

Enhancing Intent Understanding for Ambiguous Prompt: A Human-Machine Co-Adaption Strategy

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Modern text-to-image generation models are capable of producing realistic and high-quality images. However, user prompts often contain ambiguities, making it difficult for these systems to interpret users' actual intentions. Consequently, users often need to modify their prompts several times to ensure the generated images meet their expectations. Although some previous works aim to refine prompts for generating images that align with user requirements, comprehending the true needs of users, particularly non-expert individuals, remains a challenge for the model. In this research, we aim to enhance the visual parameter-tuning process, making the model user-friendly for individuals without specialized knowledge and it can better understand user needs. We propose a human-machine co-adaption strategy by maximizing the mutual information between the user's prompts and the pictures under modification as the optimizing target in order to make the system better adapt to user needs. We find that an improved model can reduce the necessity for multiple rounds of adjustments. We also collect multi-round dialogue datasets with prompts and images pairs and user intent. Various experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method in our proposed dataset.

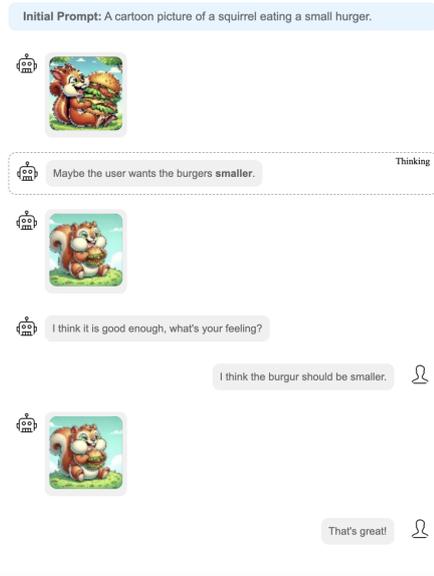
1 Introduction

Generative image models guided by text prompts have significantly advanced in quality and versatility over the past few years. Models like DALL-E 2 (Ramesh et al., 2022), IMAGEN (Saharia et al., 2022), Stable Diffusion (Rombach et al., 2022), and Muse (Chang et al., 2023) can produce novel and realistic images based on textual descriptions (Gozalo-Brizuela and Garrido-Merchan, 2023). Despite significant progress, there's still room for improvement, especially in generating higher-resolution images that better reflect the se-

mantics of input text and in creating more user-friendly interfaces (Frolov et al., 2021). Many models struggle to understand nuanced human instructions, often resulting in a mismatch between user expectations and generated outputs. Additionally, the impact of variable adjustments on the final image is not always clear, posing challenges for non-expert users who haven't systematically studied prompt engineering. This complexity hinders those without technical backgrounds from fully utilizing advanced AI models. To address these challenges, we introduce an innovative approach to enhance the user experience for non-professional users. Unlike traditional models that require a deep understanding of underlying mechanisms and control elements, our approach enables users to adjust and optimize image generation with minimal technical knowledge. Inspired by human-in-the-loop co-adaptation (Reddy et al., 2022), our model evolves with user feedback to better meet user expectations. Figure 3 illustrates the operational flow as interacted by users. Our main contributions are:

- **Adaptive Prompt Engineering and Personalized Image Generation:** We propose visual co-adaptation (VCA), an adaptive framework that fine-tunes user prompts using a pre-trained language model enhanced through reinforcement learning, aligning image outputs more closely with user preferences and creating images that truly reflect individual styles and intentions.
- **Human-in-the-Loop Feedback Integration:** Our work considers incorporating human feedback within the training loops of diffusion models. By assessing its impact, we demonstrate how human-in-the-loop methods can surpass traditional reinforcement learning in enhancing model performance and output quality.

Single-round Dialogue - Self Correction



Multi-round Dialogue - User Correction

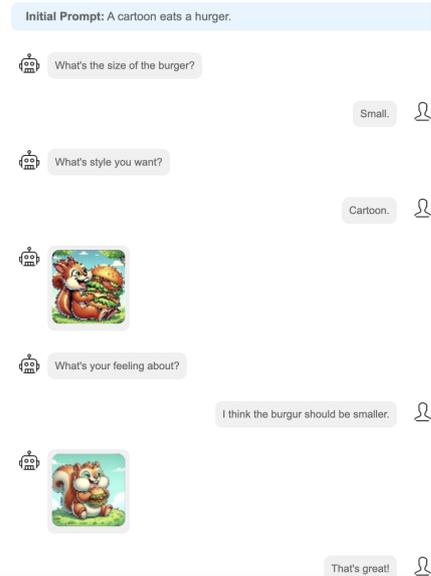


Figure 1: Users have the choice between single-round dialogue, where they provide detailed inputs for the model to generate and self-adjust an image on the left, or multi-round dialogue on the right, where the model engages in iterative refinement based on user feedback, asking questions to clarify any unclear requirements. This allows for either model-driven optimization through self-reflection or user-driven customization to meet specific needs. Our proposed visual co-adaption system can successfully handle both scenarios.

- **Comparative Analysis and Tool Development for Non-Experts:** Through comparative analysis, we explore the superiority of mutual information maximization over conventional reinforcement learning in tuning model outputs to user preferences. Additionally, we introduce an interactive tool that grants non-experts easy access to advanced generative models, enabling the creation of personalized, high-quality images, thus broadening the applicability of text-to-image technologies in creative domains.

2 Related Work

2.1 Memory Mechanism for LLM-based Agents

In LLM-based agents, the memory module is considered one of the critical components for storing, processing, and retrieving information relevant to the agent's tasks. Memory plays a crucial role in determining how the agent accumulates knowledge, processes historical experiences, and supports its actions. To enhance the self-evolution capabilities of LLM-based agents, researchers are focused on designing and optimizing memory modules. Past research has explored various designs and implementations of memory modules. For

example, some researchers combine information from trials and cross-trials to construct memory modules, thereby enhancing the agent's reasoning abilities. Other researchers store memory information in natural language form to improve the module's interpretability and user-friendliness. Additionally, some studies focus on designing memory read-write operations, enabling agents to interact effectively with their environment and complete tasks. Although past research has made progress in the design and implementation of memory modules, further improvement in the self-adjustment capabilities and memory management efficiency of LLM-based agents is still needed to address complex problems in real-world applications. Therefore, our approach introduces a memory optimization mechanism, allowing agents to better cope with complex and dynamic task environments.

2.2 Human Preference-Driven Optimization for Text-to-Image Generation Models

Zhong et al. (Zhong et al., 2024) significantly advance the adaptability of large language models (LLMs) to human preferences through their innovative approach. Their method utilizes SVD-based low-rank adaptation for nuanced, preference-sensitive model adjustments, eliminating the need for exhaustive model retraining. Xu et al. (Xu et al.,

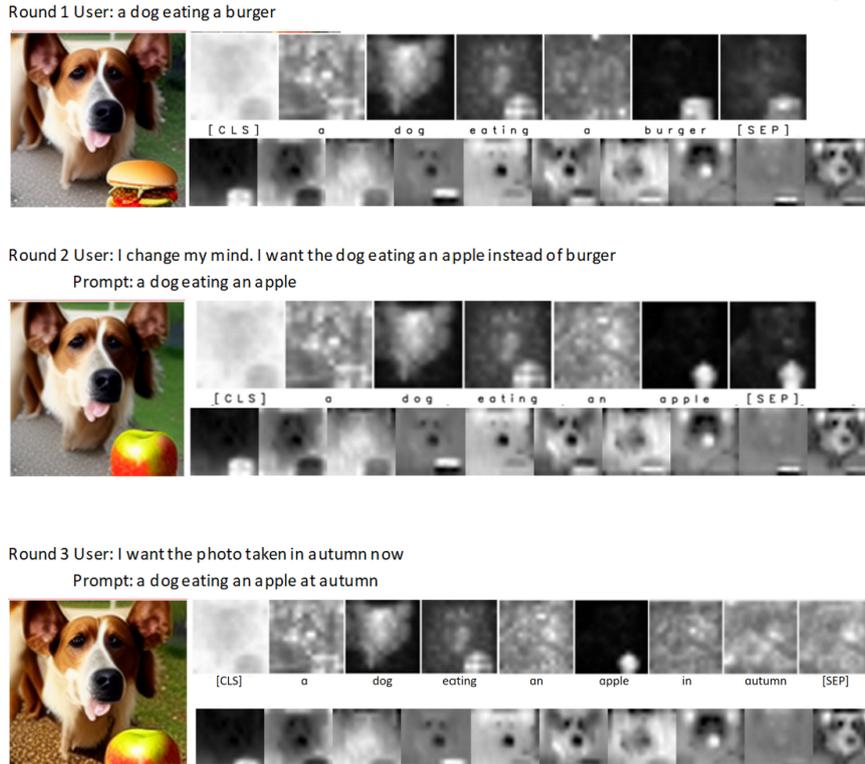


Figure 2: The diagram shows our model’s architecture with cross attention in the first row and self attention in the second. It incorporates an improved cross attention mechanism that maintains shape consistency and aligns well with prompt tokens, enabling effective multi-round modifications based on user feedback. The model captures intricate cross attention details, optimizing parameters for progressively better single-generation performance, demonstrating few-shot learning adaptation with minimal dialogue iterations.

2024) adopt a distinctive strategy by harnessing extensive expert insights to develop their ImageReward system, setting a new benchmark for creating images that resonate deeply with human desires. Together, these advancements represent a pivotal shift towards more intuitive, user-centric LLM technologies, heralding a future where AI seamlessly aligns with the intricate mosaic of individual human expectations.

2.3 Exploration of Self-Correction Strategies

Advances in large language models (LLMs) self-correction such as, Pan et al (Pan et al., 2023), Shinn et al. (Shinn et al., 2023), Madaan et al (Madaan et al., 2024), improving language understanding and production. Huang et al (Huang et al., 2022) showcased self-debugging and zero-shot learning for reasoning evaluation, underscoring the potential and limits of self-correction. These contributions collectively highlight the progress and future challenges in enhancing LLMs’ self-corrective capabilities (Hertz et al., 2022; Rosenman et al., 2023; Mehrabi et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2024). Mean-

while, we can find that multi-modal self-correction is less investigated. It is also very important to teach the vision model to think it step by step. We explore the integration of self-correction strategies into image generation to produce images that more closely align with user intentions.

2.4 Ambiguity Resolution in Text-to-Image Generation

Natural dialogue often contains ambiguity due to grammar, polysemy, and vagueness. Humans manage this ambiguity with clarifying questions and contextual cues, but machines find it challenging. To address this, text-to-image generation employs various strategies. For example, masked transformers (Chang et al., 2023) and visual annotations (Endo, 2023) help clarify prompts, while model evaluation benchmarks (Lee et al., 2024) and auto-regressive models (Yu et al., 2022) improve image alignment. Frameworks for abstract (Liao et al., 2023) and inclusive imagery (Zhang et al., 2023), as well as layout guidance (Qu et al., 2023) and feedback mechanisms (Liang et al., 2023), fur-

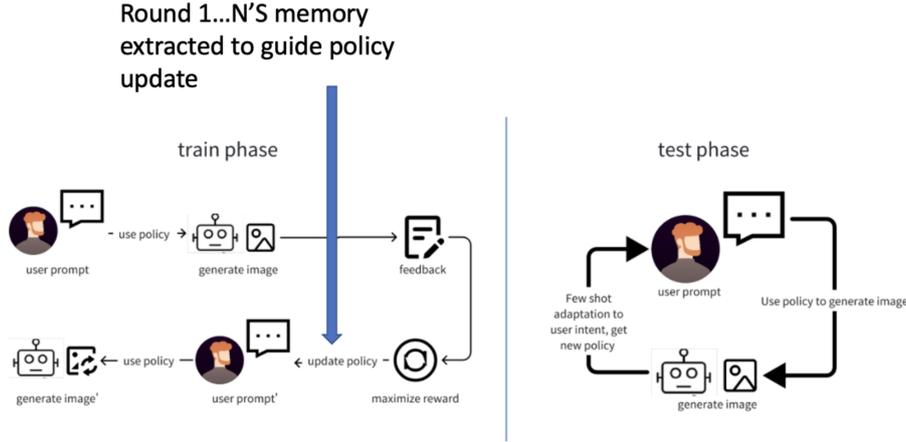


Figure 3: This figure illustrates our reinforcement learning framework. In training, the policy (three editing operations with trainable parameters, more details in section 3.1.1 and A.3) updates based on human feedback (environment), where the state is the prompt and the action is the generated image. In testing, few-shot adaptation refines the policy (π_{new}) to generate images, allowing efficient model adaptation with minimal dialogue interactions.

ther enhance quality. The TIED framework and TAB dataset (Mehrabi et al., 2023) use user interaction to refine prompt clarity. Our model integrates these techniques across multiple dialogue rounds to elicit users’ true intentions, effectively reducing prompt ambiguity and generating results that align with user expectations, thus enhancing image generation quality.

3 Method

3.1 Policy Model: Controlling Cross-Attention in a Reinforcement Learning Framework

In our framework, the Imagen text-guided synthesis model (Saharia et al., 2022) constructs the basic composition and geometric layout of images at a 64×64 resolution. The model uses a U-shaped network during each diffusion step t to predict the noise component ϵ based on the text embedding $\psi(P)$ and the noise-added image z_t . Crucial to shaping the image’s final appearance $I = z_0$, the attention maps $M = \text{Softmax}\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d}}\right)$ influence its spatial and geometric properties. Here, Q and K are the query and key matrices formed from image and text features, respectively. We define the diffusion step function $\text{DM}(z_t, P, t, s)$ that computes a single step of the diffusion process, outputting the noisy image z_{t-1} and the attention map M_t , if utilized. Overriding the attention map with an additional map M_c while maintaining the values V from the prompt is indicated as $\text{DM}(z_t, P, t, s)\{M \leftarrow M_c\}$. The modified prompt

P^* generates a new attention map M_t^* , and the general edit function $\text{Edit}(M_t, M_t^*, t)$ manages the attention maps at any step t for both the original and modified images.

3.1.1 Editing Operations

In our framework, we employ three strategic editing operations—Word Swap, Adding a New Phrase, and Attention Re-weighting. Each operation is optimized through reinforcement learning (RL) as the policy model to maximize a reward function. This reward function is based on the interaction results between the action output in a specific context state and the environment (human feedback), using gradient ascent. This approach learns parameters that are highly aligned with human preferences. For more details about the RL training framework, refer to Appendix A.2.

In the **Word Swap** method, users replace tokens in the prompt (e.g., "a big red bicycle" to "a big red car"), and we control attention map injection steps to manage compositional freedom:

$$\text{Edit}(M_t, M_t^*, t) := \begin{cases} M_t^* & \text{if } t < \tau \\ M_t & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad 230$$

The attention map M_t^* is updated as follows:

$$M_t^* = M_t^* + \eta \nabla_{M_t^*} \mathcal{R}(M_t^*) \quad 232$$

In the **Adding a New Phrase** method, new tokens are added to the prompt (e.g., "a castle next to a river" to "children drawing of a castle next to a river"), targeting shared tokens with an alignment function A :

$$(\text{Edit}(M_t, M_t^*, t))_{i,j} := \begin{cases} (M_t)_{i,A(j)} & \text{if } A(j) \neq \text{None} \\ (M_t)_{i,j} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The alignment function A_t is updated as follows:

$$A_t = A_t + \eta \nabla_{A_t} \mathcal{R}(A_t)$$

In the **Attention Re-weighting** method, token influence is adjusted to enhance or diminish features (e.g., scaling the attention map of "fluffy red ball" for token j^* with a parameter $c \in [-2, 2]$):

$$(\text{Edit}(M_t, M_t^*, t))_{i,j} := \begin{cases} c \cdot (M_t)_{i,j} & \text{if } j = j^* \\ (M_t)_{i,j} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This parameter c provides intuitive control over the induced effect. The scaling parameter c_t is updated as follows:

$$c_t = c_t + \eta \nabla_{c_t} \mathcal{R}(c_t) \quad (1)$$

Each operation refines text-image interactions through cross-attention layers, aligning outputs with human preferences. The RL framework optimizes these strategies by updating M_t , A_t , and c_t through gradient ascent. For detailed optimization processes of the three editing operations, see Appendix A.3.

3.2 Human-Machine Co-Adaptation with Mutual Information Maximization

In this section, we explain how our model can adapt to human intent. Let X denote the user inputs and Y the images generated by the model. The adaptation mechanism seeks to maximize the mutual information $I(X; Y)$, which quantifies the amount of information shared between X and Y . The mutual information is given by:

$$I(X; Y) = \int_{x \in X} \int_{y \in Y} p(x, y) \log \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} dy dx, \quad (2)$$

where $p(x, y)$ is the joint probability of x and y , and $p(x)$ and $p(y)$ are the marginal probability of x and y , respectively.

Adaptive Feedback Loop

The adaptive feedback loop updates the model parameters θ to better align with human intent, utilizing the gradient of mutual information that is now conditioned on user feedback f . This feedback directly represents human preferences and intents, guiding the model towards desired outcomes:

$$\theta_{\text{new}} = \theta_{\text{old}} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} I(X; Y | f), \quad (3)$$

where η is the learning rate and f encapsulates the feedback signals from users. This adaptive approach measures effectiveness through an increase in conditional mutual information, reflecting

improved alignment with user expectations, and higher user satisfaction scores in image generation tasks.

Algorithm 1 Prompt-to-Prompt Image Editing with Human-Machine Co-Adaptation (Training)

Input: Original prompt P_0 , Edited prompt P_1 , Initial image I_0
Output: Edited image I_1

- 1: Initialize interface π with parameters θ
- 2: Generate initial attention maps A_0 for I_0 using $\pi(P_0)$
- 3: Set $I_t \leftarrow I_0$
- 4: Initialize user feedback loop
- 5: **for** $t = 1$ **to** Convergence **do**
- 6: Collect user feedback on image I_t and prompt P_t
- 7: Adapt π (Using editing operation in Section 3.1.1) to maximize mutual information $I(A; I|P)$ incorporating feedback
- 8: Apply P_1 to generate new attention maps A_1
- 9: Generate I_1 by applying A_1 in diffusion step
- 10: Evaluate $I(A; I|P)$ between (P_0, P_1) and (I_0, I_1)
- 11: Update θ to align more closely with user preferences
- 12: **end for**
- 13: Conduct final evaluation of I_1 with user
- 13: **return** $I_1 = 0$

Algorithm 2 Evaluation of Adaptation to New User Preferences

Input: Trained interface π with parameters θ , New user initial prompt P_{new}
Output: Adapted image I_{adapted} aligns with new user preferences

- 1: Initialize new user interaction session
- 2: **for** $i = 1$ **to** few-shot rounds **do**
- 3: Present I_{current} generated from P_{new} using π
- 4: Collect new user feedback on I_{current}
- 5: Update P_{new} based on user feedback
- 6: Adapt pre-trained θ minimally to reflect new user preferences
- 7: Generate new I_{current} using updated $\pi(P_{\text{new}})$
- 8: **if** user feedback is positive **then**
- 9: Break the loop and finalize I_{adapted}
- 10: **end if**
- 11: **end for**
- 12: Evaluate user satisfaction with I_{adapted}
- 12: **return** $I_{\text{adapted}} = 0$

3.3 TD Error Historical Experience Replay with Gradient Descent and Joint Gradient Ascent Training for Reward Function

Our reinforcement learning framework uses Human Feedback (E) to optimize a Text-to-Image model with Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO). The state (s_t) includes the generated image and text, while the action (a_t) is the image generation. The reward (r_t) is calculated by the CLIP model. Temporal Difference Learning computes the TD error ($\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) - V(s_t)$) to guide updates (measuring the difference between predicted and actual rewards). Prioritized Experience Replay samples experiences $((s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}))$ based on

TD error magnitude ($p_t \propto |\delta_t| + \epsilon$), with learning rates adjusted by $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{(n \cdot p_t)^\beta}$. New experiences have their TD error set to the maximum value to ensure priority. PPO maximizes the objective: $L^{\text{PPO}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[\min \left(\frac{\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t|s_t)} \hat{A}_t, \text{Clip} \left(\frac{\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t|s_t)}, 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon \right) \hat{A}_t \right) \right]$, balancing new and old policy probability ratios. This combines reward maximization ($\max_\theta \sum_t \gamma^t r_t$) and TD error minimization ($\min_\theta \sum_t \delta_t^2$). Joint training optimizes both reward and TD error, deriving policy gradients for parameters (θ_{rew} , θ_{ref} , and θ_{rep}). The reward maximization objective ($J(\theta_{\text{rew}}, \theta_{\text{ref}}, \theta_{\text{rep}}) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [\sum_t \gamma^t r_t]$) is optimized by ascending the gradient ($\nabla_\theta J = \mathbb{E}_\pi [r_t \nabla_\theta \log \pi(a_t|s_t)]$). The TD Error Learning process involves action selection ($a_t = \pi(s_t, \theta)$), state transition ($(s_{t+1}, r_t) \sim P(s_t, a_t)$), TD error calculation ($\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V(s_{t+1}, \theta) - V(s_t, \theta)$), and parameter update ($\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_\theta (\delta_t^2)$). Iterative updates minimize TD error. Integrating these objectives refines the policy for optimal performance, ensuring the generation of high-quality, text-aligned images (combining reward maximization and TD error minimization leads to better policy).

4 Experiments

4.1 Dataset

We developed QA software that annotates prompts on our platform, generating JSON files with detailed multi-turn dialogue information. An example of user interface annotations is shown in Appendix A.4. Our training set includes 1673 JSON files, annotated with prompts, QA sequences, image paths, unique identifiers, and ratings for image alignment and fidelity. This dataset instructs our model on user expectations and artistic intentions, analyzing subjects, emotions, settings, styles, perspectives, and extra elements. Feedback refines prompts, enabling the model to grasp complex artistic directions. We use 95% of the data for training and 5% for validation, supporting efficient few-shot learning to enhance performance and user satisfaction.

4.2 Comparison Study

4.2.1 Trends Across Baselines Over Iterative Rounds

Figure 4 showcases our model’s superior performance on a validation prompt describing "A serene ancient fantasy sanctuary constructed of stone, with

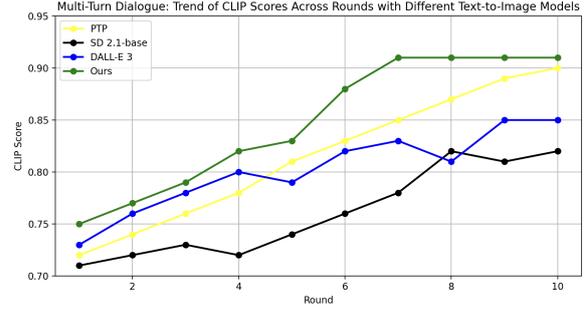


Figure 4: This graph shows CLIP score trends over 10 rounds for various text-to-image models (PTP (Hertz et al., 2022), SD 2.1-base, DALL-E 3, and ours)

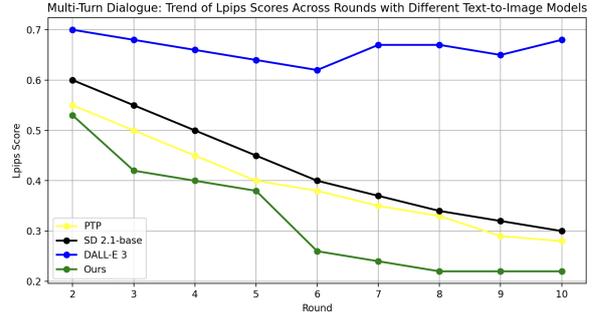


Figure 5: Illustrated in the graph are the trends of LPIPS scores for several text-to-image models (PTP, SD 2.1-base, DALL-E 3, and ours) over 10 rounds.

white birds flying in the distance." and achieves high CLIP scores early, our model reaches 0.78 by round 3 and peaks at 0.91 by round 7, surpassing competitors. It also excels in Lpips, as is shown in Figure 5 recording a score of 0.42 by round 3 and stabilizing at 0.22 by round 8. This rapid stabilization highlights our model’s adaptability and efficiency, maintaining high consistency and user satisfaction across fewer dialogue rounds. Each round incrementally builds on the last, refining details without altering the prompt’s core structure.

4.2.2 Prompt Refinement

Table 1 compares **self-reflection prompt refinement** and **multi-round dialogue prompt refinement**. Self-reflection is faster (3.4s vs. 12s), but multi-round dialogue better captures user preferences, leading to higher satisfaction (4.7 vs. 3.0). It also shows improved Purpose Adaptability (4.8 vs. 3.3), Clarity (4.7 vs. 4.2), and Detail Level (4.2 vs. 4.1). For algorithm details, see Appendix A.7.

4.3 Ablation Study: Reinforcement Learning for Parameter Tuning

Table 2 highlights the impact of Reinforcement Learning (RL) tuning on dialogue system perfor-

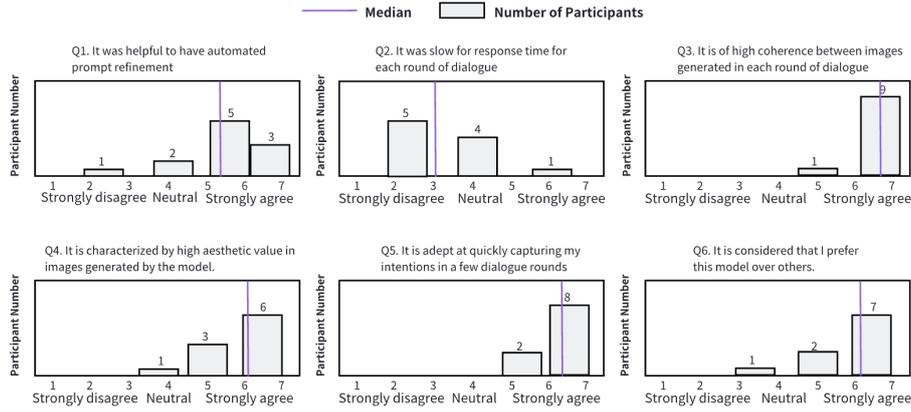


Figure 6: The chart shows user feedback on a model, highlighting mixed responses with positive feedback on image coherence and capturing intentions, but concerns over response time.

Table 1: Comparative Analysis of Prompt Refinement from 100 users, averaged and rounded to one decimal. Metrics are scored on a 0-5 scale. Response Time indicates average duration for self-reflection and multi-dialogue processes.

Metric & Category	Refine Type	
	Self-reflection	Multi-dialogue
Prompt Quality		
Clarity	4.2/5	4.7/5
Detail Level	4.1/5	4.2/5
Purpose Adaptability	3.3/5	4.8/5
Image Reception		
User Satisfaction	3.0/5	4.7/5
CLIP Value	0.8/1	0.9/1
Response Time	3.4s	12s

Table 2: Ablation result on the effects of RL using data averaged from randomly selected 10 users, with final interaction CLIP and Aesthetic Scores.

Metrics	With RL	Without RL
Rounds	4.3	6.9
CLIP Score	0.92/1.0	0.83/1.0
User Satisfaction	4.73/5	4.14/5
Aesthetic Score	4.89/5	4.88/5

Table 3: Ablation results for edited cross attention (CA), averaging data from randomly selected 10 users, with CLIP and Aesthetic Scores from the final interaction.

Metrics	Edited CA	Normal CA
Rounds	3.7	6.1
CLIP Score	0.88/1.0	0.81/1.0
User Satisfaction	4.82/5	3.94/5
Aesthetic Score	4.71/5	4.48/5

374 mance. RL systems require fewer dialogue rounds
 375 (4.3 vs. 6.9), showing greater efficiency. The CLIP
 376 score improves from 0.83 to 0.92, indicating better
 377 alignment of images with prompts. User satisfac-
 378 tion increases from 4.14 to 4.73 out of 5, reflecting
 379 a better user experience. Both systems perform
 380 similarly in aesthetic quality (4.89 vs. 4.88), but
 381 RL tuning enhances functionality and user satisfac-
 382 tion. Users noted lower consistency in image
 383 quality from non-RL-tuned models, emphasizing
 384 RL’s effectiveness in dynamically adapting to user
 385 feedback. For detailed parameter updates with RL
 386 tuning, see Appendix A.5.

387 4.4 Ablation Study: Comparing Edited Cross 388 Attention with Normal Cross Attention.

389 Table 3 highlights the superior performance of
 390 edited cross attention (CA) over normal CA in dia-
 391 logue systems, emphasizing their distinct adaptabil-
 392 ity. Normal CA computes static attention weights,

393 while edited CA dynamically adjusts these weights
 394 in response to dialogue context and user feedback.
 395 This adaptability reduces dialogue rounds to an
 396 average of 3.7 compared to 6.1 for normal CA, en-
 397 hancing system performance. For instance, edited
 398 CA achieves a higher CLIP score of 0.88 versus
 399 0.81 and increases user satisfaction from 3.94 to
 400 4.82 out of 5. The aesthetic quality of images also
 401 improves with edited CA, scoring 4.71 compared to
 402 4.48 for normal CA. These results underscore the
 403 effectiveness of integrating reinforcement learning
 404 with edited CA to refine tuning and improve output
 405 consistency and relevance in denoising tasks. For
 406 an in-depth exploration of edited cross attention
 407 mechanisms, refer to Appendix A.6.

408 4.5 Visualization Results

409 Dialogue Rounds Across Different Models

410 Figure 2 compares dialogue rounds across different

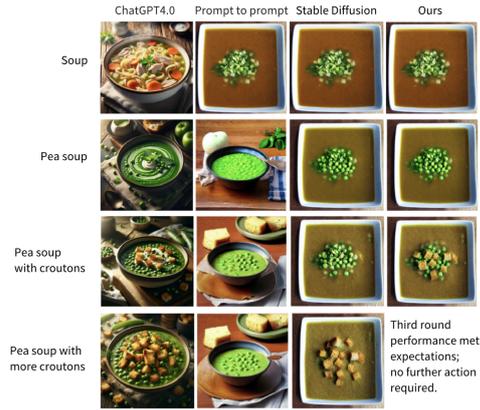


Figure 7: The comparison demonstrates our model’s few-shot learning capability, effectively adapting to user preferences with minimal dialogue.

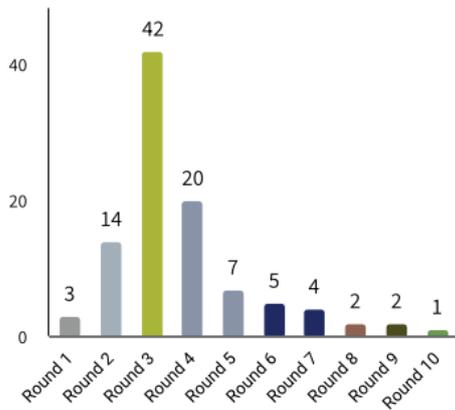


Figure 8: The chart shows the rapid decline in user interaction rounds needed for satisfaction, peaking by Round 5, demonstrating the model’s efficient few-shot learning.

models: ChatGPT, Stable Diffusion v2.1, Prompt-to-Prompt (Hertz et al., 2022), and our model. Initially, images from Stable Diffusion, Prompt-to-Prompt, and our model are similar due to the lack of feedback. By the second round, "pea soup" preferences cause significant changes in ChatGPT-4 and Stable Diffusion, affecting consistency. In the third round, with croutons added, our model excels by fine-tuning parameters via reinforcement learning, maintaining balance, while Prompt-to-Prompt struggles, and ChatGPT-4 shows inconsistencies. By the fourth round, our model achieves satisfactory results and opts out, while the others continue ineffective adjustments. This highlights our model’s superior ability to understand and respond to user feedback, achieving optimal results by the third round and demonstrating effective multi-round dialogue learning. Despite ChatGPT-

4’s realistic visuals, it struggles with consistency and adapting to human preferences. Our model, preferred by 89% of users, effectively adapts with minimal dialogue.

User Satisfaction Distribution for Our Model Over Multiple Rounds

Figure 8 illustrates our model’s efficiency in adapting to user feedback. Initially, the satisfaction rate increases rapidly, with 59 users satisfied by Round 3, demonstrating the model’s quick alignment with user preferences. By Round 5, satisfaction peaks at 99 out of 100 users, underscoring the model’s effectiveness in achieving high user satisfaction swiftly.

Users’ Overall Evaluation of Our Model

Figure 6 presents user evaluations across various model aspects. The majority found the automated prompt refinement to be helpful, indicating approval. In contrast to typical concerns about speed in models with complex computations, most users disagreed with the notion that the model’s response time per dialogue round was slow, suggesting that the integration of reinforcement learning for fine-tuning did not significantly impact perceived efficiency. The model was highly praised for its coherence across images generated in each dialogue round and received commendations for aesthetic quality. It was also recognized for adeptly capturing user intentions within just a few rounds of dialogue. Overall, the participants showed a strong preference for this model over others, reflecting its effectiveness and user satisfaction.

5 Conclusion and Future Work

In this study, we introduced a new image generation method using a human-in-the-loop approach that enhances user interaction and responsiveness to ambiguous prompts. Our findings highlight the model’s ability to closely match user expectations through adaptive prompt engineering and mutual information optimization. Looking ahead, we plan to release our training dataset, improving transparency and enabling broader testing. Additionally, we aim to refine the model’s interpretive skills, expand its applications across different domains, and conduct comprehensive benchmarks to gauge the alignment between user intentions and generated images. These initiatives will advance personalized and intuitive image generation technologies, making advanced modeling tools more accessible without requiring deep technical expertise.

6 Limitation

The study’s limitations mainly involve the model’s reliance on user feedback and its generalization capabilities. The model may struggle with highly ambiguous or contextually complex prompts, especially those needing subtle cultural nuances or specialized knowledge. Its performance relies heavily on iterative user feedback, which may not always be practical or available. This dependency could limit the model’s applicability in scenarios requiring rapid, autonomous decision-making, restricting its utility in diverse or less interactive environments where adaptability and minimal human intervention are crucial.

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A Appendix 635

A.1 Reinforcement Learning configuration 636

637 To train our policy model, we employ Proximal
638 Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017),
639 initializing the value and policy networks from a
640 supervised fine-tuned model. We use diverse beam
641 search (Vijayakumar et al., 2016) with a beam size
642 of 8 and a diversity penalty of 1.0 to ensure explo-
643 ration quality and diversity. The maximum gener-
644 ation length is randomly set between 15 to 75 at
645 each step, and one completion is randomly selected
646 to update the policy. Each prompt generates one
647 image, computing the clip score as the reward func-
648 tion to reduce variance. Training involves 12,000
649 episodes, four PPO epochs per batch, a batch size
650 of 256, and a learning rate of 5e-5, with value
651 and KL reward coefficients set at 2.2 and 0.3, re-
652 spectively. Based on human fragmented language
653 feedback, ChatGPT provides new prompts with
654 minimal structural changes but reflects human in-
655 tent very well.

A.2 Reinforcement Learning Framework 656

657 The reinforcement learning framework for our
658 human-machine co-adaptation system in image
659 editing involves the following elements:

State (S) 660

661 The state in our framework represents the current
662 situation of the system, which includes:

- The current image I_t being edited. 663
- The current prompt P_t describing desired
664 modifications or features in the image. 665
- Optionally, it can also include historical user
666 interactions and feedback to provide context
667 to the state, enabling the model to better un-
668 derstand and predict user preferences. 669

Action (A) 670

671 Actions in this context refer to the modifications
672 applied to the image based on the input prompt and
673 model’s interpretation:

- Adjustments or transformations applied to the
674 image I_t to generate a new image I_{t+1} . 675
- These actions are driven by the interpretation
676 of the user’s prompt, potentially influenced
677 by machine learning algorithms that predict
678 optimal changes. 679

Reward (R)

The reward function is crucial as it guides the training of the RL model by quantifying the success of actions taken based on the state:

- It could be defined using objective metrics such as the similarity between the generated image and user’s expected outcome, measured by tools like CLIP score.
- Feedback from users after viewing the modified image can also be used as part of the reward, where positive feedback increases the reward and negative feedback decreases it.
- The reward aims to maximize the alignment between the user’s intent and the image output, effectively training the model to interpret and act upon ambiguous prompts accurately.

This reinforcement learning setup enables our system to iteratively learn and adapt from each user interaction, improving its ability to decode ambiguous prompts and align image outputs with user expectations.

A.3 Optimization Details

To optimize image generation, the model dynamically selects among three strategies (adding phrases, word swapping, re-weighting) using the CLIP score as the reward function to update all parameters of the chosen strategy. This feedback-driven approach optimizes parameters within one strategy per iteration, yielding three well-adjusted parameter sets that adapt image generation to human preferences. The strategies correspond to three controllers: Attention-Replace, Attention-Refine, and Attention-Reweight. Our text-to-image model uses controllers to adjust cross-attention during generation, with each controller utilizing cross-attention information between images and prompts in each dialogue round. The controllers correspond to three strategies with trainable parameters, including the dynamic proportion of self-attention during the sampling process, the proportion of attention injection steps, and adaptive updates to cross-attention maps based on dialogue feedback. The optimization process for parameter updates can be mathematically represented as follows:

Reward function:

This is computational framework for the reward function $\mathcal{R}(\theta)$ in a reinforcement learning context, where the CLIP score assesses the similar-

ity between generated images and textual prompts. Specifically:

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) = \text{CLIPScore}(I_{\text{gen}}, P_{\text{prev}}) + \lambda \cdot \text{CLIPScore}(I_{\text{gen}}, P_{\text{new}}) \quad (4)$$

This formula ensures that the parameters are finely tuned, with λ serving as a balancing factor between aligning the generated image with the previous prompt and the new prompt, fostering both continuity and responsiveness to new requirements. Extensive experimentation has determined that setting $\lambda = 0.2$ is optimal, as it allows the CLIP score to converge more rapidly to its maximum value. When incrementally increasing λ from 0.1 to 1, the performance peaks at 0.2. However, increasing λ beyond 1 leads to a significant decline in performance, falling even below the levels observed at $\lambda = 0.1$. Further, to underscore the iterative update mechanism integral to the reinforcement learning cycle:

$$I_{\text{gen}}^{(k+1)} = \text{Update}(I_{\text{gen}}^{(k)}, \theta^{(k)})$$

Here, $I_{\text{gen}}^{(k)}$ signifies the image generated at iteration k , and $\theta^{(k)}$ indicates the parameters at that iteration. The update function modifies the image based on the current parameters, capturing the dynamic nature of the learning process across successive rounds.

Attention-Replace Strategies: update method directly adjusts the mapping matrix M using gradient ascent and then multiplies it with the cross-attention matrix $M_{\text{cross_attention}}$ called mapper to alter the attention distribution, impacting the generated image’s features and quality.

$$M_{\text{new}} = (M + \eta \cdot \Delta M) \cdot M_{\text{cross_attention}} \quad (5)$$

Attention-Refine Strategies: Update the attention weights by combining the original and new attention maps derived from the modified prompt. In the Attention-Refine class, the mapper aligns base attention weights with the new prompt structure while alphas blend original and modified weights, ensuring the final output accurately reflects user modifications and maintains consistency. The mapper tensor aligns tokens between prompts, enabling correct transfer of attention weights; updated as

$$\theta'_m = \theta_m + \eta \nabla_{\theta_m} \mathbb{E}[R]$$

to maximize the expected reward ($\mathbb{E}[R]$) using gradient ascent with learning rate η . The alphas

weights control the blending of original and modified attention weights, determining each token’s influence; updated as

$$\theta'_\alpha = \theta_\alpha + \eta \nabla_{\theta_\alpha} \mathbb{E}[R]$$

to maximize the expected reward ($\mathbb{E}[R]$) using gradient ascent with learning rate η . Sure, here is the updated explanation and mathematical representation:

The attention weights are updated by combining the original and new attention maps derived from the modified prompt. The original attention is processed using the mapper, which aligns the attention weights by permuting dimensions based on the mapped indices:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{attn_base_replace}_{ijk} &= \text{attn_base}_{ijk} \cdot \text{mapper}_{kj} \\ &\implies (\text{attn_base_replace})_{\text{permute}(2,0,1,3)} \end{aligned}$$

Here, mapper_{kj} indicates the mapping from index k in the original prompt to index j in the new prompt. The operation $(\text{attn_base_replace})_{\text{permute}(2,0,1,3)}$ permutes the dimensions of the resulting tensor to align with the expected structure for further processing. The updated attention weights are calculated as:

$$M_{\text{update}}^{(t)} = \beta_t \cdot M_{\text{orig}}^{(t)} + (1 - \beta_t) \cdot M_{\text{new}}^{(t)} \quad (6)$$

Attention-Reweight Strategies: modifies the distribution of attention by first blending the original and new attention maps, and then scaling the weights according to user preferences. The blending of attention maps is given by: $M_{\text{refine}}^{(t)} = \beta_t \cdot M_{\text{orig}}^{(t)} + (1 - \beta_t) \cdot M_{\text{new}}^{(t)}$, $\beta_t = \beta_{t-1} + \gamma \cdot \nabla_{\beta_t} \mathcal{R}(\theta)$ (7) with β_t adjusting the blending ratio dynamically based on feedback, and γ is the learning rate for β_t . After blending, the attention distribution is further modified by scaling the weights: $M_{\text{reweight}}^{(t)} = \sum_i \gamma_{t,i} \cdot M_{\text{refine}}^{(t)}$, $\gamma_{t,i} = \gamma_{t-1,i} + \kappa \cdot \nabla_{\gamma_{t,i}} \mathcal{R}(\theta)$ (8) where $\gamma_{t,i}$ are the weight multipliers that adapt the emphasis on specific features, and κ is the learning rate for $\gamma_{t,i}$. Below is the pseudocode:

In addition to these, we also update the proportions related to specific attention mechanisms:

$$\alpha_{t+1} = \alpha_t + \eta \nabla_{\alpha_t} \mathcal{R}(\theta) \quad (9)$$

$$\zeta_{t+1} = \zeta_t + \gamma \nabla_{\zeta_t} \mathcal{R}(\theta) \quad (10)$$

$$\delta_{t+1} = \delta_t + \kappa \nabla_{\delta_t} \mathcal{R}(\theta) \quad (11)$$

Here, α represents the proportion of self-attention features injected at different stages of the

sampling process, ζ represents the replacement proportion of the cross-attention map, and δ represents the overall number of sampling steps.

A.4 Q&A Software Annotation Interface

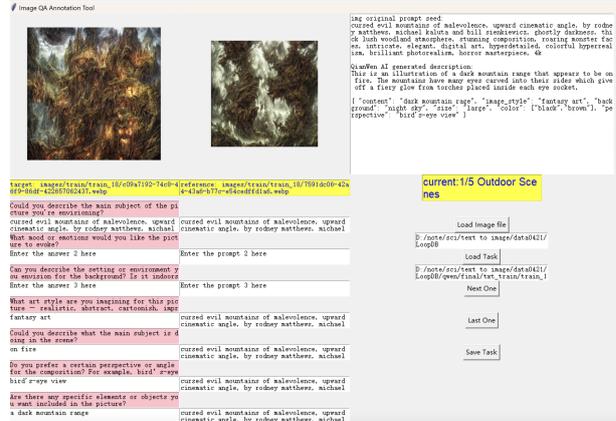


Figure 9: Screenshot of the Q&A software annotation interface.

A.5 Ablation of RL tuning

The RL tuning process and static parameter configuration are mathematically represented as:

$$\theta^{\text{RL}} = \theta_0 + \sum_{t=1}^T \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{R}(\theta_t), \quad \theta^{\text{Fixed}} = \theta_0 \quad (12)$$

Here, θ^{RL} are the parameters iteratively updated with RL, θ_0 is the initial parameter setting, η is the learning rate, and $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{R}(\theta_t)$ is the gradient of the reward function at iteration t . This setup without RL results in more dialogue rounds and less optimal outcomes.

A.6 Ablation of cross attention control

$$\theta_{\text{Weighted}}^{(t+1)} = \theta_{\text{Weighted}}^{(t)} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(I_t, \text{Feedback}_t, M) \quad (13)$$

$$\theta_{\text{Empty}}^{(t+1)} = \theta_{\text{Empty}}^{(t)} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(I_t, \text{Feedback}_t, M_{\text{new}}) \quad (14)$$

This setup employs only new attention without blending it with the base cross attention. Each strategy involves a distinct function to modify the cross attention map, directed by its corresponding controller. For standard cross attention, the controller is set to 'empty control' within the code.

A.7 LLM Prompt Refinement

The Multi-dialogue Refine process in ChatGPT-4 iteratively refines prompts until they meet predefined conditions and are ambiguity-free. Initially,

Algorithm 3 Multi-dialogue Prompt Refine Process for ChatGPT-4

```
0: Input: Initial prompt  $p_0$ 
0: Output: Refined prompt  $p_i$  that meets conditions and is ambiguity-free
0: Define  $C(p)$ : Checks if prompt  $p$  meets all predefined conditions.
0: Define  $A(p)$ : Checks if prompt  $p$  is free of ambiguities.
0:  $i \leftarrow 0$ 
0: while  $\neg C(p_i) \vee \neg A(p_i)$  do
0:   if  $\neg A(p_i)$  then
0:      $p_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{ResolveAmbiguities}(p_i)$ 
     {Clarify prompt, ensuring clarity.}
0:   else if  $\neg C(p_i)$  then
0:      $p_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{ModifyToMeetConditions}(p_i)$ 
     {Adjust prompt to meet conditions.}
0:   end if
0:    $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
0: end while
0: return  $p_i = 0$ 
```

850 the model assesses if the prompt p_0 meets specific
851 criteria and lacks ambiguities. If issues are identi-
852 fied, the process loops to rectify them. The model
853 evolves with each iteration, described mathemati-
854 cally as:

$$855 \quad y_{t+1} = M(p_{\text{refine}} \parallel x \parallel y_0 \parallel \text{fb}_0 \parallel \dots \parallel y_t \parallel \text{fb}_t),$$

856 where y_t is the output at iteration t , M represents
857 the model, p_{refine} is the refined prompt, x is the
858 input data, and fb_t is the feedback at iteration t .
859 The model refines prompts by engaging in multi-
860 turn dialogue, asking clarifying questions until
861 the prompts are comprehensive and unambiguous.
862 This self-reflection mechanism allows the model
863 to produce initial responses and evaluate them for
864 retrieval, relevance, support, and utility. Necess-
865 ary modifications are made based on feedback to
866 enhance accuracy and usefulness, represented as:

$$867 \quad y_{t+1} = M(x \parallel y_t \parallel \text{fb}_t).$$

868 A.8 Experiments Settings

869 The experiments are conducted using 4 NVIDIA
870 4090 GPUs, This setup allows us to utilize com-
871 plex algorithms such as diverse beam search with
872 a beam size of 8 and a diversity penalty of 1.0,
873 ensuring thorough exploration and diversity in the
874 generated responses. The model parameters are

875 initialized from a fine-tuned baseline, which pro-
876 vides a robust starting point for further optimiza-
877 tion. Over three days of training session, which
878 encompass 12,000 episodes, with four PPO epochs
879 per batch and a batch size of 256. The learning rate
880 is set at 5×10^{-5} , and the value and KL reward
881 coefficients are meticulously calibrated to 2.2 and
882 0.3, respectively, to balance the learning dynamics.
883 For additional details due to page constraints, see
884 Appendix A.1.

885 A.9 Evaluation Metrics

886 The experimental framework of this study is metic-
887 ulously designed to evaluate our text-to-image gen-
888 eration model across three key dimensions.

889 **LPIPS** (Zhang et al., 2018): is a deep learning met-
890 ric that evaluates how image modifications preserve
891 the original structure, with lower scores indicating
892 minimal visual differences and alignment with hu-
893 man perception. It measures the consistency and
894 perceptual coherence of images generated in suc-
895 cessive dialogue rounds.

896 **CLIP Score** (Radford et al., 2021): Based on the
897 CLIP model, the system evaluates image-text align-
898 ment, assigning scores from 0 (no similarity) to 1
899 (perfect alignment). In dialogues, the LLM subtly
900 adjusts prompts and selects one of three strategies
901 following user feedback. The text-to-image model,
902 using reinforcement learning and CLIPScore, it-
903 eratively refines images until reaching a satisfac-
904 tory score. For detailed information on how the
905 ChatGPT-4 modifies prompts based on human in-
906 put, refer to the Appendix A.7.

907 **Human Evaluation:** In a study with 100 diverse
908 users, we utilize a randomized control trial with
909 stratified sampling based on age, gender, and tech-
910 nical proficiency. Using a blind design, participants
911 are unaware of the models or components being
912 tested to prevent biases. Detailed feedback is col-
913 lected through electronic surveys post-interaction,
914 utilizing standardized forms with scaled and open-
915 ended questions. A cross-over design ensures that
916 each user experiences all model variations in a ran-
917 domized order, maximizing exposure. Statistical
918 power analysis confirms that 100 participants pro-
919 vide sufficient power to detect significant results.