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# Dynamic Multiscale Graph Neural Networks for 3D Skeleton-Based Human Motion Prediction

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## Abstract

We propose novel dynamic multiscale graph neural networks (DMGNN) to predict 3D skeleton-based human motions. The core idea of DMGNN is to use a multiscale graph to comprehensively model the internal relations of a human body for motion feature learning. This multiscale graph is adaptive during training and dynamic across network layers. Based on this graph, we propose a multiscale graph computational unit (MGCU) to extract features at individual scales and fuse features across scales. The entire model is action-category-agnostic and follows an encoder-decoder framework. The encoder consists of a sequence of MGCUs to learn motion features. The decoder uses a proposed graph-based gate recurrent unit to generate future poses. Extensive experiments show that the proposed DMGNN outperforms state-of-the-art methods in both short and long-term predictions on the datasets of Human 3.6M and CMU Mocap. We further investigate the learned multiscale graphs for the interpretability. The codes could be downloaded from <https://github.com/limaosen0/DMGNN>.

## 1. Introduction

3D skeleton-based human motion prediction forecasts future poses given the past motions based on the human-body-skeleton. The motion prediction helps machines understand human behaviors, attracting considerable attention [8, 19, 31, 5, 11, 2]. The related techniques can be widely applied to many computer vision and robotics scenarios, such as human-computer interaction [23, 22, 16, 12], computer graphics [42], and pedestrian tracking [1, 14, 3].

Many methods, including the conventional state-based methods [24, 42, 37, 36, 35] and deep-network-based methods [8, 31, 9, 6, 11, 13, 10, 32], have been proposed to achieve promising motion prediction. However, most meth-

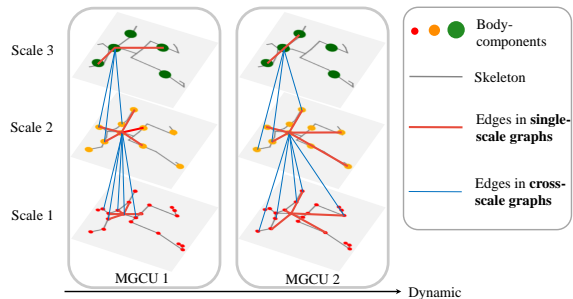


Figure 1. Two learned multiscale graphs on ‘Posing’. We show strong relations associated with torsos in single scales and across scales. Two multiscale graphs are dynamic from one MGCUs to another, capturing local and distant relations, respectively.

ods did not explicitly exploit the relations or constraints between different body-components, which carry crucial information for motion prediction. A recent work [30] built graphs across body-joints for pairwise relation modeling; however, such a graph was still insufficient to reflect a functional group of body-joints. For example, the action of ‘Walking’ tends to be understood based on the collaborative movements of abstract arms and legs, rather than the detailed locations of fingers and toes.

To model more comprehensive relations, we propose a new representation for a human body: a *multiscale graph*, whose nodes are body-components at various scales and edges are pairwise relations between components. To model a body at multiple scales, a multiscale graph consists of two types of sub-graphs: *single-scale graphs*, connecting body-components at the same scales, and *cross-scale graphs*, connecting body-components across two scales; see Figure 1. The single-scale graphs together provide a pyramid representation of a body skeleton. Each cross-scale graph is a bipartite graph, bridging one single-scale graph to another. For example, an “arm” node in a coarse-scale graph could connect to “hand” and “elbow” nodes in a fine-scale

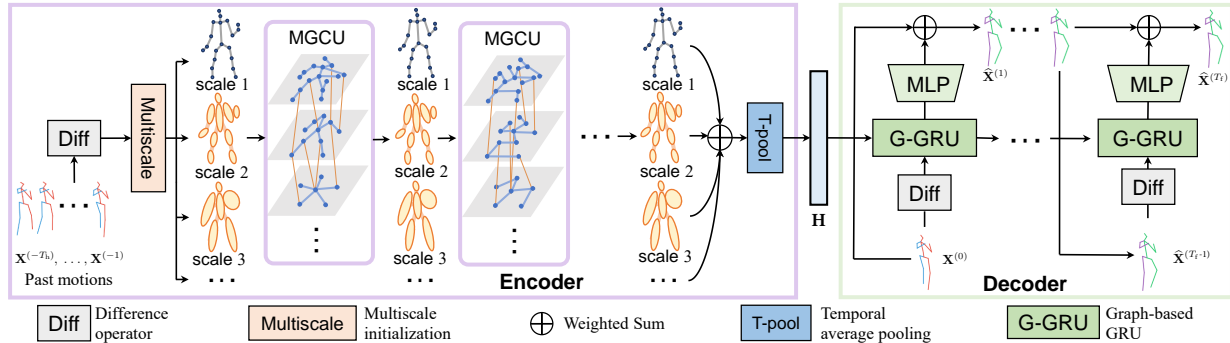


Figure 2. The architecture of DMGNN, which uses an encoder-decoder framework for motion prediction. In the encoder, cascaded multiscale graph computational blocks (MGCU) leverage dynamic multiscale graphs to extract spatio-temporal features. In the decoder, we propose a graph-based GRU (G-GRU) to predict poses.

graph. This multiscale graph is initialized by predefined physical connections and adaptively adjusted in training to be motion-sensitive. Overall, this multiscale representation provides a new potentiality to model body relations.

Based on the multiscale graph, we propose a novel model, called *dynamic multiscale graph neural networks* (DMGNN), which is action-category-agnostic and follows from an encoder-decoder framework to learn motion semantics for prediction. The encoder contains a cascade of *multiscale graph computational units* (MGCU), where each is associated with an individual multiscale graph. One MGCU includes two key components: *single-scale graph convolution block* (SS-GCB), which leverages single-scale graphs to exact features at individual scales, and *cross-scale fusion block* (CS-FB), which infers cross-scale graphs to convert features from one scale to another and enable fusion across scales. The multiscale graph is adaptive because the in-built topology is trainable; it is also dynamic because the topology is changing from one MGCU to another; see the learned dynamic multiscale graphs in Figure 1. Notably, cross-scale graphs in CS-FBs are constructed adaptively to input motions, and reflect discriminative motion patterns for category-agnostic prediction.

As for the decoder, we adopt a *graph-based gated recurrent unit* (G-GRU) to sequentially produce predictions given the last estimated poses. The G-GRU utilizes trainable graphs to further enhance state propagation. We also use residual connections to stabilize the prediction. To learn richer motion dynamics, we introduce difference operators to extract multiple orders of motion differences as the proxies of positions, velocities, and accelerations. The architecture of DMGNN is illustrated in Figure 2.

To verify the superiority of our DMGNN, extensive experiments are conducted on two large-scale datasets: Human 3.6M [18] and CMU Mocap<sup>1</sup>. The experimental results show that our model outperforms most state-of-the-art works for both short-term and long-term prediction in terms

of both effectiveness and efficiency. The main contributions of this paper are as follow:

- We propose dynamic multiscale graph neural networks (DMGNN) to extract deep features at multiple scales and achieve effective motion prediction;
- We propose two key components: a multiscale graph computational unit, which leverages a multiscale graph to extract and fuse features across multiple scales, as well as a graph-based GRU to enhance state propagation for pose generation; and
- We conduct extensive experiments to show that the proposed DMGNN outperforms most state-of-the-art methods for short and long-term motion prediction on two large datasets. We further visualize the learned graphs for interpretability and reasoning.

## 2. Related Work

**Human motion prediction:** To forecast motions, some traditional methods, e.g., hidden Markov models [24], Gaussian-process [42] and random forests [24], were developed. Recently, deep networks are playing increasingly crucial roles: some recurrent-network-based models generated future poses step-by-step [8, 19, 31, 40, 43, 10, 29, 11, 27]; some feed-forward networks [25, 30] tried to reduce error accumulation for stable prediction; imitation-learning algorithm was also proposed [41]. However, these methods rarely considered enough relations from various scales, which carry comprehensive information for human behaviors understanding. In this work, we build dynamic multiscale graphs to capture rich multiscale relations and extract flexible semantics for motion prediction.

**Graph deep learning:** Graphs, expressing data associated with non-grid structures, preserve the dependencies among internal nodes [44, 39, 38]. Many studies focused on graph representation learning and the relative applications [28, 7, 21, 15, 44, 34]. Based on fixed graph structures, previous works explored propagating node features

<sup>1</sup><http://mocap.cs.cmu.edu/>

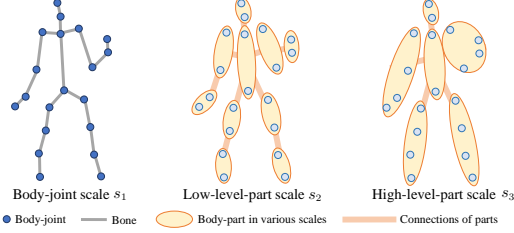


Figure 3. Three body scales on Human 3.6M. In  $s_1$ , we consider 20 joints with non-zero exponential maps [17]; In  $s_2$  and  $s_3$ , we consider 10 and 5 parts, respectively.

according to either the graph spectral domain [7, 21] or the graph vertex domain [15]. Several graph-based models have been employed for skeleton-based action recognition [44, 26, 33], motion prediction [30] and 3D pose estimation [45]; Different from any previous works, our model considers multiscale graphs and corresponding operations.

### 3. Problem Formulation

Suppose that the historical 3D skeleton-based poses are  $\mathbb{X}_{-T_h:0} = [\mathbf{X}^{(-T_h)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(0)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times (T_h+1) \times D_x}$  and the future poses are  $\mathbb{X}_{1:T_f} = [\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(T_f)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times T_f \times D_x}$ , where  $\mathbf{X}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D_x}$  with  $M$  joints and  $D_x = 3$  feature-dimensions depicts the 3D pose at time  $t$ . The goal of motion prediction is to generate future poses given the past observed ones; mathematically, we need to propose a model  $\mathcal{F}_{pred}(\cdot)$  to predict  $\widehat{\mathbb{X}}_{1:T_f} = \mathcal{F}_{pred}(\mathbb{X}_{-T_h:0})$ , where  $\widehat{\mathbb{X}}_{1:T_f}$  is the predicted motion close to the target  $\mathbb{X}_{1:T_f}$ .

To comprehensively exploit the relations, we represent a human body as a multiscale graph across multiscale body-components. Such a graph provides a pyramid body representation. We could consider arbitrary number of scales in theory. Based on human nature, we specifically adopt 3 scales: the body-joint scale, the low-level-part scale, and the high-level-part scale, where we merge spatially nearby joints to coarser scales based on human prior; see Figure 3. And we propose *dynamic multiscale graph neural networks* (DMGNN) to extract features from motions and predict future poses in an end-to-end fashion.

## 4. Key Components

To construct our dynamic multiscale graph neural networks (DMGNN), we consider three basic components: a multiscale graph computational unit (MGCU), a graph-based GRU (G-GRU), and a difference operator.

### 4.1. Multiscale graph computational unit (MGCU)

The functionality of a MGCU is to extract and fuse features at multiple scales based on a multiscale graph, which is trained adaptively and individually. One MGCU includes two types of building blocks: single-scale graph convolution blocks, which leverage single-scale graphs to extract

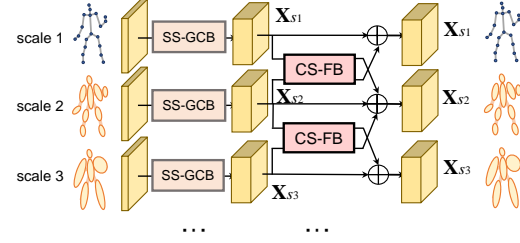


Figure 4. An MGCU uses single-scale graph convolution blocks (SS-CB) to extract features at each scale and use cross-scale fusion blocks (CS-FB) to fuse features across scales.

features at each scale, and cross-scale fusion blocks, which leverage cross-scale graphs to convert features from one scale to another and enable effective fusion across scales; see Figure 4. We now introduce each block in detail.

**Single-scale graph convolution block (SS-GCB).** To extract spatio-temporal features at each scale, we propose a *single-scale graph convolution block* (SS-GCB). Let the trainable adjacency matrix of the single-scale graph at scale  $s$  be  $\mathbf{A}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{M_s \times M_s}$ , where  $M_s$  is the number of body-components. The matrix  $\mathbf{A}_s$  is first initialized by a skeleton-based graph whose nodes are body-components and edges are physical connections, modeling a prior of the physical constraints; see Figure 3. During training, each element in  $\mathbf{A}_s$  is adaptively tuned to capture flexible body relations.

Based on the single-scale graph, the proposed SS-GCB effectively extracts deep features through two steps: 1) a graph convolution extracts spatial features of body-components; and 2) a temporal convolution extracts temporal features from motion sequences. Let the input feature at scale  $s$  be  $\mathbf{X}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{M_s \times D_x}$ , the output spatial feature is formulated as

$$\mathbf{X}_{s,sp} = \text{ReLU}(\mathbf{A}_s \mathbf{X}_s \mathbf{W}_s + \mathbf{X}_s \mathbf{U}_s) \in \mathbb{R}^{M_s \times D'_x}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{W}_s, \mathbf{U}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{D_x \times D'_x}$  are trainable parameters. Through (1), we extract the spatial features from correlated body-components.  $\mathbf{A}_s$  in each SS-GCB is trained individually and stays fixed during inference. To capture motions along time, we then develop a temporal convolution on the feature sequences. The single-scale graphs in different SS-GCBs are dynamic, showing flexible relations. Note that features extracted at various scales have different dimensionalities and reflect information with different receptive fields.

**Cross-scale fusion block (CS-FB).** To enable information diffusion across scales, we propose a *cross-scale fusion block* (CS-FB) uses a cross-scale graph to convert features from one scale to another. A cross-scale graph is a bipartite graph that corresponds the nodes in one single-scale graph to the nodes in another single-scale graph. For example, the features of an “arm” node in the low-level-part scale  $s_2$  can potentially guide the feature learning of a “hand” node

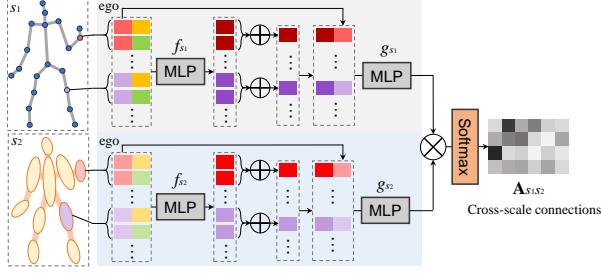


Figure 5. The inference of a cross-scale graph. We use relative information from the whole body to augment body-components in both scales and obtain the edge weight through inner product.

in the body-joint scale  $s_1$ . We aim to infer this cross-scale graph adaptively from data. Here we present CS-FB from  $s_1$  to  $s_2$  as an example.

We first infer the cross-scale graph with adjacent matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{s_1s_2} \in [0, 1]^{M_{s_2} \times M_{s_1}}$  to model the cross-scale relations. Let the feature of the  $i$ th joint and the  $k$ th part along time be  $(\mathbb{X}_{s_1})_{:,i,:} \in \mathbb{R}^{T_{s_1} \times D'_x}$  and  $(\mathbb{X}_{s_2})_{:,k,:} \in \mathbb{R}^{T_{s_2} \times D'_x}$ , we vectorize them as  $\mathbf{p}_{s_1,i} = \text{vec}(\text{conv}_{s_1,\tau}((\mathbb{X}_{s_1})_{:,i,:}; \mu))$  and  $\mathbf{p}_{s_2,k} = \text{vec}(\text{conv}_{s_2,\tau}((\mathbb{X}_{s_2})_{:,k,:}; \mu))$  to leverage temporal information, where  $\tau$  and  $\mu$  denote the temporal convolution kernel size and stride. We infer the edge weight between the  $i$ th joint and  $k$ th part  $(\mathbf{A}_{s_1s_2})_{k,i}$  through

$$\mathbf{r}_{s_1,i} = \sum_{j=1}^{M_{s_1}} f_{s_1}([\mathbf{p}_{s_1,i}, \mathbf{p}_{s_1,j} - \mathbf{p}_{s_1,i}]) \quad (2a)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{s_1,i} = g_{s_1}([\mathbf{p}_{s_1,i}, \mathbf{r}_{s_1,i}]) \quad (2b)$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{s_2,k} = \sum_{j=1}^{M_{s_2}} f_{s_2}([\mathbf{p}_{s_2,k}, \mathbf{p}_{s_2,j} - \mathbf{p}_{s_2,k}]) \quad (2c)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{s_2,k} = g_{s_2}([\mathbf{p}_{s_2,k}, \mathbf{r}_{s_2,k}]) \quad (2d)$$

$$(\mathbf{A}_{s_1s_2})_{k,i} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{h}_{s_2,k}^\top \mathbf{h}_{s_1,i}) \in [0, 1], \quad (2e)$$

where  $f_{s_1}(\cdot)$ ,  $g_{s_1}(\cdot)$ ,  $f_{s_2}(\cdot)$  and  $g_{s_2}(\cdot)$  denotes MLPs;  $\text{softmax}(\cdot)$  is a softmax operator along the row of inner product matrix and  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  is concatenation. (2a) and (2c) aggregate the relative features of all the components to the  $i$ th and the  $k$ th components in two scales, which are then updated by (2b) and (2d); and (2e) obtains adjacent matrix through inner product and softmax, thus we model the normalized effects from a body in  $s_1$  to each component in  $s_2$ . The intuition behind this design is to leverage the global relative information to augment body-component features, and we use the inner product of two augmented features to obtain the edge weight. Figure 5 illustrates the inference of  $\mathbf{A}_{s_1s_2}$ . Notably, different from the fixed single-scale graphs during inference, the cross-scale graphs are efficiently inferred online and adaptive to motion features, which are flexible to capture distinct patterns for individual inputs.

We next fuse the joint features to the part-scale with  $\mathbf{A}_{s_1s_2}$ . Given the joint features at a certain time stamp

$\mathbf{X}_{s_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{M_{s_1} \times D'_x}$ , the part-scale feature is updated as

$$\mathbf{X}_{s_2} \leftarrow \mathbf{A}_{s_1s_2} \mathbf{X}_{s_1} \mathbf{W}_{F,s_1} + \mathbf{X}_{s_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{M_{s_2} \times D'_x},$$

where  $\mathbf{W}_{F,s_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{D'_x \times D'_x}$  is trainable. Thus, each body-part in  $s_2$  adaptively absorbs detailed information from the corresponding joints in  $s_1$ . The fused  $\mathbf{X}_{s_2}$  is fed into the SS-CB of the next MGCU in  $s_2$ . In the other way around, we can define the fusion from  $s_2$  to  $s_1$  with similar operations.

## 4.2. Graph-based GRU

The functionality of a graph-based GRU (G-GRU) is to learn and update hidden states with the guide of a graph. The key is to use a trainable graph to regularize the states, which are used to generate future poses. Let  $\mathbf{A}_H \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}$  be the adjacent matrix of the inbuilt graph, which is initialized with the skeleton-graph and trained to build adaptive edges, and  $\mathbf{H}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D_h}$  be the initial state of G-GRU. At time  $t > 0$ , G-GRU takes two inputs: the initial state,  $\mathbf{H}^{(t)}$ , and the online 3D skeleton-based information,  $\mathbf{I}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times d}$ . Then, G-GRU( $\mathbf{I}^{(t)}$ ,  $\mathbf{H}^{(t)}$ ) works as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}^{(t)} &= \sigma(r_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{I}^{(t)}) + r_{\text{hid}}(\mathbf{A}_H \mathbf{H}^{(t)} \mathbf{W}_H)), \\ \mathbf{u}^{(t)} &= \sigma(u_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{I}^{(t)}) + u_{\text{hid}}(\mathbf{A}_H \mathbf{H}^{(t)} \mathbf{W}_H)), \\ \mathbf{c}^{(t)} &= \tanh(c_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{I}^{(t)}) + \mathbf{r}^{(t)} \odot c_{\text{hid}}(\mathbf{A}_H \mathbf{H}^{(t)} \mathbf{W}_H)), \\ \mathbf{H}^{(t+1)} &= \mathbf{u}^{(t)} \odot \mathbf{H}^{(t)} + (1 - \mathbf{u}^{(t)}) \odot \mathbf{c}^{(t)}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $r_{\text{in}}(\cdot)$ ,  $r_{\text{hid}}(\cdot)$ ,  $u_{\text{in}}(\cdot)$ ,  $u_{\text{hid}}(\cdot)$ ,  $c_{\text{in}}(\cdot)$  and  $c_{\text{hid}}(\cdot)$  are trainable linear mappings;  $\mathbf{W}_H$  denotes the trainable weights. For each G-GRU cell, it applies a graph convolution on the hidden states for information propagation and produces the state for next frame.

## 4.3. Difference operator

The states of motion, such as velocity and acceleration, carry important dynamics. To utilize them, we build a difference operator to compute high-order differences of input sequences, guiding the model to learn richer motion dynamics. At time  $t$ , the zero-order difference is  $\Delta^0 \mathbf{X}^{(t)} = \mathbf{X}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D_x}$ , and the  $\beta$ -order difference ( $\beta > 0$ ) of the pose,  $\Delta^\beta \mathbf{X}^{(t)}$ , is  $\Delta^\beta \mathbf{X}^{(t)} = \Delta^{\beta-1} \mathbf{X}^{(t)} - \Delta^{\beta-1} \mathbf{X}^{(t-1)}$ . We use zero paddings to handle boundary conditions. Overall, the  $\beta$ -order difference operator works as

$$\text{diff}_\beta(\mathbf{X}^{(t)}) = [\Delta^0 \mathbf{X}^{(t)} \quad \dots \quad \Delta^\beta \mathbf{X}^{(t)}].$$

Here we consider  $\beta = 2$ . The three elements reflects positions, velocities, and accelerations.

## 5. DMGNN Framework

Here we present the architecture of our DMGNN, which contains a multiscale graph-based encoder and a recurrent graph-based decoder for motion prediction.

## 5.1. Encoder

Capturing semantics from observed motions, the encoder aims to provide the decoder with motion states for prediction. In the encoder, for each motion sample, we first concatenate its 0, 1, 2-order of differences as input. And we initialize 3 body scales by averaging joint clusters in  $s_1$  to spatially corresponding components in coarser scales. For example, we average two “right hand” joints in  $s_1$  to the “right arm” part in  $s_2$ . We then use a cascade of MGCUs to extract spatio-temporal features. Note that the multi-scale graph associated with each MGCU is trained individually, thus the graph topology can be dynamically changing from one MGCU to another. To finally combine the three scales for comprehensive semantics, the output features are weighted summed. Since the numbers of body-components are different across scales, we broadcast the coarser components to match their spatially corresponding joints. Let the broadcast output features of the three scale be  $\mathbb{H}_{s_1}, \mathbb{H}_{s_2}, \mathbb{H}_{s_3} \in \mathbb{R}^{T' \times M \times D_h}$ , the summed feature is

$$\mathbb{H} = \mathbb{H}_{s_1} + \lambda(\mathbb{H}_{s_2} + \mathbb{H}_{s_3}), \quad (3)$$

where  $\lambda$  is a hyper-parameter to balance different scales. We next use a temporal average pooling to remove the time dimension of  $\mathbb{H}$  and obtain  $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D_h}$ , which aggregates historical information as the initial state of the decoder.

## 5.2. Decoder

The decoder aims to sequentially predict the future poses. The core of the decoder is the proposed graph-based GRU (G-GRU), which further propagates motion states for sequence regression. We first use the difference operator to extract motion priors, and then feed the three orders of differences into G-GRU to update the hidden state. We next input the obtained hidden state to an output function to produce the pose displacement. Finally, we add the displacements to the input pose to predict the next frame. At frame  $t$ , the decoder works as

$$\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(t+1)} = \widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(t)} + f_{\text{pred}} \left( \text{G-GRU} \left( \text{diff}_2(\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(t)}), \mathbf{H}^{(t)} \right) \right),$$

where  $f_{\text{pred}}(\cdot)$  represents an output function, implemented by MLPs. The initial state  $\mathbf{H}^{(0)} = \mathbf{H}$ , which is the final output of encoder.

## 5.3. Loss function

To train our DMGNN, we consider the  $\ell_1$  loss. Let the  $n$ th sample of predictions be  $(\widehat{\mathbb{X}}_{1:T_t})_n \in \mathbb{R}^{T_t \times M \times D_x}$  and the corresponding ground truth be  $(\mathbb{X}_{1:T_t})_n$ . For  $N$  training samples, the loss function is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \left\| (\mathbb{X}_{1:T_t})_n - (\widehat{\mathbb{X}}_{1:T_t})_n \right\|_1,$$

where  $\|\cdot\|_1$  denotes the  $\ell_1$  norm. Based on our experiments, the  $\ell_1$  norm leads to more precise predictions compared to the  $\ell_2$  norm. All the weights in the proposed DMGNN are trained end-to-end with the stochastic gradient descent [4].

## 6. Experiments

### 6.1. Datasets and experimental setup

**Human 3.6m (H3.6M).** H3.6M dataset [18] has 7 subjects performing 15 different classes of actions. There are 32 joints in each subject, and we transform the joint positions into the exponential maps and only use the joints with non-zero values (20 joints remain). Along the time axis, we downsample all sequences by two. Following previous paradigms [31], the models are trained on 6 subjects and tested on the specific clips of the 5th subject.

**CMU motion capture (CMU Mocap).** CMU Mocap consists of 5 general classes of actions: ‘human interaction’, ‘interaction with environment’, ‘locomotion’, ‘physical activities & sports’, and ‘situations & scenarios’, where each subject has 38 joints and we preserve 26 joints with non-zero exponential maps. Be consistent with [25], we select 8 detailed actions: ‘basketball’, ‘basketball signal’, ‘directing traffic’, ‘jumping’, ‘running’, ‘soccer’, ‘walking’ and ‘washing window’. We evaluate our model with the same approach as we do for H3.6M.

**Model configuration.** We implement DMGNN with PyTorch 1.0 on one GTX-2080Ti GPU. We set 3 scales, which contains body-joints, 10 and 5 body-components for both datasets. We use 4 cascaded MGCUs, whose feature dimensions are 32, 64, 128, and 256, respectively. In the first two MGCUs, we use both SS-GCBs and CS-FBs to extract spatio-temporal features and fuse cross-scale features; In the last two MGCUs, we only use SS-GCBs. In the decoder, the dimension of the G-GRU is 256, and we use a two-layer MLP for pose output. In training, we set the batch size 32 and clip the gradients to a maximum  $\ell_2$ -norm of 1; we use Adam optimizer [20] with learning rate 0.0001. All the hyper-parameters are selected with validation sets.

**Baseline methods.** We compare the proposed DMGNN with many recent works, which learned motion patterns from pose vectors, e.g. Res-sup. [31], CSM [25], TP-RNN [6], AGED [11], and Imit-L [41], or separated bodies e.g. Skel-TNet [13], and Traj-GCN [30]. We reproduce, Res-sup., CSM and Traj-GCN based on their released codes. We also employ a naive baseline, ZeroV [31], which sets all predictions to be the last observed pose at  $t = 0$ .

### 6.2. Comparison to state-of-the-art methods

To validate the proposed DMGNN, we show the prediction performance for both short-term and long-term motion prediction on H3.6M, as well as the long-term prediction on CMU Mocap. We quantitatively evaluate various methods

Table 1. Mean angle errors (MAE) of different methods for short-term prediction on 4 representative actions of H3.6M. We also present different DMGNN variants, including using fixed graphs in SS-GCB (fixed  $A_s$ ), no graph in GRU (no G-GRU), and only one scale (single). The complete DMGNN outperform others methods at most time stamp.

Motion milliseconds	Walking				Eating				Smoking				Discussion			
	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400
ZeroV [31]	0.39	0.68	0.99	1.15	0.27	0.48	0.73	0.86	0.26	0.48	0.97	0.95	0.31	0.67	0.94	1.04
Res-sup. [31]	0.27	0.46	0.67	0.75	0.23	0.37	0.59	0.73	0.32	0.59	1.01	1.10	0.30	0.67	0.98	1.06
CSM [25]	0.33	0.54	0.68	0.73	0.22	0.36	0.58	0.71	0.26	0.49	0.96	0.92	0.32	0.67	0.94	1.01
TP-RNN [6]	0.25	0.41	0.58	0.65	0.20	0.33	0.53	0.67	0.26	0.47	0.88	0.90	0.30	0.66	0.96	1.04
AGED [11]	0.21	0.35	0.55	0.64	0.18	0.28	0.50	0.63	0.27	0.43	0.81	0.83	0.26	0.56	0.77	0.84
Skel-TNet [13]	0.31	0.50	0.69	0.76	0.20	0.31	0.53	0.69	0.25	0.50	0.93	0.89	0.30	0.64	0.89	0.98
Imit-L [41]	0.21	0.34	0.53	0.59	0.17	0.30	0.52	0.65	0.23	0.44	0.87	0.85	0.23	0.56	0.82	0.91
Traj-GCN [30]	0.18	0.31	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.17</b>	0.31	0.52	0.64	0.22	0.42	0.86	0.81	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.51</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>0.87</b>
DMGNN (fixed $A_s$ )	0.20	0.35	0.54	0.63	0.18	0.32	0.53	0.66	0.23	0.43	0.85	0.84	0.25	0.65	0.91	0.94
DMGNN (no G-GRU)	0.20	0.33	0.53	0.61	0.19	0.32	0.53	0.64	0.23	0.42	0.81	0.82	0.23	0.60	0.87	0.93
DMGNN ( $S = 1$ )	0.20	0.33	0.54	0.61	0.18	0.31	0.50	0.62	0.21	0.41	0.79	0.82	0.22	0.54	0.84	0.93
DMGNN	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.30</b>	<b>0.49</b>	0.59	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.29</b>	<b>0.48</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>0.20</b>	0.53	0.85	0.92

Table 2. MAEs of different methods for short-term motion prediction on other 11 actions of H3.6M.

Motion millisecond	Directions				Greeting				Phoning				Posing				Purchases				Sitting			
	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400
Res-sup [31]	0.41	0.64	0.80	0.92	0.57	0.83	1.45	1.60	0.59	1.06	1.45	1.60	0.45	0.85	1.34	1.56	0.58	0.79	1.08	1.15	0.41	0.68	1.12	1.33
CSM [25]	0.39	0.60	0.80	0.91	0.51	0.82	1.21	1.38	0.59	1.13	1.51	1.65	0.29	0.60	1.12	1.37	0.63	0.91	1.19	1.29	0.39	0.61	1.02	1.18
Traj-GCN [30]	0.26	0.45	0.70	0.79	0.35	0.61	0.96	<b>1.13</b>	0.53	1.01	1.32	1.45	0.23	0.54	1.26	1.38	0.42	0.66	1.04	1.12	0.30	0.47	0.82	0.98
DMGNN	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.65</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>0.58</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>1.13</b>	<b>0.50</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>1.26</b>	<b>1.39</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>0.42</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>1.18</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.61</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>1.06</b>	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0.38</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.93</b>
Motion millisecond	Sitting Down				Taking Photo				Waiting				Walking Dog				Walking Together				Average			
	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400	80	160	320	400
Res-sup. [31]	0.47	0.88	1.37	1.54	0.28	0.57	0.90	1.02	0.32	0.63	1.07	1.26	0.52	0.89	1.25	1.40	0.27	0.53	0.74	0.79	0.40	0.69	1.04	1.18
CSM [25]	0.41	0.78	1.16	1.31	0.23	0.49	0.88	1.06	0.30	0.62	1.09	1.30	0.59	1.00	1.32	1.44	0.27	0.52	0.71	0.74	0.38	0.68	1.01	1.13
Traj-GCN [30]	<b>0.30</b>	0.63	0.90	1.01	<b>0.15</b>	0.36	0.59	0.72	0.23	0.50	0.92	1.15	0.46	0.80	1.13	1.30	<b>0.15</b>	0.35	0.52	0.56	0.27	0.52	0.85	0.96
DMGNN	<b>0.30</b>	<b>0.62</b>	<b>0.88</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.34</b>	<b>0.56</b>	<b>0.69</b>	<b>0.21</b>	<b>0.47</b>	<b>0.86</b>	<b>1.09</b>	<b>0.42</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>1.11</b>	<b>1.28</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.32</b>	<b>0.48</b>	<b>0.54</b>	<b>0.26</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.92</b>

Table 3. MAEs of different methods for long-term prediction on the 4 representative actions of H3.6M dataset.

Motion milliseconds	Walking		Eating		Smoking		Discussion		Average	
	560	1k	560	1k	560	1k	560	1k	560	1k
ZeroV [31]	1.35	1.32	1.04	1.38	1.02	1.69	1.41	1.96	1.21	1.59
Res-sup. [31]	0.93	1.03	0.95	1.08	1.25	1.50	1.43	1.69	1.14	1.33
CSM [25]	0.98	0.92	1.01	1.24	0.97	1.62	1.56	1.86	1.13	1.41
Skel-TNet [13]	0.94	0.92	0.97	1.23	0.99	1.59	1.51	1.82	1.10	1.39
Imit-L [41]	0.67	0.69	0.79	1.13	0.95	1.63	1.34	1.81	0.94	1.32
Traj-GCN [30]	<b>0.65</b>	<b>0.67</b>	0.76	1.12	<b>0.87</b>	1.57	1.33	1.70	<b>0.90</b>	<b>1.27</b>
DMGNN	0.67	0.72	<b>0.75</b>	<b>0.96</b>	0.92	<b>1.29</b>	<b>1.27</b>	<b>1.53</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>1.13</b>

by the mean angle error (MAE) between the generated motions and ground-truths in angle space. We also illustrate the predicted samples for qualitative evaluation.

**Short-term motion prediction.** Short-term motion prediction aims to predict the future poses within 500 milliseconds. We compare DMGNN to state-of-the-art methods for predicting the future poses in 400 milliseconds on H3.6M dataset. We first test 4 representative actions: ‘Walking’, ‘Eating’, ‘Smoking’ and ‘Discussion’. Table 1 shows MAEs of DMGNN and some baselines. We also present the performance of several variants of DMGNN; that is, we use fixed body-graphs in SS-GCBs (fixed  $A_s$ ); the common GRU without a graph (no G-GRU); or only the joint-scale ( $S = 1$ ) bodies. We see that, i) the complete DMGNN obtain the most precise prediction among all the variants; ii) compared with baselines, DMGNN produces the predictions with the lowest MAEs on ‘Eating’ and ‘Smoking’, and

obtains competitive results on ‘Walking’ and ‘Discussion’. Table 2 compares the proposed DMGNN with some recent baselines on the remaining 11 actions in H3.6M. We see that DMGNN achieves the best performance in most actions (also for average MAEs).

**Long-term motion prediction.** Long-term motion prediction aims to predict the poses over 500 milliseconds, which is challenging due to the action variation and non-linearity movements. Table 3 presents the MAEs of various models for predicting 4 actions and average MAEs across the 4 actions in the future 560 ms and 1000 ms on H3.6M dataset. We see that DMGNN outperforms the competitors on actions ‘Eating’, and ‘Discussion’, and obtain competitive performance on ‘Walking’ and ‘Smoking’.

Moreover, we train our DMGNN for long-term prediction on 8 classes of actions in CMU Mocap dataset. Table 4 shows the MAEs across the future 1000 ms. We see that DMGNN significantly outperforms the state-of-the-art methods on actions ‘Basketball’, ‘Basketball Signal’, ‘Running’, ‘Walking’ and ‘Washing Window’ and obtains competitive performance on other actions.

**Predicted sample visualization.** We compare the synthesized samples of DMGNN to those of Res-sup., CSM and Traj-GCN on H3.6M. Figure 6 illustrates the future poses of ‘Taking Photo’ in 1000 ms with the frame interval of 80 ms. Comparing to baselines, we see that DMGNN completes the action accurately and reasonably, providing



Table 4. Comparisons of MAEs between our model and the state-of-the-art methods on the 8 actions of CMU Mocap dataset. We evaluate the model for long-term prediction and present the MAEs at both short and long-term prediction time stamps.

Motion	Basketball					Basketball Signal					Directing Traffic					Jumping				
	80	160	320	400	1000	80	160	320	400	1000	80	160	320	400	1000	80	160	320	400	1000
Res-sup. [31]	0.49	0.77	1.26	1.45	1.77	0.42	0.76	1.33	1.54	2.17	0.31	0.58	0.94	1.10	2.06	0.57	0.86	1.76	2.03	2.42
CSM [25]	0.37	0.62	1.07	1.18	1.95	0.32	0.59	1.04	1.24	1.96	0.25	0.56	0.89	1.00	2.04	0.39	0.60	1.36	1.56	2.01
Traj-GCN [30]	0.33	0.52	<b>0.89</b>	<b>1.06</b>	1.71	0.11	0.20	0.41	0.53	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.32</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.60</b>	2.00	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>1.23</b>	<b>1.39</b>	<b>1.80</b>
DMGNN	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.48</b>	<b>0.89</b>	1.09	<b>1.68</b>	<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>0.36</b>	<b>0.49</b>	1.04	0.17	<b>0.32</b>	<b>0.52</b>	0.62	<b>1.95</b>	0.32	0.53	1.36	1.52	1.87

Motion	Running					Soccer					Walking					Washing Window				
	80	160	320	400	1000	80	160	320	400	1000	80	160	320	400	1000	80	160	320	400	1000
Res-sup. [31]	0.32	0.48	0.65	0.74	1.00	0.29	0.50	0.87	0.98	1.73	0.35	0.45	0.59	0.64	0.88	0.32	0.47	0.74	0.93	1.37
CSM [25]	0.28	0.41	0.52	0.57	0.67	0.26	0.44	0.75	0.87	1.56	0.35	0.44	0.45	0.50	0.78	0.30	0.47	0.80	1.01	1.39
Traj-GCN [30]	0.33	0.55	0.73	0.74	0.95	<b>0.18</b>	0.29	<b>0.61</b>	<b>0.71</b>	1.40	0.33	0.45	0.49	0.53	0.61	0.22	0.33	0.57	<b>0.75</b>	1.20
DMGNN	<b>0.21</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>0.53</b>	<b>0.56</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>0.28</b>	0.63	<b>0.71</b>	<b>1.38</b>	<b>0.26</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>0.37</b>	<b>0.41</b>	<b>0.54</b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.26</b>	<b>0.55</b>	<b>0.75</b>	<b>1.07</b>

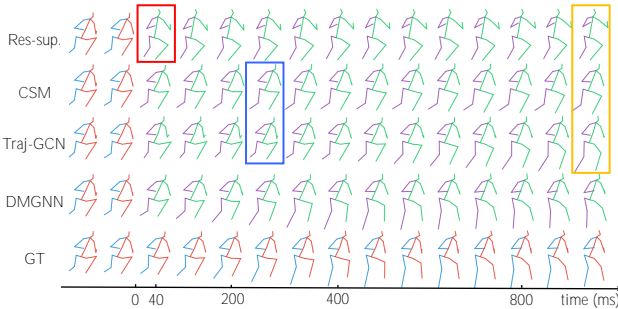


Figure 6. Qualitative comparison on the action ‘Taking Photo’ of H3.6M for both short and long-term prediction.

Table 5. Average MAE and time cost comparison between DMGCNN with the latest models on H3.6M dataset.

Model	MAEs		Time cost (ms)	
	400	1000	400	1000
TP-RNN [6]	1.11	1.71	48.96	127.41
Skel-TNet [13]	1.08	1.65	33.29	98.17
Traj-GCN [30]	0.96	1.42	71.43	144.93
DMGNN	<b>0.92</b>	<b>1.40</b>	<b>29.18</b>	<b>86.04</b>

significantly better predictions. Res-sup. has large discontinuity between the last observed pose the first predicted one (red box); CSM and Traj-GCN have large errors after the 280th ms (blue box); three baselines give large posture errors in long-term (yellow box). We show more prediction images and videos in Appendix.

**Effectiveness and efficiency test.** We compare the prediction errors and running time costs of DMGNN to several latest models. Table 5 presents the MAEs and running time of different methods for short and long-term motion prediction on H3.6M dataset. We see that DMGNN achieves the lowest MAEs and shortest running time, compared with the other competitors [31, 25, 30]. DMGNN takes only 29.18 ms to generate motions in 400 ms, indicating that DMGNN with multiscale graphs has efficient operations.

### 6.3. Ablation study

We now investigate some crucial elements of DMGNN.

**Effects of multiple scales.** To verify the proposed multiscale representation, we employ various scales in DMGNN for short and long-term prediction. Besides the three scales

Table 6. Average MAEs of DMGNN with different scales for short and long-term prediction at different time stamps.

Scales	Node numbers $M_s$					MAEs at different time stamps (ms)					
	20	10	5	3	2	80	160	320	400	560	1000
1	✓					0.28	0.52	0.84	0.96	1.24	1.51
1, 2	✓	✓				<b>0.26</b>	0.50	0.82	0.93	1.19	1.42
1, 2, 3	✓	✓	✓			<b>0.26</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>1.17</b>	<b>1.40</b>
1, 3	✓			✓		0.27	0.50	0.81	<b>0.92</b>	1.20	1.44
1, 2, 3, 4	✓	✓	✓	✓		0.28	0.52	0.83	0.94	1.22	1.49
1, 4	✓				✓	0.27	0.51	0.83	0.93	1.22	1.48
1, 2, 3, 5	✓	✓	✓		✓	0.28	0.52	0.83	0.95	1.25	1.52
1, 5	✓				✓	0.28	0.52	0.83	0.94	1.25	1.51

Table 7. MAEs and running times of DMGNN with different numbers of MGCUs for short and long-term prediction on H3.6M.

MGCUs	MAE at different time stamps (ms)						running time (ms)	
	80	160	320	400	560	1000	400	1000
1	0.30	0.54	0.84	0.98	1.25	1.46	27.42	83.01
2	0.27	0.51	0.82	0.95	1.22	1.42	27.89	83.95
3	0.26	0.50	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.92</b>	1.18	1.41	28.34	84.89
4	0.26	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>1.17</b>	<b>1.40</b>	29.18	86.04
5	0.26	0.50	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.92</b>	1.19	<b>1.40</b>	30.37	88.39
6	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0.49</b>	0.81	<b>0.92</b>	1.19	1.41	31.55	91.15

in our model, we introduce additional two scales:  $s_4$ , which represents a body as  $M_{s_4} = 3$  parts: left limbs, right limbs and torso, and  $s_5$ , which contains  $M_{s_5} = 2$  parts: upper body and lower body; see illustrations of  $s_4$  and  $s_5$  in Appendix. Table 6 presents the MAEs with various scales. We see that, when we combine  $s_1$ ,  $s_2$  and  $s_3$ , lowest prediction error is achieved. Notably, using two scales ( $s_1, s_2$  or  $s_1, s_3$ ) is significant better than using only  $s_1$ ; but involving too abstract scales ( $s_4$  or  $s_5$ ) tends to hurt prediction.

**Effects of the number of MGCUs.** To validate the effects of multiple MGCUs in the encoder, we tune the numbers of MGCUs from 1 to 6 and show the prediction errors and running time costs for short and long-term prediction on H3.6M, which are presented in Table 7. We see that, when we adopt 1 to 4 MGCUs, the prediction MAEs fall and time costs rise continuously; when we use 5 or 6 MGCUs, the prediction errors are stably low, but the time costs rise higher. Therefore, we select to use 4 MGCUs, resulting in precise prediction and high running efficiency.

**Effects of CS-FBs.** Here, we evaluate 1) the effectiveness of using relative features during cross-scale graph in-

Table 8. Average MAEs of the proposed DMGNN with different numbers of CS-FBs and feature aggregation mechanisms across the future 400 ms on H3.6M dataset.

CS-FB numbers	Average MAE across 400 ms			
	1	2	3	0
without relative	0.616	0.613	0.615	0.623
with relative	0.612	<b>0.606</b>	0.609	

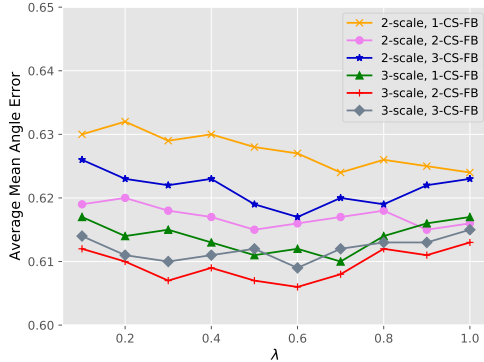


Figure 7. Average MAEs of DMGNN variants with different final fusion coefficient  $\lambda$  for short-term motion prediction.

Table 9. Average MAEs of DMGNN with different orders of motion differences for short and long-term prediction.

Difference Order	MAE at different time stamps (ms)					
	80	160	320	400	560	1000
$\beta = 0$	0.34	0.60	0.86	0.98	1.29	1.57
$\beta = 0, 1$	0.28	0.52	0.83	0.96	1.21	1.46
$\beta = 0, 1, 2$	<b>0.26</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>1.17</b>	<b>1.40</b>

ference in CS-FBs; 2) different numbers of CS-FBs in a sequence of 4 MGCU. For 0 CS-FB, the model only fuses all scales at the end of the encoder. Table 8 presents the average MAEs with different CS-FBs and relative-feature mechanisms across 400 ms on H3.6M. We see that 1) using relative features leads to lower MAEs, validating the effectiveness of such augmented features; 2) 2 CS-FBs leads to the best prediction performance. The intuition is that 0 or 1 CS-FB fuse insufficiently and 3 CS-FBs tend to fuse redundant information to confuse the model.

**Effect of  $\lambda$  in final fusion.** The hyper-parameter  $\lambda$  in the final fusion (3) balances the influence between joint-scale and more abstract scales. Figure 7 illustrates the average MAE with different body scales and CS-FBs for short-term prediction on H3.6M. We see that the performance reach its best when we use 3 scales, 2 hierarchical CS-FBs and  $\lambda = 0.6$ , even though it is robust to the change of  $\lambda$ .

**Effect of high-order motion differences.** We study the effects of various orders of motion differences fed into the encoder and decoder of our model. We evaluate DMGNN with combinations of 0, 1, 2-orders of pose differences. Table 9 presents the MAEs of DMGNN with various input differences for short and long-term motion prediction. We see that the proposed DMGNN obtains the lowest MAEs when it adopts the 0, 1, 2-orders of motion differences. This indicates that high-order differences improve the prediction performance significantly.

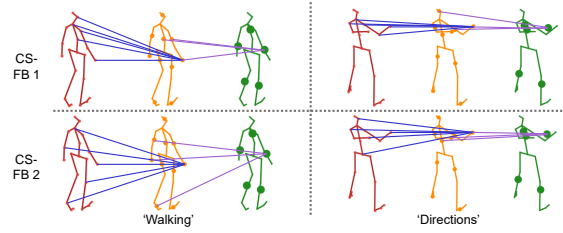


Figure 8. The learned dynamic cross-scale graphs on two CS-FBs for two actions: ‘Walking’ and ‘Directions’ in H3.6M.

Table 10. Classification accuracies on cross-scale graphs and motion features of DMGNN and other methods on H3.6M.

Methods	On CS-FB 1	On CS-FB 2	On H Res-sup. [31]	TP-RNN [6]
Accuracy	28.6%	40.1%	45.7%	22.6%

#### 6.4. Analysis of category-agnostic property

Here we validate that DMGNN can learn discriminative motion features for category-agnostic prediction.

We first visualize the learned cross-scale graphs to validate the discriminative power. Figure 8 shows the graphs in two CS-FBs on ‘Walking’ and ‘Directions’ in H3.6M. For each action, we show some strong relations from detailed scales to the right arms in coarse scales. We see that i) for each action, the cross-scale graphs capture diverse ranges of a human body: the graph in the first CS-FB focuses on nearby body-components; the graph in the second CS-FB captures more global and action-related effects; i.e. hands and feet affects arms during walking; and ii) the cross-scale graphs are different for various actions, especially in the second CS-FB, capturing distinct patterns.

We next conduct action classification on the intermediate representations of DMGNN to test the discriminative power. We isolatedly train a two-layer MLP to classify the dynamic cross-scale graph in each CS-FB. We also classify the outputs from the encoder of DMGNN, Res-sup. (class-aware) and TP-RNN (class-agnostic). Table 10 presents the classification accuracies on 15 categories. We see that the cross-scale graph in the second CS-FB carries more discriminative patterns than the one in the first CS-FB. Comparing to Res-sup. and TP-RNN, DMGNN obtains the highest the classification accuracies on encoder representation, indicating that DMGNN captures discriminative information for class-agnostic prediction. Notably, none methods obtain an extremely high accuracy due to confusing movements in H3.6M, such as eating while walking.

## 7. Conclusion

We build dynamic mutiscale graphs to represent a human body and propose dynamic multiscale graph neural networks (DMGNN) with an encoder-decoder framework for 3D skeleton-based human motion prediction. The results show that the proposed model outperforms most state-of-the-art methods for both short and long-trem prediction in terms of both effectiveness and efficiency.

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