SceneRF: Self-Supervised Monocular 3D Scene Reconstruction with Radiance Fields — Supplementary Material —

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In this supplementary material, we begin by discussing the broader impact and ethics of our work. We then present additional ablations in Sec. 1 along with further implementation details in Sec. 3. After that, we demonstrate in Sec. 2 that \mathcal{L}_{reproj} improves all baselines. Details of the baselines are presented in Sec. 4. Finally, we show additional qualitative results in Sec. 5. The supplementary video, which is available at https://astra-vision.github.io/SceneRF/, allows better evaluation of our method.

Broader impact, Ethics. The promotion of selfsupervised monocular 3D reconstruction contributes to alleviating the needs of costly data acquisition and labeling campaigns. On the long term, this also paves the way to 3D algorithms training directly on video sequences – easier to collect and significantly more diverse than existing 3D datasets. A by-product is that it would contribute to improving generalization of 3D reconstruction. While there are no ethical concerns specific to our proposed method, we note that all methods estimating 3D from 2D are far less precise than those leveraging depth sensors (*e.g.*, lidar, depth cameras, stereo, etc.). When it comes to safety-critical applications, like autonomous driving, we argue for use of redundant sensors.

1. Additional ablations

Sampling strategy. In Tab. 1 we illustrate the effect of varying step (ρ) and angle (ϕ) when sampling novel depths/views in our scene reconstruction scheme (main paper, Sec. 3.4). As noted in Sec. 4 of the main paper, the views are sampled up to a distance of 10m on SemanticKITTI [2] and 2m on BundleFusion [7]. Increasing the number of synthesized depth maps (i.e., reducing the step ρ) and varying the angle (ϕ) generally improves the IoU score. However, excessively large angle ($\geq 20^{\circ}$ on SemanticKITTI [2], $\geq 30^{\circ}$ on BundleFusion [2]) tends to degrade performance since the synthesized angle diverges significantly from the available angles during training. This

step (m)	rot. (deg.)	IoU	Prec.	Rec.					
					step (m)	rot. (deg.)	IoU	Prec.	Rec.
w/o s	sampling	11.80	19.91	22.47					
0.25	-10/0/+10	13.73	16.98	41.78	w/o s	sampling	17.33	20.13	55.43
0.5	-10 / 0 / +10	13.84	17.28	40.96	0.1	-20 / 0 / +20	20.34	25.70	49.28
1.0	0	13.08	18.56	30.68	0.2	0	18.76	26.43	39.28
1.0	-10 / 0 / +10	13.40	17.27	37.43	0.2	-10 / 0 / +10	19.94	25.80	46.76
1.0	-20/0/+20	13.37	16.73	39.97	0.2	-20 / 0 / +20	20.16	25.82	47.92
1.0	-30/0/+30	13.24	16.40	40.73	0.2	-30/0/+30	19.98	25.90	46.64
2.0	-10/0/+10	13.35	17.41	36.35	0.3	-20/0/+20	19.84	25.84	46.09

(a) SemanticKITTI [2]

(b) BundleFusion [7]

Table 1: **Sampling for reconstruction.** Performance of our reconstruction scheme when varying our sampling steps (ρ) and angles (ϕ) (val. set). The highlighted row is our main setup.

Novel depth synthesis								Novel	view sv	nthesis
Method	Abs Rel↓	$Sq \; Rel {\downarrow}$	RMSE↓	RMSE log↓	$\delta 1 \uparrow$	$\delta 2 \uparrow$	$\delta 3\uparrow$	LPIPS↓	SSIM↑	PSNR ↑
PixelNeRF	0.6332	2.370	1.786	0.5722	48.01	73.82	84.09	0.421	0.770	19.36
MINE	0.1712	0.085	0.368	0.2214	70.74	93.42	98.46	0.430	0.714	20.21
VisionNerf	0.6384	2.813	1.934	0.5721	59.25	78.62	84.37	0.391	0.790	19.67
SceneRF	0.1581	0.069	0.330	0.1921	75.81	96.80	99.66	0.404	0.801	24.02

Table 2: **BundleFusion.** Train on 6 scenes and evaluate on 2 scenes.

is particularly pertinent in the context of autonomous driving setups with front-facing cameras, where there is limited peripheral supervision.

BundleFusion evaluation on more sequences. For completeness, we retrain on 6 sequences (apt0, apt1, apt2, office1, office2, office3) with 2 validation sequences of unseen rooms (copyroom, office0) to show generalization. The results are shown in Tab. 2 and show that SceneRF still surpasses all baselines on all 10 metrics except LPIPS. This is on par with Tab. 1 of the main paper.

2. Effect of \mathcal{L}_{reproj} on NeRF baselines

In Tab. 3, we apply the reprojection loss \mathcal{L}_{reproj} (Sec. 3.1.1 main paper) to all NeRF baselines, showing that

Novel depth synthesis								Novel view synthesis			
Method	\mathcal{L}_{reproj}	Abs Rel↓	Sq Rel↓	RMSE↓	RMSE log↓	$\delta 1\uparrow$	$\delta 2\uparrow$	$\delta 3\uparrow$	LPIPS↓	SSIM↑	PSNR↑
PixelNeRF [16]	×	0.2364	2.080	6.449	0.3354	65.81	85.43	92.90	0.489	0.466	15.80
	√	0.1986	1.544	5.963	0.3093	70.30	87.19	93.82	0.488	0.481	16.11
MINE [8]	×	0.2248	1.787	6.343	0.3283	65.87	85.52	93.30	0.448	0.496	16.03
	√	0.2003	1.599	6.023	0.3070	70.22	86.98	93.89	0.445	0.497	15.96
VisionNerf [10]	×	0.2054	1.490	5.841	0.3073	69.11	88.28	94.37	0.468	0.483	16.49
	√	0.1749	1.380	5.643	0.2841	75.77	89.25	94.58	0.432	0.488	16.39

Table 3: **Reprojection loss** \mathcal{L}_{reproj} on other baselines. We apply our reprojection loss to other NeRF baselines, showing it boosts performance for all.

it improves consistently all of them. Again, we argue this is because \mathcal{L}_{reproj} enforces better density (σ) in the volume rendering – which has a complementary effect with \mathcal{L}_{rgb} .

3. Additional implementation details

3.1. Probabilistic ray sampling (PrSamp) details

For clarity, in Algorithm 1, we detail the pseudocode of the Probabilistic Ray Sampling (Sec. 3.2, main paper).

3.2. 3D reconstruction details

Fusing TSDFs. From Sec. 3.4 of the main paper, we fuse individual TSDFs by taking the minimum of their absolute values ('min') instead of the more standard average of all TSDFs ('avg'). We justify this choice, in Tab. 4 showing that using 'min' leads to +2.77 IoU. We argue that some surfaces may be better estimated from specific camera locations. Averaging all ('avg') has a smoothing effect on $V(\cdot)$ which subsequently reduces accuracy.

Occupancy grid. To convert the scene TSDF volume $V(\cdot)$ (cf. Sec. 3.4, main paper) into an occupancy grid, we first study the depth estimation error. Comparing 100 frames in Fig. 1 with sparse Lidar ground truth, we note a linear relation between error estimation and ground truth depth. This motivated us to model the occupancy grid $O(\cdot)$ as an adaptive depth threshold:

$$O(v) = 1 \iff \mathbf{V}(v) < \min(0.25d_v, 4.0), \qquad (1)$$

with v a voxel in V, and d_v its distance to the camera origin. We arbitrarily cap the threshold to 4 meters to avoid considering all far voxels as occupied.

3.3. Network architecture

For 2D features extraction, the encoder is similar to [5], which is based on a pre-trained EfficientNetB7 [15]. The spherical decoder has 5 layers, each of which doubles the input resolution and halves the feature dimension. To make up for the large amount of empty space that comes with increasing the field of view, we augment the receptive field by putting three ResNet blocks with dilation sizes of 1, 2, and



Figure 1: Absolute depth error w.r.t. ground-truth depth. We compute error from 100 randomly selected scenes in the training set, and observe a linear relation between error and distance.

3 in each layer. The skip connections (described in Sec. 3.3 main paper) are used between the encoder and decoder at the corresponding scale.

3.4. BundleFusion – 3D ground-truth

We seek to generate for each input frame the 3D groundtruth occupancy grid. To do this, we use the camera parameters and define a volume of (4.8m, 4.8m, 3.84m) in front of the camera. The origin is set at (-2.4m, -2.4m, 0m) such that the camera is in the middle of one side of the volume and pointing inward. We then combine the depth maps to create the TSDF volume with a voxel size of 0.04m, resulting in a TSDF grid of size (120, 120, 96). Finally, the occupancy grid is obtained by thresholding the TSDF grid.

4. Baselines details

We re-train all baseline networks, including the novel depth/view synthesis (Sec. 4.1) and scene reconstruction baselines (Sec. 4.2). We provide the reader with additional details about our baselines.

4.1. Novel depth/views baselines

We train our method and baselines using AdamW [12] optimizer on 4 Tesla V100 32g with learning rate of 1e-5 for 50 epochs. For each baseline, we rely on the recommended learning rate scheduler and number of positional encoding

	Input: Ray r.	
	Param: Number of Gaussians k, and m number of points per Gaussian.	
	Near and far bounds: $t_n = 0.2m$ and $t_f = 100m$.	
	Learning rate lr of gradient descend (GD).	
	Result: Points sampled \mathcal{P}	
1	$\mathbf{d} \leftarrow \texttt{dir}(\mathbf{r})$	
	// Uniform sampling (•)	
2	$\mathcal{I} \leftarrow \{\texttt{uniform-samp}(\texttt{num=}k, \texttt{start=}t_n, \texttt{end=}t_f) \times \mathbf{d}\}$	Points sampling between near and far bounds
	// (1) Predicts Gaussians (\mathcal{G}) with MLP $g(\cdot)$	
3	$\mathcal{G} \leftarrow g(\{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{W}(\psi(\mathbf{x}))) \mid \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{I}\})$	
	// (2) Sample <i>m</i> points from Gaussians (
4	$\mathcal{P} \leftarrow \emptyset$	
5	for $i \leftarrow 1$ to k do	
6	$\mathcal{P} \leftarrow \mathcal{P} \cup ext{gauss-sampling}(\mathcal{G}_i, m)$	
7	end	
	// Sample 32 points uniformly ()	
8	$\mathcal{P} \leftarrow \mathcal{P} \cup \{\texttt{uniform-samp}(\texttt{num=32}, \texttt{start=}t_n, \texttt{end=}t_f) \times \mathbf{d}\}$	
	<pre>// (3)-(4) NeRF inference to compute densities</pre>	
9	$\sigma \leftarrow \{f(\gamma(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{d}; \mathbf{W}(\psi(\mathbf{x})))_{\sigma} \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{P}\}$	\triangleright Densities from $f(\cdot)$ inferences Eq.(1), main paper
	<pre>// (5) PrSOM point-Gaussian assignment</pre>	
10	$\alpha \leftarrow \{ \texttt{alpha-value}(s, \dots) \forall s \in \sigma \}$	▷ Compute alpha values from [13] p3
11	$\mathcal{X} \leftarrow \{\texttt{PrSOM}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{P}, \alpha)\}$	▷ Applies PrSOM [1]
	// (6) Compute new Gaussians from assigned points and update $g(\cdot)$	
12	$\mathcal{G}' \leftarrow \{(\mu(\mathcal{X}_i), \operatorname{std}(\mathcal{X}_i)) \forall i \in \mathbb{N}, 1 <= i <= k\}$	
13	$\mathcal{L}_{ ext{gauss}} \leftarrow rac{1}{k} \sum_{i}^{k} ext{Kullback-Leibler}(\mathcal{G}_{i} \mathcal{G}_{i}')$	
14	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{surface}} \leftarrow \min_i(\mu(\mathcal{G}'_i) - \hat{D}(\mathbf{r}) _1)$	
15	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} \leftarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{gauss}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{surface}}$	
16	$g \leftarrow { t GD}^{\iota r}(g, abla {\mathcal L}_{ ext{total}})$	\triangleright Applies gradient-descent to update $g(\cdot)$

Method	IoU	Prec.	Rec.
SceneRF (avg)	11.07	11.81	63.98
SceneRF (min)	13.84	17.28	40.96

Table 4: **TSDF fusion strategy comparison on SemanticKITTI** [2]. We show that our way of extracting the TSDF described in section 3.4 is better than the traditional way of using the weighted average of TSDFs.

frequencies. For our network, since we build on Pixel-NeRF [16], we use its scheduler and number of frequencies. The ray batch size was 1200 for Semantic KITTI [2] and 2048 for BundleFusion [7]. The training time was around 5 days per network. Additional information about the base-lines implementations is provided below.

PixelNeRF [16]. We use the official implementation¹. Following the official sampling strategy, we sample 96 points per ray, consisting of 64 coarse points, which are used to sample 16 fine points hierarchically and 16 points around the estimated depth.

MINE [8]. We use the official implementation². To balance memory cost, we use the 32 planes version.

VisionNeRF [10]. We use the official implementation³. To balance memory cost again, we sample 96 points (32 coarse, 64 fine) which is more than for SceneRF.

4.2. Scene reconstruction baselines

Only MonoScene⁴ is a monocular baseline. To better compare with the literature, we follow the recommendation of MonoScene authors [5] and compare against the ^{rgb} versions of popular semantic scene completion baselines: LMSCNet⁵ [14], 3DSketch⁶ [6] and AICNet⁷ [9]. More in depth, to convert the sequence of depths into 3D label to train the scene reconstruction baselines, we use the Adabin [3] model to predict the depth for each image and fuse all depths into a single TSDF volume, then turned into an occupancy grid with the same reconstruction scheme as for SceneRF (see Sec. 3.2). For all, the mesh is obtained with the traditional marching cubes [11].

5. Additional qualitative results

Voxelized reconstructions on SemanticKITTI [2]. Fig. 2 shows the voxelized reconstructions comparing our

https://github.com/sxyu/pixel-nerf

²https://github.com/vincentfung13/MINE

³https://github.com/ken2576/vision-nerf

⁴https://github.com/cv-rits/MonoScene

⁵https://github.com/cv-rits/LMSCNet ⁶https://github.com/charlesCXK/TorchSSC

⁷https://github.com/waterljwant/SSC

self-supervised SceneRF with the *Depth-supervised* version of MonoScene [5] which relies on AdaBins [3] trained with Lidar ground truth. Notably, despite less supervision the predictions of SceneRF align closely with those of MonoScene in terms of overall scene architecture, object shapes, and positioning. Intriguingly, SceneRF infers the sky more accurately, attributed to the 3D consistency gained from optimizing the radiance volume. On the other hand, MonoScene struggles to predict sky arguably because AdaBins trains with lidar depth which cannot capture the sky. Nevertheless, occlusions artefacts are visible in both due to monocular supervision.

SemanticKITTI [2]. We show additional qualitative results in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. Overall, our method predicts smoother and finer depth maps, especially at far, which leads to a better-structured 3D scene with fewer artifacts than the baselines. When synthesizing RGB images, our approach achieves comparable results to other baseline methods.

BundleFusion [7]. We present further qualitative results in Fig. 5, which demonstrates that SceneRF produces more accurate depth maps than other methods, especially for views that significantly differ from the input view (as observed in columns "+0.2m, -20° " and "+0.4m, $+20^{\circ}$ "). Moreover, SceneRF is the only method capable of inferring scenery that is not visible in the input field-of-view, which is particularly evident in the first and third rows.

Generalization results on nuScenes [4]. Using the SceneRF model trained on Semantic KITTI [2], we perform inference on *unseen* nuScenes images. Additional qualitative results obtained are presented in Fig. 6. Despite the vastly different setup between the two datasets, such as differences in camera setups and locations (Germany versus USA), SceneRF is able to predict a reasonable scene structure that included *e.g.*, road, building, and vehicles.

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Figure 2: Voxelized reconstructions on SemanticKITTI (val set).

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Input	Input Method 3D mesh			Novel view		
input	Wethou	SD mesh	$+1m, 0^{\circ}$	$+3m, -10^{\circ}$	$+5m, +10^{\circ}$	$+5m, +10^{\circ}$
	PixelNeRF			and the		
	MINE		and the second			
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF					
	PixelNeRF					
	MINE					
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF					
	PixelNeRF				No.	
	MINE					
	VisionNeRF				Benda	
	SceneRF			and the	1-ALT	
	PixelNeRF					
	MINE					
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF			I CAL	A.L	

Figure 3: Additional qualitative results on SemanticKITTI [2] (val.).

Input	Input Method 3D mesh			Novel view		
mpat	Wiethou	5D mesn	$+1m, 0^{\circ}$	$+3m, -10^{\circ}$	$+5m, +10^{\circ}$	$+5m, +10^{\circ}$
	PixelNeRF					
	MINE					
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF					
	PixelNeRF			STAR -		
	MINE		and the second	De la compañía de la		
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF		- m	- States	- Ange	
	PixelNeRF					
	MINE					
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF		1 and 1			
	PixelNeRF					
	MINE					
	VisionNeRF					
	SceneRF					

Figure 4: Additional qualitative results on SemanticKITTI [2] (val.).

Input	Method	3D mesh		Novel view		
1		(w/ our recons. scheme)	+0.2m, 0°	$+0.2$ m, -20°	$+0.4$ m, $+20^{\circ}$	$+0.4$ m, $+20^{\circ}$
	PixelNeRF	Correction of the second				
	MINE	and the second	A LEAD			
	VisionNeRF	North.				
	SceneRF			7		
	PixelNeRF					
	MINE		a and a second			
	VisionNeRF				57	
	SceneRF					
	PixelNeRF	VS-1				الم المراجع
	MINE	A RUE			T	
	VisionNeRF			×		
	SceneRF			1A		میں است میں ا 19

Figure 5: Additional qualitative results on BundleFusion [7] (val.).



Figure 6: Additional generalization results on nuScenes [4]. The model is trained only on SemanticKITTI [2].