

Studying Classifier(-Free) Guidance From A Classifier-Centric Perspective

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Abstract

Classifier-free guidance has become a staple for conditional generation with denoising diffusion models. However, a comprehensive understanding of classifier-free guidance is still missing. In this work, we carry out an empirical study to provide a fresh perspective on classifier-free guidance. Concretely, instead of solely focusing on classifier-free guidance, we trace back to the root, *i.e.*, classifier guidance, pinpoint the key assumption for the derivation, and conduct a systematic study to understand the role of the classifier. On 1D data, we find that both classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance achieve conditional generation by pushing the denoising diffusion trajectories away from decision boundaries, *i.e.*, areas where conditional information is usually entangled and is hard to learn. To validate this classifier-centric perspective on high-dimensional data, we assess whether a flow-matching postprocessing step that is designed to narrow the gap between a pre-trained diffusion model’s learned distribution and the real data distribution, especially near decision boundaries, can improve the performance. Experiments on various datasets verify our classifier-centric understanding.

1 Introduction

Conditional generation, *e.g.*, class-to-image, text-to-image, or image-to-video, is omnipresent as it provides a compelling way to control the output. Ideally, conditional generation results are both *diverse* and of *high-fidelity*. Namely, the generative models’ outputs align with the conditioning information perfectly and diligently follow the training data diversity. However, there is a trade-off between high-fidelity and diversity: without constraining diversity there are always possibilities to sample from areas on the data distribution manifold that are not well-trained. Thus, trading diversity for fidelity is a long-standing problem and the community has developed various approaches, *e.g.*, the truncation trick for generative adversarial nets (GANs) (Brock, Donahue, and Simonyan 2018; Karras, Laine, and Aila 2018), low-temperature sampling for probabilistic models (Ackley, Hinton, and Sejnowski 1985), or temperature control in large language models (Achiam et al. 2023; Dubey et al. 2024).

More recently, to trade diversity and fidelity in denoising diffusion models (Song and Ermon 2019; Vincent 2011;

Ho, Jain, and Abbeel 2020; Kingma et al. 2021), several techniques have been developed (Dhariwal and Nichol 2021; Hong et al. 2023; Kim et al. 2022; Dinh, Liu, and Xu 2023b,a), from which classifier-free guidance (Ho and Salimans 2021) emerged as the de-facto standard. *E.g.*, classifier-free guidance, especially at sufficient scale, is critical for high-quality text-to-image (Rombach et al. 2022a) and text-to-3D (Poole et al. 2023) generation.

Despite its popularity, we think a solid understanding of classifier-free guidance is missing. Recently, several efforts provide insights by studying classifier-free guidance from a theoretical perspective (Bradley and Nakkiran 2024; Xia et al. 2024; Chidambaram et al. 2024) showing that sampling from classifier-free guidance is not the same as sampling from a sharpened distribution.

Instead of solely focusing on classifier-free guidance as done in the works mentioned above, we trace back to the root of classifier-free guidance, *i.e.*, classifier guidance (Dhariwal and Nichol 2021). It is classifier guidance that decomposes the *conditional* generation into a combination of an *unconditional* generation and a classifier prediction. Classifier-free guidance adopts this decomposition and replaces the classifier by randomly dropping conditioning during training (Ho and Salimans 2021). This connection motivates us to carefully study classifier guidance’s derivation and its behavior.

We first identify a key assumption underlying classifier guidance’s decomposition, which is also central to classifier-free guidance due to the connection mentioned above, that often fails to hold. This issue results in different behaviors for 1) a vanilla denoising diffusion conditional generation; and 2) a generation that follows the decomposition of classifier guidance as well as classifier-free guidance. On synthetic 1D data, the vanilla conditional generative model produces straight denoising paths while the decomposed version results in distorted trajectories that are *pushed away from the classifier’s decision boundary*. This discrepancy is exacerbated with the commonly used large guidance scale.

The above observation motivates us to further study the sensitivity of classifier guidance to the accuracy of the *classifier*. We find that classifier guidance generations are dominated by the behavior of the classifier that provides guidance. In other words, conditional generation via classifier guidance is achieved via pushing the generation away from the class decision boundaries. A similar observation is ob-

tained for classifier-free guidance as well. To further verify this classifier-centric perspective, we study a postprocessing step to push samples from the trained model, *mainly around the decision boundaries*, to their nearest neighbors in the real data. Experiments on various datasets demonstrate the improvement of generation, verifying our understanding.

In summary, our contribution is a systematic empirical study of both classifier and classifier-free guidance from a classifier-centric perspective for intuitive understandings.

2 Related Works

Trading diversity for fidelity in conditional generation is a long-standing problem that has been actively studied by the community. For probabilistic models trained with the maximum likelihood objective, Ackley, Hinton, and Sejnowski (1985) propose low-temperature sampling to effectively focus on the mode of the learned distribution, borrowing ideas from statistical mechanics (Metropolis et al. 1953). This technique has also been employed beneficially for high-quality image synthesis (Parmar et al. 2018; Kingma and Dhariwal 2018). Recent large language models (LLMs) (Achiam et al. 2023; Dubey et al. 2024) also exploit this idea, balancing creativity and determinism via temperature control during next token prediction via the learned probability model (Brown et al. 2020). For image synthesis with generative adversarial nets (GANs), the truncation trick (Brock, Donahue, and Simonyan 2018; Karras, Laine, and Aila 2018) was developed to enforce sampling from a truncated normal distribution rather than the standard normal prior. This encourages conditional generations to remain close to the mode of the data distribution observed during training, preventing them from diverging too far. More recently, denoising diffusion models have demonstrated impressive generation capabilities in various domains (Kong et al. 2021; Poole et al. 2023; Rombach et al. 2022a; Chen et al. 2021). Classifier-free guidance (Ho and Salimans 2021), built upon classifier guidance (Dhariwal and Nichol 2021), has emerged as a standard for controlling conditional generations of denoising diffusion models. Our work contributes to the understanding of the trade-off between diversity and fidelity in the field of denoising diffusion models via carefully studying classifier and classifier-free guidance from a classifier-centric perspective.

Generation with guidance is closely related to our study. Techniques discussed in the preceding paragraph, except classifier guidance, solely require trained generative models, *e.g.*, the generator in GANs, to control the diversity and fidelity trade-off. In contrast, guidance relies on a separate model to influence the conditional generation. Rejection sampling (Casella, Robert, and Wells 2004) is an active area of research in this direction. For GANs, prior works use the discriminator paired with the generator to reject generations for which the discriminator has high confidence (Azadi et al. 2019; Turner et al. 2018). Alternatively, Che et al. (2020) utilize the discriminator to reject samples in the latent space. For variational autoencoders (VAEs) (Kingma and Welling 2014), learnable acceptance functions have been studied for both prior (Bauer and Mnih 2019; Aneja et al. 2021) and posterior (Grover et al. 2018;

Jankowiak and Phan 2023) rejection sampling. Other works explore pre-trained classifiers to provide guidance. Razavi, van den Oord, and Vinyals (2019) use a classifier trained on ImageNet (Deng et al. 2009) to reject samples that cannot be well-recognized. Thanks to the recent progress of representation learning, several prior works exploit CLIP (Radford et al. 2021) to provide guidance on conditional generations with GANs (Galatolo, Cimino, and Vaglini 2021; Patashnik et al. 2021). Kim et al. (2022) improves the quality of a pre-trained model via refining denoising trajectories with guidance from a discriminator that distinguishes between real and fake denoising paths. Dinh, Liu, and Xu (2023a,b) mitigates the conflicts between quality and diversity caused by the guidance from a gradient and progressive perspective. Classifier guidance (Dhariwal and Nichol 2021) steers generation using a classifier trained along the denoising path. Inspired by this, we take a classifier-centric view to intuitively understand the behaviors of classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance.

Classifier-free guidance has attracted more and more attention in the community. Theoretically, several recent works clarify that sampling with classifier-free guidance does not correspond to sampling from a tilted distribution (Bradley and Nakkiran 2024; Xia et al. 2024; Chidambaram et al. 2024; Wu et al. 2024), a misconception that is popular in the community. Bradley and Nakkiran (2024) further prove that CFG is equivalent to the predictor-corrector mechanism (Song et al. 2021) in the continuous-time limit. Empirically, prior works improve generation quality by refining classifier-free guidance. Sadat et al. (2024) dynamically adjust the scale of classifier-free guidance to improve the generation diversity. Lin and Yang (2024) argue that classifier-free guidance essentially behaves as a perceptual loss and propose to incorporate a self-perceptual objective during training. Chung et al. (2024) introduce CFG++ to mitigate the issue of an off-manifold denoising path via a refined sampling formulation and a small scale. Different from these works that solely focus on classifier-free guidance, we instead trace back to the origin, *i.e.*, classifier guidance (Dhariwal and Nichol 2021). We systematically study the role the classifier plays in the performance of classifier guidance and found classifier guidance essentially pushes the generation away from the decision boundary. Furthermore, we demonstrate that this is also true for classifier-free guidance.

3 Analysis

3.1 Conditional Generation as Denoising Diffusion

The goal of conditional generation is to sample the data of interest $\mathbf{x}_0$, *e.g.*, images, from a conditional distribution, *i.e.*, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_0|c)$. Here, c is the conditioning information, *e.g.*, class labels. Note, hereafter we use θ to subsume all learnable parameters for simplicity.

In this work, we focus on denoising diffusion models (Song and Ermon 2019; Vincent 2011; Ho, Jain, and Abbeel 2020). A denoising diffusion process generates data from white noise by introducing a sequence of latent variables $\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \triangleq \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_T\}$ that form a

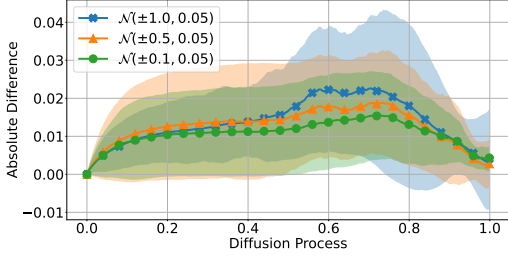


Figure 1: **Classifier guidance decomposition (Eq. (4)) does not always hold.** We apply classifier guidance on 1D data from $\mathcal{N}(\pm 1.0, 0.05)$, $\mathcal{N}(\pm 0.5, 0.05)$, and $\mathcal{N}(\pm 0.1, 0.05)$ respectively. The denoising diffusion process starts from left to right. For each dataset, we train a vanilla conditional diffusion model and a decomposed version, *i.e.*, an unconditional diffusion model and a classifier. We generate 20k samples (10k for each class) from both sides of Eq. (4) with the same initial noises and compute the absolute differences for each step in the denoising diffusion process. This plot shows the average as well as the standard deviation for the difference. Apparently, the classifier guidance decomposition doesn’t hold with equality.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Markov chain } p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_0|c) &= \int p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_{1:T}|c) d\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \triangleq \\ &\int p(\mathbf{x}_T|c) \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c) d\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \\ &\approx \int p(\mathbf{x}_T) \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c) d\mathbf{x}_{1:T}. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The last step is due to $p(\mathbf{x}_T|c)$ being almost identical to an isotropic Gaussian, independent of the condition c .

Following DDPM (Ho, Jain, and Abbeel 2020), $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c)$ is defined as a Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_t; \mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, t+1, c), (1-\alpha_{t+1})\mathbf{I})$, trying to reverse a forward diffusion process. Here $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$ is a pre-defined schedule for the forward diffusion process and $\mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, t+1, c)$ is tasked to predict the corresponding $\mathbf{x}_t$ in the forward diffusion process. Specifically, the forward diffusion process gradually corrupts the clean data $\mathbf{x}_0$ with Gaussian noise: $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} \sim q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \triangleq \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}; \sqrt{\alpha_{t+1}}\mathbf{x}_t, (1-\alpha_{t+1})\mathbf{I}), \forall t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$. Notably, with $\bar{\alpha}_t \triangleq \prod_{s=1}^t \alpha_s$, we have $q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_t; \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}\mathbf{x}_0, (1-\bar{\alpha}_t)\mathbf{I}) = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}\mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t} \cdot \epsilon$, where $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. Therefore, Ho, Jain, and Abbeel (2020) propose to reduce the learning of $\mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, t+1, c)$ to predicting the noise with $\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, t+1, c)$ as we have $\mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, t+1, c) =$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(\mathbf{x}_{t+1} - \frac{1-\alpha_t}{\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t}} \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, t+1, c) \right). \quad (2)$$

Leveraging the link between denoising diffusion and score matching (Song et al. 2021; Vincent 2011), we have

$$\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c) = -\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_t} \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|c). \quad (3)$$

3.2 Classifier Guidance Revisited

Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) propose *classifier guidance* to decompose the conditional denoising diffusion process

in Eq. (1) as follows:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c) = Z p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t). \quad (4)$$

Z is a normalizing factor independent of $\mathbf{x}_t$. $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})$ is an unconditional denoising diffusion process and $p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$ is a classifier used to predict the probability that $\mathbf{x}_t$ aligns with the conditioning information c . Note, Eq. (4) is not a trivial Bayes expansion. See Sec. A for more.

Revisiting the derivation of Eq. (4), the key step reduces to the following definition (see Eq. (S3)):

$$\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c) \triangleq q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t). \quad (5)$$

Note, $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c)$ is a newly-defined conditional forward diffusion process. At a high level, Eq. (5) tries to convert any *conditional* forward diffusion process, *i.e.*, $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c)$, into an *unconditional* forward diffusion process, *i.e.*, $q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t)$. Based on Eq. (5), Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) derive that the reverse process of $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c)$ can be decomposed into a combination of an unconditional denoising diffusion process and a classifier prediction as in Eq. (4).

However, it is questionable whether the assumption of Eq. (5) always holds: why should a conditional denoising process behave identical to an unconditional one? If Eq. (5) does not hold everywhere, the two sides in Eq. (4) may differ too. Indeed, our experiments on synthetic 1D data verify our suspicion as shown in Fig. 1. Furthermore, not only does the vanilla conditional model (left side of Eq. (4)) behave differently from the proposed decomposition (right side of Eq. (4)), but different instantiations of the classifier $p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$ will produce significantly divergent behaviors as well. The “guidance scale = 1” plots in Fig. 2a and 2b clearly illustrate this.

Large classifier guidance scale w introduced by Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) will amplify the difference demonstrated above. Specifically, Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) suggest increasing the impact of the classifier with $w > 1$ and sampling from a distribution that is skewed towards high classifier confidence:

$$\mathbf{x}_t \sim p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t)^w. \quad (6)$$

Similar to Eq. (3), Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) show that Eq. (6) can be re-formulated such that $\mathbf{x}_t$ can be sampled via predicting the following noise $\tilde{\epsilon}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c) \triangleq$

$$\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t) - w \cdot \sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_t} \log p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t), \quad (7)$$

where $\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$ is the corresponding noise estimator for the unconditional denoising diffusion process $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})$. As shown in Fig. 2, classifier guidance’s behaviors are dominated by the characteristics of the classifier.

It is worth noticing that classifier guidance with larger and larger guidance scales continuously distorts the straight-like denoising diffusion trajectories to *push them away from the classifier’s decision boundary*. In other words, the goal of *conditional* generation via classifier guidance is achieved by avoiding those areas in which the classifier is uncertain. This explains why a large guidance scale can produce high-fidelity images compared to results generated with a low

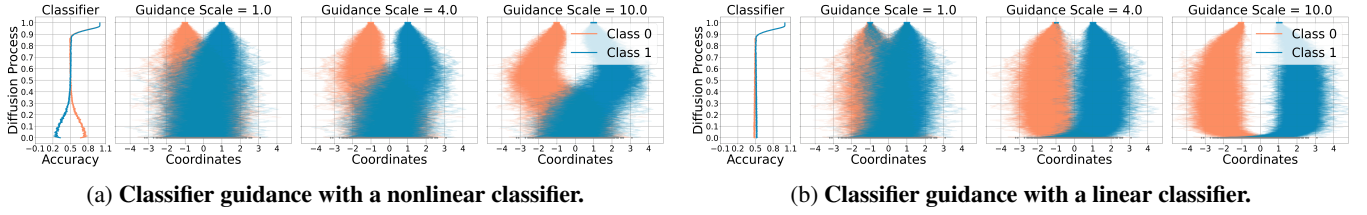


Figure 2: **Classifier guidance behavior is dominated by the classifier.** We apply denoising diffusion models with classifier guidance on a 1D dataset with data from $\mathcal{N}(\pm 1.0, 0.05)$. The classifiers in Fig. 2a and 2b differ. The denoising diffusion process for all plots starts from the bottom to the top. In Fig. 2a and 2b, the first plot demonstrates the classifier’s accuracy on a validation set for each class through the diffusion process, *i.e.*, $p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$ in Eq. (4), while the remaining three plots display the diffusion trajectories with different guidance scales. We observe: 1) classifier guidance essentially pushes the diffusion process away from the classifier’s decision boundary that is around the origin; and 2) different classifiers can produce entirely different trajectories (Fig. 2a vs. 2b). Since we use the same initial noise and the same unconditional diffusion model, *i.e.*, $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})$ in Eq. (4), for all plots, differences are solely due to the classifier.

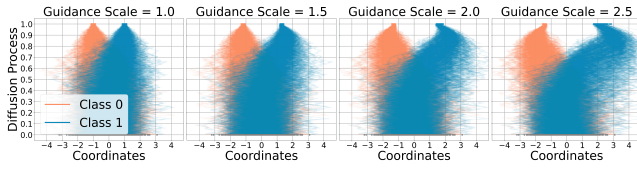


Figure 3: **Classifier-free guidance distorts denoising diffusion trajectories.** We apply denoising diffusion models with classifier-free guidance on a 1D dataset composed of data from $\mathcal{N}(\pm 1.0, 0.05)$. The denoising diffusion process for all plots starts from the bottom to the top. We use the same trained model as well as the same initial noise for all plots. The trajectory differences are solely caused by different guidance scales. Different scales in Fig. 2 and this figure arise from classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance’s differing sensitivities. Here, scale=2.5 distorts trajectories significantly, while Fig. 2’s scale=4 causes minor changes. We hypothesize that classifier-free guidance’s greater sensitivity stems from its training with conditioning dropout.

guidance scale. The reason is that a low guidance scale is not strong enough to move the diffusion trajectories away from areas on the data distribution manifold where different conditional information intersect. Due to the entanglement, these areas naturally form the decision boundary for a *well-trained* classifier. With a large guidance scale and a well-trained classifier, classifier guidance can completely avoid ambiguous areas on the image manifold and generate results *unambiguously* aligned with the conditional information.

The obvious next question: can this reasoning for classifier guidance be generalized to classifier-free guidance?

3.3 Classifier-Free Guidance Revisited

Classifier-free guidance was introduced to eliminate the reliance on a separate classifier (Ho and Salimans 2021). Intuitively, with Bayes rule, we have $p(c|\mathbf{x}_t) = p(c)p(\mathbf{x}_t|c)/p(\mathbf{x}_t)$. Consequently, $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_t} \log p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$ can be decomposed as $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_t} \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|c) - \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_t} \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t)$, where $p(c)$ disappears as it is independent of $\mathbf{x}_t$. When substituting this into Eq. (7) and considering Eq. (3), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\epsilon}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c) = \\ \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t) + w \cdot (\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c) - \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The effect of classifier guidance can be achieved by training two noise estimators for both conditional ($\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c)$) and unconditional ($\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$) denoising diffusion processes respectively. In practice, Ho and Salimans (2021) propose to only train one conditional denoising diffusion model but randomly drop out the conditioning information c during training to mimic the unconditional process.

One may notice that Eq. (4) *lays the foundation for classifier-free guidance* (Ho and Salimans 2021). If this is not clear, please refer to Sec. A for more details. We want to know whether the connection between classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance can be used to show that classifier-free guidance inherits the characteristics of classifier guidance. Namely, does classifier-free guidance also try to push the diffusion trajectories away from the data’s decision boundary? Note, classifier-free guidance does not directly involve any explicit classifier. However, based on our discussion in Sec. 3.2, a well-trained classifier’s decision boundary naturally aligns with the data’s decision boundary. Experiments on 1D synthetic datasets provide an affirmative answer as shown in Fig. 3.

3.4 Verification on High-Dimensional Data

So far, we have developed and verified our understanding on synthetic 1D data thanks to clear visualizations. A natural question arises: how can we assess our understanding on high-dimensional data, where visualizing the decision boundary, let alone the denoising trajectory, is non-trivial? To address this, we propose an alternative approach that perturbs samples away from the decision boundary. This allows us to *indirectly* evaluate our classifier-centric understanding.

If our classifier-centric understanding is correct, *i.e.*, if classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance perform conditional generation by moving samples away from the decision boundary, then low-quality generations should occur more frequently near the decision boundary, due to its complex structure in high-dimensional spaces. For a pre-trained generative model, if we can construct a postprocess-

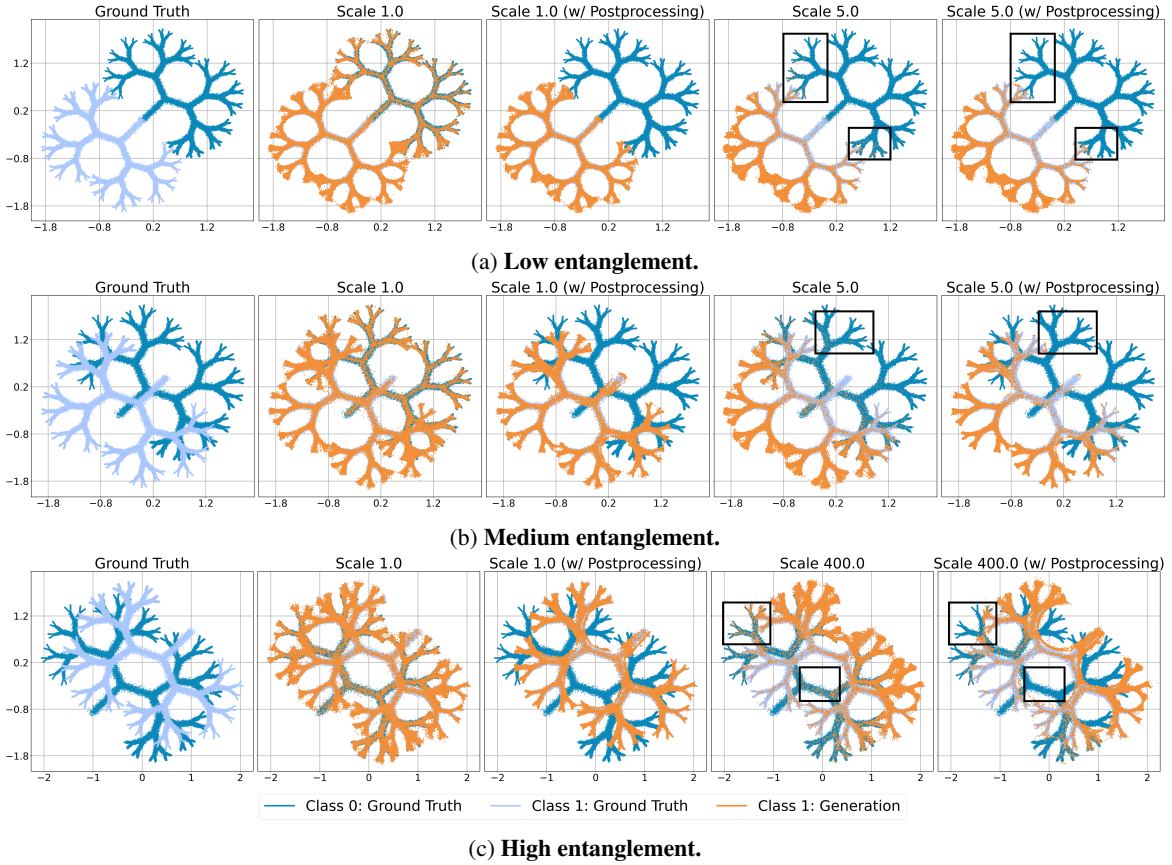


Figure 4: **Classifier guidance with flow-matching based postprocessing (Sec. 3.4) on 2D fractal data.** After training, all three classifiers’ decision boundaries roughly align with the diagonal from top-left to bottom-right. See Sec. D.4 for the experiment setup. In Fig. 4a to 4c, the 3rd (and 5th) plot show generated samples after applying postprocessing on generations from the 2nd (and 4th) plot. For a clear visualization, we only display generations for one class (see Fig. S7 for the other class).

ing step that moves samples away from the decision boundary, the overall quality of the generation should improve.

For this, we develop a generic postprocessing step to help verify our understanding on high-dimensional data. Let $\mathcal{X}_{\text{real}}$ refer to a set of samples from the real data distribution while $\mathcal{X}$ denotes a set of generated samples from a generative model. Note, $\mathcal{X}$ is agnostic to the specific choice of generation strategy, *e.g.*, it does not matter whether $\mathcal{X}$ was produced with classifier guidance or classifier-free guidance. Our goal is to move the distribution underlying $\mathcal{X}$ closer to the distribution represented by $\mathcal{X}_{\text{real}}$ mainly around the decision boundary. We train a rectified flow (Liu, Gong, and Liu 2023; Lipman et al. 2023) v_θ via

$$\min_{v_\theta} \int_0^1 \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{X}} [\|(\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \text{NN}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{real}})) - v_\theta(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, c, t)\|^2] dt, \quad (9)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \sim \mathcal{X}$, $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t = (1 - t) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}} + t \cdot \text{NN}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{real}})$. Here $\text{NN}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{real}})$ represent the nearest neighbor sample for $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ in the real data set $\mathcal{X}_{\text{real}}$.

We emphasize the use of NN in Eq. (9), which differs from classic rectified flow formulations. Importantly, the use of NN automatically balances between 1) already-high-quality generations; and 2) low-quality generations. Based on our

Table 1: **Nearest neighbor distance between generations and ground truth for Fig. 5.** We report average nearest neighbor (NN) distance ($\times 10^{-5}$) for 20k generations from the same noise, formatted as $A/B/C$: before postprocessing (A) / postprocessed with nearest (B) / postprocessed with random sampling from 20 candidates (C). B vs. C shows random sampling outperforms picking the nearest.

Guidance Scale	$w = 1$			$w = 2$			$w = 4$		
Class 0	5.95	3.11	1.57	5.31	1.70	1.01	11.7	2.05	1.12
Class 1	12.4	3.25	1.70	6.09	1.88	1.00	6.51	1.41	0.79

study in Sec. 3.2 and Sec. 3.3, the training will focus on generations around decision boundaries where low-quality generations usually occur. Concretely, if $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is already a high-fidelity generation, *i.e.*, close to $\mathcal{X}_{\text{real}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \text{NN}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{real}})$ will be extremely small, providing a negligible learning signal. In practice, inspired by (Tong et al. 2024), we do not always use the nearest neighbor $\text{NN}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{real}})$. Instead, we first find top- k nearest neighbors and randomly select one from the top- k as the target during each training iteration. This randomness provides more opportunities to avoid local optima.

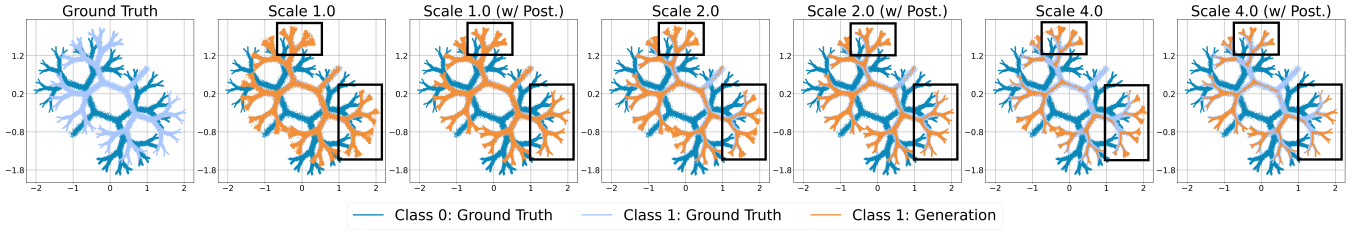


Figure 5: **Classifier-free guidance with flow-matching based postprocessing (Sec. 3.4) on 2D fractal data.** The level of entanglement is the same as that in Fig. 4c. Each plot with ‘Post.’ in the title displays generations after applying postprocessing on samples from the corresponding previous plot. We observe that the postprocessing step continuously improves the fidelity of the generations via moving samples around the decision boundary back to the real data distribution as the leaf branches become much sharper, regardless of the guidance scale we use.

After training the postprocessing flow, conditional generation involves two steps: 1) sampling from the original denoising diffusion model $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_0|c)$ in Eq. (1) to obtain a sample $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$; and 2) running an ODE solver over the time interval $[0, 1]$ to solve $d\mathbf{z}_t/dt = v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t, c, t)$ numerically, starting from $\mathbf{z}_0 = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$. The ODE solver’s output $\mathbf{z}_1$ is the final generation. We use $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$ for the base model output and $\mathbf{z}_t$ to emphasize that postprocessing is based on a separate flow matching procedure.

The proposed postprocessing is related to autoguidance (Karras et al. 2024a), which guides the model training with a bad version of itself. Autoguidance moves samples in the direction given by the difference between an inferior version and the current model. In contrast, our postprocessing flow model is based on a pre-trained model and real data. More importantly, we propose the postprocessing step primarily to verify our classifier-centric understanding.

4 Experiments

4.1 2D Fractal

The 2D Fractal dataset is represented by a mixture of Gaussians, similar to the dataset used by Karras et al. (2024a). Please refer to Sec. D.4 for details. As displayed in “Ground Truth” plots in Fig. 4, *this synthetic dataset provides an easy way to control the level of entanglement among data from different classes*. We use this dataset to verify 1) our analysis in Sec. 3 on 1D data can be generalized; and 2) the postprocessing step in Sec. 3.4 is an effective proxy to assess our classifier-centric understanding.

We qualitatively illustrate the results for classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 respectively. We choose top-20 nearest neighbors when training the rectified flow in the experiments. As can be seen clearly, the larger the guidance scale, the further are the samples from the decision boundaries, corroborating our classifier-centric understanding. Further, the proposed postprocessing step mainly moves samples around the decision boundaries while keeping generations that are already close to real data untouched. Quantitatively, Tab. 1 verifies the effectiveness of our approach for Fig. 5.

Additionally, according to Eq. (8), when using a scale of 1 for classifier-free guidance, we essentially sample from a pure conditional model, *i.e.*, $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c)$ on Eq. (4)

left side. The comparison between two plots of “Scale 1.0” in Fig. 4c and Fig. 5 corroborates our analysis in Sec. 3.2 that the two sides of Eq. (4) are generally not equal.

4.2 MNIST

Our proposed postprocessing step improves the fidelity of generations for both classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance on real-world MNIST (LeCun et al. 1998) data as shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. S5. Based on our analysis in Sec. 3.4, this validates our classifier-centric understanding on MNIST. Our denoising diffusion and rectified flow models are based on a UNet (Ronneberger, Fischer, and Brox 2015) similar to the one used by Dhariwal and Nichol (2021). See Sec. D.5 for experimental details.

4.3 CIFAR-10

We further verify our classifier-centric understanding on image synthesis via Fréchet Inception Distance (FID) (Heusel et al. 2017), a commonly-used metric for generation quality, on CIFAR-10 (Krizhevsky 2009). See Sec. D.6 for details. We choose EDM (Karras et al. 2022), one of the state-of-the-art diffusion-based generative models on CIFAR-10, as our pre-trained model. However, the pre-trained EDM model lacks conditioning dropout, making it incompatible with CFG. We re-train a CFG-compatible EDM, verifying correctness with FID 1.850 (ours with CFG scale 1.0) vs. 1.849 (pre-trained). As shown in Tab. 2, the postprocessing step improves the generation quality across various guidance scales. Based on our analysis in Sec. 3.4, our classifier-centric understanding holds on this high-dimensional data.

5 Discussion

NN in Eq. (9). Unlike the 2D Fractal case in Sec. 4.1, where Euclidean distance is well-defined, there’s no clear distance definition for high-dimensional data. In an ablation on CIFAR-10 in Sec. C, we find that while our postprocessing consistently improves overall generation quality, *i.e.*, it can be a proxy for assessing our classifier-centric understanding (Sec. 3.4), specific performance can vary.

On ImageNet (Deng et al. 2009). We experimented with our postprocessing on ImageNet 512² with various distance metrics, but the performance is not satisfactory. Due to the

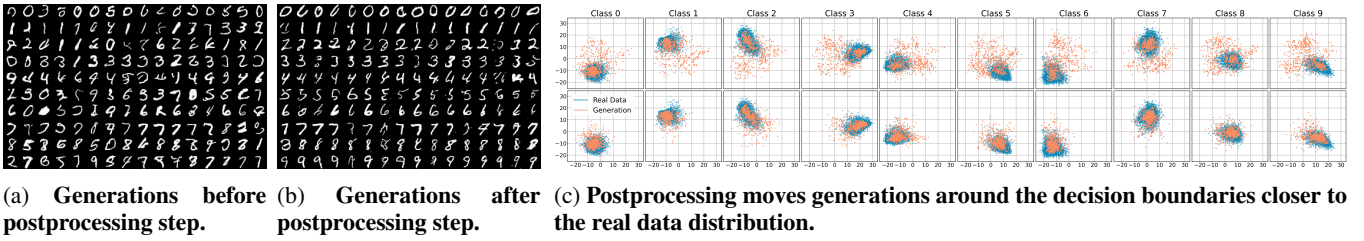


Figure 6: **Classifier guidance (scale 1.0) with flow-matching based postprocessing (Sec. 3.4) on MNIST.** Fig. 6a and 6b share the same initial noises for corresponding cells. Conditioning information from top to bottom row is the digit 0 to 9. Fig. 6c shows that the flow matching based postprocessing clearly improves the alignment between generations and conditioning: The top and bottom rows in Fig. 6c correspond to Fig. 6a and 6b respectively. The postprocessing moves the learned distribution (orange clusters) closer to the real one (blue clusters). See Sec. D.5 for the experiment details.

Table 2: **Postprocessing for classifier-free guidance on CIFAR-10.** We report conditional FID on 50k generations with seeds from 0 to 49999. Lower FID is better, and the best in each row is highlighted. Postprocessing is abbreviated as “Post.”. See qualitative results in Fig. 7.

CFG Scale	Post.	
Before Post.	$\times$	$\checkmark$
2.25	8.016	5.821
2.50	9.402	5.936
2.75	10.75	6.176

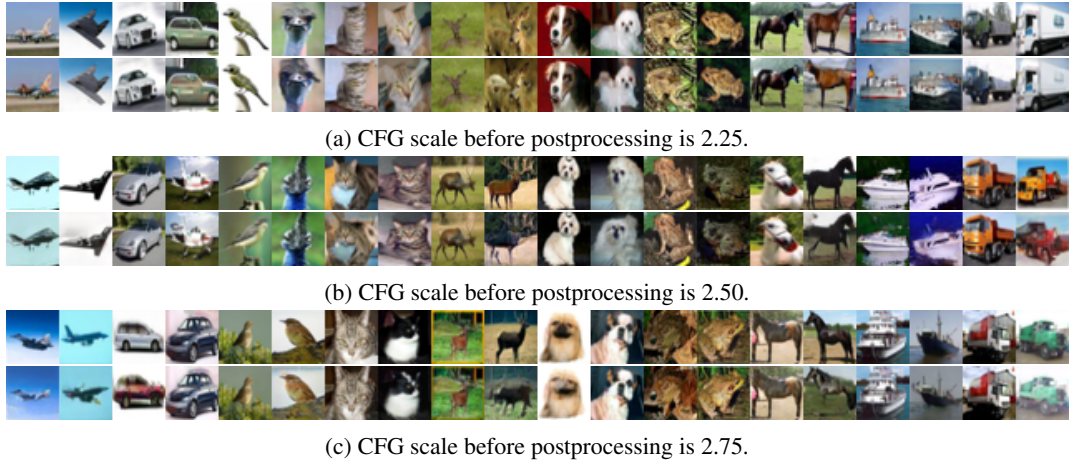


Figure 7: **Tab. 2’s visualizations.** In Fig. 7a to 7c, the top and bottom display generations before and after postprocessing. As expected, most already high-quality samples remain unchanged.

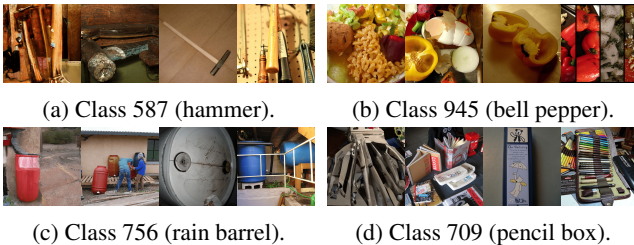


Figure 8: **Nearest neighbor based on different distance metrics for ImageNet 512².** For each plot, from left to right, we display the generation from pre-train EDM2 (Karras et al. 2024b) and its nearest neighbor from the real images based on Euclidean distance in the feature space of DI-NOv2 (Oquab et al. 2023), Stable Diffusion’s VAE (Rombach et al. 2022b), and state-of-the-art classifier from timm (Wightman 2019) respectively. Different distance metrics can produce significantly different results.

intricate structure of this high-dimensional space, determining a reasonable distance metric to apply Eq. (9) is difficult, and this is an active research area (Aggarwal, Hinne-

urg, and Keim 2001; Qian et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2018; Stein et al. 2023). In Fig. 8, we list some qualitative examples on nearest neighbors with distance space we tried, spanning features from self-supervised model (Oquab et al. 2023), VAE (Rombach et al. 2022a), and classifier (Wightman 2019). The behavior differs significantly. Thus, we leave the experiment as a future work.

Limitations. Since our postprocessing step runs another round of diffusion, to verify our classifier-centric understanding, inference time will be doubled when compared to the generation process without postprocessing. However, with more prevailing distillation techniques and faster samplers, we think the overhead can be largely mitigated.

6 Conclusion

We carry out an empirical study aiming to understand classifier-free guidance from a classifier-centric perspective. Our analysis reveals that both classifier-free guidance and classifier guidance push the denoising diffusion process away from the data’s decision boundaries on 1D data. For high-dimensional data, we propose a flow matching based postprocessing step to indirectly assess our classifier-centric understanding and verify its effectiveness across datasets.

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Appendix – Studying Classifier(-Free) Guidance From A Classifier-Centric Perspective

This supplementary material is structured as follows:

1. Sec. **A** derives the formulation for classifier guidance, which is copied from (Dhariwal and Nichol 2021) for completeness purposes;
2. Sec. **B** discusses a generalized postprocessing model and its evaluation on 2D fractal and MNIST data;
3. Sec. **C** discusses the choice of nearest neighbor in high-dimensional data;
4. Sec. **D** describes implementation details;
5. Sec. **E** discusses the broader impact;
6. Sec. **F** provides more visualizations.

A Derivation for Eq. (4)

For completeness, we copy the derivation from Appendix H of Dhariwal and Nichol (2021), with only minimal adjustments to align it with our notation. Throughout the derivation, we **highlight** the steps that rely on the key assumption we mentioned in Eq. (5), demonstrating the validity of our question raised in Sec. 3.2, *i.e.*, whether the conditional diffusion process decomposition in Eq. (4) always holds.

Specifically, Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) first define a conditional Markovian process $\hat{q}$ as

$$\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_0) \triangleq q(\mathbf{x}_0) \quad (\text{S1})$$

$$\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_0) \triangleq \text{Known labels per sample} \quad (\text{S2})$$

$$\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c) \triangleq q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \quad (\text{a key assumption}) \quad (\text{S3})$$

$$\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0, c) \triangleq \prod_{t=1}^T \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, c) \quad (\text{Markovian assumption}) \quad (\text{S4})$$

Eq. (S3) indicates that the defined process $\hat{q}$ behaves identical to an unconditional process q . Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) then prove the following property for the newly-defined process $\hat{q}$:

$$\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) = \int_c \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c|\mathbf{x}_t) dy \quad (\text{S5})$$

$$= \int_c \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c) \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t) dc \quad (\text{S6})$$

$$= \int_c q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t) dc \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S3)}) \quad (\text{S7})$$

$$= q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \int_c \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t) dc \quad (\text{S8})$$

$$= q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \quad (\text{S9})$$

$$= \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c) \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S3)}) \quad (\text{S10})$$

Following a similar logic, Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) further derive $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0)$

$$= \int_c \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}, c|\mathbf{x}_0) dc \quad (\text{S11})$$

$$= \int_c \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_0) \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0, c) dc \quad (\text{S12})$$

$$= \int_c \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{t=1}^T \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, c) dc \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S4)}) \quad (\text{S13})$$

$$= \int_c \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{t=1}^T q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) dc \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S3)}) \quad (\text{S14})$$

$$= \prod_{t=1}^T q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) \int_c \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_0) dc \quad (\text{S15})$$

$$= \prod_{t=1}^T q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) \quad (\text{S16})$$

$$= q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0) \quad (\text{S17})$$

With Eq. (S17) in hand, Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) derive $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t)$

$$= \int_{\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1}} \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t) d\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1} \quad (\text{S18})$$

$$= \int_{\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1}} \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_0) \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0) d\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1} \quad (\text{S19})$$

$$= \int_{\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1}} q(\mathbf{x}_0) q(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0) d\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1} \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S17)}) \quad (\text{S20})$$

$$= \int_{\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1}} q(\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t) d\mathbf{x}_{0:t-1} \quad (\text{S21})$$

$$= q(\mathbf{x}_t) \quad (\text{S22})$$

Using the identities in Eq. (S22) and $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) = q(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t)$ in Eq. (S9), it is trivial to show via Bayes rule that the unconditional reverse process $\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) = q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})$. Another observation about $\hat{q}$ is that it gives rise to a noisy classification function, $\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$. Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) show that this classification distribution does not depend on $\mathbf{x}_{t+1}$ (a noisier version of $\mathbf{x}_t$):

$$\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}) = \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t, c) \frac{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t)}{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t)} \quad (\text{S23})$$

$$= \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \frac{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t)}{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t)} \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S10)}) \quad (\text{S24})$$

$$= \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t) \quad (\text{S25})$$

Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) finally derive the conditional reverse process for $\hat{q}$ as

$$\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c) = \frac{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c)}{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c)} \quad (\text{S26})$$

$$= \frac{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}, c)}{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1})} \quad (\text{S27})$$

$$= \frac{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1})} \quad (\text{S28})$$

$$= \frac{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})} \quad (\text{S29})$$

$$= \frac{\hat{q}(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t)}{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})} \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S25)}) \quad (\text{S30})$$

$$= \frac{q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t)}{\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})} \quad (\text{due to Eq. (S22)}) \quad (\text{S31})$$

The $\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})$ term in the denominator can be treated as a constant since it does not depend on $\mathbf{x}_t$. Dhariwal and Nichol (2021) thus sample from the distribution $Zq(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t+1})\hat{q}(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$ where Z is a normalizing constant. Eq. (S31) is essentially Eq. (4), the foundation for both classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance works.

As can be seen from the derivation, Eq. (S3), *i.e.*, Eq. (5), is the most important assumption. Thus our analysis in Sec. 3 is valid.

B One-for-All-Scales Postprocessing Model

In the main paper, specifically in Fig. 4, 5, and 6, we show results using a dedicated flow matching model which was trained on a set of samples $\mathcal{X}$ generated with a *specific* guidance scale. A natural next question: is it possible to develop a *generalized* postprocessing model that can be trained only once and then applied to all samples regardless of their guidance scale?

We conduct experiments and answer this question in the affirmative. Specifically, we show results for 2D fractal data in Fig. S1, while Fig. S2 and Fig. S3 provide results for MNIST. We emphasize that the amount of training data is identical, *i.e.*, the generalized model is exposed to the same amount of training data as the individually-trained model. From the visualized results we observe that even in this fair setup, the generalized model performs on-par or even better than individually-trained models. We hypothesize that this is because generations with different scales essentially share a similar underlying distribution, as classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance both push the denoising trajectories away from the decision boundaries. With a combined set of samples, the model is exposed to a diverse but coherent dataset, facilitating model generalization. This one-for-all-scales model eases our analysis on high-dimensional data, as it is costly to train separate postprocessing models for each guidance scale. Specifically, for the experiments on CIFAR-10 in Sec. 4.3 and Sec. C, the results are reported from one-for-all-scales models.

C Nearest Neighbor in High-Dimensional Data: Case Study on CIFAR-10

As briefly discussed in Sec. 5, the space for nearest neighbor computation, *i.e.*, NN in Eq. (9), is an important design choice. However, unlike 2D Fractal data, where Euclidean distance is well-defined, there is no golden choice for the distance on high-dimensional data. To understand the effects of different distance metrics, we carry out a case study on CIFAR-10. Further, we are also interested in knowing

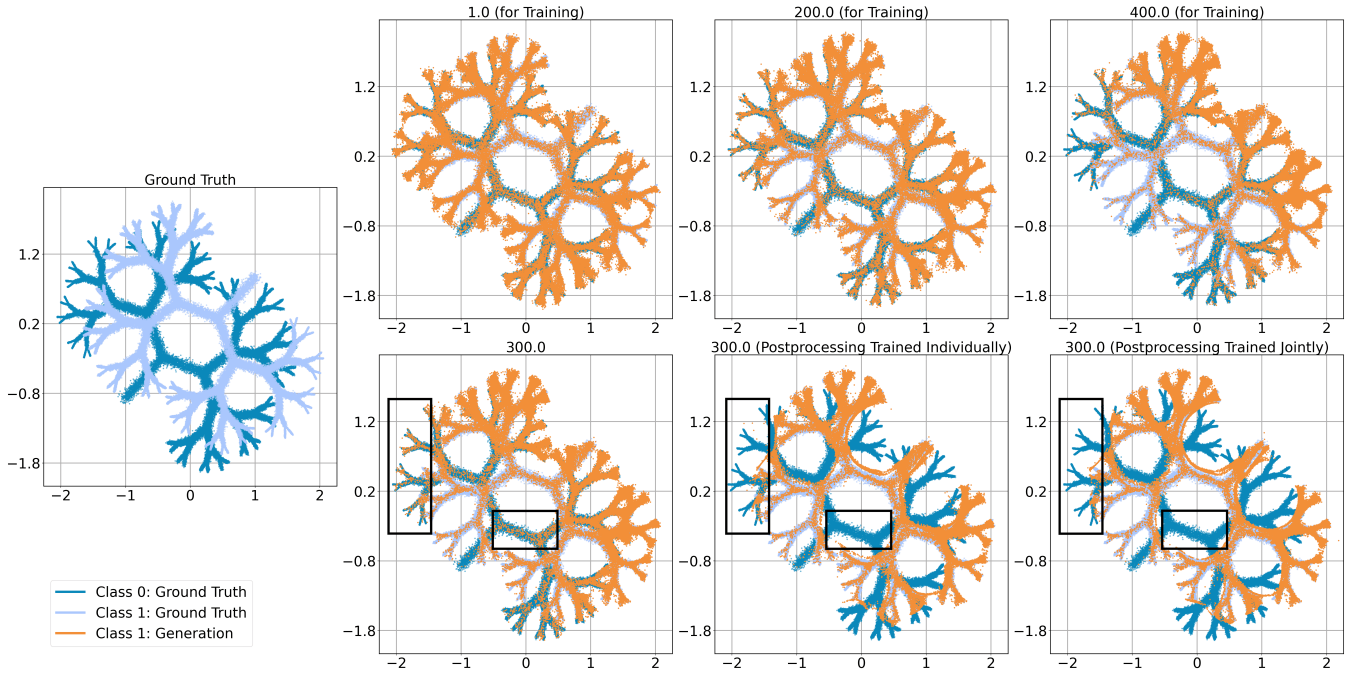
Table S1: **One-for-All-Scales postprocessing model for classifier-free guidance on CIFAR-10 (base model as flow matching)**. We report conditional FID evaluation computed on 50k generations (lower is better). We train a generalized flow matching based postprocessing model on data sampled with guidance scales 1.00, 2.00, and 3.00 and apply it to samples with scales that are not seen during training. We ablate the distance space where nearest neighbor NN is computed, namely 1) the raw RGB space (Pixel); 2) the feature for the CLS token output by DINOv2 (Oquab et al. 2023) (DINOv2 CLS); and 3) the average of the patch features (DINOv2 Patch). We also ablate the number of top- k nearest neighbors (NN) used during training of the postprocessing model. Please refer to Sec. C for details. Postprocessing is abbreviated as “Post.” and **best FID** is highlighted.

	Post.	NN Space	top- k for NN	CFG Scale Before Post.		
				2.25	2.50	2.75
1	X	–	–	35.77	41.58	46.37
2	✓	Pixel	20	22.55	25.96	28.95
3	✓	DINOv2 CLS	20	19.37	22.97	26.48
4	✓	DINOv2 Patch	20	17.27	20.19	23.32
5	✓	DINOv2 Patch	40	17.48	20.10	22.69

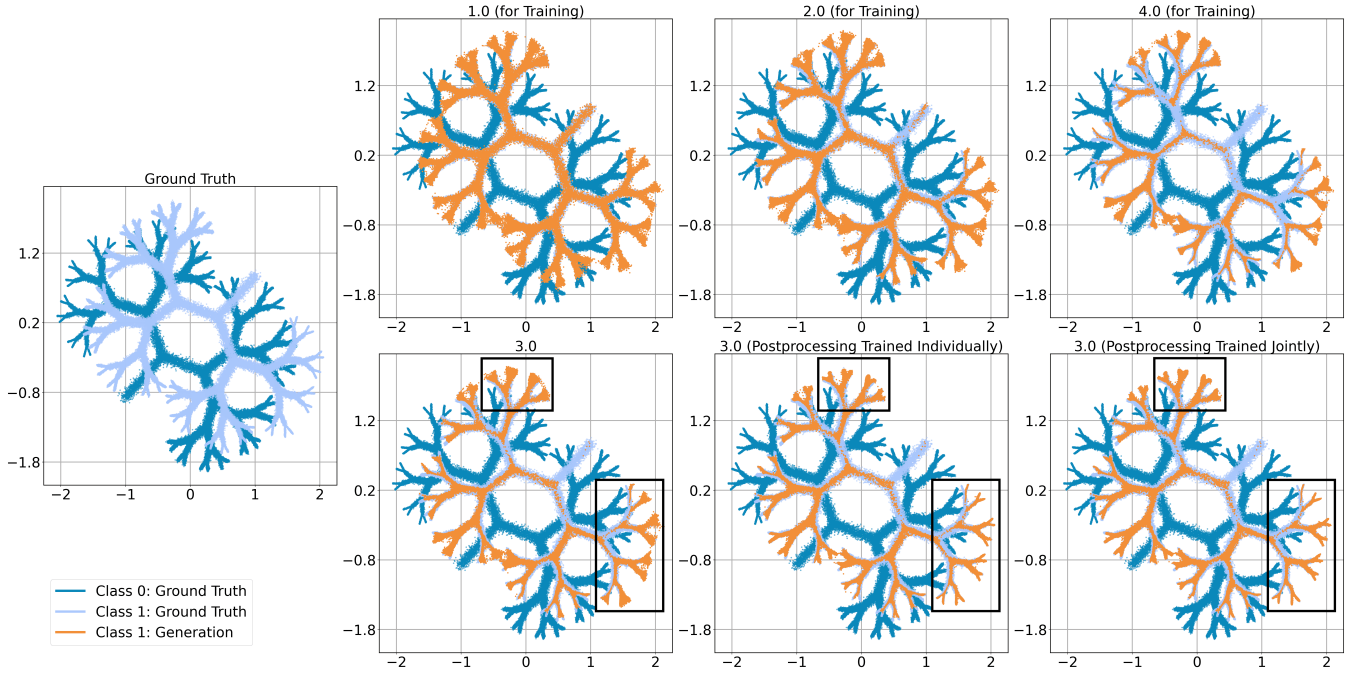
whether our classifier-centric understanding is effective for flow-matching-based base generation model. Thus, we study how our proposed postprocessing step works in conjunction with a base generative model that is based on flow matching, *i.e.*, both our base and postprocessing generative models are flow-matching-based models.

For this, we first train a rectified flow (Liu, Gong, and Liu 2023) based conditional generative model on CIFAR-10. Then, following the procedure for a one-for-all-scales postprocessing model discussed in Appendix B, we compose a training set of 50k generations sampled with a guidance scale of 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0. Each scale contributes to one-third of the training data. With this data, we train a generalized postprocessing model and evaluate it using Fréchet Inception Distance (FID) (Heusel et al. 2017) computed with generations with unseen guidance scales. All generations are obtained using the adaptive solver Dopri5 following the suggestions of Tong et al. (2024).

Here we study two possible candidates for the NN space: 1) directly using the raw RGB pixel; 2) using the feature embedding space of recently developed pre-trained foundation models. For the latter, we employ DINOv2 (Oquab et al. 2023) pre-trained with registers (Darcet et al. 2023). Due to the ViT structure (Dosovitskiy et al. 2021) used in DINOv2, we can either use the information encoded in the CLS token to search for the nearest neighbor or we can take an average of the features corresponding to each patch token. The quantitative results are summarized in Tab. S1. We observe that different distance metric indeed produces drastically different performance. However, in the CIFAR-10 case, the postprocessing model consistently holds the trend of improving the overall generation quality. This verifies our classifier-centric understanding on CIFAR-10.



(a) Performance comparison on data with classifier guidance.



(b) Performance comparison on data with classifier-free guidance.

Figure S1: **One-for-All-Scales postprocessing model (Sec. 3.4) on 2D fractal data.** We train a *generalized* postprocessing model that can be applied to samples generated by various guidance scales. In Fig. S1a and S1b, the top row displays the training data set composed of samples generated with three different scales. Note that for clear visualization, we only show one class of data. The generalized model is trained on two classes of samples. The bottom row in Fig. S1a and S1b compare the performance between *individually-trained* and *generalized* postprocessing model. We want to emphasize that *we keep the amount of training data identical for both post-processing models such that the comparison is fair*. Concretely, for the individually-trained model, we generate 100k points with the specific guidance scale. For the generalized model, we generate $100k / K$ samples for each of the K different guidance scales. As can be seen clearly, the generalized postprocessing model performs well, demonstrating the effect of a One-for-All-Scales postprocessing model: it can ease the analysis of our classifier-centric understanding.

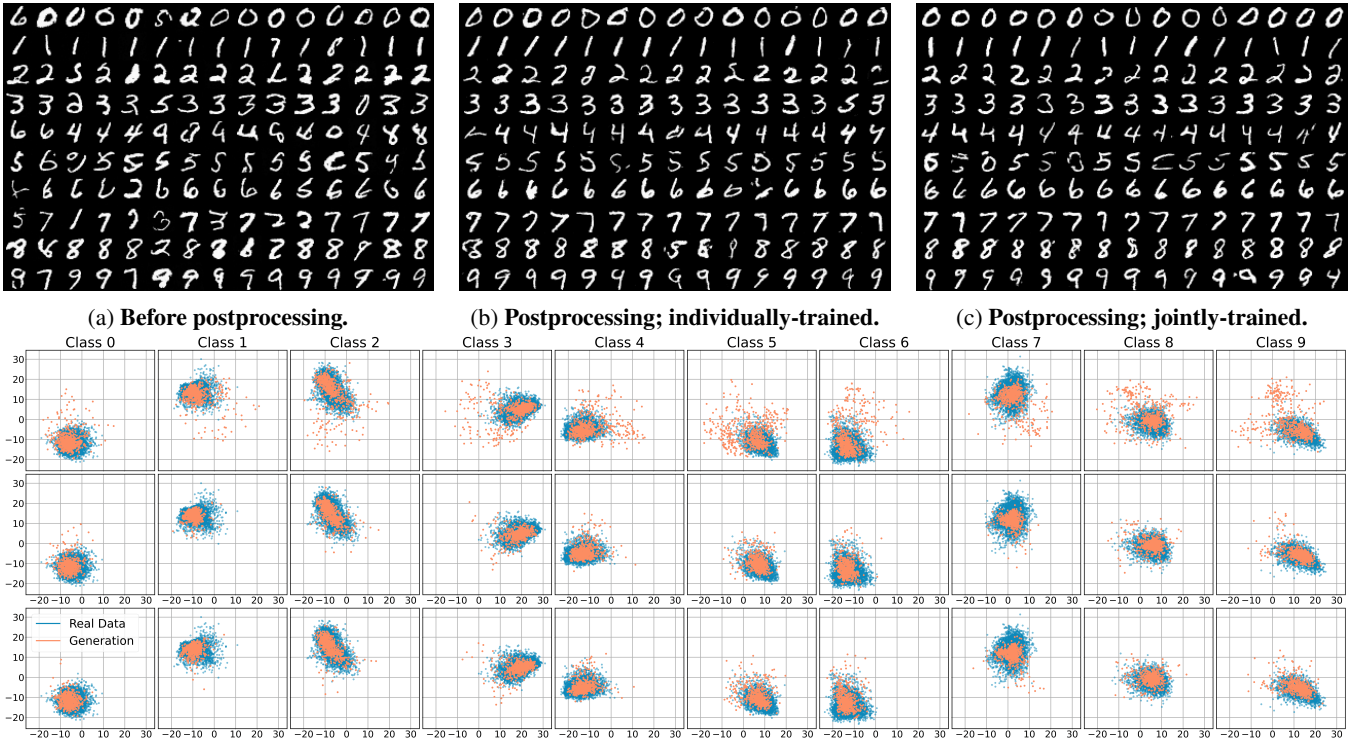


Figure S2: **One-for-All-Scales postprocessing model (Sec. 3.4) for classifier guidance on MNIST.** Here we show the performance comparison for different postprocessing models on generations with a scale of 3.0. Fig. S2a, S2b, and S2c share the same initial noises for corresponding cells and conditioning information from top to bottom row is the digit 0 to 9. We want to emphasize that *we keep the amount of training data identical for both post-processing models such that the comparison is fair.* Concretely, for the individually-trained model, we generate 6k images with the specific guidance scale of 3.0. For the generalized model, we generate 2k samples each with scales 1.0, 5.0, and 10.0 respectively. As can be seen clearly, the generalized model performs well even though it has not been exposed to samples generated with the guidance scale of 3.0 (also verified by Fig. S2d).

D Experiment Details

D.1 Top- k Nearest Neighbor (NN) Search

There are several great tools (Sun et al. 2023; Guo et al. 2020) for accelerating the nearest neighbor (NN) search required in Eq. (9). In this work, we use FAISS (Douze et al. 2024) for all our top- k nearest neighbor computations.

D.2 Hardware Setup

Due to limited computing resources, our experiments were conducted on a mix of available hardware, including NVIDIA A6000, L40S, and A100 GPUs. On an A100 80GB GPU, our postprocessing uses 1.6 GB more GPU memory and introduces an overhead of 4.5 seconds for each image generation in the experiment on CIFAR-10 in Sec. 4.3.

D.3 Experiments on 1D Gaussian

Models For 1D Gaussian data, both our denoising diffusion model for classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance are based on the structure illustrated in Fig. S4. We

also construct the nonlinear classifier for the classifier guidance results shown in Fig. 2a using the structure illustrated in Fig. S4, but remove the class embedding block. The linear classifier used for the results shown in Fig. 2b is developed by feeding the concatenated data $\mathbf{x}_t$ and diffusion step t to a linear layer.

We train both 1) linear and nonlinear classifiers; and 2) unconditional and conditional diffusion models using the optimizer AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter 2017) with a batch size of 4096 points and a learning rate of 10^{-4} . The classifiers and diffusion models are trained for 50k and 100k steps, respectively. We run each evaluation once.

D.4 Experiments on 2D Fractal

2D Fractal Construction The fractal data, *e.g.*, the data presented in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, is synthesized similarly to the one used by Karras et al. (2024a) (Appendix C in (Karras et al. 2024a)). The fractal data consists of 2D points sampled from a mixture of Gaussians, each situated to form branches.

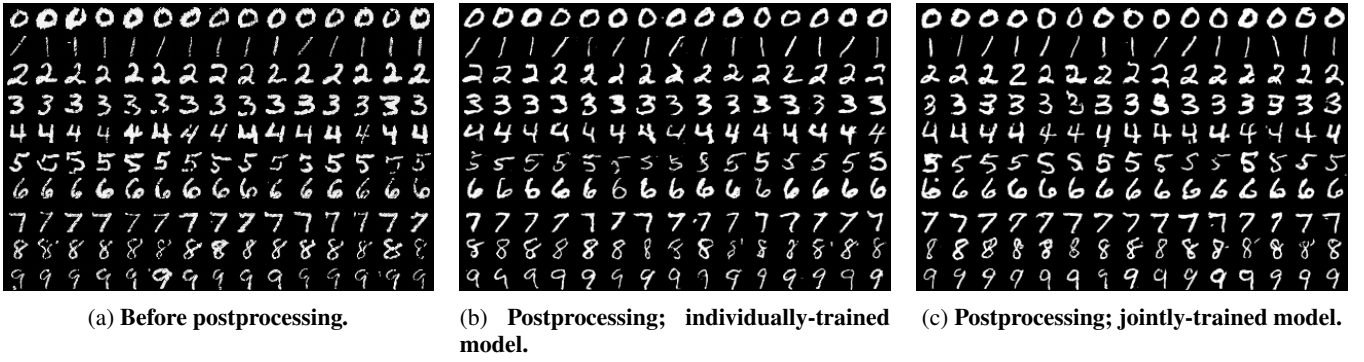


Figure S3: **One-for-All-Scales postprocessing model (Sec. 3.4) for classifier-free guidance on MNIST.** Here we show the performance comparison for different postprocessing models on generations with a scale of 8.0. Fig. S3a, S3b, and S3c share the same initial noises for corresponding cells and conditioning information from top to bottom row is the digit 0 to 9. We want to emphasize that *we keep the amount of training data identical for both post-processing models such that the comparison is fair*. Concretely, for the individually-trained model, we generate 6k images with the specific guidance scale of 8.0. For the generalized model, we generate 2k samples each with scales 1.0, 5.0, and 10.0, respectively. Both individually-trained and generalized postprocessing models recover the fidelity, verifying our classifier-centric understanding.

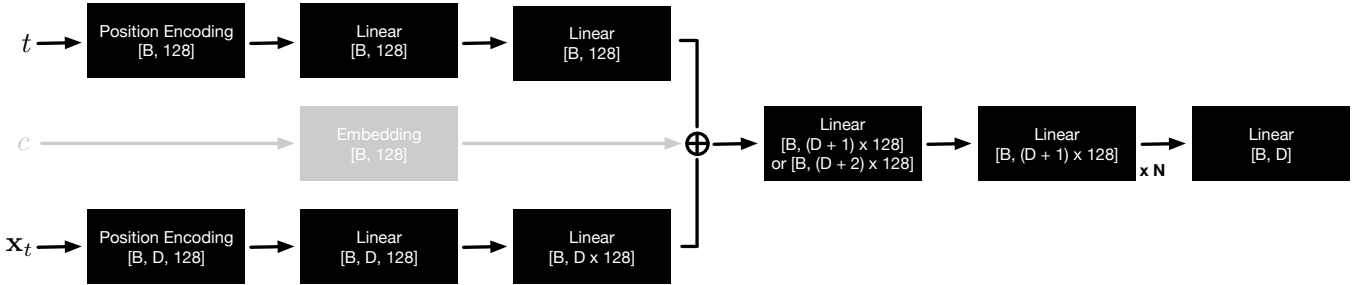


Figure S4: **MLP-based denoising diffusion model.** Here we provide details about the network structure for our MLP-based denoising diffusion model, which is used for experiments on 1D Gaussian data in Sec. 3 and on 2D fractal data in Sec. 4.1. In each block, the top row provides the layer’s name. The bottom row illustrates the tensor shape after the corresponding layer’s processing. Here, B and D stand for batch size and data channel respectively. For example, D equals 1 and 2 respectively for the data of 1D Gaussian and 2D fractal. We have the following position encoding function applied on *each channel* of the input data: $\{\sin(2\pi \cdot u_0), \dots, \sin(2\pi \cdot u_{C-1}), \cos(2\pi \cdot u_0), \dots, \cos(2\pi \cdot u_{C-1})\}$, where $C = 128/2$ in our setup. We use $u_i = x \cdot \exp\left(i \cdot \log_2\left(-\frac{10000}{C-1}\right)\right)$, where x is the value at the corresponding channel the position encoding is applied. Blocks with a grey background color are optional. Concretely, for classifier guidance, we train an *unconditional* model, which does not use the conditioning information c . In contrast, for classifier-free guidance, we enable the embedding layer to train a *conditional* model. Throughout our experiments, we repeat the second to last block four times, namely we have $N = 4$.

Concretely, we first define how to conduct a branch split. For each class, the corresponding fractal is essentially a binary tree. The i -th branch is defined by the starting position $s_i \in \mathbb{R}^2$, length $l_i \in \mathbb{R}$, and orientation $o_i \in [0, 2\pi]$. To obtain the child branch, e.g., the k -th branch where $k \in \{2i, 2i+1\}$, we follow the procedure:

$$s_k = s_i + l_i \cdot (\cos(o_i), \sin(o_i))^T, \quad (S32)$$

$$l_k = l_i \cdot (1 - 0.4 \cdot \xi), \quad \xi \sim U(0.5, 0.8), \quad \text{and} \quad (S33)$$

$$o_k = o_i + (-1)^{k+1} \cdot \pi \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2.8 \cdot \exp(\frac{\lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor}{4})} + \xi_1 \cdot \xi_2 \right),$$

$$\text{where } \xi_1 \sim \text{Bernoulli}(0.5), \xi_2 \sim U(0, 0.05). \quad (S34)$$

We repeat the above branch split 6 times, i.e., creating a binary tree with depth 6, resulting in $2^0 + \dots + 2^6 = 127$ branches for each class. For both classes, we have $s_0 = 0$ and $l_0 = 1.2$. While class 0 uses $o_0 = 0.25\pi$ and class 1 uses $o_0 = 1.75\pi$.

For each branch constructed above, we create 8 Gaussians whose means are uniformly positioned along the branch. For each class, for the i -th Gaussian from a total of $127(\text{\#branches}) \times 8 = 1016$ Gaussians, we define the covariance matrix by rotating the base covariance matrix $\text{diag}(0.005 \cdot \exp(-\frac{i}{30}), 0.003 \cdot \exp(-\frac{i}{25}))$ using the corresponding branch’s orientation.

The final dataset is constructed by sampling points from the Gaussians defined above. Concretely, for each class, for

the i -th branch, we sample $\lfloor 1000 \times \exp(-\frac{i}{100}) \rfloor$ points from each of the 8 Gaussians on the branch.

Experiment Setup For the experiments in Fig. 4: To demonstrate that the proposed postprocessing benefits sample generation across various levels of entanglements, we intentionally train a *linear* classifier which struggles to provide a correct signal $p_\theta(c|\mathbf{x}_t)$ in Eq. (4) as we increase the entanglement of both classes from Fig. 4a to 4c.

After training, decision boundaries for classifiers in Fig. 4a, 4b, and 4c roughly align with the diagonal from top-left to bottom-right. For each level of entanglement, we generate two sets of samples, one with guidance scale $w=1$ and the other with a large scale ($w=5$ or 400) that pushes generations away from the classifier’s decision boundary.

Then for each set, we train a corresponding rectified flow postprocessing model. The postprocessing step always improves the generated samples to match the real data, especially on boundaries between the two classes, verifying our classifier-centric understandings as discussed in Sec. 3.4:

- For scenarios where scale equals 1 in Fig. 4, before postprocessing, a large portion of the generations fall into the incorrect category as the classifier signal is not strong enough. With the proposed postprocessing step, we observe correct generations aligned with the conditioning information.
- For large scales, though the generations are generally correct as the signal from the classifier starts to dominate the generation process, there are still outliers as highlighted. The proposed postprocessing significantly corrects these low-quality generations while not altering already-high-quality generations.

Models For the 2D fractal data, both our denoising diffusion model for classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance as well as the postprocessing model are based on the structure illustrated in Fig. S4. In all our 2D fractal experiments we use a *linear* classifier for classifier guidance, similar to the one discussed in Sec. D.3.

We train 1) the classifier; 2) unconditional and conditional diffusion models; and 3) the postprocessing model using the optimizer AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter 2017) with a batch size of 4096 points and a learning rate of 10^{-4} . The training iterations for the classifier, the denoising diffusion models, and the postprocessing models are 30k, 100k, and 100k. We use the adaptive solver Dopri5 for the postprocessing model when conducting generations. We run each evaluation once.

D.5 Experiments on MNIST

Experiment Setup For Fig. 6, we train a classifier (not the one for classifier guidance) that achieves almost perfect accuracy on the validation split. A principal component analysis (PCA) is built on MNIST training data’s features extracted from the classifier. With the fitted PCA, we transform 6k (600 for each digit) generations accordingly and visualize the first two components.

Models In all our MNIST experiments we use a *linear* classifier for classifier guidance, similar to the one discussed in Sec. D.3. The input is a flattened image concatenated with the diffusion step. Our denoising diffusion models and the postprocessing model for classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance are identical to the ones used by Dhariwal and Nichol (2021).¹ We use the following configuration:

- `model_channels = 128;`
- `num_res_blocks = 2;`
- `attention_resolutions = (), i.e., empty;`
- `channel_mult = (1, 2).`

We train 1) the classifier; 2) unconditional and conditional diffusion models; and 3) the postprocessing models using the optimizer AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter 2017) with a batch size of 512 images and a learning rate of $3 \cdot 10^{-4}$. The training iterations for the classifier, the denoising diffusion models, and the postprocessing models are 100k, 2k, and 10k. We use the adaptive solver Dopri5 for the postprocessing model when conducting generations. We run each evaluation once.

D.6 Experiments on CIFAR-10

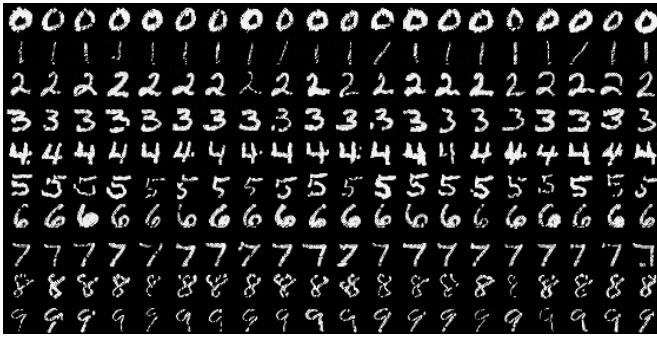
Models In case of an EDM base model, our postprocessing model for classifier-free guidance used in Sec. 4.3 is also identical to the ones used by Dhariwal and Nichol (2021).¹ We use the following configuration:

- `model_channels = 128;`
- `num_res_blocks = 4;`
- `attention_resolutions = (2,);`
- `channel_mult = (1, 2, 2, 2);`
- `num_heads = 4;`
- `num_head_channels = 64;`
- `dropout = 0.1.`

Following the setup in Sec. C, we compose a training set of 50k generations sampled with a guidance scale of 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0. We train the postprocessing model using the Adam (Kingma and Ba 2014) optimizer with a batch size of 512 images and a learning rate of $5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ for 400k iterations. We store the exponential moving average of the model weights with a decay rate of 0.9999. We maximize the alignment between the capacities of our postprocessing model and the base EDM model while working within our limited computing resources. Our postprocessing model’s number of parameters is 55.97 M, roughly matching the base EDM model’s 55.74 M parameters. We use the adaptive solver Dopri5 for the postprocessing model when conducting generations. We run each evaluation once.

In case of a flow matching base model, our rectified flow models and the postprocessing model for classifier-free guidance used in Sec. C are identical to the ones used by Dhariwal and Nichol (2021).¹ We use the following configuration:

¹https://github.com/openai/guided-diffusion/blob/22e0df818350/guided_diffusion/unet.py#L396



(a) Generations before postprocessing step.



(b) Generations after postprocessing step.

Figure S5: **Classifier-free guidance (scale 10.0) with flow-matching based postprocessing (Sec. 3.4) on MNIST.** As expected, a large guidance scale deteriorates generation quality and digits are blurry (Fig. S5a). Our postprocessing recovers the fidelity as shown in Fig. S5b, verifying our classifier-centric understanding as discussed in Sec. 3.4.

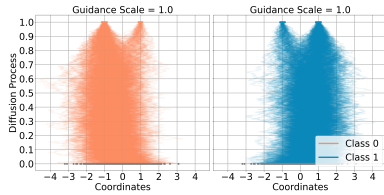


Figure S6: **Classifier guidance with a linear classifier (Fig. 2b) per-class visualization.**

- `model_channels = 128;`
- `num_res_blocks = 2;`
- `attention_resolutions = (2,);`
- `channel_mult = (1, 2, 2, 2);`
- `num_heads = 4;`
- `num_head_channels = 64;`
- `dropout = 0.1.`

We train both 1) the conditional rectified flow model; and 2) the postprocessing model using the Adam (Kingma and Ba 2014) optimizer with a batch size of 128 images and a learning rate of $2 \cdot 10^{-4}$ for 400k iterations. For the postprocessing model, following the setup in Sec. C, we compose a training set of 50k generations sampled with a guidance scale of 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0. We store the exponential moving average of the model weights with a decay rate of 0.9999. We run each evaluation once.

E Broader Impacts

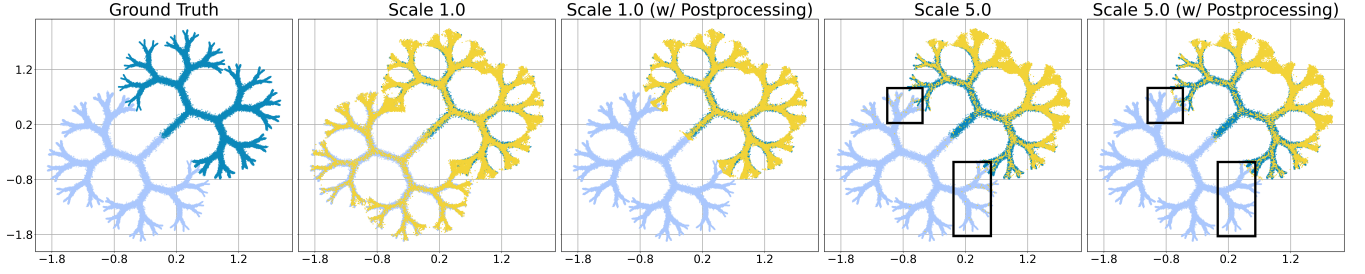
This paper provides an intuitive understanding of the classifier guidance and classifier-free guidance, which could be utilized to improve the generation qualities of diffusion-based generative models. Similar to many generative modeling techniques, our analysis may be used to recreate license-protected data.

F More Visualizations

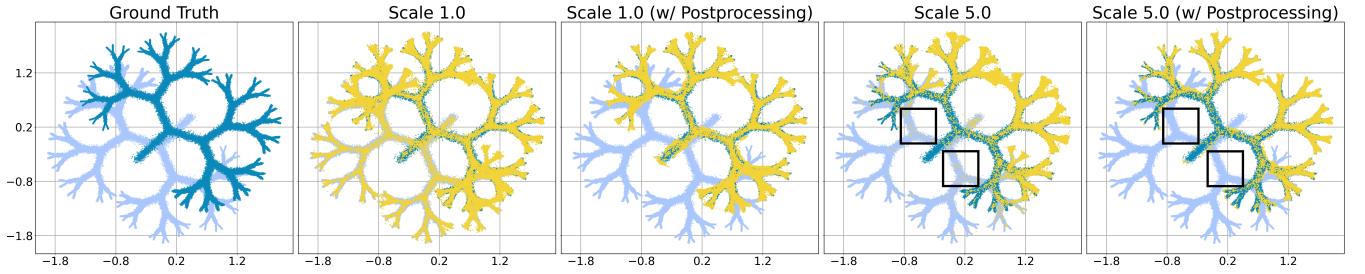
Fig. S5 visualizes the effect of our postprocessing on the MNIST dataset.

Fig. S6 visualizes the per-class denoising diffusion trajectories for the 2nd column in Fig. 2b. This shows that both classes have a nontrivial portion of incorrect generations.

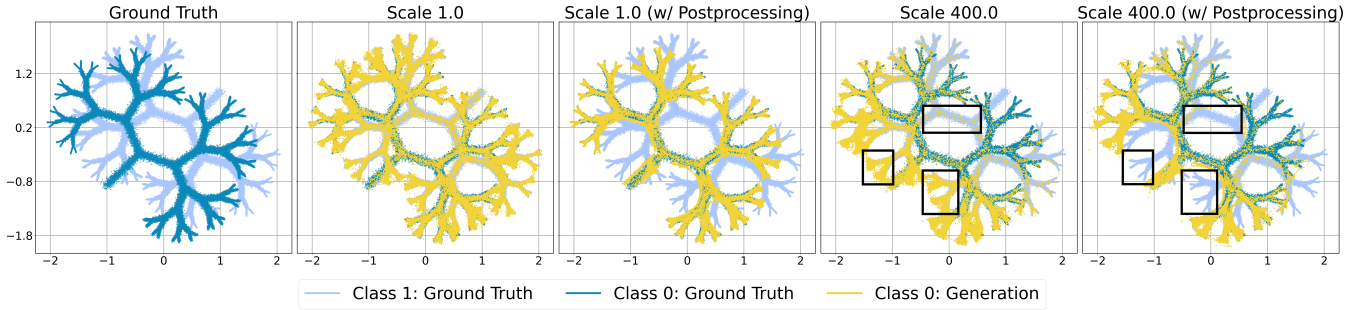
In Fig. S7, we show results the 2D fractal results for the class which was not presented in Fig. 4. As shown in the main paper, our proposed postprocessing step improves the generation quality around the decision boundaries.



(a) **Low entanglement.** The 3rd (and 5th) plot show generated samples after applying postprocessing on generations from the 2nd (and 4th) plot.



(b) **Medium entanglement.** The 3rd (and 5th) plot show generated samples after applying postprocessing on generations from the 2nd (and 4th) plot.



(c) **High entanglement.** The 3rd (and 5th) plot show generated samples after applying postprocessing on generations from the 2nd (and 4th) plot.

Figure S7: Classifier guidance with flow-matching based postprocessing (Sec. 3.4) on 2D fractal data. This figure is complementary to Fig. 4, showing generations for the other class that are not presented in Fig. 4. The postprocessing step always improves the generated samples to match the real data, especially on boundaries between the two classes. For scenarios where scale equals 1, before postprocessing, a large portion of the generations fall into the incorrect category as the classifier signal is not strong enough. With the proposed postprocessing step, we observe correct generations aligned with the conditioning information. For large scales, though the generations are generally correct as the signal from the classifier starts to dominate the generation process, there are still outliers as highlighted. The proposed postprocessing significantly corrects these low-quality generations while not altering already-high-quality generations.