Learning Consistency-Aware Unsigned Distance Functions Progressively from Raw Point Clouds

Abstract

Surface reconstruction for point clouds is an important task in 3D computer vision. Current methods partly address this problem by learning signed distance functions (SDF), which are limited to closed shapes. Some recent methods try to represent non-closed shapes using unsigned distance functions (UDF) but require large scale ground truth distance values during training, which are not trivial to collect through sensors. In this paper, we propose a novel method to learn consistency-aware unsigned distance functions directly from raw point clouds. We achieve this by learning to move 3D queries to reach the surface with a field consistency constrain, where we also enable to progressively estimate a more accurate surface. Specifically, we train a neural network to successive investigate the relationship between 3D queries and the approximated surface by searching for the moving target of queries dynamically to establish a consistent field. Meanwhile, we introduce a polygonization algorithm to extract surfaces directly from the gradient vector field of the learned unsigned distance functions. The experimental results in surface reconstruction for synthetic and real scanned data show significant improvements over the state-of-the-art under the widely used benchmarks.

1 Introduction

Reconstructing surfaces from 3D point clouds is vital in 3D vision, robotics and graphics. It bridges the gap between the raw point clouds that can be captured by 3D sensors and the editable surfaces for various downstream applications. Recently, the Neural Implicit Functions (NIFs) have achieved promising results by training deep networks to learn Signed Distance Functions (SDFs) [31, 20, 30, 12] or Occupancies [28, 33, 29, 9], and then extract a polygonal mesh of a continuous iso-surface from a discrete scalar field using the marching cubes algorithm [25]. However, the NIFs approaches based on learning internal and external relations can only reconstruct closed surfaces. The limitation prevents the NIFs from representing most real-world objects such as cars with inner structures, clothes or 3D scenes with open walls and holes.

As a remedy, state-of-the-art methods [11, 39, 35] learn Unsigned Distance Functions (UDFs) as a more general representation for point clouds. However, these UDF approaches require supervision of ground truth distance values or even large scale meshes during training, which are extremely difficult to collect through sensors. Moreover, most UDF approaches failed to extract surfaces directly from unsigned distance fields. Particularly, they rely on post-processing such as Ball-Pivoting-Algorithm (BPA) [5] to extract surfaces based on the dense point clouds generated by learned UDFs, which is very time-consuming and also leads to discontinuity and poor quality.

To solve these issues, we propose a novel method to learn consistency-aware UDFs directly from raw point clouds by learning to move 3D queries to reach the approximated surface aggressively with a field consistency constrain, and introduce a polygonization algorithm to extract surfaces

from the learned unsigned distance functions in a new perspective. Our method can learn UDFs from a single point cloud without requiring ground truth distances, point normals, or a large scale training set. Specifically, given query locations sampled in 3D space as input, the neural network learns to move them to the approximated surface according to the predicted unsigned distances and the gradient direction at the query locations. More appealing solutions [1, 2, 17, 26] have been proposed to learn SDFs from raw point clouds by optimizing the relationship between the query point and its closest point in raw data as a surface prior. However, since the raw point cloud is a highly discrete approximation of the surface, the closest point to the query location is always inaccurate and ambiguous, which makes the network difficult to converge to a UDF due to adversarial optimizations.

Therefore, in order to encourage the network to learn a consistency-aware and accurate unsigned distance field, we propose to dynamically search the optimization target with a specially designed loss function containing field consistency to mimic the adversarial optimizations. We also progressively estimate the mapping relationship between 3D queries and the approximated zero iso-surface by updating the raw point cloud with well-moved queries as additional priors for promoting further convergence. To extract a surface, we propose to use the gradient vector field of the learned UDFs to determine whether two queries are on the same side of the approximated surface or not, which can be used to extract a surface directly. In contrast to NDF [11], which also learns UDFs but takes dense point clouds as output and depends on BPA [5] to generate meshes, our method shows great advantages in efficiency and accuracy due to the straightforward surface extraction.

Our main contributions can be summarized as:

- We propose a novel neural network that learns consistent-aware UDFs directly from raw point clouds by successive investigation of the relationship between 3D query locations and the approximated surface with a field consistent loss.
- We introduce an algorithm for directly extracting high-fidelity iso-surfaces with arbitrary topology from the gradient vector field of the learned unsigned distance functions.
- We obtain state-of-the-art results in surface reconstruction for synthetic and real scanned point clouds under the widely used benchmarks.

2 Related Works

Surface reconstruction from 3D point clouds has been studied for decades. Classic optimization-based methods [13, 5, 21, 22] tried to resolve this problem by inferring continuous surfaces from the geometry of point clouds. With the rapid development of deep learning, the neural networks have shown great potential in reconstructing 3D surfaces. In the following, we will briefly review the studies of deep learning based methods.

2.1 Neural Implicit Surface Reconstruction

In the past few years, a lot of advances have been made in 3D surface reconstruction with Neural Implicit Functions (NIFs). The NIFs approaches [8, 19, 33, 28, 14, 20, 23, 29, 24, 31, 27] use either binary occupancies [28, 33, 29, 9] or signed distance functions (SDFs) [31, 20, 30, 12] to represent 3D shapes or scenes, and then use marching cubes [25] algorithm to reconstruct the learned implicit functions into surfaces. Earlier works [28, 31, 19, 9] use an encoder [28, 9] or an optimization based method [31] to embed the shape into a global latent code, and then use a decoder to reconstruct the shape. To obtain more detailed geometry, some methods [15, 16, 34, 8, 10, 20, 29, 3, 4] proposed to leverage more latent codes to capture local shape priors. To achieve this, the point cloud is first split into different uniform grids [8, 10, 20] or local patches [15, 16, 34], and a neural network is then used to extract a latent code for each grid/patch. Some recent works propose to learn NIFs from a new perspective, such as implicit moving least-squares surfaces [23], differentiable poisson solver [32], iso-points [38] , point convolution [7] or predictive context learning [3]. However, the NIFs approaches can only represent closed shapes due to the characters of occupancies and SDFs.

2.2 Learning Unsigned Distance Functions (UDFs)

To model general shapes with open and multi-layer surfaces, NDF [11] propose to learn unsigned distance functions (UDFs) to represent shapes by predicting the unsigned distance from a query

Figure 1: Overview of our method. Given a 3D query $q_i \in Q_1$ as input, the neural network f predicts the unsigned distance $f(q_i)$ of q_i and moves q_i against the gradient direction at q_i with a stride of $f(q_i)$. The field consistency loss is then computed between the moved queries q_i' and the target point cloud P as the optimization target. After the network converges in the current stage, we update P with a subset of q_i' as additional priors to learn more local details in the next stage. Finally, we use the gradient vector field of the learned UDFs to model the relationship between different 3D grids and extract iso-surfaces directly.

location to the continuous surface. However, NDF can only predict dense point clouds as the output, which require time-consuming post-processing for mesh generation and also struggles to retain high-quality details of shapes. In contrast, our method is able to extract surfaces directly from the gradient vector field of the learned UDFs. Following works use image features [39] or query side relations [37] as additional priors to improve reconstruction accuracy. Some other works advance UDFs for normal estimation [35] or semantic segmentation [36]. However, these methods require ground truth distance values or even a large scale meshes during training, which are extremely difficult to collect through sensors. While our method does not require any additional supervision except the raw point cloud itself during training, which allows us to reconstruct surfaces for real-scanned point clouds.

2.3 Surface Reconstruction from Raw Point Cloud

Learning implicit functions directly from raw point clouds without ground truth signed/unsigned distance values or occupancy values is more challenge. Current works introduce sign agnostic learning with a specially designed network initialization [1], constrains on gradients [2] or geometric regularization [17] for learning SDFs from raw data. Neural-pull [26] introduce a new way of learning SDFs by pulling nearby space onto the surface. However, the outputs of these methods are signed distances and hence can not reconstruct complex shapes with open or multi-layer surfaces. In contrast, our method is able to learn a continuous unsigned distance function from point clouds, which allows us to reconstruct surfaces for shapes and scenes with arbitrary typology.

3 Method

Problem statement. We design a neural network to learn UDFs that represents 3D shapes . Given a 3D query location $q = [x, y, z]$, a learned UDF f predicts the unsigned distance value $s = f(q) \in \mathbb{R}$. Current methods depend on ground truth distance values generated from continuous surfaces and employ a neural network to learn f as a regression problem. Different from these methods, we aim to learn f directly from raw point clouds $P = \{p_i, i \in [1, N]\}$. Furthermore, these methods require post-processing [11] or additional supervision [37] to generate meshes. on the contrary, we introduce an algorithm to extract surfaces directly from f using the gradient vector field ∇f. The overview of our method is shown in Fig.1.

3.1 Learn UDFs from Raw Point Clouds

We introduce a novel neural network to learn a continuous UDF f from the raw point cloud. We demonstrate our idea using a 2D point cloud S in Fig.1(a), where S indicates some discrete points of a continuous surface. Specifically, given a set of query locations $Q = \{q_i, i \in [1, M]\}$ which is randomly sampled around S, the network moves q_i against the direction of the gradient g_i at q_i with a stride of predicted unsigned distance value $f(q_i)$. The gradient g_i is a vector that presents the partial derivative of f at $q_i = [x_i, y_i, z_i]$, which can be formulated as $g_i = \nabla f(q_i) = [\partial f/\partial x, \partial f/\partial y, \partial f/\partial z]$. The direction of g_i indicates the orientation of where the unsigned distance increases the fastest in 3D space, which points the direction away from the surface, therefore moving q_i against the direction of g_i will find a path to reach the surface indicated by S. The moving operation can be formulated as:

$$z_i = q_i - f(q_i) \times \nabla f(q_i) / ||\nabla f(q_i)||_2, \qquad (1)$$

where z_i is the location of the moved query q_i, and $\nabla f(q_i)/||\nabla f(q_i)||_2$ is the normalized gradient g_i, which indicates the direction of g_i. The moving operation is differentiable in both the unsigned distance value and the gradient, which allows us to optimize them simultaneously during training.

The four examples in Fig.2 show the distance fields learned by Neural-Pull [26], SAL [1], NDF [11] and our method for a sparse 2D point cloud P which only contains 13 points. One main branch to learn signed or unsigned distance functions for point clouds is to directly minimize the square error between the predicted distance value $f(q_i)$ and the euclidean distance between q_i and its nearest neighbour in P, as proposed in NDF and SAL. However, as shown in Fig.2(c), NDF leads to an extremely discrete distance field. To learn a continuous distance field, NDF introduces ground truth distance values extracted from the continuous surface as extra supervision, which prevents it from learning directly from raw point clouds. SAL shows great capacity in learning SDFs for watertight shapes using a carefully designed initialization. However, as shown in Fig.2(b), SAL fails to converge to a multi-structure shape since the network is initialized as a single layer shape prior. Neural-Pull uses a similar way as ours to pull queries onto the surface, thus also learns a continuous signed distance field as shown in Fig.2(a). However, the nature of SDF prevents Neural-Pull from reconstructing open surfaces like the "1" in the left of Fig.2(a). As shown in Fig.2(d), our method learns a continuous level set of distance field and can also represent open surfaces.

Figure 2: The level-sets show the distance fields learned by (a) Neural-pull, (b) SAL, (c) NDF, (d) Ours. The color of blue and red represent positive or negative distance. The darker the color, the closer it is to the approximated surface.

One way to extend Neural-pull directly to learn UDFs is to predict a positive distance value for each query and pull it to the nearest neighbour in P. However, for shapes with complex topology, this optimization is often ambiguous due to the discreteness of discrete raw point clouds. We solve this problem by introducing consistency-aware field learning.

3.2 Consistency-Aware Field Learning

Neural-Pull leverages a square error to minimize the distance between the moved query z_i and the nearest neighbour n_i of q_i in P:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i \in [1, M]} ||z_i - n_i||_2^2 \qquad (2)$$

However, the direct optimization of the loss in Eq. 2 will form a distorted field and lead some queries to get stuck due to the adversarial optimization, which makes the network difficult to

Figure 3: Demonstration case of different losses.

converge. We show a 2D case of learning UDFs for a double-deck wall using the loss in Eq. 2 proposed by Neural-Pull as in Fig. 3(b) and using our loss as in Fig. 3(c). Assume p_1 and p_2 as two discrete points in two different decks of the wall, q_1 and q_2 are two queries whose closest neighbours are p_1 and p_2, respectively. Optimizing the network using q1 and q2 by minimizing Eq.2 or our proposed loss in Eq.3 will both lead to an unsigned distance field as in Fig. 3(a). Assuming the next training batch, q_3 and q_4 are two queries whose closest neighbours are p_3 and p_4 as input to optimize the network. If we use the loss in Eq. 2, the optimization target in p_3 is to minimize $\mathcal{L} = ||z_3 - p_3||_2^2$. Notice that the target point p_3 is located on the lower surface, however the gradient around p_3 is upward. Therefore, the partial derivative $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z_3}$ leads to a decrease in the unsigned distance value $f(q_3)$ predicted by the network. The case of q_4 is optimized similarly. An immediate consequence is that the adversarial optimization will form a distorted fields that has local minima of unsigned distance values at q_3 and q_4 as in Fig. 3(b). However, this situation causes other query points around point q_3 or q_4 to get stuck in the distorted fields and unable to move to the correct location, thus cause the network to a struggle convergence.

To address this issue, we designed a loss function which can keep the consistency of unsigned distance fields to avoid adversarial optimization. Specifically, instead of strictly constraining the convergence target before forward propagation as Eq. 2, we first predict the moving path of a query location q_i and move it using Eq. 1 to z_i, then look for the surface point p_i in P which is the closest to z_i and minimize the distance between z_i and p_i. As shown in Fig.3(c), after moving q_3 against the gradient direction with a stride of $f(q_3)$ to z_3, the closest surface point of z_3 lies on the upper deck, so the distance fields remain continuous and are optimized correctly. In practical, we use chamfer distance as a suitable loss implementation, formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CD}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i \in [1,M]} \min_{j \in [1,N]} ||z_i - p_j||_2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j \in [1,N]} \min_{i \in [1,M]} ||p_j - z_i||_2 \tag{3}$$

We also use simulation experiments as shown in Fig.4 to show the advantage of our proposed field consistency loss. We learn UDFs for a raw point cloud of a double-deck wall as shown in Fig.4(a). Fig.4(b) denotes the randomly sampled query locations between two decks of the wall where the different colors mean the queries are closer to the upper or lower deck of the wall. Fig.4(c) and Fig.4(d) indicate the moved queries by loss in Eq. 2 and Eq. 3. It can be seen that our proposed loss can move most of the queries to the correct surface position, and Neural-Pull loss stops moving in many places or moves queries to the wrong places due to the field inconsistency in optimization. Fig.4(e) and .4(f) show the learned distance field of a car with inner structure by the loss in Eq. 2 and our loss.

Figure 4: Performance of losses.

3.3 Progressive Surface Approximation

Moreover, in order to predict unsigned distance values more accurately and learn more local details, we propose a progressive learning strategy by taking the intermediate results of moved queries as additional priors. Given a raw point cloud which is a discrete representation of the surface, we have made a reasonable assumption: the closer the query location is to the given point cloud, the smaller the error of searching the target point on the given point cloud. Proof of this assumption will be provided in the appendix. Based on this assumption, we set up two regions: the high confidence region and the low confidence region. We sample query points in the high confidence region to help train the network and sample auxiliary points in the low confidence region to move to the estimated surface position by network gradient after network convergence, and take the moved auxiliary points as the surface prior for the next stage. Notably, the auxiliary points do not participate in network training since these points of low confidence will lead to a large error and affect network training. Since the low confidence regions which are not optimized explicitly during training are distributed interspersed between the high confidence regions, according to the integral Monotone Convergence Theorem, the UDFs and gradient predicted by the low confidence region are a smooth expression of the trained high confidence region. We save the moved queries and auxiliary points and use them to

Figure 5: Illustration of progressively approximating the surface.

update S. According to the updated point cloud, we re-divide the regions with high confidence and low confidence and re-sample the query points and auxiliary points for the next stage.

We demonstrate our idea using a 2D case in Fig.5(a) We divided the regions with high confidence (red region) and low confidence (yellow region) base on the given raw point cloud S_1 (black dots) and then sample query points $Q_1 = \{q_i, i \in [1, M]\}$ (blue dots) and auxiliary points(green dots) $A_1 = \{a_i, i \in [1, M]\}$. (b) We train the network to learn UDFs by moving the query locations Q_1 using Eq. 1, and optimize the network by minimizing Eq. 3. (c) After network convergence, we move query points Q and auxiliary points A to the estimated surface position by the gradient of network, $S'_1 = p - f(p) \times \nabla f(p)/||\nabla f(p)||_2, p \subset Q_1 \cup A_1$. (d) We save the moved points S'_1 and use them to update S, $S_2 = S_1 \cup S'_1$. According to the updated point cloud S_2, we re-divided the regions with high confidence and low confidence and re-sampled the query points Q_2 and auxiliary points A_2. (e) We continue to train the network by moving query points Q_2 to the updated S_2. (f) Because of the more continuous surface prior information supervised network training, the network will learn more accurately and learn more local details of the UDFs.

3.4 Surface Extraction Algorithm

Unlike SDFs, UDFs fail to extract surfaces by marching cubes since UDFs cannot perform inside/outside tests on 3D grids. To address this issue, we propose to use the gradient vector field ∇f to determine whether two 3D grid locations are on the same side or the opposite side of the surface approximated by the point clouds P. We make an assumption that on a micro-scale of the surface, the space can always be divided into two sides, where the 3D query locations of different sides denoted as $Q_{in} = \{q_{in}{}^i, i \in [1, L]\}$ and $Q_{out} = \{q_{out}{}^i, i \in [1, I]\}$. For two queries $q_{in}{}^i$ and $q_{out}{}^j$ in different sides of the surface, the

Figure 6: Surface extraction algorithm.

included angle between the directions of the gradients $\nabla f(q_{in}{}^i)$ and $\nabla f(q_{out}{}^j)$ is always more than 90 degrees, which can be formulated as $\nabla f(q_{in}{}^i) \cdot \nabla f(q_{out}{}^j) < 0$. On the contrary, for two queries $q_{in}{}^i$ and $q_{in}{}^j$ in the same side, the formula $\nabla f(q_{in}{}^i) \cdot \nabla f(q_{in}{}^j) > 0$ holds true. So, we can classify whether two points are in the same or the opposite side using dot product of gradients, $cls(q_i, q_j) = \nabla f(q_i) \cdot \nabla f(q_j)$.Based on that, we divide the space into 3D grids (e.g. 256^3), and perform gradient discrimination on the 8 vertices v_i in each cell grid according to the gradient vector field ∇f using $cls(q_i, q_j)$. As shown in Fig.6(a), the gradient vector field separates the vertices into two sets, where we can further adapt marching cubes algorithm [25] to create triangles for the grid using the lookup table. The complete surface is generated by grouping triangles of each grid together. To accelerate the surface extraction process and avoid extracting unexpected triangles in the multi-layers structures, we set a threshold θ to stop surface extraction on grids where $f(g_i) > \theta, i \in [0, 7]$.

Mesh refinement. The initial surface extracted by marching cubes is only a discrete approximation of the zero iso-surface. To achieve a more detailed mesh, we propose to refine it using the UDF values. As shown in Fig.6(b), given the predicted UDF values UDF_A and UDF_B of grid vertex v_A and v_b, the mesh vertex v_M can be moved to a finer position where $l_{A \to M} : l_{M \to B} = UDF_A : UDF_B$.

4 Experiments

We evaluate our method on the task of surface reconstruction from raw point clouds. We first demonstrate the ability of our method to reconstruct general shapes with open and multi-layer

| SAL (Cut) | NDF (Cut) | Ours (Cut) | Ours (Wireframe) |

Figure 7: Visual comparisons of surface reconstruction on ShapeNet cars.

| Method | Chamfer-L2 | | F-Score | |
	Mean	Median	$F1^{0.005}$	$F1^{0.01}$
Input	0.363	0.355	48.50	88.34
Watertight GT	2.628	2.293	68.82	81.60
GT	0.076	0.074	95.70	99.99
NDF_{BPA}[11]	0.202	0.193	77.40	97.97
NDF_{gradRA}	0.160	0.152	82.87	99.35
NDF_{PC}	0.126	0.120	88.09	99.54
GIFS [37]	0.128	0.123	88.05	99.31
$Ours_{BPA}$	0.141	0.138	84.84	99.33
$Ours_{gradRA}$	**0.119**	**0.114**	**88.55**	**99.82**
$Ours_{PC}$	**0.110**	**0.106**	**90.06**	**99.87**

| Ours | Neural-pull |

Figure 8: Visual results on MGD dataset.   Table 1: Comparison on ShapeNet cars.

261 surfaces in Sec.4.1. Next, we apply our method to reconstruct surfaces for real scanned raw data
262 including 3D objects in Sec.4.2 and complex scenes in Sec.4.3. Ablation studies are shown in Sec.4.4.

263 **Implementation details.** To learn UDFs for raw point clouds P, we adopt a neural network similar
264 to OccNet [28] to predict the unsigned distance given 3D queries as input. Our network contains 8
265 layers of MLP where each layer has 256 nodes. Similar to Neural-pull and SAL, given the single
266 point cloud P as input, we do not leverage any condition and overfit the network f to approximate
267 surfaces of P by minimizing the loss of Eq.3. Therefore, we do not need any training on large scale
268 training dataset in contrast to previous methods [11, 37, 20]. In addition, we use the same strategy as
269 Neural-pull to sample 60 queries around each point p_i on P as training data. A Gaussian function
270 $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is adopt to calculate the sampling probability where $\mu = p_i$ and σ is distance between p_i
271 its the 50-th nearest points on P.

4.1 Surface Reconstruction for Synthetic Shapes

273 **Dataset and metrics.** For the experiments on synthetic shapes, we follow NDF to choose the "Car"
274 category of the ShapeNet dataset which contains the greatest amount of multi-layer shapes and
275 non-closed shapes. And 10k points is sampled from the surface of each shape as the input. Besides,
276 we employ the MGD dataset to show the advantage of our method in open surfaces. To measure the
277 reconstruction quality, we follow GIFS to sample 100k points from the reconstructed surfaces and
278 adopt the Chamfer distance ($\times 10^4$) and F-Score with a threshold of 0.005/0.01 as evaluation metrics.

279 **Comparison.** We compare our method with the state-
280 of-the-art works NDF [11] and GIFS [37]. We quan-
281 titatively evaluate our method with NDF and GIFS in
282 Table.1. We also report the results of points sampled
283 from the watertight ground truth (watertight GT in ta-
284 ble) as the upper bound of the traditional SDF-based
285 or Occupancy-based implicit functions. To show the

Method	Chamfer-L2	F-Score$^{0.01}$
Neural-pull [26]	4.447	94.49
NDF [11]	0.658	76.11
Ours	0.117	99.68

Table 2: Comparisons on MGD dataset.

286 superior limit of this dataset, we sample two different set of points from the ground truth mesh
287 and report metrics of them (GT in table). For a comprehensive comparison with NDF, we transfer
288 our gradient-based reconstruction algorithm to extract surfaces from the learned distance field of
289 NDF, and report three metrics of NDF and our method including generated point cloud ($*_{PC}$), mesh
290 generated using BPA ($*_{BPA}$) and mesh generated using our gradient-based reconstruction algorithm
291 ($*_{gradRA}$). As shown in Table.1, we achieve the best results in terms of all the metrics. Moreover, our
292 gradient-based reconstruction algorithm shows great generality in transferring to the learned gradient

Figure 9: Visual comparisons of surface reconstruction on the SRB dataset.

field of other method (e.g. NDF) by achieving significant improvement over the traditional method (BPA). We also provide the results of surface reconstruction on MGD [6] dataset as shown in Table.2, where we largely outperform other methods.

We further present a visual comparison with SAL and NDF in Fig.7. Previous methods (e.g. SAL) take SDF as output and are therefore limited to single-layer shapes where the inner-structure is lost. NDF learns UDFs and is able to represent general shapes, but it take dense point cloud as output and require BPA to generate meshes, which leads to an uneven surface. On the contrary, we can extract surface directly from the learned UDFs, thus are able to reconstruct a continuous and high-fidelity surface. We also provide a visual comparison with Neural-pull in MGD dataset as shown in Fig.8, where we accurately reconstruct the open surfaces but Neural-pull fails to keep the original geometry.

4.2 Surface Reconstruction for Real Scanned Shapes

Dataset and metrics. For surface reconstruction of real scanned point cloud, we follow SAP to evaluate our methods under the Surface Reconstruction Benchmarks(SRB). We use Chamfer distance and F-Score with a threshold of 1% for evaluation. Note that the ground truth is dense point clouds.

Comparison. We compare our method with state-of-the-art classic and data-driven surface reconstruction methods in the real scanned SRB dataset, including IGR [17], Point2Mesh [18], Screened Poisson Surface Reconstruction(SPSR) [22], Shape As Points(SAP) [32], Neural-pull [26] and NDF [11]. The numerical comparison results is shown in Table.4, where we achieve the best accuracy. The visual comparisons on Fig.9 demonstrate that our method is able to reconstruct a continuous surface with local geometry consistence while other methods struggle to reveal the geometry details. For example, IGR, Neural-pull and SAP wrongly mended or failed to reconstruct the hole of the anchor while our method is able to keep the correct geometry.

4.3 Surface reconstruction for scenes

Dataset and metrics. To further demonstrate the advantage of our method in surface reconstruction of raw scanned scenes, we follow OnSurf [4] to conduct experiments under the 3D Scene dataset. Note that the 3D Scene dataset is a challenging real-world dataset with complex topology and noisy open surfaces. We uniformly sample 100, 500 and 1000 points per m^2 at the original scale of scenes as the input and follow OnSurf to sample 1M points on both the reconstructed and the ground truth surfaces. We leverage L1 and L2 Chamfer distance to evaluate the reconstruction quality.

Comparison. We compare our method with the state-of-the-arts scene reconstruction methods ConvONet [33], LIG [20], DeepLS [8], OnSurf [4] and NDF [11]. The numerical comparisons in Table.3 show that our method significantly outperform the other methods under different point densities . The visual comparisons in Fig.10 further shows that our reconstructions present more geometry details in complex real scanned scenes. Note that all the other methods have been trained in a large scale dataset, from which they gain additional prior information. On the contrary, our method does not leverage any additional priors or large scale training datasets, and learns to reconstruct surfaces directly from the raw point cloud, but still yields a non-trivial performance.

4.4 Ablation Study

We conduct ablation studies to justify the effectiveness of each design in our method and the effect of some important parameters. We report the performance in terms of L2-CD under a subset of the

Method	100/m^2		500/m^2		1000/m^2	
	L2CD	L1CD	L2CD	L1CD	L2CD	L1CD
ConvONet [33]	7.859	0.043	13.192	0.052	14.097	0.052
LIG [17]	6.265	0.049	5.633	0.048	6.190	0.048
DeepLS [8]	3.029	0.044	6.794	0.050	1.607	0.025
NDF_{PC} [11]	0.409	0.012	0.377	0.014	0.561	0.017
NDF_{mesh}	0.452	0.014	0.475	0.016	0.872	0.022
OnSurf [4]	1.154	0.021	0.862	0.020	0.706	0.020
$Ours_{PC}$	**0.144**	**0.010**	**0.078**	**0.009**	**0.072**	**0.010**
$Ours_{mesh}$	**0.187**	**0.011**	**0.122**	**0.010**	**0.121**	**0.009**

Table 3: Surface Reconstruction under 3D Scene, L2CD×1000.

Method	Chamfer-L1	F-Score
IGR [17]	0.178	75.5
Point2Mesh [18]	0.116	64.8
SPSR [22]	0.232	73.5
SAP [32]	0.076	83.0
Neural-pull [26]	0.106	79.7
NDF_{PC} [11]	0.185	72.2
NDF_{mesh}	0.238	68.6
$Ours_{PC}$	**0.068**	**90.4**
$Ours_{mesh}$	**0.073**	**84.5**

Table 4: Comparisons on SRB.

Figure 10: Visual comparison with different methods under 3D Scene. Inputs contains 1k points/m^2.

ShapeNet Car dataset. By default, all the experimental settings are kept the same as in Sec. 4.1, except for modified part described in each ablation experiment below.

Framework design. We first justify the effectiveness of each design of our framework in Table.5. We first directly use the loss proposed in Neural-pull and find that the performance degenerates dramatically as shown by "NP loss". We also use $g(x) = 1 - e^{(-x)}$ to replace $g(x) = |x|$ on the last layer of f before output, but found no improvement as shown by "Exponent". We train the second step from scratch as shown by "Scratch" and prove that an end-to-end training strategy more effectively.

$\times 10^4$	NP loss	Exponent	Scratch	Ours
L2CD	0.2381	0.1218	0.1497	**0.1112**

Table 5: Effect of framework design.

The effect of step numbers. The number of steps during progressive surface approximation is also a crucial factor in the network training. We report the performance of training our network in different number of steps $St = [1, 2, 3, 4]$ in Table.6. We start the training of next step after the previous one converges. We found that training for two steps brings great improvement than training a single step, and the 3rd and 4th step bring little advance.

$\times 10^4$	1	2	3	4
L2CD	0.1218	**0.1112**	0.1107	0.1107

Table 6: Effect of step numbers.

The effect of low confidence range. We further explore the range of confidence region sample. Assume σ as the range of high confidence region, we use 0.9σ, 1.0σ, 1.1σ and 1.2σ as the range of low confidence region. The results in Table.7 show that a too small or too large range will degenerate the performance.

$\times 10^4$	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2
L2CD	0.1133	0.1130	**0.1112**	0.1131

Table 7: Effect of low confidence range.

Surface extraction. We evaluate the effect of mesh refinement and the performance of different 3D grid resolution. Table.8 shows the accuracy and efficiency of different resolutions. we observe that the mesh refinement highly improves the accuracy and higher resolutions leads to better reconstructions at a cost of speed.

$\times 10^4$	64^3	128^3	256^3	320^3
w/o refine	0.4169	0.1738	0.1294	0.1238
refine	0.1606	0.1174	**0.1112**	0.1105
Time	3.0 s	21.9 s	162.2 s	307.6 s

Table 8: Ablations on surface extraction.

5   Conclusion

We propose a novel method to learn continuous UDFs directly from raw point clouds by learning to move 3D queries to reach the approximated surface aggressively. Our introduced reconstruction algorithm can extract surfaces directly from the gradient vector fields of learned UDFs. Our method do not require ground truth distance values or point normals, and can reconstruct surfaces with arbitrary topology. One limitation of our method is that we use uniformly divided grids to extract surface, which can be improved with a coarse-to-fine paradigm.

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