D³RoMa: Disparity Diffusion-based Depth Sensing for Material-Agnostic Robotic Manipulation

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https://PKU-EPIC.github.io/D3RoMa

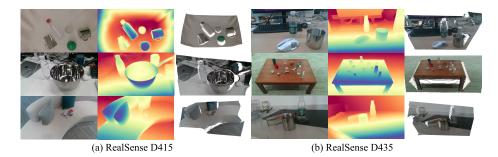


Fig. 1: Generalizability of D³RoMa in the real world. Our method robustly predicts transparent (bottles) and specular (basin and cups) object depths in tabletop environments and beyond. RGB image, pseudo colorized disparity map, and point cloud are displayed for each case of a total of 6 frames captured by camera RealSense D415 and D435. RGB and depth images are not aligned for the D435 camera for better visualization.

Abstract. Depth sensing is an important problem for 3D vision-based robotics. Yet, a real-world active stereo or ToF depth camera often produces noisy and incomplete depth which bottlenecks robot performances. In this work, we propose D³RoMa, a learning-based depth estimation framework on stereo image pairs that predicts clean and accurate depth in diverse indoor scenes, even in the most challenging scenarios with translucent or specular surfaces where classical depth sensing completely fails. Key to our method is that we unify depth estimation and restoration into an image-to-image translation problem by predicting the disparity map with a denoising diffusion probabilistic model. At inference time, we further incorporated a left-right consistency constraint as classifier guidance to the diffusion process. Our framework combines recently advanced learning-based approaches and geometric constraints from traditional stereo vision. For model training, we create a large scene-level synthetic

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dataset with diverse transparent and specular objects to compensate for existing tabletop datasets. The trained model can be directly applied to real-world in-the-wild scenes and achieve state-of-the-art performance in multiple public depth estimation benchmarks. Further experiments in real environments show that accurate depth prediction significantly improves robotic manipulation in various scenarios.

Keywords: Depth Estimation, Diffusion Model, Stereo Vision

1 Introduction

With the extensive use of stereo cameras, stereo depth estimation has been one of the most widely studied problems in robotics for determining the target object position or acquiring 3D information of the environment [15; 16; 27; 43]. However, the depth maps provided by existing stereo cameras suffer from severe noise, inaccuracy, and incompleteness issues, bottlenecking robot performances regardless of their well-developed recognition and manipulation algorithms.

Traditional stereo-to-depth algorithms such as SGM [17] have fundamental issues: (i) In principle, they cannot tackle non-Lambertian surfaces due to the intricate light paths; (ii) Occlusion and out-of-view areas prohibit the computation of pixel correspondences. Recent works have leveraged learning-based techniques for acquiring or restoring better depth maps [29; 53]. While they alleviate the above issues to a certain extent, predicting the depth for transparent and specular objects remains challenging as their image features from RGB pixel values are inherently ambiguous due to foreground-background color blending and thus can be misleading to correspondence estimation [22].

In this work, we propose D³RoMa. Instead of building our network with cost volumes as in most prior works, we transform the dense matching problem in depth estimation into an image-to-image translation problem by predicting the disparity map with a denoising diffusion probabilistic model. Such a paradigm does not rely on low-level feature matching but rather unleashes the power of generative models to directly translate the left and right frames into the target disparity image. More concretely, our method brings twofold benefits: (i) Unlike the regression models as in prior works, the diffusion model in our framework enables generative modeling of multi-modal depth distributions for transparent or translucent surfaces. (ii) The multi-step denoising process resembles the iterative solver, replacing prior iterative networks such as RAFT-Stereo [29] and HitNet [51].

Additionally, at inference time, we further incorporate the geometric constraints from traditional stereo vision by introducing a left-right consistency loss. The loss is integrated into the diffusion sampling process as a classifier guidance. The whole paradigm combines learning-based predictions and traditional geometric modeling through a simple summation of their gradients in the score function of the diffusion model.

To train the network, we craft a synthetic dataset HSSD-IsaacSim-STD (HISS) of around 10,000 stereo image pairs simulating real active stereo infrared patterns, including more than 350 transparent and specular objects in more than 160 indoor scenes [24]. Our dataset greatly extends the existing datasets that are limited to near-diffusive materials, table-top settings, or without realistic depth sensor simulation [5; 7; 39; 44; 56; 66]. Trained on our synthetic dataset, our model can be directly applied to real-world in-the-wild scenes (Figure 1) and achieve state-of-the-art performances not only on traditional stereo benchmarks but also on datasets targeting specular, transparent, and diffusive (STD) objects. To further validate our effectiveness in robotic manipulation, we conduct experiments on both simulated and real environments ranging from tabletop grasping to mobile grasping in indoor scenes. We observe that with the high-quality depth maps and 3D point clouds predicted by our method, the success rates of robotic manipulation can be significantly improved in diverse settings.

To summarize, our contributions are: (1) A diffusion model-based stereo depth estimation framework that can predict state-of-the-art depth and restore noisy depth maps for transparent and specular surfaces; (2) An integration of stereo geometry constraints into the learning paradigm via guided diffusion; (3) A new scene-level STD synthetic dataset that simulates real depth sensor IR patterns and photo-realistic renderings; (4) Significant improvements in robotic manipulation tasks with our higher-quality depth maps and 3D point clouds.

2 Related Work

Stereo Depth Estimation and Completion. Modern deep-learning stereo methods [26; 29] typically have the following structures. First, a feature encoder are used to extract the left and right image features. The feature encoders are either pre-trained and frozen or trained end-to-end. Second, a cost volume is built by enumerating all the possible matching. Some works incorporate 3D CNN or attention networks to increase the receptive field of convolution layers which have proved to be beneficial [20; 63]. Finally, a detection head is added to regress the disparities. The most successful ingredient is the iterative mechanism which is proposed by the seminar work RAFT [53] [29]. On the other hand, Weinzaepfel et al. [60] uses cross-view completion pertaining and achieves impressive results. Despite all the progress that has been made, in the real world, transparent and specular objects are ubiquitous and the RGB features of the surfaces are inherently ambiguous to be used to search for correspondence because the foreground and background colors are blended.

Previous work [7] tried to restore the missing depths with the help of neighboring raw depth values and their RGB color clues [34; 66] but with limited generalizability. Another line of work directly fine-tunes a trained deep stereo network [44] on transparent surfaces allowing the feature encoders to learn to match the transparent surfaces. However, the aforementioned foreground and background ambiguities confuse the feature-matching-based pipeline when dealing with regular diffuse objects.

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Diffusion Model for Depth Estimation. Recently, researchers have employed diffusion models to estimate optical flow [41] and predict depths with a single RGB image input [9; 21; 23; 40]. Such monocular methods can estimate the depth map up to an unknown absolute scale. Bhat et al. [4] proposed to train an extraneous network to predict the scale and achieve decent accuracy. However, the monocular methods either lack the absolute scale or have inferior accuracy for robotic manipulation tasks. Another line of work has pioneered adjusting the diffusion model to stereo settings. Nam et al. [32] proposed to learn matching based on cost volume in a diffusion manner, which could not handle matching ambiguities. Shao et al. [42] proposed to refine raw map for high quality human reconstruction. The authors designed a novel linear scheduler and condition on all the stereo-related information. Nonetheless, we found that using the default DDPM [19] scheduling works well and only needs to condition on stereo images and raw disparity if necessary. Additionally, we combined the stereo matching loss gradient with the learned gradient by the diffusion model. The stereo matching loss is obtained by checking the left-right image photometric consistency in an unsupervised manner [14] [58]. Such guided diffusion model [2] achieves the best results in our experiments.

3D Vision-Based Robotic Manipulation. 3D vision is becoming increasingly critical for robotic manipulation [11]. Most basically, depth perception enables robots to comprehend the size, shape, and position of objects within three-dimensional space, thereby facilitating more sophisticated and reliable interactions [12; 13]. Moreover, numerous works [1; 30; 35; 49] utilize RGB-D point clouds as input. However, the substantial domain gap between simulated and real RGB-D images can result in a significant sim-to-real gap [65]. Additionally, transparent and specular objects exacerbate this issue, leading to poor depth-sensing performance. Policies trained in simulators often struggle to transfer effectively to real-world scenarios, particularly in the context of mobile manipulation. Our proposed high-performance depth estimation network is a promising direction to improve existing 3D vision-based tasks.

3 Method

In this section, we introduce $\mathbf{D}^3\mathbf{RoMa}$, a disparity diffusion-based depth sensing framework for material-agnostic robotic manipulation. Our framework focuses on improving the accuracy of disparity map in depth estimation, especially for transparent and specular objects which are ubiquitous yet challenging in robotic manipulation tasks. Given an observation of the scene, our framework takes the raw disparity map \tilde{D} and the left-right stereo image pair I_l, I_r from the depth sensor as input, and outputs a restored disparity map x_0 , which will be converted into the restored depth map.

3.1 Preliminaries

Stereo Vision and Depth Estimation. Once the disparity map x for the observed points between a pair of stereo cameras is known, the depth map d for the points can then be calculated using the camera intrinsic parameters through $d=(f\cdot b)/x$, where f and b are the camera focal length and the stereo baseline, respectively. The estimation of the disparity map x is traditionally modeled as a dense matching problem, which can be solved within the image domain. Thus, stereo depth estimation can be studied independently from different camera devices.

Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Model. Diffusion models [19] [46] are special latent variable models that reverse the diffusion (forward) process which gradually diffuses the original data x_0 through a Markov process:

$$q(x_{1:T}|x_0) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} q(x_t|x_{t-1}), \qquad q(x_t|x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_{t-1}; \sqrt{1-\beta_t}x_{t-1}, \beta_t I) \quad (1)$$

where the variance β_t is set according to a predefined schedule. One nice property of such a Markov chain is that it has an analytic form at any time step $x_t = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} x_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon$ where $\bar{\alpha}_t = \prod_{s=1}^t \alpha_s$, $\alpha_s = 1 - \beta_s$ and $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$. The denoising (reverse) process is also a Markov chain with learned Gaussian transition kernels:

$$p(x_{0:T}) = p(x_T) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t),$$
(2)

$$p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t) = \mathcal{N}(x_{t-1}; \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta_t}}(x_t - \frac{\beta_t}{\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t}}s_{\theta}(x_t, t; \theta)), \beta_t I)$$
(3)

where the variance is simplified as $\beta_t I$ and the mean is re-parameterized to have the time-conditioned denoising network $s_{\theta}(x_t, t; \theta)$ approximating the added noise ϵ . Ho et al. [19] proposed to train the denoising network by minimizing the simplified loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{simple}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t,x_0,\epsilon} \left[\|\epsilon - s_{\theta}(x_t, t; \theta)\|^2 \right]. \tag{4}$$

When the network is trained converged, the gradient of the noise distribution also called the score function [48] is

$$\nabla x_t \log p(x_t) \approx -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t}} s_{\theta^*}(x_t, t; \theta). \tag{5}$$

During inference, data samples can be generated through ancestral sampling which resembles the stochastic gradient Langevin dynamics (SGLD) [61]

$$x_{t-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta_t}} (x_t + \beta_t \nabla_{x_t} \log p(x_t)) + \beta_t \epsilon_t, \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I).$$
 (6)

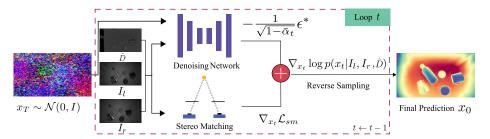


Fig. 2: Disparity diffusion with stereo-geometry guidance. Our disparity diffusion-based depth sensing framework takes the raw disparity map \tilde{D} and the left-right stereo image pair I_l , I_r as input. With the geometry prior from the stereo matching between I_l and I_r as guidance for the reverse sampling, our diffusion model can gradually perform the denoising process conditioned on \tilde{D} to predict the restored disparity map x_0 .

3.2 Disparity Diffusion for Depth Estimation

In this work, we formulate the stereo depth estimation problem as an image-to-image translation problem in the diffusion model. One important design choice is what to condition on. The model is usually formulated to condition on the stereo image pairs I_l , I_r for stereo depth estimation. Our experiments found that conditioning additionally on raw disparity \tilde{D} makes the network converge faster during training and generalizes more robustly in out-of-distribution scenarios. The raw disparity can be easily obtained either from a traditional stereo matching algorithm SGM [17] or from the real camera sensor outputs. For real active stereo depth sensors like RealSense, the left and right images are captured by infrared (IR) cameras with special shadow patterns projected by an IR projector. As a result, conditioning on the left and right images and the raw disparity map \tilde{D} , we train a conditional diffusion model to learn the distribution of the disparity map

$$p_{\theta}(x_0|y) = \int p_{\theta}(x_{0:T}|y)dx_{1:T}, \quad p(x_{0:T}|y) = p(x_T) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t, y)$$
 (7)

where $y = \{I_t, I_r, \tilde{D}\}$. Empirically, this conditional denoising network has been shown to be successful [38] [52]. Batzolis et al. [3] further provided proof (see Theorem 1) that the conditional score $\nabla_{x_t} p(x_t|y)$ can be learned through the same training objectives in Equation 4 even though the condition y does not appear in the training objectives. After the network is trained, the estimated disparity can then be sampled through

$$x_{t-1}|y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta_t}}(x_t + \beta_t \nabla_{x_t} \log p(x_t|y)) + \beta_t \epsilon_t, \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I).$$
 (8)

3.3 Reverse Sampling Guided by Stereo Geometry

Inspired by the classier guidance to image generation tasks [8] [18], we propose to guide the disparity diffusion process with the model-based geometry gradient. The guided reverse process is illustrated in Figure 2. Specifically, the conditional score function is perturbed with gradient computed from stereo-matching

$$\nabla_{x_t} \log p(x_t|y) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}} s_{\theta^*}(x_t, t, y; \theta) + s \nabla_{x_t} \mathcal{L}_{sm}(I_l, I_r, x_t)$$
 (9)

where \mathcal{L}_{sm} is the similarity loss function which compares the left image with the warped left image with the estimated disparity and right image. $s \in \mathbb{R}^+$ controls the geometric guidance strength and it balances the learned gradient from diffusion model and geometric gradient from stereo models. A detailed derivation of Equation 9 is provided in Appendix A. To mitigate the gradient locality in stereo matching, we downsample the stereo images into multiple different lower resolutions when computing the gradient of stereo matching. More specifically, we have

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sm}}(I_l, I_r, x_t) = \sum_{k} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ssim}}(I_l, I_r, x_t) + \gamma \mathcal{L}_{\text{smooth}}(I_l, x_t)$$
 (10)

where k is the index of the layer for different resolutions and $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^+$ is a weighting constant balances the two photometric and smoothness losses. The $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ssim}}$ is the structural similarity index (SSIM) [57] which computes the photometric loss between the left image I_l and warped image \tilde{I}_{left} :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ssim}}(I_l, I_r, x_t) = \text{SSIM}(I_l, \tilde{I}_l), \tag{11}$$

$$\tilde{I}_l(u,v) = I_r \langle u + x_t, v \rangle \tag{12}$$

where u, v are the pixel coordinates in the image plane and $\langle \rangle$ is linear sampling operation. $\mathcal{L}_{\text{smooth}}$ is an edge-aware smoothness loss [14] [58] defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{smooth}}(I_l, x_t) = |\partial_u x_t| e^{-|\partial_u I_l|}$$
(13)

which regularizes the disparity by penalizing large discontinuity in non-edge areas. Here ∂_u means partial derivative in u (horizontal) direction in the image plane. Then we predict the disparity map x_0 with the perturbed gradient from Equation 9 following the sampling process introduced in Equation 6. Finally, We can convert the disparity to depth once we know the camera parameters.

3.4 HISS Synthetic Dataset

We create our synthetic dataset **HISS** based on Habitat Synthetic Scenes Dataset (HSSD) [24]. We leverage the 168 high-quality indoor scenes from HSSD to increase scene diversity. For objects, we include a total of over 350 object models from DREDS [7] and GraspNet [11]. The scene and randomly selected object CAD models are rendered in Isaac Sim [28]. During rendering, object materials

and scene lighting are specifically randomized in simulation to mimic the transparent or specular physical properties of objects (cups, glasses, bottles, etc.) in the real world. To obtain the correct depth values for transparent surfaces, we adopt a two-pass methodology. We first render RGB images and depth maps of the scenes with object materials set to diffuse. The lightings are all turned to enable photorealistic rendering. In the second pass, we turn the normal lighting off and project a similar shadow pattern on the scenes to mimic the RealSense D415 infrared stereo images. Using the intrinsics of the RealSense D415 depth camera, we render over 10,000 photo-realistic stereo images with simulated shadow patterns. Experiments demonstrate that our dataset is the key enabler of our method's excellent generalizability in the real world.

4 Experiments

4.1 Implementation Details and Training

We implement our network using Hugging Face Diffusers [54] and pre-compute raw disparity maps using libSGM [45]. The network is trained 600 epochs with the batch size 6×8 and a constant learning rate 0.0001. All the images are randomly cropped to 320×240 and no other data augmentation is used during training. We use cosine scheduler [33] with 128 denoising time steps for β_t starting at 0.0001 and ending at 0.02. We use UNet as our denoising network. In the DREDS experiments below, we have 6 downsampling ResNet blocks each layer has 128, 128, 256, 256, 512, and 512 channels. The second-to-last channel is a downsampling block with spatial attention. We use MSE as our loss function. For the SceneFlow experiment, we scale down the original image resolutions from 960×640 into 480×270 . We use a multi-resolution pyramid noise strategy as in [23]. We further use pretrained StableDiffusion v2 [37] in the grasping experiments and adapt the input Conv block accordingly to the conditioning inputs [23]. We also train the mixed datasets including DREDS, HISS, and SceneFlow at the batch level.

4.2 Depth Estimation on Tabletop Scenes

DREDS. We evaluate our method on DREDS [7], a tabletop-level depth dataset with both synthetic and annotated real data for specular and transparent objects. We compare our method with several state-of-the-art baselines: 1) NLSPN, 2) LIDF, 3) SwinDR, and 4) ASGrasp, which are four methods that have been shown effective on depth estimation for transparent or specular objects. We use mean absolute error (MAE), relative depth error (REL), root mean square error (RMSE), along with 3 other metrics related to depth accuracy as metrics for evaluation. We include detailed descriptions for the baselines and the metrics in the Appendix B.

As shown in Table 1, on the DREDS-CatKnown data split (synthetic data), all variants of our method surpass all baselines on all metrics. Further, the results of our ablations show that the performance of our method can be steadily

improved with more information provided, especially the integration of the raw disparity. Since DREDS does not provide IR images for the STD-CatKnown and STD-CatNovel data split (real data), we train the variant of our framework which only conditions on RGB image and raw disparity to compare with SwinDR. As shown in Table 2, our method can still outperform the baseline on almost all metrics. Specifically, our method can reach almost 100% improvement on MAE compared to the baseline. The worse performance of our method on RMSE may be related to the noise in DREDS ground truth depths since RMSE is very sensitive to the noise error.

Table 1: Comparisons of Depth Estimation Results on DREDS Dataset (DREDS-CatKnown split, synthetic). We also studied different combinations of conditioned images for the denosing network. Best shown in **bold** and second best shown in underlined.

Methods	RMSE ↓	$\mathrm{REL}\downarrow$	MAE ↓	$\delta_{1.05}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.10}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.25}\uparrow$
NLSPN (Park et al. [34]) LIDF (Zhu et al. [66]) SwinDR (Dai et al. [7]) ASGrasp (Shi et al. [44]) RAFT-Stereo (Lipson et al. [29]) IGEV-Stereo (Xu et al. [63]) CroCo-Stereo (Weinzaepfel et al. [59])	0.010 0.016 0.010 0.007 0.007 0.006 0.008	0.009 0.018 0.008 0.006 0.006 0.007 0.010	0.006 0.011 0.005 0.004 0.005 0.002 0.002	97.48 93.60 98.04 - 98.13 98.19 94.49	99.51 98.71 99.62 - 99.83 99.66 98.32	99.97 99.92 99.98 - 99.97 99.97 99.87
D³RoMa(Cond. on RGB+Raw) D³RoMa(Cond. on RGB+Left+Right) D³RoMa(Cond. on RGB+Left+Right+Raw)	$\begin{array}{ c c }\hline 0.0045\\ 0.0070\\ \textbf{0.0040}\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \underline{0.0016} \\ 0.0048 \\ \textbf{0.0014} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \underline{0.0011} \\ 0.0032 \\ \textbf{0.0010} \end{array}$	99.64 99.11 99.71	99.88 99.79 99.90	99.99 99.98 99.99

Table 2: Evaluations of Geometry Guidance on DREDS Dataset (STD-CatKnown and STD-CatNovel split, real). Ground truth depth is cropped in range [0.2, 2].

Methods	Guidan	ce RMSE↓	$\mathrm{REL}\downarrow$	MAE ↓	$\delta_{1.05}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.10}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.25}\uparrow$
	STD-	CatKnown					
SwinDR (Dai et al. [7])		0.015	0.013	0.008	96.66	99.03	99.92
$\begin{array}{c} D^3RoMa(Cond.\ on\ RGB+Raw) \\ D^3RoMa(Cond.\ on\ RGB+Raw) \end{array}$	×	$0.0109 \\ 0.0101$	$0.0051 \\ 0.0042$	0.0036 0.0030	$\frac{98.41}{99.03}$	$\frac{99.46}{99.57}$	99.94 99.93
	STD-	-CatNovel					
SwinDR (Dai et al. [7])		0.025	0.033	0.017	81.55	93.10	99.84
$\begin{array}{l} D^{3}RoMa(Cond.\ on\ RGB+Raw) \\ D^{3}RoMa(Cond.\ on\ RGB+Raw) \end{array}$	×	$\frac{0.0390}{0.0397}$	$\frac{0.0177}{0.0158}$	$0.0104 \\ 0.0092$	$\frac{91.19}{92.78}$	$\frac{96.17}{97.13}$	99.51 99.61

We further evaluate geometry-based guidance on the STD-CatKnown and STD-CatNovel data split to validate its effectiveness for diffusion-based depth es-

timation in real-world scenarios. As Table 2 shows, our geometry-based guidance can significantly boost performance, especially for out-of-distribution scenarios.

SynTODD. SynTODD [56] is another synthetic dataset for transparent objects by using Blender. It contains 87512 train images and 5263 test images. The authors proposed a novel multi-view method (MVTrans) to estimate object depths, poses, and segmentations. Because the dataset provides neither simulated raw disparity nor correct camera intrinsic for stereo images, We compare with MVTrans[56] using our monocular variant, ie., we modify the network to condition only on RGB images. We do scale alignment after the prediction of the scale-invariant depth following MiDas [36]. As shown in Table 3, Our method achieves better performance than all the variants of MVTrans including 2-views, 3-views, and 5-views.

Table 3: Depth estimation on Syn-TODD. Our method has better performance compared to the SimNet and all variants of MvTrans.

Methods	RMSE ↓	REL↓	MAE ↓
SimNet(Laskey et al. [25])	1.229	0.975	1.020
MVTrans (2 images)	0.134	0.135	0.089
MVTrans (3 images)	0.125	0.125	0.083
MVTrans (5 images)	0.124	0.117	0.080
$\overline{D^3 \text{RoMa}(\text{Cond.})}$ on RGB)	0.065	0.079	0.040

ClearPose. ClearPose [5] is a large-scale real-world RGB-D benchmark for transparent and translucent objects. The dataset contains 350,000 real images captured by the RealSense L515 depth camera. The authors collected a set of very challenging scenes including different backgrounds, heavy occlusions, objects in translucent and opaque covers, on non-planar surfaces, and even filled with liquid. We evaluate our method on ClearPose in all settings. Our method D³RoMa outperforms two previous SoTA ImplicitDepth [67] and TransCG [10] by a large margin as shown in Table 4 and Figure 3. ClearPose is captured with RealSense L515 camera, the depth noise is large when point distance is larger than 5 meters. We mask out the noise depth values out of the range [0.2,5] meters for all the experiments.

4.3 Ablations on Network HyperParameters and Architectures

We provide ablation studies on the DREDS dataset in Table 5. The baseline is conditioned on the left, and right image and raw disparity. Its hyperparameters and network architecture are described in Section 4.1. We also trained variants with different network architectures, loss functions, and noise strategies. We

Table 4: Results on Depth completion benchmark ClearPose. Our method D^3RoMa consistently outperforms both ImplicitDepth and TransCG on 6 different test scenarios.

Testset	Metric	RMSE↓	$REL\downarrow$	MAE↓	$\delta_{1.05}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.10}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.25}\uparrow$
	ImplicitDepth	0.07	0.05	0.04	67.00	87.03	97.50
New Background	TransCG	0.03	0.03	0.02	86.50	97.02	99.74
	D ³ RoMa(Cond. On RGB+Raw)	0.05	0.01	0.01	96.71	98.84	99.74
	ImplicitDepth	0.11	0.09	0.08	41.43	66.52	91.96
Heavy Occlusion	TransCG	0.06	0.04	0.04	72.03	90.61	98.73
	D ³ RoMa(Cond. On RGB+Raw)	0.10	0.03	0.04	83.97	93.69	98.79
•	ImplicitDepth	0.16	0.16	0.13	22.85	41.17	73.11
Translucent Cov	FransCG	0.16	0.15	0.14	23.44	39.75	67.56
	D ³ RoMa(Cond. On RGB+Raw)	0.13	0.06	0.07	63.07	82.78	95.80
	ImplicitDepth	0.14	0.13	0.10	34.41	55.59	83.23
Opaque Distract	oFransCG	0.08	0.06	0.06	52.43	75.52	97.53
	D ³ RoMa(Cond. On RGB+Raw)	0.11	0.03	0.05	82.46	91.46	97.97
	ImplicitDepth	0.14	0.13	0.11	32.84	53.44	84.84
Filled Liquid	TransCG	0.04	0.04	0.03	77.65	93.81	99.50
	D ³ RoMa(Cond. On RGB+Raw)	0.09	0.03	0.04	87.58	94.85	99.15
	ImplicitDepth	0.18	0.16	0.15	20.34	38.57	74.02
Non Planar	TransCG	0.09	0.07	0.07	55.31	76.47	94.88
	D ³ RoMa(Cond. On RGB+Raw)	0.08	0.03	0.04	84.67	92.85	98.21

reduce the channels from 512 to 256 of the last two layers denoted as *reduced channels*. We also changed the loss function from MSE to L1 and used the default standard Gaussian noise.

Table 5: Ablation Studies on Hyperparameters and Network Architectures.

Methods	$ \text{RMSE}\downarrow$	$\mathrm{REL}\downarrow$	$\mathrm{MAE}\downarrow$	$\delta_{1.05}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.10}\uparrow$	$\delta_{1.25}\uparrow$
Baseline	0.0040	0.0014	0.0010	99.71	99.90	99.99
D ³ RoMa (reduced channels)	0.0048	0.0016	0.0011	99.60	99.85	99.98
D^3 RoMa (L1 loss)	0.0047	0.0008	0.0012	99.60	99.83	99.98
D ³ RoMa (randn noise)	0.0048	0.0017	0.0012	99.64	99.87	99.98

4.4 Effectiveness of Training on HISS

We further evaluate the effectiveness of our dataset for transparent and specular object depth estimation. We compare our method with the previous state-of-the-art methods. As shown in Figure 4, compared with RAFT-Stereo [29], which is trained on large-scale datasets for stereo-matching, our method can predict better depth, especially on transparent bottles. To ensure fair comparisons, we further fine-tune RAFT-Stereo on HISS for 400,000 epochs. Compared to the original model, the fine-tuned RAFT-Stereo can recover the missing depth of transparent objects better but the object shapes are still inaccurate. We also compare our method with ASGrasp [44] which is specially designed to detect and grasp transparent objects based on depth estimation. It has a similar performance to the fine-tuned RAFT-Stereo but has blurred object boundaries. Our methods can provide the best depth for all STD objects, with significantly clearer object boundaries and accurate shapes.

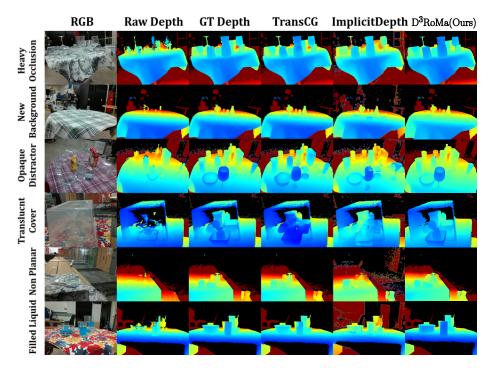


Fig. 3: Qualitative depth completion results on ClearPose. From left to right, there are RGB image, raw depth, ground truth depth rendered using object CAD models, completed depth by TransCG, ImplicitDepth, and our method D³RoMa.

4.5 Comparisons with SOTA Stereo Matching Methods in General Scenarios

We further demonstrate the effectiveness of our method for stereo matching in general scenarios. We compare our method with state-of-the-art stereo-matching baselines on SceneFlow [31], a synthetic dataset containing more than 39,000 stereo frames in 960×540 pixel resolution. The dataset contains three challenging scenes, FlyingThings3D, Driving, and Monkaa, which makes it a high-quality dataset for pre-training [29; 60; 63]. We train our model from scratch using 35,454 stereo pairs for training and leave the rest as testing split. We also resize the images in the dataset into 480×270 to be consistent with our robotic perception settings. Following the previous work [63], the ground truth disparity is normalized using the maximum disparity value 192, which is also used to crop the test data. As shown in Table 6, we achieve the best results compared to existing state-of-the-art methods.

4.6 Generalization Comparisons with Monocular Methods

While our method works only in stereo cases, there are seminar works predicting depth given single RBG images. The attractive part of monocular depth

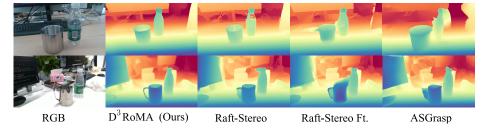


Fig. 4: Qualitative Comparisons with SOTA methods in the Real World. Each row (from left to right) shows the RGB image and disparity results of our method, pre-trained Raft Stereo, Raft Stereo fine-tuned on our dataset, and ASGrasp.

Table 6: Comparisons with SOTA Stereo Matching Methods on SceneFlow Dataset. *Ours is not built on Cost Volumes.

Methods	GA-Net [64]	LEAStereo [6]	EdgeStereo [47]
EPE	0.84	0.78	0.74
ACVNet[62] 0.48	$\frac{\text{IGEV-Stereo}[63]}{0.47}$	HitNet [51] 0.36	D ³ RoMa* 0.36

estimation (MDE) is that more data is available for training. Therefore, these methods can be generalized well in the wild. While some monocular methods like ZeoDepth [4] propose to recover metric depth after a special training procedure, most monocular methods predict relative depth. The relative depth can be recovered with an absolute scale which can be obtained via other sensors like lidar or prior knowledge. However, our experiments (Figure 5) found that most monocular methods produce inferior quality depth even without considering the absolute scale. Only our method can restore missing depth of the transparent bottle while predicting correct background depth at the same time.

4.7 Robotic Manipulation

In the grasping experiments, we first acquire the depth map by $D = (f \cdot b)/X$. Then back project the depth into point cloud $\mathcal{P} = DK^{-1}P$, where $K \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$ is the camera intrinsics and P are the homogeneous points in the image plane corresponding to each pixel. With the restored point cloud, we leverage GSNet [55] to predict 6 DoF grasping poses. To increase the grasping success rate for all baselines, we filter the grasping pose which has the angle between the grasping pose and the z (up) direction less than 30 degrees. We always select the grasping pose with the highest core and transform it into the robot base frame.

Environment Setup. In the mobile grasping experiments, we use a customized wheeled robot with 7 DoF arms. The robot is arbitrarily placed near the target objects omitting the navigation phase which is beyond our scope. We place the

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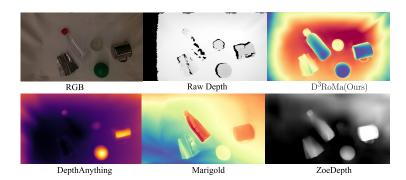


Fig. 5: Generalization comparisons with State-of-the-art *monocular* depth estimation methods. All the results except ours are taken from their official web demo. Different methods used different color maps.

objects in clusters at different tables and furniture with both flat and non-flat surfaces and different backgrounds, bringing challenges to depth sensing with the complex scene environments.

Results and Analysis. We compare our method with two other baselines. All baselines use the same motion planner CuRobo [50] but different depth sensing. We also compare with ASGrasp [44] which was mainly designed for table-top grasping of STD objects. The quantitative results for three different scenes of mobile manipulation are provided in Table 7. While ASGrasp and D³RoMa both improved over the raw sensor outputs, our method outperforms ASGrasp with a large margin.

Table 7: Mobile grasping success rate of different baselines with the same motion planner in real environments. Each cell shows SR on specular, transparent, and diffusive objects separated with /.

Baselines	Tea Table	Kitchen Table	Sofa
Raw ASGrasp D ³ RoMa	$ \begin{vmatrix} 0.40/0.22/0.67 \\ 0.60/0.89/0.83 \\ \textbf{0.80/1.00/1.00} \end{vmatrix}$	$0.67/0.63/1.00 \\ 0.67/0.75/0.83 \\ \mathbf{0.67/0.88/1.00}$	$0.50/0.75/0.67 \\ 0.67/0.875/0.83 \\ \mathbf{0.83/0.875/0.83}$

Appendix

A Geometry Guidance for Stereo Vision

To complement the main body of the paper, we provide the detailed derivation of the geometry guided diffusion model which appears in Equation 9 in the main text.

A.1 Stereo Vision

We define $y = \{I_l, I_r\}$ represents the conditioning stereo image pair and x_t is the noisy depth at time step t. By Bayes' theorem, we have

$$p(x_t|y) = \frac{p(x_t)p(y|x_t)}{p(y)} \tag{14}$$

$$\log p(x_t|y) = \log p(x_t) + \log p(y|x_t) - \log p(y) \tag{15}$$

Task derivative with respect to x_t on both sides of Equation 15:

$$\nabla x_t \log p(x_t|y) = \nabla x_t \log p(x_t) + \nabla x_t \log p(y|x_t) \tag{16}$$

Now, partition the second term $\log p(y|x_t)$ as

$$\log p(y|x_t) = \log p(I_l, I_r|x_t) = \log p(I_l|x_t) + \log p(I_r|I_l, x_t) = \log p(x_t|I_l) + \log p(I_l) - \log p(x_t) + \log p(I_r|I_l, x_t)$$
(17)

where we apply Bayes' theorem again in the third equation. Substitute Equation 17 back to Equation 16, we have

$$\nabla x_t \log p(x_t|y) = \nabla x_t \log p(x_t|I_l) + \nabla x_t \log p(I_r|I_l, x_t)$$
(18)

The first term is learned by the denoising network and the second term is the geometric guidance which can be calculated by stereo matching. In the experiments, we leverage more available data such as I_r and \tilde{D} in addition to I_l into the network during training:

$$\nabla_{x_t} \log p(x_t|y) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}} s_{\theta^*}(x_t, t, y; \theta) + s \nabla_{x_t} \mathcal{L}_{sm}(I_l, I_r, x_t)$$
 (19)

Here we empirically scale the geometry gradient with $s \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and set it to 1 in the experiments.

A.2 Extend to Active Stereo Vision

In addition to the left and right IR images, active stereo cameras provide another color image I_c captured from a third color camera. While the above derivation directly applies to active stereo cameras if we ignore the color image, we found that further feeding the color image into the network slightly improves the performance in DREDS [7]. However, most stereo datasets are passive and do not have additional color images. Therefore, during mixed dataset training, this additional color image is dropped. Here, we provide an active stereo version of derivation analogous to Equation 17:

$$\log p(y|x_{t}) = \log p(I_{c}, I_{l}, I_{r}|x_{t})$$

$$= \log p(I_{c}|x_{t}) + \log p(I_{l}|I_{c}, x_{t}) + \log p(I_{r}|I_{l}, I_{c}, x_{t})$$

$$= \log p(I_{c}|x_{t}) + \log p(I_{r}|I_{l}, x_{t})$$

$$= \log p(x_{t}|I_{c}) + \log p(I_{c}) - \log p(x_{t}) + \log p(I_{r}|I_{l}, x_{t})$$
(20)

where the third equation assumes $p(I_l|I_c, x_t) = 1$. The I_c and I_l are already aligned and the only difference is the shadow pattern projected from the camera IR projector. The shadow pattern is irrelevant to the depth. Therefore, I_c is approximately the sufficient statistic of I_l . For the same argument, we have $\log p(I_r|I_l, x_t) = p(I_r|I_l, I_c, x_t)$. Likewise, the guidance for the active stereo camera can then be obtained by substituting Equation 20 into Equation 16:

$$\nabla_{x_t} \log p(x_t|y) = \nabla_{x_t} \log p(x_t|I_c) + \nabla_{x_t} \log p(I_r|I_l, x_t)$$
(21)

In active stereo vision scenarios, we further train the network by conditioning it also on other available images. We set $y = \{I_l, I_r, I_c, \tilde{D}\}.$

B Baselines and Metrics

Baselines. NLSPN [34] is a depth completion work that uses an end-to-end non-local spatial propagation network to predict dense depth given sparse inputs. LIDF [66] proposes to learn an implicit density field that can recover missing depth given noisy RGB-D input. SwinDR [7] proposes a depth restoration framework based on SWIN transformer and is trained on a proposed table-top dataset with STD objects (DREDS). ASGrasp [44] proposes a stereo-depth estimation method based on Raft-Stereo to predict two-layer depths for tabletop grasping. Raft-Stereo [29] is the seminal deep stereo network. To this day, it is still the most adopted architecture in stereo vision.

Disparity Metric. End-Point Error (**EPE**) = $\frac{1}{H \times W} \sum |X - \hat{X}|$ is the mean absolute difference for all pixels between the ground truth and estimated disparity map.

Depth Metrics. We use the following depth metrics: 1) $\mathbf{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{H \times W} |D - \hat{D}|^2}$ is the root mean square error between ground truth and predicted depths, 2) $\mathbf{MAE} = \frac{1}{H \times W} |D - \hat{D}|$ is the mean absolute depth error, 3) $\mathbf{REL} = \frac{1}{H \times W} |D - \hat{D}|/D$ is the mean absolute relative difference, and 4) accuracy metric δ_i is the percentage of pixels satisfying $\max(\frac{d}{\hat{d}}, \frac{\hat{d}}{\hat{d}}) < \delta_i$ where $\delta_i \in \{1.05, 1.10, 1.25\}$.

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