
RealCity3D: A Large-scale Georeferenced 3D Shape Dataset of Real-world Cities

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<https://github.com/ai4ce/RealCity3D>

Abstract

1 Existing 3D shape datasets in the research community are generally limited to
2 objects or scenes at the home level. City-level shape datasets are rare due to the dif-
3 ficulty in data collection and processing. However, such datasets uniquely present a
4 new type of 3D data with a high variance in geometric complexity and spatial layout
5 styles, such as residential/historical/commercial buildings and skyscrapers. This
6 work focuses on collecting such data, and proposes city generation as new tasks for
7 data-driven content generation. Thus, we collect over 1,000,000 geo-referenced 3D
8 building models from New York City and Zurich. We benchmark various baseline
9 performances on two challenging tasks: (1) city layout generation, and (2) building
10 shape generation. Moreover, we propose an auto-encoding tree neural network for
11 2D building footprint and 3D building cuboid generation. The dataset, tools, and
12 algorithms will be released to the community.

13 1 Introduction

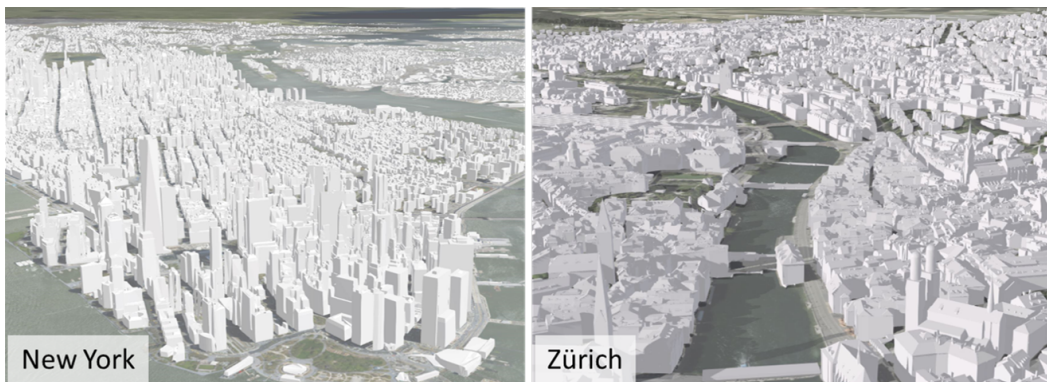


Figure 1: Overview of New York and Zurich cities in our RealCity3D dataset.

14 As an important arena for human activities, cities have been a focal point of research. Alongside
15 the rapid advancement of image/video generation, data-driven 3D city generation has become more
16 feasible and appealing because of 1) the increasing availability of city-level remote sensing, and

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17 2) the intensification of data-driven methods in architecture and urban planning. Urban planners
 18 increasingly rely on city-level simulations to make planning decisions; game designers use city
 19 generation tools to automatically generate virtual city environments; and more recently, there is
 20 a surging demand from the autonomous driving industry to conduct road testing in simulated 3D
 21 environments. All of these potential applications have increased demand for realistic city generation.

22 While deep generative models are successful for various data modalities, including language, audio,
 23 image, video, and even point clouds, several difficulties prevent deep generation from being applied
 24 towards city-level geometric generation. First, cities are a set of complex geometrically parameterized
 25 objects with irregular layouts. Second, these objects usually live on a high-dimensional complex data
 26 manifold. For example, a building object records as a set of 3D polygons, each contains a variable
 27 number of 3D vertices. More importantly, there are few publicly available 3D real-world city datasets,
 28 which are essential for developing data-driven methods, particularly deep generative models.

29 Existing public datasets for geometric data generation can be categorized at the object-level [5],
 30 home-level [1, 27], and city-level [7, 2]. However, it is difficult to achieve city-level generation by
 31 training models on object/room-level datasets due to their limited scale. Moreover, it is unrealistic
 32 for trained models to generate 3D cities on existing city-level datasets due to the restriction of data
 33 dimension, as they mostly contain 2D data such as polylines and polygons. To overcome these
 34 challenges, some researchers [6] have developed their own synthetic datasets since no public datasets
 35 are available from real-world city buildings. To a large extent, the lack of viable, real-world 3D city
 36 datasets have hindered the development of deep generative models for city-level generation.

37 To this end, we propose the RealCity3D dataset, a real-world, city-level 3D dataset for New York
 38 City and Zurich (Figure 1). The dataset consists of over 1,000,000 georeferenced objects covering
 39 a total area of more than 871.7 square kilometers. Four different representations are provided per
 40 object: polygon mesh, triangle mesh, point cloud, and voxel grid. Semantic information of objects
 41 are preserved in polygon meshes. Based on RealCity3D, we explore the possibility of city generation.
 42 Considering the difficulty of the problem and the absence of applicable methods, we split the city
 43 generation task into two subtasks: *Task 1 City layout generation* and *Task 2 Building shape generation*.

44 Our contributions are three-fold: (1) We open-source a large-scale georeferenced 3D shape dataset
 45 RealCity3D, in multiple forms including polygon meshes, triangular meshes, point clouds and voxel
 46 grids; (2) We perform city/building scale generation benchmarks to explore the research directions
 47 RealCity3D can support; (3) We propose a simple but efficient tree neural network that encodes and
 48 generates spatial data hierarchically for 2D building footprint and 3D building cuboid generation.

49 2 Related work

50 2.1 Datasets for Geometric Generation

51 Current art in city-level geometric generation are mostly based on synthetic datasets that do not
 52 have the same geometric complexity and diversity that real-world cities have. Publicly available,
 53 city-level object datasets that are georeferenced to real world cities are rare; they can be divided into
 54 three categories according to its scale: **1) Object-level Datasets:** ShapeNet [5] contains over three
 55 million 3D models with a core dataset of about 51,300 unique 3D models across 55 common object
 56 categories. Though some studies [10, 3, 16] achieve promising single object generation performance,
 57 it will be difficult to extend trained models on this synthetic dataset to a large-scale, real-world dataset.
 58 On the contrary, RealCity3D deals exclusively with city-scale building objects georeferenced to the
 59 real world. **2) Room-level Datasets:** LIFULL HOME’s database [1] contains five million floor plans.
 60 RPLAN [27] consists of 80,000 floor plans from real-world residential buildings. HouseGAN [17]
 61 and Graph2Plan [13] perform indoor layout generation on these two datasets respectively. However,

Table 1: Comparison with representative datasets

	Datasets	Year	Spatial extent	Objects	Format	Generation Task
Object-level	ShapeNet [5]	2015	-	3,000,000+	Mesh	3D Object Generation
Room-level	LIFULL HOME [1]	2015	-	5,300,000+	Imagery	2D Indoor Layout Generation
	RPLAN [27]	2019	-	80,000+	Imagery	2D Indoor Layout Generation
City-level	RoadNet [7]	2019	$1.7 \times 10^8 m^2$	-	Imagery/Polylines	2D Road Network Generation
	SpaceNet v2 [2]	2018	$30.11 \times 10^8 m^2$	685,000	Imagery/Polygons	2D City Layout Generation
	RealCity3D	2021	$8.71 \times 10^8 m^2$	1,000,000+	Mesh/Point Cloud/Voxels	3D Object and 2D/3D City Generation

62 the number of rooms in each floor plan rarely exceeds thirteen, limiting the extensive ability of trained
63 models from being applied to city-scale generation tasks. **3) City-level Datasets:** RoadNet [7] is a
64 real-world road network dataset collected from OpenStreetMap (OSM) of 17 cities; SpaceNet [9]
65 offers over 685,000 building footprints across 5 cities. These two datasets only involve 2D polyline
66 or polygon data, which are limited to a certain extent considering the complexity of 3D real-world
67 applications. By contrast, RealCity3D is a city-level dataset that consists of not only 2D city layout
68 information, but also building facade details. This enables more complex, large-scale city generation
69 tasks. We compare the statistics of RealCity3D with some existing datasets in Table 1.

70 2.2 City Generation Methods

71 Existing work on city generation focuses on non-data-driven methods, i.e., procedural modeling.
72 Due to the lack of high-quality 3D city training data, few techniques have been proposed to achieve
73 data-driven 3D city generation. RealCity3D changes this: we demonstrate in our benchmarks how
74 deep generative neural networks can benefit from our enriched, multi-format 3D city-level datasets.

75 **Procedural modeling**, such as L-systems, create geometric structures based on handcrafted shape
76 grammar [15, 26, 31, 8], a set of Euclidean shape transformation rules. However, handcrafted
77 modeling becomes extremely intensive when urban designs become more complex and diverse. To
78 automatically learn these rules, inverse procedural modeling uses deep neural nets to extract shape
79 grammar from existing 2/3D datasets [25, 22, 18, 11]. The ESRI CityEngine, popular with the
80 urban planning community, is a commercially available generation engine to create and apply shape
81 grammars to generate large-scale city layouts. However, these procedural generation engines require
82 experts to manually adjust the rules and parameters. Data-driven methods which can automatically
83 learn the features and rules of city generation, with limited human input, are more appealing.

84 **Data-driven generation methods** have gained popularity in recent years as it enables the generation
85 of complex geometric structures (vertices/lines/surfaces) with minimal human input. 1) For single
86 object generation, [16] proposed PolyGen to generate 3D polygon meshes with an autoregressive
87 transformer model. PolyGen’s code is not open-sourced and cannot be benchmarked. Instead, we
88 perform building shape generation using Raw-GAN and Latent-GAN [3] on our RealCity3D point
89 cloud dataset. 2) For layout generation, House-GAN by [17] is a GAN-based indoor layout generator.
90 However, this graph-based method cannot be directly performed on our dataset. Other city-level
91 layout generators like [7]’s Neural Turtle Graphics (NTG) for road network generation, and [32]’s
92 image-based supervised architecture reconstruction are incompatible with RealCity3D’s object-type
93 dataset. For generating sequential sketch strokes, [12] proposed SketchRNN, an RNN model with a
94 VAE structure. By converting each city layout to a sequential list of points (like a sketch), SketchRNN
95 could be used as a city layout generation benchmark on RealCity3D.

96 3 Task Definition and Data Processing

97 3.1 Task Definition

98 RealCity3D is a large-scale georeferenced 3D shape dataset of real-world city buildings represented
99 in four common formats, i.e. polygon mesh, triangular mesh, point clouds, and voxels. This is the
100 first-of-its-kind dataset that will enable the research community to develop new data-driven techniques
101 for large-scale city generation tasks. The ideal dataset for city generation should be georeferenced,
102 have comprehensive coverage of whole cities, be available in common geometric representations (e.g.
103 meshes, point clouds, voxels) to allow for a variety of training approaches, and contain geometric
104 complexity (or architectural LoD - Level of Detail, see Figure 2). Such a dataset will enable 3D city
105 generation, containing both realistic city layouts and building shapes/facades. However, considering
106 the difficulty of problem and that no existing methods have been developed for 3D city generation,
107 we simplify the city layout generation at LoD2 complexity to LoD1 complexity by transforming each
108 building polygon into a footprint in 2D space and minimum bounding cuboid in 3D space. We treat
109 LoD1 city layout and LoD2 building shape generations as separate tasks; the former focusing on the
110 spatial distribution of 2/3D polygons, and the latter focusing on 3D object geometry:

111 **Task 1: City layout generation.** City layouts refer to the spatial distribution and shapes of 2D
112 building footprints or 3D buildings in urban space. Generating new city layouts with reference to
113 existing urban forms is a complex but valuable task within the urban planning and game design

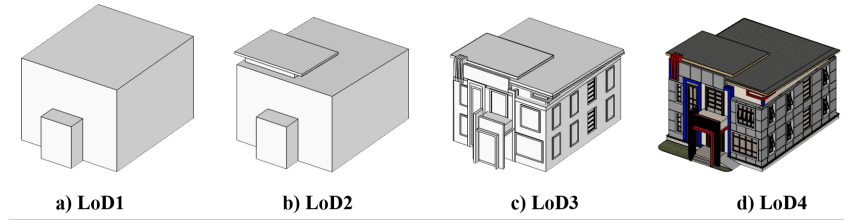


Figure 2: Examples of the 3D building object ranging from LoD1 to LoD4. LoD4 sketch retrieved from SketchUp 3D Warehouse.

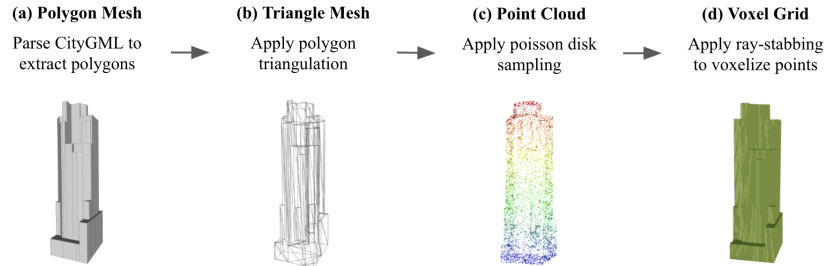


Figure 3: Overview of RealCity3D dataset creation and data transformation on a single LoD2 building. (a) Polygon mesh and (b) triangle mesh visualised in MeshLab, (c) point cloud in CloudCompare with colorized z-values, (d) voxel grid in viewvox.

114 communities. In urban planning, city layouts affect urban microclimates, land-use patterns and urban
 115 transportation networks. RealCity3D allows for the development of new deep learning approaches
 116 that can generate large-scale city layouts with greater LoD complexity, efficiently and accurately.

117 **Task 2: Building shape generation.** Building shapes refer to the external 3D facade of each building
 118 polygon. Modelling the 3D building envelope with high architectural detailing (i.e. LoD2 and above)
 119 is a challenging task due to its geometric complexity, but essential for generating realistic 3D cities.

120 3.2 Data Standard and Collection

121 In our dataset, 3D building objects data are extracted from 3D city models in CityGML format,
 122 a XML-based format widely used by the AEC community for efficient storage of city-scale data.
 123 CityGML extends XML by adding sets of primitives, including topology, features, and geometry,
 124 as well as city-specific constraints. Examples of 3D object classes in CityGML include buildings,
 125 tunnels, and bridges. CityGML has a hierarchical model complexity system to mark the complexity
 126 of each object class from LoD1 (Levels of Detail) to LoD4, as shown in Figure 2.

127 We collected CityGML data of New York City and Zurich from The New York City Department of
 128 Information Technology [24] and Stadt Zurich [23] respectively. Since CityGML data from publicly
 129 available 3D geospatial datasets contain building models mostly with LoD2 complexity, we store
 130 all building objects in our dataset in LoD2 format. Besides, the CityGML data quality of different
 131 cities in our datasets vary considerably, presenting technical difficulties for scalable data processing.
 132 For example, only 76% of Zurich buildings have valid CityGML surfaces, and the other 24% have
 133 non-planar duplicated surfaces which violate the CityGML format standard. Our data processing
 134 pipeline, described below, can be scaled across cities where CityGML data are available.

135 3.3 Dataset Processing

136 3.3.1 Parsing CityGML Files

137 From each CityGML file, we extract building polygons and their semantic information as dictionaries.
 138 Only exterior components (i.e. polygon surfaces) are conserved. Recurring polygon vertices are
 139 removed, ensuring triangulation can be performed without error. Each building surface is categorized

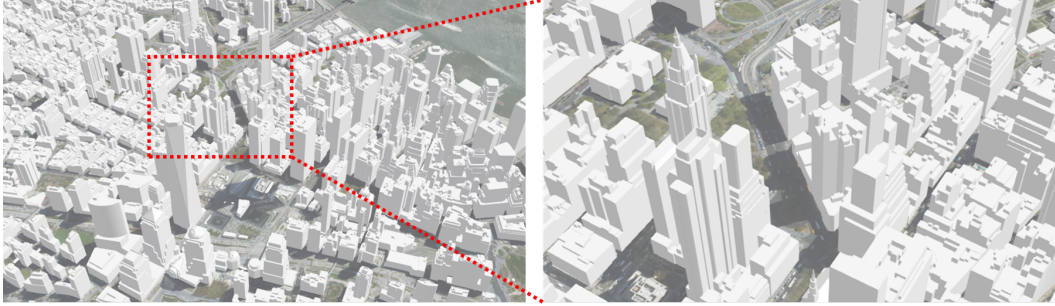


Figure 4: Detailed views of 3D building shapes in New York

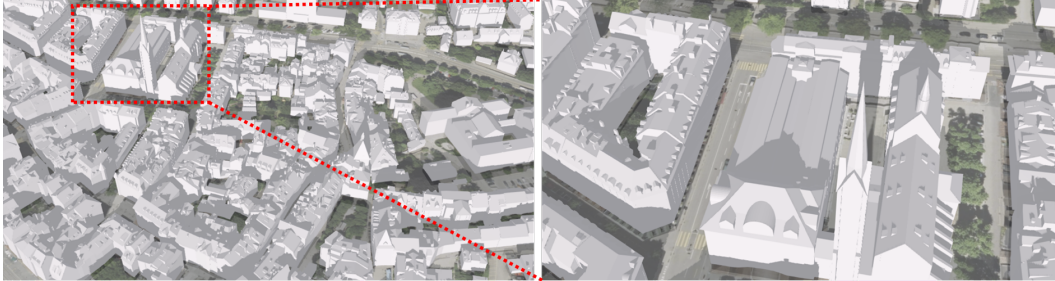


Figure 5: Detailed views of 3D building shapes in Zurich

140 as “GroundSurface”, “RoofSurface”, and “WallSurface” based on its CityGML building semantic
 141 information. Each semantically labelled polygon is output as an .obj file for further transformations.

142 3.3.2 Polygon Triangulation

143 Taking each polygon mesh building data, we apply polygon triangulation to decompose each polygon
 144 area \mathbf{P} into a maximal set of non-intersecting triangles on a continuous surface. The union of these
 145 non-intersecting triangles is \mathbf{P} , with each diagonal line segment connecting two vertices of \mathbf{P} . The
 146 triangulation of each polygon with n vertices consists of exactly $n-2$ triangles.

147 3.3.3 Point Sampling

148 We acquire 3D point clouds from each triangular mesh using Poisson disk sampling, a sequential,
 149 bias-free process for selecting points in each triangular subdomain. Poisson disk sampling has
 150 been used to achieve approximately uniform distance between adjacent points, yielding good visual
 151 resolution for rendering 3D buildings [29]. By uniformly sampling these points on a continuous mesh
 152 surface, we reduce the amount of noise/outliers that may come with conventional LiDAR scans of
 153 city buildings. Our uniformly dense point clouds suit deep learning approaches such as voxel-based
 154 convolution neural networks and deep learning on unstructured point clouds (e.g. PointNet) [4].

155 3.3.4 Voxelization

156 To provide greater geometric structure, we organise the 3D point cloud into a discrete voxel repre-
 157 sentation. Voxelization is a common method for downsampling and facilitating rapid retrieval of
 158 large-scale point cloud data [28], as would be essential in real-world city planning applications. We
 159 use the open source binvox program to efficiently rasterize the point cloud into a 3D voxel grid, which
 160 uses a variation of the ray-stabbing method described in [19]. The ray-stabbing method classifies
 161 voxels as either as an interior or exterior voxel by imagining a ray stabbing through the mesh model.
 162 Voxels at the two extreme depth samples of the ray (i.e. when the ray first penetrates the model, and
 163 when it leaves the model) are classified as exteriors; otherwise, they are classified as interiors.

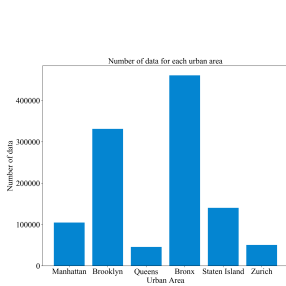


Figure 6: The number of data for each urban area

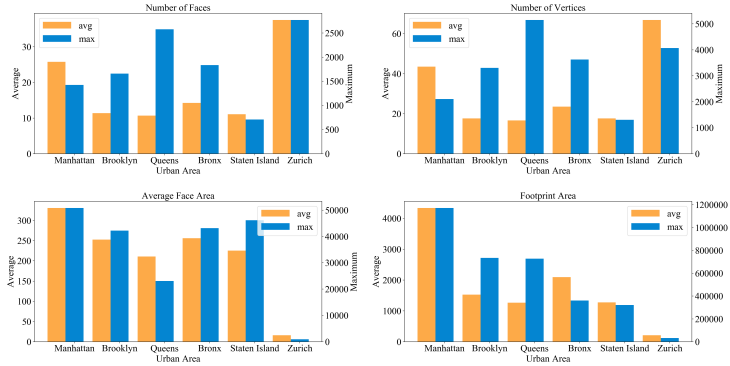


Figure 7: Building Mesh Statistics.

164 3.4 Data Statistics

165 New York City is an amalgamation of five different boroughs which have their own unique architecture
 166 due to its rich architectural history and land-use patterns. We divided the NYC dataset into its
 167 five boroughs: Manhattan, Brooklyn, Queens, Bronx and Staten Island. In total, we extracted
 168 1, 133, 813 individual building models with polygon meshes, triangular meshes, point clouds and
 169 voxels representations. The number of models in different boroughs is shown in Figure 6. Building
 170 mesh statistics are shown in Figure 7 to demonstrate the geometric complexity and variance expressed
 171 in one dataset. As can be seen from the number of vertices and faces, some building shapes are highly
 172 complex with thousands of faces, while others have far fewer, adding learning challenges.

173 4 Dataset Benchmarks

174 4.1 Task 1: City Layout Generation

175 We first evaluate the existing methods on the 2D city layout generation. Here, we benchmark two
 176 types of methods: procedural modeling via CityEngine and several well-characterized data-driven
 177 methods. Using CityEngine, an urban planner manually tuned the rules and parameters to generate
 178 city layouts based on RealCity3D data. As we can always make the results quantitatively perfect after
 179 time-consuming, hand-tuning of parameters, we decided that it is unfair to quantitatively compare
 180 the CityEngine-derived layouts with other data-driven benchmarks. These data-driven methods can
 181 be summarized into: (1) point clouds set-based methods, such as PointNet [20] and PointNet++
 182 [21], which treat the city layout data as a set of point clouds; (2) sequence-based methods, such as
 183 SketchRNN [12], which regard the layout data as a sequence. In addition, we propose a tree-based
 184 method for constructing the layout data as a hierarchical tree. In the experiments, 45,487 buildings
 185 in Manhattan borough are selected and batched into sets of 32 neighboring buildings. 70% of
 186 the data are taken as training sets, 10% as validation sets and 20% as test sets. The learning rates
 187 for SketchRNN-R2 method, SketchRNN-R5 method, PointNet-MLP method, PointNet2-MLP, and
 188 AETree are 0.001, 0.0001, 0.001, 0.001, 0.001 respectively, and the batch sizes for these methods are
 189 100, 100, 500, 500, 50 separately. All the baseline methods run on an NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1080
 190 Ti GPU. The model that achieves the best 2D generation performance is selected for 3D building
 191 cuboid generation to further demonstrate the results of 3D city layout generation.

192 4.1.1 Evaluation Metrics

193 We use three popular metrics proposed in [3] to evaluate generation. *Jensen-Shannon Divergence*
 194 (JSD) measures the similarity of marginal distributions between reference and generated sets. The
 195 distribution of data is calculated by counting the points in each discretized grid cell. *Coverage*
 196 (COV) measures the fraction of points in generated data that are matched to the corresponding closest
 197 neighbor points in the reference data. *Minimum Matching Distance* (MMD) measures the fidelity
 198 of a generated set with respect to a reference set by matching each generated point to the point in
 199 reference data with the minimum distance. MMD is the average of distances in the matching.

200 For COV and MMD, we only select *Chamfer Distance* (CD) to compute the distance between two
 201 point clouds. We leave out *Earth Mover’s Distance* (EMD) as it requires the number of instances in
 202 two sets to be equal, which is not suitable for our generation evaluation.

203 We introduce *Overlapping Area Ratio* (OAR) to measure the extent of overlapping in generated
 204 layouts. Different from *Intersection over Union* (IoU), OAR measures the ratio of objects’ area that
 205 have overlapped with others to all objects’ area, instead of the ratio of intersection area among objects
 206 to the union of all objects’ area, which can be defined as:

$$OAR(O) = \frac{\sum_{o \in O} A(o), \text{ if } (o \cap \hat{o}), \forall \hat{o} \in \{O - o\}}{\sum_{o' \in O} A(o')}, \quad (1)$$

207 where $A(\cdot)$ is the object o area, \cap indicates two overlapping objects, O is the set of generated objects.

208 4.1.2 Baselines

209 **CityEngine.** ESRI CityEngine is a commercial software that uses a procedural modeling approach
 210 based on L-systems to create large-scale city models. This approach is different from deep generative
 211 models that are data-driven. By creating road networks and dividing the parcels into lots, it generates
 212 buildings on the allotments using predefined rules and parameters. The building footprint is generated
 213 using default rules with some manual adjustment of parameters.

214 **SketchRNN-R2.** SketchRNN is a generative model to generate sketch drawings [12]. This model
 215 seems intuitively suitable to solve our problem. We convert each city layout data to a list of points as
 216 a sketch with x,y coordinates according to the input of SketchRNN. Specifically, for a batch with 32
 217 building footprints, the converted sketch consists of 128 points by taking all corners.

218 **SketchRNN-R5.** Based on vanilla SketchRNN, we explore replacing the parameter of a city layout
 219 data (i.e. the center coordinates, length, width, height and orientation angle) with x,y coordinates
 220 of a sketch. So we transform a batch of data to a sketch with 32 high dimension points, which
 221 incorporates 5 elements: $(\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta l, \Delta l, \Delta a)$. The first five elements are the offset parameters
 222 from the previous box. Different from [12], we use 1D to represent the binary state of the pen (at its
 223 end or not), since we assume that the pen draws 32 points in succession.

224 **PointNet-MLP.** In addition, we benchmark a simple baseline model, which adopts PointNet [20] as
 225 the encoder by regarding a city layout (corner points) as a point cloud. By reference to the decoder of
 226 SketchRNN, we employ MLP to decode the latent representations to parameters for a probability
 227 distribution of points. Meanwhile, the loss function aims to maximize the log-likelihood of the
 228 generated probability distribution to explain the training data.

229 **PointNet2-MLP.** Moreover, we replace the PointNet with PointNet++ [21] as model encoder while
 230 keeping the same experimental settings as PointNet-MLP.

231 **AETree.** Lastly, we propose AETree, a tree structured neural network that efficiently encodes and
 232 generates areal spatial data hierarchically. A tree encoder with LSTMCell learns to extract and
 233 merge spatial information from bottom-up iteratively. The resulting global representation is reversely
 234 decoded for reconstruction or generation. More details can be found in the Appendix.

235 4.1.3 Results

Table 2: Quantitative comparisons of city layout generation performance with various data-driven baseline methods. The first four columns represent the results of models under four generation evaluation metrics and the last two columns measure the complexity of models.

Methods	JSD(↓)	COV(% , ↑)	MMD(↓)	OAR(% , ↓)	#params	FLOPs/sample
SketchRNN-R2	0.0089	33.62	0.0050	1.83	2.19M	243.13M
SketchRNN-R5	0.0101	28.76	0.0047	95.41	2.37M	402.46M
PointNet-MLP	0.0417	4.60	0.0219	87.47	1.84M	3.67M
PointNet2-MLP	0.0407	22.36	0.0086	56.39	2.03M	31.55M
AETree	0.0033	39.53	0.0044	1.66	2.91M	31.86M

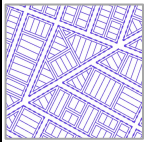

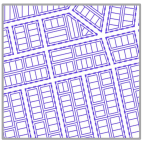
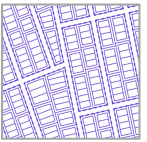
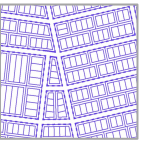
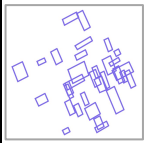
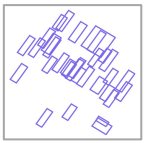
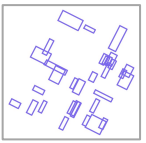
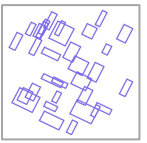
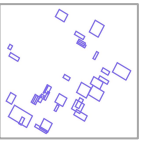
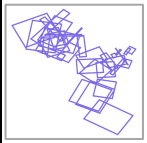
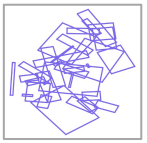
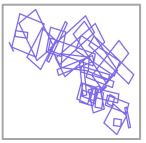
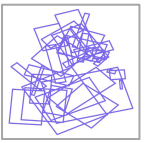
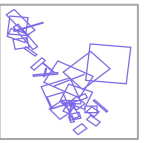
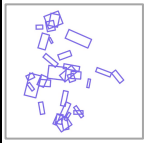
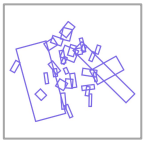

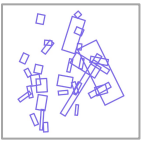

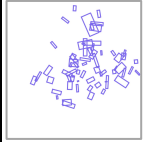
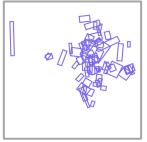
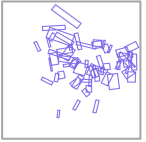
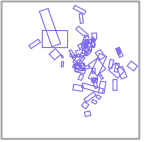
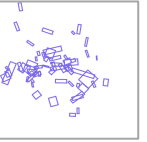
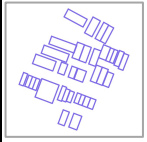
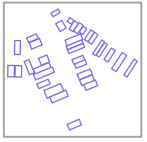
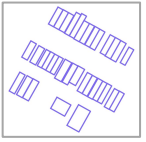
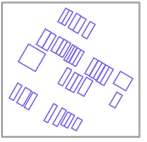
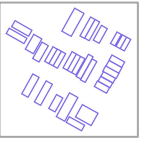
Non data-driven methods	CityEngine					
Data-driven methods	SketchRNN-R2					
	SketchRNN-R5					
	PointNet-MLP					
	PointNet2-MLP					
	AETree					

Figure 8: City layout generation results of the models trained on NYC dataset.

236 We quantitatively compare the city layout generation results in Table 2. Baseline models do not
 237 perform well across the four evaluation metrics, in comparison with the proposed AETree model. To
 238 intuitively show model performance, we randomly select some generation results of each model, as
 239 shown in Figure 8. Generated layouts from the SketchRNN and AETree model are more regular than
 240 the other three data-driven methods. CityEngine is able to generate well-ordered city layouts, but
 241 loses style variance due to its rigid set of predetermined parameters and rules.

242 4.1.4 Discussion

243 The results demonstrate that most data-driven baseline models do not perform well on our city layout
 244 generation dataset. While the proposed AETree model generates reasonable city layout results,
 245 there is still significant room for improvement on 3D minimum bounding cuboid data (see Figure
 246 9). Furthermore, both 2D building footprints and 3D minimum bounding cuboids are generated by
 247 simplifying the original LoD2 to LoD1. We expect that it will be difficult to achieve detailed city
 248 layout generation based on existing methods, thus we divided this problem into two sub-tasks. We invite the
 249 research community to develop novel city layout generation methods using RealCity3D.

250 4.2 Task 2: Building Shape Generation

251 One unique property of building object of RealCity3D is being geometrically highly constrained. For
 252 example, most buildings have vertical walls and planar surfaces, but some involve highly intricate
 253 facade details (e.g. the Empire State Building compared to a town house). This would be challenging
 254 for existing 3D deep learning models to learn features from building objects. To demonstrate this,

Table 3: Benchmark of point cloud generation on two datasets.

RealCity3D	JSD	Coverage	MMD
Raw-GAN	0.068	47.6	0.061
Latent-GAN [3]	0.024	57.3	0.088
ShapeNet [5]	JSD	Coverage	MMD
Raw-GAN	0.176	52.3	0.0020
Latent-GAN [3]	0.020	68.9	0.0018

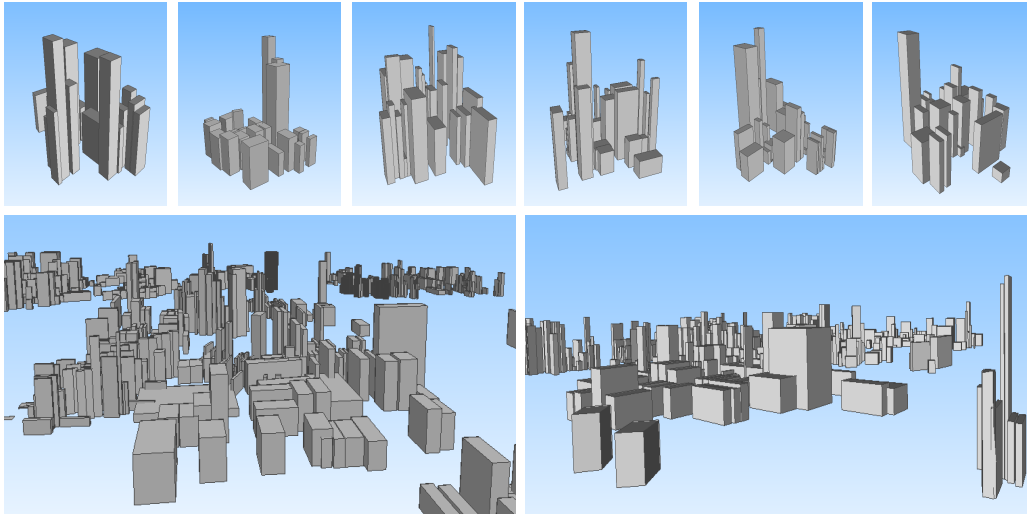


Figure 9: 3D generation results of AETree trained on the NYC Dataset

255 we train FoldingNet on the point cloud representations of RealCity3D, and qualitatively show the
 256 challenges it faces in reconstructing the 3D building shapes (Appendix Figure 16).

257 To quantitatively evaluate the difficulty of this task, we choose to train Raw-GAN and Latent-GAN
 258 for building shape generation on the point cloud representation of our datasets. We also perform
 259 the same experiments on ShapeNet [5], a simpler object-level dataset, and compare the generation
 260 results using JSD, COV, and MMD metrics (metric descriptions in Section 4.1.1). We report results
 261 in Table 3. The same generative models perform differently on the two datasets, indicating the two
 262 datasets have different properties relating to 3D shapes generation. The visualized generation
 263 results of Latent-GAN are shown in Appendix Figure 15. It can be seen that the reconstructions lost many
 264 important geometric details and variations of the 3D building shapes. Hence, the uniqueness of
 265 RealCity3D and the additional learning challenge it poses to 3D computer vision community are
 266 further demonstrated.

267 5 Conclusions

268 In this paper, we introduce RealCity3D, a large-scale georeferenced 3D shape dataset of real-world
 269 cities, including New York City and Zurich. The dataset covers more than 871.7 square kilometers
 270 and consists of over 1,000,000 georeferenced objects, which are represented in polygon meshes,
 271 triangle meshes, point clouds, and voxel grids. The polygon meshes also contain semantic information
 272 of objects. Based on RealCity3D, we explore city-level generation and perform two benchmarks
 273 including building footprint and building shape generation. Through these benchmarking experiments,
 274 we demonstrate that our dataset poses novel challenges to existing data-driven generation methods
 275 on a city-scale scene. In the near future, we will extend our dataset to include more cities and more
 276 shape categories, such as roads, bridges, etc. We hope the RealCity3D dataset can accelerate the
 277 research community’s work in developing deep generative models for large-scale generation.

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354 Checklist

- 355 1. For all authors...
- 356 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s
 357 contributions and scope? [Yes] See last paragraph in Section 1.
- 358 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] We discuss the limitation of state
 359 of the art data-driven methods on our dataset in Section 4.1.4.
- 360 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [N/A]
- 361 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to
 362 them? [Yes]
- 363 2. If you are including theoretical results...
- 364 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- 365 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- 366 3. If you ran experiments (e.g. for benchmarks)...
- 367 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-
 368 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] See Section A.1.
- 369 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they
 370 were chosen)? [Yes] See Section 4.1.
- 371 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-
 372 ments multiple times)? [No]
- 373 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type
 374 of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] See Section 4.1.
- 375 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
- 376 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes] See Section 3.2 and
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- 378 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] See Section A.3 and A.2
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 380 See Section A.1.
- 381 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re
 382 using/curating? [Yes] See Section A.2.
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 384 information or offensive content? [Yes] See Section A.2.
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- 386 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if
 387 applicable? [N/A]
- 388 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review
 389 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
- 390 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount
 391 spent on participant compensation? [N/A]