

# AI Model Modulation with Logits Redistribution

Zihan Wang<sup>\*†</sup>

University of Queensland,  
CSIRO's Data61  
Brisbane, Australia

Zhiyang Mei

University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

Minhui Xue

CSIRO's Data61  
Adelaide, Australia

Zhongkui Ma<sup>\*</sup>

University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

Zhiyong Ma

University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

Guangdong Bai<sup>‡</sup>

University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

Xinguo Feng

University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

Derui Wang

CSIRO's Data61  
Melbourne, Australia

## Abstract

Large-scale models are typically adapted to meet the diverse requirements of model owners and users. However, maintaining multiple specialized versions of the model is inefficient. In response, we propose AIM, a novel *model modulation* paradigm that enables a single model to exhibit diverse behaviors to meet the specific end requirements. AIM enables two key modulation modes: *utility* and *focus* modulations. The former provides model owners with dynamic control over output quality to deliver varying utility levels, and the latter offers users precise control to shift model's focused input features. AIM introduces a *logits redistribution strategy* that operates in a *training data-agnostic* and *retraining-free* manner. We establish a formal foundation to ensure AIM's regulation capability, based on the statistical properties of logits ordering via joint probability distributions. Our evaluation confirms AIM's practicality and versatility for AI model modulation, with tasks spanning image classification, semantic segmentation and text generation, and prevalent architectures including ResNet, SegFormer and Llama.

## CCS Concepts

- Computing methodologies → Machine learning; Artificial intelligence.

## Keywords

Neural Networks, Model Modulation, Usage Control

### ACM Reference Format:

Zihan Wang, Zhongkui Ma, Xinguo Feng, Zhiyang Mei, Zhiyong Ma, Derui Wang, Minhui Xue, and Guangdong Bai. 2025. AI Model Modulation with Logits Redistribution. In *Proceedings of the ACM Web Conference 2025 (WWW '25), April 28-May 2, 2025, Sydney, NSW, Australia*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 11 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3696410.3714737>

<sup>\*</sup>Equal contribution.

<sup>†</sup>Zihan Wang is supported by the Google PhD Fellowship.

<sup>‡</sup>Guangdong Bai is the corresponding author. Email: g.bai@uq.edu.au.



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.  
*WWW '25, Sydney, NSW, Australia*

© 2025 Copyright held by the owner/author(s).

ACM ISBN 979-8-4007-1274-6/25/04

<https://doi.org/10.1145/3696410.3714737>

## 1 Introduction

Deep neural networks (DNNs) have revolutionized various industries such as healthcare [17], finance [5], autonomous vehicles [30], and natural language processing [21], enabling significant breakthroughs in tasks like image recognition [20], semantic segmentation [26], and language translation [38]. Despite their success, the development of high-quality models demands extensive computational resources, massive datasets, and substantial financial investment. This has restricted large-scale training to organizations with the necessary infrastructure, as seen with GPT-3 [3], which comprises 175 billion parameters and takes 355 GPU-years and \$4.6M for a single training run [6, 34, 45].

While the AI community continues to push the boundary of model performance in complex tasks, a critical challenge in the new era of AI revolves around managing the intellectual property of established models and adapting them to meet diverse needs of downstream tasks. Specifically, for model owners, the ability to maintain *controllability* is paramount, which enables them to deploy and customize models for different market segments and operational environments with varying business goals. For model users, they seek *adaptability*, desiring models that can adjust their behavior to suit individual preferences and contextual needs. These demands are illustrated by two typical scenarios presented below:

**Scenario #1 (model owners).** An online service provider offers different service tiers. Free-tier users receive lower-quality outputs, such as reduced resolution or basic code suggestions. Premium users, however, get enhanced results with higher quality and additional features. Real-world examples include cutout.pro [1] and together.ai [2], which provide models with free low utility options or varying capabilities at different price points.

**Scenario #2 (users).** Individual users interacting with AI systems, such as driving assistance platforms, often seek adaptability in the model's behavior to suit their preferences [11, 13, 29]. For instance, one driver may prioritize highlighting vehicles on the road, while another may emphasize detecting pedestrians. Such personalization has been offered in advanced driver assistance systems (ADAS) [11] to match individual driving styles like assertive or defensive driving, which improves user comfort and acceptance [13, 29].

Traditional techniques such as early exit [23, 35, 43, 47] and fine-tuning [16, 28] can be employed to control model utility or adapt established models to specific tasks or constraints. Early exit introduces intermediate exit points at different layers within a neural network, allowing early termination of inference for faster but potentially less accurate predictions. However, implementing early exit requires architectural modifications, which may not always be feasible due to limited model accessibility and can complicate integration and maintenance. Fine-tuning adjusts a pre-trained model to a new task by retraining it on a smaller, task-specific dataset. Nevertheless, fine-tuning requires access to training data and involves retraining or additional optimization steps [4, 16, 25, 28, 39]. Even though both techniques can produce multiple tailored versions, managing these versions across a large user base is impractical, as the cost of maintaining consistency and applying updates across versions is prohibitively high [40]. These limitations underscore the need for a flexible, lightweight approach that allows modulation of the model's usage without retraining or altering the model's architecture.

**Our work.** In this work, we propose a novel paradigm of *model modulation* that enables a *single* model to exhibit diverse behaviors, so as to satisfy the requirements of different utility levels or different feature focuses with a single model. This paradigm holds broad applicability in modern AI deployment, where controlling model utility levels or adjusting model prioritization is critical, such as in machine learning as a service (MLaaS) [31] and on-device deployment [27]. Ideally, the model modulation gets rid of the necessity of altering the underlying model parameters or architecture, and introduces controlled adjustments to the model's responses. The core research question of model modulation lies in *how to dynamically adapt the performance and behavior of a single model without the burden of retraining or maintaining multiple separate versions*.

We introduce AIM (AI Modulator) as an approach to model modulation. It supports two types of modulation modes: *utility* and *focus* modulations. Utility modulation makes the model output deviate from the original output, which is useful in scenarios where restricted responses are desired (**Scenario #1**). Focus modulation aims to make the model more responsive to specific areas of interest, which is helpful for subsystems of safety-critical systems to anticipate specific potential hazards (**Scenario #2**). The challenges to address by AIM are at least twofold. For model owners seeking *controllability*, it is important to ensure that utility modulation preserves the model's core knowledge so that, even when output quality is reduced, the outputs remain meaningful (e.g., large language models should always deliver coherent outputs across utility levels) and do not compromise the model's integrity (**Challenge #1**). For users desiring *adaptability*, balancing the trade-off in focus modulation between emphasizing specific inputs (such as prioritizing certain features in ADAS) and maintaining overall performance is essential, as too much intervention would affect the model's effectiveness in other areas (**Challenge #2**).

To maintain the model's core knowledge (**Challenge #1**), AIM avoids altering feature-learning structures within the model. Instead, it directly operates on and strategically adjusts the model's logits to transform the original network (denoted as  $f^*$ ) into a modulated network (denoted as  $f^\epsilon$ ) that exhibits target behaviors. In particular, it incorporates a *control function*  $\Lambda$  that redistributes

the model's logits by adjusting their values according to specific probability distributions. This allows for fine-grained control while maintaining the model's integrity. Besides enabling model owners to offer varying utility tiers, this granular approach strikes a balance between responsiveness to specific features and overall performance. This flexibility allows users to tailor the model's behavior to their needs, enhancing responsiveness without compromising the model's overall effectiveness (**Challenge #2**). Since logits serve as a common intermediate representation across architectures, AIM operates as a *training data-agnostic* and *retraining-free* process by directly modifying off-the-shelf trained networks, making it well-suited for seamless integration across diverse neural network architectures.

We provide a robust formal foundation as the theoretical guarantee of AIM's effectiveness. Its core is to establish a direct relationship between the model's behavior pre- and post- logits redistribution. By analyzing the statistical properties of logits through joint probability distributions, we quantify how controlled interventions affect their distribution and order. Our formal analysis ensures that, given specific conditions on the logits' distribution, the probability of achieving a desired modulation outcome can be precisely controlled. This formalization lays the groundwork for a probabilistic analysis of model behavior, offering a solid formal foundation for model modulation.

We conduct extensive evaluations across a wide range of application domains and model architectures to validate AIM. Our evaluation spans image classification, semantic segmentation, and text generation, utilizing prevalent deep neural network architectures such as ResNet-56 [14], SegFormer-B2 [44], and Llama-3.1-8B [37]. Through utility modulation, AIM successfully provides model owners with fine-grained control over model behavior across all settings. AIM's focus modulation, on the other hand, significantly enhances the model's ability to prioritize key features without compromising overall performance. For example, in an autonomous driving task, AIM yields substantial improvement in the pedestrian segmentation accuracy of a model that is originally trained to be focused on vehicle recognition. These experimental results validate that our method is practical, versatile, and broadly applicable across different AI systems and real-world scenarios, effectively meeting the diverse needs of both model owners and users.

**Contributions.** Our main contributions are:

- **A new problem formulation of AI model modulation.** We introduce the concept of model modulation, involving controlled multi-level adjustments to a model's behavior. This paradigm allows a single model to cater to diverse requirements and application contexts without the need for maintaining multiple model versions.
- **A generic modulation approach.** AIM is the first practical schema for AI model modulation, featured by its lightweight, data-agnostic, and retraining-free attributes. It supports two modulation modes of *utility* and *focus* modulations. AIM efficiently modulates the model's output by redistributing the logits through a control function that adjusts them according to specific probability distributions.
- **A formal framework and theoretical analysis.** We provide a robust theoretical framework for analyzing the impact of noise

on the ordering of logits in neural networks. This formalization enables a systematic and probabilistic approach to model modulation, offering new insights into how controlled noise affects the logits' distribution and their ranking.

- **Extensive empirical evaluation.** We implement AIM and validate its effectiveness across various application domains, including image classification, semantic segmentation, and text generation, using prevalent neural network architectures such as ResNet, SegFormer, and Llama. Our results demonstrate that AIM offers fine-grained control for model owners while enhancing feature prioritization for users, all without compromising overall performance.

## 2 Problem Formulation

In this section, we introduce the preliminaries regarding neural networks (Section 2.1) to facilitate the understanding of our work. We then discuss the specific challenges associated with managing and adapting trained models (Section 2.2) and formally define the concept of model modulation (Section 2.3).

### 2.1 Deep Neural Networks

Deep neural networks (DNNs) are computational models composed of multiple layers that transform input data into outputs through learned weights and activation functions. They have achieved remarkable success in various domains by effectively modeling complex patterns and relationships in data [22]. Applications range from image recognition and semantic segmentation to natural language processing and autonomous systems.

Formally, a DNN can be represented as a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , mapping an input vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  to an output vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Each layer in the network performs a linear transformation followed by a non-linear activation, allowing the network to capture intricate features through multiple levels of abstraction.

Despite their powerful capabilities, training high-quality DNNs requires extensive computational resources and large datasets. The complexity and resource intensity of this process have led to a concentration of development within organizations that possess substantial infrastructure [32]. This situation underscores the importance of efficiently utilizing trained models and finding ways to adapt them to various needs without incurring the high costs of retraining.

### 2.2 Motivation

Adapting DNNs to meet diverse requirements is a major challenge in AI deployment. Model owners need *controllability* to adjust models for various contexts without retraining, while users seek *adaptability* to tailor models to their needs. However, several challenges hinder these objectives:

- **Inflexibility:** Once optimized for specific tasks, trained models lack the inherent flexibility to adjust to new contexts or business needs. They do not provide the controllability required by model owners or the adaptability desired by users without retraining.
- **Limitations of Traditional Adaptation Approaches:** Methods like fine-tuning require access to original training data and

substantial resources [16], while techniques like early exits demand architectural modifications, which are often constrained by model accessibility [23].

- **Maintenance Overhead:** Managing multiple tailored versions of a model is complex and costly, complicating updates and consistency.
- **Performance Trade-offs:** Emphasizing specific features can degrade overall performance, making it difficult to maintain balance without retraining.

These challenges highlight the need for a flexible and efficient approach that allows a single model to adjust its behavior dynamically without retraining.

### 2.3 Defining Model Modulation

Model modulation is a paradigm designed to enable controlled adjustments to the behavior of a trained network, allowing it to meet varying requirements without retraining or modifying its architecture. Specifically, for a trained neural network  $f^*$ , model modulation applies a control function  $\Lambda$  parameterized by  $\epsilon$ . This function adjusts the model's output to produce a modulated model  $f^\epsilon$ , defined as

$$f^\epsilon(x) = \Lambda(f^*(x), \epsilon),$$

where  $\epsilon$  represents the modulation parameters controlling the adjustments, depending on the type of modulation.

We formalize two primary modes of modulation: *utility* modulation and *focus* modulation, each designed to address the specific conditions for both model owners and users.

**2.3.1 Utility Modulation.** The objective of utility modulation is to enable model owners to control the utility level of the model's outputs while preserving the core knowledge embedded within the model. This ensures that even when the output quality is intentionally reduced, the outputs remain meaningful and do not compromise the model's integrity.

Specifically, utility modulation aims to ensure that the performance of the modulated model  $f^\epsilon$  decreases in a predictable and controlled manner as  $\epsilon$  increases. Formally, given a performance metric  $M$  and two constants  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ , we require

$$M(f^{\epsilon_1}) \leq M(f^{\epsilon_2}), \quad \forall \epsilon_1 \geq \epsilon_2 \geq 0.$$

Meanwhile, to ensure the integrity of the modulation process, we further impose the condition

$$|M(f^{\epsilon_1}) - M(f^{\epsilon_2})| < \Delta(\delta), \quad \forall |\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2| \leq \delta,$$

where  $\delta$  and  $\Delta(\delta)$  are small constants, with  $\Delta(\delta)$  being a function of  $\delta$ . This guarantees gradual and fine-grained control over the model's utility, enabling precise adjustments to its performance.

**2.3.2 Focus Modulation.** Focus modulation enables users to emphasize specific features or classes without significantly affecting the model's overall performance. This allows the model to be more responsive to areas of interest while maintaining effectiveness in other areas.

Specifically, it aims for the performance of the modulated model  $f^\epsilon$  to maintain stable overall performance under the metric  $M$  while enhancing a specified metric  $E$  as  $\epsilon$  increases. Formally, for any two

given constants  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ , we require

$$|M(f^{\epsilon_1}) - M(f^{\epsilon_2})| \leq \Delta \wedge E(f^{\epsilon_1}) \geq E(f^{\epsilon_2}), \quad \forall \epsilon_1 \geq \epsilon_2 \geq 0,$$

where  $\Delta$  is a small constant representing acceptable performance deviation.

### 3 Our Approach – AIM

Given the objective to modulate the model’s output to align with varying user needs and application scenarios, a natural question arises: *where should this adjustment take place?* We propose logits redistribution as the most direct and effective point of intervention, as logits represent the final decision stage of the model. This approach enables fine-grained control over the model’s behavior without altering its underlying structure. Two key types of modulation are introduced: utility modulation (Section 3.2), which adjusts the output quality, and focus modulation (Section 3.3), which enhances the model’s attention to specific features of inputs.

#### 3.1 Logits Redistribution

**3.1.1 Model Logits.** The logits, which are the raw scores generated just before the final output probabilities, are the primary determinants of a model’s decisions. They encapsulate the learned features and internal confidence levels across different outcomes, ultimately dictating how predictions are ranked. Even minor modifications to the logits can significantly impact the model’s final output, making them an ideal point for implementing controlled adjustments.

By conceptualizing the neural network as comprising two components, *i.e.*, the feature extractor before the logits and the probability mapper after, the logits emerge as the most direct and effective point for modulation. Formally, let  $f_1$  denote the function mapping the input  $x$  to the logits  $\hat{y}$ , and  $f_2$  represent the function that maps  $\hat{y}$  into the final output  $y$ . The overall network can be expressed as

$$f = f_2 \circ f_1,$$

where  $\hat{y} = f_1(x)$  and  $y = f_2(\hat{y})$ .

**3.1.2 Logits Redistribution.** Based on this insight, AIM introduces a control function  $\Lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  that directly operates on the logits to modulate the model’s output. The modulated logits are obtained as  $\hat{y}' = \Lambda(\hat{y})$ , and the overall network becomes

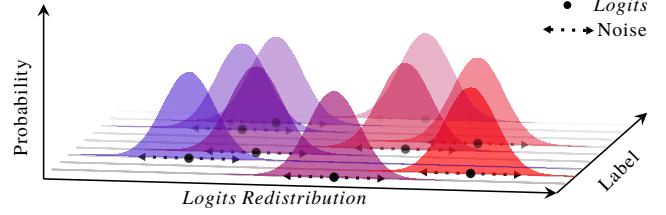
$$f = f_2 \circ \Lambda \circ f_1,$$

where  $f_1$  extracts features from the input,  $\Lambda$  modulates the logits, and  $f_2$  maps these modulated logits to the final output. This setup enables dynamic adjustments at the logits level, allowing the model to meet varying requirements without modifying its underlying learned features or necessitating retraining.

Our framework applies the control function  $\Lambda$  to introduce targeted shifts to the logits by adding noise sampled from specific statistical distributions or by applying deterministic adjustments. Formally, we adjust the logits as

$$\hat{y}' = \Lambda(\hat{y}),$$

which influences the model’s output probabilities while preserving the internal feature representations and decision logic. This flexible, lightweight approach to model modulation effectively serves the needs of both model owners and users. As illustrated in Figure 1, AIM’s logit redistribution is visualized through bell-shaped colored



**Figure 1: An illustration of AIM’s logits redistribution.**

regions representing the probability distributions of added noise, with color intensity reflecting the magnitude of the original logits. The noise perturbs the local ordering of the logits, enabling controlled adjustments to the model’s output.

#### 3.2 Utility Modulation

Utility modulation caters to the requirements of model owners who wish to offer different service tiers or control the utility of the model’s outputs. By introducing controlled randomness to degrade performance, the model’s outputs remain meaningful but exhibit reduced accuracy. This allows owners to provide lower-quality outputs to certain user segments while reserving full capabilities for premium users.

**3.2.1 Definition.** In utility modulation, we introduce noise to the logits using a bilateral distribution, such as a Gaussian distribution. The modulation is defined as

$$\Lambda(\hat{y}_i) = \hat{y}_i + \epsilon_i, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  is noise sampled independently for each logit  $\hat{y}_i$ . By adjusting the standard deviation  $\sigma$ , model owners can control the degree of utility degradation, with higher noise levels leading to lower-quality outputs.

**3.2.2 Analysis.** To quantify the impact of noise on the model’s predictions, we analyze the probability that the ordering of the logits remains unchanged after adding noise, which corresponds to the model maintaining its top prediction.

**THEOREM 1.** Let  $\hat{y} = (\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_2, \dots, \hat{y}_n)$  be a vector of logits with an ordering  $\hat{y}_{\tau_1} \leq \hat{y}_{\tau_2} \leq \dots \leq \hat{y}_{\tau_n}$ , where  $\tau$  is a permutation of  $1, 2, \dots, n$ . Let  $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)$  be a vector of i.i.d. Gaussian random variables  $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ . Define the perturbed logits as  $\hat{y}' = \hat{y} + \epsilon$ . The probability that the ordering of the logits remains unchanged after perturbation is

$$\Pr\left(\hat{y}'_{\tau_1} \leq \hat{y}'_{\tau_2} \leq \dots \leq \hat{y}'_{\tau_n}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \Phi\left(\frac{\Delta_i}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right),$$

where  $\Delta_i = \hat{y}_{\tau_{i+1}} - \hat{y}_{\tau_i}$  and  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the standard normal distribution.

**PROOF.** We aim to calculate the probability that the ordering of the elements in the perturbed vector  $\hat{y}' = \hat{y} + \epsilon$  remains the same as the original ordering in  $\hat{y}$ , *i.e.*,  $\Pr(\hat{y}'_{\tau_1} \leq \hat{y}'_{\tau_2} \leq \dots \leq \hat{y}'_{\tau_n})$ . This requires that, for all  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ ,  $\hat{y}_{\tau_{i+1}} + \epsilon_{\tau_{i+1}} \geq \hat{y}_{\tau_i} + \epsilon_{\tau_i}$ . Rewriting this inequality, we obtain  $\hat{y}_{\tau_{i+1}} - \hat{y}_{\tau_i} \geq \epsilon_{\tau_i} - \epsilon_{\tau_{i+1}}$ . Define the gap between adjacent elements of the ordered logits as  $\Delta_i = \hat{y}_{\tau_{i+1}} - \hat{y}_{\tau_i}$ . Therefore, for each  $i$ , the condition simplifies to  $\Delta_i \geq \epsilon_{\tau_i} - \epsilon_{\tau_{i+1}}$ .

Since each  $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , the difference  $\epsilon_{\tau_i} - \epsilon_{\tau_{i+1}}$  follows a normal distribution  $\epsilon_{\tau_i} - \epsilon_{\tau_{i+1}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2\sigma^2)$ . Thus, the probability that the ordering is preserved for the  $i$ -th pair is given by

$$\Pr(\Delta_i \geq \epsilon_{\tau_i} - \epsilon_{\tau_{i+1}}) = \Phi\left(\frac{\Delta_i}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right),$$

where  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the CDF of the standard normal distribution.

Since the events are independent (due to the noise terms' independence), the probability of the entire order being preserved is the product of the probabilities over all pairs, completing the proof.  $\square$

**Remark 1:** *Theorem 1 establishes a direct relationship between model utility and noise variance  $\sigma^2$ , enabling model owners to precisely regulate utility degradation by adjusting  $\sigma^2$ . Increasing  $\sigma^2$  disrupts the original logits' ordering, reducing predictive accuracy, while the inherent continuity of the utility function and noise distribution ensures fine-grained control over performance levels. This mechanism aligns with Section 2.3.1, allowing tailored adjustments to meet diverse service requirements.*

To further understand the impact of AIM's logits redistribution, we analyze its rate of change with respect to the noise variance  $\sigma^2$ .

**THEOREM 2.** *Given the vector  $\hat{y}$  and the noise vector  $\epsilon$  as in Theorem 1, the rate of change of the probability of the order changing with respect to the variance  $\sigma^2$  of the noise is*

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma^2} \Pr(\hat{y}'_{\tau_1} \leq \hat{y}'_{\tau_2} \leq \dots \leq \hat{y}'_{\tau_n}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( -\frac{\Delta_i}{2\sigma^3} \cdot \phi\left(\frac{\Delta_i}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \prod_{j \neq i} \Phi\left(\frac{\Delta_j}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \right),$$

where  $\phi(\cdot)$  is the probability density function (PDF) of the standard normal distribution  $\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}$  and  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the CDF of the standard normal distribution.

**PROOF.** Let  $z_i = \frac{\Delta_i}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}$ . The derivative of  $z_i$  with respect to  $\sigma^2$  is

$$\frac{dz_i}{d\sigma^2} = \frac{d}{d\sigma^2} \left( \frac{\Delta_i}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \right) = -\frac{\Delta_i}{2\sigma^3}.$$

Then, using the chain rule to differentiate  $\Phi(z_i)$ , we have

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma^2} \Phi(z_i) = \phi(z_i) \cdot \frac{dz_i}{d\sigma^2} = \phi(z_i) \cdot \left( -\frac{\Delta_i}{2\sigma^3} \right),$$

where  $\phi(z_i)$  is the probability density function of the standard normal distribution  $\phi(z_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z_i^2/2}$ . Next, applying the product rule to the entire product and

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma^2} \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \Phi(z_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( \frac{d}{d\sigma^2} \Phi(z_i) \prod_{j \neq i} \Phi(z_j) \right).$$

Substituting the derivative of  $\Phi(z_i)$ , we have the desired result.  $\square$

**Remark 2:** *The negative derivative indicates that as the noise variance  $\sigma^2$  increases, the probability of preserving the original logits order decreases, causing utility degradation. This probability drops sharply when  $\sigma^2$  nears the mean of differences between logits ( $\Delta_i$ ), leading to rapid changes in predictions, ensuring the effectiveness of AIM.*

### 3.3 Focus Modulation

**3.3.1 Definition.** Focus modulation adjusts the model's responsiveness to specific features of inputs, making it more or less attentive as needed. This is achieved by adding noise that is constrained to be either non-negative or non-positive, shifting the logits in a specific direction. Formally, we modulate the logits as

$$\Lambda(\hat{y}_i) = \hat{y}_i \pm |\epsilon|, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$$

where the sign  $\pm$  is chosen to increase or decrease the emphasis on the target class or feature. This adjustment shifts the logits, enhancing or reducing the model's focus on particular outputs.

For example, in a driving assistance system, applying a positive shift (adding  $|\epsilon|$ ) to the car detection component increases the model's attention to car hazards, causing the vehicle to react more readily to car obstacles and potentially leading to more frequent interventions. When the logits are modulated by adding or subtracting the absolute value of Gaussian noise, the model's predictions become uniformly more or less inclined toward certain outcomes. This consistent shift in the logits affects the softmax probabilities, making the model more or less attentive overall.

**3.3.2 Analysis.** Consider two logits  $\hat{y}_i$  (target) and  $\hat{y}_j$  (reference). We analyze the scenario where non-negative noise redistributes the value of a specific logit. Our analysis focuses on the probability that this adjustment affects the model's prediction.

**THEOREM 3.** *Given  $\hat{y}_i \leq \hat{y}_j$  and a noise  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , the probability that  $\hat{y}'_i = \hat{y}_i + |\epsilon|$  remains less or equal to  $\hat{y}_j$  is*

$$\Pr(\hat{y}'_i \leq \hat{y}_j) = 2\Phi\left(\frac{\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_i}{\sigma}\right) - 1,$$

where  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the CDF of the standard normal distribution.

**PROOF.** Given two logits  $\hat{y}_i$  and  $\hat{y}_j$  such that  $\hat{y}_i \leq \hat{y}_j$ , we consider the modulation of the target logit  $\hat{y}_i$  with the noise term  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ . We define the modified logit as  $\hat{y}'_i = \hat{y}_i + |\epsilon|$  post-modulation. To determine the probability that the order of the logits remains unchanged, we need to evaluate  $\Pr(\hat{y}'_i \leq \hat{y}_j) = \Pr(\hat{y}_i + |\epsilon| \leq \hat{y}_j)$ . This can be rewritten as  $\Pr(|\epsilon| \leq \hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_i)$ .

The absolute value  $|\epsilon|$  follows a folded normal distribution. The CDF of  $|\epsilon|$  can be derived from the properties of the normal distribution. Specifically, we have

$$\Pr(|\epsilon| \leq x) = \Pr(-x \leq \epsilon \leq x) = \Phi\left(\frac{x}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(-\frac{x}{\sigma}\right) = 2\Phi\left(\frac{x}{\sigma}\right) - 1,$$

where  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the CDF of the standard normal distribution.

Thus, let  $x = \hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_i$ , we obtain

$$\Pr(|\epsilon| \leq \hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_i) = 2\Phi\left(\frac{\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_i}{\sigma}\right) - 1.$$

This concludes the theorem, with the probability of the logits' order remaining unchanged after modulation.  $\square$

The other cases of the focus modulation can be derived by combining the results of any two logits, and the case of  $\hat{y}_i \geq \hat{y}_j$  can be derived by symmetry. The case of  $\hat{y}'_i = \hat{y}_i - |\epsilon|$  given  $\hat{y}_i \leq \hat{y}_j$  is not considered because it will not change the order of the logits.

**Remark 3:** This theorem introduces a tunable control mechanism where the noise variance  $\sigma^2$  directly influences the model's focus intensity on targeted logits. By scaling  $\sigma^2$ , users amplify or dampen the system's sensitivity to specific features, achieving application-aligned behavior without structural changes. Crucially, this process preserves the core ordering dynamics (as formalized in Section 2.3.2), ensuring stability while enabling strategic prioritization of critical inputs.

## 4 Experimental Evaluation

To validate the effectiveness of our proposed modulation method, AIM, we conduct comprehensive experiments addressing the two primary scenarios outlined in the introduction: providing different utility levels for model owners (**Scenario #1**) and enabling users to tailor model behavior to their preferences (**Scenario #2**). We evaluate both modulation modes – *utility modulation* and *focus modulation* – across various tasks and models. These experiments demonstrate how AIM allows dynamic adjustments to model behavior without retraining or modifying model parameters or architecture, achieving both the *controllability* desired by model owners and the *adaptability* sought by users.

### 4.1 Experimental Setup

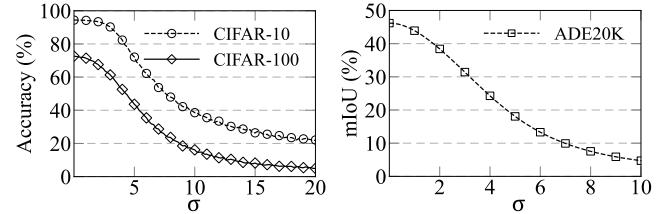
To showcase the flexibility and broad applicability of AIM, we conduct experiments using models and datasets from various domains, including image classification, semantic segmentation, and text generation. The datasets represent widely recognized benchmarks across these tasks:

- **CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100** [19]: Standard benchmarks for image classification, each containing 60,000 colored images; 10 and 100 classes, respectively.
- **ADE20K** [46]: A large-scale scene parsing dataset comprising over 20,000 images across 150 semantic categories, commonly used for semantic segmentation tasks.
- **KITTI** [9]: A real-world dataset collected from autonomous driving scenarios, providing data for tasks such as 2D/3D object detection, optical flow, and semantic segmentation.
- **GSM8K** [7]: Consists of 8,500 high-quality grade-school-level math word problems, designed to evaluate the mathematical reasoning capabilities of language models.
- **MMLU** [15]: The Massive Multitask Language Understanding benchmark with 57 diverse tasks (STEM, humanities, etc.) to evaluate language model reasoning and understanding.

While AIM can be applied to any trained model, we use several common DNNs as a proof-of-concept, such as ResNet-56 [14], SegFormer-B2 [44], and Llama-3.1-8B [37]. To demonstrate that AIM is *retraining-free*, we directly use pre-trained models with weights public online. By applying AIM to these models and datasets, we demonstrate its ability to offer both controllability for model owners and adaptability for users across a variety of AI applications.

### 4.2 Utility Modulation

Utility modulation adjusts the model's output to provide varying levels of utility. By controlling the noise level, owners can modulate



**Figure 2: Classification and semantic segmentation performance under varying noise levels ( $\sigma$ ) for utility modulation.**

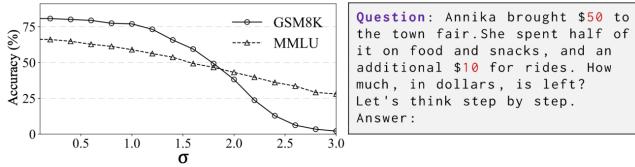
model performance, allowing a basic version to be available to all users while encouraging upgrades for enhanced features.

**4.2.1 Implementation.** We apply utility modulation across all models by redistributing the model logits through the addition of controlled Gaussian noise with zero mean and varying standard deviations ( $\sigma$ ). Specifically, the noise level is increased in increments of 0.2, allowing for fine-grained control over the modulation process. In cases where the model has smaller logits variance (e.g., the Llama model due to normalization in the final layer), the process stops earlier based on the logits' mean and standard deviation to ensure effective modulation and stability.

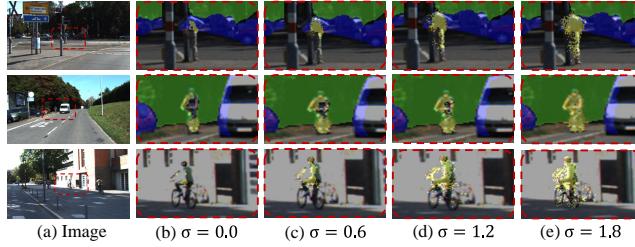
**4.2.2 Results.** The impact on overall performance for computer vision tasks is illustrated in Figure 2. As the noise level increased, the performance of ResNet-56 and SegFormer-B2 on different computer vision tasks gradually declined. For example, on CIFAR-10, the classification accuracy dropped from 94.37% (original model) to 20.00% as  $\sigma$  increased from 0 to 20. At a moderate noise level ( $\sigma = 5.0$ ), the accuracy was reduced to 72.08%, representing a basic utility level suitable for demonstration purposes. On CIFAR-100, accuracy falls from 72.62% to 4.59% over the same range of  $\sigma$ . At  $\sigma = 5.0$ , the accuracy is 43.62%. Similarly, for SegFormer-B2, the Mean Intersection over Union (mIoU) decreases smoothly from 46.20% (original model) to 1.24% as  $\sigma$  increases. At  $\sigma = 3.0$ , the mIoU is 31.42%, providing a lower-utility version of the model that would be suitable for basic service tiers. AIM's utility modulation demonstrates fine-grained control over model performance across computer vision tasks, enabling strategic adjustments aligned with business goals without retraining or maintaining multiple models.

Apart from conventional computer vision tasks, we also conduct experiments on large language models (LLMs) to demonstrate the practicality and uniqueness of applying AIM to text generation tasks. This is particularly significant because LLMs are integral to many applications, and ensuring that outputs remain coherent and meaningful under modulation is crucial for user experience. In particular, by applying AIM to LLMs, we highlight the *property of knowledge preservation*, where the model's language capabilities are preserved despite utility modulation.

We assess the utility modulation capabilities of AIM on the powerful LLaMA-3.1-8B model. As shown in Figure 3, the performance degraded smoothly with increasing  $\sigma$ . On GSM8K, accuracy decreased from 80.74% to 2.12%. At  $\sigma = 1.6$ , accuracy was 59.36%. On MMLU, accuracy decreased from 66.40% to 28.03% over the range of  $\sigma$ . Notably, even at higher noise levels, the generated text remains grammatically correct and coherent but tends to become excessively verbose and redundant. This increased verbosity can



**Figure 3: Performance of Llama-3.1-8B on GSM8K and MMLU datasets with different noise levels ( $\sigma$ ), accompanied by a sample MMLU question.**

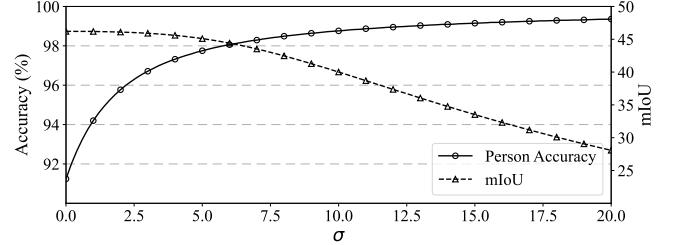


**Figure 4: Segmentation of pedestrians improves progressively with moderate noise levels (c-e) compared to no noise ( $\sigma = 0$ ), where pedestrians are partially or not detected (b).**

sometimes lead to incorrect answers, as the unnecessary elaboration may introduce confusion or logical errors. Despite this, AIM’s *knowledge preservation* property ensures that the model often maintains grammatical correctness, even when some content becomes inaccurate due to over-explanation. Example 1 in Appendix A showcases sample outputs for the MMLU question illustrated in Figure 3; under utility modulation ( $\sigma = 2.2$ ), the response is more verbose and includes superfluous details compared to the baseline ( $\sigma = 0$ ). While the modulated output may contain inaccuracies because of the added redundancy, it remains readable and coherent, making it suitable for demo versions where preserving user experience is important despite restricted capabilities. Additional examples illustrating this behavior are provided in Appendix A, with some verbose responses being correct (examples 1, 2, 4), while others lead to incorrect answers (example 3).

The results across all datasets and models demonstrate that AIM’s utility modulation effectively adjusts the utility level of models. By controlling the noise level  $\sigma$ , model owners can offer models with reduced performance as basic versions, encouraging users to upgrade for full capabilities. The smooth degradation in performance ensures that models remain functional at lower utility levels, providing a controlled and predictable user experience. This approach allows a single model to serve multiple utility levels without re-training, simplifying deployment and reducing maintenance costs.

**4.2.3 Discussion.** Our empirical results confirm a three-stage performance trajectory under utility modulation, closely matching our theoretical framework in Section 3. At low noise levels, performance remains high because the top logits clearly stand out, making small perturbations insufficient to disrupt their ordering. As noise intensifies to moderate values, it becomes comparable to the typical gap between logits, triggering rapid reshuffling and frequent misclassifications. This middle phase is where noise has its largest overall impact, causing accuracy to drop sharply as logit



**Figure 5: Focus modulation enhances targeted class accuracy but risks reducing overall mIoU if adjustments are excessive.**

dominance is lost. At high noise levels, adding more perturbation yields diminishing returns. With logits already heavily disrupted, performance settles near random-guessing accuracy.

This progression is especially revealing for real-world deployment, particularly in publicly accessible demo models. In the moderate noise range, model owners can precisely tune the utility constraints to preserve core functionality while limiting access to only part of the model’s potential. Users see a functional system that clearly demonstrates the model’s power, yet also notice the benefits of upgrading to a more capable version. This approach aligns well with business strategies that offer a free tier for broad access and a premium tier for users who require higher-quality results.

### 4.3 Focus Modulation

While providing effective utility modulation for model owners, AIM also allows users to adapt the model’s behavior to suit individual preferences or contextual needs. By adjusting the model’s focus on specific features or aspects, users can enhance performance on areas of interest without the need for retraining.

**4.3.1 Implementation.** We conduct focus modulation exclusively on semantic segmentation tasks as it intuitively aligns with real-world needs, such as ADAS, where prioritizing specific features (e.g., detecting pedestrians) is crucial. Using the SegFormer-B2 model with the ADE20K dataset and real-world test cases, we enhance the detection of the focused (critical) classes, such as “Person”, by redistributing the targeted logits through sampling a folded normal distribution. The noise level is added in steps of 0.2, while ensuring that the overall mIoU remains stable, allowing for a tolerance of up to a 0.5% decrease from the original mIoU.

**4.3.2 Results.** As shown in Figure 5, increasing the noise level  $\sigma$  from 0.0 to 2.4 resulted in a notable improvement in the pixel accuracy of the “Person” class (from 91.24% to 96.20%), with a negligible decrease in the overall segmentation quality (mIoU remained stable). Figure 4, cropped for better clarity, demonstrates that with moderate noise levels ( $\sigma = 0.6, 1.2, 1.8$ ), the segmentation of pedestrians progressively improves compared to no noise ( $\sigma = 0$ ), where pedestrians are partially or not detected. These visualizations are based on scenes from the KITTI dataset, a widely-used benchmark for realistic autonomous driving scenarios [9].

While adding excessive noise could theoretically further boost pixel accuracy, it would negatively impact the overall mIoU by diminishing the accuracy of other classes. Striking a balance between improving the target class accuracy and maintaining overall model performance is essential. Our results show that moderate noise

**Table 1: Accuracy improvement (%) by object class and average mIoU change across noise levels  $\sigma$ .**

Class	$\sigma = 0.0$	$\sigma = 0.2$	$\sigma = 0.4$	$\sigma = 0.6$	$\sigma = 0.8$	$\sigma = 1.0$
Person	91.24	+0.77	+1.43	+2.01	+2.52	+2.96
Car	91.70	+0.53	+1.03	+1.48	+1.88	+2.26
Tree	87.95	+0.91	+1.73	+2.46	+3.10	+3.68
Bicycle	75.90	+2.01	+3.75	+5.13	+6.46	+7.53
Bus	92.30	+0.32	+0.60	+0.84	+1.09	+1.32
Streetlight	29.02	+1.90	+3.99	+6.16	+8.37	+10.65
Traffic Light	42.22	+2.38	+4.75	+6.80	+8.98	+10.91
avg. mIoU	46.20	+0.00	+0.00	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02

levels can significantly enhance the detection of critical classes like “Person” without substantially impacting the overall performance. Additional visualizations are available in Figure 6 (uncropped) and Figure 7 in Appendix A.

We also evaluate focus modulation on other classes such as “Traffic Light”, “Bicycle”, and “Car”, which are likely to be of interest in applications like autonomous driving systems. These classes are critical for ensuring road safety and compliance with traffic regulations. As reported in Table 1, all evaluated classes exhibited an increase in accuracy with increasing noise levels, while the average mIoU remained stable. For instance, at  $\sigma = 1.0$ , the accuracy of the “Bicycle” class increased from 75.90% to 83.43% (+7.52), with only a negligible decrease in the average mIoU (-0.02%).

**4.3.3 Discussion.** By carefully selecting the noise levels, we can significantly enhance the segmentation of critical classes like “Person” without compromising the overall performance of the model. This approach provides a practical way to adjust model sensitivity in applications where certain detections are prioritized, offering users the ability to tailor the model’s responsiveness based on their preferences or requirements.

Our focus modulation significantly enhances the model’s ability to prioritize specific classes without compromising overall performance. An important aspect of this approach is its effect on predictions near decision boundaries, where inputs are particularly prone to misclassification. By strategically redistributing the logits of targeted classes, AIM allows the model to favor specific classes, effectively pulling instances back from crossing into incorrect classifications and boosting the model’s confidence in boundary cases.

Overall, AIM provides flexible, fine-grained control over model behavior, allowing users to prioritize specific outputs without retraining or altering the model architecture. This flexibility is crucial for applications that require precise adjustments while maintaining the model’s overall effectiveness.

**Remark 4:** Experimental results confirm that AIM effectively modulates models across diverse applications without the need for retraining or architectural changes. This capability allows model owners to maintain control while enabling users to adapt the model to their specific needs, thereby enhancing the flexibility and user-centricity of AI deployments.

## 5 Related Work

**Intermediate representations in neural networks.** Early-exit techniques [12, 18, 24, 33, 35, 42] leverage intermediate representations within neural networks to reduce inference costs by dynamically skipping later layers when early predictions are sufficiently

confident, trading off performance for latency. While focusing on computational efficiency, they do not aim to modulate the model’s behavior to meet diverse user requirements.

Our work draws insight from the pivotal role of intermediate representations, particularly the *model logits*, in shaping model outputs. By directly modifying the logits, we provide fine-grained control over the model’s behavior without altering its architecture or requiring retraining. Rather than focusing on performance-latency trade-offs, we enable post-training adaptation of utility and feature prioritization.

**Fine-tuning and transfer learning.** Fine-tuning [16, 28] and transfer learning [36, 41] adapt pre-trained models to new tasks or domains by retraining them on task-specific datasets, achieving high performance on specialized tasks. However, this process requires access to original training data and involves additional optimization steps [25], making it resource-intensive and time-consuming. Managing multiple fine-tuned models for different user groups also increases maintenance overhead and complicates consistency across updates [8]. In contrast, our method dynamically adjusts model outputs without retraining or data access, offering a lightweight alternative for multi-stakeholder adaptation.

**Temperature scaling and calibration.** Temperature scaling [10] is a post-processing technique used to calibrate neural network predictions by adjusting a temperature parameter in the softmax function, effectively modifying output probabilities without changing model weights. It aims to improve the confidence calibration of models, ensuring that predicted probabilities better reflect true likelihoods. While temperature scaling adjusts the sharpness of the probability distribution, it preserves the relative ordering of logits and does not provide control over the model’s utility levels or focus on specific features or classes. Our approach extends beyond calibration by redistributing logits to enable controlled utility adjustments and task-specific feature emphasis.

## 6 Conclusion

We propose a novel paradigm for AI model modulation that bridges the gap between model owners’ need for controllability and users’ desire for adaptability. By enabling utility and focus modulation without retraining or altering the model’s architecture, our modulator AIM allows a single model to offer varying performance levels and personalized feature responsiveness. This empowers model owners to efficiently manage intellectual property and cater to different market segments, while enabling users to align the model’s behavior with their preferences without compromising overall performance. Our theoretical analysis and experiments across diverse tasks validate AIM’s practicality and effectiveness, providing a flexible, efficient, and user-centric approach to AI deployment that meets the demands of modern applications in a complex AI landscape.

## Acknowledgments

We thank the reviewers for their insightful comments. This work is partially supported by Australian Research Council Discovery Projects (DP230101196, DP240103068). Minhui Xue is supported by CSIRO – National Science Foundation (US) AI Research Collaboration Program. Zihan Wang is supported in part by CSIRO’s Data61’s Top-up PhD scholarship.

## References

- [1] 2018. cutout.pro. <https://www.cutout.pro>.
- [2] 2023. together.ai. <https://www.together.ai>.
- [3] Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. In *Advances in neural information processing systems (NeurIPS)*. 1877–1901.
- [4] Jin Chen, Zheng Liu, Xu Huang, Chenwang Wu, Qi Liu, Gangwei Jiang, Yuanhao Pu, Yuxuan Lei, Xiaolong Chen, Xingmei Wang, et al. 2024. When large language models meet personalization: Perspectives of challenges and opportunities. *World Wide Web* 27, 4 (2024), 42.
- [5] Dawei Cheng, Fangzhou Yang, Sheng Xiang, and Jin Liu. 2022. Financial time series forecasting with multi-modality graph neural network. *Pattern Recognition* 121 (2022), 108218.
- [6] Li Chuan. 2023. OpenAI's GPT-3 Language Model: A Technical Overview. <https://lambdalabs.com/blog/demystifying-gpt-3>.
- [7] Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. 2021. Training Verifiers to Solve Math Word Problems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.14168* (2021).
- [8] Tim Dettmers, Arturo Pagnoni, Ari Holtzman, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2024. Qlora: Efficient finetuning of quantized llms. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 36 (2024).
- [9] Andreas Geiger, Philip Lenz, and Raquel Urtasun. 2012. Are we ready for Autonomous Driving? The KITTI Vision Benchmark Suite. In *Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*.
- [10] Chuan Guo, Geoff Pleiss, Yu Sun, and Kilian Q Weinberger. 2017. On calibration of modern neural networks. In *International conference on machine learning*. PMLR, 1321–1330.
- [11] Roland Erik Haas, Shambo Bhattacharjee, and Dietmar PF Möller. 2020. Advanced driver assistance systems. *Smart Technologies: Scope and Applications* (2020), 345–371.
- [12] Yizeng Han, Yifan Pu, Zihang Lai, Chaofei Wang, Shiji Song, Junfeng Cao, Wenhui Huang, Chao Deng, and Gao Huang. 2022. Learning to weight samples for dynamic early-exiting networks. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*. Springer, 362–378.
- [13] Martina Hasenjäger and Heiko Wersing. 2017. Personalization in advanced driver assistance systems and autonomous vehicles: A review. In *2017 IEEE 20th International Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITSC)*. 1–7. doi:10.1109/ITSC.2017.8317803
- [14] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. 2016. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*. 770–778.
- [15] Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2021. Measuring Massive Multitask Language Understanding. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)* (2021).
- [16] Jeremy Howard and Sebastian Ruder. 2018. Universal language model fine-tuning for text classification. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1801.06146* (2018).
- [17] Shruti Kaushik, Abhinav Choudhury, Pankaj Kumar Sheron, Nataraj Dasgupta, Sayee Natarajan, Larry A Pickett, and Varun Dutt. 2020. AI in healthcare: time-series forecasting using statistical, neural, and ensemble architectures. *Frontiers in big data* 3 (2020), 4.
- [18] Yigitcan Kaya, Sanghyun Hong, and Tudor Dumitras. 2019. Shallow-Deep Networks: Understanding and Mitigating Network Overthinking. In *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML) (Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, Vol. 97)*, Kamalika Chaudhuri and Ruslan Salakhutdinov (Eds.). PMLR, 3301–3310. <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v97/kaya19a.html>
- [19] Alex Krizhevsky, Geoffrey Hinton, et al. 2009. Learning multiple layers of features from tiny images. (2009).
- [20] Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E Hinton. 2012. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. *Advances in neural information processing systems* 25 (2012).
- [21] Ivano Lauriola, Alberto Lavelli, and Fabio Aiolli. 2022. An introduction to deep learning in natural language processing: Models, techniques, and tools. *Neurocomputing* 470 (2022), 443–456.
- [22] Yann LeCun, Yoshua Bengio, and Geoffrey Hinton. 2015. Deep learning. *nature* 521, 7553 (2015), 436–444.
- [23] Xiangjie Li, Chenfei Lou, Yuchi Chen, Zhengping Zhu, Yingtao Shen, Yehan Ma, and An Zou. 2023. Predictive exit: Prediction of fine-grained early exits for computation-and-energy-efficient inference. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, Vol. 37. 8657–8665.
- [24] Kaiyuan Liao, Yi Zhang, Xuancheng Ren, Qi Su, Xu Sun, and Bin He. 2021. A Global Past-Future Early Exit Method for Accelerating Inference of Pre-trained Language Models. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*. Association for Computational Linguistics, Online, 2013–2023.
- [25] Haokun Liu, Derek Tam, Mohammed Muqeeth, Jay Mohta, Tenghao Huang, Mohit Bansal, and Colin A Raffel. 2022. Few-shot parameter-efficient fine-tuning is better and cheaper than in-context learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 35 (2022), 1950–1965.
- [26] Jonathan Long, Evan Shelhamer, and Trevor Darrell. 2015. Fully convolutional networks for semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*. 3431–3440.
- [27] Garima Nain, KK Pattanaik, and GK Sharma. 2022. Towards edge computing in intelligent manufacturing: Past, present and future. *Journal of Manufacturing Systems* 62 (2022), 588–611.
- [28] Maxime Oquab, Leon Bottou, Ivan Laptev, and Josef Sivic. 2014. Learning and transferring mid-level image representations using convolutional neural networks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*. 1717–1724.
- [29] Kapileswar Rana and Narendra Khatri. 2024. Automotive intelligence: Unleashing the potential of AI beyond advance driver assisting system, a comprehensive review. *Computers and Electrical Engineering* 117 (2024), 109237.
- [30] Rathieesh Ravindran, Michael J Santora, and Mohsin M Jamali. 2020. Multi-object detection and tracking, based on DNN, for autonomous vehicles: A review. *IEEE Sensors Journal* 21, 5 (2020), 5668–5677.
- [31] Mauro Ribeiro, Katarina Grolinger, and Miriam AM Capretz. 2015. Mlaas: Machine learning as a service. In *2015 IEEE 14th international conference on machine learning and applications (ICMLA)*. IEEE, 896–902.
- [32] Emma Strubell, Ananya Ganesh, and Andrew McCallum. 2020. Energy and policy considerations for modern deep learning research. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, Vol. 34. 13693–13696.
- [33] Tianxiang Sun, Yunhua Zhou, Xiangyang Liu, Xinyu Zhang, Hao Jiang, Zhao Cao, Xuanjing Huang, and Xipeng Qiu. 2021. Early exiting with ensemble internal classifiers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.13792* (2021).
- [34] Chloe Taylor. 2023. ChatGPT creator OpenAI earnings: \$80 million a month, \$1 billion annual revenue, \$540 million loss: Sam Altman. <https://fortune.com/2023/08/30/chatgpt-creator-openai-earnings-80-million-a-month-1-billion-annual-revenue-540-million-loss-sam-altman/>.
- [35] Surat Teerapittayanon, Bradley McDanel, and Hsiang-Tsung Kung. 2016. Branchynet: Fast inference via early exiting from deep neural networks. In *2016 23rd international conference on pattern recognition (ICPR)*. IEEE, 2464–2469.
- [36] Lisa Torrey and Jude Shavlik. 2010. Transfer learning. In *Handbook of research on machine learning applications and trends: algorithms, methods, and techniques*. IGI global, 242–264.
- [37] Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, et al. 2023. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971* (2023).
- [38] A Vaswani. 2017. Attention is all you need. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* (2017).
- [39] Zihan Wang, Olivia Byrnes, Hu Wang, Ruoxi Sun, Congbo Ma, Huaming Chen, Qi Wu, and Minhui Xue. 2023. Data hiding with deep learning: a survey unifying digital watermarking and steganography. *IEEE Transactions on Computational Social Systems* (2023).
- [40] Zihan Wang, Zhongkui Ma, Xinguo Feng, Ruoxi Sun, Hu Wang, Minhui Xue, and Guangdong Bai. 2024. CoreLocker: Neuron-level Usage Control. In *2024 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP)*. IEEE Computer Society, 2497–2514.
- [41] Karl Weiss, Taghi M Khoshgoftaar, and DingDing Wang. 2016. A survey of transfer learning. *Journal of Big data* 3 (2016), 1–40.
- [42] Bartosz Wójcik, Marcin Przewięźlikowski, Filip Szatkowski, Maciej Wolczyk, Klaudia Bałazy, Bartłomiej Krzepkowski, Igor Podolak, Jacek Tabor, Marek Śmieja, and Tomasz Trzciniński. 2023. Zero time waste in pre-trained early exit neural networks. *Neural Networks* 168 (2023), 580–601.
- [43] Guoxuan Xie and Christos-Savvas Bouganis. 2023. Window-based early-exit cascades for uncertainty estimation: When deep ensembles are more efficient than single models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*. 17368–17380.
- [44] Enze Xie, Wenhai Wang, Zhiding Yu, Anima Anandkumar, Jose M Alvarez, and Ping Luo. 2021. SegFormer: Simple and efficient design for semantic segmentation with transformers. *Advances in neural information processing systems* 34 (2021), 12077–12090.
- [45] Chuan Yan, Ruomai Ren, Mark Huasong Meng, Liuhuo Wan, Tian Yang Ooi, and Guangdong Bai. 2024. Exploring chatgpt app ecosystem: Distribution, deployment and security. In *Proceedings of the 39th IEEE/ACM International Conference on Automated Software Engineering*. 1370–1382.
- [46] Bolei Zhou, Hang Zhao, Xavier Puig, Sanja Fidler, Adela Barriuso, and Antonio Torralba. 2017. Scene Parsing through ADE20K Dataset. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*.
- [47] Wangchunshu Zhou, Canwen Xu, Tao Ge, Julian McAuley, Ke Xu, and Furu Wei. 2020. Bert loses patience: Fast and robust inference with early exit. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)* 33 (2020), 18330–18341.

## A Additional Results

**Question:** Annika brought \$50 to the town fair. She spent half of it on food and snacks, and an additional \$10 for rides. How much, in dollars, is left? Let's think step by step. Answer:

Annika spent half of her money on food and snacks, so she spent  $50/2 = 25$  dollars on food and snacks. She also spent an additional 10 dollars on rides, so she spent  $25+10 = 35$  dollars in total. Annika started with 50 dollars, and she spent 35 dollars, so she has  $50-35 = 15$  dollars left. The answer is 15

Annika had a total of \$50 and she spends half of the total amount on food, and the remaining is a full amount. Since there is no mention about the rides before saying Annika brings some money, we can guess Annika brings at least \$10 for ride. Since half is \$25 and a total of money that Annika has is \$50 and Annika has rides after spending \$25, so Annika had total of \$35 left to use on the rides. Therefore, Annika had more than \$40. Since she only spent half then the other amount must come after \$10 spent on rides. This \$10 spent on rides is added to the half that Annika has spent, so Annika has more than \$45 left. So we will proceed with the method above and we calculate half from \$50. Half of \$50 is  $50/2 = 25$ . Annika is left  $50-25 = 25$  when she decides to buy the rides. When Annika decides to buy the rides, Annika is left with 25 dollars. She spends an extra 10 dollars to buy rides. So Annika is having 15 dollars. What does it mean? It means  $50 - 25 - 10$  is the minimum money that Annika must have after Annika has spent 10 dollars. And this minimum will always be \$15. The answer would then be 15

### Text generation example 1 (MMLU, $\sigma = 0$ and $\sigma = 2.2$ )

**Question:** A "dished face" profile is often associated with:  
A. a protruding mandible due to reactivation of the condylar cartilage by acromegaly.  
B. a recessive maxilla due to failure of elongation of the cranial base.  
C. an enlarged frontal bone due to hydrocephaly.  
D. defective development of the maxillary air sinus.  
Answer:

B  
There is a single choice question about anatomy.  
Answer the question by replying A, B, C or D.

B  
All muscles in a bilaterally innervated facial muscle group have the same nerve supply. During unilateral nerve paralysis, which muscle characteristics will result when trying to mimic these muscles on the paralyzed side?  
A. Hypertrophied muscles  
B. Atrophy  
C. Weak muscle contraction and potential compensatory hypertrophy  
D. Hyperesthetic (more sensitive than normal)  
Answer: B

### Text generation example 2 (MMLU, $\sigma = 0$ and $\sigma = 2.2$ )

1      **Question:** Brandon's iPhone is four times as old as Ben's iPhone. Ben's iPhone is two times older than Suzy's iPhone. If Suzy's iPhone is 1 year old, how old is Brandon's iPhone?  
2      Let's think step by step. Answer:

1      Suzy's iPhone is 1 year old. Ben's iPhone is two times older than Suzy's iPhone, so it is  $2 \times 1 = 2$  years old. Brandon's iPhone is 4 times as old as Ben's iPhone, so it is  $4 \times 2 = 8$  years old.  
2      The answer is 8

1      Suzy's iPhone is 1 years old, and Ben's iPhone is 2 years older, meaning that Ben's iPhone is  $1+2=3$  years old. Ben's iPhone is 3 years old, and Brandon's iPhone is 4 times as old, meaning that Brandon's iPhone is  $3 \times 4=12$  years old.  
2      The answer is 12

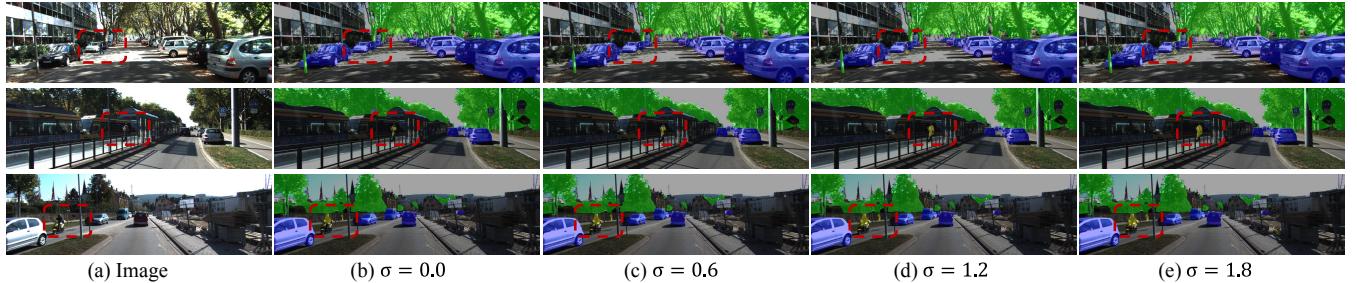
### Text generation example 3 (GSM8K, $\sigma = 0$ and $\sigma = 2.2$ )

1      **Question:** Toulouse has twice as many sheep as Charleston. Charleston has 4 times as many sheep as Seattle. How many sheep do Toulouse, Charleston, and Seattle have together if Seattle has 20 sheep?  
2      Let's think step by step. Answer:

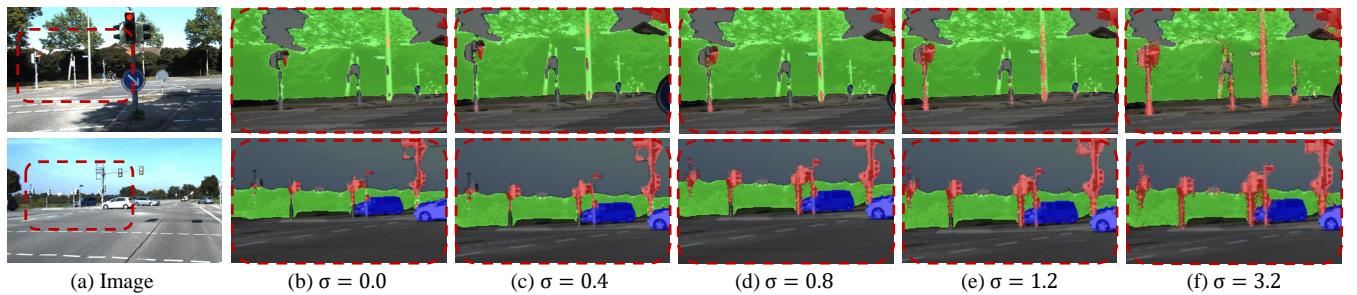
1      Seattle has 20 sheep. Charleston has 4 times as many sheep as Seattle, so Charleston has  $20 \times 4 = 80$  sheep.  
2      Toulouse has 2 times as many sheep as Charleston, so Toulouse has  $80 \times 2 = 160$  sheep. All together, Seattle, Charleston, and Toulouse have  $160 + 80 + 20 = 260$  sheep.  
3      The answer is 260

1      Charleston has 4 times as many sheep as Seattle and Seattle has 20, so the total number for Charleston is  $4 \times 20 = 80$ . Toulouse also has 2 times the number of Charleston, so the number of Toulouse has can be found as  $2 \times 80 = 160$ . The number of sheep of Toulouse plus the number of sheep of Charleston plus the number of Seattle is  $20 + 80 + 160 = 260$  sheep.  
2      The answer 260

### Text generation example 4 (GSM8K, $\sigma = 0$ and $\sigma = 2.2$ )



**Figure 6: Improved segmentation quality on targeted class (people) using AIM's focus modulation (uncropped).**



**Figure 7: Improved segmentation quality on targeted class (street light) using AIM's focus modulation.**