
AdaFace – A Versatile Face Encoder for Zero-Shot Diffusion Model Personalization

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Figure 1: Although AdaFace is solely trained on static images, the subject embeddings it generates can directly condition AnimateDiff to produce personalized videos across diverse scenes without requiring any modifications.

Abstract

1 Since the advent of diffusion models, personalizing these models – conditioning
2 them to render novel subjects – has been widely studied. Recently, several methods
3 propose training a dedicated image encoder on a large variety of subject images.
4 This encoder maps the images to identity embeddings (ID embeddings). During
5 inference, these ID embeddings, combined with conventional prompts, condition a
6 diffusion model to generate new images of the subject. However, such methods
7 often face challenges in achieving a good balance between authenticity and compositional-
8 ity – accurately capturing the subject’s likeness while effectively integrating
9 them into varied and complex scenes. A primary source for this issue is that the ID
10 embeddings reside in the *image token space* (“image prompts”), which is not fully
11 composable with the text prompt encoded by the CLIP text encoder. In this work,
12 we present AdaFace, an image encoder that maps human faces into the *text prompt*
13 *space*. After being trained only on 400K face images with 2 GPUs, it achieves high
14 authenticity of the generated subjects and high compositionality with various text
15 prompts. In addition, as the ID embeddings are integrated in a normal text prompt,
16 it is highly compatible with existing pipelines and can be used without modification
17 to generate authentic videos. We showcase the generated images and videos of
18 celebrities under various compositional prompts. The source code is released on an
19 anonymous repository <https://github.com/adaface-neurips/adaface>.

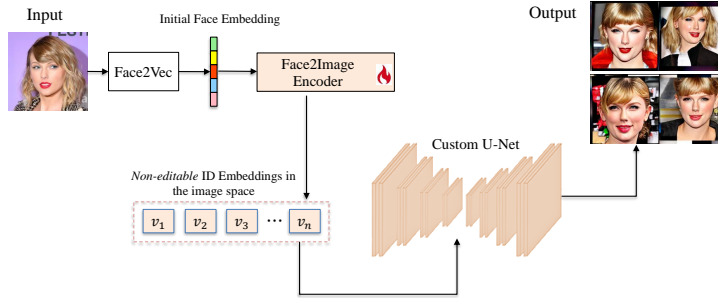


Figure 2: A typical zero-shot face encoder pipeline for diffusion models. First, a Face2Vec module (e.g., ArcFace [Deng et al., 2019]) extracts a single vector that captures the facial features. Then a trainable Face2Image encoder (e.g., Arc2Face [Papantoniou et al., 2024]) maps it to n facial tokens v_1, \dots, v_n within the image embedding spaces. The facial tokens condition the U-Net (either original or fine-tuned) to generate authentic-looking subject images. However, since the facial tokens is not blended with other text prompts (sometimes they are simply concatenated), the whole pipeline has weaker compositionality than using text prompts alone. Moreover, such models are often incompatible with existing diffusion pipelines, such as AnimateDiff Guo et al. [2024a].

20 1 Introduction

21 Recent years have witnessed the blossom of diffusion models, which have been widely used in image
 22 generation, image editing, and video generation [Ho et al., 2020, Nichol et al., 2022, Saharia et al.,
 23 2022, Rombach et al., 2022, Podell et al., 2024, Chen et al., 2024a, Kawar et al., 2023, Peebles and
 24 Xie, 2023, Guo et al., 2024a]. A particularly interesting application of these models is personalization,
 25 where they are conditioned to generate images of specific subjects. Previously, this was primarily
 26 achieved through test-time fine-tuning [Ruiz et al., 2022, Gal et al., 2022a, Kumari et al., 2022,
 27 Tewel et al., 2023], which introduced additional computational demands and complexity to the
 28 image generation process. Recent advancements have seen the development of zero-shot, tuning-free
 29 methods [Wei et al., 2023, Ye et al., 2023, Shi et al., 2023, Wang et al., 2024, Papantoniou et al.,
 30 2024, Guo et al., 2024b, Huang et al., 2024, Han et al., 2024, Chen et al., 2024b, He et al., 2024].
 31 These methods train a dedicated image encoder to convert subject images to identity embeddings
 32 (ID embeddings) using a large dataset. During inference, these ID embeddings are combined with
 33 standard text prompts to generate new images of the subject (Figure 2). Despite these innovations,
 34 these approaches often struggle to strike a good balance between authenticity and compositionality.
 35 Authenticity ensures the model captures the true likeness of the subject, whereas compositionality
 36 concerns the model’s ability to seamlessly integrate the subject into diverse and intricate scenes.
 37 The challenge primarily stems from how ID embeddings are utilized: in many zero-shot methods,
 38 the embeddings exist in the *image token space* (“image prompts”) and do not fully mesh with text
 39 prompts. In cases like [Huang et al., 2024], while the ID embeddings are within the text space, there
 40 lacks targeted training to enhance their integration with other text prompts, resulting in compromised
 41 compositionality.

42 Given the limitations of existing methods, we propose AdaFace, a versatile face encoder that maps
 43 human faces into the *text prompt space*. First, the ID embeddings generated by AdaFace seamlessly
 44 integrate with text prompts via the CLIP text encoder, allowing for more coherent and expressive
 45 conditioning. Second, we employ targeted training strategies to enhance the compositionality of the ID
 46 embeddings, ensuring they are able to be used to generate diverse and complex scenes. Furthermore,
 47 AdaFace is highly compatible with existing diffusion pipelines, requiring no modifications to generate
 48 authentic videos, as demonstrated in Figure 1. Notably, due to efficient model design and distillation
 49 techniques, AdaFace is trained on merely 406,567 face images with 2 RTX A6000 GPUs, all within a
 50 constrained compute budget.

51 We demonstrate the effectiveness of AdaFace by showcasing the generated images and videos of
 52 celebrities under various compositional prompts. We also perform quantitative evaluations to validate
 53 that AdaFace achieves a good balance between authenticity and compositionality, measured by
 54 ArcFace similarity and CLIP-Text similarity, respectively.

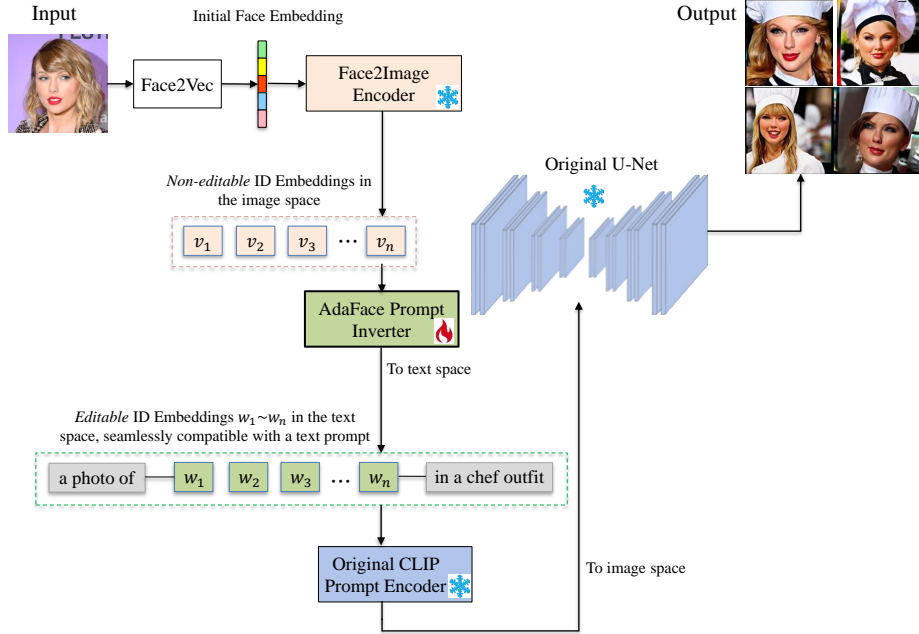


Figure 3: The core of AdaFace is the *Prompt Inverter*, which inverts the image-space ID embeddings from another model to the *text prompt space*, represented as w_1, \dots, w_n . These embeddings are integrated into a standard text prompt and encoded by a CLIP prompt encoder. CLIP coherently composes the semantics of the ID embeddings and the text prompt, providing good compositionality.

55 2 Method

56 Motivated by the advantages of *text space* face prompts, we propose techniques to distill one or more
 57 image-space face encoders into the text space, and further enhance its compositionality. The overall
 58 architecture of AdaFace is shown in Figure 3. The core module of AdaFace is the *AdaFace Prompt*
 59 *Inverter*, which inverts the image-space ID embeddings to the text space, enabling the integration
 60 of the ID embeddings into a standard text prompt. The ID embeddings are then encoded by a CLIP
 61 prompt encoder, which coherently composes the semantics of the ID embeddings and the text prompt.
 62 The text-level composition also facilitates *Composition Distillation* (Figure 5), which significantly
 63 improves the compositionality of the ID embeddings without additional training data. A side-effect
 64 of composition distillation is that, when there is spatial misalignment between the subject-single
 65 and subject-composition images, the subject features will be gradually contaminated by background
 66 features, reducing their authenticity. Accordingly, we propose a *Elastic Face Preserving Loss* (Figure
 67 6), to prevent the subject features from degeneration.

68 2.1 AdaFace Architecture

69 The core module of AdaFace is the *AdaFace Prompt Inverter*, which converts the image-space ID
 70 embeddings from a Face2Image model to the text space.

71 The architecture and initialization of the prompt inverter significantly impacts the training efficiency.
 72 Compared to other deep learning tasks, the diffusion training is highly stochastic and the gradients
 73 have a much lower signal-to-noise ratio. It is highly challenging to train a sizable diffusion component
 74 from scratch without high compute budgets and large batch sizes. To achieve efficient learning, we
 75 adopt the same architecture as the CLIP text encoder for the AdaFace Prompt Inverter, and initialize
 76 it with the pre-trained weights. This ensures that the output embeddings are not very distant from the
 77 text space from the beginning of training, and the model learns more signals from the gradients.

78 One may raise the question that since the output of a pre-trained CLIP encoder is in the image space,
 79 why it is able to adapt quickly to generate text-space embeddings? We speculate that in CLIP, the
 80 semantics of low-level layers and high-level layers are not in totally incompatible spaces, but rather,

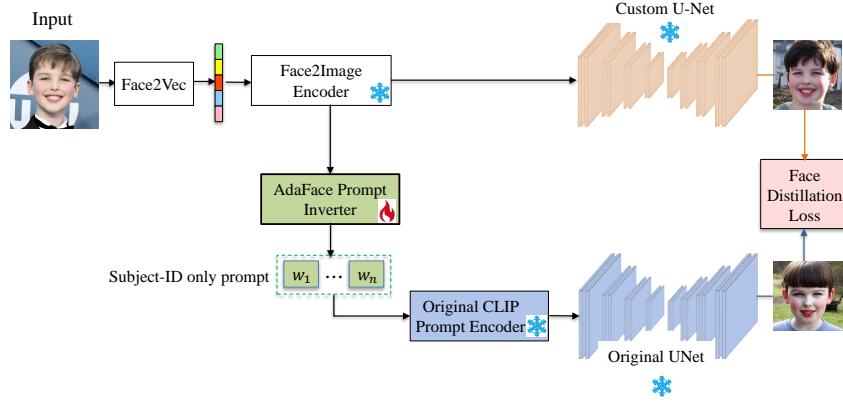


Figure 4: Face distillation on face images. The output of the AdaFace stream is compared with the Face2Image stream. During this process, only the AdaFace Prompt Inverter is optimized.

81 the high-level semantics enrich the low-level ones. Our hypothesis is corroborated by [Toker et al.,
 82 2024], as well as the community practice of ad-hoc fusing the output embeddings of multiple CLIP
 83 text encoder layers¹. The semantics of layer features gradually transition from the text space to
 84 the image space. As a result, during fine-tuning, the skip connections within CLIP will allow the
 85 low-level semantics to take shortcut towards the output embeddings, and the high-level layers will
 86 gradually learn to enrich the low-level semantics in the *text space* instead.

87 The training of the prompt inverter is divided into two stages. In the first *face distillation* stage, a
 88 Face2Image model guides the prompt inverter to generate authentic faces in the text prompt space. In
 89 the second *composition distillation* stage, the prompt inverter observes how the original model output
 90 responds to compositional prompts, and learns to generate similar responses, so as to allow the text
 91 prompts to control the composition of the generated images.

92 2.2 Face Distillation

93 The face distillation stage is illustrated in Figure 4, where the objective is to minimize the difference
 94 between the generated images by the original Face2Image model and by the AdaFace Prompt Inverter
 95 on the same initial noise. The training objective, namely the face distillation loss, is formulated as a
 96 reconstruction loss between the two generated images:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{face}} = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim F, z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I), t \in [1, T]} \left[\|G_{\text{AdaFace}}(f, z, t | \theta) - G_{\text{Face2Image}}(f, z, t | \theta')\|_2^2 \right], \quad (1)$$

97 where $G_{\text{Face2Image}}$ and G_{AdaFace} are the Face2Image and the AdaFace Prompt Inverter conditioned
 98 U-Nets, respectively, f is a random face drawn from the face space F , z is the initial noise, and θ and
 99 θ' are the parameters of the AdaFace Prompt Inverter and the Face2Image model, respectively. For
 100 some models such as Ada2Face, $\theta' \neq \theta$.

101 In order to sweep the input space $\{f, z, t\}$ as completely as possible, we adopt a few techniques:

102 **Random Gaussian Face Embeddings.** Empirically, we observe that almost all random face
 103 embeddings result in legitimate face images when processed by the Face2Image model. Therefore,
 104 we expand the candidate face space F by including random face embeddings drawn from a Gaussian
 105 distribution, alongside the face embeddings extracted from real face images: $F = F_{\text{real}} \cup F_{\text{rand}}$.

106 **Multi-Timestep Distillation.** We use multiple denoising steps on the same initial noise, and
 107 compute the reconstruction loss on all the steps, so that the prompt inverter learns to imitate the
 108 Face2Image model’s behavior on intermediate noise levels:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{face}} = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim F, z_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I), t_1 > \dots > t_k \in [1, T]} \left[\sum_{i=1}^k \left[\|G_{\text{AdaFace}}(f, z_i, t_i | \theta) - G_{\text{Face2Image}}(f, z_i, t_i | \theta')\|_2^2 \right] \right], \quad (2)$$

¹<https://github.com/AUTOMATIC1111/stable-diffusion-webui/discussions/5674>

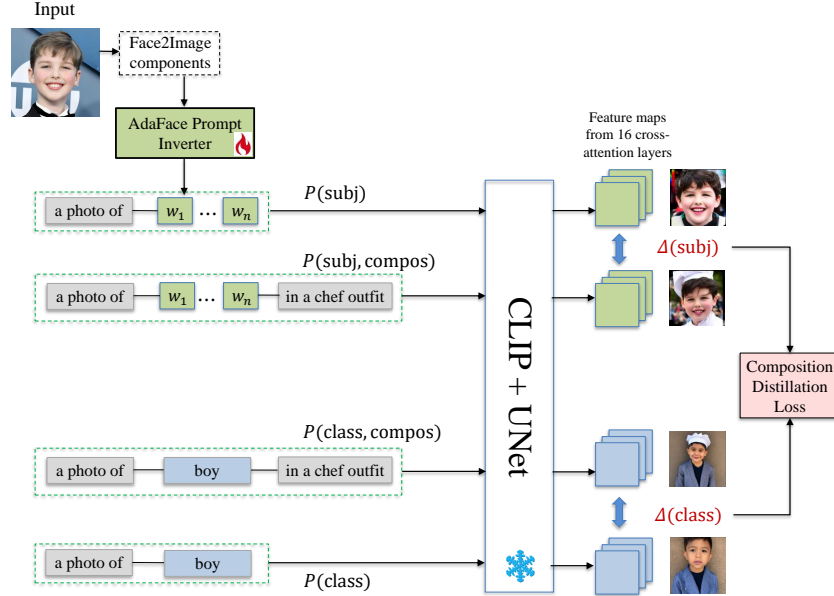


Figure 5: Composition distillation on four types of prompts: subject-single, subject-composition, class-single and class-composition. The four generated images form two contrastive pairs, and their feature deltas are encouraged to be aligned through a composition distillation loss.

109 where t_1, \dots, t_k are a randomly sampled sequence of timesteps, and when $i > 1$, z_i is the partially
 110 denoised image by $G_{\text{Face2Image}}$ in the previous step.

111 **Dynamic Model Expansion.** When the training loss plateaus, it suggests that the model has reached
 112 the limits of its capacity to capture nuanced facial features. In this situation, we expand the model
 113 capacity by incorporating additional *query* and *value* projections within the attention layers of the
 114 prompt inverter. As a result, each token is represented by multiple, subtly distinct query and value
 115 tokens. This enables the model to better grasp the subtle facial features of the subject, thanks to the
 116 increased diversity and richness of the queries and values. Note that the number of keys and output
 117 tokens remain unchanged, ensuring that the computational load does not increase drastically.

118 Specifically, when a query projection Q is expanded by N times, we make N identical copies of Q
 119 and add Gaussian noises to $N - 1$ of them. The same operation is applied to the value projection V .
 120 This is to ensure that the expanded Q' and V' do not deviate too much from the original Q and V ,
 121 and the model augments the original features with slightly varied replicas.

122 The attention expansion proves to be particularly beneficial at the lower layers of the prompt inverter.
 123 Intuitively, once some information in the features from the upstream Face2Image encoder is lost in
 124 the lower layers, it is hard to recover in the higher layers. The mechanism of expanding queries and
 125 values creates multiple, slightly varied replicas of the same information, thereby allowing the model
 126 to select the most informative copy for preservation and further processing in subsequent layers.
 127 This approach is conceptually akin to the role of the excitation operator in a squeeze-and-excitation
 128 network [Hu et al., 2018], which also emphasizes selectively retaining the most significant features.

129 2.3 Composition Distillation

130 A prevalent issue with existing face encoders is that the subject token tends to dominate the generated
 131 images, resulting in degeneration of compositionality. To mitigate this issue, we employ *composition*
 132 *distillation* (Figure 5) to regularize the subject embeddings, ensuring that their semantics are
 133 effectively integrated with other tokens, enhancing the overall expression. During this process, the
 134 model observes how the original diffusion model adjusts output features to incorporate additional
 135 compositional prompts into the output image. The model then imitates these adjustments when
 136 encountering similar compositional prompts.

137 For this purpose, four types of prompts are employed to form two contrastive pairs: 1) a “subject-
 138 single” prompt that only contains the subject, such as “A photo of a [Zendaya]”, 2) a “subject-
 139 composition” prompt such as “A photo of a [Zendaya] in the forest”, 3) a “class-single” prompt that
 140 only contains a general class, such as “A photo of a woman”, and 4) a “class-composition” prompt
 141 such as “A photo of a woman in the forest”. Ideally, the semantic differences between “A photo of x ”
 142 and “A photo of x in the forest” should only be relevant to “in the forest”, and is independent of x .

143 We represent the semantic differences between two pairs of prompts as their “feature deltas”. The train-
 144 ing objective is to encourage the feature deltas between the subject-single and subject-composition
 145 images to be aligned with the feature deltas between the class-single and class-composition images.
 146 In other words, the following equation is expected to hold approximately:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta(\text{subject, compos}) &\doteq \text{feat}(\text{subject, compos}) - \text{feat}(\text{subject}) \\ &\approx \Delta(\text{class, compos}) \doteq \text{feat}(\text{class, compos}) - \text{feat}(\text{class}), \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

147 where subject, class, (subject, compos) and (class, compos) denote the four types of prompts, re-
 148 spectively. (subject, compos) and (class, compos) are randomly drawn from a pool of common
 149 compositional prompts consisting of various backgrounds, additional objects, dresses, image styles
 150 and lighting conditions. $\text{feat}(x)$ refers to relevant features, including 1) the output features from all
 151 the cross-attention layers, 2) the attention maps in all the cross-attention layers, and 3) the encoded
 152 prompt embeddings by CLIP text encoder. $\text{feat}(x) - \text{feat}(y)$ is the *orthogonal subtraction* between
 153 two feature maps, defined below.

154 We define a *compositional delta loss* that aligns the feature deltas $\Delta_i(\text{subject, compos})$ and
 155 $\Delta_i(\text{class, compos})$ on the three types of features listed above:

$$\mathcal{L}_\Delta = \sum_i \{1 - \mathbb{E}_{\text{compos} \sim \mathcal{U}(C)} \cos(\Delta_i(\text{subject, compos}), \Delta_i(\text{class, compos}))\}, \quad (4)$$

156 in which i indexes the feature type (cross-attention output features, attention maps or CLIP prompt
 157 embeddings), and $\mathcal{U}(C)$ is a uniform distribution on a set of compositional prompts C .

158 **Orthogonal Subtraction.** We wish to remove subject-specific features through the feature sub-
 159 traction “ $\text{feat}(\text{subject, compos}) - \text{feat}(\text{subject})$ ”. However, it is commonly observed that the subject-
 160 specific features may have different magnitudes (often smaller under compositional prompts). To
 161 mitigate this issue, we propose to use orthogonal subtraction, which is invariant to the scale of
 162 the subject-specific features. A relevant idea [Wang et al., 2023] is explored for language model
 163 fine-tuning. Specifically, the feature deltas are calculated using the following equation:

$$\Delta \text{feat}(s, c) = \text{feat}(s, c) - \text{proj}_{\text{feat}(s)}(\text{feat}(s, c)), \quad (5)$$

164 where $\text{proj}_{\text{feat}(s)}(\text{feat}(s, c))$ is the projection of $\text{feat}(s, c)$ onto $\text{feat}(s)$, computed as:

$$\text{proj}_{\text{feat}(s)}(\text{feat}(s, c)) = \langle \text{feat}(s, c), \text{feat}(s) \rangle \text{feat}(s), \quad (6)$$

165 with $\langle \text{feat}(s, c), \text{feat}(s) \rangle$ being the inner product between the two features. The operation effectively
 166 projects $\text{feat}(s, c)$ onto the orthogonal complement of $\text{feat}(s)$ and then subtracts this projection from
 167 $\text{feat}(s, c)$. As a result, $\Delta \text{feat}(s, c)$, the feature delta, is orthogonal to $\text{feat}(s)$. This methodology
 168 ensures that the deltas remove as much of the subject-specific features as possible, thereby minimizing
 169 the influence of the scales of the subject-specific features contained within $\text{feat}(s, c)$.

170 **Differences with Previous Methods.** While previous methods have explored analogous concepts,
 171 such as StyleGAN-NADA [Gal et al., 2022b], which applies similar regularizations in the CLIP
 172 prompt embedding space, and PuLID [Guo et al., 2024b], which introduces similar contrastive
 173 regularizations on cross-attention queries, our approach is more comprehensive and effective. Our
 174 compositional delta loss encompasses a broader range of relevant features, including the attention
 175 maps and output features from cross-attention layers, and the CLIP prompt embeddings. Moreover,
 176 we introduce an orthogonal subtraction technique for computing the feature deltas. This technique
 177 isolates and extracts composition-specific features, making the distillation more effective.

178 2.4 Elastic Face Preserving Loss

179 The composition distillation is done on instances with different prompts starting from the same initial
 180 noise. This is to encourage the diffusion model to generate images that are compositionally similar

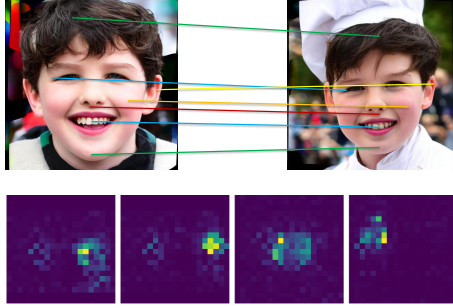


Figure 6: To prevent subject features from degeneration due to spatial misalignment during composition distillation, we propose a Elastic Face Preserving Loss. The second row shows the cross-attention maps at selected four points on the subject-single image. The highlighted pixels associate the corresponding facial areas across the two images. The features of matching pixels are required to be close to each other to achieve subject feature preservation.

181 [Zhang et al., 2024], to achieve more accurate alignment between the image pairs. Despite this effort,
 182 spatial misalignment often persists between the images differently prompted. This misalignment
 183 can result in delta loss providing erroneous signals from non-facial to facial areas, slowly reducing
 184 the authenticity of the generated subjects. For instance, on a noisy input face image, the output
 185 image from the subject-single instance is expected to largely retain the same facial contours as the
 186 input. However, the output from the subject-composition instance often deviate from the original
 187 face contours, due to the introduction of additional compositional elements. An illustrative example
 188 provided in the first row of Figure 6 shows how a chef hat in one image spatially aligns with the hair
 189 in another, leading to potential contamination in the subject’s hair representations.

190 To tackle this challenge, we view the subject-composition image as a “warped” version of the subject-
 191 single image, and turn to techniques from the Optical Flow literature [Teed and Deng, 2020, Sui et al.,
 192 2022] to estimate a matching field. The matching field is used to spatially align the subject features
 193 across different images, ensuring them to be consistently maintained after “warping”.

194 Specifically, the model takes as input a noisy face image from the training data. The face image is
 195 accompanied by a segmentation mask, isolating the face area for matching. We compute the cross
 196 attention matrix² between the queries of a subject-single instance and a subject-composition instance:

$$CA(\text{subj}, \text{compos}) = \text{softmax}(Q_{\text{subj}}Q_{\text{compos}}^T), \quad (7)$$

197 By looking up the cross-attention map $CA(\text{subj}, \text{compos})$, we can find the pixels best matching a
 198 subject-single image pixel in a subject-composition image. The second row in Figure 6 shows the
 199 attention maps of four points on the face in the left image. We “soft-warp” the subject-composition
 200 features to align with the subject-single features through matrix multiplication, and require the warped
 201 features to be close to the facial features in the subject-single image:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{face-preserving}} = 1 - \cos\left(CA(\text{subj}, \text{compos}) \odot \text{feat}(\text{compos}), \text{feat}(\text{subj})\right)_{\text{mask}}. \quad (8)$$

202 Here for clarity, $\text{feat}(\text{subject}, \text{compos})$ is abbreviated as $\text{feat}(\text{compos})$. The cosine similarity $\cos(\cdot, \cdot)$
 203 is computed on the masked area. The face-preserving loss is computed on each U-Net cross-attention
 204 layer. It encourages the subject features in the subject-composition instance to be consistent with
 205 those in the subject-single instance, preventing them from being contaminated in the composition
 206 distillation process.

²The inner product is not scaled to make the matching scores more polarized.



Figure 7: Qualitative comparison of AdaFace with state-of-the-art face encoders. AdaFace generates images that maintain the highest authenticity of the subjects, while still follow the target prompts.

207 3 Experiments

208 3.1 Dataset and Training Details

209 We trained AdaFace on a combination of two face datasets: Flickr-Faces-HQ (FFHQ) [Karras et al.,
 210 2019], which comprises 70,000 images, and VGGFace2-HQ [Cao et al., 2018], which comprises
 211 336,567 images after filtering. Face masks were generated using the BiSeNet face segmentation
 212 model [Yu et al., 2018]. The distilled Face2Image model is Ada2Face [Papantoniou et al., 2024], as it
 213 is able to generate authentic and diverse face images. The training employed the Prodigy optimizer
 214 [Mishchenko and Defazio, 2024] with $d_coef=2$ (akin to the learning rate in other optimizers) during
 215 face distillation, and $d_coef=0.5$ during composition distillation. Batch sizes were set to 4 and 3 for
 216 the two stages, respectively, with a gradient accumulation of 2. The model was trained with 240,000
 217 iterations in the face distillation stage and 120,000 iterations in the composition distillation stage.
 218 During face distillation, the loss reached a plateau twice, resulting in two dynamic expansions of the
 219 model capacity. Eventually, the attention layers in the trained prompt inverter were expanded with
 220 multipliers of $(8x, 8x, 8x, 4x, 4x, \dots, 4x)$ relative to the original CLIP text encoder. This resulted in
 221 a total of 2M parameters, in contrast to the 1.2M parameters of the original model.

222 In addition, we collected the images of 23 celebrities, each with 9 10 images, as the evaluated subjects.
 223 These celebrities include actors, singers and internet celebrities on Instagram. This dataset will be
 224 released along with the code.

225 3.2 Qualitative Comparisons

226 We compared AdaFace with a few state-of-the-art face encoders, including InstantID [Wang et al.,
 227 2024], ConsistentID [Huang et al., 2024] and PuLID [Guo et al., 2024b]. The input were images
 228 from our celebrity-23 dataset.

229 The results presented in Figure 7 demonstrate that AdaFace produces images that not only exhibit
 230 high authenticity of the subjects but also show good consistency with the text prompts. In comparison,
 231 other models often fall short in generating images that are either less authentic or less compositional.
 232 For instance, InstantID tends to produce overly stylized images with significant variability in authen-
 233 ticity across different subjects. PuLID, while generating aesthetically pleasing images, achieves
 234 slightly lower authenticity levels compared to AdaFace. Despite also utilizing a text-space approach,



Figure 8: Comparison of AdaFace with ID-Animator on personalized video generation. AdaFace generates videos with higher authenticity and compositionality.

235 ConsistentID has the least compositional output among the models evaluated, largely due to the
 236 absence of compositional training in its ID embeddings.

237 In addition, we plugged AdaFace into AnimateDiff, and generated personalized videos of celebrities
 238 under various compositional prompts. The results are shown in Figure 1. Figure 8 compares with a
 239 recent method ID-Animator [He et al., 2024]. AdaFace generated videos with high authenticity and
 240 compositionality, while ID-Animator usually produces videos with less authentic subjects.

241 3.3 Quantitative Evaluations

242 To assess the performance of AdaFace quantitatively, we evaluated a few baseline methods and
 243 AdaFace, on the “celebrity-23” images and DreamBench compositional prompts, comparing AdaFace
 244 with two baseline methods PuLID and InstantID. First, we measured the face similarity using the
 245 cosine similarity between the ArcFace embedding of the generated images and reference images. In
 246 addition, the CLIP-Text (CLIP-T) metric determines the consistency of the generated images with the
 247 prompts. The DINO and CLIP-I metrics are less indicative and are only for reference. The results,
 248 detailed in Table 1, show that AdaFace achieved comparable face similarity and prompt consistency
 249 scores to PuLID, and slightly outperformed InstantID. Note that the results of AdaFace is achieved
 250 on the original Stable Diffusion 1.5 model weight, which usually leads to much lower composition
 251 scores than other fine-tuned SD 1.5 model weights, such as RealisticVision.

	ArcFace (subj)	CLIP-T (comp)	DINO	CLIP-I
DB	0.349	0.324	0.470	0.656
TI	0.326	0.250	0.508	0.675
PuLID	0.468	0.280	0.512	0.630
InstantID	0.455	0.257	0.472	0.595
Ada	0.476	0.270	0.544	0.670
-Comp	0.505	0.235	0.598	0.685

Table 1: Quantitative evaluation on the “celebrity-23” images and DreamBench compositional prompts. **-Comp** is the model trained only with the face distillation stage.

252 As an ablation study, we list the performance of the AdaFace model without composition distillation.
 253 It can be seen that the face authenticity is slightly reduced after composition distillation, however, the
 254 generated images become much more consistent with the prompts.

255 4 Conclusions and Discussions

256 In this work, we present AdaFace, a versatile face encoder that maps human faces into the text
 257 prompt space. AdaFace is trained with a low compute budget and achieves high authenticity and
 258 compositionality in zero-shot generation of subject images. We demonstrate the effectiveness of
 259 AdaFace by showcasing the generated images and videos of celebrities under various compositional
 260 prompts. Additionally, our quantitative evaluations further underscore its performance.

261 A notable limitation of AdaFace is that the authenticity of the output face embeddings are constrained
 262 by the Face2Image model it distills from. However, this limitation can be addressed by distilling on
 263 more powerful Face2Image models and expanding the model capacity. For future work, we would
 264 extend the AdaFace method to object images. For instance, applying AdaFace distillation techniques
 265 to IP-Adapter [Ye et al., 2023] could enable the generation of both human and object images.

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267 **References**

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- 679 • The paper should discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose
680 asset is used.
- 681 • At submission time, remember to anonymize your assets (if applicable). You can either
682 create an anonymized URL or include an anonymized zip file.

683 14. Crowdsourcing and Research with Human Subjects

684 Question: For crowdsourcing experiments and research with human subjects, does the paper
685 include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable, as
686 well as details about compensation (if any)?

687 Answer: [NA]

688 Justification: The paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

689 Guidelines:

- 690 • The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with
691 human subjects.
- 692 • Including this information in the supplemental material is fine, but if the main contribu-
693 tion of the paper involves human subjects, then as much detail as possible should be
694 included in the main paper.
- 695 • According to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics, workers involved in data collection, curation,
696 or other labor should be paid at least the minimum wage in the country of the data
697 collector.

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15. Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approvals or Equivalent for Research with Human Subjects

Question: Does the paper describe potential risks incurred by study participants, whether such risks were disclosed to the subjects, and whether Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals (or an equivalent approval/review based on the requirements of your country or institution) were obtained?

Answer: [NA]

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Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Depending on the country in which research is conducted, IRB approval (or equivalent) may be required for any human subjects research. If you obtained IRB approval, you should clearly state this in the paper.
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