TORE: Token Reduction for Efficient Human Mesh Recovery with Transformer

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Abstract

In this paper, we introduce a set of simple yet effective TOken REDuction (TORE) strategies for Transformer-based Human Mesh Recovery from monocular images. Current SOTA performance is achieved by Transformer-based structures. However, they suffer from high model complexity and computation cost caused by redundant tokens. We propose token reduction strategies based on two important aspects, i.e., the 3D geometry structure and 2D image feature, where we hierarchically recover the mesh geometry with priors from body structure and conduct token clustering to pass fewer but more discriminative image feature tokens to the Transformer. Our method massively reduces the number of tokens involved in high-complexity interactions in the Transformer. This leads to a significantly reduced computational cost while still achieving competitive or even higher accuracy in shape recovery. Extensive experiments across a wide range of benchmarks validate the superior effectiveness of the proposed method. We further demonstrate the generalizability of our method on hand mesh recovery. Visit our project page at https://frank-zy-dou.github.io/projects/Tore/index.html.

1. Introduction

Human Mesh Recovery (HMR) has been extensively researched in recent years, given its wide real-world applications [15, 81, 11, 62, 69, 17, 42, 84]. This task becomes more challenging when the input is a monocular 2D image, due to the large pose and shape variation, large appearance variation, partial observation, and self-occlusion.

There has been steady progress in 3D human mesh recovery [30, 50, 36, 24, 60, 39, 40, 8, 5]. Recently, Transformer [67] has shown state-of-the-art (SOTA) results on a wide variety of tasks due to its strong capability of capturing long-range dependency for more accurate predictions [3, 67, 76, 74]. Using tokens constructed from local features extracted by a convolutional neural network

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Figure 1. Throughput vs. Accuracy and GFLOPs vs. Accuracy on Human3.6M [23]. Our method dramatically saves GFLOPs and improves throughput while maintaining highly competitive accuracy. The x-axis of the bottom GFLOPs figure is reversed for demonstration. Eb0 and R50 represent EfficientNet-b0 [65] and ResNet-50 [20] backbones, respectively. (CNN) [20, 70] to query the joint and mesh vertex positions, Transformer-based methods [39, 40, 8] achieved SOTA performance.

However, improved performance comes with costs: the increased expressivity of Transformers comes with quadratically increasing computational costs since all pairwise interactions are taken into account [14]. The space and time complexity of a QKV-attention operation is known to be $O(M^2)$, where $M$ is the number of tokens. The token number thus plays a vital role in time efficiency: a large number of tokens inevitably leads to a heavy computation burden. Unfortunately, almost all the existing Transformer-based SOTA methods for HMR [39, 40, 8] are suffering from redundant tokens. This incurs a high model complexity and computational costs, which prevents the current Transformer-based HMR methods from achieving their full potential in real-world applications.

In this paper, we make key observations from two important aspects: the 3D geometry structure and 2D image
feature, to reveal the problem of token redundancy. First, to recover the 3D geometry, all existing methods use both mesh vertices and skeleton joints as tokens for the feature interaction between input and body shape. Whereas a body mesh contains numerous vertices, they can be abstracted by a small number of joints on the skeleton. For instance, when animating a SMPL [44] avatar, the skeleton joints, together with a blend shape binding the joints and corresponding mesh vertices of the local body part, are able to describe various body meshes. Therefore, the joints can already be viewed as an underlying structure of a body shape, which intrinsically encodes the human mesh geometry. Second, for image-based input, most existing methods indiscriminately use all the feature patches to capture pose, shape and appearance variance. However, although the human body exhibits large variance, the important features for shape inference are dominantly clustered within the body area in an RGB image. Most features, e.g., image background, are not informative, thus bringing about redundancy.

Given the aforementioned insights, we argue that the Pareto-front of accuracy and efficiency for Transformer-based HMR could be further improved by reducing the number of tokens [59, 47, 56]. To this end, we introduce a set of simple yet effective token reduction strategies mainly from two aspects corresponding to our observations. First, for 3D mesh recovery, instead of querying both vertices and joints with input features simultaneously, we consider learning a small set of body tokens at the skeleton level for each body part. To recover corresponding mesh vertices, we use an efficient Neural Shape Regressor (NSR) to infer the mesh from the body features encoded by these tokens. This query process can also be interpreted as an attention matrix decomposition, by which we effectively leverage the geometric insights encoded at the skeleton level to infer the mesh structure hierarchically. Second, for the input image feature, we introduce a learnable token pruner to prune the tokens of patch-based features extracted by a CNN. We employ a clustering-based strategy to identify discriminative features, which results in two appealing properties: 1) the end-to-end learning of the pruner is unsupervised, avoiding the need for additional data labeling; 2) it learns semantically consistent features across various images, thus further benefiting the geometry reasoning and enhancing the capability of generalizability. These token reduction strategies substantially reduce the number of query tokens involved in the computation without sacrificing the important information. An overview is shown in Figure 2.

We conduct extensive experiments across wide benchmarks [23, 68, 85], including both the human body and hand mesh recovery, to validate the proposed method. Compared to SOTA methods, our framework faithfully recovers body meshes with fewer tokens, which considerably reduces memory and computation overhead while maintaining competitive geometric accuracy.

In summary, our contribution is three-fold:

- We reveal the issues of token redundancy in the existing Transformer-based methods for HMR.
- We propose effective strategies for token reduction by incorporating the insights from the 3D geometry structure and 2D image feature into the Transformer design.
- Our method achieves SOTA performance on various benchmarks with less computation cost. For instance, for the Transformer Encoder structure [39] and the Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure [8] with ResNet-50 [20] backbone, our method maintains competitive accuracy while saving 82.9%, 50.5% GFLOPs and improving 139.1%, 39.8% throughput, respectively; see Figure 1 for an overview.

2. Related Work

Human Mesh Recovery (HMR) from monocular images has achieved great progress in the past years [4, 30, 50, 36, 10, 40, 24, 60, 5, 39, 8, 82, 71, 58]. Given a monocular RGB image, the goal of HMR is to recover the 3D body shape, typically using a human body model, e.g., SMPL [44]. We refer readers to [66] for a comprehensive review. Existing methods fall into two categories: Non-Transformer-based and Transformer-based approaches.

Non-Transformer-based Human Mesh Recovery To recover the human body shape, one could predict a few parameters, i.e., joint rotation and body shape, to drive the parametric model (parametric approach) or directly regress the vertex positions of the body (non-parametric approach). Parametric approaches SMPLify [4] estimates human pose and shape by fitting SMPL to the detected 2D key points [55] by optimization. Kanazawa et al. [24] adopt adversarial prior knowledge of the 3D body shape into the neural network for HMR. SPIN [30] then combines regression-based and optimization-based methods during the training loop. Intermediate features such as key points [54], pixel-to-surface correspondences [77] and texture consistency [52], have been exploited. HybrIK [36] proposes a hybrid inverse kinematics via twist-and-swing decomposition [2]. Regressing the body parameters from the image is a highly non-linear mapping [50], which thus limits the performance of parametric-based approaches.

Non-parametric approaches Non-parametric approaches [50, 32, 9] recover spatial coordinates of a body shape directly from the image features. 12L-MeshNet [50] predicts the per-pixel likelihood on 1D heatmaps for vertex coordinates for a trade-off between accuracy and computational cost. GraphCMR [32] and Pose2Mesh [9] employ graph convolutional neural network (GCNN) [27].
Figure 2. Overview of the proposed framework. Our goal is to reduce tokens for Transformer Encoder and Decoder which are critical modules in the whole pipeline. Image Token Pruner (ITP) and Neural Shape Regressor (NSR) are two lightweight components.

To regress mesh positions by modeling local interactions among vertices from the image [32] and 2D pose [9], respectively. Although steady progress has been made, SOTA accuracy is produced by Transformer-based methods.

**Transformer-based Human Mesh Recovery** Recently, Transformer structures have been successfully adopted in various vision tasks [12, 43, 6, 51, 66, 80]. In HMR, the SOTA performance is achieved by Transformer-based (attention mechanism) approaches [39, 29, 40, 8]. Specifically, METRO [39] recovers body mesh using a Transformer Encoder [67] to model vertex-vertex and vertex-joint interactions conducting dimension reduction from the image features to 3D shape. MeshGraphormer [40] injects Graph Convolutions [27] into the Transformer Encoder [39] blocks to improve local interactions among vertices. The recent work FastMETRO [8] employs a Transformer Encoder-Decoder architecture disentangling the image encoding and mesh estimation for model reduction and acceleration. However, all Transformer-based approaches [39, 40, 8] suffer from redundant tokens, causing heavy interaction between body geometry and image features, which is still cumbersome and computationally intensive. In this paper, we design strategies driven by the 3D body geometry and 2D image feature for token reduction for both Transformer Encoder and Transformer Encoder-Decoder structures.

**Token Reduction for Transformers** Token reduction for Transformer structures has been causing people’s attention nowadays [56, 47, 59, 78, 16, 38, 46, 7]. In particular, DynamicViT [56] reduces less informative tokens hierarchically with supervision from a teacher network to save computational costs during inference. TokenLearner [59] generates a smaller number of tokens with spatial attention adaptively. Patch-to-Cluster [16] proposes to cluster over image patches with a token selector. Our method follows this way and adopts a token selection layer for clustering over input tokens, reducing tokens and improving generalization capability in challenging scenarios. Token pruning techniques have also been explored in single-view 2D pose estimation and multi-view 3D pose estimation [47] by selecting tokens based on the attention value in the Transformer. Differently, in HMR, besides the key points, body geometry, i.e., mesh vertices, also introduces a burden to the Transformer and needs to be carefully considered.

### 3. Methodology

We employ the popular body parametric model SMPL [44] to represent a human body. Formally, given a monocular image \( I \in \mathbb{R}^{224 \times 224} \), our goal is to recover the joint positions \( J \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times 3} \) and mesh vertices \( V \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times 3} \) where \( J = 14 \), \( V = 6890 \) are the numbers of joints and the mesh vertices, respectively. In addition to the human body, we also demonstrate our method on hand mesh recovery with MANO model [57] to show its generalizability.

Existing Transformer-based HMR methods fall into two categories: a single Transformer Encoder structure [39, 40] and a Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure [8]. Accordingly, we propose two strategies to reduce tokens from 3D and 2D levels, namely, Geometry Token Reduction (GTR) and Image Token Pruning (ITP), which can accommodate different Transformer structures to improve their efficiency.

#### 3.1. Geometry Token Reduction (GTR)

As an essential module, all the existing Transformer-based methods for HMR [39, 40, 8] have to model the interaction between body geometry and image features with an attention mechanism. Therefore, an effective token reduction method to improve the efficiency for inferring mesh geometry can benefit the design of Transformer based methods in a wide scope.

We observe existing methods invariably use both skeleton joints and mesh vertices as tokens for regressing their spatial coordinates. The numerous tokens inevitably lead to
significant computational costs for a Transformer. In fact, as an underlying structure of the human body, the skeleton joints already provide strong priors for perceiving the body geometry. A human body avatar, like SMPL [44], can be driven by a small number of joints with the blend shape. This inspires us to regress the human body mesh in a hierarchical manner.

Our key idea is to decompose a heavy Transformer into smaller Transformer modules, each of which involves fewer tokens, avoiding expensive computation for image feature interaction. Specifically, our approach only queries the body tokens, whose count is equivalent to the number of joints. Since the number of joints is much less than the number of mesh vertices, we can significantly reduce the token number in complex 2D-3D feature interactions and this leads to a substantial enhancement in efficiency.

To faithfully recover body shape from the body tokens, we introduce a Neural Shape Regressor (NSR) module, which is a light Transformer structure, to query the vertex tokens from their interaction with body features. Let \( F_j = \{ f_1^j, f_2^j, \ldots, f_J^j \} \) denotes a set of learned body features and \( T_V = \{ t_1^v, t_2^v, \ldots, t_V^v \} \) where \( t_i^v \) represents a set of vertex tokens which are the query tokens. We conduct cross-attention between query vertex tokens and body features to model the interaction between vertices and learned body features. Note that non-adjacent vertices are masked to improve the efficiency [8].

The feature size within NSR is even smaller compared with the main Transformer. Thanks to the informative geometric feature encoded in the body tokens, despite not incorporating image tokens, NSR still faithfully recovers the surface vertices. Another interesting discovery is that the learned attention scores reflect the correlation between joints and vertices at a body part level, similar to body blending weights (see Sec. 4.7.3). In this way, we can effectively reduce the cost of redundant interaction by decomposing the entire body into encoded constituent parts and efficiently recovering the whole body shape.

3.2. Image Token Pruning (ITP)

In addition to the geometric insights, for a Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure, image tokens also affect the computation overhead. However, the existing methods adopting this Transformer structure fail to avoid the token redundancy issue [8] because all available image feature patches are indiscriminately involved in human mesh recovery. Actually, some features, e.g., image background, are not informative, thus introducing redundancy and increasing the computational cost of the Transformer.

To tackle this issue, we introduce an effective token pruning strategy, namely, Image Token Pruning (ITP). Our key insight is that the informative features in an image for inferring 3D geometry are overwhelmingly clustered within the region of the human body. Inspired by recent advances in token pruning [16, 59, 56, 47], we propose to aggregate features into a small number of meaningful clusters.

Let \( 0 < \rho < 1 \) denote the predefined token pruning ratio. Our goal is to learn a projection that maps feature map \( F_t \in R^{HW \times c} \) extracted from the given image with \( HW \) tokens to \( Z_t \in R^{T \times c} \) with \( T \) tokens, where \( T = \lfloor \rho HW \rfloor \) and \( c \) is the feature dimension. The small number of clusters \( Z_t \) are expected to capture the fewer but more discriminative features in \( F_t \). Inspired by [16, 59], we implement the projection as a learnable CNN module. We first apply Conv2D to the input feature, where the kernel size, stride and zero padding of Conv2D are 3 x 3, 1 and 1, reducing the feature dimension from \( c \) to \( c' = c/4 \) with GELU [21] activation function applied. We further map the dimension \( c \) to \( N \) by MLP and Softmax, producing \( M \in R^{HW \times N} \). Finally, the clustered token set is given by \( Z_t = M^T \cdot F_t \).

The mapping matrix \( M^T \), in essence, produces a clustering over origin tokens. Each element \( m_{ij} \in M^T \) depicts the contribution of \( j \)-th token to \( i \)-th cluster. Note that LayerNorm is employed after the clustering.

**Token Reduction Supervision** In order to encourage ITP to pay more attention to those discriminative feature regions, i.e., body parts, during token reduction, we introduce Token Reduction Supervision. Given the weak-perspective camera estimated the neural network, we compute the 2D projection of the ground truth 3D vertices \( \hat{V} \) as \( s \Pi(\hat{V}) + t \) where \( \Pi \) represents an orthographic projection, \( s \) and \( t \) are scale and translation estimated by the network. The projected results are downsampled to a discrete \( H \times W \) grid corresponding to each token followed by a binary indicator function

\[
F_d(x) = \begin{cases} 
1, & \text{if the cell contains a projected point.} \\
0, & \text{if the cell does not contain a projected point.} 
\end{cases}
\]

Then the supervision for token pruning is given by

\[
L_P = -\frac{1}{NHW} \sum_{i}^{N} (F_d(s\Pi(\hat{V}) + t) \cdot M_{i,:}).
\]

With this supervision, the weights of background tokens in \( M_{i,:} \) for each \( i \)-th cluster will be penalized during training, which thus encourages the ITP to learn the discriminative features.

The proposed ITP has several noticeable advantages. First, in contrast to other methods relying on explicit supervision, e.g., using a pretrained teacher network to facilitate the pruning [56, 78, 33], our token pruner is trained in an unsupervised manner. Note that no ground truth masking is required for Token Reduction Supervision. Second, unlike previous clustering-based pruning methods [16] that use pre-defined class labels, ITP aims to adaptively identify discriminative features within the body region. Therefore,
ITP is not limited to fixed semantic labels but is able to induce higher-level semantics according to the learning target.

Finally, we find the clustered informative features learned by ITP improve the model generalizability, especially for challenging datasets, e.g., in-the-wild dataset 3DPW [68] as shown in Table 3. We elaborate on these properties in Sec. 4.3.2 and Sec. 4.7.1 with extensive experiments.

### 3.3. Loss Functions

We supervise the network using L1 distance between predicted mesh vertices at three sampling levels: $L_{V3D} = ||Y_{3D} - \hat{V}||_1 + ||Y_{3D}^m - \hat{V}^m||_1 + ||Y_{3D}^h - \hat{V}^h||_1$, where $s^l, s^m, s^h$ denote low, middle and high body mesh resolution with vertex numbers to be 431, 1723 and 6890 for an SMPL body. The ground-truth 3D joints are used for supervising predicted 3D joints and the ones regressed from the vertices $Y_{3D}$ with a SMPL regression matrix $\mathcal{M}$: $L_{J3D} = ||\mathcal{J}_{3D} - \hat{\mathcal{J}}_{3D}||_1, L_{D3D}^M = ||\mathcal{M}(V) - \hat{\mathcal{J}}_{3D}||_1$. A 2D projection loss $L_{J2D}$ is used during the network training, where we employ a weak perspective camera model to project 3D joints to 2D for supervision: $L_{J2D}^R = ||(s\Pi(\mathcal{M}(V)) + t) - \hat{\mathcal{J}}_{2D}||_1$, $s, t$ are scale and translation estimated by the network. Overall, together with the Token Pruning Supervision $L_T$, the total loss is:

$$L = \alpha [\lambda_{J3D}(L_{J3D}^R + L_{J3D}) + \lambda_{V3D}(L_{V3D}) + \lambda_PL_P] + \beta \lambda_{J2D}L_{J2D}^R,$$

where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ indicate the availability of the supervision. We set $\lambda_P, \lambda_{J2D}, \lambda_{V3D}, \lambda_{J3D}$ to be 1, 100, 100, 1000.

### 4. Experimental Results

#### 4.1. Datasets and Metrics

We evaluate our model in two scenarios: human body mesh recovery and hand mesh recovery. We adopt commonly-used metrics [25, 31, 39, 40, 8]: Mean Per-Joint Position Error (MPJPE), MPJPE after further alignment, i.e., Procrustes Analysis (PAMPJPE) and Mean Per-Vertex Error (MPVE). For human body mesh recovery, our network is trained with Human3.6M [23], MuCo-3DHP[48], UP-3D [34], COCO [41], MPII [1]. Following previous works [39, 40, 8], we use the pseudo mesh data in Human3.6M [23] for training, splitting subjects S1, S5, S6, S7, S8 for training and S9, S11 for testing. We also report our performance on 3DPW [68], a more challenging in-the-wild dataset. To further evaluate the generalization ability of the proposed method, we test our method on hand mesh recovery on FreiHAND [85] dataset. For analyzing the efficiency of our method, we report GFLOPs and throughput (image per second), strictly following [56, 49, 59, 47, 38].

#### 4.2. Implementation Details

**Network Training** We implement the network using PyTorch. For the Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure, we set the learning rate to be $1 \times 10^{-4}$. We use the AdamW optimizer [45] and train for 60 epochs, with a batch size of 16 per GPU on 4 Nvidia A100 GPUs. When comparing with Transformer Encoder structure METRO [39] (see Table 1), we follow the setting of METRO where we train the models with a batch size of 30 per GPU on 8 Nvidia A100 GPUs in total. We adopt Adam optimizer [26] and train the models for 200 epochs. See more details in Appendix A.

**Performance Evaluation** To analyze the performance on a consumer-level GPU device, we measure the throughput on an NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPU with 24G VRAM. When comparing with encoder-decoder Transformer structure FastMETRO [8], we set the batch size to 32 following PPT [47]. The comparison with Transformer Encoder structure METRO [39] uses 16 as the batch size. Note that the batch size is limited by the size of the original METRO [39] model. To factor out the influence of the batch size, we provide a more detailed performance report in Appendix B.

#### 4.3. Performance on Human Mesh Recovery

Currently, there only exist two types of representative Transformer structures for HMR: Encoder-only structure (METRO [39]) and Encoder-Decoder structure (FastMETRO [8]). To demonstrate the effectiveness of our method to both Transformer structures, we first conduct experiments by adding GTR to two structures: METRO and FastMETRO. Since ITP is designed for the encoder-decoder structure, we further report the results on FastMETRO with both ITP and GTR in Sec. 4.3.2. The overall comparison is shown in Table 5.

#### 4.3.1 Transformer Encoder Structure

As shown in Table 1, GTR effectively reduces the computation costs while still producing competitive accuracy results. For the encoder-based Transformer model METRO [39] with HRNet-W64 [70] as a backbone, applying GTR saves the GFLOPs of the whole model for 46.5% and the Transformer part for 97.1%, with throughput im-

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**Table 1. Comparison with the Transformer Encoder structure METRO (M) [39] on Human3.6M [23]. We test with ResNet-50 (R50) [20] and HRNet-W64 (H64) [70] as backbones. GFLOPs is GFLOPs of the transformer.**

| Method   | GFLOPs ↓ | GFLOPs↑ | Throughput (ms) | PAMPJPE ↓ |
|----------|----------|---------|-----------------|-----------|
| M-R50    | 40.6     | 47.2    | 2.0             | 37.1      |
| M-R50+GTR| 5.4      | 47.2 (+82.9%) | 210.1 (+49.0%) | 37.1 (+1.1%) |
| M-R50+GTR| 2.0      | 47.2 (+97.1%) | 590.6 (+139.1%) | 42.0 (+3.4%) |

**Table 5. Comparison with the Transformer Encoder structure METRO (M) [39] on Human3.6M [23]. We test with ResNet-50 (R50) [20] and HRNet-W64 (H64) [70] as backbones. GFLOPs is GFLOPs of the transformer.**
FastMETRO [39] produces competitive accuracy while reducing 15.4% in GFLOPs for the whole model, 89.4% in GFLOPs for the Transformer part and improving 12.5% in throughput with an HRNet-W64 [70] CNN backbone. When testing with ResNet-50 [20], GTR helps save 50.5% in GFLOPs for the whole model, 89.4% in GFLOPs for the Transformer part and improves 39.8% in throughput. Notably, our FastMETRO(S)-R50+GTR and FastMETRO(S)-Eb0+GTR yield 38.6, 44.4 mm PAMPJPE respectively, surpassing the corresponding baselines while greatly saving computational costs.

We then present the performance of the Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure with GTR and ITP using ResNet-50 [20] and EfficientNet-b0 [65] CNN backbones.

Table 3. Influence of ITP for monocular 3D human mesh recovery on 3DPW [68].

| Method                  | MPVE | MPJPE | PAMPJPE |
|-------------------------|------|-------|---------|
| FastMETRO-H64+GTR       | 91.3 | 75.4  | 46.7    |
| FastMETRO-H64+GTR+ITP@20% | 88.2 | 72.3  | 44.4    |

As shown in Table 4, TORE (GTR+ITP) is effective for the Encoder-Decoder Transformer structure. Specifically, when pruning with 20%, 50% in ITP, the models save the GLOPs of the Transformer structure by 14.3%, 14.3% and 28.5%, 42.9% while receiving competitive accuracy or even higher accuracy i.e., FM-Eb0+GTR+ITP@20% improves PAMPJPE compared with the baseline.

Table 5. Comparison with the SOTA methods for monocular 3D human mesh recovery on 3DPW [68] and Human3.6M [23].

| Method                  | 3DPW MPJPE PAMPJPE | Human3.6M MPJPE PAMPJPE |
|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| HMR [25]                | –                  | 88.0                  |
| GraphCMR [32]           | –                  | 50.1                  |
| SPIN [30]               | 116.4              | 52.5                  |
| 2LMeshNet [50]          | –                  | 57.7                  |
| PyMAF [83]              | 110.1              | 55.7                  |
| ROMP-R50 [64]           | 105.6              | 53.5                  |
| PARE-R50 [29]           | 99.7               | 52.3                  |
| DRE-R50 [13]            | 99.5               | 51.7                  |
| METRO-R50 [39]          | –                  | 56.5                  |
| METRO-H64+GTR           | 88.2               | 47.9                  |
| FastMETRO-R50 [8]       | 87.9               | 46.6                  |
| FastMETRO-H64+GTR+ITP@20% | 90.6             | 48.3                  |
| FastMETRO-H64+GTR+ITP@20% | 92.2               | 52.3                  |
| FastMETRO-H64+GTR+ITP@20% | 84.1             | 44.6                  |
| FastMETRO-H64+GTR+ITP@20% | 88.2             | 44.4                  |
| FastMETRO-Eb0 [8]       | 112.5              | 60.2                  |
| FastMETRO-Eb0+GTR+ITP@20% | 112.5             | 60.1                  |

In addition, we find that ITP helps improve the accuracy on the challenging in-the-wild 3DPW [68] dataset, shown in Table 3. Specifically, when further equipped with ITP, the model performance in MPVE, MPJPE and PAMPJPE are improved by 3.1mm, 3.1mm and 2.3 mm, respectively.

4.3.2 Transformer Encoder-Decoder Structure

We experiment on the Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure FastMETRO [8] with its two variants: models with 1 and 3 Encoder-Decoder layers. For 1-layer FastMETRO, we denote it as FastMETRO(S). In Table 2, GTR equipped

![Figure 3. Qualitative results of GTR equipped Encoder-Decoder structure [39] (H64) on Human3.6M [23] and 3DPW [68].](image-url)

Table 2. Comparison with the Transformer Encoder-Decoder structure FastMETRO (FM) [8] on Human3.6M [23]. We test with EfficientNet-b0 (Eb0) [65], ResNet-50 (R50) [20] and HRNet-W64 (H64) [70] as backbones. GFLOPs\textsuperscript{T} stand for GFLOPs for the transformer. 

| Method                  | GFLOPs ↓ | GFLOPs\textsuperscript{T} ↓ | Throughput (m/s) | PAMPJPE ↓ |
|-------------------------|----------|----------------------------|------------------|-----------|
| FM-H64 [8]              | 35.7     | 6.6                       | 221.5            | 33.7      |
| FM-H64+GTR              | 30.2 (+15.4%) | 6.7 (-89.4%) | 249.2 (+12.5%)  | 34.8 (+3.4%) |
| FM-Eb0 [8]              | 30.9     | 6.7                       | 567.0            | 37.5      |
| FM-R50 [8]              | 5.4 (+50.5%) | 6.7 (-89.4%) | 805.3 (+39.8%)  | 34.6 (+3.4%) |
| FM(R50)+GTR             | 5.4 (+50.5%) | 6.7 (-89.4%) | 805.3 (+39.8%)  | 34.6 (+3.4%) |
| FM(H64)+GTR             | 5.4 (+50.5%) | 6.7 (-89.4%) | 805.3 (+39.8%)  | 34.6 (+3.4%) |
| FM(S)-R50+GTR           | 4.6 (-28.1%) | 6.3 (-86.4%) | 1128.9 (+18.4%) | 37.4      |
| FM(Eb0)+GTR             | 7.1      | 6.6                       | 547.6            | 35.8      |
| FM(Eb0)+GTR             | 7.1      | 6.6                       | 547.6            | 35.8      |

proved by 49%. For the ResNet-50 [20] backbone, GTR helps save the GFLOPs of the whole model for 82.9% and the Transformer part for 97.1%, with throughput improved by 139.1%. These results validate the effectiveness of the proposed GTR on the Transformer Encoder structure. Qualitative results of METRO-H64+GTR can be found in Figure 3, in which the model produces high-quality results in human mesh recovery over various input monocular images.

In addition, we find that ITP helps improve the accuracy on the challenging in-the-wild 3DPW [68] dataset, shown in Table 3. Specifically, when further equipped with ITP, the model performance in MPVE, MPJPE and PAMPJPE are improved by 3.1mm, 3.1mm and 2.3 mm, respectively.

In Table 2, GTR equipped
Table 4. Statistics of all proposed components (GTR + ITP) for Encoder-Decoder structure FastMETRO (FM) [8] on Human3.6M [23]. The backbones are EfficientNet-b0 (Eb0) [65] and ResNet-50 (R50) [20]. GFLOPs\textsuperscript{T} stands for GFLOPs of the Transformer.

| Method + Pruning Rate | #Tokens | GFLOPs ↓ | GFLOPs\textsuperscript{T} ↓ | Throughput (im/s) ↑ | PAMPJPE ↓ |
|-----------------------|---------|----------|----------------------------|---------------------|-----------|
| FM-R50+GTR            | 49      | 5.4      | 0.7                        | 805.3               | 38.6      |
| FM-R50+GTR+ITP@20%    | 39      | 5.3 (-1.8%) | 0.6 (-14.3%) | 794.7 (-1.3%) | 40.5 (+4.9%) |
| FM-R50+GTR+ITP@50%    | 24      | 5.1 (-5.5%) | 0.5 (-28.5%) | 806.1 (+0.1%) | 40.7 (+5.4%) |
| FM-Eb0+GTR           | 49      | 1.7      | 0.7                        | 870.5               | 41.2      |
| FM-Eb0+GTR+ITP@20%   | 39      | 1.6 (-5.9%) | 0.6 (-14.3%) | 876.3 (+0.7%) | 43.9 (-0.5%) |
| FM-Eb0+GTR+ITP@50%   | 24      | 1.4 (-17.6%) | 0.4 (-42.9%) | 870.4 (-0.1%) | 44.0 (-0.5%) |

Figure 4. Qualitative results of FastMETRO+GTR+ITP\@20% on Human3.6M [23] and 3DPW [68].

These results indicate that the ITP module learns more discriminative features and thus enhances the capability of generalization, allowing methods with ITP to achieve better performance in more challenging in-the-wild scenarios. The strong representation capability of ITP can also be seen in the clustering process, which promotes competitive accuracy with fewer tokens while producing semantically meaningful clustering results, as demonstrated in Sec. 4.7.1.

We conduct comparisons with existing SOTA approaches (both Transformer and Non-Transformer based) on monocular human mesh recovery. The results are summarized in Table 5. It is notable that, with effective token reduction techniques, our method produces competitive or higher accuracy on Human3.6M [23] and 3DPW [68] datasets. For instance, on 3DPW, our METRO-H64+GTR achieves 87.9mm MPVE, 75.5mm MPJPE and 46.6mm PAMPJPE surpassing METRO–H64. In general, token reduction results in information loss, which leads to a slight drop in accuracy. For MPVE, using an HRNet-W64 backbone, GTR typically causes a larger error increase of 2.6 mm (from 84.1 to 86.7), while ITP is 1.5 mm (from 86.7 to 88.2). This suggests GTR sacrifices more accuracy for efficiency, while ITP has less impact. Qualitative results of FastMETRO+GTR+ITP\@20% are visualized in Figure 4, where our method produces accurate and robust human mesh recovery from monocular images. In the inset, we also provide a qualitative comparison of FastMETRO+GTR+ITP\@20% (w/ GTR+ITP) and the baseline model FastMETRO (w/o GTR+ITP), where the joint-vertex attention is similar to the blending weights in SMPL, which properly captures the shape structure. However, the model w/o GTR+ITP redundantly correlates local joints with distant vertices, leading to additional interaction costs. In summary, extensive experiments validate the effectiveness of proposed strategies for token reduction across different Transformer structures (Encoder-based METRO [39] and Encoder-Decoder-based FastMETRO [8]) and different Transformer model sizes (FastMETRO and FastMETRO(S)).

4.4. ITP v.s. TokenLearner [59]

Table 6. Comparison with TokenLearning [59] in ITP for token reduction on 3DPW [68] and Human3.6M [23].

| Method          | GFLOPs | MPVE | MPJPE | PAMPJPE |
|-----------------|--------|------|-------|---------|
| TokenLearner    | 5.7    | 99.3 | 82.4  | 52.6    |
| Image Token     | 5.3    | 99.2 | 82.4  | 52.6    |
| Pruning         | 5.3    | 99.2 | 82.4  | 52.6    |

We compare ITP with another popular pruning strategy TokenLearner [59] for HMR on Human3.6M and 3DPW in Table 6. We use Encoder-Decoder structure [8] with ResNet-50 [20] as a backbone. The pruning rate is 20%.
4.5. NSR v.s. GCN [27] and MLP

We discuss the effectiveness of NSR in GTR. We compare NSR with other implementations, including Multi-Layer Perceptron and Graph Convolutional Network [27] following Pose2Mesh [9]. We condition the backbone on ResNet-50 [20] using Encoder-Decoder structure [8]. In Table 7, NSR achieves higher performance on Human3.6M and 3DPW. This indicates that the attention mechanism in NSR provides a stronger modeling capability of vertices given the learned body features, which thus improves the quality of recovered mesh vertices.

Table 7. Comparison of different network structures of NSR for GTR on 3DPW [68] and Human3.6M [23].

| Model                  | 3DPW MPVE | 3DPW MPJPE | Human3.6M MPJPE | Human3.6M PAMPJPE |
|------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Multi-Layer Perceptron | 99.0      | 80.4       | 49.6            | 57.7              |
| Graph Convolutional Network | 98.8   | 81.5       | 49.8            | 58.2              |
| Neural Shape Regressor  | 95.9      | 79.2       | 49.2            | 57.2              |

4.6. Generalization on Hand Mesh Recovery

To investigate the generalizability of our framework, we conduct an experiment on monocular hand mesh recovery, which is summarized in Table 8. Following FastMETRO [8], we report PAMPJPE, F-score@15mm (F@15mm) on FreiHand [85] together with GFLOPs and throughput. The qualitative results are provided in Figure 5. The hand vertex-joint interactions are visualized in Appendix C.

4.7. Further Discussion

4.7.1 Analysis of Image Token Pruning

Image Token Pruning, in essence, achieves body-aware clustering results encoding discriminative body features. Table 8, ITP saves more computational costs while achieving the highest accuracy in terms of both human mesh recovery and joint estimation.

4.7.2 ITP with Token Reduction Supervision

In Figure 7, we visualize the scores predicted by ITP in HMR. The mask supervision is generated by projecting mesh vertices to image patches using estimated camera parameters as shown in Figure 7 (b)(c). ITP effectively learns to pay attention to a human body region in the given image. Quantitatively, the projection supervision improves PAMP-
Figure 7. Visualization of learned semantics by Image Token Pruner. (a) projected joints. (b) projected mesh vertices. (c) mask supervision. (d) scores predicted by ITP.

Figure 8. Visualization of cross-attention between joint and vertices. Samples are from Human3.6M and 3DPW.

PJPE from 41.6 to 40.6 on Human3.6M.

4.7.3 Vertex-Body Feature Interactions

We show the interactions between vertices and joints modeled by cross attention within Neural Shape Regressor; See Figure 8, where the heatmap is obtained by averaging attention scores across all heads of the multi-head cross-attention between query vertices and body features. As shown in Figure 8, the interactions of mesh vertices and joints are at the body part level, e.g., elbow, knee, head, which are similar to the way of the blending of a human body model, i.e., SMPL [44] and thus validates our claims.

4.8. Limitations and Future Work

When an extremely high pruning rate is applied to ITP, the accuracy of the model drops dramatically, e.g., when the token number is pruned to be one, the accuracy of the model drops dramatically (12.1%) from 38.6 to 43.3 PAM-PJPE. For GTR, since we regress joints and vertices progressively, the quality of the recovered vertices by NSR depends on the learned body features. More failure cases are in Appendix D. In future work, one of the promising directions could be applying the shown enhanced efficiency of HMR from monocular images to methods exhibiting high complexity for improving the model efficiency, especially in tasks such as human-environment/object interaction that perceives environments [37, 22, 18, 75, 73, 19, 61], as well as HMR from videos that involve temporal information [28, 53, 35, 63, 79, 72].

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we investigate the issues of token redundancy in the existing Transformer-based methods for both body and hand mesh recovery tasks. To tackle the problem, we introduce two effective token reduction strategies for Transformers by incorporating insights from both 3D geometry structure and 2D image features. Specifically, we recover the body shape in a hierarchical manner and cluster for image features to feed fewer but more discriminative tokens to the Transformer. Our method dramatically reduces the high-complexity interactions in the Transformer, improving the Pareto-front of accuracy and efficiency. Extensive experiments validate the proposed strategies.

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