



Controllable 3D Generative Adversarial Face Model via Disentangling Shape and Appearance

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Abstract

3D face modeling has been an active area of research in computer vision and computer graphics, fueling applications ranging from facial expression transfer in virtual avatars to synthetic data generation. Existing 3D deep learning generative models (e.g., VAE, GANs) allow generating compact face representations (both shape and texture) that can model non-linearities in the shape and appearance space (e.g., scatter effects, specularities,..). However, they lack the capability to control the generation of subtle expressions. This paper proposes a new 3D face generative model that can decouple identity and expression and provides granular control over expressions. In particular, we propose using a pair of supervised auto-encoder and generative adversarial networks to produce high-quality 3D faces, both in terms of appearance and shape. Experimental results in the generation of 3D faces learned with holistic expression labels, or Action Unit (AU) labels, show how we can decouple identity and expression; gaining fine-control over expressions while preserving identity. 1

1. Introduction

Photo-realistic 3D face generation has sparked a lot of interest in the domain of computer graphics, and computer vision, fueled by applications such as creating virtual avatars [36], face recognition [4, 19], 3D face animation [26, 54], expression transfer [29, 50, 41], and using generative models to create synthetic training data [46] to improve the performance of down-stream tasks in computer vision such as 3D face reconstruction [20]. Computer graphics or machine learning generative models (or a combination of two) can

create synthetic 3D faces and both have their own set of advantages and disadvantages [47, 57, 51]. In general, physics and anatomical models with firm control over expression (e.g., blend shape), camera position, skin texture, or lighting assisted production of 3D faces is done using computer graphics. However, for these computer graphics models to work well, access to high-quality assets is required, which often necessitates a significant amount of artistic labor, both costly and time-consuming. However, approaches based on generative models (e.g., GANs [22], VAE [30]) learned from visual data can generate instances of 3D faces automatically and provide photo-realistic models with natural image statistics useful for many applications [44, 59, 15, 36]. They do, however, need a sufficient amount of well-balanced data to learn from, and model training to achieve fine-grained control over features of interest like subtle expressions, skin tone, or lighting which is sometimes more challenging.

This paper addresses the issues of granular control of 3D faces using generative models. Specifically, this work proposes a new 3D shape and appearance generative model that can synthesize high-quality 3D faces with granular control over expressions. Fig. 1 illustrates the capabilities of the model. The model can decouple identity and expression factors and generate fine-controllable expressions of a given identity in both shape and UV texture domains. The 3D generative model must overcome several challenges to reach these capabilities. First, the model has to decouple identity and expression. Maintaining the identity while varying expression is critical for applications such as facial expression transfer [39, 41]. We achieve this by providing high-level labels in the training set as holistic expression labels or action units. Recall that manually labeling the intensity of expression consistently is highly challenging and time-consuming. However, our method can synthesize expressions over a range of intensities (see Fig. 1.(c,d)). Second, the data's

¹https://aashishrai3799.github.io/3DFaceCAM/

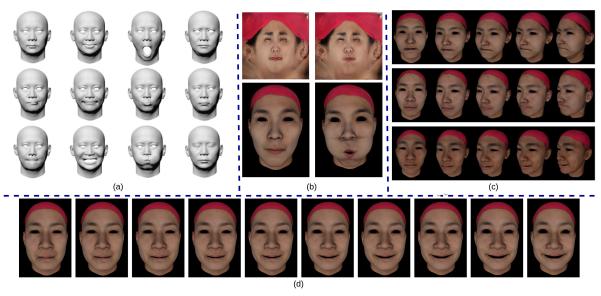


Figure 1. Our generator's uncurated set of shapes, textures and rendered faces with the FaceScape dataset[56]. (a) Shapes of different expressions belonging to the same identity. (b) Expression-specific generated textures and corresponding rendered faces. (c) Each row shows multi-view extrapolation of the expression intensity while preserving the identity. (d) Facial expression (Smile) synthesis with different monotonic intensity.

high-dimensional input (e.g., tens of thousands vertices with their 3D coordinates for each mesh) combined with relatively small-sized training data can lead to over-fitting and lack of generalization. To address this issue, we propose a supervised auto-encoder (SAE) to find compact and discriminative representations for expressions and identities in a statistically meaningful way. This approach constructs regions in the identity and expression latent space where similar data points come together and cluster. This results in a simplified sampling procedure for generating 3D faces. Fig. 1.(a) shows how our method decouples identity and expression. Third, modeling the complex distribution of the data represented by the SAE and estimating how they are generated in a probabilistic framework is not a trivial task. Our framework adopts a conditional GAN (cGAN) [38] that learns to sample from the disentangled subspaces of the SAE. Here, we chose cGAN as we aim to control the type and intensity of expressions when generating new identities. Similarly, we use another cGAN trained on high-resolution texture maps to synthesize facial appearance as our statistical representation of the facial texture. See Fig. 1.(b) and (c) for the generated UV texture maps and rendered photo-realistic 3D faces, respectively.

2. Previous Work

Active appearance [13, 21, 17], kernel models [24], 3D Morphable Models (3DMM) [6], and their deep learning extensions [15] are common models for data-driven 3D face synthesis. In the early 90s', 3D face modeling via 3DMM

was a common practice for its power in compact representation and providing a strong prior on the shape variations with respect to their natural factors (e.g., identity and expression). The original 3DMM [6] disentangles geometry, expression [10], and colored texture using PCA models. These models and their variants [9, 34, 53, 7, 8, 10, 34] are some of the most well-known approaches for modeling facial textures and shapes independently. However, PCA and its variants are linear and cannot effectively capture high-frequency signals. Thus, it is hard for 3DMM to model the subtle differences in facial shapes and textures with linear models.

In contrast to linear models, kernel and deep-learning methods can nonlinearly model the variability of shape and texture. Tan et al. [49] proposed a method based on VAE [49, 5, 30] to efficiently compress and represent several classes of 3D shapes. The idea here is to model the deformation of meshes in a local coordinate frame [35] and reconstruct the positions of the mesh using a different linear model. Ranjan et al. [43] used non-linear models based on convolutional mesh autoencoders and graph convolutions to improve the expressiveness of face geometry. Even though these models can achieve better reconstruction than linear models, disentangling facial identity and expression is overlooked. Several works [2, 5, 3, 19, 27] have focused on disentangling facial identity and expression in the architecture of the network. The state-of-the-art works in this line of research include [10, 34]. While most of these approaches learn to implicitly disentangle identity and expression, some other methods explicitly include the disentanglement in the design of style, and architecture [37, 41, 11, 33]. While [11, 33] are similar to each other w.r.t the architecture design, [11] additionally decouples the identity and expression in the latent spaces, and use a so-called joint decoder to model identity-specific expression deformations.

Recently, GANs have been used for 3D face representation, generation and expression style transfer [39, 41]. Even though [39] obtains decent results for reconstruction, it is not able to transfer the expressions properly. This is because the identity and expression factors are not explicitly decoupled due to a shared latent space. However, [41] addresses this issue by using image-to-image translation networks in the 3D domain. [14] first fits a 3DMM to images and then applies GAN to complete the missing parts obtained from their UV maps. On the other hand, [25, 55] take a 3D face as input and then learn to improve its geometry using photometric information via a GAN. [48, 46] learn identity variations by training a GAN on the UV-maps. These methods ignore to model the non-linear variations and the correlation existing between identity and expression. However, [2] considers the non-linear variations and this correlation and then decouples them using the GAN.

Besides modeling 3D facial shapes, GANs have also been used to generate 3D facial textures [48]. [20] replaces 3DMM with a GAN to reconstruct the texture while keeping the statistical models to reconstruct the shape. [31] uses an image-to-image translation technique using GANs to generate per-pixel diffuse and specular components from a texture map. However, [39] models 3D shapes using GANs in a parametric UV map. While [39, 43] disregard the correlation between shape and texture, [19] considers the correlation and normal map to generate high-fidelity 3D facial images. On the other hand, [45] and [18] use style transfer GANs for generating photo-realistic images of 3DMM.

3. Method

This section describes the proposed generative model for 3D shape and appearance. The overview of our 3D generative model is shown in Fig. 2.

3.1. 3D Shape modeling

The shape component is generated in two steps, the Supervised Auto-Encoder(SAE) and the GAN.

In the first step, as shown in Fig.2, we train an SAE, which projects shapes into two low dimensional embedding subspaces, one of which is dedicated to capture the identity factor while the other is used to capture the expression factor. The SAE contains two encoders that share no parameters, allowing us to decouple and disentangle the representation of the identity and expression factors. However, the SAE shares the same decoder that supervises the two encoders, to preserve the correlation between the identity and expression factors while reconstructing the mesh.

The SAE uses the classification loss on identity/expression classes as a supervision signal. Precisely, this supervision separates classes of expressions and identities and brings similar expression and identity factors together in the embedding spaces. This gives us a prior on the identity and expression embedding spaces and simplifies the sampling procedure.

Let x be the original input mesh, with $\mu_{exp} = \mathcal{E}_e(\theta_e, x)$ and $\mu_{id} = \mathcal{E}_i(\theta_i, x)$ being the expression and identity encoders with parameters of θ_e , and θ_i which take x as input and project it into the identity and expression subspaces, respectively. Let $\mathcal{D}(\theta_d, \mu)$ be the decoder with parameters of θ_d which takes μ as input where $\mu = (\mu_{id}, \mu_{exp})$ is the concatenation of the two encoders' outputs. The objective function for training the SAE including parameters $\theta = \{\theta_e, \theta_i, \theta_d, w_e, w_i\}$ is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{SAE}(\theta, x) = ||x - \mathcal{D}(\theta_d, \mu)||_1 + \mathcal{L}_c(w_i \mathcal{E}_i(\theta_i, x), y_i) + \mathcal{L}_c(w_e \mathcal{E}_e(\theta_e, x), y_e),$$
(1)

where $\mathcal{L}_c(.)$ denotes the softmax cross-entropy, y_i and y_e are the one-hot identity and expression labels, respectively. w_e , and w_i are the parameters of the identity and expression classification layers, respectively.

To show the superiority of our SAE, we compare its identity and expression embedding spaces against an unsupervised AE, with the same architecture as the SAE. The identity and expression embedding spaces are computed with t-SNE [52] as shown in Fig. 3. As expected, in Fig. 3(a) and (c), both expression and identity embeddings can be seen clustered when using SAE. There are 20 clusters in the expression embedding space, and each cluster includes 847 different identities per expression as shown in Fig. 3(a). Fig. 3(c) shows the identity embedding space, which has 847 clusters and each cluster includes 20 different expressions per identity. However, both expression and identity embedding spaces are mixed and noisy when using unsupervised AE, as shown in Fig. 3(b) and Fig. 3(d), respectively. Note that there are 20 expressions for each of the 847 identities in the dataset used in this experiment. To see results of t-SNE on testing samples please refer to Appendix 1 of supplement.

In the second step, as shown in Fig. 2, we leverage a conditional GAN (cGAN) framework to sample from the distribution of the identity and expression factors represented in the embedded spaces obtained in the first step. The cGAN learns a mapping from an input y and z to the output $\mu: G(y,z): \{y,z\} \to \mu$. In this paper, we use a cGAN to learn a mapping function from z, and expression/identity class label codes to real data from the disentangled subspaces learned from the SAE. We use cGAN as we want to control the type of expressions when generating new identities. Specifically, the cGAN takes as input a vector $(z_{id}, z_{exp}, z_{noise})$ which is the concatenation of the identity code $z_{id} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ of dimension n_{id} , expression

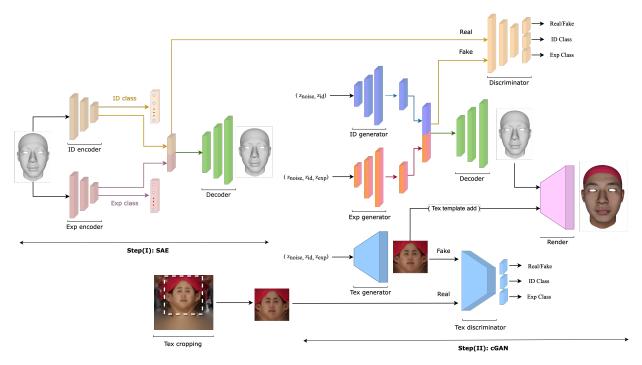


Figure 2. Overview of our 3D generative model. The first step includes training an SAE, which projects shapes into two low dimensional embedding subspaces, one of which is dedicated to the identity factor while the other to the expression factor. In the second step, we utilize a cGAN network to sample shape and texture from the distribution of the identity and expression factors. A renderer is then used to generate photorealistic faces.

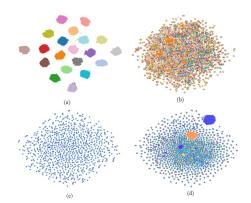


Figure 3. Visualization of embedding spaces on FaceScape dataset [56] by t-SNE: (a) expression embedding using SAE, (b) expression embedding using unsupervised AE, (c) identity embedding using SAE, and (d) identity embedding using unsupervised AE. There are 20 colors in each figure indicating 20 expressions.

code $z_{exp} \sim p_{exp}$, where p_{exp} denotes the distribution of the expression classes of dimension n_{exp} , and $z_{noise} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. Similar to SAE, we use two separate generators for identity and expression factors $(\mu'_{id}, \, \mu'_{exp})$ as we aim to decouple them during the generation of the fake samples. However, we use a shared discriminator which takes concatenation of the two generators' outputs, $(\mu' = (\mu'_{id}, \mu'_{exp}))$ and tends to preserve their correlation when generating the fake identity

and expression embedding.

We also add identity and expression classification losses in the adversarial loss so that the discriminator returns the probability of a mesh representation belonging to a predefined class label, as it benefits the GAN's performance [40]. This loss encourages both the generator and the discriminator to distinguish whether two expressions or identities with the same embedding code (i.e., z_{id} , z_{exp}) are perceptually similar. Moreover, these losses cause our model to decouple the identity and expression factors further because the classification of one factor (e.g., identity) is independent of the choice of the labels of the other factor (e.g., expression). In our case, the two generators take both the z_{noise} and corresponding expression/identity class label codes. Thus, the identity generator takes z_{noise} and z_{id} , and returns the fake identity code: $\mu'_{id} = G_{id}(z_{noise}, z_{id})$ and the expression generator takes z_{noise} , z_{id} and z_{exp} , and returns the fake expression code: $\mu'_{exp} = G_{exp}(z_{noise}, z_{id}, z_{exp})$. Adding z_{id} to the expression generator helps control identity-specific fine details. On the other hand, the discriminator gives probability distribution (s) over the source data which is either real $\mu = (\mu_{id}, \mu_{exp})$, or fake $\mu' = (\mu'_{id}, \mu'_{exp})$ and the probability distribution over the expression (c_{exp}) and identity (c_{id}) class labels which are, $p(s|\mu)$, $p(c_{id}|\mu)$, and $p(c_{exp}|\mu)$, respectively. Therefore, our complete loss function for training each cGAN contains two terms: log-likelihood of the

correct source, \mathcal{L}_s , and log-likelihood of the correct class label for expression, \mathcal{L}_{exp} and identity, \mathcal{L}_{id} .

$$\mathcal{L}_{s} = \mathbb{E}_{\mu \sim p_{data}(\mu)} [\log p(s=1|\mu)] + \\ \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_{z}(z)} [\log p(s=0|\mu')],$$
(2)

where s=1, and s=0 denote the label of real and fake data, respectively. Here, z denotes concatenation of z_{noise} , and corresponding expression/identity class label codes z_{exp}/z_{id} . $p_{data}(\mu)$ denotes real distribution of data represented by our SAE: $\mu=(\mu_{id},\mu_{exp})$,

$$\mathcal{L}_{id} = \mathbb{E}_{\mu_{id} \sim p_{data}(\mu_{id})} [\log p(c = c_{id} | \mu_{id})] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z(z)} [\log p(c = c_{id} | \mu'_{id})],$$
(3)

$$\mathcal{L}_{exp} = \mathbb{E}_{\mu_{exp} \sim p_{data}(\mu_{exp})} [\log p(c = c_{exp} | \mu_{exp})] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z(z)} [\log p(c = c_{exp} | \mu'_{exp})],$$
(4)

where the discriminator is trained to maximize $\mathcal{L}_s + \mathcal{L}_{id} + \mathcal{L}_{exp}$, while identity/ expression generators are trained to minimize $\mathcal{L}_s - \mathcal{L}_{id}$ and $\mathcal{L}_s - \mathcal{L}_{exp}$, respectively.

3.2. Texture Generation

For texture generation, we used a progressive GAN [28] and conditioned it on the identity and expression code. The shape and texture generators are trained with the same input codes (z_{id} , z_{exp} , z_{noise}). This enables our model to correlate shapes and the corresponding textures and generate them for rendering. See Fig. 2 for details of the architecture.

The input to the progressive generator is a vector with three components, namely $(z_{id}, z_{exp}, z_{noise})$. Each z_{id} is randomly sampled from a Gaussian distribution and is fixed corresponding to a specific identity class throughout the training. z_{exp} is a one-hot vector that specifies the training sample's expression. z_{noise} is a vector randomly sampled from the Gaussian distribution but varies during training. z_{id} and z_{exp} are kept identical for both the shape and texture generators. The last layer of the discriminator is split into three branches to get 1) real or fake, 2) expression class, and 3) identity class. We used the WGAN-GP [23] loss to train the generator and discriminator in a progressive setting. Similar to cGAN for shape generation, cross-entropy identity/expression losses are added to our adversarial loss so that the discriminator returns the probability of the textures belonging to a pre-defined class label for improving the performance. See Fig. 5 in Appendix 1 of supplement for synthesized texture maps. There is also a texture preprocessing step including cropping the frontal portion of the face to avoid the redundant noise in the remaining parts of the texture maps, which can better stabilize the training of the texture generator. Thus, the texture generated from our model is first added to the template texture before rendering.

As shown in Fig. 5, z_{id} and z_{exp} allow us to control the identity and expression of the textures. By fixing the



Figure 4. Randomly synthesized faces from our method showcasing diversity in age, gender, skin color, facial features and face shape.

 z_{exp} , we can fix the expression and change the identity by varying the z_{id} and vice-versa. Fig. 6 in Appendix 1 shows an example of meshes and rendered images of a synthesized identity with different expressions generated by our model. Fig. 4 shows synthesized rendered faces from our method using randomly sampled latent codes. It is interesting to note the kind of diversity our method can generate in terms of skin color, age, gender, facial features and face shape.

4. Experiments

Here, we describe the experimental validation. The datasets, pre-processing, and implementation details are first described. The first experiment shows how we can generate new identities and expressions. Specifically, we show how our method can generate fine-controllable expressions, generate mixed expressions, transfer expressions to new identities, and perform style editing. The second experiment evaluates the quality of the 3D shape generative model using quantitative metrics (diversity, specificity) described in [1]. Finally, we show how our method can be used to synthesize controlled subtle 3D facial expressions.

4.1. Datasets

FaceScape dataset. We conduct our experiments on FaceScape dataset [56], which is a large-scale 3D face dataset and includes 16940 (with 847 identities and 20 expressions) topologically uniformed 3D face models with displacement maps and 4K high quality texture maps. Each mesh has 26317 vertices with corresponding 3D coordinates.

BP4D-Spontaneous dataset. To demonstrate that our model works well with Facial Action Coding System (FACS), specifically with Action Units (AUs), and can handle highly diverse data, we used the BP4D-Spontaneous dataset [58] to conduct further experiments. This dataset is a collection of 41 diverse identities with many spontaneous video frames for 8 tasks. It contains unregistered meshes and textures along with 2D images for each frame and has 34 labeled AUs. We uniformly sampled around 50 frames from each task to get 17790 frames. We then used PRNet [16] to generate frontal face registered meshes and corresponding textures of each frame. Each generated mesh has 43867

vertices with corresponding 3D Cartesian coordinates. The textures are 256x256 resolution.

4.2. Implementation details and architectures

Shape generation: The input of our identity generator G_{id} is (z_{id}, z_{noise}) and the input of our expression generator G_{exp} is $(z_{id}, z_{exp}, z_{noise})$ such that the expression is conditioned on identity (refer Appendix 1 for details). The output of our identity generator is ID embedding vector and the output of our expression generator is Exp embedding vector. Both generators are fully-connected networks. The discriminator D consists of a common branch followed by 3 branches in the last layer. The first branch is to determine whether input sample is real or fake, the second branch is to predict the identity class, and the third branch is to predict which expression class an input sample belongs to.

As for the auto-encoder, the architectures of our identity and expression encoder are both fully-connected networks. The output of identity and expression encoder is 2-fold: one is for identity or expression embedding, the other is to predict the identity or expression class. The architecture of the encoders/decoder, and generators/discriminator are provided in detail in Table 1, 2, 3, 4 in the supplement, respectively. We render the correlated texture and shape with MeshLab [12], which is an open-source rendering tool.

Texture generation: The input of texture generator is an embedding vector $(z_{id}, z_{exp}, z_{noise})$. A large chunk of texture maps within FaceScape dataset have blurred eyes to preserve the identity. This blurriness around the eyes results in artifacts. To avoid such artifacts, we used only those textures that do not have blurred eyes, which results in 359 subjects totaling around 7k texture maps for training. We progressively [28] trained the model starting from a resolution of 16×16 and progressing up to 512×512 (doubling the resolution in each step) to generate textures that can result in photo-realistic rendered images. Our generator and discriminator architectures are similar to Progressive GAN [28]. The only difference is we went up to a maximum resolution of 512×512 starting with z_{noise} of 256.

4.3. 3D shape synthesis

Here, we describe experiments that sample from the identity, expression spaces, and illustrate the semantic properties of our embedding by interpolating the expression space.

Identity Synthesis: One of the benefits of the proposed ID generator G_{id} is that it can produce different identities by changing the input code of identity while keeping the input code of Exp generator G_{exp} fixed. Fig. 5 shows examples of different identities generated by our model. Along the identity axis, different identity codes z_{id} are randomly sampled from a Gaussian distribution. The choice of the conditional generator also allows smooth interpolation between two identities by linearly interpolating their identity codes,

Table 1. Quantitative metrics of our method w.r.t normalized Diversity(DIV, DIV-ID and DIV-EXP) and absolute Specificity(SP) on Facecape dataset. Higher is better, except for specificity. Level 1,5,10 shows the level of extrapolation for the expressions. *One-hot* and *Gaussian* specifies z_{id} type. SP values are in mm.

	DIV ↑	DIV-ID↑	DIV-EXP↑	SP↓
Training data	1	1	1	-
3DMM [2]	0.72	0.59	0.57	2.30
MAE [3]	0.79	0.28	0.75	2.00
CoMA [41]	0.69	0.52	0.58	2.47
Victoria et al. [1]	0.96	0.58	0.84	2.01
$\overline{Ours(One-hot)}$				
Level 1	0.77	0.81	0.37	0.84
Level 5	0.76	0.78	1.13	0.86
Level 10	0.77	0.76	2.03	0.94
Ours(Gaussian)				
Level 1	0.75	0.75	0.8	0.84
Level 5	0.86	0.74	3.83	0.86
Level 10	1.26	0.73	7.86	0.94

as shown in Fig. 8.

Expression Synthesis: As shown in Fig. 5, the Exp generator G_{exp} allows us to synthesize shapes with various expressions by varying the expression code z_{exp} while keeping the input code of ID generator G_{id} fixed. Note that in these results, we also show that the expressions can readily be transferred from one identity to another by changing the z_{id} code in the G_{id} while keeping all other values fixed. Similar to the identity space, the model also allows smooth interpolation between two expressions without changing the identity by linearly interpolating their expression codes. Our model can also semantically control the intensity of each expression by extrapolation, analogous to learning its own implicit blendshapes [32], and produces plausible variations in some ranges we defined, which can be seen in Fig. 6.

Our model also makes the interpolation between different expressions possible. Fig. 7 shows the result of superimposing two expressions to produce a new natural looking mixed expression. This feature can also be used for style editing where our model can transfer fine-details associated in a shape's identity by transferring the identity code z_{id} from one identity to another in the expression generator when these two shapes have the same expression code z_{exp} . See Appendix 1 of supplement for more details and examples.

Quantitative evaluation of 3D shape synthesis: The performance of 2D GANs is often measured using the FID score, which is not that meaningful for 3D models. Similar to [1], the quantitative metrics of our model include diversity and specificity of the generated 3D shape samples.

Diversity: One of the important indicators about a generative model is to what extent can we generate samples showing enough diversity, which is measured by calculating the mean vertex distance over n pairs of generated samples. The higher value of diversity we get, the more diverse samples our model can generate. Here, we use n=10000.

Specificity: Diversity alone is not enough because even contorted shapes (irregular human faces) can contribute to di-

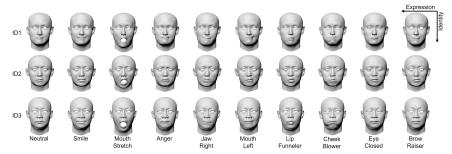


Figure 5. Novel Identity Synthesis: Synthesizing a set of novel identities along with the desired expressions by sampling from latent space.

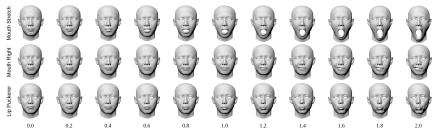


Figure 6. **Varying intensity of Expressions by Extrapolation:** Faces show smooth increase in expressiveness as we vary the intensity along the expression dimension.



Figure 7. Superimposing expressions with mixed expressions.



Figure 8. Smooth linear interpolation across identity (top) and expression (bottom).

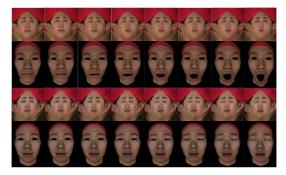


Figure 9. Texture intensity variation along with rendered images.

versity significantly. Thus, specificity is provided to measure the distribution shift between the generated data and the original training data. Ideally, the distribution of the generated

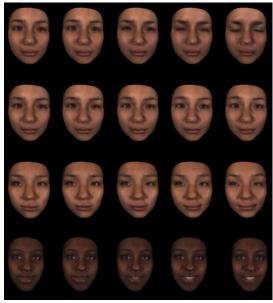


Figure 10. We show that our model works well with a highly-diverse dataset (BP4D-spontaneous) and can be used with Action Units (AUs) too. The first three rows shows the extrapolation along the specified AU. We can also synthesize the expressions by combining different AUs. For example, the last row shows "Happiness/Smile" as a result of combining AU-6 and AU-12.

data is expected to be as close as possible to the distribution of the original training data. Samples are randomly generated and we calculate the mean value over the mean vertex distances between each generated sample and each member of training set. Here, we use n=1000. Comparing results using these metrics are reported in Table. 1.

Table 2. In this table, we show quantitative reconstruction comparisons of our method against SOTA on Facewarehouse dataset.

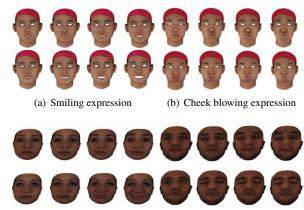
	$E_{avd}(mm)$		
Method	Mean ↓	Median ↓	
Bilinear [8]	0.993	0.998	
FLAME [32]	0.882	0.905	
CoMA [41]	0.825	0.811	
Jiang et al. [25]	0.472	0.381	
Chandran et al. [9]	0.376	0.351	
Ours	0.293	0.279	

4.4. Shape-texture synthesis of subtle expressions

We examine the potential application in controlling the intensity of expression and action unit for Facescape and BP4D-Spontaneous datasets respectively, with synthetic images using our method. To be specific, given a z_{id} and different intensities of z_{exp} belonging to the same expression or combination of AUs, we can generate the mesh and texture with different intensities corresponding to the z_{id} and z_{exp} . This allows us to obtain granular control over the expression intensities of the synthesized faces in Facescape. Fig. 9 shows examples of intensity variation of the texture maps along with the corresponding rendered images. We also extend this framework to incorporate controlling the intensity of AUs using the BP4D-Spontaneous dataset, the results of which are shown in Fig. 10.

To demonstrate the effectiveness of our method, we introduce GANimation [42]² for comparison, which has shown remarkable achievements in animating 2D images with the facial expression of different intensities. GANimation requires AU intensities corresponding to the rendered images as expression labels. Therefore, a common facial landmark detection tool, Openface³ was used to detect 17 AUs for each image. However, the facial landmarks detected by Openface are not always accurate, especially for the expression "mouth stretch" in Facescape. Thus, we train our model and GANimation on the rendered FaceScape dataset, excluding the "mouth stretch" expression for a fair comparison. For BP4D-Spontaneous dataset, though 5 AUs are labeled with intensity, it does not meet the requirements for GANimation. Therefore, we still leverage Openface for the rendered images from BP4D-Spontaneous to generate AUs intensities.

For comparison with GANimation, we adopted a pretrained GANimation model and fine-tuned it. Aforementioned rendered images for both datasets and corresponding generated labels of AU intensities are leveraged for finetuning. We randomly generated 20 new identities from our method for both datasets and used the rendered neutral images as the source during inference. After generating 17 intensities of AUs for the target images, we used GANimation to transfer the newly generated neutral faces to the target expression with different intensities from 0 to 2 and compared the results with our model.



(c) AU12: Lip corner puller

(d) AU7: Eye close

Figure 11. (a,b) are results of FaceScape, while (c,d) belongs to BP4D-Spontaneous. In each sub-figure, the first row is the results of GANimation, while the second is ours. From the first to the fourth column, the level of intensities are 0, 1, 1.5, and 2 respectively.

The comparison results are shown in Fig. 11. For the Facescape results, our method can manipulate the expressions better, especially when the level of intensity is beyond 1. For example, in Fig. 11 (a), the mouth opens larger for smiling than GANimation. Another observation is that GANimation can produce noticeable artifacts, as can be seen in Fig. 11 (b). For the BP4D-Spontaneous dataset, our method can also manipulate the level of action unit better. As can be inferred from Fig. 11 (c,d), our method can extrapolate along the AU without artifacts. However, similar to FaceScape, GANimation creates artifacts, and in this case, it sometimes creates faces that are hard to be recognized as human faces. The reason for the difference in performance is that our method can disentangle the identity, and controls the expression geometrically while maintaining 3D consistency.

5. Conclusion

We proposed a new framework that uses a pair of supervised Auto-Encoder (SAE) and a cGAN to synthesize high-quality textures with high-frequency details and shapes, delivering granular control over the expressions. The SAE explicitly uses two encoders to non-linearly map the 3D facial meshes into two compact, disentangled identity and expression subspaces in a supervised manner. The two encoders share no parameters, allowing us to decouple the identity and expression factors completely. However, the correlation between identity and expression representations is maintained by sharing the same decoder while reconstructing the original shapes. While the sampling from the disentangled subspaces learned by the SAE space is not trivial, our method uses a cGAN to provide a normalized sampling scheme. Likewise, the framework uses another cGAN trained on high-resolution texture maps as our statistical representation of the facial textures for rendering images.

²https://github.com/donydchen/ganimation_replicate

³https://github.com/TadasBaltrusaitis/OpenFace

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