
Diffusion On Syntax Trees For Program Synthesis

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Abstract

1 Large language models generate code one token at a time. Their autoregressive
2 generation process lacks the feedback of observing the program’s output. Training
3 LLMs to suggest edits directly can be challenging due to the scarcity of rich
4 edit data. To address these problems, we propose neural diffusion models that
5 operate on syntax trees of any context-free grammar. Similar to image diffusion
6 models, our method also inverts “noise” applied to syntax trees. Rather than
7 generating code sequentially, we iteratively edit it while preserving syntactic
8 validity, which makes it easy to combine this neural model with search. We
9 apply our approach to inverse graphics tasks, where our model learns to convert
10 images into programs that produce those images. Combined with search, our
11 model is able to write graphics programs, see the execution result, and debug them
12 to meet the required specifications. We additionally show how our system can
13 write graphics programs for hand-drawn sketches. Video results can be found at
14 <https://td-anon.github.io>.

15 1 Introduction

16 Large language models (LLMs) have made remarkable progress in code generation, but their au-
17 toregressive nature presents a fundamental challenge: they generate code token by token, without
18 access to the program’s runtime output from the previously generated tokens. This makes it difficult
19 to correct errors, as the model lacks the feedback loop of seeing the program’s output and adjusting
20 accordingly. While LLMs can be trained to suggest edits to existing code [6, 42, 17], acquiring
21 sufficient training data for this task is difficult.

22 In this paper, we introduce a new approach to program synthesis using *neural diffusion* models that
23 operate directly on syntax trees. Diffusion models have previously been used to great success in
24 image generation [14, 22, 31]. By leveraging diffusion, we let the model learn to iteratively refine
25 programs while ensuring syntactic validity. Crucially, our approach allows the model to observe the
26 program’s output at each step, effectively enabling a debugging process.

27 In the spirit of systems like AlphaZero [29], the iterative nature of diffusion naturally lends itself
28 to search-based program synthesis. By training a value model alongside our diffusion model, we
29 can guide the denoising process toward programs that are likely to achieve the desired output. This
30 allows us to efficiently explore the program space, making more informed decisions at each step of
31 the generation process.

32 We implement our approach for inverse graphics tasks, where we posit domain-specific languages for
33 drawing images. Inverse graphics tasks are naturally suitable for our approach since small changes in
34 the code produce semantically meaningful changes in the rendered image. For example, a misplaced
35 shape on the image can be easily seen and fixed in program space.

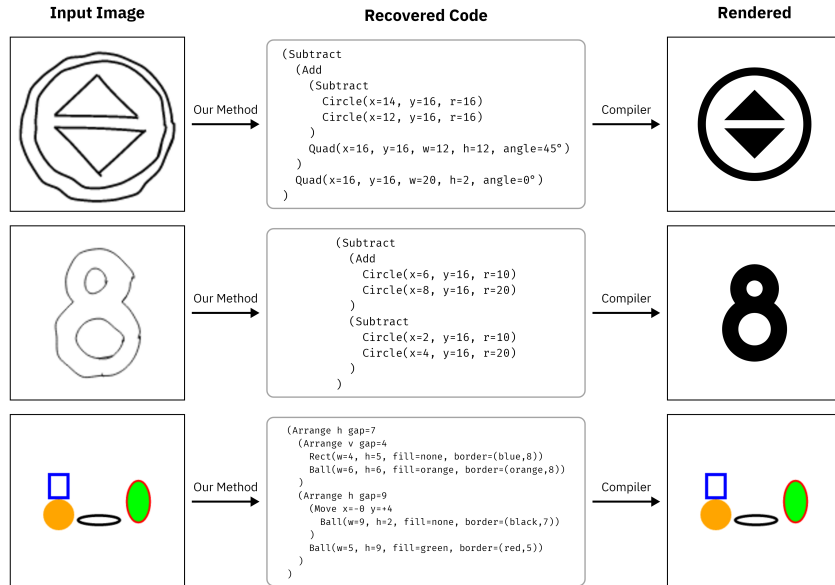


Figure 1: Examples of programs recovered by our system. The top row shows a hand-drawn sketch of an icon (left), the recovered program (middle), and the compilation of the recovered program (right). The top two rows are for the constructive solid geometry language (CSG2D-Sketch). The last row is an example output from our TinySVG environment that learns to invert hierarchical programs of shapes and colors. Video examples can be found at <https://td-anon.github.io>.

36 Our main contributions for this work are (a) a novel approach to program synthesis using diffusion on
 37 syntax trees and (b) an implementation of our approach for inverse graphics tasks that significantly
 38 outperforms previous methods.

39 2 Background & Related Work

40 **Neural program synthesis** Neural program synthesis is a prominent area of research, in which
 41 neural networks generate programs from input-output examples. Early work, such as Parisotto et al.
 42 [23], demonstrated the feasibility of this approach. While modern language models can be directly
 43 applied to program synthesis, combining neural networks with search strategies often yields better
 44 results and guarantees. In this paradigm, the neural network guides the search process by providing
 45 proposal distributions or scoring candidate programs. Examples of such hybrid methods include
 46 Balog et al. [2], Ellis et al. [12], and Devlin et al. [9]. A key difference from our work is that these
 47 methods construct programs incrementally, exploring a vast space of partial programs. Our approach,
 48 in contrast, focuses on *editing* programs, allowing us to both grow programs from scratch and make
 49 corrections based on the program execution.

50 **Neural diffusion** Neural diffusion models, a class of generative models, have demonstrated im-
 51 pressive results for modeling high-dimensional data, such as images [14, 22, 31]. A neural diffusion
 52 model takes samples from the data distribution (e.g. real-world images), incrementally corrupts the
 53 data by adding noise, and trains a neural network to incrementally remove the noise. To generate new
 54 samples, we can start with random noise and iteratively apply the neural network to denoise the input.

55 **Diffusion for discrete data** Recent work extends diffusion to discrete and structured data like
 56 graphs [35], with applications in areas such as molecule design [15, 27, 8]. Notably, Lou et al. [20]
 57 proposed a discrete diffusion model using a novel score-matching objective for language modeling.
 58 Another promising line of work for generative modeling on structured data is generative flow networks
 59 (GFlowNets) [3], where neural models construct structured data one atom at a time.

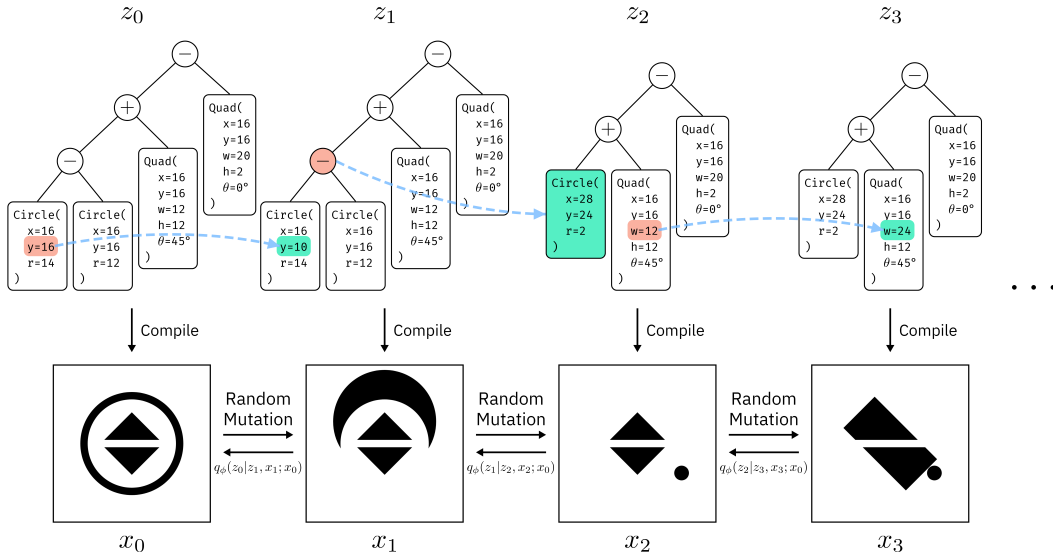


Figure 2: An overview of our method. Analogously to adding noise in image diffusion, we randomly make small mutations to the syntax trees of programs. We then train a conditional neural model to invert these small mutations. In the above example, we operate in a domain-specific language (DSL) for creating 2D graphics using a constructive solid geometry language. The leftmost panel (z_0) shows the target image (bottom) alongside its program as a syntax tree (top). The y value of the circle gets mutated from 16 to 10 in the second panel, making the black circle "jump" a little higher. Between z_1 and z_2 , we see that we can mutate the Subtract ($-$) node to a Circle node, effectively deleting it.

60 **Diffusion for code generation** Singh et al. [30] use a diffusion model for code generation. However,
 61 their approach is to first embed text into a continuous latent space, train a *continuous* diffusion model
 62 on that space, and then unembed at the end. This means that intermediate stages of the latent
 63 representation are not trained to correspond to actual code. The embedding tokens latch to the nearest
 64 embeddings during the last few steps.

65 Direct code editing using neural models has also been explored. Chakraborty et al. [6] use a graph
 66 neural network for code editing, trained on a dataset of real-world code patches. Similarly, Zhang
 67 et al. [42] train a language model to edit code by modifying or inserting [MASK] tokens or deleting
 68 existing tokens. They further fine-tune their model on real-world comments and patches. Unlike these
 69 methods, our approach avoids the need for extensive code edit datasets and inherently guarantees
 70 syntactic validity through our pretraining task.

71 **Program synthesis for inverse graphics** We are inspired by previous work by Sharma et al.
 72 [28], Ellis et al. [10, 11], which also uses the CSG2D language. Sharma et al. [28] propose a
 73 convolutional encoder and a recurrent model to go from images to programs. Ellis et al. [11] propose
 74 a method to provide a neural model with the intermediate program execution output in a read-eval-
 75 print loop (REPL). Unlike our method, the ability to execute partial graphics programs is a key
 76 requirement for their work. Our system operates on complete programs and does not require a custom
 77 partial compiler. As mentioned in their work, their policies are also brittle. Once the policy proposes
 78 an object, it cannot undo that proposal. Hence, these systems require a large number of particles in a
 79 Sequential Monte-Carlo (SMC) sampler to make the system less brittle to mistakes.

80 3 Method

81 The main idea behind our method is to develop a form of denoising diffusion models analogous to
 82 image diffusion models for syntax trees.

83 Consider the example task from Ellis et al. [11] of generating a constructive solid geometry (CSG2D)
 84 program from an image. In CSG2D, we can combine simple primitives like circles and quadrilaterals

85 using boolean operations like addition and subtraction to create more complex shapes, with the
 86 context-free grammar (CFG),

$$S \rightarrow S + S \mid S - S \mid \text{Circle}_{x,y}^r \mid \text{Quad}_{x,y,\theta}^{w,h}.$$

87 In Figure 2, z_0 is our *target program*, and x_0 is the rendered version of z_0 . Our task is to invert x_0
 88 to recover z_0 . Our noising process randomly mutates $y=16$ to $y=10$. It then mutates the whole \ominus
 89 sub-tree with two shapes with a new sub-tree with just one shape. Conditioned on the image x_0 , and
 90 starting at z_3, x_3 , we would like to train a neural network to reverse this noising process to get to z_0 .

91 In the following sections, we will first describe how “noise” is added to syntax trees. Then, we will
 92 detail how we train a neural network to reverse this noise. Finally, we will describe how we use this
 93 neural network for search.

94 3.1 Sampling Small Mutations

95 Let z_t be a program at time t . Let $p_{\mathcal{N}}(z_{t+1}|z_t)$ be the distribution over randomly mutating program
 96 z_t to get z_{t+1} . We want $p_{\mathcal{N}}$ mutations to be: (1) small and (2) produce syntactically valid z_{t+1} ’s.

97 To this end, we turn to the rich computer security literature on grammar-based fuzzing [41, 13, 32, 36].
 98 To ensure the mutations are small, we first define a function $\sigma(z)$ that gives us the “size” of program z .
 99 For all our experiments, we define a set of terminals in our CFG to be *primitives*. As an example, the
 100 primitives in our CSG2D language are $\{\text{Quad}, \text{Circle}\}$. In that language, we use $\sigma(z) = \sigma_{\text{primitive}}(z)$,
 101 which counts the number of primitives. Other generic options for $\sigma(z)$ could be the depth, number of
 102 nodes, etc.

103 We then follow Luke [21] and Zeller et al. [41] to randomly sample programs from our CFG under
 104 exact constraints, $\sigma_{\min} < \sigma(z) \leq \sigma_{\max}$. We call this function $\text{ConstrainedSample}(\sigma_{\min}, \sigma_{\max})$.
 105 Setting a small value for σ_{\max} allows us to sample *small* programs randomly. We set $\sigma_{\max} = \sigma_{\text{small}}$
 106 when generating small mutations.

107 To mutate a given program z , we first generate a set of candidate nodes in its tree under some σ_{small} ,

$$\mathcal{C} = \{n \in \text{SyntaxTree}(z) \mid \sigma(n) \leq \sigma_{\text{small}}\}.$$

108 Then, we uniformly sample a mutation node from this set,

$$m \sim \text{Uniform}[\mathcal{C}].$$

109 Since we have access to the full syntax tree and the CFG, we know which production rule produced
 110 m , and can thus ensure syntactically valid mutations. For example, if m were a number, we know to
 111 replace it with a number. If m were a general subexpression, we know we can replace it with any
 112 general subexpression. Therefore, we sample m' , which is m ’s replacement as,

$$m' \sim \text{ConstrainedSample}(\text{ProductionRule}(m), \sigma_{\text{small}}).$$

113 3.2 Policy

114 3.2.1 Forward Process

115 We cast the program synthesis problem as an inference problem. Let $p(x|z)$ be our observation model,
 116 where x can be any kind of observation. For example, we will later use images x produced by our
 117 program, but x could also be an execution trace, a version of the program compiled to bytecode, or
 118 simply a syntactic property. Our task is to invert this observation model, i.e. produce a program z
 119 given some observation x .

120 We first take some program z_0 , either from a dataset, $\mathcal{D} = \{z^0, z^1, \dots\}$, or in our case, a randomly
 121 sampled program from our CFG. We sample z_0 ’s such that $\sigma(z_0) \leq \sigma_{\max}$. We then add noise to z_0
 122 for $s \sim \text{Uniform}[1, s_{\max}]$, steps, where s_{\max} is a hyper-parameter, using,

$$z_{t+1} \sim p_{\mathcal{N}}(z_{t+1}|z_t).$$

123 We then train a conditional neural network that models the distribution,

$$q_{\phi}(z_{t-1}|z_t, x_t; x_0),$$

124 where ϕ are the parameters of the neural network, z_t is the current program, x_t is the current output
 125 of the program, and x_0 is the target output we are solving for.

126 3.2.2 Reverse Mutation Paths

127 Since we have access to the ground-truth mutations, we can generate targets to train a neural
128 network by simply reversing the sampled trajectory through the forward process Markov-Chain,
129 $z_0 \rightarrow z_1 \rightarrow \dots$. At first glance, this may seem a reasonable choice. However, training to simply
130 invert the last mutation can potentially create a much noisier signal for the neural network.

131 Consider the case where, within a much larger syntax tree, a color was mutated as,

Red \rightarrow Blue \rightarrow Green.

132 The color in our target image, x_0 , is Red, while the color in our mutated image, x_2 , is Green. If we
133 naively teach the model to invert the above Markov chain, we are training the network to turn the
134 Green to a Blue, even though we could have directly trained the network to go from Green to a Red.

135 Therefore, to create a better training signal, we compute an *edit path* between the target tree and the
136 mutated tree. We use a tree edit path algorithm loosely based on the tree edit distance introduced by
137 Pawlik and Augsten [25, 24]. The general tree edit distance problem allows for the insertion, deletion,
138 and replacement of any node. Unlike them, our trees can only be edited under an action space that
139 only permits *small* mutations. For two trees, z_A and z_B , we linearly compare the syntax structure.
140 For changes that are already $\leq \sigma_{\text{small}}$, we add that to our mutation list. For changes that are $> \sigma_{\text{small}}$,
141 we find the first mutation that reduces the distance between the two trees. Therefore, for any two
142 programs, z_A and z_B , we can compute the first step of the mutation path in $O(|z_A| + |z_B|)$ time.

143 3.3 Value Network & Search

144 We additionally train a value network, $v_\phi(x_A, x_B)$, which takes as input two rendered images, x_A
145 and x_B , and predicts the edit distance between the underlying programs that generated those images.
146 Since we have already computed edit paths between trees during training, we have direct access to
147 the ground-truth program edit distance for any pair of rendered images, allowing us to train this value
148 network in a supervised manner.

149 Using our policy, $q_\phi(z_{t-1}|z_t, x_t; x_0)$, and our value, $v_\phi(x_{t_A}, x_{t_B})$, we can perform beam-search for
150 a given target image, x_0 , and a randomly initialized program z_t . At each iteration, we maintain a
151 collection of nodes in our search tree with the most promising values and only expand those nodes.

152 3.4 Architecture

153 Figure 3 shows an overview of our neural architecture. We use a vision-language model described
154 by Tsimpoukelli et al. [33] as our denoising model, $q_\phi(z_{t-1}|z_t, x_t; x_0)$. We use an off-the-shelf
155 implementation [38] of NF-ResNet-26 as our image encoder, which is a normalizer-free convolutional
156 architecture proposed by Brock et al. [4] to avoid test time instabilities with Batch-Norm [40]. We
157 implement a custom tokenizer, using the terminals of our CFG as tokens. The rest of the edit model
158 is a small decoder-only transformer [34, 26].

159 We add two additional types of tokens: an <EDIT> token, which serves as a start-of-sentence token
160 for the model; and <POS x> tokens, which allow the model to reference positions within its context.
161 Given a current image, a target image, and a current tokenized program, we train this transformer
162 model to predict the edit position and the replacement text autoregressively. While making predictions,
163 the decoding is constrained under the grammar. We mask out the prediction logits to only include edit
164 positions that represent nodes in the syntax tree, and only produce replacements that are syntactically
165 valid for the selected edit position.

166 We set $\sigma_{\text{small}} = 2$, which means the network is only allowed to produce edits with fewer than two
167 primitives. For training data, we sample an infinite stream of random expressions from the CFG.
168 We choose a random number of noise steps, $s \in [1, 5]$, to produce a mutated expression. For some
169 percentage of the examples, ρ , we instead sample a completely random new expression as our mutated
170 expression. We trained for 3 days for the environments we tested on a single Nvidia A6000 GPU.

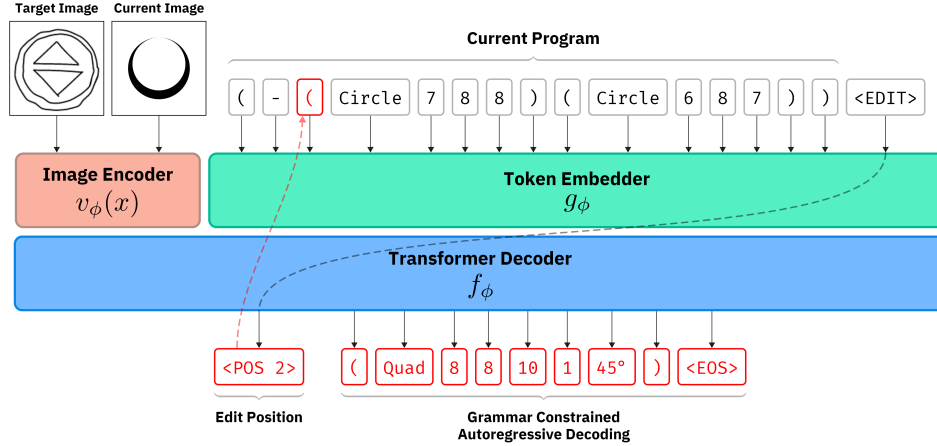


Figure 3: We train $q_\phi(z_{t-1}|z_t, x_t; x_0)$ as a decoder only vision-language transformer following Tsimpoukelli et al. [33]. We use an NF-ResNet as the image encoder, which is a normalizer-free convolutional architecture proposed by Brock et al. [4]. The image encoder encodes the current image, x_t , and the target images, x_0 . The current program is tokenized according to the vocabulary in our context-free grammar. The decoder first predicts an *edit* location in the current program, and then tokens that replace what the edit location should be replaced by. We constrain the autoregressive decoding by our context-free grammar by masking only the valid token logits.

171 4 Experiments

172 4.1 Environments

173 We conduct experiments on four domain-specific graphics languages, with complete grammar
174 specifications provided in Appendix B.

175 **CSG2D** A 2D constructive solid geometry language where primitive shapes are added and subtracted
176 to create more complex forms, as explored in our baseline methods [11, 28]. We also create
177 **CSG2D-Sketch**, which has an added observation model that simulates hand-drawn sketches using
178 the algorithm from Wood et al. [39].

179 **TinySVG** A language featuring primitive shapes with color, along with **Arrange** commands for
180 horizontal and vertical alignment, and **Move** commands for shape offsetting. Figure 1 portrays
181 an example program. Unlike the compositional nature of CSG2D, TinySVG is hierarchical: sub-
182 expressions can be combined into compound objects for high-level manipulation. We also create,
183 **Rainbow**, a simplified version of TinySVG without **Move** commands for ablation studies due to its
184 reduced computational demands.

185 We implemented these languages using the Lark [19] and Iceberg [16] Python libraries, with our
186 tree-diffusion implementation designed to be generic and adaptable to any context-free grammar and
187 observation model.

188 4.2 Baselines

189 We use two prior works, Ellis et al. [11] and CSGNet [28] as baseline methods.

190 **CSGNet** Sharma et al. [28] employed a convolutional and recurrent neural network to generate
191 program statements from an input image. For a fair comparison, we re-implemented CSGNet using the
192 same vision-language transformer architecture as our method, representing the modern autoregressive
193 approach to code generation. We use rejection sampling, repeatedly generating programs until a
194 match is found.

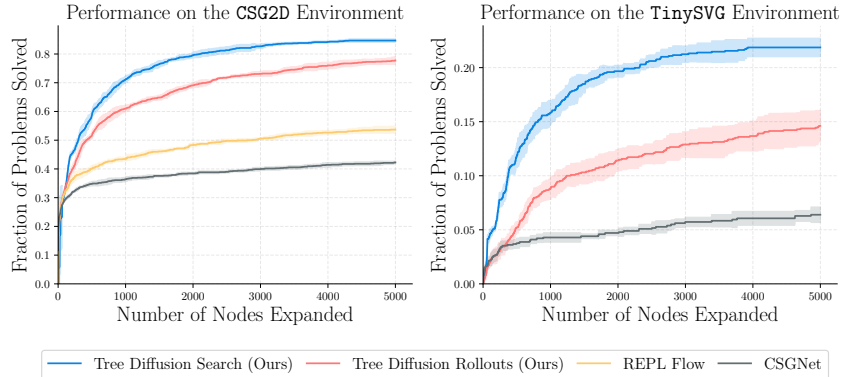


Figure 4: Performance of our approach in comparison to baseline methods in CSG2D and TinySVG languages. We give the methods $n = 256$ images from the test set and measure the number of nodes expanded to find a solution. The auto-regressive baseline was queried with rejection sampling. Our policy outperforms previous methods, and our policy combined with search helps boost performance further. Error bars show standard deviation across 5 random seeds.

195 **REPL Flow** Ellis et al. [11] proposed a method to build programs one primitive at a time until
 196 all primitives have been placed. They also give a policy network access to a REPL, i.e., the ability
 197 to execute code and see outputs. Notably, this *current image* is rendered from the current *partial*
 198 *program*. As such, we require a custom *partial compiler*. This is straightforward for CSG2D since
 199 it is a compositional language. We simply render the shapes placed so far. For TinySVG, it is not
 200 immediately obvious how this partial compiler should be written. This is because the rendering
 201 happens bottom-up. Primitives get arranged, and those arrangements get arranged again (see Figure 1).
 202 Therefore, we only use this baseline method with CSG2D. Due to its similarities with Generative Flow
 203 Networks [3], we refer to our modified method as “REPL Flow”.

204 **Test tasks** For TinySVG we used a held-out test set of randomly generated expressions and their
 205 images. For the CSG2D task, we noticed that all methods were at ceiling performance on an in-
 206 distribution held-out test set. In Ellis et al. [11], the authors created a harder test set with more objects.
 207 However, simply adding more objects in an environment like CSG2D resulted in simpler final scenes,
 208 since sampling a large object that subtracts a large part of the scene becomes more likely. Instead, to
 209 generate a hard test set, we filtered for images at the 95th percentile or more on incompressibility
 210 with the LZ4 [7, 37] compression algorithm.

211 **Evaluation** In CSG2D, we accepted a predicted program as matching the specification if it achieved
 212 an intersection-over-union (IoU) of 0.99 or more. In TinySVG, we accepted an image if 99% of the
 213 pixels were within $0.005 \approx \frac{1}{256}$.

214 All methods were trained with supervised learning and were not fine-tuned with reinforcement
 215 learning. All methods used the grammar-based constrained decoding method described in Section 3.4,
 216 which ensured syntactically correct outputs. While testing, we measured performance based on the
 217 number of compilations needed for a method to complete the task.

218 Figure 4 shows the performance of our method compared to the baseline methods. In both the CSG2D
 219 and TinySVG environments, our tree diffusion policy rollouts significantly outperform the policies of
 220 previous methods. Our policy combined with beam search further improves performance, solving
 221 problems with fewer calls to the renderer than all other methods. Figure 6 shows successful qualitative
 222 examples of our system alongside outputs of baseline methods. We note that our system can fix
 223 smaller issues that other methods miss. Figure 7 shows some examples of recovered programs from
 224 sketches in the CSG2D-Sketch language, showing how the observation model does not necessarily
 225 need to be a deterministic rendering; it can also consist of stochastic hand-drawn images.

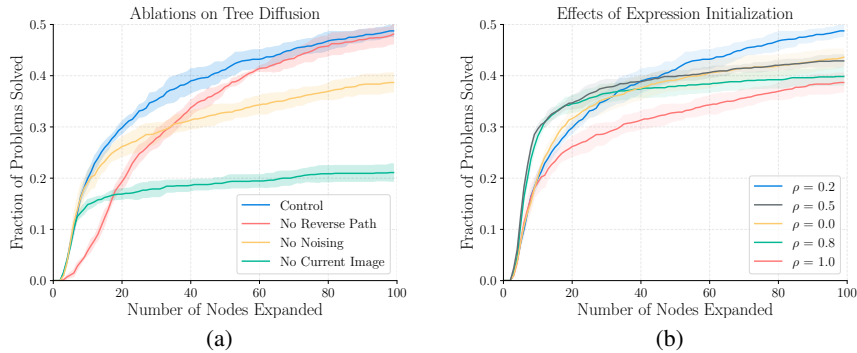


Figure 5: Effects of changing several design decisions of our system. We train smaller models on the `Rainbow` environment. We give the model $n = 256$ test problems to solve. In (a), for `No Reverse Path`, we train the model without computing an explicit reverse path, only using the last step of the noising process as targets. For `No Current Image`, we train a model that does not get to see the compiled output image of the program it is editing. For `No Noising`, instead of using our noising process, we generate two random expressions and use the path between them as targets. In (b) we examine the effect of training mixture between forward diffusion ($\rho = 0.0$) and pure random initialization ($\rho = 1.0$) further. Error bars show standard deviation across 5 random seeds.

226 4.3 Ablations

227 To understand the impact of our design decisions, we performed ablation studies on the simplified
228 `Rainbow` environment using a smaller transformer model.

229 First, we examined the effect of removing the current image (no REPL) from the policy network’s
230 input. As shown in Figure 5(a), this drastically hindered performance, confirming the importance of a
231 REPL-like interface observed by Ellis et al. [11].

232 Next, we investigated the necessity of our reverse mutation path algorithm. While training on the
233 last mutation step alone provides a valid path, it introduces noise by potentially targeting suboptimal
234 intermediate states. Figure 5(a) demonstrates that utilizing the reverse mutation path significantly
235 improves performance, particularly in finding solutions with fewer steps. However, both methods
236 eventually reach similar performance levels, suggesting that a noisy path, while less efficient, can
237 still lead to a solution.

238 Finally, we explored whether the incremental noise process is crucial, given our tree edit path
239 algorithm. Couldn’t we directly sample two random expressions, calculate the path, and train the
240 network to imitate it? We varied the training data composition between pure forward diffusion
241 ($\rho = 0.0$) and pure random initialization ($\rho = 1.0$) as shown in Figure 5(b). We found that a small
242 proportion ($\rho = 0.2$) of pure random initializations combined with forward diffusion yielded the
243 best results. This suggests that forward diffusion provides a richer training distribution around target
244 points, while random initialization teaches the model to navigate the program space more broadly.
245 The emphasis on fine-grained edits from forward diffusion proves beneficial for achieving exact pixel
246 matches in our evaluations.

247 5 Conclusion

248 In this work, we proposed a neural diffusion model that operates on syntax trees for program synthesis.
249 We implemented our approach for inverse graphics tasks, where our task is to find programs that
250 would render a given image. Unlike previous work, our model can construct programs, view their
251 output, and in turn edit these programs, allowing it to fix its mistakes in a feedback loop. We
252 quantitatively showed how our approach outperforms our baselines at these inverse graphics tasks.
253 We further studied the effects of key design decisions via ablation experiments.

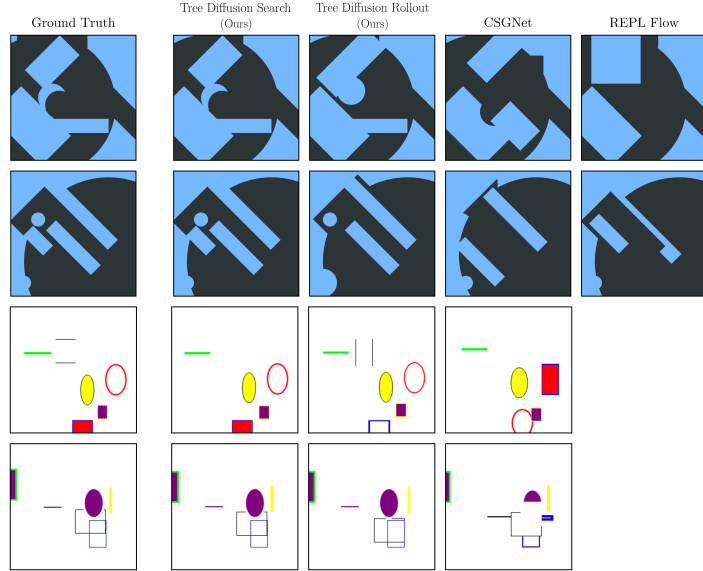


Figure 6: Qualitative examples of our method and baselines on two inverse graphics languages, CSG2D (top two rows) and TinySVG (bottom two rows). The leftmost column shows the ground-truth rendered programs from our test set. The next columns show rendered programs from various methods. Our methods are able to finely adjust and match the ground-truth programs more closely.

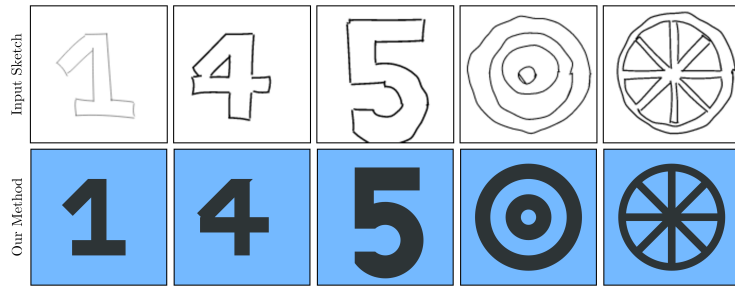


Figure 7: Examples of programs recovered for input sketches in the CSG2D-Sketch language. The input sketches are from our observation model that simulates hand-drawn sketches (top-row). The output programs rendered (bottom row) are able to match the input sketches by adding and subtracting basic shapes. Video results for these sketches can be found at <https://td-anon.github.io/>.

254 **Limitations** There are several significant limitations to this work. First, we operate on expressions
 255 with no variable binding, loops, strings, continuous parameters, etc. While we think our approach
 256 can be extended to support these, it needs more work and careful design. Current large-language
 257 models can write complicated programs in many domains, while we focus on a very narrow task.
 258 Additionally, the task of inverse graphics might just be particularly suited for inverse graphics where
 259 small mutations make informative changes in the image output.

260 **Future Work** In the future, we hope to be able to leverage large-scale internet data on programs to
 261 train our system, making small mutations to their syntax tree and learning to invert them. We would
 262 also like to study this approach in domains other than inverse graphics. Additionally, we would like
 263 to extend this approach to work with both the discrete syntax structure and continuous floating-point
 264 constants.

265 **Impact** Given the narrow scope of the implementation, we don't think there is a direct societal
 266 impact, other than to inform future research direction in machine-assisted programming. We hope
 267 future directions of this work, specifically in inverse graphics, help artists, engineering CAD modelers,
 268 and programmers with a tool to convert ideas to precise programs for downstream use quickly.

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381 Appendix

382 A Mutation Algorithm

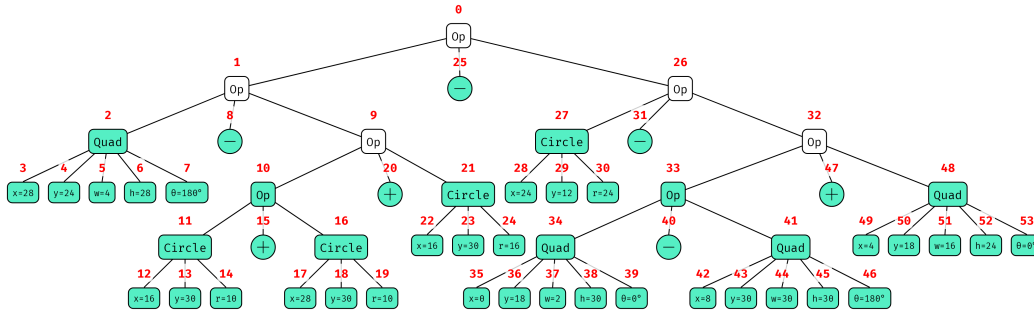


Figure 8: An example expression from CSG2D represented as a tree to help illustrate the mutation algorithm. The green nodes are candidate nodes with primitives count $\sigma(z) \leq 2$. Our mutation algorithm only mutates these nodes.

383 Here we provide additional details on how we sample small mutations for tree diffusion. We will first
384 repeat the algorithm mentioned in Section 3 in more detail.

385 Our goal is to take some syntax tree and apply a small random mutation. The only type of mutation
386 we consider is a replacement mutation. We first collect a set of *candidate* nodes that we are allowed
387 to replace. If we select a node too high up in the tree, we end up replacing a very large part of the tree.
388 To make sure we only change a small part of the tree we only select nodes with $\leq \sigma_{\text{small}}$ primitives.
389 In Figure 8, if we set $\sigma_{\text{small}} = 2$, we get all the **green** nodes. We sample a node, m , uniformly from
390 this **green** set. We know the production rule for m from the CFG. For instance, if we selected node
391 15, the only replacements allowed are + or -. If we selected node 46, we can only replace it with
392 an angle. If we selected node 11, we can replace it with any subexpression. When we sample a
393 replacement, we ensure that the replacement is $\leq \sigma_{\text{small}}$, and that it is different than m . Here we show
394 4 random mutation steps on a small expression,

```

395 (+ (+ (+ (Circle A D 4) (Quad F E 4 6 K)) (Quad 3 E C 2 M)) (Circle C 2 1))
396      ^-----> (Circle 0 8 A)
397 (+ (+ (Circle 0 8 A) (Quad 3 E C 2 M)) (Circle C 2 1))
398      ^-----> (Quad 1 0 A 3 H)
399 (+ (Quad 1 0 A 3 H) (Circle C 2 1))
400      ^-----> 4
401 (+ (Quad 1 0 A 3 H) (Circle 4 2 1))
402      ^-----> 8
403 (+ (Quad 1 0 A 3 H) (Circle 8 2 1))

```

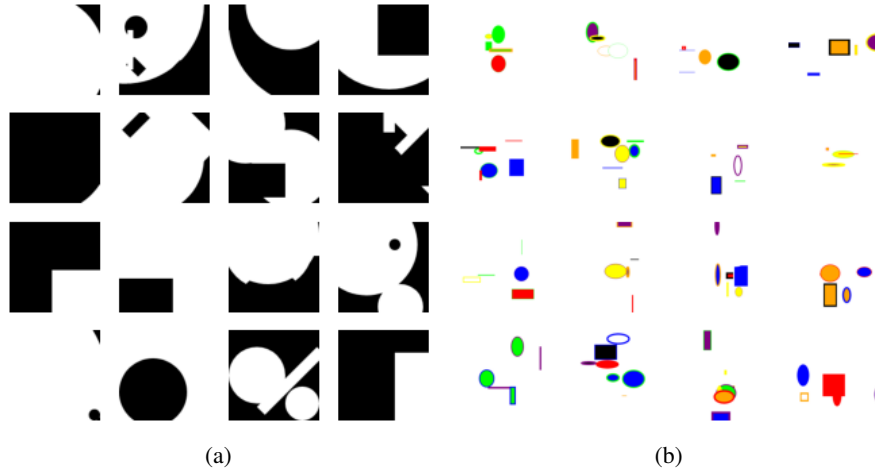


Figure 9: Examples of images drawn with the (a) CSG2D and (b) TinySVG languages.

404 During our experiments we realized that this style of random mutations biases expression to get
 405 longer on average, since there are many more leaves than parents of leaves. This made the network
 406 better at going from very long expressions to target expressions, but not very good at editing shorter
 407 expressions into longer ones. This also made our model’s context window run out frequently when
 408 expressions got too long. To make the mutation length effects more uniform, we add a slight
 409 modification to the algorithm mentioned above and in Section 3.

410 For each of the candidate nodes, we find the set of production rules for the candidates. We then select
 411 a random production rule, r , and then select a node from the candidates with the production rule r , as
 412 follows,

$$\begin{aligned}
 C &= \{n \in \text{SyntaxTree}(z) \mid \sigma(n) \leq \sigma_{\text{small}}\} \\
 R &= \{\text{ProductionRule}(n) \mid n \in C\} \\
 r &\sim \text{Uniform}[R] \\
 M &= \{n \in C \mid \text{ProductionRule}(n) = r\} \\
 m &\sim \text{Uniform}[M]
 \end{aligned}$$

413 For CSG2D, this approach empirically biased our method to make expressions *shorter* 30.8%, equal
 414 49.2%, and longer 20.0% of the times ($n = 10,000$).

415 B Context-Free Grammars

416 Here we provide the exact context-free grammars of the languages used in this work.

417 B.1 CSG2D

```

418 s: binop | circle | quad
419 binop: (op s s)
420 op: + | -
421
422 number: [0 to 15]
423 angle: [0 to 315]
424
425 // (Circle radius x y)
426 circle: (Circle r=number x=number y=number)
427
428 // (Quad x y w h angle)
429 // quad: (Quad x=number y=number

```

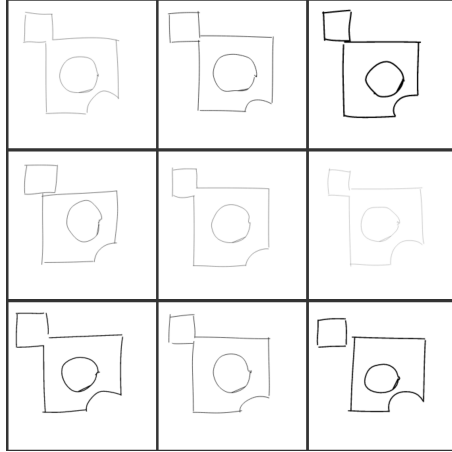


Figure 10: Examples of the same scene being called multiple times by our sketch observation model.

```
430         w=number h=number
431         theta=angle)
```

432 B.2 TinySVG

```
433 s: arrange | rect | ellipse | move
434 direction: v | h
435 color: red | green | blue | yellow | purple | orange | black | white | none
436 number: [0 - 9]
437 sign: + | -
438
439 rect: (Rectangle w=number h=number fill=color stroke=color border=number)
440
441 ellipse: (Ellipse w=number h=number fill=color stroke=color border=number)
442
443 // Arrange direction left right gap
444 arrange: (Arrange direction s s gap=number)
445
446 move: (Move s dx=sign number dy=sign number)
```

447 C Sketch Simulation

448 As mentioned in the main text, we implement the CSG2D-Sketch environment, which is the same as
 449 CSG2D with a hand-drawn sketch observation model. We do this to primarily show how this sort of a
 450 generative model can possibly be applied to a real-world task, and that observations do not need to
 451 be deterministic. Our sketch algorithm can be found in our codebase, and is based off the approach
 452 described in Wood et al. [39].

453 Our compiler uses Iceberg [16] and Google’s 2D Skia library to perform boolean operations on
 454 primitive paths. The resulting path consists of line and cubic bézier commands. We post-process
 455 these commands to generate sketches. For each command, we first add Gaussian noise to all points
 456 stated in those commands. For each line, we randomly pick a point near the 50% and 75% of the
 457 line, add Gaussian noise, and fit a Catmull-Rom spline [5]. For all curves, we sample random points
 458 at uniform intervals and fit Catmull-Rom splines. We have a special condition for circles, where
 459 we ensure that the start and end points are randomized to create the effect of the pen lifting off.
 460 Additionally we randomize the stroke thickness.

461 Figure 10 shows the same program rendered multiple times using our randomized sketch simulator.

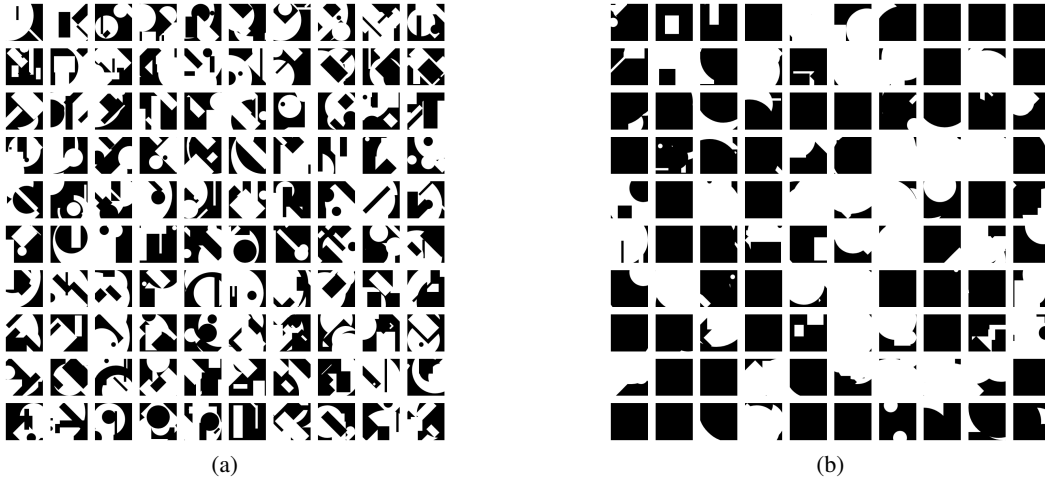


Figure 11: Examples of thresholding scene images using the LZ4 compression algorithm. The left represents our test set, the right represents our training distribution.

462 D Complexity Filtering

463 As mentioned in Section 4, while testing our method alongside baseline methods, we reached ceiling
 464 performance for all our methods. Ellis et al. [11] got around this by creating a “hard” test case by
 465 sampling more objects. For us, when we increased the number of objects to increase complexity, we
 466 saw that it increased the probability that a large object would be sampled and subtract from the whole
 467 scene, resulting in simpler scenes. This is shown by Figure 11(b), which is our training distribution.
 468 Even though we sample a large number of objects, the scenes don’t look visually interesting. When
 469 we studied the implementation details of Ellis et al. [11], we noticed that during random generation
 470 of expressions, they ensured that each shape did not change more that 60% or less than 10% of the
 471 pixels in the scene. Instead of modifying our tree sampling method, we instead chose to rejection
 472 sample based on the compressibility of the final rendered image.

473 E Tree Path Algorithm

474 Algorithm 1 shows the high-level pseudocode for how we find the first step of mutations to transform
 475 tree A into tree B . We linearly walk down both trees until we find a node that is different. If the
 476 target node is *small*, i.e., its $\sigma(z) \leq \sigma_{\text{small}}$, then we can simply mutate the source to the target. If
 477 the target node is larger, we sample a random small expression with the correct production rule, and
 478 compute the path from this small expression to the target. This gives us the *first step* to convert the
 479 source node to the target node. Repeatedly using Algorithm 1 gives us the full path to convert one
 480 expression to another. We note that this path is not necessarily the optimal path, but a valid path that
 481 is less noisy than the path we would get by simply chasing the last random mutation.

482 Figure 12 conceptually shows why computing this tree path might be necessary. The circle represents
 483 the space of programs. Consider a starting program z_0 . Each of the black arrows represents a random
 484 mutation that *kicks* the program to a slightly different program, so $z_0 \rightarrow z_1$, then $z_2 \rightarrow z_3 \dots$. If we
 485 provide the neural network the supervised target to go from z_5 to z_4 , we are teaching the network to
 486 take an inefficient path to z_0 . The green path is the direct path from $z_5 \rightarrow z_0$.

487 F Implementation Details

488 We implement our architecture in PyTorch [1]. For our image encoder we use the NF-ResNet26 [4]
 489 implementation from the open-sourced library by Wightman [38]. Images are of size $128 \times 128 \times 1$
 490 for CSG2D and $128 \times 128 \times 3$ for TinySVG. We pass the current and target images as a stack of image
 491 planes into the image encoder. Additionally, we provide the absolute difference between current and
 492 target image as additional planes.

Algorithm 1 TreeDiff: Find the first set of mutations to turn one tree to another.

Require: treeA: source tree, treeB: target tree, max_primitives: maximum primitives

Ensure: List of mutations to transform treeA into treeB

```
1: if NodeEq(treeA, treeB) then
2:   mutations  $\leftarrow$  []
3:   for each (childA, childB) in zip(treeA.children, treeB.children) do
4:     mutations  $\leftarrow$  mutations + TreeDiff(childA, childB, max_primitives)
5:   end for
6:   return mutations
7: else
8:   if treeA.primitive_count  $\leq$  max_primitives and treeB.primitive_count  $\leq$ 
   max_primitives then
9:     return [Mutation(treeA.start_pos, treeA.end_pos, treeB.expression)]
10:  else
11:    new_expression  $\leftarrow$  GenerateNewExpression(treeA.production_rule,
    max_primitives)
12:    tightening_diffs  $\leftarrow$  TreeDiff(new_expression, treeB, max_primitives)
13:    new_expression  $\leftarrow$  ApplyAllMutations(new_expression, tightening_diffs)
14:    return [Mutation(treeA.start_pos, treeA.end_pos, new_expression)]
15:  end if
16: end if
```

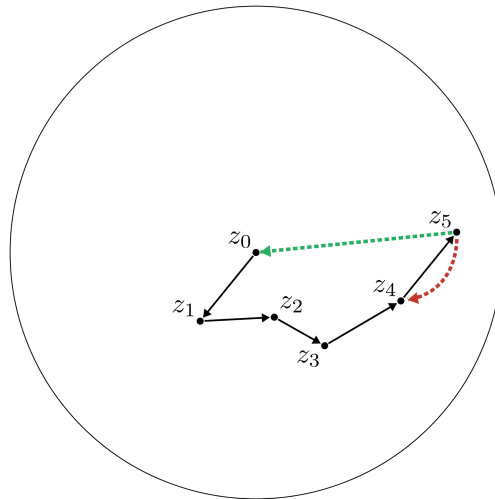


Figure 12: A conceptual illustration of why we need tree path-finding. The red path represents the naive target for the neural network. The green path represents the path-finding algorithm's target.

493 Our decoder-only transformer [34, 26] uses 8 layers, 16 heads, with an embedding size of 256.
494 We use batch size 32 and optimize with Adam [18] with a learning rate of 3×10^{-4} . The image
495 embeddings are of the same size as the transformer embeddings. We use 4 prefix tokens for the image
496 embeddings. We used a maximum context size of 512 tokens. For both environments, we sampled
497 expressions with at most 8 primitives. Our method and all baseline methods used this architecture.
498 We did not do any hyperparameter sweeps or tuning.

499 For the autoregressive (CSGNet) baseline, we trained the model to output ground-truth programs
500 from target images, and provided a blank current image. For tree diffusion methods, we initialized
501 the search and rollouts using the output of the autoregressive model, which counted as a single node
502 expansion. For our re-implementation of Ellis et al. [11], we flattened the CSG2D tree into shapes
503 being added from left to right. We then randomly sampled a position in this shape array, compiled the
504 output up until the sampled position, and trained the model to output the next shape using constrained
505 grammar decoding.

506 This is a departure from the pointer network architecture in their work. We think that the lack of prior
507 shaping, departure from a graphics specific pointer network, and not using reinforcement learning
508 to fine-tune leads to a performance difference between their results and our re-implementation. We
509 note that our method does not require any of these additional features, and thus the comparison is
510 fairer. For tree diffusion search, we used a beam size of 64, with a maximum node expansion budget
511 of 5000 nodes.

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635 to access the raw data, preprocessed data, intermediate data, and generated data, etc.
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637 proposed method and baselines. If only a subset of experiments are reproducible, they
638 should state which ones are omitted from the script and why.
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640 versions (if applicable).
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642 paper) is recommended, but including URLs to data and code is permitted.

643 6. Experimental Setting/Details

644 Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyper-
645 parameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the
646 results?

647 Answer: [Yes]

648 Justification: Main text has most of the high-level ideas. Specific values and implementation
649 details are in Appendix F. We also release code with our work.

650 Guidelines:

- 651 • The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
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653 that is necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
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655 material.

656 7. Experiment Statistical Significance

657 Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate
658 information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

659 Answer: [Yes]

660 Justification: All quantitative experimental figures have error bars computed by running
661 the experiment multiple times with different random seeds and computing the standard
662 deviation of the results.

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670 run with given experimental conditions).
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672 call to a library function, bootstrap, etc.)
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683 they were calculated and reference the corresponding figures or tables in the text.

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685 Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the com-
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688 Answer: [Yes]

689 Justification: Section 3.4 mentions these details.

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698 didn't make it into the paper).

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715 Justification: Section 5 discusses potential impacts.

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