

Lift3D: Zero-Shot Lifting of Any 2D Vision Model to 3D

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mukundvarmat.github.io/Lift3D/

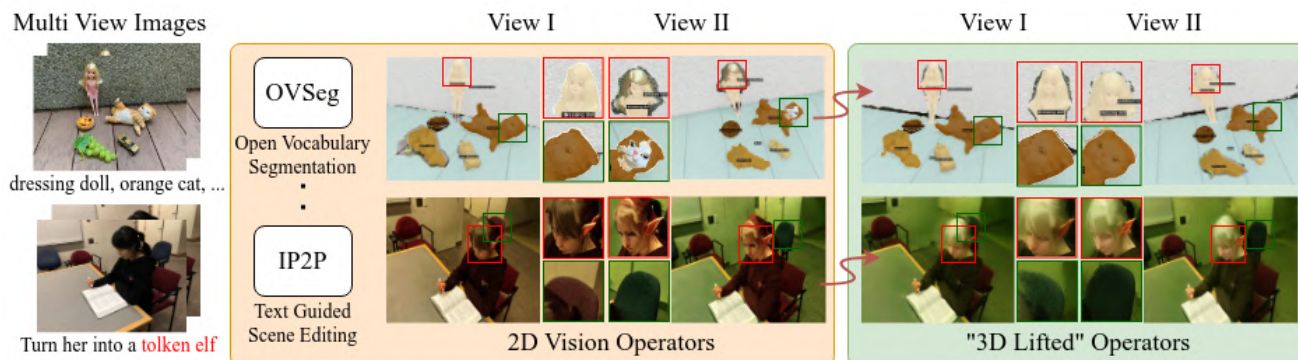


Figure 1. Imagine we are using a 2D vision operator, such as semantic segmentation or scene editing, on multiple-view input images. This often leads to inconsistent predictions across different views (as shown in the middle column). To address this, we introduce *Lift3D*, a framework designed to transform these inconsistent 2D outputs into view-consistent 3D predictions (illustrated in the right column). Our approach is both scene and operator-agnostic, meaning it can adapt to any downstream task or scene without additional adjustments. We demonstrate how Lift3D effectively resolves inconsistencies in multi-view predictions across open vocabulary segmentation and text-driven scene editing. Notice the color discrepancies in the same rightmost chair across two views (varying from reddish to greenish) in the 2D results at the bottom row, and the inconsistencies in facial and hair color. For a clearer comparison between the 2D and 3D outcomes, we recommend zooming into the electronic version of this image.

Abstract

In recent years, there has been an explosion of 2D vision models for numerous tasks such as semantic segmentation, style transfer or scene editing, enabled by large-scale 2D image datasets. At the same time, there has been renewed interest in 3D scene representations such as neural radiance fields from multi-view images. However, the availability of 3D or multiview data is still substantially limited compared to 2D image datasets, making extending 2D vision models to 3D data highly desirable but also very challenging. Indeed, extending a single 2D vision operator like scene editing to 3D typically requires a highly creative method specialized to that task and often requires per-scene optimization. In this paper, we ask the question of whether **any** 2D vision model can be lifted to make 3D consistent predictions. We answer this question in the affirmative; our new Lift3D method trains to predict unseen views on feature spaces generated by a few visual models (i.e. DINO and CLIP), but then generalizes to novel vision operators and tasks, such as style transfer, super-resolution, open vocabulary segmentation and image colorization; for some of these tasks, there is no comparable previous 3D method. In many cases, we even outperform

state-of-the-art methods specialized for the task in question. Moreover, Lift3D is a zero-shot method, in the sense that it requires no task-specific training, nor scene-specific optimization.

1. Introduction

Recent progress in 2D image understanding has been extraordinary, driven by the assembly of extensive image datasets with intricate labels, and the innovation of varied network architectures. This has led to remarkable advances in diverse tasks such as semantic segmentation [24, 28], style transfer [67], scene editing [3], and super-resolution [63]. Yet, the domain of 3D understanding, essential for sectors like autonomous driving, robotics, and 3D asset creation, lags in the development of versatile and robust neural networks. A common requirement for 3D understanding is the processing of multi-view images, which is hindered by the lack of expansive, well-labeled multi-view image datasets. This limitation raises a critical question: Is it possible to modify existing neural networks, initially intended for single-image analysis, to accommodate multi-view inputs, and in doing so, eliminate the inconsistencies typically encountered when applying 2D operators to each view individually?

In this paper, we set an ambitious goal to universally transfer an *arbitrary* pre-trained 2D feature backbone to

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a 3D model or vision operator *on the fly*, which produces *view-consistent* predictions (see Fig. 1) from any arbitrary viewing angle given a set of posed 2D images and their 2D predictions. We observe that the intermediate feature maps are roughly aligned with the input image for modern strong 2D operators. Drawing inspiration from label propagation algorithms [21, 54, 68, 71, 72], for us to produce smooth predictions across views, we only need to rectify inconsistencies and propagate labels from supporting views to novel views.

Motivated by these observations, we propose a novel algorithm *Lift3D* which learns to fix and propagate inconsistent multi-view network outputs to view-consistent predictions. Our architecture design is underpinned by image-based rendering [9, 16, 27], where modern methods essentially learn to aggregate pixels with epipolar constraints to synthesize novel views [46, 47, 50, 56, 62]. By viewing dense features as colors, our method is trained to interpolate novel views on a feature space generated by a pre-trained 2D visual model or operator, incorporating both RGB and feature maps from adjacent views.

Following the widespread success of Neural Radiance Fields or NeRF for view synthesis [35, 50, 56], *Lift3D* casts a ray for each pixel on the target image plane, samples, and projects points to nearby views to fetch RGB and feature values of the epipolar correspondences. The aggregated RGB information will be used to infer geometry and appearance properties involved in volume rendering [33, 35]. This geometric information enables the interpolation of features from the pre-trained 2D vision model to estimate a target feature map, that is both multi-view consistent and decodable to generate the desired output (Fig 2, Sec. 4).

The whole pipeline is end-to-end differentiable and can be supervised by both ground-truth color and feature maps exported from 2D visual models. An impressive property of *Lift3D* is that, after we have trained *Lift3D* on only a few vision operators/models (DINO and CLIP), we discovered that *Lift3D has strong zero-shot ability, enabling any 2D vision operator to be lifted to 3D without any scene-specific or operator-specific training*. On a variety of 3D vision tasks such as semantic segmentation, style transfer, super-resolution, and text-driven editing of 3D scenes, our performance is comparable and sometimes even better than methods that use per-scene optimization and/or have been designed for the specific task (Fig. 1, Sec. 5). In some other tasks like image colorization and open vocabulary segmentation, we present the first 3D extension of 2D vision operators.

In summary, by formulating feature propagation as a rendering process, *Lift3D* becomes agnostic to 2D models and task domains, demonstrating versatility to generalize across various feature backbones. We are unaware of such abilities reported by other works, though there exist several individual works that have dealt with the extension of each separate 2D vision operator to 3D. The discovery further supports the practical impact of our method, i.e., as long as there exists a 2D feature backbone for a given task, *Lift3D* helps realize the same in 3D without any extra fine-tuning.

2. Related Work

Progress in 2D Vision Models. Deep Neural Networks have achieved wide success in a variety of computer vision tasks, ranging from classical object recognition tasks like classification, and segmentation [10, 24] to more complicated tasks including image generation, editing, etc [40, 41, 43, 44]. The 2D image domain boasts of several large, high-quality image datasets [37, 42, 45]. The recent breakthroughs in natural language processing for large-scale model pre-training have opened the way for similar foundation models in 2D computer vision [4, 37, 51], that generate visual features at an image and/or pixel level for several downstream applications. Given the plethora of 2D models, it is highly desirable to lift these 2D vision operators and tasks to 3D, enabling them to work in a 3D consistent way from multi-view images.

Attempts in 3D Vision Models. Some recent efforts [18, 60, 70] have attempted to build 3D foundational models by mirroring the successful approach of 2D foundation models. However, this direction is significantly limited by the training data available in 3D. Another line of work tries to lift a pre-trained 2D foundation model into 3D representations (e.g. point clouds or NeRFs [35]) for 3D scene segmentation [13, 31, 32] and editing [12, 17, 38, 52, 65].) A major drawback of these approaches is their computational inefficiency as they often involve a per-scene optimization process. Solutions proposed by [5, 6, 29, 61] distill a 2D vision model into a generalizable rendering pipeline [50, 56], that allows for zero-shot inference across different scenes. Although promising results have been demonstrated on scene segmentation, it remains elusive to generalize these methods to other tasks.

Novel View Synthesis. A pioneering work, Neural Radiance Fields (NeRF) [35] synthesizes photo-realistic and consistent novel views by fitting each scene as a continuous 5D radiance field (3D coordinates and 2D viewing directions) parameterized by an MLP. Several follow-up works have further improved NeRF’s rendering quality [1, 2, 55, 58]. However, these methods are rarely applied to general 3D applications beyond novel view synthesis, primarily due to the absence of labeled multi-view data. While some methods have been successful in realizing general computer vision tasks in 3D [17, 30, 31, 52], they still require a substantial amount of creativity to tailor NeRFs for each task and even need scene-specific optimization.

3. Preliminary: Generalizable View Synthesis

In this work, we extend the pipeline of Generalizable Novel View Synthesis (GNVS) to render 3D consistent feature maps. Below we equip readers with the necessary background. Given N calibrated input (or source) views with known pose information $\{\mathbf{I}_i, \mathbf{P}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, the goal of GNVS is to synthesize target novel view \mathbf{I}_T , even for scenes not observed during training, thereby achieving generalizability. These methods first extract deep convolutional features $\mathbf{F}_i = \mathcal{F}_{\text{conv}}(\mathbf{I}_i)$ for each input view. To render a target view,

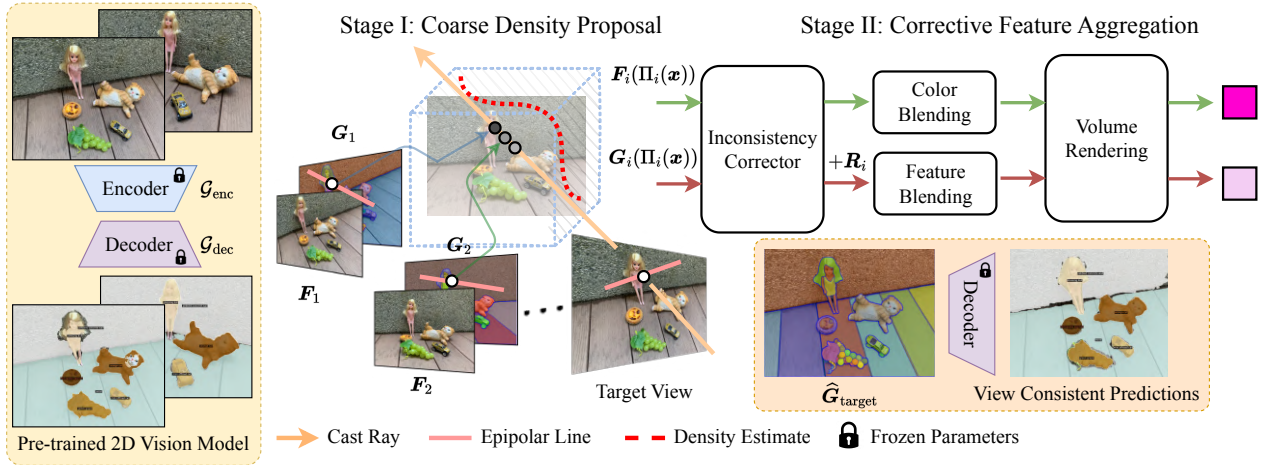


Figure 2. Overview of *Lift3D*: 1) Given multi-view images of a scene, we first extract an intermediate feature map using an encoder for each view independently, 2) Using the source view features, we estimate the target view feature map via an extended generalizable novel view synthesis pipeline that learns to correct feature space inconsistency and fuse information according to 3D geometry priors, and 3) Directly use the decoder from the pre-trained visual model to process the estimated feature map and synthesize the final prediction for downstream tasks.

several rays are cast into the scene, and K points $\{\mathbf{x}_j\}_{j=1}^K$ as shown in Fig. 2, are sampled along each ray. Each point is then projected onto each source view I_i using projection function Π_i , and the nearest feature in the image plane is queried. These multi-view features are aggregated into point feature $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ (We drop the index j for simplicity) as follows:

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{F}_{\text{view}}(\{\mathbf{F}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))\}_{i=1}^N) \quad (1)$$

where $\Pi_i(\mathbf{x})$ projects \mathbf{x} onto I_i , $\mathbf{F}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ fetches the feature vector at the epipolar projections for input view i , and $\mathcal{F}_{\text{view}}$ is a permutation-invariant aggregation mapping that learns to be occlusion-aware to combine epipolar features [50]. In IBRNet [56], $\mathcal{F}_{\text{view}}$ is implemented by estimating blending weights w_i via a DeepSets-like architecture [64] to fuse features from different views and produce point feature $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i w_i \mathbf{F}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$. Then the alpha value $\alpha(\mathbf{x})$ and color $c(\mathbf{x})$ can be decoded from feature $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ by another network [56, 62]. Finally, using volume rendering [35], the point-wise individual color and density values are composed to estimate ray color.

4. Method

Overview. We introduce *Lift3D* that applies the effect of any 2D visual models to arbitrary 3D scenes, and illustrate the entire pipeline in Fig. 2. Formally, given multi-view images of a scene and a pretrained 2D visual model \mathcal{G}_{2D} , our goal is to generate *view-consistent* predictions from an arbitrary angle, as if the 2D visual model is transferred to be a 3D model. We assume our 2D visual model follows an encoder-decoder structure¹ $\mathcal{G}_{2D} := \mathcal{G}_{\text{dec}} \circ \mathcal{G}_{\text{enc}}$, where the encoder stage \mathcal{G}_{enc} maps the input image to a latent representation and the decoder stage \mathcal{G}_{dec} transforms the latent features to

¹The 2D visual model need not necessarily follow an encoder-decoder design. We simply refer to the first few layers of the model as \mathcal{G}_{enc} and the remaining as \mathcal{G}_{dec} .

the desired output space. We observe that the intermediate latent representation, denoted as $\mathbf{G}_i = \mathcal{G}_{\text{enc}}(I_i)$, is robust and spatially aligned with the input image I_i , despite having inconsistencies across multiple views that need to be fixed. Our method builds upon existing GNVS techniques [56], i.e. by viewing dense features as colors, we learn to interpolate novel views on a feature space generated by the 2D pretrained vision model, by incorporating both RGB and feature maps from input views (Sec. 4.1). However, naively doing this does not work well since per-view features by 2D models are inherently noisy and inconsistent. Rather, our method learns to leverage consistency information on RGB maps to rectify inconsistent artifacts fetched from the feature maps while performing view aggregation (Sec. 4.2). By doing so, our method generates the now, view-consistent feature map for the target view that can be directly decoded using \mathcal{G}_{dec} to synthesize the final prediction i.e. the same task the input pretrained 2D vision model was intended for. Such a pipeline can be pre-trained on very few 2D vision models and then directly applied on unseen scenes and 2D vision operators during inference (Sec. 4.3). Below, we provide more details on the individual components.

4.1. Generalizable Feature Rendering

Existing GNVS techniques [47, 50, 56] only render target view color, but it is possible to easily extend them to other quantities of interest, e.g. in this case a high-dimensional feature vector \mathbf{G}_i . A straightforward approach is to modify Eq. 1 by replacing $\mathbf{F}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ with $\mathbf{G}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$, i.e. to fetch the epipolar projections on the per-view intermediate features of the 2D vision model and aggregate them across multiple views to obtain $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$. But such a pipeline cannot generalize to any unseen 2D vision operator [61], as the input intermediate features differ greatly across different 2D vision models. Moreover, the absence of ground truth features from arbitrary viewing angles that are multi-view

consistent makes training supervision non-trivial. However, we have access to RGB information across multiple source views that are view-consistent and can be used to guide the feature correction process.

Motivated by this observation, we simply share the aggregation weights between the epipolar RGB features $F_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ and similarly constructed epipolar projections on the encoded features from our 2D visual model, denoted by $G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$. After we obtain the volumetric representations from RGB features denoted by $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ and from the pretrained vision model $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$. Formally, we rewrite Eq. 1 as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_{\text{view}} &:= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \mathbf{w}_i F_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x})) \\ \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_i \mathbf{w}_i G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x})) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{where } \mathbf{w}_i = \mathcal{F}_w(\{F_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))\}_{i=1}^N)$$

where \mathcal{F}_w denotes a fully connected layer that transforms epipolar RGB feature $F_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ to blending weight \mathbf{w}_i . Next, $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ will be decoded as pointwise color and density to predict novel view image \hat{I}_{target} , while $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$ is accumulated along the ray using the estimated density to obtain the feature prediction \hat{G}_{target} . In Fig. 2, we illustrate the epipolar aggregation and ray marching as blending and volume rendering operations respectively. By viewing feature rendering as a view interpolation task grounded by RGB input, we ensure generalization to several unseen 2D vision models during inference.

4.2. Corrective Feature Aggregation

In the previous subsection, we assume the view-consistent RGB feature maps are roughly aligned with the per-view feature derived from the 2D vision model. However, in practice this is not the case and several inconsistencies cause significant noise in the rendered feature map. In Fig. 3 we visualize a three-channel PCA map of the estimated features after interpolation and compare it against a 2D feature encoding of the target view. We can clearly see that the estimated novel view features are noisy, therefore inconsistent and do not accurately represent the scene geometry, making them undesirable for several downstream tasks.

As a solution, we propose a two-stage aggregation strategy that first performs a correction on the epipolar features obtained from the 2D visual model, before the remaining aggregation steps. The correction factor can be obtained from the RGB features, particularly near the points sampled around the actual 3D location of the object intersecting the cast ray, where multi-view consistency of the epipolar projections is expected. We incorporate a coarse-fine stage like NeRF [35] i.e. perform view synthesis [56] using points randomly sampled along the cast ray, and then perform importance sampling using the obtained coarse density function to specifically fetch projections of points near the actual 3D location of the object of interest. The per-view projections on both the RGB and encoder latent feature planes are roughly

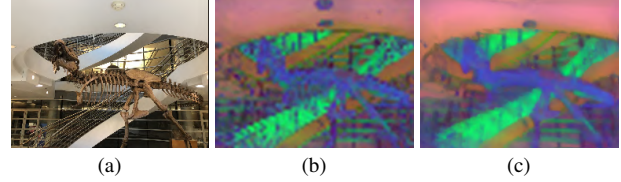


Figure 3. (a) Target View, (b) We visualize the PCA (3-channel) map of the interpolated feature maps from our baseline that naively shares blending and ray marching weights between color rendering and 2D encoder features. (c) A similar PCA map is estimated by directly encoding the target view with the 2D encoder. We can see that naively sharing weights without accounting for the inconsistencies in the source view features results in noisy feature estimation, undesirable for several fine-grained downstream tasks.

expected to be view-consistent since they lie on the same object, and can be used for the feature-lifting process. Therefore, we compute a residual correction term for each view R_i as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_i &= F_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x})) - \mathcal{F}_1(G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))) \\ R_i &= \mathcal{F}_2(\text{pool}_i(\{G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))\}_{i=1}^N) \oplus \Delta_i) \\ \tilde{G}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x})) &= G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x})) + R_i \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{x} denotes importance sampled points, \mathcal{F}_1 projects $G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ into the same latent dimension as $F_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$, \oplus denotes the concatenation operation, pool_i is a max pooling operation applied across input views and \mathcal{F}_2 represents a fully connected layer that unprojects back to the original dimension size. Using these now corrected features, we continue with the aggregation steps detailed in Eq. 2 by replacing $G_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ with $\tilde{G}_i(\Pi_i(\mathbf{x}))$ to synthesize novel view feature (see Fig. 2). We ablate on the individual components of our method and include a discussion in the supplementary (see Sec. A).

4.3. Training and Inference

The entire pipeline (both the coarse density proposal, and feature renderer networks) can be end-to-end supervised across multiple scenes with their multi-view images and the affiliated 2D encoded feature maps.

$$\mathcal{L} = \|\hat{I}_{\text{target}} - I_{\text{target}}\|_2^2 + \|\hat{G}_{\text{target}} - G_{\text{target}}\|_2^2 \quad (4)$$

where I_{target} and G_{target} denote the target ground truth view and its corresponding feature map encoded by a 2D vision model that is not strictly view-consistent. However, since the underlying scene geometry is constrained by view-consistent RGB input views, we expect similar propagation in the rendered feature map from the target view. Moreover, the simple training objective can cancel out random inconsistent patterns, leading to smooth and precise prediction, with a mechanism similar to [26]. More significantly, we find that our model can be pre-trained with only very few (in practice 2-3) 2D visual models and then directly applied to unseen scenes and 2D vision operators during inference. Given an unseen 2D vision model that needs to be lifted to 3D, we

choose an appropriate intermediate layer and set $\mathcal{G}_{\text{enc}}, \mathcal{G}_{\text{dec}}$ based on the choice. During inference, given an unseen 2D vision model that needs to be lifted to 3D, we choose an appropriate intermediate layer and set $\mathcal{G}_{\text{enc}}, \mathcal{G}_{\text{dec}}$ based on the choice. Next, the input views are encoded using \mathcal{G}_{enc} , and a target feature map from any arbitrary view is rendered $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\text{target}}$. Finally, the desired view-consistent prediction is decoded as $\mathcal{G}_{\text{dec}}(\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\text{target}})$. Our model can generalize out of the box since it simplifies 3D feature prediction to a simple interpolation task, which is easy to learn. Such interpolation schemes also support truncated or padded features when coming across dimension mismatch with our pre-trained model. We acknowledge that a view interpolation technique like ours can lead to loss in visual quality, arguably very insignificant (see Figures 1, 9). However, in several tasks multi-view consistency is more desirable and repurposing 2D models is a promising direction atleast until the data scarcity problem in 3D is solved.

5. Results

We conduct experiments to compare *Lift3D* against state-of-the-art methods for 3D semantic segmentation, style transfer and scene editing. Since our method is agnostic to 2D models and task domains, we further go on to show results on several other tasks (some not looked at previously in the 3D domain) to demonstrate versatility to generalize across various feature backbones. For all the experiments listed below, our method is never fine-tuned to each scene or trained on the target task or the target feature encoder’s features.

5.1. Implementation Details

We train our entire pipeline end-to-end on datasets of multi-view posed images. More specifically, we use the training data from IBRNet [56] consisting of synthetic [11] and real data [14, 36, 56, 69]. During training, we randomly sample $N \in (8, 12)$ source views from a pool of $k \times N$ (where $k \in (1, 3)$) nearby views from the target view. This sampling strategy simulates varying view densities and therefore helps the network generalize better [56]. At every training iteration, we randomly choose a 2D vision model, one of DINO [4] (ViT-B/8) and CLIP [51] (ViT-B/16) to encode the source and target views. Our method is jointly optimized for view consistent RGB and feature interpolation using the Adam optimizer with an initial learning rate of 5×10^{-4} , decayed over the course of 250,000 training steps. We sample 2048 rays at every iteration, further sampled into 64 coarse and 128 fine points. During inference, we simply apply our lifting process on any given unseen 2D vision model and for any incoming scene without additional optimization.

5.2. Semantic Segmentation

Task Description. Recent methods such as DFF-DINO [25], N3F [49] and ISRF [15] propose to distill semantic information extracted from 2D models, for example, DINO [4] onto the 3D feature volume that can be effectively queried (for example using user strokes) to segment objects

Models	Chess Table		Color Fountain		Stove		Shoe Rack	
	IoU \uparrow	mAP \uparrow	IoU \uparrow	mAP \uparrow	IoU \uparrow	mAP \uparrow	IoU \uparrow	mAP \uparrow
N3F [49]	0.344	0.334	0.871	0.871	0.416	0.387	0.589	0.582
ISRF [15]	0.912	0.916	0.927	0.927	0.819	0.817	0.861	0.869
Lift3D	0.824	0.83	0.935	0.938	0.817	0.814	0.871	0.875

Table 1. Quantitative results for semantic segmentation using user-guided strokes. We report average scores across the validation views for each scene prescribed by ISRF [15]. The best scores and second best scores are highlighted with their respective colors.

present in the scene. Specifically, the user provides positive strokes over a region of interest in one view that can be used to determine a high-confidence *seed region* of the object to the segmented. Further, feature matching is performed to match the marked features with the distilled semantics across multiple views. In the context of our method, we lift features from a 2D DINO model (specifically the ViT-S/8 variant) and utilize the same feature-matching strategy used in [15] to segment the desired region. We follow the experiment protocol in ISRF to evaluate the performance of our method.

Discussion. We compare our method against recent scene-specific methods N3F [49], and ISRF [15] Table 1 presents the segmentation metrics computed over the validation views of each of the 4 scenes presented in ISRF [15]. It is important to note here that we lift a different variant of the 2D DINO encoder (ViT-S/8) unseen during training to further enforce our “universality” claim, while other methods use the much larger variant trained on 768 feature dimensions. In spite of these differences, our method performs as well as other methods and sometimes even outperforms them on specific scenes. This indicates that directly lifting the 2D features to a 3D volume instead of 2D – 3D feature distillation ensures better retention of the original 2D feature backbone’s capabilities. In Fig. 4, we visualize these results qualitatively and we can clearly see that our method shows superior segmentation qualitatively (e.g. near the shoe laces in Fig. 4). Even in worse-performing scenes by IoU and mAP (e.g. chesstable), we argue that our method segments clearer boundaries (near the stem of the chess table in Fig. 4) and perhaps the lower metrics are due to the missing base not included in the user stroke leading to ambiguity.

5.3. Style Transfer

Task Description. Given multi-view images of a 3D scene and an image capturing a target style, 3D style transfer aims to generate novel views of the 3D scene that have the target style consistently across the generated views. Naively combining 3D novel view synthesis and 2D style transfer often leads to multi-view inconsistency or poor stylization quality. However, our method Lift3D can transfer a pre-trained 2D feature backbone (SOTA 2D style transfer backbone CAST [67]) to a 3D model to produce view-consistent predictions from arbitrary viewing angles. To evaluate our method on this task, we compare against the classical image style transfer method AdaIN [20], SOTA video style transfer methods CCPL [59], ReReVST [57] and more recent 3D style transfer methods Hyper [7], LSNV [19] and StyleRF [30].

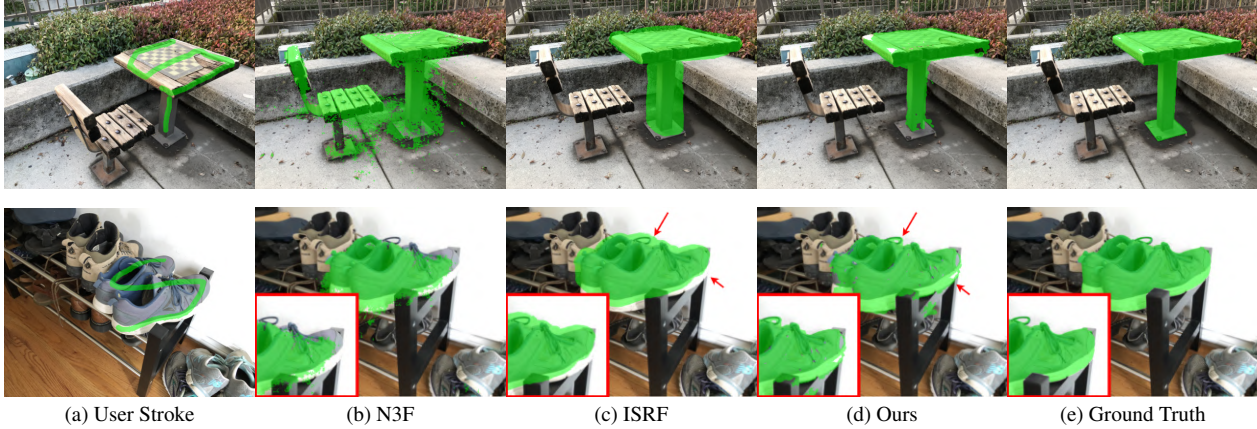


Figure 4. Qualitative results for semantic segmentation using user-provided stroke input. In the chess table scene (row 1), our method can derive fine-grained semantic masks, especially around the stem of the table. In the shoe rack scene (row 2), our method can successfully discover the shoe laces and shoe sole better than other methods.

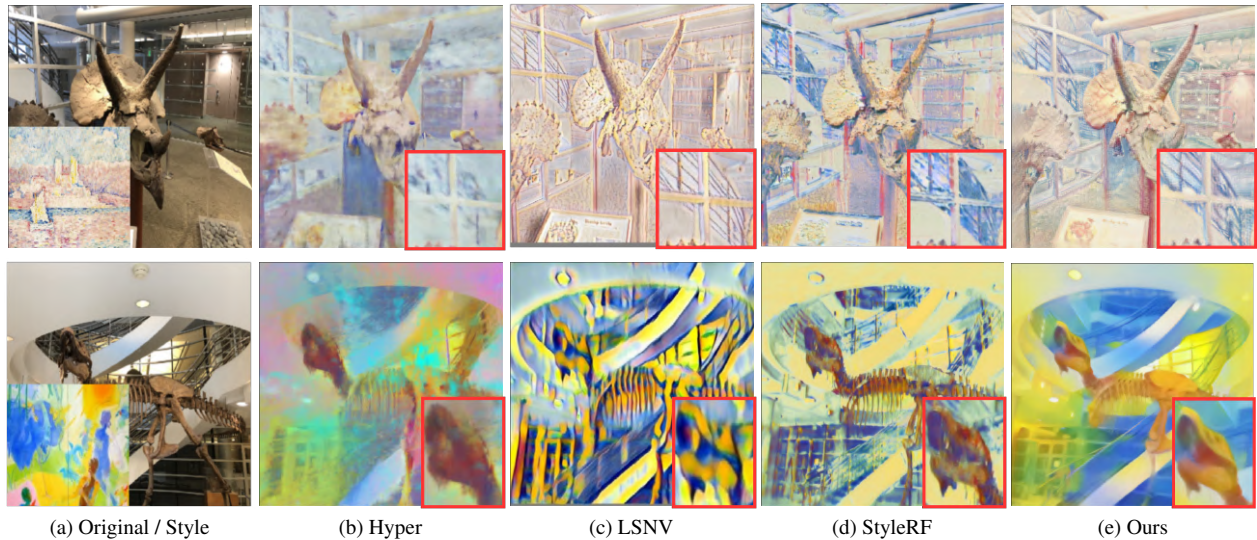


Figure 5. Qualitative results for 3D scene style transfer. Our method achieves better retention of the original geometry (row 1) and is more coherent to the style image (row 2).

Models	Short-Range Consistency		Long-Range Consistency	
	LPIPS↓	RMSE↓	LPIPS↓	RMSE↓
AdaIN [20]	0.279	0.085	0.452	0.167
CCPL [59]	0.250	0.080	0.414	0.167
ReReVST [57]	0.208	0.071	0.379	0.160
LSNV [19]	0.191	0.075	0.344	0.163
Hyper [7]	0.158	0.066	0.310	0.145
StyleRF [30]	0.138	0.071	0.333	0.165
Lift3D	0.181	0.053	0.327	0.138

Table 2. Quantitative results for 3D scene style transfer. We compute the short and long-term consistency metrics across all 8 scenes from the LLFF dataset.

Discussion. We evaluate our method over the LLFF dataset [34], containing real forward-facing scenes with complex geometry structures. Following the protocol in StyleRF, we measure the multi-view stylization consistency by warping one view to the other based on optical flow [48] and then compute the masked RMSE and LPIPS score [66] across nearby views (short-range consistency) and far-away views

(long-range consistency). It can be seen from Table 2 that our method achieves the best RMSE score and competitive LPIPS scores when compared to other methods. Please note that these metrics do not adequately measure the stylization quality and over-smoothed results (e.g. in the case of Hyper) tend to produce better scores [30]. Fig. 5 visualizes qualitative results and we can clearly see that our method achieves better stylization (row 2) while retaining the original scene geometry better (row 1). Furthermore, our method Lift3D generalizes to the style transfer task in a zero-shot manner unlike other stylization-specific methods that still require per-scene tuning.

5.4. Scene Editing.

Task Description. In this task, we look at editing a 3D implicit representation (in this case a NeRF) using text instructions. We attempt to lift a 2D diffusion model Instruct-Pix2Pix [3] to construct a view-consistent feature volume



Figure 6. Qualitative results on the text-driven scene editing task. Our method consistently achieves superior editing quality while still retaining the original scene geometry compared to previous work. In row 3, we can clearly see that our method retains the structure of the house, and clothes worn by the people while still adhering to the text prompt.

that can be decoded for text-based 3D editing. To evaluate our method on this task, we compare against baselines from [38] namely, CLIP-NeRF [52], NeRF-Art [53] and Masked SDS [39] that fine-tune the parameters of a NeRF model using 2D supervision either from a pretrained CLIP or Diffusion model, and more recent methods like Instruct-NeRF2NeRF [17] that directly manipulate the training images of NeRF.

Discussion. As seen in Fig. 6, our method shows the capability to edit scenes with superior quality compared to other methods. Prior work that leverages CLIP-based optimization [52, 53] struggles to produce reasonable edited images due to the inherent limitations in the CLIP model. More recent diffusion-based approaches [17, 39] produce higher quality results but either alter the image too severely or too little (see Figs. 6d, 6e), while our method consistently does well across several edits (we present more results in the supplementary). Further, we provide more examples that compare our method against InstructNeRF2NeRF, a recent SOTA method for instruction-based editing of 3D scenes, and leverage the same 2D feature backbone as ours. We can clearly see that our method ensures retention of the original scene geometry (see Figs. 6i, 6l) while still adhering to the editing text prompt. These results clearly show that directly lifting the intermediate latent of the 2D diffusion model outperforms naive optimization strategies that edit NeRF’s training images. We defer quantitative results that measure view-consistency and text-similarity of the edited scenes to the supplementary (see Table 5).

5.5. Other Tasks

In the previous subsections, we discussed the generality of our proposed method to lift several 2D feature backbones to generate 3D consistent predictions without any extra training. This enables us to realize tasks that have not been previously looked at in the 3D domain. This underscores the generality of our method i.e. as long as there exists a 2D feature backbone for a given task, Lift3D helps realize the same in 3D without any extra training or efforts on data collection.

Open Vocabulary Segmentation. Given the multi-view images of a 3D scene and the open-vocabulary text descriptions, we wish to derive accurate object boundaries for the scene. Some recent work [23] distills large 2D vision-language models onto a 3D radiance field, which can be effectively used to obtain relevancy maps for language queries. However, the obtained semantic masks are very coarse and cannot be used for localization. Therefore, the task of open vocabulary segmentation in the 3D domain is still an open problem. Towards this end, we transfer the intermediate features of a SOTA 2D open vocabulary segmentation method OVSeg [28] to a 3D feature volume to derive multi-view consistent and accurate semantic masks. Figures 7a and 7b visualize predictions obtained at multiple viewpoints by 1) naively applying 2D OVSeg on multi-view data and 2) using the 3D “Lifted” OVSeg features estimated by Lift3D. We can clearly see that the lifted features ensure multi-view consistent predictions (also see Fig. 1) and surprisingly even improve segmentation quality (precise keyboard boundaries).

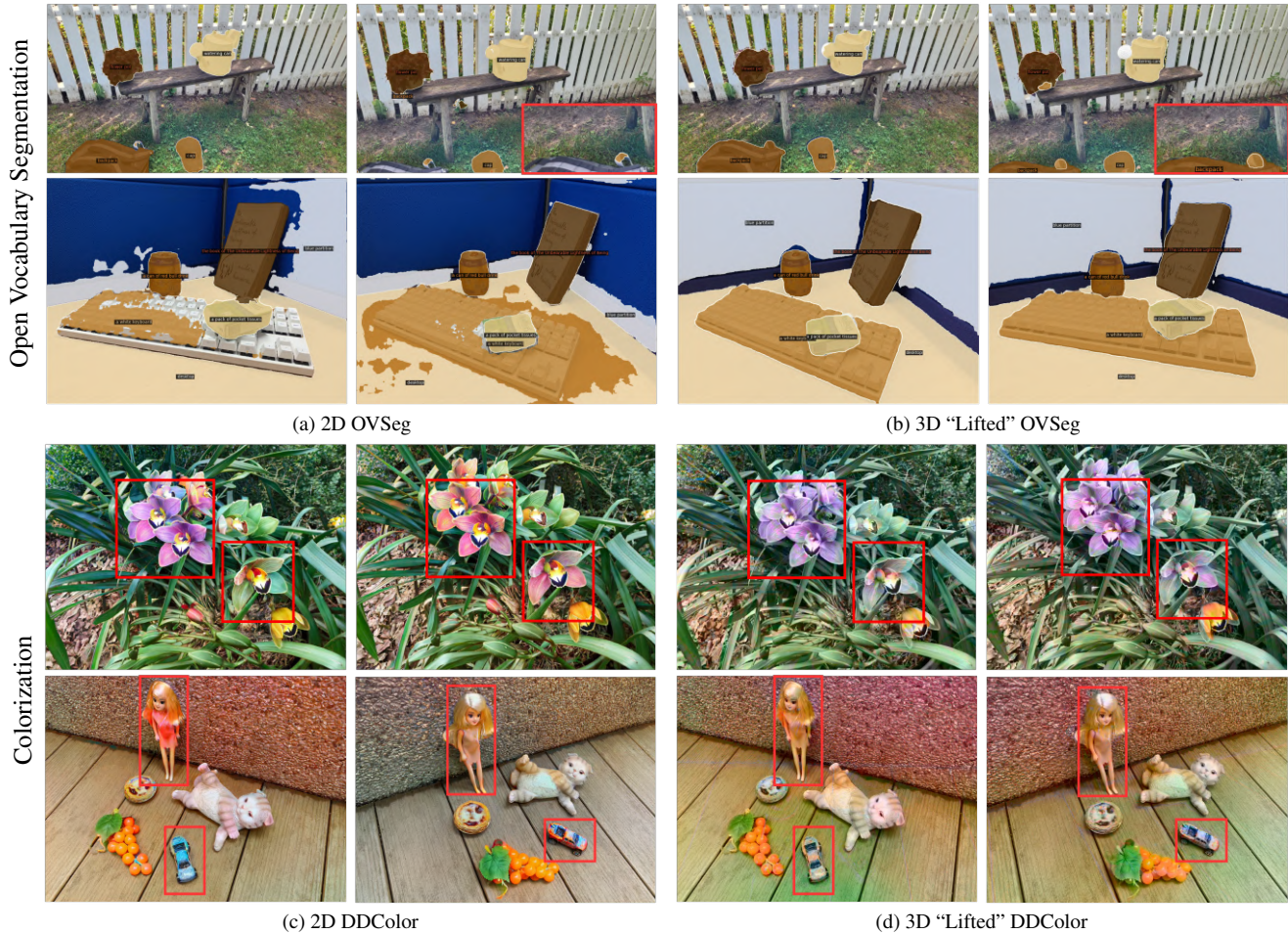


Figure 7. Qualitative results on open vocabulary segmentation and colorization, across two views. Our 3D “lifted” features can successfully segment occluded objects (row 1) and with superior quality (row 2). Moreover, they also show improved view consistency compared to the 2D operation in both tasks.

By using multi-view information our model can reason about occlusions and other variabilities across arbitrary viewpoints, resulting in enhanced segmentation masks.

Image Colorization. The image colorization task utilizes grayscale multi-view images to generate plausible colored NeRF scenes. The ambiguity in 2D image colorization leads to severe multi-view inconsistencies and we verify if our proposed strategy can rectify them by adhering to multi-view geometry. We leverage SOTA single view colorization technique DDColor [22] and construct a 3D feature volume that can be decoded to estimate the colored image. Figs. 7c and 7d compare the lifted 3D features against 2D image colorization of each view individually. We can clearly see that our method ensures consistent colors across different views while preserving a similar output quality as the original network. These results clearly verify the adaptability of our proposed pipeline to several tasks.

6. Conclusion

We present *Lift3D*, a generalizable system that can lift any 2D visual model to synthesize view-consistent feature predic-

tions without training with data from downstream tasks. Our method essentially learns to rectify and propagate predicted feature maps of source views to synthesize the feature map for the novel view. Our algorithm mitigates inconsistencies among source view predictions, and generates view-smooth predictions at the target view. We demonstrate that Lift3D is merely pre-trained on DINO and CLIP features but can directly generalize to a wide range of 2D vision models, empowering various applications, including semantic segmentation, stylization, instructed scene editing, and many others. All empirical observations endorse that Lift3D can be a crucial component in bringing the recent advancement of 2D vision models to the 3D domain.

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