
FV-NeRV: Neural Compression for Free Viewpoint Videos

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Abstract

1 The delivery of free viewpoint videos (FVVs) is gaining popularity because of their
2 ability to provide freely switchable perspectives to remote users as immersive expe-
3 riences. While smooth view switching is crucial for enhancing user’s experiences,
4 FVV delivery faces a significant challenge in balancing traffic and decoding latency.
5 The typical approach sends limited viewpoints and synthesizes the remainings on
6 the user, reducing traffic, but increasing decoding delays. Alternatively, sending
7 more viewpoints reduces the delay, but requires more bandwidth for transmission.
8 In this paper, we propose a novel FVV representation format, FV-NeRV (Free
9 Viewpoint-Neural Representation for Videos), to address this dilemma in FVV
10 delivery. FV-NeRV reduces both traffic and decoding delay even for content with
11 a large number of virtual viewpoints by overfitting compact neural networks to
12 all viewpoints and pruning and quantizing the trained model. Experiments using
13 FVVs show that FV-NeRV achieves a comparable or even superior traffic reduction
14 with faster decoding speed compared to existing FVV codecs and NeRV formats.

15 1 Introduction

16 Free-viewpoint video (FVV) [1, 2] is an emerging technique that allows freely switchable viewing
17 experience even with the limited number of physical cameras. For this purpose, FVV generates video
18 frames from any desired viewpoint utilizing a limited set of texture and depth frames of multiple
19 cameras and their positions [3, 4]. This technique enables us to create a new type of immersive
20 experience in the field of, for example, entertainment [5], digital archive, medical imaging [6].

21 Ensuring seamless view-switching between viewpoints is vital for enhancing user experiences; thus,
22 users naturally demand as many viewpoints as possible. However, it is not necessarily the case that all
23 viewpoints desired by users are pre-recorded, so there arises a need to synthesize and transmit frames
24 from viewpoints other than those actually recorded, using the frames from the recorded perspectives.
25 Although many existing solutions focus on the generation of high quality free viewpoints [3, 7] from
26 the limited number of physical views, we are still faced with a dilemma regarding the practical use of
27 FVV: balancing traffic and decoding speed.

28 Depending on who actually handles the rendering of frames for the necessary viewpoints, we can
29 consider sender-side rendering and user-side rendering. In the sender-side rendering, a content sender
30 with rich computational resources synthesizes the video frames from all the viewpoints on demand
31 in advance. We can conceal decoding time from the users, but sending pre-rendered video frames
32 of all the viewpoints increases traffic proportionally. In contrast, in user-side rendering, the sender
33 encodes video frames only from the physical viewpoints into a bitstream, distributes them to users,
34 and commits the users to synthesize desired viewpoints locally as they want. In this way, we can avoid
35 a rapid increase in traffic with an increase in the number of viewpoints. However, a long decoding
36 delay caused by complex rendering operations, such as 3D warping and hole filling, prevents real-time

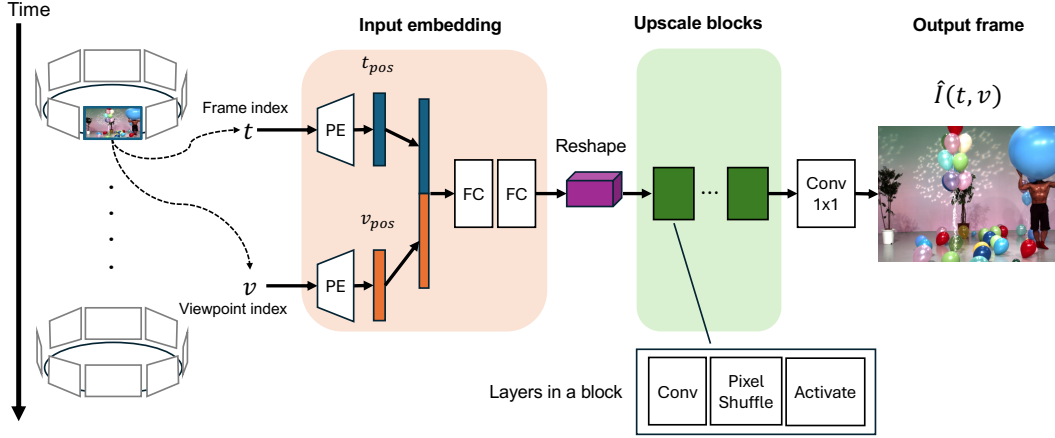


Figure 1: Overview of FV-NeRV

37 playback, that is, limited frame per second (fps), especially with the limited computational power on
 38 the user device.

39 In this paper, we propose **FV-NeRV**, a novel FVV format designed to effectively address the
 40 drawbacks of both the sender- and user-side rendering. This approach is heavily inspired by recent
 41 developments in frame-based implicit neural representation (INR) [8–16]. FV-NeRV operates on
 42 the principle of sender-side rendering while allowing all viewpoints to be transmitted to the user in
 43 an extremely lightweight manner, and this lightweight characteristic is achieved by leveraging INR
 44 techniques to overfit the transmitted content to a compact neural network. The technical contribution
 45 of FV-NeRV is that, unlike all frame-based INR derivatives, we make the compact neural network take
 46 viewpoint indices in addition to frame indices and overfit the video frames of the desired viewpoints
 47 to a single network at once. The network is capable of leveraging both multiview and temporal
 48 coherences during encoding, thereby effectively representing FVV across multiple viewpoints without
 49 a corresponding increase in model size, i.e., traffic. Moreover, the compact network benefits the user
 50 in terms of real-time FVV decoding by skipping compute-intensive rendering operations. Experiments
 51 on the FVV dataset show that the proposed FV-NeRV simultaneously outperforms existing FVV
 52 schemes in terms of traffic and decoding speed.

53 Related Work and Contributions

54 Recent INR architectures have been designed for image and video compression. Specifically, they
 55 send the overfitted weights of the INR architecture to the user side, and the user reconstructs video
 56 frames by feeding the coordinates and corresponding features. Existing studies have proposed the
 57 frame-wise INR architectures. Specifically, they feed the frame index and/or corresponding features
 58 to the INR architecture to generate a video frame. NeRV [8] is the first work of the INR architecture
 59 for frame-wise video reconstruction, and there are many extensions of NeRV architectures [9–18] for
 60 quality improvement.

61 Our FV-NeRV is the first study on the frame-wise INR architecture for low-delay and low-traffic FVV.
 62 Although some studies [19, 20] have designed the frame-wise INR architecture for multiview texture
 63 and depth videos, they considered user-side rendering and needed view synthesis operations for the
 64 reconstruction of the desired viewpoints. The proposed FV-NeRV is a novel approach for sender-side
 65 rendering, effectively averts traffic increase by overfitting single and compact neural networks to
 66 various viewpoints.

67 2 FV-NeRV

68 Fig. 1 shows the overview of the proposed FV-NeRV architecture. Let $\{I(t, v)\}_{t=1, v=1}^{T, V}$ be an FVV
 69 sequence consisting of an RGB video frame $I(t, v) \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ with T frames and V physical and
 70 virtual viewpoints. Here, $t, v \in [0, 1]$ are normalized frame and viewpoint indices, and H and W

71 are the height and width of the video frame. The proposed FV-NeRV architecture can be defined by
 72 a mapping function f with learnable parameters θ from the frame and viewpoint indices t, v to the
 73 corresponding video frame $I(t, v)$ as follows:

$$f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}. \quad (1)$$

74 The goal of the proposed FV-NeRV architecture is to obtain the indices-to-frame mapping for the
 75 video frame of each desired viewpoint. For this purpose, we obtain the optimal function $f(t, v; \theta) \approx f$
 76 via network training with learnable parameters θ using the FVV sequence $\{I(t, v)\}_{t=1, v=1}^{T, V}$.

77 The trained parameters are then further compressed and sent to users as $\hat{\theta}$. Once users receive the
 78 parameters, they can reconstruct the t -th video frames of the desired viewpoint v by feeding the
 79 corresponding indices to the FV-NeRV architecture $f(t, v; \hat{\theta})$.

80 2.1 Model Architecture

81 FV-NeRV architecture $f(t, v; \theta)$ consists of a MLP and an upscaling module. The MLP part starts
 82 from positional embedding (PE) for both the frame and the viewpoint indices, which projects a single
 83 scaler onto a high-dimensional vector. The vector maintains the positional information of the index
 84 throughout the video sequence. As proposed in [8], we use a sinusoidal positional embedding with
 85 the basis b and level l as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{t}_{\text{pos}} &= (\sin(b^0 \pi t), \cos(b^0 \pi t), \dots, \sin(b^{l-1} \pi t), \cos(b^{l-1} \pi t)) \in \mathbb{R}^{2l}, \\ \mathbf{v}_{\text{pos}} &= (\sin(b^0 \pi v), \cos(b^0 \pi v), \dots, \sin(b^{l-1} \pi v), \cos(b^{l-1} \pi v)) \in \mathbb{R}^{2l}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

86 These embeddings are concatenated $[\mathbf{t}_{\text{pos}}, \mathbf{v}_{\text{pos}}]$ and passed to the successive fully-connected (FC)
 87 layers. Finally, the output is reshaped to a 2D feature map $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^{h_0 \times w_0 \times c}$, where h_0, w_0, c are the
 88 height, width, and channel.

89 The upscaling module is made up of L upscaling blocks, implemented using NeRV blocks [8], which
 90 gradually enhance the resolution of the feature map. Specifically, the l -th block first performs 2D
 91 convolution to increase channels by $h_{l-1} \times w_{l-1} \times c \cdot s_l^2$, and then 2D pixel shuffle to increase
 92 resolution by $h_{l-1} \cdot s_l \times w_{l-1} \cdot s_l \times c$, where s_l is the scaling factor for the l -th block. The feature
 93 map will have a resolution of $h \cdot s_1 \dots s_L \times w \cdot s_1 \dots s_L \times c$ after L upscaling blocks, and finally,
 94 the header layer of the 1×1 2D convolution projects the feature map to the final output with the
 95 resolution of $H \times W \times 3$ pixels.

96 2.2 Loss Function

97 To train the proposed FV-NeRV architecture, we integrate mean absolute error (MAE) and structural
 98 similarity (SSIM) losses as the following:

$$l = \frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{V} \sum_{t=1, v=1}^{T, V} \{ \alpha \cdot \text{MAE}(f(t, v; \theta), I(t, v)) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot (1 - \text{SSIM}(f(t, v; \theta), I(t, v))) \}, \quad (3)$$

99 where α is hyper-parameter to balance MAE and SSIM losses. Note that MAE represents the
 100 pixel loss averaged across the whole frame. Here, the MAE loss helps minimize the pixel-level
 101 distortions, whereas the SSIM loss reduces the perceptual distortion, e.g., blockwise distortion, during
 102 the training.

103 2.3 Model Compression

104 We introduce model compression for the overfitted FV-NeRV model to further reduce transmission
 105 and storage costs. Like existing INR models, the proposed FV-NeRV follows the model pruning,
 106 weight quantization, and weight encoding.

107 2.3.1 Model Pruning

108 Given the overfitted FV-NeRV model, global unstructured pruning is used to reduce the model size.
 109 Let θ_q be the q -percentile value of all parameters θ . FV-NeRV sets weights with magnitudes below

110 θ_q to zero as follows:

$$\hat{\theta} = \begin{cases} \theta & \theta \geq \theta_q \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

111 After pruning the model, the pruned FV-NeRV parameters $\hat{\theta}$ are fine-tuned using the same dataset.

112 2.3.2 Model Quantization and Encoding

113 The fine-tuned parameters are then uniformly quantized with respect to the given bit depth N_b ,
 114 followed by the entropy coding. Given a parameter tensor $\mu \in \hat{\theta}$, the quantized parameter tensor μ_q
 115 is given as:

$$\mu_q = \text{round} \left(\frac{\mu - \mu_{\min}}{2^{N_b}} \right) * s + \mu_{\min}, \quad s = \frac{\mu_{\max} - \mu_{\min}}{2^{N_b}}, \quad (5)$$

116 where $\text{round}(\cdot)$ is a rounding function to the nearest integer and μ_{\max} and μ_{\min} are the maximum
 117 and minimum values for the parameter tensor μ . The quantized tensor μ_q is finally coded into binaries
 118 using entropy coding. FV-NeRV uses Huffman coding for binarization. Since the distribution of the
 119 tensor parameters μ_q tends to zero, especially at small bit depths, the Huffman coding further reduces
 120 the size of the model.

121 3 Experiments

122 We evaluate the performance of our FV-NeRV with respect to the quality of decoded video sequences
 123 and decoding delay, using an FVV dataset obtained in the real world.

124 3.1 Settings

125 **Dataset:** We use a free-view TV dataset provided by Nagoya University [21] and specifically 2
 126 FVV sessions “Balloons” and “Kendo” in the dataset. This dataset provides RGB frame sequences
 127 and depth image sequences for these two sessions. For both, the frame resolution is 768×1024
 128 and the total number of frames T is 300. For every sequence, we choose 2 physical viewpoints,
 129 synthesize 9 virtual viewpoints in between, and utilize these 11-frame sequences as our own dataset
 130 for the experiments. We use High-Efficiency Video Coding (HEVC) test model (HTM) software
 131 renderer [22] for intermediate view synthesizing. The dispersion of camera positions is 10 cm for the
 132 selected viewpoints and 1 cm for the synthesized viewpoints. When frame indices or view indices are
 133 required, normalized indices $\{v|v = 0, 0.1, \dots, 1\}$ and $\{t|t = 0, 1/300, 2/300, \dots, 1\}$ are used.

134 **Baselines:** In our experiment, we consider two scenarios for how an FVV sequence is encoded,
 135 decoded, and transmitted and select the corresponding baseline for each as the competitive method
 136 for our FV-NeRV.

- 137 1. **User-side rendering.** The sender encodes the texture and depth image sequences for the
 138 selected viewpoints in a format and sends it to a user. The user first reconstructs the encoded
 139 texture and depth image sequences and takes charge of synthesizing RGB frame sequences
 140 for any other viewpoints as they want. As a baseline for this scenario, we use 3D AVC test
 141 model (3D-ATM) [23], an existing FVV codec that produces a bit stream from given texture
 142 and depth frame sequences. 3D-ATM employs delta encoding in both the temporal and
 143 geometric domains, accounting for motion and view disparity compensation.
- 144 2. **Sender-side rendering.** The sender uses an image renderer to synthesize all the frame
 145 sequences for intermediate views in advance and then sends all encoded for each viewpoint
 146 to a user. For this scenario, we use NeRV+, in which we simply train as many NeRV
 147 networks as the viewpoints to be sent. For a total of V viewpoints, both actually recorded
 148 and synthesized, NeRV+ prepares dependent networks $\{f(t; \theta_i) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3} \mid i =$
 149 $1, \dots, V\}$ and overfits each network to each view as single-view video encoding. After
 150 obtaining all V models, the user executes feedforward operations with these models by
 151 sequentially inputting frame indices and decoding the frame sequences.

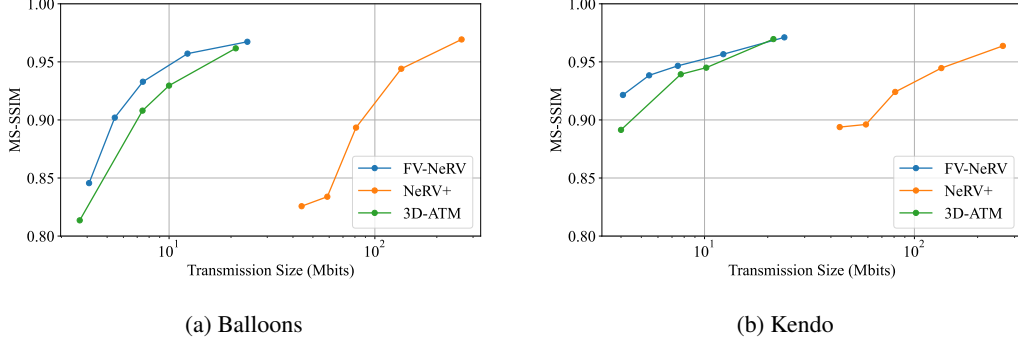


Figure 2: Average MS-SSIM index of the proposed and baseline schemes as a function of the total data size using (a) “Balloons” sequence and (b) “Kendo” sequence [2].

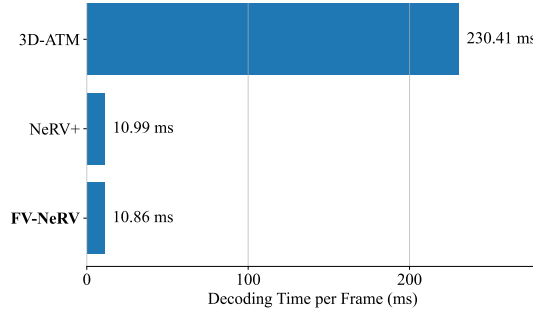


Figure 3: Average decoding time for each frame across “Balloons” and “Kendo” video sequences.

FV-NeRV and NeRV+ training: Models for the proposed FV-NeRV and NeRV+ are trained with the Adam optimizer with a learning rate of $5e-4$. We implement a cosine annealing learning rate schedule, incorporating a 10-epoch warm-up phase, with a batch size of 1 over a total of 50 training epochs. Following model pruning, we retrain the networks for an additional 50 epochs to fine-tune them. For the loss function in Eq. (3), α is set to 0.7.

Hardware and Software: All experiments are performed on a computer with Intel(R) Core(TM) i9-10850K CPU@3.60GHz, 128 GB memory, and NVIDIA RTX 3080 with 10 GB memory. The networks of NeRV+ and our FV-NeRV are implemented with Pytorch (2.2.0).

Model size control: We control the data size of the proposed and baseline schemes to evaluate their performance under varying compression levels. For 3D-ATM, we control different quantization parameters (QPs) for changing the size of the encoded bitstream. Here, an identical QP is used for the texture and depth video frames. Specifically, we use 33, 40, 43, and 50 QP for compression.

For NeRV+ and FV-NeRV, we control the size of the model by changing the number of network parameters and the degree of pruning and quantization. For both architectures, there are 5 upscale blocks, with up-scale factor 4, 2, 2, 2, 2 respectively for both “Balloons” and “Kendo” video sequences. In addition, we use $b = 1.25$ and $l = 40$ for input embedding in Eq. (2). For pruning and model quantization, we set $q = 40\%$ pruning ratio and $N_b = 8$ bit weight quantization according to the ablation study in [8].

Metrics: As the video quality metric, we use Multi-Scale Structural Similarity (MS-SSIM) [24]. MS-SSIM is computed for each pair of frames, yet it remains valuable for assessing the overall video quality aligned with human perception. The value ranges from 0 to 1 and a higher value close to 1 indicates a higher perceptual similarity between the original and decoded video frames. The decoding delay is measured by the average processing time required for a single frame reconstruction in the proposed FV-NeRV and NeRV+ and single-frame rendering in 3D-ATM.

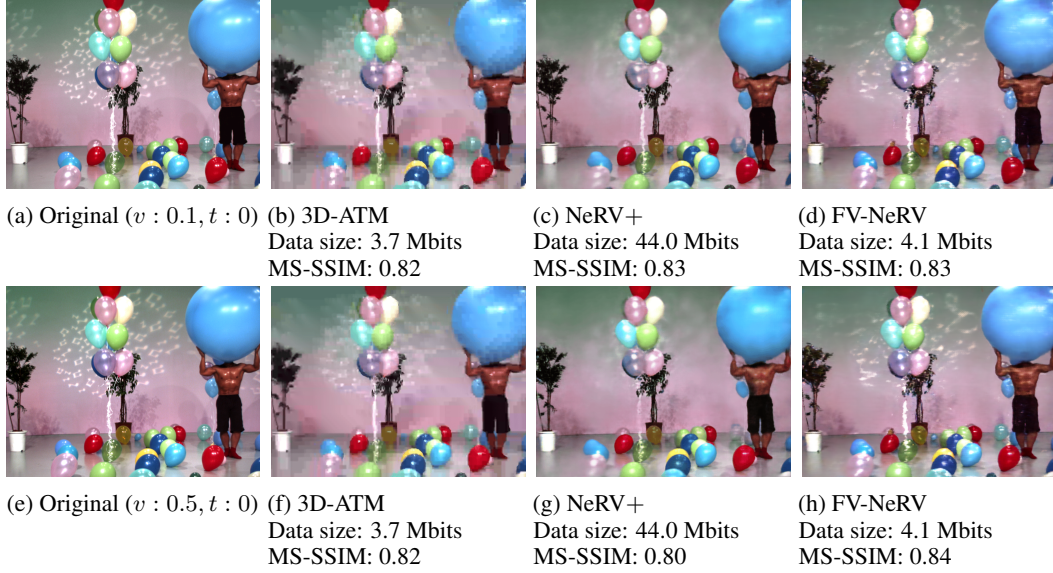


Figure 4: Snapshot of “Balloons” in the baselines and the proposed FV-NeRV schemes.

3.2 Performance Evaluation

Figs. 2 (a) and (b) show the MS-SSIM index as a function of the size of the data in the proposed and baseline schemes using “Balloons” and “Kendo” video sequences, respectively. It shows that the proposed FV-NeRV achieves a better MS-SSIM index compared to the existing 3D-ATM, especially in narrow-band environments. Even though 3D-ATM is the user-side rendering and sends texture and depth frames of adjacent viewpoints, that of the data size is larger than that of the proposed FV-NeRV. NeRV+, which is the sender-side rendering, proportionally increases the size of the data as the number of physical and virtual viewpoints increases, since it sends the overfitted parameters of all viewpoints to the receiver.

Fig. 3 shows the average decoding delay of the proposed and baseline schemes in the video sequences of “Balloons” and “Kendo”. Here, the data size of the proposed FV-NeRV and existing 3D-ATM is approximately 4.0 Mbits, while that of the NeRV+ is approximately 44.0 Mbits. The proposed FV-NeRV achieves the lowest decoding delay for video frame reco, comparable to the NeRV+ scheme, with a scheme with significantly small data size. 3D-ATM The 3D-ATM scheme needs to perform view synthesis to reconstruct video frames of the desired viewpoints, and such view synthesis operations cause more than 20 times longer decoding delays proposed FV-NeRV.

Figs. 4 show the snapshots of the original and reconstructed “Balloons” frames of the desired viewpoints in the proposed and baseline schemes. Here, the frame index t is 0, and the viewpoint indices v are 0.1 and 0.5, respectively. Furthermore, the data size of the proposed and the baselines is the same as in Fig. 3.

The snapshots in Figs. 4 (a) through (h) show that the proposed FV-NeRV reconstructs clean video frames regardless of the viewpoint positions. The reconstructed video frames in the 3D-ATM scheme are completely noisy due to large distortions in the texture and depth video frames. Although NeRV+ can reduce noise, it does not reconstruct white lights near the center balloons.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed FV-NeRV, a novel FVV representation that addresses the challenge of balancing traffic and decoding latency in FVV delivery. By overfitting compact neural networks to all viewpoints and reducing the model through pruning and quantization, FV-NeRV simultaneously reduces both traffic and decoding delay. Experiments demonstrated that FV-NeRV outperforms existing FVV codecs and NeRV, offering a more efficient solution for smooth view-switching.

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A Appendix

A.1 Video Representations in Dense Viewpoints and Different Video Sequences

We have prepared some results of video frame reconstruction as shown in Fig. 5 and 6 under the XS model size. In particular, in Fig. 6, we show the reconstructed video frames when the distance between the viewpoints is 1 cm. Although the camera arrangement is dense, the proposed FV-NeRV can reconstruct clean video frames of arbitrary viewpoints from the single compact model. In 3D-ATM, block noise occurs in the whole frame due to block-wise lossy operations for compression. The proposed FV-NeRV prevents block noise because the proposed upsampling blocks reconstruct the whole video frame at once. However, detailed visual information, such as the bamboo sword in each player, disappears when the size of the model is small.

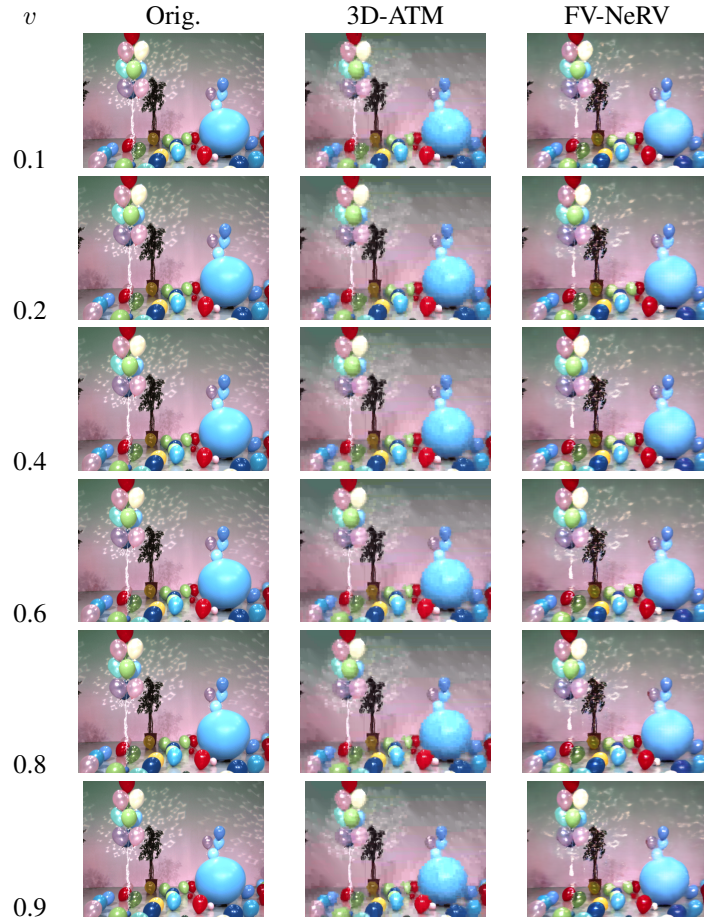


Figure 5: Reconstructed “Balloons” video frame at $t = 0.5$ of the XS-sized proposed and baseline schemes for different viewpoints v .

270 A.2 Training settings for NeRVs

271 Table 1 lists the parameter settings in the proposed FV-NeRV during training, pruning, and quantization.

Table 1: Parameter settings for our FV-NeRV.

	Name	Notation	Value
Positional Embedding	Basis	b	1.25
	Level	l	40
Training parameters	Batch size	B	1
	Epoch	-	50
	Epoch (fine-tune)	-	50
	Optimizer	-	Adam
	Learning rate	-	5e-4
	Learning rate scheduling	-	Cosine Annealing
	Loss function weight factor	α	0.7
Model compression	Model pruning threshold	q	40%
	Model quantization depth	N_b	8

272

273 A.3 Detail Network Architectures for NeRVs

274 Table 2 shows the detailed network architecture of FV-NeRV. c_0 varies between different model sizes.
 275 SiLU stands for the activation function of the Sigmoid Linear Unit and is defined as:

$$\text{SiLU}(x) = x * \sigma(x),$$

where $\sigma(x)$ is the logistic sigmoid.

Table 2: Network architecture of FV-NeRV. Here, c_0 varies between different model sizes.

Group	Layer	Output Shape
Input		$[B, 2]$
Positional Embedding		$[B, 160]$
FC Layers	Linear	$[B, 512]$
	SiLU	-
	Linear	$[B, 12 \times 16 \times c_0]$
	SiLU	-
Reshape		$[B, c_0, 12, 16]$
Upsample Blocks	NeRV block 1	$[B, c_0, 48, 64]$
	NeRV block 2	$[B, 96, 96, 128]$
	NeRV block 3	$[B, 96, 192, 256]$
	NeRV block 4	$[B, 96, 384, 512]$
	NeRV block 5	$[B, 96, 768, 1024]$
Conv head		$[B, 3, 768, 1024]$
i th NeRV block	2D Convolution	$[B, c_{i-1} * s^2, h_{i-1}, w_{i-1}]$
	Pixel shuffling	$[B, c_i, h_i, w_i]$
	SiLU	-

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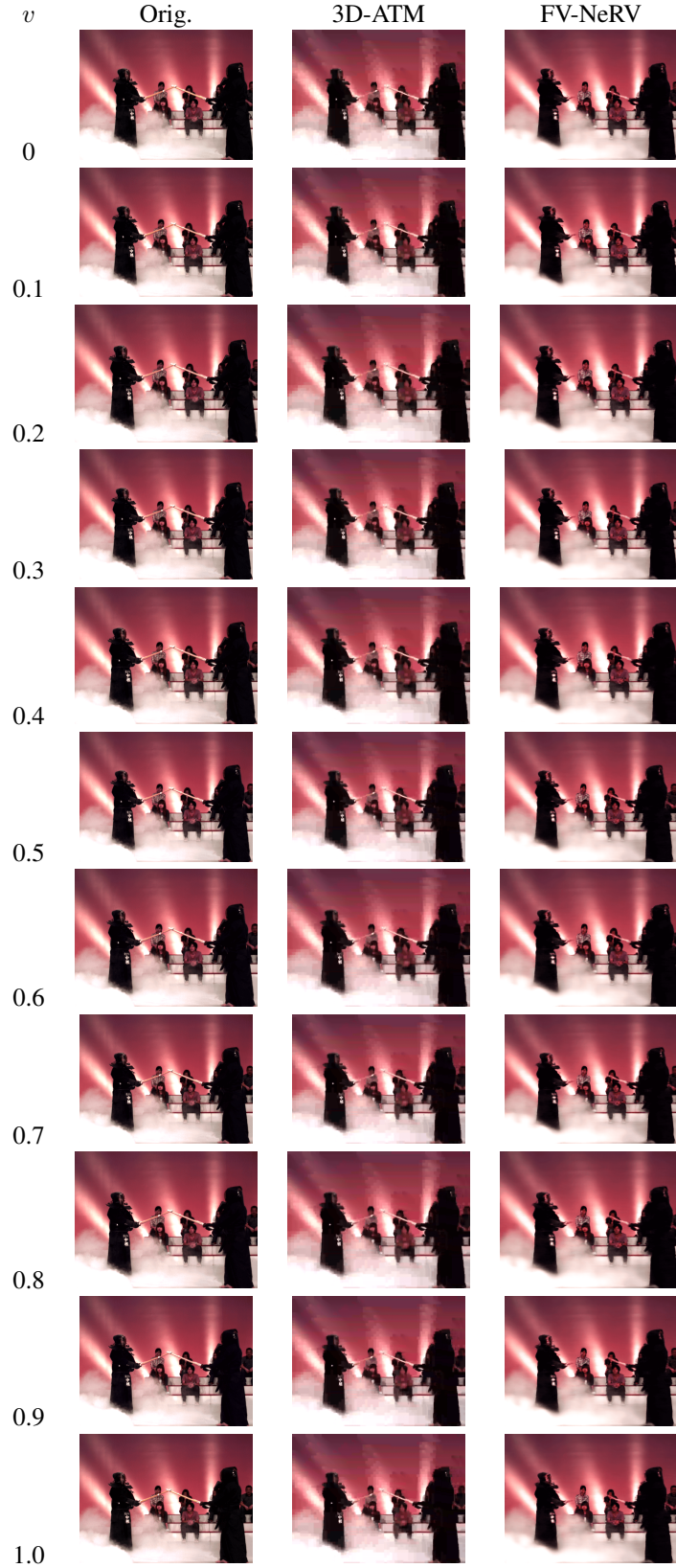


Figure 6: Reconstructed “Kendo” video frame at $t = 0.5$ of the XS-sized proposed and baseline schemes for different viewpoints v .