

# Personalized Generation In Large Model Era: A Survey

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## Abstract

In the era of large models, content generation is gradually shifting to Personalized Generation (PGen), tailoring content to individual preferences and needs. This paper presents the first comprehensive survey on PGen, investigating existing research in this rapidly growing field. We conceptualize PGen from a unified perspective, systematically formalizing its key components, core objectives, and abstract workflows. Based on this unified perspective, we propose a multi-level taxonomy, offering an in-depth review of technical advancements, commonly used datasets, and evaluation metrics across multiple modalities, personalized contexts, and tasks. Moreover, we envision the potential applications of PGen and highlight open challenges and promising directions for future exploration. By bridging PGen research across multiple modalities, this survey serves as a valuable resource for fostering knowledge sharing and interdisciplinary collaboration, ultimately contributing to a more personalized digital landscape.

## 1 Introduction

Recent advancements in large generative models have catalyzed a paradigm shift in content generation, moving from generic, one-size-fits-all generation to Personalized Generation (PGen) (Wang et al., 2023c; Xu et al., 2024c; Nguyen et al., 2024b). By crafting personalized content that resonates more deeply with individual preferences, PGen holds great potential to enhance user-centric services and foster more engaging, immersive user experiences across various domains, such as customized product images in e-commerce (Yang et al., 2024a), personalized advertisements in marketing campaigns (Tang et al., 2024a), and personalized AI assistants (Zhang et al., 2024a). Given its significant potential, PGen has attracted significant attention from both academia and industry.

Despite significant progress (Alaluf et al., 2025; Salemi et al., 2024b), research efforts in PGen have largely evolved independently within different communities, such as Natural Language Processing (NLP), Computer Vision (CV), and Information Retrieval (IR). There is no survey that specifically provides a cross-community overview of PGen research. Existing surveys related to PGen separately follow either a model-centric or task-centric perspective, offering only partial summaries of relevant studies. 1) Model-centric surveys focus on specific generative models for personalization, such as Multimodal Large Language Models (MLLMs) (Wu et al., 2024b), Large Language Models (LLMs) (Zhang et al., 2024j; Chen et al., 2024e; Li et al., 2024i), and Diffusion Models (DMs) (Zhang et al., 2024g); 2) Task-centric surveys summarize personalization techniques in specific applications, such as dialogue generation (Chen et al., 2024f), role-playing (Chen et al., 2024d; Tseng et al., 2024), and generative recommendation (Ayemowa et al., 2024). None of these offers a unified framework that comprehensively summarizes PGen research across communities.

A unified framework is crucial for systematically reviewing recent advances and emerging trends in PGen, providing a comprehensive, panoramic view of this field. Moreover, it can foster communication, knowledge sharing, and collaboration between various research communities, ultimately driving the development of a more advanced and personalized digital ecosystem. However, conducting such a unified survey is challenging, as different communities prioritize distinct modalities. For instance, the NLP and IR communities primarily focus on the text modality, while CV specializes in image, video, and 3D. Since each modality presents distinct data structures and challenges, these modality-specific differences introduce inherent technical divergences, making it difficult to unify PGen research into a cohesive framework.

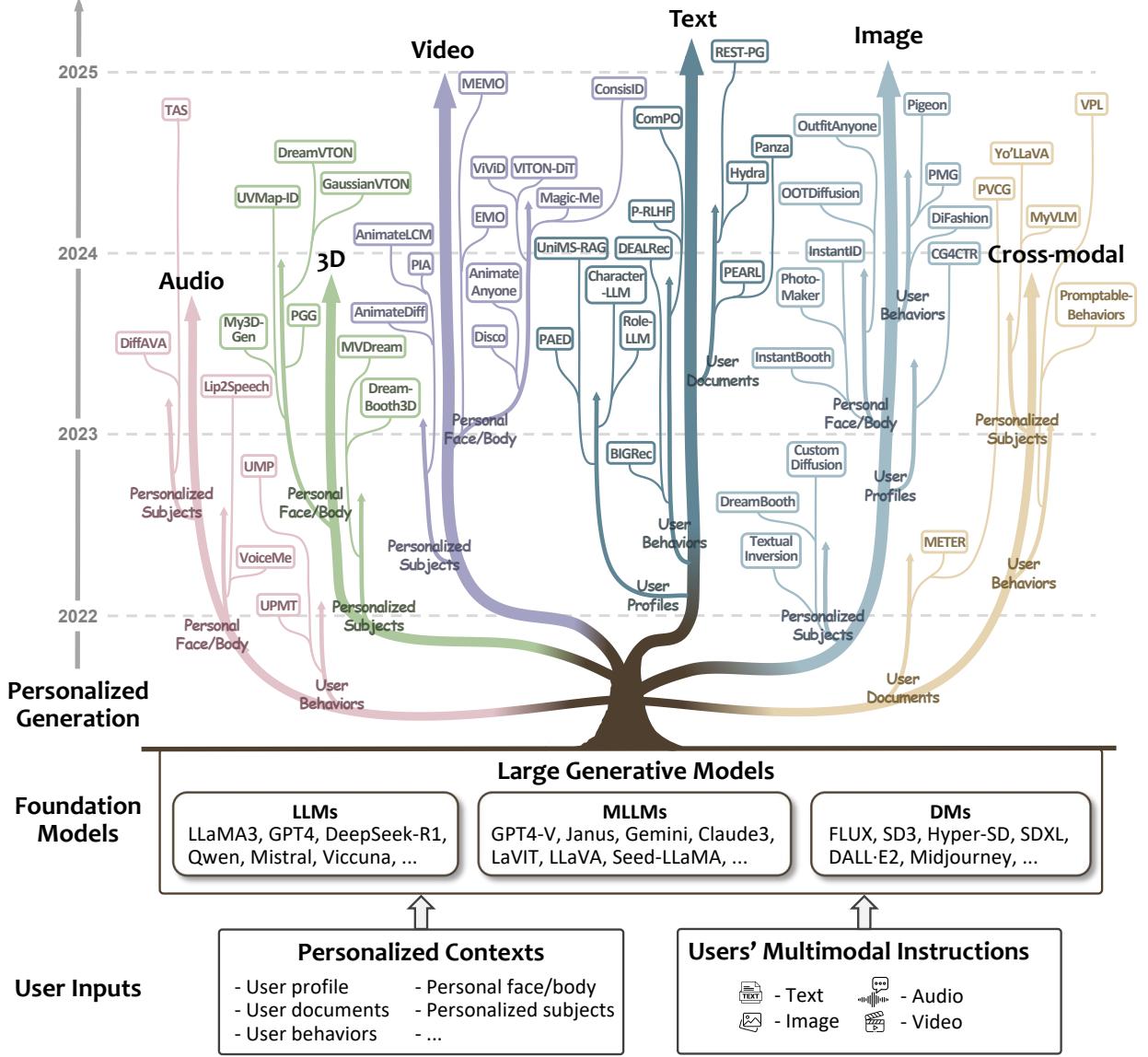


Figure 1: Overview of personalized generation across modalities, inspired by the figure in Yang et al. (2024b).

To address these challenges, it is essential to re-examine PGen from a high-level, modality-agnostic perspective. Fundamentally, PGen entails user modeling based on various personalized contexts and multimodal instructions, extracting personalized signals to guide the content generation process. As illustrated in Figure 1, existing PGen research essentially models various user inputs and leverages generative models for personalized content generation in multiple modalities.

To this end, we present the first survey dedicated to PGen. The structure of this survey and our key contributions are summarized as follows:

- **A unified user-centric perspective for PGen (Section 2).** We conceptualize PGen by formalizing the key components, core objectives, and general workflow, integrating studies across different modalities into a holistic framework.

- **A multi-level taxonomy for existing work in PGen (Section 3).** Building on the unified perspective, we introduce a novel taxonomy that systematically reviews PGen’s technical advancements, commonly used datasets, and evaluation metrics across various modalities, personalized contexts, and tasks.
- **An outlook for potential applications of PGen in enhancing user-centric services (Section 4).** We categorize potential applications of PGen by content personalization stages, with a focus on the content creation and delivery processes.
- **An overview of key open problems in PGen for future research (Section 5).** We outline the critical open problems that need to be addressed to drive innovation in future research and advance the user-centric content ecosystem.

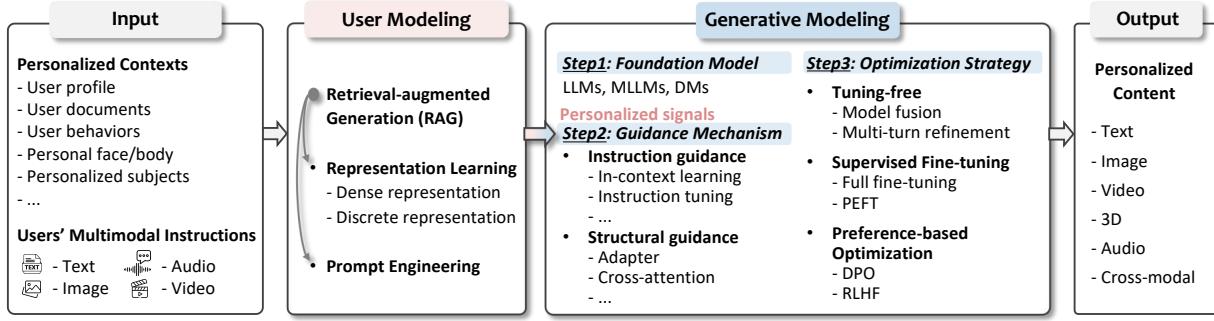


Figure 2: Personalized generation workflow.

## 2 A Unified User-centric Perspective for Personalized Generation

### 2.1 Task Formulation

PGen leverages generative models to synthesize content tailored to individual preferences and specific needs. As illustrated in Figure 1, it relies on two essential user inputs: 1) **Personalized contexts** that encapsulate user preferences; 2) **Users' multimodal instructions**, which include textual prompts, voice commands, and other modality-specific inputs that explicitly convey their content needs. Generative models learn user preferences and personal characteristics from diverse personalized contexts and follow users' multimodal instructions to generate customized content across different modalities. The personalized contexts encompass the following dimensions:

- **User profiles:** A collection of demographic and personal attributes associated with a specific user, such as age, gender, occupation, and location.
- **User documents:** User-created textual content, such as comments, emails, and social media posts, that reflects personal creative preferences.
- **User behaviors:** User interactions captured during user engagement, such as searches, clicks, likes, comments, views, shares, and purchases.
- **Personal face/body:** Individual facial and bodily traits, including both static features (*e.g.*, facial structure and body shape) and dynamic features (*e.g.*, expressions, gestures, and motions). These are widely used in tasks like portrait generation, fashion virtual try-ons, and 3D modeling.
- **Personalized subjects:** User-specific concepts or entities, such as pets, personal items, and favorite objects that reflect unique tastes.

By integrating personalized contexts with users' multimodal instructions, generative models can create highly tailored content, aligning closely with individual preferences and addressing specific needs.

### 2.2 Objectives

Although PGen in each modality is shaped by unique data structures, specific challenges, and distinct tasks, three essential objectives and evaluation dimensions remain consistent across modalities:

- **High quality:** Ensuring the generated content meets high standards of coherence, relevance, and aesthetics.
- **Instruction alignment:** Requiring the generated content to accurately adhere to users' multimodal instructions and effectively address their needs.
- **Personalization:** Guaranteeing that the generated content aligns with personalized contexts and caters to specific user preferences.

While text generation has consistently achieved high-quality outputs, challenges persist in other modalities, such as image, video, audio, and 3D generation. In these domains, generated content can sometimes appear chaotic or disjointed. Maintaining high-quality standards across all modalities is fundamental to achieving successful personalized generation. Furthermore, in certain domains where *factual accuracy* is particularly important, such as news, laws, policies, and expert knowledge, generative models must prioritize authenticity to ensure the reliability and trustworthiness of the content provided to users.

### 2.3 Workflow

As shown in Figure 2, the PGen workflow involves two key processes: 1) user modeling based on diverse user-specific data and 2) generative modeling across multiple modalities, ensuring high-quality, instruction-aligned, and personalized content.

**User Modeling** To effectively capture user preferences and specific content needs based on personalized contexts and users' multimodal instructions, three key techniques are commonly employed: 1) Representation learning, which encodes these inputs into dense embeddings (Ruiz et al., 2023; Tang

et al., 2024b) or summarizes them into discrete representations (*e.g.*, texts) (Shen et al., 2024b); 2) Prompt engineering, which involves designing task-specific prompts to structure user-specific information for generative models (Chen et al., 2024g; Li et al., 2025); and 3) Retrieval-augmented generation (RAG), which enriches user-specific information by filtering out irrelevant information and integrating external relevant data (Salemi and Zamani, 2024; Mysore et al., 2024). By combining these techniques, user modeling establishes a robust foundation for PGen, extracting personalized signals to guide content personalization within the generative modeling process.

**Generative Modeling** To generate personalized content effectively, generative modeling follows a structured three-step process:

- **Step1: Foundation model.** In the era of large models, LLMs, MLLMs, and DMs serve as the backbone for content generation. Selecting an appropriate foundation model based on the target modality, task requirements, and user-specific data is crucial for achieving accurate and personalized content.
- **Step2: Guidance mechanism.** To effectively integrate personalized signals, two primary guidance mechanisms are employed: instruction guidance and structural guidance. Specifically, instruction guidance ensures models follow explicit user prompts and instructions using techniques such as in-context learning (Xu et al., 2023b; Chen et al., 2024g) and instruction tuning (Pi et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2024c). In contrast, structural guidance modifies the model architecture by incorporating additional modules, such as adapters (Ye et al., 2023) and cross-attention mechanisms (Wei et al., 2023), to embed personalized information.
- **Step3: Optimization Strategy.** Empowering large generative models with the capability of personalized generation involves three primary optimization strategies: 1) Tuning-free methods, which utilize pre-trained models for personalized generation without modifying model parameters. These methods often rely on model fusion to assemble multiple pre-trained models (Ding et al., 2024) or employ interactive generation processes that collect real-time user feedback for multi-turn refinement (Von Rütte et al., 2023), ensuring alignment with individual preferences. 2) Supervised fine-tuning which optimizes model pa-

rameters using explicit supervision signals, either through full fine-tuning (Xu et al., 2024b; Ruiz et al., 2023) or Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning (PEFT) techniques (Wu et al., 2024f; Tan et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024b). 3) Preference-based optimization, which incorporates user preference data to update model parameters. A key approach is Reinforcement Learning with Human Feedback (RLHF) (Li et al., 2024g; Zhang, 2024), which employs an explicit reward model to guide optimization. Alternatively, Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) offers a streamlined solution by directly aligning model parameters with pairwise user preferences (Zhang et al., 2024c; Huang et al., 2024b).

By integrating these advanced techniques and strategies, this workflow not only ensures adaptability to diverse personalized contexts and user instructions but also highlights the evolving landscape of large generative models, offering a scalable solution for PGen.

### 3 Personalized Generation Across Modalities

Based on the unified perspective, we present a multi-level taxonomy for PGen, systematically reviewing PGen research across various modalities, personalized contexts, and specific tasks, as outlined in Table 1. Studies on PGen are first categorized by modality, including text, image, video, audio, 3D, and cross-modal generation. Within each modality, we further classify research based on personalized contexts and examine corresponding tasks and techniques. A detailed review of image, video, and 3D modalities is provided in Appendix A. Additionally, we provide a comprehensive overview of commonly used evaluation metrics and datasets for each modality in Appendix B and summarize them in Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4.

#### 3.1 Personalized Text Generation

Personalized text generation aims to provide textual content tailored to user preferences and needs, involving tasks ranging from information seeking to user simulation.

##### 3.1.1 User Behaviors

User interactions with the system typically occur over time (Kelly and Belkin, 2002), allowing it to learn implicit preferences and behavioral patterns to enhance personalization and encourage

294 long-term engagement (Shi et al., 2013). This per-  
295 sonalized context is valuable for the following per-  
296 sonalized text-based tasks.

297 **Information Seeking** A primary use case of per-  
298 sonalized text generation is crafting responses to  
299 align with user preferences, enabling more engag-  
300 ing interactions. The system can leverage user feed-  
301 back (e.g., thumbs up/down and selected best re-  
302 sponds) to tailor its responses to user preferences.  
303 While personalization has been extensively stud-  
304 ied in the context of information access and search  
305 (Kasela et al., 2024; Zeng et al., 2023; Eugene  
306 et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2021), which aims to se-  
307 lect a response from predefined options, it remains  
308 relatively underexplored in generative scenarios.  
309 This is largely due to the lack of standardized met-  
310 rics and benchmarks. However, recently, Li et al.  
311 (2024g) explored the use of personalized feedback  
312 to train LLMs to generate more tailored summaries  
313 for users, as a form of information seeking. Kumar  
314 et al. (2024b) extends this approach by collecting  
315 preference feedback from a group of users as a com-  
316 munity to optimize the model’s ability to respond  
317 to their collective information needs.

318 **Recommendation** While recommendation is not  
319 directly involved in content generation, it plays  
320 a crucial role in delivering personalized content,  
321 which has been explored across various scenar-  
322 ios (Hou et al., 2024; Harper and Konstan, 2015;  
323 Wan and McAuley, 2018; Wu et al., 2020a). The  
324 use of generative models in Recommendation Sys-  
325 tems (RecSys) has been widely studied (Bao et al.,  
326 2023; Wu et al., 2024c; Yang et al., 2023a). Spec-  
327 ifically, LLMs have been utilized either through  
328 prompting (Lyu et al., 2024) or by training them  
329 directly to perform recommendation tasks as a  
330 form of text generation (Lin et al., 2024a). Be-  
331 yond transformer-based generative models, newer  
332 approaches like diffusion models have also been  
333 explored for recommendation, highlighting the ver-  
334 satility of generative methods in this domain (Wang  
335 et al., 2023e; Yang et al., 2024e).

336 Other work has also leveraged realistic user inter-  
337 action to explore personalization for review genera-  
338 tion (Ni et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020;  
339 Li et al., 2021) and news headline generation (Ao  
340 et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2023; Song et al., 2023). For  
341 example, Ao et al. (2021) presents a personalized  
342 headline generation benchmark by collecting user’s  
343 click history on Microsoft News.

### 3.1.2 User Documents

In some cases, users may not interact with the sys-  
tem frequently but can provide valuable informa-  
tion for personalization, such as user-created docu-  
ments (Salemi et al., 2024b).

**Writing Assistant** Personalization plays a criti-  
cal role in enhancing text-based writing assistants,  
enabling tailored text generation across diverse for-  
mats and styles. For this purpose, the LaMP bench-  
mark (Salemi et al., 2024b,a; Salemi and Zamani,  
2024; Zhuang et al., 2024) focuses on short-form  
text generation, such as creating headlines for news  
articles or subject lines for emails. In contrast,  
the LongLaMP benchmark (Kumar et al., 2024a)  
targets longer-form tasks, such as writing product  
reviews from a user’s perspective based on a rating,  
generating a post from its summary, or completing  
an email for a user (Salemi et al., 2025b). Addition-  
ally, the Personalized Linguistic Attributes Bench-  
mark (Alhafni et al., 2024) is designed for text  
completion tasks, such as extending a post or re-  
view, leveraging user-written documents to extract  
stylistic features that guide LLMs in mimicking a  
user’s unique writing style. In this domain, RAG  
is the dominant approach, retrieving relevant infor-  
mation from users’ historically written documents  
to extract their writing preferences (Mysore et al.,  
2024; Nicolicioiu et al., 2024; Li et al., 2023a).

### 3.1.3 User Profiles

Generative models can infer user preferences from  
their profiles to guide personalized text generation.

**Dialogue System** In recent years, chatbots and  
conversational systems have been a central focus  
of personalized text generation (Kottur et al., 2017;  
Thompson et al., 2004; Kaiss et al., 2023; Kocaballi  
et al., 2019). The advent of advanced chat models  
like GPT-4 and Gemini have enabled more sophis-  
ticated and personalized interactions. By defining  
a persona or personality for these models based on  
user profiles, the system can tailor responses to in-  
dividual preferences and needs (Pradhan and Lazar,  
2021; Song et al., 2019). To support research in this  
domain, various dialogue datasets have been devel-  
oped. For example, LiveChat (Gao et al., 2023) is  
a large-scale dataset created from live streaming  
interactions, FoCus (Jang et al., 2021) focuses on  
conversational information-seeking scenarios, and  
Pchatbot (Qian et al., 2021) compiles data from  
Weibo and judicial forums. Enhancing LLMs’ abil-  
ity to generate personalized responses involves ap-

394 proaches such as zero-shot prompting (Zhu et al.,  
395 2023b), in-context learning (Xu et al., 2023c), and  
396 training on limited persona datasets (Song et al.,  
397 2021; Wang et al., 2024d) or large-scale datasets  
398 (Zheng et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023b). Additionally,  
399 chain-of-thought reasoning has proven effective  
400 in improving alignment with user preferences  
401 in dialogue systems (Li et al., 2025).

402 **User Simulation** Previous research demonstrates  
403 that LLMs excel at performing roles or personas as-  
404 signed to them (Shanahan et al., 2023; Chen et al.,  
405 2024c), enabling user simulation based on their pro-  
406 files to extract preferences and further personalize  
407 the system for them (Magee et al., 2024; Santurkar  
408 et al., 2023). In this domain, Shao et al. (2023) de-  
409 velops a test playground to interview trained agents  
410 and assess whether they effectively memorize their  
411 assigned characters and experiences. Additionally,  
412 Wang et al. (2024e) introduced a large-scale  
413 dataset for evaluating the role-playing abilities of  
414 LLMs, while Ng et al. (2024) presented a dataset  
415 specifically designed for assessing these capabili-  
416 ties within video game contexts.

### 417 3.2 Personalized Audio Generation

418 Personalized audio generation extracts users' au-  
419 ditory preferences to create tailored audio content,  
420 such as music and speech.

#### 421 3.2.1 User behaviors

422 User behaviors on music, such as listening history  
423 and ratings, are important clues for inferring user  
424 preferences for personalization.

425 **Music Generation** Methods like UMP (Ma et al.,  
426 2022) and UP-Transformer (Hu et al., 2022) infer  
427 user preferences by analyzing listening histories  
428 and ratings. UIGAN (Wang et al., 2024j) adopts  
429 an interactive approach to collect user feedback,  
430 progressively refining the generated music. Ma  
431 et al. (2024b) construct a music community graph,  
432 where nodes represent users and songs, and edges  
433 capture relationships such as likes, subscriptions,  
434 and user interactions.

#### 435 3.2.2 Personalized Subjects

436 In some cases, users provide audio clips and aim  
437 to manipulate them using textual prompts.

438 **Text-to-Audio Generation** Personalized text-to-  
439 audio generation explores methods for synthesiz-  
440 ing tailored audio by aligning user preferences,  
441 textual descriptions, and contextual inputs. Mo

442 et al. (2023) utilize Contrastive Language-Audio  
443 Pretraining (CLAP) to align features across au-  
444 dio and visual-text modalities in the spatiotem-  
445 poral domain. Furthermore, Plitsis et al. (2024)  
446 adapt image-domain personalization techniques  
447 like Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2023) and Dream-  
448 Booth (Ruiz et al., 2023) to audio tasks, enhancing  
449 user-centric generation. Li et al. (2024j) introduce  
450 a Semantic-Aware Fusion (SAF) module to capture  
451 text-aware audio features, establishing nuanced per-  
452 ceptual relationships between text and audio inputs  
453 for more contextually aligned audio outputs.

#### 454 3.2.3 Personal Face/Body

455 Users may provide their facial images or videos, en-  
456 abling generative models to extract speaker-specific  
457 attributes for customized speech generation.

458 **Face-to-Speech Generation** VioceMe (van Rijn  
459 et al., 2022) employs SpeakerNet to derive speaker  
460 embeddings and incorporates Global Style To-  
461 kens (GST) for modeling speech styles. FR-  
462 PSS (Wang et al., 2022) enhances the extraction  
463 of speech features from facial characteristics us-  
464 ing a residual guidance strategy, which integrates  
465 prior speech information for improved efficiency.  
466 Lip2Speech (Sheng et al., 2023) leverages a Varia-  
467 tional Autoencoder (VAE) framework to disen-  
468 tangle speaker identity from linguistic content in  
469 videos, achieving fine-grained control over person-  
470 alized speech synthesis via speaker embeddings.

### 471 3.3 Personalized Cross-modal Generation

472 Personalized cross-modal generation primarily  
473 aims to produce personalized textual responses  
474 (e.g., captions, answers, or robot actions) based  
475 on multimodal personalized contexts (e.g., images,  
476 videos, historical robot trajectories).

#### 477 3.3.1 User behaviors

478 Based on user interactions, generative models can  
479 infer user preferences to tailor robotic behaviors.

480 **Robotics** Several studies have investigated infer-  
481 ring user preferences from historical trajectories  
482 and associated human feedback, enabling personal-  
483 ized robotic decision-making. Specifically, Poddar  
484 et al. (2024) proposed Variational Preference Learn-  
485 ing, integrating variational inference into RLHF to  
486 model diverse user preferences and enable active  
487 learning. Hwang et al. (2024) introduced “Prompt-  
488 able Behaviors”, using Multi-Objective Reinforce-  
489 ment Learning to dynamically customize policies

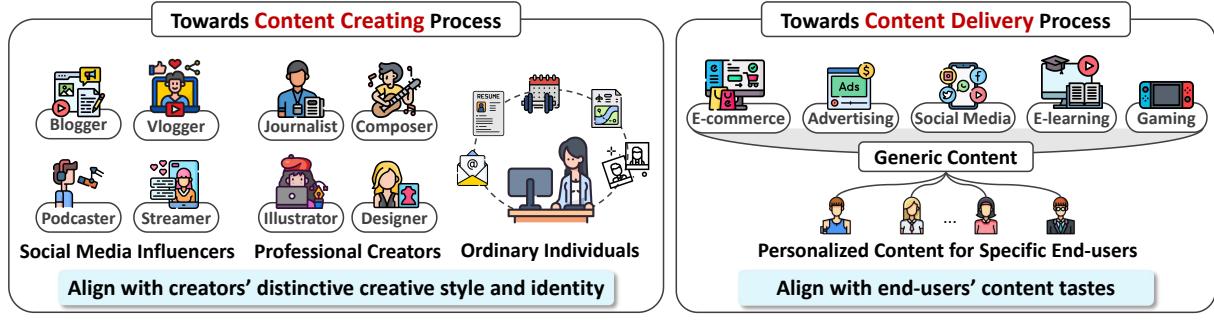


Figure 3: Applications of personalized generation.

via human demonstrations, trajectory feedback, and language instructions. Cui et al. (2024b) presented a framework with a RAG memory module to match individual users’ preferences and driving styles.

### 3.3.2 User Documents

User-created documents, such as comments, reviews, and captions can be used to infer their writing style and preferences for personalization.

**Caption/Comment Generation** Several studies utilize user-created captions and comments to develop personalized captioning and comment systems (Long et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020c; Geng et al., 2022). To effectively model user preferences, Shin et al. (2018) engages users by soliciting answers to targeted questions during generation. Lin et al. (2024b); Wu et al. (2024e) utilize users’ historical comments for personalized video comment generation. In addition, PV-LLM (Lin et al., 2024b) fine-tunes MLLMs using user-written comments, while PVCG (Wu et al., 2024e) learns a unique identifier for each user to enhance personalization.

### 3.3.3 Personalized subjects

In some cases, users may provide specific subject images, such as photos of their friends, for personalized visual question answering (e.g., “Give me a birthday gift list for my friend Peter.”).

**Cross-modal Dialogue Systems** Given user-specific subject images and queries, the systems are expected to identify these subjects and infer user intents for personalized responses. Existing studies in this domain mainly fall into two groups:

- Memory-based methods store user-specific subjects and activate or retrieve them as needed. For example, CSMN (Chunseong Park et al., 2017; Park et al., 2018) stores image memory, user context memory, and word output memory, and the model generates personalized captions based on memory features. Hao et al. (2024) leverages RAG techniques to personalize LMMs, allowing

LLMs to update their supported concepts without requiring additional training. PLVM (Pham et al., 2024) proposes a pre-trained Aligner to align referential concepts with the queried images.

- Optimization-based methods inject personalized information into the generation process via specific modules. For example, PerVL (Cohen et al., 2022), Yo’LLaVA (Nguyen et al., 2024b), and MC-LLaVA (An et al., 2024) learn to encode a personalized subject into a set of latent tokens based on several provided subject images. MyVLM (Alaluf et al., 2025) introduces learnable heads, each dedicated to recognizing a single user-specific subject. In addition, several studies have explored learning unique user embeddings Long et al. (2020); Zhang et al. (2020c); Xiong et al. (2020) or performing prefix tuning (Wang et al., 2023f) for personalization.

## 4 Applications

The prior section has highlighted the success of PGen across various modalities, demonstrating its potential to enhance user engagement and enrich experiences across diverse domains. As illustrated in Figure 3, applications of PGen can be categorized based on the stages of content personalization: 1) towards content creation process, which provides personalized tools and services for content creators of all levels to maintain their unique creative style while streamlining the creative workflows; and 2) towards content delivery process, which delivers multimodal content in a personalized manner tailored to individual preferences of end users. A more detailed discussion of PGen applications can be found in Appendix C.

## 5 Open Problems

Despite the significant progress made by PGen, several key challenges remain to be addressed.

## 5.1 Technical Challenges

- **Scalability and Efficiency.** PGen relies on large generative models for content personalization, which often require extensive resource costs, limiting their deployment to real-time, large-scale user scenarios. Developing scalable and efficient algorithms for PGen remains a critical direction for future research (Yang et al., 2024c).
- **Deliberative Reasoning for PGen.** In certain personalized scenarios that prioritize content quality over temporal efficiency – such as digital advertising, where advertisers typically serve only several ads per user each day – inference scaling presents significant opportunities for enhancing user satisfaction. Prior work mainly focuses on multi-turn refinement to progressively enhance content relevance and personalization (Nabati et al., 2024). Inspired by the great success of LLM reasoning (Guan et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2025), deliberative reasoning may emphasize extensive logical and contextual reasoning beforehand, enabling a thorough analysis of user preferences to drive more effective content personalization (Fang et al., 2025).
- **Evolving User Preference.** As explored in traditional RecSys (Wang et al., 2023d), recognizing dynamic preferences from user behaviors is crucial to enhancing personalization. Adapting PGen to track and respond to user preference shifts remains a key research direction.
- **Multi-modal Personalization.** Existing PGen research mainly focuses on single-modality generation, while multi-modal personalization remains underexplored, such as personalized social media posts that integrate both image and text. This challenge requires high-quality, instruction-aligned, and personalized output while ensuring consistency across multiple modalities.
- **Synergy Between Generation and Retrieval.** Traditional personalized content delivery systems primarily focus on retrieval-based methods like RecSys. However, existing content may not fully meet users' content needs. Integrating PGen with retrieval-based approaches holds great promise for building more powerful personalized content delivery systems (Wang et al., 2023c).

## 6 Conclusion

In this work, we present the first comprehensive survey on PGen across multiple modalities, offering an in-depth review of recent advancements and emerging trends in the field. To unify existing research, we introduce a holistic framework that formalizes diverse user-specific data, core objectives, and general workflows for PGen, providing a structured foundation for future developments. We then propose a multi-level taxonomy to categorize PGen methods based on modality, user inputs, and specific tasks. Additionally, we summarize the commonly used datasets and evaluation metrics for each modality. Beyond technical aspects, we explore PGen's potential applications in both content creation and delivery, underscoring its significant economic and research value. Finally, we identify key research challenges that remain to be addressed. As a rapidly evolving field, PGen holds great potential to revolutionize the online content ecosystem, enabling more tailored and engaging user experiences. By unifying PGen research across multiple modalities, this survey serves as a valuable resource for fostering cross-modal knowledge sharing and collaboration in this field, contributing to a more personalized digital landscape.

## 665 Limitations

666 In this paper, we provide a comprehensive survey of  
667 personalized generation. However, the rapid evolution  
668 of this field makes it challenging to encompass  
669 all research efforts, as new methods, datasets, and  
670 evaluation metrics continue to emerge, requiring  
671 continuous updates to our taxonomy. Furthermore,  
672 the development of more effective and universally  
673 accepted benchmarks within different modalities  
674 remains an ongoing challenge.

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| 2925 | <b>A.1 Personalized Image Generation</b>  | 2976 |
| 2926 | Personalized image generation aims to synthesize  | 2977 |
| 2927 | images that reflect individual preferences and  | 2978 |
| 2928 | requirements. By incorporating various personalized                                     | 2979 |
| 2929 | contexts, existing studies have made significant  | 2980 |
| 2930 | strides in enhancing the capability of generative                                       | 2981 |
| 2931 | models to produce images tailored to specific needs,                                    | 2982 |
| 2932 | ranging from general-purpose generation to more   | 2983 |
| 2933 | specialized tasks.  | 2984 |
| 2934 | <b>A.1.1 User Behaviors</b>   | 2985 |
| 2935 | User interactions serve as a key source for inferring                                   | 2986 |
| 2936 | visual preferences, guiding the personalized image                                      | 2987 |
| 2937 | generation process. Based on user behaviors such  | 2988 |
| 2938 | as historical engagements and real-time feedback,                                       | 2989 |
| 2939 | existing methods have explored various approaches                                       | 2990 |
| 2940 | to enhance personalization.   | 2991 |
| 2941 | <b>General-purpose Image Generation</b> This task                                       | 2992 |
| 2942 | involves generating tailored images across various                                      | 2993 |
| 2943 | scenarios. For instance, PMG ( <a href="#">Shen et al., 2024b</a> ),                    | 2994 |
| 2944 | I-AM-G ( <a href="#">Wang et al., 2024i</a> ), and Pigeon ( <a href="#">Xu</a>          | 2995 |
| 2945 | et al., 2024c) utilize historically interacted images                                   |      |
| 2946 | of users to infer their visual tastes, enabling per-                                    |      |
| 2947 | sonalized generation across various scenarios, in-                                      |      |
| 2948 | cluding stickers, movie posters, fashion designs,                                       |      |
| 2949 | and news posters. In specific, PMG converts his-  |      |
| 2950 | torical interacted images into textual descriptions,                                    |      |
| 2951 | allowing LLMs to distill user preferences effec-  |      |
| 2952 | tively; I-AM-G introduces an interest rewrite strat-                                    |      |
| 2953 | egy to address preference ambiguity and leverages                                       |      |
| 2954 | retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) to enrich se-                                      |      |
| 2955 | mantic information; and Pigeon leverages MLLMs  |      |
| 2956 | with specialized modules to manage noisy histori-                                       |      |
| 2957 | cal data and multimodal instructions, ensuring pre-                                     |      |
| 2958 | cise user modeling. Similarly, SGDM ( <a href="#">Xu et al.,</a>                        |      |
| 2959 | <a href="#">2024a</a> ) enhances personalization by introducing a                       |      |
| 2960 | style extraction module that captures user-specific                                     |      |
| 2961 | style preferences to guide image generation. Per-                                       |      |
| 2962 | sonalized PR ( <a href="#">Chen et al., 2024g</a> ) proposes a per-                     |      |
| 2963 | sonalized prompt-rewriting method, leveraging his-                                      |      |
| 2964 | torical user query-image pairs to enhance text-to-                                      |      |
| 2965 | image (T2I) personalization.  |      |
| 2966 | Beyond inferring user preferences from interac-   |      |
| 2967 | tion history, some studies ( <a href="#">Von Rütte et al., 2023</a> ;                   |      |
| 2968 | <a href="#">Liu et al., 2024d</a> ; <a href="#">Nabati et al., 2024</a> ) have explored |      |
| 2969 | interactive, personalized image generation by in-                                       |      |
| 2970 | corporating real-time user feedback through multi-                                      |      |
| 2971 | turn interactions, thereby progressively refining the                                   |      |
| 2972 | generated outputs.  |      |
| 2973 | <b>Fashion Design Generation</b> This task involves                                     |      |
| 2974 | personalized fashion design with inferring personal                                     |      |
| 2975 | style preferences from user behaviors. <a href="#">Yu et al.</a>                        |      |
| 2976 | ( <a href="#">2019</a> ) employs GANs to learn user preference vec-                     |      |
| 2977 | tors from interaction history, generating fashion                                       |      |
| 2978 | images compatible with provided images. DiFashion                                       |      |
| 2979 | ( <a href="#">Xu et al., 2024b</a> ) adopts diffusion models to                         |      |
| 2980 | extract user preferences from interaction history                                       |      |
| 2981 | for personalized outfit generation and recommen-  |      |
| 2982 | dation.   |      |
| 2983 | <b>E-commerce Product Image Generation</b> This task                                    |      |
| 2984 | aims to create customized, eye-catching vi-   |      |
| 2985 | suals for e-commerce products to attract target   |      |
| 2986 | consumers. Based on user behaviors, Ad-   |      |
| 2987 | Booster ( <a href="#">Shilova et al., 2023</a> ) utilizes the Stable                    |      |
| 2988 | Diffusion outpainting model, conditioning on indi-                                      |      |
| 2989 | vidual user interest to generate appealing product                                      |      |
| 2990 | images. <a href="#">Vashishtha et al. (2024)</a> leverages LLMs to                      |      |
| 2991 | generate text prompts for diffusion models to craft                                     |      |
| 2992 | engaging banners. <a href="#">Czapp et al. (2024)</a> employs                           |      |
| 2993 | a contextual bandit algorithm to select prompts   |      |
| 2994 | from a pool, generating personalized product back-                                      |      |
| 2995 | grounds.  |      |

### A.1.2 User Profiles

Some studies utilize users’ demographic attributes to infer preferences or categorize them into groups for personalized image generation.

**Fashion Design Generation** Base on user attributes (*e.g.*, age, gender, interests in characters), LVA-COG (Forouzandehmehr et al., 2023) utilizes LLMs to extract user preferences to guide fashion design generation for recommendation.

**E-commerce Product Image Generation** By categorizing users into distinct groups based on their attributes, CG4CTR (Yang et al., 2024a) proposes a self-cyclic generation pipeline to produce tailored product images for each user group.

### A.1.3 Personalized Subjects

This is a primary focus of the computer vision community, which aims to capture the subject representation from a limited set of subject images and follow users’ instructions for subject-driven text-to-image (T2I) generation. For instance, given a few images of a user’s pet, the model generates new images featuring the pet in different contexts or environments while preserving its identity.

**Subject-driven T2I Generation** Existing research in this area can be broadly categorized into two branches:

- Optimization-based methods introduce a learnable unique identifier in the embedding space to encapsulate the semantics and visual details of each subject. Specifically, Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2023) optimizes a pseudo-word identifier, denoted as  $S^*$ , to encode a personalized representation that guides T2I generation in diffusion models. DreamBooth (Ruiz et al., 2023) combines a unique identifier with a subject class name (*e.g.*, “A  $S^*$  cat”) to leverage the class-specific prior knowledge embedded in the model, leveraging the model’s prior knowledge of the class. Building upon these pioneering works, recent efforts have aimed to improve efficiency, subject fidelity, and instruction alignment, addressing both single-subject generation (Voynov et al., 2023; Alaluf et al., 2023; Tewel et al., 2023; Pang et al., 2024; Cai et al., 2024; Hong et al., 2025) and multi-subject generation (Avrahami et al., 2023; Kumari et al., 2023; Gu et al., 2024; Yao et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024f).
- Encoder-based methods utilize a pre-trained image encoder to extract subject-specific features,

which are then incorporated into text prompts or directly injected into the generator through dedicated cross-attention mechanisms or adapters. For instance, ELITE (Wei et al., 2023), IP-Adapter (Ye et al., 2023), Subject-Diffusion (Ma et al., 2024a) and SSR-Encoder (Zhang et al., 2024i) employ CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) as the feature extractor, each adopting unique encoding and injection strategies to seamlessly incorporate subject features into the image generation process. MoMA (Song et al., 2025) takes advantage of a pre-trained MLLM, LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023b), to extract subject features and refine them based on the target prompt, producing contextualized image features that are injected into the generator via cross-attention layers. In addition, encoder-based methods have been extended to support multi-subject generation (Patel et al., 2024b; Li et al., 2024d; Zhu et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024h).

Furthermore, other research has explored diverse techniques for personalized subject-driven generation. These include prompt engineering (He et al., 2024c), which formulates structured prompts to guide generation; instruction tuning (Zhou et al., 2024; Hu et al., 2024a), which fine-tunes models on personalized instructions for improved alignment; and reinforcement learning (Chen et al., 2023d; Chae et al., 2023; Huang et al., 2024b; Wei et al., 2025a), which optimizes models through user feedback to refine subject representation.

Moreover, beyond capturing user preferences for concrete subjects like objects, some studies have focused on more abstract concepts, such as specified relations or styles, to guide personalized T2I generation (Huang et al., 2024e; Sohn et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023a; Liu et al., 2024c; Park et al., 2024).

### A.1.4 Personal Face/Body

Personal face and body images have become popular for personalized image generation, due to their high relevance to individual identity. By leveraging these images, generative models can create highly tailored and realistic images that reflect users’ distinct identities (IDs) while adhering to user-specific requirements. Existing studies primarily focus on face generation and virtual try-on applications.

**Face Generation** Generative models utilize personal face images to create high-fidelity portraits or avatars that preserve individual face IDs while

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adhering to users’ multimodal instructions, such as modifying expressions, actions, backgrounds, and styles. Early GAN-based work mainly encodes face images into the latent space of StyleGAN (Karras et al., 2019) for face manipulation (Xia et al., 2021; Patashnik et al., 2021; Lyu et al., 2023; Baykal et al., 2023). To achieve more precise identity preservation and more flexible control, DM-based methods usually integrate a separate image encoder to convert face images into ID representations, which are then combined with user instructions to guide the face generation process. For instance, FastComposer (Xiao et al., 2024b), Face0 (Valevski et al., 2023), PhotoMaker (Li et al., 2024k), Infinite-ID (Wu et al., 2025a), Master-Weaver (Wei et al., 2025b), and AddMe (Yue et al., 2025) utilize a pre-trained CLIP image encoder or face recognition model to extract ID embeddings for identity preservation. In contrast, SeFi-IDE (Li et al., 2024h) directly optimizes one ID representation as multiple per-stage tokens to enhance semantic control. Except for ID representations, some studies have explored additional features or conditions to enhance style control (Yan et al., 2023), spatial control (Wang et al., 2024f; He et al., 2024d,a; Jiang et al., 2025), especially specific human-object interaction (Guo et al., 2024b; Hu et al., 2025), and scene affordance (Kulal et al., 2023; Parihar et al., 2024).

However, the rapid development of personalized face generation techniques has raised concerns about potential misuse and privacy risks. Recent research has investigated unlearning-related methods (Wu et al., 2025b; Hu et al., 2024b), adversarial attack-based methods (Van Le et al., 2023; Xiao et al., 2023; Wan et al., 2024; Onikubo and Matsui, 2024; Liu et al., 2024e) and watermark-based methods (Liu et al., 2024b) to protect user privacy.

**Virtual Try-on** This task aims to synthesize a photorealistic image of a dress person by combining their body and face images with specified garments. Early GAN-based works (Wang et al., 2018a; Dong et al., 2019a; Men et al., 2020; Choi et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2022) mainly follow a two-stage process. Initially, a dedicated warping module is employed to align garment images with the person’s body shape. Subsequently, the reshaped garment is seamlessly blended with the person’s image to generate the final try-on result. With the great success of DMs in various tasks, recent research has deployed their applications in virtual

try-ons (Zhang et al., 2024e; Ning et al., 2024; Kim et al., 2024a; Wan et al., 2025). For example, LaDI-VTON (Morelli et al., 2023) and DCI-VTON (Gou et al., 2023) explicitly warp clothes to match the person’s body and then utilize DMs for blending. In contrast, TryOnDiffusion (Zhu et al., 2023a) proposes a Parallel-UNet architecture, which performs implicit warping and blending in a unified process. Similarly, several subsequent studies (Choi et al., 2025; Xu et al., 2024d; Sun et al., 2024; Shen et al., 2024a) utilize parallel UNets for garment feature extraction and enhance blending via self-attention and cross-attention mechanisms.

## A.2 Personalized Video Generation

Personalized video generation aims to produce tailored video content that reflects individual preferences, traits, and specific needs.

### A.2.1 Personalized Subjects

In some cases, users may provide one or several images of a personalized subject, such as an object or concept, along with a specified text prompt, requiring generative models to perform subject-driven text-to-video (T2V) generation. This task is conceptually similar to subject-driven T2I generation.

**Subject-driven T2V Generation** Given the great success of various personalized models in subject-driven T2I generation, methods such as AnimateDiff (Guo et al., 2024a), PIA (Zhang et al., 2024h), and Still-Moving (Chefer et al., 2024) adapt these models for T2V generation by incorporating motion and temporal dynamics through additional modules. MagDiff (Zhao et al., 2025) enhances subject-driven video generation with three types of alignments. VideoBooth (Jiang et al., 2024) proposes a coarse-to-fine manner to encode subject images into the generator. Custom-Crafter (Wu et al., 2024d) integrates a plug-and-play module with a dynamic weighted video sampling strategy to maintain motion generation and conceptual combination abilities during subject learning. Other studies introduce additional conditions, such as motion control (Wu et al., 2024a; Wei et al., 2024b,c) and depth control (He et al., 2023), enabling more flexible subject customization. Besides, some studies have explored multi-subject T2V generation (Chen et al., 2023a, 2024b; Wang et al., 2024l). Beyond these, methods such as StyleCrafter (Liu et al., 2024a) and StyleMaster (Ye et al., 2024) integrate specified style images as subjects,

allowing for stylized T2V generation that tailors the video aesthetic to the desired style.

### A.2.2 Personal Face/Body

Similarly, users may provide one or more personal face and body images, enabling generative models to synthesize personalized videos that preserve their identities while following multimodal instructions. These tasks include ID-preserving T2V generation, talking head generation, pose-guided video generation, and video virtual try-on.

**ID-preserving T2V Generation** This task focuses on creating personalized videos that align with personal face IDs and specified text prompts. For example, Magic-Me (Ma et al., 2024c) builds upon Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2023) to learn ID-specific representations to guide T2V generation, requiring separate training for each ID. ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b) employs a face adapter to encode ID-related information and incorporates it into the generator via cross-attention. ConsisID (Yuan et al., 2024) decomposes facial information into frequency-aware features, which are integrated into Diffusion Transformers (DiT) for video generation. PersonalVideo (Li et al., 2024c) applies direct supervision on T2V-generated videos, aligning model tuning with the inference process.

**Talking Head Generation** This task aims to synthesize lip-synchronized talking videos, typically driven by personal face images and corresponding audio clips. Recent research has explored diverse approaches, such as Neural Radiance Fields (NeRFs) (Yao et al., 2022; Li et al., 2023b) and different backbone networks, including GANs (Yi et al., 2020; Ki and Min, 2023; Guan et al., 2023) and DMs (Zhang et al., 2023b; Zhua et al., 2023; Shen et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024f; Wei et al., 2024a; Tian et al., 2025; Tan et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2024c; Zheng et al., 2024b). Beyond audio-driven generation, some studies have also investigated video-driven (Zhang et al., 2023a) and text-driven (Choi et al., 2024) methods for talking head generation.

**Pose-guided Video Generation** Recent studies have explored adapting personal face and body images to match specific pose sequences through various condition mechanisms for video generation (Wang et al., 2023b; Chang et al., 2023; Karras et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024f; Hu, 2024; Zhong et al., 2025). Beyond single-person scenarios, Magic-

Fight (Huang et al., 2024a) tackles the complexities of two-person martial arts combat video generation, addressing challenges such as identity confusion and action mismatches.

**Video Virtual Try-on** This task seeks to seamlessly transfer a specified garment onto a person in a source video while preserving their motion and identity. Early GAN-based work (Dong et al., 2019b; Zhong et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2022a) primarily follows a two-stage workflow, warping the specified garment and blending it with the target person by a GAN generator. Recent studies utilize DMs for video try-ons, incorporating specialized modules for garment and pose encoding, along with dedicated condition mechanisms, such as Tunnel Try-on (Xu et al., 2024e), ACF (Yang et al., 2024f), GPD-VVTO (Wang et al., 2024k), VITON-DiT (Zheng et al., 2024a), ViViD (Fang et al., 2024b), WildVidFit (He et al., 2025), and SwiftTry (Nguyen et al., 2024a).

## A.3 Personalized 3D Generation

Personalized 3D generation involves transforming users' personalized visual or textual contexts (e.g., body shapes, facial features, images, and prompts) into 3D assets.

### A.3.1 Personalized Subjects

The most common paradigm for personalized 3D generation involves users providing some image-based personalized subjects, and then generating the corresponding 3D assets.

**Image-to-3D Generation** Personalized image-to-3D generation focuses on creating 3D assets that accurately capture the geometry and appearance of given personalized subjects. 3DAvatarGAN (Abdal et al., 2023) introduces a cross-domain adaptation framework that aligns features from 2D-GANs with those of 3D-GANs. PuzzleAvatar (Xiu et al., 2024) utilizes an enhanced Score Distillation Sampling (SDS) technique to optimize the geometry and texture of 3D portraits. TextureDreamer (Yeh et al., 2024) integrates geometric information using ControlNet, proposing a Geometry-Aware Personalized Score Distillation (PGSD) approach.

Some methods further ensure alignment with textual prompts during the 3D generation process. MVDream (Shi et al., 2023b) employs a multi-view diffusion model to generate consistent multi-view images based on text prompts. DreamBooth3D (Raj et al., 2023) combines DreamFusion

and DreamBooth models within a three-stage optimization framework to enhance detail preservation and consistency through multi-view pseudo-data generation. Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024) introduces a cross-domain diffusion model leveraging multi-view cross-attention to produce detailed normal and color maps. DreamFont3D (Li et al., 2024e) utilizes NeRF as the 3D representation, optimizing font geometry and texture with multi-view mask constraints and progressive weight adjustments. Make-your-3D (Liu et al., 2025) implements a joint optimization framework that combines identity-aware and subject-prior optimizations, aligning a 2D personalization model with a multi-view diffusion model for accurate 3D generation.

### A.3.2 Personal Face/Body

In some cases, users may provide personal face and body inputs in the form of images or monocular videos, aiming to generate identity-preserving 3D assets.

**3D Face Generation** For 3D face generation, (Zhang et al., 2021a) introduces PoseGAN, a module designed to generate dynamic head poses. (Gao et al., 2022) proposes a linear blend model based on multi-level voxel fields, representing expressions as neural radiance field bases. My3DGen (Qi et al., 2023a) adapts the pre-trained EG3D model using Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) for parameter-efficient training on a limited set of personalized images. DiffusionTalker (Chen et al., 2023c) employs contrastive learning to map speech features to personalized speaker identity. (Wang et al., 2024g) integrates a face fusion module into a fine-tuned text-to-image diffusion model for identity-driven customization. (Ko et al., 2024) utilizes VIVE3D to fine-tune the EG3D generator by inverting key frames from monocular videos. (Song et al., 2024a) applies Cross-Modal Aggregation to blend style and facial motion features, ensuring alignment between generated facial expressions, speech, and styles. DiffSpeaker (Ma et al., 2024d) proposes a diffusion model-based Transformer architecture to enhance speech-to-facial-animation mapping.

**3D Human Pose generation** For 3D human pose generation, (Huang et al., 2021) combines source image shape information with 2D key points to generate a personalized UV map. PGG (Hu et al., 2023) introduces a geometry-aware graph constructed from intermediate human mesh predic-

tions, enabling personalized and dynamic pose generation. 3DHM (Li et al., 2024a) and DreamWaltz (Huang et al., 2024c) enable animating people from a single image or textual prompts.

**3D Virtual Try-on** 3D Virtual Try-on enables the creation of high-quality, customized 3D models from minimal inputs, such as user images, clothing images, and textual prompts. (Chu et al., 2017) addresses the precision requirements of personalized facial modeling for applications like eyeglass frame design, utilizing parametric modeling techniques for 3D face creation. Pergamo (Casado-Elvira et al., 2022) addresses the challenge of reconstructing 3D clothing from 2D images, employing semantic segmentation, normal prediction, and a parameterized clothing model to optimize coarse geometry and fine details through differentiable rendering. DreamVTON (Xie et al., 2024) incorporates Multi-Concept LoRA and Normal Style LoRA into Stable Diffusion, enabling the generation of pose-consistent, detail-rich clothing models.

## B Evaluation Metrics

### B.1 Personalized Text Generation

Evaluating personalized text generation is challenging because only the target user can accurately determine whether the generated content aligns with their preferences and needs. One approach to evaluating personalized text generation is through human judgment, where individuals assess the quality and relevance of the generated content. Automatic evaluation of personalized text generation can be conducted using reference-based and reference-free approaches. In reference-based evaluation, it is assumed that a reference output is available for comparison. This comparison can be performed using term-matching metrics such as accuracy, ROUGE (Lin, 2004), BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), and METEOR (Banerjee and Lavie, 2005) or semantic-matching methods using models like BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020b), GEMBA (Kocmi and Federmann, 2023), or G-Eval (Liu et al., 2023c). Recently, ExPerT (Salemi et al., 2025a) was introduced for evaluating personalized text generation in reference-based settings. It segments both the generated text and the reference output into atomic facts and scores them based on content and writing style similarity. In reference-free evaluation, an LLM can assess the generated content directly, assigning scores based on various aspects, including how well the content aligns with

the user profile or preferences (Wang et al., 2023g, 2024a), offering a more dynamic and personalized evaluation framework.

## B.2 Personalized Audio Generation

To quantify personalization and stylistic alignment in tasks like music transfer and text-to-audio generation, existing studies commonly use similarity metrics such as CLAP scores, Pattern Similarity (PS), and Embedding Distance are commonly applied to assess how well the generated content aligns with target musical styles or speaker characteristics (Sheng et al., 2023; Plitsis et al., 2024).

Audio quality assessment often involves perceptual metrics like Short-Time Objective Intelligibility (STOI) and Extended STOI (ESTOI) for speech intelligibility, Perceptual Evaluation of Speech Quality (PESQ) for clarity, and Fréchet Audio Distance (FAD) for measuring realism and diversity. For music generation tasks, metrics such as Precision, Recall, Density, and Coverage (P&R&D&C) are frequently employed to capture both creativity and output diversity (Wang et al., 2024j; Mo et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2022).

Subjective evaluations remain crucial, particularly for tasks where user experience and personalization are central. User studies are often conducted to measure factors such as perceived musicality, naturalness, emotional impact, and how closely the generated content reflects user preferences (Ma et al., 2022; Dai et al., 2022).

## B.3 Personalized Cross-modal Generation

To quantify the degree of personalization in text generation tasks such as personal assistant and comment generation, existing studies commonly employ (1) *term-matching metrics*, such as ROUGE, BLEU, Meteor, CIDEr (Cohen et al., 2022; Alaluf et al., 2025; Nguyen et al., 2024b; Pi et al., 2024; An et al., 2024); (2) *semantic matching metrics*, such as CLIPScore (Cohen et al., 2022); (3) *recall, precision and F1-score* to validate whether the user-specific concept appears in the generated caption (Cohen et al., 2022; Alaluf et al., 2025; Nguyen et al., 2024b; Pi et al., 2024; An et al., 2024); (4) *human evaluation* to determine alignment with ground truths in terms of emotion, style, and relevance.

To measure whether agents align with diverse human preferences, studies employ success rate, success weighted by path length (SPL), distance to goal, and episode length (Poddar et al., 2024;

Hwang et al., 2024). Human evaluation is also an effective validation method for determining whether an agent has successfully completed a personalized task (Hwang et al., 2024; Cui et al., 2024b).

## B.4 Personalized Image Generation

To assess the alignment between generated images and personalized contexts, as well as adherence to users' multimodal instructions, most studies rely on similarity metrics like Learned Perceptual Image Patch Similarity (LPIPS) (Zhang et al., 2018) and Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM) (Wang et al., 2004). Additionally, pre-trained models such as CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), DINO (Oquab et al., 2024), and various face recognition models (Schroff et al., 2015; Deng et al., 2019) are often used to extract image features for computing cosine similarity, enabling a more contextual evaluation of personalization and instruction alignment. Moreover, Stellar (Achlioptas et al., 2023) introduces specialized metrics designed for subject-driven image generation and human generation.

To quantify the quality and coherence of generated images, conventional metrics such as Fréchet Inception Distance (FID) (Heusel et al., 2017) and Kernel Inception Distance (KID) (Bińkowski et al., 2018) are also commonly employed. Beyond quantitative evaluation, most studies present case studies and conduct human evaluations to assess the personalization and instruction alignment of the generated images. In e-commerce scenarios, product image generation often incorporates online tests to evaluate model performance in real-world scenarios.

## B.5 Personalized Video Generation

To assess personalization and instruction alignment, similar to personalized image generation, existing studies commonly rely on similarity metrics such as LPIPS, SSIM, and Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) (Hore and Ziou, 2010). Additionally, pre-trained image encoders like CLIP and DINO are frequently used to extract frame-level features and compute cosine similarity for quantitative evaluation. There are some task-specific metrics, such as SyncNet score (Casale et al., 2018), which evaluates audio-visual synchronization quality for audio-driven talking head generation, and face similarity metrics for ID-preserving human generation, which are based on backbone face recognition models

like ArcFace (Deng et al., 2019) and Curricular-Face (Huang et al., 2020).

For overall video quality assessment, standard metrics include frame-level evaluations like FID and KID, as well as video-level metrics such as VFID (Wang et al., 2018c), FID-VID (Balaji et al., 2019), FVD (Unterthiner et al., 2018), and KVD (Unterthiner et al., 2018). Additionally, some studies leverage CLIP-based cosine similarity between consecutive video frames to assess temporal consistency.

Beyond quantitative metrics, many studies complement their evaluations with qualitative case studies and human assessments to better capture personalization, instruction alignment, and overall video quality.

## B.6 Personalized 3D Generation

To quantify personalization and instruction alignment in 3D generation, existing studies commonly use similarity metrics such as LPIPS, SSIM, PSNR, and CLIP scores, similar to those in image and video generation. Additionally, some task-specific scores can be evaluated through pre-trained models, such as facial attribute classifiers (Abdal et al., 2023; Qi et al., 2023a).

For 3D geometric quality, commonly used metrics include Chamfer Distance (CD) (Gao et al., 2022; Xiu et al., 2024) and Point-to-Surface Distance (P2S) (Xiu et al., 2024) for shape fidelity, as well as Normal Consistency and Volume IoU for surface detail and volumetric overlap (Xie et al., 2024). Task-specific metrics such as Mean Per Joint Position Error (MPJPE) and Mean Per Vertex Error (MPVE) are frequently used in the human body and pose estimation tasks (Hu et al., 2023).

Beyond objective metrics, qualitative assessments like user studies are often conducted to evaluate subjective aspects of 3D generation (Zhang et al., 2021a; Qi et al., 2023a; Xie et al., 2024; Huang et al., 2021), including realism, texture photorealism, and shape-texture consistency.

## C Applications

### C.1 Towards Content Creation Process

Generative models have transformed the realm of content creation, pushing the boundaries of productivity and creativity. By incorporating personalization techniques, PGen can further empower content creators across various domains, allowing

them to achieve higher efficiency while preserving their distinctive creative style and identity.

For social media influencers, such as bloggers, vloggers, and podcasters, PGen can analyze their past content to offer tailored suggestions for compelling headlines (Fang et al., 2024a) and introductions, or even generate new content that aligns seamlessly with their established brand. This not only streamlines the creative process but also maintains their unique style, fostering deeper connections with their audiences.

For professional creators, such as journalists, designers, illustrators, and music composers, personal style serves as their creative fingerprint, crucial for building reputation and recognition within competitive creative industries. By analyzing creators' previous work, PGen can identify and adapt to their unique stylistic traits to provide tailored ideas, drafts, or modifications, striking a perfect balance between personal style and external demands.

Ordinary individuals can also benefit from PGen for routine tasks, such as personalized email drafting, resume creation, travel planning, workout scheduling, and portrait generation.

### C.2 Towards Content Delivery Process

In the era of information overload, personalized content delivery is becoming increasingly essential for helping individuals navigate through vast amounts of multimodal content on the internet. By integrating PGen into the content delivery process, generic content can be adapted into diverse, personalized formats to engage different audiences, catering to their unique tastes and content needs. Below are representative application scenarios of PGen for personalized content delivery:

**Marketing and Advertising.** PGen can assist organizations and brands in creating targeted marketing strategies and dynamic advertisements that resonate deeply with specific audiences, ultimately driving higher click-through and conversion rates.

**Retail and E-commerce.** Through personalized product descriptions and images, customized manuals, and virtual try-ons, PGen empowers retailers to attract consumers and enhance engagement, delivering unique and tailored shopping experiences.

**Entertainment and Media.** On digital content platforms such as Flipboard, Twitter, Netflix, and YouTube, personalized content plays a crucial role in attracting and retaining users. Examples include personalized news, posts, movie posters, video thumbnails, and other tailored media assets that

3591 can enhance user loyalty to the platform.

3592 **Education and E-learning.** Generative models  
3593 have shown significant promise in education, exem-  
3594 plified by platforms like Google Learn About <sup>1</sup>.  
3595 PGen can further enhance personalized educa-  
3596 tional experiences by offering customized learning  
3597 roadmaps and materials, dynamically adapting to  
3598 individual learning styles, goals, and progress.

3599 **Gaming.** Integrating PGen into the gaming in-  
3600 dustries enables the creation of dynamic storylines,  
3601 customized tasks, scalable difficulty levels, and  
3602 interactive characters that adapt to players' prefer-  
3603 ences and behaviors, fostering more immersive and  
3604 engaging gaming experiences.

3605 **Personalized AI Assistant.** PGen can be incor-  
3606 porated into AI assistants to provide specialized  
3607 support, such as legal assistance, medical advice,  
3608 and financial guidance, ensuring precision and user-  
3609 specific customization.

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<sup>1</sup><https://learning.google.com/experiments/learn-about>.

Table 1: Overview of personalized generation.

| Modality                     | Personalized Contexts  | Tasks                         | Representative Works   |
|------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Text<br>(Section 3.1)        | User behaviors         | Recommendation                | LLM-Rec (Lyu et al., 2024), DEALRec (Lin et al., 2024a), BigRec (Bao et al., 2023), DreamRec (Yang et al., 2024e)  |
|                              |                        | Information seeking           | P-RLHF (Li et al., 2024g), ComPO (Kumar et al., 2024b)   |
|                              | User documents         | Writing Assistant             | REST-PG (Salemi et al., 2025b), RSPG (Salemi et al., 2024a), Hydra (Zhuang et al., 2024), PEARL (Mysore et al., 2024), Panza (Nicoliciou et al., 2024)   |
|                              |                        | Dialogue System               | PAED (Zhu et al., 2023b), BoB (Song et al., 2021), UniMS-RAG (Wang et al., 2024d), ORIG (Chen et al., 2023b)   |
|                              | User profiles          | User Simulation               | Drama Machine (Magee et al., 2024), Character-LLM (Shao et al., 2023), RoleLLM (Wang et al., 2024e)  |
|                              |                        |                               |  |
|                              | Image<br>(Section A.1) | User behaviors                | General-purpose generation   |
|                              |                        | Fashion design                | PMG (Shen et al., 2024b), Pigeon (Xu et al., 2024c), PASTA (Nabati et al., 2024)   |
|                              |                        | E-commerce product image      | DiFashion (Xu et al., 2024b), Yu et al. (2019)<br>AdBooster (Shilova et al., 2023), Vashishtha et al. (2024), Czapp et al. (2024)  |
| Image<br>(Section A.1)       | User profiles          | Fashion design                | LVA-COG (Forouzandehmehr et al., 2023)   |
|                              |                        | E-commerce product image      | CG4CTR (Yang et al., 2024a)  |
|                              | Personalized subjects  | Subject-driven T2I generation | Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2023), DreamBooth (Ruiz et al., 2023), Custom Diffusion (Kumari et al., 2023)   |
|                              |                        | Personal face/body            | PhotoMaker (Li et al., 2024k), InstantBooth (Shi et al., 2024), InstantID (Wang et al., 2024f)<br>IDM-VTON (Choi et al., 2025), OOTDiffusion (Xu et al., 2024d), OutfitAnyone (Sun et al., 2024) |
|                              | Video<br>(Section A.2) | Personalized subjects         | Subject-driven T2V generation  |
|                              |                        | Personal face/body            | ID-preserving T2V generation   |
|                              |                        |                               | Talking head generation  |
|                              |                        |                               | Pose-guided video generation   |
|                              |                        |                               | Video virtual try-on   |
| 3D<br>(Section A.3)          | Personalized subjects  | Image-to-3D generation        | MVDream (Shi et al., 2023b), DreamBooth3D (Raj et al., 2023), Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024)   |
|                              |                        | 3D face generation            | PoseGAN (Zhang et al., 2021a), My3DGen (Qi et al., 2023a), DiffSpeaker (Ma et al., 2024d)  |
|                              |                        | 3D human pose generation      | FewShotMotionTransfer (Huang et al., 2021), PGG (Hu et al., 2023), 3DHM (Li et al., 2024a), DreamWaltz (Huang et al., 2024c)   |
|                              |                        | 3D virtual try-on             | Pergamo (Casado-Elvira et al., 2022), DreamVTON (Xie et al., 2024)   |
|                              | Audio<br>(Section 3.2) | Personal face                 | Face-to-speech generation  |
|                              |                        | User behaviors                | UMP (Ma et al., 2022), UP-Transformer (Hu et al., 2022), UIGAN (Wang et al., 2024j)  |
|                              |                        | Personalized subjects         | Text-to-audio generation   |
| Cross-Modal<br>(Section 3.3) | User behaviors         | Robotics                      | VPL (Poddar et al., 2024), Promptable Behaviors (Hwang et al., 2024)   |
|                              | User documents         | Caption/Comment generation    | PV-LLM (Lin et al., 2024b), PVCG (Wu et al., 2024e), METER (Geng et al., 2022)   |
|                              | Personalized subjects  | Cross-modal dialogue systems  | MyVLM (Alaluf et al., 2025), Yo'LLaVA (Nguyen et al., 2024b), MC-LLaVA (An et al., 2024)   |

Table 2: Datasets for personalized generation.

| Modality                     | Personalized Contexts         | Tasks   | Datasets   |  |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Text<br>(Section 3.1)        | <b>User behaviors</b>         | Recommendation  | Amazon (Hou et al., 2024; Ni et al., 2019), MovieLens (Harper and Konstan, 2015), MIND (Wu et al., 2020a), Goodreads (Wan and McAuley, 2018; Wan et al., 2019)   |  |
|                              |                               | Information seeking   | SE-PQA (Kasela et al., 2024), PWSC (Eugene et al., 2013), AOL4PS (Guo et al., 2021)  |  |
|                              | <b>User documents</b>         | Writing Assistant   | LaMP (Salemi et al., 2024b), LongLaMP (Kumar et al., 2024a), PLAB (Alhafni et al., 2024)   |  |
|                              |                               | Dialogue System   | LiveChat (Gao et al., 2023), FoCus (Jang et al., 2021), Pchatbot (Qian et al., 2021)   |  |
|                              | <b>User profiles</b>          | User Simulation   | OpinionsQA (Santurkar et al., 2023), 3 RoleBench (Wang et al., 2024e)  |  |
|                              |                               |   |  |  |
|                              | <b>User behaviors</b>         | General-purpose generation  | Pinterest (Geng et al., 2015), MovieLens (Harper and Konstan, 2015), MIND (Wu et al., 2020b), POG (Chen et al., 2019), PASTA (Nabati et al., 2024), FABRIC (Von Rütte et al., 2023), DialPrompt (Liu et al., 2024d), PIP (Chen et al., 2024g)  |  |
|                              |                               | Fashion design  | POG (Chen et al., 2019), Polyvore-U (Lu et al., 2019)  |  |
| Image<br>(Section A.1)       |                               | E-commerce product image  | -  |  |
|                              |                               | Fashion design  | -  |  |
| <b>User profiles</b>         | E-commerce product image      | -   |  |  |
|                              |                               |   |  |  |
| <b>Personalized subjects</b> | Subject-driven T2I generation | Dreambench (Ruiz et al., 2023), Dreambench++ (Peng et al., 2024), CustomConcept101 (Kumari et al., 2023), ConceptBed (Patel et al., 2024a), Textual Inverison (Gal et al., 2023), ViCo (Hao et al., 2023), DreamMatcher (Nam et al., 2024), Break-A-Scene (Avrahami et al., 2023), Mix-of-Show (Gu et al., 2024), Concept Conductor (Yao et al., 2024), LoRA-Composer (Yang et al., 2024d), StyleDrop (Sohn et al., 2023)                                     |  |  |
|                              | Face generation               | CelebA-HQ (Karras et al., 2018), FFHQ (Karras et al., 2021), SFHQ (Beniaguev, 2022), LV-MHP-v2 (Zhao et al., 2018), Stellar (Achlioptas et al., 2023), AddMe-1.6M (Yue et al., 2025), FFHQ-FastComposer (Xiao et al., 2024a), LAION-Face (Zheng et al., 2022), PPR10K (Liang et al., 2021), LCM-Lookahead (Gal et al., 2024), CelebRef-HQ (Li et al., 2022), CelebV-T (Yu et al., 2023), FaceForensics++ (Rossler et al., 2019), VG-GFace2 (Cao et al., 2018) |  |  |
| <b>Personal face/body</b>    | Virtual try-on                | VITON (Han et al., 2018), VITON-HD (Choi et al., 2021), DressCode (Morelli et al., 2022), StreetTryOn (Cui et al., 2024a), DeepFashion (Ge et al., 2019), Deepfashion-Multimodal (Jiang et al., 2022b), MPV (Dong et al., 2019a), IGPair (Shen et al., 2024a), SHHQ (Fu et al., 2022)   |  |  |
|                              |                               |   |  |  |
| Video<br>(Section A.2)       | <b>Personalized subjects</b>  | Subject-driven T2V generation   | WebVid-10M (Bain et al., 2021), UCF101 (Soomro, 2012), AnimateBench (Zhang et al., 2024h), VideoBooth (Jiang et al., 2024), StyleCrafter (Liu et al., 2024a), Datasets for subject-driven T2I generation...  |  |
|                              |                               | ID-preserving T2V generation  | ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b), ConsisID (Yuan et al., 2024)   |  |
|                              | <b>Personal face/body</b>     | Talking head generation   | LRW (Chung and Zisserman, 2017a), VoxCeleb (Nagrani et al., 2020), VoxCeleb2 (Chung et al., 2018), TCD-TIMIT (Harte and Gillen, 2015), LRS2 (Son Chung et al., 2017), HDTF (Zhang et al., 2021b), MEAD (Wang et al., 2020), GRID (Cooke et al., 2006), MultiTalk (Sung-Bin et al., 2024) |  |
|                              |                               | Pose-guided video generation  | FashionVideo (Zablotskaia et al., 2019), TikTok (Jafarian and Park, 2021), TED-talks (Siarohin et al., 2021), Everybody-dance-now (Chan et al., 2019)  |  |
|                              |                               | Video virtual try-on  | VVT (Dong et al., 2019b), ViViD (Fang et al., 2024b), Fashion-Video (Zablotskaia et al., 2019), TikTok (Jafarian and Park, 2021), TikTokDress (Nguyen et al., 2024a)   |  |
|                              |                               |   |  |  |
| 3D<br>(Section A.3)          | <b>Personalized subjects</b>  | Image-to-3D generation  | Dreambench (Ruiz et al., 2023), Objaverse (Deitke et al., 2023)  |  |
|                              |                               | 3D face generation  | Mystyle (Nitzan et al., 2022), BIWI (Fanelli et al., 2013), VOCASET (Cudeiro et al., 2019)   |  |
|                              | <b>Personal face/body</b>     | 3D human pose generation  | Human3.6M (Ionescu et al., 2013), 3DPW (Von Marcard et al., 2018), 3DOH50K (Zhang et al., 2020a)   |  |
|                              |                               | 3D virtual try-on   | BUFF (Zhang et al., 2017), DreamVTON (Xie et al., 2024)  |  |
| Audio<br>(Section 3.2)       | <b>Personal face</b>          | Face-to-speech generation   | Voxceleb2 (Chung et al., 2018), LibriTTS (Zen et al., 2019), VG-GFace2 (Cao et al., 2018), GRID (Cooke et al., 2006), MultiTalk (Sung-Bin et al., 2024)  |  |
|                              |                               | Music generation  | Echo (Bertin-Mahieux et al., 2011), MAESTRO (Hawthorne et al., 2019)   |  |
|                              | <b>Personalized subjects</b>  | Text-to-audio generation  | TASBench (Li et al., 2024j), AudioCaps (Kim et al., 2019), AudioldM (Liu et al., 2023a)  |  |
|                              |                               |   |  |  |
| Cross-Modal<br>(Section 3.3) | <b>User behaviors</b>         | Robotics  | D4RL (Fu et al., 2020), Ravens (Zeng et al., 2021), Habitat-Rearrange (Puig et al., 2023), RoboTHOR (Deitke et al., 2020)  |  |
|                              |                               | Caption/Comment generation  | TripAdvisor (Geng et al., 2022), Yelp (Geng et al., 2022), PerVid-Com (Lin et al., 2024b)  |  |
|                              | <b>Personalized subjects</b>  | Cross-modal dialogue systems  | Yo'LLaVA (Nguyen et al., 2024b), MyVLM (Alaluf et al., 2025)   |  |

Table 3: Evaluation metrics for personalized text and image generation.

| Text (Section 3.1)   | Metrics   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Evaluation Dimensions | Representative Works   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|--|
| 1. Recommendation<br>2. Information Seeking<br>3. Content Generation<br>4. Writing Assistant<br>5. Dialogue System<br>6. User Simulation                         | NDCG (Järvelin and Kekäläinen, 2002)  | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Overall               | BIGRec (Bao et al., 2023), DEALRec (Lin et al., 2024a), AOL4PS (Guo et al., 2021)                            |
|  | Hit Rate  | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Overall               | BIGRec (Bao et al., 2023)  |
|  | Precision   | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Overall               | LLM-Rec (Lyu et al., 2024), AOL4PS (Guo et al., 2021)  |
|  | Recall  | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Overall               | LLM-Rec (Lyu et al., 2024), DEALRec (Lin et al., 2024a), AOL4PS (Guo et al., 2021)                           |
|  | win-rate  |   | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Overall               | Personalized RLHF (Li et al., 2024g)   |
|  | ROUGE (Lin, 2004)   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Overall               | LaMP (Salemi et al., 2024b), RSPG (Salemi et al., 2024a), Hydra (Zhuang et al., 2024)                        |
|  | BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Overall               | AuthorPred (Li et al., 2023a)  |
|  | BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020b)   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Overall               | LongLaMP (Kumar et al., 2024a)   |
|  | GEMBA (Kocmi and Federmann, 2023)   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Overall               | REST-PG (Salemi et al., 2025b)   |
|  | G-Eval (Liu et al., 2023c)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Overall               | REST-PG (Salemi et al., 2025b)   |
| Image (Section A.1)  | ExPerT (Salemi et al., 2025a)   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ |   |   | Personalization       | ExPerT (Salemi et al., 2025a)  |
|  | AuPEL (Wang et al., 2023g)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ |   |   | Personalization       | AuPEL (Wang et al., 2023g)   |
|  | PERSE (Wang et al., 2024a)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ |   |   | Personalization       | PERSE (Wang et al., 2024a)   |
|  | CLIP-I (Radford et al., 2021)   | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Personalization       | Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2023), Custom Diffusion (Kumari et al., 2023), DreamBooth (Ruiz et al., 2023) |
|  | DINO-I (Caron et al., 2021; Oquab et al., 2024)   | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ |   | Personalization       | DreamBooth (Ruiz et al., 2023), BLIP-Diffusion (Li et al., 2024b), ELITE (Wei et al., 2023)                  |
|  | LPIPS (Zhang et al., 2018)  | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ |   | ✓ | Personalization       | DreamSteerer (Yu et al., 2024), DiFashion (Xu et al., 2024b), PMG (Shen et al., 2024b)                       |
|  | PSNR (Hore and Ziou, 2010)  |   |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | Personalization       | GroupDiff (Jiang et al., 2025), MYCloth (Liu and Wang, 2024), SCW-VTON (Han et al., 2024)                    |
|  | SSIM (Wang et al., 2004)  | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Personalization       | DreamSteerer (Yu et al., 2024), PMG (Shen et al., 2024b), OOTDiffusion (Xu et al., 2024d)                    |
|  | MS-SSIM (Wang et al., 2003)   | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ |   | ✓ | Personalization       | DreamSteerer (Yu et al., 2024), Pigeon (Xu et al., 2024c), SieveNet (Jandial et al., 2020)                   |
|  | DreamSim (Fu et al., 2023)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   | ✓ | Personalization       | IMPRINT (Song et al., 2024b), MaX4Zero (Orzech et al., 2024)   |
| 1. General-purpose generation<br>2. Fashion design<br>3. E-commerce product image<br>4. Subject-driven T2I generation<br>5. Face generation<br>6. Virtual try-on | Face similarity (Deng et al., 2019; Schroff et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2018b) |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Personalization       | Infinite-ID (Wu et al., 2025a), PhotoMaker (Li et al., 2024k), ProFusion (Zhou et al., 2023)                 |
|  | Face detection rate (Deng et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2016)                                     |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Personalization       | SeFi-IDE (Li et al., 2024h), Celeb Basis (Yuan et al., 2023), $W_+$ Adapter (Li et al., 2024f)               |
|  | CLIP-T (Radford et al., 2021)   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Instruction Alignment | Textual Inversion (Gal et al., 2023), Custom Diffusion (Kumari et al., 2023), DreamBooth (Ruiz et al., 2023) |
|  | ImageReward (Xu et al., 2023a)  |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Instruction Alignment | InstructBooth (Chae et al., 2023), DiffLoRA (Wu et al., 2024f), IMAGIDressing-v1 (Shen et al., 2024a)        |
|  | PickScore (Kirstain et al., 2023)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Instruction Alignment | InstructBooth (Chae et al., 2023), FABRIC (Von Rüttie et al., 2023), Stellar (Achlioptas et al., 2023)       |
|  | HPSv1 (Wu et al., 2023b)  |   |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | Instruction Alignment | Stellar (Achlioptas et al., 2023)  |
|  | HPSv2 (Wu et al., 2023b)  |   |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | Instruction Alignment | Stellar (Achlioptas et al., 2023)  |
|  | R-precision (Xu et al., 2018)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Instruction Alignment | COTI (Yang et al., 2023b)  |
|  | PAR score (Gani et al., 2024)   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Instruction Alignment | Vashishtha et al. (2024)   |
|  | FID (Heusel et al., 2017)   | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Content Quality       | COTI (Yang et al., 2023b), IMPRINT (Song et al., 2024b), DiFashion (Xu et al., 2024b)                        |
|  | KID (Bińkowski et al., 2018)  |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | Content Quality       | Custom Diffusion (Kumari et al., 2023), OOTDiffusion (Xu et al., 2024d), LaDI-VTON (Morelli et al., 2023)    |
|  | IS (Salimans et al., 2016)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   | ✓ | Content Quality       | PE-VTON (Zhang et al., 2024d), DF-VTON (Dong et al., 2024), Layout-and-Retouch (Kim et al., 2024b)           |
|  | LAION-Aesthetics (Christoph and Romain, 2022)   |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | BLIP-Diffusion (Li et al., 2024b), UniPortrait (He et al., 2024a)  |
|  | TOPIQ (Chen et al., 2024a)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | DreamSteerer (Yu et al., 2024)   |
|  | MUSIQ (Ke et al., 2021)   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | ✓ | Content Quality       | DreamSteerer (Yu et al., 2024), PE-VTON (Zhang et al., 2024d)  |
|  | MANIQA (Yang et al., 2022)  |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | PE-VTON (Zhang et al., 2024d)  |
|  | LIQE (Zhang et al., 2023c)  |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | DreamSteerer (Yu et al., 2024)   |
|  | QS (Gu et al., 2020)  |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | AddMe (Yue et al., 2025)   |
|  | BRISQUE (Mittal et al., 2012a)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | Vashishtha et al. (2024)   |
|  | CTR   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Overall               | CG4CTR (Yang et al., 2024a), Czapp et al. (2024)   |
|  | Stellar metrics (Achlioptas et al., 2023)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | Overall               | Stellar (Achlioptas et al., 2023)  |
|  | CAMI (Shen et al., 2024a)   |   |   |   |   |   | ✓ | Overall               | IMAGIDressing-v1 (Shen et al., 2024a)  |

Table 4: Evaluation metrics for personalized generation across video, 3D, audio, and cross-modal domains.

| Video (Section A.2)   | Metrics   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | - | Evaluation Dimensions | Representative Works  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|---|
| 1. Subject-driven T2V generation<br>2. ID-preserving T2V generation<br>3. Talking head generation<br>4. Pose-guided video generation<br>5. Video virtual try-on | CLIP-I (Radford et al., 2021)   | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ |   |   | Personalization       | PIA (Zhang et al., 2024h), PoseCrafter (Zhong et al., 2025), ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b)                                   |
|   | DINO-I (Caron et al., 2021; Oquab et al., 2024)                           | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Personalization       | DisenStudio (Chen et al., 2024b), DreamVideo (Wei et al., 2024b), Magic-Me (Ma et al., 2024c)                                 |
|   | SSIM (Wang et al., 2004)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   | Personalization       | AnimateAnyone (Hu, 2024), VITON-DiT (Zheng et al., 2024a), ViViD (Fang et al., 2024b)   |
|   | PSNR (Hore and Ziou, 2010)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   | Personalization       | AnimateAnyone (Hu, 2024), Yi et al. (2020), Zhua et al. (2023)  |
|   | LPIPS (Zhang et al., 2018)  |   |   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   | Personalization       | AnimateAnyone (Hu, 2024), DiffTalk (Shen et al., 2023), DisCo (Wang et al., 2023b)  |
|   | VGG (Johnson et al., 2016)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Personalization       | DreamPose (Karras et al., 2023)   |
|   | L1 error  |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Personalization       | DisCo (Wang et al., 2023b), DreamPose (Karras et al., 2023), MagicAnimate (Xu et al., 2024f)                                  |
|   | AED   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Personalization       | DisCo (Wang et al., 2023b), DreamPose (Karras et al., 2023)   |
|   | Face similarity (Deng et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2022) | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b), MagicPose (Chang et al., 2023), ConsisID (Yuan et al., 2024)                                  |
|   | CLIP-T (Radford et al., 2021)   | ✓ | ✓ |   | ✓ |   |   | Instruction Alignment | PIA (Zhang et al., 2024h), ConsisID (Yuan et al., 2024), PoseCrafter (Zhong et al., 2025)                                     |
|   | UMT score (Liu et al., 2022)  | ✓ |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Instruction Alignment | StyleMaster (Ye et al., 2024)   |
|   | AKD (Siarohin et al., 2021)   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Instruction Alignment | MagicAnimate (Xu et al., 2024f)   |
|   | MKR (Siarohin et al., 2021)   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Instruction Alignment | PoseCrafter (Zhong et al., 2025)  |
|   | MSE-P   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Instruction Alignment | DreamTalk (Ma et al., 2023), EMO (Tian et al., 2025), MEMO (Zheng et al., 2024b)  |
|   | SyncNet score (Chung and Zisserman, 2017b)                                |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Instruction Alignment | DFA-NeRF (Yao et al., 2022), DreamTalk (Ma et al., 2023), Yi et al. (2020)  |
|   | LMD (Chen et al., 2018)   |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Instruction Alignment | StyleLipSync (Ki and Min, 2023), DiffTalker (Qi et al., 2023b), Choi et al. (2024)  |
|   | LSE-C (Prajwal et al., 2020)  |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Instruction Alignment | StyleLipSync (Ki and Min, 2023), DiffTalker (Qi et al., 2023b), Choi et al. (2024)  |
|   | LSE-D (Prajwal et al., 2020)  |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Instruction Alignment | ACF (Yang et al., 2024f)  |
|   | PD (Baldrati et al., 2023)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | EMO (Tian et al., 2025), ConsisID (Yuan et al., 2024), DisCo (Wang et al., 2023b)   |
|   | FID (Heusel et al., 2017)   | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | WildVidFit (He et al., 2025)  |
|   | KID (Bifíkowski et al., 2018)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | StyleMaster (Ye et al., 2024)   |
|   | ArtFID (Wright and Ommer, 2022)   | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | SwiftTry (Nguyen et al., 2024a), VITON-DiT (Zheng et al., 2024a), ViViD (Fang et al., 2024b)                                  |
|   | VFID (Wang et al., 2018c)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | PersonalVideo (Li et al., 2024c), MotionBooth (Wu et al., 2024a), AnimateAnyone (Hu, 2024)                                    |
|   | FVD (Unterthiner et al., 2018)  | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | DisCo (Wang et al., 2023b), MagicAnimate (Xu et al., 2024f), MagicPose (Chang et al., 2023)                                   |
|   | FID-VID (Balaji et al., 2019)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | Animate-A-Story (He et al., 2023)   |
|   | KVD (Unterthiner et al., 2018)  | ✓ |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | EMO (Tian et al., 2025), EmotiveTalk (Wang et al., 2024c)   |
|   | E-FID (Tian et al., 2025)   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | MagicFight (Huang et al., 2024a)  |
|   | NIQE (Mittal et al., 2012b)   |   |   |   |   | ✓ |   | Content Quality       | DreamTalk (Ma et al., 2023)   |
|   | CPBD (Narvekar and Karam, 2011)   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | AnimateDiff (Guo et al., 2024a), Magic-Me (Ma et al., 2024c), DreamVideo (Wei et al., 2024b)                                  |
|   | Temporal consistency (Radford et al., 2021)                               | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | Content Quality   |
|   | Dynamic degree (Huang et al., 2024d)                                      | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | StyleMaster (Ye et al., 2024), ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b), PersonalVideo (Li et al., 2024c)                               |
|   | Video IS (Saito et al., 2020)   | ✓ |   |   |   |   | ✓ | Content Quality       | MagDiff (Zhao et al., 2025)   |
|   | Flow error (Shi et al., 2023a)  | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | MotionBooth (Wu et al., 2024a)  |
|   | Stitch score  | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | VideoDreamer (Chen et al., 2023a)   |
|   | Dover score (Wu et al., 2023a)  |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Content Quality       | ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b)  |
|   | Motion score (Li et al., 2018)  |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Content Quality       | ID-Animator (He et al., 2024b)  |
| 3D (Section A.3)  | Metrics   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | - | - | Evaluation Dimensions | Representative Works  |
| 1. Image-to-3D generation<br>2. 3D face generation<br>3. 3D human pose generation<br>4. 3D virtual try-on   | LPIPS (Zhang et al., 2018)  | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024), PuzzleAvatar (Xiu et al., 2024), My3DG (Qi et al., 2023a)                                       |
|   | PSNR (Hore and Ziou, 2010)  | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024), PuzzleAvatar (Xiu et al., 2024), My3DG (Qi et al., 2023a)                                       |
|   | SSIM (Wang et al., 2004)  | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024), PuzzleAvatar (Xiu et al., 2024), My3DG (Qi et al., 2023a)                                       |
|   | Chamfer Distances (Butt and Maragos, 1998)                                | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Personalization       | Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024), PuzzleAvatar (Xiu et al., 2024)   |
|   | CLIP (Radford et al., 2021)   |   |   |   |   |   |   | Personalization       | DreamVTN (Xie et al., 2024)   |
|   | Volume IoU (Zhou et al., 2019)  | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Personalization       | Wonder3D (Long et al., 2024), DiffSpeaker (Ma et al., 2024d)  |
|   | Lip Vertex Error (LVE) (Ma et al., 2024d)                                 |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | DiffSpeaker (Ma et al., 2024d), DiffusionTalker (Chen et al., 2023c)  |
|   | Facial Dynamics Deviation (FDD) (Ma et al., 2024d)                        |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | FewShotMotionTransfer (Huang et al., 2021)  |
|   | FReID (Huang et al., 2021)  |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | MVDream (Shi et al., 2023b), DreamBooth3D (Raj et al., 2023), MakeYour3D (Liu et al., 2025)                                   |
|   | CLIP-T (Radford et al., 2021)   | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Instruction Alignment | Content Quality   |
| Audio (Section 3.2)   | FID (Heusel et al., 2017)   | ✓ |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | MVDream (Shi et al., 2023b), 3DAvatarGAN (Abdal et al., 2023), TextureDreamer (Yeh et al., 2024), DreamVTN (Xie et al., 2024) |
|   | IS (Salimans et al., 2016)  | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | MVDream (Shi et al., 2023b)   |
| Cross-modal (Section 3.3)   | Metrics   | 1 | 2 | 3 | - | - | - | Evaluation Dimensions | Representative Works  |
| 1. Face-to-speech generation<br>2. Music generation<br>3. Text-to-audio generation  | CLAP (Elizalde et al., 2023)  |   |   | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | DB&TI (Plitis et al., 2024)   |
|   | Embedding Distance  | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   |   | Personalization       | UMP (Ma et al., 2022), FR-PSS (Wang et al., 2022)   |
|   | FAD (Kilgour et al., 2018)  | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   | Personalization       | UIGAN (Wang et al., 2024j), DiffAVA (Mo et al., 2023), DB&TI (Plitis et al., 2024)  |
|   | IS (Salimans et al., 2016)  |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Content Quality       | DiffAVA (Mo et al., 2023)   |
|   | STOI, ESTOI, PESQ (Sheng et al., 2023)                                    | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Content Quality       | Lip2Speech (Sheng et al., 2023)   |
| 1. Robotics<br>2. Caption/Comment generation<br>3. Multimodal dialogue systems  | BLEU, Meteor  |   | ✓ | ✓ |   |   |   | Overall               | PVCG (Wu et al., 2024e), METER (Geng et al., 2022), PV-LLM (Lin et al., 2024b)  |
|   | Recall, Precision, F1   |   |   |   | ✓ |   |   | Overall               | MýLLM (Alaluf et al., 2025), Yo'LLaVA (Nguyen et al., 2024b)  |
|   | success rate  | ✓ |   |   |   |   |   | Overall               | VPL (Poddar et al., 2024), Promptable Behaviors (Hwang et al., 2024)  |