

Figure 1. Our general purpose motion prior consists of a latent space of human motions and is learned using a hierarchical motion variational autoencoder (HM-VAE). Our approach is task-generic and can be directly adopted to a wide range of applications. *Left:* Motion interpolation and completion can be accomplished by traversing the latent space. *Right:* Noisy pose estimation can be refined by projecting noisy inputs into our latent space and decoding back. And a latent vector in the learned latent space is corresponding to a valid motion sequence.

Abstract

A deep generative model that describes human motions can benefit a wide range of fundamental computer vision and graphics tasks, such as providing robustness to video-based human pose estimation, predicting complete body movements for motion capture systems during occlusions, and assisting key frame animation with plausible move-ments. In this paper, we present a method for learning com-plex human motions independent of specific tasks using a combined global and local latent space to facilitate coarse and fine-grained modeling. Specifically, we propose a hi-erarchical motion variational autoencoder (HM-VAE) that consists of a 2-level hierarchical latent space. While the global latent space captures the overall global body motion, the local latent space enables to capture the refined poses of the different body parts. We demonstrate the effectiveness of our hierarchical motion variational autoencoder in a variety of tasks including video-based human pose estimation, motion completion from partial observations, and motion synthesis from sparse key-frames. Even though, our model has not been trained for any of these tasks specifically, it provides superior performance than task-specific alternatives. Our general-purpose human motion prior model can fix corrupted human body animations and generate complete movements from incomplete observations.

1. Introduction

The modeling of human motions is a core component for many vision tasks, including pose estimation, action recognition, motion synthesis, and motion prediction. Several recent work have demonstrated new capabilities for generating complex body movements and capturing motion from unconstrained videos [23, 21, 55, 5, 8, 37, 20, 36]. While robustness and accuracy is constantly evolving for these methods, highly challenging scenes, occlusions, and body poses can still result in corrupted animations and noise.

Conventional techniques for reducing artifacts, include temporal filtering [19], inverse kinematics [51, 39, 10] and statistical human motion priors [48, 18, 25, 2]. While effective in reducing unwanted jitters and implausible poses, these methods do not generalize well to complex motions and the results are often inaccurate w.r.t. the ground truth.

To address this challenge, deep learning-based motion

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108 priors were proposed which are particularly effective in rep-109 resenting complex motion variations [16, 15, 23, 31]. These 110 priors are generally designed for predetermined tasks, such 111 as 3D pose estimation from a video, and a common prob-112 lem is to be able to cover all possible input cases during 113 training, such as occlusions, motion blur, etc. Ideally, we 114 could build a prior model that describes the space of plausi-115 ble human body movements, independently of the applica-116 tion and simply plug this model into any system. Training 117 such model would simply consist of collecting high-quality 118 motion capture data (task-generic), instead of fitting for ex-119 ample 3D models to an image (task-specific).

120 We introduce a generalized motion prior, that learns 121 complex human body motions from high-fidelity motion 122 capture data [32]. Similar to the work of [54] who devel-123 oped a deep optimized prior for 3D modeling, our prior 124 for motion is a general purpose one. We present a deep 125 generative model based on a joint global and local latent 126 space representation that can accurately capture the poses 127 of different body parts while also modeling the global cor-128 relations across the body joints. Specifically, we adopt a 129 two-level hierarchical motion variational autoencoder (HM-130 VAE) which maps the human motion to global and local 131 latent spaces simultaneously. Our HM-VAE model adopts 132 the recently proposed skeleton-aware architecture [1] and 133 defines the global and local latent spaces via direct pooling 134 and unpooling operations on the skeleton structure. While 135 our HM-VAE successfully models the local human motion, 136 we introduce an additional trajectory prediction component 137 to model global motions. Taking local joint positions as in-138 put, our trajectory model estimates the root joint velocity 139 at each timestep, enabling us to recover human motions in 140 world space. 141

We show the generality and effectiveness of our human 142 motion prior on various applications. First, we show that 143 our task-generic model can refine human motions predicted 144 from video [23, 21] by mapping noisy predictions into our 145 motion prior latent space. We also demonstrate that our 146 model can perform motion completion given partial obser-147 vations (e.g., the upper body motion only) or motion syn-148 thesis given sparse keyframes. In both of these tasks, we 149 optimize for both the global and local latent variables to 150 match the partial observations and restore complete plausi-151 ble motion sequences. While our model is not trained for 152 any of these tasks specifically, it outperforms task-specific 153 alternatives both qualitatively and quantitatively. 154

Our contributions are as follows. First, we present an effective task-generic motion prior model, that can improve the performance of a wide range of applications. Second, we propose a two-level hierarchical motion variational autoencoder (HM-VAE) that consists of a skeleton-aware architecture, allowing it to accurately capture the local motion of body parts and the global correlation between them. Fi-

nally, we introduce a trajectory prediction module to model the global trajectory conditioned on the local body motion.

2. Related Work

Deep Learning Based Priors. The ability of deep neural networks to model data priors has sparked research in a variety of domains. Deep Image Prior (DIP) [43] shows that a generator network without any learning is an effective prior for image restoration. Given randomly initialized weights, the neural network is able to perform image denoising or super resolution via optimization defined by a task-dependent energy term and a regularizer. A similar idea is proposed and validated in the video domain [26], by training a network to mimic specific image operators in a single test video, the learned video prior is able to eliminate temporal inconsistencies in various video processing tasks. Besides discovering priors in the 2D domain, the ability to capture 3D priors is also demonstrated in recent works [12, 54]. Point2Mesh [12] randomly samples a fixed vector and optimizes the network parameters to reconstruct a mesh with geometric details and showcases the effectiveness of self-prior. Deep Optimized Priors [54] propose to learn a pre-trained prior first which then serves as initialization for optimizing both the latent vector and the decoder parameters given a task-specific objective and regularization loss. In this work, we investigate data-driven priors in the human motion domain and validate the effectiveness of our method by applying it to various human motion tasks without explicitly training for any specific tasks.

Generative Motion Modeling. With the recent success 193 of learning based methods, several works have focused on 194 generative models for motion synthesis. Martinez et al. [33] 195 propose a recurrent neural network model for generating 196 future human motion by predicting future joint velocities 197 and adding them to previous joint positions. MT-VAE [53] 198 propose a probabilistic recurrent neural network method for 199 generating multiple future human motions. Aksan et al. [3] 200 propose to predict future human motion by exploiting the 201 kinematic structure in human bodies. Following the auto-202 regressive generative model formulation, Motion Trans-203 formers [27] are introduced to model the future pose distri-204 bution along with a discrete pose representation, leveraging 205 the advantage of the Transformer [45] architecture. Motion-206 VAE [29] models the future pose distribution given previous 207 pose using a variational autoencoder (VAE) [22] approach. 208 Normalizing flows is another category of generative models 209 recently applied to human motion modeling. MoGlow [14] 210 uses normalizing flows for motion modeling and achieve re-211 alistic motion generation taking root trajectory as the con-212 ditioning signal. Recent work also address the problem of 213 214 motion in-betweening from a generative modeling perspective. Long-term motion in-betweening [57] uses a genera-215

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216 tive adversarial neural network (GAN) [9] approach to gen-217 erate human motion given sparse key-frames. Robust Mo-218 tion in-betweening [13] employs an LSTM to generate a 219 motion sequence given initial frames and end frames while 220 also allowing for motion variations. Here, we focus on ex-221 tending VAEs to model long-term human motion. Our key 222 difference is to embed multiple frames of motions into a 223 hierarchical global and local latent spaces. Methods like 224 MotionVAE model motion in a per-frame basis while our 225 method maps a full motion sequence into a compact latent 226 space. 227

Motion Estimation From Videos. A multitude of 229 optimization-based [30, 6, 17], learning-based [41, 20], and 230 hybrid methods [24, 35] have been proposed to tackle the 231 problem of single-image 3D human pose estimation. Its 232 rapid progress has stimulated research interest on the long-233 standing problem of extracting 3D human motion from 234 videos [4, 44, 50, 49, 11, 42, 34, 36, 40]. VIBE [27] uses 235 an LSTM to capture temporal information and introduce a 236 discriminator training strategy to ensure the predicted poses 237 lie in a valid manifold. MEVA [31] presents a coarse-238 to-fine strategy where a valid motion sequence is first ex-239 tracted conditioned on a latent vector and then refined uti-240 lizing person-specific details. TCMR [7] focuses on avoid-241 ing the temporal jitters that exist in the VIBE results and 242 proposes a strategy to explicitly leverage past and future 243 frames to achieve smoother results. Texture-based track-244 ing [52] is shown to improve the motion stability during op-245 timization. Foot contacts and physically-based models [38] 246 are also used for estimating realistic human motions from 247 videos. In this work, we are not aiming to design a spe-248 cific 3D video pose estimation method. Instead, we show 249 that our human motion prior is capable of eliminating jitters 250 and noises that exist in the results of current state-of-the-art 251 252 methods. We demonstrate that our method can be applied to any pose estimation methods and in our experiments we 253 outperform previous work both quantitatively and qualita-254 tively. 255

3. Hierarchical Motion VAEs

The core of our method is a hierarchical motion variational autoencoder (HM-VAE) that models human motion by jointly learning a local and global latent space. Specifically, given a motion sequence $\mathbf{x} \in R^{T \times J \times D}$, represented as the D dimensional joint rotations in a fixed time window of size T^1 , we first learn an embedding of x into local and global latent spaces represented by latent codes z_l and z_a respectively. Assuming the latent space in the local and global

levels are independent [28], we then model the probability distribution of a motion sequence as:

$$p(\mathbf{x}, z) = p(x|z_l, z_g)p(z_l)p(z_g).$$
(1)

Our variational autoencoder adopts the recently proposed skeleton-aware architecture [1] to facilitate learning over the humanoid skeleton structure directly. Before we discuss the details of our model, we first provide a brief overview of the skeleton-aware architecture. We refer the reader to the original paper for more details.

3.1. Background

The skeleton-aware architecture consists of three critical components that we adopt in our model design: skeleton convolution, skeleton pooling, and skeleton unpooling.

Skeleton Convolution. Given a motion sequence $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \in$ $R^{T \times J \times D}$, we denote $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \in R^{T' \times J \times D'}$ as the updated features after a skeleton convolution operation. For each bone i in the skeleton, the updated feature is calculated as $\mathbf{y}_i = \frac{1}{|N_i^d|} \sum_{j \in N_i^d} \mathbf{x}_j * W_j^i + b_j^i$, where the symbol * denotes a one dimensional temporal convolution operation with the temporal filter $W_j^i \in R^{k \times D \times D'}$ and bias $b_j^i \in R^{D'}$. D' represents the number of temporal filters, k represents the temporal kernel size, and N_i^d represents the neighboring bones of bone i within distance d. The distance between two bones (j_1, j_2) is defined as the number of bones needed to cross to reach j_2 starting from j_1 along the kinematic chain. The skeleton convolution operation preserves the number of edges J while downsampling the temporal dimension to T'.

Skeleton Pooling. Skeleton pooling merges the features of connected bones and extracts higher-level motion features by reducing the spatial resolution of the input. The pooling operation is applied to pairs of bones which are connected by a joint with degree of 2. For example, the thigh and calf which are connected by the knee. We recursively search such bone pairs starting from the root node (the hip), and merge their corresponding features using average pooling operation. As we perform pooling, the number of joints is reduced in subsequent layers of the network. Given disjoint sets of pooling bones denoted as $\{P(1), P(2), ..., P(m)\}$, the pooling operation is defined as

$$F'_i = \operatorname{Pool}(F_j | j \in P(i)).$$

Skeleton Unpooling. The unpooling operation mirrors skeleton pooling. Specifically, given the activation features F defined on a bone b obtained by merging the bones (i, j), unpooling simply replaces b with the bones i and j where the new bone features are defined as $F_i = F, F_j = F$. The number of bones is increased after the unpooling layer.

²⁶⁷ ¹In our experiments, we use the SMPL [30] skeleton hence the number 268 of joints J is 24 and we use the continuous 6D rotation representation [56], 269 hence D = 6.

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Figure 2. Model Overview. *Left:* Model architecture. (We omit activation layers and temporal upsampling layers here for simplicity.) *Right:* Illustration of receptive field in shallow (B_1) and deep layers (B_4) .

3.2. Motion Prior Learning for Local Motion

Given a motion sequence $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \in R^{T \times J \times D}$, our HM-VAE consists of an encoder and a decoder as shown in Figure 2. The encoder learns the posterior distribution of the local, z_l , and global, z_g latent spaces given data \mathbf{x} :

$$q(z_l, z_g | x) = q(z_l | f_l(x)) q(z_g | f_g(x)),$$
(2)

where $f_l(x)$, $f_g(x)$ represent the motion features extracted from different layers in the encoder. Our VAE is then trained by maximizing the modified Evidence Lower BOund (ELBO) [22]:

$$\log p(x) \ge \mathbb{E}_{q(z_l, z_g|x)}[\log p(x|z_l, z_g)] - \beta K L(q(z_l|f_l(x)))||p(z_l)) - \beta K L(q(z_q|f_q(x)))||p(z_q)),$$
(3)

where $q(z_l, z_g|x)$ is an encoder network that maps the input x into the local and global latent spaces, $p(x|z_l, z_g)$ is a decoder network that maps latent variables back into the input x, and $p(z_l)$ and $p(z_g)$ are assumed to be standard normal distributions $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathcal{I})$.

Encoder. The encoder consists of four building blocks B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4 where each building block is a combina-tion of a skeleton convolution, skeleton pooling, and a LeakyReLU activation layer. As shown in Figure 2, we introduce a linear layer $W \in R^{T'd \times 2d_h}$ after B_1 and B_4 , mapping motion features of each corresponding block to a latent space. While the shallow layer features F_l after B_1 represent the local latent space, the deep layer features F_q

after B_4 correspond to the global latent space. We enforce a normal distribution on each latent space:

$$z_l \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_l(F_l), \sigma_l(F_l)), z_g \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mu}_g(F_g), \sigma_g(F_g)).$$
(4)

Decoder. The decoder has a symmetric architecture to the encoder. Each building block in decoder consists of temporal upsampling, skeleton unpooling, skeleton convolution and LeakyReLU activation layers. Given the latent codes z_l and z_a , the decoder first maps them to features through linear layers. Temporal upsampling and skeleton unpooling operations are used to increase the number of timesteps and bones gradually. The features obtained from the global latent code after a series of temporal upsampling, skeleton unpooling and convolution are concatenated with the features obtained from the local latent code. A final block of unpooling and convolution operations are used to reconstruct the original motion sequence x. We further add a forward kinematics layer proposed in [46] to convert x into joint positions P to define an additional joint position reconstruction loss. Also, we convert the 6D rotation representation to the rotation matrix \mathbf{R} and use an additional reconstruction loss defined on the rotation matrices. Overall, the reconstruction loss used to train the decoder is defined as:

$$L_{rec} = L_{6d} + L_{rot} + \lambda L_{joints},\tag{5}$$

$$L_{6d} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} ||\mathbf{x}_t' - \mathbf{x}_t||^2,$$
(6)

$$L_{rot} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} ||\mathbf{R}'_t - \mathbf{R}_t||^2,$$
(7)

$$L_{joints} = \sum_{t=1} ||\mathbf{P}'_t - \mathbf{P}_t||^2.$$
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(10)

 $M_1, ..., M_{\frac{T}{2}}, ..., M_T = Dec(z),$ (11)

 $z = Enc(N_1, \dots, N_T),$

$$S = S \cup M_{\frac{T}{2}} \tag{12}$$

$$W_2 = N_2, \dots, N_{T+1} \tag{13}$$

Motion Interpolation and Completion. A common setup in motion synthesis is to generate motion sequences given a sparse set of keyframes, which we refer to as motion interpolation. Motion completion, on the other hand, focuses on synthesizing complete body motion from partial observations, e.g., completing the motion of the lower body by observing the upper body. For both motion interpolation and completion tasks, we simply utilize the decoder of HM-VAE to synthesize motion while searching for an optimal latent code to match the given observations (i.e., sparse keyframes or partial body motion). The optimization objective is to minimize the reconstruction error between the given observations and the corresponding decoded poses. We define the reconstruction objective as a combination of three terms including matching the joint rotations using both 6D rotation and rotation matrix representations and matching the joint positions after forward kinematics:

$$L_{rec} = L_{6d} + L_{rot} + \lambda_1 L_{joints} \tag{14}$$

Concretely, we perform optimization in two phases. Starting with randomly sampled latent vectors z_l and z_g , in the first phase, we optimize for the latent vectors that minimize L_{rec} as the only objective. The decoder parameters θ are fixed during this phase. In the next phase, we optimize for the decoder parameters θ [54] while keeping the latent vectors fixed. In this second phase, we introduce a regularization loss to constrain θ' and prevent it from deviating too much from the pre-trained parameters θ . Thus, the optimization objective in the second phase becomes:

$$L_{opt} = L_{rec} + \lambda_2 ||\theta' - \theta||^2$$
(15)

5. Experiments

In this section, we first describe the dataset we use for training and evaluation. Then we showcase the results of applying our HM-VAE in the applications we introduced in the previous section. Finally, we perform an ablation study to validate the effectiveness of our overall approach.

Dataset. We use the AMASS dataset [32] for training HM-VAE. AMASS dataset is a large collection of 15 motion capture datasets with a unified data representation. The dataset has more than 40 hours of motion data and serves as a great testbed for motion modeling. We use the same

432 we experimentally set
$$\lambda$$
 to 10 in our training process.
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3.3. Trajectory Prediction

Given a motion sequence, we use the presented HM-VAE to model the local motion, i.e., the local joint rotations. In addition, we utilize a similar skeleton-aware architecture without reducing temporal dimension to model the global root joint trajectory. Specifically, given a sequence of joint positions denoted as $\mathbf{P} \in R^{T \times J \times 3}$, we apply four skeleton convolution layers with skeleton pooling layers to obtain motion features $F \in R^{T \times J' \times d}$. We use a linear layer that takes F as input and estimates the root velocity $V \in R^{T \times 3}$. By accumulating the root velocity in subsequent frames, we compute the global root trajectory $G \in R^{T \times 3}$. The root trajectory at any particular time t is defined as $G_t = \sum_{i=0}^t V_i$. We train the trajectory estimation module with a loss function that consists of both velocity and trajectory terms:

$$L_{traj} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} ||V_t' - V_t||^2 + ||G_t' - G_t||^2$$
(9)

4. Application

Our HM-VAE provides a generalized motion prior that can be applicable in various tasks like 3D video pose estimation, motion interpolation and motion completion. In this section, we introduce the applications we consider and describe the effective strategy used for each application. We provide qualitative and quantitative results in the next section.

3D Video Pose Estimation. Our learned motion prior 466 467 provides an effective strategy to refine video based pose es-468 timations. Concretely, we take potentially noisy pose es-469 timates as input to the encoder, then decode refined poses using the encoded latent vector. Our HM-VAE is designed 470 for a fixed window size of T frames. In order to have our 471 472 method process sequences of any length, we could sim-473 ply partition the input sequence into windows of T frames. However, with no overlap across the time windows, we ob-474 475 serve that this may result in discontinuities. Therefore, we propose a sliding window strategy using center frames to 476 process arbitrarily long sequences. Specifically, for each 477 time window we process, we only update the pose of the 478 479 center frame with the refined result and shift the time window one step. We take the $\frac{T}{2}$ th frame $M_{\frac{T}{2}}$ as the refined 480 final result, added to our final refined sequence S. And the 481 window is shifted by one timestep along the input motion 482 sequence for processing the next window. For each window 483 484 size of pose sequences, we formally define the process as 485 follows, where W_2 represents next window.

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Figure 3. Acceleration error curves for VIBE [23] results and our refined results. The right figure shows poses in consecutive timesteps corresponding to the reference images on the left.

validation and testing split introduced in VIBE [23]. For refining video based pose estimates, we use 3DPW [47], a 3D motion in the wild dataset, as our test set. For the motion interpolation task, we train our HM-VAE on the LAFAN1 dataset [13] to provide quantitative comparisons to the baseline methods. LAFAN1 consists of high-quality motion capture data with specific action types. We follow the data split proposed in [13] and use subjects 1, 2, 3 and 4 as training, and subject 5 for testing.

Implementation Details. We use a batch size of 8 for training. The KL divergence weight β is set to 0.003. Unless noted otherwise, we train HM-VAE with motion sequences of length 64. While training our HM-VAE, to prevent the learning dominated by either shallow or deep latent vector, we use similar strategy proposed in [28]. We first only train our model with deep latent vector, then start training both shallow and deep latent vectors after 50000 iterations. For the motion interpolation experiments, we found our method converged at around 150 iterations of optimization, with 50 iterations for the first phase and 100 iterations for the second phase. For the motion completion experiments, we found our optimization converged at around 300 iterations with 100 iterations belonging to the first phase.

5.1. Results

3D Video Pose Estimation. In this section, we show that
our model can be used to refine the results of off-the-shelf
3D video pose estimation methods. In order to adapt HMVAE to different global rotations and frame rate among different datasets, we train our HM-VAE with data augmentation. Our data augmentation consists of different frame
rates and random global rotations. Also, we use the HM-

	PA-MPJPE	MPJPE	ACCEL	ACCER
HD [21]	72.17	115.97	14.96	14.73
HD [21] w Prior	71.39	113.90	5.21	8.36
VIBE [23]	56.56	93.59	27.12	27.99
VIBE [23] w Prior	55.84	92.43	6.03	9.15

Table 1. 3D Video Human Pose Estimation Results in 3DPWTesting Dataset.

VAE model trained with a window size 8 in this application which we observe has a better reconstruction quality.

We show quantitative results in Table 1 where we test our method with inputs obtained by both VIBE [23] and HumanDynamics (HD) [21]. We report errors using the same metrics as VIBE [23]. Specifically, we report the mean per joint position error with (PA-MPJPE) and without (MPJPE) the Procrustes-alignment, as well as the mean per joint acceleration and acceleration error. In Figure 3, we show the acceleration error curves as well as example poses obtained for consecutive timesteps. Compared to current state-ofthe-art methods, our refined motions have smaller acceleration errors. While previous approaches are prone to abrupt changes across consecutive poses as shown in Figure 3, our model smooths out these noisy estimates. We refer the readers to the supplementary video for a detailed comparison.

Motion Interpolation. In order to demonstrate the effectiveness of HM-VAE for the motion interpolation task, we compare it to appropriate baseline methods. Specifically, in order to interpolate local joint rotations, we use the standard spherical linear interpolation (Slerp). Since interpolation quality is directly related to the number of missing frames, we perform our evaluations in four settings where 5, 15, 30, 45 frames are missing in each setting. Following the same setting as [13], given the starting 10 frames and ending 1 frame as key frames, we aim to generate the frames



Figure 4. Local trajectory comparison for motion interpolation in AMASS data. From left to right is the trajectory when key frame interval is 30, 15, 5 respectively. The upper curves represent the left wrist, the lower curves represent the right ankle. The star symbol represents the starting point, the arrow symbol represent the position of key frames. Our results show similar moving patterns to ground truth, while Slerp differs a lot when key frame interval is large.



Figure 5. Global root trajectory comparison for motion interpolation in AMASS data. From left to right is the trajectory (in xy plane) when key frame interval is 30, 15, 5 respectively. The star symbol represents the starting point, the arrow symbol represents the position of key frames.



Figure 6. Motion interpolation results in AMASS test data. The gray mesh shows key frame poses, the purple mesh show the generated poses. The interval between two key frames is 30 frames. The right figure shows the global trajectory comparison for this motion sequence.

in-between. We show quantitative comparisons in terms of local pose estimation in Table 2. In addition to the metrics introduced before, we also report the global quaternion loss proposed by the original benchmark [13]. We show that our method outperforms the Slerp baseline quantitatively. We also show that the performance achieved by our human motion prior is competitive against the in-betweening specific method from [13] in the global quaternion loss metric. Please note that we use the LAFAN1 dataset for this evalua-tion to compare against the global quaternion errors directly reported by [13] since their code is not published and the au-thors were not able to run their model on our dataset. We also provide additional qualitative results in the AMASS dataset. We visualize local joint trajectories in Figure 4 for a walking motion sequence. Our results preserve the original motion patterns while Slerp fails to model the local motion when the interval between two key frames becomes large. We further demonstrate global trajectory interpolation with our method and the alternatives. Specifically, we use our global trajectory estimation module by providing the local motion predicted by our method as well as Slerp. In addition, we also define a simple baseline where we linearly interpolate the global root position of the sparse keyframes (lerp). As shown in Figure 5, the trajectory estimated by our method more closely resembles the ground truth. We also show a mesh visualization result for motion interpolation in Figure 6. For more qualitative results, we encourage readers to check our accompanying video.

Motion Completion. Given only upper body joint rotations as target, we aim to recover the complete body motion sequences. For this experiment, we use motion sequences from the testing and validation split of the AMASS dataset. As shown in Figure 7, our approach is able to restore complete motions since the global latent space capture the correlations among different joints. Therefore, the missing lower legs movement that matches the given upper body is retrieved from the learned latent space for human motion.

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Figure 7. Motion Completion Results. Given upper body joint rotation as optimization objective, the prior model can complete whole motion sequences.

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	5	15	30	45
IPJPE-Slerp	16.02	57.13	96.54	118.96
MPJPE-Ours	14.08	45.09	90.41	117.93
PAMPJPE-Slerp	15.82	54.11	83.66	92.4
PAMPJPE-Ours	12.03	38.37	72.21	86.06
ACCEL-Slerp	1.75	0.78	0.35	0.23
ACCEL-Ours	4.79	4.48	4.08	3.61
ACCER-Slerp	5.98	5.97	6.05	6.06
ACCER-Ours	5.31	5.83	6.54	6.75
Global Quat-Slerp	0.22	0.62	0.98	1.25
Global Quat-[13]	0.17	0.42	0.69	0.94
Global Quat-Ours	0.24	0.54	0.94	1.25

Table 2. Quantitative Evaluation for Motion Interpolation in LAFAN1 Dataset.

5.2. Ablation Study

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In order to motivate the design choices we made, we perform an ablation study where we compare our HM-VAE with a non-hierarchical motion VAE (M-VAE) and a VAE with only temporal convolution layers (TCN-VAE). The temporal convolution layers were used in training an autoencoder for motion processing [16, 15]. We compare our model to the alternatives in the task of motion recon-struction using the AMASS dataset. Specifically, for each testing sequence, we take the local joint rotations as input to the encoder and then decode the motion from the mean vector. We measure the mean joint reconstruction error as shown in Table 3. Our HM-VAE model outperforms the M-VAE by a large margin in motion reconstruction evaluation. And the model with skeleton-aware architecture has superior performance than its temporal convolution counterpart. Therefore, we show that skeleton operations

	PA-MPJPE	MPJPE	ACCEL	ACCER
TCN-VAE	87.27	103.60	1.66	6.46
M-VAE	59.71	74.34	2.36	6.15
HM-VAE	45.82	58.46	2.29	5.98

Table 3. Motion Reconstruction Results in AMASS test data.

from the skeleton-aware architecture are important for modeling the human body structure in comparison to using standard temporal convolution. Moreover, modeling a global and local motion latent spaces further improve the human motion modeling power of the skeleton-aware architecture.

6. Conclusion

We propose a task-generic motion prior using a hierarchical motion VAE. We demonstrate the effectiveness of the prior in various applications including 3D video pose estimation, motion interpolation, and motion completion. By learning a global and local embedding, our prior can faithfully model human motion. While our prior enables to refine video-based human motion estimation results by reducing jitters, it also performs on-par with task specific methods for motion interpolation and completion. There are some limitations of our method we would like to address in future work. We observe that there are accumulation of errors when predicting the global trajectory for a long sequence. Exploring more constraints like foot contact during both training and inference might be a potential approach to address this. While we show that our prior is effective in different applications, using few-shot learning to better adapt to specific tasks is another interesting direction. Finally, incorporating certain physical properties and action conditions are also promising directions.

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