
Self-Play Fine-Tuning of Diffusion Models for Text-to-Image Generation

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Abstract

Fine-tuning Diffusion Models remains an underexplored frontier in generative artificial intelligence (GenAI), especially when compared with the remarkable progress made in fine-tuning Large Language Models (LLMs). While cutting-edge diffusion models such as Stable Diffusion (SD) and SDXL rely on supervised fine-tuning, their performance inevitably plateaus after seeing a certain volume of data. Recently, reinforcement learning (RL) has been employed to fine-tune diffusion models with human preference data, but it requires at least two images (“winner” and “loser” images) for each text prompt. In this paper, we introduce an innovative technique called self-play fine-tuning for diffusion models (SPIN-Diffusion), where the diffusion model engages in competition with its earlier versions, facilitating an iterative self-improvement process. Our approach offers an alternative to conventional supervised fine-tuning and RL strategies, significantly improving both model performance and alignment. Our experiments on the Pick-a-Pic dataset reveal that SPIN-Diffusion outperforms the existing supervised fine-tuning method in aspects of human preference alignment and visual appeal right from its first iteration. By the second iteration, it exceeds the performance of RLHF-based methods across all metrics, achieving these results with less data. Codes are available at <https://github.com/uclaml/SPIN-Diffusion/>.

1 Introduction

Diffusion models (Ho et al., 2020; Peebles and Xie, 2023; Podell et al., 2023; Nichol et al., 2021; Rombach et al., 2022a; Song et al., 2020a) have rapidly emerged as critical entities within the realm of generative AIs (Creswell et al., 2018; Kingma and Welling, 2013), demonstrating exceptional capabilities in generating high-fidelity outputs. Their versatility spans a diverse area of applications, ranging from image generation (Rombach et al., 2022a; Podell et al., 2023; Ramesh et al., 2022) to more complex tasks like structure-based drug design (Corso et al., 2022; Guan et al., 2023), protein structure prediction (Watson et al., 2021), text generation (Austin et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023), and more. Prominent diffusion models in image generation, including DALL-E (Ramesh et al., 2022), Stable Diffusion (Rombach et al., 2022b), SDXL (Podell et al., 2023), and Dreamlike, etc., typically undergo a fine-tuning process following their initial pre-training phase.

Standard fine-tuning method for diffusion models suffers from low alignment with human preferences and low data efficiency due to two main reasons: (1) it does not directly optimize for alignment with human preferences, and (2) only one round of training can be performed. Recently, using Reinforcement Learning (RL) for fine-tuning diffusion models has received increasing attention. Lee et al. (2023) first studied the alignment of text-image diffusion models to human preferences using reward-weighted likelihood maximization with a reward function trained on human preference data.

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Black et al. (2023) formulated the fine-tuning of diffusion models as a RL problem solved by policy gradient optimization. In a concurrent work, Fan et al. (2023) studied a similar formulation but with a KL regularization. Very recently, Wallace et al. (2023) have bypassed the need for training reward functions by using Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) (Rafailov et al., 2023) for fine-tuning diffusion models. Similar approach was proposed in Yang et al. (2023) as well.

While RL fine-tuning of diffusion methods has been proven effective, its dependency on human preference data, often necessitating multiple images per prompt, poses a significant challenge. In many datasets including the community-sourced ones featuring custom content, it is often the case to have only one image associated with each prompt. This makes RL fine-tuning infeasible.

In this paper, drawing inspiration from the recently proposed self-play fine-tuning (SPIN) technique (Chen et al., 2024) for large language models (LLM), we introduce a new supervised fine-tuning (SFT) method for diffusion models, eliminating the necessity for human preference data in the fine-tuning process. Central to our method is a general-sum minimax game, where both the participating players, namely the main player and the opponent player, are diffusion models. The main player’s goal is to discern between samples drawn from the target data distribution and those generated by the opponent player. The opponent player’s goal is to garner the highest score possible, as assessed by the main player. A self-play mechanism can be made possible, if and only if the main player and the opponent player have the same structure, and therefore the opponent player can be designed to be previous copies of the main player (Chen et al., 2024). The proposed algorithm SPIN-Diffusion overcomes the drawbacks of both supervised fine-tuning (SFT) and RL fine-tuning. Compared with SFT, our method is more data-efficient, by repeatedly using the prompts from the SFT dataset to improve the model through self-play. Compared with RL fine-tuning methods, our method does not need external reward models or expensive human-annotated winner/loser pairs.

When applying the self-play fine-tuning technique (Chen et al., 2024) to diffusion models, there are two challenges: (a) an exponential or even infinite number of possible trajectories can lead to the same image. The generator in a diffusion model operates through a sequence of intermediate steps, but the performance of the generator is only determined by the quality of the image in the last step; and (b) diffusion models are parameterized by a sequence of score functions, which are the gradient of the probabilities rather than probabilities in LLMs. Our algorithm design effectively surmounts these challenges by (a) designing an objective function that considers all intermediate images generated during the reverse sampling process; and (b) decomposing and approximating the probability function step-by-step into products related to the score function. We also employ the Gaussian reparameterization technique in DDIM (Song et al., 2020a) to support the advanced sampling method. All these techniques together lead to an unbiased objective function that can be effectively calculated based on intermediate samples. For computational efficiency, we further propose an approximate objective function, which eliminates the need for intermediate images used in our model.

Contributions. Our contributions are summarized below:

- We propose a novel fine-tuning method for diffusion models based on the self-play mechanism, called SPIN-Diffusion. The proposed algorithm iteratively improves upon a diffusion model until converging to the target distribution. Theoretically, we prove that the model obtained by SPIN-Diffusion cannot be further improved via standard SFT. Moreover, the stationary point of our self-play mechanism is achieved when the diffusion model aligns with the target distribution.
- Empirically, we evaluate the performance of SPIN-Diffusion on text-to-image generation tasks (Ramesh et al., 2022; Rombach et al., 2022a; Saharia et al., 2022a). Our experiments on the Pick-a-Pic dataset (Kirstain et al., 2023), with base model being Stable Diffusion-1.5 (Rombach et al., 2022b), demonstrate that SPIN-Diffusion surpasses SFT from the very first iteration. Notably, by the second iteration, SPIN-Diffusion outperforms Diffusion-DPO (Wallace et al., 2023) that utilizes additional data from ‘loser’ samples. By the third iteration, the images produced by SPIN-Diffusion achieve a higher PickScore (Kirstain et al., 2023) than the base model SD-1.5 79.8% of the times, and a superior Aesthetic score 88.4% of the times.

SPIN-Diffusion exhibits a remarkable performance improvement over current state-of-the-art fine-tuning algorithms, retaining this advantage even against models trained with more extensive data usage. This highlights its exceptional efficiency in dataset utilization. It is beneficial for the general public, particularly those with restricted access to datasets containing multiple images per prompt.

Notation. We use lowercase letters and lowercase boldface letters to denote scalars and vectors, respectively. We use $0 : T$ to denote the index set $\{0, \dots, T\}$. In the function space, let \mathcal{F} be the function class. We use the symbol \mathbf{q} to denote the real distribution in a diffusion process, while \mathbf{p}_θ represents the distribution parameterized by a neural network during sampling. The Gaussian distribution is represented as $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, where μ and Σ are the mean and covariance matrix, respectively. Lastly, $\text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$ denotes the uniform distribution over the set $\{1, \dots, T\}$.

2 Related Work

Diffusion Models. Diffusion-based generative models (Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015) have recently gained prominence, attributed to their ability to produce high-quality and diverse samples. A popular diffusion model is denoising diffusion probabilistic modeling (DDPM) (Ho et al., 2020). Song et al. (2020a) proposed a denoising diffusion implicit model (DDIM), which extended DDPM to a non-Markov diffusion process, enabling a deterministic sampling process and the accelerated generation of high-quality samples. In addition to DDPM and DDIM, diffusion models have also been studied with a score-matching probabilistic model using Langevin dynamics (Song and Ermon, 2019; Song et al., 2020b). Diffusion models evolved to encompass guided diffusion models, which are designed to generate conditional distributions. When the conditioning input is text and the output is image, these models transform into text-to-image diffusion models (Rombach et al., 2022a; Ramesh et al., 2022; Ho et al., 2022; Saharia et al., 2022b). They bridge the gap between textual descriptions and image synthesis, offering exciting possibilities for content generation. A significant advancement in text-to-image generation is the introduction of Stable Diffusion (SD) (Rombach et al., 2022a). SD has expanded the potential of diffusion models by integrating latent variables into the generation process. This innovation in latent diffusion models enables the exploration of latent spaces and improves the diversity of generated content. Despite the introduction of latent spaces, generating images with desired content from text prompts remains a significant challenge (Gal et al., 2022; Ruiz et al., 2023). This is due to the difficulty in learning the semantic properties of text prompts with limited high-quality data.

Fine-Tuning Diffusion Models. Efforts to improve diffusion models have focused on aligning them more closely with human preferences. Rombach et al. (2022a) fine-tuned a pre-trained model using the COCO dataset (Caesar et al., 2018), demonstrating superior performance compared to a generative model directly trained on the same dataset. Podell et al. (2023) expanded the model size of Stable Diffusion (SD) to create the SDXL model, which was fine-tuned on a high-quality but private dataset, leading to a significant improvement in the aesthetics of the generated images. Dai et al. (2023) further demonstrated the effectiveness of fine-tuning and highlighted the importance of the supervised fine-tuning (SFT) dataset. In addition to using datasets with high-quality images, Betker et al. (2023); Segalis et al. (2023) found that SFT on a data set with high text fidelity can also improve the performance of the diffusion model. The aforementioned methods only requires a high-quality SFT dataset. Recently, preference datasets have been studied in finetuning diffusion models (Lee et al., 2023). Concurrently, DDPO (Black et al., 2023) and DPOK (Fan et al., 2023) proposed to use the preference dataset to train a reward model and then fine-tune diffusion models using reinforcement learning. Drawing inspiration from the recent Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) (Rafailov et al., 2023), Diffusion-DPO (Wallace et al., 2023) and D3PO (Yang et al., 2023) used the implicit reward to fine-tune diffusion models directly on the preference dataset. Furthermore, when a differentiable reward model is available, Clark et al. (2023); Prabhudesai et al. (2023) applied reward backpropagation for fine-tuning diffusion models. Our SPIN-Diffusion is most related to the SFT method, as it only assumes access to high-quality image-text pairs. However, the high-quality image-text dataset can be obtained from various sources, including selecting the winner from a preference dataset or identifying high-reward image-text pairs through a reward model.

3 Problem Setting and Preliminaries

In this section, we introduce basic settings for text-to-image generation by diffusion models and the self-play fine-tuning (SPIN) method.

3.1 Text-to-Image Diffusion Model

Denoising diffusion implicit models (DDIM) (Song et al., 2020a) is a generalized framework of denoising diffusion probabilistic models (DDPM) (Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2020). DDIM enables the fast generation of high-quality samples and has been widely used in text-to-image

diffusion models such as Stable Diffusion (Rombach et al., 2022a). We formulate our method building upon DDIM, which makes it more general.

Forward Process. Following Saharia et al. (2022b), the problem of text-to-image generation can be formulated as conditional diffusion models. We use $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to denote the value of image pixels where d is the dimension and use \mathbf{c} to denote the text prompt. Given a prompt \mathbf{c} , image \mathbf{x}_0 is drawn from a target data distribution $p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$. The diffusion process is characterized by the following dynamic parameterized by a positive decreasing sequence $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$ with $\alpha_0 = 1$,

$$q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0) := q(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{t=2}^T q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_0), \quad (3.1)$$

where $q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_0)$ represents a Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_t, \sigma_t^2 \mathbf{I})$. Here, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_t$ is the mean of Gaussian defined as

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_t := \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t} \mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}}.$$

It can be derived from (3.1) that $q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\alpha_t} \mathbf{x}_0, (1 - \alpha_t) \mathbf{I})$ for all t (Song et al., 2020a). As a generalized diffusion process of DDPM, (3.1) reduces to DDPM (Ho et al., 2020) with a special choice of $\sigma_t = \sqrt{(1 - \alpha_{t-1})/(1 - \alpha_t)} \sqrt{(1 - \alpha_t/\alpha_{t-1})}$.

Generative Process. Given the sequence of $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$ and $\{\sigma_t\}_{t=1}^T$, examples from the generative model follows

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) = \prod_{t=1}^T p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}) \cdot p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{c}), \quad p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t), \sigma_t^2 \mathbf{I}). \quad (3.2)$$

Here $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ belongs to the parameter space Θ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$ is the estimator of mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_t$ that can be reparameterized (Ho et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020a) as the combination of \mathbf{x}_t and a neural network $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$ named score function. Please see Appendix C for more details.

Training Objective. The score function $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$ is trained by minimizing the evidence lower bound (ELBO) associated with the diffusion models in (3.1) and (3.2), which is equivalent to minimizing the following denoising score matching objective function L_{DSM} :

$$L_{\text{DSM}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}[\gamma_t \|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t\|_2^2], \quad (3.3)$$

where $\mathbf{x}_t = \sqrt{\alpha_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$ and the expectation is computed over the distribution $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. In addition, $\{\gamma_t\}_{t=1}^T$ are pre-specified weights that depends on the sequences $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$ and $\{\sigma_t\}_{t=1}^T$.

3.2 Self-Play Fine-Tuning

Self-Play mechanism, originating from TD-Gammon (Tesauro et al., 1995), has achieved great successes in various fields, particularly in strategic games (Silver et al., 2017b,a). Central to Self-Play is the idea of progressively improving a model by competing against its previous iteration. This approach has recently been adapted to fine-tuning Large Language Models (LLMs) (Chen et al., 2024), called self-play fine-tuning (SPIN). Considering an LLM where \mathbf{c} is the input prompt and \mathbf{x}_0 is the response, the goal of SPIN is to fine-tune an LLM agent, denoted by $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$, based on an SFT dataset. Chen et al. (2024) assumed access to a main player and an opponent player at each iteration and takes the following steps iteratively:

1. The main player maximizes the expected value gap between the target data distribution p_{data} and the opponent player’s distribution $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}$:
2. The opponent player generates responses that are indistinguishable from p_{data} by the main player.

Instead of alternating optimization, SPIN directly utilizes a closed-form solution of the opponent player, which results in the opponent player at iteration $k + 1$ to copy parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1}$, and forming an end-to-end training objective:

$$L_{\text{SPIN}} = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(\lambda \log \frac{p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})}{p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})} - \lambda \log \frac{p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}'_0|\mathbf{c})}{p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0|\mathbf{c})} \right) \right]. \quad (3.4)$$

Here the expectation is taken over the distribution $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}' \sim p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'|\mathbf{c})$, $\ell(\cdot)$ is a loss function that is both monotonically decreasing and convex, and $\lambda > 0$ is a hyperparameter. Notably, (3.4) only requires the knowledge of demonstration/SFT data, i.e., prompt-response pairs.

Algorithm 1 Self-Play Diffusion (SPIN-Diffusion)

Input: $\{(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{c})\}_{i \in [N]}$: SFT Dataset, p_{θ_0} : Diffusion Model with parameter θ_0 , K : Number of iterations.
for $k = 0, \dots, K - 1$ **do**
 for $i = 1, \dots, N$ **do**
 Generate real diffusion trajectories $\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \sim q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0)$.
 Generate synthetic diffusion trajectories $\mathbf{x}'_{0:T} \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$.
 end for
 Update $\theta_{k+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta \in \Theta} \widehat{L}_{\text{SPIN}}(\theta, \theta_k)$, which is the empirical version of (4.8) or (4.9).
end for
Output: θ_K .

4 Method

In this section, we are going to present a method for fine-tuning diffusion models with self-play mechanism.

Consider a setting where we are training on a high-quality dataset containing image-text pairs $(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}_0) \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})q(\mathbf{c})$ where \mathbf{c} is the text prompt and \mathbf{x}_0 is the image. Our goal is to fine-tune a pretrained diffusion model, denoted by p_{θ} , to align with the distribution $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})$. Instead of directly minimizing the denoising score matching objective function L_{DSM} in (3.3), we adapt SPIN to diffusion models. However, applying SPIN to fine-tuning diffusion models presents unique challenges. Specifically, the objective of SPIN (3.4) necessitates access to the marginal probability $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})$. While obtaining $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})$ is straightforward in LLMs, this is not the case with diffusion models. Given the parameterization of the diffusion model as $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$, computing the marginal probability $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})$ requires integration over all potential trajectories $\int_{\mathbf{x}_{1:T}} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) d\mathbf{x}_{1:T}$, which is computationally intractable.

In the following, we propose a novel SPIN-Diffusion method with a decomposed objective function that only requires the estimation of score function ϵ_{θ} . This is achieved by employing the DDIM formulation discussed in Section 3. The key technique is self-play mechanism with a focus on the joint distributions of the entire diffusion process, i.e., $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) = q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0)p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})$ and $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$, instead of marginal distributions.

4.1 Differentiating Diffusion Processes

In iteration $k + 1$, we focus on training a function f_{k+1} to differentiate between the diffusion trajectory $\mathbf{x}_{0:T}$ generated by the diffusion model parameterized by $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$, and the diffusion process $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$ from the data. Specifically, the training of f_{k+1} involves minimizing a generalized Integral Probability Metric (IPM) (Müller, 1997):

$$f_{k+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{F}_k} \mathbb{E}[\ell(f(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}_{0:T}) - f(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}'_{0:T}))]. \quad (4.1)$$

Here, the expectation is taken over the distributions $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_{0:T} \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$, and $\mathbf{x}'_{0:T} \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$. \mathcal{F}_k denotes the class of functions under consideration and $\ell(\cdot)$ is a monotonically decreasing and convex function that helps stabilize training. The value of f reflects the degree of belief that the diffusion process $\mathbf{x}_{0:T}$ given context \mathbf{c} originates from the target diffusion process $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$ rather than the diffusion model $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$. We name f the test function.

4.2 Deceiving the Test Function

The opponent player wants to maximize the expected value $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot), \mathbf{x}_{0:T} \sim p(\cdot|\mathbf{c})}[f_{k+1}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x})]$. In addition, to prevent excessive deviation of $p_{\theta_{k+1}}$ from p_{θ_k} and stabilize the self-play fine-tuning, we incorporate a Kullback-Leibler (KL) regularization term. Putting these together gives rise to the following optimization problem:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_p \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot), \mathbf{x}_{0:T} \sim p(\cdot|\mathbf{c})}[f_{k+1}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}_{0:T})] - \lambda \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot)} \text{KL}(p(\cdot|\mathbf{c})||p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})), \quad (4.2)$$

where $\lambda > 0$ is the regularization parameter. Notably, (4.2) has a closed-form solution $\widehat{p}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$:

$$\widehat{p}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) \propto p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) \exp(\lambda^{-1} f_{k+1}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}_{0:T})). \quad (4.3)$$

To ensure that \hat{p} lies in the diffusion process space $\{p_{\theta}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})|\theta \in \Theta\}$, we utilize the following test function class (Chen et al., 2024):

$$\mathcal{F}_k = \left\{ \lambda \cdot \log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{c})}{p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{c})} \middle| \theta \in \Theta \right\}. \quad (4.4)$$

Given the choice of \mathcal{F}_k in (4.4), optimizing (4.1) gives f_{k+1} parameterized by θ_{k+1} in the following form:

$$f_{k+1}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}_{0:T}) = \lambda \cdot \log \frac{p_{\theta_{k+1}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})}{p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})}. \quad (4.5)$$

Substituting (4.5) into (4.3) yields $\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) = p_{\theta_{k+1}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$. In other words, θ_{k+1} learned from (4.1) is exactly the diffusion parameter for the ideal choice of opponent.

4.3 Decomposed Training Objective

The above two steps provide a training scheme depending on the full trajectory of $\mathbf{x}_{0:T}$. Specifically, substituting (4.4) into (4.1) yields the update rule $\theta_{k+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta \in \Theta} L_{\text{SPIN}}(\theta, \theta_k)$, where L_{SPIN} is defined as:

$$L_{\text{SPIN}} = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(\lambda \log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})}{p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})} - \lambda \log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})}{p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})} \right) \right]. \quad (4.6)$$

Here the expectation is taken over the distributions $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_{0:T} \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}'_{0:T} \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$. To formulate a computationally feasible objective, we decompose $\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c})$ using the backward process of diffusion models. Substituting (3.2) into (4.6), we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) &= \log \left(\prod_{t=1}^T p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}) \cdot p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{c}) \right) \\ &= \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{c}) + \sum_{t=1}^T \log (p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c})) \\ &= \text{Constant} - \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{2\sigma_t^2} \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2. \end{aligned} \quad (4.7)$$

where the last equality holds since $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c})$ is a Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t), \sigma_t^2 \mathbf{I})$ according to (3.2), and $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{c})$ is approximately a Gaussian independent of θ . By substituting (4.7) into (4.6) and introducing a reparameterization $\sigma_t^2 = \lambda T / (2\beta_t)$, where β_t is a fixed positive value, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\text{SPIN}}(\theta, \theta_k) &= \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(- \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\beta_t}{T} [\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2] \right) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (4.8)$$

Here the expectation is taken over the distributions $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_{0:T} \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}'_{0:T} \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$. Note that by considering the main player (reward function) across the full trajectory (3.2), rather than focusing solely on the final state as in Fan et al. (2023); Black et al. (2023); Wallace et al. (2023), we are able to formulate an exact objective function up to Equation (4.8). The detailed algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1. (4.8) naturally provides an objective function for DDIM with $\sigma_t > 0$, where σ_t controls the determinism of the reverse process (3.2). (4.8) remains valid for deterministic generation processes as $\sigma_t \rightarrow 0$.

4.4 Approximate Training Objective

While (4.8) is the exact ELBO, optimizing it requires storing all intermediate images during the reverse sampling. When the trajectory length T is large, it would require an impractical amount of GPU memory when the loss is summed over T . Additionally, the required samples from a reverse process are not readily accessible. To address these limitations, we propose an approximate objective function. By applying Jensen's inequality and the convexity of the loss function ℓ , we can give an upper bound of (4.8) and thus move the average over t outside the loss function ℓ :

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k) = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(- \beta_t [\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right.$$

$$- \left[\|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right], \quad (4.9)$$

where the expectation is taken over the distributions $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t) \sim p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{c})$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. This approximation is directly motivated by the nature of diffusion models, which inherently decouple operations on a per-time-step basis. We provide theoretical justifications for our approximation method in the following sections.

The following lemma shows that $L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}$ is an upper bound of L_{SPIN} .

Lemma 4.1. Fix $\theta_k \in \Theta$ which serves as the starting point of Algorithm 1 for iteration $k + 1$. It holds that $L_{\text{SPIN}}(\theta, \theta_k) \leq L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k)$ for all $\theta \in \Theta$.

$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}$ eliminates the need to store all intermediate steps, as it only involves two consecutive sampling steps $t - 1$ and t . Since the reverse process $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}'_0, \mathbf{c})$ approximates the forward process $q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}'_0)$, we use the per step forward process $q(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{x}'_0)$ to approximate $p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{x}'_0, \mathbf{c})$. We can further approximate $p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{c}) = \int p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{x}'_0, \mathbf{c}) p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0 | \mathbf{c}) d\mathbf{x}'_0$ with $\int q(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{x}'_0) p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0 | \mathbf{c}) d\mathbf{x}'_0$. Substituting the corresponding terms in (4.9) with the above approximation allows us to only compute the expectation of (4.9) over the distribution $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t) \sim \int p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0 | \mathbf{c}) q(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{x}'_0) d\mathbf{x}'_0$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. Furthermore, by incorporating the reparameterization of $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta$ into (4.8) and (4.9), we can express (4.8) and (4.9) in terms of $\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$. Detailed derivations of (4.8) and (4.9) are provided in Appendix C.

5 Main Theory

In this section, we provide a theoretical analysis of Algorithm 1. Section 4 introduces two distinct objective functions, as defined in (4.8) and (4.9), both of which use the loss function ℓ . Since (4.8) is an exact objective function, its analysis closely follows the framework established by Chen et al. (2024). Consequently, we instead focus on the approximate objective function $L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}$ defined in (4.9), which is more efficient to optimize and is the algorithm we use in our experiments. However, its behavior is more difficult to analyze. We begin with a formal assumption regarding the loss function ℓ as follows.

Assumption 5.1. The function $\ell(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in (4.9) is monotonically decreasing, i.e., $\forall t, \ell'(t) \leq 0$ and satisfies $\ell'(0) < 0$. In addition, $\ell(t)$ is a convex function.

Assumption 5.1 can be satisfied by various commonly used loss functions in machine learning. This includes the correlation loss $\ell(t) = 1 - t$, the hinge loss $\ell(t) = \max(0, 1 - t)$, and the logistic loss $\ell(t) = \log(1 + \exp(-t))$. In our experiments, we are using the logistic loss.

To understand the behavior of SPIN-Diffusion, let us first analyze the gradient of the objective function (4.9),

$$\nabla L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}} = \mathbb{E} \left[\underbrace{(-\beta_t \ell'_t)}_{\text{Reweighting}} \cdot \left(\underbrace{\nabla_\theta \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2}_{\text{Matching}} - \underbrace{\nabla_\theta \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2}_{\text{Pushing}} \right) \right], \quad (5.1)$$

where the expectation is taken over the distributions $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t) \sim p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{c})$. (D.3) can be divided into three parts:

- **Reweighting:** $\ell'(\cdot)$ in the “Reweighting” term is negative and increasing because $\ell(\cdot)$ is monotonically decreasing and convex according to Assumption 5.1. Therefore, $-\beta_t \ell'_t = -\beta_t \ell'(-\beta_t [\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \dots + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2])$ is always non-negative. Furthermore, $-\beta_t \ell'_t$ decreases as the argument inside $\ell(\cdot)$ increases.
- **Matching:** The “Matching” term matches $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$ to \mathbf{x}_{t-1} coming from pairs $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)$, that are sampled from the target distribution. This increases the likelihood of $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)$ following the generative process (3.2).
- **Pushing:** Contrary to the “Matching” term, the “Pushing” term pushes $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$ away from \mathbf{x}'_{t-1} coming from pairs $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t)$ drawn from the synthetic distribution $p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t)$. Therefore, the “Pushing” term decreases the likelihood of these samples following the process in the generative process (3.2).

The ‘‘Matching’’ term aligns conceptually with the L_{DSM} in SFT, as both aim to maximize the likelihood that the target trajectory $\mathbf{x}_{0:T}$ follows the generative process described in (3.2). The following theorem shows a formal connection, which is pivotal for understanding the optimization dynamics of our method.

Theorem 5.2. Under Assumption 5.1, if θ_k is not the global optima of L_{DM} in (3.3), there exists an appropriately chosen β_t , such that θ_k is not the global minima of (4.9) and thus $\theta_{k+1} \neq \theta_k$.

Theorem 5.2 suggests that the optimization process stops only when θ reaches global optimality of L_{DSM} . Consequently, the optimal diffusion model θ^* found by Algorithm 1 cannot be further improved using L_{DSM} . This theoretically supports that SFT with (3.3) cannot improve over SPIN-Diffusion. It is also worth noting that Theorem 5.2 does not assert that every global minimum of L_{DSM} meets the convergence criterion (i.e., $\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k$), particularly due to the influence of the ‘‘Pushing’’ term in (D.3). The following theorem provides additional insight into the conditions under which Algorithm 1 converges.

Theorem 5.3. Under Assumption 5.1, if $p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{x}) = p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{x})$, then θ_k is the global minimum of (4.9) for any $\lambda \geq 0$.

Theorem 5.3 shows that Algorithm 1 converges when $p_{\theta}(\cdot|\mathbf{x}) = p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{x})$, indicating the efficacy of SPIN-Diffusion in aligning with the target data distribution. In addition, while Theorems 5.2 and 5.3 are directly applicable to (4.9), the analogous conclusion can be drawn for (4.8) as well (see Appendix D for a detailed discussion).

6 Experiments

In this section, we conduct extensive experiments to demonstrate the effectiveness of SPIN-Diffusion. Our results show that SPIN-Diffusion outperforms other baseline fine-tuning methods including SFT and Diffusion-DPO.

6.1 Experiment Setup

Models, Datasets and Baselines. We use the stable diffusion v1.5 (SD-1.5) (Rombach et al., 2022a) as our base model. While adopting the original network structure, we use its Huggingface pretrained version², which is trained on LAION-5B (Schuhmann et al., 2022) dataset, a text-image pair dataset containing approximately 5.85 billion CLIP-filtered image-text pairs. We use the Pick-a-Pic dataset (Kirstain et al., 2023) for fine-tuning. Pick-a-Pic is a dataset with pairs of images generated by Dreamlike³ (a fine-tuned version of SD-1.5) and SDXL-beta (Podell et al., 2023), where each pair corresponds to a human preference label. We also train SD-1.5 with SFT and Diffusion-DPO (Wallace et al., 2023) as the baselines. For SFT, we train the model to fit the winner images in the Pick-a-Pic (Kirstain et al., 2023) trainset. In addition to the Diffusion-DPO checkpoint provided by Wallace et al. (2023)⁴ (denoted by Diffusion-DPO), we also fine-tune an SD-1.5 using Diffusion-DPO and denote it by ‘‘Diffusion-DPO (reproduced)’’.

Evaluation. We use the Pick-a-Pic test set, PartiPrompts (Yu et al., 2022) and HPSv2 (Wu et al., 2023) as our evaluation benchmarks. We defer the detailed introduction and results of PartiPrompts and HPSv2 to Appendix A.3. Our evaluation rubric contains two dimensions, human preference alignment and visual appeal. For visual appeal assessment, we follow Wallace et al. (2023); Lee et al. (2024) and use Aesthetic score. For human-preference alignment, we employ reward models including PickScore (Kirstain et al., 2023), ImageReward (Xu et al., 2023) and HPS (Wu et al., 2023). All these reward models are trained according to the Bradley-Terry-Luce (Bradley and Terry, 1952) model on different human-labeled preference datasets. For each prompt, we generate 5 images and choose the image with highest average score over those four metrics (best out of 5). We report the average of HPS, PickScore, ImageReward and Aesthetic scores over all the prompts. To investigate how the scores align with human preference, we further compare the accuracy of these reward models on a small portion of the Pick-a-Pic training set. It is worth noticing that PickScore is most aligned with human preference according to the experiments conducted by Kirstain et al. (2023).

²<https://huggingface.co/runwayml/stable-diffusion-v1-5>

³<https://dreamlike.art/>

⁴<https://huggingface.co/mhdang/dpo-sd1.5-text2image-v1>

Table 1: The results on the Pick-a-Pic test set. We report the mean of PickScore, HPS, ImageReward and Aesthetic over the whole test set. We also report the average score over the three evaluation metrics. SPIN-Diffusion outperforms all the baselines in terms of four metrics. For this and following tables, we use blue background to indicate our method, **bold** numbers to denote the best and underlined for the second best.

Model	HPS \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	PickScore \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	0.2699	5.7691	0.8159	21.1983	7.0133
SFT (reproduced)	0.2749	5.9451	1.1051	21.4542	7.1948
Diffusion-DPO	0.2724	5.8635	0.9625	21.5919	7.1726
Diffusion-DPO (reproduced)	<u>0.2753</u>	5.8918	1.0495	21.8866	7.2758
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	0.2728	6.1206	1.0131	21.6651	7.2679
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	0.2751	<u>6.2399</u>	<u>1.1086</u>	<u>21.9567</u>	<u>7.3951</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	0.2759	6.2481	1.1239	22.0024	7.4126

6.2 Main Results

In this subsection, we provide empirical evidence demonstrating the superiority of our SPIN-Diffusion model over previous fine-tuning baselines based on the network structure of SD1.5.

Comparison in Terms of Average Score. The results are presented in Table 1. While all fine-tuning algorithms yield improvements over the SD1.5 baseline, at iteration 1, our SPIN-Diffusion not only exceeds the original DPO checkpoint but also surpasses SFT in both Aesthetic score and PickScore.

At iteration 2, the superiority of our model becomes even more pronounced, particularly in terms of Aesthetic score, where it consistently outperforms other fine-tuning methods, indicating a dominant performance in visual quality. Furthermore, at iteration 3, our model’s HPSv2 score surpasses all competing models, highlighting the effectiveness and robustness of the SPIN-Diffusion approach. Specifically, on the Pick-a-Pic dataset, while SFT achieves a PickScore of 21.45, and Diffusion-DPO has a slightly higher score of 21.45, SPIN-Diffusion achieves 22.00 at iteration 3, showing a total improvement of 0.80 over the original SD1.5 checkpoint. Furthermore, SPIN-Diffusion demonstrates exceptional performance in terms of Aesthetic score, achieving 6.25 at iteration 3, which significantly surpasses 5.86 achieved by Diffusion-DPO and 5.77 by SD1.5.

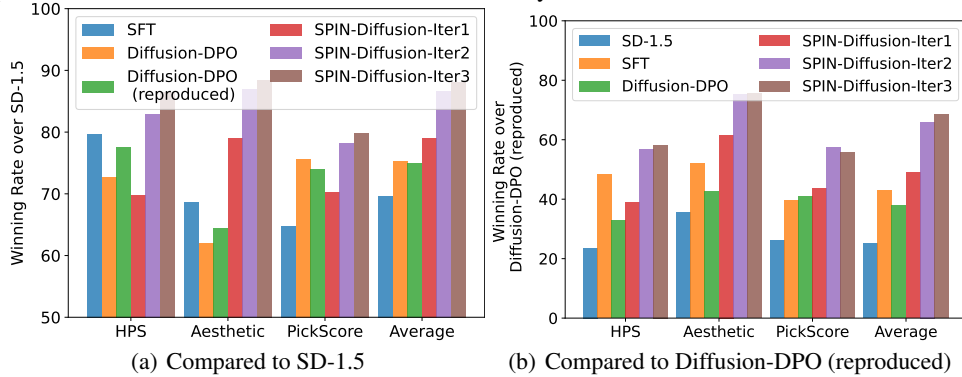


Figure 1: Left: winning rate in percentage of SFT, Diffusion-DPO, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced) and SPIN-Diffusion over SD1.5 checkpoint. Right: winning rate in percentage of SFT, Diffusion-DPO, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced) and SPIN-Diffusion over SD1.5 checkpoint. SPIN-Diffusion shows a much higher winning rate than SFT and Diffusion-DPO tuned models.

Comparison in Terms of Winning Rate. We further validate our claim by a comparative analysis of the winning rate for our trained model. The winning rate is defined as the proportion of prompts for which a model’s generated images exceed the quality of those produced by another model. This experiment is conducted on the Pick-a-Pic test set. We show both the winning rate over SD-1.5, as well as the winning rate over Diffusion-DPO (reproduced) in Figure 1. The complete results are detailed in Tables 3 and 4 in Appendix A.2. We observe that throughout fine-tuning, our SPIN-Diffusion tremendously beats the baselines. When competing with SD-1.5, SPIN-Diffusion achieves an impressive winning rate of 90.0% at iteration 2, which further increases to 91.6% at iteration 3. This winning rate surpasses 73.2% achieved by SFT and 84.8% achieved by Diffusion-DPO (reproduced). When competing with Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), at iteration 3, SPIN-Diffusion



Figure 2: We show the images generated by different models. The prompts are “a very cute boy, looking at audience, silver hair, in his room, wearing hoodie, at daytime, ai language model, 3d art, c4d, blender, pop mart, blind box, clay material, pixar trend, animation lighting, depth of field, ultra detailed”, “painting of a castle in the distance” and “red and green eagle”. The models are: SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1, SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2, SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3 from left to right. SPIN-Diffusion demonstrates a notable improvement in image quality. The quantitative evaluation of the aesthetic score of the above images is in Table 5.

achieves a winning rate of 56.2% on HPS, 86.8% on Aesthetic, 62.4% on PickScore, 55.8% on Image Reward, and has an overall winning rate of 70.2%.

6.3 Qualitative Analysis

We illustrate the qualitative performance of our model on three prompts coming from the Pick-a-Pic test dataset. We prompt SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), and SPIN-Diffusion at iteration 1 to 3 and present the generated images in Figure 2. Compared to the baseline methods, SPIN-Diffusion demonstrates a notable improvement in image quality, even more apparent than the improvements in scores. This is especially evident in aspects such as aligning, shading, visual appeal, and the intricacy of details within each image. This qualitative assessment underscores the effectiveness of SPIN-Diffusion in producing images that are not only contextually accurate but also visually superior to those generated by other existing models.

7 Conclusion

This paper presents SPIN-Diffusion, an innovative fine-tuning approach tailored for diffusion models, particularly effective in scenarios where only a single image is available per text prompt. By employing a self-play mechanism, SPIN-Diffusion iteratively refines the model’s performance, converging towards the target data distribution. Theoretical evidence underpins the superiority of SPIN-Diffusion, demonstrating that traditional supervised fine-tuning cannot surpass its stationary point, achievable at the target data distribution. Empirical evaluations highlight SPIN-Diffusion’s remarkable success in text-to-image generation tasks, surpassing the state-of-the-art fine-tuning methods even without the need for additional data. This underscores SPIN-Diffusion’s potential to revolutionize the practice of diffusion model fine-tuning, leveraging solely demonstration data to achieve unprecedented performance levels.

Limitations While our theoretical analysis ensures that θ_k is the only global optimum of our objective function, it relies on the assumption that the data distribution can be adequately represented by the parameterized family. Additionally, as our methodology is fundamentally a distribution matching algorithm, it cannot, in principle, exceed the performance of the underlying data distribution. Finally, although SPIN-Diffusion is data-efficient, it requires additional sampling overhead. The high sampling cost can be alleviated by software-level upgrades such as larger batch size, and memory-efficient attention backends. On the algorithm level, advanced sampling acceleration techniques also offer promising improvements. These techniques are orthogonal to our efforts in improving the performance of fine-tuning diffusion models, and therefore we decide to explore them as a future work.

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Broader Impact

This approach enhances model performance across diverse benchmarks without the need for supervision from more advanced models, facilitating better alignment of AI with human preferences. This improvement bolsters the reliability and safety of AI systems in the field of text-to-image generation. It provides a more effective and scalable method for model fine-tuning, resulting in cost reductions and the expedited deployment of models that more accurately reflect human aesthetic and content preferences.

However, there exists the potential for overfitting, which may not lead to genuine improvements in real-world applications. Adhering too closely in creative fields such as text-to-image generation could inadvertently perpetuate existing societal biases in the generated imagery. Furthermore, the capability to finely tune alignment with human preferences could be exploited for unethical ends, such as crafting tailored and manipulative content or disseminating false information.

A Additional Details for Experiments

A.1 Hyperparameters

We train the SPIN-Diffusion on 8 NVIDIA A100 GPUs with 80G memory. In training the SPIN-Diffusion, we use the AdamW optimizer with a weight decay factor of $1e-2$. The images are processed at a 512×512 resolution. The batch size is set to 8 locally, alongside a gradient accumulation of 32. For the learning rate, we use a schedule starting with 200 warm-up steps, followed by linear decay. We conduct a grid search on the learning rate, coefficient β_t , and number of training steps, and choose the hyperparameters that perform the best on the validation set. We set the learning rate at $2.0e-5$ for the initial two iterations, reducing it to $5.0e-8$ for the third iteration. The coefficient β_t is chosen as 2000 for the first iteration, increasing to 5000 for the subsequent second and third iterations. The trend in different learning rate and β_t choices reveals that later iterations typically benefit from more conservative updates. Training steps are 50 for the first iteration, 500 for the second, and 200 for the third. In training the DPO model, we employ the same AdamW optimizer and maintain a batch size of 8 and a gradient accumulation of 32. The learning rate is set to $2.0e-5$, and β_t is set to 2000. The total number of training steps for DPO is 350. In SFT training, we use 4 NVIDIA A6000 GPUs. We use the AdamW optimizer with a weight decay of 0.01. The local batch size is set to 32 and the global batch size is set to 512. Our learning rate is $1e-5$, with linear warmup for 500 steps with no learning rate decay. We save checkpoints every 500 steps and evaluate the checkpoints on Pick-a-Pic validation. We select the best checkpoint, trained after 2000 steps as our SFT checkpoint.

During generation, we use a guidance scale of 7.5, and fixed the random seed as 5775709.

A.2 Additional Results

In this section, we first illustrate the main results shown in Table 1 by Figure 3 and a radar plot Figure 4.

We present the median scores of baselines and SPIN-Diffusion on Pick-a-Pic testset in Table 2. The results are consistent to the results in Table 1. We present the detailed winning rate of baselines and SPIN-Diffusion over SD-1.5 in Table 3 and the winning rate over Diffusion-DPO in Table 4. We present the aesthetic scores of the images in Figure 2 in Table 5.

A.3 Additional Ablation Study

We conduct ablation study to investigate several aspects in the performance of SPIN-Diffusion.

Continual Training for More Epochs. We further study the training behavior of SPIN-Diffusion by continual training within iteration 1. Both iteration 1 and iteration 2 commence training from the same checkpoint. However, for subsequent epochs in iteration 1, images generated by SD-1.5 are used, with SD-1.5 also serving as the opponent player. In contrast, during iteration 2, both the generated images and the opponent player originate from the iteration 1 checkpoint. The results shown in Figure 5 are reported on the 500 prompts validation set of Pick-a-Pic. We observe that in terms of PickScore, HPS, and average score, continual training on iteration 1 even results in a performance decay. Even in terms of Aesthetic score, continual training cannot guarantee a consistent improvement. Compared to training for more epochs in iteration 1, iteration 2 has a much more ideal performance. These results show the key role in updating the opponent.

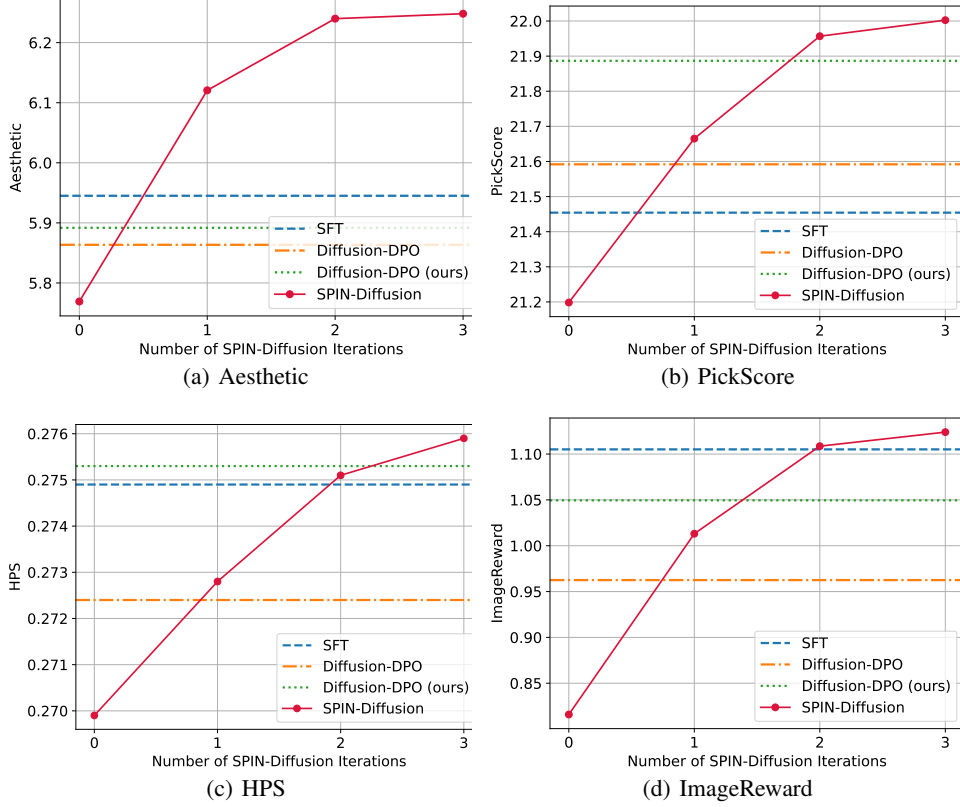


Figure 3: Comparison between SPIN-Diffusion at different iterations with SD-1.5, SFT and Diffusion-DPO (ours).

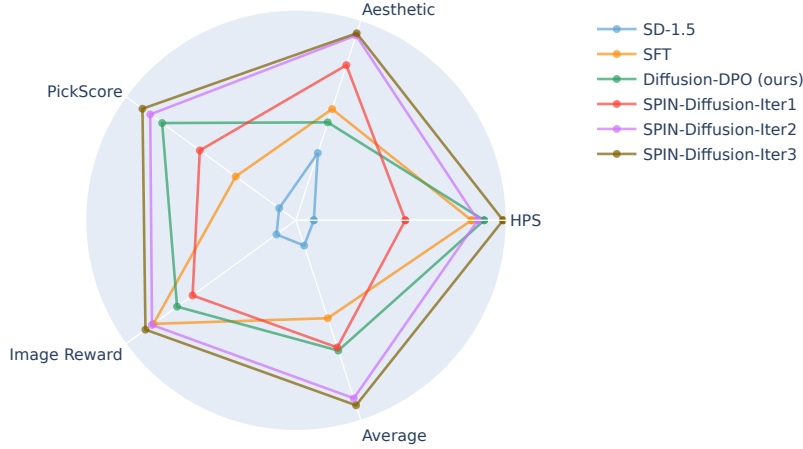


Figure 4: The main result is presented in radar chart. The scores are adjusted to be shown on the same scale. Compared with the baselines, SPIN achieves higher scores in all the four metrics and the average score by a large margin. In the legend, Diffusion-DPO (ours) denotes our reproduced version of Diffusion-DPO.

Evaluation on Other Benchmarks We also conduct experiment on PartiPrompts (Yu et al., 2022) and HPSv2 (Wu et al., 2023). PartiPrompts consist of 1632 prompts that contains a wide range of categories and difficulties that beyond daily scenarios and natural objects. HPSv2 is a text-image preference dataset, where the prompts come from DiffusionDB and MSCOCO (Lin et al., 2014) dataset.

Table 2: The results of median scores on Pick-a-Pic test set. We report the median of PickScore, HPSv2, ImageReward and Aesthetic over the whole test set. We also report the average score over the four evaluation metric. SPIN-Diffusion outperforms all the baselines regarding HPS, Aesthetic, PickScore and the average score, which agrees with the results of mean scores.

Model	HPS \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	PickScore \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	0.2705	5.7726	0.9184	21.1813	7.0357
SFT (reproduced)	0.2750	5.9331	1.3161	21.4159	7.2350
Diffusion-DPO	0.2729	5.8837	1.1361	21.6064	7.2248
Diffusion-DPO (reproduced)	<u>0.2756</u>	5.8895	1.2219	21.8995	7.3216
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	0.2739	6.1297	1.1366	21.6464	7.2967
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	0.2751	<u>6.2385</u>	1.3059	<u>22.0101</u>	<u>7.4574</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	0.2761	6.2769	<u>1.3073</u>	22.0703	7.4827

Table 3: The winning rate over SD-1.5 Pick-a-Pic testset. SPIN-Diffusion shows the highest winning rate over SD-1.5 among all the baselines.

Model	PickScore \uparrow	HPS \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SFT (reproduced)	62.4	82.0	<u>75.0</u>	70.8	73.2
Diffusion-DPO	78.4	75.8	65.0	65.4	79.8
Diffusion-DPO (reproduced)	83.8	81.2	71.2	69.0	84.8
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	75.4	70.0	65.8	86.0	80.8
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	<u>86.6</u>	<u>82.6</u>	72.6	<u>92.2</u>	<u>90.0</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	87.0	86.2	77.0	93.8	91.6

Table 4: The winning rate over Diffusion DPO (reproduced) on Pick-a-Pic testset. SPIN-Diffusion shows the highest winning rate over Diffusion DPO (reproduced) among all the baselines.

Model	PickScore \uparrow	HPS \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	16.2	20.8	28.8	31.0	15.2
SFT (reproduced)	26.8	48.2	51.4	52.8	35.2
Diffusion-DPO	30.6	29.4	36.8	45.2	30.4
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	37.2	35.6	40.6	74.8	47.4
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	<u>56.8</u>	<u>49.0</u>	<u>52.6</u>	<u>86.6</u>	<u>68.2</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	62.4	56.2	55.8	86.8	70.2

Table 5: Aesthetic scores of pictures in Figure 2

	SD-1.5	SFT	Diffusion-DPO (reproduced)	SPIN-Diffusion Iter1	Iter2	Iter3
Boy	6.171	6.096	6.072	6.158	6.407	6.831
Castle	6.180	6.346	5.995	6.886	6.993	6.940
Eagle	4.927	5.428	5.289	5.601	6.103	6.189

Table 6: The size of benchmark datasets in our evaluation

Benchmarks	Pick-a-Pic	PartiPrompts	HPSv2
# Prompts	500	1630	3200

In our experiment, we use the prompts from its test set, which contains 3200 prompts. We use the same evaluation metrics as before and the results are shown in Table 7 and 8. The results show that, on both PartiPrompts and HPSv2, SPIN-Diffusion achieves a comparable performance with Diffusion DPO (reproduced) and surpasses other baseline models at the first iteration. SPIN-Diffusion further

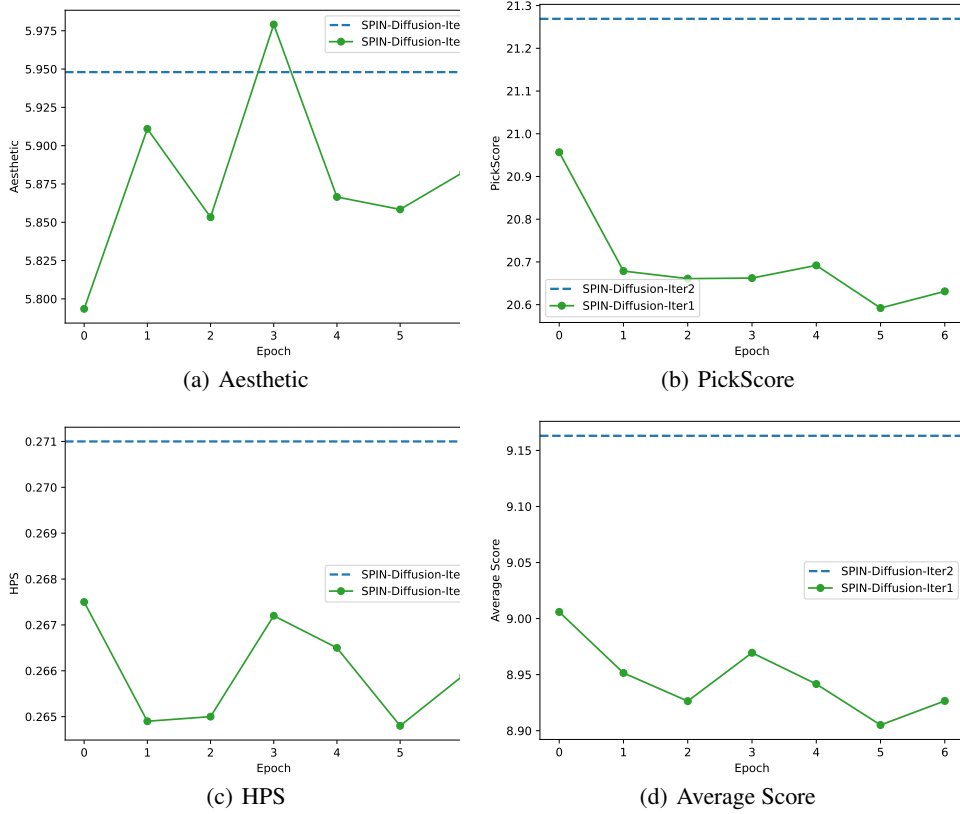


Figure 5: The evaluation results on Pick-a-Pic validation set of continual training within SPIN-Diffusion iteration 1, and SPIN-Diffusion iteration 2. The x-axis is the number of epochs. Consecutive epochs in iteration 1 reach their limit quickly while switching to iteration 2 boosts the performance.

Table 7: The results of mean scores on PartiPrompts. We report the mean and median of PickScore, HPS, ImageReward and Aesthetic score over the whole dataset. We also report the average score over the four evaluation metrics. SPIN-Diffusion outperforms all the baselines in terms of four metrics.

Model	HPS \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	PickScore \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	0.2769	5.6721	0.9196	21.8926	7.1903
SFT (reproduced)	<u>0.2814</u>	5.8568	1.1559	21.9719	7.3165
Diffusion-DPO	0.2815	5.7758	<u>1.1495</u>	22.2723	7.3698
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	0.2783	5.9073	0.9952	22.1221	7.3257
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	0.2804	<u>6.0533</u>	1.0845	<u>22.3122</u>	<u>7.4326</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	0.2813	6.0534	1.0893	22.3435	7.4419

reaches an average score of 7.4326 and 7.5244 on PartiPrompts and HPSv2 dataset respectively at second iteration, which outperforms all other baselines by a large margin. These results consolidate our statement that SPIN shows a superior performance over both SFT and DPO. We also conduct qualitative result on PartiPrompts and the results are shown in Figure 6.

Remarks on LoRA fine-tuning While LoRA is a parameter-efficient fine-tuning method that focuses on reducing trainable parameters under resource constraints, it is orthogonal to SPIN-Diffusion, which utilizes a self-play mechanism for fine-tuning. We also provide SFT (LoRA) fine-tuning results in Figure 11. We can see that full fine-tuning generally surpasses the performance of LoRA fine-tuning. Therefore, we leave the exploration of LoRA version of SPIN-Diffusion to future work.

Table 8: The results of median scores on PartiPrompts. We report the mean and median of PickScore, HPS, ImageReward and Aesthetic score over the whole dataset. We also report the average score over the four evaluation metrics. SPIN-Diffusion outperforms all the baselines in terms of four metrics.

Model	HPS \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	PickScore \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	0.2781	5.6823	1.1247	21.9339	7.2548
SFT (reproduced)	0.2781	5.6823	1.1247	21.9339	7.2548
Diffusion-DPO	<u>0.2822</u>	5.7820	1.3823	<u>22.3251</u>	7.4429
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	0.2793	5.8926	1.1906	22.1632	7.3814
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	0.2810	<u>6.0400</u>	1.2857	22.2998	<u>7.4766</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	0.2825	6.0480	<u>1.3095</u>	22.3361	7.4940

Table 9: The results of mean scores on HPSv2. We report the mean and median of PickScore, HPS, ImageReward and Aesthetic score over the whole dataset. We also report the average score over the four evaluation metrics. SPIN-Diffusion outperforms all the baselines in terms of four metrics.

Model	HPS \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	PickScore \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	0.2783	5.9017	0.8548	21.4978	7.1332
SFT (reproduced)	0.2846	6.0378	1.1547	21.8549	7.333
Diffusion-DPO	<u>0.2843</u>	6.0306	<u>1.1391</u>	<u>22.3012</u>	7.4388
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	0.2804	6.1943	1.0133	21.8778	7.3415
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	0.2838	<u>6.3403</u>	1.1145	22.2994	<u>7.5095</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	0.2849	6.342	1.1292	22.3415	7.5244

Table 10: The results of median scores on HPSv2. We report the mean and median of PickScore, HPS, ImageReward and Aesthetic score over the whole dataset. We also report the average score over the four evaluation metrics. SPIN-Diffusion outperforms all the baselines in terms of four metrics.

Model	HPS \uparrow	Aesthetic \uparrow	ImageReward \uparrow	PickScore \uparrow	Average \uparrow
SD-1.5	0.2781	5.8529	0.9324	21.4825	7.1365
SFT (reproduced)	0.2847	6.0057	<u>1.308</u>	21.8211	7.3549
Diffusion-DPO	<u>0.2847</u>	5.9878	1.3085	<u>22.2854</u>	7.4666
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1	0.2803	6.1519	1.1331	21.858	7.3558
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2	0.2839	6.3401	1.2711	22.2577	<u>7.5382</u>
SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3	0.2849	<u>6.3296</u>	1.2853	22.3029	7.5507

Table 11: The results of LoRA fine-tuning vs. full fine-tuning.

Method	HPS	Aesthetic	ImageReward	PickScore	Average
SFT (full)	0.2749	5.9451	1.1051	21.4542	7.1948
SFT (LoRA)	0.2745	5.8573	1.1393	21.4121	7.1708

A.4 Training Dynamics of SFT and DPO

We first study the training dynamic of SPIN-Diffusion in comparison with SFT and Diffusion-DPO, and we plot the results in Figure 7. We observe that after training with about 50k data, the performance of SFT stop improving and maintains at about 20.8 in PickScore, 0.270 in HPS, 5.6 in Aesthetic and 8.9 in average score. These results is significantly inferior to those achieved by SPIN-Diffusion, which achieves 21.2 in PickScore, 0.272 in HPS, 5.9 in Aesthetic and 9.1 in average score. Compared to Diffusion-DPO, SPIN-Diffusion achieves a superior performance without the loser image. These results demonstrate that self-play fine-tuning plays a key role in SPIN-Diffusion’s performance.



Figure 6: We show the images generated by different models based on prompts from PartiPrompts. The prompts are “a photo of san francisco’s golden gate bridge”, “an aerial view of the Great Wall” and “Face of an orange frog in cartoon style”. The models are: SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1, SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2 from left to right. SPIN-Diffusion demonstrates a notable improvement in image quality

B Additional Qualitative Results

In this section, we provide extensive qualitative results to further support our findings. We first demonstrate the impact of different random seeds on model comparisons and include a wider range of visual examples to support the qualitative results. We also provide a image gallery in Figure 12.

Effect of different random seeds Random seeds sometimes influence the results produced by image generation models. Figures 8 and 9 demonstrate this effect, showcasing outputs of multiple models for the same prompt across four different random seeds. SPIN-Diffusion consistently generates higher-quality images across these variations.

More examples on PartiPrompts To further showcase SPIN-Diffusion’s capabilities to handle a wide range of styles and subjects, we present results on 10 additional prompts from the PartiPrompts dataset (totaling 1630 prompts). These examples highlight the model’s ability to handle a wide range of styles and subjects. Figure 10 showcases results for 5 of these prompts, while Figure 11 highlights SPIN-Diffusion’s ability in generating cartoon-style images with 5 additional prompts specifically containing the word ‘cartoon’.

C Additional Details for SPIN-Diffusion

C.1 Additional Details of DDIM.

Given a prompt \mathbf{c} , image \mathbf{x}_0 , sequence $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T \subseteq (0, 1]$ and $\{\sigma_t\}_{t=1}^T \subseteq [0, +\infty)$, the forward diffusion process defined in (3.1) is

$$q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0) := q(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{t=2}^T q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_0),$$

where $q(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\alpha_T}\mathbf{x}_0, (1 - \alpha_T)\mathbf{I})$ and $q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_0)$ admits the following distribution,

$$\mathcal{N}\left(\sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}}\mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}}, \sigma_t^2\mathbf{I}\right). \quad (\text{C.1})$$

Here $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$ is a decreasing sequence with $\alpha_0 = 1$ and α_T approximately zero. By Bayesian rule, we can show that this diffusion process ensures that $q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{x}_0, (1 -$

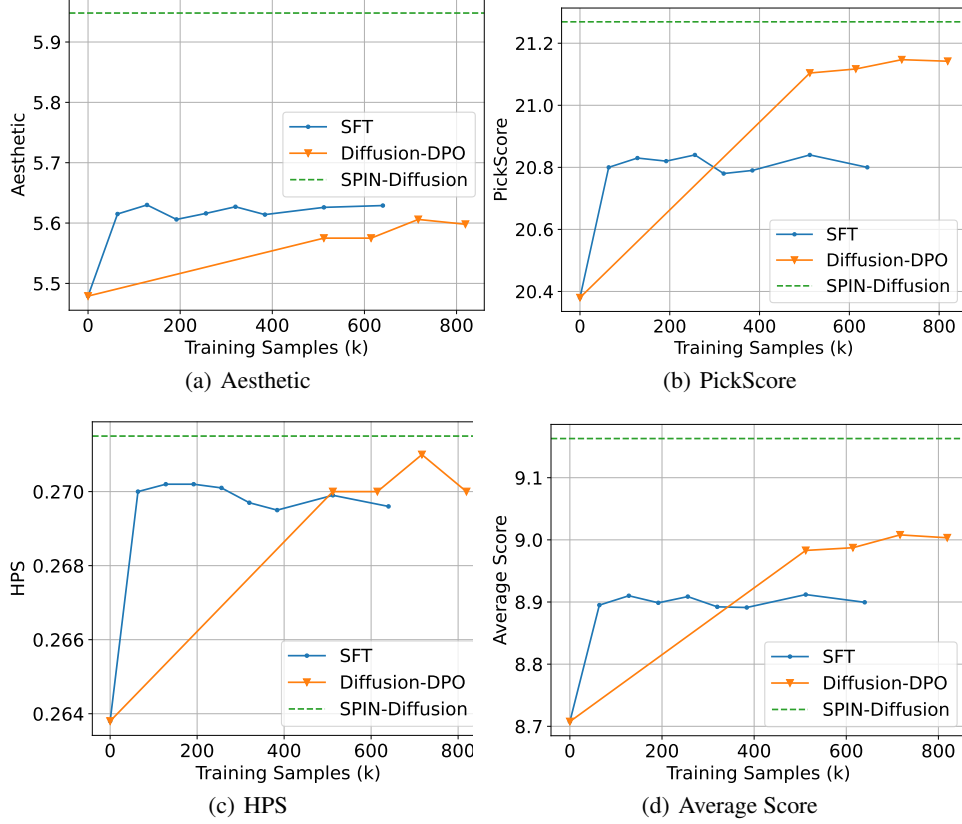


Figure 7: The evaluation results on the Pick-a-Pic validation set of SFT, Diffusion-DPO and SPIN-Diffusion. The x-axis is the number of training data. SFT reaches its limit quickly, while Diffusion-DPO and SPIN-Diffusion continue to improve after training with over 800k data.

$\alpha_t \mathbf{I})$ for all t and reduces to DDPM (Ho et al., 2020) with a special choice of $\sigma_t = \sqrt{(1 - \alpha_{t-1})/(1 - \alpha_t)} \sqrt{(1 - \alpha_t/\alpha_{t-1})}$.

Given noise schedule α_t and σ_t , examples from the generative model follows

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}|\mathbf{c}) = \prod_{t=1}^T p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}) \cdot p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_T|\mathbf{c}),$$

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t), \sigma_t^2 \mathbf{I}).$$

Here θ belongs to the parameter space Θ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)$ is the mean of the Gaussian that can be parameterized (Ho et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020a) as

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) = \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}} \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \right) + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t), \quad (\text{C.2})$$

where $\{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\}_{t=1}^T$ are score functions that approximate noise. Compare (C.2) and (C.1), we can see that $\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \right)$ approximates \mathbf{x}_0 , and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}$ approximates the noise $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t := \frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t} \mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$.

C.2 Decoupling Technique

In Section 4, we demonstrate that the objective function defined in (4.8) can be simplified to the form in (4.9). This reformulation only requires considering two consecutive sampling steps, $t - 1$ and t , rather than involving all intermediate steps. Now, we provide a detailed derivation.

Proof of Lemma 4.1.

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}(\theta, \theta_k)$$



Figure 8: We show the figures generated by different models based on a prompt from Pick-A-Pic test set. The prompt used is “a picture of the sea on which a boat sails in a storm and sways in the sea”. The models are SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1, SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2, and SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3, displayed from left to right. Each row shows the results for a different random seed. SPIN-Diffusion demonstrates a notable improvement in image quality

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot), \mathbf{x}_0: T \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot | \mathbf{c}), \mathbf{x}'_0: T \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot | \mathbf{c})} \left[\ell \left(- \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\beta_t}{T} \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right] \\
&\leq \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot), \mathbf{x}_0: T \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot | \mathbf{c}), \mathbf{x}'_0: T \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot | \mathbf{c})} \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \ell \left(- \beta_t \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\cdot), \mathbf{x}_0: T \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot | \mathbf{c}), \mathbf{x}'_0: T \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot | \mathbf{c}), t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}} \left[\ell \left(- \beta_t \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c}), (\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{c}), (\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t) \sim p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{c}), t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}} \left[\ell \left(- \beta_t \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right] \\
&= L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k),
\end{aligned}$$

where the first inequality is by Jensen’s inequality and the convexity of the function ℓ , the second equality is by integrating the average $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T$ into the expectation via $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$, and the third inequality holds because the argument inside the expectation is only depend of sampling step $t - 1$ and t . \square



Figure 9: We show the figures generated by different models based on a prompt from Pick-A-Pic test set. The prompt used is “A cute hedgehog holding flowers”. The models are SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), SPIN-Diffusion-Iter1, SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2, and SPIN-Diffusion-Iter3, displayed from left to right. Each row shows the results for a different random seed. SPIN-Diffusion demonstrates a notable improvement in image quality

C.3 Objective Function of SPIN-Diffusion

We look deep into the term $\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2$ and $\|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2$ of (4.8) and (4.9) in this section.

When $\mathbf{x}_{0:T}$ Follows Forward Process. We have that $\mathbf{x}_{0:T} \sim p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$ and by (C.1) and (C.2) we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} &= \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}}\mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}} + \sigma_t\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_t \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) &= \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}} \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \right) + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t),\end{aligned}$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. Therefore, $\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2$ can be simplified to

$$h_t^2 \left\| \frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}} - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_t \right\|_2^2, \quad (\text{C.3})$$

where $h_t = [\sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} - \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}/\alpha_t}\sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}]$ and $\frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ following a Gaussian distribution. When $\sigma_t \rightarrow 0$, (C.3) becomes $h_t^2 \|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2$ with $h_t = [\sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}} - \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}/\alpha_t}\sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}]$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t := \frac{\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{x}_0}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$.

When $\mathbf{x}'_{0:T}$ Follows the Backward Process. We have that $\mathbf{x}'_{0:T} \sim p_{\theta_k}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} &= \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) + \sigma_t\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}'_t \\ &= \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}} \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}'_t - \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \right) + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) + \sigma_t\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}'_t\end{aligned}$$



Figure 10: We show the figures generated by different models based on prompts from PartiPrompts. The prompts are “a old-time car with a large front grille”, “a full moon rising above a mountain at night”, “a young badger delicately sniffing a yellow rose, richly textured oil painting”, “a cartoon of a man standing under a tree” and “a prop plane flying low over the Great Wall”. The models are: SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2 from left to right, all utilizing the same random seed for fair comparison

$$\mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) = \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}} \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}'_t - \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}} \right) + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} \cdot \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t),$$

where $\epsilon'_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. Therefore, $\|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2$ can be simplified to

$$h_t^2 \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \hat{\epsilon}'_t\|_2^2, \quad (\text{C.4})$$

where $h_t = [\sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1} - \sigma_t^2} - \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}/\alpha_t} \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}]$. When $\sigma_t \rightarrow 0$, (C.4) becomes $h_t^2 \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2$ with $h_t = [\sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}} - \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}/\alpha_t} \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}]$.

Simple Decoupled SPIN-Diffusion Objective Function. Substituting (C.3) and (C.4) into (4.9) and applying $\sigma_t \rightarrow 0$ yields,

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k) = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\beta_t h_t^2 [\|\epsilon_t - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon_t - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2] \right) \right]$$



Figure 11: We show the figures generated by different models based on prompts from PartiPrompts. The prompts are “A cartoon house with red roof”, “a cartoon of an angry shark”, “a cartoon of a bear birthday party”, “a cartoon of a house on a mountain” and “a cartoon of a boy playing with a tiger”. The models are: SD-1.5, SFT, Diffusion-DPO, Diffusion-DPO (reproduced), SPIN-Diffusion-Iter2 from left to right, all utilizing the same random seed for fair comparison

$$- \left\| \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) \right\|_2^2 \Big] \Big], \quad (\text{C.5})$$

where $h_t = \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}} - \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}/\alpha_t} \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}$, $\mathbf{x}_t = \alpha_t \mathbf{x}_0 + (1 - \alpha_t) \epsilon_t$, and the expectation is computed over the distribution, $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}'_t \sim p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{c})$, $\epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ and $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. (C.5) still need the intermediate steps \mathbf{x}'_t , as discussed below (4.9) in Section 4, we can approximate the backward process with the forward process and obtain

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k) = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\beta_t h_t^2 \left[\left\| \epsilon_t - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) \right\|_2^2 - \left\| \epsilon_t - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t) \right\|_2^2 - \left\| \epsilon'_t - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \epsilon'_t - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t) \right\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right],$$

where $h_t = \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}} - \sqrt{\alpha_{t-1}/\alpha_t} \sqrt{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}$, $\mathbf{x}_t = \alpha_t \mathbf{x}_0 + (1 - \alpha_t) \epsilon_t$, $\mathbf{x}'_t = \alpha_t \mathbf{x}'_0 + (1 - \alpha_t) \epsilon'_t$, and the expectation is computed over the distribution, $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{c})$, $\mathbf{x}'_0 \sim p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0 | \mathbf{c})$, $\epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, $\epsilon'_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ and $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$.



Figure 12: Image gallery generated by SPIN-Diffusion, a self-play fine-tuning algorithm for diffusion models. The results are fine-tuned from Stable Diffusion v1.5 on the winner images of the Pick-a-Pic dataset. The prompts used for generating the above images are chosen from the Pick-a-Pic test set. The generated images demonstrate superior performance in terms of overall visual attractiveness and coherence with the prompts. SPIN-Diffusion is featured by its independence from paired human preference data, offering a useful tool for fine-tuning on custom datasets with only single image per text prompt provided.

D Proof of Theorems in Section 5

Proof of Theorem 5.2. Plugging (C.3) and (C.4) into (4.9) yields the following loss parameterized with ϵ_θ ,

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k) = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\beta_t h_t^2 \left[\|\epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. \left. + \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right], \quad (\text{D.1})$$

where $\epsilon_t, \epsilon'_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. When $\sigma_t \rightarrow 0$, (D.1) can be simplified to (C.5). In this proof, we will stick to the formula (D.1) to provide the proof for all $\sigma_t \geq 0$.

Since θ_k is not the global optimum of L_{DM} by condition, there exists θ^* such that $L_{\text{DM}}(\theta^*) \leq L_{\text{DM}}(\theta_k)$, which gives that

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\gamma_t \|\epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c) - \epsilon\|_2^2 \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[\gamma_t \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, t, c) - \epsilon\|_2^2 \right], \quad (\text{D.2})$$

where the expectation is computed over the distribution $c \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q_{\text{data}}(\cdot|c)$, $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. Define $g(s) = L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta^*, \theta_k)$ with $\beta_t = s\gamma_t/h_t^2$ as follows,

$$g(s) = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\beta_t h_t^2 \left[\|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. \left. + \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right] \\ = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-s\gamma_t \left[\|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. \left. + \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \right] \right) \right].$$

Then we have that $g(0) = 0$ and

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dg}{ds}(0) &= \mathbb{E} \left[-\ell'(0) \gamma_t \left(\|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 - \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \right) \right] \\
&= -\ell'(0) \left(\mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 - \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 - \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \right), \quad (\text{D.3})
\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{x}_t = \sqrt{\alpha_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \epsilon$ and the expectation is computed over the distribution $c \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q_{\text{data}}(\cdot|c)$, $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$ and $\epsilon_t, \epsilon'_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. Since ϵ_t, ϵ'_t follows standard Multivariate normal distribution and independent with $\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}'_t, \epsilon, \mathbf{x}_0$, we can simplify the terms in (D.3) as follows,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \\
&= \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t)\|_2^2 + \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \quad (\text{D.4})
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \\
&= \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t)\|_2^2 + \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon_t\|_2^2 \quad (\text{D.5})
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) + (\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \\
&= \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t)\|_2^2 + \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|(\sigma_t/h_t) \cdot \epsilon'_t\|_2^2 \quad (\text{D.6})
\end{aligned}$$

where we apply the property of standard normal distribution that $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_t] = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon'_t] = \mathbf{0}$. Plugging (D.4), (D.5), (D.6) into (D.3) gives that

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dg}{ds}(0) &= -\ell'(0) \left(\mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t)\|_2^2 - \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, c, t)\|_2^2 \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \mathbb{E} \gamma_t \|\epsilon_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t) - \epsilon_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x}'_t, c, t)\|_2^2 \right) \\
&< 0,
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality is by (D.2). Here $\mathbf{x}_t = \sqrt{\alpha_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \epsilon$ and the expectation is computed over the distribution $c \sim q(\cdot)$, $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q_{\text{data}}(\cdot|c)$, $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$.

Therefore, there exist a λ_0 such that for all $0 < \lambda < \lambda_0$, we have $g(\lambda) < \ell(0)$. So for those $\beta_t = s\gamma_t/h_t^2$ with $0 < \lambda < \lambda_0$, we have that

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta^*, \theta_k) = g(\lambda) < g(0) = L_{\text{SPIN}}(\theta_k, \theta_k),$$

where the inequality holds due to the choice of λ . Therefore, we conclude that θ_k is not the global optimum of (4.9). \square

Proof of Theorem 5.3. By (4.9) we have that,

$$\begin{aligned}
L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\theta, \theta_k) &= \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\beta_t \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \mu_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \mu_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right),
\end{aligned}$$

where the expectation is computed over the distribution $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim \int p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{c})q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0)d\mathbf{x}_0$, $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t) \sim \int p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0|\mathbf{c})q(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t|\mathbf{x}'_0)d\mathbf{x}'_0$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. Since $p_{\text{data}}(\cdot|\mathbf{c}) = p_{\theta_t}(\cdot|\mathbf{c})$, we can conclude that $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)$ and $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t)$ are independent and identically distributed random variable. Therefore, by symmetry property of $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)$ and $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t)$, we have for any $\theta \in \Theta$ that

$$\begin{aligned}
L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k) &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\beta_t \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \\
&\quad + \ell \left(-\beta_t \left[\|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \Bigg] \\
&\geq \mathbb{E} \left[\ell \left(-\frac{\beta_t}{2} \left[\|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{\beta_t}{2} \left[\|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}'_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, t)\|_2^2 \right] \right) \Bigg] \\
&= \ell(0),
\end{aligned}$$

where the inequality is due to Jensen's inequality (recalling that ℓ is convex in Assumption 5.1), and the expectation is computed over the distribution $\mathbf{c} \sim q(\mathbf{c})$, $(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) \sim \int p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{c}) q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_0) d\mathbf{x}_0$, $(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t) \sim \int p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}(\mathbf{x}'_0 | \mathbf{c}) q(\mathbf{x}'_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}'_t | \mathbf{x}'_0) d\mathbf{x}'_0$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, T\}$. Therefore, we have that

$$L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k) \geq \ell(0) = L_{\text{SPIN}}^{\text{approx}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k),$$

which means that $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$ is the global optimum of (4.9). As a consequence, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_k$. \square

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