

SparseRecon: Neural Implicit Surface Reconstruction from Sparse Views with Feature and Depth Consistencies

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Abstract

Surface reconstruction from sparse views aims to reconstruct a 3D shape or scene from few RGB images. However, existing generalization-based methods do not generalize well on views that were unseen during training, while the reconstruction quality of overfitting-based methods is still limited by the limited geometry clues. To address this issue, we propose SparseRecon, a novel neural implicit reconstruction method for sparse views with volume rendering-based feature consistency and uncertainty-guided depth constraint. Firstly, we introduce a feature consistency loss across views to constrain the neural implicit field. This design alleviates the ambiguity caused by insufficient consistency information of views and ensures completeness and smoothness in the reconstruction results. Secondly, we employ an uncertainty-guided depth constraint to back up the feature consistency loss in areas with occlusion and insignificant features, which recovers geometry details for better reconstruction quality. Experimental results demonstrate that our method outperforms the state-of-the-art methods, which can produce high-quality geometry with sparse-view input, especially in the scenarios on small overlapping views.

1. Introduction

As one of the important tasks in computer vision, 3D reconstruction has attracted lots of research attentions in recent years. With the advancement of deep learning, 3D reconstruction using neural implicit representations based on point clouds [25, 32, 54, 55] or images [22, 35, 44, 56] becomes a popular research topic. Although existing methods [5, 35, 37, 40, 44, 52] that directly use images have made great progress in terms of the reconstruction quality and reconstruction speed, they require a large number of dense views as supervision. When the number of available views is limited, current reconstruction methods usually struggle to reconstruct high-quality surfaces.

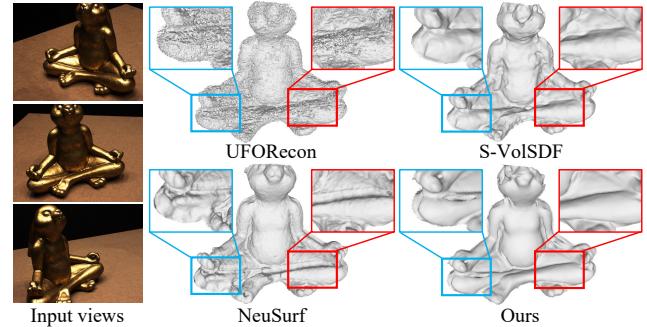


Figure 1. Given only 3 input images with large view angle change, our method can reconstruct a smoother surface compared to the state-of-the-art methods, such as UFORecon [27], S-VoISDF [39] and NeuSurf [13]. The details of each surface are shown in the colored boxes.

Existing methods for sparse view reconstruction can be mainly classified into two categories: generalization-based methods and overfitting-based methods. The generalization-based methods [21, 23, 27, 29, 30] emphasize the generalization of sparse-view reconstruction, but they are mainly effective in scenarios with large view overlaps. In cases with views that were unseen during training, the quality of the reconstructed surface degenerates significantly, as shown in Figure 1. Meanwhile, it takes a long time to pre-train these methods on large-scale data. Instead, overfitting-based methods [13, 14, 39, 45, 46] typically fit the 3D geometry directly from the sparse views by leveraging geometry clues. They show promising capability in reconstructing higher-quality geometric surfaces with small-overlapping views. However, the reconstruction quality of the existing methods is still unsatisfactory.

In this paper, we introduce a multi-view feature consistency loss based on volume rendering and an uncertainty-guided depth constraint to learn neural signed distance functions. This approach allows us to achieve high-quality mesh reconstruction on more challenging sparse views with small overlap.

058 For the *feature consistency loss*, we first employ the pre-
059 trained Vis-MVSNet [49] to obtain depth features from the
060 input images. Then, within a neural implicit rendering
061 framework, the sampled 3D points along the rays emitted
062 from the reference image are projected to the source image
063 and the reference image. This allows us to acquire source
064 features and reference features of each 3D point and mea-
065 sure the similarity between these two kinds of features. Fi-
066 nally, the feature similarity for each 3D point along the rays
067 is accumulated through volume rendering, thus yielding the
068 feature similarity associated with the rays. During opti-
069 mization, we pursue higher feature similarity along the rays.
070 Since the depth information is implicitly encoded with im-
071 age features, feature consistency constraint can significantly
072 alleviate the ambiguity issues arising from insufficient con-
073 sistency of sparse views and low-texture during reconstruc-
074 tion.

075 For the *uncertainty-guided depth prior constraint*, we
076 follow MonoSDF [46], utilizing a pre-trained network to
077 acquire depth priors for each image, and then use it to con-
078 strain the regions with uncertain depth. However, monocular
079 depth priors do not have consistent scales to the ground
080 truth depth, which are hard to get calibrated to ground truth
081 either due to the distortion. To effectively leverage the
082 depth priors and provide proper supervision for occluded
083 or under-constrained regions, we propose an uncertainty-
084 guided depth prior constraint. First, we calibrate the depth
085 priors using sparse point clouds obtained from COLMAP
086 [31]. Then, during training, we compute the depth confi-
087 dence from the rendered depth and impose the depth prior
088 constraint only in regions with low confidence. This con-
089 straint helps infer more accurate geometry in occluded or
090 under-constrained regions, minimizing the negative impact
091 of depth prior errors on well-constrained regions.

092 We evaluate our methods on several widely used bench-
093 marks and report the state-of-the-art results. In summary,
094 our main contributions are as follows.

- 095 • We propose a novel feature consistency loss based on vol-
096 ume rendering. It can effectively constrains the neural
097 radiance field by leveraging feature consistency among
098 multiple views, improving the performance in sparse-
099 view reconstruction tasks.
- 100 • By incorporating depth confidence, we utilize the cali-
101 brated depth prior more effectively to enhance geometric
102 constraints, further improving the reconstruction quality.
- 103 • Extensive experiments on the well-known datasets, such
104 as DTU [16] and BlendedMVS[43], demonstrate that our
105 method outperforms existing sparse-view reconstruction
106 methods and achieve the state-of-the-art results.

2. Related Work

2.1. Neural Implicit Reconstruction

109 Neural implicit reconstruction methods [5, 7, 20, 35–37, 40,
110 44, 46], have been rapidly developed based on neural vol-
111 ume rendering [26]. These methods introduce the Signed
112 Distance Function (SDF) as the implicit representation of
113 3D surfaces in volume rendering, achieving multi-view 3D
114 reconstruction. While these methods have made significant
115 improvements in both reconstruction quality and speed, it
116 is important to note that they heavily rely on multiple view-
117 points during the optimization.

118 **Generalization-based surface reconstruction with**
119 **sparse views.** In order to directly generalize the reconstruc-
120 tion results on sparse views, methods [21, 23, 27, 29, 30, 41]
121 adopt the strategy of aggregating features from multiple
122 view images to construct a feature volume, which is then
123 used to predict the SDF for reconstructing the surface. Vol-
124 Recon [30] uses transformers [17] to aggregate multi-view
125 features, C2F2NeUS [41] employs cascade architecture to
126 construct a volume pyramid, while ReTR [21] and UFORe-
127 con [27] aggregates multi-level features. These methods
128 require pretraining on large-scale datasets, which typically
129 takes several days. Moreover, when there is a significant
130 domain gap between the testing and training data, they all
131 fail to reconstruct shapes effectively.

132 **Overfitting-based surface reconstruction with sparse**
133 **views.** In contrast, overfitting-based methods directly fit
134 the 3D geometry from the sparse images by geometric prior
135 constraints. MonoSDF [46] employs depth and normal pri-
136 ors to achieve sparse reconstruction with small-overlapping
137 views. However, such priors come with errors, and it does
138 not fully leverage inter-view consistency, resulting in lower
139 reconstruction quality. S-VolSDF [39] employs probability
140 volumes obtained from MVS [9] models to guide the ren-
141 dering weight estimated by VolSDF [44]. This improves the
142 reconstruction results in sparse views with small overlap.
143 However, the uncertainties in volumes make negative im-
144 pact on the reconstruction surface, leading to surface rough-
145 ness or significant defects. More recently, NeuSurf [13]
146 leverages sparse point clouds and employs CAP-UDF [54]
147 to construct an implicit geometric prior to improve the re-
148 construction quality of sparse views. However, when the
149 sparse point cloud fails to cover the majority of positions on
150 the object surface, effective implicit geometric prior infor-
151 mation cannot be obtained, which does not improve the re-
152 construction quality. In contrast, our method employs more
153 robust feature priors, calculates feature consistency based
154 on volume rendering, and simultaneously utilizes depth pri-
155 ors to optimize the occluded regions, ultimately resulting in
156 high-quality geometric surface.

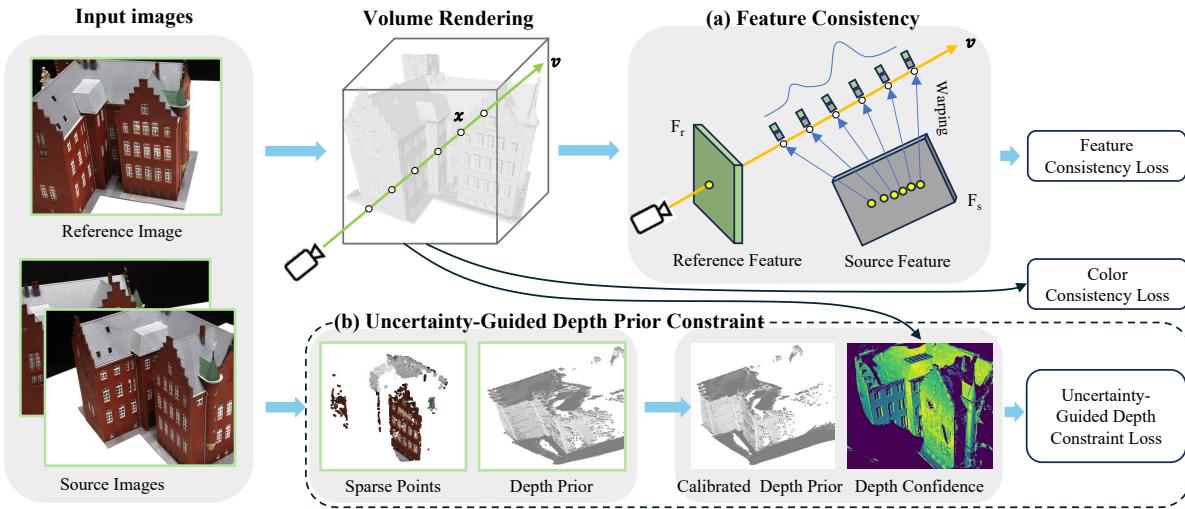


Figure 2. SparseRecon consists of two main parts. (a) Volume rendering-based feature consistency constraint. We extract features from the reference image and source images. For a ray emitted from the reference image, we project each sampled point on the ray onto the source images to obtain the corresponding features. Then, the volume rendering-based feature consistency loss is calculated using the corresponding features on the reference image. (b) Uncertainty-guided depth prior constraint. We use another pre-trained network to obtain the depth prior of the reference image and calibrate it with the sparse point cloud obtained by COLMAP. Then, we calculate the confidence of the rendered depth, so that the calibrated depth prior only constrains areas with low confidence.

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2.2. Gaussian Splatting.

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Gaussian Splatting [18] has achieved unprecedented optimization speed and rendering quality in the task of novel view synthesis. However, since the Gaussians are unorganized, the discrete and unstructured points make it difficult to extract 3D surfaces through post-processing. To address this issue, some methods introduce regularization terms [10], convert 3D Gaussians to 2D surfels [4, 12], acquire opacity fields through rays [47], improve the depth rendering algorithm [1] of 3DGS, or jointly optimize 3DGS with neural radiance fields [2, 24, 53]. However, these methods are only applicable to dense views. Recently, FatesGS [14] achieves fast sparse-view reconstruction by leveraging depth priors and on-surface feature consistency constraints. However, due to the poor convergence of the on-surface feature consistency constraint and the inaccuracy of the depth priors, the reconstruction results still exhibit roughness or noticeable defects.

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2.3. Sparse View Synthesis.

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In addition, the novel view synthesis from sparse views is another category of work closely related to sparse view reconstruction. Depending on the technical framework, these works can be categorized into NeRF-based methods [6, 15, 28, 33, 34, 42, 48] and Gaussian Splatting-based methods [3, 11, 19, 51, 57]. This line of research also employs a limited number of views as input. However, they solely focus on the rendering quality of novel views rather than surface reconstruction, which are not designed specifi-

cally for the accurate geometric surface reconstruction. Due to the discernible bias (i.e. inherent geometric errors) [35] caused by the conventional volume rendering method or inconsistencies in depth that appear in Gaussian rendering, current sparse view synthesis methods still fail to correctly reconstruct high-fidelity geometric surfaces.

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3. Method

The overview of our method is depicted in Figure 2. We introduce a novel feature consistency loss and an uncertainty-guided depth constraint based on the NeuS [35] framework. In this section, we first explain how to compute feature consistency for sampled points along rays. Then we explain how to enhance geometric constraints using depth priors and depth uncertainty. Thirdly, we introduce the color consistency loss. Finally, we present the overall loss function for optimization.

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3.1. Volume Rendering-based Feature Consistency

First, we use a pre-trained MVS network [49] to extract the features from both the reference image and the source image. Given a ray emitted from the reference image, let $p_r(0)$ denote the point where a ray intersects the reference image. And for each point x_i along the ray, we denote its projection on the source image as $p_s(i)$. Then, we bilinearly interpolate $F_r(0)$ and $F_s(i)$ at points $p_r(0)$ and $p_s(i)$ on image features, respectively. Formally, we define the feature con-

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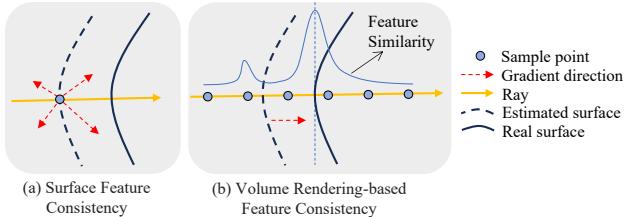


Figure 3. The illustration of (a) on-surface feature consistency and (b) feature consistency with volume rendering.

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sistency loss function as follows,

$$L_{feat} = M^{occ} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i f_{cos}(F_r(p_r(0)), F_s(p_s(i))) \right) \quad (1)$$

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where f_{cos} is the cosine similarity, and w_i corresponds to the weight for each point along the ray. $p_s(i) = K(Rx_i + t)$ is the projection of x_i in source view, and $[K; R; t]$ is the camera parameters of source view. M^{occ} is the occlusion mask.

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Although MVSD [50], NeuSurf [13] and FatesGS [14] also employ feature consistency constraints, they just leverage the intersection point between a camera ray and the object's surface. Then, this intersection point gets projected onto adjacent views to obtain the corresponding image features for the purpose of comparing features at this point across multiple views. In sparse view scenarios, the estimated positions of surface points can easily deviate significantly, making the on-surface feature consistency loss not converge. NeuSurf [13] and FatesGS [14] utilize sparse point clouds generated by COLMAP [31] as priors, enabling it to obtain partially accurate positions of surface points, thereby allowing the on-surface feature consistency loss to be more effectively leveraged. However, in regions of lacking surface points, the on-surface feature consistency loss cannot ensure the attainment of high-quality geometric surfaces.

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Figure 3 illustrates the difference between on-surface feature consistency and volume rendering-based feature consistency. Due to the uncertainty of gradient direction, the constraint solely relying on surface point features is challenging to be optimized. In contrast, our method does not require the prior estimation of surface points, it calculates feature consistency on all sampling points along the ray, and provides more reasonable and comprehensive supervision to the implicit field, thereby addressing the convergence issue that may arise in sparse reconstruction for MVSD [50] and NeuSurf [13].

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3.2. Uncertainty-Guided Depth Constraint

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Although multi-view features offer more robust constraint than image colors, they are ineffective for occluded regions.

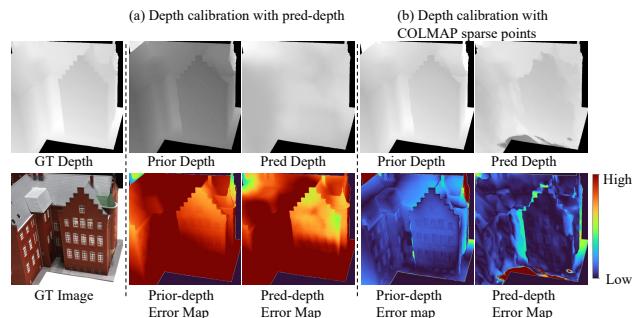


Figure 4. The illustration of predicted depth produced by different depth prior utilization methods, along with the corresponding error maps. (a) Calibrate the depth prior using the predicted depth during training. (b) Calibrate the depth prior using the COLMAP sparse point cloud.

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Due to the limited number of views, some regions may only be visible from a single viewpoint. To enhance geometric constraints, we employ depth priors to supervise the radiance field. However, monocular depth priors are not perfect and accurate. Although MonoSDF [46] has already taken the inaccuracy of depth priors into account, i.e., it aligns depth priors using rendered depth during training. However, the rendered depth during training is inaccurate, resulting in significant errors in the calibrated depth priors. This ultimately leads to the accumulation of errors during training, which results in inaccurate reconstructions. Figure 4 (a) shows the calibrated depth prior and rendered depth obtained by MonoSDF [46], as well as their error maps compared to the ground truth depth. It can be seen that both the calibrated depth prior and the rendered depth are with large errors. Therefore, MonoSDF [46] uses a weight annealing strategy to anneal the weight of depth loss to 0 during the first 200 training epochs.

Another trivial approach is to calibrate the depth priors using the sparse point cloud obtained from COLMAP [31]. Since the sparse points are generally located on the geometric surface of the object, their depth is relatively accurate. Therefore, calibrating the depth priors using the sparse point cloud can lead to more accurate depth priors. Figure 4 (b) shows the depth priors calibrated with the sparse point cloud, and the depth rendered with the depth priors as a constraint, as well as their error maps compared to the ground truth depth. It indicates that the depth priors calibrated to the point cloud from the COLMAP [31] are more accurate. Therefore, we can use them as a constraint leads to more precise rendered depth.

However, due to the distortions in monocular depth priors, it is impossible to perfectly align them with the ground truth depth. Even after calibration, the depth priors still exhibit noticeable errors when compared to the ground truth depth. In sparse view scenarios, occlusions and insufficient

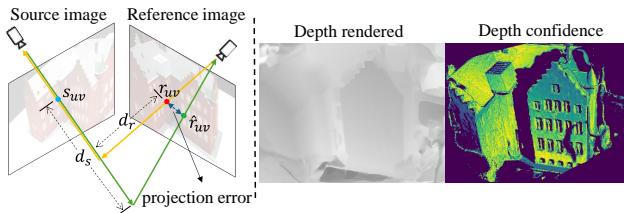


Figure 5. Left: the method of obtaining the confidence of rendered depth. Right: the rendered depth and the depth confidence.

constraints are more common, leading to significant discrepancies between the geometry of occluded regions and the real surface. Therefore, to achieve more accurate geometry in these under-constrained regions while avoiding the negative impact of depth prior errors on well-constrained regions, we propose an uncertainty-guided depth prior constraint method to more effectively utilize the depth priors. Specifically, we apply depth prior constraints in regions with depth uncertainty, while refraining from using them in regions with high depth confidence.

To obtain the confidence of the rendered depth, we employ a method to evaluate the multi-view depth projection consistency. As shown in Figure 5, for a specific pixel r_{uv} in the reference image with depth d_r , it can be mapped to a neighboring image through the homography matrix H_{rs} , leading to a pixel s_{uv} ,

$$s_{uv} = H_{rs}r_{uv}, \quad (2)$$

$$H_{rs} = M_s M_r^{-1}, \quad (3)$$

where M_r and M_s are the projection matrices corresponding to the reference and source views, respectively. Similarly, we can map the pixel s_{uv} in the source view to the reference view using the projection matrix H_{sr} and its corresponding depth d_s , resulting in \hat{r}_{uv} . The forward and backward projection distance error reflect the accuracy of depth predictions, so we take it as the depth confidence, which is defined as

$$C_d = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\epsilon \|r_{uv} - \hat{r}_{uv}\|}, & \text{if } \|r_{uv} - \hat{r}_{uv}\| \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } \|r_{uv} - \hat{r}_{uv}\| > 1 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The right side of Figure 5 shows the rendered depth and the corresponding depth confidence.

Correspondingly, the depth uncertainty is defined as $U_d = 1 - C_d$. Meanwhile, we can set a threshold τ for depth confidence C_d to obtain the occlusion mask $M^{occ} = \{C_d > \tau\}$.

For depth calibration, we leverage COLMAP [31] to obtain a sparse point cloud $\{X : x_1, x_2 \dots x_i \in R\}$ and visibility flags indicating which keypoints are visible from view I . Given the camera parameters P of view I , we estimate

the depth \bar{D}_i of keypoints by computing the distance from the visible keypoints x_i to the camera center o . Then, we calibrate the monocular depth prior \hat{D} with \bar{D}_i , it can be defined as $\bar{D} \approx a\hat{D} + b$, where a is the scale factor and b is the shift factor, obtained through the least squares method. Formally, the depth constraint loss is defined as,

$$L_{depth} = \sum_{r \in R} U_d \left\| (a\hat{D} + b) - D_{pred} \right\|^2. \quad (5)$$

3.3. Color Consistency Constraint

Although feature consistency constraint can ensure that the reconstruction does not suffer from severe artifacts, it does not provide sufficient supervision to reconstruct fine geometric details. Conversely, in cases with rich textures, image color constraint can refine the geometric details. Therefore, following the NeuralWarp [5], pixel warping loss and patch warping loss are used in our method as multi-view color consistency loss functions,

$$\begin{aligned} L_{color} = & \sum_{r \in R} M^{occ} d_{pixel}(C(r), C_s(r)) \\ & + \sum_{r \in R} M^{occ} d_{patch}(P(r), P_s(r)), \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where $C(r)$ and $C_s(r)$ are the ground truth color of the pixel from which the ray emits and the rendered color, respectively, $P(r)$ and $P_s(r)$ are the ground truth color of the patch corresponding to the ray and the rendered patch color, respectively. d_{pixel} is the loss metric for pixel color, where we use $L1$ loss as d_{pixel} . d_{patch} is the loss metric for patch color, where we use the Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM [38]) as d_{patch} .

3.4. Training Loss

In addition to the above-mentioned three loss functions, we also use the Eikonal loss [8] used in NeuS [35]. We define the overall loss function as follows:

$$L = L_{feat} + \alpha L_{depth} + L_{color} + \beta L_{eik}, \quad (7)$$

L_{eik} is the Eikonal loss [8], used to regularize the SDF values of sampled points, defined as

$$L_{eik.} = \frac{1}{mn} \sum_{i,k} (\|\nabla f(x_{i,k})\|_2 - 1)^2. \quad (8)$$

4. Experiments

4.1. Dataset

We evaluate our method on DTU [16] and BlendedMVS [43] dataset. For the DTU [16] dataset, to avoid using the scenes that have already been used as training data on the pretrained Vis-MVSNet [49] model, we select the same 11

Methods	21	24	34	37	38	40	82	106	110	114	118	Mean CD ↓
VolSDF [44]	5.47	4.38	3.15	7.38	1.88	6.70	5.19	4.67	2.79	1.32	1.83	4.07
NeuS [35]	5.63	3.58	6.00	4.60	2.57	4.53	1.91	4.18	5.46	1.19	4.16	3.98
NeuralWarp [5]	2.53	1.88	0.74	1.80	0.84	11.50	2.64	2.10	4.37	1.19	2.63	2.93
MonoSDF [46]	4.14	5.92	1.39	4.55	2.19	2.14	2.36	5.62	4.58	1.63	3.02	3.41
Vis-MVSNet [49]	3.39	4.44	0.85	3.36	1.69	3.35	3.35	2.34	2.16	0.74	1.83	2.50
MVSDF [50]	4.31	4.71	1.65	6.37	1.77	4.47	3.61	1.87	1.67	1.25	1.69	3.03
2DGS [12]	4.47	3.54	3.48	4.13	4.25	3.61	4.83	2.40	2.97	1.35	2.17	3.38
PGSR [1]	5.58	4.01	3.15	5.19	4.55	3.65	5.57	2.35	1.91	0.57	1.55	3.46
SparseNeuS _{ft} [23]	3.48	4.37	2.92	4.76	2.79	3.73	2.80	1.86	3.10	1.15	2.29	3.02
VolRecon [30]	2.72	3.07	1.82	4.32	2.14	3.04	3.00	2.56	2.81	1.49	3.22	2.75
GenS _{ft} [29]	5.86	7.67	3.62	8.57	5.37	5.41	5.48	6.04	5.29	4.69	4.35	5.67
ReTR [21]	2.67	3.37	1.62	3.68	1.87	3.40	3.67	2.84	2.85	1.56	2.35	2.72
UFORRecon [27]	1.84	1.52	0.79	2.58	1.00	<u>1.82</u>	<u>1.72</u>	1.20	0.93	0.66	1.26	1.39
S-VolSDF [39]	2.45	3.08	1.33	3.09	1.22	3.21	1.91	1.51	1.23	0.74	1.2	1.91
SparseCraft [45]	2.88	2.42	0.92	2.97	1.58	2.78	2.51	1.10	5.24	0.65	0.88	2.16
NeuSurf [13]	7.60	1.43	2.93	3.18	1.53	2.86	1.86	<u>1.09</u>	1.41	0.37	0.62	2.26
FatesGS [14]	3.98	<u>1.32</u>	2.53	2.85	3.36	2.71	3.76	1.49	<u>0.85</u>	0.47	1.06	2.22
Ours	<u>2.14</u>	1.26	0.72	1.46	<u>0.86</u>	1.39	1.37	0.94	<u>0.77</u>	<u>0.44</u>	<u>0.83</u>	1.11

Table 1. Quantitative results of Chamfer Distance (CD↓) on DTU dataset with 3 *small-overlapping* images. The methods are divided into three categories, from top to bottom: (1) dense-view reconstruction methods related to ours, (2) generalization-based sparse-view reconstruction methods, and (3) overfitting-based sparse-view reconstruction methods. the best results are in *bold*, the second best are *underlined*.

361 scenes as in S-VolSDF [39]. The image resolution is set
 362 to 1600×1200 . Similar to the S-VolSDF [39] and NeuSurf
 363 [13] methods, we select the views 22, 25, and 28 for the
 364 more challenging reconstruction of small overlaps.

365 For the BlendedMVS [43] dataset, we follow the S-
 366 VolSDF [39] to use the same 9 challenging scenes, with 3
 367 small-overlapping views for each scene. The image resolution
 368 is set to 768×576 .

4.2. Implementation Details

370 We use the same network architecture and initialization
 371 strategy as NeuS [35] and incorporated our volume ren-
 372 dering feature consistency loss, uncertainty-guided depth
 373 constraint loss, and color consistency loss. For the weight
 374 factors in the loss functions Eq. 7, we set the α for the
 375 uncertainty-guided depth prior constraint loss L_{depth} to 0.5
 376 and the β for the Eikonal loss L_{eik} to 0.1. Each scene
 377 is trained 100K iterations on a RTX3090 GPU. The patch
 378 warping term in the color consistency loss requires the sur-
 379 face point normals to calculate homographies, but the initial
 380 normals are too noisy [5], therefore, the patch warping loss
 381 is applied after 20k training steps. The threshold τ of the
 382 occlusion mask is set to 0.

4.3. Baseline

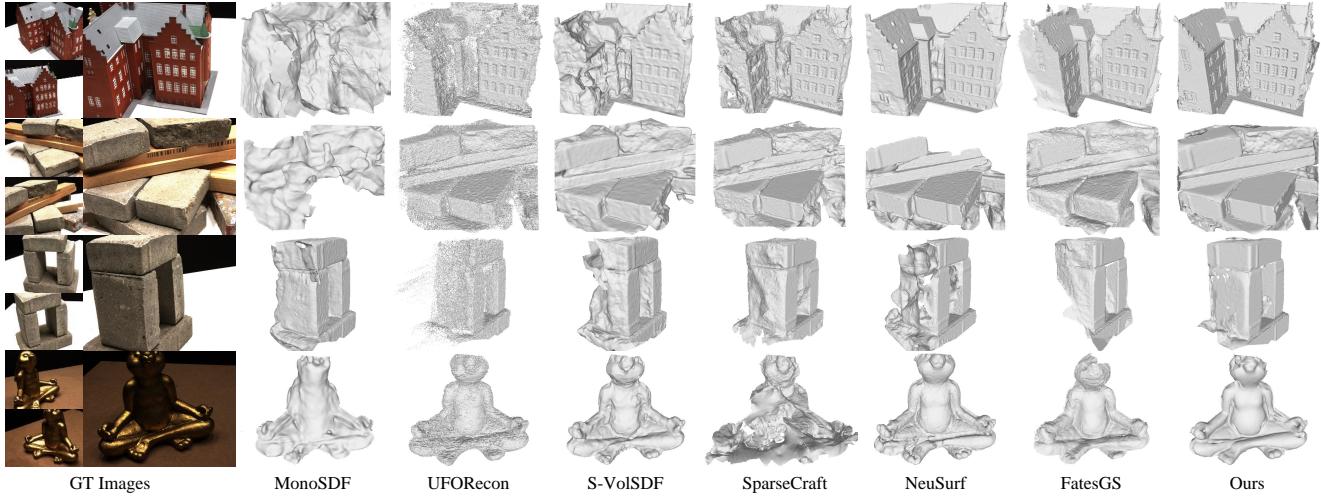
384 We compare our approach with three categories of meth-
 385 ods. *Dense-view methods*: NeuS [35], VolSDF [39], Neu-

ralWarp [5], Vis-MVSNet [49], MVSDF [50], 2DGS [12]
 386 and PGSR [1]. *Generalization-based methods*: SparseNeuS
 387 [23], VolRecon [30], GenS [29], ReTR [21] and UFOR-
 388 Recon [27]. *Overfitting-based methods*: S-VolSDF [39], Spar-
 389 seCraft [45], NeuSurf [13] and FatesGS [14]. The recon-
 390 struction results for SparseNeuS [23] and GenS [29] are
 391 fine-tuned using 3 views for each scene.

4.4. Comparisons

393 **Reconstruction on DTU.** For a comprehensive compar-
 394 ison, we evaluate the baselines and our method on both
 395 small-overlapping and large-overlapping views. Following
 396 baselines [13, 14, 23], we report the Chamfer Distance (CD)
 397 between the reconstruction surfaces and the ground truth
 398 point clouds. The CD results with small overlapping views
 399 are shown in Table 1. The meshes reconstructed by several
 400 methods using 3 views with small overlapping are shown
 401 in Fig. 6. For the generalization-based sparse reconstruc-
 402 tion methods, we only show the reconstruction results of
 403 the latest UFORRecon [27], as the reconstruction quality of
 404 other methods is lower than that of UFORRecon [27]. The
 405 experimental results show that our method significantly im-
 406 proves the mesh quality with small overlap views, compared
 407 to the state-of-the-art sparse-view reconstruction methods.
 408 The results of large overlapping views are presented in the
 409 supplementary materials.

410 As shown in Figure 6, when input sparse views with

Figure 6. Visual comparison on DTU dataset with 3 *small-overlapping* images.

412 small overlap, both MonoSDF [46] and SparseCraft [45]
 413 suffer from reconstruction ambiguity and failures, highlighting that relying solely on simplistic geometric prior
 414 constraints is insufficient to obtain complete and accurate
 415 meshes. UFRecon [27] shows significant roughness in its
 416 reconstruction results. S-VolSDF [39], NeuSurf [13] and
 417 FatesGS [14] exhibit noticeable reconstruction defects. Ex-
 418 perimental results demonstrate that our method is effective
 419 in alleviating geometric and appearance ambiguities during
 420 the optimization process. This significantly enhances the
 421 quality of mesh reconstruction, especially in scenarios with
 422 small overlapping views and low texture.
 423

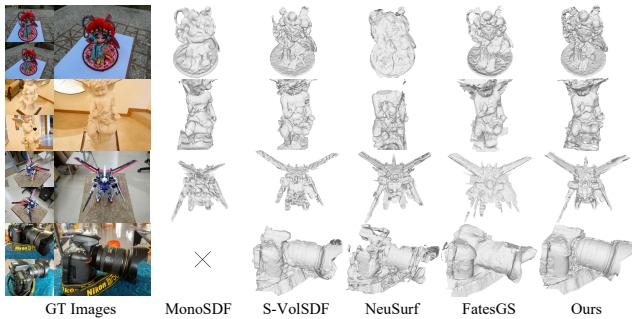


Figure 7. Visual comparison on BlendedMVS dataset. '×' indicates reconstruction failure.

424 **Reconstruction on BlendedMVS.** Figure 7 presents the
 425 visual comparison of reconstructed mesh for overfitting-
 426 based methods. With only 3 small-overlapping views pro-
 427 vided, all of the generalization-based methods completely
 428 fail to reconstruct in the sparse setting of BlendedMVS[43]
 429 dataset, even if SparseNeuS [23] is fine-tuned. Therefore,

430 the reconstruction results of these methods are not included
 431 in Figure 7. Compared to other methods, our approach can
 432 generate more complete and detailed meshes. Similarly,
 433 MonoSDF [46] fails to reconstruct either. The meshes gen-
 434 erated by S-VolSDF [39], NeuSurf [13] and FatesGS [14]
 435 exhibit significant defects. Both NeuSurf [13] and FatesGS
 436 [14] use on-surface feature consistency constraints, but the
 437 reconstruction results are still not good enough. In con-
 438 trast, our method achieves more comprehensive geometry
 439 and finer details by employing volume rendering-based fea-
 440 ture consistency constraints. This highlights the advantages
 441 of our approach in geometric consistency. More visualiza-
 442 tions are presented in the supplementary materials.

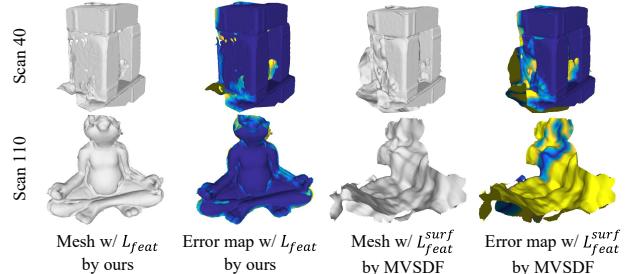


Figure 8. Reconstructed meshes and error maps on DTU dataset with different feature consistency losses.

4.5. Ablation Study

443 We evaluate the components of our method with 3 small-
 444 overlapping views by an ablation study on the DTU [16]
 445 dataset. To compare the depth loss L_{depth}^{mono} calibrated
 446 by rendered depth in MonoSDF [46] with our depth loss
 447 L_{depth} , we replace L_{depth} with L_{depth}^{mono} to evaluate it in
 448 our method. We also compare the volume rendering-based
 449

Method	L_{color}	L_{feat}	L_{depth}	L_{mono}^{depth}	L_{feat}^{L1}	L_{feat}^{L2}	L_{feat}^{surf}	$CD \downarrow$
Baseline	✓							3.35
	✓	✓						1.76
	✓		✓					1.47
	✓	✓	✓					1.62
	✓	✓	✓					1.11
	✓	✓		✓				1.59
	✓		✓		✓			2.36
	✓	✓				✓		1.81
	✓	✓					✓	2.93

Table 2. Ablation studies on DTU dataset with 3 small overlapping images.

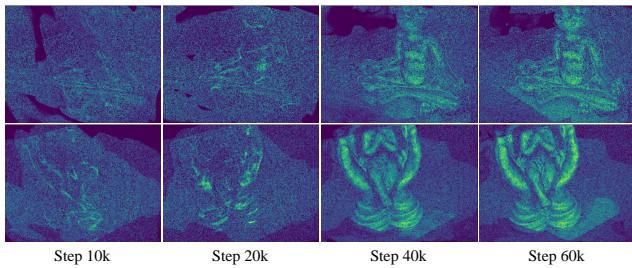


Figure 9. The variation of weighted feature similarity during training, brighter colors indicate higher feature similarity.

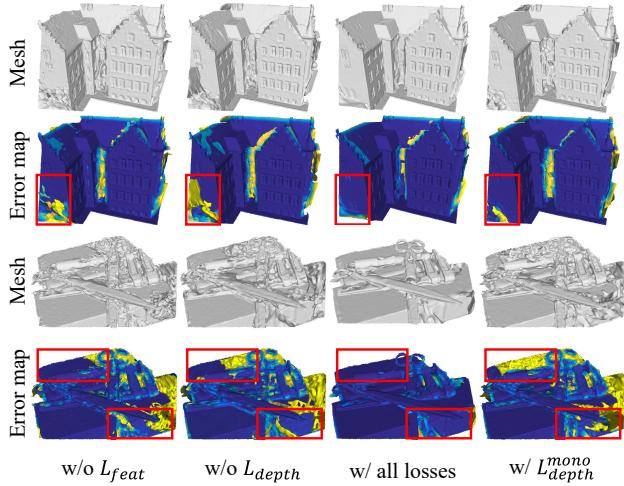


Figure 10. Visualization of reconstruction and error maps for scene scan24 and scan37 in DTU dataset with different losses. The differences of error maps are highlighted.

feature consistency loss calculated using L1 distance (denoted as L_{feat}^{L1}) and L2 distance (denoted as L_{feat}^{L2}) with our method using feature similarity distance. We found that feature similarity distance is better than both L1 and L2 distance, as shown in Table 2.

In addition, we replace our volume rendering-based feature consistency loss L_{feat} with the on-surface feature consistency loss L_{feat}^{surf} used in MVSDF [50] to compare the effects of two different loss functions. Figure 8 illustrates the

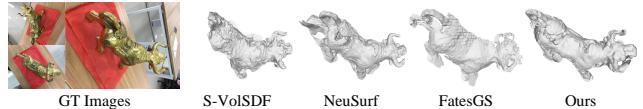


Figure 11. Failure case. For specular objects, the ambiguity in the color consistency constraint may lead to a rough surface.

reconstruction results and error maps on the DTU dataset when using different feature consistency losses, under the on-surface feature consistency loss L_{feat}^{surf} , the meshes show large artifacts.

Table 2 shows the average Chamfer Distance over all 11 scenes on DTU dataset using different losses. The experimental results indicate that both feature consistency loss and uncertainty-guided depth constraint improve the surface reconstruction.

Figure 9 illustrates the variation of the weighted feature similarity map during the training process. Brighter colors indicate higher feature similarity, demonstrating that our volume rendering-based feature consistency loss can provide effective constraints.

Figure 10 shows the reconstructed meshes and error maps for scene scan24 and scan37 on the DTU [16] dataset when using different losses. It can be observed that the mesh deteriorates without the volume rendering-based feature consistency loss or the uncertainty-guided depth constraint loss, and the reconstruction quality drops when using the depth loss L_{mono}^{depth} in MonoSDF [46].

5. Conclusions

We propose a novel method for learning implicit representations from sparse views with small overlaps. Our novelty lies in a novel volume rendering-based feature consistency loss and an uncertainty-guided depth constraint. Extensive experiments on the DTU [16] and BlendedMVS [43] datasets show that our method surpasses existing state-of-the-art sparse-view reconstruction methods in terms of reconstruction quality.

Limitations. Although our method shows significant improvement over other sparse view reconstruction methods, there are still some limitations. Firstly, for specular objects, the ambiguity in the color consistency constraint may lead to a rough surface, as shown in Figure 11. Secondly, Following previous studies [13, 23, 39], the camera poses of sparse views are obtained from the training dataset. However, in some cases, it may not be possible to obtain accurate camera poses using SfM methods like COLMAP [31] due to the lack of texture in the images or excessive viewing angles. Additionally, the feature consistency constraint method requires a pre-trained network to extract image features. The accuracy of the features determines the performance of the feature consistency constraint.

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