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Figure 1: **EMA** efficiently and jointly learns canonical shapes, materials, and motions via differentiable inverse rendering in an end-to-end manner. The method does not require any predefined templates or riggings. The derived avatars are animatable and can be directly applied to the graphics renderer and downstream tasks. All figures are best viewed in color.

Abstract

Efficiently digitizing high-fidelity animatable human avatars from videos is a challenging and active research topic. Recent volume rendering-based neural representations open a new way for human digitization with their friendly usability and photo-realistic reconstruction quality. However, they are inefficient for long optimization times and slow inference speed; their implicit nature results in entangled geometry, materials, and dynamics of humans, which are hard to edit afterward. Such drawbacks prevent their direct applicability to downstream applications, especially the prominent rasterization-based graphic ones. We present EMA, a method that Efficiently learns Meshy neural fields to reconstruct animatable human Avatars. It jointly optimizes explicit triangular canonical mesh, spatial-varying material, and motion dynamics, via inverse rendering in an end-to-end fashion. Each above component is derived from separate neural fields, relaxing the requirement of a template, or rigging. The mesh representation is highly compatible with the efficient rasterization-based renderer, thus our method only takes about an hour of training and can

render in real-time. Moreover, only minutes of optimization are enough for plausible reconstruction results. The disentanglement of meshes enables direct downstream applications. Extensive experiments illustrate the very competitive performance and significant speed boost against previous methods. We also showcase applications including novel pose synthesis, material editing, and relighting. The project page: https://xk-huang.github.io/ema/.

1. Introduction

Recent years have witnessed the rise of human digitization [25, 2, 70, 3, 72]. This technology greatly impacts the entertainment, education, design, and engineering industry. There is a well-developed industry solution for this task. High-fidelity reconstruction of humans can be achieved either with full-body laser scans [77], dense synchronized multi-view cameras [91, 90], or light stages [2]. However, these settings are expensive and tedious to deploy and consist of a complex processing pipeline, preventing the technology's democratization.

Another solution is to view the problem as inverse rendering and learn digital humans directly from custom-

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collected data. Traditional approaches directly optimize explicit mesh representation [53, 17, 68] which suffers from the problems of smooth geometry and coarse textures [71, 4]. Besides, they require professional artists to design human templates, rigging, and unwrapped UV coordinates. Recently, with the help of volumetric-based implicit representations [58, 65, 57] and neural rendering [43, 50, 83], one can easily digitize a quality-plausible human avatar from video footage [31, 89]. Particularly, volumetric-based implicit representations [58, 70] can reconstruct scenes or objects with much higher fidelity against previous neural renderer [83, 71], and is more user-friendly as it does not need any human templates, pre-set rigging, or UV coordinates. Captured visual footage and corresponding skeleton tracking are enough for training. However, better reconstructions and more friendly usability are at the expense of the following factors. 1) Inefficiency: They require longer optimization times (typically tens of hours or days) and inference slowly. Volume rendering [58, 52] formulates images by querying the densities and colors of millions of spatial coordinates. In the training stage, due to memory constraints, only a small fraction of points are sampled which leads to slow convergence speed. 2) Entangled representations: The geometry, materials, and motion dynamics are entangled in the neural networks. Due to the implicit nature of neural nets, one can hardly edit one property without touching the others [93, 51]. 3) Graphics incompatibility: Volume rendering is incompatible with the current popular graphic pipeline, which renders triangular/quadrilateral meshes efficiently with the rasterization technique. Many downstream applications require mesh rasterization in their workflow (e.g., editing [18], simulation [7], real-time rendering [59], ray-tracing [84]). Although there are approaches [54, 42] can convert volumetric fields into meshes, the gaps from discrete sampling degrade the output quality in terms of both meshes and textures.

To address these issues, we present EMA, a method based on Efficient Meshy neural fields to reconstruct animatable human Avatars. Our method enjoys flexibility from implicit representations and efficiency from explicit meshes, yet still maintains high-fidelity reconstruction quality. Given video sequences and the corresponding pose tracking, our method digitizes humans in terms of canonical triangular meshes, physically-based rendering (PBR) materials, and skinning weights w.r.t. skeletons. We jointly learn the above components via inverse rendering [43, 14, 13] in an end-to-end manner. Each of them is derived from a separate neural field, which relaxes the requirements of a preset human template, rigging, or UV coordinates. Specifically, we predict a canonical mesh out of a signed distance field (SDF) by differentiable marching tetrahedra [79, 20, 19, 61], then we extend the marching tetrahedra [79] for spatial-varying materials by utilizing a neural field to predict PBR materials *on the mesh surfaces* after rasterization [61, 26, 43]. To make the canonical mesh animatable, we take another neural field to model the forward linear blend skinning for the meshes. Given a posed skeleton, the canonical mesh is then transformed into the corresponding poses. Finally, we shade the mesh with a rasterization-based differentiable renderer [43] and train our models with a photo-metric loss. After training, we export the mesh with materials and discard the neural fields.

There are several merits of our method design. 1) Efficiency: Powered by efficient mesh rendering, our method can render in real-time. Besides, the training speed is boosted as well, since we compute loss holistically on the whole image and the gradients only flow on the mesh surface. In contrast, volume rendering takes limited pixels for loss computation and back-propagates the gradients in the whole space. Our method only needs about an hour of training and minutes of optimization are enough for plausible avatar reconstruction. 2) Disentangled representations: Our shape, materials, and motion modules are disentangled naturally by design, which facilitates editing. Besides, Canonical meshes with forward skinning modeling handle the out-of-distribution poses better. 3) Graphics compatibility: Our derived mesh representation is compatible with the prominent graphic pipeline, which leads to instant downstream applications (e.g., the shape and materials can be edited directly in design software [18]). To further improve reconstruction quality, we additionally optimize image-based environment lights and non-rigid motions.

We conduct extensive experiments on standards benchmarks H36M [30] and ZJU-MoCap [70]. Our method achieves very competitive performance for novel view synthesis, generalizes better for novel poses, and significantly improves both training time and inference speed against previous arts. Our research-oriented code reaches real-time inference speed (100+ FPS for rendering 512×512 images). We in addition showcase applications including novel pose synthesis, material editing, and relighting.

2. Related Works

Explicit Representations for Human Modeling: It is intuitive to model the surfaces of humans with mesh. However, humans are highly varied in both shape and appearance and have a large pose space, which all contribute to a high dimensional space. Researchers first model humans with limited clothes. One of the prevalent methods is parametric models [6, 53, 68, 74, 81]. Fitting humans from scans is inapplicable in real-world applications. Thus, [34, 9, 41, 96, 95, 40, 82] estimate the human surface from images or videos. To model the clothed human, [71, 5, 4] deform the template human vertices in canonical T-pose. However, these methods are prone to capturing coarse geometry due to the limited capacity of the



Figure 2: **The pipeline of EMA**. EMA jointly optimizes canonical shapes, materials, lights, and motions via efficient differentiable inverse rendering. The canonical shapes are attained firstly through the differentiable marching tetrahedra [19, 79, 61], which converts SDF fields into meshes. Next, it queries PBR materials, including diffuse colors, roughness, and specularity on the mesh surface. Meanwhile, the skinning weights and per-vertices offsets are predicted on the surface as well, which are then applied to the canonical meshes with the guide of input skeletons. Finally, a rasterization-based differentiable renderer takes in the posed meshes, materials, and environment lights, and renders the final avatars efficiently.

deformation layer. Besides, the textures are modeled with sphere harmonics which are far from photo-realistic. Our method takes the mesh as our core representation to enable efficient training and rendering and realize the topological change of shape and photo-realistic texture via neural fields. Implicit Representations for Human Modeling: Implicit representations [65, 57, 58] model the objects in a continuous manner, whose explicit entity cannot be attained directly. Specifically, Signed Distance Function [65], Occupancy Field [57] and Radiance Field [58] are all parametrized by neural networks. Given full-body scans as 3D supervision, [75, 76, 28, 29, 5] learned the SDFs or occupancy fields directly from images, which could predict photo-realistic human avatars in inference phrase. [70, 81, 49, 69, 45, 31, 12, 88, 99, 63, 102] leveraged the radiance field for more photo-realistic human avatars from multiview images or single-view videos without any 3D supervision. Although implicit representations improve reconstruction quality against explicit ones, they still have drawbacks, e.g., large computation burden or poor geometry. Besides, volume rendering is incompatible with graphics hardware, thus the outputs are inapplicable in downstream applications without further post-processing. Our method absorbs the merits of implicit representations by using neural networks to predict photo-realistic textures and shape fields, leveraging [79] to convert SDFs to explicit meshes, which are fully compatible with the graphic pipeline.

Hybrid Representations for Human Modeling: There are two tracks of literature modeling humans with explicit geometry representations and implicit texture representations. One track of literature [38, 101] leveraged neural rendering techniques [83]. Meshes [71, 101, 4, 3] or point clouds [86] are commonly chosen explicit representations. Moreover,

fine-grained geometry and textures are learned by neural networks. However, these methods are either only applicable for novel view synthesis [86] or restricted to selfrotation video captures [4, 3]. Besides, the neural renderers have limitations, e.g., stitching texture [36, 37], and baked textures into the renderer. In contrast, the human avatars learned by our method are compatible with graphics pipeline, which means they are applicable in downstream tasks, e.g., re-posing, editing in design software. The other track of literature leveraged neural networks to learn both geometry and textures based on differentiable rendering [43, 14, 13]. It [50, 8, 43, 73, 44, 72] equips traditional graphics pipeline with the ability of error backpropagation, which make scene properties (*i.e.*, assets, lights, cameras poses, etc.) optimizable through gradient descent *w.r.t* photo-metric loss. Thus, we can learn both geometry and textures that are compatible with existing graphics hardware. However, the geometry optimization process is nonconvex and highly unstable [23], so it is hard to give finegrained geometry details. Besides, the topology of the mesh is fixed leading to limited shape modeling. We leverage [61, 79] to convert SDFs to meshes with differentiable marching tets, and model the motion dynamics of humans with additional neural fields. Our method enjoys flexibility from implicit representations and efficiency brought by explicit meshes, yet still maintains high-fidelity reconstructions.

3. Method

We formulate the problem as inverse rendering and extend [61] to model dynamic actors that are driven solely by skeletons. The canonical shapes, materials, lights, and actor motions are learned jointly in an end-to-end manner. The rendering happens with an efficient rasterization-based differentiable renderer [43].

Optimization Task: Let Φ denote all the trainable parameters (*i.e.*, SDF values and corresponding vertices offset parameters for canonical geometry, spatial-varying and pose-dependent materials and light probe parameters for shading, and forward skinning weights and non-rigid vertices offset parameters for motion). For a given camera pose **c** and a tracked skeleton pose **P**, we render the image $I_{\Phi}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{P})$ with a differentiable renderer, and compute loss with a loss function *L*, against the reference image $I_{ref}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{P})$. The optimization goal is to minimize the empirical risk:

$$\underset{\phi}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{c},\mathbf{P}} \left[L \left(I_{\Phi}(\mathbf{c},\mathbf{P}), I_{ref}(\mathbf{c},\mathbf{P}) \right) \right].$$
(1)

The parameters Φ are optimized with Adam [39] optimizer. Following [61], our loss function $L = L_{img} + L_{mask} + L_{reg}$ consists of three parts: an image loss L_{img} using ℓ_1 norm on tone mapped color, and mask loss L_{mask} using squared ℓ_2 , and regularization losses L_{reg} to improve the quality of canonical geometry, materials, lights, and motion. At each optimization step, our method holistically learns both shape and materials from the whole image, while the volume rendering-based implicit counterparts only learn from limited pixels. Powered by an efficient rasterization-based renderer, our method enjoys both faster convergence and real-time rendering speed. For optimization losses and implementation details, please refer to our supplementary.

3.1. Canonical Geometry

Rasterization-based differentiable renderers take triangular meshes as input, which means the whole optimization process happens over the mesh representation. Previous works [4, 3] require a mesh template to assist optimization as either a good initialization or a shape regularization. The templates have fixed topology under limited resolutions which harm the geometry quality. Besides, to make the learned geometry generalize to novel poses, the underlying geometry representations should lie in a canonical space.

We utilize the differentiable marching tetrahedra [79, 19] algorithm, which converts SDF fields into triangular meshes to model the actors in canonical space. This method enjoys the merit of both template and topology-free from implicit SDF representations and outputs triangle meshes that are directly applicable to rasterization-based renderers.

Let $V_{\rm tet}$, $F_{\rm tet}$, $T_{\rm tet}$ and be the pre-defined vertices, faces, and UV coordinates of the tetrahedra grid. We parameterize both per-tet vertice SDF value S and vertices offsets $\Delta V_{\rm tet}$ with a coordinate-based nerual net:

$$F_{\Phi_{aeom}}: (\mathbf{V}_{tet}) \to (\mathbf{S}, \Delta \mathbf{V}_{tet}),$$
 (2)

The canonical mesh $M_c = (V_c, F_c, T_c)$ (*i.e.*, canonical mesh vertices, faces, and UV map coordinates) is derived

by marching tetrahedra operator Π :

$$\Pi: (\mathbf{V}_{\text{tet}}, \mathbf{F}_{\text{tet}}, \mathbf{T}_{\text{tet}}, \mathbf{S}, \Delta \mathbf{V}_{\text{tet}}) \to (\mathbf{V}_{\text{c}}, \mathbf{F}_{\text{c}}, \mathbf{T}_{\text{c}}). \quad (3)$$

Specifically, the vertices of the canonical mesh are computed by $\mathbf{v}_c^{ij} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{tet}^{\prime i} s_j - \mathbf{v}_{tet}^{\prime j} s_i}{s_j - s_i}$, where $\mathbf{v}_{tet}^{\prime i} = \mathbf{v}^i + \Delta \mathbf{v}^i$ and $\operatorname{sign}(s_i) \neq \operatorname{sign}(s_j)$. In other words, only the edges that cross the surface of canonical mesh participate the marching tetrahedra operator, which makes the mesh extraction both computation and memory-efficient.

After training, we can discard the SDF and deformation neural nets $F_{\Phi_{geom}}$ and store the derived meshes. That leads to zero computation overhead in inference time.

3.2. Shading Model

Materials: we use a physically-based material model [56], which is directly applicable to our differentiable renderer. It consists of a diffuse term with an isotopic GGX lobe representing specularity. Concretely, it consists of three parts: 1) diffuse lobe \mathbf{k}_d has four components, *i.e.* RGB color channels and an additional alpha channel; 2) specular lobe comprises a roughness value r for GGX normal distribution function and a metalness factor m which interpolates the sense of reality from plastic to pure metallic appearance. The specular highlight color is given by $\mathbf{k}_s = (1-m) \cdot 0.04 + m \cdot \mathbf{k}_d$. We store the specular lobe into texture $\mathbf{k}_{orm} = (o, r, m)$ following the convention, where the channel o is unused. To compensate for the global illumination, we alternatively store the ambient occlusion value into o. 3) normal maps n represents the fine-grained geometry details. The diffues color \mathbf{k}_d , texture \mathbf{k}_{orm} , and normal maps n are parametrized by an neural net:

$$F_{\Phi_{\text{mat}}}: (\mathbf{v}_c, \mathbf{P}) \to (\mathbf{k}_d, \mathbf{k}_{\text{orm}}, \mathbf{n}).$$
 (4)

We query the vertices after rasterization and barycentric interpolation. The PBR material is further conditioned on poses to model the pose-dependent shading effect.

Lights: Our method learns a fixed environment light directly from the reference images. The lights are represented as a cube light. Given direction ω_o , We follow the render equation [32] to compute the outgoing radiance $L(\omega_o)$:

$$L(\omega_o) = \int_{\Omega} L_i(\omega_i) f(\omega_i, \omega_o) (\omega_i \cdot \mathbf{n}) d\omega_i, \quad (5)$$

The outgoing radiance is the integral of the incident radiance $L_i(\omega_i)$ and the BRDF $f(\omega_i, \omega_o)$. We do not use spherical Gaussians [13] or spherical harmonics [10, 97] to approximate the image-based lighting. Instead, we follow [61] using the split sum approximation that capable of modeling all-frequency image-based lighting:

$$L(\omega_{o}) \approx \int_{\Omega} f(\omega_{i}, \omega_{o}) (\omega_{i} \cdot \mathbf{n}) d\omega_{i}$$

$$\int_{\Omega} L_{i}(\omega_{i}) D(\omega_{i}, \omega_{o}) (\omega_{i} \cdot \mathbf{n}) d\omega_{i}.$$
 (6)



Figure 3: **Qualitative results of novel view synthesis on the H36M and ZJU-MoCap datasets**. [70, 69] generates blurry textures compared with our method. The mesh representations and forward skinning modeling help to improve generalization. Left: Hn36M dataset. Right: ZJU-MoCap dataset. Up: Training pose. Down: Novel pose. **Zoom in for a better view**.

The materials and lights are optimized jointly with geometry and motion modules in an end-to-end manner. The decomposed design of geometry and shading, along with compatibility with the triangle renderer enables editing and content creation instantly after training. For details about light modeling, please refer to the supplementary.

3.3. Motion Model

Since we derived mesh-based actors in canonical space with materials and lights, it is intuitive and natural to choose forward linear skinning as our motion model. Given a skeleton with B bones, the skeleton poses $\mathbf{P} = {\mathbf{T}_1, \mathbf{T}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_B}$, where each \mathbf{T}_i represents the transformation on bone *i*, and the blend skinning weights $\mathbf{W} = {w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_B}$, we deform each mesh vertice \mathbf{v}_c in canonical space to the posed vertice \mathbf{v}_w in world space by:

$$\mathbf{v}_w = \text{LBS}(\mathbf{v}_c, \mathbf{P}, \mathbf{W}) = (\sum_{i=1}^B w_i \mathbf{T}_i) \mathbf{v}_c, \qquad (7)$$

To compensate for non-rigid cloth dynamics, we further add a layer of pose-dependent non-rigid offsets $\Delta \mathbf{v}_c$ for canonical meshes:

$$\mathbf{v}_w = \text{LBS}(\mathbf{v}_c + \Delta \mathbf{v}_c, \mathbf{P}, \mathbf{W}), \tag{8}$$

Where the blend skinning weights and the pose-dependent non-rigid offsets are, respectively, parameterized by neural nets whose inputs are canonical mesh vertices:

$$F_{\Phi_{\text{LBS}}}: (\mathbf{v}_c) \to \mathbf{W},$$
 (9)

$$F_{\Phi_{\mathrm{nr}}}: (\mathbf{v}_c, \mathbf{P}) \to \Delta \mathbf{v}_c.$$
 (10)

Modeling forward skinning is efficient for training as it only forward once in each optimization step, while the volume-based methods [45, 88, 15] solve the root-finding problem for canonical points in every iteration. After training, we can export the skinning weight from neural nets which removes the extra computation burden for inference.

4. Experiments

4.1. Dataset and Metrics

H36M consists of 4 multi-view cameras and uses markerbased motion capture to collect human poses. Each video contains a single subject performing a complex action. We follow [69] data protocol which includes subject S1, S5-S9, and S11. The videos are split into two parts: "training poses" for novel view synthesis and "Unseen poses" for novel pose synthesis. Among the video frames, 3 views are used for training, and the rest views are for evaluation. The novel view and novel pose metrics are computed on rest views. We use the same data preprocessing as [69].

ZJU-MoCap records 9 subjects performing complex actions with 23 cameras. The human poses are obtained with a markerless motion capture system. Thus the pose tracking

Table 1: **Quantitative results**. On the marker-based H36M, our method achieves SOTA performance in all optimization durations. While on the markerless ZJU-MoCap, our method is comparable with previous arts. "T.F." means template-free; "Rep." means representation; "T.T" means the training time; * denotes the evaluation on a subset of validation splits.

			Н3	6M		ZJUMOCAP					
	тЕ	Den	тт	Training pose Novel pose			Trainin	ig pose	Novel pose		
	1.1.	кер.	1.1.	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	PSNR↑	SSIM↑
NB [70]		NV	${\sim}10~\text{h}$	23.31	0.902	22.59	0.882	28.10	0.944	23.49	0.885
SA-NeRF [92]		NV	${\sim}30~{\rm h}$	24.28	0.909	23.25	0.892	28.27	0.945	24.42	0.902
Ani-NeRF [69]	\checkmark	NV	$\sim \! 10 \ h$	23.00	0.890	22.55	0.880	26.19	0.921	23.38	0.892
ARAH [88]	\checkmark	NV	${\sim}48~{ m h}$	24.79	0.918	23.42	0.896	28.51	0.948	24.63	0.911
Ours	\checkmark	Hybr	${\sim}1~h$	24.72	0.916	23.64	0.899	26.57	0.901	24.38	0.875
NB		NV		20.58	0.879	20.27	0.867	26.87	0.922	23.67	0.885
SA-NeRF		NV		21.03	0.878	20.71	0.869	24.92	0.882	23.38	0.869
Ani-NeRF	\checkmark	NV	$\sim 1 \ h^*$	22.54	0.872	21.79	0.856	21.23	0.659	20.65	0.652
ARAH	\checkmark	NV		24.25	0.904	23.61	0.892	26.33	0.924	24.67	0.911
Ours	\checkmark	Hybr		24.83	0.917	23.64	0.899	26.66	0.901	24.64	0.880
NB		NV		20.54	0.863	20.15	0.853	25.37	0.894	23.54	0.873
SA-NeRF		NV		20.81	0.848	20.49	0.841	24.48	0.878	23.75	0.872
Ani-NeRF	\checkmark	NV	$\sim \! 10 \ m^*$	20.57	0.822	20.22	0.806	21.17	0.652	21.16	0.656
ARAH	\checkmark	NV		23.83	0.895	23.13	0.884	25.09	0.906	24.21	0.898
Ours	\checkmark	Hybr		24.27	0.909	23.37	0.897	25.51	0.888	24.42	0.878

is rather noisier compared with H36M. Likewise, there are two sets of video frames, "training poses" for novel view synthesis and "Unseen poses" for novel pose synthesis. 4 evenly distributed camera views are chosen for training, and the rest 19 views are for evaluation. Again, the evaluation metrics are computed on rest views. The same data protocol and processing approaches are adopted following [70, 69]. **Metrics**. We follow the typical protocol in [70, 69] using two metrics to measure image quality: peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR) and structural similarity index (SSIM).

4.2. Evaluation and Comparison

Baselines. We compare our method with template-based methods [70, 92] and template-free methods [69, 88]. Here we list the average metric values with different training times to illustrate our very competitive performance and significant speed boost. 1) Tempelate-based methods. Neural Body (NB) [70] learns a set of latent codes anchored to a deformable template mesh to provide geometry guidance. Surface-Aligned NeRF (SA-NeRF) [92] proposes projecting a point onto a mesh surface to align surface points and signed height to the surface. 2) Template-free methods. Animatable NeRF (Ani-NeRF) [69] introduces neural blend weight fields to produce the deformation fields instead of explicit template control. ARAH [88] combines an articulated implicit surface representation with volume rendering and proposes a novel joint root-finding algorithm.

Comparisons with state-of-the-arts. Table 1 illustrates the quantitative comparisons with previous arts. Notably,

our method achieves very competitive performance within much less training time. The previous volume renderingbased counterparts spend tens of hours of optimization time, while our method only takes an hour of training (for previous SOTA method ARAH [88], it takes about 2 days of training). On the marker-based H36M dataset, our method reaches the SOTA performance in terms of novel view synthesis on training poses and outperforms previous SOTA (ARAH [88]) for novel view synthesis on novel poses, which indicates that our method can generalize better on novel poses. The significant boost in training speeds lies in, on the one hand, the core mesh representation which can be rendered efficiently with the current graphic pipeline [43]. On the other hand, the triangular renderer uses less memory. Thus we can compute losses over the whole image to learn the representations holistically. In contrast, previous methods are limited to much fewer sampled pixels in each optimization step.

On the markerless ZJU-Mocap dataset, our method falls behind for training poses novel view synthesis and ranks 3rd place in terms of unseen poses novel view synthesis among the competitors. We argue that the quality of pose tracking results in the performance gaps between the two datasets. The markerless pose tracking data **are much noisier** than the marker-based ones (*e.g.*, the tracked skeleton sequence is jittering, and the naked human [53] rendering is misaligned with human parsings), which makes our performance saturated by harming the multi-view consistency. The problem is even amplified with the holistic loss computation over the whole pixels. We conduct additional ablation on pose tracking quality on H36M in Sec. 4.3. Besides, our non-rigid modeling is only over the surface (no topology change), which is less powerful than the volume renderingbased ones (with topology change).

We further each method under **the same optimization duration** in Table 1. For the extremely low inference speed of our competitor, we only evaluate at most 10 frames in each subject, and for ZJU MoCap we only choose another 4 evenly spaced cameras as the evaluation views. For both 1 hour and 10 minutes optimization time, our method outperforms other methods for both training poses and unseen poses novel view synthesis on the marker-based H36M dataset. On the markerless ZJU-Mocap dataset, our method is comparable with previous SOTA in terms of PSNR and SSIM for both evaluation splits.

Figure 3 illustrates the qualitative comparisons between our method and previous arts under the same optimization duration. It is worth noting that on both H36M and ZJU-MoCap datasets, our method can synthesize clearer and more fine-grained images against competitors, which raises the misalignment of the quantitative metrics for measuring image similarity.

Rendering Efficiency: We provide the rendering speed of our method against previous methods in Figure 4. Our method reaches real-time inference speed (100+ FPS for rendering 512×512 images), which is hundreds



of times faster than the previous ones. Our method takes considerably less memory than the previous ones.

4.3. Ablation Studies

We conduct ablation studies on the H36M S9 subject. **The parametrization type for SDF field.** The SDF fields can either be parameterized as either MLPs or value fields. Table 2 and Figure 5 show that using MLP to predict SDF values results in a smoother mesh surface that is watertight. MLP offers extrapolation ability to predict invisible parts and keep the mesh watertight. While directly optimizing SDF value fields leads to a jiggling mesh surface and holes in invisible parts during training (*e.g.*, underarm).

The shading model type in geometry module. We compare PBR shading models with directly predicting RGB colors and PBR without shading specular. Table 2 and Figure 5 show that PBR shading models lead to higher metrics against RGB predications, which indicates that PBR mate-

Table 2: **The ablation on each module from our method**. The mesh tends to be noisy and poor for rendering novel poses without MLP parametrization for the geometry module; Removing the non-rigid module harms the convergence of our model due to the disability to solve multi-view inconsistency; PBR materials improve the overall shading quality by joint modeling both decomposed materials and lighting.

	Trainin	ig Pose	Novel Pose		
	PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM	
w/o SDF MLP	25.17	0.913	23.37	0.874	
w/o Non-rigid	25.03	0.909	23.45	0.877	
w/o PBR	25.10	0.914	23.44	0.878	
w/o Specular	25.24	0.915	23.58	0.879	
Full	25.26	0.916	23.52	0.879	



GT w/o SDF MLP w/o Non-rigid w/o PBR w/o Specular F

Figure 5: **Qualitative ablation on each module**. The SDF MLP improves the mesh smoothness; non-rigid modeling proves the texture quality by solving the multi-view consistency of cloth dynamics; The PBR materials have a larger capacity for modeling complex materials and lighting against the only-RGB and the no-specular counterparts, which further facilitates both mesh and material learning.

rials can better model complex textures and lights for dynamic humans. Removing the specular term in PBR does not affect the performance much. We conjecture that there is less specularity in human skin and clothes materials.

The impact of the non-rigid net in motion module. As shown in Table 2 and Figures 5, modeling pose-dependent non-rigid dynamics of clothes improves the overall reconstruction quality. It facilitates the aggregation of shading information for multi-view inputs during training.

The impact of human tracking quality. Table 3 (a) and Figure 6 show that using marker-based pose-tracking data can give better results. The same phenomenon has been stated in [69]. Noisy marker-less pose-tracking harms the optimization process by damaging the multi-view consistency and the exact pose for shading optimization, which leads to blurry textures.

The impact of training view amount. Table 3 (b) and Figure 7 reveal that giving one camera of view degrades the



Figure 6: **Qualitative results of models trained on poses** from marker-less and marker-based systems.



Figure 7: Comparison of models trained with different numbers of camera views on the subject "S9".

Table 3: **The ablations results on data quality and quantity** on H36M S9 subject, in terms of PSNR and SSIM (higher is better). The better the data quality, the better the reconstruction results.

	Trainin	ig pose	Novel pose							
	PSNR ↑	SSIM↑	PSNR↑	SSIM↑						
(a) type of pose tracking										
w/o marker	24.73	0.893	22.60	0.853						
w/ marker	25.53	0.911	23.80	0.879						
(b) number o	(b) number of training views									
1 view	25.09	0.906	22.97	0.866						
2 views	25.56	0.911	23.76	0.878						
3 views	25.57	0.911	23.67	0.876						
(c) number o	f training f	rames								
1 frame	20.93	0.817	19.58	0.785						
100 frames	23.99	0.882	22.49	0.856						
200 frames	25.27	0.905	23.32	0.873						
800 frames	24.89	0.900	23.16	0.873						

overall reconstruction quality, and multi-view consistency improves the final results. The model can aggregate multiview information for better shading optimization, thus leading to clearer surface materials.

The impact of training frame amount. As the number of training frames increases, the rendering quality on novel view and novel pose increases as well (Table 3 (c) and Fig-



Figure 8: Comparison of models trained with different numbers of video frames on the subject "S9".

ure 8). Notice that the reconstruction quality saturated after using a certain amount of training frames, the same results can be observed in [69] as well.

4.4. Applications

After training, we can export mesh representations, which enables instant downstream applications. We showcase two examples of novel pose synthesis, material editing, and human relighting in Figure 1. For more examples, please refer to our supplementary.

5. Discussions and Conclusions

Discussions: Our method leverage mesh as our core representation, which enables us efficiency for both training and rendering. However, the resolution of mesh is fixed in our pipeline, preventing fine-grained geometry and texture reconstruction. One possible solution could be tetrahedra grids sub-division [78, 21, 33]. But it may break the SDF values around the derived meshes since there is no regularization over the whole SDF field. Our non-rigid modeling has less capacity, since we assume there is no topology change of mesh *wrt*. the non-rigid motion. Otherwise, we cannot query materials and motions in the canonical shape. One can solve it via the dense correspondence between the meshes before and after applying non-rigid motions [1, 94], yet such an operation may increase computation drastically.

Conclusions: we present EMA, which learns human avatars through hybrid meshy neural fields efficiently. EMA jointly learns hybrid canonical geometry, materials, lights, and motions via a rasterization-based differentiable renderer. It only requires one hour of training and can render in real-time with a triangle renderer. Minutes of training can produce plausible results. Our method enjoys flexibility from implicit representations and efficiency from explicit meshes. Experiments on the standard benchmark indicate the competitive performance and generalization results of our method. The digitized avatars can be directly used in downstream tasks. We showcase examples including novel pose synthesis, material editing, and human relighting.

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Appendix

Thank you for reading our supplementary materials! Here we provide depth descriptions of our method, including details about loss functions (Sec. 6), image-based lighting (Sec. 7), and image-based lighting (Sec. 8). Then we present additional ablations about training views (Sec. 9) and skinning module (Sec. 9). Additional experimental results are illustrated in Sec. 10 and Sec. 12. We showcase application examples in Sec. 11. In the end, we discuss limitations and social impact in Sec. 13. We strongly encourage our readers to view the supplemental video for a more comprehensive visual perception.

6. Loss Functions

Our loss function $L = L_{img} + L_{mask} + L_{reg}$ is composed of three parts: an image loss L_{img} using ℓ_1 norm on tone mapped colors, and mask loss L_{mask} using squared ℓ_2 , and regularization losses L_{reg} to improve the quality of canonical geometry, materials, lights, and motion.

Image loss: our renderer utilizes physically-based shading to produce high-dynamic range (HDR) images. Then the complex materials and environmental lights are elaborately optimized. Thus our loss function requires a full range of floating point values. We follow [27, 61, 26] to compute ℓ_1 norm on tone mapped colors. Specifically, we first transform linear radiance values *i* according to a tone-mapping operator $T(i) = \Gamma(\log(i + 1))$, in which $\Gamma(i)$ is a linear RGB to sRGB transformation function [80]:

$$\Gamma(i) = \begin{cases} 12.92i & i \le 0.0031308\\ (1+a)i^{1/2.4} - a & i > 0.0031308 \end{cases}$$
(11)
$$a = 0.055,$$

Mask loss: The renderer [43] renders both the shaded images and the corresponding rasterization masks in a differentiable manner. Therefore, we compute the ℓ_2 norm between the masks and the preprocessed mattings (in both ZJU-MoCap and H36M benchmarks, we use the provided preprocessed subject masks from [70, 22]), akin to the traditional shape-from-silhouette [55] technique. The mask loss is parallel with the image loss, yet facilitates the course of shading optimization by making shape convergence super fast in about a hundred training steps.

Regularizers: We need various priors to encourage the optimization to converge at a place where the geometry, materials, and lighting are well separated and smooth enough [61, 26]. Therefore, we choose to minimize regularization during training.

We introduce smoothness to PBR materials in terms of albedo \mathbf{k}_d , specular parameters \mathbf{k}_{orm} , and surface geome-

try nomral n as following:

$$L_{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x}_{\text{surf}}|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{\text{surf}}} |\mathbf{k} (\mathbf{x}_{\text{surf}}) - \mathbf{k} (\mathbf{x}_{\text{surf}} + \epsilon)|, \qquad (12)$$

where $|\mathbf{x}_{\text{surf}}|$ is a surface point on the surface in canonical space and $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma = 0.01)$ is a small random offset. We regularize the geometry normal on the surface of the canonical mesh derived from the SDF field for a seek of a smoother surface and avoidance of holes in the surface.

We regularize light by assuming the neutral spectrum in the real world. Specifically, given the per-channel average radiance densities \bar{c}_i , we penalize the color shifts as:

$$L_{\text{light}} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=0}^{3} \left| c_i - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=0}^{3} c_i \right|, \qquad (13)$$

To encourage a watertight surface and reduce floating meshes both inside and outside the subject, we impose regularizations on the SDF field as:

$$L_{\text{sdf}} = \sum_{i,j \in S_e} H\left(\sigma\left(s_i\right), \text{sign}\left(s_j\right)\right) + H\left(\sigma\left(s_j\right), \text{sign}\left(s_i\right)\right),$$
(14)

where S_e is the set of all vertex along their edges in which the signs of the SDF values are different (*i.e.*, $sign(s_i) \neq sign(s_j)$). To remove the floating meshes outside the surface, we impose an additional loss. For a triangle surface f extracted by marching tetrahedra, if f is invisible, we encourage its SDF values to be positive as:

$$L_{\text{invis}} = \sum_{i \in S_{\text{invis}}} H(\sigma(s_i), 1).$$
(15)

We weigh the above terms and use the loss for all our experiments:

$$L = L_{\text{image}} + L_{\text{mask}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\lambda_{\mathbf{k}_{d}}}_{=0.03} \underbrace{L_{\mathbf{k}_{d}}}_{=0.05} \underbrace{L_{\mathbf{k}_{\text{orm}}}}_{=0.02} \underbrace{L_{\mathbf{n}}}_{=0.025} L_{\mathbf{n}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\lambda_{\text{light}}}_{=0.005} \underbrace{L_{\text{light}}}_{=0.02} \underbrace{L_{\text{sdf}}}_{=0.01} \underbrace{L_{\text{invis}}}_{=0.01} L_{\text{invis}}.$$
(16)

7. Image-based Lighting

The split sum shading model is widely used in realtime rendering [59], giving both realism and efficiency against spherical Gaussians (SG) and spherical harmonics (SH) [10, 13, 97]. We use a differentiable split sum [35] shading model to approximate rendering equation [32] for image-based environment light learning as [61]:

$$L(\omega_{o}) \approx \int_{\Omega} f(\omega_{i}, \omega_{o}) (\omega_{i} \cdot \mathbf{n}) d\omega_{i}$$

$$\int_{\Omega} L_{i}(\omega_{i}) D(\omega_{i}, \omega_{o}) (\omega_{i} \cdot \mathbf{n}) d\omega_{i}.$$
(17)

where D is the GGX normal distribution function (NDF) [85] in a Cook-Torrance microfacet specular shading model [16]. The first term contributes to the specular BSDF *wrt.* a solid white environment light, which depends solely on the roughness r of the BSDF and the light-surface angles $\cos \theta = \omega_i \cdot \mathbf{n}$. The second term contributes to the integral of the incoming radiance with the GGX normal distribution function, D. Both terms can be pre-computed and filtered to reduce computation [35].

The training parameters are texels of a cube light map whose resolution is $6 \times 512 \times 512$. The pre-integrated lighting for the least roughness values is derived from the base level, and multiple smaller mip levels are constructed from it [35]. Each mip-map is filtered by average-pooling the base level of the current resolution and is convolved with the GGX normal distribution function. The per mip-level filter bounds are pre-computed as well. We leverage a PyTorch implementation with CUDA extensions from [61]. Moreover, a cube map is created to represent the diffuse lighting in a low resolution, akin to the filtered specular probe. It shares the same optimizable parameters and is averagepooled to the mip level with r = 1 roughness. The prefiltering only involves the first term in Eq. 17.

8. Implementation Details

SDF network. We parametrize the SDF field with an MLP to increase surface water-tight and smoothness. We choose the MLP architecture from [58], which consists of 6 frequency bands for positional encoding, and 8 linear layers, each having 256 neurons, followed by ReLU activations. We implicitly regularize the smoothness by increasing the Lipschitz property in the SDF field[48].

Material network. The material model is a small MLP with hash-encoding [60] as the materials query is computationally extensive. The MLP consists of two linear layers, each having 32 neurons, followed by ReLU activations. The hash-encoding has a spatial resolution of 4096 and the rest configures are the same as [61]. To reduce computation, we predict all material channels at once with one backbone network. Besides, we introduce inductive bias of materials of clothed humans in the real world, by providing minimum and maximum values for each materials channel. We follow [100] to limit the albedo $\mathbf{k}_d \in [0.03, 0.8]$, and the roughness $\mathbf{k}_r \in [0.08, 1]$. The texels in the environment light are randomly initialized between [0.25, 0.75].

Motion networks. For the motion module, we use the same MLP architecture as [15, 88], which is similar to our SDF MLP. To resolve the problem where the training pose variation is too limited for skinning field learning (*e.g.*, self-rotation video without any limbs movements), we initialize the MLP with the pre-trained skinning model provided by [88], and impose ℓ_2 norm for the skinning weights logits between our predictions and the ground truth from

SMPL [53]. We ablate the design choices in Sec. 9. For the non-rigid modeling, we use another 4-layer ReLU MLP with a 4-frequency-band positional encoding. We also progressively anneal its encoding for 5k iterations as [66]. The weights of the last layer are initialized with a uniform distribution $\mathcal{U}(-10^{-5}, 10^{-5})$, *i.e.* initializing the non-rigid offsets to be close to zero and not interfering with the major optimizations of geometry and materials.

Optimization. We use Adam [39] as our default optimizer. We optimize the subject for 5k steps for 1024×1024 images or 10k steps 512×512 images. We disable the perturbed normal map during optimization as it leads to SDF collapsing abruptly at a certain step (*i.e.*, all SDF values are positive or negative where marching tetrahedra fails). The optimization process takes about an hour on a single NVIDIA GTX3090 GPU. The indicative results with plausible quality appear after a few minutes, which is quite faster than our counterparts [70, 69, 88, 92]. Such superior efficiency could largely accelerate downstream applications. The training visualization is presented in the supplemental video.

Tetrahedra grids. We start with a tetrahedra grid with 128×128 resolution, including 192k tetrahedra and 37k vertices. Each tetrahedron can produce at most 2 triangles by marching tetrahedra algorithm [61, 79, 19]. To increase the resolution of the tetrahedra grid, we subdivide the grid at the 500th step. To avoid the out-of-memory problem caused by the vast amount of floating meshes in the void space at the beginning of training, we pre-train the SDF network to **match a visual hull** of humans in canonical space. The hull could be derived from either the skeleton capsules or the SMPL [53] mesh. Note that we only pre-train for 500 iterations, which leads to **a very coarse shape** akin to the visual hull rather than the given ground truth mesh. The initialized mesh is presented in the training visualization part of the supplemental video.

9. Additional Ablations

Number of Training Views. Table 4 and Figure 9 show that giving one camera of view degrades the overall reconstruction quality, and multi-view consistency improves the final results. The model can aggregate multi-view information for better shading optimization, thus leading to clearer surface materials.

The effect of Skinning Module Design Table 5-6 and Figure 10-12 reveal that the initialization with pre-trained skinning net and the regularization on surface skinning improve the overall reconstruction quality. The initialization provides skinning prior which helps to speed up geometry convergence. From Figure 10-11, the geometry details improve with the initialization under the same training time.

The regularization on surface skinning prevents geometry degradation. Figure 12 indicates that our model can not learn correct canonical geometry without the initialization

	Trainin	ig pose	Novel pose		
ZJU-MoCap 313	PSNR ↑	SSIM↑	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	
1 view	24.39	0.913	21.45	0.869	
2 views	28.06	0.945	22.81	0.888	
3 views	28.50	0.956	23.17	0.894	
4 views	29.04	0.961	23.20	0.896	

Table 4: Ablation results of training views on the ZJU-MoCap 313 subject.



Figure 9: Ablation study of training views on the ZJU-MoCap 313 subject.

and the regularization. The mesh distortion is reduced with the regularization.

Table 5: The ablation on skinning module of H36M S9dataset.

	Trainin	ig Pose	Novel Pose		
H36M S9	PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM	
w/o skinning init. & reg.	24.88	0.905	21.97	0.851	
w/ skinning intialization	26.28	0.926	24.47	0.897	
w/ skinning regularization	26.24	0.925	24.34	0.896	
Full	26.29	0.926	24.53	0.899	

Table 6: The ablation on skinning module of ZJU-MoCap 313 dataset.

	Trainin	g Pose	Novel Pose		
ZJU-MoCap 313	PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM	
w/o skinning init. & reg.	27.46	0.949	20.31	0.831	
w/ skinning intialization	28.82	0.958	23.08	0.893	
w/ skinning regularization	28.80	0.959	23.14	0.895	
Full	29.05	0.961	23.27	0.897	

Effect of SDF Network The MLP parametrization of the SDF field keeps our surface both water-tight and smooth, as shown in Figure 13.



Figure 10: Ablation study of the skinning module on the H36M S9 subject.



Figure 11: Ablation study of the skinning module on the ZJU-MoCap 313 subject.



Figure 12: Ablation study of the skinning module on the ZJU-MoCap 313 subject.



Figure 13: Ablation study of SDF field parametrization.

10. More Comparisons

We present full quantitative comparisons in Table 9, Table 7, Table 10, and Table 8. Meanwhile, more qualitative comparisons are illustrated in Figure 14, Figure 15, and Figure 16.



Figure 14: Qualitative results of novel pose synthesis on H36M dataset. Zoom in for a better view.



Figure 15: Qualitative results of novel pose synthesis on ZJU-MoCap dataset. "N/A" denotes nothing to render due to no convergence. Zoom in for a better view.



Figure 16: Qualitative results of novel pose synthesis on H36M and ZJU-MoCap datasets with the full models. Zoom in for a better view.

Table 7: Quantitative results of training pose novel view synthesis of H36M dataset.

					Trainir	ing pose					
	PSNR							SSIM			
	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	
S 1	22.87	23.71	22.05	24.45	24.56	0.897	0.915	0.888	0.919	0.919	
S5	24.60	24.78	23.27	24.54	24.51	0.917	0.909	0.892	0.918	0.920	
S6	22.82	23.22	21.13	24.61	24.55	0.888	0.881	0.854	0.903	0.902	
S 7	23.17	22.59	22.50	24.31	24.05	0.914	0.905	0.890	0.919	0.916	
S 8	21.72	24.55	22.75	24.02	23.94	0.894	0.922	0.898	0.921	0.920	
S9	24.28	25.31	24.72	26.20	25.99	0.910	0.913	0.908	0.924	0.919	
S11	23.70	25.83	24.55	25.43	25.48	0.896	0.917	0.902	0.921	0.915	
Average	23.31	24.28	23.00	24.79	24.72	0.902	0.909	0.890	0.918	0.916	

11. Applications

ure 18, and Figure 19 separately. All the above applications are presented in the supplemental video.

We showcase relighting, texture editing, and novel poses synthesis on AIST dataset [46] in Figure 17, Fig-

	Unseen pose									
			PSNR					SSIM		
	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours
S 1	21.93	22.67	19.96	23.08	23.72	0.873	0.890	0.855	0.899	0.904
S5	23.33	23.27	20.02	22.79	23.13	0.893	0.881	0.840	0.890	0.898
S 6	23.26	23.23	23.64	24.04	24.17	0.888	0.888	0.882	0.900	0.903
S 7	22.40	22.51	21.76	22.58	22.72	0.888	0.898	0.869	0.891	0.889
S 8	20.78	23.06	21.63	22.34	22.71	0.872	0.904	0.877	0.896	0.902
S9	22.87	23.84	21.95	24.36	24.54	0.880	0.889	0.871	0.894	0.895
S11	23.54	24.19	22.55	24.78	24.47	0.879	0.891	0.875	0.902	0.900
Average	22.59	23.25	21.64	23.42	23.64	0.882	0.892	0.867	0.896	0.899

Table 8: Quantitative results of unseen pose novel view synthesis of H36M dataset.

Table 9: Quantitative results of training pose novel view synthesis of ZJU-MoCap dataset.

		Training pose									
	PSNR							SSIM			
	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	
Twirl(313)	30.56	31.32	29.80	31.60	29.67	0.971	0.974	0.963	0.973	0.947	
Taichi(315)	27.24	27.25	23.10	27.00	24.21	0.962	0.962	0.917	0.965	0.919	
Swing1(392)	29.44	29.29	28.00	29.50	27.58	0.946	0.946	0.931	0.948	0.899	
Swing2(393)	28.44	28.76	26.10	27.70	25.91	0.940	0.941	0.916	0.940	0.890	
Swing3(394)	27.58	27.50	27.50	28.90	27.67	0.939	0.938	0.924	0.945	0.902	
Warmup(377)	27.64	27.67	24.20	27.80	26.69	0.951	0.954	0.925	0.956	0.926	
Punch1(386)	28.60	28.81	25.60	29.20	27.65	0.931	0.931	0.878	0.934	0.881	
Punch2(387)	25.79	26.08	25.40	27.00	25.68	0.928	0.929	0.926	0.945	0.908	
Kick(390)	27.59	27.77	26.00	27.90	24.08	0.926	0.927	0.912	0.929	0.840	
Average	28.10	26.19	28.27	28.51	26.57	0.944	0.945	0.921	0.948	0.901	

12. Mesh Visualizations

We visualize the canonical mesh and present the number of faces of each mesh in Figure 20 and Figure 12. Note that the number of faces for each mesh is quite small. Though increasing the resolution of tetrahedra grids may improve the details of both geometry and materials, we do not conduct this experiment for it is orthogonal to our technical contributions.

13. Limitations and Further Discussions

Our method is biased for shape-material ambiguity [88, 45, 81, 63, 69, 87, 98]. Taking subject 315 from ZJU-MoCap as an example, the strips in the T-shirt are modeled as ravines on the surface. The high contrast color in the cloth surface makes our model biased for shape modeling. That might be resolved by introducing additional surface regularizers or pre-defined parameters for the materials.

Need foreground mask to enable the mesh optimization, akin to shape-from-silhouette. One future direction might be equipping our method with the ability to separate foreground and background automatically [31, 24]. It is also promising to model the background simultaneously during foreground subject optimization [31, 24], which eliminates the requirement of foreground mask processing.

Our method can digitize humans from visual footage, which may involve avatar misuse without the permission of the owners. Methods like implicit adversarial watermarks [11, 47] that disable the neural nets inference could assist the video creation to protect their portrait rights. Another concern is the deep fake misuse [62], which corrupts the identity in the visual footage rendered by our model. Methods like deep fake detection [64] could help to discover and prevent deep fake creations. Besides, our method involves training with GPUs, which leads to carbon emissions and increasing global warming [67].

	Unseen pose										
	PSNR							SSIM			
	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	NB	SA-NeRF	Ani-NeRF	ARAH	Ours	
Twirl(313)	23.95	24.33	22.80	24.40	23.63	0.905	0.908	0.863	0.914	0.878	
Taichi(315)	19.56	19.87	18.47	20.00	20.42	0.852	0.863	0.795	0.881	0.850	
Swing1(392)	25.76	26.27	18.44	26.20	25.49	0.909	0.927	0.670	0.927	0.883	
Swing2(393)	23.80	24.96	21.87	24.40	24.31	0.878	0.900	0.836	0.915	0.883	
Swing3(394)	23.25	24.24	17.69	25.20	24.72	0.893	0.908	0.792	0.908	0.870	
Warmup(377)	23.91	25.34	23.28	25.50	24.80	0.909	0.928	0.901	0.933	0.894	
Punch1(386)	25.68	27.30	25.55	27.00	26.24	0.881	0.905	0.872	0.910	0.853	
Punch2(387)	21.60	23.08	21.92	24.20	24.06	0.870	0.890	0.838	0.917	0.889	
Kick(390)	23.90	24.43	23.90	24.80	25.79	0.870	0.889	0.887	0.896	0.873	
Average	23.49	24.42	21.55	24.63	24.38	0.885	0.902	0.828	0.911	0.875	

Table 10: Quantitative results of unseen pose novel view synthesis of ZJU-MoCap dataset.



Figure 17: **Relighting visualization.** Zoom in for a better view. We strongly encourage our readers to view the supplemental video for a more comprehensive visual perception.



Figure 18: **Texture editing visualization.** Zoom in for a better view. We strongly encourage our readers to view the supplemental video for a more comprehensive visual perception.



Figure 19: **Extreme pose visualization.** Zoom in for a better view. We strongly encourage our readers to view the supplemental video for a more comprehensive visual perception.



Figure 20: Mesh visualization on the H36M dataset. Zoom in for a better view.



Figure 21: Mesh visualization on the ZJU-MoCap dataset. Zoom in for a better view.