

# 000 PARALLEL SAMPLING FROM MASKED DIFFUSION 001 MODELS VIA CONDITIONAL INDEPENDENCE TESTING 002

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## 007 ABSTRACT 008

009 Masked diffusion models (MDMs) offer a compelling alternative to autoregressive  
010 models (ARMs) for discrete text generation because they enable parallel  
011 token sampling, rather than sequential, left-to-right generation. This means poten-  
012 tially much faster inference. However, effective parallel sampling faces two  
013 competing requirements: (i) simultaneously updated tokens must be conditionally  
014 independent, and (ii) updates should prioritise high-confidence predictions. These  
015 goals conflict because high-confidence predictions often cluster and depend on  
016 each other, opportunities for parallel updates.  
017

018 We present PUNT, a model-agnostic sampler that reconciles this trade-off. Our  
019 method identifies token dependencies and removes lower-confidence tokens from  
020 conflicting groups. This produces sets of indices for unmasking that satisfy both  
021 independence and confidence criteria. Our approach ensures improved parallel  
022 unmasking through approximate conditional independence testing.  
023

024 Our experiments show that PUNT delivers a superior trade-off between accuracy  
025 and compute when compared to other strong training-free baselines, especially for  
026 generation of longer sequences. On the IFEval benchmark, it achieves up to 16%  
027 higher accuracy over baseline methods, including sequential generation (one-by-  
028 one). These gains hold across different values of hyperparameters, mitigating the  
029 need for brittle hyperparameter tuning. Moreover, we observe that PUNT induces  
030 an emergent hierarchical generation strategy, where the model first establishes  
031 high-level paragraph structure before local refinement, suggesting a planning-like  
032 generation process that contributes to strong alignment performance.  
033

## 034 1 INTRODUCTION 035

036 The widespread deployment of Large Language Models (LLMs) has created massive computational  
037 workloads, consuming significant datacenter resources and electricity, thereby incurring substantial  
038 operational costs. A primary driver of this inefficiency is inference speed, which is bottlenecked  
039 by the sequential, left-to-right generation process inherent in standard autoregressive models. To  
040 overcome this, alternative methods have been developed to enable multiple tokens to be generated  
041 simultaneously.  
042

043 Among approaches with the potential for parallel decoding, Masked Diffusion Models (MDMs) have  
044 emerged as a particularly promising framework (Austin et al., 2023; Lou et al., 2024; Nie et al.,  
045 2025b). Unlike autoregressive models, MDMs iteratively refine masked sequences by predicting  
046 *subsets* of positions simultaneously, enabling parallel decoding. However, determining which tokens  
047 to unmask in parallel without degradation in quality remains challenging.  
048

049 Various inference strategies have been proposed to accelerate MDMs, including confidence-based  
050 token selection (Sahoo et al., 2024; Patel et al., 2025), structured unmasking patterns (Luxembourg  
051 et al., 2025; Arriola et al., 2025), remasking (Wang et al., 2025), and distillation (Zhu et al., 2025b).  
052 However, these approaches share a critical limitation: they do not explicitly test for inter-token  
053 interference during parallel decoding. Structured patterns impose rigid, data-agnostic schedules that  
ignore sequence-specific dependencies, while remasking and distillation either add computational  
overhead or require expensive retraining.  
054

054 **Our Contribution.** We propose a different approach to parallel decoding based on *contextual*  
 055 *independence*—testing whether tokens can be decoded in parallel by checking for independence at  
 056 the sampled point, rather than for all possible outcomes. Unlike standard conditional independence,  
 057 which requires integrating over all possible outcomes (which is computationally prohibitive for large  
 058 token spaces), contextual independence provides the part that matters at the current decoding step.

059 To find the contextually independent subsets, we propose PUNT (Parallel Unmasking with Non-  
 060 influence Tests), a training-free procedure that employs a divide-and-conquer strategy. Our algo-  
 061 rithm selects “anchor” subsets and tests entire “candidate” groups for dependence in batch. By  
 062 carefully designing splits, PUNT certifies a large block of tokens for parallel generation using only  
 063  $O(\log m)$  model calls per step (compared with  $m$  for fully sequential unmasking) where  $m$  is the  
 064 number of masked tokens.

065 PUNT enjoys the following advantages: first, PUNT is **training-free** and requires no model fine-  
 066 tuning or distillation. Second, unlike rigid structured patterns or confidence-based approaches,  
 067 PUNT **dynamically adapts** to sequence-specific dependencies. For instance, we see that it ex-  
 068hibits an emergent **hierarchical generation** strategy, where the model first establishes high-level  
 069 paragraph structure before refining the details. Third, for long-form text generation on alignment  
 070 benchmarks as well as *de novo* protein generation tasks, PUNT outperforms other standard base-  
 071 lines and quickly reaches its maximum quality with very few forward passes when compared to  
 072 other algorithms, resulting in a **stable Pareto frontier** over the number of forward evaluations of  
 073 the MDM.

074 **Organization.** Section 2 introduces masked diffusion models and formalizes the parallel decoding  
 075 problem. Section 3 presents our main algorithmic contribution, Section 4 presents empirical eval-  
 076 uation, and Section 5 discusses related work. Finally, Section 6 discusses implications and future  
 077 directions.

## 079 2 BACKGROUND ON MASKED DIFFUSION MODELS

081 In this section, we review the fundamentals of masked diffusion models and establish the notation  
 082 used throughout this paper.

083 **Notation.** We denote vectors with bold lowercase (e.g.,  $\mathbf{x}$ ) and scalars with regular lowercase (e.g.,  
 084  $y$ ); random variables use uppercase (e.g.,  $X, Y$ ) with corresponding lowercase for their realizations  
 085 (e.g.,  $x, y$ ). We will also use uppercase letters to denote sets and tensors, when it is clear from  
 086 context. Let  $L = [\ell] := \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  denote integers up to  $\ell$ . For  $I \subseteq L$ ,  $-I := L \setminus I$  is its  
 087 complement, and  $\mathbf{x}^I = \{x^i \mid i \in I\}$  represents the indexed subset of sequence  $\mathbf{x} = (x^1, \dots, x^\ell)$ .  
 088 With vocabulary  $V$ , we consider discrete state space  $V^L$ . For random sequence  $\mathbf{X} = (X^1, \dots, X^\ell)$ ,  
 089 we write  $p(\mathbf{x}) := \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$  for outcome  $\mathbf{x} \in V^L$ , and  $p^j(\cdot)$  for the marginal at position  $j$ .  
 090 Extending to  $V_{\text{MASK}} = V \cup \{\text{MASK}\}$ , a token  $x^i$  is **masked** if  $x^i = \text{MASK}$ . For any sequence,  
 091  $M = M(\mathbf{x}) := \{i \mid x^i = \text{MASK}\}$  denotes masked indices, with unmasked indices denoted  $-M$ .  
 092 Conditional distribution at position  $j$  given observed tokens  $\mathbf{x}^I$  is written as  $p^j(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^I)$ , shorthand for  
 093  $\mathbf{P}(X^j = \cdot \mid \mathbf{X}^I = \mathbf{x}^I)$ . For a sequence with masked indices  $M$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^{-M}$  denotes unmasked tokens.  
 094 In the iterative generation process,  $\mathbf{x}_t$  represents the sequence at step  $t$ , and  $M_t := M(\mathbf{x}_t)$  denotes  
 095 masked indices at step  $t$ .

096 **Masked Language Modeling.** Masked language modeling trains neural networks to predict miss-  
 097 ing tokens from context. Given a sequence  $\mathbf{x} \in V_{\text{MASK}}^\ell$  with masked positions  $M$ , the model  
 098 parameterized by  $\theta$  learns conditional distributions:

$$099 \quad p_\theta^i(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \approx p^i(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}), \quad \forall i \in M.$$

100 During training, a clean sample (i.e. without any masked coordinates)  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{clean}} \sim p(\cdot)$  is drawn from  
 101 the true data distribution. A random subset of its tokens  $M \subseteq L$  is then selected to be masked,  
 102 creating the corrupted sequence  $\mathbf{x}$  where  $\mathbf{x}^{-M} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{clean}}^{-M}$  and  $\mathbf{x}^M$  consists of MASK tokens.

103 The model parameters  $\theta$  are optimized to maximize the conditional log-likelihood of the original  
 104 tokens at masked positions:

$$105 \quad \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}_{\text{clean}}, M} \left[ \sum_{i \in M} \log p_\theta^i(x_{\text{clean}}^i \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \right].$$

108 Generation proceeds iteratively using the trained model. Starting from a fully masked sequence  
 109  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (\text{MASK}, \dots, \text{MASK})$ , each iteration performs two operations at timestep  $t$ : (1) sample  
 110 candidate tokens  $y_t^i \sim p_\theta^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}_t^{-M_t})$  for all masked positions  $i \in M_t$ , and (2) update a subset  $R \subseteq M_t$   
 111 of these positions with their sampled values, so that  $x_{t+1}^i \leftarrow y_t^i$  for  $i \in R$  and  $x_{t+1}^i \leftarrow x_t^i$  for  $i \notin R$ .  
 112 This process repeats until all positions are unmasked, producing the final sequence  $\mathbf{x}_T$ .

113 The iterative sampling process introduces two key sources of error at each step that can compromise  
 114 sample quality. For clarity, we analyze the error within a single step and drop the time index  $t$  in the  
 115 following discussion.

116 **Approximation Error.** The learned model  $p_\theta^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$  only *approximates* the true conditional  
 117 distribution  $p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ . This potentially leads to suboptimal token predictions. To mitigate this,  
 118 we employ a confidence score  $\phi_i$  per position  $i$ , to guide mask selection at each step, updating only  
 119 those positions where the model exhibits high confidence. This strategy improves generation quality  
 120 by prioritizing high-confidence predictions. Common confidence scores  $\phi_i$  for position  $i$  include:  
 121 **negative entropy**  $\sum_{x \in V} p_\theta^i(x | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \log p_\theta^i(x | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ , **confidence**  $p_\theta^i(y^i | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$  of the sampled  
 122 token, and **top margin** between the two most likely tokens.

123 **Joint Dependencies.** A more fundamental limitation arises from the sampling strategy itself. When  
 124 sampling masked tokens  $y^i$  independently from their conditional distributions  $p_\theta^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ , we  
 125 implicitly assume conditional independence among all masked tokens given the unmasked context.  
 126 Natural sequences, however, exhibit complex dependencies that violate this assumption. True con-  
 127 ditional independence for candidate tokens  $R \subseteq M$  requires the joint probability to factorize as:

$$p^R(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = \prod_{i \in R} p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \quad (1)$$

128 In general, the joint distribution does not factorize in this way. Finding a subset of tokens where this  
 129 factorization holds presents significant computational challenges, as verifying this condition requires  
 130 checking that equation 1 holds for all outcomes  $\mathbf{y}^R \in V^R$ —a space that grows exponentially with  
 131  $|R|$ . The following section presents an efficient method to identify token subsets that approximately  
 132 satisfy this independence condition, thereby mitigating this source of error.

### 3 METHOD

140 In this section, we introduce our method for one step of parallel unmasking. We first establish **con-  
 141 textual independence** as the criterion for safe parallel unmasking (§3.1), then present our **efficient  
 142 subset discovery** algorithm that identifies independent token sets using only  $O(\log |M|)$  model  
 143 evaluations (§3.2).

#### 3.1 CONTEXTUAL INDEPENDENCE

144 To address joint dependencies, we adopt the notion of *contextual independence* as our criterion  
 145 for parallel unmasking. This property precisely characterizes when parallel sampling yields the  
 146 same distribution as sequential sampling. Unlike full statistical independence (overly restrictive) or  
 147 confidence-based heuristics (which ignore dependencies), contextual independence identifies tokens  
 148 that can be unmasked simultaneously given the current context.

149 **Definition 3.1** (Contextually Independent Random Variables). A random variable  $X$  is *contextually  
 150 independent* of a random variable  $Y$  at a point  $y$  if the conditional distribution of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is  
 151 identical to the marginal distribution of  $X$ , i.e.,  $p_{X|Y}(\cdot | Y = y) = p_X(\cdot)$ .

152 **Definition 3.2** (Contextually Independent Sequences). A *sequence* of random variables  
 153  $(X^1, \dots, X^\ell)$  is *contextually independent* at an outcome  $(x^1, \dots, x^\ell)$ , if for each  $i \in L$ , the  
 154 conditional distribution of  $X^i$  given the preceding outcomes  $\mathbf{x}_{<i} = (x^1, \dots, x^{i-1})$  is identi-  
 155 cal to its marginal distribution. Formally, for all  $i \in L$ :  $p_{X^i|\mathbf{x}_{<i}}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}_{<i}) = p_{X^i}(\cdot)$ , where  
 156  $\mathbf{X}_{<i} = (X^1, \dots, X^{i-1})$ .

157 In other words, under the contextual independence assumption, sampling the vector  $(x^1, \dots, x^\ell)$   
 158 sequentially is equivalent to sampling its components in parallel.

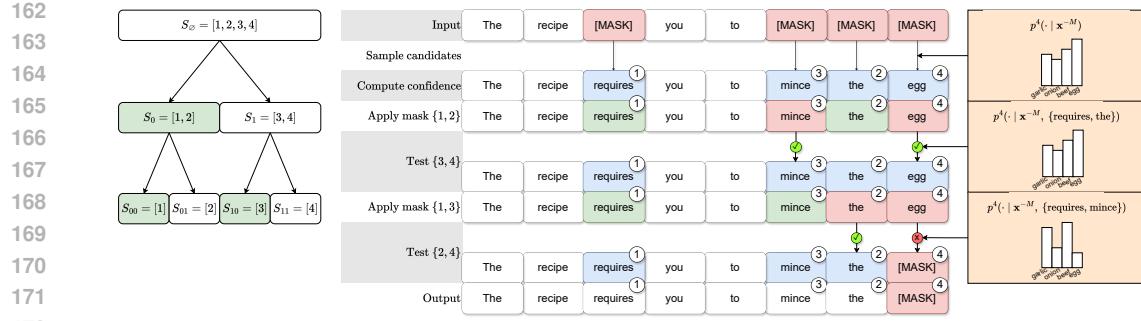


Figure 1: Illustration of one iteration of PUNT on 4 masked tokens, which consists of  $\log_2 4 = 2$  tests. Left: A binary tree representing the recursive partitioning. Each level corresponds to a single parallel test in the iterative algorithm. Right: In each round, confidence-ordered tokens (circled numbers) are partitioned into “anchor” (green) and “test” sets. Test tokens that are dependent on the anchor set are rejected (red), while independent ones (blue) are kept. Each token must pass all independence tests to be accepted. Here, “mince” passes (independent of {“requires”, “the”}) while “egg” fails (dependent on {“requires”, “mince”}). The final set {“requires”, “the”, “mince”} satisfies contextual independence:  $p(\text{“requires”, “the”, “mince”} \mid \mathbf{x}_{\text{unmasked}}) = p(\text{“requires”} \mid \mathbf{x}_{\text{unmasked}}) \cdot p(\text{“the”} \mid \mathbf{x}_{\text{unmasked}}) \cdot p(\text{“mince”} \mid \mathbf{x}_{\text{unmasked}})$ .

Our goal is, given a candidate vector  $\mathbf{y}^M$ , to find an *ordered*<sup>1</sup> set of masked indices  $R = \{r_1, \dots, r_{|R|}\} \subseteq M$  that are contextually independent relative to the unmasked context  $\mathbf{x}^{-M}$ . Formally, for any  $i \in \{1, \dots, |R|\}$ , the distribution at position  $r_i$  must be independent of the outcomes at preceding positions  $R_{<i} := \{r_j \mid j < i\}$ , given the unmasked context:

$$p^{r_i}(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}}) = p^{r_i}(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}). \quad (2)$$

A naive, greedy approach to construct such a set would be to iterate through all masked indices  $m \in M$  and sequentially add an index to  $R$  if it satisfies Equation 2 given the previously added indices. However, this requires  $O(|M|)$  sequential model evaluations, which defeats the purpose of parallel sampling.

We propose an efficient recursive algorithm based on a recursive divide-and-conquer strategy, which we will later provide an an efficient iterative implementation for. The validity of this approach relies on the following stability assumption regarding the conditional independence structure of the model.

**Assumption 3.3.** (Independence Stability) Let  $i \in M$  be a masked index, and let  $U \subseteq M \setminus \{i\}$  be a subset of masked indices. If for some sequence of tokens  $\mathbf{y}^U$  we have  $p^i(\cdot \mid \mathbf{y}^U, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p^i(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ , then for any  $W \subset U$  it holds that  $p^i(\cdot \mid \mathbf{y}^W, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p^i(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ .

This assumption represents a balanced compromise between complete independence and simple contextual independence. It states that if a set of positions  $U$  does not influence the prediction at position  $i$ , then any subset  $W \subset U$  will also not influence that prediction. This property ensures that independence tests conducted at any stage of our recursive algorithm remain valid throughout all subsequent stages. Section B provides a justification for why this assumption is reasonable for transformer-based architectures and empirical evidence that it approximately holds in practice.

### 3.2 EFFICIENT SUBSET DISCOVERY

Under Assumption 3.3, we can construct the set  $R$  in  $O(\log |M|)$  parallel steps. If there is at least one masked position (i.e.  $|M| \geq 1$ ), the recursive algorithm starts with  $S = M$  and proceeds as follows (see Figure 1 for an illustration of one iteration):

At each recursive call, its input is a (confidence)<sup>2</sup> ordered subset of masked candidates  $S = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{|S|}) \subseteq M$ . The base case for the recursion is when  $|S| \leq 1$ , in which case the procedure returns  $S$ . For larger sets, the algorithm proceeds as follows:

<sup>1</sup>Eventually we will be ordering these via confidence metrics  $\phi_i$ , see Section 3.3.

<sup>2</sup>See Section 3.3 for details

216 1. **Divide:** The ordered input set  $S$  is split into two balanced halves: the “anchor” set  
 217  $S_0 = (s_1, \dots, s_p)$  and the “test” set  $S_1 = (s_{p+1}, \dots, s_{|S|})$ , where  $p$  is a split point of  
 218 the designer’s choice.  
 219

220 2. **Prune (Filter):** The “test” set  $S_1$  is pruned based on its dependency on the candidates  $\mathbf{y}^{S_0}$ .  
 221 For each index  $i \in S_1$ , we compute its new conditional distribution and measure the change  
 222 from the baseline using the KL divergence:

$$\varepsilon_i := D_{\text{KL}}(p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{S_0}) \| p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}))$$

225 A filtered set  $S'_1$  is then formed by retaining only those indices for which the change is  
 226 below a threshold  $\varepsilon > 0$ :  $S'_1 = \{i \in S_1 \mid \varepsilon_i < \varepsilon\}$ .

227 3. **Recurse:** The algorithm then makes two independent (parallel) recursive calls: one on the  
 228 “anchor” set  $S_0$  and another on the filtered “test” set  $S'_1$  and obtains  $R_0$  and  $R_1$  respectively.  
 229

230 4. **Combine:** The final result  $R$  for the input set  $S$  is the **union** (ordered sum) of the outputs  
 231  $R := R_0 \sqcup R_1$  from the two recursive calls above. Note that by construction any token in  
 232  $R_1$  is contextually independent of  $S_0$  and by Assumption 3.3, it is contextually independent  
 233 of subset  $R_0 \subset S_0$ .

234 Choosing  $p = \lfloor |S|/2 \rfloor$  for each recursive iteration, we ensure that the recursion depth is  $O(\log |M|)$ .  
 235 In the next section, we discuss how to execute all calls at the same recursion level using a single  
 236 network evaluation, thereby achieving  $O(\log |M|)$  cost per round.  
 237

### 238 3.3 CONFIDENCE ALIGNMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

240 This section addresses two key implementation aspects: (i) incorporating confidence-based prioritization  
 241 into our recursive algorithm to maintain generation quality, and (ii) transforming the recursive  
 242 procedure into an efficient iterative implementation.  
 243

244 **Confidence-Ordered Splits.** At each recursive step, the candidate set  $S$  is split into  $S_0$  and  $S_1$ , and  
 245 positions in  $S_1$  are pruned if they exhibit strong dependence on  $S_0$ . By sorting the initial candidate  
 246 set  $S$  in descending order of confidence (see Section 2 for options),  $\phi_{s_1} > \phi_{s_2} > \dots > \phi_{s_{|S|}}$ , we  
 247 ensure that  $S_0$  always contains tokens with at least median-level confidence. Consequently, tokens  
 248 pruned from  $S_1$  necessarily have lower confidence than those retained in  $S_0$ . In fact, this also ensures  
 249 that during each unmasking step, the highest-confidence token in  $M$  is always included in the final  
 250 set  $R$ , since it will never be pruned.

251 **Binary Encoding of Recursive Calls.** To enable parallel computation, we transform our recursive  
 252 algorithm into an efficient iterative procedure. At each level of the recursion tree, we combine all  
 253 independence tests into a single, parallel model evaluation.

254 To see how this might be done, suppose at some recursion level we test pairs  
 255  $(S_0^1, S_1^1), (S_0^2, S_1^2), \dots, (S_0^k, S_1^k)$ , by construction, these sets form a partition of a subset of  $M$ . We  
 256 propose, instead of performing these tests independently, to test all “test” tokens against the union of  
 257 all “anchor” sets  $\bigsqcup_{\ell} S_0^{\ell}$ . Then, Assumption 3.3 ensures that passing this combined test implies pass-  
 258 ing the individual tests. Formally, for any  $\ell$  and any  $i \in S_1^{\ell}$  if  $p_{\theta}^i(\cdot | \mathbf{y} \sqcup S_0^{\ell}, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p_{\theta}^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ ,  
 259 then it also satisfies  $p_{\theta}^i(\cdot | \mathbf{y}^{S_0^{\ell}}, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p_{\theta}^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ .

260 *Binary Representation of Recursive Splits.*

262 We now describe how this idea can be employed to convert our recursive algorithm to an iterative  
 263 one. The recursive splits are determined by each token’s position in the confidence-ordered list  
 264  $M$ . This allows us to pre-determine all splits by assigning a binary code to each position. More  
 265 precisely, we assign each position  $i \in \{1, \dots, |M|\}$  a binary representation  $\text{bin}(i)$  with  $\lceil \log_2 |M| \rceil$   
 266 bits, padded with zeros if necessary. Tracking this binary encoding allows us to identify the path of  
 267 each node in the recursion tree.

268 At recursion level  $b$ , we have  $2^b$  nodes, with each node indexed by a unique binary prefix  $\mathbf{u} \in \{0, 1\}^b$   
 269 corresponding to the subset  $S_{\mathbf{u}} = \{i \leq |M| : \text{prefix}_b[\text{bin}(i)] = \mathbf{u}\}$ , which is then partitioned into  
 “anchor” ( $S_{\mathbf{u}0}$ ) and “test” ( $S_{\mathbf{u}1}$ ) subsets (see Figure 1 (Left) for an example).

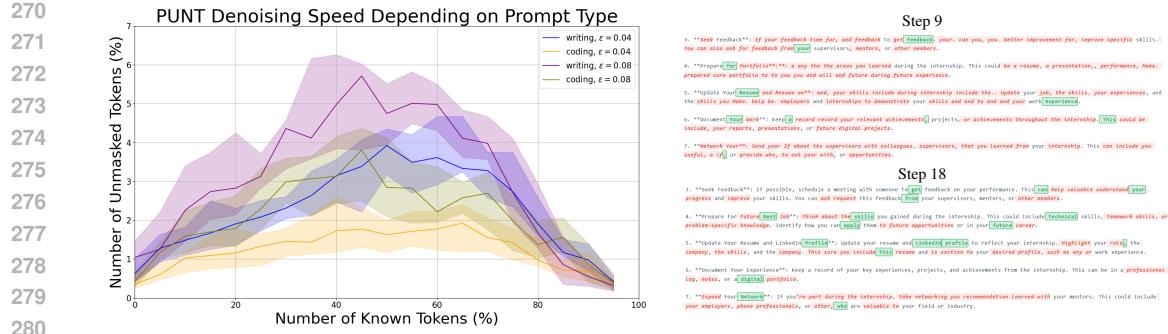


Figure 2: Left: Unmasking efficiency for various prompt types vs number of unmasked tokens. Right: Visualization of the denoising process at steps 9 and 18 for a sample prompt (“What should I do at the end of the internship.”). Tokens are color-coded: green tokens are accepted by PUNT for parallel unmasking in the current step, red tokens are rejected, and uncolored tokens were unmasked in previous steps. See Appendix D for more examples of intermediate denoising steps.

We would like to combine all  $2^b$  tests at recursion level  $b$  into a single test. To do so, we define a global partition for level  $b$  based on the  $b$ -th bit of the binary encoding.  $B_b = \{i \in [|M|] : \text{the } b\text{-th bit of } \text{bin}(i) = 0\}$ .

Starting with  $R = M$ , each round  $b$  can now partition the current set using the predefined binary split  $B_b$ : the “anchor” tokens ( $S_0 = R \cap B_b$ ) and “test” tokens ( $S_1 = R \setminus B_b$ ). All tokens in  $S_1$  are tested for dependence on  $\mathbf{y}^{S_0}$  in a *single forward pass*, dependent tokens are removed from  $R$ . After all  $\log |M|$  rounds complete, the remaining set  $R$  contains only contextually independent tokens.

The resulting procedure, summarized below (and in Algorithm 1), requires only  $O(\log |M|)$  forward evaluations of the model per denoising step and guarantees that the returned set  $R$  consists of contextually independent, high-confidence tokens that can be unmasked in parallel.

*Iterative Algorithm.* Given confidence-ordered masked tokens  $M = \{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_{|M|}\}$  where  $\phi_{m_1} \geq \phi_{m_2} \geq \dots \geq \phi_{m_{|M|}}$ , we initialize  $R \leftarrow M$  and execute  $\lceil \log_2 |M| \rceil$  iterations.

For each iteration  $b \in \{1, \dots, \lceil \log_2 |M| \rceil\}$ :

1. **Test:** Partition  $R$  into anchor tokens  $S_0 = R \cap B_b$  and test tokens  $S_1 = R \setminus B_b$ .
2. **Prune:** For each  $j \in S_1$ , compute the KL divergence  $d_j = D_{\text{KL}}(p^j(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \parallel p^j(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{S_0}))$  in a single forward pass.
3. **Update:** Remove dependent tokens from  $R$ :  $R \leftarrow R \setminus \{j \in S_1 : d_j > \varepsilon\}$ .

The final set  $R$  contains tokens that can be unmasked in parallel without interfering with each other.

*Remark 3.4* (Conservative but Parallel Testing). The iterative implementation uses *batched* independence tests: tokens at each tree level are tested against the union of all anchor tokens at that level, not just their specific recursive subset. This stricter condition enables full parallelization. Empirically, this conservative approach maintains strong performance on long-context tasks while significantly reducing runtime.

### 3.4 ALGORITHMIC PROPERTIES AND INDEPENDENCE STABILITY

This section discusses PUNT’s properties for text generation and justifies Assumption 3.3.

**Adaptive Unmasking.** Our sampler exhibits emergent hierarchical generation, first establishing high-level structure (e.g., paragraphs, headings) before filling in details, as shown in Fig. 2 (right). As can be seen, at step 9, the model has already generated the main headings and subheadings of the article, while the rest of the text remains masked. By step 18, the model has begun filling in the details under each heading.

We hypothesize this behavior stems from the conditional independence between high-level structural tokens and fine-grained details. Because the latter exert minimal influence on the former, the

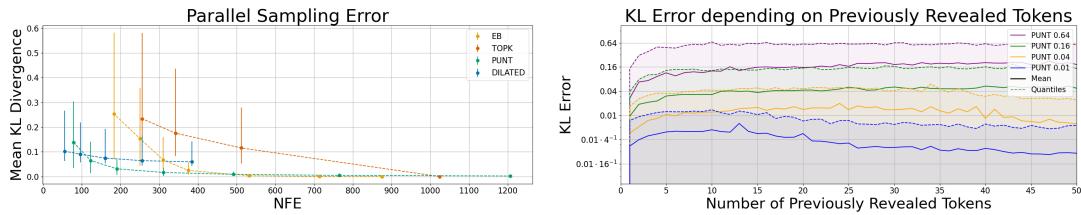


Figure 3: Parallel sampling error (equation 3). Left: Average error for different samplers compared to number of forward evaluations (NFEs). Right: Median together with confidence intervals ( $Q_5, Q_{95}$ ) of the error for PUNT samplers with different  $\epsilon$  as a function of the number of previously revealed tokens. Note that  $Q_5$  remains below  $10^{-3}$  across all positions.

structural tokens pass the independence tests in PUNT’s filtration stage and are unmasked early. A formal investigation of this phenomenon is left for future work.

This hierarchical generation has a cascading effect. Once revealed, high-level tokens act as contextual anchors, partitioning the text into conditionally independent sections. This allows the sampler to unmask tokens in different sections in parallel, adapting its denoising speed to the task’s inherent structure. As shown in Fig. 2 (left), this results in different performance profiles for various prompts.

**Independence Stability of Transformers.** Assumption 3.3 (Independence Stability) is a direct consequence of the Transformer architecture’s attention mechanism. In Transformers, the influence of one token on another is governed by attention weights; if the attention from position  $i$  to position  $j$  is zero, then position  $j$  has no direct influence on the representation at position  $i$ .

This relationship between attention and influence allows us to connect conditional independence to attention scores. Specifically, we argue that a token  $y_i$  is conditionally independent of a set of tokens  $y^V$  given the remaining tokens  $x^{-M}$  if and only if the total attention from position  $i$  to all positions in  $R$  is negligible across all layers and heads, i.e.,

*The conditional distribution  $p_\theta^i(\cdot | y^R, x^{-M})$  equals  $p_\theta^i(\cdot | x^{-M})$  if and only if<sup>3</sup> the cumulative attention weight from position  $i$  to all positions in  $R$  is negligible.*

This property directly implies Independence Stability. Since attention weights are non-negative, if the attention from position  $i$  to a set  $R$  is negligible, the attention to any subset  $U \subset R$  must also be negligible. A detailed justification is provided in Appendix B.

## 4 EXPERIMENTS

We evaluate our proposed sampler, PUNT, on a number of natural language tasks. Our empirical results validate the effectiveness of our approach and support the attention hypothesis introduced in Appendix B. We evaluate: (i) PUNT’s performance on long-form text generation tasks such as MTBench; (ii) PUNT’s effectiveness on short-answer benchmarks for mathematics and code generation; (iii) The error introduced by parallel token sampling and its relationship to the exploration rate  $\epsilon$ ; (iv) Deviation in empirical attention patterns (supporting theoretical independence assumptions).

**Experimental Setup.** We evaluate PUNT on two powerful, open-source large language models: Dream 7B (Ye et al., 2025a) and LLaDA 1.5 (Zhu et al., 2025a).

**Baselines.** We compare PUNT against three strong, training-free baseline samplers. These baselines include: (i) standard top- $k$  sampling; (ii) the EB-sampler (Patel et al., 2025); and (iii) the Dilated-sampler (Luxembourg et al., 2025). Note that all the samplers are implemented for a given context length  $|M|$ , in a **non-semi-autoregressive** manner and the exact parameter configurations are provided in Appendix C.3.

<sup>3</sup>Except for padding end-of-sequence(EOS) tokens, see details in Appendix B

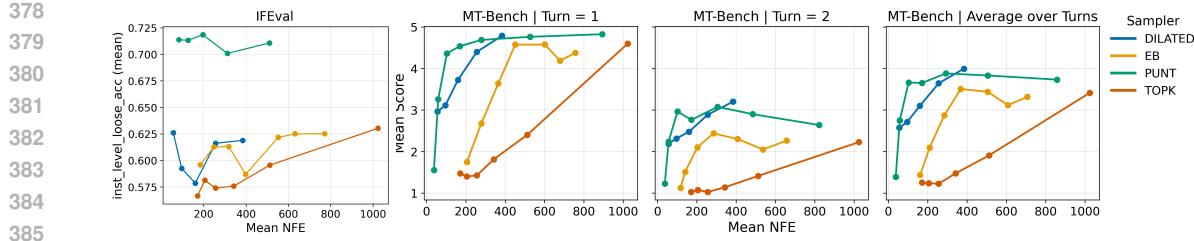


Figure 5: IFEval and MTBench performance of PUNT compared to baselines on Dream 7B. Benchmark specific scores (higher is better) vs mean number of forward passes.

We also evaluate the performance of PUNT on generation in a structured biological domain. Specifically, we look at unconditional generation of *de novo* membrane proteins using MemDLM (Goel et al., 2024), a state-of-the-art protein language model. Full details are provided in Appendix C.5.

We provide additional analysis in the appendices, including performance-vs- $\epsilon$  plots (Appendix E), experiments with varying  $\epsilon$  schedules across generation trajectories (Appendix F), and comparisons and discussion with APD (Appendix C.4), proposed by Israel et al. (2025).

#### 4.1 ALIGNMENT BENCHMARKS

We evaluate PUNT on the instruction-following benchmarks MTBench (Bai et al., 2024) and IFEval (Zhou et al., 2023). MTBench comprises 80 tasks across diverse domains—including creative writing, logical reasoning, and code generation—providing a robust evaluation framework for model performance. Each task consists of two turns, with the second turn depending on the output of the first. IFEval complements this by specifically measuring instruction-following accuracy through a collection of carefully designed test cases that evaluate precise adherence to complex instructions. Full benchmark details are provided in Appendix C.1. As shown in Figure 5, PUNT consistently outperforms all baseline samplers on both benchmarks, achieving higher scores across both metrics (`inst_level_loose_acc` and mean score; higher is better). Importantly, it delivers these gains while requiring substantially fewer forward evaluations (NFEs).

**Note on NFE regimes:** We see that PUNT’s primary advantage lies in the low-to-mid NFE regime on long-form generation tasks. Since each PUNT iteration requires  $\lceil \log_2 |M| \rceil$  forward passes for independence testing (e.g., 10 passes for 1024 tokens), the method excels when the NFE budget allows for meaningful independence checking while still providing efficiency gains. At very high NFE budgets (e.g.,  $NFE \geq 400$  on MT-Bench), curves may converge or cross as fixed-geometry schedulers like Dilated can afford many denoising steps, while PUNT’s overhead from independence testing becomes proportionally larger.

#### 4.2 SHORT-ANSWER BENCHMARKS

We evaluate PUNT across diverse benchmarks spanning mathematical reasoning (GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021)) and code generation (HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021), MBPP (Austin et al., 2021)).

As expected, PUNT underperforms on short-answer tasks with limited context since it requires multiple forward passes for complete generation. For instance, in the MBPP benchmark on LLaDA with temperature 0.7 (see Fig. 4), PUNT’s performance aligns closely with EB when evaluated by the number of forward evaluations (NFE). However, when measured by the number of denoising steps—that is, the number of algorithmic steps, where each step may involve multiple forward passes in parallel—PUNT outperforms other samplers. A simple fix could be to use PUNT only for the latter part of the generation, but we leave this for future work. Similar trends are observed across

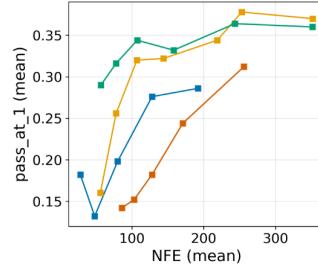


Figure 4: MBPP performance of PUNT compared to baselines on Llada. MBPP pass@1 (higher is better) vs mean number of forward passes.

432 other benchmarks in this group. Results comparing all samplers, models, and hyperparameters  
 433 appear in Appendix C.3.  
 434

435 **4.3 PUNT SAMPLER ERROR ANALYSIS**  
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437 We empirically quantify the parallel sampling error on the LLaDA model. For this, we generate  
 438 1024-token responses for MTBench (Bai et al., 2024) with exploration rates  $\varepsilon \in \{0.01, \dots, 0.32\}$ .  
 439 Within each parallel generation step, tokens are ordered by confidence before sampling. For the  
 440  $i$ -th token at position  $r_i$  unmasked in parallel, we compute the error between the true conditional  
 441 distribution and our independence approximation:

$$442 \delta_{\text{KL}}^{r_i} = D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\theta}^{r_i}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}}) \| p_{\theta}^{r_i}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})). \quad (3)$$

443 This KL divergence quantifies the information lost by assuming token  $r_i$  is conditionally indepen-  
 444 dent of other tokens unmasked in the same step,  $\mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}}$ . As shown in Fig. 3, PUNT achieves a low  
 445 parallel sampling error while maintaining a small NFE compared to other samplers. Furthermore,  
 446 the parallel decoding error,  $\delta_{\text{KL}}$ , remains robustly below the  $\varepsilon$  threshold, irrespective of the number  
 447 of tokens previously revealed in the step.

448 **5 RELATED WORK**  
 449

451 Our work builds on recent advances in discrete diffusion models and inference-time planners.

452 **Masked Diffusion Models (MDMs).** Discrete diffusion models (Austin et al., 2023) offer a non-  
 453 autoregressive alternative for text generation. Training objectives based on score matching (Lou  
 454 et al., 2024) and masked language modeling (Sahoo et al., 2024) have enabled large-scale models  
 455 like LLaDA (Nie et al., 2025b) and others (Nie et al., 2025a). Commercial implementations include  
 456 Gemini Diffusion (Google DeepMind, 2025) and Mercury (Inception Labs, 2025). MDMs face two  
 457 key limitations: compounding errors from parallel unmasking and inefficient KV caching. We ad-  
 458 dress the former by identifying token sets for safe parallel unmasking, which minimizes interference  
 459 and improves both efficiency and quality.

460 **Inference-Time Planners for Acceleration.** Efficient inference scheduling remains MDMs’ cen-  
 461 tral challenge. Various training-free planners aim to minimize function evaluations (NFEs) while  
 462 maintaining generation quality.

463 **Confidence and Entropy Gating.** Confidence-based scheduling iteratively unmasks tokens with high-  
 464 est model confidence (or lowest entropy) (Sahoo et al., 2024). The EB-Sampler extends this by  
 465 dynamically unmasking variable-sized token sets whose aggregate entropy stays below threshold  $\gamma$   
 466 (Patel et al., 2025). While adaptive, these methods remain conservative, ignore token independence,  
 467 and typically unmask only small subsets.

468 **Remasking and Refinement.** Several methods correct parallel decoding errors through remasking.  
 469 ReMDM (Wang et al., 2025) iteratively remasks and updates generated tokens. Path-Planning (P2)  
 470 (Peng et al., 2025) and DDPD (Liu et al., 2025) separate inference into planning (selecting tokens  
 471 to update/remask) and denoising stages. While improving quality, these approaches increase NFE  
 472 through corrective passes.

473 **Spacing Schedulers.** These fixed-geometry (non-adaptive) methods enforce spatial separation be-  
 474 tween parallel unmaskings. Dilated scheduling unmasks non-adjacent token groups for improved  
 475 stability (Luxembourg et al., 2025). Halton-based schedulers use low-discrepancy sequences for  
 476 uniform spacing (Besnier et al., 2025). Block Diffusion balances AR and parallel generation by  
 477 processing contiguous spans (Arriola et al., 2025).

478 **Analysis of Ordering and Scheduling.** Recent theoretical and empirical work has deepened the com-  
 479 munity’s understanding of these schedulers. Kim et al. (2025) study the impact of token ordering,  
 480 showing that adaptive inference can sidestep computationally hard subproblems. Park et al. (2024)  
 481 focus on optimizing the temporal schedule (the number and placement of diffusion steps) to reduce  
 482 NFEs. Others have explored MDLMs for complex reasoning, where planning is critical (Ye et al.,  
 483 2025b), and for specialized domains like code generation (Gong et al., 2025).

484 **Comparison to Autoregressive Accelerators.** While autoregressive models like LLaMA-3  
 485 (Grattafiori et al., 2024) are accelerated by speculative decoding (Leviathan et al., 2023; Xia et al.,

486 2022), this approach remains fundamentally sequential. In contrast, our method reduces NFEs by  
 487 leveraging the non-sequential, any-order generation capabilities of MDMs. Orthogonal optimiza-  
 488 tions like KV caching are applicable to both paradigms (Ma et al., 2025; Hu et al., 2025).  
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## 490 6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

493 We introduced PUNT, a training-free sampler that looks to resolve the conflict between speed and  
 494 quality in MDMs by efficiently identifying sets of approximately conditionally independent tokens  
 495 for parallel unmasking. This enables a significant reduction in the number of model evalua-  
 496 tions needed for generation while preserving output quality. We provided a conceptual justifica-  
 497 tion for its applicability to transformer architectures and validated its effectiveness on mathe-  
 498 matics, code, and long-form text benchmarks. We also observe that PUNT induces an emergent hier-  
 499 archical generation strategy: coarse paragraph structure is established early, followed by localized refine-  
 500

501 Future work can extend this approach in several directions: (i) developing adaptive or curricul-  
 502 um-style schedules for the independence threshold  $\epsilon$  to balance early exploration with late precision; (ii)  
 503 distilling PUNT into a student model that predicts contextually independent reveal sets in a single  
 504 forward pass; and (iii) combining PUNT with orthogonal efficiency techniques such as KV-caching,  
 505 to further shift the accuracy–compute Pareto frontier.

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# Appendix

## A ORGANISATION OF APPENDIX

653 The rest of the appendix is organized as follows. In Appendix B, we justify Assumption 3.3 by  
 654 demonstrating that it holds for Transformer-based masked language models, which is a direct con-  
 655 sequence of the Transformer’s attention mechanism. In Appendix C, we provide additional experi-  
 656 mental details and results. In Appendix C.5, we provide some preliminary experiments on a protein  
 657 masked diffusion model. In Appendix D, we provide two examples of text that is generated by  
 658 PUNT.

659 *Remark on Notation:* In addition to standard notation as defined in the paper, in the appendix, we  
 660 will also use upper-case bold letters (such as  $\mathbf{A}$ ) to denote tensors. We will use lowercase and  
 661 unbolded letters to denote scalars (such as  $A_{ij}$ ). In addition, we may have uppercase letters (such as  
 662  $Q, K, V$ ) annotations to help annotate different matrices. This is to accommodate standard notation  
 663 used in the literature.

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## B INDEPENDENCE STABILITY

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In this section, we demonstrate that Assumption 3.3 holds for Transformer-based masked language  
 models, which is a direct consequence of the Transformer’s attention mechanism. Let us start with  
 recalling the assumption.

671 **Assumption B.1.** (Independence Stability) Let  $i \in M$  be a masked index, and let  $U \subseteq M \setminus \{i\}$  be  
 672 a subset of masked indices. If for some sequence of tokens  $\mathbf{y}^U$  we have  $p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{y}^U, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p^i(\cdot |$   
 673  $\mathbf{x}^{-M})$ , then for any  $W \subset U$  it holds that  $p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{y}^W, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ .

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Next, we recall the design of attention mechanism and discuss prior works

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**Attention-Based Independence.** In transformers Vaswani et al. (2023), the attention weights con-  
 677 trol information flow between positions. For an input sequence  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^L) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times d_{in}}$ , each  
 678 attention head computes query, key, and value vectors for every position:

$$\mathbf{Q}^i = \mathbf{W}^Q \mathbf{X}^i, \quad \mathbf{K}^i = \mathbf{W}^K \mathbf{X}^i, \quad \mathbf{V}^i = \mathbf{W}^V \mathbf{X}^i,$$

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where  $\mathbf{W}^Q, \mathbf{W}^K \in \mathbb{R}^{d_k \times d_{in}}$  and  $\mathbf{W}^V \in \mathbb{R}^{d_v \times d_{in}}$  are learned weight matrices.

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The attention mechanism then computes pairwise attention scores between all positions through  
 scaled dot products:

$$\mathbf{A} = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L},$$

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where  $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times d_k}$  stack the query and key vectors across all positions. The attention weights  $A^{ij}$   
 quantify how much position  $j$  influences position  $i$ , computed via normalized dot-product similarity.  
 The output of one head combines value vectors weighted by these attention scores:  $\text{head}_h = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} \in$   
 $\mathbb{R}^{L \times d_v}$ . Finally, outputs of different heads are stacked to get,  $\mathbf{Z}_i = \text{concat}(\text{head}_1^i, \dots, \text{head}_H^i)$ .  
 The output of the layer  $\mathbf{Y} = (\mathbf{Y}^1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}^L) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times d_{out}}$  is calculated as  $\mathbf{Y}^i = F(\mathbf{Z}^i)$  by application  
 to each of the coordinates of MLP together with normalization layers and skip connections.

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Crucially, the attention weights  $A_{ij}$  directly control information flow: when  $A_{ij} = 0$ , position  
 $j$ ’s value vector  $\mathbf{V}^j$  contributes nothing to position  $i$ ’s output. The model’s final predictions are  
 obtained by applying softmax to the last layer’s output:  $p_\theta^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) := \text{softmax}(\mathbf{Y}^i)$ . Therefore,  
 $p_\theta^i(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = p_\theta^i(\cdot | \mathbf{y}^R, \mathbf{x}^{-M})$  holds if and only if  $\mathbf{Y}^i$  remains unchanged when tokens at positions  
 $R$  are revealed.

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**Stability of Unmasked Tokens.** Recent works Hu et al. (2025); Ma et al. (2025) have demon-  
 strated that during iterative inference, the query, key, and value vectors  $(\mathbf{Q}^{-M}, \mathbf{K}^{-M}, \mathbf{V}^{-M})$  for  
 already unmasked tokens, remain stable and can be cached for computational efficiency.

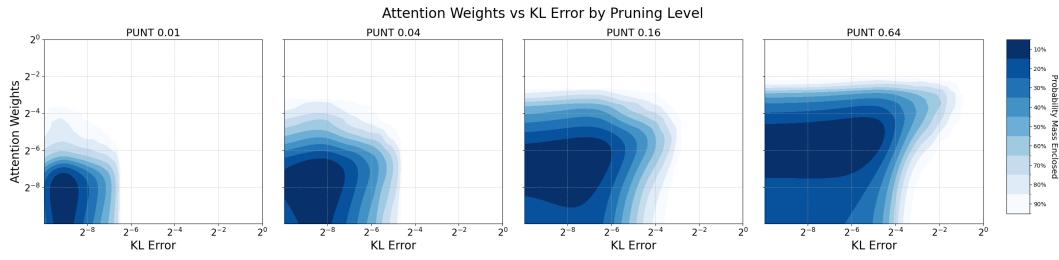


Figure 6: Joint distribution of  $\delta_{KL}$  – the sampling error and  $\delta_A$  – the total attention to the previous tokens revealed in parallel.

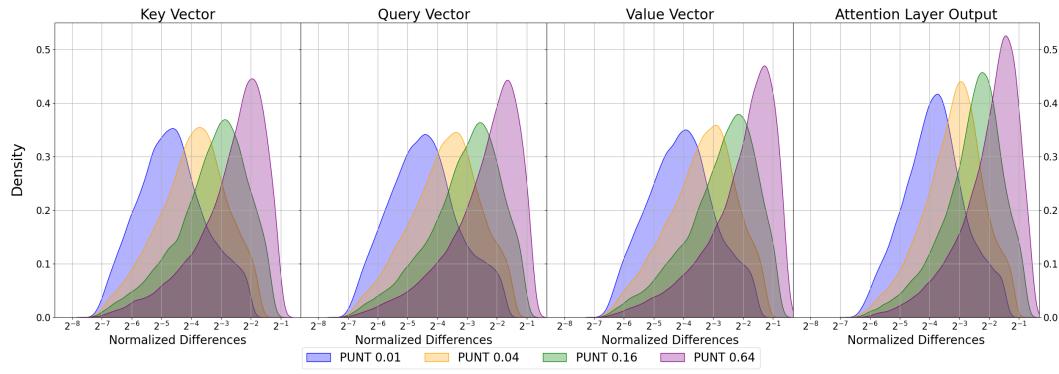


Figure 7: Difference between attention statistics for  $p^{r_i}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}})$  relative to the same statistics computed while evaluating  $p^{r_i}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ .

**Why Independence Stability Holds.** Let us return to Assumption 3.3. First, we discuss padding end-of-sequence (EOS) tokens, which are used to fill the unused suffix reserved for an answer. By design, if there is an EOS token in  $\mathbf{x}^{-M}$  to the left of position  $i$  then  $p^i(\text{EOS} | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) = 1$  and the assumption automatically holds.

For regular tokens, we note that the stability property implies that in both cases, when we condition on  $(\mathbf{y}^U, \mathbf{x}^{-M})$  or  $(\mathbf{x}^{-M})$ , the representations  $(\mathbf{Q}^{-M}, \mathbf{K}^{-M}, \mathbf{V}^{-M})$  stay the same, while the main change happens for tokens in  $U$ .

The stability property allows us to concentrate on the information flow between position  $i$  and tentatively unmasked subset  $\mathbf{y}^U$ , which we recall governed by attention weights vector  $\mathbf{A}_{iU} := (A_{i,u_1}, \dots, A_{i,u_{|U|}})$ . Specifically, we argue that a token  $y_i$  is conditionally independent of a set of tokens  $\mathbf{y}^U$  given the remaining tokens  $\mathbf{x}^{-M}$  if and only if the total attention from position  $i$  to all positions in  $U$  is negligible across all layers and heads, or more formally, if  $\|\mathbf{A}_{iU}\|_1 = \sum_{u \in U} A_{iu} < \delta$  for some small  $\delta > 0$ .

Now consider any subset  $W \subset U$ . The non-negativity of attention weights (a direct consequence of the softmax operation) yields the inequality:

$$\|\mathbf{A}_{iW}\|_1 = \sum_{w \in W} A_{iw} \leq \sum_{u \in U} A_{iu} = \|\mathbf{A}_{iU}\|_1 < \delta$$

This demonstrates that if position  $i$  pays negligible attention to the entire set  $U$ , it necessarily pays negligible attention to any subset  $W \subset U$ . Consequently, the conditional distribution at position  $i$  remains approximately invariant when conditioning on tokens at positions in  $W$ :  $p^i_\theta(\cdot | \mathbf{y}^W, \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \approx p^i_\theta(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})$ . This relationship directly corresponds to Assumption 3.3 (Independence Stability).

**Empirical Validation** We use the same setup as was used in Section 4.3, as a source of prompts, we use the first round requests from MTBench, and sample the responses using the PUNT algorithm with different thresholds  $\varepsilon = \{0.01, 0.04, 0.16, 0.64\}$ .

756 For a step of the PUNT sampler with threshold  $\varepsilon$ , let  $R$  denote the set of tokens unmasked at this  
 757 step, sorted according to the confidence,  $\mathbf{y}^R$  denotes the set of sampled candidates, and  $x^{-M}$  denotes  
 758 the set of already revealed tokens.

759 As we demonstrated at Fig. 3 sampled tokens satisfy

$$761 \delta_{\text{KL}} = D_{\text{KL}}(p^{r_i}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}}) \| p^{r_i}(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M})) < \varepsilon. \\ 762$$

763 For each token  $r_i$ , we compute the total attention from token  $r_i$  to previously revealed tokens  $R_{<i}$   
 764 for all heads of the last layer, i.e.

$$765 \delta_A = \|\mathbf{A}_{r_i R_{<i}}\|_1 = \sum_{j < i} A_{r_i r_j} \\ 766 \\ 767$$

768 and plot (Fig. 6) the distribution of pairs  $(\delta_{\text{KL}}, \delta_A)$  for different thresholds.

769  
 770 We also compute the change of the layer output  $\mathbf{Y}^{r_i}$  and how it changes when we condition  
 771 on  $\mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}}$ . We use the normalized difference metric to compute the change, which is defined as  
 772 normalized\_difference( $a, b$ ) :=  $\|a - b\|_2 / \|a\|_2$ , and plot (Fig. 7) the distribution of the change.  
 773 Finally, similar to unmasked tokens, we observed that representations  $\mathbf{Q}^{r_i}, \mathbf{K}^{r_i}, \mathbf{V}^{r_i}$  of masked to-  
 774 ken  $r_i$  in the attention layer also stays stable when we additionally condition on previously revealed  
 775 tokens  $\mathbf{y}^{R_{<i}}$ .

---

776 **Algorithm 1** PUNT (Parallel Unmasking with Non-influence Tests)

---

777 1: **Input:** masked sequence  $\mathbf{x}$ , vector of candidates  $\mathbf{y}$ , threshold  $\varepsilon$   
 778 2: **Output:** certified set  $R \subseteq M$  to unmask in parallel  
 779 3: Sort masked indices w.r.t. confidence heuristic  $\phi$  in decreasing order  
 780 4: Construct  $M$ , the set of all masked indices.  
 781 5:  $R \leftarrow M$   
 782 6: Let  $B_b := \{i \in [M] : \text{the } b\text{-th bit of } \text{bin}(i) = 0\}$ .  
 783 7: **for**  $b$  in  $[\log |M|]$  **do** (positions to tentatively unmask)  
 784 8:      $S_0 \leftarrow R \cap B_b$ ;  
 785 9:      $S_1 \leftarrow R \setminus B_b$ ; (positions to check for dependence)  
 786 10:   **for each**  $j \in S_1$  **do**  
 787 11:      $d_j \leftarrow D_{\text{KL}}(p^j(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}) \| p^j(\cdot | \mathbf{x}^{-M}, \mathbf{y}^{S_1}))$   
 788 12:     **if**  $d_j > \varepsilon$  **then**  
 789 13:          $R \leftarrow R \setminus \{j\}$   
 790 14:     **end if**  
 791 15:   **end for**  
 792 16: **end for**  
 793 17: **return**  $R$

---

794  
 795 **C IMPLEMENTATION AND EXPERIMENTS**

796 This section evaluates the proposed planner PUNT (Algorithm 1) across diverse sequence generation  
 797 tasks. All experiments are conducted on A100 GPUs with 40GB memory.

800 PUNT offers a clear win in step efficiency without compromising on quality. However, this is not  
 801 indicative of the underlying compute used, which is better captured by the number of forward passes  
 802 (NFE). In terms of NFE, it performs competitively, and particularly on long-sequence tasks, it often  
 803 surpasses the baselines. We leave further per-step optimisation for future work.

804  
 805 **C.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP**

806 We evaluate two state-of-the-art discrete diffusion models for natural language: **LLaDA-1.5** (Zhu  
 807 et al., 2025a) and **Dream-v0-Instruct-7B** (Ye et al., 2025a) (referred to as Llada and Dream, re-  
 808 spectively). In this section, we detail the experimental setup, including tasks, datasets, evaluation  
 809 metrics, and baseline methods.

Experiment	NumFewshot	max length
GSM8K	4	512
HumanEval	0	512
MBPP	3	512
IFEval	0	1024
MT-BENCH	-	1024

Table 1: Experimental configuration for each benchmark task.

## TASKS AND DATASETS

We assess PUNT’s performance on a variety of sequence generation tasks. The evaluation relies on the following standard public datasets and their corresponding protocols:

- Math word problems and formal math: GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021)
- Code generation: HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021) and MBPP (Austin et al., 2021).
- Instruction-following evaluation: IFEval (Zhou et al., 2023)
- Open-ended question benchmarks: MT-Bench (Zheng et al., 2023).

## EVALUATION METRICS AND CONFIGURATION

We use task-specific evaluation metrics and measure efficiency in terms of the number of forward evaluations and the number of iterations PUNT takes.

**Quality Metrics:**

- Math problems: Match accuracy (GSM8K)
- Code generation: Pass@1 success rate (HumanEval, MBPP)
- Instruction following: Strict/Loose prompt/instruction adherence (IFEval)
- Open-ended generation: GPT-4o scoring 1-10 (MT-Bench)

**Efficiency Metrics:**

- Number of network function evaluations (NFE) per sequence
- Number of generation steps (PUNT-specific)

## BASELINE METHODS

We compare against representative training-free schedulers with the following parameters:

- Top-k Sampler with  $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$ ;
- EB-Sampler (entropy-bounded unmasking) with  $\epsilon = 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0$  (Patel et al., 2025);
- Geometry-aware spacing: dilated with log window size in  $\{3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$  (Luxembourg et al., 2025),

Each of these baselines utilizes a confidence score to rank positions by certainty. Different options for the confidence score are described below.

## CONFIDENCE SCORING STRATEGIES

All confidence scoring strategies operate on the model’s output probability distribution. For each position  $t$  in a sequence, the model produces logits  $l_{b,t,v}$  for every token  $v$  in the vocabulary. These are converted into a probability distribution using the softmax function:

$$p_{b,t,v} = \frac{e^{l_{b,t,v}}}{\sum_{v'=1}^V e^{l_{b,t,v'}}}.$$

864 From this distribution, we compute a scalar confidence score  $s_{b,t}$  that quantifies the model’s certainty  
 865 at that position. A higher score indicates greater confidence, prioritizing that position for earlier  
 866 unmasking. To define the scoring strategies, we use the following notation:  
 867

- 868 •  $p_{b,t,(k)}$ : The  $k$ -th largest probability at position  $t$ , such that  $p_{b,t,(1)} \geq p_{b,t,(2)} \geq \dots \geq$   
 869  $p_{b,t,(V)}$ .
- 870 •  $y_{b,t}$ : The token actually sampled at position  $t$ .

## 872 Negative Entropy

$$874 s_{b,t} = \sum_{v=1}^V p_{b,t,v} \log p_{b,t,v} = -H(p_{b,t}), \quad H(p_{b,t}) = -\sum_{v=1}^V p_{b,t,v} \log p_{b,t,v}.$$

877 This is the *negative* Shannon entropy. Values lie in  $[-\log V, 0]$ . Scores closer to 0 correspond to  
 878 more peaked (certain) distributions.

## 880 Top Probability

$$881 s_{b,t} = \max_v p_{b,t,v} = p_{b,t,(1)}.$$

883 A simple peak-confidence heuristic. Ignores how close competitors are.

## 885 Top Probability Margin

$$886 s_{b,t} = p_{b,t,(1)} - p_{b,t,(2)}.$$

887 Measures local ambiguity between the two most likely tokens. Larger margin  $\Rightarrow$  clearer preference.

## 889 Positional Schedule

$$890 s_{b,t} = t.$$

891 A deterministic curriculum ignoring model uncertainty (e.g. left-to-right). Negate or reverse indices  
 892 if the opposite order is desired.

## 894 C.2 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

896 Our implementation of PUNT follows the procedure outlined in Algorithm 1. To ensure a fair  
 897 comparison, both PUNT and the baseline methods use the same confidence scoring strategy for  
 898 each model. Specifically, we use the top probability margin for LLaDA and negative entropy for  
 899 Dream.

## 901 SAMPLING AND TEMPERATURE SETTINGS

902 All methods employ nucleus sampling with nucleus mass set to 0.9. We present results for two  
 903 temperature settings: 0.1 (low temperature, focused sampling) and 0.7 (higher temperature, more  
 904 diverse sampling) to evaluate robustness across different generation regimes.

## 906 END-OF-SEQUENCE HANDLING

908 To prevent premature termination, we down-weight positions corresponding to end-of-sequence to-  
 909 kens when early termination is undesirable: If  $y_{b,t}$  equals a special end-of-sequence token EOS and  
 910 early termination is undesirable, enforce

$$911 s_{b,t} \leftarrow C_{\text{neg}}, \quad C_{\text{neg}} \ll 0,$$

913 to deprioritize revealing that position.

## 915 C.3 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

917 We present our results grouped by sequence length, as this factor significantly impacts the relative  
 918 performance of the scheduling methods.

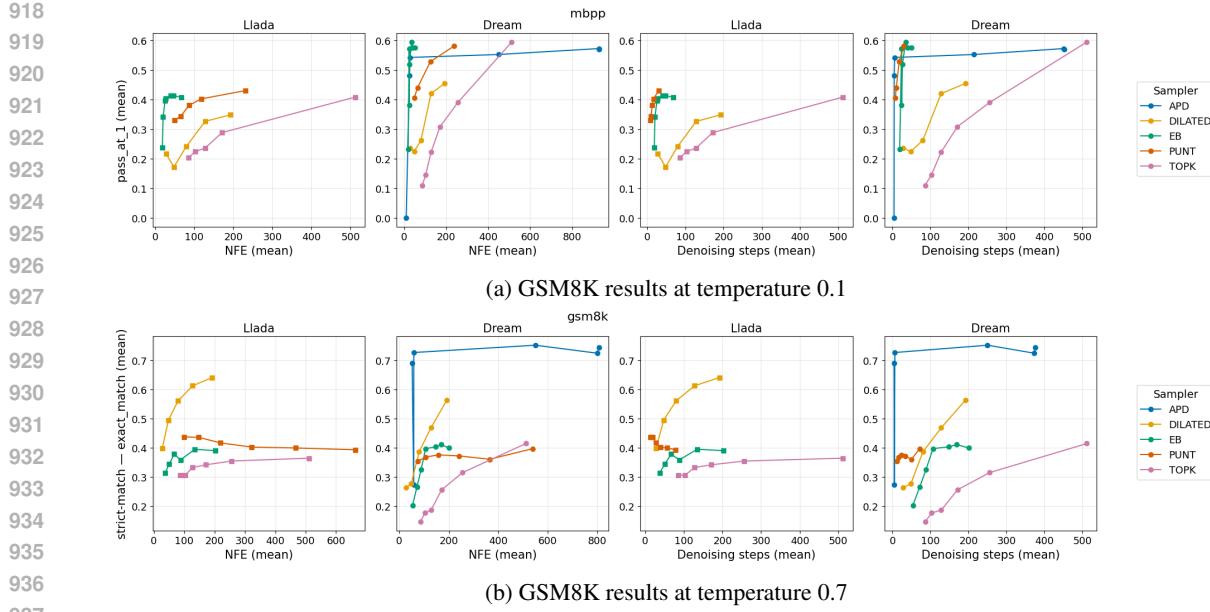


Figure 8: GSM8K performance comparison across different temperature settings showing NFE/steps vs match accuracy (flexible-extract filter)

## 942 SHORT-SEQUENCE BENCHMARKS

944 We evaluate PUNT on GSM8K, HumanEval, and MBPP —all tasks with sequences shorter than  
 945 1024 tokens (see Table 1). These benchmarks test mathematical reasoning and code generation  
 946 capabilities under constrained generation lengths.

947 **Results:** When measured by the number of generation steps, PUNT consistently outperforms all  
 948 baseline methods across both temperature settings (0.1 and 0.7). However, when evaluated by NFEs  
 949 per sequence, PUNT shows competitive but not dominant performance. PUNT’s strength lies in  
 950 reducing the number of sequential generation steps through aggressive parallelization, but each step  
 951 may require more network evaluations due to its comprehensive independence testing.

## 953 LONG-SEQUENCE BENCHMARKS

955 For longer sequences ( $\geq 1024$  tokens), we evaluate on MT-Bench and IFEval. These tasks require  
 956 sustained coherence and complex instruction following over extended generation windows.

958 **MT-Bench Results:** MT-Bench consists of open-ended questions spanning creative writing, rea-  
 959 soning, and coding. Each question includes two rounds, where the second builds upon the first  
 960 response. Answers are evaluated by GPT-4o using a 1-10 scale. All experiments are carried out with  
 961 temperature 0.7.

962 Figure 11 show that PUNT excels particularly when NFE budgets are severely constrained. In low-  
 963 NFE regimes, PUNT significantly outperforms all baseline methods. As the NFE budget increases,  
 964 dilated sampling begins to show competitive performance, but PUNT maintains its characteristic  
 965 stability advantage.

### 966 IFEval Results:

968 The instruction-following evaluation tests adherence to specific formatting and content constraints.  
 969 PUNT demonstrates consistent accuracy across both NFE and step-based metrics, again showing its  
 970 reliability advantage.

971 PUNT’s results on IFEval demonstrate its stability across different computational budgets. As shown  
 in Figures 12 and 13, it consistently leads in generation steps at both temperatures, without compro-

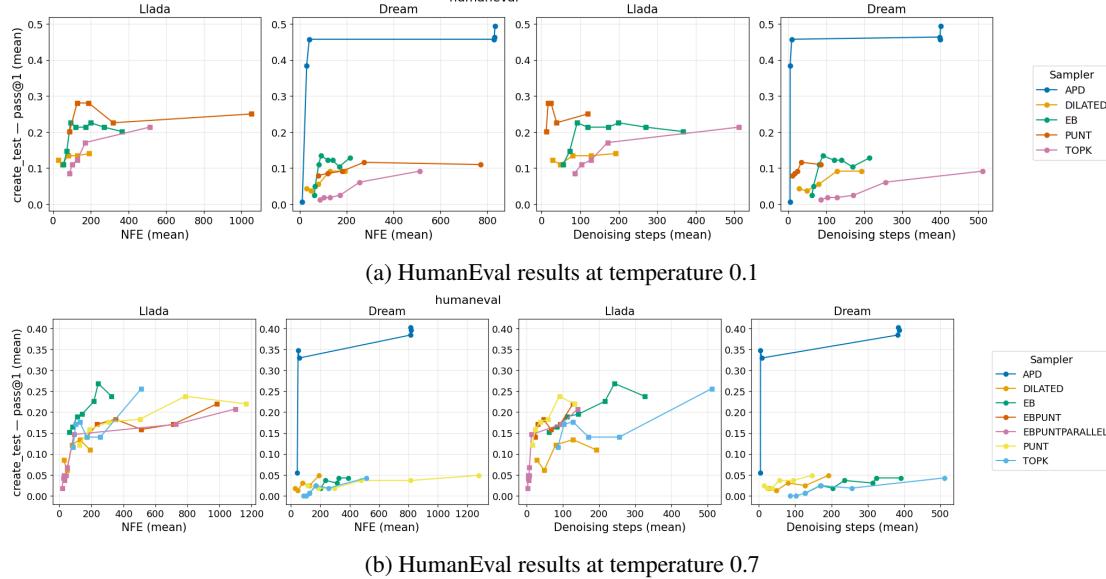


Figure 9: HumanEval performance comparison across different temperature settings showing NFE/steps vs Pass@1 success rate for both LLaDA and Dream models

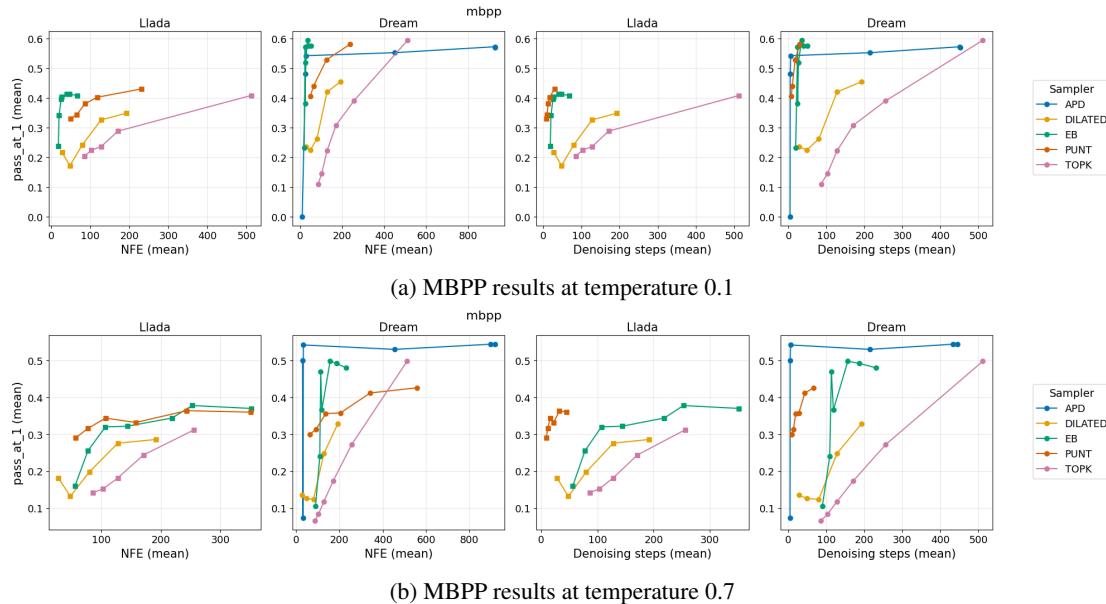


Figure 10: MBPP performance comparison across different temperature settings showing NFE/steps vs Pass@1 success rate for both LLaDA and Dream models

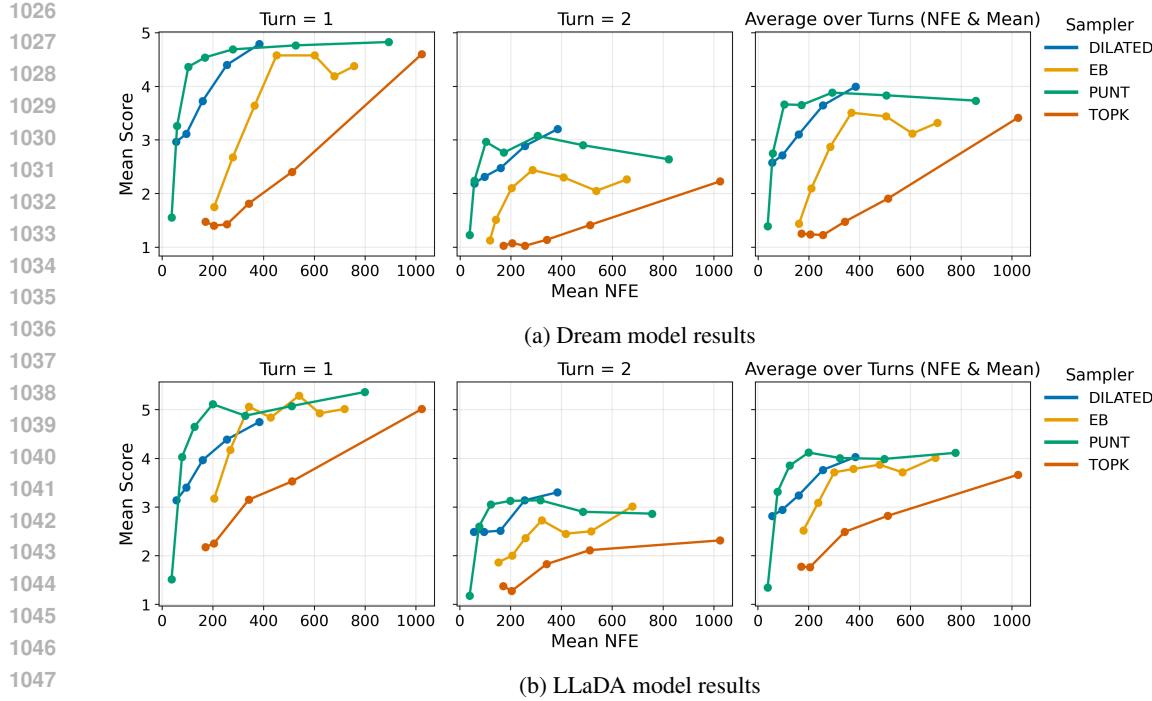


Figure 11: Performance comparison for MT-Bench across different models showing NFE vs mean performance

mising accuracy. Additionally, PUNT is more NFE-efficient at lower budgets and remains competitive as the budget increases, pulling ahead at a temperature of 0.7.

#### C.4 APD EXPERIMENTS

We evaluate the performance of PUNT against Adaptive Parallel Decoding (APD) proposed in (Israel et al. (2025)). APD runs have been added to all benchmarks running on Dream (Ye et al., 2025a). There are no comparisons on benchmarks running on Llada (Zhu et al., 2025a). APD requires a trained autoregressive model using the same tokenizer as the diffusion model, but no such compatible autoregressive model exists, as noted in (Israel et al., 2025).

APD requires two NFEs per sampling step: one to draw logits from the diffusion model; a second full decoding pass from the autoregressive model, to build the target distribution. Both distributions are sampled using Gumbel-Softmax trick, and tokens are accepted when the samples coincide in both processes, using a left-to-right decoding scheme. When plotting APD’s accuracy vs NFEs, we multiplied by 2 the denoising steps used by APD to obtain NFEs: one for the diffusion model and another to construct the target distribution from the autoregressive model.

All experiments discussed below refer to the Dream architecture. As illustrated in Figs. 12 and 13, PUNT demonstrates superior performance on IFEval, achieving the highest scores among all methods. This indicates a strong capability in adhering to complex constraints and instructions. APD shows the strongest performance in HumanEval Fig. 9a and Fig. 9b. EB and PUNT surpass APD on MBPP Fig. 10a at temperature 0.1, and APD surpasses them at temperature 0.7. EB surpasses APD and PUNT on GSM8K at temperature 0.1, see Fig. 8a, and APD surpasses all other samplers at temperature 0.7, see Fig. 8b.

Dream is a diffusion model whose weights have been initialized from a trained autoregressive model (Qwen et al., 2025). We hypothesize that Dream retains good left-to-right sampling performance because of its weight initialization, and APD’s performance benefits because of its strict left-to-right sampling order when used with Dream. In contrast, all other samplers operate independently of the diffusion model’s training procedure, allowing them to be applied more broadly.

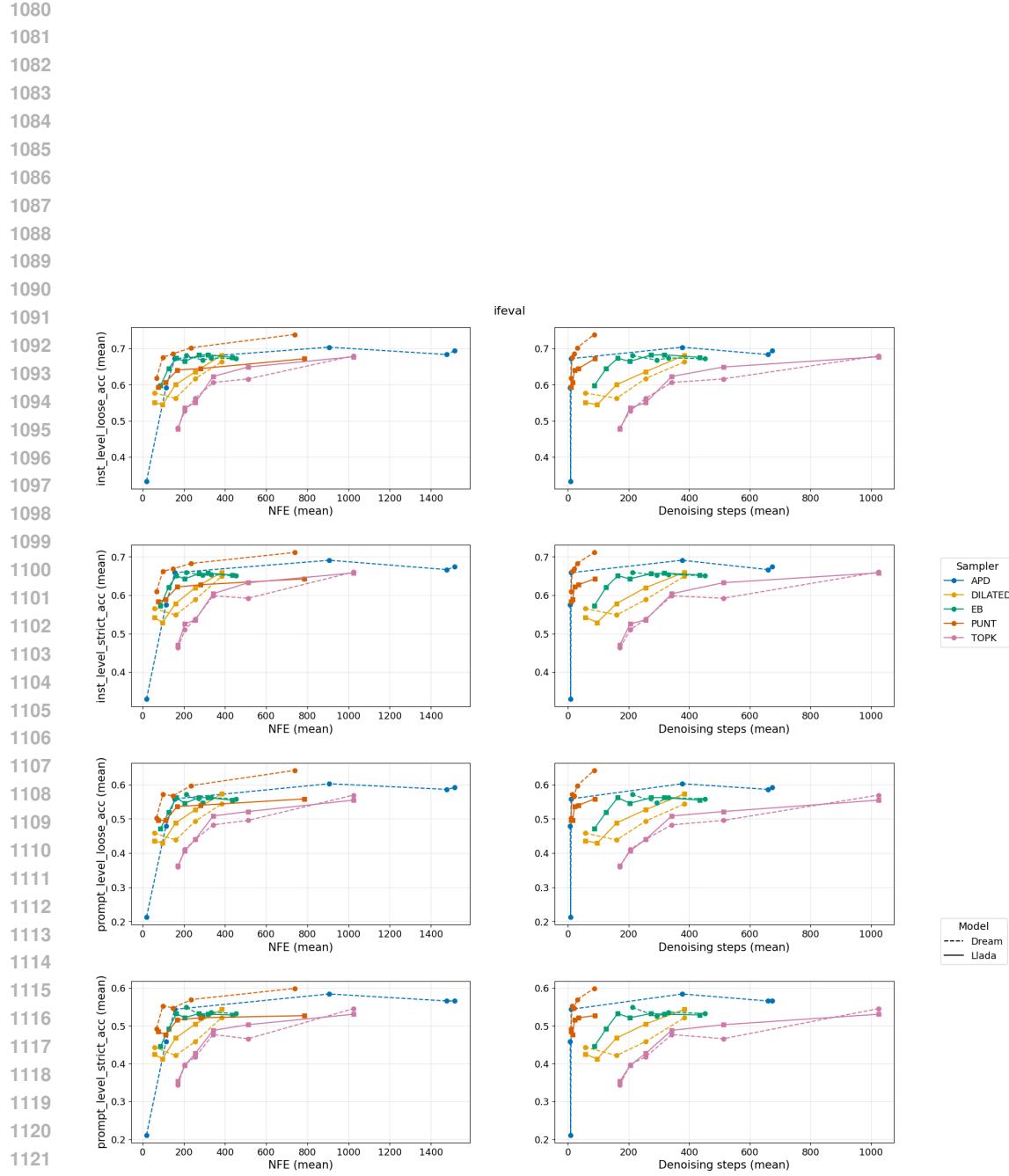


Figure 12: IFEval results showing NFE/steps vs accuracy, temperature 0.1.

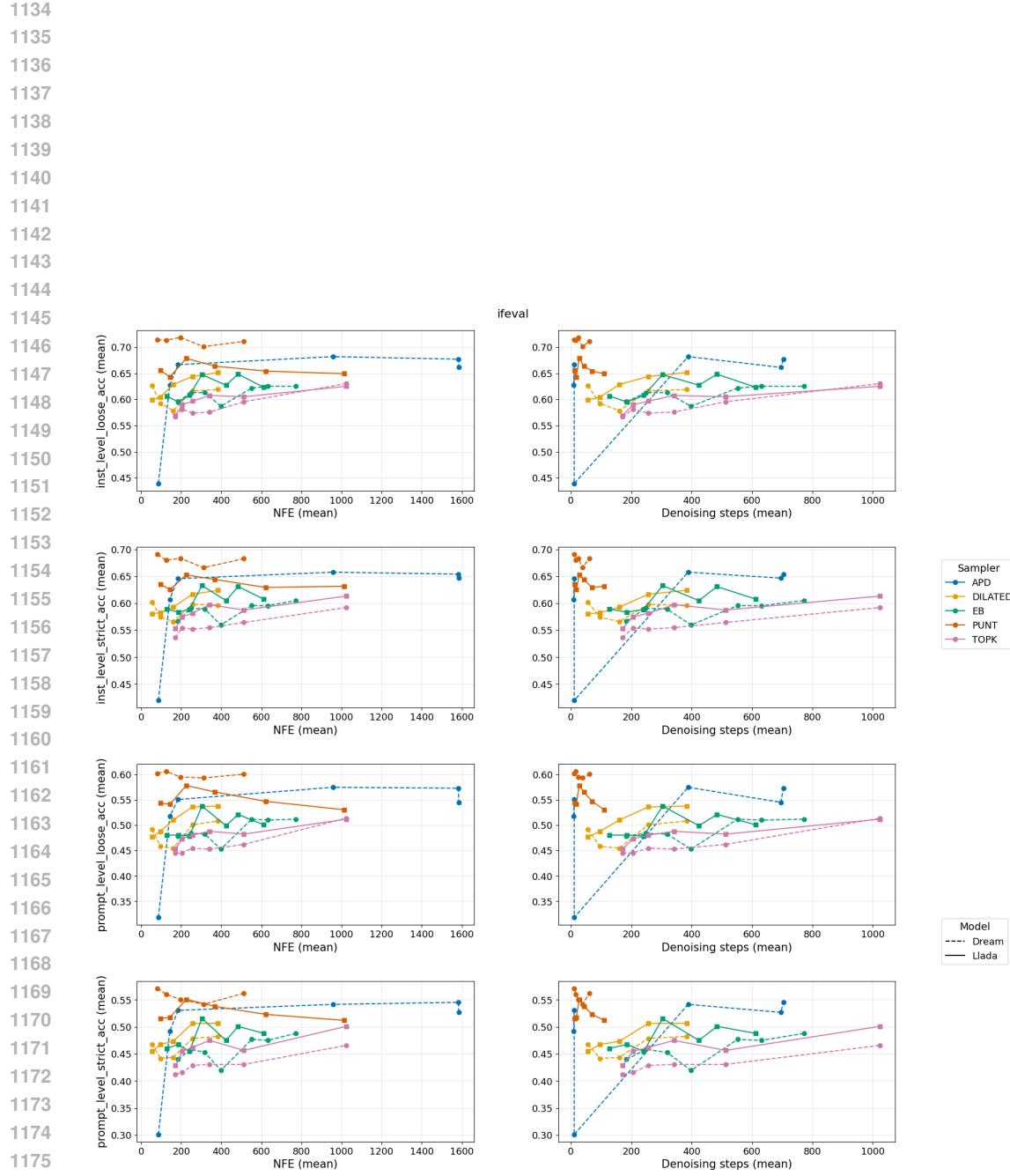


Figure 13: IFEval results showing NFE/steps vs accuracy, temperature 0.7.

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## C.5 MASKED DIFFUSION MODELS FOR PROTEINS

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Masked diffusion models (MDMs) have demonstrated effectiveness beyond natural language processing, particularly in generating biological sequences such as proteins and DNA. To evaluate PUNT’s performance in a structured biological domain, we conduct experiments on *de novo* membrane protein design using MemDLM (Goel et al., 2024), a masked diffusion model that finetunes the state-of-the-art ESM-2 150M protein language model (Lin et al., 2023) with an MDM objective to generate realistic membrane proteins.

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## C.5.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

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We evaluate PUNT on unconditional protein generation with sequences of up to 1024 amino acids, comparing against three established training-free schedulers: Top- $k$  sampling, Entropy-Bound (EB) unmasking, and geometry-aware (Dilated) spacing. All methods employ a temperature of 0.8, to encourage sequence novelty, and suppress end-of-sequence tokens to promote longer, more realistic protein sequences. For each sampling strategy, we generate 50 amino acid sequences using the following hyperparameters:

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- PUNT:  $\varepsilon = \{0.001, 0.004, 0.01, 0.02, 0.04, 0.08, 0.16\}$
- Top- $k$ :  $k = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12\}$
- EB Sampler:  $\varepsilon = \{0.1, 0.5, 1, 5, 10\}$
- Geometry-aware spacing:  $\log w = \{3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10\}$

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## C.5.2 EVALUATION METRICS

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We assess PUNT’s performance across two key dimensions critical for practical protein design applications (Wenran et al., 2025):

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**Computational Efficiency:** As with the natural language benchmarks, we measure the number of forward evaluations (NFE) and denoising steps required for generation. NFE represents the total number of model forward passes needed to complete sequence generation, providing a direct measure of computational cost. Denoising steps (PUNT-specific) track the number of iterative refinement steps in the masked diffusion process.

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**Structural Validity:** Generated protein sequences are evaluated for their likelihood to fold into stable, well-defined three-dimensional structures. We feed each generated amino acid sequence to ESMFold (Lin et al., 2023) to predict the corresponding 3D protein structure. We then calculate the mean pLDDT (a per-residue measure of local confidence in the structural predictions) across all residues in each predicted structure.

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## C.5.3 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

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Figure 14 plots the mean pLDDT against NFE and number of denoising steps. We find that while the pLDDT of generated structures is low across denoising methods—which may be attributed in part to our use of a non-semi-autoregressive generation strategy, or because of the very long sequence length and absence of multiple sequence alignment in ESMfold making this a challenging domain for 3D structure prediction—PUNT consistently generates proteins with comparable or marginally higher pLDDT than the baseline samplers given the same computational budget, with stable performance across a broad range of NFE. These results suggest that PUNT is able to improve efficiency without sacrificing structural plausibility, making it well-suited for rapid proposal of candidate proteins for downstream analysis.

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## D DENOISING PROCESS

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In this section, we show examples of our denoising process starting from a completely masked response for three prompts from different domains.

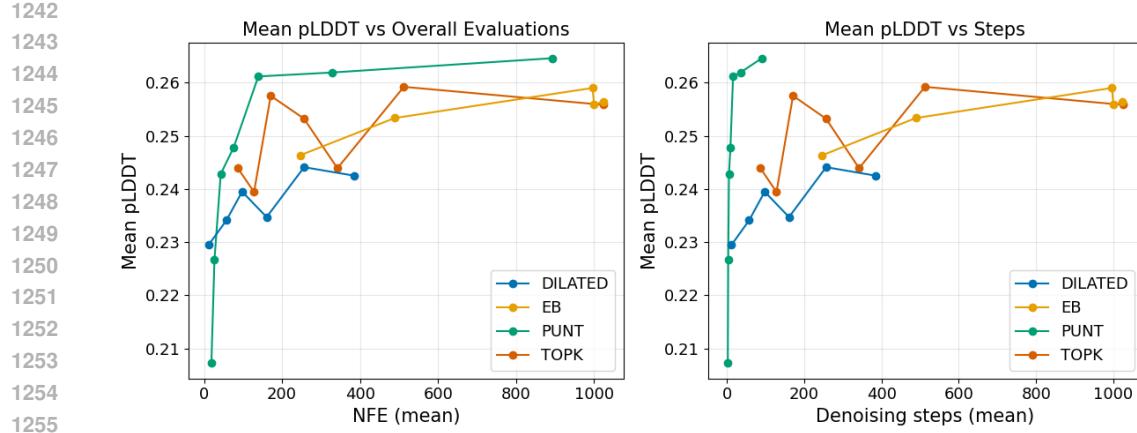


Figure 14: Protein generation with MeMDLM: mean pLDDT vs (a) NFE, and (b) denoising steps.

## TEXT PROMPT

The first prompt is a story generation prompt: “Compose an engaging story about a recent trip to Hawaii, highlighting cultural experiences and must-see attractions.”

## MATH PROMPT

The second prompt is a math word problem: “Natalia sold clips to 48 of her friends in April, and then she sold half as many clips in May. How many clips did Natalia sell in altogether in April and May?”

## PROGRAMMING PROMPT

The third prompt is a programming prompt: “Write a function to find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix  $cost[]$  and a position  $(m, n)$  in  $cost[]$ .”

E PLOTTING PERFORMANCE VS  $\epsilon$ 

In this Figures 15 to 18, we plot the performance of different models as a function of the closeness parameter  $\epsilon$  for two different temperature settings: 0.1 and 0.7.

## F PERFORMANCE FOR VARYING EPSILON SCHEDULES

In this section, we present the performance of PUNT with varying epsilon schedules compared to the pruning baseline on the MBPP and IFEval benchmarks. The results are shown in Figures 19, 20, and 21.





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 1415 Denoising Progress  
 1416 Navigate Steps: 28

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1418 Instruction: Compose an engaging travel blog post about a recent trip to Hawaii, highlighting cultural experiences and must-see attractions.

1419 Response:

1420 An Island Paradise: Discovering the Magic of Hawaii

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1422 The past few weeks have been an exhilarating whirlwind of experiences, as I've been soaking up the tropical sun, exploring the turquoise coral reefs, and discovering the stunning landscapes of Hawaii. Among the eight islands, Oahu, Maui, and Lanai'i stand out as the most enchanting, offering rich culture, history, and natural beauty unlike anything I'd come across on this island paradise.

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1424 Oahu: The Heart of the Hawaiian Islands

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1426 Starting in the capital city, Honolulu, we took a guided tour of the iconic Iolani Palace, a majestic symbol of the island's cultural heritage. As we relaxed on the beach, we watched a traditional hula performance, dancing to the rhythm of the music and the movements of the skilled performers. The day was filled with adventure, as we explored the island's natural wonders, including the stunning Diamond Head State Park and the breathtaking Waimea Canyon.

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1429 Maui: A Tropical Island Paradise

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1431 From the excitement of Oahu, we made our way to the vibrant island of Maui. Maui is a blend of old and new, a kaleidoscope of colors and tropical scents. We spent a day at the beach, enjoying the sun and watching the dolphins gracefully dip in the waves. As the sun set, we visited the historic town of Kaneohe Bay, where we discovered the rich culture of the island, including the island's famous Luau 'lai, a feast with delicious Hawaiian cuisine.

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1434 Lanai'i: A Island of Luxury and Beauty

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1436 In Maui, we embarked on a scenic ferry to the luxurious island of Lanai'i, where we explored the opulent homes of the royal family. We visited the iconic Niaua Palace, which showcases the island's rich cultural heritage. In the evenings, we relaxed at the beautiful resort of Royal Lanai'i, where we enjoyed a gourmet dinner and savor a taste of the island's finest cuisine.

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1439 Conclusion: A Hawaiian Paradise

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1441 Throughout our trip, we've explored the beauty of Hawaii, eager to learn from the island's rich cultural heritage, music, and traditions. As a traveler, I've gained a deeper appreciation for Hawaii's cultural and historical heritage, and can't wait to return to this enchanting land. If you're ever planning to visit Hawaii, I highly recommend checking out these stunning islands and treating yourself to all that this paradise has to offer.

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1446 Step 28 - Viewing saved state

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## Step 5 - Viewing saved state



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1579 Denoising Progress  
1580 Navigate Steps: 25

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1582 Instruction: Natalia sold clips to 48 of her friends in April, and then she sold half as many clips in May. How many clips did Natalia sell altogether in April and May?  
1583 Response:  
1584 To determine the total number of clips Natalia sold in April and May, we need to follow these steps:  
1585  
1586 1. Identify the number of clips Natalia sold in April.  
1587 2. Calculate the number of clips Natalia sold in May based on the given information.  
1588 3. Add the numbers from April and May to find the total.  
1589  
1590 Step 1: Identify the number of clips Natalia sold in April.  
1591 Natalia sold 48 clips in April.  
1592  
1593 Step 2: Calculate the number of clips Natalia sold in May.  
Natalia sold half as many clips in May as she did in April. Therefore, we calculate:  
1594  
1595 • Half of 48 =  $48 / 2 = 24$  clips in May.  
1596  
1597 Step 3: Add the numbers from April and May to find the total.  
Add the number of clips sold in April to the number of clips sold in May:  
1598  
1599  
1600 • Total =  $48 + 24 = 72$  clips.  
1601  
1602 Therefore, the total number of clips Natalia sold in April and May is  $(\boxed{72})$ .  
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1606 Step 25 - Viewing saved state

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Denoising Progress  
Navigate Steps: 0

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## Step 0 - Viewing saved state

## Denoising Progress

**Navigate Steps: 8**

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## Step 8 - Viewing saved state

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Denoising Progress  
Navigate Steps: 16

Instruction: Write a function to find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix  $cost[][]$  and a position  $(m, n)$  in  $cost[][]$ .  
 Response:  
 To find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix, we can use dynamic programming. The idea is to [create a 2D array](#)  $costdp$  where  $costdp[i][j]$  represents the minimum cost to reach  $(i, j)$  from the current position  $(0, 0)$ . Here is a Python function to achieve this:

```
```python
def min_cost(cost, m, n):
    rows = len(cost)
    cols = len(cost[0])
    [305] min = [[0 for _ in range(cols)] for _ in range(rows)]
    [263] min[0][0] # Directions: (up, up, up, up)
    directions = [(-1, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), (0, -1)]
    [263] Fill the cost array with minimum up[263]
    for i in range(rows):
        for j in range(cols):
            if i == 0 and j == 0:
                min[i][j] = float('inf')
            for dr, dc in directions:
                r, c = i + dr, j + dc
                if 0 < r < rows and 0 < c < cols and min[r][c] > min[dr][dc]:
                    min[i][j] = min[dr][dc]
    return min[m][n]
```
  Example usage:  

cost_matrix = [[2, 3, 4], [5, 6, 1], [4, 2, 1]]  

m, n = (2, 2)  

print(min_cost(cost_matrix, m, n)) # Output: 7
```

This function initializes the  $dp$  matrix with the cost matrix and the directions in the cost matrix. It then calculates the minimum cost to reach each cell  $(i, j)$  by considering all possible moves (up, down, left, right) and updating the  $dp$  matrix accordingly. Finally, it returns the minimum cost to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$ .

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Step 16 - Viewing saved state

Denoising Progress  
Navigate Steps: 24

Instruction: Write a function to find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix  $cost[][]$  and a position  $(m, n)$  in  $cost[][]$ .  
 Response:  
 To find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix, we can use dynamic programming. The idea is to build a matrix where each cell  $min[i][j]$  represents the minimum cost to reach that cell from the current position  $(i, j)$ . Here is a Python function to achieve this:

```
```python
def min_cost(cost, m, n):
    rows = len(cost)
    cols = len(cost[0])
    min = [[float('inf') for _ in range(cols)] for _ in range(rows)]
    min[0][0] = 0
    directions = [(-1, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), (0, -1)]
    for i in range(rows):
        for j in range(cols):
            for dr, dc in directions:
                r, c = i + dr, j + dc
                if 0 < r < rows and 0 < c < cols and min[r][c] > min[i][j] + cost[r][c]:
                    min[r][c] = min[i][j] + cost[r][c]
    return min[m][n]
```
  Example usage:  

cost_matrix = [[1, 3, 4], [6, 5, 1], [4, 2, 1]]  

end_row, end_col = 2, 2  

print(min_cost(cost_matrix, end_row, end_col)) # Output: 6
```

This function initializes a matrix with costs and the possible directions. It then iterates through the cost matrix and calculates the minimum cost to reach each cell  $(i, j)$  by considering the cost of the adjacent cells (up, down, and right) and updating the minimum cost if they exist. Finally, it returns the minimum cost to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$ .

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Step 24 - Viewing saved state

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 1730 Denoising Progress  
 Navigate Steps: 32  
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 1732  
 1733 Instruction: Write a function to find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix  $cost[][]$  and a position  $(m, n)$  in  $cost[][]$ .  
 1734 Response:  
 To find the minimum cost path to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$  for the given cost matrix, we can use dynamic programming. The idea is to build a matrix where each cell  $min[i][j]$  represents the minimum cost to reach that cell from the current position  $(i, j)$ . Here is a Python function to achieve this:  
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 1760 This function initializes the  $min$  matrix with infinity values and the three possible directions. It then iterates through the cost matrix and each direction, calculating the minimum cost to reach each cell  $(i, j)$  by considering paths from the adjacent cells (up, down, and right) and adding the cost, if they exist. Finally, it returns the minimum cost to reach  $(m, n)$  from  $(0, 0)$ .<|eot\_id|>

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Step 32 - Viewing saved state

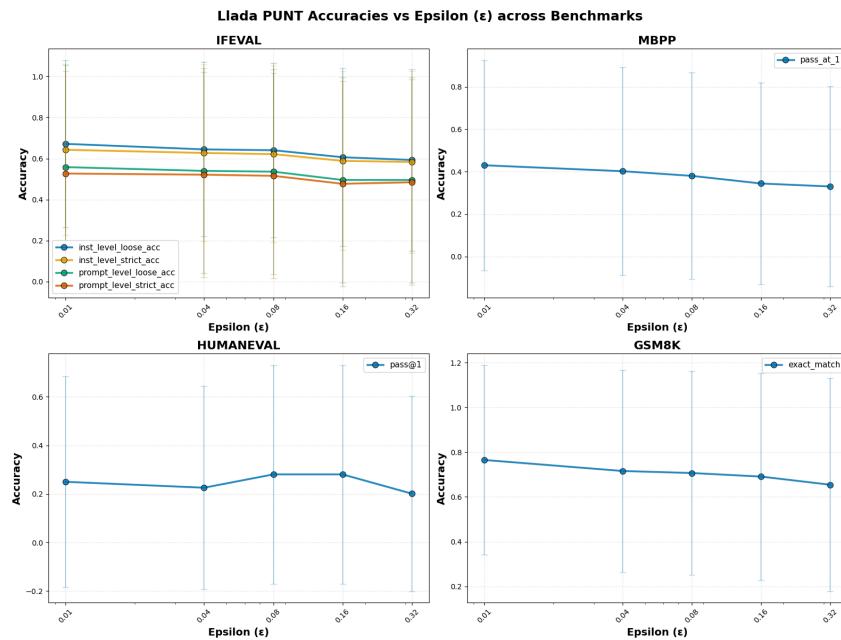
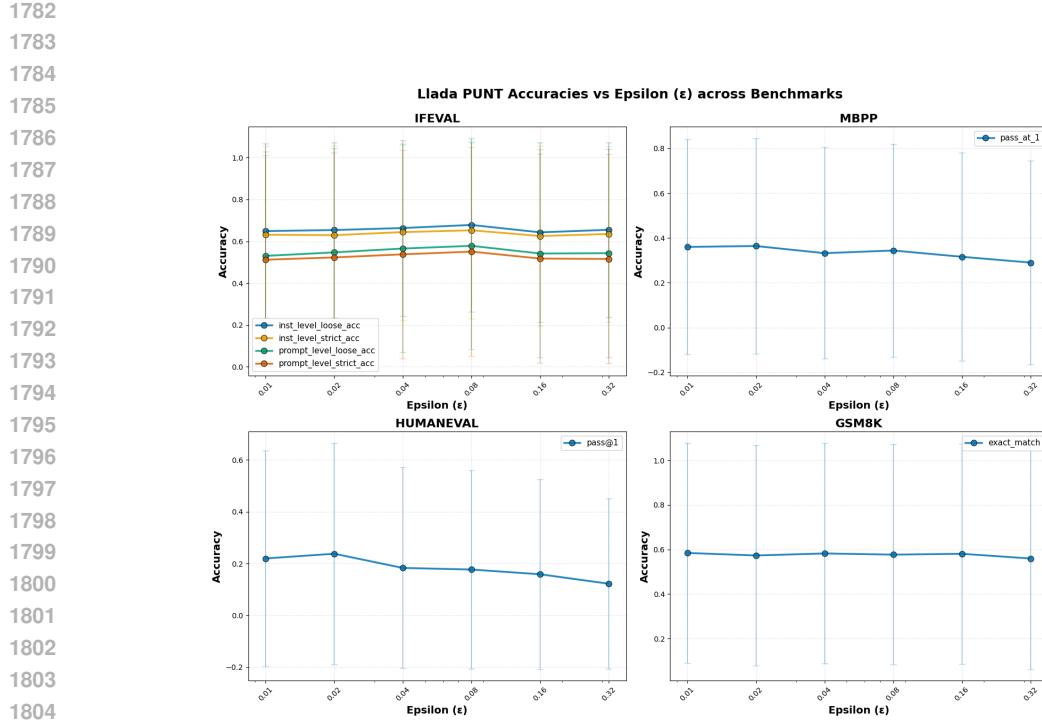
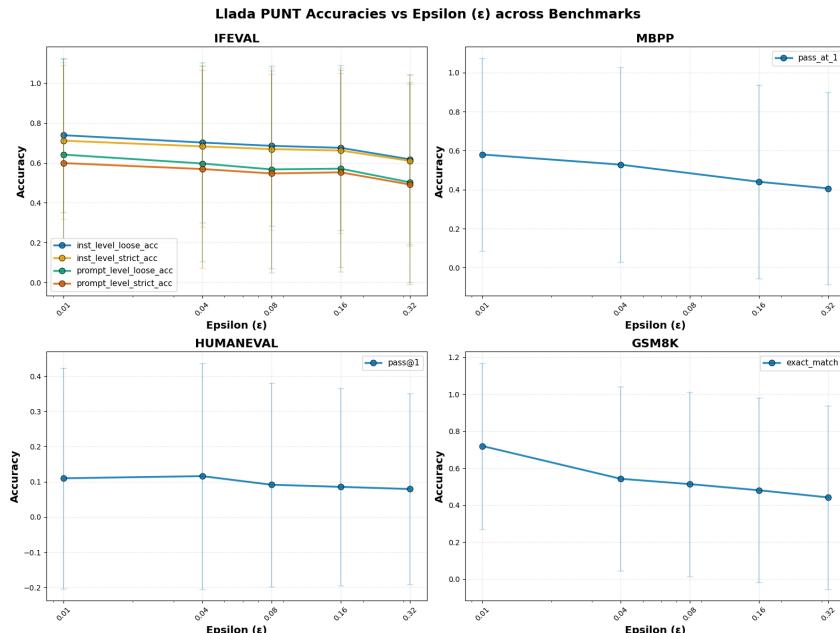


Figure 15: Performance vs  $\epsilon$  for LLADA at temperature 0.1

Figure 16: Performance vs  $\epsilon$  for LLADA at temperature 0.7Figure 17: Performance vs  $\epsilon$  for DREAM at temperature 0.1

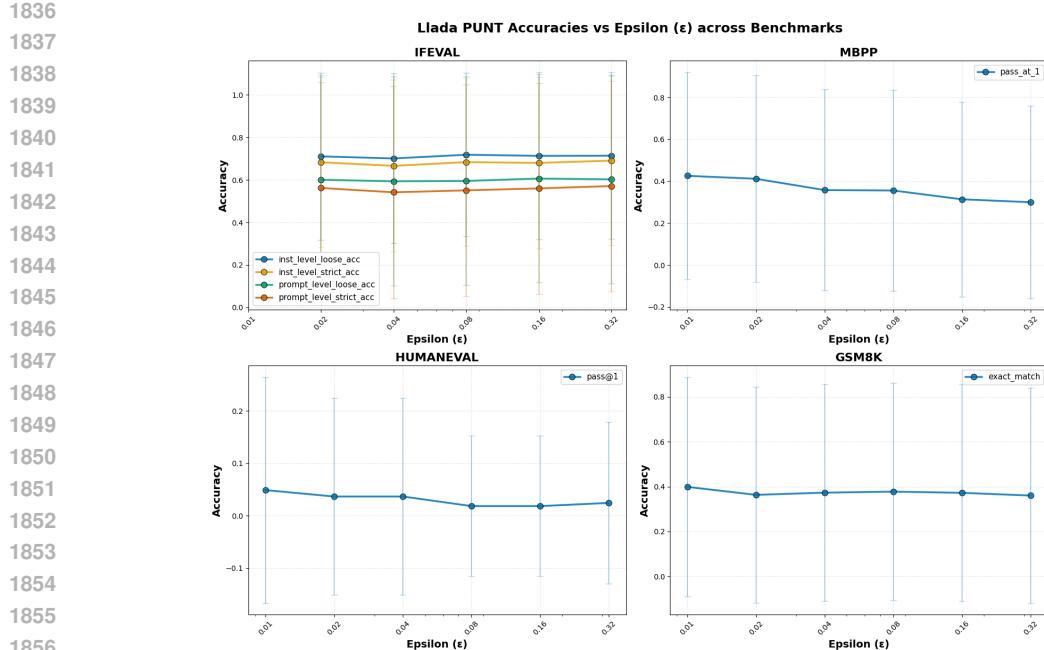
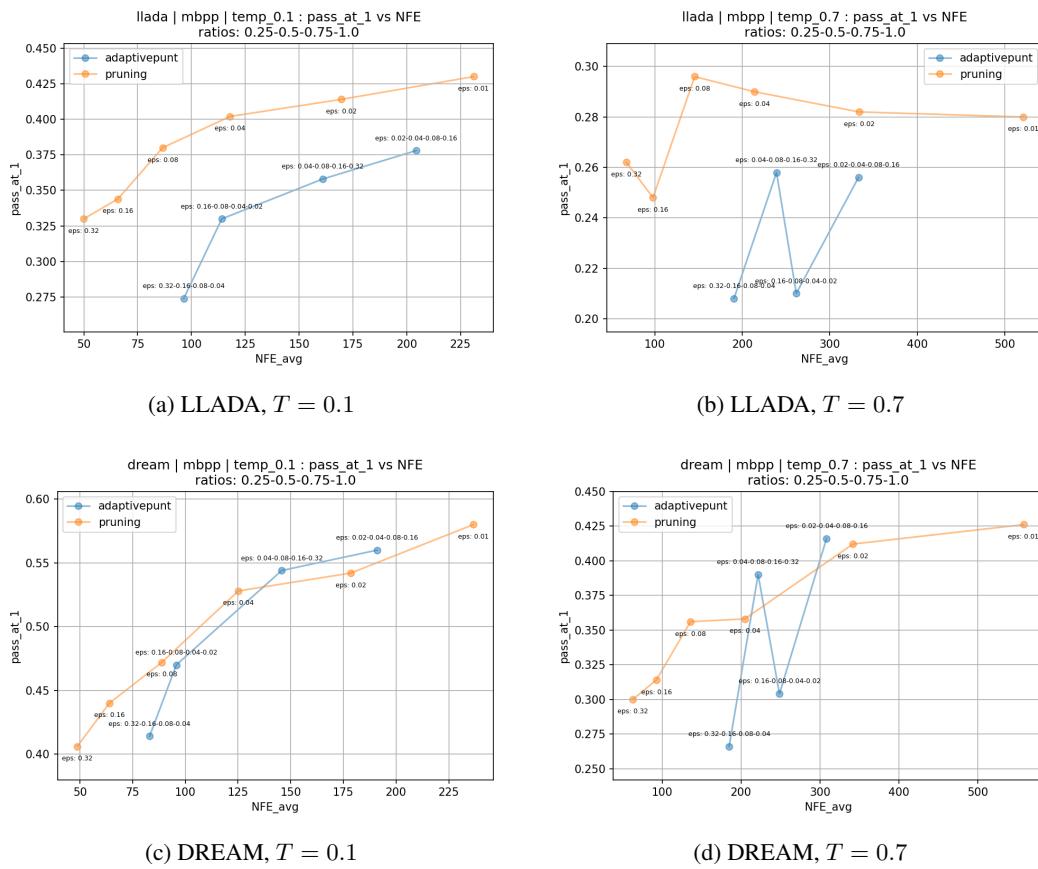
Figure 18: Performance vs  $\epsilon$  for DREAM at temperature 0.7

Figure 19: MBPP Pass@1 vs NFE for varying epsilon schedules. PUNT with a varying epsilon schedule (blue) vs pruning baseline (orange).

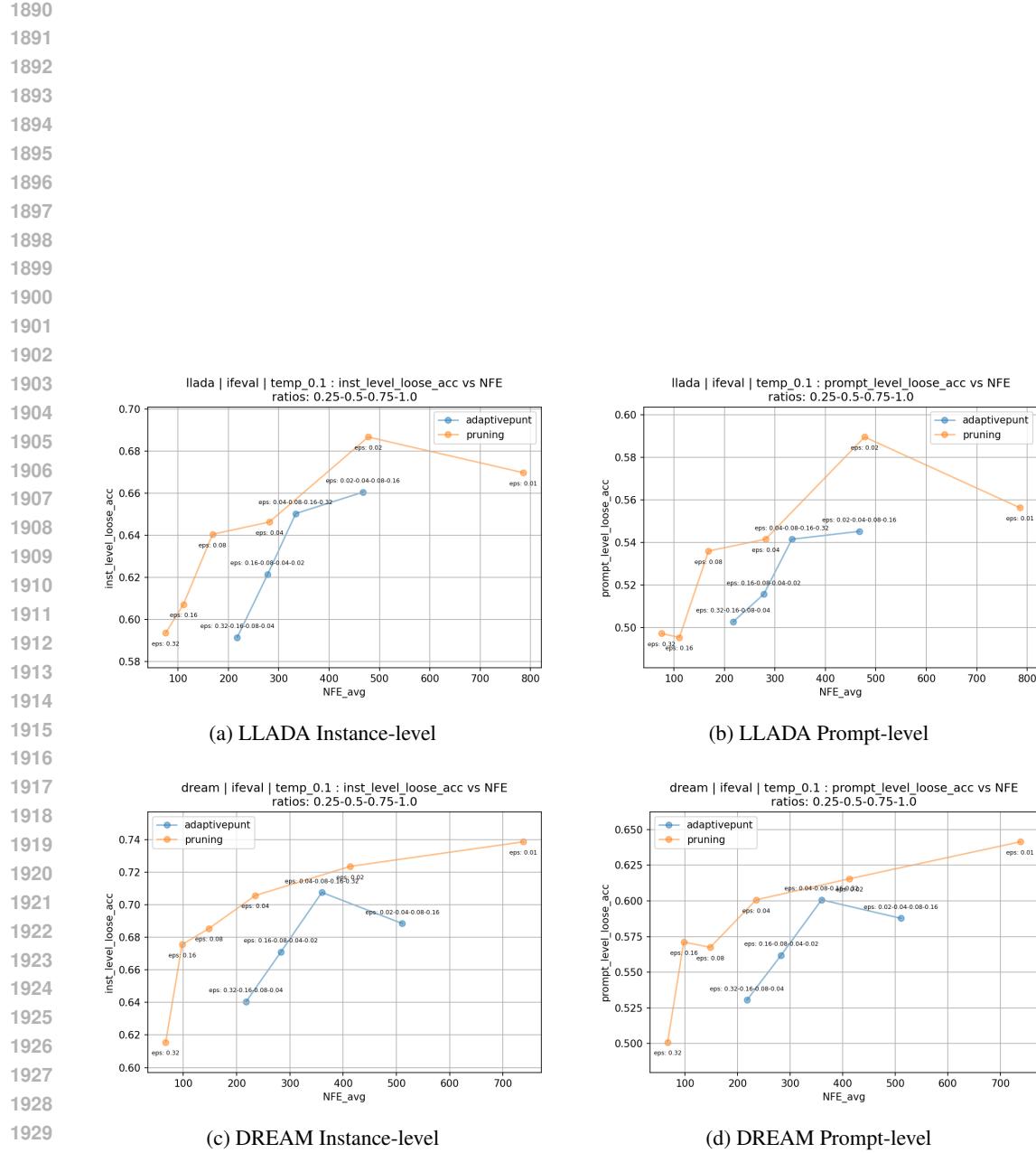


Figure 20: IFEval Loose Accuracy vs NFE at temperature 0.1 for varying epsilon schedules.

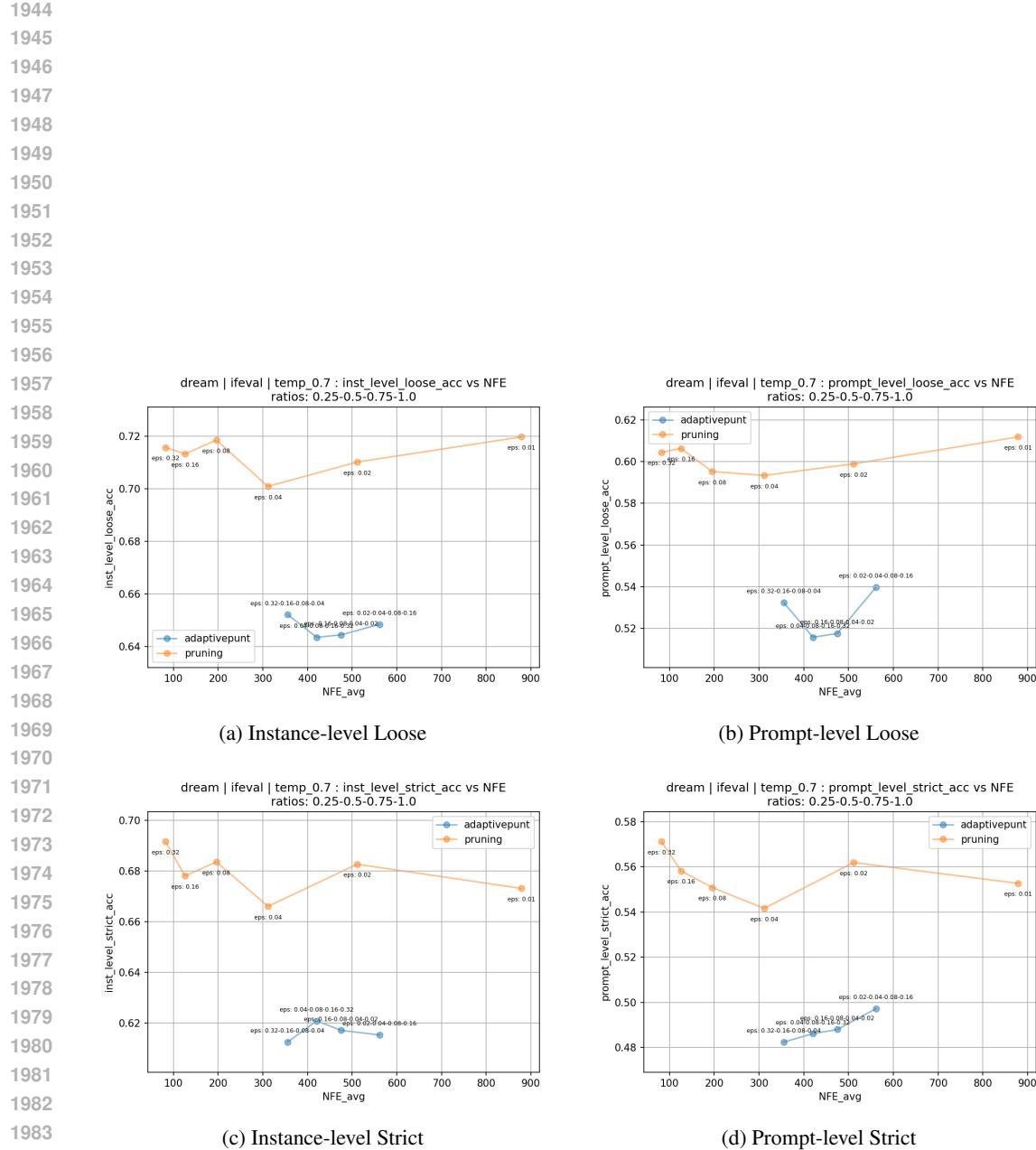


Figure 21: DREAM IFEval Accuracy vs NFE at temperature 0.7 for varying epsilon schedules.