

Imitator: Personalized Speech-driven 3D Facial Animation

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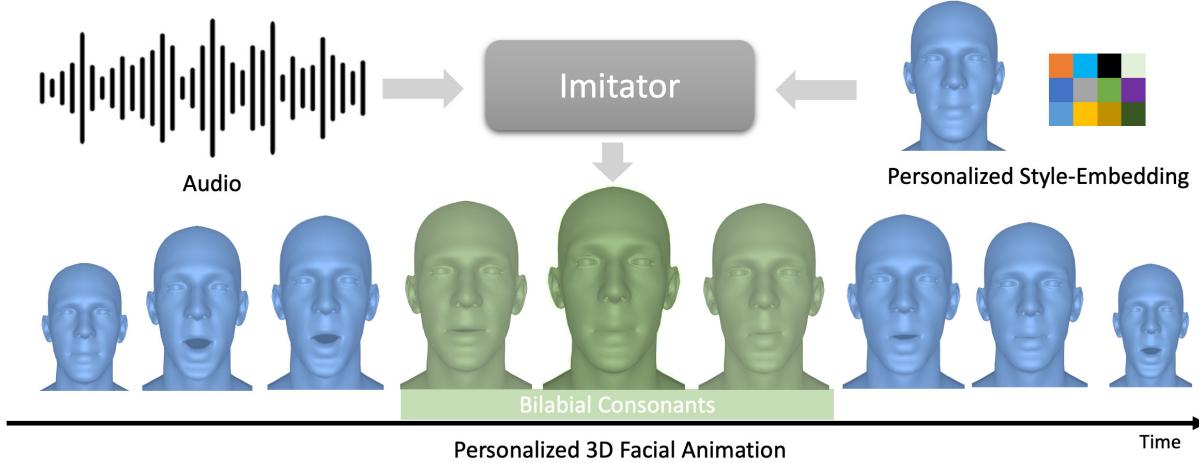


Figure 1: *Imitator* is a novel method for personalized speech-driven 3D facial animation. Given an audio sequence and a personalized style-embedding as input, we generate person-specific motion sequences with accurate lip closures for bilabial consonants ('m', 'b', 'p'). The style-embedding of a subject can be computed from a short reference video (e.g., 5s).

Abstract

Speech-driven 3D facial animation has been widely explored, with applications in gaming, character animation, virtual reality, and telepresence systems. State-of-the-art methods deform the face topology of the target actor to sync the input audio without considering the identity-specific speaking style and facial idiosyncrasies, thus, resulting in unrealistic and inaccurate lip movements. To address this, we present *Imitator*, a speech-driven facial expression synthesis method, which learns identity-specific details from a short input video and produces novel facial expressions matching the identity-specific speaking style and facial idiosyncrasies of the target actor. Specifically, we train a style-agnostic transformer on a large facial expression dataset which we use as a prior for audio-driven facial expressions. We utilize this prior to optimize for identity-specific speaking style based on a short reference

video. To train the prior, we introduce a novel loss function based on detected bilabial consonants to ensure plausible lip closures and consequently improve the realism of the generated expressions. Through detailed experiments and user studies, we show that our approach improves Lip-Sync by 49% and produces expressive facial animations from input audio while preserving the actor's speaking style. Project page: <https://balamuruganthambiraja.github.io/Imitator>

1. Introduction

3D digital humans raised a lot of attention in the past few years as they aim to replicate the appearance and motion of real humans for immersive applications, like telepresence in AR or VR, character animation and creation for entertainment (movies and games), and virtual mirrors for e-commerce. Especially, with the introduction of neu-

ral rendering [25, 27], we see immense progress in the photo-realistic synthesis of such digital doubles [36, 11, 19]. These avatars can be controlled via visual tracking to mirror the facial expressions of a real human. However, for a series of applications, we need to control the facial avatars with text or audio inputs. For example, AI-driven digital assistants rely on motion synthesis instead of motion cloning. Even telepresence applications might need to work with audio inputs only, when the face of the person is occluded or cannot be tracked, since a face capture device is not available. To this end, we analyze motion synthesis for facial animations from audio inputs; note that text-to-speech approaches can be used to generate such audio. Humans are generally sensitive towards faces, especially facial motions, as they are crucial for communication (e.g., micro-expressions). Without full expressiveness and proper lip closures, the generated animation will be perceived as unnatural and implausible. Especially if the person is known, the animations must match the subject’s idiosyncrasies.

Recent methods for speech-driven 3D facial animation [16, 5, 20, 10] are data-driven. They are trained on high-quality motion capture data and leverage pretrained speech models [13, 21] to extract an intermediate audio representation. We can classify these data-driven methods into two categories, generalized [5, 20, 10] and personalized animation generation methods [16]. In contrast to those approaches, we aim at a personalized 3D facial animation synthesis that can adapt to a new user while only relying on input RGB videos captured with commodity cameras. Specifically, we propose a transformer-based auto-regressive motion synthesis method that predicts a generalized motion representation. This intermediate representation is decoded by a motion decoder which is adaptable to new users. A speaker embedding is adjusted for a new user, and a new motion basis for the motion decoder is computed.

Our method is trained on the VOCA dataset [5] and can be applied to new subjects captured in a short monocular RGB video. As lip closures are of paramount importance for bilabial consonants (‘m’, ‘b’, ‘p’), we introduce a novel loss based on the detection of bilabials to ensure that the lips are closed properly. We take inspiration from the locomotion synthesis field [18, 14], where similar losses are used to enforce foot contact with the ground and transfer it to our scenario of physically plausible lip motions.

In a series of experiments and ablation studies, we demonstrate that our method is able to synthesize facial expressions that match the target subject’s motions in terms of style and expressiveness. Our method outperforms state-of-the-art methods in the metrical evaluation and user study. Please refer to our suppl. video for a detailed qualitative comparison. In the user study, we confirm that personalized facial expressions are important for the perceived realism.

The contributions of our work *Imitator* are as follows:

- We explore the speaking style-adaption problem and show that personalization of speaking-style is critical for improving realism and expressiveness in 3D facial animation synthesis,
- we, therefore, propose a novel light-weight speaking style-adaption approach that allows for efficient style-adaption to new users from a short reference video by disentangling generalized viseme generation and identity-specific motion decoding,
- and introduce a novel lip contact loss formulation for improved lip closures based on physiological cues of bilabial consonants (‘m’, ‘b’, ‘p’) which also improves other state-of-the-art motion synthesis methods.

2. Related Work

Our work focuses on speech-driven 3D facial animation related to talking head methods that create photo-realistic video sequences from audio inputs.

Talking Head Videos: Several prior works on speech-driven generation focus on the synthesis of 2D talking head videos. Suwajanakorn et al. [23] train an LSTM network on 19h video material of Obama to predict his identity-specific 2D lip landmarks from speech inputs, which is then used for image generation. Vougioukas et al. [30] propose a method to generate facial animation from a single RGB image by leveraging a temporal generative adversarial network. Chung et al. [4] introduce a real-time approach to generate an RGB video of a talking face by directly mapping the audio input to the video output space. This method can re-dub a new target identity not seen during training. Instead of performing direct mapping, Zhou et al. [37] disentangles the speech information in terms of speaker identity and content, allowing speech-driven generation that can be applied to various types of realistic and hand-drawn head portraits. A series of work [26, 22, 35, 34] uses an intermediate 3D Morphable Model (3DMM) [2, 8] to guide the 2D neural rendering of talking heads from audio. Wang et al. [31] extend this work also to model the head movements of the speaker. Lipsync3d [17] proposes data-efficient learning of personalized talking heads focusing on pose and lighting normalization. Based on dynamic neural radiance fields [11], Ad-nerf [12] and DFA-NeRF [33] learn personalized talking head models that can be rendered under novel views, while being controlled by audio inputs. In contrast to these methods, our work focuses on predicting 3D facial animations from speech that can be used to drive 3D digital avatars without requiring retraining of the entire model to capture the identity-specific motion style.

Speech-Driven 3D Facial Animation: Speech-driven 3D facial animation is a vivid field of research. Earlier meth-

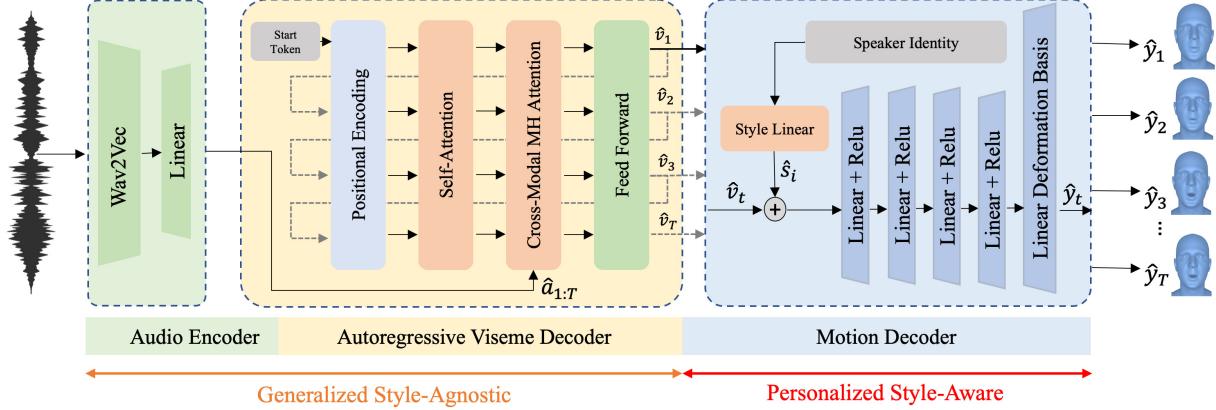


Figure 2: Our architecture takes audio as input which is encoded by Wav2Vec2.0 [1]. This audio embedding $\hat{a}_{1:T}$ is fed into an auto-regressive viseme decoder which generates a motion feature $\hat{v}_{1:T}$. The style-adaptable motion decoder maps these motion features to identity-specific facial expressions $\hat{y}_{1:T}$ in terms of vertex displacements w.r.t. a template mesh.

ods [6, 9, 15, 7, 29] focus on animating a predefined facial rig using procedural rules. HMM-based models generate visemes from input text or audio, and the facial animations are generated using viseme-dependent co-articulation models [7, 6] or by blending facial templates [15]. With recent advances in machine learning, data-driven methods [3, 24, 26, 16, 5, 20, 10] have demonstrated their capability to learn viseme patterns from data. These methods are based on pretrained speech models [13, 21, 1] to generate an abstract and generalized representation of the input audio, which is then interpreted by a CNN or auto-regressive model to map to either a 3DMM space or directly to 3D meshes. Karras et al.[16] learn a 3D facial animation model from 3-5 minutes of high-quality actor specific 3D data. VOCA [5] is trained on 3D data of multiple subjects and can animate the corresponding set of identities from input audio by providing a one-hot encoding during inference that indicates the subject. MeshTalk [20] is a generalized method that learns a categorical representation for facial expressions and auto-regressively samples from this categorical space to animate a given 3D facial template mesh of a subject from audio inputs. FaceFormer [10] uses a pretrained Wav2Vec [1] audio representation and applies a transformer-based decoder to regress displacements on top of a template mesh. Like VOCA, FaceFormer provides a speaker identification code to the decoder, allowing one to choose from the training set talking styles. In contrast, we aim at a method that can adapt to new users, capturing their talking style and expressiveness.

3. Method

Our goal is to model identity-specific speaking style and the facial idiosyncrasies of an actor, to generate 3D facial animations of the subject from novel audio inputs. As in-

put, we assume a short video sequence of the subject which we leverage to compute the identity-specific speaking style. To enable fast adaptation to novel users without significant training sequences, we learn a generalized style-agnostic transformer. This transformer provides generic motion features from audio inputs that are interpretable by a style-aware motion decoder. The motion decoder is pre-trained and adaptable to new users via speaking style optimization and refinement of the motion basis. To further improve synthesis results, we introduce a novel lip contact loss based on physiological cues of bilabial consonants [7].

3.1. Model Architecture

Our architecture consists of three main components (see Fig. 2): an audio encoder, a generalized auto-regressive viseme decoder, and an adaptable motion decoder.

Audio Encoder: Following state-of-the-art motion synthesis models [5, 10], we use a generalized speech model to encode the audio inputs A . Specifically, we leverage Wav2Vec 2.0 [1]. The original Wav2Vec is based on a CNN architecture designed to produce a meaningful latent representation of human speech. It is trained in a self-supervised and semi-supervised manner to predict the immediate future values of the current input speech by using a contrastive loss, allowing the model to learn from a large amount of unlabeled data. Wav2Vec 2.0 extends this idea by quantizing the latent representation and incorporating a Transformer-based architecture [28]. We resample the Wav2Vec 2.0 output via linear interpolation to match the sampling frequency of the motion (30fps for VOCAset, with 16kHz audio), resulting in a contextual representation $\{\hat{a}\}_{t=1}^T$ for T motion frames.

Auto-regressive Viseme Decoder: The viseme decoder F_v takes the contextual representation of the audio sequence as input and produces style-agnostic viseme features \hat{v}_t in

an auto-regressive manner. These viseme features describe how the lip should deform given the context audio and the previous viseme features. In contrast to Faceformer[10], we propose to use of a classical transformer architecture [28] as viseme decoder, which learns the mapping from audio-features $\{\hat{a}\}_{t=1}^T$ to identity agnostic viseme features $\{\hat{v}\}_{t=1}^T$. The autoregressive viseme decoder is defined as:

$$\hat{v}_t = F_v(\theta_v; \hat{v}_{1:t-1}, \hat{a}_{1:T}), \quad (1)$$

where θ_v are the learnable parameters of the transformer.

In contrast to the traditional neural machine translation (NMT) architectures that produce discrete text, our output representation is a continuous vector. NMT models use a start and end token to indicate the beginning and end of the sequence. During inference, the NMT model autoregressively generates tokens until the end token is generated. Similarly, we use a start token to indicate the beginning of the sequences. However, since the sequence length T is given by the length of the audio input, we do not use an end token. We inject temporal information into the sequences by adding sinusoidal-encoded time $PE(t)$ [28] to the viseme feature in the sequence:

$$\hat{h}_t = \hat{v}_t + PE(t). \quad (2)$$

Given the sequence of positional encoded inputs \hat{h}_t , we use multi-head self-attention which generates the context representation of the inputs by weighting the inputs based on their relevance. These context representations are used as input to a cross-modal multi-head attention block which also takes the audio features $\hat{a}_{1:T}$ from the audio encoder as input. A final feed-forward layer maps the output of this audio-motion attention layer to the viseme embedding \hat{v}_t . In contrast to Faceformer [10], which feeds encoded face motions \hat{y}_t to the transformer, we work with identity-agnostic viseme features which are independently decoded by the motion decoder. We found that feeding face motions \hat{y}_t via an input embedding layer to the transformer contains identity-specific information, which we try to avoid since we aim for a generalized viseme decoder that is disentangled from identity-specific motion. In addition, using a general start token instead of the identity code [10] as the start token reduces the identity bias further. Note that disentangling the identity-specific information from the viseme decoder improves the motion optimization in the style adaptation stage of the pipeline (Sec. 3.3), as gradients do not need to be propagated through the auto-regressive transformer.

Motion Decoder: We aim to generate identity-specific 3D facial animations $\hat{y}_{1:T}$ from the style-agnostic viseme features $\hat{v}_{1:T}$ and a identity-specific style embedding \hat{S}_i . Our motion decoder consists of two components, a style embedding layer and a motion synthesis block. For the training of the style-agnostic transformer and for pre-training the

motion decoder, we assume to have a one-hot encoding of the identities of the training set. The style embedding layer takes this identity information as input and produces the style embedding \hat{S}_i , which encodes the identity-specific motion. The style embedding is added to the viseme features $\hat{v}_{1:T}$ and fed into the motion synthesis block. The motion synthesis block consists of non-linear layers which map the style-aware viseme features to the motion space defined by a linear deformation basis. During training, the deformation basis is learned across all identities in the dataset. The deformation basis is fine-tuned for style adaptation to out-of-training identities (see Sec. 3.3). The final mesh outputs $\hat{y}_{1:T}$ are computed by adding the estimated per-vertex deformation to the template mesh of the subject.

3.2. Training

Similar to Faceformer [10], we use an autoregressive training scheme instead of teacher-forcing to train our model on the VOCAsset [5]. Given ground truth 3D facial animations of VOCAsset, we define the following loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{total} = \lambda_{MSE} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{MSE} + \lambda_{vel} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{vel} + \lambda_{lip} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{lip}, \quad (3)$$

where \mathcal{L}_{MSE} defines a reconstruction loss of the vertices, \mathcal{L}_{vel} defines a velocity loss, and \mathcal{L}_{lip} measures lip contact. The weights are $\lambda_{MSE} = 1.0$, $\lambda_{vel} = 10.0$, and $\lambda_{lip} = 5.0$.

Reconstruction Loss: The reconstruction loss \mathcal{L}_{MSE} is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{MSE} = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_n} \|y_{t,n} - \hat{y}_{t,n}\|^2, \quad (4)$$

where $y_{t,n}$ is the ground truth mesh at time t in sequence n (of N total sequences) and $\hat{y}_{t,n}$ is the prediction.

Velocity Loss: Our motion decoder takes independent viseme features as input to produce facial expressions. To improve temporal consistency in the prediction, we introduce a velocity loss \mathcal{L}_{vel} similar to [5]:

$$\mathcal{L}_{vel} = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=2}^{T_n} \|(y_{t,n} - y_{t-1,n}) - (\hat{y}_{t,n} - \hat{y}_{t-1,n})\|^2. \quad (5)$$

Lip Contact Loss: Training with \mathcal{L}_{MSE} guides the model to learn an averaged facial expression, thus resulting in improper lip closures. To this end, we introduce a novel lip contact loss for bilabial consonants ('m','b','p'). Specifically, we automatically annotate the VOCAsset to extract the occurrences of these consonants; see Sec. 4. Using this data, we define the following lip loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{lip} = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_n} w_{t,n} \|y_{t,n} - \hat{y}_{t,n}\|^2, \quad (6)$$

where $w_{t,n}$ weights the prediction of frame t of video n according to the annotation of the bilabial consonants using

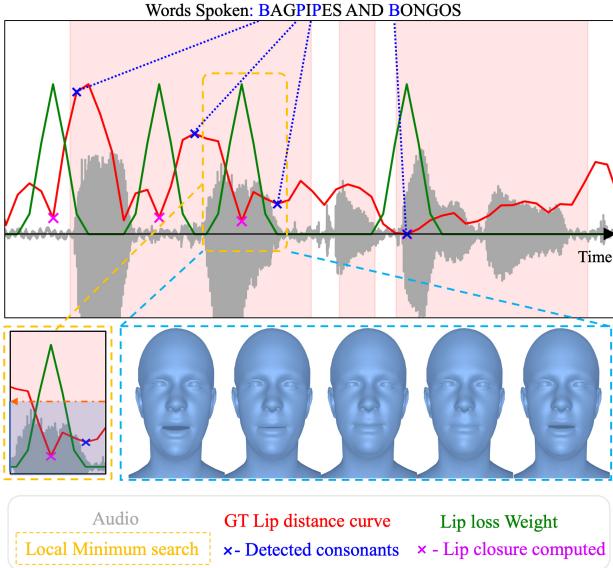


Figure 3: Automatic labeling of the bilabial consonants (‘m’, ‘b’ and ‘p’) and their corresponding lip closures in a sequence of VOCAs set [5]. We use Torch Audio [32] to align the transcript to the audio, and extract the timestamps for the bilabial consonants. To detect the actual lip closures, we search for local-minima on the Lip distance curves (red) in a window before the detected consonant. The lip loss weights $w_{t,n}$ are set to fixed values of a Gaussian function.

a Gaussian weighting. Specifically, $w_{t,n}$ is $(0, 1]$ for frames with such consonants and zero otherwise. Note that for such frames, the target $y_{t,n}$ represents a face with a closed mouth; thus, improving lip closures at ‘m’, ‘b’ and ‘p’s (see Sec. 5).

3.3. Style Adaptation

Given a short video of a new subject, we track the face $\tilde{y}_{1:T}$ using MICA [38]. Based on this reference data, we first optimize for the speaker style-embedding \hat{S} and then jointly refine the linear deformation basis using the \mathcal{L}_{MSE} and \mathcal{L}_{vel} loss. In our experiments, we found that this two-stage adaptation is essential for generalization to new audio inputs as it reuses the pretrained information of the motion decoder. As an initialization of the style embedding, we use a speaking style of the training set. We precompute all viseme features $\hat{v}_{1:T}$ once, and optimize the speaking style to reproduce the tracked faces $\tilde{y}_{1:T}$. We then refine the linear motion basis of the decoder to match the identity-specific deformations (e.g., asymmetric lip motions). Please refer to the supplemental material for a detailed study of the impact of different stages in the style-adaption process.

4. Dataset

We train our method based on VOCAs set [5], which consists of 12 actors (6 female and 6 male) with 40 sequences each with a length of 3 – 5 seconds. The dataset comes with a train/test set split which we use in our experiments. The test set contains 2 actors. The dataset offers audio and high-quality 3D face reconstructions per frame (60fps). For our experiment, we sample the 3D face reconstructions at 30fps. We train the auto-regressive transformer on this data using the loss from Eq. (3). For the lip contact loss L_{lip} , we automatically compute the labels as described below.

Automatic Lip Closure Labeling: For the VOCAs set, the transcript is available. We use wav2vec-based forced alignment of Torch Audio [32] to align the transcript with the audio track. As the lip closure is formed before we hear the bilabial consonants, we search for the lip closure in the tracked face geometry before the time-stamp of the occurrence of the consonants in the script. We show this process for a single sequence in Fig. 3. The lip closure is detected by lip distance, i.e., the frame with minimal lip distance in a short time window before the detected consonant is assumed to be the lip closure. In addition, we also experimented with using lip distance alone for detecting the lip closures. However, this additionally detects the speech pauses and requires thresholding of actor-specific lip distances which we found unstable (e.g., noisy tracking).

Style Adaptation: To adapt the motion decoder to a new subject, we assume to have a monocular video of about 2 min. which we divide into train/validation/test sequences.

5. Results

To validate our method, we conducted a series of qualitative and quantitative evaluations, including a user study and ablation studies. For evaluation on the test set of VOCAs set [5], we randomly sample 4 sequences from the test subjects’ train set (each ~ 5 s long) and learn the speaking-style and facial idiosyncrasies of the subject via style adaptation. We compare our method to the state-of-the-art methods VOCA [5], Faceformer [10], and MeshTalk [20]. We base our experiments on the original implementations of the authors. However, we found that MeshTalk cannot be trained on the comparably small VOCAs set. Thus, we qualitatively compare against MeshTalk with their provided model trained on a large-scale proprietary dataset with 200 subjects and 40 sequences for each. Note that the pretrained MeshTalk model is not compatible with the FLAME topology; thus, we cannot evaluate MeshTalk on novel identities.

In addition to the experiments on the VOCAs set, we show results on external RGB sequences (see suppl. video).

Quantitative Evaluation: To quantitatively evaluate our method, we use the test set of VOCAs set [5]. We evaluate

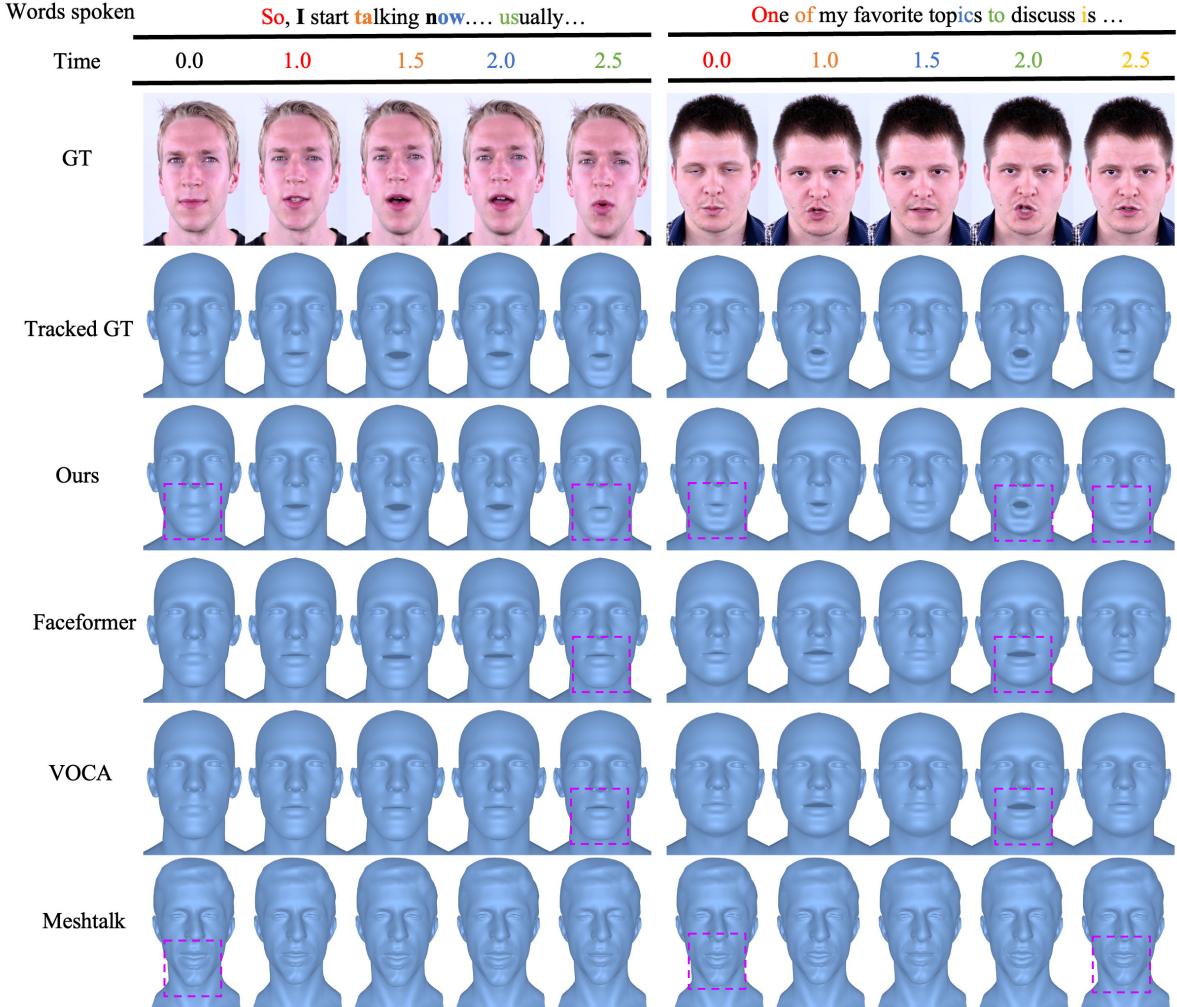


Figure 4: Qualitative comparison to VOCA [5], Faceformer [10], and MeshTalk [20]. Note that *MeshTalk* is performed with a different identity since we use their pretrained model, which cannot be trained on the VOCAset. As we see in the highlighted regions, the geometry of the generated sequences without the identity-specific style has muted and inaccurate lip animations.

	Method	Lip-Sync ↓	Lip-max ↓	$L_2^{\text{lip}} \downarrow$	$L_2^{\text{face}} \downarrow$
1	VOCA [5]	5.1	6.97	0.2	0.92
2	FF [10]	2.86	5.5	0.16	0.83
3	Ours w/ 4 seq ($\sim 20s$)	1.44	3.85	0.1	0.89
4	Ours w/ 10 seq ($\sim 50s$)	1.43	3.55	0.09	0.76

Table 1: Quantitative results on the VOCAset [5]. Our method outperforms the baselines significantly, especially *Lip-Sync* by 49% and *Lip-max* by 36%.

the performance of our method based on a mean L_2 vertex distance for the entire mesh L_2^{face} and the lip region L_2^{lip} . Following MeshTalk [20], we also compute the *Lip-max*, which measures the mean of the maximal per-frame lip distances. In order to evaluate synchronization (*Lip-Sync*), we use Dynamic Time Warping to compute the temporal simi-

larity between the produced and reference meshes on the lip region. Since VOCA and Faceformer do not adapt to new user talking styles, we select the talking style from their training with the best quantitative metrics. Note that the pretrained MeshTalk model is not applicable to this evaluation due to the identity mismatch. As can be seen in Tab. 1, our method achieves the best performance on all the lip metrics, confirming our qualitative results. However, when style adaption is performed on 4 sequences ($\sim 20s$), our method has a higher error on the entire face compared to Faceformer [10]. Our prediction on the entire face gets better with slightly more data ($\sim 50s$) and also outperforms the baselines (Tab. 1 row 4). This is because the model learns to produce upper face motion, which can also be seen in Fig. 7, where we visualize the per-vertex mean error that corresponds to the evaluation. Depending on the reference

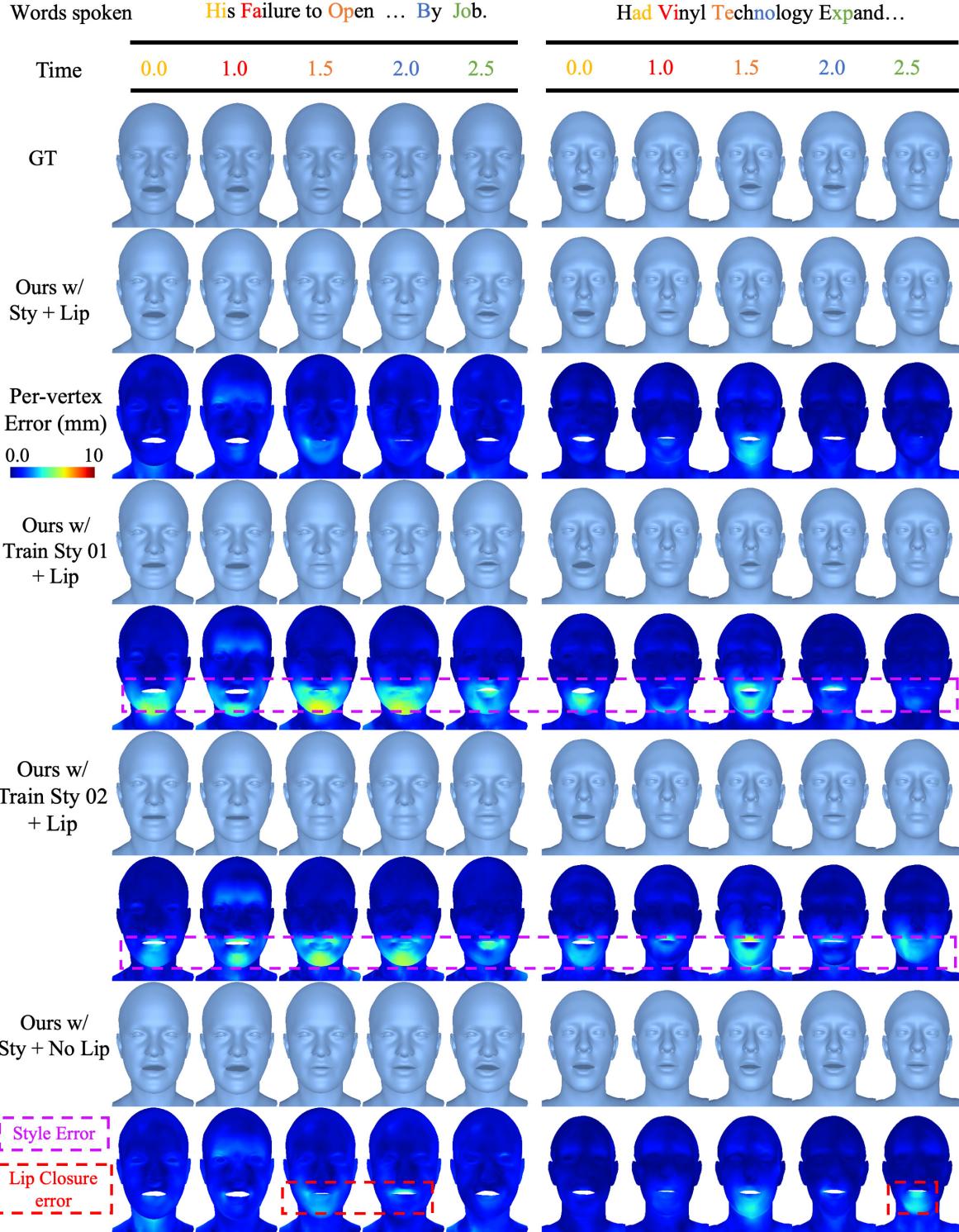


Figure 5: Qualitative ablation comparison. At first, we show that our complete method with style and \mathcal{L}_{lip} loss is able to generate personalized facial animation with expressive motion and accurate lip closures. Replacing the optimized identity-specific style with a random style from the training set results in generic and muted facial animation indicating the importance of style-adaption. As highlighted in the per-vertex error maps (magenta), the generated expression is not similar to the target actor. Especially the facial deformations are missing identity-specific details. Removing \mathcal{L}_{lip} from the training objective results in improper lip closures (red) and reduces the perceived realism.

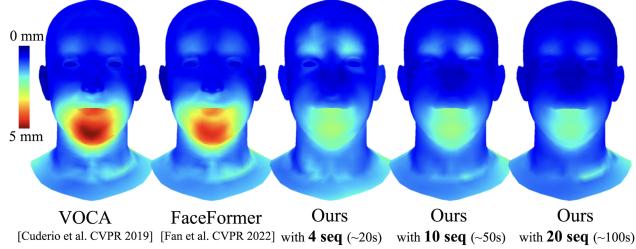


Figure 6: Comparison of the methods displaying the mean L2 vertex distance error on VOCA test set.

Method	Expressiveness (%)	Realism/Lip-sync (%)
Ours vs VOCA [5]	86.48	76.92
Ours vs Faceformer [10]	81.89	75.46
Ours vs Ground truth	20.28	42.30

Table 2: Perceptual A/B user study conducted on the test set of VOCAsset [5] with 56 participants. In comparison to VOCA [5] and Faceformer [10], our method is preferred.

data, we introduce an error in the upper face region (which has only a weak correlation with audio). I.e., the model picks up spurious correlations between audio and the upper face motion when only a short reference video is given (20s) and resolves that when having a longer video (e.g., 10 sequences of ~ 5 s each). As the upper face motions look natural and the overall face error is negligible, it does not negatively influence the perceived quality of the user study.

Qualitative Evaluation: We conducted a qualitative evaluation on sequences not part of VOCAsset (see suppl. video). In Fig. 4, we show a series of frames from those sequences with the corresponding words. As we can see, our method is able to adapt to the speaking style of the respective subject. VOCA [5] and Faceformer [10] miss identity-specific deformations and are not as expressive as our results. MeshTalk [20], which uses an identity of the pre-trained model also shows damped expressivity.

Method	Faithfulness (%)	Style similarity (%)
Ours vs VOCA [5]	81.98	71.17
Ours vs Faceformer [10]	84.68	76.58

Table 3: A/B user study (37 participants) conducted on in-the-wild actor’s to evaluate speaking-style similarity and faithfulness with reference to a target actor.

Perceptual Evaluation: We conducted an A/B user study on the test set of VOCAsset to quantify the quality of our method’s generated results (see Tab. 2). We randomly sample 10 sequences of the test subjects and run our method, VOCA, and Faceformer. For VOCA and Faceformer, which do not adapt to the style of a new user, we use the talking

	Method	Sty	LipCt	Lip-Sync ↓	Lip-max ↓	$L_2^{\text{lip}} \downarrow$	$L_2^{\text{face}} \downarrow$
1	VOCA [5]	✗	✗	5.1	6.97	0.2	0.92
2	FF [10]	✗	✗	2.86	5.5	0.16	0.83
3	Ours	✗	✗	1.95	4.8	0.12	0.85
4	VOCA [5]	✓	✗	3.15	5.36	0.14	0.86
5	FF [10]	✓	✗	1.67	4.1	0.1	0.95
6	Ours	✓	✗	1.63	3.94	0.1	0.89
7	VOCA [5]	✓	✓	2.07	4.83	0.13	0.79
8	FF [10]	✓	✓	1.71	3.94	0.1	0.89
9	Ours	✓	✓	1.44	3.85	0.1	0.89
10	Ours 1 seq	✓	✓	1.48	3.96	0.1	0.9
11	Ours 10 seq	✓	✓	1.43	3.55	0.09	0.76
12	Ours 20 seq	✓	✓	1.35	3.43	0.09	0.69

Table 4: Ablation studies of our method and its components on the VOCAsset [5]. Labels *Sty* and *LipCt* indicate the use of the Style-adaption and Lip contact loss. Note, style adaptation is done on 4 sequences, except for experiments 10-12.

style of the training Subject 137, which provided the best quantitative results. We use 20 videos per method resulting in 60 A/B comparisons. For every A/B test, we ask the user to choose the best method based on realism and expressiveness, following the protocol of Faceformer [10]. In Tab. 2, we show the result of this study in which 56 people participated. We observe that our method consistently outperforms VOCA and Faceformer, achieving similar realism and lip-sync as ground truth. Note that the users in the perceptual study have not seen the original talking style of the actors before. However, the results show that our personalized synthesis leads to more realistic animations.

Additionally, we conducted an A/B user study to evaluate the faithfulness and style similarity for 4 in-the-wild actor’s, see Tab. 3. In this study, we additionally show an original video as reference. The study confirms, that our method best captures the person-specific style and facial idiosyncrasies compared to the baselines.

Ablation Studies: Adding *style adaptation* improves the performance in the lip region (Tab. 4 row 1-3 vs 4-6). Even when using a single reference video for style adaptation (5s) (Tab. 4 row 10), our results show significantly better lip scores than the baselines. From Fig. 5, we also observe that the generated motion better matches the identity-specific deformations and mouth shapes and improves the expressiveness. However as mentioned in Sec. 5, we notice a slight increase on the entire face, when style-adaption is performed on fewer sequences. With slightly more data, the error on the entire face improves (Tab. 4 row 9,10 vs 11,12).

Adding *lip contact loss* improves the metrics *Lip-Sync* and *Lip-max* (Tab. 4 row 6 vs 9). Qualitatively, the loss improves the lip closures for the bilabial consonants, thus, improving the perceived realism, as can be seen in Fig. 5 (Ours w/ Sty + Lip vs Ours w/ Sty + No Lip).

In Tab. 4 (row 7,8), we observe that even if Faceformer (FF) and VOCA are style-optimized with our proposed

technique, our *architecture* shows better performance on all metrics. In addition, our architecture only requires 30min for style adaptation on the VOCA test set using a Quadro RTX 6000, while VOCA and Faceformer take 40min and 6hrs respectively. Note that our method also beats the baselines in the generalized case w.r.t. lip sync (row 1-3).

Sensitivity Study: Similar to VOCA [5], we conducted a sensitivity experiment by adding white noise to audio with negative gain of 36db (low), 24db (medium), 12db (high) (see Fig. 7). In comparison to the baselines FaceFormer [10] and VOCA [5], our method produces high quality facial animations, even with noisy input audio.

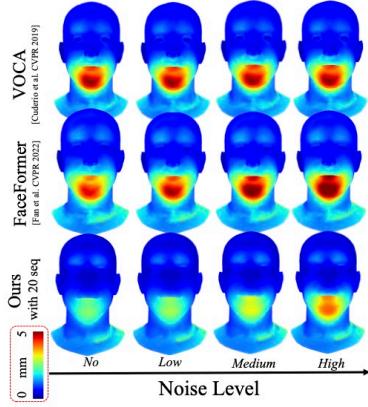


Figure 7: Audio noise sensitivity study in terms of mean L2 distances, evaluated on VOCAset test subjects by adding white noise to the input audio with negative gain of 36db, 24db and 12db.

Style Code Initialization: For personalized speech-driven 3D facial animations, we apply style-adaptation of our generalized model. Specifically, we fine-tune the deformation basis and the style block for every new target. The initialization of the style codes could be done manually or by a heuristic to have a joint single-stage optimization, instead of our proposed two-stage optimization process which works fully automatic. To analyze this, we run style-adaptation multiple times using both methods (the proposed *2 Stg. optim* and the *Joint optim*) with different style code initializations. We report the mean and std. deviation of this experiment for the test subject "138" in Tab. 5 [Row 1-2]. In contrast to the joint optimization, our proposed method gives the best quantitative performance and converges to similar solution irrespective of the initialization which can be seen by the low std. deviation.

Training Data: Additionally, we evaluate the robustness of style-adaptation w.r.t. the input data. Specifically, we perform style-adaptation on 5 different training sets (\approx 4 seq.) of the test subject 138 (see Tab. 5 [Row 3]). We can observe that irrespective of the sequences used for style-adaptation, our method produces stable performance which

is highlighted by a low std. deviation. However, we observed that the training data should contain all visemes, particularly viseme's corresponding to 'm', 'b' and 'p's. If a specific viseme is missing in our train set, our method will not be able to produce it faithfully (e.g., no fully closed mouth for an 'm', if 'm' is missing).

Method	Lip-Sync \downarrow	Lip-max \downarrow	$L_2^{\text{lip}} \downarrow$	$L_2^{\text{face}} \downarrow$
1 Joint Optim	1.97 (0.20)	5.00 (0.14)	0.13 (0.0024)	0.99 (0.012)
2 2 Stg. Optim	1.68 (0.04)	4.16 (0.01)	0.11 (0.0004)	0.82 (0.002)
3 Training Data Ablation	1.61 (0.08)	4.08 (0.04)	0.11 (0.0006)	0.83 (0.002)

Table 5: Ablation on style embedding initialization for joint and 2-stage style adaptation [Row 1-2], and impact of training data for style adaptation [Row 3]. Std. dev. in brackets.

Limitations: Our evaluation shows that our proposed method outperforms state-of-the-art methods in perceived expressiveness and realism. However, the appearance, expressiveness, and facial details of new subjects depend on the face tracking quality. From the qualitative results, we see that our method is robust and able to learn style-adaption from both motion capture data (VOCA test set) and 3DMM tracked meshes. We conclude that if face tracking is improved, our method will also predict better facial animation. Similar to Faceformer [10], we built upon Wav2Vec 2.0, thus, the inference is acausal. A window-based approach similar to [5, 20] could be explored in future work.

6. Conclusion

We presented *Imitator*, a novel approach for personalized speech-driven 3D facial animation. Based on a short reference video clip of a subject, a personalized motion decoder driven by a generalized auto-regressive transformer that maps audio to intermediate viseme features is learned. The conducted studies show that personalized facial animations are essential for the perceived realism of a generated sequence. Our novel loss formulation for accurate lip closures of bilabial consonants improves the perceived realism. Our proposed contributions namely Style-adaption and Lip contact loss improves our method as well as the baselines. In summary, we believe that personalized facial animations are a stepping stone towards audio-driven digital doubles.

7. Acknowledgements

This project has received funding from the Mesh Labs, Microsoft, Cambridge, UK. Further, we would like to thank Attila Juhos, Berna Kabadayi, Jalees Nehvi, Malte Prinzler and Wojciech Zielezna for their support and valuable feedback. The authors thank the International Max Planck Research School for Intelligent Systems (IMPRS-IS) for supporting Balamurugan Thambiraja.

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Imitator: Personalized Speech-driven 3D Facial Animation

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In this supplemental document, we analyze the style adaptation with respect to the length of the reference video (see Sec. 1) and show an ablation study on 2-stage style-adaptation (Sec. 2), provide additional details of the proposed architecture (see Sec. 3), and discuss ethical considerations in Sec. 4.

1. Impact of Data to Style-Adaptation:

To analyze the impact of data on the style adaptation process, we randomly sample (1, 4, 10, 20) sequences from the train set of the VOCA test subjects and perform our style adaption. Each sequence contains about 3 – 5 seconds of data. In Tab. 1, we observe that the performance on the quantitative metrics increase with the number of reference sequences. As mentioned in the main paper, even an adaptation based on a single sequence results in a significantly better animation in comparison to the baseline methods. This highlights the impact of style on the generated animations.

Fig. 1 illustrates the lip distance curve for one test sequence used in this study. We observe that the lip distance with more reference data better fits the ground truth curve.

No. Seq.	Lip-Sync ↓	Lip-max ↓	$L_2^{\text{lip}} \downarrow$	$L_2^{\text{face}} \downarrow$
1	1.48	3.96	0.1	0.9
4	1.44	3.85	0.1	0.89
10	1.43	3.55	0.09	0.76
20	1.35	3.43	0.09	0.69

Table 1: Ablation of the style adaptation w.r.t. the amount of reference sequences used. With an increasing number of data, the quantitative metrics improve. Each sequence is 3 – 5s long.

2. Ablation study on 2 stage Style-Adaptation:

Our proposed style adaptation has two stages as explained in the main paper Sec. 3.3. In the first step, we

Method	Lip-Sync ↓	Lip-max ↓	$L_2^{\text{lip}} \downarrow$	$L_2^{\text{face}} \downarrow$
Initial Style	1.95	4.8	0.12	0.85
Style code optimization	1.81	4.53	0.12	0.79
Motion basis refinement	1.44	3.85	0.1	0.89

Table 2: Quantitative analysis of the different stages in our style-adaption pipeline. Note the ablation study is conducted on our proposed architecture and style-adaption is performed on 4 sequences.

optimize for the style code and then we refine the motion basis and style code together. In Fig. 2, we show an example of the style adaptation by evaluating the lip distances throughout a sequence with a motion decoder at initialization, with optimized style code, and with a refined motion basis. While the lip distance with the generalized motion decoder is considerable, it gets significantly improved by the consecutive steps of style adaptation. After style code optimization, we observe that the amplitude and frequency of the lip distance curves start resembling the ground truth. From Tab. 2, we observe an increase in quantitative performance on *Lip-Sync* and *Lip-max* metrics. Refining the motion basis further improves the lip distance, and it is able to capture facial idiosyncrasies, like asymmetrical lip deformations. Quantitatively, it improves the metrics in the lip region significantly. However, as discussed in the main paper Sec. 5, we see a slight increase in the overall face error, when style-adaption is performed on fewer sequences ($\sim 20s$). This also gets improved when slightly more data ($\sim 50s$) is provided.

3. Architecture Details

3.1. Audio Encoder:

Similar to Faceformer[3], our audio encoder is built upon the Wav2Vec 2.0 [1] architecture to extract temporal audio features. These audio features are fed into a linear interpo-

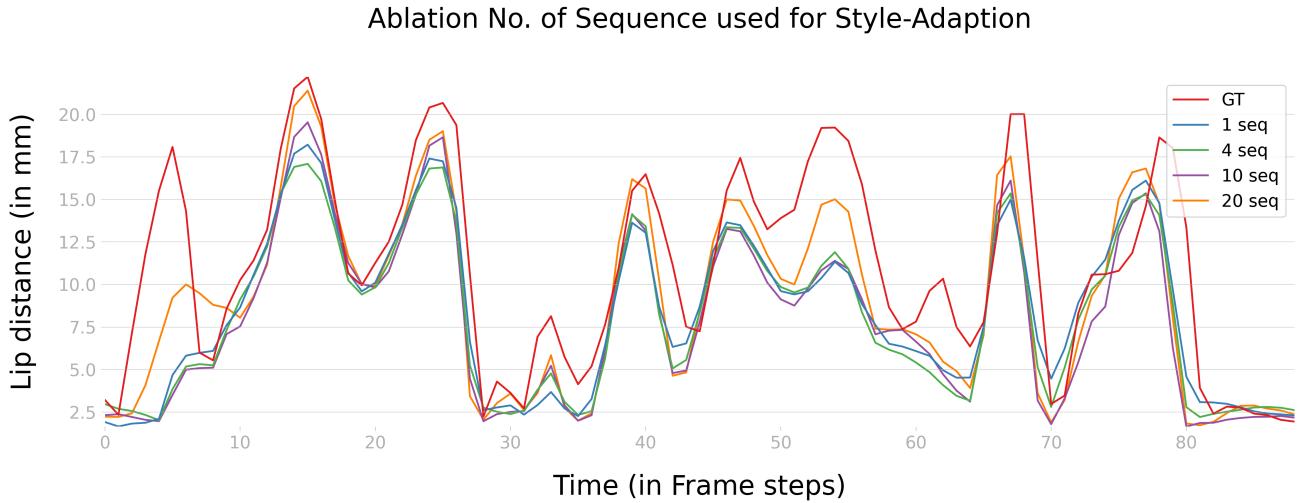


Figure 1: With an increasing number of reference data samples for style adaptation, the lip distance throughout a test sequence of VOCAsset is approaching the ground truth lip distance curve.

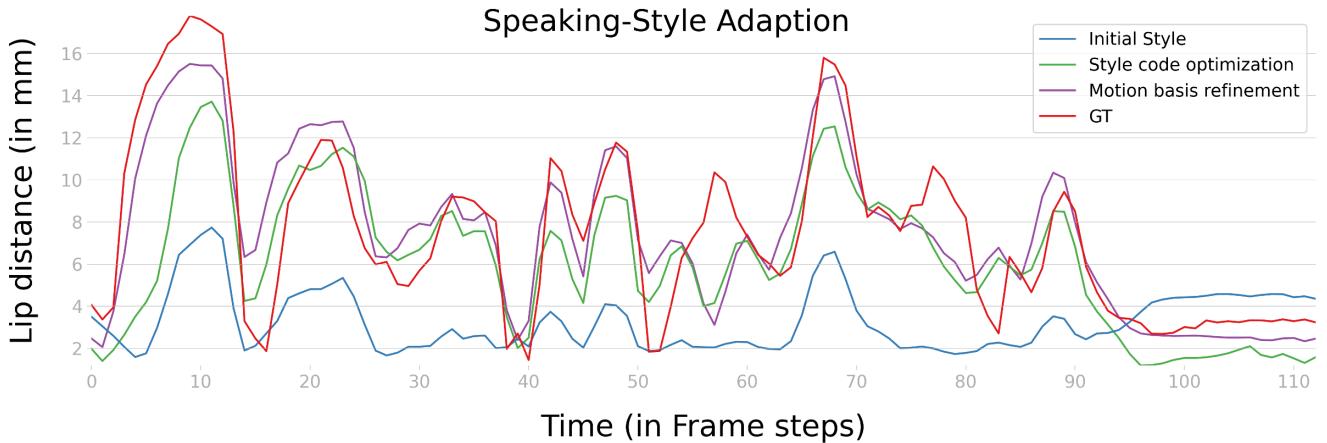


Figure 2: Analysis of style adaptation in terms of lip distance on a test sequence of the VOCAsset [2] (reference in red). Starting from an initial talking style from the training set (blue), we consecutively adapt the style code (green) and the motion basis of the motion decoder (purple).

lation layer to convert the audio frequency to the motion frequency. The interpolated outputs are then fed into 12 identical transformer encoder layers with 12 attention heads and an output dimension of 768. A final linear projection layer converts the audio features from the 768-dimension features to a 64-dimensional phoneme representation.

3.2. Auto-regressive Viseme Decoder:

Our auto-regressive viseme decoder is built on top of traditional transformer decoder layers [5]. We use a zero vector of 64-dimension as a start token to indicate the start of sequence synthesis. We first add a positional encoding of 64-dimension to the input feature and feed it to decoder

layers in the viseme decoder. For self-attention and cross-modal multi-head attention, we use 4 heads of dimension 64. Our feed forward layer dimension is 128.

Multi-Head Self-Attention: Given a sequence of positional encoded inputs \hat{h}_t , we use multi-head self-attention (self-MHA), which generates the context representation of the inputs by weighting the inputs based on their relevance. The Scaled Dot-Product attention function can be defined as mapping a query and a set of key-value pairs to an output, where queries, keys, values and outputs are vectors [5]. The output is the weighted sum of the values; the weight is computed by a compatibility function of a query with the

corresponding key. The attention can be formulated as:

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \sigma\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right)V, \quad (1)$$

where Q, K, V are the learned Queries, Keys and Values, $\sigma(\cdot)$ denotes the softmax activation function, and d_k is the dimension of the keys. Instead of using a single attention mechanism and generating one context representation, MHA uses multiple self-attention heads to jointly generate multiple context representations and attend to the information in the different context representations at different positions. MHA is formulated as follows:

$$MHA(Q, K, V) = [\text{head}_1, \dots, \text{head}_h] \cdot W^O, \quad (2)$$

with $\text{head}_i = \text{Attention}(QW_i^Q, KW_i^K, VW_i^V)$, where W^O, W_i^Q, W_i^K, W_i^V are weights related to each input variable.

Audio-Motion Multi-Head Attention The Audio-Motion Multi-Head attention aims to map the context representations from the audio encoder to the viseme representations by learning the alignment between the audio and style-agnostic viseme features. The decoder queries all the existing viseme features with the encoded audio features, which carry both the positional information and the contextual information, thus, resulting in audio context-injected viseme features. Similar to Faceformer [3], we add an alignment bias along the diagonal to the query-key attention score to add more weight to the current time audio features. The alignment bias $B^A (1 \leq i \leq t, 1 \leq j \leq KT)$ is:

$$B^A(i, j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (i = j), \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

The modified Audio-Motion Attention is represented as:

$$\text{Attention}(Q^v, K^a, V^a, B^A) = \sigma\left(\frac{Q^v(K^a)^T}{\sqrt{d_k}} + B^A\right)V^a, \quad (4)$$

where Q^v are the learned queries from viseme features, K^a the keys and V^a the values from the audio features, $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the softmax activation function, and d_k is the dimension of the keys.

3.3. Motion Decoder:

The motion decoder aims to generate 3D facial animations $\hat{y}_{1:T}$ from the style-agnostic viseme features $\hat{v}_{1:T}$ and a style embedding \hat{S}_i . Specifically, our motion decoder consists of two components, a style embedding layer and a motion synthesis block. The style linear layer takes a one-hot encoder of 8-dimension and produce a style-embedding of 64-dimension. The style-embedding is added to input viseme features and fed into 4 successive linear layers

which have a leaky-ReLU as activation. The output dimension of the 4-layer block is 64 dimensional. A final fully connected layer maps the 64-dimension input features to the 3D face deformation described as per-vertex displacements of size 15069. This layer is defining the motion deformation basis of a subject and is adapted based on a reference sequence.

Training Details: We use the ADAM optimizer with a learning rate of 1e-4 for both the style-agnostic transformer training and the style adaptation stage. During the style-agnostic transformer training, the parameters of the Wave2Vec 2.0 layers in the audio encoder are fixed. Our model is trained for 300 epochs, and the best model is chosen based on the validation loss. During the style-adaptation stage, we first generate the viseme features and keep them fixed during the style adaptation stage. Then, we optimize for the style embedding for 300 epochs. Finally, the style-embedding and final motion deformation basis is refined for another 300 epochs. For generalized training, we use the following weights $\lambda_{MSE} = 1.0$, $\lambda_{vel} = 10.0$, and $\lambda_{lip} = 5.0$. For style-adaption on the VOCAsset and external sequence, we use the $\lambda_{vel} = 1.0$ and $\lambda_{vel} = 10.0$ for best performance. Additionally, based on the speaking style of the target actor, we observed that training for longer epochs tends to improve expressiveness. However, for standard evaluation, we perform style-adaption for 300 epochs as explained earlier.

4. Broader Impact

Our proposed method aims at the synthesis of realistic-looking 3D facial animations. Ultimately, these animations can be used to drive photo-realistic digital doubles of people in audio-driven immersive telepresence applications in AR or VR. However, this technology can also be misused for so-called DeepFakes. Given a voice cloning approach, our method could generate 3D facial animations that drive an image synthesis method. This can lead to identity theft, cyber mobbing, or other harmful criminal acts. We believe that conducting research openly and transparently could raise awareness of the misuse of such technology. We will share our implementation to enable research on digital multi-media forensics. Specifically, synthesis methods are needed to produce the training data for forgery detection [4].

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