

Outline

- Motivation for Diffusion Models
- Introduction to Denoising Diffusion Models
- Training a diffusion model
- Stable Diffusion
- DALL-E 2

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Don't say you love the anime

"Professional photograph of bears in sports gear in a triathlon in Kyoto"



"Oriental Painting of Sun Tzu playing a game of Warcraft II on his desktop computer"



"Ukiyo-e painting of a cat hacker wearing VR headsets, on a postage



"Oriental painting of a dragon programming on a laptop in the Song dynasty, cyberpunk"



If you haven't read the manga

2.2. Reverse Trajectory

The generative distribution will be trained to describe the same trajectory, but in owerse,

$$p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}\right) = r\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}\right)$$
 (40)
 $p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t-t)}\right) = p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}\right) \prod_{l=1}^{r} p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t-l)}|\mathbf{x}^{(t)}\right)$ (5)

For their Gravitan and Majorial diffusion, for mechanism diffusion than to final start and St the reversal of the diffusion powers has the identical luminosis form to the forward process (Fellow, 1999, Sames $p(S^{(1)}|S^{(1)})$) is a Gaussian (Monraidy Gerthales, and $M_{\rm c}$) for each fixed $p(S^{(1)}|S^{(2)})$ will also be a Gaussian Observable distribution. The longer to improve the smaller the diffusion rate R outs for market.

Buring bounding only the return and conventions for a Goodstate off-third stands, or the left probability for a Niseman learner, much be calimated. An otherwise Table $App. 1... 1_{10}(x^{(0)}, 1)$ and $(b, e^{(0)}, 2)$ are functions defining the ratios and conventions of the return blacket concluding for a Gaussian, and $(b, e^{(0)}, 1)$ is a function providing that in this perhabitaty term is because distributions. The compatational control function (in algorithm is the compatational control function (in the superfice of results in this quark, multi-layer purragenous are used to define these functions. A walk stage of approximate or incolorious triang such-layer would be applicable however, including apparamentation embods.

2.3. Medel Probability

The probability the generative model assigns to the data in .

$$p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}\right) = \int d\mathbf{x}^{(t-t)} p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(t-t)}\right). \quad (8)$$

(DDPM [33] + DDEM [40] Ours Sampling (Section 3) 2nd order Hean N-1 (Pan - Pau -)) sin Livelie - out Network and preconditioning (Section 5) Architecture of Fig. DDPM++ Superding $c_{\alpha\beta}(\sigma) = 1$ Output scaling confo - o Input scaling $-\alpha_0(\sigma) = 1/\sqrt{\sigma^2 + 1}$ 1/1/03-1 None cond. $c_{\text{poin}}(\sigma) = (M-1) \sigma^{-1}(\sigma)$ $M-1-\arg\min_{i}|\mathbf{x}_{i}-\sigma|$ Training (Section 5) Nose distribution $\sigma = u_0, \ j \sim M\{0, M-1\} - \ln(\sigma) \sim N\{P_{max}, P_{ad}^2\}$ 1/6" (non ") Loss weighting A/a) 1/a* $m_1 = rin^3 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{1}{2 \log 2 + 11} \right)$ $\sigma_{\rm max}=0.025, \sigma_{\rm max}=80$ $47_1 = 0.001, 67_2 = 0.008_2$ $\sigma_{\rm em} = 0.5, \rho = 7$

* DDPM also employs a second loss term L_{tilt} . * In our tests, $j_0 = 8$ yielded better FID than $j_0 = 0$ used by IDDPM.

Deep Unsupervised Learning using Nonequilibrium Thereodynamics

This can be evaluated uptility by averaging over samples.

tion the format inputs y $\chi(y)^{1/2} = \chi(y)^2$. For inflammal, the format inflamma distribution contributions can be made identical for Section 2.2). If they are identical to one of the made identical flow Section 2.2). If they are identical the one of μ angular many form μ $(y)^{1/2} = \chi(y)^{1/2}$ is expiral to made, explain the above idengal, so the early observable process in sinistical physics (Spinney & Sect. 2015) increases, 2011.

2.4 Training

Training amounts to maximizing the model log likelihood.

$$\begin{split} L &= \int d\mathbf{x}^{(i)} g\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \log p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \\ &= \int d\mathbf{x}^{(i)} g\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right), \\ &\log \left[\int d\mathbf{x}^{(i)} T(g(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} T)|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}|^{2/3}, \\ p\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{e^{(i-1)} (i_{i} T)}{e^{(i_{i}} T(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})}, \\ \end{pmatrix}, (11). \end{split}$$

which has a lower bound provided by Jensen's inequality,

$$\begin{split} L & \geq \int d\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} \mathbf{q} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} \right) \cdot \\ & \log \left[\mathbf{s} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\mathbf{s}^{i} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} | \mathbf{x}^{(k)} \right)}{\mathbf{s}^{i} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} | \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} \right)} \right] \end{split} \quad (12)$$

As described in Appendix 5, for our diffusion improstrict the technicals.

$$L \ge K$$
 (13)

$$K = -\sum_{i=2}^{p} \int d\mathbf{x}^{(i)} d\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \mathbf{y} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)$$

Denoising diffusion models have shown impressive sample quality and diversity for several image generation tasks.



Denoising diffusion models have shown impressive results for text-to-image tasks.



"A Univ.AI student about to write a paper on neural differential equations painted in a pointilistic style"

<u>Imagen</u>



"A robot couple fine dining with the Eiffel Tower in the background"

Denoising diffusion models have shown impressive results for image editing and inpainting tasks.

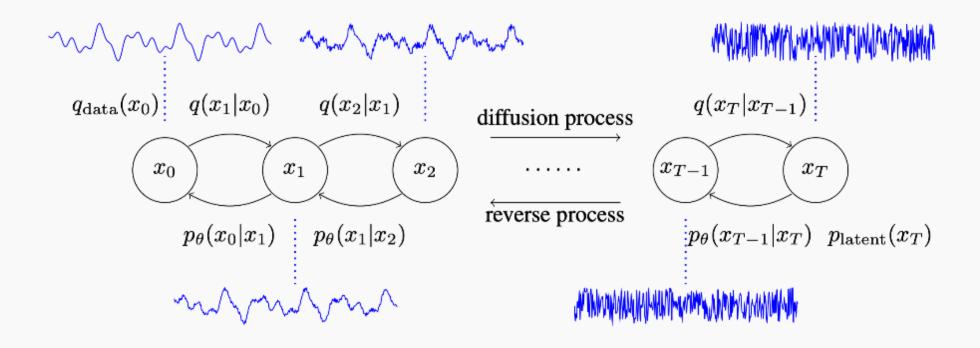


"A man with red hair"



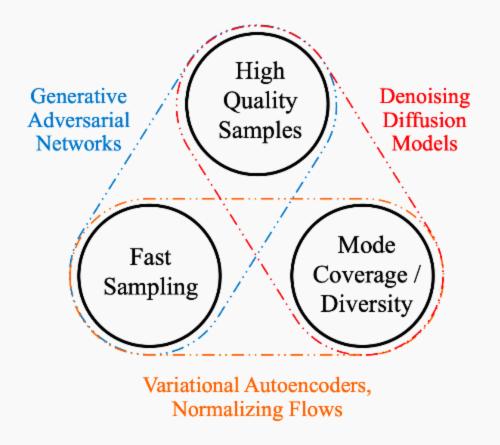
"Zebras roaming the field"

Denoising diffusion models have also been effective in non-visual domains.



Diffwave: A versatile diffusion model for audio synthesis

But are denoising diffusion models all you need?



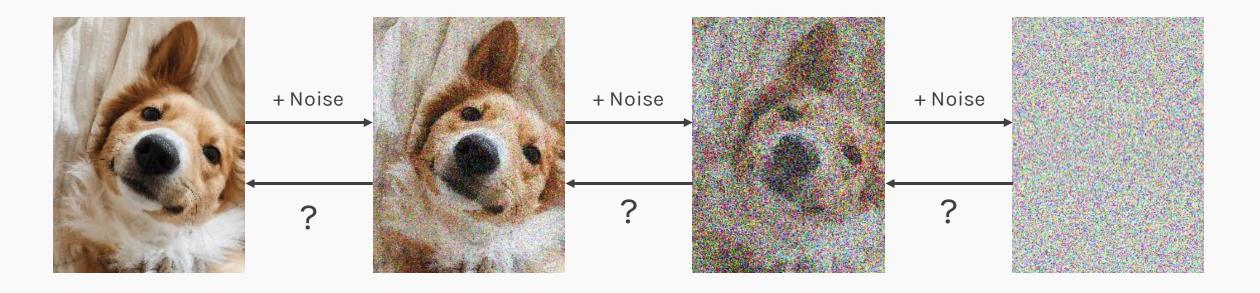
Generative learning trilemma [Source]

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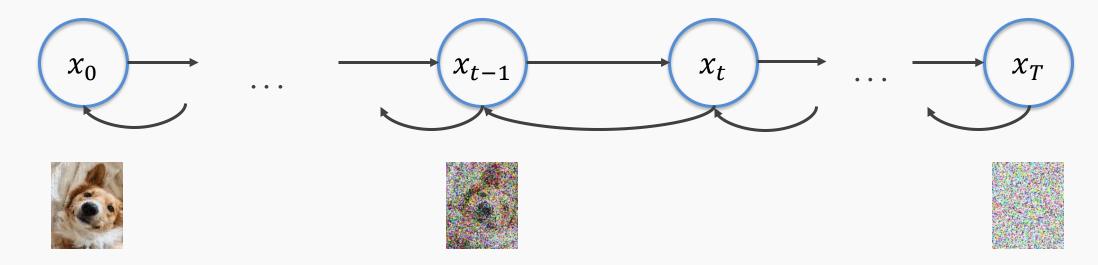
Denoising Diffusion Models

The general idea of diffusion models is quite simple.



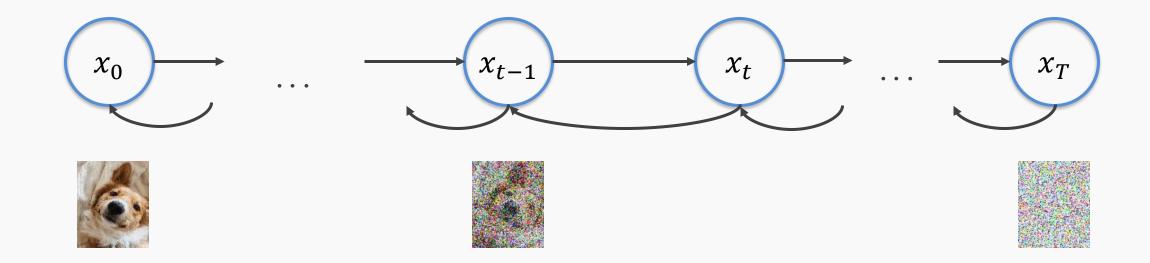
Diffusion models help undoing this process: Starting with noise, it can gradually move toward a coherent image.

In practice, they are formulated using a Markov chain of T steps.



- They take the input image and gradually add Gaussian noise to it through a series of small steps.
- A neural network is trained to recover the original data by reversing the noising process. By being able to model the reverse process, we can generate new data.

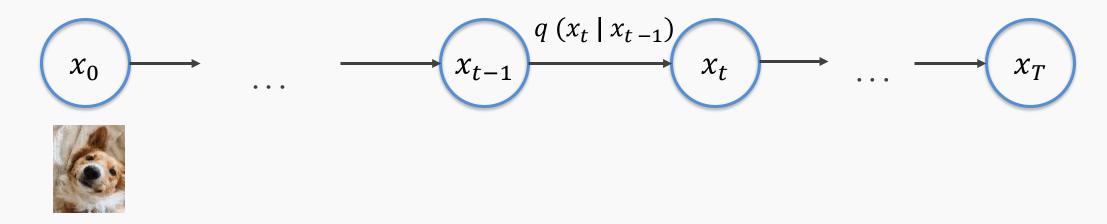
Denoising Diffusion Models



Therefore, there are two processes in a diffusion model:

- 1. Forward process
- 2. Reverse process

Denoising Diffusion Models – Forward Process



Given a data point x_0 sampled from the real data distribution q(x).

At each forward step of the Markov chain, we add a small amount of Gaussian noise with variance β_t to x_{t-1} , producing a new latent variable x_t with distribution $q(x_t \mid x_{t-1})$. This diffusion process can be formulated as follows:

$$q(x_t | x_{t-1}) = N(\mu_t = \sqrt{1 - \beta_t} x_{t-1}, \sum_t = \beta_t I)$$

As $T \to \infty$, you eventually end up with an isotropic gaussian (i.e. pure random noise ~ N(0, I)).

Protopapas

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Denoising Diffusion Models – Forward Process

In general:

$$q(x_{1:T} | x_0) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} q(x_t | x_{t-1})$$

where:

$$q(x_t | x_{t-1}) = N(\mu_t = \sqrt{1 - \beta_t} x_{t-1}, \Sigma_t = \beta_t I)$$

But how would you find $q(x_{1000} | x_0)$?

You would have to go from x_0 till x_{999} step-by-step until you can compute $q(x_{1000} | x_{999})!$

Denoising Diffusion Models - Forward Process

By reparametrizing such that:

$$\alpha_t = 1 - \beta_t$$

$$\overline{\alpha_t} = \prod_{i=1}^t \alpha_i$$

We get:

$$q(x_t \mid x_0) = N(\mu_t = \sqrt{\overline{\alpha_t}} x_0, \ \Sigma_t = (1 - \overline{\alpha_t}) I)$$

Using the above equation, we can now generate any time step t directly from x_0 instead of iteratively going through x_{t-1} , x_{t-2} ... and so on.

Protopapas

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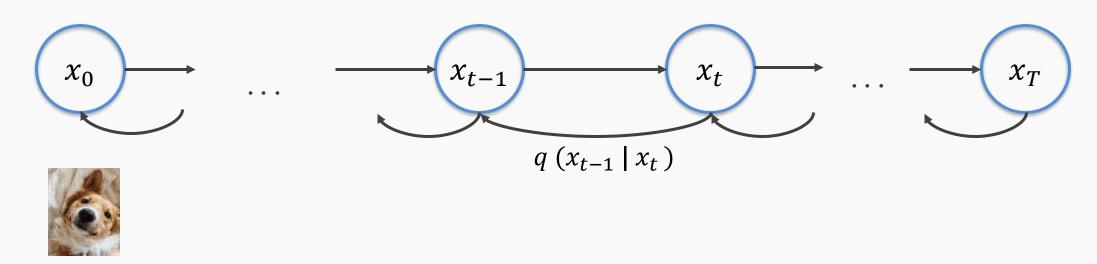
Denoising Diffusion Models – Forward Process

- The variance parameter β_t can be fixed to a constant or chosen as a schedule over the T timesteps.
- The original DDPM authors utilized a linear schedule, however the Improving DDPM paper showed that employing a cosine schedule works even better.



Linear Scheduler (top), Cosine scheduler (bottom)

Source



- The goal of a diffusion model is to learn a neural network to reverse the denoising process by iteratively undoing the forward process.
- If we learn the reverse distribution $q(x_{t-1} | x_t)$, we can then:
 - 1. Sample x_T from N(0,I)
 - 2. Run the reverse process iteratively and acquire a sample from $q(x_0)$, generating a novel data point from the original data distribution.

But finding $q(x_{t-1} | x_t)$ is difficult as it depends on the entire data distribution and is therefore intractable.

Turns out that for small enough β_t , $q(x_{t-1} | x_t)$ will also be Gaussian.

We can then approximate $q(x_{t-1} | x_t)$ with a gaussian distribution $p_{\theta}(x_{t-1} | x_t)$ which is parameterized by some θ :

$$p_{\theta}(x_{t-1} \mid x_t) = N(\mu_{\theta}(x_t, t), \sum_{\theta} (x_t, t))$$

and

$$p_{\theta}(x_{0:T}) = p_{\theta}(x_T) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_{\theta}(x_{t-1} \mid x_t)$$

Protopapas

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How do you train a model to learn these parameters θ ? What is the loss function we need to optimize?

We can use the maximum likelihood estimate by optimizing the negative log-likelihood of the training data.

Using variational inference and the evidence lower bound, we get our loss to be:

$$L = \mathbb{E}_{q(x_0:T)} \left[\log \frac{q(x_{1:T}|x_0)}{p_{\theta}(x_{0:T})} \right]$$

On further simplification, we get:

$$L = \mathbb{E}[D_{KL}(q(x_T|x_0) \parallel p_{\theta}(x_T)) + \sum_{t=2}^{T} D_{KL}(q(x_{t-1}|x_t, x_0) \parallel p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t)) - \log p_{\theta}(x_0|x_1)]$$

$$L = \mathbb{E}[D_{KL}(q(x_T|x_0) \parallel p(x_T)) + \sum_{t=2}^{T} D_{KL}(q(x_{t-1}|x_t, x_0) \parallel p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t)) - \log p_{\theta}(x_0|x_1)]$$

$$L_T$$

$$L_{t-1}$$

$$L_0$$

Therefore,

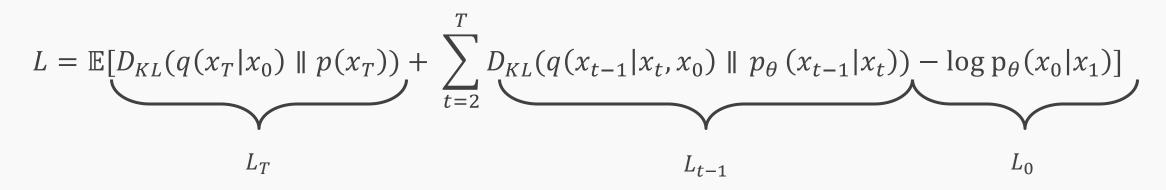
where

$$L = L_T + L_{T-1} + L_{T-2} + ... + L_0$$

$$L_T = D_{KL}(q(x_T|x_0) \parallel p(x_T))$$

$$L_t = D_{KL}(q(x_t|x_{t+1}, x_0) \parallel p_{\theta}(x_t|x_{t+1}) \text{ for } 1 \le t \le T - 1$$

$$L_0 = -\log p_{\theta}(x_0|x_1)$$

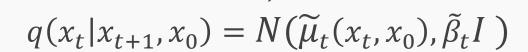


Here, L_T is constant and does not vary with the parameter we are trying to optimize over θ .

Thus, we can ignore this term to get:

$$L = \sum_{t=2}^{T} D_{KL}(q(x_{t-1}|x_t, x_0) \parallel p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t)) - \log p_{\theta}(x_0|x_1)]$$

Looking only at term $L_t = D_{KL}(q(x_t|x_{t+1},x_0) \parallel p_{\underline{\theta}}(x_t|x_{t+1}) \text{ for } 1 \le t \le T-1$



Where we reparametrize the normal distribution:

$$\tilde{\mu}_{t} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{t}}} \left(x_{t} - \frac{1 - \alpha_{t}}{\sqrt{1 - \overline{\alpha_{t}}}} \epsilon \right)$$

$$\tilde{\beta}_{t} = \beta_{t} \left(\frac{1 - \overline{\alpha_{t-1}}}{1 - \overline{\alpha_{t}}} \right)$$

where

$$\begin{array}{ll} \alpha_t = 1 - \beta_t, & \overline{\alpha_t} = \prod_{i=1}^t \alpha_i \\ \epsilon_t \sim \mathrm{N}(0, \mathrm{I}), & \beta_t \text{ is the variance scheduler} \end{array}$$

$$p_{\theta}(x_{t-1} \mid x_t) = N(\mu_{\theta}(x_t, t), \ \Sigma_{\theta}(x_t, t))$$

where

 $\mu_{\theta}(x_t, t)$ is learnt by the neural network

 $\sum_{\theta} (x_t, t)$ is fixed as $\tilde{\beta}_t$ or β_t

$$\tilde{\mu}_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(x_t - \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\sqrt{1 - \overline{\alpha_t}}} \epsilon \right)$$

 $\mu_{ heta}(x_t,t)$ is learnt by the neural network

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Our goal is to now reduced to ensuring that $\mu_{\theta}(x_t, t) \approx \tilde{\mu}_t$.

We can do this by minimizing the MSE between the two:

$$L_t = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \| \tilde{\mu}_t - \mu_{\theta}(x_t, t) \|^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \| \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(x_t - \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\sqrt{1 - \overline{\alpha_t}}} \epsilon \right) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(x_t - \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\sqrt{1 - \overline{\alpha_t}}} \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) \right) \|^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \| \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(x_t - \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\sqrt{1 - \overline{\alpha_t}}} \epsilon \right) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(x_t - \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\sqrt{1 - \overline{\alpha_t}}} \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) \right) \|^2$$

$$L_t = \frac{\beta_t^2}{2\sigma^2 \alpha_t (1 - \overline{\alpha_t})} \| \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) \|^2$$

The authors have found that dropping the constant term have led to better sample quality, so:

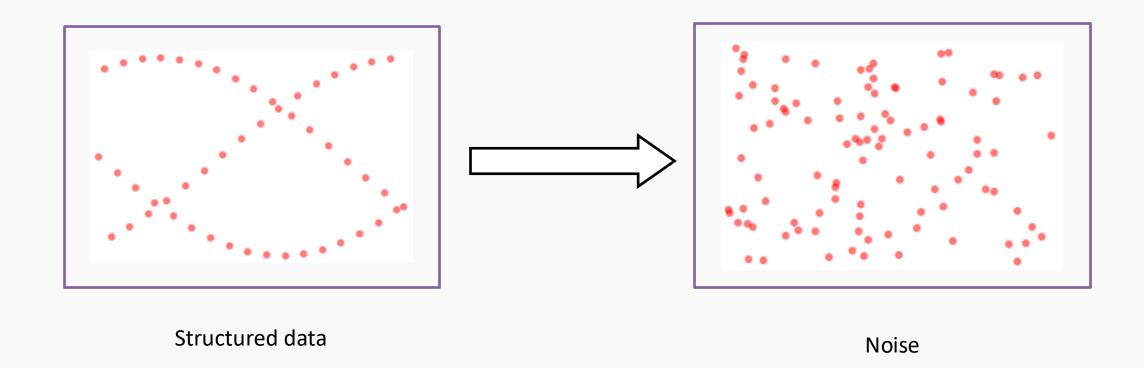
$$L_t = \| \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) \|^2$$

where
$$\mathbf{x}_t = \sqrt{\overline{\alpha_t}} x_0$$
, $+\sqrt{1-\overline{\alpha_t}} \epsilon$

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Abstractly, our goal is to learn noise from structured data, which is nontrivial.



Now that we have found our loss function:

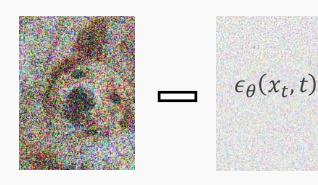
$$L_t = \| \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) \|^2$$

where
$$x_t = \sqrt{\overline{\alpha_t}}x_0$$
, $+\sqrt{1-\overline{\alpha_t}}\epsilon$

We can use a neural network to take in x_t and predict a noise $\epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t)$ that describes the noise that was added to x_{t-1} to get x_t .

Therefore, by passing x_t through our U-Net architecture, we get a noise that we can subtract from x_t to get x_{t-1} . By doing this iteratively, we can get back x_0 .

Given x_t , the model must predict the noise $\epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t)$ such that $x_t - \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) = x_{t-1}$







Algorithm 1 Training

```
1: repeat
2: \mathbf{x}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{x}_0)
3: t \sim \text{Uniform}(\{1, \dots, T\})
4: \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})
5: Take gradient descent step on
\nabla_{\theta} \left\| \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta} (\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon, t) \right\|^2
6: until converged
```

Algorithm 2 Sampling

```
1: \mathbf{x}_T \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})
```

2: **for** t = T, ..., 1 **do**

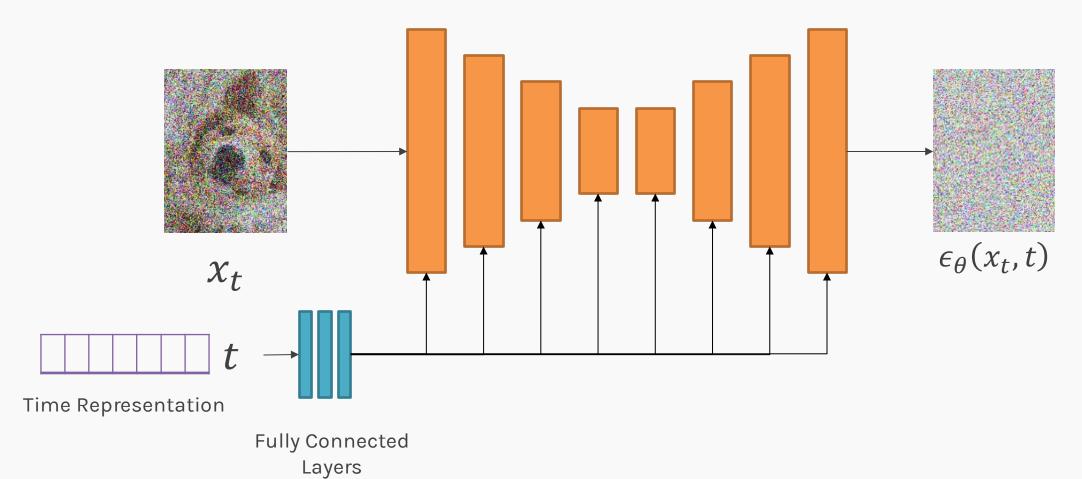
3: $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ if t > 1, else $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0}$

4:
$$\mathbf{x}_{t-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \left(\mathbf{x}_t - \frac{1-\alpha_t}{\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, t) \right) + \sigma_t \mathbf{z}$$

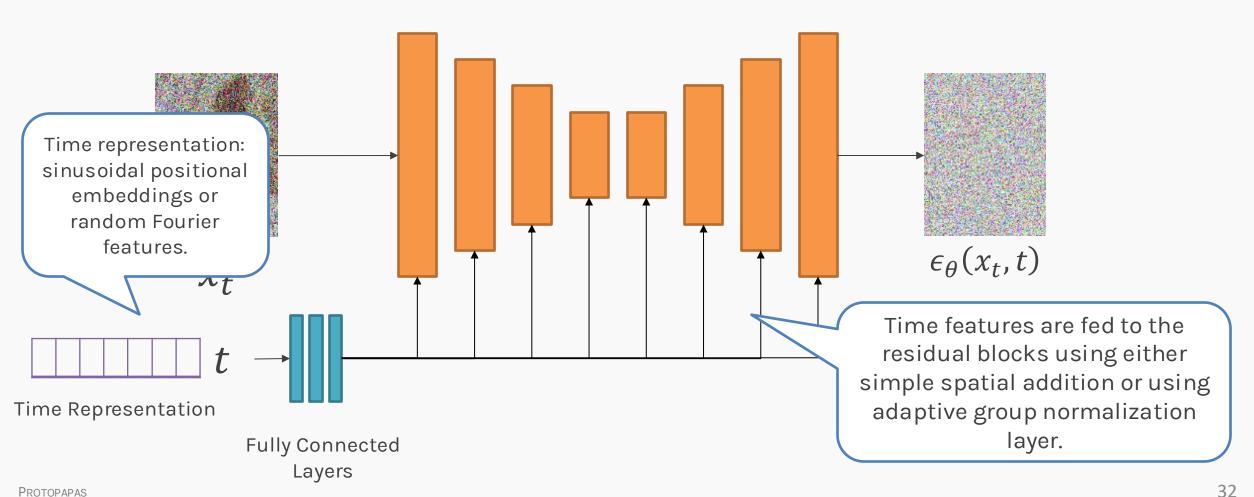
5: end for

6: return \mathbf{x}_0

Diffusion models often use U-Net architectures with ResNet blocks and selfattention layers to represent $\epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t)$.



Diffusion models often use U-Net architectures with ResNet blocks and selfattention layers to represent $\epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t)$.



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Examples of recent diffusion models

There are many recent text-to-image or image generation diffusion models:

- DALL-E 2
- DALL-E 3
- GLIDE
- Imagen
- Imagen 2
- MidJourney
- Stable Diffusion 1.x
- Stable Diffusion 2.x
- Adobe Firefly
- And many more!

"A futuristic cityscape at sunset."







Imagen 2

DALL-E 3

Adobe Firefly

In today's class, we will be talking about Stable Diffusion and DALL-E 2, once you understand this, you can understand other diffusion models!

Latent Diffusion Models

• Training models in pixel space is very computationally expensive as images are high dimensional data.

 Latent diffusion models tackle this issue. Instead of applying the diffusion process directly on a high-dimensional input, they project the input into a smaller latent space and apply the diffusion there.

Latent Diffusion Models

There are two stages of latent diffusion models:

 Train perceptual compression models to learn a semantically equivalent latent space by removing high-level details. The loss includes reconstruction, adversarial, and regularization terms.

2. Perform diffusion process in the latent space for efficiency and focusing on relevant

semantic data bits.

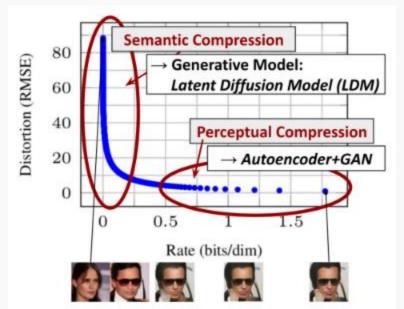
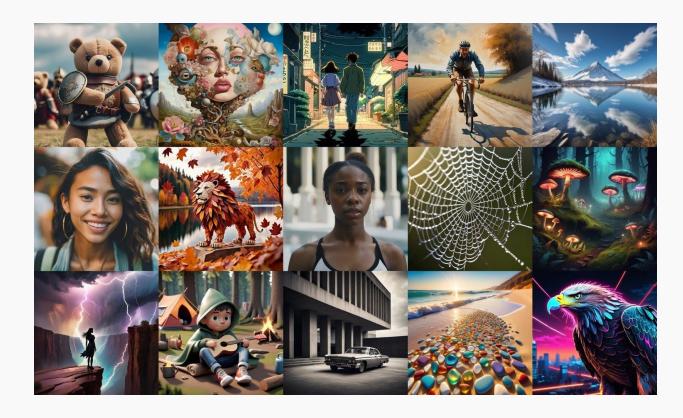


Image from Rombach et al. in High-resolution image synthesis with latent diffusion models

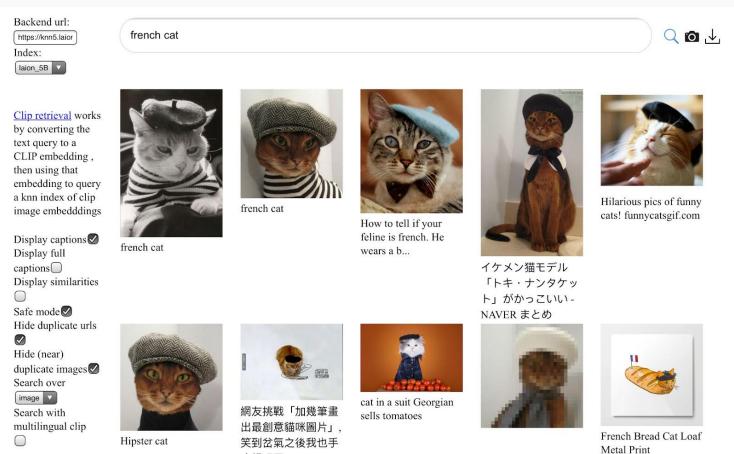
Stable Diffusion (R Rombach et al. 2021)

• Stable Diffusion (SD) is a family of open-source conditional **latent diffusion** models, able to generate high-quality images from various conditions (such as textual descriptions).



Stable Diffusion

 The model was trained to generate realistic images from textual descriptions, using a subset of LAION-5B, which is an open dataset of (image, caption) pairs.



PROTOPAPAS

Stable Diffusion - The different parts

A Variational Autoencoder (VAE) that is used to both map an image to a lower dimensional latent representation (using the Encoder), and to go from the latent representation to an image (using the Decoder).

A **UNet** which is used to predict the noise added to an input image in each time step.

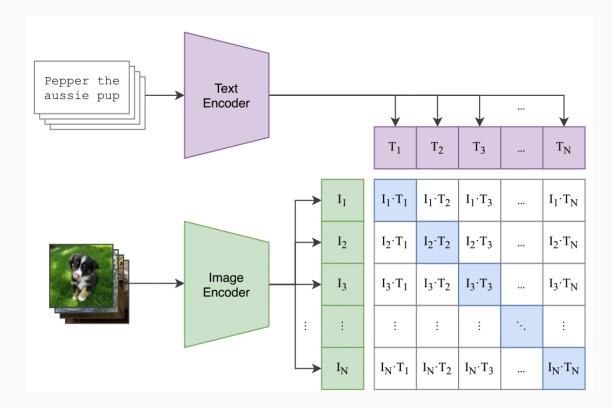
The **CLIP** model, particularly the text encoder, to incorporate textual information which are rich in image as well as conditional information for the model.

SD - Variational Autoencoder

- The main ideas behind latent diffusion models is to perform the diffusion process in a latent space, instead of directly using pixel space.
- In SD, an image $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{512 \times 512 \times 3}$ is first mapped using the **Encoder** to a low dimensional representation $z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{64 \times 64 \times 4}$, where the diffusion process happens, obtaining a noisy latent z_T .
- Now the goal is to denoise z_T and map it back to an image using the **Decoder**.
- 512 \times 512 \times 3 \approx 768k and 64 \times 64 \times 4 \approx 16k, this is a reduction of **48 times** in the dimension of the input!

SD - CLIP

- To be able to generate images conditioned on text, SD uses CLIP, a model jointly trained to learn image and text representations at the same time.
- The idea is that the text embeddings are rich in visual content as well and can help guide the image generation towards the given textual description.



PROTOPAPAS

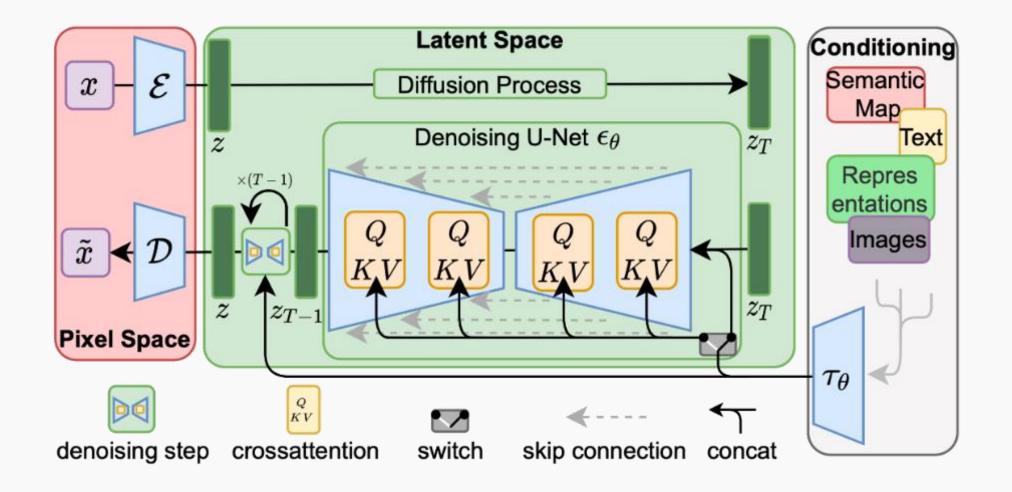
SD - CLIP

- CLIP was trained on a dataset of 400 million (image, text) pairs, and is composed of an image transformer and a text transformer.
- During training if we have image text pairs $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, we first use the transformers to obtain representations $\{(I_i, T_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.
- We then maximize the similarity between the embeddings of (image, text)
 pairs that are present in the dataset, and minimize the similarities of those
 which are not

SD - UNet

- Finally, we have the UNet backbone, which it is the main part of the diffusion process.
- Given a a noisy latent z_t , a time step t and and the CLIP text embedding $\tau_{\theta}(y)$ of a prompt y, the UNet predicts the noise $\epsilon_{\theta}(z_t, t, \tau_{\theta}(y))$ which was added to go from z_{t-1} to z_t .
- The UNet uses cross-attention, where the queries refer to intermediate representations of the UNet, and the key and values to the conditional information $\tau_{\theta}(y)$

Stable Diffusion – Putting everything together



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DALL-E 2 (Ramesh et al. 2022)



a shiba inu wearing a beret and black turtleneck

a close up of a handpalm with leaves growing from it

DALL-E 2

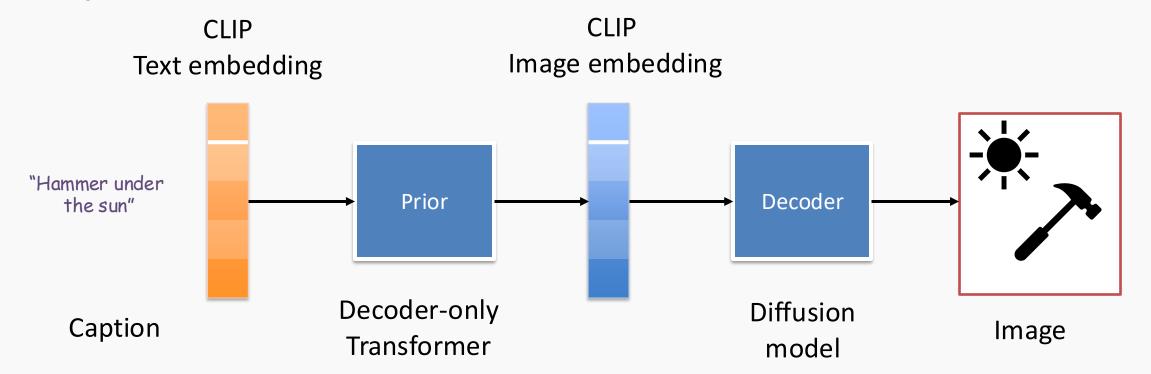
From a high-level, DALL-E 2's works in three steps:

- 1. A text prompt is input into a **text encoder** that is trained to map the prompt y to a text encoding z_t .
- 2. A diffusion model $p(z_i \mid y)$ called the **prior** maps the text encoding to a corresponding **image encoding** z_i that captures the semantic information of the prompt contained in the text encoding.
- 3. An **image decoder** $p(x|z_i,y)$ stochastically generates an image which is a visual manifestation of this semantic information.
- 4. The full conditional generative model is defined by:

$$p(x | y) = p(x | z_i, y)p(z_i | y)$$

DALL-E 2

- CLIP is used to map a caption y to a text embedding z_t which is fed to the prior to generate the image embedding z_i .
- The authors used both an autoregressive prior and a diffusion prior (decoder only transformer), but found the diffusion prior worked better.



DALL-E 2 Prior

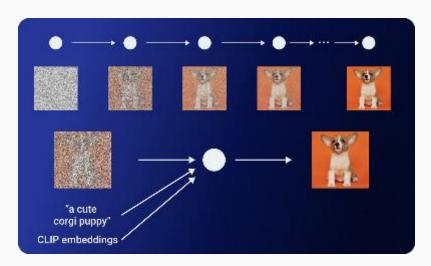
- The use of a prior is not strictly necessary. For example, the model could condition only on the caption. However, the authors found that the prior increased image diversity.
- It is a decoder only Transformer of width 2048 and 24 blocks, inputting:
 - Encoded text
 - CLIP text embedding
 - Embedding for the diffusion timestep
 - Noised CLIP image embedding
 - A final embedding whose output from the Transformer is used to predict the unnoised CLIP image embedding

DALL-E 2 Prior

- The idea is that we use a transformer to roughly translate and decode the text embedding into the image embedding.
- Unlike in typical stable diffusion, the authors use a loss function to predict the unnoised image embedding directly as opposed to predicting the \(\epsilon\) noise.
- At sampling time, they generate two candidate image embeddings, and take the one that is more aligned with the text embedding (maximum dot product between the two embeddings, which are vectors).

DALL-E 2 Decoder

- The decoder is a diffusion model. The goal of the decoder is to turn the image embeddings into actual images.
- They also optionally condition on the text captions in classifier-free guidance 50% of the time to reduce the variance of the outputs, and randomly setting the CLIP image embeddings to 0 about 10% of the time.



DALL-E 2 Decoder

 The decoder model allows users to create relevant images for any image embedding. As an example, the authors get two images and created image embeddings using CLIP.

 They then interpolated between these two embeddings and were able to generate images for these interpolated images as seen



