
000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 UPER: ALIGNING PERSONALIZED IMAGE GENERATION WITH HUMAN PERCEPTION VIA REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

Anonymous authors

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ABSTRACT

Personalized image generation aims to synthesize novel scenes featuring a specific user-provided subject. However, state-of-the-art models often fail to preserve the fine-grained details that define a subject’s unique identity, a critical flaw that limits their use in high-fidelity applications. This “consistency gap” arises from a misalignment between the model’s learned similarity metric and nuanced human perception. To address this, we introduce **UPER** (Unifying Post-training for Personalization), a post-training framework designed to align generative models with human preferences for detail consistency. UPER employs a two-stage process: it first refines the model’s focus on the subject’s core attributes via Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) on a dataset with cleaned background information. Subsequently, it optimizes the model using Reinforcement Learning (RL) with a novel composite reward function. The key component of this function is a new patch-based consistency metric that accurately measures subject fidelity using only pre-trained vision encoders, eliminating the need for expensive preference data collection. We apply UPER to the state-of-the-art OminiControl model. The results are unequivocal: in a blind user study with over 1,000 responses, images generated by our final model were preferred for their overall quality and subject consistency **89.3%** of the time over the strong baseline. Our work provides a robust and scalable solution to the detail-consistency challenge, paving the way for more faithful personalized generation.

1 INTRODUCTION

Large-scale diffusion models have achieved remarkable success in generating high-fidelity images from text descriptions (Rombach et al., 2022; Saharia et al., 2022; Esser et al., 2024). A pivotal frontier in this domain is personalized generation, where models are conditioned on a reference image to transfer specific subjects or styles into new creations (Ye et al., 2023; Tan et al., 2024). This multi-modal conditioning offers far greater precision than text alone, enabling high-value applications from virtual try-on (Han et al., 2023) to hyper-realistic product visualization for e-commerce and advertising (Zhang et al., 2024).

Despite this progress, a critical limitation persists: a failure to maintain detail consistency. As shown in Fig. 1, while models can replicate the general form of a subject, they often lose the specific textures, patterns, and structural nuances that define its unique identity. This “consistency gap” is particularly detrimental in commercial applications, where preserving brand logos, specific colorways, or unique material finishes is paramount. The issue is not merely a technical flaw but a fundamental alignment problem: the model’s internal objective for “similarity” deviates from nuanced human perception. For instance, a model might prioritize matching the color of a shirt, while a human user cares more about preserving the logo printed on it. This misalignment stems from training paradigms that either lack diversity (self-generation) or rely on scarce, imperfectly paired data, causing the model to learn a generalized concept rather than specific details.

To bridge this perception gap, we turn to Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF), a powerful paradigm for instilling complex, hard-to-define human preferences into AI systems. While RLHF is well-established in language modeling, its application to image generation presents

unique opportunities. Unlike discrete language models that require policy gradient algorithms like PPO (Schulman et al., 2017), diffusion and flow-based models operate in a continuous space. This allows for more direct optimization methods. One such method is Reward-supported Flow Learning (ReFL) (Xu et al., 2023), which leverages the differentiability of flow models to directly backpropagate reward signals, proving highly efficient for visual alignment tasks.

To address the critical challenge of detail loss, we propose **UPER** (Unifying Post-Training for Personalization). UPER is a post-training framework designed to enhance the detail consistency of any subject-driven generative model. Our framework consists of two core stages:

1. **Refined Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT):** We introduce a data pre-processing pipeline that cleans reference images by removing confounding background information. While background removal itself is a known technique in object-centric generation (Chen et al., 2024; Song et al., 2024), we integrate it as a systematic SFT step to force the model to focus on subject-specific details.
2. **Reinforcement Learning (RL) with a Novel Reward Ensemble:** We design a composite reward function that balances text alignment, aesthetics, and a novel, patch-based reward metric specifically engineered to measure fine-grained subject consistency. This reward is optimized using the efficient ReFL algorithm, which we found to be more effective than DPO in our preliminary experiments.

We demonstrate UPER’s effectiveness by applying it to the state-of-the-art OminiControl (Tan et al., 2024) model. Extensive automated, quantitative, and human evaluations confirm that UPER significantly improves detail preservation without compromising overall generation quality.

Our primary contributions are:

- A systematic, two-stage post-training framework (UPER) that significantly resolves the detail-consistency problem in personalized object generation by treating it as an alignment task.
- A new patch-based reward metric for subject consistency that leverages pre-trained vision encoders to capture fine-grained details, requiring no training on preference data.
- Extensive empirical validation, including a large-scale human study and comprehensive ablation experiments, showing that UPER achieves state-of-the-art subject fidelity and is overwhelmingly preferred by users over strong baselines.

2 RELATED WORK

2.1 REINFORCEMENT LEARNING FROM HUMAN FEEDBACK

Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) has become a cornerstone for aligning AI systems, particularly Large Language Models (LLMs), with complex human values (Christiano et al., 2017). The standard process involves Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) on curated examples, followed by training a reward model (RM) on human preference data. Finally, a reinforcement learning algorithm optimizes the SFT model to maximize the score from the RM. While policy gradient methods like PPO (Schulman et al., 2017) are common, recent work has explored more sample-efficient alternatives like GRPO (Shao et al., 2024). Our work adapts this alignment paradigm to the continuous domain of image generation.

2.2 HUMAN FEEDBACK IN DIFFUSION MODELS

Integrating human feedback into diffusion models has become an active area of research, with several algorithmic families emerging to align models with preferences like aesthetic quality and semantic fidelity. One major branch of work adapts traditional reinforcement learning paradigms. This includes methods that use policy gradient algorithms like PPO (Black et al., 2023; Fan et al., 2023), which often introduce significant training complexity, and more direct fine-tuning approaches like Reward-supported Flow Learning (ReFL) (Xu et al., 2023), which leverage the model’s differentiability to efficiently backpropagate a reward signal. A second branch seeks to simplify this process. Reward-Weighted Regression (RWR) (Lee et al., 2023) reframes alignment as a weighted supervised learning problem, while Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) and its variants (Rafailov

108 et al., 2023; Wallace et al., 2024) offer an elegant solution by bypassing the need for an explicit
109 reward model altogether. While DPO is powerful, we found in preliminary experiments that the
110 explicit, component-wise control offered by ReFL was more stable and effective for our specific
111 multi-objective task. The ability to explicitly weight and balance different reward components (text,
112 aesthetics, consistency) is crucial for navigating the complex trade-offs in our problem, a level of
113 control that is less direct with DPO’s implicit reward formulation. While these methods have proven
114 effective for general T2I alignment, our work is the first to construct a reward ensemble specifically
115 for the complex, multi-faceted task of detail-preserving personalized generation.

116

117 2.3 PERSONALIZED GENERATION

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119 Personalized generation seeks to create images featuring a specific subject, style, or concept pro-
120 vided by a user. Early methods like Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2022) and DreamBooth (Ruiz
121 et al., 2023) achieved this through per-subject fine-tuning of a diffusion model on a few example
122 images. While effective, these approaches are computationally intensive and require optimization
123 for each new subject. More recent works, such as IP-Adapter (Ye et al., 2023) and our baseline
124 OminiControl (Tan et al., 2024), have shifted towards using lightweight adapters for more efficient,
125 zero-shot personalization. A parallel line of research, focused on high-fidelity object composition
126 and editing, has also emerged. Works like AnyDoor (Chen et al., 2024), IMPRINT (Song et al.,
127 2024), and Bifröst (Li et al., 2024) have explored sophisticated techniques for object manipulation,
128 often involving segmentation. Our work draws inspiration from this latter line of research, speci-
129 fically the principle of using background removal to isolate the subject. However, we position this not
130 as a core novel contribution in itself, but as a crucial and systematic data refinement step within our
131 broader alignment framework. The primary novelty of UPER lies in its two-stage post-training struc-
132 ture, which addresses the subsequent and more challenging problem of preserving the fine-grained
133 details that even these advanced methods can struggle with.

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135 3 METHOD

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137 Our method, UPER, enhances personalized image generation through a two-stage post-training
138 framework. The process begins with Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) to refine conditional focus, fol-
139 lowed by Reinforcement Learning (RL) to optimize for a composite reward signal. The full pipeline
140 is shown in Fig. 1 and detailed in Algorithm 1.

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142 3.1 REWARD MODEL ENSEMBLE FOR PERSONALIZATION

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144 Instead of training a monolithic reward model, we construct a composite reward by ensembling
145 three specialized, pre-trained models. This approach allows us to precisely target the multi-faceted
146 goals of personalized generation: text alignment, aesthetic quality, and, most critically, subject con-
147 sistency. To measure semantic correspondence with the input prompt, we use the cosine similarity
148 between CLIP ViT-L/14 embeddings of the generated image and the text, providing a standard, dif-
149 ferentiable score for text alignment (R_{text}). For visual appeal, we employ the Human Preference
150 Score v2 (HPS-v2) (Wu et al., 2023), a state-of-the-art aesthetic predictor trained on a large dataset
151 of human preference choices, which yields a robust aesthetic score (R_{aes}). The cornerstone of our
152 ensemble, however, is the reward for subject consistency (R_{sub}), which is designed to capture the
153 fine-grained details that define a subject’s identity.

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155 3.1.1 TEXT-PROMPT ALIGNMENT (R_{text})

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157 We measure semantic correspondence between the generated image I_{gen} and the prompt P using
158 CLIP ViT-L/14 embeddings (Radford et al., 2021): $R_{\text{text}} = \text{sim}(\text{CLIP}_{\text{img}}(I_{\text{gen}}), \text{CLIP}_{\text{text}}(P))$.

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160 3.1.2 AESTHETIC QUALITY (R_{aes})

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162 We use the Human Preference Score v2 (HPS-v2) (Wu et al., 2023), a state-of-the-art aesthetic
163 predictor, to get a scalar score. HPS-v2 is trained on a large-scale dataset of human preference
164 choices, making it robust against common failure modes and reward hacking. $R_{\text{aes}} = \text{HPS-v2}(I_{\text{gen}})$.

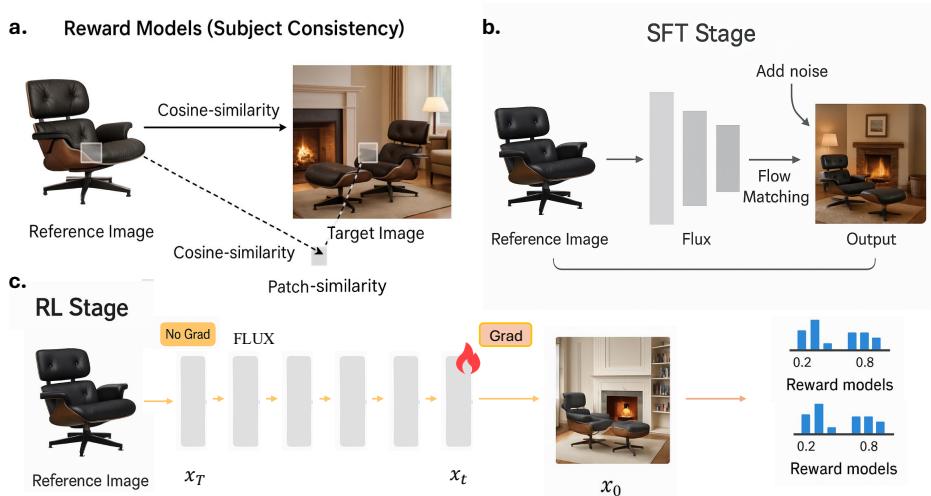


Figure 1: **Overview of the UPER Post-Training Pipeline.** The framework consists of two main stages: Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) and Reinforcement Learning (RL). **(a) Reward Model Ensemble:** We design a composite reward signal from three distinct, pre-trained components targeting text alignment (R_{text}), aesthetics (R_{aes}), and subject consistency (R_{sub}). The key innovation is our patch-based consistency metric, which uses a DINOv2 (Oquab et al., 2023) encoder to compute similarity at a local level. **(b) SFT Stage:** The base model is fine-tuned on a refined dataset where reference images have their backgrounds removed, forcing the model to learn a more precise subject-focused representation. **(c) RL Stage:** We use Reward-supported Flow Learning (ReFL) to align the model with the composite reward. The end-to-end differentiability of the reward models and the single-step flow prediction allows gradients to be backpropagated directly into the model’s LoRA weights for efficient optimization.

3.1.3 SUBJECT CONSISTENCY (R_{SUB})

To capture fine-grained details, we propose a patch-based reward, R_{sub} . The key insight is to use an encoder trained specifically for instance-level matching, rather than global semantic similarity. We choose DINOv2 (Oquab et al., 2023) for its strong performance on such tasks, as its self-supervised training objective encourages learning features that are robust to viewpoint changes while preserving identity. The computation is a three-step process. First, both the generated image I_{gen} and the reference image I_{ref} are decomposed into a grid of N overlapping 224×224 patches with a stride of 112. Second, for each spatially corresponding patch pair $(p_k^{\text{gen}}, p_k^{\text{ref}})$, we extract their feature embeddings using the pre-trained DINOv2 encoder (f_{DINOv2}) and compute their cosine similarity:

$$\phi_k = \text{sim}(f_{\text{DINOv2}}(p_k^{\text{gen}}), f_{\text{DINOv2}}(p_k^{\text{ref}})). \quad (1)$$

Finally, the individual patch similarities are aggregated by taking their mean to produce the final subject consistency reward, $R_{\text{sub}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \phi_k$. This patch-based approach is highly sensitive to local texture and pattern loss, which global metrics like CLIP similarity often miss.

3.2 POST-TRAINING PIPELINE

3.2.1 STAGE 1: SUPERVISED FINE-TUNING WITH REFINED CONDITIONING

The pre-training of our baseline model, OminiControl, utilizes the Subject-200K dataset. A critical observation is that the reference images in this dataset contain rich and often complex background information. As illustrated in Fig. 2(a), this creates a "conditioning noise" problem. For instance, when the model is tasked to learn the identity of the Eames lounge chair, it is simultaneously exposed to vastly different backgrounds—a cozy library in one image and a modern city view in another. This irrelevant background information can confound the model, forcing it to entangle subject features with background context and hindering its ability to learn a pure, disentangled representation of the subject’s core attributes.



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Figure 2: **SFT Data Refinement Pipeline.** (a) Original image pairs from Subject-200K exhibit “conditioning noise,” where complex backgrounds interfere with subject learning. (b) Our pipeline first removes the background from the reference image and then uses a VLM to filter for high-quality pairs, ensuring the model focuses on core subject attributes.

Algorithm 1 UPER Post-Training Framework

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1: Input: Pre-trained model  $\theta_0$ , SFT dataset  $D_{\text{SFT}}$ , RL prompts  $D_{\text{RL}}$ .
2: Hyperparameters: SFT steps  $T_{\text{SFT}}$ , RL steps  $T_{\text{RL}}$ , learning rate  $\eta$ , LoRA rank  $r = 4$ .
3: Initialize LoRA weights for model  $\theta_0$ .
4: {— Stage 1: Supervised Fine-Tuning —}
5: for  $t = 1$  to  $T_{\text{SFT}}$  do
6:   Sample  $(I_{\text{ref}}, I_{\text{target}}, P) \sim D_{\text{SFT}}$ .
7:   Compute SFT loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SFT}}$  (e.g., flow matching loss).
8:   Update LoRA weights:  $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\text{SFT}}$ .
9: end for
10: Let  $\theta_{\text{SFT}} \leftarrow \theta$ .
11: {— Stage 2: Reinforcement Learning —}
12: for  $t = 1$  to  $T_{\text{RL}}$  do
13:   Sample  $(I_{\text{ref}}, P) \sim D_{\text{RL}}$ .
14:   Generate image  $I_{\text{gen}} \sim \pi_{\theta_{\text{SFT}}}(\cdot | I_{\text{ref}}, P)$ .
15:   Compute rewards  $R_{\text{text}}, R_{\text{aes}}, R_{\text{sub}}$ .
16:   For each reward  $R_i$ , compute mean  $\mu_i$  and std  $\sigma_i$  over the batch.
17:   Normalize rewards:  $\hat{R}_i \leftarrow (R_i - \mu_i) / (\sigma_i + \epsilon)$ .
18:   Compute composite reward  $R_{\text{composite}} = \sum w_i \hat{R}_i$ .
19:   Compute RL loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{RL}} = -R_{\text{composite}}$ .
20:   Update LoRA weights:  $\theta_{\text{SFT}} \leftarrow \theta_{\text{SFT}} - \eta \nabla_{\theta_{\text{SFT}}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{RL}}$ .
21: end for
22: Return: Aligned model  $\theta_{\text{RL}} = \theta_{\text{SFT}}$ .

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To address this information redundancy and improve the model’s focus, we introduce a systematic data pre-processing and filtering pipeline for the SFT stage, as visualized in Fig. 2(b). This process is twofold. First, we apply a robust background removal model (‘RMBG-1.4’) to every reference image, segmenting the primary subject and placing it on a neutral white background. This step forces the model to learn the subject’s identity from its intrinsic properties alone, free from confounding background signals. Second, to further enhance the quality and consistency of the training pairs, we employ a powerful Vision-Language Model, **Qwen-VL** (Wang et al., 2024), as a filter. For each pair, the VLM first identifies key visual attributes from the now-cleaned reference image (e.g., “Eames Lounge Chair,” “black leather,” “wood shell”). It then verifies whether these essential attributes are accurately present in the corresponding target image. Any pair that fails this cross-modal consistency check is discarded from the training set. This meticulous refinement process yields a high-quality SFT dataset that enables the model to develop a more robust and detailed conditional generation capability before the RL alignment stage.

3.2.2 STAGE 2: REINFORCEMENT LEARNING WITH DIFFERENTIABLE REWARDS

Following SFT, we use RL to align the model with our composite reward. We employ Reward-supported Flow Learning (ReFL) (Xu et al., 2023), where the reward signal is backpropagated directly through the single-step image prediction process. The RL loss is the negative of the composite reward: $\mathcal{L}_{\text{RL}} = -R_{\text{composite}}$. This end-to-end differentiable pipeline enables highly efficient alignment. The full process is detailed in Algorithm 1.

270 3.3 MITIGATING REWARD HACKING
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272 An unconstrained R_{sub} could encourage the model to simply copy-paste textures. We employ two
273 strategies to mitigate this:

274 1. **Balanced Composite Reward:** We combine the reward components using weights determined
275 via empirical sweeps: $R_{\text{composite}} = 0.2 \cdot \hat{R}_{\text{text}} + 0.2 \cdot \hat{R}_{\text{aes}} + 0.4 \cdot \hat{R}_{\text{sub}}$, where \hat{R} denotes z-score
276 normalization over the batch. This multi-objective landscape discourages over-optimization.
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278 2. **Gradient Clipping:** To prevent the subject consistency term from dominating, we clip the gra-
279 dient of the reward with respect to the generated image, $\nabla_{I_{\text{gen}}} R_{\text{sub}}$, with a threshold of $\tau = 0.2$.

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281 4 EXPERIMENTS
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283 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP
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285 **Base Model.** We build UPER upon OminiControl (Tan et al., 2024), which is based on the FLUX.1-
286 dev flow transformer model (Esser et al., 2024).

287 **Training Details.** We use LoRA (Hu et al., 2022) with rank 4. Training is done on 8 NVIDIA H100
288 (80GB) GPUs with an effective batch size of 32. We use the AdamW optimizer (Kingma & Ba,
289 2014) with a learning rate of 1e-4. The SFT stage runs for 5k iterations, and the RL stage for 2k.

290 **Datasets.** We use our refined version of Subject-200K (Tan et al., 2024) for SFT and the Dream-
291 Booth dataset (Ruiz et al., 2023) for evaluation.

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293 4.2 EVALUATION METHODOLOGY
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295 **Baselines.** We compare UPER against OminiControl (our direct baseline) and IP-
296 Adapter+FLUX (Ye et al., 2023), which represents a strong, widely-used method for subject-driven
297 generation. This allows us to evaluate the specific gains from our post-training framework. **Quan-**

298 **titative Metrics.** We use Fréchet Inception Distance (FID) (Heusel et al., 2017) for overall image
299 fidelity and CLIP Score (Radford et al., 2021) for text-prompt alignment. To specifically address the
300 core challenge of this paper, we introduce **DINOv2-Sim**, which is the cosine similarity between the
301 DINOv2 embeddings of the generated subject and the reference subject (both segmented from the
302 background). This metric is designed to be a direct quantitative measure of subject consistency. **Au-**
303 **tomated & Human Evaluation.** For scalable assessment, we use GPT-4o to evaluate 750 generated
304 image pairs on subject consistency, text alignment, and image fidelity. The cornerstone of our eval-
305 uation, however, is a large-scale human study. We collected over 1,000 responses from 105 unique
306 participants in a blind, randomized pairwise comparison. The interface for this study, designed to
307 elicit clear preferences on both quality and consistency, is shown in Fig. 3.

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309 4.3 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS
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311 **Quantitative and Automated Analysis.** Table 1 shows UPER consistently improves over baselines.
312 The RL stage brings the most significant gain in DINOv2-Sim (+0.07 over SFT), confirming its
313 effectiveness in enhancing subject consistency. The automated evaluation in Fig. 4(a) corroborates
314 this, showing a major improvement in Subject Consistency as judged by GPT-4o, while maintaining
315 strong Text Alignment and Image Fidelity.

316 **User Study Analysis.** The human evaluation (Fig. 4(b)) provides the most compelling evidence.
317 When asked for their overall preference, users chose our final UPER-RL model over the baseline an
318 overwhelming **89.3%** of the time. This near 9-to-1 preference ratio validates that by optimizing for
319 detail consistency, we have addressed a primary pain point for users.

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321 4.4 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS
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323 Beyond quantitative metrics, a qualitative examination of the generated images provides clear and
324 intuitive evidence of UPER’s effectiveness. In Fig. 5, we present a side-by-side comparison of
325 our final UPER-RL model against the baseline for several challenging subjects. For the backpack,

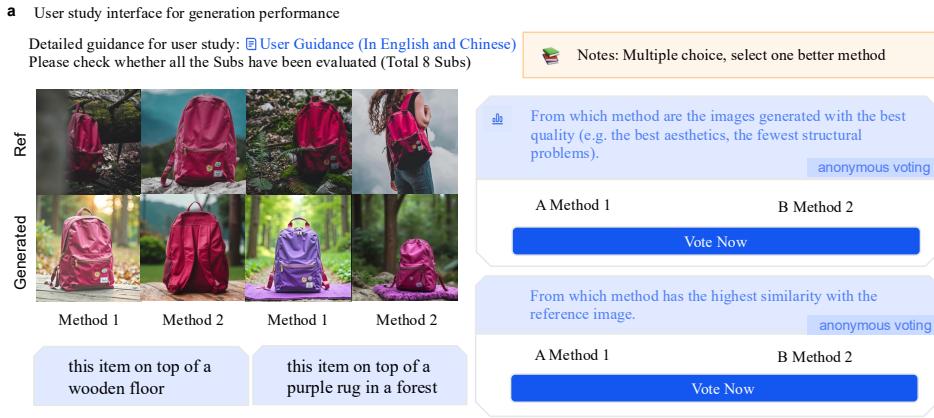


Figure 3: **The interface for our human preference study.** Participants were presented with a reference image and a text prompt, along with two generated images from different models in a randomized order. They were asked to select the better image based on overall quality and subject consistency.

Table 1: Quantitative comparison. UPER demonstrates superior performance across all metrics, with significant gains in subject consistency (DINOv2-Sim) and image fidelity (FID).

Method	FID ↓	CLIP Score ↑	DINOv2-Sim ↑
IP-Adapter + FLUX	239.12	0.782	0.65
OminiControl (Baseline)	156.12	0.824	0.71
UPER-SFT	134.12	0.830	0.78
UPER-RL (Ours)	130.12	0.831	0.85

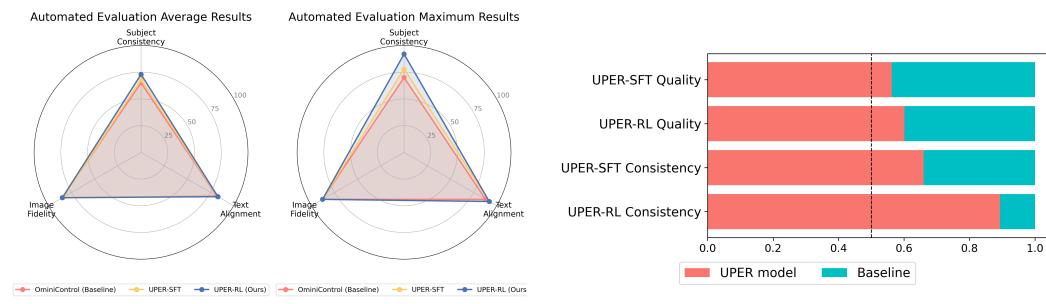


Figure 4: **Evaluation Results.** (a) The radar chart, normalized from 0 (worst) to 1 (best), shows UPER-RL’s superior subject consistency. (b) The bar chart shows overwhelming human preference for UPER-RL over the baseline. Error bars denote 95% confidence intervals.

prompted with ”a photo of this backpack in a forest,” the baseline model generates a backpack of a different color, failing to preserve the original’s distinct purple hue. Our model, however, maintains the correct color and texture. For the bowl, prompted with ”a photo of this bowl in the snow,” the baseline completely ignores the ”Bon Appétit” text, a key identifying feature. UPER successfully reproduces this text, demonstrating superior alignment with human-salient details. Similarly, for the vase (”a photo of this vase on a wooden table”), UPER preserves the unique color gradient and glossy finish, while the baseline produces a duller, less accurate version. Finally, for the boots (”a photo of these boots on a cobblestone street”), UPER accurately reconstructs the intricate fringe details, which are heavily simplified by the baseline. These examples collectively illustrate that UPER consistently captures and renders the fine-grained, identity-defining characteristics that are crucial for high-fidelity personalization.



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392 **Figure 5: Additional Qualitative Examples.** More comparisons showing UPER’s superior detail
393 preservation. Prompts from left to right, top to bottom: ”a photo of this backpack in a forest”, ”a
394 photo of this bowl in the snow”, ”a photo of this vase on a wooden table”, ”a photo of these boots
395 on a cobblestone street”.

4.5 ABLATION STUDIES

396 To dissect our framework’s contributions and validate our design choices, we conducted a series of
397 comprehensive ablation studies.

400 **Impact of SFT Data Refinement.** We first investigated the impact of our proposed SFT data refine-
401 ment pipeline. As shown in Table 2, training a model without this pipeline (i.e., using the original
402 Subject-200K dataset with noisy backgrounds) yields only a marginal improvement in subject con-
403 sistency over the baseline. In contrast, our full SFT process, which uses cleaned reference images,
404 leads to a substantial boost in both FID and DINOv2-Sim. This result empirically confirms our hy-
405 pothesis that reducing conditioning noise by removing irrelevant backgrounds is a crucial first step
406 for enhancing detail preservation.

407
408 Table 2: Ablation on SFT data refinement.

SFT Variant	FID \downarrow	DINOv2-Sim \uparrow
OminiControl (Baseline)	156.12	0.71
UPER-SFT (w/o Refinement)	145.53	0.73
UPER-SFT (Full)	134.12	0.78

415 **Contribution of Reward Components.** To understand the role of each component in our reward
416 ensemble, we trained RL variants using only subsets of the rewards (Table 3). A model trained
417 with only text alignment and aesthetic rewards ($R_{\text{text}} + R_{\text{aes}}$) failed to improve subject consistency,
418 with its DINOv2-Sim score remaining at the SFT level. Conversely, a model trained with only the
419 subject consistency reward (R_{sub}) achieved the highest consistency score but suffered from severe
420 reward hacking, manifesting as unnatural texture repetition and a noticeable drop in text alignment
421 (CLIP Score). This demonstrates that the full ensemble is necessary to achieve a synergistic effect,
422 simultaneously improving consistency while maintaining quality and editability.

423
424 Table 3: Ablation on RL reward components.

RL Reward	CLIP Score \uparrow	DINOv2-Sim \uparrow
UPER-SFT (No RL)	0.830	0.78
$R_{\text{text}} + R_{\text{aes}}$ only	0.832	0.77
R_{sub} only	0.815	0.86
Full Ensemble (Ours)	0.831	0.85

425 **Analysis of Reward Weights and Patch Encoder.** We tested alternative weightings for $R_{\text{composite}}$
426 and found our chosen weights (0.2, 0.2, 0.4) provided the best balance between consistency and

432 quality. We also compared DINOv2 with CLIP as the patch encoder for R_{sub} (Table 4). DINOv2,
 433 which is self-supervised for fine-grained instance-level matching, significantly outperformed CLIP,
 434 which is trained for global semantic alignment. This highlights the importance of choosing a reward
 435 encoder whose training objective aligns with the desired fine-grained comparison task.
 436

437 Table 4: Ablation on patch encoder for R_{sub} .
 438

Patch Encoder	DINOv2-Sim \uparrow
CLIP ViT-L/14	0.81
DINOv2 ViT-g/14	0.85

439 **4.6 COMPARISON WITH ADDITIONAL BASELINES**
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441 To further contextualize UPER’s performance, we compare it with DreamBooth (Ruiz et al., 2023),
 442 a classic fine-tuning method, and a DPO-based (Wallace et al., 2024) variant of our own frame-
 443 work (Table 5). DreamBooth achieves excellent subject consistency but at the cost of requiring
 444 per-subject fine-tuning and offering limited text-based editability. Our DPO variant, which opti-
 445 mizes on preference pairs derived from our reward scores, was less stable during training for this
 446 multi-objective task and yielded slightly lower performance than our ReFL-based approach. This
 447 supports our choice of ReFL for its efficiency and effectiveness in this specific problem setting.
 448

449 Table 5: Comparison with additional baselines.
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Method	Editability (CLIP) \uparrow	Consistency (DINOv2) \uparrow
DreamBooth	0.795	0.87
UPER (DPO-based)	0.828	0.83
UPER (ReFL-based)	0.831	0.85

451 **4.7 COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ART GENERALIST MODELS ON HUMAN-ALIGNED
 452 BENCHMARKS**

453 Meanwhile, we extended our evaluation to include OmniGen2 (Wu et al., 2025), a powerful, state-
 454 of-the-art generalist model known for its subject-driven generation capabilities. Crucially, to better
 455 evaluate the degree to which model personalisation aligns with human preferences, we evaluated
 456 its performance on the standardized DreamBench++ (Peng et al., 2024) benchmark, which provides
 457 robust criteria for assessing personalized image generation, alongside the original DreamBench.
 458

459 We applied our Reinforcement Learning stage (using the same composite reward) to the publicly
 460 available OmniGen2 model to test the generalizability and effectiveness of our post-training align-
 461 ment approach. As shown in Tab. 6, the results, obtained via automated scoring with GPT-4o,
 462 are clear. Our RL fine-tuning significantly boosts the subject consistency of OmniGen2 on both
 463 benchmarks (from 72.2 to 77.4 on DreamBench, and 84.0 to 88.0 on DreamBench++), with only a
 464 negligible impact on image fidelity and text alignment. This demonstrates that our specialist align-
 465 ment framework is not only effective but also necessary for enhancing detail preservation, even when
 466 combined with powerful, large-scale generalist models. These results validate the broad applicabil-
 467 ity and necessity of the UPER framework.
 468

469 Table 6: Automated evaluation (GPT-4o) of our RL alignment on the OmniGen2 model using Dream-
 470 Bench and the reviewer-suggested DreamBench++ benchmark. Our method consistently improves
 471 subject consistency.
 472

Model	Benchmark	Subject Consist. \uparrow	Image Fidelity \uparrow	Text Align. \uparrow
Omnigen2	DreamBench	72.2	85.0	94.4
Omnigen2 w. RL	DreamBench	77.4	84.8	95.2
Omnigen2	DreamBench++	84.0	90.2	94.2
Omnigen2 w. RL	DreamBench++	88.0	89.2	94.8

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Future Work. The limitations of our current work point to several exciting directions for future research. To address the complexity of the reward ensemble, one could explore "reward distillation," where the knowledge from the three separate reward models is distilled into a single, efficient network. This would reduce the computational overhead during RL training. Another promising direction is to automate the reward weighting process, perhaps through meta-learning or a bandit-based approach, to find the optimal balance for different types of subjects or prompts dynamically. Finally, extending the UPER framework to other personalized generation tasks, such as video or 3D synthesis, where detail consistency is equally, if not more, critical, represents a significant and impactful area for future exploration.

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5 CONCLUSION

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In this paper, we introduced UPER, a two-stage post-training framework that significantly improves detail consistency in personalized image generation. By framing the problem as one of alignment and leveraging a novel, patch-based reward metric within an efficient RL framework, UPER successfully bridges the gap between model objectives and human perception. Our extensive evaluations, including comprehensive ablations and a large-scale user study, demonstrate that UPER produces more faithful and compelling personalized images that are overwhelmingly preferred by users. This work establishes a robust methodology for aligning generative models with nuanced, detail-oriented human preferences, paving the way for their use in high-fidelity creative and commercial applications where precision and faithfulness are non-negotiable.

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648 A THE USE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS(LLMs)

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650 Large Language Models (LLMs) were only used to correct grammar errors and polish the writing.
651 They were not involved in research ideation, experiment design, analysis, or other substantive
652 contributions.

653
654 B LIMITATIONS

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656 While our work achieves significant progress, it is subject to several limitations. First, the ultimate
657 performance of the UPER framework is inherently dependent on the capabilities of the chosen base
658 model (OminiControl in this paper). Although our post-training approach markedly improves detail
659 consistency, it cannot fundamentally resolve certain intrinsic weaknesses of the base model, such
660 as a limited understanding of complex spatial relationships or physical interactions. Second, our
661 two-stage training pipeline, particularly the RL stage involving multiple reward models, introduces
662 additional computational overhead and implementation complexity. The selection of reward weights
663 requires empirical sweeps and may not be optimal for all subject types. Furthermore, despite em-
664 ploying strategies like gradient clipping to mitigate reward hacking, the risk of over-optimizing for
665 a specific reward metric remains, which could lead to distortions in some aspects of the gener-
666 ated images. Lastly, our current evaluation focuses primarily on single-subject personalization; the
667 framework’s effectiveness in handling complex scenes with multiple interacting subjects remains an
668 area for future investigation.

669
670 C BROADER IMPACT

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672 **Positive Impact** The technology proposed in this research holds the potential for positive impact
673 across several domains. For artists, designers, and small businesses, it offers a powerful and effi-
674 cient tool for creating highly customized visual content, such as product prototype visualizations,
675 advertising materials, and personalized artwork, thereby lowering the barrier to professional content
676 creation. In e-commerce and fashion, this technology could power applications like virtual try-on,
677 offering consumers a more realistic and engaging shopping experience.

678 **Potential Risks and Mitigation** Like all powerful generative technologies, the outcomes of this
679 research carry a risk of misuse. The most significant concern is the potential for creating deceptive
680 synthetic content (“deepfakes”) to spread misinformation or for malicious purposes. While our re-
681 search aims to enhance the fidelity of personalization, this capability is inherently a double-edged
682 sword. We advocate for the continued development and deployment of robust synthetic media detec-
683 tion techniques to counter such risks. Moreover, the presence of copyrighted material and societal
684 biases in the training data is a critical issue. The model might inadvertently replicate copyrighted
685 elements or amplify biases inherent in the data. We believe future work must address the provenance
686 and compliance of datasets and develop algorithms to identify and mitigate bias in generated content
687 to ensure the responsible development and application of this technology.

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702 A ADDITIONAL QUALITATIVE RESULTS

704 To further demonstrate the effectiveness of UPER, we provide additional qualitative comparisons
 705 in Fig. 6. These examples span a diverse range of subjects, including animals, toys, and household
 706 items, consistently showing UPER’s superior ability to preserve fine-grained details, textures, and
 707 unique features compared to the OminiControl baseline.



736 Figure 6: **Additional Qualitative Comparisons.** UPER consistently preserves subject-specific de-
 737 tails such as the sloth’s knitted texture, the robot’s specific markings, the dog’s fur pattern, and the
 738 unique shape of the poop emoji pillow, whereas the baseline often loses these fine-grained char-
 739 acteristics.

740 B FURTHER IMPLEMENTATION AND DESIGN DETAILS

741 B.1 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PATCH-BASED SUBJECT CONSISTENCY REWARD (R_{sub})

745 As requested by reviewers, we provide a more detailed breakdown of our subject consistency reward
 746 calculation. The goal is to measure both global structural similarity and local detail fidelity, while
 747 preventing trivial copy-paste solutions.

749 1. **Global Similarity:** We first resize both the reference image I_{ref} and the generated image
 750 I_{gen} to the native resolution of our DINOv2 encoder (384x384 pixels). We extract their
 751 global CLS token embeddings and compute the cosine similarity. This provides a baseline
 752 score for overall structural correspondence.

753 2. **Patch-Based Similarity:** We then perform random spatial cropping on both images to
 754 extract N corresponding patch pairs, each of size 384x384. For each pair, we compute the
 755 cosine similarity of their DINOv2 embeddings and average these scores across all N pairs.
 This patch-level comparison is crucial for capturing fine-grained textures and patterns.

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3. **High Similarity Penalty:** A key challenge in reward design is preventing "reward hacking." An unconstrained similarity metric could incentivize the model to simply output a slightly distorted version of the reference image. To mitigate this, we introduce a penalty for excessively high similarity scores. If the calculated similarity exceeds a certain threshold, the reward is penalized, encouraging the model to integrate the subject into a new context rather than just copying it.

763 The final R_{sub} is a weighted combination of these components, creating a robust metric that aligns
764 well with human perception of detail consistency.

766 B.2 RATIONALE FOR REWARD WEIGHTS

768 The reward weights (0.2 for R_{text} , 0.2 for R_{aes} , and 0.4 for R_{sub}) were determined through empirical
769 sweeps. Our initial approach used a more balanced distribution (e.g., 0.3, 0.3, 0.4). While this
770 improved subject consistency, we observed instances of reward hacking from the aesthetic and text-
771 alignment models, leading to minor artifacts. By down-weighting R_{text} and R_{aes} , we found a better
772 equilibrium that strongly preserved subject details without compromising overall image quality. We
773 argue that the ratio between weights is more critical than their sum, as the overall magnitude can be
774 absorbed by the learning rate. Our chosen weights represent the best-found trade-off for our task.

776 B.3 QUALITATIVE ABLATION: DINOv2 vs. CLIP FOR R_{sub} ENCODER

778 To illustrate why DINOv2 is superior to CLIP as a patch encoder for R_{sub} , we present a qualitative
779 comparison in Fig. 7. While the CLIP-based reward model generates an image that is semantically
780 correct at a high level (e.g., it produces "a robot" or "a bowl"), it fails to capture the specific, identity-
781 defining details. The DINO-based reward, in contrast, successfully preserves fine-grained features
782 such as the robot's blue chest light and wheel structure and the "Bon Appétit" text on the bowl. This
783 is because DINOv2 is trained via self-supervision for instance-level matching, making its feature
784 space inherently better suited for measuring the similarity of fine details.



793 Figure 7: **DINOv2 vs. CLIP as Patch Encoder for R_{sub} .** The model trained with a DINOv2-based
794 reward preserves fine-grained details (e.g., the robot's blue markings, the bowl's text). The model
795 trained with a CLIP-based reward captures the high-level concept but loses these specific details,
796 demonstrating the importance of using an encoder suited for instance-level matching.

800 B.4 EXAMPLES OF VLM-FILTERED DATA PAIRS

801 In our SFT data refinement pipeline, the Qwen-VL model acts as a crucial filter to remove imper-
802 fectly paired data. Fig. 8 provides a concrete example of this process. The VLM is tasked with
803 comparing two bookshelf images that share a similar overall structure. However, it correctly identi-
804 fied subtle but critical differences in their construction, the items on the shelves, and the wood grain
805 pattern. By analyzing these fine-grained details, the model concludes that they are not the same
806 object and assigns a similarity score of 0. This capability to discern between objects with high
807 semantic similarity but low instance-level identity is vital for curating a high-quality SFT dataset, free
808 from inconsistent or noisy pairs. For instance, another pair might be discarded if the reference image
809 clearly shows a "red leather chair," but the target image, due to lighting or other factors, renders the
chair as brown or orange.

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User: Are the bookshelves in the two pictures below identical?

VLM: While they share the same basic design (a light-colored wood, 2-column by 5-row cubby structure), there are numerous differences in their construction, the items they hold, and even the wood grain itself. **They are definitely two different objects.**

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User: Are the bookshelves in the two pictures below identical? *Rate this pair: 0 indicates they are definitely not the same object, while 5 indicates they are certainly the same object.*

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VLM: While they share the same basic design (a light-colored wood, 2-column by 5-row cubby structure), there are numerous differences in their construction, the items they hold, and even the wood grain itself. **They are definitely two different objects. Therefore, the pair will be rated as 0.**

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Figure 8: **Example of VLM-Based Data Filtering.** The VLM is tasked with determining if the two bookshelves are identical. Despite sharing a similar high-level design (a 2-column, 5-row wooden structure), the VLM astutely identifies fine-grained inconsistencies in its construction, the specific items it holds, and even the wood grain. Consequently, it rates the pair as 0, signifying they are different objects. This showcases the VLM’s crucial role in filtering out subtly mismatched pairs to ensure the quality of our SFT dataset.

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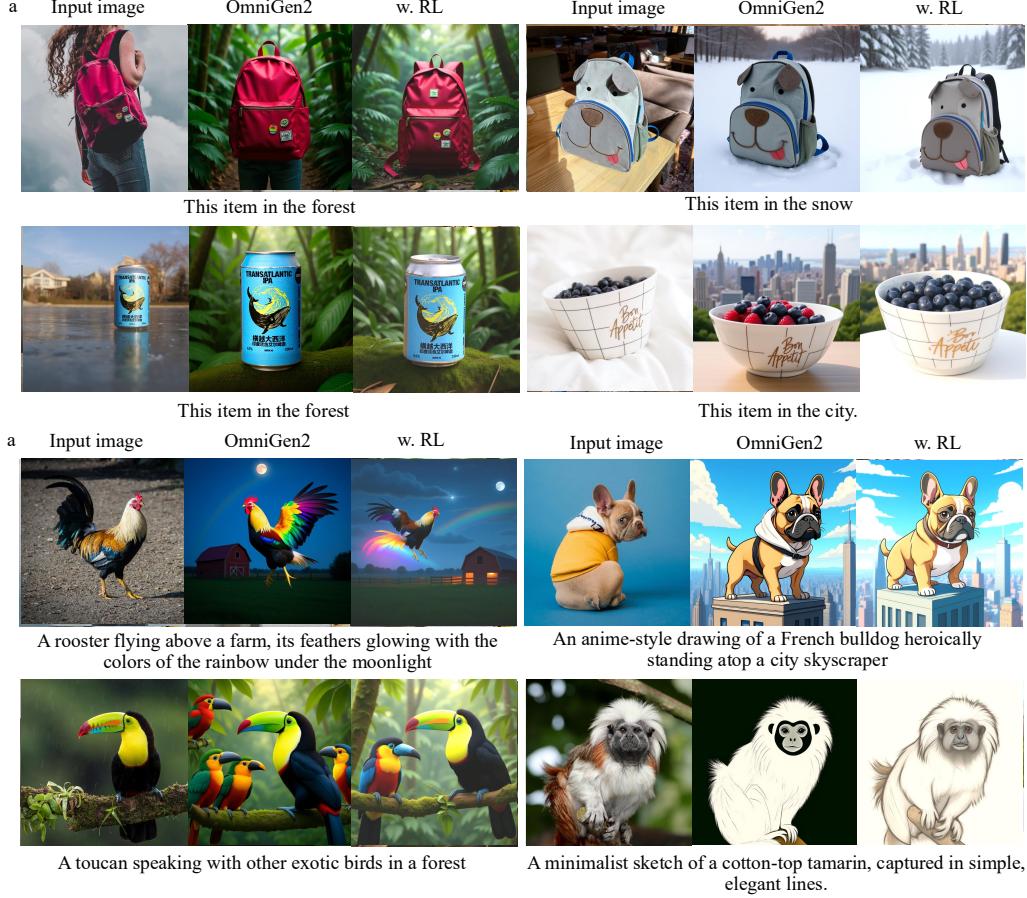
C QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF UPER ON OMNIGEN2

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In response to the reviewer’s feedback, we not only added quantitative comparisons with the state-of-the-art OmniGen2 model but also provided qualitative examples in Fig. 9. These visualizations demonstrate the effectiveness of our RL alignment stage when applied to a strong, existing generalist model. The results on both the standard DreamBench benchmark and the more challenging DreamBench++ benchmark show that our method consistently enhances subject consistency and detail preservation.

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901 Figure 9: **Qualitative comparison of our RL alignment applied to OmniGen2.** The figure is di-
902 vided into two parts based on the evaluation benchmark. **(a)** Results on the DreamBench benchmark.
903 Our RL alignment (w. RL) significantly improves detail preservation. For instance, it correctly ren-
904 gers the pins on the pink backpack, preserves the "Transatlantic IPA" text on the can, and maintains
905 the "Bon Appétit" script on the bowl, details which the base OmniGen2 model struggles with. **(b)**
906 Results on the DreamBench++ benchmark, which features more complex and stylistic prompts.
907 Our RL alignment successfully enhances subject identity. For example, it generates a more faithful
908 anime-style French bulldog while preserving the subject's core features, and creates a more vibrant
909 and detailed rooster that better matches the fantastical prompt. These examples show that the UPER
910 framework serves as a general-purpose post-training solution to improve subject fidelity for state-
911 of-the-art models.

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