# How Many Van Goghs Does It Take to Van Gogh? Finding the Imitation Threshold

# Anonymous Author(s) Affiliation Address email

#### **Abstract**

Text-to-image models are trained using large datasets collected by scraping imagetext pairs from the internet. These datasets often include private, copyrighted, and licensed material. Training models on such datasets enables them to generate images with such content, which might violate copyright laws and individuals privacy. This phenomenon is termed *imitation* – generation of images with recognizable similarity to training images. In this work we study the relationship between a concept's frequency in a dataset and the ability of a model to imitate it. We seek to determine the point at which a model was trained on enough instances to imitate a concept – the *imitation threshold*. We posit this question as a new problem: Finding the Imitation Threshold (FIT) and propose an efficient approach that estimates the imitation threshold without incurring the colossal cost of training multiple models from scratch. We experiment with two domains – human faces and art styles for which we create three datasets, and evaluate three text-to-image models which were trained on two pre-training datasets. Our results reveal that the *imitation threshold* of these models is in the range of 200-600 images, depending on the domain and the model. The *imitation threshold* can provide an empirical basis for copyright violation claims and acts as a guiding principle for providers of text-to-image models that aim to comply with copyright and privacy laws.

#### 1 Introduction

2

3

5

8

9

10

11

12

13

14 15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22 23

24

25

26

27

28

30

31

32

33

The progress of multi-modal vision-language models has been phenomenal in recent years [13, 30, 31, 33], much of which can be attributed to the availability of large-scale pretraining datasets like LAION [36]. These datasets consist of semi-curated image-text pairs scraped from Common Crawl, which leads to the inclusion of explicit, copyrighted, and licensed material [3, 8, 14, 16, 48]. Training models on such images may be problematic because text-to-image models can *imitate* — the ability to generate images with recognizable features — concepts from their training data [4, 41]. This behavior has both legal and ethical implications, such as copyright infringements as well as privacy violations of individuals whose images are present in the training data without consent. In fact, a large group of artists sued Stability AI, creators of widely-used text-to-image models, alleging that the company's models generated images that distinctly replicated their artistic styles [35].

Previous work has focused on detecting when generated images imitate training images, and mitigations thereof [4, 40–42]. In particular, researchers found that duplicate images increase the chance of memorization and imitation. However, the relation between a concept's prevalence and the models' ability to imitate it remains unexplored.

In this work, we ask **how many instances of a concept does a model need to be trained on to imitate it?** Establishing such an *imitation threshold* is useful for several reasons. First, it provides
an empirical basis for copyright infringements and privacy violations claims [35, 48]. Second, it
acts as a guiding principle for text-to-image models providers that want to avoid such violations.
Finally, it reveals an interesting connection between training data statistics and model behavior, and
the ability of models to efficiently harness training data [5, 45]. We name this problem FIT: Finding
the Imitation Threshold, and provide a schematic overview of this problem in Figure 1.

The optimal methodology to measure the imitation threshold requires training multiple models with varying number of images of a concept and measuring the ability of the counterfactual models to Submitted to Workshop on Attributing Model Behavior at Scale @ NeurIPS 2024. Do not distribute.

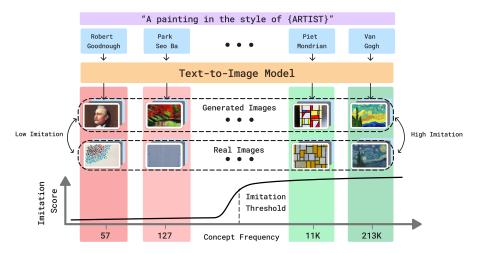


Figure 1: An overview of FIT, where we seek the *imitation threshold* – the point at which a model was exposed to enough instances of a concept that it can reliably imitate it. The figure shows four concepts (e.g., Van Gogh's art style) that have different frequencies in the training data (213K for Van Gogh). As the frequency of a concept's images increases, the ability of the text-to-image model to imitate it increases (e.g. Piet Mondrian and Van Gogh). We propose an efficient approach, MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>, that estimates the imitation threshold without training models from scratch.

imitate it. However, training even one of these models is prohibitively expensive. We propose an 43 alternative approach, Measuring Imitation ThrEshold Through Instance Count and Comparison 44 45 (MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>), that estimates the threshold without incurring the cost of training models from scratch. We start by collecting a large set of concepts per domain (e.g., Van Gogh for artistic styles), and use 47 a text-to-image to generate images for each concept. Then, we compute the imitation score of the generated images by comparing them to the training images of the respective concept, and estimate 48 each concept's frequency in the training data. Finally, by sorting the concepts based on frequency we 49 estimate the imitation threshold for that domain using a *change detection* algorithm [17]. 50

Since we operate with observational data, a naive implementation may be confounded by different factors, such as the quality of the imitation scoring model on different groups within the domain, or estimating the training frequencies of concepts (e.g., simple counts of 'Van Gogh' in the captions 53 results in a biased estimate since the artist may be mentioned in the caption without their work). As 54 such, we carefully tailor MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> to minimize the impact of such confounders. 55

Overall, we formalize a new problem – Finding Imitation Threshold (FIT; §2), and propose a method, MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>, that efficiently estimates the *imitation threshold* for text-to-image models (§4). We use our method to estimate the imitation threshold for two domains on three datasets, three text-to-image models that were trained on two pretraining datasets (§3). We find the imitation thresholds to range between 200 to 600 images, providing concrete insights on models' imitation abilities (§5).

### **Problem Formulation and Overview**

51

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

Finding the Imitation Threshold (FIT) seeks to find the minimal number of images with some concept a model has to see during training in order to imitate it. FIT's setup involves a training dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_n, y_n)\}$ , composed of n (image, caption) pairs. Each concept is part of a domain  $\mathcal{O}$ , such as art styles. We also assume an indicator  $I^j$  that indicates whether a concept  $Z^j$  is present in image  $x_i$ . Each concept  $Z^j$  appears  $c^j = |\sum_i I^j(x_i)|$  times in the dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ . Finally, we assume a model  $\mathcal{M}$  that is trained on  $\mathcal{D}$  as a text-to-image model to predict  $x_i$  from  $y_i$ . The *imitation* threshold is the minimal number of images  $c^j$  with some concept  $Z^j$  from which the model  $\mathcal{M}$  is able to generate images  $\mathcal{M}(p^j)$  given some prompt  $p^{j1}$  where  $Z^j$  is recognizable as the concept.

$$\min \{k \in \{0, 1, \dots\} : I^j(\mathcal{M}_k(p^j)) = 1\}$$

**Optimal Approach.** Finding the *imitation threshold* is a causal question – *if model*  $\mathcal{M}$  *was trained* 70 with k' images of concept  $Z^j$  instead of k, could it generate images with this concept? The optimal manner of answering this question is a brute force experiment [29]: For each concept  $Z^{j}$ , we create

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Prompts  $p^j$  are usually different from the captions in the training data,  $y_i$ .

a dataset  $\mathcal{D}_k'$  where we vary the number of images with such concept in the training data, where  $k \in \{0,1,\ldots,n\}$ , and train a model  $\mathcal{M}_k'$  on each dataset. Once we find a model,  $\mathcal{M}_k'$ , that is able to generate the concept, but  $\mathcal{M}_{k-1}'$  cannot, we deem k as the *imitation threshold* for that concept. However, due to the extreme costs of training text-to-image models, this optimal approach is impractical (this approach will require training  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  models).

**MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>.** We propose an approach that is tractable and estimates the causal effect under certain assumptions. The key idea is to use observational data instead of training a model for different number of images for each concept. Such an approach has been previously used to answer causal questions, inter alia, [21, 25, 29]. Concretely, we collect several different concepts  $(Z^j)$  belonging to some domain  $(\mathcal{O})$  while ensuring that these concepts have varying image frequencies in the training dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ . Then, we identify the frequency where model  $\mathcal{M}$  starts generating images with the concept at that frequency. We term this frequency as the *imitation threshold*.

To evaluate the imitation ability, we build a *concept-score* function f that returns an imitation 85 score  $f(X_t, \mathcal{M}_{P^j})$  that measures the imitation of a concept in the generated images using its 86 training data.  $X_t := x_1, ..., x_t$  is a set of training images associated with concept  $Z^j$ .  $\mathcal{M}_{P^j} :=$ 87  $\mathcal{M}(p^j)_1, \mathcal{M}(p^j)_2, \dots, \mathcal{M}(p^j)_q$  is a set of generated images created using different random seeds and a text prompt that mentions  $Z^j$ , For a domain  $\mathcal{O}$ , we collect a set of concepts  $Z^1, Z^2, ..., Z^m$ 89 (e.g., a list of artistic styles), estimate each concept's frequency in data  $\mathcal{D}$ , and measure the imitation 90 score for each concept. Sorting the concepts based on their frequencies in the dataset, and using a 91 standard change detection algorithm on the imitation scores, gives us the imitation threshold for that 92 domain. We provide the implementation details in Section 4 and state the assumptions in Appendix B.

## 3 Experimental Setup

78

79

80

81

83

94

95

96

97

98

112

117

**Text-to-image Models and Training Data.** We use Stable Diffusion (SD) as the text-to-image models [33]. Specifically we use SD1.1, SD1.5 that were trained on LAION2B-en, a 2.3 billion image-caption pairs dataset, filtered to contain only English captions. In addition, we use SD2.1 that was trained on LAION-5B, a 5.85 billion image-text pairs dataset, which includes LAION2B-en, and other image-caption pairs from other languages [36].

Domains and Concepts. We experiment with two domains – art styles and human faces that are of high importance for privacy and copyright aspects of text-to-image models. Figures 1 and 4a show examples of real and generated images of art styles and human faces.

We collect a two sets of artists for the art style - classical artists and modern artists, and two sets for human faces - celebrities and politicians. Then, for each set we sample 400 names that cover a wide frequency range over the pretraining data. We provide details of the sources used to collect the concepts, and sampling procedure in Appendix P. Table 2 summarizes the pretraining data, models, domains and constructed datasets we use in this work.

Image Generation. We generate images for each domain by prompting models with five prompts (Table 3). We design domain-specific prompts that encourage the concepts to occupy most of the image, which simplifies the imitation measurement. We generate 200 images per concept using different random seeds for each prompt, a total of 1,000 images per concept.

## 4 Proposed Methodology: MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>

We illustrate our proposed methodology in Figure 2. At a high level, for a specific domain, MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> estimates the frequency of each concept in the pretraining data (Section 4.1) and the model's ability to imitate it (Section 4.2). We then sort the concepts based on their estimated frequencies, and find the imitation threshold using a change detection algorithm (Section 4.3).

## 4.1 Concept Frequency Challenges

Determining a concept's frequency in a multimodal dataset can be achieved by employing a highquality classifier for that concept over every image and counting the number of detected images. However, given the scale of modern datasets with billions of images, this approach is expensive and time consuming. Instead, we make a simplifying assumption that a concept is present only if the image's caption mentions it. While this assumption does not hold in general, it is a reasonable simplification for the domains we focus on. We further discuss this assumption and provide supporting evidence for its accuracy in Appendix G. In addition, concepts often do not appear in the corresponding images, even when they are mentioned captions. For instance, Figure 4b showcases

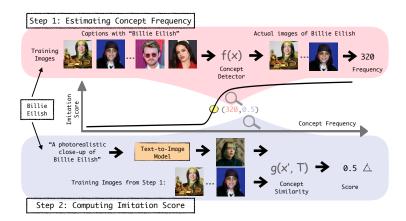


Figure 2: Overview of MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>'s methodology to estimate FIT. In Step 1, we estimate the frequency of each concept in the pretraining data by obtaining the images (x) that contain the concept of interest. In Step 2, we use the images of each concept and compare them to the generated images to measure imitation (using g that receives reference images T, and generated image x'). We repeat this process for each concept to generate the imitation graph, and then determine the *imitation threshold* with a detection change algorithm.

images whose captions contain "Mary Lee Pfeiffer", but her image does not always include her. On average, we find that concepts occur only in 60% of the images whose captions mention the concept.

Estimating Concept Frequency Due to the challenges described above, we start by retrieving all images whose captions mention the concept of interest and filter out the ones that do not have that concept, using a classifier. We retrieve these images using WIMBD [11], a search tool based on a reverse index that efficiently finds documents (captions) from LAION containing the search query (concept). In addition, for each concept, we construct a set of high quality reference images. For example, a set of images with only the face of a single person (e.g., Brad Pitt). We collect these images automatically using a search engine, followed by a manual verification to vet the images (see Appendix H for details). These images are used as gold reference for automatic detection of these concepts in the images from the pretraining datasets.

Next, to classify whether a candidate image from the pretraining data contains the concept of interest, we embed the candidate image and the concept's reference images using an image encoder and measure the similarity between the embeddings. We use a face embedding model [10] for faces and an art style embedding model [43] for art style. If the similarity between a candidate image and any of the reference images is above some threshold, we consider that image to contain that concept. This threshold is established by measuring the similarity between images of the same concepts and images of different concepts which maximizes the true positive, and minimizes false positive. We provide additional details on the exact thresholds per dataset and how to find them in Appendices I and J.

Finally, we employ the classifier on all candidate images corresponding to a concept, and take those that are classified as positive. For each concept, we randomly retrieve up to 100K images whose captions mention that concept. We use the ratio of positive predictions from the retrieved candidate images and multiply it by the total caption counts of the concept in the dataset and use that as the concept frequency estimate. For concepts with less than 100K candidate images, we simply use all the images that are positively classified. Note that several URLs in the LAION datasets are dead, a common phenomenon for URL based datasets ("link rot" [6, 19]).

#### 4.2 Computing Imitation Score

To measure imitation we embed the generated images and training images of a concept (obtained from Section 4.1) using the concept specific image embedder. For measuring face imitation, we use InsightFace, a face embedding model [9] that extracts the individual's face from an image and generates an embedding for it. For measuring art style imitation, we use CSD, an art style embedding model [43] that generates an embedding for an image of an art work. We obtain the embeddings of the generated and training images for both the domain, and measure imitation by computing the cosine similarity between them. To ensure that the automatic measure of similarity correlates with human perception, we also conduct experiments with human subjects and measure the correlation between the similarities obtained automatically and in the human subject experiments. We find a high correlation between the two measures of similarity (§E in Appendix).

Table 1: *Imitation Thresholds* for human face and art style imitation for the different text-to-image models and datasets we experiment with.

		Human Faces 🧑		Art Style 區	
<b>Pretraining Dataset</b>	Model	Celebrities	Politicians	Classical Artists	Modern Artists
LAION2B-en	SD1.1 SD1.5	364 364	234 234	112 112	198 198
LAION-5B	SD2.1	527	369	185	241

#### 4.3 Detecting the *Imitation Threshold*

163

165

166

168

169

170

173

187

188

189

190

192

193

194

200

201

202

203

After computing the concept frequencies and the imitation scores for each concept, we sort them in an ascending order of their image counts. This generates a sequence of points, each of which is a pair of image counts and imitation score of a concept. We apply a standard change detection algorithm, PELT [17], to find the image frequency where the imitation score significantly changes. Change detection is a classic statistical problem for which the objective is to find the points where the mean value of a stochastic time-series signal changes significantly. Several algorithms were proposed for change detection [47]. We choose PELT because of its linear time complexity in computing the change point. We choose the first change point as the imitation threshold (see Appendix L for details about all change points).

## 5 Results: The *Imitation Threshold*

We apply MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> to estimate the imitation threshold for each model-data pair, and present 174 the results in Table 1. The imitation thresholds for SD1.1 on celebrities and politicians are 364 175 and 234 respectively. And the imitation thresholds for classical and modern artists are 112 and 176 198 respectively. Interestingly, SD1.1 and SD1.5 have the same thresholds for all the four datasets. 177 Notably, both SD1.1 and SD1.5 are trained on LAION2B-en. The imitation thresholds for SD2.1, 178 179 which is trained on the larger LAION-5B dataset is higher than the thresholds for SD1.1 and SD1.5. 180 The imitation threshold for SD2.1 on celebrities and politicians are 527 and 369 respectively, and on classical and modern artists are 185 and 241 respectively. We hypothesize that the difference in 181 performance of SD2.1 and SD1.1 is due to the difference in their text encoders [28]. (The difference 182 in performance of SD2.1 and SD1.5 was also reported by several users on online forums.) To test this 183 hypothesis, we compute the imitation thresholds for politicians for all SD models in series 1: SD1.1, SD1.2, SD1.3, SD1.4, and SD1.5. We found that the imitation thresholds for all these models are almost the same. We present the graphs for all these models in Appendix K. 186

Note that celebrities have a higher imitation threshold than politicians. We hypothesize this happens due to inherent differences in the data distribution in these two datasets, which makes it harder to learn the concept of celebrities than politicians. To test this hypothesis, we compute the average number of images with a single person for people with less than 1,000 images in the pretraining dataset. We find that politicians have about twice the number of single person images compared to celebrities. As such, images that have only the concept of interest increase the ability of the model to learn from them, thus lowering the imitation threshold. We observe a similar pattern with artists: the imitation threshold for modern artists is higher than for classical artists.

We also present the plots of the imitation scores as a function of the image frequencies of the concepts in the three datasets. Figures 3a and 3b show the imitation graphs of celebrities and art styles, respectively for SD1.1. The x-axis describes the sorted concept frequency and the y-axis describes the imitation score (averaged over the five image generation prompts). We showcase the graphs for the other models and domain in Appendix M, which follow similar trends.

In Figure 3a, we observe that the imitation scores for individuals with low image frequencies are close to 0 (left side), and increase as the image frequencies move towards the right side. The highest similarity is 0.5 and it is for individuals in the rightmost region of the plot. We observe a low variance in the imitation scores across prompts. We also note that the variance does not depend on the image frequencies  $(0.0003 \pm 0.0005)$  – indicating that the performance of the face embedding model does not depend on the popularity of the individual.

Similarly, in Figure 3b, we observe that imitation scores for art styles with low image frequencies are close to 0.2 (left side), and increase as the image frequencies move towards the right side. The highest similarity is 0.76 and it is for the artists in the rightmost region of the plot. We also observe a low variance across the generation prompts, and the variance does not depend on the image frequency of the artist  $(0.003 \pm 0.003)$ .





(b) Art Style Imitation. The imitation threshold is detected at 112 images.

Figure 3: **Human Face** and **Art Style** imitation graphs of SD1.1 for the celebrity and classical artists datasets. The x-axis represents the sorted counts from the training set (and each concept), and the y-axis represents the similarity between the training and generated images. Concepts with zero image frequencies are shaded with light gray. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The red vertical line indicates the imitation threshold, and the horizontal green line represents the similarity threshold.

**Results Discussion.** Overall, we observe that the imitation thresholds are similar across the different image generation models and pretraining datasets, but are domain dependent. They show little variance across various image generation prompts. And most importantly, the thresholds computed by MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> have a high degree of agreement with human perception of imitation.

We also note the presence of several outliers in both plots, that can be categorized into two types: (1) concepts whose image counts are smaller than the imitation threshold, but their imitation scores are considerably high; and (2) concepts whose image counts are higher than the imitation threshold, but their imitation scores are low. As such, from a privacy perspective, the first kind of outliers are more crucial than the second ones This is because the imitation threshold should act as guarantors of privacy. It would be fine if a concept with a frequency higher than the threshold is not imitated by the model (false positive), but it would be a privacy violation if a model can imitate a concept with frequency lower than the threshold (false negative). Therefore, it is preferable to underestimate the imitation threshold to minimize false negatives. Upon further analysis, we find that the actual concept frequencies of all the false negative outliers is much higher than what MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> counts, primarily due to aliases of names, thereby alleviating the privacy violation concerns (see Appendix D).

We also note that the range of the imitation scores of different domains have different y-axis scales. This is due to the difference in embedding models used in both cases. The face embedding model can distinguish between two faces much better than the art style model can distinguish between two styles (see Appendices I and J), and therefore the scores for the concepts on the left side of the imitation threshold is around 0 for face imitation and 0.2 for style imitation. The face embedding model also gives lower score to the faces of the same person, compared to the style embedding model's score for images of the same art styles, and therefore the highest scores for face imitation is 0.5, whereas it is 0.76 for art style imitation. However, the absolute values on the y-axis do not matter for estimating the imitation threshold as long as the trend is similar, which is the case for both domains.

## 6 Conclusions

Text-to-image models can imitate their training images [4, 41, 42]. This behavior is potentially concerning because these models' training datasets often include copyrighted and licensed images. In this work, we seek to find the number of instances of a concept that a text-to-image model needs in order to imitate it – the *imitation threshold*. We posit this as a new problem, Finding the Imitation Threshold (FIT) and propose an efficient method for finding such threshold. We find the imitation threshold of these models to be in the range of 200-600 images depending on the setup. These thresholds can inform text-to-image model providers what concepts are in risk of being imitated, and on the other hand, serve as a basis for copyright and privacy complaints.

#### 4 References

- 245 [1] N. Badshah. Nearly 4,000 celebrities found to be victims of deepfake 246 pornography. https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2024/mar/21/ 247 celebrities-victims-of-deepfake-pornography, 2024. Accessed: 2024-04-27.
- 248 [2] J. Bilmes. Submodularity in machine learning and artificial intelligence, 2022. URL https: //arxiv.org/abs/2202.00132.
- 250 [3] A. Birhane, V. U. Prabhu, and E. Kahembwe. Multimodal datasets: misogyny, pornography, and malignant stereotypes, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2110.01963.
- [4] N. Carlini, J. Hayes, M. Nasr, M. Jagielski, V. Sehwag, F. Tramèr, B. Balle, D. Ippolito, and E. Wallace. Extracting training data from diffusion models. In *Proceedings of the 32nd USENIX Conference on Security Symposium*, SEC '23, USA, 2023. USENIX Association. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2301.13188.
- [5] N. Carlini, D. Ippolito, M. Jagielski, K. Lee, F. Tramer, and C. Zhang. Quantifying memorization across neural language models. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=TatRHT\_1cK.
- [6] N. Carlini, M. Jagielski, C. Choquette-Choo, D. Paleka, W. Pearce, H. Anderson, A. Terzis,
   K. Thomas, and F. Tramèr. Poisoning web-scale training datasets is practical. In 2024 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP), Los Alamitos, CA, USA, may 2024. IEEE Computer Society. URL https://doi.ieeecomputersociety.org/10.1109/SP54263.2024.00179.
- [7] S. Casper, Z. Guo, S. Mogulothu, Z. Marinov, C. Deshpande, R.-J. Yew, Z. Dai, and D. Hadfield-Menell. Measuring the success of diffusion models at imitating human artists, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2307.04028.
- [8] M. Cavna. Ai in illustration. https://www.washingtonpost.com/comics/2023/02/14/ai-in-illustration/, 2023. Accessed: 2024-02-27.
- [9] J. Deng, J. Guo, T. Liu, M. Gong, and S. Zafeiriou. Sub-center arcface: Boosting face recognition by large-scale noisy web faces. In *Computer Vision ECCV 2020*, pages 741–757, Cham, 2020. Springer International Publishing. URL https://www.ecva.net/papers/eccv\_2020/papers\_ECCV/papers/123560715.pdf.
- In J. Deng, J. Guo, J. Yang, N. Xue, I. Kotsia, and S. Zafeiriou. Arcface: Additive angular margin loss for deep face recognition. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 44(10):5962–5979, Oct. 2022. URL http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TPAMI.2021.3087709.
- Y. Elazar, A. Bhagia, I. H. Magnusson, A. Ravichander, D. Schwenk, A. Suhr, E. P. Walsh,
   D. Groeneveld, L. Soldaini, S. Singh, H. Hajishirzi, N. A. Smith, and J. Dodge. What's in my
   big data? In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL
   https://arxiv.org/abs/2310.20707.
- 279 [12] R. Gandikota, H. Orgad, Y. Belinkov, J. Materzyńska, and D. Bau. Unified concept editing in diffusion models. *IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision*, 2024. URL https://unified.baulab.info/.
- I. J. Goodfellow, J. Pouget-Abadie, M. Mirza, B. Xu, D. Warde-Farley, S. Ozair, A. C. Courville,
   and Y. Bengio. Generative adversarial networks. 2023 14th International Conference on
   Computing Communication and Networking Technologies (ICCCNT), pages 1–7, 2022. URL
   https://arxiv.org/abs/1406.2661.
- 286 [14] T. Hunter. Ai porn is easy to make now. for women, that's a night-287 mare. https://www.washingtonpost.com/technology/2023/02/13/ 288 ai-porn-deepfakes-women-consent/, 2023. Accessed: 2024-02-27.
- 289 [15] G. Ilharco, M. Wortsman, R. Wightman, C. Gordon, N. Carlini, R. Taori, A. Dave, V. Shankar, 290 H. Namkoong, J. Miller, H. Hajishirzi, A. Farhadi, and L. Schmidt. Openclip, July 2021. URL 291 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5143773.

- [16] H. H. Jiang, L. Brown, J. Cheng, M. Khan, A. Gupta, D. Workman, A. Hanna, J. Flowers, and
   T. Gebru. Ai art and its impact on artists. In *Proceedings of the 2023 AAAI/ACM Conference on AI, Ethics, and Society*, AIES '23, page 363–374, New York, NY, USA, 2023. Association for Computing Machinery. ISBN 9798400702310. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/3600211.
   3604681.
- 297 [17] R. Killick, P. Fearnhead, and I. A. Eckley. Optimal detection of changepoints with a linear computational cost. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, pages 1590–1598, 2012. URL http://www.jstor.org/stable/23427357.
- N. Kumari, B. Zhang, S.-Y. Wang, E. Shechtman, R. Zhang, and J.-Y. Zhu. Ablating concepts in text-to-image diffusion models. In *International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2303.13516.
- [19] V. Lakic, L. Rossetto, and A. Bernstein. Link-rot in web-sourced multimedia datasets. In
   International Conference on Multimedia Modeling, pages 476–488. Springer, 2023. URL
   https://www.zora.uzh.ch/id/eprint/232667/.
- T. Lanciano, A. Miyauchi, A. Fazzone, and F. Bonchi. A survey on the densest subgraph problem and its variants. *ACM Computing Surveys*, 56(8):1–40, 2024. doi: 10.1145/3653298. URL https://dl.acm.org/doi/full/10.1145/3653298.
- P. Lesci, C. Meister, T. Hofmann, A. Vlachos, and T. Pimentel. Causal estimation of memorisation profiles. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 15616–15635, Bangkok, Thailand, 2024. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL https://aclanthology.org/2024.acl-long.
   834.
- 314 [22] R. Likert. A technique for the measurement of attitudes., 1932. URL https://psycnet.apa. org/record/1933-01885-001.
- [23] T.-Y. Lin, M. Maire, S. Belongie, J. Hays, P. Perona, D. Ramanan, P. Dollár, and C. L. Zitnick.
   Microsoft coco: Common objects in context. In *Computer Vision–ECCV 2014: 13th European Conference, Zurich, Switzerland, September 6-12, 2014, Proceedings, Part V 13*, pages 740–755.
   Springer, 2014. URL https://cocodataset.org/.
- J. Lu, R. Teehan, and M. Ren. Procreate, don't reproduce! propulsive energy diffusion for creative generation, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.02226.
- 222 [25] Z. Lyu, Z. Jin, F. Gonzalez, R. Mihalcea, B. Schoelkopf, and M. Sachan. On the causal nature of sentiment analysis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.11055*, 2024.
- [26] K. Nagano, Y. Kawahara, and K. Aihara. Size-constrained submodular minimization through
   minimum norm base. In *Proceedings of the 28th International Conference on Machine Learning* (*ICML-11*), pages 977–984, 2011. URL https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.5555/3104482.
   3104605.
- NIST. Face recognition vendor test (frvt). https://www.nist.gov/programs-projects/ face-recognition-vendor-test-frvt, 2020. Accessed: 2024-02-27.
- R. O'Connor. Stable diffusion 1 vs 2 what you need to know. https://www.assemblyai. com/blog/stable-diffusion-1-vs-2-what-you-need-to-know/, 2022. Accessed: 2024-05-14.
- [29] J. Pearl. Causality. Cambridge university press, 2009.
- 334 [30] A. Radford, J. W. Kim, C. Hallacy, A. Ramesh, G. Goh, S. Agarwal, G. Sastry, A. Askell, P. Mishkin, J. Clark, G. Krueger, and I. Sutskever. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2103.00020.

- [31] A. Ramesh, M. Pavlov, G. Goh, S. Gray, C. Voss, A. Radford, M. Chen, and I. Sutskever.
   Zero-shot text-to-image generation. In M. Meila and T. Zhang, editors, Proceedings of the
   38th International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 139 of Proceedings of Machine
   Learning Research, pages 8821–8831. PMLR, 18–24 Jul 2021. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v139/ramesh21a.html.
- Y. Razeghi, R. L. Logan IV, M. Gardner, and S. Singh. Impact of pretraining term frequencies on few-shot numerical reasoning. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics:* EMNLP 2022, pages 840–854, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, Dec. 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL https://aclanthology.org/2022.findings-emnlp.
   59.
- 348 [33] R. Rombach, A. Blattmann, D. Lorenz, P. Esser, and B. Ommer. High-resolution image 349 synthesis with latent diffusion models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Com-*350 *puter Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 10684—10695, June 2022. URL https: 351 //openaccess.thecvf.com/content/CVPR2022/html/Rombach\_High-Resolution\_ 352 Image\_Synthesis\_With\_Latent\_Diffusion\_Models\_CVPR\_2022\_paper.html.
- B. Saleh and A. Elgammal. Large-scale classification of fine-art paintings: Learning the right metric on the right feature. *International Journal for Digital Art History*, 2, Oct. 2016. doi: 10.11588/dah.2016.2.23376. URL https://journals.ub.uni-heidelberg.de/index.php/dah/article/view/23376.
- 357 [35] J. Saveri and M. Butterick. Stable diffusion litigation. https:// 358 stablediffusionlitigation.com/case-updates.html, 2023. Accessed: 2024-02-27.
- [36] C. Schuhmann, R. Beaumont, R. Vencu, C. W. Gordon, R. Wightman, M. Cherti, T. Coombes,
  A. Katta, C. Mullis, M. Wortsman, P. Schramowski, S. R. Kundurthy, K. Crowson, L. Schmidt,
  R. Kaczmarczyk, and J. Jitsev. LAION-5b: An open large-scale dataset for training next generation image-text models, 2022. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=M3Y74vmsMcY.
- [37] S. I. Serengil and A. Ozpinar. Lightface: A hybrid deep face recognition framework. In
   2020 Innovations in Intelligent Systems and Applications Conference (ASYU), pages 23–27.
   IEEE, 2020. doi: 10.1109/ASYU50717.2020.9259802. URL https://doi.org/10.1109/ASYU50717.2020.9259802.
- 367 [38] SerpApi. https://serpapi.com/google-images-api, 2024. Accessed: 2024-02-27.
- 368 [39] S. Shan, E. Wenger, J. Zhang, H. Li, H. Zheng, and B. Y. Zhao. Fawkes: protecting privacy against unauthorized deep learning models. In *Proceedings of the 29th USENIX Conference on Security Symposium*, SEC'20, USA, 2020. USENIX Association. URL https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.5555/3489212.3489302.
- [40] S. Shan, J. Cryan, E. Wenger, H. Zheng, R. Hanocka, and B. Y. Zhao. Glaze: protecting artists from style mimicry by text-to-image models. In *Proceedings of the 32nd USENIX Conference on Security Symposium*, SEC '23, USA, 2023. USENIX Association. URL https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.5555/3620237.3620360.
- [41] G. Somepalli, V. Singla, M. Goldblum, J. Geiping, and T. Goldstein. Diffusion art or digital forgery? investigating data replication in diffusion models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 6048-6058, 2023. URL https://openaccess.thecvf.com/content/CVPR2023/supplemental/Somepalli\_Diffusion\_Art\_or\_CVPR\_2023\_supplemental.pdf.
- G. Somepalli, V. Singla, M. Goldblum, J. Geiping, and T. Goldstein. Understanding and mitigating copying in diffusion models. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=HtmXRGbUMt.
- [43] G. Somepalli, A. Gupta, K. Gupta, S. Palta, M. Goldblum, J. Geiping, A. Shrivastava, and
   T. Goldstein. Measuring style similarity in diffusion models, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2404.01292.

- D. Thiel. Identifying and eliminating CSAM in generative ML training data and models, 2023. URL https://purl.stanford.edu/kh752sm9123.
- [45] V. Udandarao, A. Prabhu, A. Ghosh, Y. Sharma, P. H. S. Torr, A. Bibi, S. Albanie, and M. Bethge.
   No "zero-shot" without exponential data: Pretraining concept frequency determines multimodal
   model performance, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2404.04125.
- [46] L. G. Valiant. A theory of the learnable. Commun. ACM, 27, 1984. doi: 10.1145/1968.1972.
   URL https://doi.org/10.1145/1968.1972.
- [47] G. J. J. van den Burg and C. K. I. Williams. An evaluation of change point detection algorithms, 2022. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2003.06222.
- Getty [48] J. Vincent. images sues ai art generator 396 https://www.theverge.com/2023/2/6/23587393/ fusion. 397 ai-art-copyright-lawsuit-getty-images-stable-diffusion, 2023. 398 Accessed: 2024-02-27. 399
- [49] Z. Wang, C. Chen, L. Lyu, D. N. Metaxas, and S. Ma. DIAGNOSIS: Detecting unauthorized
   data usages in text-to-image diffusion models. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=f8S3aLm0Vp.
- Wikipedia. Lists of politicians. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Category:Lists\_of\_politicians, 2024. Accessed: 2024-02-27.
- T. Xie, H. Li, A. Bai, and C.-J. Hsieh. Data attribution for diffusion models: Timestep-induced bias in influence estimation. *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*, 2024. ISSN 2835-8856. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=P3Lyun7CZs.
- 408 [52] J. H. Zar. Spearman rank correlation. *Encyclopedia of Biostatistics*, 7, 2005. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/0470011815.b2a15150.

## A Background

Dataset Issues and Privacy Violations The advancement in text-to-image capabilities, largely due to big training datasets, is accompanied by concerns about the training on explicit, copyrighted, and licensed material [3] and imitating such content when generating images [8, 14, 16, 48]. For example, Birhane et al. [3] and Thiel [44] found several explicit images in the LAION dataset and Getty Images found that LAION had millions of their copyrighted images [48]. Issues around imitation of training images has especially plagued artists, whose livelihood is threatened [35, 40], as well as individuals whose face has been used without consent to create inappropriate content [1, 14].

**Training Data Statistics and Model Behavior** Pre-training datasets are a core factor for explaining model behavior [11]. Razeghi et al. [32] found that the in-context few-shot performance of language models (LMs) is highly correlated with the frequency of instances in pre-training datasets. Udandarao et al. [45] bolster this finding by demonstrating that the performance of multimodal models on downstream tasks is strongly correlated with a concept's frequency in the pretraining datasets. In addition, Carlini et al. [5] shows that language models more easily memorize duplicated sequences. We find a similar phenomenon: increasing the number of images of an instance increases the similarity between the generated and training images on average. Crucially, instead of measuring *memorization*, we measure *imitation*, and we use such metric to find the *imitation threshold*.



Figure 4(a): Examples of real celebrity images (top) and generated images (bottom) with increasing image counts from left to right (3, 273, 3K, 10K, and 90K, respectively).



Figure 4(b): LAION2B-en images whose caption mentions 'Mary Lee Pfeiffer', the mother of Tom Cruise. She is not always present in the images (the rightmost image has only Tom Cruise).

## **B** Assumptions.

Our approach to compute the imitation threshold makes an assumption about distribution invariance in order to make the problem computationally tractable. This assumption is a standard practice when answering causal questions using observational data [29]. This assumption posits an invariance in the image distribution of each concept. Under this assumption, measuring the imitation score of a concept  $Z^i$  with a counterfactual model trained with k' images of  $Z^i$  is equivalent to measuring the imitation of another concept  $Z^j$  that currently has k' images in the already trained model. This helps us answer the causal question FIT seeks without training multiple models. And similar to other sample complexity works [45, 46], we also assume each image of a concept contributes equally to its learning.

Table 2: Pretraining data, models, domains, and datasets we experiment with.

Pretraining Data	Model	Domain	Dataset	
LAION2B-en	SD1.1	Human Faces 🧑 Art Style 🧑	Celebrities, Politicians Classical, Modern artists	
	SD1.5	Human Faces 🧑 Art Style 逼	Celebrities, Politicians Classical, Modern artists	
LAION-5B SD2.1		Human Faces 🧑 Art Style 📴	Celebrities, Politicians Classical, Modern artists	

Table 3: Prompts used to generate images of human faces (celebrities and politicians) and art styles. We generate 200 images per concept using different random seeds (1,000 images per concept). 'X' is replaced with the concept.

#	Human faces 🧑	Art style 📮
1.	A photorealistic close-up photograph of X	A painting in the style of X
2.	High-resolution close-up image of X	An artwork in the style of X
3.	Close-up headshot of X	A sketch in the style of X
4.	X's facial close-up	A fine art piece in the style of X
5.	X's face portrait	An illustration in the style of X

## C Additional Related Work

**Imitation in Text-to-Image Models:** Carlini et al. [4], Somepalli et al. [41] demonstrated that diffusion models can memorize and imitate duplicate images from their training data (they use 'replication' to refer to this phenomenon). Casper et al. [7] corroborated the evidence by showing that these models imitated art styles of 70 artists with high accuracy (as classified by a CLIP model) when prompted to generated images in their styles (a group of artists also sued Stability AI claiming that their widely-used text-to-image models imitated their art style, violating copyright laws [35]). However, these works did not study how much repetition of a concept's images would lead the model



(a) **Outlier Category 1.** *Thandiwe Newton* is aliased as *Thandie Newton*, which leads to lower counts of her images in the dataset since MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> only collects images whose caption mentions *Thandiwe Newton*.



(b) **Outlier Category 2.** Most of the images whose captions mention *Cacee Cobb* have multiple people in them, only 6 images have her as the only person, leading to a low imitation score in generated images.

Figure 5: Examples of the two categories of outliers. The top and bottom rows show the real and SD1.1 generated images respectively. The images were generated using the following prompt: "a photorealistic close-up image of [name]."

to imitate them. Studying this relation is important as it serves to guide institutions training these models who want to comply with copyright and privacy laws.

**Mitigation of Imitation in Text-to-Image Models:** Several works proposed to mitigate the negative impacts of text-to-image models. Shan et al. [40] proposed GLAZE that adds imperceptible noise to the art works such that diffusion models are unable to imitate artist styles. A similar approach was proposed to hinder learning human faces [39]. Wang et al. [49] proposed adding noise to training images, which can be used to detect if a model has been trained on those images. Lu et al. [24] propose pushing the generated images away from the distribution of training images to minimize mitigation. Gandikota et al. [12], Kumari et al. [18] proposed algorithms to remove specific styles, explicit content, and other copyrighted material learned by text-to-image models. On a related note, Xie et al. [51] proposed Diffusion-ReTrac that finds training images that most influenced a generated image, and thereby provide a fair attribution to training data contributors. 

## D Analysis: Investigating Outliers

The imitation score plots in the previous section, while showcasing a clear trend, have several outliers.

In this section, we analyze the imitation scores for such outliers, where we present two examples in Figure 5 (additional outliers can be found in Figures 28 and 29 in the appendix).

**Low Image Counts and High Imitation Scores.** Figure 5a shows an example of such a case: *Thandiwe Newton*'s image count is 172 in LAION2B-en, lower than the *imitation threshold* for celebrities: 364. However, her imitation score of 0.26 is much higher than those of neighboring celebrities with similar image counts (with scores of 0.01 and 0.04). Further investigation reveals that Thandiwe Newton is also known as *Thandie Newton*. Since this alias may also be used to describe her in captions, MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> may have underestimated her image counts. We repeat the process for estimating the image counts with the new alias, and find that *Thandie Newton* appears in 12,177 images, bringing the cumulative image count to 12,349, which significantly surpasses the established imitation threshold. The two aliases, whose total image count is considerably higher than the imitation threshold, differ by only a single letter and are similarly represented by the model's encoder (cosine similarity of 0.96), which explains the high imitation score. We find that most of the celebrities from the first kind of outliers are also known by other names which lead to underestimating their image counts. For example, *Belle Delphine* (394 images) also goes by *Mary Belle* (310 images, for a total of 704, and *DJ Kool Herc* (492 images) also goes by *Kool Herc* (269 images, for a total of 761). The aliases explanation also largely explains the outliers in art style imitation. For instance, artist

The aliases explanation also largely explains the outliers in art style imitation. For instance, artist Gustav Adolf Mossa (19 images) also goes by just Mossa (15850 images), artist Nicolas Toussaint Charlet (78 images) also goes by just Nicolas Toussaint (533 images), and artist Wilhelm Von Kaulbach (81 images) also goes by Von Kaulbach (978 images). See Figures 30 and 31 in the appendix for the real and generated images of these artists.

High Image Counts and Low Imitation Scores Several celebrities have higher image counts than the imitation threshold, but low imitation scores. Unlike the previous case, we were unable to find a common cause that explains all these outliers. However, we find explanations for specific cases. For example, a staggering proportion of the training images for several celebrities have multiple people in them. For example, out of the 706 total images of *Cacee Cobb*, only 6 images have her as the only person in the image (see Figure 5b). Similarly, out of 1,296 total images of *Sofia Hellqvist*, only 67 images have her as the only person and out of the 472 total images of *Charli D' Amelio*, only

82 images have him as the only person. We hypothesize that having multiple concepts in an image 487 impedes the proper mapping of the concept's text embedding to its image embedding, which can 488 explain the low imitation score for these concepts. We leave it to future work to further study the 489 connection between the number of concepts in an image and models' ability to imitate these concepts. 490

#### $\mathbf{E}$ **Human Perception Evaluation.**

491

492

493

494

495

496

497 498

499

500

501

502

503

505

506

507

508

509

510

511 512

513 514

516

517

519

520

To determine if the automatic measure of similarity between the generated and training images correlate with human perception, we conduct experiments with human subjects. We asked the participants to rate generated images on the Likert scale [22] of 1-5 based on their similarity to real images of celebrities, the same ones used for measuring the imitation score. The participants were not informed of the research objective of this work.

For human face imitation, we conduct this study with 30 participants who were asked to rate 10 (randomly selected) generated images for a set of 40 celebrities. To determine the accuracy of the imitation threshold estimated by MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>, we select the celebrities such that half of them have image frequencies below the threshold and the other half above it. We measure the Spearman correlation [52] between the imitation scores computed by the model and the ratings provided by the participants. Due to the variance in perception, we normalize the ratings from the participants before computing the average rating for generated images of a celebrity. The Spearman correlation between human perception and the imitation scores is **0.85**, signifying a high quality imitation estimator. We also measure the agreement between the imitation threshold that MIMETIC2 estimates and the threshold that humans perceive. For this purpose, we convert the human ratings to binary values and treat it as the ground truth (any rating of 3 or more is treated as 1 and less than 3 is treated as 0). As for the MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> predictions, we construct another set of the same size that has a zero for a celebrity whose concept frequency is lower than the imitation threshold, and 1 otherwise. To measure the agreement, we compute the element-wise dot product between these two sets. We find the agreement to be 82.5%, signifying a high degree of agreement for MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>'s automatically computed threshold.

For art style imitation, we conduct this study with an art expert due to the complexity of detecting art styles. The participant was asked to rate five generated images for 20 art styles, half of which were below the imitation threshold and the other half, above the threshold. We find the Spearman 515 correlation between the two quantities to be **0.91** – demonstrating that our imitation scores are highly correlated with an artist's perception of style similarity. Similar to the previous case, we measure the agreement of the imitation threshold, which we find to be 95% – signifying a high degree of 518 agreement for MIMETIC2's computed threshold.

## **Discussion and Limitations**

Equal Effect Assumption. An assumption in the formulation of MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> is that every image 521 of a concept contributes equally to the learning of the concept. However, not all images are created 522 equal. While analyzing celebrities' images for instance, we often find that individuals whose images 523 are mostly close-ups of a single person have a higher imitation score than individuals whose images are cluttered by multiple people, since concept-centered images enhance their learnability.

We hope to investigate this assumption in future work, and address this, and other potential con-526 founders. 527

Factors Affecting the Imitation Threshold. In this work we attribute the imitation of a concept to 528 its image count. However, image count – although a crucial factor – is not the only factor that affects 529 imitation. Several other factors like image resolution, alignment between images and their captions, the variance between images of a concept, etc., may affect imitation. 531

Several training time factors like the optimization objective, learning schedule, training data order, 532 model capacity, model architecture also affect the imitation threshold. We discuss the difference 533 in the imitation thresholds of SD1.1, SD1.5 and SD2.1 is attributed to the difference in their text 534 535 encoders. SD1.1 and SD1.5 use CLIP model [30] as their text encoder and SD2.1 uses OpenCLIP [15] as its text encoder. Note that while these may impact the behavior of the model, our work is 536 interested in a particular model-data pair, for which we investigate. We do not claim that our results 537 would generalize to other models, or datasets, and leave the question on how to FIT that generalize across models to future work.

### **G** Caption Occurrence Assumption

For estimating the concept's counts in the pretraining dataset we make a simplifying assumption: a concept can be present in the image only if it is mentioned in a paired caption. While this assumption isn't true in general, we show that for the domains we experiment with, it mostly holds in practice.

Table 4: Face count of the ten most popular celebrities in 100K random LAION images. The small percentage of the images we miss shows that our assumption of counting the images where a concept is mentioned in the caption is empirically reasonable.

Celebrity	Face Count in 100K images	Face Count in Images with Caption Mention	Percentage of Missed Images	Number of Missed Images
Floyd Mayweather	1	0	0.001%	23K
Oprah Winfrey	2	0	0.002%	46K
Ronald Reagan	6	3	0.003%	69K
Ben Affleck	0	0	0.0%	0
Anne Hathaway	0	0	0.0%	0
Stephen King	0	0	0.0%	0
Johnny Depp	9	1	0.008%	184K
Abraham Lincoln	52	1	0.051%	1.17M
Kate Middleton	34	1	0.033%	759K
Donald Trump	16	0	0.016%	368K

For this purpose, we download 100K random images from LAION2B-en, and run the face detection (used in Section 4) on all images, and count the faces of the ten most popular celebrities in our sampled set of celebrities. Out of the 100K random images, about 57K contain faces. For each celebrity, we compute the similarity between all the faces in the downloaded images and the faces in the reference images of these celebrities. If the similarity is above the threshold of 0.46, we consider that face to belong to the celebrity (this threshold is determined in Appendix I to distinguish if two images are of the same person or not). Table 4 shows the number of faces we found for each celebrity in the 100K random LAION images. We also show the face counts among these images whose captions mention the celebrity. We find that 1) the highest frequency an individual appears in an image without their name mentioned in the caption is 51 (*Abraham Lincoln* is mentioned once in the caption and he appears a total of 52 times), and 2) the highest percentage of image frequency that we miss is 0.051%, and 3) most of the other miss rates are much smaller (close to 0). Such low miss rates demonstrate that our assumption of counting images when a concept is mentioned in the caption is empirically reasonable.

We also note that this assumption would fail if we were computing image frequencies for concepts that are so widely common that one would not even mention them in a caption, for example, phone, shoes, or trees.

## **H** Collection of Reference Images

#### H.1 Collection of Reference Images for Human Faces Domain

The goal of collecting reference images is to use them to filter the images of the pretraining dataset. These images are treated as the gold standard reference images of a person and images collected from pretraining dataset are compared to these images. If the similarity is higher than a threshold then that image is considered to belong to that person (see Section 4 for details). We describe an automatic manner of collecting the reference images. The high level idea is to collect the images from Google Search and automatically select a subset of those images that are of the same concept (same person's face or same artist's art). Since this is a crucial part of the overall algorithm, we manually vet the reference images for all the concepts to ensure that they all contain the same concept.

Collection of Reference Images for Human Face Imitation: We collect reference images for celebrities and politicians using a three step process (also shown in Algorithm 1):

- 1. **Candidate set:** First, we retrieved the first hundred images by searching a person's name on Google Images. We used SerpAPI [38] as a wrapper perform the searches.
- 2. **Selecting from the candidate set:** Images retrieved from the internet are noisy and might not contain the person we are looking for. Therefore we filter images that contain the person from

the candidate set of images. For this purpose, we use a face recognition model. We embed all the 577 faces in the retrieved images using a face embedding model and measure the cosine similarity 578 between each one of them. The goal is to search for a set of faces that belong to the same person 579 and therefore will have a high cosine similarity to each other. 580

One strategy is for the faces to form a graph where the vertices are the face embeddings and the edges connecting two embeddings have a weight equal to the cosine similarity between them, and we select a dense k-subgraph [20] from this graph. Selecting such a subgraph means finding a mutually homogeneous subset. We can find the vertices of this dense k-subgraph by cardinalityconstrained submodular function minimization [2, 26] on a facility location function [2]. We run this minimization and select a subset of images (at least of size ten) that has the highest average cosine similarity between each pair of images.

3. **Manual verification:** Selecting the faces with the highest average similarity is not enough. This is because in many cases the largest set of faces in the candidate set are not of the person we look for, but for someone closely associated with them, in which case, the selected images are of the other person. For example, all the selected faces for Miguel Bezos were actually of Jeff Bezos. Therefore, we manually verify all the selected faces for each person. In the situation where the selected faces are wrong, we manually collect the images for them, for example, for Miguel Bezos. We collect at least 5 reference images for all celebrities.

#### Algorithm 1: Collection of Reference Images for Human Face Imitation

**Input:** Person's name P

581

582

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

616

617

618

619

Output: Verified Set of Images of P

1  $images \leftarrow SerpAPI(P)$ ;

**2**  $candidateSet \leftarrow Submodular Minimization(images); <math>\triangleright$  Select candidate set using submodular minimization

 $verifiedSet \leftarrow manualVerification(candidateSet);$ 

▶ Manually verify the candidate set

Collection of Reference Images for Art Styles We collect reference images for each artist (each artist is assumed to have a distinct art style) from Wikiart, the online encyclopedia for art works. Since the art works of each artist were meticulously collected and vetted by the artist community, we consider all the images collected from Wikiart as the reference art images for that artist.

## **Implementation Details of MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> for Human Face Imitation**

#### Filtering of Training Images

Images whose captions mention the concept of interest often do not contain it (as shown with Mary-Lee Pfeiffer in Figure 4b). As such, we filter images where the concept does not appear in the image, which we detect using a dedicated classifier. In what follows we describe the filtering mechanism.

#### **Collecting Reference Images:**

We collect reference images for each person using SerpAPI as described in Appendix H. These 605 images are the gold standard images that we manually vet to ensure that they contain the target person 606 of interest (see Appendix H for the details). We use the reference images to filter out the images in the pretraining dataset that are not of this person. Concretely, for each person we use a face embedding model [9] to measure the similarity between the faces in the reference images and the faces in the 609 610 images from the pretraining datasets whose captions mention this person. If the similarity of a face in the pretraining images to any of the faces in the reference images is above a certain threshold, that 611 face is considered to belong to the person of interest. We determine this threshold to distinguish faces 612 of the same person from faces of different persons in the next paragraph. Note that this procedure 613 already filter outs any image that does not contain a face, because the face embedding model would 614 only embed an image if it detects a face in that image. 615

**Determining Filtering Threshold:** The next step is to determine the threshold for which we consider two faces to belong to the same person. For this purpose, we measure the similarity between pairs of faces of the same person and the similarity between pairs of faces of different persons Since the reference images for each person is manually vetted to be correct, we use these images for this procedure. We plot the histogram of the average similarity between the faces of the same person (blue colored) and the similarity between faces of different persons (red colored) in Figure 6. We see

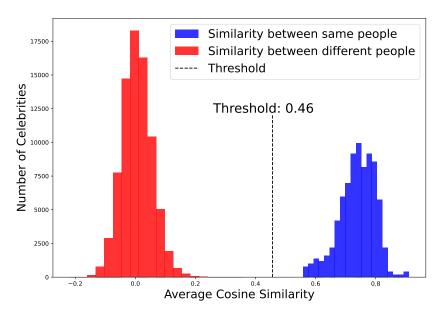


Figure 6: Average cosine similarity between the faces of the same people (blue colored) and of the faces of different people (red colored), measured across the reference images of the celebrities.





(b) Generated images of *Samuel L. Jackson* that show the model has captured a specific characteristic of his face (middle-aged, bald, with no or little beard).

Figure 7: Real and generated images of Samuel L. Jackson.

that the two histograms are well separated, with the lowest similarity value between the faces of the same person being 0.56 and the highest similarity value between the faces of different persons being 0.36. Therefore any threshold value between 0.36 and 0.56 can separate two face of the same person, from the faces of different people. In our experiments, we use the midpoint threshold of 0.46 (true positive rate (tpr) of 100%; false positive rate (fpr) of 0%) to filter any face in the pretraining images that do not belong to the person of interest. The filtering process gives us both the image frequency a person in the pretraining data, and the pretraining images that we compare the faces in the generated images to measure the imitation score.

#### I.2 Measurement of Imitation Score

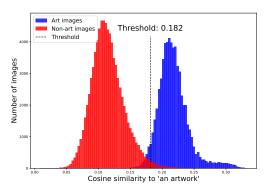
To measure the imitation between the training and generated images of a person, we compute the cosine similarity between the face embeddings of the faces in their generated images and their filtered training images from the previous step. However, measuring the similarity using all the pretraining images can underestimate the actual imitation. This is because several individuals have significant variations in their faces in the pretraining images and the text-to-image model does not capture all these variations. For example, consider the pretraining images of *Samuel L. Jackson* in Figure 7a. These images have significant variations in beard, hair, and age. However, when the text-to-image model is prompted to generate images of *Samuel L. Jackson*, the generated images in Figure 7b only show a specific facial characteristic of him (middle-aged, bald, with no or little beard). Since

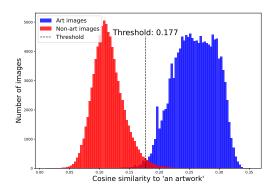
MIMETIC<sup>2</sup>'s goal is not to measure if a text-to-image model captures all the variations of a person, we want to reward the model even if it has only captured a particular characteristic (which it has in this case of *Samuel L. Jackson*). Therefore, instead of comparing the similarity of generated images to all the training images, we compare the similarity to only the ten training images that have the highest cosine similarity to the generated images on average.

## J Implementation Details of MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> for Art Style Imitation

#### J.1 Filtering of Training Images

For art style imitation, we consider each artist to have a unique style. We collect the images from the pretraining dataset whose captions mention the name of the artist whose art style imitation we want to measure. Similar to the case of human face imitation, we want to filter out the pretraining images of an artist that in reality was not created by that artist, but their captions mention them. We implement the filtering process in two stages. In the first stage, we filter out non-art images in the pretraining dataset (note that the captions of these images still mention the artist, but the images themselves are not art works) and in the second stage we filter out art works of other artists (the captions of these images mention the artist of interest and the image itself is also an art work, but by a different artist). The implementation details for each stage is as follows:





(a) Histogram of the cosine similarity of embeddings of art and non-art images to embeddings of 'an artwork' for classical artists.

(b) Histogram of the cosine similarity of embeddings of art and non-art images to embeddings of 'an artwork' for modern artists.

Figure 8: The first filtering step involves determining the threshold to distinguish between art and non-art images from the pretraining images, for which we compare the similarity of the image's embedding to the embedding of the text "an artwork".

**Filtering Non-Art Images:** To filter non-art images from the pretraining dataset, we use a classifier that separates art images from non-art images. Concretely, we embed the pretraining images using a CLIP ViT-H/14 [15] image encoder and measure the cosine similarity of the image embeddings and the text embeddings of the string 'an artwork', embedded using the text encoder of the same model. Only when the similarity between the embeddings is higher than a threshold described below, we consider those pretraining images as an artwork. To determine this threshold, we choose a similarity score that separates art images from non-art images. We use the images from the Wikiarts dataset [34] as the (positive) art images and MS COCO dataset images [23] as the (negative) non-art images. Note that MS COCO dataset was collected by photographing everyday objects that art was not part of, making it a valid set of negative examples of art.

We plot the histogram of cosine similarity of the embeddings of art and non-art images to the text embedding of 'an artwork' (see Figures 8a and 8b. We observe that the art and non-art images both the artist groups are well separated (although not perfect, Figure 9 and Figure 10 shows examples of misclassified and correctly classfied images from both datasets). We choose the threshold that maximizes the F1 score of the separation (0.182 for the classical artists and 0.177 for the modern artists).

**Filtering Images of Other Art Styles:** Similar to the case of human faces, not all art images whose captions mention an artist were created by that artist. We want to filter out such images. For this purpose, we collect reference images for each artist (see Appendix H for details) and use them to classify the training images that belong to the artist of interest. Concretely, we measure the similarity











(a) Images from the MS COCO dataset that were classified as art by the threshold we choose. These images clearly have paintings in them and therefore are classified in that category. These images were selected in MS COCO for different categories like scissors, chair, parking meter, and vase.











(b) Images from the Wikiarts dataset that were classified as non-art by the threshold we choose.

Figure 9: Images that are misclassified by our art vs. non-art threshold in Figure 8a.











(a) Images from the MS COCO dataset that were correctly classified as non-art.











(b) Images from the Wikiarts dataset that were correctly classified as art.

Figure 10: Images that are correctly classified by our art vs. non-art threshold in Figure 8a.

between the pretraining images and the reference images of each artist, and only retain images whose similarity to the reference images is higher than a threshold.

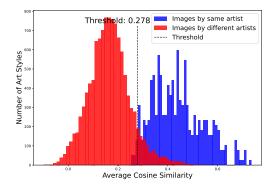
To determine this threshold, we measure the similarity between pairs of art images of the same artists and pairs of art images from different artists. We embed the images using an art style embedding model [43] and plot the histogram of similarities between art images of the same artist (blue colored) and art images of different artists (red colored) in Figure 11a for classical artists and Figure 11b for modern artists. We see that the two histograms are well separated (although not perfect, Figure 12 shows paintings by two artists whose art style is very similar and cannot be distinguished by our threshold). We choose the threshold that maximizes the F1 score of the separation between these two groups (0.278 for classical artists and 0.288 for modern artists). The retained images give us both the image counts of each artist and the training images that we compare to the generated images to measure the imitation score.

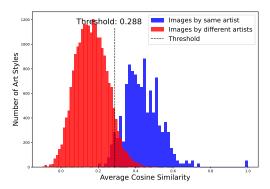
## J.2 Similarity Measurement

We embed all the generated images and the filtered pretraining images using the art style embedding model [43] and measure the cosine similarity between each pair of generated and pretraining images. Similar to the case of the human faces, we do not want to underestimate the art style similarity between the generated and training images by comparing the generated images to all the training images of this artist. Therefore, we measure the similarity of generated images to the ten training images that are on average the most similar to the generated images.

#### K Imitation Thresholds of SD models in Series 1 and 2

Our experimental results in Section 5 found that for most domains the imitation thresholds for SD1.1 and SD1.5 are almost the same, while being higher for SD2.1. We hypothesized that the difference is due to their different text encoders. All models in SD1 series use the same text encoder from CLIP, whereas SD2.1 uses the text encoder from OpenCLIP. To test the validity of this hypothesis, we repeated the experiments for all models in SD1 series for politicians and computed their imitation thresholds. Table 5 shows the thresholds for the politicians. We find that the imitation thresholds for





- (a) Histogram of the average cosine similarity between embeddings of the images of the same artist (blue) and the art of different artists (red) for classical artists
- (b) Histogram of the average cosine similarity between embeddings of the images of the same artist (blue) and the art of different artists (red) for modern artists

Figure 11: The second filtering step involves determining the if an art work whose caption mentions an artist actually belongs to that artist or not.



Figure 12: Paintings made by Kitagawa Utamaro and Tsukioka Yoshitoshi are very similar and our threshold is unable to distinguish between their styles.

all the models in SD1 series is almost the same, and is lower than the threshold for SD2.1 model. This evidence supports our hypothesis of the difference in the text-encoders being the main reason for the difference in the imitation thresholds.

#### **Change Points** L

702

703

704

705

Table 6 we show all the change points that PELT found for each experiment (Table 1 reports the first 706 change point as the imitation threshold). 707

Table 5: Imitation Thresholds for politicians for all models in SD1 series and SD2.1

<b>Pretraining Dataset</b>	Model	Human Faces 🧑: Politicians
	SD1.1	234
	SD1.2	252
LAION2B-en	SD1.3	234
	SD1.4	234
	SD1.5	234
LAION-5B	SD2.1	369

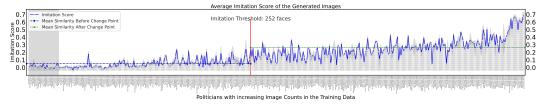


Figure 13: **Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** Similarity between the training and generated images for all politicians. The politicians with zero image counts are shaded with light gray. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.2**. The change point for human face imitation for politicians when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **252 faces**.

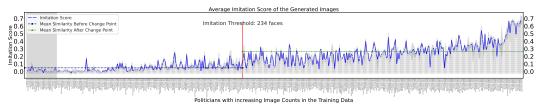


Figure 14: **Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** Similarity between the training and generated images for all politicians. The politicians with zero image counts are shaded with light gray. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.3**. The change point for human face imitation for politicians when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **234 faces**.

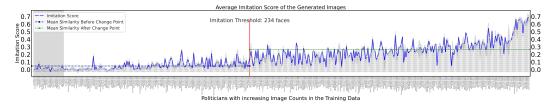


Figure 15: **Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** Similarity between the training and generated images for all politicians. The politicians with zero image counts are shaded with light gray. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.4**. The change point for human face imitation for politicians when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **234 faces**.

## M All Results: The *Imitation Threshold*

708

709

710

711

712

In this section, we estimate the imitation threshold for human face and art style imitation for three different text-to-image models. Figure 16, Figure 17, and Figure 18 show the image counts of celebrities on the x-axis (sorted in increasing order of image counts) and the imitation score of their generated images (averaged over the five image generation prompts) on the y-axis. The images were generated using SD1.1, SD1.5, and SD2.1 respectively. Similarity, Figure 19, Figure 20, and

Table 6: *Imitation Thresholds* for human face and art style imitation for the different text-to-image models and datasets we experiment with.

		Human Faces 🧑		Art Style 📴	
<b>Pretraining Dataset</b>	Model	Celebrities	Politicians	Classical Artists	Modern Artists
LAION2B-en	SD1.1 SD1.5	364 364, 8571	234 234, 4688	112, 391 112, 360	198 198, 4821
LAION-5B	SD2.1	527, 9650	369, 8666	185, 848	241, 1132

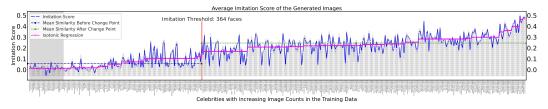


Figure 16: **Human Face Imitation (Celebrities):** Similarity between the training and generated images for all celebrities. The celebrities with zero image counts are shaded with light gray. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.1**. The change point for human face imitation for celebrities when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **364 faces**.

Figure 21 shows the image counts of the politicians and the imitation score of their generated images, for SD1.1, SD1.5, and SD2.1 respectively.

Figure 22, Figure 23, Figure 24 show the image counts of classical artists and the similarity between their training and generated images; and Figure 25, Figure 26, Figure 27 show the image counts of modern artists and the similarity between their training and generated images. The images were generated using SD1.1, SD1.5, and SD2.1 respectively.

Imitation Threshold Estimation for Human Face Imitation: In Figure 16, we observe that the imitation scores for the individuals with small image counts is close to 0 (left side), and it increases as the number of their image counts increase towards the right. The highest similarity is 0.5 and it is for the individuals in the rightmost region of the plot. The solid line in the plot shows the mean similarity over the five image generation prompt with the shaded area showing the variance over them. We observe a low variance in the imitation score among the generation prompts. And we also observe that the variance does not depend on the image counts which indicates that the performance of the face recognition model does not depend on the popularity of the individual. The change detection algorithm finds the change point to be at 364 faces for human face imitation for celebrities, when using SD1.1 for image generation. Figure 17 shows the similarity between the training and generated images when images are generated using SD1.5. Identically to SD1.1, the change is detected at 364 faces for face imitation when using SD1.5. We also performed ablation experiments with different face embeddings models and justify the choice of our model (see Appendix O). For all the plots, we also analyze the trend by using isotonic regression which learns non-decreasing linear regression weights that fits the data best.

**Imitation Threshold Estimation for Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** Figure 19 shows the imitation scores for politicians which is very similar to the plot obtained for celebrities. We observe a low variance in the imitation score among the generation prompts. We also observe that the variance does not depend on the image counts which indicates that the performance of the face recognition model does not depend on the popularity of the individual. The change detection algorithm finds the change point to be at **234** faces for human face imitation for politicians, when using **SD1.1** for image generation. Figure 20 shows the similarity between the training and generated images when images are generated using **SD1.5**. Similar to SD1.1, the change is detected at **234** faces.

**Imitation Threshold Estimation for Art Style Imitation:** In Figure 22, we observe that the imitation scores for artists with low image counts have a baseline value around 0.2 (left side), and it increases as the number of their image counts increase towards the right. The highest similarity is 0.76 and it is for the artists in the rightmost region of the plot. We also observe a low variance across the generation prompts, and the variance does not depend on the image frequency of the artist.

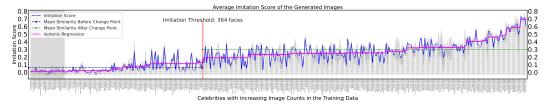


Figure 17: **Human Face Imitation (Celebrities):** similarity between the training and generated images for all celebrities. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.5**. The change point for human face imitation for celebrities when generating images using SD1.5 is detected at **364 faces**.



Figure 18: **Human Face Imitation (Celebrities):** similarity between the training and generated images for all celebrities. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD2.1**. The change point for human face imitation for celebrities when generating images using SD2.1 is detected at **527 faces**.

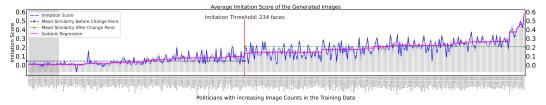


Figure 19: **Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** Similarity between the training and generated images for all politicians. The politicians with zero image counts are shaded with light gray. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.1**. The change point for human face imitation for politicians when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **234 faces**.

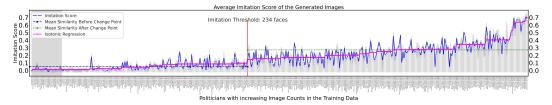


Figure 20: **Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** similarity between the training and generated images for all politicians. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.5**. The change point for human face imitation for politicians when generating images using SD1.5 is detected at **234 faces**.

The change detection algorithm finds the change point to be at **112** images for art style imitation of classical artists, when using **SD1.1** for image generation. Figure 23 shows the similarity between the training and generated images when images are generated using **SD1.5**. Similar to SD1.1, the change is detected at **112** faces for art style imitation when using SD1.5. These thresholds are slightly higher for style imitation of modern artists, 198 for both SD1.1 and SD1.5.

748

749

750

751

752



Figure 21: **Human Face Imitation (Politicians):** similarity between the training and generated images for all politicians. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD2.1**. The change point for human face imitation for celebrities when generating images using SD2.1 is detected at **369 faces**.

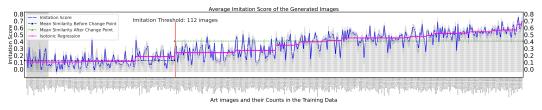


Figure 22: **Art Style Imitation (Classical Artists):** similarity between the training and generated images for **classical** art styles. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.1**. The change point for art style imitation when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **112 images**.

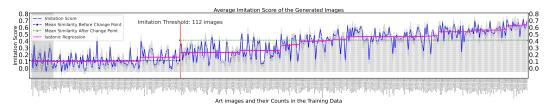


Figure 23: **Art Style Imitation (Classical Artists):** similarity between the training and generated images for **classical** art styles. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.5**. The change point for art style imitation when generating images using SD1.5 is detected at **112 images**.

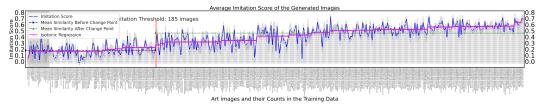


Figure 24: **Art Style Imitation (Classical Artists):** similarity between the training and generated images for **classical** art styles. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD2.1**. The change point for art style imitation when generating images using SD2.1 is detected at **185 images**.

## N Examples of Outliers

753

758

759

Figure 28 and Figure 29 show examples of outliers of the first kind, where aliases of a celebrity leads to under counting of their images in the pretraining data.

Figure 30 and Figure 31 show examples of outliers of the first kind for artists, where aliases of an artist leads to under counting of their art works in the pretraining data.

## O Ablation Experiment with Different Face Embedding Models

In this section, we show the difference in the performance of several face embedding models and justify the choice of the final choice of our face embedding model. Face embedding models are

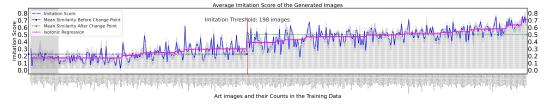


Figure 25: **Art Style Imitation (Modern Artists):** similarity between the training and generated images for **modern** art styles. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.1**. The change point for art style imitation when generating images using SD1.1 is detected at **198 images**.

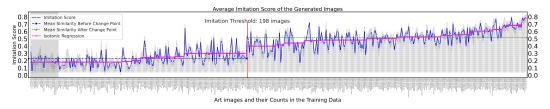


Figure 26: **Art Style Imitation (Modern Artists):** similarity between the training and generated images for **modern** art styles. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD1.5**. The change point for art style imitation when generating images using SD1.5 is detected at **198 images**.

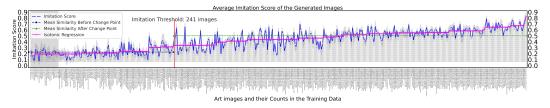


Figure 27: **Art Style Imitation (Modern Artists):** similarity between the training and generated images for **modern** art styles. We show the mean and variance over the five generation prompts. The images were generated using **SD2.1**. The change point for art style imitation when generating images using SD2.1 is detected at **241 images**.



Figure 28: **Outlier Category 1: DJ Kool Herc.** *Clive Campbell* is aliased as *DJ Kool Herc*, which leads to lower counts of his images in the dataset since MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> only collects images whose caption mentions *DJ Kool Herc*.



Figure 29: **Outlier Category 1: Summer Walker.** Summer Marjani Walker is aliased as Summer Walker, which leads to lower counts of her images in the dataset since MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> only collects images whose caption mentions Summer Walker.



Figure 30: **Outlier Category 1: Albert Irwin.** *Albert Henry Thomas Irvin* is aliased as *Albert Irwin*, which leads to lower counts of his art images in the dataset since MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> only collects images whose caption mentions *Albert Irwin*.

evaluated using two main metrics: false-match rate (FMR) and true-match rate (TMR) [27]. FMR measures how many times does a model says two people are the same when they are not and TMR measures how many times a model says two people are the same when they are the same. Ideally, a face embedding model should have low FMR and high TMR. An important variant of these metrics is the disparity of FMR and TMR of a model across different demographic groups. Ideally, a model should have low disparity in these metrics across different demographics. We also focus on the variance of these metrics across demographics in making the final choice.

We evaluate the FMR and TMR of eight different face embedding models (seven open-sourced and one proprietary). The open-source models were chosen based on their popularity on Github [9, 10, 37], and we also experiment with Amazon Rekognition, a proprietary model. For evaluating the disparity of these metrics across different demographic groups we grouped celebrities in six demographic groups primarily categorized according to skin color tone (black, brown, and white) and perceived gender (male and female; for simplicity). Each of the six groups had 10 celebrities (a total of 60), with no intersection between them. The categorization was done manually by looking at the reference images of the celebrities. For each celebrity, we collect 10 reference images from the internet by using the procedure described in Appendix H. We use these images to compare the FMR and TMR of the face recognition models, as these images are the gold standard images of a person.

**FMR Computation:** We compute the mean cosine similarity between the face embeddings of one individual and the faces of all other individuals in that group, and repeat the procedure for all individuals in a demographic group.



Figure 31: **Outlier Category 1: Gustav Adolf Mossa.** *Gustav Adolf Mossa* is aliased just as *Mossa*, which leads to lower counts of his art images in the dataset since MIMETIC<sup>2</sup> only collects images whose caption mentions *Gustav Adolf Mossa*.

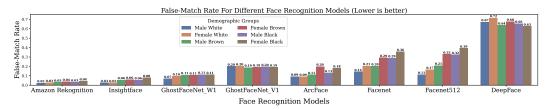


Figure 32: False-match rate (FMR) of all the face embedding models across the six demographic groups. Amazon Rekognition and InsightFace have the lowest FMR values. Moreover, these two models have lowest disparity of FMR over the demographic groups.

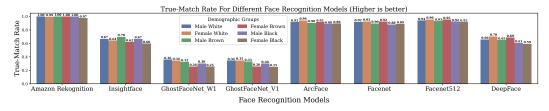


Figure 33: True-match rate (TMR) of all the face embedding models across the six demographic groups. Amazon Rekognition model has the highest TMR values.

**TMR Computation:** We compute the mean cosine similarity between the embeddings of all the faces of an individuals and repeat the procedure for all the individuals in a demographic group.

Figure 32 and Figure 33 shows the FMR and TMR for six demographic groups for all the face embedding models. All the open-sourced models, except InsightFace, either have a high disparity in FMR values across the demographic groups (ArcFace, Facenet, Facenet512, DeepFace) or have very low TMR (GhostFaceNet\_W1, GhostFaceNet\_V1). We choose InsightFace for our experiments because of it has 1) a low overall FMR, 2) decent TMR, 3) a low disparity of FMR and TMR across the demographic groups, and 4) is open-sourced. Having a low disparity of the metrics across individuals of different demographic groups is crucial for an accurate estimation of the imitation threshold. The Amazon Rekognition model would also be a viable choice based on these metrics, however, it is not open-sourced and therefore expensive for our experiments.

Table 7: Distribution of caption counts for sampled entities in celebrities, politicians, and art styles domains.

<b>Caption Counts (LAION-2B)</b>	Celebrities	Politicians	Classical Artists	Modern Artists
0	19	15	14	15
1-100	48	60	67	69
100-500	57	120	133	139
500-1K	52	80	62	62
1K-5K	151	65	63	64
5K-10K	19	40	39	32
> 10K	53	40	40	34

## P Count Distribution and the List of Sampled Entities for Each Domain

#### P.1 Celebrities

793

794

797

We collect celebrities from https://www.popsugar.com/Celebrities and https://celebanswers.com/celebrity-list/. The distribution of the caption counts of the sampled celebrities is displayed in Table 7. The sampled celebrities in the descending order of their number of caption counts are:

Donald Trump, Kate Middlaton, Abraham Lincoln, Johnny Depp, Stephen King, Anne Hatbauw, Ben Affleck, Romald Reagan, Oprah Winfray, Floyd
Supweather, Davaye Johnson, Cameron Diaz, Cate Blanchett, Mark Wahlberg, Meni Campbell, Nick Jonas, Jassics Biel, Mentric Lamar, Malcoln X,
Steven Spielberg, Bella Thorne, Bob Ross, Jay Leno, David Tennant, Samuel L. Jacksen, Jason Statham, Mandy Moore, Victoria Justice, Scott
District, Martin Scorsee, Ashley Clisen, Carey Walligam, Greta Thumberg, Kahles Simpson, Kandy Magrawes, Kurt Russell, Felicity, Jones, Socirse
Rock
Nanan, Sarah Paulson, Matthew Perry, Forest Whitaker, Brendon Urie, Meg Ryan, Olivia Culpo, Joe Rogan, Sacha Baron Cohen, Terrence Howard,
Statalie Dormer, Insel Elgort, Nick Offersan, Gilve Ouen, Rose Lealie, Sterling K. Brown, Cuba Gooding Jr., Kevin James, Marisa Tomei, Troye
Joyan, Jachary Levi, Owendoline Christie, Hunter Hayes, Melanie Martinez, Joel McHale, Rose Lynch, Brody Jenner, Riley Keough, Robert Kraft,
Say Jicitak, Brit Bana, Mark Commuelos, Chris Farley, James Garner, Lauren Baigle, Lily Donaldon, Pendipe Cruz, Karen Elien, Joey Fatone,
Lealie Odom Jr., Jay Baruchel, Selita Ebanks, Lana Condor, Mackenzie Foy, Doja Cat, Skai Jackson, Sofia Hellqvist, Bernard Arnault, Josh Peck,
Lealie Odom Jr., Jay Baruchel, Selita Ebanks, Lana Condor, Mackenzie Foy, Doja Cat, Skai Jackson, Sofia Hellqvist, Bernard Arnault, Josh Peck,
Lealie Odom Jr., Jay Baruchel, Selita Ebanks, Lana Condor, Mackenzie Foy, Doja Cat, Skai Jackson, Sofia Hellqvist, Bernard Arnault, Josh Peck,
Lealie Odom Jr., Jay Baruchel, Selita Ebanks, Lana Condor, Mackenzie Foy, Doja Cat, Skai Jackson, Sofia Hellqvist, Bernard Arnault, Josh Peck,
Lealie Odom Jr., Jay Baruchel, Selita Ebanks, Lana Condor, Mackenzie Foy, Doja Cat, Skai Jackson, Sofia Hellqvist, Bernard Krame,
Lealie Odom Jr., Jay Baruchel, Selita Ebanks, Lana Condor, Mackenzie Foy, Doja Cat, Skai Jackson, Sofia Hellqvist, Bernard Krame,
Lealie Cat, Marken Lealie, Selita Selita Selita Selita Selita Selita Selita Selita Selita S

#### P.2 Politicians

841

842

843

844

We collect politicians from Wikipedia [50]. The distribution of the caption counts of the sampled politicians is given in Table 7. The sampled politicians in the descending order of their number of caption counts are:

Barack Obama, John Levis, Theresa May, Narendra Modi, Kim Jong-um, David Cameron, Angela Merkel, Bill Clinton, Xi Jinping, Justin Trudeau, Emmanuel 
Macron, Nancy Pelosi, Arnold Schwarzenegger, Ron Paul, Shinzo Abe, Adolf Hitler, John Paul II, Tony Blair, Sachin Tendulkar, Nick Clegg, Newt 
Gingrich, Scott Morrison, Arvind Kejrival, Ilham Aliyev, Jacob Zuma, Bashar al-Assad, Laura Bush, Sonia Gandhi, Kim Jong-il, Robert Mugabe, 
James Comey, Rodrigo Duterte, Pete Buttigieg, Lindsey Graham, Hosni Mubarak, Haevei Navaluy, Rob Ford, Leo Varadkar, Evo Morales, 
Lee Hsien Loong, Henry Kissinger, Petro Poroshenko, Joko Widodo, Clarence Thomas, Rishi Sunak, Mohamed Morsi, Ashraf Ghani, Martin McGuinness, 
Viktor Orban, Uhuru Kenyatta, Mike Huckabee, Sheikh Hasina, Martin Schulz, Giusppe Conte, John Hobard, Bentio Nussolini, Tulsi Gabbard, 
Dominic Raab, Michael D. Higgins, François Hollande, Yasser Arafat, Mark Rutte, Mahathir Mohamad, Juan Manuel Santos, Abiy Ahmed, William 
Prince, Lee Kuan Yev, Mikhail Gorbachev, Hum Sen, Jacquee Chirac, Martin O'Malley, Benazir Bhutto, Yoshihide Suga, John Major, Muammar Gaddafi, 
Jerry Springer, Sandra Day O'Connor, Madeleine Albright, Thomas Mann, Paul Kagame, Simon Coveney, Grant Shapps, Sebastian Coe, Merrick Garland, 
Jean-Yves Le Drian, Nursultan Nazarbayev, Horst Seehofer, Liz Truss, Rovan Williams, Ellen Johnson Sirleaf, George Weah, Mark Sanford, Yoveri 
Museveni, Luigi Di Maio, Ben Wallace, Herman Van Rompuy, Daniel Ortega, Olis Cholz, Beppe Grillo, Alassane Ouattara, Nicoläa Maduro, Tamim bin 
Hamad Al Thani, Mary McAleese, Asif Ali Zardari, Joseph Goebbels, Nikol Pashinyan, Deb Haaland, Paul Biya, Abdel Fattah el-Sisi, Thabo Mbeki, 
Kyriakos Mitsotakis, Joseph Muscat, Micheál Martin, Rebecca Long-Bailey, Paschal Donohoe, Todd Young, Jean-Marie Le Pen, Nick Criffin, Zoran 
Zaev, Pierre Nkurunziza, Abhisit Vejjajiva, Maggie Hassan, Steven Chu, Juan Guaidó, Edi Rama, Mary Landrieu, Jyrki Katainen, Jens Spahn, John 
Dramani Mahama, Gina Raimondo, Alec Douglas-Home, Viktor

Dominique de Villepin, Michael Fabricant, Kim Dae-jung, Eamon Ryan, Shavkat Mirziyoyav, Denis Sassou-Nguesso, Werner Faymann, Kamla
Persad-Bissessesar, Ingrid Batancourt, Volodymyr Zelenskyy, Park Chung Hee, Elvira Nabiullina, Roselyne Bachelot, Heinz Fischer, Hideki Tojo,
Anatoly Karpov, Marcelo Ebrard, Slavoj Žižek, Trent Lott, Alfred Rosenberg, Gabi Ashkenazi, Valentina Matviyenko, Kgalema Motlanthe, Pedro
Anatoly Karpov, Marcelo Ebrard, Slavoj Žižek, Trent Lott, Alfred Rosenberg, Gabi Ashkenazi, Valentina Matviyenko, Kgalema Motlanthe, Pedro
Alok Sharma, Jean-Michel Blanquer, Robert Schuman, Shinzō Ābe, Doris Leuthard, Jacques Delors, Floella Benjamin, Sauli Ninistoš, Annalena
Bord Baerbock, Toomas Hendrik Ilves, Alejandro Giammattei, Bob Kerrey, Lionel Jospin, Murray McOully, Stefan Löfven, Javier Solana, Salva Kiir
Baerbock, Toomas Hendrik Ilves, Alejandro Giammattei, Bob Kerrey, Lionel Jospin, Murray McOully, Stefan Löfven, Javier Solana, Salva Kiir
Baerbock, Toomas Hendrik Ilves, Alejandro Giammattei, Bob Kerrey, Lionel Jospin, Murray McOully, Stefan Löfven, Javier Solana, Salva Kiir
Baerbock, Toomas Hendrik Ilves, Alejandro Giammattei, Bob Kerrey, Lionel Jospin, Murray McOully, Stefan Löfven, Javier Solana, Salva Kiir
Baerbock, Toomas Hendrik Ilves, Alejandro Giammattei, Bob Kerrey, Lionel Jospin, Murray McOully, Stefan Löfven, Josephare, Josep

#### P.3 Classical Artists

We collected classical artists from the https://www.wikiart.org, a website that collects various arts from different artists and categorizes them into pre-defined art style categories. For classical artists, we collected the artist names from the art styles: *Romanticism, Impressionism, Realism, Baroque, Neoclassicism, Rococo, Academic Art, Symbolism, Cubism, Naturalism.* The distribution of the caption counts of the sampled artists is given in Table 7. The sampled artists in the descending order of their number of caption counts are:

Claude Monet, Resbrandt, Gustaw Kilmt, Edger Degas, Caravaggio, William Blake, John James Androbo, He Carbusier, Canaletto, Pater Paul Rubens, Shinger Sargeat, Edouard Manet, John William Marchiness, Alfred Sizely, Childe Hassen, Bertheriot, Viticer Hago, William Marchy 2009 Johnson Verneer, Jaques-Louis David, Odilon Redon, Thomas Cole, Thomas March, James Tissot, William Magrath, David Roberts, Thomas 1004 Rodin, Johnson Verneer, Jaques-Louis David, Odilon Redon, Thomas Cole, Thomas March, James Tissot, William Magrath, David Roberts, Thomas 1004 Rodin, Johnson Mysolds, Johnson Attention Grimshap, David James, James March, David Odinon, Frederic Gutin Church, Jean-Louon Gerous, Edges Rodin, Johnson Mysolds, Johnson Attention Grimshap, David James, James March, David Odonon, Frederic Gutin Church, Jean-Louon Gerous, Edges Pagua, Auguste Monta, Johnson Mysolds, Johnson March, Johnson March, Johnson, Proderic Gutin, Church, Jean-Louon Gerous, Edges Pagua, Auguste Carbon, Andro March, Johnson, John

#### P.4 Modern Artists

We also collected modern artists from the https://www.wikiart.org. For modern artists, we collected the artist names from the art styles: *Expressionism, Surrealism, Abstract Expressionism, Pop Art, Art Informel, Post-Painterly Abstraction, Neo-Expressionism, Post-Minimalism, Neo-Impressionism, Neo-Romanticism, Post-Impressionism.* The distribution of the caption counts of the sampled artists is given in Table 7. The sampled artists in the descending order of their number of caption counts are:

Vincent Van Gogh. Bovid Sovie, Andy Warhal, Pablo Picaneo, Frida Kahlo, Kaith Haring, Salvador Dail, Paul Gangtin, Camilla Picanero, Paul 1962

Acadinaby, Peter Mar, Boy Lichtenstein, Paul Rees, Pomer Senes, Dever Member, American Paul Senes, Robert Maria, Paul Senes, Robert Maria, Boy Lichtenstein, Paul Rees, Paul Re

#### **O** Compute Used

We use 8 L40 GPUs to generate images for the all text-to-image models in our work. Overall, we use them for 16 hours per prompt, per dataset, per model to generate images. We downloaded the images on the same machine using 40 CPU cores, a process that took about 8 hours per dataset. For generating the image embeddings, we use the same 8 L40 GPUs, a process that took about 16 hours per dataset. The computation of imitation score and plotting are done on single CPU core on the same machine, a process that takes less than 30 minutes per dataset.