Bayesian Inverse Problem with Denoising Diffusion model priors

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Introduction

We have a dataset $\mathcal{D}_N := \{X^1, \dots, X^N\}$, where $X^i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_x}$.



Figure 1: Samples from the ImageNet dataset.

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Modeling assumption

 (X^1,\ldots,X^N) are samples from some **unknown** distribution π_{data}

(1) Approximate π_{data} with a parametric model.



Figure 2: data distribution.

Bayesian inverse problems

2) Sample reconstructions from the posterior distribution.



Figure 3: Reconstruction problems. Figure adapted from Lugmayr et al. (2022).

(1) Approximate π_{data} with a parametric model p^{θ} .

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- **1** Choose a suitable parametric form for p^{θ} .
- **2** Train p^{θ} to approximate π using the samples $(X^1, \ldots, X^N) \sim \pi$.

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} -\log \mathsf{p}^{\theta}(\boldsymbol{X}^{i}).$$

 \rightsquigarrow Minimize $\mathcal{L}(\theta) \rightarrow$ find optimal parameter θ_* .

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 \rightsquigarrow Target distribution: weight p^{θ_*} with a function $x \mapsto g(x)$

(2) Perform controlled generation using p^{θ_*} .

 \rightsquigarrow Target distribution: weight \mathbf{p}^{θ_*} with a function $x\mapsto g(x)$

$$\phi(\mathrm{d}x) = \frac{g(x)\mathsf{p}^{\theta_*}(\mathrm{d}x)}{\int g(z)\mathsf{p}^{\theta_*}(\mathrm{d}z)},$$

- \rightsquigarrow Posterior sampling: g(x) = p(y|x).
- \rightsquigarrow Reinforcement learning: *g* is a reward function.

Denoising diffusion models

Introduction

A denoising diffusion probabilistic model (DDPM) makes use of two Markov chains:

1 a forward chain (process) that perturbs data to noise,

2 a reverse chain (process) that converts noise back to data.

- The forward chain is typically hand-designed with the goal to transform the data distribution π_{data} into a (simple) reference distribution π_{ref} (e.g., standard Gaussian)
- The backward chain reverses the forward chain by learning transition kernels.
- New data points are generated by first sampling a random vector from the reference distribution, followed by ancestral sampling through the backward Markov chain.

Forward process

- Given a data distribution $x_0 \sim \pi_{\text{data}}(dx_0) = q_0(dx_0)$, the forward Markov chain generates a sequence of random variables $x_1, x_2 \dots x_T$ with transition kernel $q_{t|t-1}(dx_t \mid x_{t-1})$.
- The joint distribution of $x_1, x_2 \dots x_T$ conditioned on x_0 , denoted as $q_{0:T} (d(x_1, \dots, x_T) \mid x_0)$, may be written as

$$q_{0:T} (d(x_1, \dots, x_T) \mid x_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q_{t|t-1} (dx_t \mid x_{t-1}).$$

- In DDPMs, we handcraft the transition kernel $q_{t|t-1}$ (d $x_t | x_{t-1}$) to incrementally transform the data distribution q_0 (d x_0) into a tractable reference distribution.
 - Typical design: Gaussian perturbation

$$q_{t|t-1}\left(x_{t} \mid x_{t-1}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(x_{t}; \sqrt{1-\beta_{t}}x_{t-1}, \beta_{t}\mathbf{I}\right),$$

where $\beta_t \in (0,1)$ is a hyperparameter chosen ahead of model training.

Forward process

Gaussian transition kernel allows us to obtain the analytical form of $q_{t|0}(x_t \mid x_0)$ for all $t \in \{0, 1, \dots, T\}$. Setting $\alpha_t := 1 - \beta_t$ and $\bar{\alpha}_t := \prod_{s=0}^t \alpha_s$, we have

$$q_{t\mid 0}\left(x_{t}\mid x_{0}\right)=\mathcal{N}\left(x_{t};\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_{t}}x_{0},\left(1-\bar{\alpha}_{t}\right)\mathbf{I}\right).$$

Given x_0 , we can easily obtain a sample of x_t by sampling a Gaussian vector $\epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ and applying the transformation

$$x_t = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} x_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon_t.$$

• When $\bar{\alpha}_T \approx 0, x_T$ is almost Gaussian in distribution,

$$q_T(x_T) := \int q_{T\mid 0} (x_T \mid x_0) q_0(x_0) \, \mathrm{d}x_0 \approx \mathcal{N}(x_T; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}) \, \mathrm{d}x_0$$

Backward process

- For generating new data samples, DDPMs start by sampling the reference distribution and then gradually remove noise by running a learnable Markov chain backward in time.
- The reverse Markov chain is parameterized by a reference distribution $\pi_{ref}(x_T) = \mathcal{N}(x_T; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ and a learnable transition kernel

$$p_{t-1|t}^{\theta}\left(x_{t-1} \mid x_{t}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(x_{t-1}; \mu_{t}^{\theta}\left(x_{t}\right), \Sigma_{t}^{\theta}\left(x_{t}\right)\right)$$

where θ denotes model parameters, and the mean $\mu_t^{\theta}(x_t)$ and variance $\Sigma_t^{\theta}(x_t)$ are parameterized by deep neural networks.

Data generation

- Sample $x_T \sim \pi_{\mathrm{ref}}(\cdot)$,
- iteratively sample $x_{t-1} \sim p_{t-1|t}^{\theta} \left(\cdot \mid x_t \right)$ until t = 1.

Diffusion model principles



Figure 4: Diffusion models smoothly perturb data by adding noise, then reverse this process to generate new data from noise.

Variational Inference

 Objective: Adjust the parameter θ so that the joint distribution of the reverse Markov chain

$$p_{0:T}^{\theta}(x_0, x_1, \cdots, x_T) = p_{\text{ref}}(x_T) \prod_{t=1}^T p_{t-1|t}^{\theta}(x_{t-1} \mid x_t)$$

matches

$$q_{0:T}(x_0, x_1, \cdots, x_T) := q_0(x_0) \prod_{t=1}^T q_{t|t-1}(x_t \mid x_{t-1}).$$

Training is performed by maximizing a variational bound:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_0} \left[-\log p^{\theta} \left(x_0 \right) \right] \le \mathbb{E}_{q_{0:T}} \left[-\log \frac{p_{0:T}^{\theta} \left(x_{0:T} \right)}{q_{1:T\mid 0} \left(x_{1:T} \mid x_0 \right)} \right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{q_{0:T}} \left[-\log p_T \left(x_T \right) - \sum_{t \ge 1} \log \frac{p_{t-1\mid t}^{\theta} \left(x_{t-1} \mid x_t \right)}{q_{t\mid t-1} \left(x_t \mid x_{t-1} \right)} \right] =: L^{\theta}$$

Variational inference with variance reduction

 L^θ might be rewritten using the backward representation of the forward noising process

$$q_{1:T|0}(x_{1:T}|x_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q_{t|t-1}(x_t|x_{t-1})$$
$$= q_{T|0}(x_T|x_0) \prod_{t=2}^T q_{t-1|t}(x_{t-1}|x_t, x_0)$$

 \blacksquare With this backward decomposition, L^{θ} writes

$$L^{\theta} = \mathbb{E}_{q_{0:T}} \left[-\log \frac{p_T(x_T)}{q_{T\mid 0}(x_T \mid x_0)} - \sum_{t=2}^T \log \frac{p_{t-1\mid t}^{\theta}(x_{t-1} \mid x_t)}{q_{t-1\mid t, 0}(x_{t-1} \mid x_t, x_0)} - \log p_{0\mid 1}^{\theta}(x_0 \mid x_1) \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q_{0:T}} \left[D_{\mathrm{KL}} \left(q_{T\mid0} \left(\cdot \mid x_{0} \right) \| p_{T} \left(\cdot \right) \right) + \sum_{t=2}^{T} D_{\mathrm{KL}} \left(q_{t-1\mid t,0} \left(\cdot \mid x_{t}, x_{0} \right) \| p_{t-1\mid t}^{\theta} \left(\cdot \mid x_{t} \right) \right) - \log p_{0\mid1}^{\theta} \left(x_{0} \mid x_{1} \right) \right]$$

Variational inference with variance reduction

• forward posteriors are tractable when conditioned on x_0 :

$$\begin{split} q_{t-1|t,0}\left(x_{t-1} \mid x_t, x_0\right) &= \mathcal{N}\left(x_{t-1}; \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_t\left(x_t, x_0\right), \tilde{\beta}_t \mathbf{I}\right)\\ \text{where} \quad \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_t\left(x_t, x_0\right) &:= \frac{\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_{t-1}}\beta_t}{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} x_0 + \frac{\sqrt{\alpha_t}\left(1 - \bar{\alpha}_{t-1}\right)}{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} x_t\\ \text{and} \quad \tilde{\beta}_t &:= \frac{1 - \bar{\alpha}_{t-1}}{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \beta_t \end{split}$$

• KL divergences are comparisons between Gaussian distributions with closed form expressions: taking $\Sigma_t^{\theta}(x_t) = \tilde{\beta}_t I$,

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}\left(q_{t-1|t,0}\left(\cdot \mid x_{t}, x_{0}\right) \| p_{t-1|t}^{\theta}\left(\cdot \mid x_{t}\right)\right) = \frac{1}{2\tilde{\beta}_{t}} \|\tilde{\mu}_{t}(x_{t}, x_{0}) - \mu_{t}^{\theta}(x_{t})\|^{2}$$

Variational inference with variance reduction

Setting

$$\mu_t^{\theta}(x_t) = \tilde{\mu}_t(x_t, \hat{x}_{0|t}^{\theta}(x_t)),$$

we get

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}\left(q_{t-1|t,0}\left(\cdot \mid x_t, x_0\right) \| p_{t-1|t}^{\theta}\left(\cdot \mid x_t\right)\right) = w_t \| x_0 - \hat{x}_{0|t}^{\theta}(x_t) \|^2.$$

with $w_t = \bar{\alpha}_{t-1} \beta_t / (1 - \bar{\alpha}_{t-1})(1 - \bar{\alpha}_t).$

 \blacksquare Hence, criterion L^{θ} rewrites

$$L^{\theta} = \sum_{t=2}^{T} w_t \mathbb{E}_{q_0 \otimes \mathcal{N}(0,\mathbf{I})} [\|x_0 - \hat{x}^{\theta}_{0|t}(\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}x_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}\boldsymbol{\epsilon})\|^2]$$

which amount to compute $\hat{x}^{\theta}_{0|t}(x_t)$ as a predictor of the initial state x_0 from the current state x_t .

This criterion is the denoising score matching.

Noise prediction

• Using that $x_t = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} x_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon_t$, we have

$$x_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}} (x_t - \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t)$$

• Choosing $\hat{x}_{0|t}^{\theta}(x_t) = (1/\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t})(x_t - \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}\hat{\epsilon}_{0|t}^{\theta}(x_t))$, the criterion L^{θ} may be equivalently expressed as

$$L^{\theta} = \sum_{t=2}^{T} \tilde{w}_t \mathbb{E}_{q_0 \otimes \mathcal{N}(0,\mathrm{I})} [\|\boldsymbol{\epsilon} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^{\theta}_{0|t} (\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} x_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \boldsymbol{\epsilon})\|^2]$$

where

$$\tilde{w}_t = \frac{\beta_t}{\alpha_t (1 - \bar{\alpha}_{t-1})}$$

A continuous-time perspective

Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Noising process

- Consider a diffusion process $\{X_t\}_{t=0}^T$ that starts from the data distribution $q_0(dx) \equiv \pi_{data} (dx)$ at time t = 0. The notation $q_t(dx)$ refers to the marginal distribution of the diffusion at time $0 \le t \le T$.
- Assume furthermore that at time t = T, the marginal distribution is (very close to) a reference distribution q_T(dx) = π_{ref} (dx) that is straightforward to sample from, e.g. N(0, I).
- This diffusion process is the noising process. It is often chosen as an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (OU) diffusion,

$$\mathrm{d}X_t = -\frac{1}{2}X_t\mathrm{d}t + \mathrm{d}W_t$$

• OU diffusion is reversible w.r.t. $\pi_{ref} = \mathcal{N}(0, I)$: the conditional distribution of $X_{t+s} \mid X_t = x_t$ is $\mathcal{N}(\alpha_s x_t, \sigma_s^2 I)$, with

$$\alpha_s = \sqrt{1 - \sigma_s^2} \quad \sigma_s^2 = 1 - e^{-s}$$

Denote

$$F(s, x, y) \propto \exp\left\{-\frac{(y - \alpha_s x)^2}{2\sigma_s^2}\right\}.$$

the forward transition from x to y in " s " amount of time.

Reverse diffusion I (informal)

- the DDPM strategy consists in sampling from the Gaussian reference measure π_{ref} at time t = T and simulate the OU process backward in time.
- In other words, one would like to simulate from the reverse process \overleftarrow{X}_t defined as

$$\overleftarrow{X}_s = X_{T-s}$$

- The reverse process is distributed as $\overleftarrow{X}_0 \sim \pi_{\text{ref}}$ at time t = 0 and, crucially, we have that $\overleftarrow{X}_T \sim \pi_{\text{data}}$.
- The reverse diffusion follows the dynamics (Hausmann, Pardoux, 1986; Millet, Nualart, Sanz, 1989)

$$d\overleftarrow{X}_t = +\frac{1}{2}\overleftarrow{X}_t dt + \nabla \log q_{T-t} \left(\overleftarrow{X}_t\right) dt + dB_t$$

where B is another Wiener process [the notation B emphasizes that there is no link between this Wiener process and the one used to simulate the forward process].

Reverse diffusion II (informal)

- To simulate the reverse diffusion, one needs to be able to estimate the score $\nabla \log q_{T-t}(x)$.
- In practice, the score is unknown and need to be approximated

$$s_t^{\theta}(x) \approx \nabla_x \log q_t(x)$$

which is often parameterized by a neural network.

Since

$$\log q_t(x) = \log \int F(t, x_0, x) \, \pi_{\mathsf{data}} \, \left(\mathrm{d} x_0 \right)$$

the analytical expression of $F(t, x_0, x)$ gives that (Tweedie formula)

$$\nabla_x \log q_t(x) = -\frac{x - \alpha_t \hat{x}_0(x, t)}{\sigma_t^2}$$

where $\hat{x}_0(x,t) = \mathbb{E}[X_0|X_t = x]$ is a denoising estimate of x_0 given a noisy estimate $X_t = x$ at time t

Estimation of the score

- To estimate the score, one only needs to train a denoising function $\widehat{x}^{\theta}_{0|t}(x).$
- It is a simple regression problem: take pairs (X_0, X_t) that can be generated as

$$X_0 \sim \pi_{\text{data}}$$
 and $X_t = \alpha_t X_0 + \sigma_t Z_t$

with $Z_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ and minimize the Mean Squared Error (MSE) loss, i.e.

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{0,t}}\left[\left\|X_0 - \hat{x}_{0|t}^{\theta}(X_t)\right\|^2\right]$$

with stochastic gradient descent or any other stochastic optimization procedure.

The score is then defined as

$$s_t^{\theta}(x) = -\frac{x - \alpha_t \widehat{x}_t^{\theta}(x)}{\sigma_t^2}$$

Time reversal formula for a diffusion process

General time reversal formulas for diffusion processes are well known since the 80 's. Consider a diffusion process Y in \mathbb{R}^n satisfying

$$dY_t = b_t (Y_t) dt + \sigma_t (Y_t) dB_t, \quad 0 \le t \le T,$$

with B a Brownian motion, b a drift vector field and σ a matrix field associated to the diffusion field a $:=\sigma\sigma^{\top}$

Assuming that the law of Y_t is absolutely continuous at each time t, under appropriate assumptions, the time-reversed process Y^* is again a diffusion process with diffusion matrix field $a_t^* = a_{T-t}$ and drift field

$$b_t^*(y) = -b_{T-t}(y) + \nabla \cdot (\mu_{T-t}a_{T-t})(y) / \mu_{T-t}(y),$$

where μ_t is the density of the law of Y_t with respect to Lebesgue measure. This is not a straightforward result because a reversed semimartingale might not be a semimartingale !. For the identity

$$b_t^*(y) = -b_{T-t}(y) + \nabla \cdot (\mu_{T-t}a_{T-t})(y) / \mu_{T-t}(y),$$

to hold, it is assumed in that b is locally Lipschitz and that either a is bounded away from zero or that the derivative ∇a in the sense of distribution is controlled locally.

Haussmann and Pardoux take a PDE approach; Millet, Nualart and Sanz rely on stochastic calculus of variations.

The existence of an absolutely continuous density follows from a Hörmander type condition (PDE formulation in Haussman et al. and consequence of Malliavin calculus in Millet et al.).

Time reversal formula for a diffusion process

Föllmer's approach significantly departs from these strategies. Under the simplifying hypothesis that a is the identity matrix, the law P of Y has a finite entropy

 $H(P \mid R) < \infty$

with respect to the law R of a Brownian motion with some given initial probability distribution.

In particular, the drift field b of P satisfies $\int_{[0,T]\times\mathbb{R}^n} |b_t(y)|^2 \mu_t(y) dt dy < \infty$ and might be singular, rather than locally Lipschitz.

As a consequence of this finite entropy assumption, Föllmer proves the time reversal formula

$$b_t^*(y) = -b_{T-t}(y) + \nabla \log \mu_{T-t}(y)$$

(recall a = Id) where the derivative is in the sense of distributions, without invoking any already known result about the regularity of μ .



Figure 5: From Dockhorn et al. (2022)

Feyman-Kac representation

Context

Bayesian linear inverse problem:

$$Y = AX + \sigma_y Z, \quad \text{where} \quad Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{d_x}, \mathbf{I}_{d_x}), \quad \frac{X \sim p_0}{0}, \quad \sigma_y \ge 0.$$

Context

Bayesian linear inverse problem:

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, where $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{d_x}, \mathbf{I}_{d_x}), \quad X \sim p_0, \quad \sigma_y \ge 0$.

Objective: Sample the distribution of X given a realisation y of Y.

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Objective: Sample the distribution of X given a realisation y of Y.

Posterior samples


We focus on the specific case where the prior p_0 is the marginal w.r.t. x_0 of Denoising Diffusion Model. The posterior is

$$p_0^y(\mathrm{d}x_0) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}^y} \int g_0^y(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) p_n(\mathrm{d}x_n) \,.$$

- The posterior can be interpreted as the marginal of a (time-reversed) Feynman–Kac (FK) model with non-trivial potential only at k = 0 !
- In this work, we twist, without modifying the law of the FK model, the backward transitions p_{k|k+1} by potentials depending on the observation y; see e.g. for a similar idea for rare event simulation (see, e.g., Cérou et al., 2012).

"Forward" smoothing decomposition

 \blacksquare Define, for all $k \in [\![0,n]\!],$ the backward functions

$$\beta_{0|k}^{y}(x_{k}) := \int g_{0}^{y}(x_{0}) p_{0|k}(\mathrm{d}x_{0}|x_{k})$$

The backward functions satisfy the recursion:

$$\beta_{0|k+1}^{y}(x_{k+1}) = \int \beta_{0|k}^{y}(x_{k}) \, p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{k+1}) \, .$$

• Define the forward smoothing kernels (FSK) for $k \in [\![0, n-1]\!]$

$$p_{k|k+1}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{k+1}) := \frac{\beta_{0|k}^{y}(x_{k})}{\beta_{0|k+1}^{y}(x_{k+1})} p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{k+1}),$$
$$(= \mathrm{Law}(X_{k} \mid Y = y, X_{k+1} = x_{k+1}))$$

"Forward" smoothing decomposition

The posterior distribution can be written in terms of forward smoothing kernels

$$p_0^y(\mathrm{d}x_0) = \int p_n^y(\mathrm{d}x_n) \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} p_{k|k+1}^y(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) \,.$$

where

$$p_n^y(\mathrm{d}x_n) = \frac{\beta_{0|n}^y(x_n)p_n(\mathrm{d}x_n)}{\mathcal{Z}^y}$$

 Most of the recent works to sample from p₀^y use the forward smoothing decomposition with different approximation of the intractable forward smoothing kernels. Chung et al. (2023); Song et al. (2023); Zhang et al. (2023); Boys et al. (2023); Trippe et al. (2023); Wu et al. (2023). The DDPM is based on the assumption the forward smoothing decomposition is a good approximation the time reversal of the forward Markov chain initialized at p_0^y , i.e.

$$p_0^y(\mathrm{d}x_0) \prod_{k=1}^n q_{k|k-1}(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k-1}) \approx p_n^y(\mathrm{d}x_n) \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} p_{k|k+1}^y(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}),$$

which suggests the following approximation

$$p_{k|k+1}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{k+1}) \approx \int q_{k|0,k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{0},x_{k+1})p_{0|k+1}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{0}|x_{k+1})$$

where

$$p_{0|k+1}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{0}|x_{k+1}) \propto p_{0}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{0})q_{k+1|0}(x_{k+1}|x_{0})$$

(Ho et al., 2020; Song et al., 2021a) suggested to use the DDPM approximation of the backward kernel is :

$$p_{k|k+1}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{k+1}) = q_{k|0,k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|\mathbb{E}[X_{0}|X_{k+1} = x_{k+1}, Y = y], x_{k+1})$$

where

$$\mathbb{E}[X_0|X_{k+1}, Y=y] := \int x_0 p_{0|k+1}^y (\mathrm{d}x_0|X_{k+1}) \,.$$

Conditional score

By Tweedie's formula,

$$\mathbb{E}[X_0|X_k, Y=y] = \frac{X_k + (1-\alpha_k)\nabla_{x_k}\log p_k^y(X_k)}{\sqrt{\alpha_k}},$$

where

$$p_k^y(x_k) := \int p_0^y(\mathrm{d}x_0) q_{k|0}(x_k|x_0)$$

$$\propto \int g_0^y(x_0) p_0(\mathrm{d}x_0) q_{k|0}(x_k|x_0)$$

$$\propto \int g_0^y(x_0) p_{0|k}(\mathrm{d}x_0|x_k) p_k(x_k) \, dx_k$$

Hence,

$$\nabla_{x_k} \log p_k^y(x_k) = \nabla_{x_k} \log \beta_{0|k}^y(x_k) + \nabla_{x_k} \log p_k(x_k) \,.$$

Diffusion posterior sampling I

 $\nabla_{x_k} \log p_k^y(x_k) = \nabla_{x_k} \log \beta_{0|k}^y(x_k) + \nabla_{x_k} \log p_k(x_k),$

- A pre-trained score network (for $\nabla_{x_k} \log p_k(x_k)$) is available.
- But the gradient of the log backward function is intractable in practice.

Using the pre-trained approximation $\hat{x}_{0|k}(X_k)$ of $\mathbb{E}[X_0|X_k]$, Chung et al. (2023) proposed the following approximation,

$$\nabla_{x_k} \log \beta_{0|k}^y(x_k) \approx \nabla_{x_k} \log g_0^y(\hat{x}_{0|k}(x_k)).$$

They then sample approximately from the FSK in the following way; given $X^{\boldsymbol{y}}_k$

First sample
$$X_{k-1} \sim p_{k-1|k}(\cdot|X_k^y)$$

• Then set
$$X_{k-1}^y = X_{k-1} + \gamma_k \nabla_{x_k} \log g_0^y(\hat{x}_{0|k}(X_k^y))$$

• γ_k is in practice a highly sensitive parameter, crucial for good performance.

Diffusion posterior sampling II

- The DPS approximation by Chung et al. (2023) boils down to assuming that $p_{0|k}(dx_0|x_k) \approx \delta_{\hat{x}_{0|k}}(x_k)(dx_0)$.
- This is a very crude approximation that becomes accurate only as $k \rightarrow 0$.

Song et al. (2023) consider the sample sampling scheme but propose instead the following Gaussian approximation

$$p_{0|k}(\mathrm{d}x_0|x_k) \approx \mathcal{N}(\mathrm{d}x_0; \hat{x}_{0|k}(x_k), r_k^2 \mathrm{I}_{d_x}), \quad r_k^2 = \frac{\sigma_k^2}{1 + \sigma_k^2},$$

in which case, we obtain the following approximation

$$\beta_{0|k}^{y}(x_k) \approx \mathcal{N}(y; A\hat{x}_{0|k}(x_k), r_k^2 A A^{\mathsf{T}} + \sigma_y^2 \mathbf{I}_{d_y}) \,.$$

- The Gaussian approximation above becomes exact in the case where $p_0 = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{d_x}, \mathbf{I}_{d_x})$ and variance exploding is used.
- Still, this is not a realistic approximation in the more general case.

Tweedie Moment Projected diffusion

Boys et al. (2023) instead consider a Gaussian approximation $\hat{p}_{0|k}(\cdot|x_k)$ of $p_{0|k}(\cdot|x_k)$:

$$\hat{p}_{0|k}(\cdot|x_k) := \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mu,\Sigma} \mathsf{KL}(p_{0|k}(\cdot|x_k) \parallel \mathcal{N}(\mu,\Sigma)) \,.$$

and

$$\hat{p}_{0|k}(\cdot|x_k) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbb{E}[X_0|X_k = x_k], \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(X_0|X_k = x_k)\right),\,$$

where the expectation and covariance are under $p_{0|k}(\cdot|x_k)$. Under the same assumption as previously (backward=forward), it can be shown that

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(X_0|X_k) = \frac{1 - \alpha_k}{\sqrt{\alpha_k}} \nabla_{x_k} \mathbb{E}[X_0|X_k]$$

which may be approximated by plugging in $\hat{x}_{0|k}(X_k)$ to approximate $\nabla_{x_k}\mathbb{E}[X_0|X_k].$

- The resulting covariance approximation is not symmetric nor positive definite.
- Extremely expensive to compute. In practice further crude

Monte Carlo guided diffusion

General Feynman–Kac model

Introduce intermediate positive potentials $(g_k^y)_{k=0}^n,$ each being a function on $\mathbb{R}^{d_x},$ and write

$$p_0^y(\mathrm{d}x_0) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}^y} \int g_n^y(x_n) \, p_n(\mathrm{d}x_n) \\ \times \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{g_k^y(x_k)}{g_{k+1}^y(x_{k+1})} \, p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) \, .$$

- Because the $g_n^y(x_n) \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{g_k^y(x_k)}{g_{k+1}^y(x_{k+1})} = g_0^y(x_0)$, the FK is not modified the potentials are used to render the sampling easier.
- This allows the posterior of interest to be expressed as the time-zero marginal of a Feynman-Kac model with
 - initial law p_n ,
 - Markov transition kernels $(p_{k|k+1})_{k=0}^{n-1}$
 - Potentials g_n^y and $(x_k, x_{k+1}) \mapsto g_k^y(x_k)/g_{k+1}^y(x_{k+1})$.

Alternatively, the previous decomposition defines a sequence of distributions

 $p_k^y(\mathrm{d}x_k) \propto g_k^y(x_k) p_k(\mathrm{d}x_k), \quad k \in \llbracket 0, n \rrbracket,$

where the posterior of interest is the terminal distribution at k = 0.

- If we have a particle approximation of p_{k+1}^y then we can evolve it into a particle approximation of $p_k^y \rightsquigarrow$ we recursively build an empirical approximation of p_0^y .
- The choice of potentials $\{g_k^y\}_{k \in [\![0,n]\!]}$ is crucial; we need to ensure that p_k^y is close enough to p_{k+1}^y so that we can bridge the intermediate distributions efficiently.

Posterior sampling proposal: recursion

Consider the following particle approximation of p_{k+1}^y

$$p_{k+1}^{N,y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_{\xi_{k+1}^{i}},$$

Recall that $p_k(\mathrm{d} x_k) = \int p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d} x_k|x_{k+1})p_{k+1}(\mathrm{d} x_{k+1})$,

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$$p_k^y(\mathrm{d}x_k) = \frac{\int \frac{g_k^y(x_k)}{g_{k+1}^y(x_{k+1})} p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) p_{k+1}^y(\mathrm{d}x_{k+1})}{\int \frac{g_k^y(z_k)}{g_{k+1}^y(z_{k+1})} p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}z_k|z_{k+1}) p_{k+1}^y(\mathrm{d}z_{k+1})} ,$$

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and hence

$$p_{k}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}) \propto \int \underbrace{\frac{\int g_{k}^{y}(z_{k})p_{k}(\mathrm{d}z_{k}|x_{k+1})}{g_{k+1}^{y}(x_{k+1})}}_{:=\widetilde{\omega}_{k}(x_{k+1})} p_{k}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k}|x_{k+1})p_{k+1}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k+1}),$$

where $p_k^y(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) \propto g_k^y(x_k)p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) \rightarrow \text{available in closed}$ form if we use a Gaussian potential with mean linear in x_k .

Posterior sampling proposal: SMC approximation

$$p_k^y(\mathrm{d}x_k) = \int p_k^y(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1}) \frac{\widetilde{\omega}_k(x_{k+1})p_{k+1}^y(\mathrm{d}x_{k+1})}{\int \widetilde{\omega}_k(z_{k+1})p_{k+1}^y(\mathrm{d}z_{k+1})}$$

Assume $p_k^{N,y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{\xi_{k+1}^i}$ is a particle approximation of $p_{k+1}^{N,y}$.

→ Weight:

$$p_k^{N,y}(\cdot) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\widetilde{\omega}_k(\xi_{k+1}^i)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \widetilde{\omega}_k(\xi_{k+1}^j)} p_k^y(\cdot|\xi_{k+1}^i) \, .$$

 \rightsquigarrow **Resample:** Draw $A_{k+1}^{1:N} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Categorical}(\{\omega_k^j\}_{j=1}^N)$ where $\omega_k^j \propto \widetilde{\omega}_t(\xi_{k+1}^j)$.

$$\rightsquigarrow$$
 Mutate: Sample $\xi_k^i \sim p_k^y(\cdot|\xi_{k+1}^{A_{k+1}^i})$ for $i \in [1:N]$

$$p_k^{N,y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{\xi_k^i} \,.$$

Gordon et al. (1993); Del Moral (2004); Cappe et al. (2005); Chopin et al. (2020)

For simplicity (and only in this slide) let $p_0(\boldsymbol{y})$ be the posterior of the inverse problem

$$Y = \overline{X}_0, \quad X_0 \sim p_0 \,,$$

The marginals of the *forward process* initialized at p_0^y are

$$X_k \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{=} \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_k} X_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_k} Z, \quad X_0 \sim p_0^y, \quad Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{d_x}, \mathbf{I}_{d_x}),$$

and so

$$\overline{X}_k \stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{=} \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_k} y + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_k} \overline{Z} \,, \quad \overline{Z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{d_y}, \mathbf{I}_{d_y}) \,.$$

This suggests that one relevant choice of potentials is

$$g_k^y(x_k) = \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\alpha_k}y; x_k, (1 - \alpha_k)\mathbf{I}_{d_y}).$$

• More generally, we let the variance be a free parameter $\sigma_{u,k}^2$.

Our proposal in the general case is

$$p_k^y(\mathrm{d}x_k) \propto g_k^y(x_k) p_k(\mathrm{d}x_k), \quad g_k^y(x_k) := \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_k}y; Ax_k, \sigma_{y,k}^2 \mathrm{I}_{d_y})$$

• This particular choice of potential allows us to compute in closed form the auxiliary transition kernel $\propto g_k^y(x_k)p_{k|k+1}(\mathrm{d}x_k|x_{k+1})$ we use for our particle approximations.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 6: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 7: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 8: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 9: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 10: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 11: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 12: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 13: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 14: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 15: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow \{p_k^y\}_{k=1}^n$ is available in closed form for the Gaussian mixture example.



Figure 16: Left plot: samples from the prior p_0 and posterior p_0^y . Right plot: samples from the posterior proposals p_k^y for time steps ranging from n := 500 to 0.

 $\rightsquigarrow~25$ Gaussian mixture example with means

$$\mu_{i,j} = (8i, 8j, \dots, 8i, 8j), \quad (i,j) \in \{-2, \dots, 2\}$$

with unit convariance matrices. We randomly draw the weights of the mixture and the forward operator A and σ_y for the inverse problem $\rightsquigarrow \nabla \log p_k$ is available in **closed form**.

 → 20 component mixture of translated and rotated Funnel distributions. We learn the score and consider the ground truth to be samples from parallel NUTS with very long chains.

Toy examples

d	d_y	MCGdiff	DDRM	DPS	RNVP
80	1	1.39 ± 0.45	5.64 ± 1.10	4.98 ± 1.14	6.86 ± 0.88
80	2	0.67 ± 0.24	7.07 ± 1.35	5.10 ± 1.23	7.79 ± 1.50
80	4	0.28 ± 0.14	7.81 ± 1.48	4.28 ± 1.26	7.95 ± 1.61
800	1	2.40 ± 1.00	7.44 ± 1.15	6.49 ± 1.16	7.74 ± 1.34
800	2	1.31 ± 0.60	8.95 ± 1.12	6.88 ± 1.01	8.75 ± 1.02
800	4	0.47 ± 0.19	8.39 ± 1.48	5.51 ± 1.18	7.81 ± 1.63
a	a_y	MCGalii	DDRM	DPS	RNVP
6	1	1.95 ± 0.43	4.20 ± 0.78	5.43 ± 1.05	6.16 ± 0.65
6	3	0.73 ± 0.33	2.20 ± 0.67	3.47 ± 0.78	4.70 ± 0.90
6	5	0.41 ± 0.12	0.91 ± 0.43	2.07 ± 0.63	3.52 ± 0.93
10	1	2.45 ± 0.42	3.82 ± 0.64	4.30 ± 0.91	6.04 ± 0.38
10	3	1.07 ± 0.26	4.94 ± 0.87	5.38 ± 0.84	5.91 ± 0.64
10	5	0.71 ± 0.12	2.32 ± 0.74	3.74 ± 0.77	5.11 ± 0.69

Figure 17: Sliced Wasserstein between samples of the target posterior and the empirical measure returned by each method. **Top**: Gaussian mixture. **Bottom**: Funnel mixture. We show the 95% CLT interval over 20 seeds.

DPS: Chung et al. (2023), DDRM: Kawar et al. (2022)

Toy examples



- → Diffusion models learned on different datasets of image sizes varying from (64, 64, 3) to (256, 256, 3).
- \rightsquigarrow We run parallel SMCs with **N** = **64** particles.

Super-resolution example



Deblurring example




Divide-and-conquer posterior sampling

Sequence of distributions

Let $(k_{\ell})_{\ell=0}^{L}$ be an increasing sequence in $[\![0,n]\!]$ with $k_0 = 0$ and $k_L = n$. Consider

$$p_{k_{\ell}}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}) \propto g_{k_{\ell}}^{y}(x_{k_{\ell}})p_{k_{\ell}}(\mathrm{d}x_{\ell}) \,,$$

with

$$g_{k_{\ell}}^{y}(x_{k_{\ell}}) = \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\alpha_{k_{\ell}}}y; Ax_{k_{\ell}}, \sigma_{y,k_{\ell}}^{2}\mathbf{I}_{d_{y}}).$$

- L is typically much smaller than n.
- This is the same sequence of distribution as in our SMC approach but now we only consider a small number L of intermediate distributions.
- Our goal is to recursively sample from each one of them without having to evolve N particles in parallel.
- We also want to solve the "image inconsistency" problem observed in our SMC method.

Recursion

Since
$$p_{k_{\ell}}(dx_{k_{\ell}}) = \int \left\{ \prod_{j=k_{\ell}}^{k_{\ell+1}-1} p_{j|j+1}(dx_j|x_{j+1}) \right\} p_{k_{\ell+1}}(dx_{k_{\ell+1}}),$$

we can write $p_{k_{\ell}}^y$ in terms of forward smoothing kernels, i.e.

$$p_{k_{\ell}}^{y}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}) = \int \left\{ \prod_{j=k_{\ell}}^{k_{\ell+1}-1} p_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d}x_{j}|x_{j+1}) \right\} p_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell+1}})$$

where

$$\begin{split} p_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d} x_{k_{\ell+1}}) &\propto \beta_{k_{\ell}|k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(x_{k_{\ell+1}}) \, p_{k_{\ell+1}}(\mathrm{d} x_{k_{\ell+1}}) \,, \\ p_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d} x_j|x_{j+1}) &\propto \beta_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(x_j) \, p_{j|j+1}(\mathrm{d} x_j|x_{j+1}) \,, \end{split}$$
 and for all $j \in [\![k_{\ell}, k_{\ell+1}]\!]$

 $\beta_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(x_j) := \int g_{k_{\ell}}^y(x_{k_{\ell}}) p_{k_{\ell}|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_j).$

DCPS summary



Figure 18: Illustration of idealized DCPS.

Starting at an approximate sample $X_{k_{\ell+1}}^y$ from $p_{k_{\ell+1}}^y$

- Use ULA initialized at $X^y_{k_{\ell+1}}$ to obtain an approximate sample from $X^{y,\ell}_{k_{\ell+1}}.$
- Starting from $X_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}$, simulate a Markov chain with transition kernels $(p_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell})_{j=k_{\ell+1}-1}^{k_\ell}$
- Repeat until the posterior of interest is reached.

- The first source of intractability are the backward functions $\beta_{k_{\ell}|i}^{y,\ell}$.
- This is the same problem as before, however note that now they are expressed as an integral under $p_{k_{\ell}|j}(\cdot|x_j)$ with $j \in [\![k_{\ell} + 1, k_{\ell+1}]\!]$ instead of $p_{0|j}(\cdot|x_j)$ for $j \in [\![0, n]\!]$.
- This is more convenient since we expect Gaussian approximations of $p_{k_\ell|j}(\cdot|x_j)$ to be more accurate than those of $p_{0|j}(\cdot|x_j)$.

Backward kernel approximation

Assume again that forward=backward. Then for $j \in [k_{\ell} + 1, k_{\ell+1}]$,

$$p_{k_{\ell}|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_{j}) = \int q_{k_{\ell}|0,j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_{0},x_{j})p_{0|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{0}|x_{j}),$$

Let $\hat{p}_{0|j}(\cdot|x_j)$ be an approximation of $p_{0|j}(\cdot|x_j)$ and define

$$\hat{p}_{k_{\ell}|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_{j}) = \int q_{k_{\ell}|0,j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_{0},x_{j})\hat{p}_{0|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{0}|x_{j})$$

- For DPS (Chung et al., 2023), $\hat{p}_{0|j}(\mathrm{d}x_0|x_j) = \delta_{\hat{x}_{0|j}^{\theta}(x_j)}(\mathrm{d}x_0).$
- For Song et al. (2023), $\hat{p}_{0|j}(\mathrm{d}x_0|x_j) = \mathcal{N}(\mathrm{d}x_0; \hat{x}^{\theta}_{0|j}(x_j), r_j^2 \mathrm{I}_{d_y}).$
- In both cases, $\hat{p}_{k_{\ell}|j}(\cdot|x_j)$ is computable in closed form. We write $\hat{p}_{k_{\ell}|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_j) = \mathcal{N}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}; \mu_{k_{\ell}|j}(x_j), \sigma^2_{k_{\ell}|j} \mathrm{I}_{d_x}).$

where both the mean and variance depend on the approximation used.

Backward kernel approximation

Proposition

Assume forward=backward. For all $\ell \in [0, L]$, $j \in [k_{\ell} + 1, k_{\ell+1}]$,

$$W_2(\hat{p}_{k_{\ell}|j}(\cdot|x_j), p_{k_{\ell}|j}(\cdot|x_j)) \le \frac{\sqrt{\alpha_{k_{\ell}}}(1-\alpha_j/\alpha_{k_{\ell}})}{1-\alpha_j} W_2(\hat{p}_{0|j}(\cdot|x_j), p_{0|j}(\cdot|x_j)).$$

where
$$rac{\sqrt{lpha_k_\ell}(1-lpha_j/lpha_k_\ell)}{1-lpha_j} < 1$$
 and goes to 0 as $j o k_\ell$.

- We improve upon the previous approximations by performing Gaussian approximations on intervals [[k_ℓ, k_{ℓ+1}]] of moderate size.
- Our approximation of the backward function is then

$$\begin{split} \beta_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(x_j) &\approx \hat{\beta}_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(x_j) := \int g_{k_{\ell}}^y(x_{k_{\ell}}) \hat{p}_{k_{\ell}|j}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell}}|x_j) \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\alpha_{k_{\ell}}}\,y;A\mu_{k_{\ell}|j}(x_j),\sigma_{k_{\ell}|j}^2AA^{\mathsf{T}} + \sigma_{y,\ell}^2\mathrm{I}_{d_y})\,. \end{split}$$

FSK approximation

Recall that the quantities of interest are

$$p_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d}x_j|x_{j+1}) \propto \beta_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(x_j) \, p_{j|j+1}(\mathrm{d}x_j|x_{j+1}) \,,$$
$$p_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell+1}}) \propto \beta_{k_{\ell}|k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(x_{k_{\ell+1}}) \, p_{k_{\ell+1}}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell+1}}) \,.$$

Given the previous approximation of the backward function, we replace them instead with

$$\hat{p}_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d}x_j|x_{j+1}) \propto \hat{\beta}_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(x_j) p_{j|j+1}(\mathrm{d}x_j|x_{j+1}), \\ \hat{p}_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell+1}}) \propto \hat{\beta}_{k_{\ell}|k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(x_{k_{\ell+1}}) p_{k_{\ell+1}}(\mathrm{d}x_{k_{\ell+1}}),$$

- Still, while now we can evaluate the density $\hat{p}_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|x_{j+1})$ we still cannot sample from it.
- We can approximately sample from $\hat{p}_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}$ using ULA.

For a fixed x_{j+1} we seek a mean-field Gaussian variational approximation of $\hat{p}_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|x_{j+1})$ by solving

$$\underset{\substack{y_{j|j+1} \\ j|j+1} (\cdot|x_{j+1}) \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathrm{D}}}{\operatorname{\mathsf{KL}}(r_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|x_{j+1}) \parallel \hat{p}_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|x_{j+1}))},$$

where $\mathcal{G}_{\mathrm{D}} := \{ \mathcal{N}(\mu, \operatorname{diag}(\sigma)) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}^{d_x}, \sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d_x}_{>0} \}.$

• We only learn vectors (μ, σ) that depend on the value of $X_{j+1}^{y,\ell}$ and do not seek to generalize as this incurs problem dependent, heavy training.

Variational approximation II

$$\begin{split} \text{-etting } r_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|X_{j+1}^{y,\ell}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mu_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}, \operatorname{diag}(\mathrm{e}^{s_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}})) \text{ where } s_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_x}, \\ \text{KL}(r_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|X_{j+1}^{y,\ell}) \parallel \hat{p}_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|X_{j+1}^{y,\ell})) \\ &= -\mathbb{E}\big[\log \hat{\beta}_{k_{\ell}|j}^{y,\ell}(\mu_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell} + \operatorname{diag}(\mathrm{e}^{s_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}})Z)\big] + \frac{\|\mu_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell} - \mu_{j|j+1}(X_{j+1}^{y,\ell})\|^2}{2\sigma_{m|m+1}^2} \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{d_x} \left(s_{j|j+1,i}^{y,\ell} - \frac{\mathrm{e}^{s_{j|j+1,i}^{y,\ell}}}{\sigma_{m|m+1}^2}\right), \end{split}$$

- We perform the optimization using SGD.
- Crucially, we normalize the gradients to ensure the stability of the training procedure.
- In practice, we only perform 2 or 3 SGD steps.

Tamed ULA steps

We now turn to the Langevin steps on $\hat{p}_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}$.

As the marginals $(p_k)_{k=0}^n$ approximate the true marginals of the forward process initialized at the data distribution π , we may use

$$s_k^{\theta}(x_k) = -(x_k - \sqrt{\alpha_k} \hat{x}_{0|k}^{\theta}(x_k)) / (1 - \alpha_k),$$

as a substitute for $\nabla_{x_k} \log p_k(x_k)$, following Dhariwal and Nichol (2021).

We sample approximately from $\hat{p}_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}$ by running M steps of the Tamed Unadjusted Langevin scheme (Brosse et al., 2019)

$$X_{j+1} = X_j + \gamma G_{\gamma}^{y,\ell}(X_j) + \sqrt{2\gamma} Z_j \,, \quad X_0 = X_{k_{\ell+1}}^y \,, \tag{1}$$

where

$$G_{\gamma}^{y,\ell}(x) := \frac{\nabla \log \hat{\beta}_{k_{\ell}|k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(x) + s_{k_{\ell+1}}^{\theta}(x)}{1 + \gamma \|\nabla \log \hat{\beta}_{k_{\ell}|k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell}(x) + s_{k_{\ell+1}}^{\theta}(x)\|},$$

and set $X_{k_{\ell+1}}^{y,\ell} := X_M$.

Given an approximate sample $X^y_{k_{\ell+1}}$ from $\hat{p}^y_{k_{\ell+1}}$,

- Run TULA starting from $X_{k\ell+1}^y$ to obtain $X_{k\ell+1}^{y,\ell}$ approximately distributed according $\hat{p}_{k\ell+1}^{y,\ell}$.
- $\blacksquare \text{ Sample } (X_j^{y,\ell})_{j=k_{\ell+1}}^{k_\ell}: \text{ given } X_{j+1}^{y,\ell} \text{ with } j \in [\![k_\ell,k_{\ell+1}-1]\!],$
 - Find variational approximation $r_{j|j+1}^{y,\ell}(\cdot|X_{j+1}^{y,\ell})$.
 - $\blacksquare \ {\rm Draw} \ X^{y,\ell}_j \sim r^{y,\ell}_{j|j+1}(\cdot|X^{y,\ell}_{j+1}).$
- Repeat these steps.

Toy experiments

- Same 25 Gaussian mixture example.
- DCPS_M refers to our algorithm with M Langevin steps at the beginning of each block.
- We use L = 4.
- We also estimate the empirical weights of each Gaussian mixture mode and compare with the ground truth.

	$d_x = 10, d_y = 1$		$d_x = 100, d_y = 1$		
	SW	Δw	SW	Δw	
MCGDiff	$2.25/2.69 \pm 2.07$	0.32 ± 0.20	$2.72/3.13 \pm 1.76$	0.42 ± 0.19	
DPS	$3.12/5.64 \pm 8.45$	0.20 ± 0.12	$4.29/4.93 \pm 4.85$	0.35 ± 0.25	
DDRM	$2.66/3.06 \pm 1.90$	0.36 ± 0.16	$5.97/6.26 \pm 2.33$	0.52 ± 0.19	
$DCPS_{50}$	$1.95/2.70\pm 2.28$	0.17 ± 0.25	$4.40/4.72\pm 2.18$	0.44 ± 0.16	
\mathtt{DCPS}_{500}	$1.26/2.59 \pm 2.83$	0.13 ± 0.30	$2.81/3.22 \pm 2.21$	0.32 ± 0.18	

 Table 1: Results for the Gaussian mixture experiment. Results for the SW
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Original image Obervation y





DCPS

DPS











Original image Obervation y







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Original image Obervation y







Original image Obervation y









DCPS











DPS

































DCPS

DPS











DCPS



Original image Obervation y





Original image Obervation y









Original image Obervation y







DCPS







Original image Obervation y













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DCPS















DPS











DPS

Colorization experiments

Original image Obervation y





DCPS













Colorization experiments

Original image Obervation y





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Colorization experiments

Original image Obervation y







Thank you!

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