

G3DR: Generative 3D Reconstruction in ImageNet

Pradyumna Reddy* Ismail Elezi* Jiankang Deng
 Huawei Noah’s Ark Lab UK

Abstract

We introduce a novel 3D generative method, *Generative 3D Reconstruction (G3DR) in ImageNet*, capable of generating diverse and high-quality 3D objects from single images, addressing the limitations of existing methods. At the heart of our framework is a novel depth regularization technique that enables the generation of scenes with high-geometric fidelity. G3DR also leverages a pre-trained language-vision model, such as CLIP, to enable reconstruction in novel views and improve the visual realism of generations. Additionally, G3DR designs a simple but effective sampling procedure to further improve the quality of generations. G3DR offers diverse and efficient 3D asset generation based on class or text conditioning. Despite its simplicity, G3DR is able to beat state-of-the-art methods, improving over them by up to 22% in perceptual metrics and 90% in geometry scores, while needing only half of the training time. Code is available at <https://github.com/preddy5/G3DR>.

1. Introduction

Generating 3D assets is becoming increasingly vital for applications such as VR/AR, film production, and video games. Traditionally, 3D modeling is done by devoted artists and content creators, however, nowadays it is desirable to use machine learning solutions to automate the process. The seminal work of NeRF [27] made a large step in 3D novel view synthesis, by posing the problem as learning an implicit radiance field solely from calibrated images. However, the method requires many different views of the same object/scene with known camera transformations to perform an accurate reconstruction. Furthermore, NeRF can only reconstruct a scene but not generate plausible similar-looking scenes.

Several methods [6, 32, 44] modified NeRF to have generative capabilities. While these methods show impressive 3D generative capabilities, they primarily cater to well-curated and aligned datasets featuring similar object categories and structures, necessitating domain-specific 3D

* Authors contributed equally.

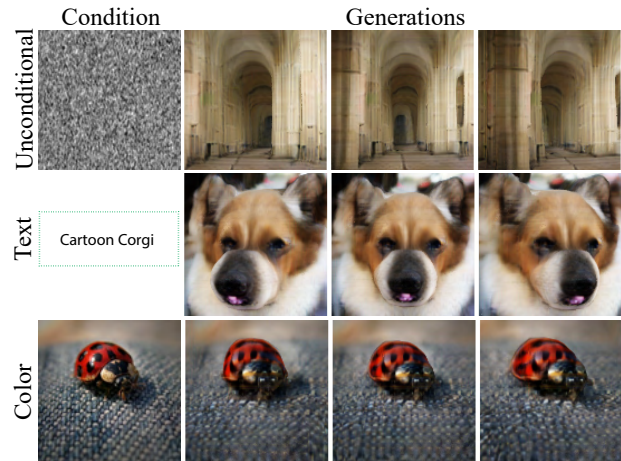


Figure 1. Our method is able to generate 3D images conditioned on latents (such as class), text, or images. All the training has been done in ImageNet dataset, that contain only single-view images.

knowledge of the category at hand. This knowledge enables the inference of underlying 3D key points, camera transformation, object scale, and precise cropping. However, this knowledge required for alignment becomes impractical for extensive multi-category datasets such as ImageNet.

In this work, we propose a novel Generative 3D Reconstruction (G3DR) method that learns from a diverse unaligned 2D dataset such as ImageNet [7]. We combine a latent diffusion model along with a conditional triplane generator to generate highly detailed 3D scenes. Training a triplane generator to reconstruct the scene in the input view is a trivial task, and can be done by simply enforcing a reconstruction loss between it and the ground truth. However, training the model to generate plausible novel views is much more challenging since the ImageNet dataset contains only a *single* image for each scene. We tackle this by employing a pre-trained language-vision model [36] to give the necessary supervision for the novel views.

The framework mentioned so far only considers the visual quality of the images and does not ensure plausible geometry. We use a generic off-the-shelf monocular depth estimation model [26] to estimate the depth map of images in the dataset. These depth maps are used to supervise the geometry of the input view. We do so using a depth recon-

struction loss that acts as a surrogate loss for the geometry. While this loss gives some concept of geometry, in the absence of multi-view data or alignment, optimizing the triplane generator is an overparametrized problem and, thus prone to many solutions, most of which do not ensure good novel views or plausible geometry. We ensure that the geometry is faithful to the supervision depth map, we propose a novel depth regularization method. This depth regularization method scales the gradients of density and color variables of NeRF volumetric rendering using a kernel. The kernel takes into account the proximity of 3D points that correspond to the density and color value from the camera and the surface’s distance from the camera and scales the gradients to encourage high-density values close to the surface. We further improve the quality of the textures of generated 3D scenes using a multi-resolution triplane sampling strategy. Our multi-resolution sampling strategy helps in improving the model performance without increasing the number of model weights.

In summary, we make the following **contributions**:

- We design a framework for 3D content generation from a single view. Our method can be coupled with generative diffusion models for unconditional, class-conditional, and text-conditional 3D generation.
- We propose a new gradient regularization method in order to preserve the geometry of the objects.
- We propose an efficient multi-resolution sampling strategy to enhance the quality of generated images.
- We improve the state-of-the-art on Imagenet by 22% in quality and 90% in geometry while lowering the computing by 48%. We further validate our method on three other datasets: SDIP Dogs [28], SDIP Elephants [28] and LSUN Horses [60].

2. Related Work

3D aware generation. Neural Radiance Fields (NeRF) [27] representation implicitly encodes a scene in the weights of an MLP learning solely from RGB supervision using reconstruction loss. Many works combined NeRF representation with generative models such as GANs [13] or diffusion processes [17, 39]. Some examples of these works include PI-GAN [6], StyleNerf [15], GRAF [44], GIRAFFE [32], and other follow-ups [1, 4, 9, 12, 14, 21, 30, 33, 35, 45, 48, 50, 54, 56, 58, 59, 64, 65, 67]. While these works show spectacular results, most of them are constrained to work with scenes that contain multiple views or do not scale well to large datasets like shown in [2, 24]. Furthermore, using an MLP representation comes with a high training cost and is very GPU-hungry. EG3D [5] proposes a triplane representation which scales well with resolution, allowing better generation details and also lowering the training cost.

While we use a similar triplane representation as EG3D, unlike them, we are not constrained to needing the camera transformation for each input image.

Optimization-based methods. Works like DietNerf [20], Dream Fields [19] and DreamFusion [35] train a NeRF representation of a scene. They do so by optimizing an individual NeRF model per-scene conditioned on an input text, something that would be very challenging and expensive for datasets with hundreds of thousands of scenes, e.g., ImageNet. In contrast, we train an amortized model capable of conditional and unconditional generation. Furthermore, unlike them, we train a single model for the entire dataset.

Single-view 3D reconstruction in large datasets. NeRF-VAE [23] combines a variational autoencoder with NeRF using amortized inference to reconstruct 3D scenes from single-views. However, it relies on multi-view images during training and uses simple datasets. LoloNeRF [37] learns a generative model of 3D face images achieving good quality in 3D face reconstruction but requires a pretrained key-point estimator and an optimization of samples outside of the training set. 3DGP [49] and follow ups [42, 57] showed that it is possible to do 3D reconstruction of a large single-view dataset that contains 1,000 classes [7]. 3DGP based on GANs, designed a framework that is able to generate realistically looking 3D objects from the ImageNet dataset. To do so, they used a depth estimator for geometry preservation and combined it with a flexible camera model, and a knowledge distillation module. The method showed promising results, but at the same time leaves room for improvement. The geometry of the reconstructed images is far from perfect and the visual quality of the generated images contains many artefacts. Finally, it comes with a massive computational cost. Our work is motivated by [49], and we try to solve the same problem as them. At the same time, we design our method to leverage a novel depth regularization module that improves both the visual quality and the geometry of the generated images, without any need for adversarial training or knowledge distillation.

Depth guidance. Works such as [38, 51, 55], have used depth information to enhance NeRF representation novel view reconstruction in the context of capturing a single scene. GSN [10] use depth prior for their 3D generation. Yet, the method is limited to needing ground truth depth, which is not given in most large datasets. Some other works [46, 62] bypass this problem by using some depth estimator to generate the depth. However, the task of these works is limited to geometry reconstruction. 3DGP, like us, uses an off-the-shelf depth estimator to control the geometry. Their core characteristic is to train a depth adaptor module that mitigates the estimator’s depth precision. At contrast, we design a novel depth regularization module that allows us to do good 3D reconstruction from single-view images.

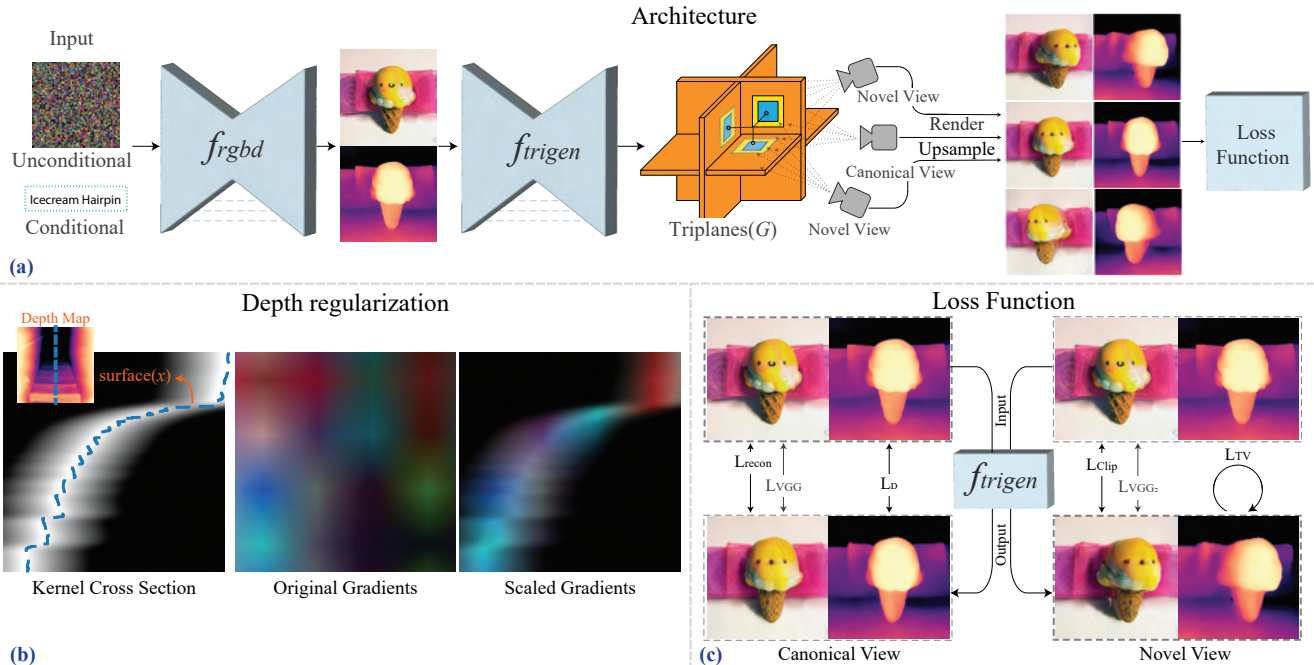


Figure 2. a) The architecture of our method. Our framework is conditioned on some visual input, class category or text, and generates an image. Then it feeds that image over a triplane generator, and it finally renders it, ensuring good image quality and geometry using a regularization depth; b) an illustration of our kernel in 2D; the blue line on the *Depth Map* represents the selected cross section, in the *Original Gradients* we visualize high dimensional gradients using rgb channels and *Scaled Gradients* show how the kernel modifies the volume rendering function gradients c) the losses of our model. In the canonical view, our method uses a combination of reconstruction, perceptual and depth loss. In the novel view, it uses a combination of clip, perceptual and tv loss. The losses are scaled accordingly, while the loss gradients during backpropagation are scaled based on the kernel in (b).

3. Methodology

We describe our problem formulation in Section 3.1. We observe that naively training the network is an over-parametrized problem that leads to degenerate solutions. Thus, to solve this, in Section 3.2, we propose a novel depth regularization module. We describe our multi-resolution sampling in Section 3.3. We give our training procedure and losses in Section 3.4, and we conclude this part by explaining the generation process in Section 3.5. We show a visualization of our framework in Fig. 2a.

3.1. Problem formulation

Given a latent c_k , which could be a class, image, text, or other representation, our goal is to generate a 3D representation I_k by a neural network from the latent c_k . We use a latent diffusion model f_{rgb_d} to generate an image rgb_d_k with depth. Then we use a triplane generator f_{trigen} to complete the rgb_d_k , and subsequently volume render the generated triplanes using f_{dec} .

Training f_{trigen} model to generate 3D scenes using an unaligned dataset that contains only a single view per scene remains an ill-posed problem with many possible naive solutions. This extreme training scenario leads f_{trigen} causes *volume collapse* in the estimate 3D models where the surface is incorrectly modeled using a few disconnected re-

gions of semi-transparent clouds of content which explain the input view but when viewed from another angle results in a blurry or a skewed input image. We solve this through our novel depth regularization approach by adjusting the gradients of NeRF volumetric rendering function during training. We enhance the texture quality of generated 3D scenes by employing a multi-resolution triplane sampling strategy, improving the model performance without increasing the number of model weights.

3.2. Depth regularization

We propose a novel depth regularization technique for efficient training of f_{trigen} , enabling the generation of scenes with high-fidelity geometry while preventing volume collapse. Our proposed depth regularization technique is theoretically compatible with most NeRF implementations and does not induce any significant overhead while training.

Let o and d represent the ray origin and ray direction and let t be the sampled distance along the ray. We use volumetric rendering to render a triplane scene G along the rays $r(t) = o + td$. We sample the latent values g from axis-aligned orthogonal feature planes of G by projecting $r(t)$ onto the feature planes [5]. Then, we use an implicit function f_{dec} to estimate color c and density σ conditioned on g and d . Using these c and σ values, we approximate the

volume rendering integral along the ray:

$$w_i = -(1 - \exp(-\sigma_i \delta_i)) \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \sigma_j \delta_j\right) \quad (1)$$

$$C(r) = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i c_i$$

where $\delta_i = t_{i+1} - t_i$. Ideally, σ values are expected to be high around the ground-truth surface i.e. if the surface is at a distance x from the ray origin then σ is expected to be high where $x \approx t_i$. However, while using a perspective camera projection-based ray casting setup without any sufficient multi-view supervision, $r(t)$ closer to the camera (i.e., lower values) receive higher gradients than the far points resulting in artifacts and undesired geometry [34]. To solve this, we use our regularization to encourage high σ values closer to the expected surface while discouraging the σ values away from the surface. Our proposed depth regularization does this by re-scaling the gradients of density and color values w.r.t to the loss function based on the distance between $r(t)$ and the surface using the equation:

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_i}{\partial \theta} = k(x, t_i) \frac{\partial \sigma_i}{\partial \theta}; \quad \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial \theta} = k(x, t_i) \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial \theta}. \quad (2)$$

We define $k(x, t_i)$ as a kernel:

$$k(x, t_i) = \min(c_{max}, \max(s_1 \exp\left(-\frac{(x - t_i)^2}{s_2}\right), c_{min})) \quad (3)$$

where c_{min} , c_{max} , s_1 , and s_2 are hyperparameters, x is the depth of pixel (the distance of the surface from the ray origin). The kernel value is high where t_i is close to the surface i.e., where the absolute difference between t_i and x is low and smoothly decreases as the absolute difference increases. The values of c_{min} and c_{max} to determine the maximum and minimum values of the kernel. The c_{min} value is required to be a positive non-zero so that densities away from the surface reduce from their default initialization values over the course of the training. The hyperparameters s_1 and s_2 control the spread of the regularization kernel around the surface. A very high s_2 nullifies the effect of regularization and a very low s_2 results in vanishing gradients. We have empirically observed choosing s_2 value based on the ray sampling density gave the best results, and heuristically set it to half of the distance between the coarse ray samples. In Fig 2b we show an illustration of how the gradients are scaled based on a 2D cross-section of a depth map.

3.3. Multi-resolution sampling

We adopt a multi-resolution triplane sampling strategy to improve the generation model performance. Given a tri-

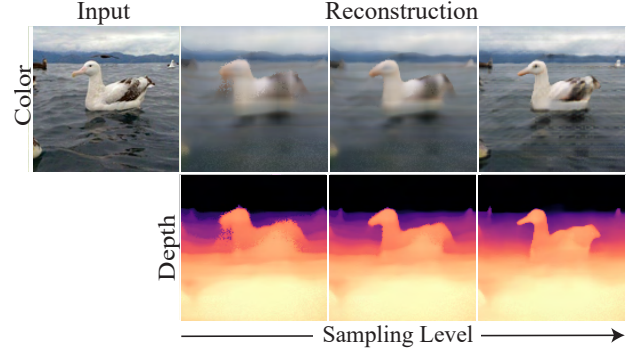


Figure 3. An illustration of our multi-resolution sampling. We observe how increasing the sampling level directly increases the reconstruction quality.

plane G we create a set of tri-planes with different resolutions $\{G_l\}_{l=1}^L$, where L represents the total number of levels. Each level G_l is constructed by resampling the previous level G_{l-1} to half the resolution. In our experiments, we construct 3 levels. All levels are resampled with antialiasing to minimize undesirable distortion artifacts. For each G_l , we sample latent values corresponding to $r(t)$ by projecting $r(t)$ onto each of the orthogonal feature planes and retrieving their corresponding feature vectors using bilinear interpolation. We then aggregate feature vectors from individual planes using mean operation and we collate feature vectors from different G_l using summation [5, 53]. Note that our sampling strategy is unlike the *multi-resolution triplanes strategy* used in methods like [18, 41, 68] where separate tri-planes latents are learned at different resolutions. This style of multi-resolution sampling improves model performance without any increase in the number of model parameters. We then pass the final feature vectors to f_{dec} to generate the 3D features of the image, which are then rendered via neural volume rendering. In Fig. 3 we show how texture and geometry are affected if we start sampling only from the coarsest level and then add samples from finer levels.

3.4. Training

In this section, we describe the different losses used in our framework. We distinguish between the training for the canonical view and the one for novel views.

Canonical view. Along the canonical view, we train the network to accurately reconstruct the ground truth with good geometry. The ground truth camera extrinsic parameters for all the datasets in our experiments are unknown and there is no accurate model to estimate these parameters. Thus, we choose a reasonable set of camera parameters and use them as the canonical view parameters for all the images. We follow the standard formulation, and define the reconstruction loss L_{recon} as the total squared error between the rendered and the true pixel values.

We also use a depth loss L_D defined as L_1 loss between

the pseudo-ground truth depth map, and we estimate the accumulated depth values of the rendered images:

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^N t_i w_i / \sum_{i=1}^N w_i + \epsilon. \quad (4)$$

where ϵ is a hyperparameter introduced for training stability. This approximation of depth can result in the same D value for different $\{w_i\}_{i=1}^N$ values many of which are degenerate causing volume collapse. We resolve this by manipulating the gradients as explained in Section 3.2 during backpropagation.

To further improve the visual performance, we add perceptual loss L_{VGG} [63]. We define our loss for the canonical view as a weighted sum of the mentioned losses:

$$L_{\text{canon}} = \lambda_1 L_{\text{recon}} + \lambda_2 L_D + \lambda_3 L_{VGG} \quad (5)$$

with $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ being hyperparameters that scale the losses.

Novel view. A main challenge of generating novel views from single views is the loss supervision in novel views. Other works do this either by using adversarial training [42, 49] or 3D-aware inpainting [57]. Instead, we design our novel framework to use a loss L_{CLIP} based on the difference of features between the novel views and ground truth, using a visual-language model [36]. Our intuition is that despite the camera movements, the semantics of an image should be the same as that of the ground-truth image. We show that this solution, despite being very simple, is powerful enough, and by using it, the network gets the needed supervision for the novel views. Furthermore, because it has no adversarial training, its convergence is relatively more stable than the other methods. For geometry supervision, we use the TV-loss (L_{TV}) [31] over the accumulated depth to encourage smooth geometry, while for photorealism we use a perceptual loss. We define our loss for novel views as a weighted sum of the mentioned losses:

$$L_{\text{novel}} = \lambda_4 L_{CLIP} + \lambda_5 L_{TV} + \lambda_6 L_{VGG_2}. \quad (6)$$

For L_{VGG_2} , unlike in canonical view where we use features from five levels, in novel view, we use features only from the last two levels. This is because while we expect the semantics of the image in the novel view to be the same as the input image, its low-level features are not necessarily the same, thus using all five features results in blurry images. To compensate for using fewer features, we set λ_6 to twice the value of λ_3 .

Alternating between novel and canonical view. We randomly sample between the canonical and novel views during training. We design a heuristic probabilistic sampling, where we initially sample with higher probability for the canonical view. In this way, the network quickly learns

the easier task of image reconstruction. We linearly increase the probability of sampling for the novel views during the training, but the probability of sampling a novel view never gets higher than that of sampling the canonical view. We show a visualization of our losses in Fig. 2c and give more details in the supplementary material.

3.5. Generation

Our network described so far, would be powerful to do 3D generative reconstruction of *rgb*d images, a task which might be important for AR/VR. However, in this work, we focus on unconditional or class-conditioned generative modeling, to diverse generate 3D scenes. Thus, we first train a diffusion model in ImageNet that is able to generate realistically single-view *rgb*d images.

We use our diffusion model for unconditional or class-conditioned generation of *rgb*d images. We then feed the generated image to our model as trained in Section 3.4 which completes the *rgb*d images by generating a 3D tri-plane. Interestingly, in our experimental section, we show that our model not only works for ImageNet-like images conditioned on classes but also on images conditioned on other modalities, such as text. To do so, we sample from a text-to-image latent diffusion model, and then feed those images into our model to get their 3D representation. Perhaps surprisingly, we show that our model works well even for out-of-domain samples, such as cartoons.

Finally, it is expensive to train a model that produces high-resolution 3D images. Instead, we train our model to generate moderate-resolution images (e.g., 128x128). Then, we use a super-resolution network [66], to upsample the images to the desirable resolution (e.g., 256x256). We perform this upsampling during both the training and sampling procedures.

4. Experiments

4.1. Experimental setup

Implementation details. We generate *rgb*d_k conditioned on c_k using f_{rgb} a latent diffusion model [52]. We then feed the images to f_{trigen} a U-net containing residual blocks, to generate triplanes consisting of 64 channels. We render the triplanes using small MLPs with 2 layers and 64 hidden units each with a Softplus activation in between. Finally, we feed the rendered images into a super-resolution network [66]. We train our model for 400,000 iterations with batch size 64, using Adam optimizer [22] with initial learning rate of 0.001. We lower the learning rate using a cosine annealing strategy [25]. During training, we alternate between optimizing for the canonical and novel view, based on a probabilistic procedure as explained in the supplementary. We balance the losses by setting weights of reconstruction, depth, *v*_{gg}, clip, tv and *v*_{gg2} loss

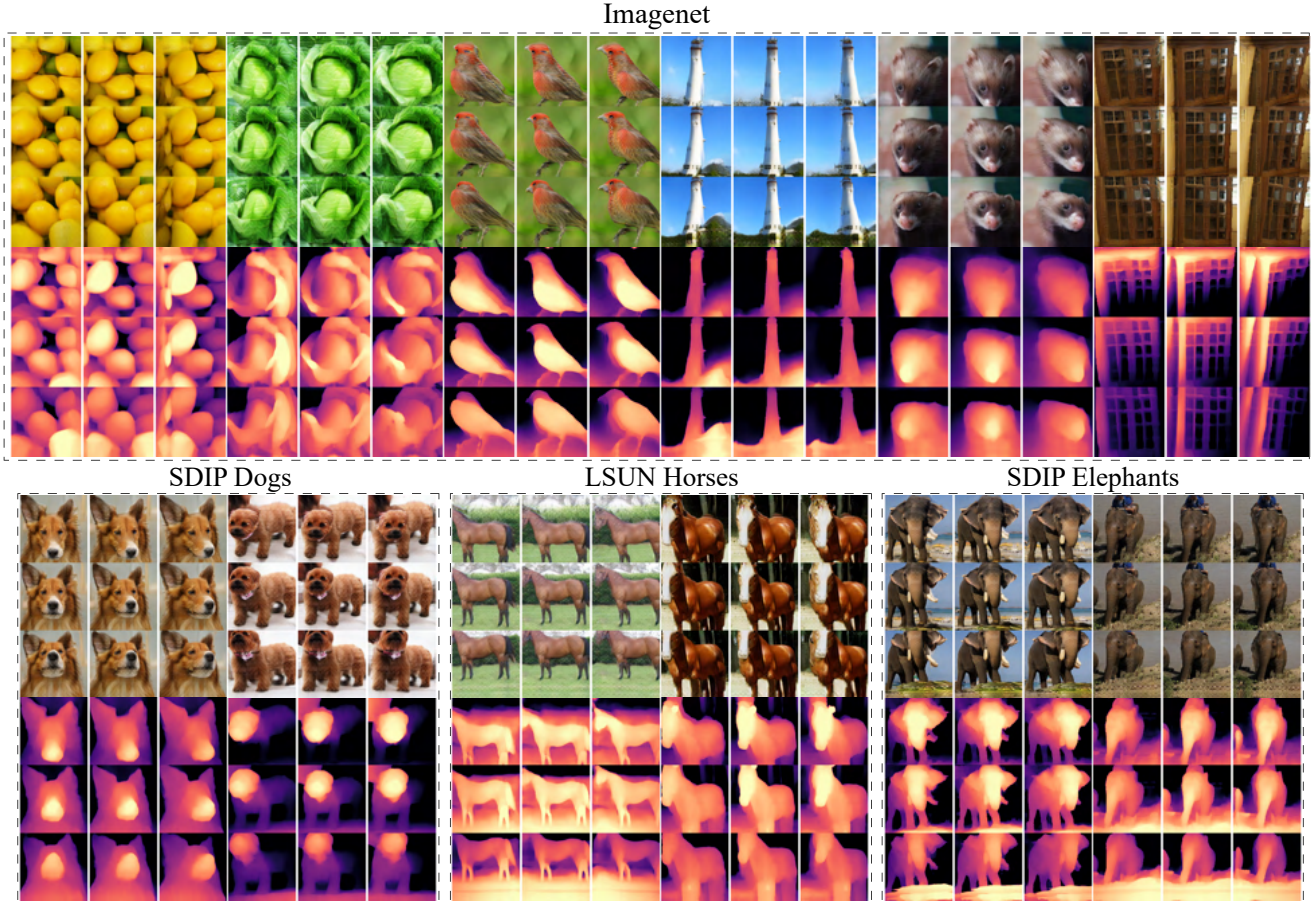


Figure 4. Qualitative results of our method. In the first row we present qualitative results generated in ImageNet dataset and their corresponding depth. In the second row we show qualitative results in the finegrained datasets with their corresponding depth.

($\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \lambda_4, \lambda_5, \lambda_6$) to 1, 2, 0.5, 0.35, 0.1, 0.5. For novel views camera parameters, we generate rays by sampling for yaw from $\mathcal{N}(\pi/2, 0.3)$ and for pitch from $\mathcal{N}(0, 0.15)$.

Datasets. We use 4 standard datasets for our experiments: ImageNet [7], Dogs [29], SDIP elephants [29] and LSUN Horses [61]. We perform our main experiments in ImageNet, a realistic multi-category dataset containing over one million images divided into 1,000 classes. For fair comparisons, we follow [49] and filter out 2/3 of the images. We do complementary experiments in the other three datasets, following [49] to remove the outliers from SDIP Dogs and LSUN Horses reducing their sizes to 40,000 samples.

Metrics. We use FID [16] and Inception Score (IS) [40] to measure the image quality. They have been originally developed to evaluate the quality of images produced by GANs, but are widely used to measure the image quality in all problems. While our networks have been trained in a filtered version of ImageNet, we compute the metrics in the full ImageNet. There are no established protocols to measure the geometry quality of 3D generators. Some papers use Non-Flatness Score (NFS) [49] computed as the average entropy of the normalized depth maps histograms, while others use

the depth accuracy, computed as the normalized L2 score between the predicted depth and the pseudo-ground-truth depth. We compare with other works in both scores.

Method	Synthesis	FID ↓	IS ↑
BigGAN [3] ArXiv18	2D	8.7	142.3
StyleGAN-XL [43] SIGGRAPH22	2D	2.3	265.1
ADM [11] NeurIPS21	2D	4.6	186.7
IVID 128x [57] ICCV23	2.5D	14.1	61.4
Ours 128x	3D	13.0	136.4
EG3D [5] CVPR22	3D-a	25.6	57.3
StyleNeRF [15] ICML22	3D-a	56.5	21.8
3DPhoto [47] CVPR20	3D-a	116.6	9.5
EpiGRAF [50] NeurIPS22	3D	58.2	20.4
3DGP [49] ICLR23	3D	19.7	124.8
VQ3D [42] ICCV23	3D	16.8	n/a
Ours	3D	13.1	151.7

Table 1. Comparison between different generators on ImageNet 256². 3D-a means 3D-aware, 2.5D means autoregressive 2D model that gives emergence 3D properties.

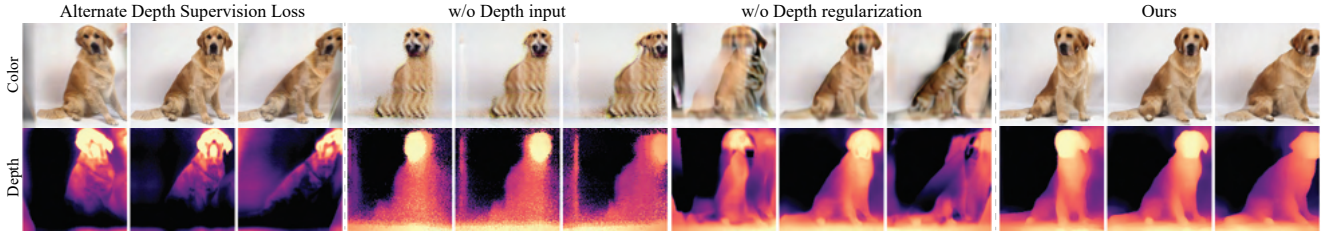


Figure 5. Qualitative evaluations of our method and alternative depth supervision methods.

Method	Depth accuracy ↓	NFS ↑
3DGP [49] ICLR23	0.47	18.5
IVID [57] ICCV23	1.23	19.2
Ours	0.39	36.5

Table 2. Geometry comparison between our method and two state-of-the-art methods. We compare in depth accuracy and the NFS metric, reaching better results in both of them.

Method	Dogs		Horses		Elephants	
	FID↓	NFS↑	FID↓	NFS↑	FID↓	NFS↑
Eg3D	9.83	11.91	2.61	13.34	3.15	2.59
EpiGRAF	17.3	3.53	5.82	9.73	7.25	12.9
IVID	14.7	N/A	10.2	N/A	11.0	N/A
3DGP	8.74	34.35	4.86	30.4	5.79	32.8
Ours	8.37	36.89	5.64	36.2	5.30	35.6

Table 3. Results on finegrained datasets. Our method reaches competitive results in quality and the best results by far in geometry.

4.2. Results

Results on ImageNet. We present our results in the ImageNet dataset in Tab. 1. As shown, our method significantly outperforms the other 3D methods. EG3D which can be considered as the baseline 3D method has an FID score of 25.6. Other methods improve over it, with the recent methods, 3DGP and VQ3D reaching FID scores of 19.7 and 16.8. Our G3DR improves the FID score, reaching 13.1, a relative improvement of over 22%, and setting a new state-of-the-art. Note that IVID does the evaluation in 128x, reaching 14.1, which is 1.1 percentage points (*pp*) worse than our results in that resolution. Similarly, we considerably improve the state-of-the-art in Inception score, reaching 151.7, a relative improvement of 21.5% over 3DGP. 2D methods, such as BigGAN, StyleGAN-XL, or ADM reach better visual quality scores, but they do not have any consideration for the geometry of the images and, thus are not comparable with our method.

We also evaluate the geometry of the images generated by our method and compare it with the results of 3DGP and IVID. We present the results in Tab. 2. They reach NFS scores of 18.5 respectively 19.2, while our G3DR method reaches an NFS score of 36.5, almost doubling over the state-of-the-art. Furthermore, when evaluating the depth accuracy, we outperform all the other methods. G3DR reaches a depth accuracy of 0.39, much better than 3DGP and IVID

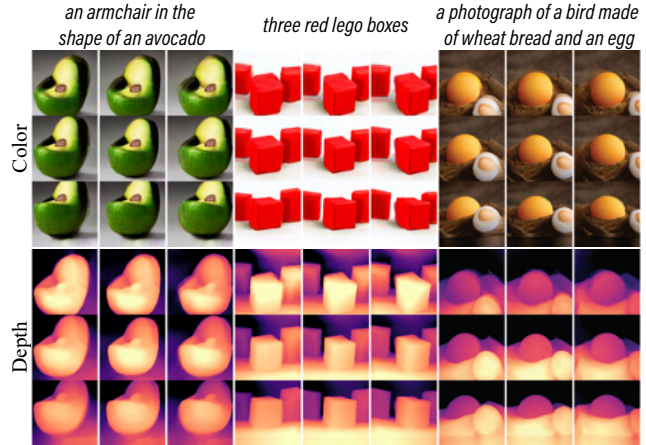


Figure 6. Results on text to 3D, including completely out of domain examples (middle figure).

that reach depth accuracies of 0.47 and 1.33.

Results on finegrained datasets. We present the results of our method, and compare it with the competing methods in 3 finegrained datasets: Dogs [29], LSUN Horses [61] and SDIP elephants [29]. In Dogs dataset, G3DR reaches 8.37 FID and 36.9 NFS scores, in both cases surpassing the previous state-of-the-art methods. In LSUN Horses, G3DR reaches 5.64 FID score. While it is not as good as some of the other methods, this is because the other methods sacrifice the geometry of the generated images. For example, EG3D which reaches the best FID score of 2.61, reaches only 13.34 NFS, less than half of our score. Similarly, in SDIP elephants, EG3D reaches a better FID than our G3DR, but at the cost of more than 10 times lower NFS. Overall, G3DR reaches competitive visual quality, while having by far the best geometry of all the methods.

Qualitative results. In Fig. 4 we show an extensive qualitative evaluation of G3DR in all four datasets. We observe that G3DR generates high-quality images in novel views while preserving a high level of geometry. We give corresponding videos in the supplementary.

4.3. Ablation studies

Ablation of each block. We quantify the effect of each of our three main contributions: depth regularization, CLIP supervision and multi-resolution sampling. We do so by training models with the corresponding module turned off. We observe that turning off the depth regularization has a

Method	FID ↓	IS ↑	NFS ↑	DA ↓
w/o Depth regular.	18.1	116.7	25.5	1.38
w/o CLIP	19.9	100.9	35.1	0.52
w/o Multi-res. sampling	14.5	128.6	36.1	0.39
Ours	13.1	151.7	36.5	0.39

Table 4. The effect of each block in our framework. We observe that removing each block comes with a decrease in the performance, with the biggest decrease coming if we remove our depth regularization module.

Method	FID ↓	IS ↑	NFS ↑	DA ↓
w/o Depth input	64.9	22.2	30.3	1.20
Alternative depth	44.8	83.0	28.9	2.07
Ours	13.1	151.7	36.5	0.39

Table 5. Comparison of our model with methods that do not use depth supervision and that use an alternative depth supervision.

massive effect on the performance of our method. While rgb generation quality decreases slightly, the geometry quality downgrades massively. The FID score downgrades from 13.1 to 18.1, the Inception Score decreases from 151.7 to 116.7, the NFS lowers from 36.5 to 25.5 and the depth accuracy falls from 0.39 to 1.38. This is because our novel regularization method prevents volume collapse that naturally impacts both the quality and the geometry of the generation. We also see that turning off CLIP comes with a large performance degradation, especially in image quality. Turning off multi-resolution sampling while affecting the rgb generations does not heavily degrade the geometry.

Do we need depth? We control the geometry of the generated images using depth. We do an experiment proving that using depth is necessary to get good geometry and quality. We present the results in Tab. 5, where we show that we reach 64.9 FID and 30.3 NFS without a depth map as an input, significantly lower than the results of our G3DR.

Alternative depth supervision. Instead of using our depth regularization module, we use an alternative approach. More precisely, we integrate the depth loss of Deng et al. [8] in our framework, calling it "Alternative depth". The method supervises the w values using the KL divergence between the w values and the depth map. We present the results in Tab. 5, showing that it falls short of our method in both generation quality and geometry. We give a qualitative example of it and other methods in Fig. 5

Results on different yaw ranges. We experiment with changing the camera yaw for the novel poses. Obviously, if we increase the yaw range we expect the generation quality to lower. This is because high movements on camera should result in more extreme novel views than when we have little to no movement in camera (canonical view). We present the results in Tab. 6. We use $\mathcal{U}(-x^\circ, x^\circ)$ to note that the yaw

Yaw trans. range	FID ↓	IS ↑	NFS ↑
$\mathcal{U}(-00^\circ, 00^\circ)$	11.89	201.56	35.64
$\mathcal{U}(-09^\circ, 09^\circ)$	11.79	193.57	35.95
$\mathcal{U}(-18^\circ, 18^\circ)$	11.94	180.33	35.36
$\mathcal{U}(-25^\circ, 25^\circ)$	12.39	166.74	36.42
$\mathcal{U}(-35^\circ, 35^\circ)$	13.75	145.66	36.75
$\mathcal{U}(-50^\circ, 50^\circ)$	17.68	113.28	36.23

Table 6. We present the FID, IS, and NFS metrics by uniformly sampling the yaw camera parameter in different ranges.

parameter is uniformly sampled in the range $[-x, x]$. We observe that when the yaw range is low, the quality of generated images barely changes. Sampling yaw from ranges $\mathcal{U}(-09^\circ, 09^\circ)$ and $\mathcal{U}(-18^\circ, 18^\circ)$ gives virtually the same FID score as the images in canonical view $\mathcal{U}(-09^\circ, 09^\circ)$ and slightly worse IS. After that, increasing the yaw range starts degrading all the scores, with yaw $\mathcal{U}(-50^\circ, 50^\circ)$ having FID that is 6 points worse than that of the canonical score. When it comes to the geometry of the generations in novel view, we observe that the NFS values reach the same value regardless of the yaw transformation.

Results on different modalities and domains. We do an intriguing experiment, checking the effectiveness of our method in a different modality, conditioning our model in text. We show the results in Fig. 6. We observe that our method generates high-quality 3D reconstruction of text prompts, despite it has never been trained on them. More interestingly, our method shows high results even when used for completely out-of-domain generations, such as cartoons, astronomical concepts, or geometric shapes. We provide additional images and videos in the supplementary.

Convergence. We use only 400,000 training steps, much fewer than competing methods such as IVID [57] which uses over a million steps. Our total training time is 14.5 A100 days, half as much as 3DGP [49] that needs 28 A100 days.

5. Conclusion

In this work, we developed a novel framework for the task of 3D generation on large, multi-category datasets, such as ImageNet. At the core of our method is a novel depth regularization method that allows our framework to reach very high geometry. Unlike other methods, that use adversarial training for novel views, we combine our geometry module with a visual-language module for novel-view supervision. For higher visual quality, we also introduce a new sampling method. We show in our experimental section, that despite lowering the training time by 48%, our method is able to surpass the state-of-the-art by 90% in geometry and 22% in visual quality.

References

- [1] Titas Anciukevičius, Zexiang Xu, Matthew Fisher, Paul Henderson, Hakan Bilen, Niloy J. Mitra, and Paul Guerrero. Renderdiffusion: Image diffusion for 3d reconstruction, inpainting and generation. In *CVPR*, 2023. 2
- [2] Andrew Brock, Jeff Donahue, and Karen Simonyan. Large scale gan training for high fidelity natural image synthesis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.11096*, 2018. 2
- [3] Andrew Brock, Jeff Donahue, and Karen Simonyan. Large scale GAN training for high fidelity natural image synthesis. In *ICLR*, 2019. 6
- [4] Shengqu Cai, Anton Obukhov, Dengxin Dai, and Luc Van Gool. Pix2nerf: Unsupervised conditional π -gan for single image to neural radiance fields translation. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [5] Eric R. Chan, Connor Z. Lin, Matthew A. Chan, Koki Nagano, Boxiao Pan, Shalini De Mello, Orazio Gallo, Leonidas J. Guibas, Jonathan Tremblay, Sameh Khamis, Tero Karras, and Gordon Wetzstein. Efficient geometry-aware 3d generative adversarial networks. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2, 3, 4, 6
- [6] Eric R. Chan, Marco Monteiro, Petr Kellnhofer, Jiajun Wu, and Gordon Wetzstein. Pi-gan: Periodic implicit generative adversarial networks for 3d-aware image synthesis. In *CVPR*, 2021. 1, 2
- [7] Jia Deng, Wei Dong, Richard Socher, Li-Jia Li, Kai Li, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet: A large-scale hierarchical image database. In *CVPR*, 2009. 1, 2, 6
- [8] Kangle Deng, Andrew Liu, Jun-Yan Zhu, and Deva Ramanan. Depth-supervised NeRF: Fewer views and faster training for free. In *CVPR*, 2022. 8
- [9] Yu Deng, Jiaolong Yang, Jianfeng Xiang, and Xin Tong. GRAM: generative radiance manifolds for 3d-aware image generation. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [10] Terrance DeVries, Miguel Ángel Bautista, Nitish Srivastava, Graham W. Taylor, and Joshua M. Susskind. Unconstrained scene generation with locally conditioned radiance fields. In *ICCV*, 2021. 2
- [11] Prafulla Dhariwal and Alexander Quinn Nichol. Diffusion models beat gans on image synthesis. In *NeurIPS*, 2021. 6
- [12] Ziya Erkoç, Fangchang Ma, Qi Shan, Matthias Nießner, and Angela Dai. Hyperdiffusion: Generating implicit neural fields with weight-space diffusion. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.17015*, 2023. 2
- [13] Ian J. Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, Sherjil Ozair, Aaron C. Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. Generative adversarial nets. In *NeurIPS*, 2014. 2
- [14] Jiatao Gu, Qingzhe Gao, Shuangfei Zhai, Baoquan Chen, Lingjie Liu, and Josh Susskind. Learning controllable 3d diffusion models from single-view images, 2023. 2
- [15] Jiatao Gu, Lingjie Liu, Peng Wang, and Christian Theobalt. Stylenerf: A style-based 3d aware generator for high-resolution image synthesis. In *ICLR*, 2022. 2, 6
- [16] Martin Heusel, Hubert Ramsauer, Thomas Unterthiner, Bernhard Nessler, and Sepp Hochreiter. Gans trained by a two time-scale update rule converge to a local nash equilibrium. In *NeurIPS*, 2017. 6
- [17] Jonathan Ho, Ajay Jain, and Pieter Abbeel. Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. In *NeurIPS*, 2020. 2
- [18] Wenbo Hu, Yuling Wang, Lin Ma, Bangbang Yang, Lin Gao, Xiao Liu, and Yuewen Ma. Tri-miprf: Tri-mip representation for efficient anti-aliasing neural radiance fields. In *ICCV*, 2023. 4
- [19] Ajay Jain, Ben Mildenhall, Jonathan T. Barron, Pieter Abbeel, and Ben Poole. Zero-shot text-guided object generation with dream fields. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [20] Ajay Jain, Matthew Tancik, and Pieter Abbeel. Putting nerf on a diet: Semantically consistent few-shot view synthesis. In *ICCV*, 2021. 2
- [21] Animesh Karnewar, Andrea Vedaldi, David Novotny, and Niloy J Mitra. Holodiffusion: Training a 3d diffusion model using 2d images. In *CVPR*, 2023. 2
- [22] Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In *ICLR*, 2015. 5
- [23] Adam R. Kosior, Heiko Strathmann, Daniel Zoran, Pol Moreno, Rosalia Schneider, Sona Mokrá, and Danilo Jimenez Rezende. Nerf-vae: A geometry aware 3d scene generative model. In *ICML*, 2021. 2
- [24] Doyup Lee, Chiheon Kim, Saehoon Kim, Minsu Cho, and Wook-Shin Han. Autoregressive image generation using residual quantization. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [25] Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. SGDR: stochastic gradient descent with warm restarts. In *ICLR*, 2017. 5
- [26] S Mahdi H Miangoleh, Sebastian Dille, Long Mai, Sylvain Paris, and Yagiz Aksoy. Boosting monocular depth estimation models to high-resolution via content-adaptive multi-resolution merging. In *CVPR*, 2021. 1
- [27] Ben Mildenhall, Pratul P. Srinivasan, Matthew Tancik, Jonathan T. Barron, Ravi Ramamoorthi, and Ren Ng. Nerf: Representing scenes as neural radiance fields for view synthesis. In *ECCV*, 2020. 1, 2
- [28] Ron Mokady, Omer Tov, Michal Yarom, Oran Lang, Inbar Mosseri, Tali Dekel, Daniel Cohen-Or, and Michal Irani. Self-distilled stylegan: Towards generation from internet photos. In *ACM SIGGRAPH 2022 Conference Proceedings*, pages 1–9, 2022. 2
- [29] Ron Mokady, Omer Tov, Michal Yarom, Oran Lang, Inbar Mosseri, Tali Dekel, Daniel Cohen-Or, and Michal Irani. Self-distilled stylegan: Towards generation from internet photos. In *SIGGRAPH*, 2022. 6, 7
- [30] Thu Nguyen-Phuoc, Chuan Li, Lucas Theis, Christian Richardt, and Yong-Liang Yang. Hologan: Unsupervised learning of 3d representations from natural images. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 7588–7597, 2019. 2
- [31] Michael Niemeyer, Jonathan T. Barron, Ben Mildenhall, Mehdi S. M. Sajjadi, Andreas Geiger, and Noha Radwan. Regnerf: Regularizing neural radiance fields for view synthesis from sparse inputs. In *CVPR*, 2022. 5
- [32] Michael Niemeyer and Andreas Geiger. GIRAFFE: representing scenes as compositional generative neural feature fields. In *CVPR*, 2021. 1, 2

- [33] Roy Or-El, Xuan Luo, Mengyi Shan, Eli Shechtman, Jeong Joon Park, and Ira Kemelmacher-Shlizerman. StyleSDF: High-resolution 3d-consistent image and geometry generation. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [34] Julien Philip and Valentin Deschaintre. Floaters No More: Radiance Field Gradient Scaling for Improved Near-Camera Training. In *Eurographics Symposium on Rendering*, 2023. 4
- [35] Ben Poole, Ajay Jain, Jonathan T. Barron, and Ben Mildenhall. DreamFusion: Text-to-3D using 2D diffusion. In *ICLR*, 2023. 2
- [36] Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Aditya Ramesh, Gabriel Goh, Sandhini Agarwal, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Pamela Mishkin, Jack Clark, Gretchen Krueger, and Ilya Sutskever. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. In *ICML*, 2021. 1, 5
- [37] Daniel Rebain, Mark J. Matthews, Kwang Moo Yi, Dmitry Lagun, and Andrea Tagliasacchi. LoloNerf: Learn from one look. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [38] Barbara Roessle, Jonathan T Barron, Ben Mildenhall, Pratul P Srinivasan, and Matthias Nießner. Dense depth priors for neural radiance fields from sparse input views. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [39] Robin Rombach, Andreas Blattmann, Dominik Lorenz, Patrick Esser, and Björn Ommer. High-resolution image synthesis with latent diffusion models. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [40] Tim Salimans, Ian J. Goodfellow, Wojciech Zaremba, Vicki Cheung, Alec Radford, and Xi Chen. Improved techniques for training GANs. In *NeurIPS*, 2016. 6
- [41] Sara Fridovich-Keil and Giacomo Meanti, Frederik Rahbæk Warburg, Benjamin Recht, and Angjoo Kanazawa. K-planes: Explicit radiance fields in space, time, and appearance. In *CVPR*, 2023. 4
- [42] Kyle Sargent, Jing Yu Koh, Han Zhang, Huiwen Chang, Charles Herrmann, Pratul Srinivasan, Jiajun Wu, and Deqing Sun. VQ3D: learning a 3d-aware generative model on imagenet. In *ICCV*, 2023. 2, 5, 6
- [43] Axel Sauer, Katja Schwarz, and Andreas Geiger. StyleGAN-xl: Scaling stylegan to large diverse datasets. In *SIGGRAPH*, 2022. 6
- [44] Katja Schwarz, Yiyi Liao, Michael Niemeyer, and Andreas Geiger. GRAF: generative radiance fields for 3d-aware image synthesis. In *NeurIPS*, 2020. 1, 2
- [45] Katja Schwarz, Axel Sauer, Michael Niemeyer, Yiyi Liao, and Andreas Geiger. Voxgraf: Fast 3d-aware image synthesis with sparse voxel grids. In *NeurIPS*, 2022. 2
- [46] Zifan Shi, Yujun Shen, Jiapeng Zhu, Dit-Yan Yeung, and Qifeng Chen. 3d-aware indoor scene synthesis with depth priors. In *ECCV*, 2022. 2
- [47] Meng-Li Shih, Shih-Yang Su, Johannes Kopf, and Jia-Bin Huang. 3d photography using context-aware layered depth inpainting. In *CVPR*, 2020. 6
- [48] J Ryan Shue, Eric Ryan Chan, Ryan Po, Zachary Ankner, Jiajun Wu, and Gordon Wetzstein. 3d neural field generation using triplane diffusion. In *CVPR*, 2023. 2
- [49] Ivan Skorokhodov, Aliaksandr Siarohin, Yinghao Xu, Jian Ren, Hsin-Ying Lee, Peter Wonka, and Sergey Tulyakov. 3d generation on imagenet. In *ICLR*, 2023. 2, 5, 6, 7, 8
- [50] Ivan Skorokhodov, Sergey Tulyakov, Yiqun Wang, and Peter Wonka. Epigraf: Rethinking training of 3d GANs. In *NeurIPS*, 2022. 2, 6
- [51] Jiuhun Song, Seonghoon Park, Honggyu An, Seokju Cho, Min-Seop Kwak, Sungjin Cho, and Seungryong Kim. Därf: Boosting radiance fields from sparse inputs with monocular depth adaptation. In *NeurIPS*, 2023. 2
- [52] Gabriela Ben Melech Stan, Diana Wofk, Scottie Fox, Alex Redden, Will Saxton, Jean Yu, Estelle Aflalo, Shao-Yen Tseng, Fabio Nonato, Matthias Müller, and Vasudev Lal. LDM3D: latent diffusion model for 3d. *CoRR*, abs/2305.10853, 2023. 5
- [53] Towaki Takikawa, Joey Litalien, Kangxue Yin, Karsten Kreis, Charles Loop, Derek Nowrouzezahrai, Alec Jacobson, Morgan McGuire, and Sanja Fidler. Neural geometric level of detail: Real-time rendering with implicit 3D shapes. 2021. 4
- [54] Ayush Tewari, Mallikarjun B. R., Xingang Pan, Ohad Fried, Maneesh Agrawala, and Christian Theobalt. Disentangled3D: Learning a 3d generative model with disentangled geometry and appearance from monocular images. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [55] Mikaela Angelina Uy, Ricardo Martin-Brualla, Leonidas Guibas, and Ke Li. Scade: Nerfs from space carving with ambiguity-aware depth estimates. In *CVPR*, 2023. 2
- [56] Can Wang, Menglei Chai, Mingming He, Dongdong Chen, and Jing Liao. Clip-nerf: Text-and-image driven manipulation of neural radiance fields. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [57] Jianfeng Xiang, Jiaolong Yang, Binbin Huang, and Xin Tong. 3d-aware image generation using 2d diffusion models. In *ICCV*, 2023. 2, 5, 6, 7, 8
- [58] Yinghao Xu, Sida Peng, Ceyuan Yang, Yujun Shen, and Bolei Zhou. 3d-aware image synthesis via learning structural and textural representations. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [59] Yang Xue, Yuheng Li, Krishna Kumar Singh, and Yong Jae Lee. GIRAFFE HD: A high-resolution 3d-aware generative model. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [60] Fisher Yu, Ari Seff, Yinda Zhang, Shuran Song, Thomas Funkhouser, and Jianxiong Xiao. Lsun: Construction of a large-scale image dataset using deep learning with humans in the loop. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1506.03365*, 2015. 2
- [61] Fisher Yu, Yinda Zhang, Shuran Song, Ari Seff, and Jianxiong Xiao. LSUN: construction of a large-scale image dataset using deep learning with humans in the loop. abs/1506.03365, 2015. 6, 7
- [62] Zehao Yu, Songyou Peng, Michael Niemeyer, Torsten Sattler, and Andreas Geiger. Monosdf: Exploring monocular geometric cues for neural implicit surface reconstruction. In *NeurIPS*, 2022. 2
- [63] Richard Zhang, Phillip Isola, Alexei A Efros, Eli Shechtman, and Oliver Wang. The unreasonable effectiveness of deep features as a perceptual metric. In *CVPR*, 2018. 5
- [64] Xuanmeng Zhang, Zhedong Zheng, Daiheng Gao, Bang Zhang, Pan Pan, and Yi Yang. Multi-view consistent gen-

- erative adversarial networks for 3d-aware image synthesis. In *CVPR*, 2022. 2
- [65] Xuanmeng Zhang, Zhedong Zheng, Daiheng Gao, Bang Zhang, Yi Yang, and Tat-Seng Chua. Multi-view consistent generative adversarial networks for compositional 3d-aware image synthesis. *IJCV*, 2023. 2
- [66] Yulun Zhang, Kunpeng Li, Kai Li, Lichen Wang, Bineng Zhong, and Yun Fu. Image super-resolution using very deep residual channel attention networks. In *ECCV*, 2018. 5
- [67] Peng Zhou, Lingxi Xie, Bingbing Ni, and Qi Tian. CIPS-3D: A 3d-aware generator of gans based on conditionally-independent pixel synthesis. *CoRR*, abs/2110.09788, 2021. 2
- [68] Yiyu Zhuang, Qi Zhang, Ying Feng, Hao Zhu, Yao Yao, Xiaoyu Li, Yan-Pei Cao, Ying Shan, and Xun Cao. Anti-aliased neural implicit surfaces with encoding level of detail. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.10336*, 2023. 4