## Weekly Study Report

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## Outline

1.	Towards Understanding and Quantifying Uncertainty for Text-to-Image Generation	. 2
2.	Reducing LLM Hallucinations using Epistemic Neural Networks	. 9
3.	About experiments on "Ensemble Diffusion"	20

## Towards Understanding and Quantifying Uncertainty for Text-to-Image Generation

 Towards Understanding and Quantifying Uncertainty for Text-to-Image Generation

#### 1.1 Uncertainty Quantification in Vanilla Diffusion Models (unconditional)

**DDPM-OOD:** determine whether a test data  $x^*$  is from the training  $p_{\text{data}}$ .

- 1. Add noise to  $x^*$  in forward process to get a sequence of noisy images  $\left\{x_{t_1}^*, x_{t_2}^*, ... x_T^*\right\}$
- 2. Denoise the sequence of noisy images to get reconstructions  $\{\hat{x}_1^*, \hat{x}_2^*, ...\}$

Reconstruction Error. Error 
$$=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i}^{N}\|x^*-\hat{x}_i^*\|$$

Uncertainty Approach. Unc =  $var(\hat{x}^*)$ 

Similarly, the above approach can be done in Latent Space (LMD

#### 1.2 Uncertainty Quantification in Text-to-Image Generation

Given a conditional model  $p_{\theta}(x|c)$  which models the conditional data distribution  $p_{\text{data}}(x|c)$ . Conditioned on a prompt  $c^*$ , we draw  $x^*$  from  $p_{\theta}(x^*|c^*)$ . In this case, we wish to quantify the uncertainty of model  $p_{\theta}$  with respect to the condition  $c^*$ . In this case, uncertainties should be concerned with semantics between text prompt and the generated output image.

- Aleatoric Uncertainty: non-reducible. High aleatoric uncertainty would be where a variation of generated concepts may arise from a single prompt. For example, a spelling mistake where *fish* is mistyped as *fis*, then the model may result in a *fist* in the image.
- Epistemic Uncertainty: should correspond to a models' lack of knowledge of the semantic concepts in the prompt. For example, a model trained on ImageNet won't know what the president Trump looks like, thus will have high epistemic uncertainty for this semantic concept.

#### 1.3 Prompt-based Uncertainty Estimation

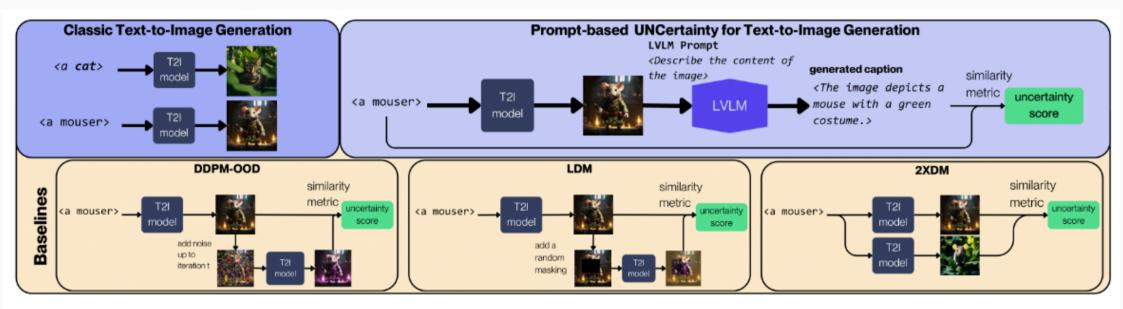


Figure 4. **Illustration showing the different baselines and PUNC.** PUNC leverages a LVLM to describe generated images and assess similarity with the original prompt, providing a refined uncertainty score. In contrast, baseline methods employ traditional techniques such as noise injection, ensembling, or masking to quantify uncertainty, followed by image-based similarity scoring.

#### 1.3 Prompt-based Uncertainty Estimation

#### Background on Large Vision-Language Model (LVLM).

Given a text prompt c and an image x, a LVLM model with parameters  $\theta$ , includes

- Image Encoder:  $f_{\theta}^{\rm img}(\cdot)$  processes the input image x and produces an embedding  $z^{\rm img}=f_{\theta}^{\rm img}(x)$
- Text Processor with LLM:  $f_{\theta}^{\mathrm{txt}}(\cdot,\cdot)$  takes the prompt c and the image embedding  $z^{\mathrm{img}}$  as inputs, generating a descriptive or answer-based response:  $\hat{c} = f_{\theta}^{\mathrm{txt}}(c,z^{\mathrm{img}})$

Thus, a LVLM can generate an interpretation  $\hat{c}$  that reflects the content of the image given an initial prompt.

#### 1.3 Prompt-based Uncertainty Estimation

#### Workflows.

• Step 1: Initial Prompt and Image Generation. Given a test prompt  $c^*$ , we use the T2I model to sample an image x:

$$x \sim p_{\theta}(x|c^*)$$

• Step 2: Image Interpretation via LVLM. With the generated image x and the initial prompt  $c^*$ , the LVLM produces a new descriptive caption  $\hat{c}$ :

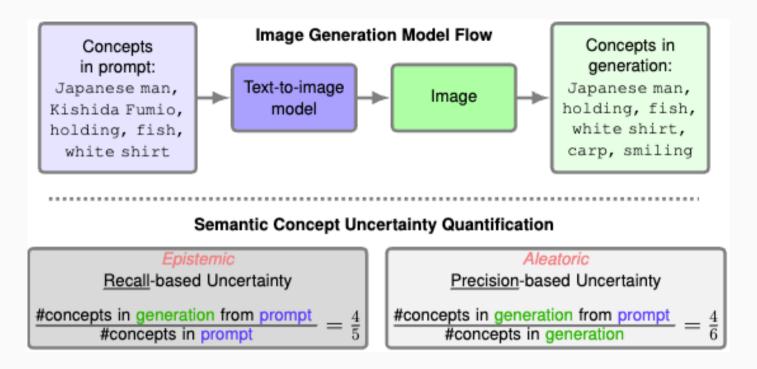
$$\hat{c} = f_{\theta}^{\text{txt}} \left( c, f_{\theta}^{\text{img}}(x) \right)$$

• Step 3: Uncertainty Score Calculation. Using the similarity score  $S(c^*, \hat{c})$ :

$$S(c^*, \hat{c}) = \sin(c^*, \hat{c})$$

High Similarity  $\rightarrow$  Low Epistemic Uncertainty

#### 1.4 Aleatoric and Epistemic Uncertainty via Precision and Recall



Intuitively, a *lack of knowledge* about concepts in the prompt will result in fewer concepts being repserved in the image, reducing *recall*.

A *lack of specificity* in the prompt will result in additional concepts being generated, reducing *precision*.

## Reducing LLM Hallucinations using Epistemic Neural Networks

# 2. Reducing LLM Hallucinations using Epistemic Neural Networks

#### 2.1 Various Approaches to Mitigate Hallucinations

- 1. Chain of Thoughts (CoT)
- 2. Self-ensembling techniques: sample many reasoning chains and impose self-consistency to obtain a self-ensembled answer.
- 3. Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG): the model will use the query to search for a small number of highly relevant documents with factual information, then the LLM will be asked to generate a responce for the query given such auxiliary information.
- 4. Fine-tuning for specific tasks.

#### 2.2 DoLa (Decoding by Contrasting Layers)

- A possible reason for a Language Model to hallucinate is the maximum likelihood language modelling objective, which minimize the forward KL divergence between the data and model distributions. This objective potentially results in a model with mass-seeking behavior which causes the LM to assign non-zero probability to sentences that are not fully consistent with knowledge embedded in the training data.
- Representation Difference in different layers in a Language Model:
  - 1. Early layers: encode "lower-level" information (e.g., part-of-speech tags)
  - 2. Later layers: more "semantic information" (more factual)

So,

- 1. Later logits mainly contain factual information and knowledge
- 2. Early logits mainly contain meaningful but not necessarily true

#### 2.2 DoLa (Decoding by Contrasting Layers)

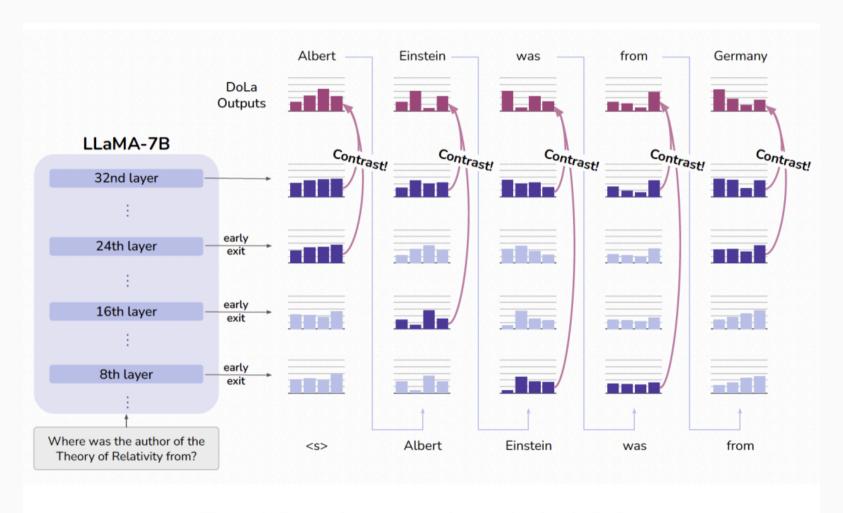


Figure 1: Dynamic premature layer selection in DoLa

#### 2.2 DoLa (Decoding by Contrasting Layers)

1. **Premature Layer Selection.** Different models have different best premature Layer. DoLa aims to select a best premature layer so that its output distribution is the most different from the final layer.

$$M = \arg\max_{j \in J} \text{JSD } (q_F(\cdot | x_{< t}) \parallel q_j(\cdot | x_{< t})),$$

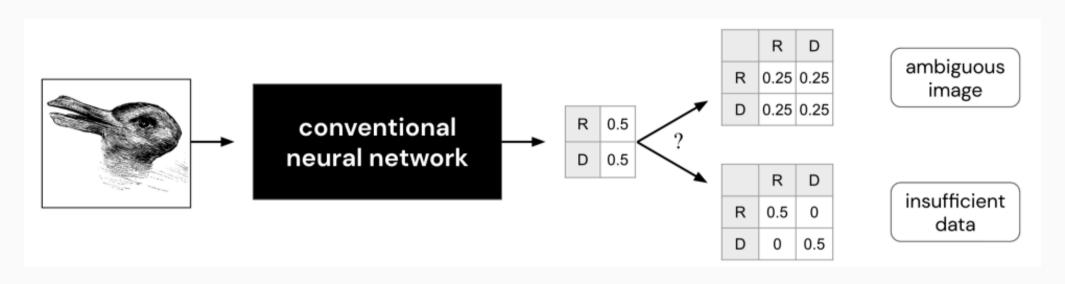
where J is all candidates of premature layers,  $q_F$  is the final output distribution,  $q_j$  is the output distribution of j-th layer, and JSD is the Jensen-Shannon Divergence.

2. **Contrastive decoding approach**: amplify the output from the final layer while downplaying the output from the premature layer.

$$F(q_F(x_t), q_E(x_t)) \coloneqq \begin{cases} \log \frac{q_F(x_t)}{q_E(x_t)} \text{ if } x_t \in V_{\text{head}}(x_t|x_{< t}) \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{p}(x_t) = \text{softmax } (F(q_F(x_t), q_E(x_t)))$$

#### **Measuring Joint Distribution**



If we want to get a joint distribution from traditional way:

$$\hat{P}_{\{1:2\}}(x) = \prod_{t=1}^{2} \text{softmax } (f_{\theta}(x))$$

, this assumes the two prediction result are independent, not the true joint distribution.

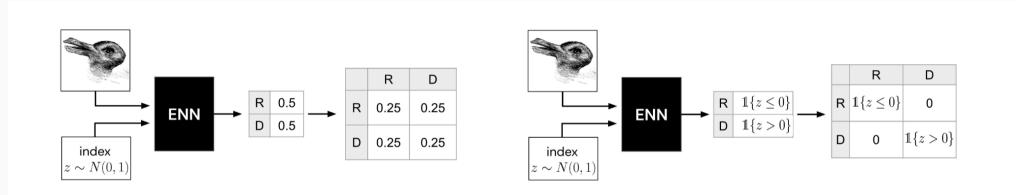
Epistemic NN way: 
$$\hat{P}_{\{1:2\}}(x) = \int_z P_z(z) \prod_{t=1}^2 \operatorname{softmax} (f_{\theta}(x,z))$$

#### z:

- can be understood as condition or assumption
- can be understood as a "domain information"
- can be some simple distribution, such as uniform distribution on finite sets or standard Gaussian.

#### Why z:

- 1. intuitively, different zs result in different prediction with same NN, which can be considered as an "ensemble"
- 2. If model does not have a good understanding of the test data, then given different z, the model will output completely different results ( high epistemic uncertainty )
- 3. if the data is sufficiency, any *z*s will make similar prediction, which means the model has less "reducible" uncertainty.



- (a) An ENN indicating an ambiguous image.
- (b) An ENN indicating insufficient data.

Figure 3: An ENN can incorporate the epistemic index  $z \sim P_Z$  into its joint predictions. This allows an ENN to differentiate inevitable ambiguity from data insufficiency.

#### Algorithm 1 ENN training via SGD

#### Inputs:

training examples  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, i)\}_{i=1}^N$ dataset **ENN** network f, reference  $P_Z$ , initialization  $\theta_0$  $\ell$  evaluates example  $(x_i, y_i, i)$  for index zloss data samples  $n_B$ , index samples  $n_Z$ batch size update rule and number of iterations T optimizer

#### Returns:

 $\theta_T$ parameter estimates for the ENN.

1: **for** t in 0, ..., T-1 **do** 

sample data  $\tilde{\mathcal{I}} = i_1, ..., i_{n_R} \sim \text{Unif}(\{1,...,N\}).$ 

sample indices  $\tilde{Z} = z_1,..,z_{n_Z} \sim P_Z$ . compute  $\operatorname{grad} \leftarrow \nabla_{\theta|\theta=\theta_t} \sum_{z \in \tilde{Z}} \sum_{i \in \tilde{I}} \ell(\theta,z,x_i,y_i,i)$ .

5: update  $\theta_{t+1} \leftarrow \text{optimizer}(\theta_t, \text{grad})$ 

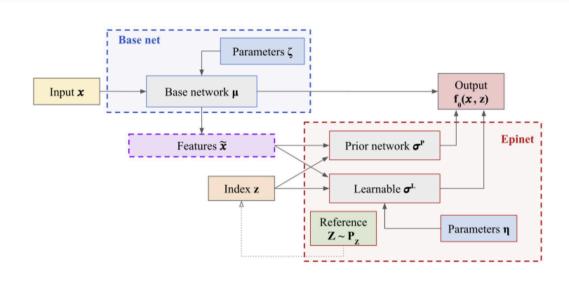


Figure 4: Epinet network architecture.

$$\sigma_{\eta}(\tilde{x}, z) = \sigma_{\eta}^{L}(\tilde{x}, z) + \sigma^{P}(\tilde{x}, z),$$

- $\sigma_n(\tilde{x},z)$ : epinet
- $\sigma_n^L(\tilde{x}, z)$ : learnable part, 3-layer MLP
- $\sigma^P(\tilde{x},z)$ ,: prior net, untrained, simple MLP

Final prediction of Epistemic NN:

$$f_{\theta}(x,z) = h_{\theta}(x) + \sigma_{\eta}(\tilde{x},z).$$

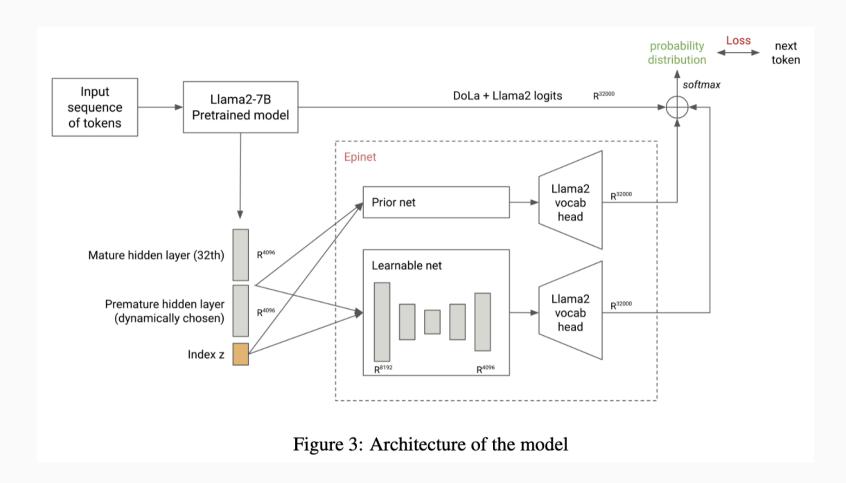
1. Single Forward Process:

$$f_{\theta}(x,z)$$

2. Joint Prediction:

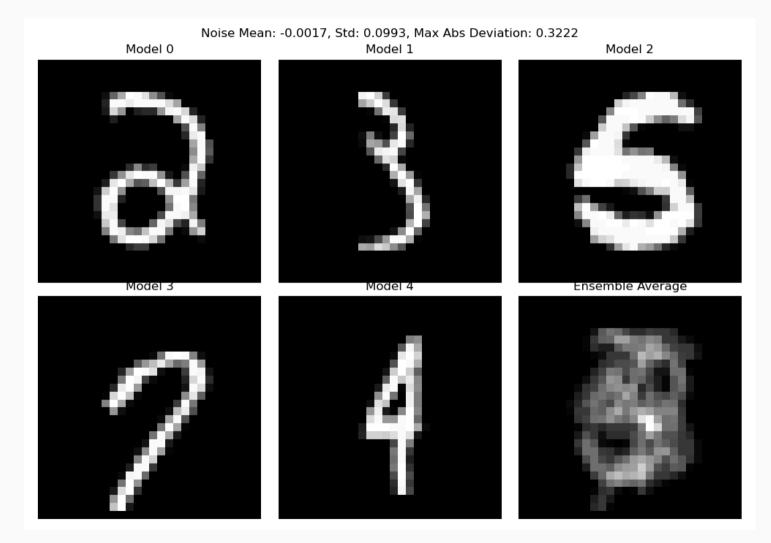
$$\hat{P}^{\text{ENN}}(y_{1:n}) = \int_z P_z(z) \prod_{i=1}^n \operatorname{softmax} \ (f_\theta(x_i, z))$$

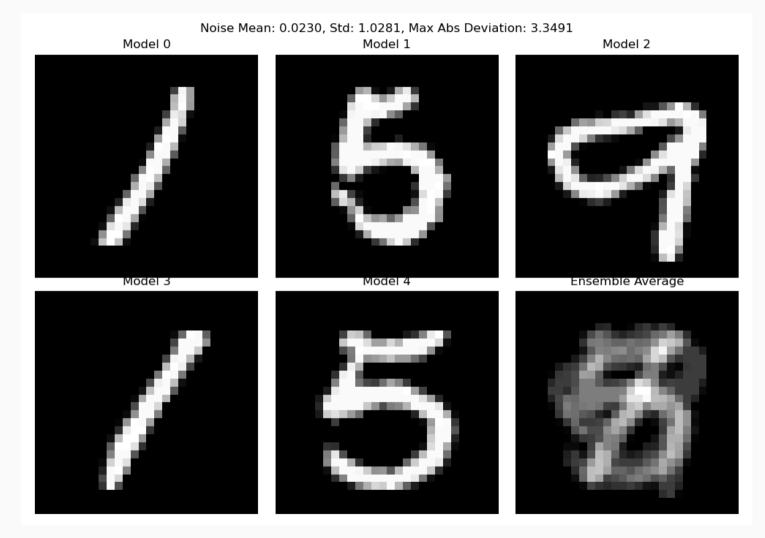
#### 2.4 DoLA + Epistemic NN

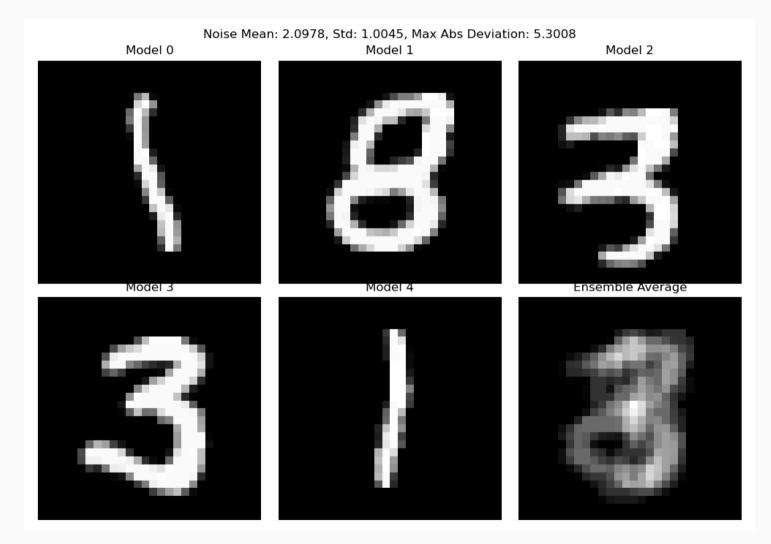


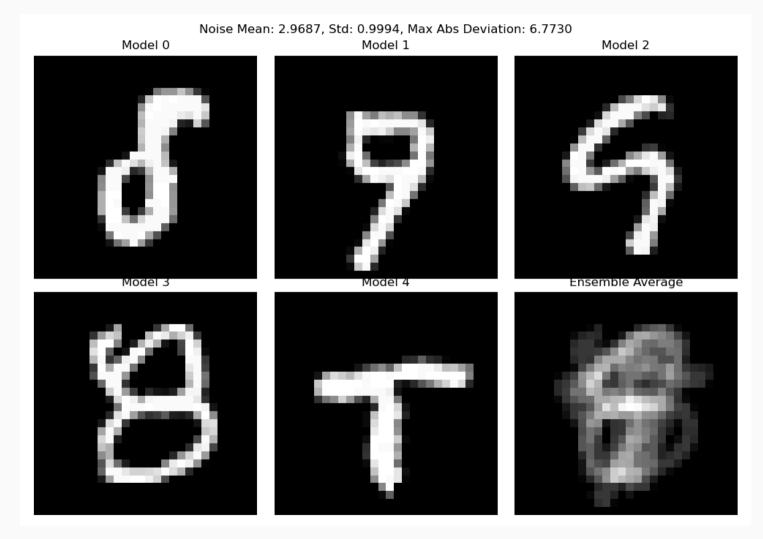
Final Output = DoLa Logits + 
$$\sigma^P(\tilde{x}, z)$$

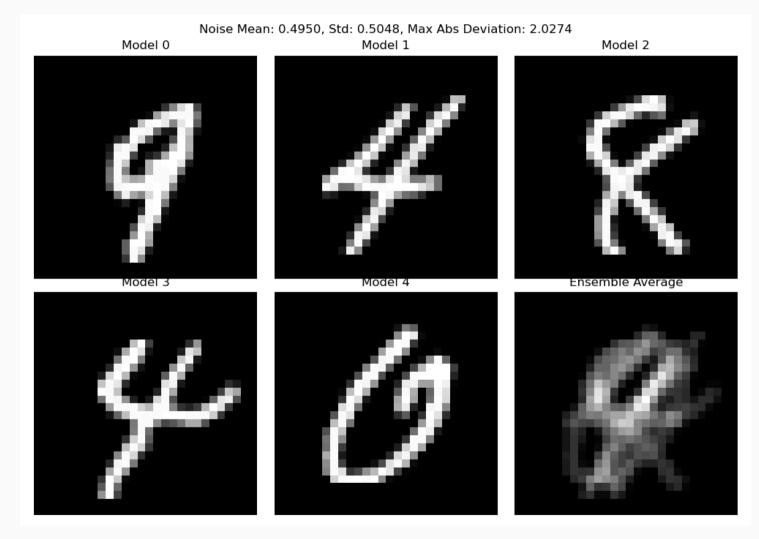
## 3. About experiments on "Ensemble Diffusion"

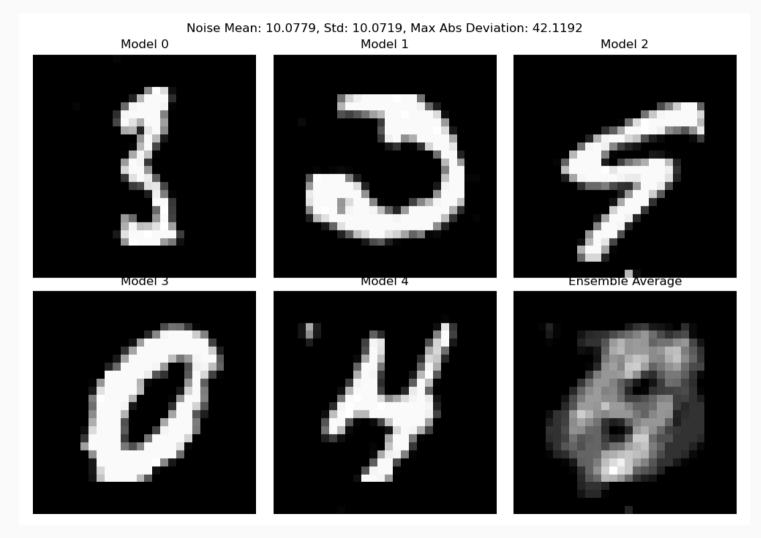


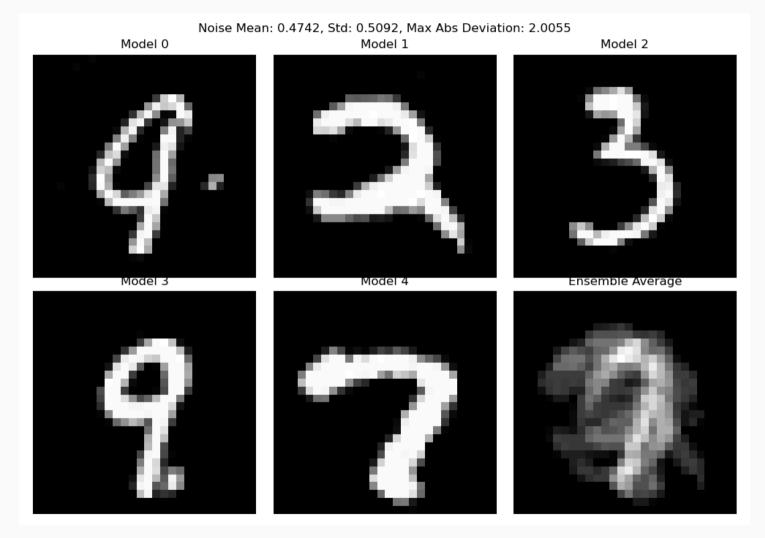


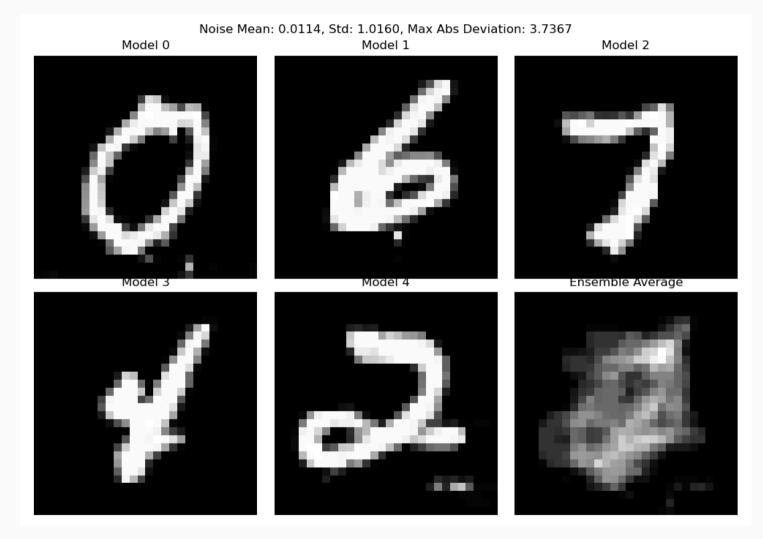


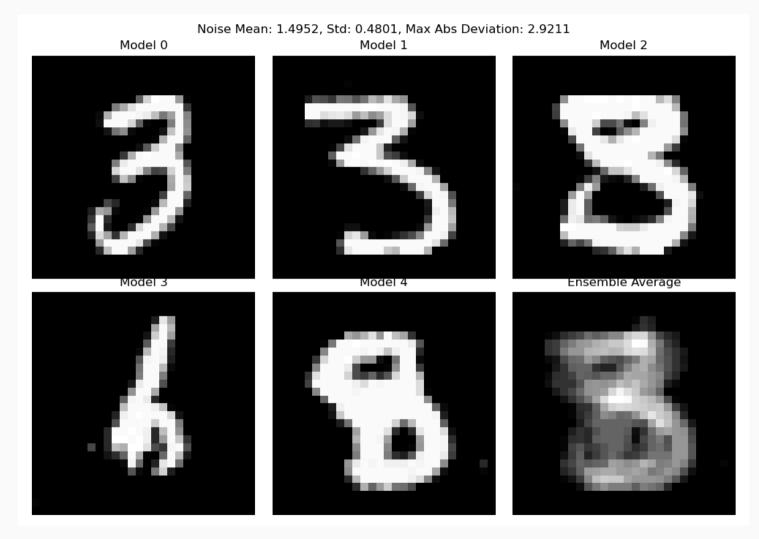


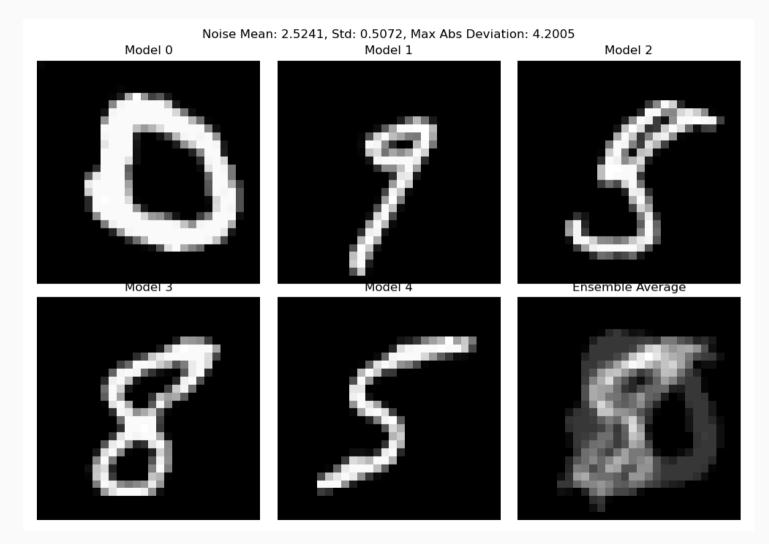


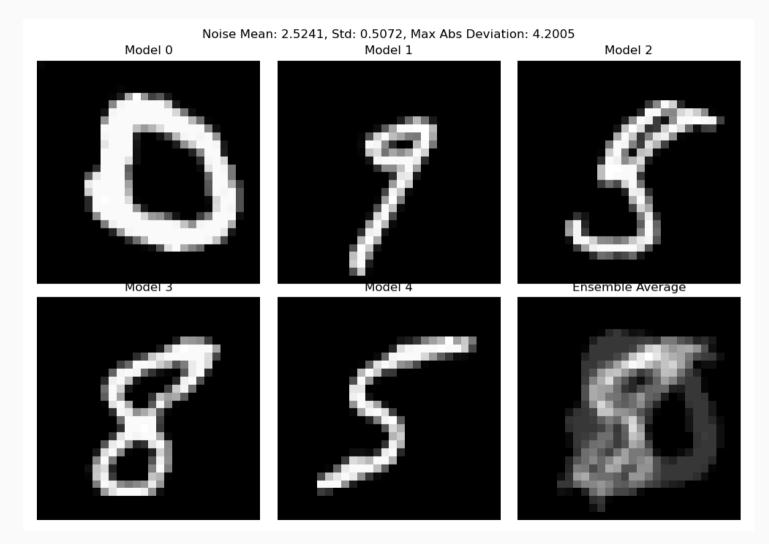


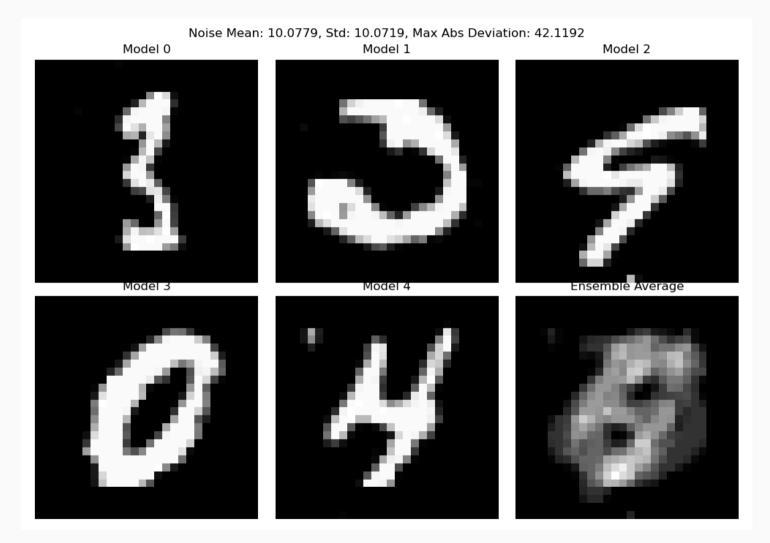












#### 3.3 Next Steps

- 1. Use 1 model to deonise from T to a mid step, then pass the intermediate image to different denoisers
- 2. Find some metrics to measure whether the Generated images align with training data (because it is hard to identify visually)