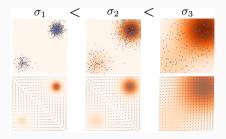


Figure 5: Image extracted from an online tutorial blogpost.

Training algorithm

- Consider $\{\sigma_t\}_{t=1}^{n_s}$ a sequence of increasing variances and set $p_t = p^* * N(0, \sigma_t^2)$.
- Denote by $\{X_t\}_{t=0}^{n_s}$ by $X_0 \sim \mu^*$,

$$X_{t+1} = X_t + (\sigma_{t+1}^2 - \sigma_t^2)^{1/2} Z_{t+1} , \{Z_t\}_{t=1}^{n_s} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{N}(\mathsf{0},\mathsf{Id}) .$$

- We choose the **DSM** or **ISM** loss for all $t \in \{1, \ldots, n_s\}$
 - $\blacktriangleright \text{ DSM}_t(f) = \mathbb{E}[\|f(X_t) \nabla \log p_t(X_t|X_0)\|^2].$
 - $\operatorname{ISM}_t(f) = \mathbb{E}[1/2 \| f(X_t) \|^2 + \operatorname{div}(f(X_t))].$
- Defining the **integrated** loss for $f : \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^p$.

$$\blacktriangleright \ \ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(f) = \sum_{t=1}^{n_s} \lambda_t \mathrm{DSM}_t(f(t\gamma, \cdot)),$$

- $\ell^{\text{ISM}}(f) = \sum_{t=1}^{n_s} \lambda_t \text{ISM}_t(f(t\gamma, \cdot)).$
- We define a weighting function $\lambda_t \geq 0$.
- Let $\{s_{\theta}\}_{\theta \in \Theta}$ a parametric family of functions such that s_{θ} : $\mathbb{R}_{+} \times \mathbb{R}^{p} \to \mathbb{R}^{p}$.
 - Usually $\{\mathbf{s}_{\theta}\}_{\theta\in\Theta}$ is a family of **neural networks**.
 - We optimize $\ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(\theta) = \ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(\mathbf{s}_{\theta})$ or $\ell^{\mathrm{ISM}}(\theta) = \ell^{\mathrm{ISM}}(\mathbf{s}_{\theta})$.

Annealing algorithm

Algorithm 1 Sampling of annealing Langevin dynamics

- 1: Input: $\{\sigma_t\}_{t=1}^{n_s}, \{\gamma\}_{t=1}^{n_s}, K$ 2: Initialize $Y_{n_s}^0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{n_s} \operatorname{Id})$. 3: for $t = n_s$ to 1 do 4: for k = 0 to K - 1 do 5: Sample $Y_t^{k+1} = Y_t^k + \gamma_t \mathbf{s}_{\theta}(\sigma_t, Y_t^k) + \sqrt{2\gamma_t} Z_t^{k+1}$ 6: end for 7: $Y_{t-1}^0 = Y_t^K$ 8: end for
- 9: **Return** Y_0^0 .
 - If K = 1 then it is equivalent to the time-reversal except that:
 - ► $\{\gamma_t\}_{t=1}^{n_s}$ is a priori unrelated to $\{\sigma_t\}_{t=1}^{n_s}$ contrary to the time-reversal approach where we would have $\gamma_t = \gamma$ and $\sigma_t^2 = t\gamma$.
 - Main difference is that the forward process is the discretization of a Brownian motion and not a Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process.
 - ► $X_{k+1} = X_k \gamma X_k + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_{k+1}$ in the Ornstein-Ulhenbeck setting and $X_{k+1} = X_k + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_{k+1}$ in the Brownian case.

Implementation details and tricks

- Originally these models were hard to train Song and Ermon (2019), see also this blogpost.
- In what follows we describe a series of tricks which greatly facilitate the training of these models. These tricks can be found in Song et al. (2020b); Song and Ermon (2020); Nichol and Dhariwal (2021); Ho and Salimans (2021); De Bortoli et al. (2021a).
- We *do not* discuss the **architecture** here.

Ornstein-Ulhenbeck and discretization

Here SGM as the discretization of a OU process:

- Target measure is N(0, Id) (approximately), the data should be centered and reduced.
- **Constant** stepsize discretization is *not* what is done in practice.

In practice we consider a **schedule** on the stepsize:

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k + \gamma_k \{Y_k + 2\mathbf{s}_{\theta}(\sum_{j=0}^k \gamma_j, Y_k)\} + \sqrt{2\gamma_k} Z_{k+1} .$$

• Linear schedule $\gamma_k = \gamma_{\min} + (\gamma_{\max} - \gamma_{\min})(n_s - k)/n_s$

▶ Intuition: we need more stepsizes near the data distribution.

▶ Different schedules Song and Ermon (2019); Ho et al. (2020); Nichol and Dhariwal (2021), ______

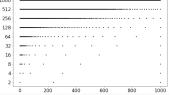


Figure 6: Budget of stepsizes. Image extracted from Watson et al. (2021).

- In practice a weighted version of the DSM loss is used.
 - ▶ Recall that the **DSM** loss is given by $DSM_k(f) = \mathbb{E}[||f(X_k) - \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k|X_0)||^2].$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \ell^{\mathrm{DSM}}(f) = \sum_{k=1}^{n_s} \lambda_k \mathrm{DSM}_k(f(k, \cdot)).$$

- **Intuition**: λ_k function of σ_k to **stabilize** the loss Song et al. (2020b).
- Additional remarks:
 - Changing the discretization schedule is equivalent to do a time-change in the original Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process then a fixed discretization.

Exponential Moving Average

- The training of the network is **unstable**.
- To regularize this we consider an Exponential Moving Average of weights.

$$ar{ heta}_{n+1} = (1-m)ar{ heta}_n + m heta_n \; .$$

- The parameter *m* corresponds to the forgetting of the initial conditions.
- ► The parameters \(\bar{\theta}_K\) are used at sampling times (K is the number of training steps).

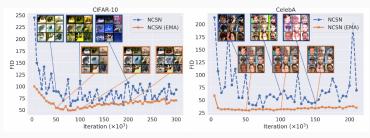


Figure 7: Training instabilities. Image extracted from Song and Ermon (2020).

Recall that we consider the following Euler-Maruyama discretization

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k + \gamma_k \{ Y_k + 2 s_{\theta} (\sum_{j=0}^k \gamma_j, Y_k) \} + \sqrt{2 \gamma_k} Z_{k+1} \; .$$

We can also correct the Euler-Maruyama scheme using the time-reversal property.

- We must have $\mathcal{L}(Y_k) \approx p_k$.
- Hence we go from Y_k to \hat{Y}_{k+1} with the Euler-Maruyama scheme (**predictor**).

• We refine \hat{Y}_{k+1} by running a Langevin chain targeting p_{k+1} (corrector).

$$Y_{k+1}^0 = \hat{Y}_{k+1} , \qquad Y_{k+1}^{\ell+1} = Y_{k+1}^\ell + \delta_{k+1} \mathbf{s}_{\theta} (\sum_{j=0}^{k+1} \gamma_j, Y_{k+1}^\ell) + \sqrt{2\delta_{k+1}} Z_{k+1}^{\ell+1} .$$

▶ $\{\delta_k\}_{k=0}^{n_s}$ is a sequence of stepsizes and we set $Y_{k+1} = Y_{k+1}^L$ $(L \in \mathbb{N})$.

Conditional sampling and classifier-free guidance

- If the data distribution contains classes (like MNIST, CIFAR-10, LSUN, ImageNet or CelebA when classifying by attributes) then we can exploit this extra structure.
- Define a conditional score

 $\mathrm{DSM}_k(f) = \mathbb{E}[\|f(X_k^c, c) - \nabla \log p_{k|0}(X_k^c | X_0^c) \|^2].$

- $c \in \{1, \ldots, C\}$ is the class of the image.
- ▶ Then, we can (approximately) sample from the class *c* by considering $Y_0^c \sim N(0, Id)$

$$Y_{k+1}^{c} = Y_{k}^{c} + \gamma_{k} \{ Y_{k}^{c} + 2 \mathbf{s}_{\theta} (\sum_{j=0}^{k} \gamma_{j}, Y_{k}^{c}, c) \} + \sqrt{2 \gamma_{k}} Z_{k+1} \; .$$



Figure 8: Class conditional generation. Image extracted from Song et al. (2020b).
Other improvements with unconditional guidance Ho and Salimans (2021) or classifier guidance Dhariwal and Nichol (2021).

Other approaches

Until now we have presented two approaches to derive score-based generative models (SGMs) :

- ► A discrete-time **time-reversal** approach.
- An **annealed Langevin** approach.
- The time-reversal approach is now widely used Song et al. (2020b).
- We now present links with other **generative models**:
 - SGMs as variational autoencoders Ho et al. (2020).
- The connection with variational autoencoders allows for:
 - **Extension** to discrete settings
 - Acceleration of the sampling dynamics Watson et al. (2021)

Connections with Variational AutoEncoders

A variational perspective

- We follow the approach of Ho et al. (2020).
- Variational approach offers great flexibility:
 - Optimization of the stepsize Watson et al. (2021).
 - ▶ Learning of the covariance matrix Nichol and Dhariwal (2021).
 - ► Non-Markov dynamics Song et al. (2020a).
- Ho et al. (2020) was the first to propose a discretized
 Ornstein-Ulhenbeck Markov chain as a forward process.



Figure 9: CelebA and CIFAR10 results. Image extracted from Ho et al. (2020).

An Evidence Lower BOund (1/2)

- We start by deriving an ELBO for the score-based generative models. Note that such a derivation was already obtained by Sohl-Dickstein et al. (2015).
- Similar to VAE we maximize the log-likelihood for some well chosen latent Markov model

 $\log(p_0^{\theta}(x_0)) = ?$

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$$\log(p_0^{\theta}(x_0)) =$$

- We now choose the variational distribution $q^{\phi}(x_{1:n_s}|x_0)$:
 - ► We choose a tractable Markovian (Gaussian) decomposition $q^{\phi}(x_{1:n_s}|x_0) = \prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} q_{k+1|k}^{\phi}(x_{k+1}|x_k).$
 - ► Factorization $q^{\phi}(x_{1:n_s}|x_0) = q^{\phi}_{n_s|0}(x_{n_s}|x_0) \prod_{k=1}^{n_s-1} q^{\phi}_{k|k+1,0}(x_k|x_{k+1},x_0).$
 - Tractability of $q_{k|k+1,0}^{\phi}$.
- Here, we consider

$$q_{k+1|k}^{\phi}(x_{k+1}|x_k) = N(x_{k+1}; (1-\gamma)x_k, 2\gamma \operatorname{\mathsf{Id}}).$$

■ In Ho et al. (2020): auto-regressive process

• Recall that we have $\log(p_0^{\theta}(x_0)) \geq \mathcal{L}$ with

 $\mathcal{L} = \int_{(\mathbb{R}^p)^{n_s}} \log(\prod_{k=0}^{n_s-1} p_{k|k+1}^{\theta}(x_k|x_{k+1}) p_{n_s}^{\theta}(x_{n_s})/q^{\phi}(x_{1:n_s}|x_0)) q^{\phi}(x_{1:n_s}|x_0) \mathrm{d}x_{1:n_s} \ .$

• We use the **backward decomposition** of $q^{\phi}(x_{1:n_s}|x_0)$ and we get

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{n_s} + \sum_{k=1}^{n_s-1} \mathcal{L}_k + \mathcal{L}_0 \;,$$

with:

$$\blacktriangleright \mathcal{L}_{n_s} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^p} \log(p_{n_s}^{\theta}(x_{n_s})/q_{n_s|0}^{\phi}(x_{n_s}|x_0))q_{n_s|0}^{\phi}(x_{n_s}|x_0) \mathrm{d}x_{n_s}.$$

•
$$\mathcal{L}_k = \int_{\mathbb{R}^p} \log(p_{k|k+1}^{\theta}(x_k|x_{k+1})/q_{k|k+1,0}^{\phi}(x_k|x_{k+1},x_0))q_{k,k+1|0}^{\phi}(x_k,x_{k+1}|x_0)dx_k.$$

• $\mathcal{L}_0 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^p} \log(p_{0|1}^{\theta}(x_0|x_1)) q_{1|0}^{\phi}(x_1|x_0) \mathrm{d}x_1.$

The different terms:

- \mathcal{L}_{n_s} does not depend on θ if we choose $p_{n_s}^{\theta} = N(0, Id)$.
- \mathcal{L}_k is related to score-matching.
- \blacktriangleright \mathcal{L}_0 is more complicated and will be dealt with later.

The backward $q_{k|k+1,0}^{\phi}$ (1/2)

- To compute \mathcal{L}_k we need to compute $q_{k|k+1,0}^{\phi}$.
- We know that q^{\phi}_{k|k+1,0} is Gaussian with diagonal covariance and just need to compute its parameter.

•
$$q_{k|0}^{\phi} = \mathcal{N}(\alpha_k x_0, \sigma_k \operatorname{Id}) \text{ and } q_{k+1|k}^{\phi} = \mathcal{N}(\alpha_{k+1|k}, \sigma_{k+1|k} \operatorname{Id}).$$

Computing the parameters:

We have that

$$q_{k|k+1,0}^{\phi}(x_k|x_{k+1},x_0) = q_{k+1|k}^{\phi}(x_{k+1}|x_k)q_{k|0}^{\phi}(x_k|x_0)/q_{k+1|0}^{\phi}(x_{k+1}|x_0) \ .$$

- We can discard the denominator (normalizing constant).
- We can focus on $\log(q_{k+1|k}^{\phi}(x_{k+1}|x_k)q_{k|0}^{\phi}(x_k|x_0)).$

The backward $q_{k|k+1,0}^{\phi}$ (2/2)

We have that

$$\begin{split} &-2\log(q^{\phi}_{k+1|k}(x_{k+1}|x_k)q^{\phi}_{k|0}(x_k|x_0))\\ &=\|x_k-A_{k|k+1}x_{k+1}+B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{k+1}\|^2/(2\sigma^2_{k|k+1})+D\;. \end{split}$$

where

$$\hat{z}_{k+1} = (x_{k+1} - x_0)/\sigma_{k+1}$$
.

■ Therefore, we choose the family

$$-\log(p_{k|k+1}^{\theta}(x_k|x_{k+1})) = \|x_k - A_{k|k+1}x_{k+1} + B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(x_{k+1})\|^2/(2\sigma_{k|k+1}^2) + E .$$

• *E* is a constant, $\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(x_{k+1})$ is a function of x_{k+1} (estimator of the noise).

Sampling from the model

- How to train and sample the model?
- Recall that we have set

 $-\log(p_{k|k+1}^{\theta}(x_{k}|x_{k+1})) = ||x_{k} - A_{k|k+1}x_{k+1} + B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(x_{k+1})||^{2}/(2\sigma_{k|k+1}^{2}) + E$

- Recall that $p_{n_s}^{\theta} = N(0, Id)$. To sample from the model:
 - We sample $Y_0 \sim N(0, \mathsf{Id})$
 - We consider the backward update

$$Y_{k+1} = A_{k|k+1}Y_k - B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(Y_k) + \sigma_{k|k+1}Z_{k+1}.$$

To train the model (without the therm $\mathcal{L}_{1|0}$):

• Minimize $\sum_{k=1}^{n_s} \mathcal{L}_k(\theta)$, with

$$-\mathcal{L}_{k}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[\|Y_{k+1} - A_{k|k+1}Y_{k} + B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(Y_{k})\|^{2}]/(2\sigma_{k|k+1}^{2}).$$

- The model is already similar to SGM:
 - ▶ We sample from N(0, Id) and use **ancestral sampling**.
 - We train part of the **drift term**.
- The analogy becomes even stronger when considering **Taylor expansion** of $A_{k|k+1}$, $B_{k|k+1}$ and $\sigma_{k|k+1}$:

$$\blacktriangleright A_{k|k+1} = 1 + \gamma + o(\gamma).$$

$$\blacktriangleright B_{k|k+1} = 2\gamma + o(\gamma).$$

•
$$\sigma_{k|k+1}^2 = 2\gamma + o(\gamma).$$

Hence

$$Y_{k+1} = A_{k|k+1}Y_k - B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(Y_k) + \sigma_{k|k+1}Z_{k+1} ,$$

becomes (up to the first order)

$$Y_{k+1} = (1+\gamma)Y_k - 2\gamma \hat{z}_{ heta,k+1}(Y_k) + \sqrt{2\gamma}Z_{k+1} \; .$$

• We can identify this recursion with the one of SGM if $\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1} \approx -\nabla \log p_{k+1}^{\theta}$, i.e., the neural network approximates the score.

Taylor expansion and comparison with SGM (2/2)

- We want to show that $\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1} \approx -\nabla \log p_{k+1}^{\theta}$, i.e. the neural network approximates the score.
- Recall that we minimize the sum of the following loss functions

$$-\mathcal{L}_k(heta) = \mathbb{E}[\|Y_{k+1} - A_{k|k+1}Y_k + B_{k|k+1}\hat{z}_{ heta,k+1}(Y_k)\|^2]/(2\sigma_{k|k+1}^2) \;.$$

Up to the first order we get that

$$-\mathcal{L}_k(heta) = \mathbb{E}[\|Y_{k+1} - (1+\gamma)Y_k + 2\gamma \hat{z}_{ heta,k+1}(Y_k)\|^2]/(2\gamma) \;.$$

- But we have $(1 + \gamma)X_{k+1} = (1 \gamma^2)X_k + \sqrt{2\gamma}(1 + \gamma)Z_{k+1}$ and therefore $(1 + \gamma)Y_k = (1 \gamma^2)Y_{k+1} + \sqrt{2\gamma}(1 + \gamma)Z_{n_s-k}$.
- Hence, up to the first order we get that

$$-\mathcal{L}_{k}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[\|\sqrt{2\gamma}Z_{n_{s}-k} + 2\gamma\hat{z}_{\theta,k+1}(Y_{k+1})\|^{2}]/(2\gamma) ,$$

This is exactly the **Denoising Score Matching** loss (up to a minus term) times λ_k (the weighting function appearing score-based models being fixed to $\lambda_k = 2\gamma$).

The term \mathcal{L}_0

- The previous recursion is valid up to k = 1.
- p_{θ} is an **independent decoder** on the pixel of the image.
- We assume that $x_0 \in [-1,1]^d$

$$p_{ heta}(x_0|x_1) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \int_{a(x_0^i)}^{b(x_0^i)} \exp[-\|x - \mu_{ heta}(x_1)\|^2 / \sigma_1^2] / (2\pi\sigma_1^2)^p \mathrm{d}x \; .$$

- a(t) = t + 1/255 if t < 1 and $+\infty$ otherwise.
- b(t) = t 1/255 if t > -1 and $-\infty$ otherwise.
- We could also have chosen the classical (non-discrete) decoding Gaussian of the VAE.



Figure 10: CelebA results. Image extracted from Ho et al. (2020).

Continuous diffusion models

Recall that in classical diffusion models, the forward dynamics is given by the following Markov chain

$$X_{k+1} = X_k - \gamma X_k + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_{k+1} .$$

This is the Euler-Maruyama discretization of the Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process.

$$\mathrm{d}\mathbf{X}_t = -\mathbf{X}_t \mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{2} \mathrm{d}\mathbf{B}_t \; .$$

- In discrete time we consider the ancestral sampling of the discretized Ornstein-Ulhenbeck.
- In the continuous-time setting we need to compute the time-reversal of the Ornstein-Ulhenbeck.
 - ► More precisely: does (Y_t)_{t∈[0,T]} = (X_{T-t})_{t∈[0,T]} also satisfies a Stochastic Differential Equation (SDE)?

■ The answer is *yes* under conditions and (Y_t)_{t∈[0,T]} is a (weak) solution of the following SDE

$$\mathrm{d}\mathbf{Y}_t = \{\mathbf{Y}_t + 2\nabla \log p_{\mathcal{T}-t}(\mathbf{Y}_t)\}\mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{2}\mathrm{d}\mathbf{B}_t \;.$$

- Note that for any t ∈ [0, T], pt is the density of L(Xt) w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure, where we recall that (Xt)t∈[0,T] is the forward noising process, here a Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process.
- A few remarks:
 - First found in Anderson (1982); Haussmann and Pardoux (1986).
 - ▶ The time-reversal formula is valid for more complicated diffusions.

Recall that in the discrete-time setting we have

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k + \gamma \{Y_k + 2\mathbf{s}_{ heta^\star}(\gamma(n_s - k), Y_k)\} + \sqrt{2\gamma}Z_{k+1}$$
.

■ In the continuous-time setting we have

$$\mathrm{d}\mathbf{Y}_t = \{\mathbf{Y}_t + 2\nabla \log p_{T-t}(\mathbf{Y}_t)\}\mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{2}\mathrm{d}\mathbf{B}_t \; .$$

- There is a clear link between the two formulations with Euler-Maruyama discretization.
- Note that $\mathbf{s}_{\theta^{\star}}(\gamma(n_s k), \cdot)$ is supposed to be close to $p_{n_s k}$, the density of $X_{n_s k}$.
- p_{T-t} is the density of X_{T-t} but these two densities are close if the stepsize is small.
- In practice the **Stein score** is approximated using **score-matching**.
 - **DSM** and **ISM** losses can be defined in continuous-time.
 - Continuous losses can be used in practice because we can exactly sample from the Ornstein-Ulhenbeck process.

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