

Breathing Life Into Sketches Using Text-to-Video Priors

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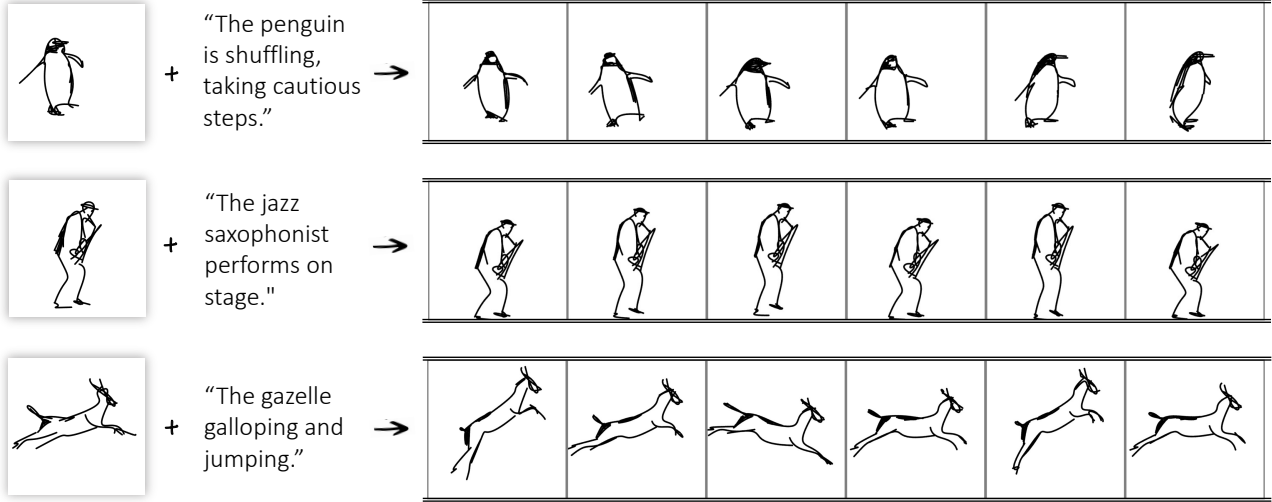


Figure 1. Given a still sketch in vector format and a text prompt describing a desired action, our method automatically animates the drawing with respect to the prompt. Please see the full animations in the provided video. <https://livesketch.github.io/>

Abstract

A sketch is one of the most intuitive and versatile tools humans use to convey their ideas visually. An animated sketch opens another dimension to the expression of ideas and is widely used by designers for a variety of purposes. Animating sketches is a laborious process, requiring extensive experience and professional design skills. In this work, we present a method that automatically adds motion to a single-subject sketch (hence, “breathing life into it”), merely by providing a text prompt indicating the desired motion. The output is a short animation provided in vector representation, which can be easily edited. Our method does not require extensive training, but instead leverages the motion prior of a large pretrained text-to-video diffusion model using a score-distillation loss to guide the placement of strokes. To promote natural and smooth motion and to better preserve the sketch’s appearance, we model the learned motion through two components. The first governs small local deformations and the second controls global affine transformations. Surprisingly, we find that even models that struggle to generate sketch videos on their own can still serve as a useful backbone for animating abstract representations.

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1. Introduction

Sketches serve as a fundamental and intuitive tool for visual expression and communication [3, 19, 23]. Sketches capture the essence of visual entities with a few strokes, allowing humans to communicate abstract visual ideas. In this paper, we propose a method to “breathe life” into a static sketch by generating semantically meaningful short videos from it. Such animations can be useful for storytelling, illustrations, websites, presentations, and just for fun.

Animating sketches using conventional tools (such as Adobe Animate and Toon Boom) is challenging even for experienced designers [70], requiring specific artistic expertise. Hence, long-standing research efforts in computer graphics sought to develop automatic tools to simplify this process. However, these tools face multiple hurdles, such as a need to identify the semantic component of the sketch, or learning to create motion that appears natural. As such, existing methods commonly rely on user-annotated skeletal key points [17, 68] or user-provided reference motions that align with the sketch semantics [9, 70, 81].

In this work, we propose to bring a given static sketch to life, based on a textual prompt, without the need for any human annotations or explicit reference motions. We do so by leveraging a pretrained text-to-video diffusion model [39]. Several recent works propose using the prior of such mod-

els to bring life to a static *image* [58, 78, 87]. However, sketches pose distinct challenges, which existing methods fail to tackle as they are not designed with this domain in mind. Our method takes the recent advancement in text-to-video models into this new realm, aiming to tackle the challenging task of sketch animation. For this purpose, we propose specific design choices considering the delicate characteristics of this abstract domain.

In line with prior sketch generation approaches [74, 75], we use a vector representation of sketches, defining a sketch as a set of strokes (cubic Bézier curves) parameterized by their control points. Vector representations are popular among designers as they offer several advantages compared to pixel-based images. They are resolution-independent, *i.e.* can be scaled without losing quality. Moreover, they are easily editable: one can modify the sketch’s appearance by choosing different stroke styles or change its shape by dragging control points. Additionally, their sparsity promotes smooth motion while preventing pixelization and blurring.

To bring a static sketch to life, we train a network to modify the stroke parameters for each video frame with respect to a given text prompt. Our method is optimization-based and requires no data or fine-tuning of large models. In addition, our method is general and can easily adapt to different text-to-video models, facilitating the use of future advancements in this field.

We train the network using a score-distillation sampling (SDS) loss [62]. This loss was designed to leverage pretrained text-to-*image* diffusion models for the optimization of non-pixel representations (e.g., NeRFs [53] or SVGs [34, 35]) to meet given text-based constraints. We use this loss to extract motion priors from pretrained text-to-*video* diffusion models [29, 78]. Importantly, this allows us to inherit the internet-scale knowledge embedded in such models, enabling animation for a wide range of subjects across multiple categories.

We separate the object movement into two components: local motion and global motion. Local motion aims to capture isolated, local effects (a saxophone player bending their knee). Conversely, global motion affects the object shape as a whole and is modeled through a per-frame transformation matrix. It can thus capture rigid motion (a penguin hobbling across the frame), or coordinate effects (the same penguin growing in size as it approaches the camera). We find that this separation is crucial in generating motion that is both locally smooth and globally significant while remaining faithful to the original characteristics of the subject.

We animate sketches from various domains and demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in producing smooth and natural motion that conveys the intention of the control text while better preserving the shape and appearance of the input sketch.

We compare our results with recent pixel-based ap-

proaches highlighting the advantage of vector-based animation in the sketch domain. Our work allows anyone to breathe life into their sketch in a simple and intuitive manner.

2. Previous Work

Sketches Free-hand sketching is a valuable tool for expressing ideas, concepts, and actions [19, 20, 27]. Extensive research has been conducted on the automatic generation of sketches [88]. Some works utilize pixel representation [36, 43, 69, 84], while others employ vector representation [6, 7, 13, 25, 46, 48, 51, 55, 65]. Several works propose a unified algorithm to produce sketches with a variety of styles [11, 49, 90] or at varying levels of abstraction [5, 56, 74, 75]. Traditional methods for sketch generation commonly rely on human-drawn sketch datasets. More recently, some works [21, 74, 75] incorporated the prior of large pretrained language-vision models to eliminate the dependency on such datasets. We also rely on such priors, and use a vector-based approach to depict our sketches, as it is a more natural representation for sketches and finds widespread use in character animation.

Sketch-based animation A long-standing area of interest in computer graphics aims to develop intuitive tools for creating life-like animations from still inputs. In character animation, motion is often represented as a temporal sequence of poses. These poses are commonly represented via user provided annotations, such as stick figures [14], skeletons [42, 60], or partial bone lines [59]. An alternative line of work represents motion through user provided 2D paths [15, 22, 33, 72], or through space-time curves [24]. However, these approaches still require some expertise and manual work to adjust different keyframes. Some methods assist animation by interactively predicting what users will draw next [1, 76, 85]. However, they still require manual sketching operations for each keyframe.

Rather than relying on user-created motion, some works propose to extract motion from real videos by statistical analysis of datasets [54], or by applying dynamic deformations extracted from a driving video [70]. Others turn to physically-based motion effects [37, 86], or learn to synthesize animations of hand-drawn 2D characters using a set of images depicting the character in various poses [17, 28, 63].

Drawing on 3D literature, some works aim to “wake up” a photo or a painting, extracting a textured human mesh from the image and moving it using pre-defined animations [30, 38, 80]. More recently, given a hand-drawn sketch of a human figure, Smith *et al.* [68] construct a character rig onto which they re-target motion capture data. Their approach is similarly limited to human figures and a predefined set of movements. Moreover, it commonly requires direct human intervention to fix skeleton joint estimations.

In contrast to these methods, our method requires only

a single sketch and no skeletons or explicit references. Instead, it leverages the strong prior of text-to-video generative models and generalizes across a wide range of animations described by free-form prompts.

Text-to-video generation Early works explored expanding the capabilities of recurrent neural networks [4, 10, 16], GANs [40, 47, 61, 73, 93], and auto-regressive transformers [79, 82, 83, 89] from image generation to video generation. However, these works primarily focused on generating videos within limited domains.

More recent research extends the capabilities of powerful text-to-image diffusion models to video generation by incorporating additional temporal attention modules into existing models or by temporally aligning an image decoder [8, 50, 67]. Commonly, such alignment is performed in a latent space [2, 18, 45, 50, 77, 92]. Others train cascaded diffusion models [29], or learn to directly generate videos within a lower-dimensional 3D latent space [26].

We propose to extract the motion prior from such models and apply it to a vector sketch representation.

Image-to-video generation A closely related research area is image-to-video generation, where the goal is to animate an input image. Make-It-Move [31] train an encoder-decoder architecture to generate video sequences conditioned on an input image and a driving text prompt. Latent Motion Diffusion [32] learn the optical flow between pairs of video frames and use a 3D-UNet-based diffusion model to generate the resulting video sequence. CoDi [71] align multiple modalities (text, image, audio, and video) to a shared conditioning space and output space. ModelScope [77] train a latent video diffusion model, conditioned on an image input. Others first caption an image, then use the caption to condition a text-to-video model [50]. VideoCrafter [12] train a model conditioned on both text and image, with a special focus preserving the content, structure, and style of this image. Gen-2 [66] also operate in this domain, though their model’s details are not public.

While showing impressive results in the pixel domain, these methods struggle to generalize to sketches. Our method is designed for sketches, constraining the outputs to vector representations that better preserve both the domain, and the characteristics of the input sketch.

3. Preliminaries

Vector representation Vector graphics allow us to create visual images directly from geometric shapes such as points, lines, curves, and polygons. Unlike raster images (represented with pixels), vector representation is resolution-free, more compact, and easier to modify. This quality makes vector images the preferred choice for various design applications, such as logo design, prints, ani-

mation, CAD, typography, web design, infographics, and illustrations. Scalable Vector Graphics (SVG) stands out as a popular vector image format due to its excellent support for interactivity and animation. We employ a differentiable rasterizer [44] to convert a vector image into its pixel-based image. This lets us manipulate the vector content using raster-based loss functions, as described below.

Score-Distillation Sampling The score-distillation sampling (SDS) loss, first proposed in Poole *et al.* [62], serves as a means for extracting a signal from a pretrained text-to-image diffusion model.

In their seminal work, Poole *et al.* propose to first use a parametric image synthesis model (e.g., a NeRF [52]) to generate an image x . This image is then noised to some intermediate diffusion time step t :

$$x_t = \alpha_t x + \sigma_t \epsilon, \quad (1)$$

where α_t , σ_t are parameters dependant on the noising schedule of the pretrained diffusion model, and $\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}(0, 1)$ is a noise sample.

The noised image is then passed through the diffusion model, conditioned on a text-prompt c describing some desired scene. The diffusion model’s output, $\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t, c)$, is a prediction of the noise added to the image. The deviation of this prediction from the true noise, ϵ , can serve as a measure of the difference between the input image and one that better matches the prompt. This measure can then be used to approximate the gradients to the initial image synthesis model’s parameters, ϕ , that would better align its outputs with the prompt. Specifically,

$$\nabla_\phi \mathcal{L}_{SDS} = \left[w(t)(\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t, y) - \epsilon) \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \right], \quad (2)$$

where $w(t)$ is a constant that depends on α_t . This optimization process is repeated, with the parametric model converging toward outputs that match the conditioning prompt.

In our work, we use this approach to extract the motion prior learned by a text-to-video diffusion model.

4. Method

Our method begins with two inputs: a user-provided static sketch in vector format, and a text prompt describing the desired motion. Our goal is to generate a short video, in the same vector format, which depicts the sketched subject acting in a manner consistent with the prompt. We therefore define three objectives that our approach should strive to meet: (1) the output video should match the text prompt, (2) the characteristics of the original sketch should be preserved, and (3) the generated motion should appear natural and smooth. Below, we outline the design choices we use to meet each of these objectives.

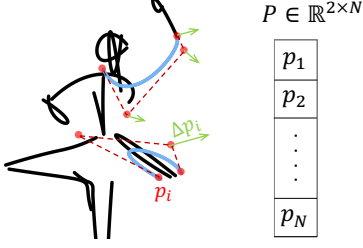


Figure 2. Data representation. Each curve (black or blue) is a cubic Bézier curve with 4 control points (red, shown for the blue curves). The total number of control points in the given sketch is denoted by N . For each frame and control point p_i , we learn a displacement Δp_i (green).

4.1. Representation

The input vector image is represented as a set of strokes placed over a white background, where each stroke is a two-dimensional Bézier curve with four control points. Each control point is represented by its coordinates: $p = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We denote the set of control points in a single frame with $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_N\} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 2}$, where N denotes the total number of points in the input sketch (see Figure 2). This number will remain fixed across all generated frames. We define a video with k frames as a sequence of k such sets of control points, and denote it by $Z = \{P^j\}_{j=1}^k \in \mathbb{R}^{N \cdot k \times 2}$.

Let P^{init} denote the set of points in the initial sketch. We duplicate P^{init} k times to create the initial set of frames Z^{init} . Our goal is to convert such a static sequence of frames into a sequence of frames animating the subject according to the motion described in the text prompt. We formulate this task as learning a set of 2D displacements $\Delta Z = \{\Delta p_i^j\}_{i \in N}^{j \in k}$, indicating the displacement of each point p_i^j , for each frame j (Fig. 2, in green).

4.2. Text-Driven Optimization

We begin by addressing our first objective: creating an output animation that aligns with the text prompt. We model the animation using a “neural displacement field” (Sec. 4.3), a small network \mathcal{M} that receives as input the initial point set Z^{init} and predicts their displacements $\mathcal{M}(Z^{init}) = \Delta Z$. To train this network, we distill the motion prior encapsulated in a pretrained text-to-video diffusion model [78], using the SDS loss of Eq. (2).

At each training iteration (illustrated in Fig. 3), we add the predicted displacement vector ΔZ (marked in purple) to the initial set of points Z^{init} to form the sequence Z . We then use a differentiable rasterizer \mathcal{R} [44], to transfer each set of per-frame points P^j to its corresponding frame in pixel space, denoted as $F^j = \mathcal{R}(P^j)$. The animated sketch is then defined by the concatenation of the rasterized frames, $F = \{F^1, \dots, F^k\} \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times k}$.

Next, we sample a diffusion timestep t and noise $\epsilon \sim$

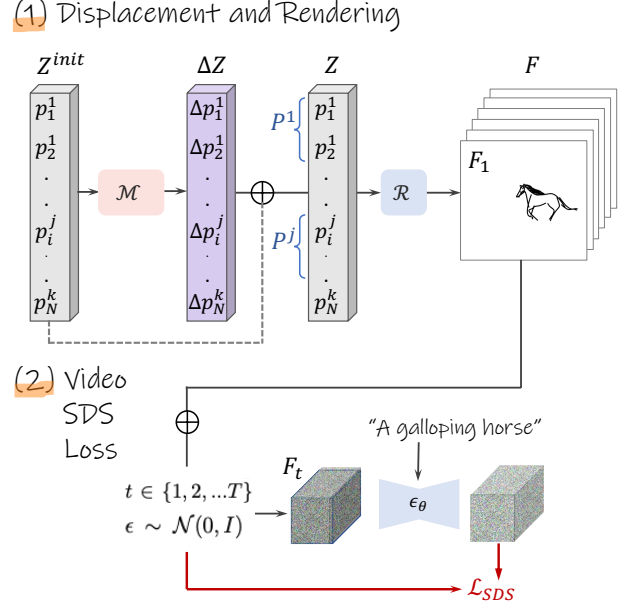


Figure 3. Text-driven optimization. At each training iteration: (1) We duplicate the initial control points across k frames and sum them with their predicted offsets. We render each frame and concatenate them to create the output video. (2) We use the SDS loss to extract a signal from a pretrained text-to-video model, which is used to update \mathcal{M} , the model that predicts the offsets.

$\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. We use these to add noise to the rasterized video according to the diffusion schedule, creating F_t . This noisy video is then denoised using the pretrained text-to-video diffusion model ϵ_θ , where the diffusion model is conditioned on a prompt describing an animated scene (e.g., “a galloping horse”). Finally, we use Eq. (2) to update the parameters of \mathcal{M} and repeat the process iteratively.

The SDS loss thus guides \mathcal{M} to learn displacements whose corresponding rasterized animation aligns with the desired text prompt. The extent of this alignment, and hence the intensity of the motion, is determined by optimization hyperparameters such as the diffusion guidance scale and learning rates. However, we find that increasing these parameters typically leads to artifacts such as jitter and shape-deformations, compromising both the fidelity of the original sketch and the fluidity of natural motion (see Sec. 5.2). As such, SDS alone fails to address our additional goals: (2) preserving the input sketch characteristics, and (3) creating natural motion. Instead, we tackle these goals through the design of our displacement field, \mathcal{M} .

4.3. Neural Displacement Field

We approach the network design with the intent of producing smoother motion with reduced shape deformations. We hypothesize that the artifacts observed with the unconstrained SDS optimization approach can be attributed in part to two mechanisms: (1) The SDS loss can be min-

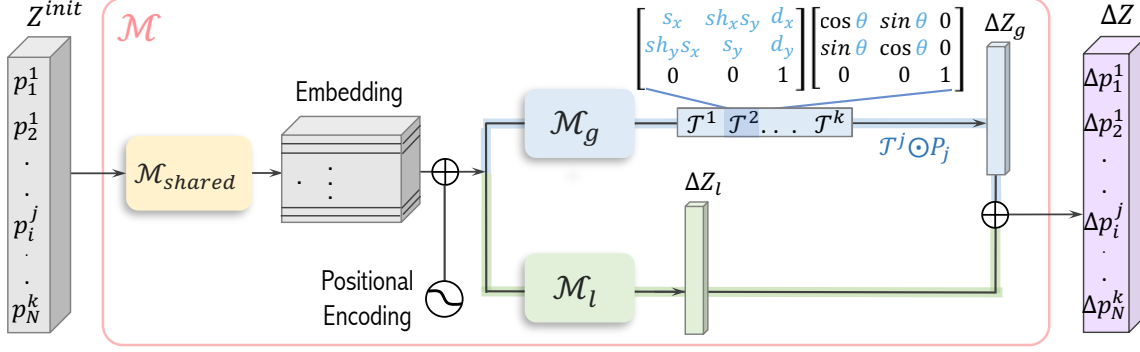


Figure 4. Network architecture. The input to the network is the initial set of control points Z^{init} (left, gray), and the output is the set of displacements ΔZ . The network consists of three parts. First, each control point p_i^j is projected with \mathcal{M}_{shared} into a latent representation and summed with a positional encoding. These point features are passed to two different branches to predict global and local motion. The local motion predictor \mathcal{M}_l (green) is a simple MLP that predicts an offset for each point (ΔZ_l), representing unconstrained local motion. The global motion predictor \mathcal{M}_g predicts a per-frame transformation matrix \mathcal{T}^j which applies scaling, shear, rotation, and translation. \mathcal{T}^j is then applied to the points P_j in the corresponding frame to produce ΔZ_g . ΔZ is given by the sum: $\Delta Z = \Delta Z_g + \Delta Z_l$.

imized by deforming the generated shape into one that better aligns with the text-to-video model’s semantic prior (e.g., prompting for a scuttling crab may lead to undesired changes in the shape of the crab itself). (2) Smooth motion requires small displacements at the local scale, and the network struggles to reconcile these with the large changes required for global translations. We propose to tackle both of these challenges by modeling our motion through two components: An unconstrained local-motion path, which models small deformations, and a global path which models affine transformations applied uniformly to an entire frame. This split will allow the network to separately model motion along both scales while restricting semantic changes in the path that controls greater scale movement. Below we outline the specific network design choices, as well as the parametrization that allows us to achieve this split.

Shared backbone Recall that our network, illustrated in Fig. 4, aims to map the initial control point set Z^{init} to their per-frame displacements $\mathcal{M}(Z^{init}) = \Delta Z$. Our first step is to create a shared feature backbone which will feed the separate motion paths. This component is built of an embedding step, where the coordinates of each control point are projected using a shared matrix \mathcal{M}_{shared} , and then summed with a positional encoding that depends on the frame index, and on the order of the point in the sketch. These point features are then fed into two parallel prediction paths: local, and global (Fig. 4, green and blue paths, respectively).

Local path The local path is parameterized by \mathcal{M}_l , a small MLP that takes the shared features and maps them to an offset ΔZ_l for every control point in Z^{init} . Here, the goal is to allow the network to learn unconstrained motion on its own to best match the given prompt. Indeed, in Sec. 5 we show that an unconstrained branch is crucial for

the model to create meaningful motion. On the other hand, using this path to create displacements on the scale needed for global changes requires stronger SDS guidance or larger learning rates, leading to jitter and unwanted deformations at the local level. Hence, we delegate these changes to the global motion path. We note that similar behavior can be observed when directly optimizing the control points (*i.e.* without a network, following [34, 35], see Sec. 5.2).

Global path The goal of the global displacement prediction branch is to allow the model to capture meaningful global movements such as center-of-mass translation, rotation, or scaling, while maintaining the object’s original shape. This path consists of a neural network, \mathcal{M}_g , that predicts a single global transformation matrix for each frame P^j . The matrix is then used to transform all control points of that frame, ensuring that the shape remains coherent. Specifically, we model the global motion as the sequential application of scaling, shear, rotation, and translation. These are parameterized using their standard affine matrix form (Fig. 4), which contains two parameters each for scale, shear, and translation, and one for rotation. Denoting the successive application of these transforms for frame j by \mathcal{T}^j , the global branch displacement for each point in this frame is then given by: $\Delta p_{i,global}^j = \mathcal{T}^j \odot p_i^{init} - p_i^{init}$.

We further extend the user’s control over the individual components of the generated motion by adding a scaling parameter for each type of transformation: $\lambda_t, \lambda_r, \lambda_s$ and λ_{sh} for translation, rotation, scale, and shear, respectively. For example, let (d_x^j, d_y^j) denote the network’s predicted translation parameters. We re-scale them as: $(d_x^j, d_y^j) \rightarrow (\lambda_t d_x^j, \lambda_t d_y^j)$. This allows us to attenuate specific aspects of motion that are undesired. For example, we can keep a subject roughly stationary by setting $\lambda_t = 0$. By modeling global changes through constrained transformations,

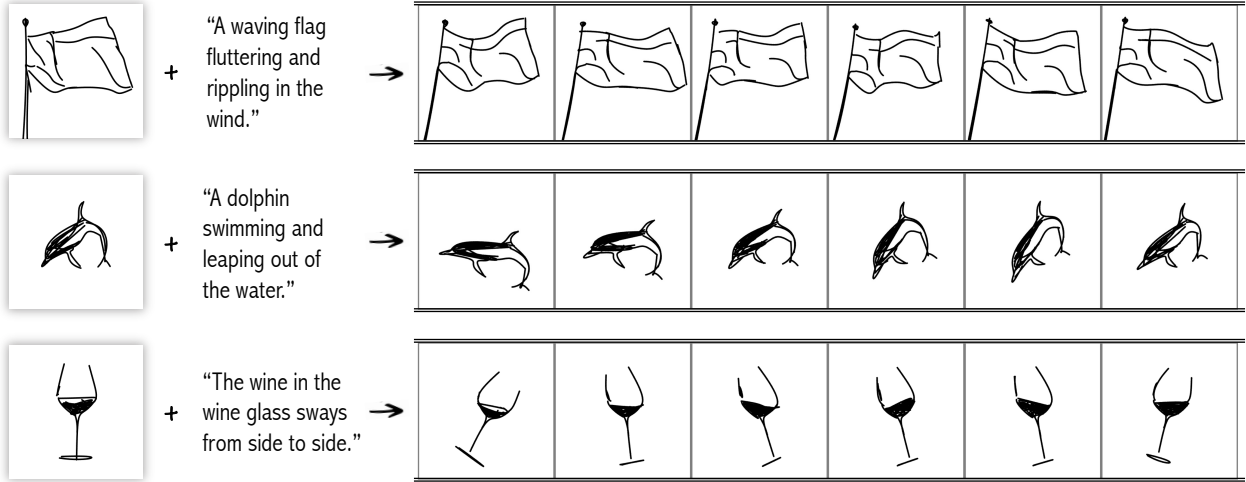


Figure 5. Qualitative results. Our model converts an initial sketch and a driving prompt describing some desired motion into a short video depicting the sketch moving according to the prompt. See the supplementary for the full videos and additional results.

applied uniformly to the entire frame, we limit the model’s ability to create arbitrary deformations while preserving its ability to create large translations or coordinated effects.

Our final predicted displacements ΔZ are simply the sum of the two branches: $\Delta Z_l + \Delta Z_g$. The strength of these two terms (governed by the learning rates and guidance scales used to optimize each branch) will affect a tradeoff between our first goal (text-to-video alignment), and the other two goals (preserving the shape of the original sketch and creating smooth and natural motion). As such, a user can use this tradeoff to gain additional control over the generated video. For instance, prioritizing the preservation of sketch appearance by using a low learning rate for the local path, while affording greater freedom to global motion. We further demonstrate this tradeoff in the supplementary.

4.4. Training Details

We alternate between optimizing the local path and optimizing the global path. The shared backbone is optimized in both cases. Unless otherwise noted, we set the SDS guidance scale to 30 for the local path and 40 for the global path. We use Adam [41] with a learning rate of $1e-4$ for the local path and a learning rate of $5e-3$ for the global path. We find it useful to apply augmentations (random crops and perspective transformations) to the rendered videos during training. We further set $\lambda_t = 1.0$, $\lambda_r = 1e-2$, $\lambda_s = 5e-2$, $\lambda_{sh} = 1e-1$. For our diffusion backbone, we use ModelScope text-to-video [77], but observe similar results with other backbones (see the supplementary file).

We optimize the networks for 1,000 steps, taking roughly 30 minutes per video on a single A100 GPU. In practice, the model often converges after 500 steps (15 minutes). For additional training details, see the supplementary.

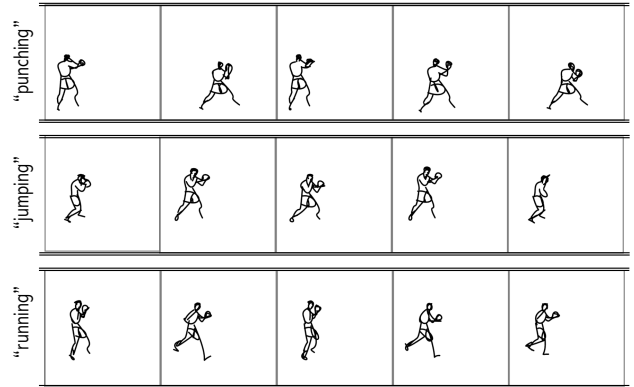


Figure 6. Our method can be used to animate the same sketch according to different prompts. These are typically restricted to actions that the portrayed subject would naturally perform. See the supplementary videos for more examples.

5. Results

We begin by showcasing our method’s ability to animate a diverse set of sketches, following an array of text prompts (see Fig. 5 and supplementary videos). Our method can capture the delicate swaying of a dolphin in the water, follow a ballerina’s dance routine, or mimic the gentle motion of wine swirling in a glass. Notably, it can apply these motions to sketches without any common skeleton or an explicit notation of parts. Moreover, our approach can animate the same sketch using different prompts (see Fig. 6), extending the freedom and diversity of text-to-video models to the more abstract sketch domain. Additional examples and full videos can be found in the supplementary materials.

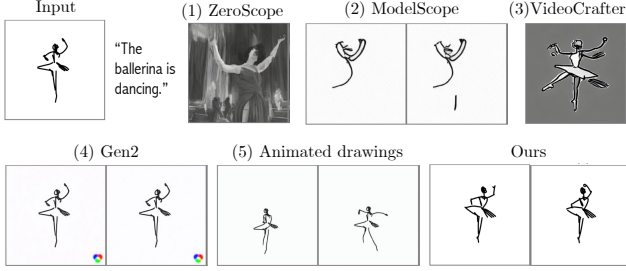


Figure 7. Qualitative comparisons. Image-to-video models suffer from artifacts and struggle to preserve the sketch shape (or even remain in a sketch domain). Animated drawings relies on skeletons and pre-captured reference motions. Hence, it cannot generalize to new domains. See the supplementary videos for more examples.

5.1. Comparisons

As no prior art directly tackles the reference-free sketch animation task, we explore two alternative approaches: pixel-based image-to-video approaches, and skeleton-based methods that build on pre-defined motions.

In the pixel-based scenario, we compare our method with four models: (1) ZeroScope image-to-video [50] which automatically captions the image [91] and uses the caption to prompt a text-to-video model. (2) ModelScope [77] image-to-video, which is directly conditioned on the image. (3) VideoCrafter [12] which is conditioned on both the image and the given text prompt, and (4) Gen-2 [66], a commercial web-based tool, conditioned on both image and text.

The results are shown in Fig. 7. We select representative frames from the output videos. The full videos are available in the supplementary material.

The results of ZeroScope and VideoCrafter show significant artifacts, and commonly fail to even produce a sketch. ModelScope fare better, but struggle to preserve the shape of the sketch. Gen-2 either struggle to animate the sketch, or transforms it into a real image, depending on the input parameters (see the supplementary videos).

We further compare our approach with a skeleton and reference-based method [68] (Fig. 7, Animated Drawings). This method accounts for the sketch-based nature of our data and can better preserve its shape. However, it requires per-sketch manual annotations and is restricted to a pre-determined set of human motions. Hence, it struggles to animate subjects which cannot be matched to a human skeleton, or whose motion does not align with the presets (see supplementary). In contrast, our method inherits the diversity of the text-to-video model and generalizes to multiple target classes without annotations or explicit references.

We additionally evaluate our method quantitatively. We compare with open methods that require no human intervention and can be evaluated at scale (ZeroScope [50], ModelScope [77], and Videocrafter [12]). We follow [74] and collect sketches spanning three categories: humans, an-

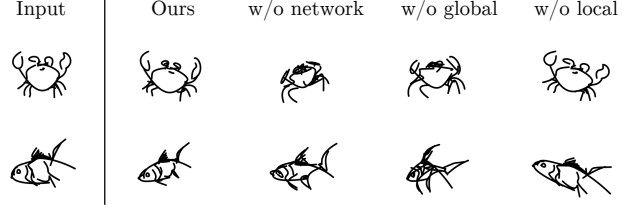


Figure 8. Qualitative ablation. Removing the neural network or the global path leads to shape deviations or jittery motion due to the need for higher learning rates (see supplementary videos). Modeling only global movement improves shape consistency, but fails to create realistic motion.

imals, and objects. We asked ChatGPT to randomly select ten instances per category and suggest prompts describing their typical motion. We used CLIPasso [75] to generate a sketch for each subject. We applied our method and the alternative methods to these sketches and prompts, resulting in 30 animations per method (videos in the supplementary).

Following pixel-based methods [12, 18], we use CLIP [64] to measure the “sketch-to-video” consistency, defined as the average cosine similarity between the video’s frames and the input sketch used to produce it.

We further evaluate the alignment between the generated videos and their corresponding prompts (“text-to-video alignment”). We use X-CLIP [57], a model that extends CLIP to video recognition. Here, we compare to the only baseline which is jointly guided by both image and text [12].

All results are provided in Tab. 1a. Our method outperforms the baselines on sketch-to-video consistency. In particular, it achieves significant gains over ModelScope whose text-to-video model serves as our prior. Moreover, our approach better aligns with the prompted motion, despite the use of a weaker text-to-video model as a backbone. These results, and in particular the ModelScope scores, demonstrate the importance of the vector representation which assists us in successfully extracting a motion prior without the low quality and artifacts introduced when trying to create sketches in the pixel domain.

5.2. Ablation Study

We further validate our suggested components through an ablation study. In particular, we evaluate the effect of using the neural prior in place of direct coordinate optimization and the effect of the global-local separation.

Qualitative results are shown in Fig. 8 (the corresponding videos are provided in the supplementary materials). As can be observed, removing the neural network can lead to increased jitter and harms shape preservation. Removing the global path leads to diminished movement across the frame and less coherent shape transformations. In contrast, removing the local path leads to unrealistic wobbling while keeping the original sketch almost unchanged.

In Tab. 1b, we show quantitative results, following the

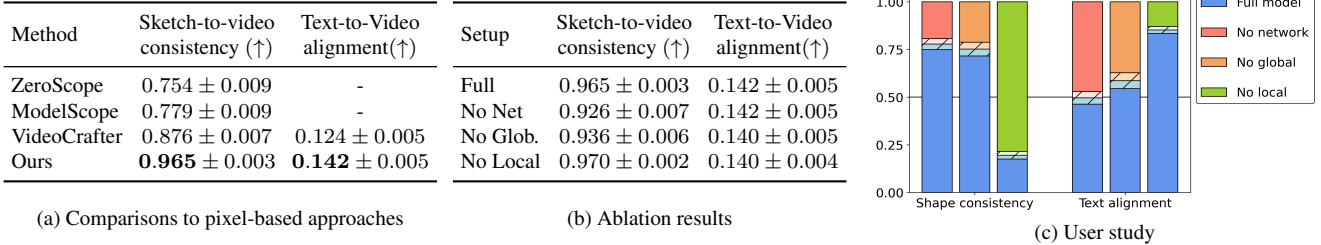


Table 1. Quantitative metrics. (a) CLIP-based consistency and text-video alignment comparisons to open-source image-to-video baselines. (b) The same CLIP-metrics used for an ablation study. (c) User study results. We pit our full model against each ablation setup. The blue bar indicates the percent of responders that preferred our full model over each baseline. Dashed area is one standard error.

same protocol as in Sec. 5.1. The sketch-to-video consistency results align with the qualitative observations. However, we observe that the metric for text-to-video alignment [57] is not sensitive enough to gauge the difference between our ablation setups (standard errors are larger than the gaps).

We additionally conduct a user study, based on a two-alternative forced-choice setup. Each user is shown two videos (one output from the full method, and one from a random ablation setup) and asked to select: (1) the video that better preserves the appearance of the initial sketch, and (2) the video that better matches the motion outlined in the prompt. We collected responses from 31 participants over 30 pairs. The results are provided in Tab. 1c.

Users considered the full method’s text-to-video alignment to be on-par or better than all ablation setups. When considering sketch-to-video consistency, our method is preferred over both setups that create reasonable motion (no network and no global). Removing the local path leads to higher consistency with respect to the original frame, largely because the sketch remains almost unchanged. Our full method allows for more expressive motion, while still showing remarkable preservation of the input sketch.

In the supplementary materials, we provide further analysis on the effects of our hyperparameter choices, and highlight an emergent trade-off between shape preservation and the quality of generated motion.

6. Limitations

While our work enables sketch-animation across various classes and prompts, it comes with limitations. First, we build upon the sketch representation from [75]. However, sketches can be represented in many forms with different types of curves and primitive shapes. Using our method with other sketch representations could result in performance degradation. For instance, in Fig. 9(1) the surfer’s scale has significantly changed. Addressing the diversity of vector sketches requires further development. Second, our method assumes a single-subject input sketch (a common scenario in character animation techniques). When applied to scene sketches or sketches with multiple objects, we observe reduced result quality due to the design constraints.

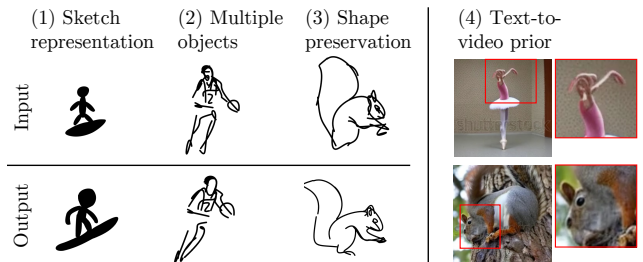


Figure 9. Method limitations. The method may struggle with certain sketch representations, fail to tackle multiple objects or complex scenes, or create undesired shape changes. Moreover, it is restricted to motions which the text-to-video prior can create.

For example in Fig. 9(2), the basketball cannot be separated from the player, contrary to the natural motion of dribbling.

Third, our method faces a trade-off between motion quality and sketch fidelity, and a diligent balance should be achieved between the two. In Fig. 9(3), the animated squirrel’s appearance differs from the input sketch. This trade-off is further discussed in the supplementary material.

Finally, our approach inherits the limitations of text-to-video priors. Such models are trained on large-scale data, but may be unaware of specific motions, or portray strong biases. For example, as demonstrated in Fig. 9, the model we utilize tend to produce significant artefacts when used for text-to-video generation. However, our method is agnostic to the backbone model and hence could likely be used with newer, improved models as they become available.

7. Conclusions

We presented a technique to breath life into a given static sketch, following a text prompt. Our method builds on the motion prior captured by powerful text-to-video models. We show that even though these models struggle with generating sketches directly, they can still comprehend such abstract representations in a semantically meaningful way, creating smooth and appealing motions. We hope that our work will facilitate further research to provide intuitive and practical tools for sketch animation that incorporate recent advances in text-based video generation.

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