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# 2D Wasserstein Loss for Robust Facial Landmark Detection

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## Abstract

The recent performance of facial landmark detection has been significantly improved by using deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), especially the Heatmap Regression Models (HRMs). Although their performance on common benchmark datasets has reached a high level, the robustness of these models still remains a challenging problem in the practical use under noisy conditions of realistic environments. Contrary to most existing work focusing on the design of new models, we argue that improving the robustness requires rethinking many other aspects, including the use of datasets, the format of landmark annotation, the evaluation metric as well as the training and detection algorithm itself. In this paper, we propose a novel method for robust facial landmark detection, using a loss function based on the 2D Wasserstein distance combined with a new landmark coordinate sampling relying on the barycenter of the individual probability distributions. Our method can be plugged-and-play on most state-of-the-art HRMs with neither additional complexity nor structural modifications of the models. Further, with the large performance increase, we found that current evaluation metrics can no longer fully reflect the robustness of these

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models. Therefore, we propose several improvements to the standard evaluation protocol. Extensive experimental results on both traditional evaluation metrics and our evaluation metrics demonstrate that our approach significantly improves the robustness of state-of-the-art facial landmark detection models.

*Keywords:* Facial Landmark Detection, Face Alignment, Heatmap Regression, Wasserstein Distance

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## 1. Introduction

Facial landmark detection has been a highly active research topic in the last decade and plays an important role in most face image analysis applications e.g. face recognition, face editing and face 3D reconstructions, etc.. Recently, neural network-based Heatmap Regression Models (HRMs) outperform other methods due to their strong capability of handling large pose variations. Unlike Coordinate Regression CNNs which directly estimate the numerical coordinates using fully-connected layers at the output, HRMs usually adopt a fully-convolutional CNN structure. The training targets of HRMs are heatmaps composed of Gaussian distributions centered at the ground truth position of each landmark [1]. Recently, HRMs have brought the performance on current benchmarks to a very high level. However, maintaining robustness is still challenging in the practical use, especially with video streams that involve motion blur, self-occlusions, changing lighting conditions, etc.

We think that the use of geometric information is the key to further improve the robustness. As faces are 3D objects bound to some physical constraints, there exists a natural correlation between landmark positions in the 2D images. This correlation contains important but implicit geometric information. However, the  $L2$  loss that is commonly used to train state-of-the-art HRMs is not able to exploit this geometric information. Hence, we propose a new loss function based on the 2D Wasserstein distance (loss).

The Wasserstein distance, a.k.a. Earth Mover’s Distance, is a widely used metric in Optimal Transport Theory [2]. It measures the distance between two

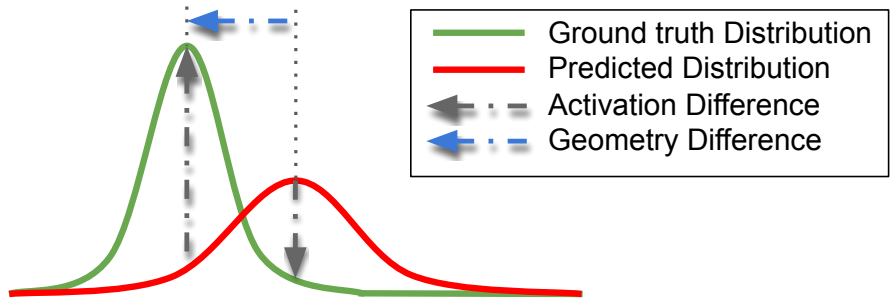


Figure 1: An illustration of the Wasserstein loss between two 1D distributions. Standard  $L2$  loss only considers the “activation” difference (point-wise value difference, vertical gray arrows), whereas the Wasserstein loss takes into account both the activation and the geometry differences (distance between points, horizontal blue arrow).

probability distributions and has an intuitive interpretation. If we consider each  
 25 probability distribution as a pile of earth, this distance represents the minimum  
 effort to move the earth from one pile to the other. Unlike other measurements  
 such as  $L2$ , Kullback-Leibler divergence and Jensen-Shannon divergence, the  
 most appealing property of the Wasserstein distance is its sensitivity to the  
 geometry (see Fig. 1).

30 The contribution of this article is two-fold:

- We propose a novel method based on the Wasserstein loss to significantly improve the robustness of facial landmark detection.
- We propose several modifications to the current evaluation metrics to reflect the robustness of the state-of-the-art methods more effectively.

## 35 2. Related work

### 2.1. Heatmap Regression Models (HRMs)

Recently, HRMs have superseded other facial landmark detection methods with the advent of very powerful deep neural network models. Bulat et al. [3, 4] proposed to use the stacked Hourglass Model [5] for facial landmark detection.  
 40 Their method is now widely used in lots of face related applications.

To improve the accuracy, Wu et al. [6] proposed to predict the boundary of the face and facial components on the heatmap rather than a Gaussian distribution of a landmark, which increases the model sensitivity to the boundary. Liu et al. [7] also proposed a method to improve accuracy of the detection by searching the real ground truth position along the boundary. Compared to learning the boundary explicitly, Dapogny et al. [8] proposed to integrate landmark-wise attention maps with a cascaded heatmap regression model. The attention map resembles the boundary map. Their method is able to learn the boundary in an end-to-end manner without explicitly training the boundary as a target. Recently, HRNet [9] superseded most of the state-of-the-art methods by addressing the importance of the high-resolution heatmap for accuracy.

Deng et al. [10] proposed a joint multi-view HRM to estimate both semi-frontal and profile facial landmarks. Tang et al. [11] proposed quantized densely-connected U-Nets to significantly accelerate the inference of the heatmap regression models. In their network, not only the parameters but also the gradients are quantized.

## 2.2. Robust facial landmark detection

Robust facial landmark detection in images is a long-standing research topic. Numerous works [12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22] propose methods to improve the overall detection robustness on Active Appearance Models [23], Constrained Local Models (CLM) [24], Exemplars-based Models [25] and Cascaded Regression Models [26]. For Coordinate Regression CNNs, Lee et al. [27] improved the robustness by using a geometric prior-generative adversarial network, which estimates a segmentation-like geometric map.

Specifically, the heatmap used in HRMs is conceptually connected to the response map used in CLMs in terms of local activation. Both RLMS [28] and DRMF [13] made effort to alleviate the robustness problem in CLM models.

To ensure the robustness of HRMs, many researchers focus on the representation of the heatmaps. Merget et al. [29] proposed a fully-convolutional local-global context network, which introduces a more global context in the heatmap

regression model. One advantage of this method is that this method does not require face detection as a pre-processing step. Two approaches [30, 31] concerned the uncertainty on the Gaussian distribution of each landmark. Wang et al. [31] proposed a novel Weighted Loss Map, which assigns high attentions on the pixels  
75 around the center of the Gaussian distribution. It helps the training process to be more focused on the pixels that are crucial to landmark localization. Chen et al. [30] introduced the Kernel Density Deep Neural Network that produces target probability map, without assuming a specific parametric distribution such as Gaussian distribution. Zou et al. [32] concerned the structural information  
80 in the heatmap regression models. To obtain robust landmark prediction, they proposed to add a structural constraint based on Hierarchical Structured Landmark Ensemble. Recently, in order to ensure the robustness for downstream tasks, Kumar et al. [33] proposed to estimate the uncertainty and the visibility of the landmarks given by the HRMs. Wan et al. [34, 35] integrated multi-order  
85 cross information into the HRM to model facial geometric constraints. Park et al. [36] used spatial attention mechanism to reject impeditive local features caused by the occlusion.

Several works have been proposed for robust facial landmark detection [37, 38, 39, 40, 31] by carefully designing CNN models, by balancing the data  
90 distribution and other specific techniques. Dong et al. [41] proposed a style-aggregated face generation module coupled with a heatmap regression model to predict robust results on large variance of image styles. The key idea is to develop an unsupervised data augmentation methods, which is able to apply distinct style (including gray scale/color, light/dark, intense/dull etc.) change  
95 on the training images. Zhang et al. [42] proposed a global constraint network for refining the detection based on offset estimation. Chen et al. [43] combined Conditional Random Field with the CNNs to produce structured probabilistic prediction. Zou et al. [44] concerned the robustness problem with diverse cropping manners (related to face detection). They proposed an approach to handle  
100 the out-of-bounds landmarks and achieve transformation-invariant detection. Tong et al. [45] used a mirror image to determine whether the localization of

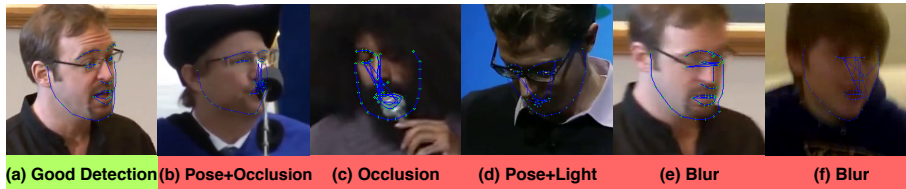


Figure 2: Examples of HRNet detection on 300VW-S3.

each landmark is reliable.

For video sequence, FAB [46] introduced Structure-aware Deblurring to enhance the robustness against motion blurs. Zhu et al. [47] proposed a spatial-  
 105 temporal deformable network to achieve shape-informative and robust feature representation.

### 3. Motivation

#### 3.1. Robustness problem of HRMs

Figure 2 shows some example results of the state-of-the-art method HR-  
 110 Net [9]. HRNet can handle most of the challenging situations (e.g. Fig. 2 (a)). However, we observed that a well-trained HRNet still has difficulties in the practical use when facing extreme poses (Fig. 2 (b)(d)), heavy occlusions (Fig. 2 (b)(c)) and motion blur (Fig. 2 (e)(f)).

These observed robustness issues are rather specific to HRMs. When using  
 115 Cascaded Regression Models or Coordinate Regression CNNs, even if the prediction is poor, the output still forms a plausible shape. On the contrary, with HRMs, there may be only one or several landmarks that are not robustly detected whereas the others are. In addition, they may be located at completely unreasonable positions according to the general morphology of the face.

This is a well-known problem. Tai et al. [48] proposed to improve the robust-  
 120 ness by enforcing some temporal consistency. And the approach of Liu et al. [7] tries to correct the outliers by integrating a Coordinate Regression CNN at the end. Recently, Zou et al. [32] introduced Hierarchical Structured Landmark En-

semble to impose additional structural constraints on HRMs. In these methods,  
125 the constraints are imposed in a post-processing step, which is not integrated  
into the HRM itself. Therefore, all these methods either add complexity to the  
models or require learning on a video stream.

We propose to use Wasserstein loss to regularize the output of HRMs. Com-  
pared to aforementioned methods, our approach is more general by imposing  
130 additional geometric and global contextual constraints into the loss function.  
This adds no complexity during inference and can be trained on both image  
and video datasets. With exactly the same model structure, our models can  
effortlessly substitute the existing ones. Besides that, we found that smoother  
heatmap and proper landmark sampling method also help to improve the model  
135 robustness.

### *3.2. Problem of current evaluation metrics for robustness*

The most common metric for robustness is Failure Rate (FR). It measures  
the proportion of images in a (validation) set whose error is greater than a  
threshold. Table 1 shows the FR with an error threshold of 0.1 ( $FR_{0.1}$ ) of  
140 HRNet. We find that this widely used  $FR_{0.1}$  measure is almost “saturated” on  
several benchmarks such as COFW [12], 300W [49], 300W-Test and AFLW [50].  
That is, there are only 1 , 3 , 1 and 2 failure images respectively (bold numbers  
in Tab. 1). This means that there are only very few challenging images for the  
state-of-the-art model HRNet in these datasets. At this level, this indicator is  
145 saturated and becomes difficult to interpret when comparing the robustness of  
different methods as it is sensitive to random statistical variations. Therefore, it  
becomes necessary to modify the current evaluation metrics on these datasets  
and to find more challenging evaluation protocols to further decrease the gap  
with real-world application settings.



	COFW	300W	300W-Test	AFLW	WFLW
N. Landmarks	29	68	68	19	98
N. Train Img	1,345	3,148	/	20,000	7,500
N. Valid Img	507	689	600	4,386	2,500
HRNet FR <sub>0.1</sub> (%)	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.44</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>0.046</b>	3.12
FR (%) per Img	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>0.023</b>	0.040
FR (%) per Lmk	0.0068	0.0021	0.0025	0.0012	$4.1 \times 10^{-4}$

Table 1: Numerical details of the facial landmark datasets and the Failure Rate (FR) of HRNet on each dataset.

## 150 4. Proposed evaluation metrics

### 4.1. Dataset

The dataset is crucial to evaluate the robustness of the model. The most common robustness issues treated in the literature concern partial occlusions and large pose variations. COFW [12] is one of the first datasets that aims at  
155 benchmarking the performance of facial landmark detection under partial occlusion. 300W [49] comprises a challenging validation subset with face images with large head pose variations, heavy occlusion, low resolution and complex lighting conditions. AFLW [50] is a large-scale dataset including face images in extreme poses. WFLW [6] is a recently released dataset with even more chal-  
160 lenging images. All the images are annotated in a dense format (98 points). The validation set of WFLW is further divided into 6 subsets based on the different difficulties such as occlusion, large pose or extreme expressions. 300VW [51] is a video dataset annotated in the same format as 300W. The validation dataset is split into three scenarios, where the third one (300VW-S3) contains the videos  
165 in highly challenging conditions.

### 4.2. Current evaluation metrics

The main performance indicator for facial landmark detection is the Normalised Mean Error:  $NME = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i NME_i$ , an average over all  $N$  images of a

validation set, where for one image  $i$  the error is averaged over all  $M$  landmarks:

$$\text{NME}_i = \frac{1}{M} \sum_j \text{NME}_{i,j}, \quad (1)$$

and for each landmark  $j$ :

$$\text{NME}_{i,j} = \frac{\|\mathbf{S}_{i,j} - \mathbf{S}_{i,j}^*\|_2}{d_i}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{S}_{i,j}, \mathbf{S}_{i,j}^* \in \mathbb{R}^2$  denote the  $j$ -th predicted and the ground truth landmarks respectively. For each image, we consider the inter-ocular distance as normalisation distance  $d_i$  for 300W, 300VW, COFW, WFLW and the face bounding  
 170 box width for AFLW.

As mentioned before, Failure Rate  $\text{FR}_\theta$  measures the proportion of the images in the validation set whose  $\text{NME}_i$  is greater than a threshold  $\theta$ . We will denote this classical failure rate:  $\text{FR}^I$  in the following. In the literature,  $\text{FR}_{0.1}^I$  and  $\text{FR}_{0.08}^I$  are the principle metrics to measure the prediction robustness as  
 175 they focus on rather large errors (i.e. 8%/10% of the normalisation distance).

It is also very common to compute the  $\text{FR}_\theta^I$  over the entire range of  $\theta$ , called the Cumulative Error Distribution (CED), which gives an overall idea on the distribution of errors over a given dataset. Finally, for easier quantitative comparison of the performance of different models, the total area under the CED  
 180 distribution can be computed, which is usually denoted as the Area Under Curve (AUC).

#### 4.3. Proposed modifications to the current evaluation metric

We propose three modifications to these measures:

**Landmark-wise FR:** Instead of computing the average failure rate per image:  $\text{FR}^I$ , we propose to compute this measure *per landmark*. That is, for each  
 185 landmark  $j$ , the proportion of  $\text{NME}_{i,j}$  larger than a threshold is determined. Finally, an average over all landmarks is computed, called  $\text{FR}^L$  in the following. There are two advantages of computing the failure rate in this way: (1) With HRMs, it happens that only one or few landmarks are not well detected

190 (outliers). However, the  $FR^I$  (*per image*) may still be small because the rest of the landmarks are predicted with high precision and an average is computed per image. Thus, possible robustness problems of some individual landmarks are not revealed by the  $FR^I$  measure. (2)  $FR^L$  can provide a finer granularity for model comparison, which is notably beneficial when the state-of-the-art  
195 methods have an  $FR^I$  that is very close and almost zero on several benchmark datasets (see  $FR$  (%) per Image/Landmark in Tab. 1).

**Cross-dataset validation:** Leveraging several datasets simultaneously is not new and has already been adopted by some previous works [52, 53, 54, 55, 6, 56]. Most of them focus on unifying the different semantic meanings among  
200 different annotation formats. In [37], the authors validated the robustness of their model by training on 300W and validating on the COFW dataset.

We assume the reason why the performance of HRNet has “saturated” on several datasets is that the data distributions in the training and validation subsets are very close. Therefore, to effectively validate the robustness of a  
205 model, we propose to train it on a small dataset and test on a different dataset with more images to avoid any over-fitting to a specific dataset distribution. Thus, two important aspects of robustness are better evaluated in this way: firstly, the *number* of possible test cases, which reduces the possibility to “miss out” more rare real-world situations. And secondly, the generalisation capacity  
210 to different data distributions, for example corresponding to varying application scenarios, acquisition settings etc.

We propose four cross-dataset validation protocols: COFW→AFLW (trained on COFW training set, validated on AFLW validation set with 19 landmarks), 300W→300VW, 300W→WFLW, and WFLW→300VW. The annotation of 300W  
215 and 300VW has identical semantic meaning. On the other three protocols, we only measure the errors on the common landmarks between two formats. There are indeed slight semantic differences on certain landmarks. However, in our comparing study this effect is negligible because: (1) We mainly focus on the large errors when validating the robustness. That is, these differences are too  
220 small to influence the used indicators such as  $FR_{0,1}^L$ . (2) When applying the



Figure 3: An illustration of synthetic occlusion and motion blur protocol.

same protocol for each compared model, this systematic error is roughly the same for all models.

**Synthetic occlusion and motion blur:** Occlusion and motion blur are big challenges for robust facial landmark detection. However, annotating the ground truth landmark positions of occluded/blurred faces is very difficult in practice. To further evaluate the robustness of the model against these noises, we thus propose to apply synthetic occlusions and motion blur on the validation images. For occlusion, a black ellipse of random size is superposed on each image at random positions. For motion blur, inspired by [46], we artificially blur the 300VW dataset. For each frame at time  $t$ , the blurring direction is based on the movement of the nose tip (the 34th landmark) between the frame  $t - 1$  and  $t + 1$ . We adopt two protocols for both perturbations: large and medium, illustrated in Fig. 3. Obviously, the landmark detection performance of a model is deteriorated by these noises. But more robust models should be more resilient to these noise.

## 5. Proposed method

We propose to add geometric and global constraints during the training of HRMs. Our method consists of the following three parts:

### 5.1. 2D wasserstein loss

240 **2D Wasserstein Loss:** Sun et al. [57] discussed the use of different loss functions for HRM. The most widely used loss function is heatmap  $L2$  loss. It simply calculates the  $L2$  norm of the pixel-wise value difference between the ground truth heatmap and the predicted heatmap.

We propose to train HRMs using a loss function based on the Wasserstein distance. Given two distributions  $u$  and  $v$  defined on  $M$ , the first Wasserstein distance between  $u$  and  $v$  is defined as:

$$l_1(u, v) = \inf_{\pi \in \Gamma(u, v)} \int_{M \times M} |x - y| d\pi(x, y), \quad (3)$$

where  $\Gamma(u, v)$  denotes the set of all joint distributions on  $M \times M$  whose marginals are  $u$  and  $v$ . The set  $\Gamma(u, v)$  is also called the set of all couplings of  $u$  and  $v$ . Each coupling  $\pi(x, y)$  indicates how much “mass” must be transported from the position  $x$  to the position  $y$  in order to transform the distributions  $u$  into the distribution  $v$ .

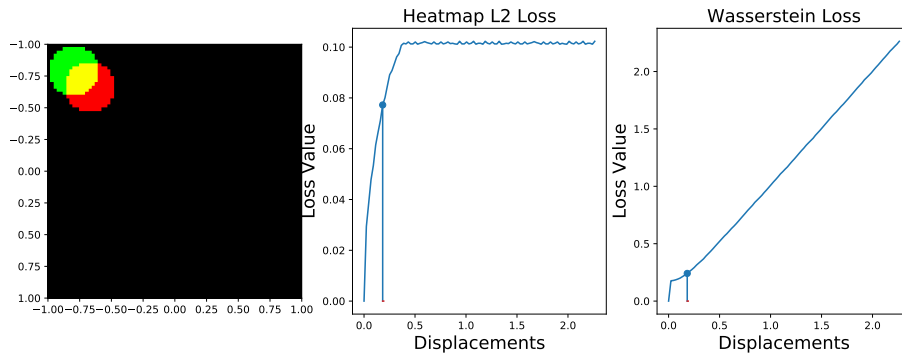
Intuitively, the Wasserstein distance can be seen as the minimum amount of “work” required to transform  $u$  into  $v$ , where “work” is measured as the amount of distribution weight that must be moved, multiplied by the distance it has to be moved. This notion of distance provides additional geometric information that cannot be expressed with the point-wise  $L2$  distance (see Fig. 1).

To define our Wasserstein loss function for heatmap regression, we formulate the continuous first Wasserstein metric for two discrete 2D distributions  $u', v'$  representing a predicted and ground truth heatmap respectively:

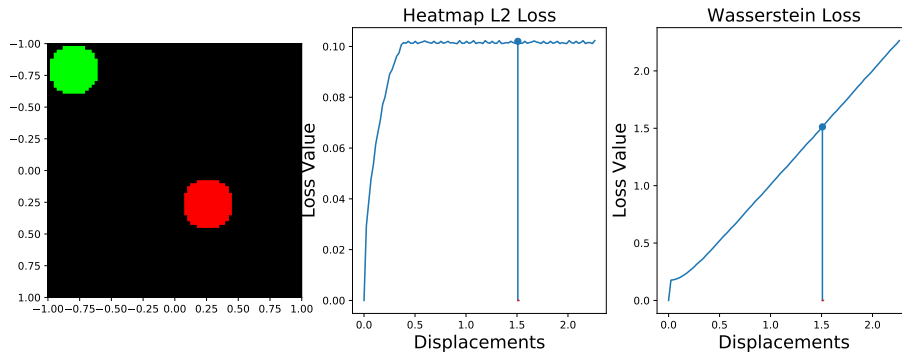
$$L_W(u, v) = \min_{\pi' \in \Gamma'(u, v)} \sum_{x, y} |x - y|_2 \pi'(x, y) \quad (4)$$

where  $\Gamma'(u, v)$  is the set of all possible 4D distributions whose 2D marginals are our heatmaps  $u$  and  $v$ , and  $|\cdot|_2$  is the Euclidean distance. The calculation of the Wasserstein distance is usually solved by linear programming and considered to be time-consuming. Previous work on visual tracking have developed differential Wasserstein Distance [58] and iterative Wasserstein Distance [59] to boost

the computation. Cuturi [60] proposed to add an entropic regularization and  
 260 calculate an approximation of the loss by Sinkhorn iteration. This drastically  
 accelerates the calculation and enables the gradient back-propagation through  
 the loss calculation. Further, in our case, having discrete 2D distributions of size  
 $64^2$  leading to a joint size of  $64^4 \approx 1.67 \times 10^7$  (for “weights” and distances) as  
 well as existing GPU implementations [61, 62] make the computation of Wasser-  
 265 stein distance tractable. A visual comparison of Wasserstein Loss and heatmap  
 $L2$  loss on 2D distribution is presented in Fig. 4.



(a) Ground truth (green) and predicted (red) distributions **overlap**.



(b) Ground truth and predicted distributions **do not overlap**.

Figure 4: Comparison of heatmap  $L2$  loss and Wasserstein loss on 2D distributions. We observe that the value of  $L2$  loss saturates when the two distributions do not overlap. However, the value of Wasserstein Loss continues to increase. The Wasserstein loss is able to better integrate the global geometry on the overall heatmap. (Figure taken from [63] with slight modifications.)

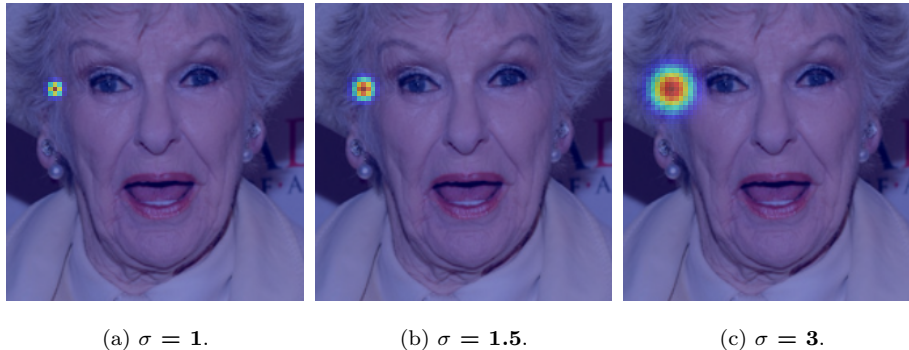


Figure 5: Illustration of ground truth target heatmaps defined by Gaussian functions with different  $\sigma$ .

Using Wasserstein loss for HRM has two advantages: (1) It makes the regression sensitive to the global geometry, thus effectively penalizing predicted activations that appear far away from the ground truth position. (2) When training with the  $L2$  loss, the heatmap is not strictly considered as a distribution as no normalisation applied over the map. When training with the Wasserstein loss, the heatmaps are first passed through a softmax function. That means the sum of all pixel values of an output heatmap is normalised to 1, which is statistically more meaningful as each normalised value represents the probability of a landmark being at the given position. Moreover, when passed through a softmax function, the pixel values on a heatmap are projected to the  $e$ -polynomial space. This highlights the largest pixel value and suppresses other pixels whose values are inferior.

### 5.2. Smoother target heatmaps

**Smoother target heatmaps:** To improve convergence and robustness, the values of the ground truth heatmaps of HRMs for facial landmark detection are generally defined by 2D Gaussian functions, where the parameter  $\sigma$  is commonly set to 1 or 1.5 (see Fig. 5).

Intuitively, enlarging  $\sigma$  will implicitly force the HRM to consider a larger local neighborhood in the visual support throughout the different CNN layers.

Therefore, when confronting partial interferences (e.g. occlusion, bad lighting conditions), the model should consider a larger context and thus be more robust to these types of noise. Nonetheless, the Gaussian distribution should not be too spread out to ensure some precision and to avoid touching the map boundaries.

290 We empirically found that  $\sigma = 3$  is an appropriate setting for facial landmark detection. In our experiments, we systematically demonstrate the effectiveness of using  $\sigma = 3$  compared to  $\sigma = 1$  or  $\sigma = 1.5$  for robust landmark detection under challenging conditions.

### 5.3. Landmark sampling

**Landmark sampling:** In the early work of HRM [5, 3], the position of a predicted landmark  $p$  is sampled directly at the position of the maximum value of the given heatmap  $H$ :

$$(p_x, p_y) = \arg \max_p (H). \quad (5)$$

295 However, this inevitably leads to considerable quantization error because the size of the heatmap is generally smaller than the original image (usually around 4 times). An improvement is to use interpolation and resample the numerical coordinates using 4 neighbouring pixel (bilinear interpolation). We denote this method as “GET\_MAX”.

300 Liu et al. discussed in [7] that using a target Gaussian distribution with bigger  $\sigma$  decreases the overall NME. Indeed, using bigger  $\sigma$  flattens the output distribution and therefore obfuscates the position of the peak value. As a result, the predictions are locally less precise.

To compensate this local imprecision when using bigger  $\sigma$ , we propose another approach to sample numerical coordinates from the heatmap. Inspired by [57], we propose to use the spatial barycenter of the heatmap:

$$(p_x, p_y) = \int_{q \in \Omega} q \cdot H(q), \quad (6)$$

where  $\Omega$  denotes the set of pixel positions on the heatmap. We denote this 305 method as “GET\_BC” (BaryCenter).



GET\_BC enables sub-pixel prediction, which effectively improves the local precision of the model trained with Wasserstein loss and big  $\sigma$ . On the other hand, GET\_BC considers the entire heatmap and thus involves a global context for a more robust final detection.

## 310 6. Experiments

In this section, we compare our method with other state-of-the-art methods and realize ablation studies using both traditional and proposed evaluation metrics. We also apply our method on various HRMs to demonstrate that our method can be directly used for any structures without further adjustments.

315 To provide a general idea on the NME and the threshold of FR in this section, we demonstrate the error normalised by inter-ocular distance at different scales in Fig. 7. The ground truth position is the inner corner of the right eye. The errors within 5% are relatively small ones. From 10%, the errors might be larger than the distance between adjacent landmarks. The errors larger than  
320 20% completely violate the reasonable face shape and needs to be avoided in most applications.

### 6.1. Effectiveness of barycenter sampling

**Effectiveness of barycenter sampling:** The GET\_BC method for estimating the predicted landmark coordinates is able to significantly improve the  
325 precision of the model trained with Wasserstein loss and larger  $\sigma$  (see Tab. 2, NME is improved from 4.00% to 3.46%).

In contrast, GET\_BC is not compatible with the output trained with heatmap  $L2$  loss ( $FR_{0.2}^L$  is largely increased from 0.58% to 16.83% using GET\_BC). Please note that, in Tab. 2, we only compare the sampling methods. Comparison of  
330 using different  $\sigma$  and loss functions will be done later in this paper.

Training with  $L2$  is less robust and generally leads to spurious activations far away from the ground truth position, which prevents GET\_BC from estimating good positions. Figure 6 shows an example comparing the output heatmaps

$\sigma$	Loss	Method	NME(%)	FR $_{0.05}^L$ (%)
1	Heatmap $L2$	GET_MAX	3.34	18.33
		GET_BC	<b>20.15</b>	<b>93.70</b>
3	Wasserstein	GET_MAX	4.00	24.69
		GET_BC	<b>3.46</b>	<b>19.42</b>

Table 2: Performance of HRNet on the 300W validation set when using different coordinate sampling methods. GET\_BC improves the local precision (see FR $_{0.05}^L$ ) of the model trained with Wasserstein loss (W Loss) and large  $\sigma$ . However, it harms the performance of the model trained with Heatmap  $L2$  loss (HM  $L2$ ).

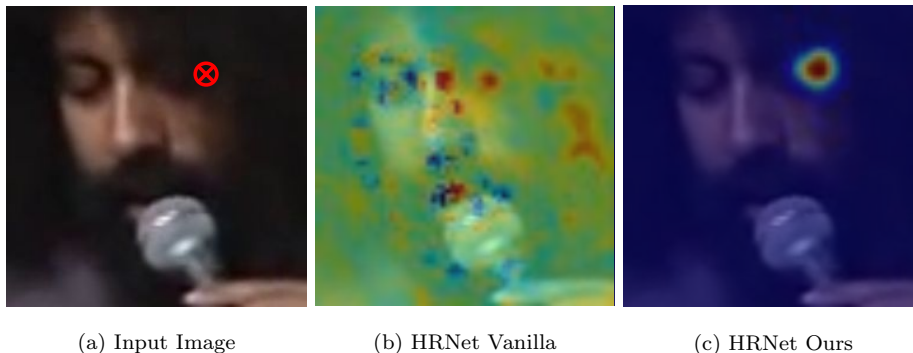


Figure 6: Output heatmap comparisons under occlusion. We show the heatmaps of the landmark marked in red.

from a vanilla HRNet (trained with  $L2$  loss,  $\sigma = 1$ ) and our HRNet (trained  
335 with Wasserstein loss,  $\sigma = 3$ ) on a occluded landmark (outer right eye-corner).  
We observe that our strategy effectively removes the spurious activation on the  
unrelated regions, so that the prediction will be more robust and GET\_BC can  
be effective. Consider that GET\_BC significantly improves the precision of the  
landmarks prediction, especially when using large  $\sigma$  is used. Therefore, in the  
340 following experiments, we will by default use GET\_MAX for models trained  
with the  $L2$  loss and GET\_BC for models trained with the Wasserstein loss.

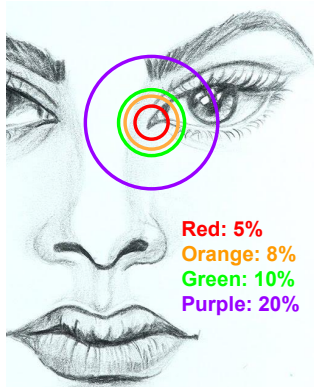


Figure 7: Demonstration of the normalised error from 5% to 20%.

Method	S1	S2	S3
TSTN [65]	5.36	4.51	12.84
DSRN [66]	5.33	4.92	8.85
FHR+STA [48]	4.42	4.18	5.98
SA [7]	3.85	<b>3.46</b>	7.51
FAB [46]	<b>3.56</b>	3.88	<b>5.02</b>
DeCaFA [67]	3.82	3.63	6.67
HRNet, $\sigma = 1$ , $L2$	3.74	3.73	5.49
$\sigma = 3$ , $L2$	3.42	<b>3.58</b>	5.12
$\sigma = 1$ , W Loss	3.41	3.66	5.01
$\sigma = 3$ , W Loss	3.39	3.64	<b>4.99</b>
$\sigma = 3$ , W Loss, CC	<b>3.35</b>	3.61	5.05

Table 3: NME (%) on 300VW. W Loss - Wasserstein Loss. CC - CoordConv.

## 6.2. Comparison with the state-of-the-art

**Comparison with the state-of-the-art:** We performed an ablation study using a “vanilla” HRNet (trained with heatmap  $L2$  loss and  $\sigma = 1$ ) as our baseline. We also tested a recent method called CoordConv (CC) [64] to integrate geometric information to the CNN. To this end, we replaced all the convolutional layers by CoordConv layers. We benchmark our method with standard evaluation metrics NME on 300VW in Tab. 3, WFLW in Tab. 4, AFLW in Tab. 5 and 300W in Tab. 6 .

On 300VW (Tab. 3), our method shows promising performance, especially under challenging conditions on Scenario 3. On S3, by using Wasserstein loss, the NME drops by 0.48 point. By using a bigger  $\sigma$ , the NME drops by 0.37 point. By using both, the NME can be further improved for a small margin. Using the Wasserstein loss combined with a larger  $\sigma$ , our method outperforms the vanilla HRNet by a significant margin of 0.39%, 0.15% and 0.5% points on scenario 1, 2 and 3 respectively, and outperforms state-of-the-art methods.

Method	Mean	Pose	Exp.	Illm.	Mkup.	Occ	Blur
ESR [68]	11.13	25.88	11.47	10.49	11.05	13.75	12.20
SDM [69]	10.29	24.10	11.45	9.32	9.38	13.03	11.28
CFSS [70]	9.07	21.36	10.09	8.30	8.74	11.76	9.96
DVLN [55]	6.08	11.54	6.78	5.73	5.98	7.33	6.88
Wing [71]	5.11	8.75	5.36	4.93	5.41	6.37	5.81
LAB [6]	5.27	10.24	5.51	5.23	5.15	6.79	6.32
DeCaFA [67]	<b>4.62</b>	<b>8.11</b>	<b>4.65</b>	<b>4.41</b>	<b>4.63</b>	<b>5.74</b>	<b>5.38</b>
HRNet, $\sigma = 1.5$ , $L2$	4.60	7.77	4.85	4.53	4.30	5.32	5.35
$\sigma = 3$ , $L2$	4.76	7.99	4.97	4.62	4.50	5.51	5.39
$\sigma = 1.5$ , W	4.57	7.76	4.80	4.45	4.37	5.38	<b>5.24</b>
$\sigma = 3$ , W	4.76	8.01	5.08	4.68	4.61	5.56	5.42
$\sigma = 1.5$ , W, CC	<b>4.52</b>	<b>7.65</b>	<b>4.72</b>	<b>4.33</b>	<b>4.26</b>	<b>5.27</b>	5.28
$\sigma = 3$ , W, CC	4.82	8.16	5.11	4.68	4.67	5.57	5.45

Table 4: NME (%) on WFLW. W - Wasserstein Loss. CC - CoordConv.

On WFLW (Tab. 4), our method achieves good performances by using a strong baseline. Nonetheless, using Wasserstein loss (4.57%) only achieves marginal improvement compared to using  $L2$  loss (4.60%). We think that it is because the predictions are already “regularized” by the dense annotation of WFLW. We will analyze this issue in detail in Sect. 7.

On AFLW (Tab. 5) and 300W (Tab. 6) datasets, our model shows comparable performance to the state-of-the-art methods using traditional evaluation metrics. Here, using the Wasserstein loss only achieves a marginal improvement. And using a larger  $\sigma$  even slightly decreases the NME performance. As discussed in Sect. 2, the performance of vanilla HRNet has already reached a high level on these datasets. Thus, there are only very few challenging validation images for HRNet. The NME is dominated by a large amount of small errors, which is the disadvantage of using a larger  $\sigma$ , and it can thus no longer reflect the robustness of the models. In the following parts, the robustness of

Method	Frontal	All
SAN [41]	1.85	1.91
DSRN [66]	-	1.86
Wing-Loss [71]	-	<b>1.47</b>
SA [7]	-	1.60
LAB w/o Boundary [6]	1.62	1.85
ODN [37]	<b>1.38</b>	1.63
HRNet, $\sigma = 1.5$ , L2	1.46	1.57
$\sigma = 3$ , L2	1.44	1.57
$\sigma = 1.5$ , W	1.39	<b>1.51</b>
$\sigma = 3$ , W	1.43	1.58
$\sigma = 1.5$ , W, CC	<b>1.37</b>	<b>1.51</b>
$\sigma = 3$ , W, CC	1.43	1.57

Table 5: NME(%) performance comparison on AFLW. W - Wasserstein Loss. CC - Coord-Conv.

these models were validated by using cross-dataset validation.

### 6.3. Cross-dataset validation

**Cross-dataset validation:** We use cross-dataset validation to measure the robustness of our HRNet trained on 300W. We present the landmark-wise CEDs of protocol 300W→WFLW (Fig. 8), protocol 300W→300VW (Tab. 7), protocol 300W→AFLW (Fig. 9) and protocol WFLW→300VW (Fig. 10).

From protocol 300W→WFLW (Fig. 8), we find that using larger  $\sigma$  (L2 Loss,  $\sigma = 3$ ) and Wasserstein loss (W Loss,  $\sigma = 1$ ) can respectively improve the NME by 0.5 point. Using both (W Loss,  $\sigma = 3$ ) further improves the NME to be 1 point inferior than the vanilla HRNet. Notably, the improvement on larger errors (error  $\geq 20\%$ ) is more significant than the errors  $< 20\%$ , which demonstrates the superior robustness against large errors of our HRNet compared to vanilla HRNet. From protocol 300W→300VW (Tab. 7), we obtain similar conclusions. Both bigger  $\sigma$  and Wasserstein Loss improve the robustness. The contribution

Method	Common	Challenge	Full
PCD-CNN [72]	3.67	7.62	4.44
CPM+SBR [73]	3.28	7.58	4.10
SAN [41]	3.34	6.60	3.98
DAN [39]	3.19	5.24	3.59
LAB [6]	2.98	5.19	3.49
DCFE [74]	<b>2.76</b>	5.22	3.24
DeCaFA [67]	2.93	5.26	3.39
LUVLi [33]	<b>2.76</b>	<b>5.16</b>	<b>3.23</b>
HRNet, $\sigma = 1$ , $L2$	2.91	5.11	<b>3.34</b>
$\sigma = 3$ , $L2$	3.05	5.28	3.49
$\sigma = 1$ , W Loss	2.85	5.13	3.29
$\sigma = 3$ , W Loss	3.01	5.30	3.46
$\sigma = 1$ , W Loss, CC	<b>2.81</b>	<b>5.08</b>	<b>3.26</b>
$\sigma = 3$ , W Loss, CC	2.95	5.22	3.39

Table 6: NME (%) comparison on 300W. W Loss - Wasserstein Loss. CC - CoordConv.

385 of Wasserstein Loss is more important than the larger  $\sigma$  (see  $FR_{0.1}^L$ ). However, even GET\_BC is used, a larger  $\sigma$  still slightly decreases the local precision. As a result, on the less challenging datasets such as 300VW-S1 and 300VW-S2, we found that the best performance can be obtained by using a combination of small  $\sigma$ , Wasserstein loss and CoordConv. On more challenging datasets  
390 such as WFLW and 300VW-S3, the best performance is obtained by using a combination of the Wasserstein loss and a larger  $\sigma$ .

The landmark-wise CED of the protocol COFW $\rightarrow$ AFLW is presented in Fig. 9. Our method achieves a bigger improvement on COFW $\rightarrow$ AFLW-All compared to COFW $\rightarrow$ AFLW-Frontal. This is because AFLW-All contains non-  
395 frontal images, which is more challenging than AFLW-Frontal.

On COFW $\rightarrow$ AFLW-All (Fig. 9 (a)), by using Wasserstein loss, the NME performance can be improved by 0.13% from 3.54% to 3.41%. Using CordConv

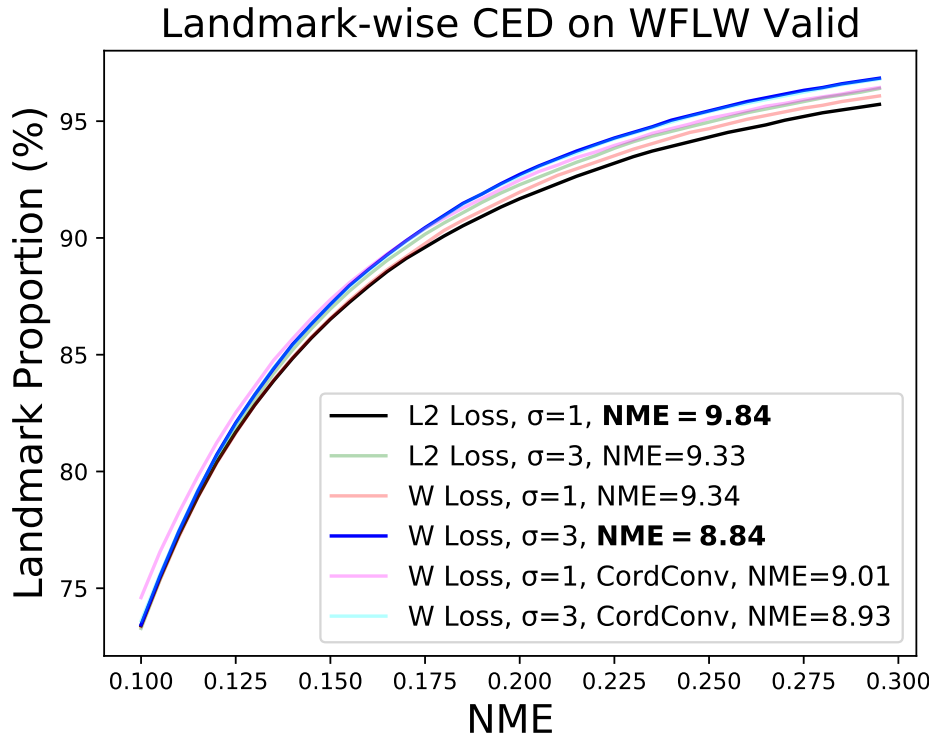


Figure 8: Landmark-wise CED of 300W→WFLW validation.

can further improve the performance by 0.08% to 3.33%. Specifically, the improvement is significant at the NME from 6% to 25%. However, using big  $\sigma$  will still decrease the local precision. We notice that the models using big  $\sigma$  perform worse than the models using small  $\sigma$  at NME=5%.

The landmark-wise CED of the protocol WFLW→300VW is shown in Fig. 10. We observe that by using Wasserstein Loss and CordConv, the HRNet trained on WFLW can be better generalized on the 300VW dataset. However, the improvement is less significant compared to the protocol 300W→300VW. We will discuss later on in Sect. 7 that, the model trained on WFLW (with the dense annotation of 98 landmarks) has been already regularized by the strong landmark correlation among adjacent landmarks.

Method	Scenario 1		Scenario 2		Scenario 3	
	NME	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>L</sup>	NME	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>L</sup>	NME	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>L</sup>
$\sigma = 1, L2$	4.44	5.02	4.37	4.86	6.67	11.65
$\sigma = 3, L2$	4.36	4.89	4.38	4.83	6.35	10.97
$\sigma = 1, W$	4.16	4.68	4.21	4.67	6.31	10.08
$\sigma = 3, W$	4.17	4.84	4.16	4.47	<b>6.01</b>	9.91
$\sigma = 1, W, CC$	<b>4.05</b>	<b>4.22</b>	<b>4.11</b>	<b>4.26</b>	6.32	10.61
$\sigma = 3, W, CC$	4.21	4.78	4.24	4.61	6.02	<b>9.58</b>

Table 7: NME (%) and FR<sub>0.1</sub><sup>L</sup> (%) comparison of 300W→300VW cross-dataset validation using HRNet. W - Wasserstein Loss. CC - CoordConv.

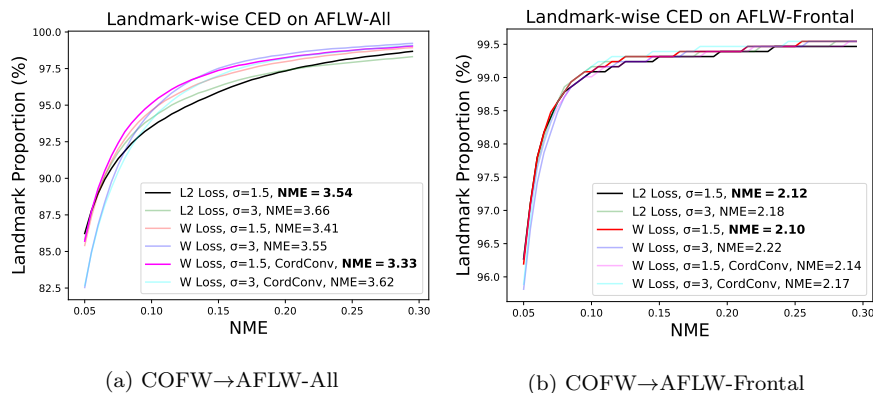


Figure 9: Landmark-wise CED of COFW→AFLW cross-validation with HRNet.

#### 6.4. Synthetic occlusions and motion blur

410 **Synthetic occlusions and motion blur:** We further evaluated the robustness against synthetic perturbations that we described in Sect. 4 (see Tab. 8 and Tab. 9). We find that the model is more robust to occlusion and motion blur by using a larger  $\sigma$  and Wasserstein loss. For example, the FR<sub>0.2</sub><sup>L</sup> is improved from 2.66% to 1.72% under large occlusions. Under large motion blur perturbations, 415 the FR<sub>0.2</sub><sup>L</sup> is improved from 36.63% to 31.32%.



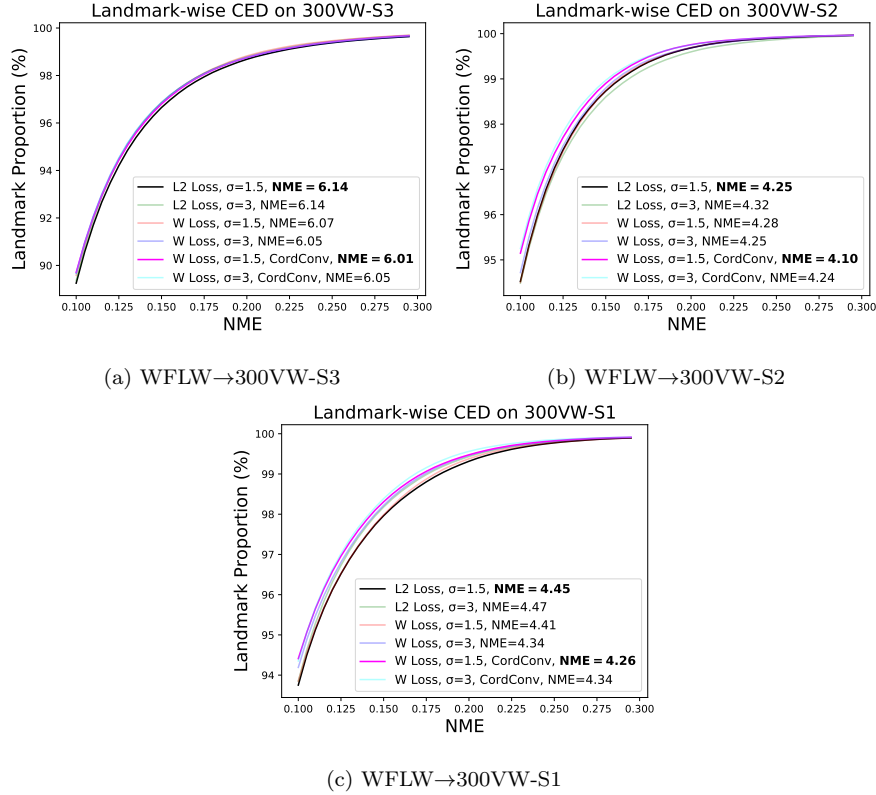


Figure 10: Cross-dataset validation of HRNet trained on WFLW (WFLW→300VW).

### 6.5. Comparison with other loss functions

**Comparison with other loss functions:** Besides Heatmap  $L2$ , we note that there exists several other loss functions for HRMs. Jensen–Shannon divergence (loss) is a common metric for measuring the distance between two probabilistic distributions. Soft ArgMax [57] transforms the heatmap regression into a numeric integral regression problem, which we think might be beneficial for model robustness. From Tab. 10, we find that the HRNet trained with Wasserstein loss delivers more robust predictions compared to the HRNet trained with other loss functions.

				Occlusion (300W)				
Protocol	$\sigma$	Loss	CC	NME	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>I</sup>	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.15</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.2</sub> <sup>L</sup>
Large	1	L2	×	4.63	4.31	10.11	4.83	2.66
	3	W	×	<b>4.48</b>	<b>2.95</b>	<b>9.62</b>	<b>3.88</b>	<b>1.72</b>
	3	W	✓	4.60	3.79	9.89	4.26	2.03
Medium	1	L2	×	<b>3.57</b>	0.97	5.58	1.94	0.83
	3	W	×	3.62	<b>0.46</b>	5.46	1.74	0.63
	3	W	✓	3.60	0.58	<b>5.11</b>	<b>1.65</b>	<b>0.61</b>

Table 8: Results of the HRNet with synthetic occlusion (validated on 300W dataset).

				Blur (300VW-S3)				
Protocol	$\sigma$	Loss	CC	NME	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>I</sup>	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.15</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.2</sub> <sup>L</sup>
Large	1	L2	×	27.42	66.3	56.57	44.28	36.63
	3	W	×	<b>19.15</b>	64.51	<b>54.70</b>	<b>41.03</b>	<b>31.32</b>
	3	W	✓	19.32	<b>63.65</b>	55.71	41.85	31.68
Medium	1	L2	×	11.07	31.67	28.34	15.22	9.32
	3	W	×	9.5	27.54	27.34	14.35	7.80
	3	W	✓	<b>9.07</b>	<b>25.14</b>	<b>26.37</b>	<b>12.76</b>	<b>6.27</b>

Table 9: Results of the HRNet with synthetic motion blur (validated on 300VW-S3).

#### 425 6.6. Different models

**Different models:** To demonstrate that our method can be used on a variety of HRMs regardless of the model structure, we test our method on three popular HRMs: HourGlass [5], CPN [75] and SimpleBaselines [76]. In Fig. 11 we can see that all of the three models benefit from our method. This indicates  
430 that our approach is quite general and can be applied to most existing HRMs.

#### 6.7. Visual comparison

**Visual comparison:** We visually compare the predictions from vanilla HRNet and our HRNet on a challenging video clip in Fig. 12. Our HRNet gives

Loss	Sampling	FR <sub>0.08</sub> <sup>I</sup>	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>I</sup>	FR <sub>0.08</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.1</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.15</sub> <sup>L</sup>	FR <sub>0.2</sub> <sup>L</sup>
300W→WFLW							
JS <sup>†</sup>	GET_MAX	40.48	26.24	37.60	26.89	13.72	8.37
JS <sup>†</sup>	GET_BC	40.44	26.12	37.49	27.17	14.37	9.04
S. AM <sup>†</sup>	GET_BC	42.60	26.40	40.37	29.23	14.86	8.51
W <sup>†</sup>	GET_BC	<b>39.24</b>	25.12	<b>37.27</b>	26.61	13.42	8.03
W*	GET_BC	39.96	<b>23.64</b>	37.42	<b>26.39</b>	<b>12.81</b>	<b>7.32</b>
300W→300VW-S3							
JS <sup>†</sup>	GET_MAX	11.07	5.14	19.27	11.97	4.45	2.06
JS <sup>†</sup>	GET_BC	10.87	5.34	18.93	11.92	4.66	2.28
S. AM <sup>†</sup>	GET_BC	11.08	5.61	19.00	11.59	4.45	2.09
W <sup>†</sup>	GET_BC	9.72	3.73	17.96	11.08	4.15	1.79
W*	GET_BC	<b>7.52</b>	<b>2.96</b>	<b>16.03</b>	<b>9.58</b>	<b>3.39</b>	<b>1.46</b>

Table 10: Cross-dataset validation (300W→WFLW & 300W→300VW) of the HRNet using different loss functions. †: Trained with Gaussian Distribution  $\sigma = 1$  without CoordConv. \*: Trained with  $\sigma = 3$  with CoordConv. JS: Jensen–Shannon divergence (loss). S. AM: Soft ArgMax Loss. W: Wasserstein Loss.

a more robust detection when confronted to extreme poses and motion blur. By  
435 using the Wasserstein loss, a larger  $\sigma$  and GET\_BC, the predicted landmarks  
are more regularized by the global geometry compared to the prediction from  
the vanilla HRNet.

## 7. Discussions

### 7.1. Dense annotation

440 **Does dense annotation naturally ensure the robustness?** We find  
that our method shows less significant improvement on the model trained on  
WFLW. Intuitively, we presume that by training with a dense annotation (98  
landmarks), the model predictions are somewhat regularized by the correlation  
between neighbouring landmarks. In Tab. 11, we compare the models trained

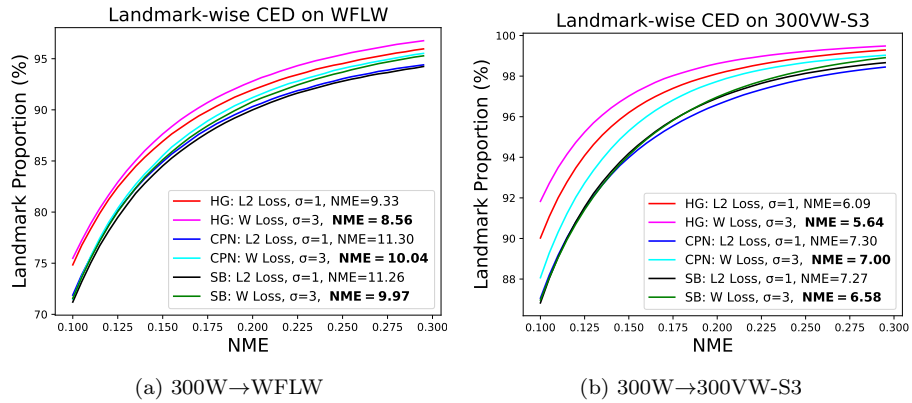


Figure 11: Cross-dataset validation of HG [5], CPN [75] and SimpleBaselines(SB) [76].

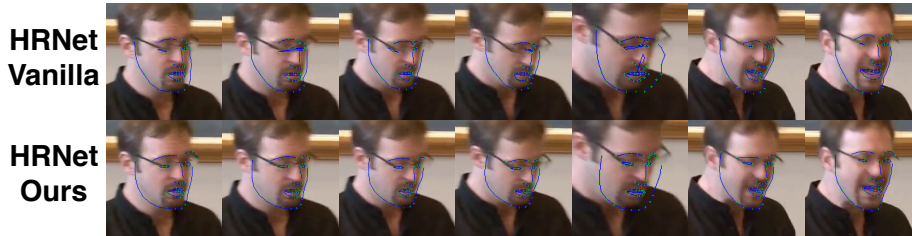


Figure 12: Visual comparison of vanilla HRNet ( $L_2$  Loss and  $\sigma = 1$ ) and our HRNet (Wasserstein loss and  $\sigma = 3$ ).

445 with different number of landmarks. The 68 landmark format is a subset of  
the original 98 landmark format, which is similar to the 300W annotation. The  
17 landmark format is a subset of the 68 landmark format, which is similar to  
the AFLW annotation (except the eye centers). To ensure the fair comparison,  
though trained with different number of landmarks, all the models listed are  
450 tested on the common 17 landmarks. We found that the prediction is naturally  
more robust by training with denser annotation formats. Therefore, compared  
to the model trained with more sparse annotation, our method achieves less  
important improvement on the model trained with dense annotation.

N. Landmks	$\sigma$	Loss	FR $_{0.15}^L$	FR $_{0.2}^L$
17	1	L2	2.79	1.60
	3	W	<b>2.68</b>	<b>1.29</b>
68	1	L2	0.65	0.37
	3	W	<b>0.62</b>	<b>0.33</b>
98	1	L2	0.44	0.25
	3	W	<b>0.43</b>	<b>0.22</b>

Table 11: Comparison of HRNets trained with different number of landmarks on WFLW. W: Wasserstein Loss.

### 7.2. Recommended settings

455 We recommend to use the Wasserstein loss and GET\_BC to improve the robustness of the model in all cases. Using a larger  $\sigma$  will significantly improve the robustness under challenging conditions. Nonetheless, it deteriorates the local precision at the same time. In fact, the value of  $\sigma$  is a trade-off between robustness and precision. Therefore, we recommend to use a larger  $\sigma$  only when  
460 confronting crucial circumstances. When facing less challenging conditions, we recommend to use a combination of Wasserstein loss and small  $\sigma$ . Complementing CoordConv with Wasserstein loss and small  $\sigma$  will further improve the NME performance. However, it adds slight computational complexity to the HRMs. Specifically, when using small  $\sigma$ , the models with CoordConv are less robust  
465 against large occlusions compared to those without CoordConv.

### 7.3. Strengths and Weaknesses:

**Strengths:** Our method is simple and efficient. It significantly improves the robustness without introducing any structural modification or complexity during the inference stage.

470 **Weaknesses:** During training, the calculation of Wasserstein loss is relatively time-consuming, even with GPU. We also tested our method for the task of human pose estimation, we do not observe improvement on the MPII

dataset [77]. It is probably due to the fact that human joints have more articulations and left/right confusions than facial landmarks, thus involving limited  
475 geometric information and global context.

Future work can be focused on how to generalize this approach on more complicated tasks such as human pose estimation.

## 8. Conclusions

In this paper, we studied the problem of robust facial landmark detection  
480 regarding several aspects such as the use of datasets, evaluation metrics and methodology. Due to the performance saturation, we found that the widely used FR and NME measures can no longer effectively reflect the robustness of a model on several popular benchmarks. Therefore, we proposed several modifications to the current evaluation metrics and a novel method to make HRMs more  
485 robust. Our approach is based on the Wasserstein loss and involves training with smoother target heatmaps as well as a more precise coordinate sampling method using the barycenter of the output heatmaps.

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