

Lecture 03 - Score-Based Perspective: From EBMs to NCSN

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Introduction: From Likelihood to Score

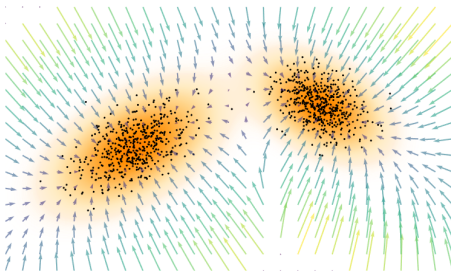
- **Recap:** In VAEs, we optimized the *Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)* to approximate the likelihood.
- **Energy-Based Models (EBMs):** [Ackley et al., 1985, LeCun et al., 2006] Define the probability density using an **energy function** $E_\theta(x)$:

$$p_\theta(x) = \frac{e^{-E_\theta(x)}}{Z_\theta}, \quad \text{where } Z_\theta = \int e^{-E_\theta(x)} dx$$

- **The Challenge:** Computing the Z_θ is generally **intractable**.
- **Key Insight (The Score):** The gradient of the log-density (the **Score**) is independent of Z_θ :

$$\nabla_x \log p_\theta(x) = -\nabla_x E_\theta(x) - \underbrace{\nabla_x \log Z_\theta}_{=0} = -\nabla_x E_\theta(x)$$

Introduction: Score-Based Generation



The score function $\nabla_x \log p(x)$ defines a vector field pointing toward high-density data regions.

- **Langevin Dynamics:** Generate samples by starting from random noise and following the score vectors toward the data manifold.
- **From EBM to NCSN:**
 - Scores are ill-defined in low-density regions (where no data exists).
 - Perturb data with multiple noise levels for robust, progressive denoising.

EBMs: Definition and Formalism

- EBMs define a probability density $p_\phi(\mathbf{x})$ using an **energy function** $E_\phi(\mathbf{x})$.
- The energy function is parameterized by ϕ , and assigns **lower energy** to more likely data configurations.

The Boltzmann Distribution

The resulting distribution is a form of the Gibbs/Boltzmann distribution:

$$p_\phi(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{\exp(-E_\phi(\mathbf{x}))}{Z_\phi}$$

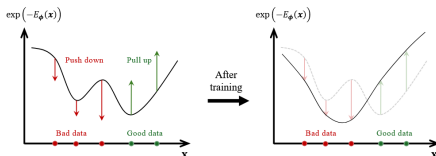
where Z_ϕ is the **partition function** ensuring normalization:

$$Z_\phi := \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} \exp(-E_\phi(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

- $\int_{\mathbb{R}^D} p_\phi(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = 1.$

EBMs: Energy Landscape and Global Trade-offs

- **Intuition:** The data points lie in the **valleys** of the energy landscape, much like a ball rolling down to equilibrium.
- **Relative Energy:** Only the relative energy values matter; adding a constant to all energies does not change the distribution $p_{\phi}(x)$.



EBM training lowers energy (pushes down) at good data and raises energy (pulls up) at bad data. This enforces a strict global trade-off.

- **Global Trade-off:** Decreasing the energy in one region must lead to a **decrease** in probability elsewhere, as the total mass must sum to one.

Challenges of Maximum Likelihood Training

- In principle, EBMs can be trained by maximizing the log-likelihood:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MLE}}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})} [\log p_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})]$$

Decomposition and Intractability

The MLE objective is decomposed as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MLE}}(\phi) = \underbrace{-\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}}[E_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})]}_{\text{1. Lowers Energy of Data}} - \underbrace{\log Z_{\phi}}_{\text{2. Global Regularization}}$$

The gradient of $\log Z_{\phi}$ is $\mathbb{E}_{p_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})}[-\nabla_{\phi} E_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})]$.

- **The Problem:** Computing $\log Z_{\phi}$ and its gradient is **intractable** in high dimensions, requires sampling from the complex distribution $p_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$.
- **Motivation:** **Avoid** the partition function entirely.

The Score Function: Definition and Intuition

- **Definition:** For a probability density $p(\mathbf{x})$ on \mathbb{R}^D , the **score function** is defined as the gradient of the log-density:

$$\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{x}) := \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{s} : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$$

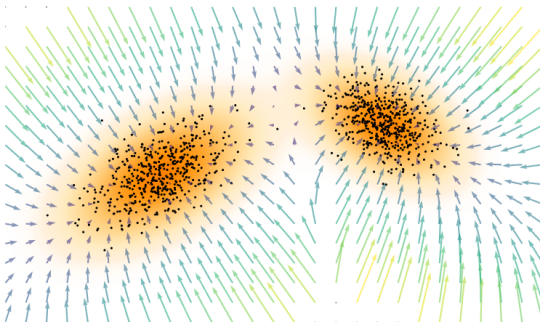


Illustration of score vector fields. The vectors $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p(\mathbf{x})$ point toward regions of increasing density (the mode), providing a local guide.

Why Model Scores? 1. Freedom from Normalization

- **The EBM Bottleneck:** Many distributions (like EBMs) are defined up to an unnormalized density $\tilde{p}(x) = \exp(-E_\phi(x))$:

$$p(x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z}, \quad \text{where } Z = \int \tilde{p}(x) dx$$

- **The Score Advantage:** The score is independent of Z :

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_x \log p(x) &= \nabla_x \log \left(\frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z} \right) \\ &= \nabla_x \log \tilde{p}(x) - \underbrace{\nabla_x \log Z}_{=0 \text{ (constant w.r.t } x)}} \end{aligned}$$

- **Key Takeaway:** We can train score-based models without ever evaluating the partition function Z .

Why Model Scores? 2. A Complete Representation

- Does modeling the gradient lose information compared to modeling the density? **No.**
- **A Complete Representation:** The score function fully characterizes the underlying distribution. The density can be recovered (up to a constant) via integration:

$$\log p(x) = \log p(x_0) + \int_0^1 s(x_0 + t(x - x_0))^{\top} (x - x_0) dt$$

- **Implication:** Modeling the score is as expressive as modeling $p(x)$ itself, but often computationally more tractable for generative tasks.

Score Matching: The Objective

- **Recap:** Max Likelihood estimation for EBMs is intractable due to the partition function Z_ϕ .
- **Key Observation:** The model score is independent of Z_ϕ :

$$s_\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_\phi(\mathbf{x}) = -\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} E_\phi(\mathbf{x})$$

Explicit Score Matching Objective [Hyvärinen and Dayan, 2005]

Instead of fitting probabilities, we align the model score with the data score by minimizing the Fisher Divergence:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})} \left[\left\| \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_\phi(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}) \right\|_2^2 \right]$$

- **The Problem:** The data score $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})$ is unknown and inaccessible.

Implicit Score Matching

- **The Solution:** Using [integration by parts](#), we can rewrite the objective to eliminate the unknown data score.
- This yields an equivalent expression dependent only on the energy function and its derivatives.

Implicit Score Matching Loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})} \left[\underbrace{\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 E_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}))}_{\text{Hessian Trace}} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\|\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} E_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2}_{\text{Squared Gradient}} \right] + C$$

where $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 E_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$ is the Hessian of E_{ϕ} and C is a constant independent of ϕ .

- **Implication:** Can train EBMs effectively using only samples from p_{data} !

Analysis

- Advantages:

- No Partition Function:** Z_ϕ is completely eliminated.
- No MCMC Sampling:** Unlike Contrastive Divergence, we do not need to sample from the model $p_\phi(x)$ during training.

- Limitations:

- Computational Cost:** The objective requires computing the trace of the Hessian matrix $\text{Tr}(\nabla_x^2 E_\phi(x))$.
- For high-dimensional data (e.g., images), calculating second-order derivatives is computationally prohibitive (scaling with D^2 or requiring multiple backward passes).

Outlook: We will address this scalability issue using *Denoising Score Matching* and *Sliced Score Matching* later.

Discrete-Time Langevin Dynamics

- **Objective:** Sample from an unnormalized density $p_\phi(\mathbf{x}) \propto e^{-E_\phi(\mathbf{x})}$.
- **Mechanism:** Langevin dynamics defines an iterative stochastic process that evolves a random initialization \mathbf{x}_0 over time.

The Energy-Based Update Rule

Given a step size $\eta > 0$ and Gaussian noise $\epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$:

$$\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_n - \underbrace{\eta \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} E_\phi(\mathbf{x}_n)}_{\text{Gradient Descent}} + \underbrace{\sqrt{2\eta} \epsilon_n}_{\text{Brownian Motion}}$$

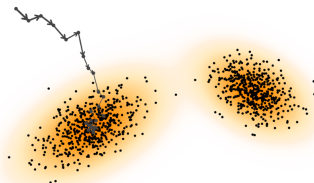
- The **Gradient** pushes the sample "downhill" toward low-energy (stable) states.
- The **Noise** prevents the sample from getting trapped in local minima.
- The factor $\sqrt{2}$ is to ensure the stationary distribution is exactly $p_\phi(\mathbf{x})$.

Discrete-Time Langevin Dynamics

- **Connecting to Scores:** $\nabla_x \log p_\phi(x) = -\nabla_x E_\phi(x)$.

The Score-Based Update Rule

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \eta \underbrace{\nabla_x \log p_\phi(x_n)}_{\text{Guides to High Density}} + \sqrt{2\eta} \epsilon_n$$



The score field guides the noisy trajectory toward the data manifold.

Continuous-Time Langevin SDE

- As the step size $\eta \rightarrow 0$, the discrete update converges to a [Stochastic Differential Equation \(SDE\)](#).

Langevin SDE

$$dx(t) = \nabla_x \log p_\phi(x(t))dt + \sqrt{2}dw(t)$$

where $w(t)$ is a standard Brownian motion.

- Stationarity:** Under standard regularity conditions, the distribution of $x(t)$ converges to $p_\phi(x)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- The discrete update is essentially the *Euler-Maruyama discretization* of this SDE.

Physical Intuition: Escaping Local Minima

- **Deterministic Gradient Descent (ODE):**

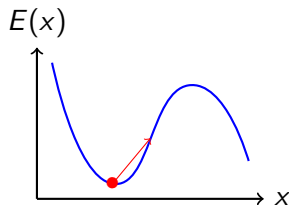
$$dx = -\nabla E(x)dt$$

Particles roll downhill and get trapped in the nearest local minimum.

- **Langevin Dynamics (SDE):**

$$dx = -\nabla E(x)dt + \sqrt{2}dw$$

The injected noise allows particles to **escape local minima** by crossing energy barriers.



Inherent Challenges: Mixing Time

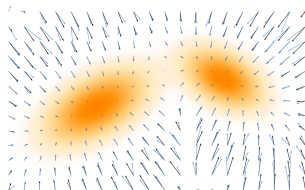
- While theoretically sound, Langevin dynamics faces serious practical limitations in high dimensions.
- **The Mixing Problem:**
 - Real data distributions have **isolated modes** (distant valleys in the energy landscape).
 - To jump between modes, the noise must be large enough to cross barriers, but small enough to remain accurate.
 - In high dimensions, the empty space between modes is vast, leading to **prohibitively slow convergence**.
- **Conclusion:** Standard Langevin dynamics struggles to explore the full diversity of the data distribution efficiently.
- **Solution:** This motivates the use of **multiple noise levels** (NCSN), which we discuss next.

Score Matching: The Objective

- **Goal:** Approximate the true data score $s(x) = \nabla_x \log p_{\text{data}}(x)$ using a neural network $s_\phi(x)$.
- **Loss Function:** Minimize the MSE between the model and the score:

Explicit Score Matching Objective

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) := \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} [\|s_\phi(x) - s(x)\|_2^2] \quad (3.2.1)$$



The neural network $s_\phi(x)$ is trained to match the ground truth vector field.

Hyvärinen's Tractable Form

- Rewrite the objective to depend only on the model s_ϕ and data samples.

Theorem 1 (Tractable Score Matching)

The score matching objective is equivalent to:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) = \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) + C \quad (3.1)$$

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) := \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})} \left[\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} s_\phi(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{1}{2} \|s_\phi(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2 \right] \quad (3.2.2)$$

and C is a constant independent of ϕ .

- This eliminates the need for the true score $s(\mathbf{x})$.
- **Note:** $\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} s_\phi(\mathbf{x}))$ involves the Jacobian of the score network.

Proof of Proposition 3.2.1 (Part I)

Step 1: Expand the MSE.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\|s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2 - 2\langle s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), s(\mathbf{x}) \rangle + \|s(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2] \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\|s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2]}_{\text{computable}} - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\langle s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), s(\mathbf{x}) \rangle]}_{\text{cross-term}} + \underbrace{C}_{\text{constant}}\end{aligned}$$

Step 2: Analyze the Cross-Term. Using $s(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\langle s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), s(\mathbf{x}) \rangle] &= \int s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \frac{\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})} p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^D \int s_{\phi}^{(i)}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} d\mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

Proof of Proposition 3.2.1 (Part II)

Step 3: Integration by Parts. Recall the formula for differentiable functions u, v vanishing at boundaries:

$$\int u(x) \frac{\partial v(x)}{\partial x_i} dx = - \int v(x) \frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_i} dx$$

Setting $u = s_\phi^{(i)}(x)$ and $v = p_{\text{data}}(x)$:

$$\int s_\phi^{(i)}(x) \partial_{x_i} p_{\text{data}}(x) dx = - \int p_{\text{data}}(x) \partial_{x_i} s_\phi^{(i)}(x) dx = -\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} \left[\frac{\partial s_\phi^{(i)}(x)}{\partial x_i} \right]$$

Summing over all $i = 1 \dots D$:

$$\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\langle s_\phi, s \rangle] = -\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^D \partial_{x_i} s_\phi^{(i)} \right] = -\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\text{Tr}(\nabla_x s_\phi(x))]$$

Intuition: Shaping the Landscape

The loss $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\text{SM}}(\phi)$ has two competing terms:

$$\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} \left[\underbrace{\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}))}_{\text{Divergence}} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\|s_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2}_{\text{Magnitude}} \right]$$

① **Magnitude Term** ($\|s_{\phi}\|^2$):

- Forces the score to be **zero** (stationary) in regions where data density p_{data} is high.

② **Divergence Term** ($\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} s_{\phi})$):

- Encourages **negative divergence** (sink) at these high-density regions.
- Vectors point *inward* towards the data, making the stationary points stable attractors.

Result: Data points become stable "sinks" in the vector field.

Sampling with the Learned Score

- Once the score network $s_{\phi^*}(x)$ is trained (by minimizing Eq. 3.2.2), we use it to replace the unknown oracle score.
- Sampling Algorithm:** Initialize x_0 from a prior (e.g., Gaussian) and iterate:

Discrete Langevin Sampling

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \eta s_{\phi^*}(x_n) + \sqrt{2\eta} \epsilon_n, \quad \epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I) \quad (3.2.3)$$

- This allows us to generate data samples solely using the learned vector field, without ever normalizing a probability density.

Continuous Connection and Stability

- **SDE Limit:** As $\eta \rightarrow 0$, the discrete update becomes the **Euler Maruyama discretization** of the continuous Langevin SDE:

$$dx(t) = s_{\phi^*}(x(t))dt + \sqrt{2}dw(t)$$

Technical Remark: Trace vs. Definiteness

The training objective minimizes $\text{Tr}(\nabla_x s_{\phi})$.

- A negative trace implies the *sum* of eigenvalues is negative.
- It does **not** guarantee that *all* eigenvalues are negative (which is required for a strict local maximum).
- **Implication:** The dynamics might stabilize at **saddle points** rather than true peaks, though stochastic noise helps escape these.

Prologue: The Rise of Score-Based Models

- **A Shift in Perspective:**
 - Initially, the score function was just a "trick" to train Energy-Based Models (EBMs) without calculating partition functions.
 - It has evolved into the central component of modern **Diffusion Models**.
- **The Core Paradigm:**
 - Instead of modeling the density $p(x)$ directly, we model the **vector field** $\nabla_x \log p(x)$.
 - This offers a principled framework for data generation via **Stochastic Differential Equations (SDEs)**.
- **Coming Up:**
 - We will now explore **Denoising Score Matching** and **NCSN**, which solve the practical scalability issues of the methods discussed so far.

The Computational Bottleneck

- **Recap:** The tractable objective (Eq. 3.2.2) eliminated the true score but introduced a new problem:

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\text{SM}}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} \left[\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{s}_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{s}_{\phi}(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2 \right]$$

The Complexity Issue

- Computing $\text{Tr}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{s}_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}))$ requires the Jacobian of the output with respect to the input.
- For high-dimensional data (e.g., dimension D), this scales with $O(D^2)$.
- This requires determining D backward passes, which is computationally prohibitive for deep networks.

A Partial Solution: Sliced Score Matching

- **Idea:** Replace the expensive Trace calculation with a stochastic estimate using [random projections](#) [Song et al., 2020].
- **Hutchinson's Estimator:** For a random vector $u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$:

$$\text{Tr}(A) = \mathbb{E}_u[u^\top A u]$$

Sliced Score Matching Objective

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SSM}}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{x,u} \left[u^\top (\nabla_x s_\phi(x)) u + \frac{1}{2} (u^\top s_\phi(x))^2 \right]$$

- **Benefit:** The term $u^\top (\nabla_x s_\phi) u$ can be computed via *Jacobian-Vector Products (JVP)*, which is efficient in auto-diff libraries (scaling with $O(D)$).

From Sliced to Denoising Score Matching

- Sliced SM solves the computation speed, but fundamental theoretical issues remain.

The Manifold Hypothesis

- Real-world data (like images) typically lies on a **low-dimensional manifold** embedded in high-dimensional space.
- **Problem:** The score $\nabla_x \log p_{\text{data}}(x)$ is undefined or unstable when x is not on the manifold.
- **Consequence:** Score matching only constrains the model on the data points. The score field in the ambient space (where we start sampling noise) remains undefined.
- **Solution:** **Denoising Score Matching (DSM)** [Vincent, 2011].
 - By adding noise to the data, we "fill" the ambient space, making the score defined everywhere.

Overcoming Intractability via Conditioning

- **The Problem:** Explicit Score Matching requires the data score $\nabla_x \log p_{\text{data}}(x)$, which is unknown.
- **Vincent's Solution (2011):** Inject noise into the data $x \sim p_{\text{data}}$ using a known conditional distribution $p_\sigma(\tilde{x}|x)$.

The Goal

Train a network $s_\phi(\tilde{x}; \sigma)$ to approximate the score of the **perturbed marginal distribution**:

$$p_\sigma(\tilde{x}) = \int p_\sigma(\tilde{x}|x) p_{\text{data}}(x) dx$$

- **The Intractable Objective (L_{SM}):** Trying to match the marginal score directly is still hard:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi; \sigma) := \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x} \sim p_\sigma} [\|s_\phi(\tilde{x}; \sigma) - \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_\sigma(\tilde{x})\|_2^2]$$

The Denoising Score Matching (DSM) Objective

- While $\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})$ is intractable, the **conditional score** $\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x)$ is known (since we define the noise model).

DSM Loss [Vincent, 2011]

Conditioning on x yields a tractable equivalent objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DSM}}(\phi; \sigma) := \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}, \tilde{x} \sim p_{\sigma}(\cdot|x)} [\|s_{\phi}(\tilde{x}; \sigma) - \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x)\|_2^2] \quad (3.3.2)$$

Insight: The Conditioning Technique

This mirrors the variational view in DDPM (Theorem 2.2.1). Conditioning on a clean data point x turns an intractable marginal loss into a tractable conditional one.

Equivalence of Objectives

Theorem 2 (Equivalence of LSM and LDSM)

For any fixed noise scale $\sigma > 0$,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}(\phi; \sigma) = \mathcal{L}_{\text{DSM}}(\phi; \sigma) + C \quad (3.3.3)$$

where C is a constant independent of ϕ . Furthermore, the minimizer s^* satisfies $s^*(\tilde{x}; \sigma) = \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})$ almost everywhere.

Significance: Minimizing the tractable DSM loss (Eq 3.3.2) yields the optimal score for the marginal distribution $p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})$, which is exactly what we need for generation.

Proof of Equivalence

Sketch: We expand the squared norms in both objectives.

- focus on the cross-terms dependent on ϕ :

1. In \mathcal{L}_{SM} : $\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x} \sim p_{\sigma}} [\langle s_{\phi}, \nabla \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) \rangle] = \int s_{\phi}(\tilde{x})^{\top} \nabla p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) d\tilde{x}$

2. In \mathcal{L}_{DSM} :

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x} \sim p_{\sigma}(\cdot|x)} [\langle s_{\phi}, \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) \rangle] \\
 &= \int p_{\text{data}}(x) \int p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) s_{\phi}(\tilde{x})^{\top} \frac{\nabla_{\tilde{x}} p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x)}{p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x)} d\tilde{x} dx \\
 &= \int s_{\phi}(\tilde{x})^{\top} \left(\int p_{\text{data}}(x) \nabla_{\tilde{x}} p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) dx \right) d\tilde{x} \\
 &= \int s_{\phi}(\tilde{x})^{\top} \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \left(\int p_{\text{data}}(x) p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) dx \right) d\tilde{x} = \int s_{\phi}(\tilde{x})^{\top} \nabla p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) d\tilde{x}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since the gradient terms match, the objectives differ only by a constant C .

Special Case: Additive Gaussian Noise

Consider perturbing data with: $\tilde{x} = x + \sigma\epsilon$, where $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$.

$$p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) = \mathcal{N}(\tilde{x}; x, \sigma^2 I)$$

$$\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) = \frac{x - \tilde{x}}{\sigma^2} = \frac{-\sigma\epsilon}{\sigma^2} = -\frac{\epsilon}{\sigma}$$

Gaussian DSM Loss

Substituting this into Eq (3.3.2):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DSM}}(\phi; \sigma) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x, \epsilon} \left[\left\| s_{\phi}(x + \sigma\epsilon; \sigma) + \frac{\epsilon}{\sigma} \right\|_2^2 \right] \quad (3.3.4)$$

- This is a simple regression problem!
- For small σ , $\nabla \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) \approx \nabla \log p_{\text{data}}(x)$.

Sampling with DSM

- Once trained, we have a score model $s_{\phi^*}(\tilde{x}; \sigma)$ that approximates $\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})$.
- We generate samples using Langevin dynamics by plugging in this learned score.

Langevin Update for DSM

For a fixed noise level σ (assumed small) and step size η :

$$\tilde{x}_{n+1} = \tilde{x}_n + \eta \underbrace{s_{\phi^*}(\tilde{x}_n; \sigma)}_{\approx \nabla \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}_n)} + \sqrt{2\eta} \epsilon_n, \quad \epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I) \quad (3.3.5)$$

- If σ is sufficiently small, $p_{\sigma} \approx p_{\text{data}}$, so samples approximate the real data distribution.

Why Inject Noise? Two Key Advantages

Compared to vanilla score matching, defining the target on p_σ (the perturbed distribution) solves two major problems [Song and Ermon, 2019]:

1 Well-Defined Gradients (Manifold Hypothesis):

- Data often lies on a low-dimensional manifold. The score is undefined off-manifold.
- Gaussian noise "fills" the ambient space, ensuring p_σ has **full support** on \mathbb{R}^D .
- **Result:** The score $\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_\sigma(\tilde{x})$ is defined everywhere.

2 Improved Coverage (Mixing):

- Without noise, regions between data modes have near-zero density (vanishing gradients).
- Noise "bridges" these gaps, allowing Langevin dynamics to traverse low-density regions and mix between modes effectively.

Tweedie's Formula: The Link to Denoising

- How does learning a gradient (score) relate to removing noise?
- **Tweedie's Formula** [Efron, 2011] provides the answer: the score of the marginal distribution implicitly points to the clean data mean.

Lemma 3 (Tweedie's Formula)

Assume $x \sim p_{\text{data}}$ and $\tilde{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\cdot; \alpha x, \sigma^2 I)$ with $\alpha \neq 0$. Then:

$$\alpha \mathbb{E}[x \mid \tilde{x}] = \tilde{x} + \sigma^2 \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) \quad (3.3.6)$$

where the expectation is over the posterior $p(x \mid \tilde{x})$.

- **Insight:** The expected clean signal is obtained by nudging the noisy observation \tilde{x} in the direction of the score.

Proof of Tweedie's Formula (Part I)

Step 1: Expand the Score of the Marginal. $p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) = \int p(\tilde{x}|x)p_{\text{data}}(x)dx.$

$$\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\nabla_{\tilde{x}} p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})}{p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})} = \frac{1}{p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})} \int \nabla_{\tilde{x}} p(\tilde{x}|x) p_{\text{data}}(x) dx$$

Step 2: Compute the Gradient of the Likelihood.

$$p(\tilde{x}|x) = \mathcal{N}(\tilde{x}; \alpha x, \sigma^2 I) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\|\tilde{x} - \alpha x\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\tilde{x}} p(\tilde{x}|x) &= p(\tilde{x}|x) \cdot \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \left(-\frac{\|\tilde{x} - \alpha x\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\ &= p(\tilde{x}|x) \cdot \left(-\frac{(\tilde{x} - \alpha x)}{\sigma^2}\right) = \frac{\alpha x - \tilde{x}}{\sigma^2} p(\tilde{x}|x) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Tweedie's Formula (Part II)

Step 3: Substitute and Identify the Posterior.

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) &= \frac{1}{p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})} \int \frac{(\alpha x - \tilde{x})}{\sigma^2} p(\tilde{x}|x) p_{\text{data}}(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \int (\alpha x - \tilde{x}) \underbrace{\frac{p(\tilde{x}|x) p_{\text{data}}(x)}{p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})}}_{\text{Bayes' Rule: } p(x|\tilde{x})} dx\end{aligned}$$

Step 4: Separate Terms.

$$\sigma^2 \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) = \underbrace{\int \alpha x p(x|\tilde{x}) dx}_{\alpha \mathbb{E}[x|\tilde{x}]} - \tilde{x} \underbrace{\int p(x|\tilde{x}) dx}_{=1 \text{ (Normalization)}}$$

$$\alpha \mathbb{E}[x | \tilde{x}] = \tilde{x} + \sigma^2 \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x})$$

Interpretation: Score Estimation \iff Denoising

- Tweedie's formula establishes a fundamental link between the **Score Function** and the **Optimal Denoiser**.

The Denoiser

The posterior mean $\hat{x} = \mathbb{E}[x|\tilde{x}]$ is the optimal Minimum Mean MSE denoiser. Using Tweedie's formula:

$$\hat{x}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{1}{\alpha} (\tilde{x} + \sigma^2 \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log p_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}))$$

- **Intuition:** A single gradient ascent step on the noisy log-likelihood (with step size σ^2) recovers the expected clean signal.
- **Connection to DDPM:** If we train a model $s_{\phi} \approx \nabla \log p_{\sigma}$, we are implicitly learning a denoiser. This explains why predicting noise ϵ (in DDPM) is equivalent to predicting the score.

Extension: Higher Order Tweedie's Formula

- **Recap:** The first derivative (Score) $\nabla \log p_\sigma$ gives the posterior **mean** (Clean Data).
- **Extension:** Higher derivatives of the log-density relate to higher-order cumulants of the posterior (e.g., uncertainty).

Second-Order Tweedie

For Gaussian noise, the posterior covariance is given by the Hessian of the log-density:

$$\text{Cov}[x \mid \tilde{x}] = \sigma^2 I + \sigma^4 \nabla_{\tilde{x}}^2 \log p_\sigma(\tilde{x})$$

- **Significance:** By learning higher-order scores, we can estimate not just the denoised image, but also the *uncertainty* of that estimate.

Why DSM is Denoising: The SURE Perspective

- **Problem:** To train a denoiser $D(\tilde{x})$, we typically need clean data pairs (x, \tilde{x}) to minimize MSE.
- **SURE [Stein, 1981]** Allows estimating the MSE of a denoiser using *only* noisy data \tilde{x} .

SURE Objective

For additive Gaussian noise $\tilde{x} = x + \sigma\epsilon$:

$$\text{SURE}(D; \tilde{x}) = \underbrace{\|D(\tilde{x}) - \tilde{x}\|_2^2}_{\text{Residual}} + 2\sigma^2 \underbrace{\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \cdot D(\tilde{x})}_{\text{Divergence}} - D\sigma^2 \quad (3.3.7)$$

- **Key Property:** $\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}|x}[\text{SURE}(D; \tilde{x})] = \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}|x}[\|D(\tilde{x}) - x\|^2]$.
- Minimizing SURE \iff Minimizing true MSE.

Equivalence: SURE and Score Matching

- Let's parameterize a denoiser using a score field via Tweedie's formula:

$$D(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x} + \sigma^2 s_\phi(\tilde{x})$$

- Plugging this into the SURE objective yields:

The Connection

$$\frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \text{SURE}(D) \equiv \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{p_\sigma} \left[\text{Tr}(\nabla s_\phi) + \frac{1}{2} \|s_\phi\|^2 \right]}_{\text{Implicit Score Matching (Eq 3.2.2)}} + C$$

- Conclusion:** Minimizing SURE (denoising without clean data) is mathematically equivalent to Score Matching!
- They both lead to the optimal Bayes denoiser: $D^*(\tilde{x}) = \mathbb{E}[x|\tilde{x}]$.

Generalized Score Matching

- Can we unify all these methods? Yes, via **Generalized Fisher Divergence**.
- Let \mathcal{L} be a linear operator. We want to match the "generalized score"
 $\frac{\mathcal{L}p(x)}{p(x)}$.

GSM Objective

Using integration by parts with the adjoint operator \mathcal{L}^\dagger :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{GSM}}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} \left[\frac{1}{2} \|s_\phi(x)\|^2 - (\mathcal{L}^\dagger s_\phi)(x) \right]$$

Examples of Operators

Method	Operator \mathcal{L}	Target
Classical Score Matching	∇_x	$\nabla \log p(x)$
Denoising Score Matching	$\tilde{x} + \sigma^2 \nabla_{\tilde{x}}$	$\mathbb{E}[x \tilde{x}]$ (Tweedie)
Higher Order Matching	$\nabla \nabla \dots$	Cumulants

- **Takeaway:** This operator view unifies SM, DSM, and SURE into a single framework, allowing us to design new objectives by choosing suitable operators.

The Dilemma of Single Noise Level

- **Recap:** In DSM, we perturb data with noise level σ .
- Training score model at a **fixed** σ introduces a fundamental trade-off:

Low Noise ($\sigma \approx 0$)

- **Pros:** The distribution $p_\sigma \approx p_{\text{data}}$. Samples have high fidelity and fine details.
- **Cons:** Data resides on disjoint manifolds. **Gradients vanish** in low-density regions.
- **Result:** Langevin dynamics gets stuck in local modes (poor mixing).

High Noise ($\sigma \gg 0$)

- **Pros:** The distribution is smooth; modes merge. Gradients are defined everywhere.
- **Cons:** The distribution p_σ is far from p_{data} .
- **Result:** Langevin dynamics mixes well, but produces **blurry, coarse** samples.

Inaccurate Scores in Low-Density Regions

- Score estimation is only accurate in regions covered by data samples.
- In high-dim space, the volume of "empty space" (low density) is vast.

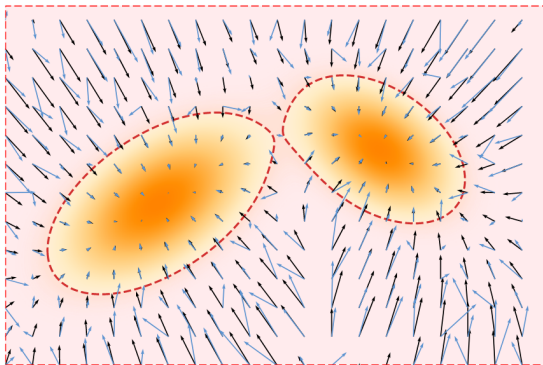


Illustration of SM inaccuracy. High-density regions (data) yield accurate scores, while low-density regions (red) yield random/inaccurate estimates.

Noise Conditional Score Networks (NCSN)

Key Idea: Multi-Scale Noise Perturbation

Instead of a single σ , consider a sequence of noise levels $\{\sigma_i\}_{i=1}^L$ such that:

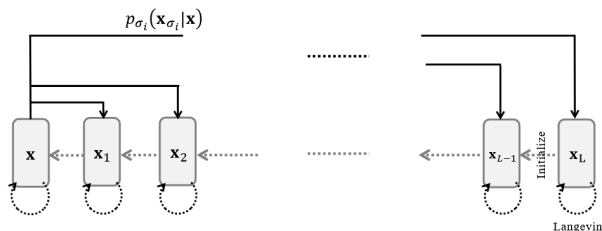
$$\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \dots > \sigma_L > 0$$

- σ_1 is large enough to smooth out all modes (easy exploration).
- σ_L is small enough to approximate the clean data (fine details).
- **Joint Training:** We train a single **Noise Conditional Score Network (NCSN)** $s_\theta(\mathbf{x}, \sigma)$ to estimate the scores for **all** levels simultaneously:

$$s_\theta(\mathbf{x}, \sigma_i) \approx \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_{\sigma_i}(\mathbf{x})$$

Annealed Langevin Dynamics

- **Generation Strategy:** Coarse-to-fine generation.



The sampler starts at high noise (σ_1) to find the general mode, then uses that result to initialize the next level (σ_2), gradually refining details down to σ_L .

- By the time we reach the tricky low-noise levels (σ_L), the sample is already close to the data manifold, avoiding the "trapped in low-density" problem.

NCSN: Formal Setup

- **Noise Sequence:** geometric sequence of L noise levels $\{\sigma_i\}_{i=1}^L$ such that:

$$0 < \sigma_1 < \sigma_2 < \cdots < \sigma_L$$

- σ_1 : Small enough to preserve fine details (approx. clean data).
- σ_L : Large enough to smooth the distribution and bridge modes.
- **Perturbation Kernel:** For a clean data point $\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}$, the perturbed sample at level i is $\mathbf{x}_{\sigma_i} = \mathbf{x} + \sigma_i \epsilon$.

$$p_{\sigma_i}(\mathbf{x}_{\sigma_i} | \mathbf{x}) := \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{\sigma_i}; \mathbf{x}, \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{I})$$

- **Marginal Distribution:**

$$p_{\sigma_i}(\mathbf{x}_{\sigma_i}) = \int p_{\sigma_i}(\mathbf{x}_{\sigma_i} | \mathbf{x}) p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Training Objective of NCSN

- **Goal:** Train a single **Noise-Conditional Score Network** $s_\phi(\mathbf{x}, \sigma)$ to estimate the scores $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_{\sigma_i}(\mathbf{x})$ for all i .
- **Loss Function:** We minimize the weighted sum of Denoising Score Matching (DSM) objectives across all levels:

NCSN Loss Function

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{NCSN}}(\phi) := \sum_{i=1}^L \lambda(\sigma_i) \mathcal{L}_{\text{DSM}}(\phi; \sigma_i) \quad (3.4.1)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DSM}}(\phi; \sigma_i) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}} \left[\left\| s_\phi(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \sigma_i) - \left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}}{\sigma_i^2} \right) \right\|_2^2 \right]$$

- $\lambda(\sigma_i) > 0$ balances the magnitude of the loss (typically $\lambda(\sigma_i) \propto \sigma_i^2$).
- The minimizer satisfies $s^*(\cdot, \sigma_i) = \nabla \log p_{\sigma_i}(\cdot)$.

Relationship with DDPM Loss

- Is there a difference between predicting the **Score** (NCSN) and predicting the **Noise** (DDPM)? **Mathematically, no.**

Equivalence via Tweedie's Formula

Let $x_\sigma = x + \sigma \varepsilon$. Tweedie's formula relates the score to the posterior noise expectation:

$$\nabla_{x_\sigma} \log p_\sigma(x_\sigma) = -\frac{1}{\sigma} \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon | x_\sigma]$$

- NCSN Optimum:** $s^*(x_\sigma, \sigma) = \nabla \log p_\sigma(x_\sigma)$.
- DDPM Optimum:** $\epsilon^*(x_\sigma, \sigma) = \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon | x_\sigma]$.
- Conclusion:** The models are equivalent up to a scaling factor:

$$s^*(x_\sigma, \sigma) = -\frac{1}{\sigma} \epsilon^*(x_\sigma, \sigma)$$

Algorithm: Annealed Langevin Dynamics

Algorithm 1 Annealed Langevin Dynamics

- 1: **Input** Trained score model s_{ϕ^*} , step sizes $\{\eta_l\}$, steps per level N_l .
 - 2: Initialize $x_{\sigma_L} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ ▷ Start at highest noise level
 - 3: **for** $l = L$ **down to** 2 **do**
 - 4: $\tilde{x}_0 \leftarrow x_{\sigma_l}$ ▷ Initialize from previous level's output
 - 5: **for** $n = 0$ **to** $N_l - 1$ **do**
 - 6: $\epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$
 - 7: $\tilde{x}_{n+1} \leftarrow \tilde{x}_n + \eta_l s_{\phi^*}(\tilde{x}_n, \sigma_l) + \sqrt{2\eta_l} \epsilon_n$
 - 8: **end for**
 - 9: $x_{\sigma_{l-1}} \leftarrow \tilde{x}_{N_l}$
 - 10: **end for**
 - 11: **Output** x_{σ_1} ▷ Final sample at lowest noise level
-

Annealed Langevin Dynamics: The Procedure

- **Setup:** We have trained score networks for a sequence of noise levels:

$$s_{\phi^*}(\cdot, \sigma_1), \dots, s_{\phi^*}(\cdot, \sigma_L) \quad \text{where } \sigma_L > \dots > \sigma_1 \approx 0$$

- **Initialization:** Start from pure Gaussian noise: $\tilde{x}_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ (corresponding to σ_L).

Progressive Denoising

Applies Langevin dynamics at each level σ_l to sample from $p_{\sigma_l}(x)$.

- **Crucial Step:** The final sample from level σ_l is used as the **initialization** for the next, lower noise level σ_{l-1} .
- This "hand-off" strategy ensures the sampler is always initialized in a high-density region of the next distribution.

Step Size Schedule and Intuition

- **Update Rule:** At each level l , we perform K steps:

$$\tilde{x}_{n+1} = \tilde{x}_n + \eta_l s_{\phi^*}(\tilde{x}_n, \sigma_l) + \sqrt{2\eta_l} \epsilon_n$$

- **Step Size Scaling:** The step size is not constant. It is scaled by the noise variance to maintain a constant Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR):

$$\eta_l = \delta \cdot \frac{\sigma_l^2}{\sigma_1^2} \propto \sigma_l^2$$

where $\delta > 0$ is a hyperparameter.

Why Annealing Works

- **High Noise (σ_L):** Large steps traverse the space globally, finding the general location of data modes.
- **Low Noise (σ_1):** Small steps refine the local structure and texture.
- This prevents the sampler from getting trapped in isolated modes.

The Bottleneck: Slow Sampling Speed

- While effective, NCSN suffers from significant computational costs.
- **Total Complexity:** L noise levels $\times K$ steps per level = $O(LK)$ sequential network evaluations.

Why so many steps?

- ➊ **Local Accuracy & Stability:** The score network is only accurate for small perturbations. We need small step sizes (and thus many steps) to avoid integration errors or divergence.
- ➋ **Slow Mixing:** Langevin dynamics is an MCMC process. In high dimensions, random walks explore the space inefficiently, requiring many iterations to converge to the target distribution at each level.

Implication: Generating a single image can take hundreds or thousands of forward passes, making real-time generation difficult compared to GANs.

Comparison: Formulation (NCSN vs. DDPM)

- While NCSN originates from **Score Matching** (EBMs) and DDPM from **Variational Inference** (VAEs), they share striking similarities.

Feature	NCSN	DDPM
Marginal $q(x_i x_0)$	$x + \sigma_i \epsilon$	$\sqrt{\alpha_i}x + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_i} \epsilon$
Forward $q(x_{i+1} x_i)$	$x_i + \sqrt{\sigma_{i+1}^2 - \sigma_i^2} \epsilon$	$\sqrt{1 - \beta_i}x_i + \sqrt{\beta_i} \epsilon$
Prior $p(x_L)$	$\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_L^2 I)$	$\mathcal{N}(0, I)$

Table 3.1: Comparison of the Forward Process formulations.

- Key Difference:** NCSN explicitly defines the noise scale of marginals, while DDPM defines the incremental Markov transition.

Comparison: Training and Sampling

Feature	NCSN	DDPM
Loss	$\mathbb{E} \left[\left\ s_\phi(x_i, \sigma_i) + \frac{\epsilon}{\sigma_i} \right\ ^2 \right]$ (Score Matching)	$\mathbb{E} \left[\left\ \epsilon_\phi(x_i, i) - \epsilon \right\ ^2 \right]$ (Noise Prediction)
Sampling	Annealed Langevin: Repeat K steps of $x + \eta s_\phi + \dots$ at each level to mix.	Reverse Markov Chain: Single step prediction $p_\theta(x_{i-1} x_i)$ to traverse the chain.

Table 3.2: Comparison of Optimization and Generation.

Note: The objectives are equivalent via $s_\phi \approx -\frac{\epsilon_\phi}{\sigma}$.

A Shared Bottleneck

- Despite the differences in derivation, both models rely on **dense time discretization** (many noise levels).

The Computational Cost

- NCSN:** Requires $L \times K$ Langevin steps (often thousands).
- DDPM:** Requires traversing T timesteps (often $T = 1000$).
- Result:** Sampling is slow and computationally intensive compared to GANs or VAEs.

Question 3.5.1

How can we accelerate sampling in diffusion models?

Outlook: We will revisit advanced acceleration techniques (e.g., ODE solvers, Distillation) in Chapters 9 and 10.

Closing Remarks: The Score-Based Journey

- From EBMs to Scores:

- We identified the **intractable partition function** of EBMs as the core challenge.
- The **Score Function** $\nabla_x \log p(x)$ circumvented this by modeling gradients instead of densities.

- Tractability via Noise (DSM):

- **Denoising Score Matching (DSM)** turned the intractable score matching objective into a simple regression problem by conditioning on data.
- **Tweedie's Formula** established a profound link: estimating the score is mathematically equivalent to learning an **optimal denoiser**.

- NCSN:

- We extended this to a continuum of noise scales, enabling robust generation via **Annealed Langevin Dynamics**.

Convergence and Limitations

- **A Unified View Emerges:**

- Despite distinct origins (Variational Inference vs. Score Matching), **DDPM** and **NCSN** share a strikingly similar structure.
- Both rely on sequential denoising/Langevin updates.

- **The Shared Bottleneck:**

- Both suffer from **slow, sequential sampling** due to the dense discretization of time (steps).
- This limitation suggests that discrete-time models are just approximations of a more general underlying process.

Looking Ahead: The Continuous-Time Perspective

In the next chapter, we will take the crucial step toward unification:

Lecture 04: The Score SDE Framework

- 1 **Continuous Unification:** We will show that DDPMs and NCSNs are different discretizations of a single [Stochastic Differential Equation \(SDE\)](#).
- 2 **Generative ODEs:** We will recast generation as solving a differential equation, unlocking advanced numerical solvers.
- 3 **Acceleration:** This framework will provide the theoretical tools needed to tackle the sampling speed problem.

Practical Resources

Tutorial 8: Deep Energy-Based Models

- **Documentation:**

https://uvadlc-notebooks.readthedocs.io/en/latest/tutorial_notebooks/tutorial8/Deep_Energy_Models.html

- **GitHub Repository:**

https://github.com/phlippe/uvadlc_notebooks

- **Google Colab:**

[▶ Open in Colab](#) <https://colab.research.google.com/drive/...>

- 1 **EBM Architecture:** Implementing an Energy Model using simple CNNs on MNIST.
- 2 **Sampling:** Practical implementation of [Langevin Dynamics](#) (SGLD).
- 3 **Training Tricks:** Using **Replay Buffers** to stabilize Contrastive Divergence training.
- 4 **Applications:** Image generation, denoising, and Out-of-Distribution (OOD) detection.

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