

GaussianUDF: Inferring Unsigned Distance Functions through 3D Gaussian Splatting

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Abstract

001 *Reconstructing open surfaces from multi-view images is*
 002 *vital in digitalizing complex objects in daily life. A*
 003 *widely used strategy is to learn unsigned distance functions*
 004 *(UDFs) by checking if their appearance conforms to the im-*
 005 *age observations through neural rendering. However, it is*
 006 *still hard to learn the continuous and implicit UDF rep-*
 007 *resentations through 3D Gaussians splatting (3DGS) due*
 008 *to the discrete and explicit scene representations, i.e., 3D*
 009 *Gaussians. To resolve this issue, we propose a novel ap-*
 010 *proach to bridge the gap between 3D Gaussians and UDFs.*
 011 *Our key idea is to overfit thin and flat 2D Gaussian planes*
 012 *on surfaces, and then, leverage the self-supervision and*
 013 *gradient-based inference to supervise unsigned distances in*
 014 *both near and far area to surfaces. To this end, we introduce*
 015 *novel constraints and strategies to constrain the learning of*
 016 *2D Gaussians to pursue more stable optimization and more*
 017 *reliable self-supervision, addressing the challenges brought*
 018 *by complicated gradient field on or near the zero level set*
 019 *of UDFs. We report numerical and visual comparisons*
 020 *with the state-of-the-art on widely used benchmarks and*
 021 *real data to show our advantages in terms of accuracy, effi-*
 022 *ciency, completeness, and sharpness of reconstructed open*
 023 *surfaces with boundaries.*

024 1. Introduction

025 It is vital but still challenging to reconstruct shapes with thin
 026 and open surfaces and sharp boundaries from multi-view
 027 images. A widely used strategy is to learn implicit repre-
 028 sentations, such as unsigned distance functions (UDFs), by
 029 minimizing rendering errors of UDFs with respect to multi-
 030 view observations, such as RGB images [9, 22, 23, 28, 49].
 031 This strategy shows promising results because of the advan-
 032 tages of both implicit representations and the neural volume
 033 rendering, i.e., the ability of reconstructing arbitrary topol-
 034 ogy and the differentiability for back-propagating the gradi-
 035 ents of rendering errors. Eventually, the open surfaces can

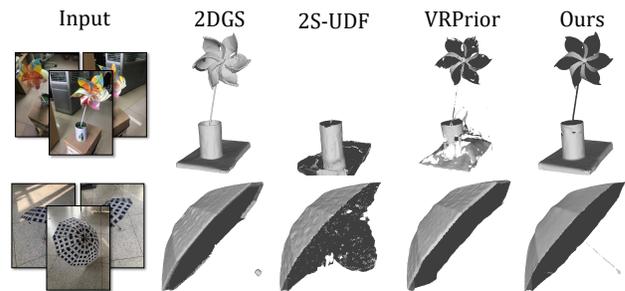


Figure 1. The comparisons with 2DGS [14], 2S-UDF [9], and VR-Prior [49]. Our method recovers the most accurate open surfaces without artifacts.

be extracted from the zero level set of the learned UDF. 036

Recent methods [9, 22, 23, 28, 49] usually learn a UDF 037
 within a radiance field through the volume rendering intro- 038
 duced by NeRF [30]. They infer unsigned distances at sam- 039
 pled points along rays emitted from views through an addi- 040
 tional transformation which bridges the gap between the 041
 UDF and the radiance field. However, NeRF-based render- 042
 ing is not efficient due to the need of finding intersections 043
 with ray tracing. This makes 3D Gaussian Splatting (3DGS) 044
 a promising solution since rasterizing 3D Gaussians is not 045
 only differentiable but also faster than ray tracing in NeRF- 046
 based rendering. However, one obstacle coming from the 047
 discrete and explicit scene representations, i.e., 3D Gaus- 048
 sians, is that they are much different from the continuous 049
 and implicit radiance field. Therefore, how to overcome 050
 this obstacle is the most challenging problem to reveal com- 051
 plete, smooth, and continuous UDFs through 3DGS. 052

To resolve this problem, we introduce a novel approach 053
 to inferring UDFs from multi-view images through 3DGS, 054
 which can efficiently reconstruct high-quality surfaces with 055
 open structures as shown in Figure 1. Our key idea is to con- 056
 strain 3D Gaussians to represent surfaces directly, based on 057
 which we estimate the unsigned distance field. Our novel- 058
 ty lies in two aspects: (1) the novel constraints that we 059
 imposed on the Gaussians, which overfits these Gaussians 060
 on the surfaces, (2) and the ways of inferring unsigned dis- 061

062 tances with self-supervision and gradient-based inference.
063 To this end, we use 2D Gaussians in the 3D space which
064 are thin enough to approximate the surface. We also align
065 these 2D Gaussians on the surface using the gradient field
066 of the implicit function, which involves a UDF in the differ-
067 entiable rasterization procedure. Meanwhile, we introduce
068 self-supervision along the normal of 2D Gaussians to infer
069 unsigned distances near the 2D Gaussians, and infer un-
070 signed distances far away from the surface with the gradient
071 field of the UDF. Our evaluations show that our method suc-
072 cessfully bridges the gap between discrete Gaussians and
073 continuous UDFs in a fully differentiable manner, leading
074 to more accurate, complete, and continuous open surface
075 reconstructions than the state-of-the-art methods. Our con-
076 tributions are summarized below.

- 077 • We present a novel approach to reconstruct thin and
078 open surfaces from multi-view images with 3DGS, which
079 bridges the gap between continuous UDFs and discrete
080 3D Gaussians in a differentiable manner.
- 081 • We introduce stable constraints to overfit 3D Gaussians
082 on surfaces, and novel strategies to infer unsigned dis-
083 tances accurately in both near and far areas to the surface.
- 084 • Our method produces the state-of-the-art results in recon-
085 structing shapes with open surfaces and sharp boundaries
086 on the widely used benchmarks.

087 2. Related Work

088 2.1. Neural Implicit Representation

089 Neural implicit representations have shown great advan-
090 tages in representing shapes using continuous functions due
091 to their ability to represent surfaces with flexible topology
092 in high resolutions. Typically, neural implicit functions
093 map spatial query coordinates to occupancy probabilities
094 [29] or signed/unsigned distances [6, 34]. Neural implicit
095 functions can be learned from various 2D or 3D surface
096 signals, such as RGB images [23, 36, 49], point clouds
097 [3, 27, 32, 51], binary classification labels [29], and dis-
098 tance labels [6, 20, 34]. Among them, Neural-Pull [27]
099 aims to pull the query points on the zero level set of the
100 neural implicit function and achieves the learning of Signed
101 Distance Functions (SDFs) from point clouds. The SDFs
102 partition surfaces into exterior and interior regions, which
103 limits such methods to modeling only watertight objects. To
104 extend the capability of implicit functions to open surfaces,
105 recent methods [6, 23, 41, 51] have been proposed to predict
106 the unsigned distances from any query point to the surface
107 to reconstruct high quality single layer surfaces. And some
108 methods [5, 12, 47, 50] extend Marching Cubes [19, 24] or
109 Dual Contouring [17] to efficiently and accurately extract
110 meshes from unsigned distance field.

2.2. Novel View Synthesis

Neural Radiance Fields (NeRF) [30] have achieved promis-
ing results in novel view synthesis. The method adapts
implicit field functions to encode view-dependent appear-
ance. Specifically, NeRF maps the spatial points sam-
pled on the ray to densities and colors with several Multi-
Layer Perceptrons (MLPs), and then integrates the samples
into pixel colors through volumetric rendering. Advance-
ments [1, 2, 15, 31, 42, 43] following the development of
NeRF have further extended its capabilities.

Recently, 3D Gaussian Splatting (3DGS) [18] has be-
come an important breakthrough in the field. 3DGS rep-
resents the scene with 3D Gaussians including means, co-
variances, opacities and spherical harmonics parameters.
The explicit representation avoids unnecessary computa-
tion cost in the empty space and achieves high quality and
real-time novel view synthesis. Later, numerous methods
[13, 25, 35, 38, 39, 45] extend this technique to a wide va-
riety of fields.

2.3. Learning Neural SDFs with Multi-view Images

Combining implicit representations with neural rendering,
NeRF-based methods [10, 33, 36, 37] can reconstruct wa-
tertight meshes well from multi-view images. These meth-
ods transform occupancy values [33] or signed distances [8,
10, 21, 36, 40] to density in volumetric rendering.

Recently, attempts [7, 11, 14, 46] have been made to
reconstruct meshes from multiple views with 3DGS. Sev-
eral methods [7, 11, 14] have been developed to make 3D
Gaussians approximate surfels and align with surfaces. And
some methods [4, 26, 44, 48] optimize SDFs together with
the 3D Gaussians. GOF [46] establishes a Gaussian opacity
field from 3D Gaussians and extracts the surface from the
levelset. However, these methods learn SDFs to model sur-
faces and are limited to reconstructing watertight meshes.
In contrast, we aim to handle thin and open surfaces with
3D Gaussian Splatting, which can efficiently reconstruct
non-watertight meshes. The recent method GSPull [48] also
pulls the queries to the zero level set to learn SDF. However,
the projection can not provide enough supervision to learn
correct UDF due to the complexity of gradients on the iso-
surface. Therefore, we introduce self-supervision and other
losses to overcome this challenge and reconstruct accurate
and complete open surfaces.

2.4. Learning Neural UDFs with Volume Rendering

Unlike SDF modeling the surfaces as exterior and interior,
UDF [6, 51] can handle arbitrary topologies. Recent meth-
ods [9, 22, 23, 28, 49] usually learn a UDF from multi-view
images with volume rendering. NeuralUDF [23] flips the
normal orientation behind the surface points. NeUDF [22]
introduces a new probability density function. NeAT [28]
learns additional validity to reconstruct open surfaces from

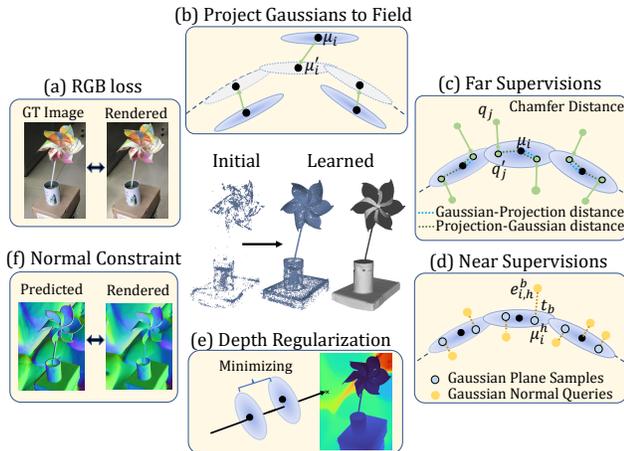


Figure 2. Overview of our method. (a) The UDF is optimized with the rendering process. To ensure Gaussians provide more accurate clues of the surfaces, (b) the Gaussians are projected to the zero level set of the UDF. (c) Projecting random queries to the Gaussian centers helps the UDF learn coarse shapes in far area. Moreover, (d) unsigned distances recovered near the Gaussian plane compensates for the sparsity of Gaussian centers. We adopt depth (e) and normal (f) regularization terms to make Gaussians align with surfaces well.

162 SDF. 2S-UDF [9] proposes a two-stage method to decouple density and weight. However, these methods need finding intersections and ray tracing in volume rendering, which leads to inefficiency. Our method is built on the point-based rendering of 3D Gaussian Splatting [18] without requiring any ray tracing process, resulting in improved efficiency.

168 3. Method

169 **Overview.** Figure 2 illustrates the framework of our approach. To overfit 3D Gaussians on surfaces, we follow 2DGS [14] to represent scenes using 2D Gaussians which are thin enough to represent open surfaces with sharp boundaries. We jointly infer a UDF f and learn 2D Gaussians $\{g_i\}_{i=1}^I$ by minimizing rendering errors with respect to the observations through splatting a set of I 2D Gaussians. Besides the thin feature of 2D Gaussians, we also leverage the gradient field of the UDF to align 2D Gaussians to the zero level set of the UDF, which ensures these 2D Gaussians represent the surface faithfully. Based on this representation, we set up self-supervision along the normal of 2D Gaussians to supervise the learning of UDF around the surface, and also use the gradient field to infer unsigned distances, especially for the space far away from the surface. To this end, we also constrain the normal of 2D Gaussians and rendered depth images so that the 2D Gaussians can provide reliable self-supervisions and the gradient based inference for more accurate distance fields.

188 **2D Gaussian Splatting.** We leverage the differentiable

splatting introduced by 2DGS [14] to render 2D Gaussians into images. Each 2D Gaussian g_i has several learnable parameters including the center $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 3}$, the color $c_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 3}$, the opacity α_i , the rotation matrix $r_i \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$, and scaling factors $s_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 2}$, where μ_i and r_i determine the location and pose of the Gaussian g_i , s_i determines the variances along two axis of the Gaussian g_i , the color c_i and the opacity α_i describe the appearance, and the last column of r_i represents the normal n_i of the flat g_i .

We render $\{g_i\}$ into a RGB color at each pixel (u, v) using α blending through a differentiable splatting procedure,

$$C'(u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^I c_i \alpha_i p_i(u, v) \prod_{k=1}^{i-1} (1 - \alpha_k p_k(u, v)), \quad (1)$$

where $C'(u, v)$ is the color at the pixel location (u, v) on the rendered image C' , and $p_i(u, v)$ is the probability of contributing to pixel (u, v) from the projection of g_i . Similarly, we can also render depth or normal maps by replacing the color with projection distances or the normal of 2D Gaussians in the above equation. We learn the Gaussians $\{g_i\}$ by minimizing rendering errors with respect to the observations C ,

$$L_{rgb} = \|C'(u, v) - C(u, v)\|_1. \quad (2)$$

Unsigned Distance Functions. An unsigned distance function f describes a distance field, indicating the distance d to the nearest surface in a scene at an arbitrary location $q = (x, y, z)$, i.e., $d = f(q)$. A gradient field can be derived from f , where the gradient $\nabla f(q)$ at each query q points to a direction that is far away from the nearest surface.

The gradient field of f provides good clues to reveal surfaces which are indicated by the zero level set of f . Neural-Pull [27] has shown that one can infer signed distances by pulling randomly sampled points against the direction of gradient to the surface. However, UDF has pretty complex gradient field near both sides of the surface, due to the absence of gradient on the surface. This fact becomes a serious problem in learning UDF from multi-view images.

To resolve this issue, we employ two kinds of supervisions to infer unsigned distances with 2D Gaussians. One is to use the gradient field to pull queries onto the zero level set of f , which pays more attention to the space far away from surfaces. The other is to leverage the normal of the Gaussians to produce self-supervision covering the whole flat plane, which focuses on the area closed to surfaces.

Self-supervision and Inference. For the first supervision, we randomly sample J queries $\{q_j\}_{j=1}^J$ around the centers μ_i of Gaussians $\{g_i\}$ using the sampling strategy introduced in Neural-Pull [27]. We project $\{q_j\}$ onto the zero level set of f below,

$$q'_j = q_j - d_j \cdot \frac{\nabla f(q_j)}{|\nabla f(q_j)|}, \quad (3)$$

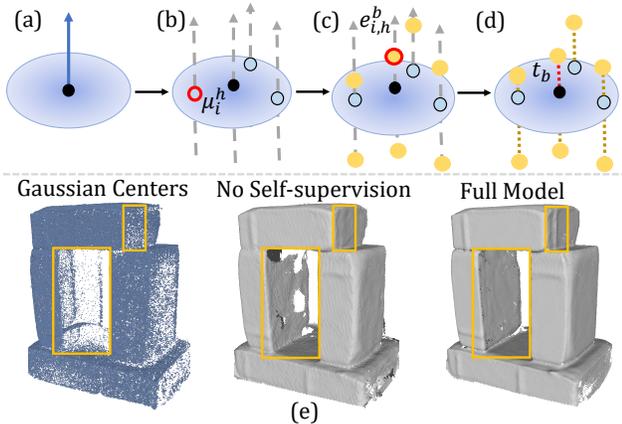


Figure 3. Self-supervision loss. For a Gaussian in (a), (b) we first sample root point μ_i^h on the plane. (c) Then we randomly move the root point to position $e_{i,h}^b$ along the positive direction or negative direction of the normal with offset t_b . (d) We use $\{e_{i,h}^b, t_b\}$ as a training sample pair to train the UDF network. (e) The below reconstructed meshes show that the 2D Gaussian planes provide more surface information for the UDF, which helps to fill the holes and capture more details.

237 where q'_j is the projection of q_j and $d_j = f(q_j)$ is the un-
 238 signed distance. We leverage the centers of Gaussians to
 239 supervise the projections,

$$L_{far} = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{q' \in \{q'_j\}} \min_{\mu \in \{\mu_i\}} \|q' - \mu\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{I} \sum_{\mu \in \{\mu_i\}} \min_{q' \in \{q'_j\}} \|\mu - q'\|_2^2, \quad (4)$$

241 where L_{far} evaluates the Chamfer distance between the set
 242 of projections $\{q'_j\}$ and $\{\mu_i\}$, encouraging the UDF f
 243 to conform to the surface represented by the Gaussian centers.
 244 To relief the computational burden during optimization,
 245 we only use a batch of g_i and query points sampled
 246 around them to evaluate this loss in each iteration.

247 Gaussians are sparse in some regions, which limits their
 248 ability to represent surfaces, so relying solely on their centers
 249 with L_{far} is inadequate. Hence, the first supervision
 250 merely provide a coarse supervision which is helpful for
 251 inferring unsigned distances in areas far away from the
 252 surface. As a complement, our self-supervision will provide
 253 the second kind of supervision over the whole Gaussian
 254 plane near the surface.

255 Our self-supervision is illustrated in Figure 3. We set up
 256 the self-supervision using the normal n_i of each Gaussian
 257 g_i and the samples on its flat plane, which makes sure the
 258 Gaussian plane can cover enough space to overfit surfaces
 259 regardless of the sparsity of Gaussian centers. As shown in
 260 Figure 3 (b), we sample root points $\{\mu_i^h\}_{h=1}^H$ on the flat
 261 plane, and randomly sample samples $\{e_{i,h}^b, t_b\}_{b=1}^B$ along

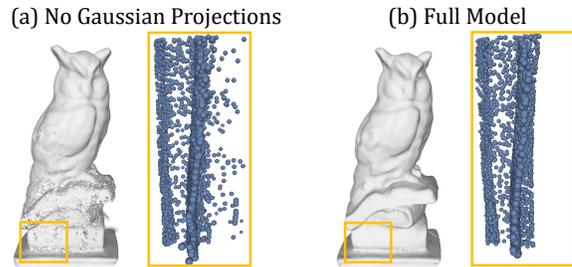


Figure 4. We project the Gaussian centers to the zero level set with a constraint, which makes the point cloud have less noises and the UDF have more accurate surface.

the direction of normal n_i by $e_{i,h}^b = \mu_i^h + t_b \cdot n_i / \|n_i\|_2$, as
 262 shown in Fig. 3 (c), where t_b is randomly sampled from
 263 $[-T, T]$, which makes sure we have training samples on
 264 both sides of the Gaussian. We record $e_{i,h}^b$ and t_b as a train-
 265 ing sample $\{e_{i,h}^b, t_b\}$ in Fig. 3 (d), where t_b is regarded as
 266 the ground truth unsigned distances at $e_{i,h}^b$. We will intro-
 267 duce another constraint L_{norm} to keep the normal of Gaus-
 268 sians orthogonal to surfaces, which also makes the self-
 269 supervision more reliable to use.
 270

Eventually, we use $\{e_{i,h}^b, t_b\}$ as self-supervision to train
 271 the UDF f through a L1 loss,
 272

$$L_{near} = \|f(e_{i,h}^b) - t_b\|_1, \quad (5) \quad 273$$

Overfitting Gaussians to Surfaces. Besides the thin fea-
 274 ture of 2D Gaussian, we also move 2D Gaussians to the zero
 275 level set of f , which ensures to overfit 2D Gaussians to sur-
 276 faces. Since the gradient field nearby the zero level set of
 277 UDFs is very complicated, we do not directly pull the center
 278 μ_i of 2D Gaussians g_i using Eq. (3), which avoids the
 279 incorrect gradients that destabilizes the optimization when
 280 most of 2D Gaussians are near the surface, as shown in Fig-
 281 ure 4 (a). We notice concurrent work [48] that also involves
 282 gradients of SDF to constrain locations of Gaussians. But
 283 gradients of SDF near the zero level set is much more stable
 284 than UDF. Therefore, we propose to use an explicit con-
 285 straint to project Gaussians on the zero level set of f . We
 286 run Eq. (3) and stop back-propagating the gradient through
 287 f , obtaining the projection of Gaussian μ'_i . Then, we regard
 288 μ'_i as target and minimize the distance to directly update the
 289 location μ_i of Gaussians below, which stabilizes the opti-
 290 mization near the zero level set, as shown in Figure 4 (b),
 291

$$L_{proj} = \|\mu'_i - \mu_i\|_2. \quad (6) \quad 292$$

Constraints on Depth and Normals. To make all 2D
 293 Gaussians get closer to the surface, we adopt a depth distor-
 294 tion loss [14] to constrain Gaussian positions. Along each
 295 ray, we monitor the depth of intersections to Gaussians, and
 296 constraints their interval between two intersections,
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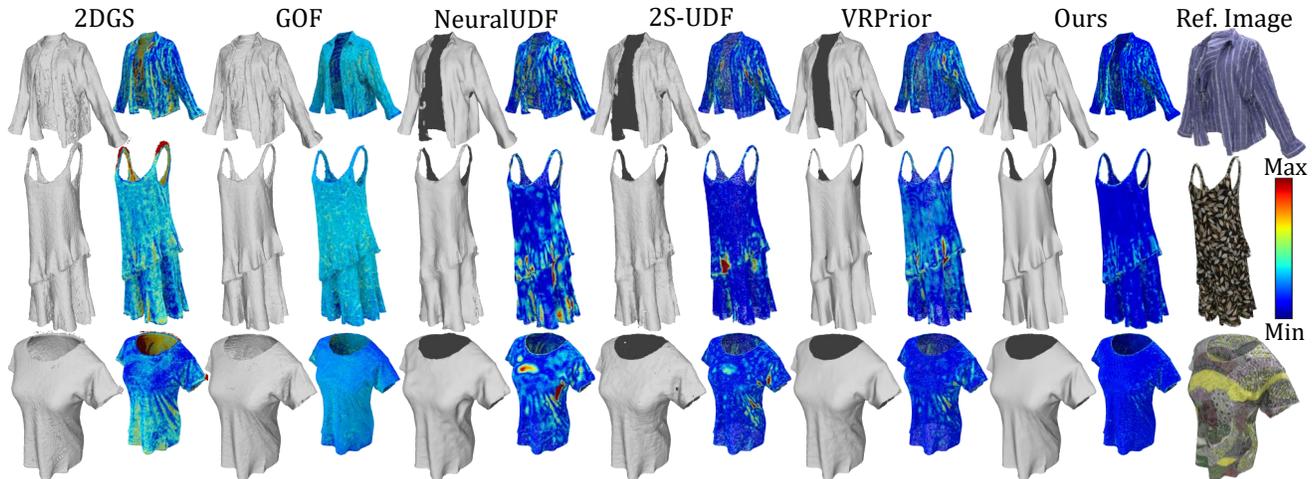


Figure 5. Qualitative comparison with 2DGS [14], GOF [46], NeuralUDF [23], 2S-UDF [9], and VRPrior [49] in DF3D [52] dataset. Note that VRPrior needs additional depth images to learn priors. The dark color on meshes represents the back faces of open surfaces, and the error map is shown next to the mesh. Our method obtains more accurate surfaces and captures more details such as the folds in the clothing.

	Method	30	92	117	133	164	204	300	320	448	522	591	598	Mean	Time
SDF	NeuS[36]	3.18	4.82	4.78	4.99	3.73	5.71	5.89	2.21	5.89	3.60	2.44	5.13	4.36	5.7h
	2DGS[14]	3.79	3.66	4.24	3.75	3.91	4.01	4.02	3.74	3.51	3.89	3.21	4.01	3.81	6min
	GOF[46]	3.15	2.47	2.49	2.23	2.38	2.65	2.40	2.41	2.14	3.00	2.18	2.37	2.49	47min
UDF	NeralUDF[23]	1.92	2.05	2.36	1.58	1.33	4.11	2.47	1.50	1.63	2.47	2.16	2.15	2.15	8.6h
	2S-UDF [9]	1.92	1.97	1.77	1.58	1.32	2.46	3.43	1.47	2.00	2.14	1.84	1.91	1.98	7.8h
	VRPrior[49]	1.59	1.73	2.06	1.63	1.44	2.07	1.66	1.60	1.39	2.14	1.50	1.67	1.71	9.2h
	Ours	1.85	1.69	1.18	1.32	1.59	1.59	1.51	1.27	2.62	1.65	1.74	1.22	1.60	1.6h

Table 1. Quantitative results of Chamfer Distance ($\times 10^{-3}$) of each object in DF3D [52] dataset.

298

$$L_{depth} = \sum_{k1, k2} g_{k1} g_{k2} |z_{k1} - z_{k2}|, \quad (7)$$

299

where $g_{k1} = \alpha_{k1} p_{k1}(u, v) \prod_{k=1}^{k1-1} (1 - \alpha_k p_k(u, v))$.

300

Furthermore, to make the self-supervision more reliable, we add supervision on the normals of Gaussians \mathbf{n}_i . We estimate normal maps from the depth gradients on the rendered depth images. Along each ray, we align the normal \mathbf{n}_i of Gaussians hit by the ray with the estimated normal \mathbf{N}_i on the rendered depth maps,

306

$$L_{norm} = \sum_k g_k (1 - \mathbf{n}_k^T \mathbf{N}_k). \quad (8)$$

307

Loss Function. We optimize 2D Gaussians in a scene by minimizing the following loss function,

308

309

$$L = (1 - \lambda_1) L_{rgb} + \lambda_1 L_{ssim} + \lambda_2 L_{far} + \lambda_3 L_{near} + \lambda_4 L_{proj} + \lambda_5 L_{depth} + \lambda_6 L_{norm}, \quad (9)$$

310

where L_{ssim} is a rendering quality loss inherited from 3DGS [18], and all these loss terms are balanced by weights λ_{1-6} .

312

4. Experiments 313

4.1. Experiment Settings 314

Details. The weights are set as $\lambda_1 = 0.2$, $\lambda_2 = 1.0$, $\lambda_3 = 1.0$, $\lambda_4 = 0.15$ on DTU [16] and DF3D [52], $\lambda_4 = 0.0001$ on real scans, $\lambda_5 = 1000$ on DTU, $\lambda_5 = 0$ on other scenes, and $\lambda_6 = 0.05$. We optimize the model for 30k iterations for all datasets. For the self-supervision, we sample 500 Gaussian planes per batch and sample 10 root points per plane. The offset t_b is sampled from a uniform distribution that is bounded by zero and T , and we set $T = 0.01$ in DF3D dataset and $T = 0.02$ in DTU dataset. Similar to NeuralUDF [23] and VRPrior [49], we tune the reconstruction using an additional warp loss [8, 10] on DTU dataset. The UDF f is parameterized by a 8-layer MLP with 256 hidden units and ReLU activation functions, and the activation of the last layer is an absolute value function. We apply positional encoding [30] to the input query point coordinates. We use an initial learning 1×10^{-3} with cosine learning rate decay strategy for training the UDF network. We conduct all experiments on a single NVIDIA 3090 GPU.

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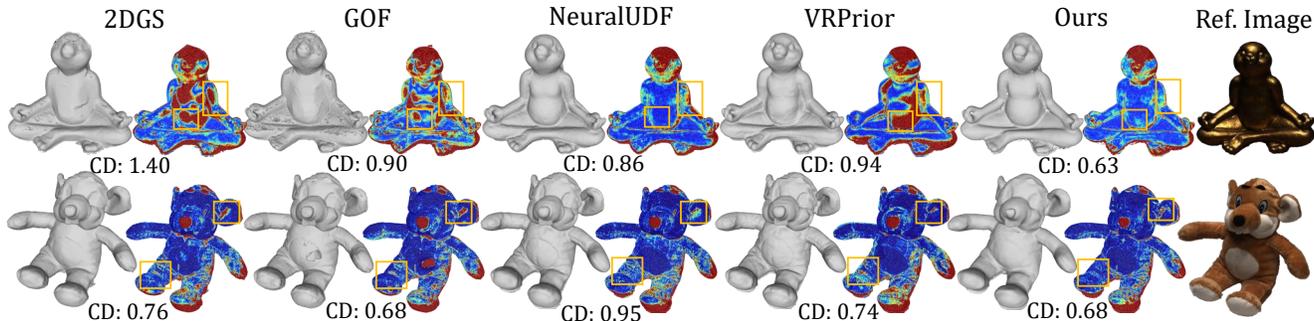


Figure 6. Visual comparisons of reconstruction and error maps on DTU [16] dataset. Larger errors are shown in warmer colors. Our method obtains visually appealing results with small errors.

Method	2DGS	GOF	NeuralUDF	VRPrior	Ours
Average	0.80	0.74	0.75	0.71	0.68

Table 2. Numerical comparisons with 2DGS [14], GOF [46], NeuralUDF [23] and VRPrior [49] in terms of CD on DTU [16] dataset. Detailed comparisons can be found in the appendix.

334 **Datasets and Evaluation Metrics.** We evaluate the proposed method on DeepFasion3D (DF3D) [52] dataset, DTU [16] dataset, NeUDF [22] dataset, and our real-captured dataset. For DF3D dataset, we use the same 12 garments as previous methods [23, 49], each garment is scanned with 72 images in a resolution of 1024×1024 and is provided with the ground truth point cloud for evaluation. For DTU [16] dataset, we use the widely used 15 scenes that are all watertight and each scene contains 49 or 64 images in a resolution of 1600×1200 . We use two real scans in NeUDF [22] dataset, and captures four real scenes. In our experiments, we train our models without mask supervision in all datasets. For a fair comparison, we use the MeshUDF [12] algorithm to extract open surfaces from unsigned distance fields like previous methods [9, 22, 23, 49], and use the Chamfer Distance (CD) as the metric for DF3D dataset and DTU dataset that provide ground truth.

351 **Baselines.** We compare the proposed method with the following state-of-the-art methods: 1) SDF-based surface reconstruction methods including NeuS [36], 2DGS [14], and GOF [46], and 2)UDF-based surface reconstruction methods for open surfaces including NeuralUDF [23], 2S-UDF [9], and VRPrior [49]. For the open surface dataset DF3D [52], we trained GOF [46] and 2S-UDF [9] with the default parameters. Since we share Gaussian optimization parameters with 2DGS [14], we keep these parameters the same. The other quantitative metrics are borrowed from the original papers.

362 4.2. Evaluations

363 **Comparisons in Reconstructing Open Surfaces.** We evaluate our method on the DF3D[52] dataset which in-

365 cludes shapes with open surfaces. The CD ($\times 10^{-3}$) in Table 1 indicates that we achieve the best performance compared to baseline methods. The reconstruction errors with SDF-based baselines including NeuS [36], 2DGS [14], and GOF [46] are large because they try to either wrap the surface with closed mesh or excessively smooth out the details on the clothing. The visual comparisons in Figure 5 show that our method can reconstruct open surfaces with more details. The methods 2DGS and GOF inherit the shortcoming of SDF-based methods which learn to reconstruct closed surfaces. This results the double-layered faces and increases the reconstruction errors. The UDF-based baselines reconstruct the open surface correctly, but they fail to capture details, resulting in over-smoothed results. Thanks to the quick convergence of 3D Gaussian splatting, the speed of training our method can be much faster than the NeRF-based methods for open surface reconstruction.

382 **Comparisons in Reconstructing Closed Surfaces.** We further conduct evaluations on DTU dataset, and report the quantitative and visual comparisons in Table 2 and Figure 6, respectively. Our method achieves the best performance in terms of average CD compared among baseline methods, demonstrating its overall robustness. The complex gradients near the surface make the learning of UDF more challenging than SDF. Without assuming closed surfaces, our method still achieves comparable results or even better results in some scenes to SDF-based methods that are specifically designed for closed surfaces. Moreover, our approach achieves better quantification on some relatively complex shapes than baseline methods. As shown in the error map in Figure 6, our method accurately reconstruct surface even with complex light conditions. The underlying reason is that the geometric information of the UDF is derived from the positions of Gaussians, making it less sensitive to appearance attributes like opacity.

400 **Results on Real Scans.** We first conduct evaluation on the public real-captured NeUDF [22] dataset. As shown in Figure 7, our method can reconstruct extremely flat and thin surfaces. Due to the detail-capturing capability of Gaussian

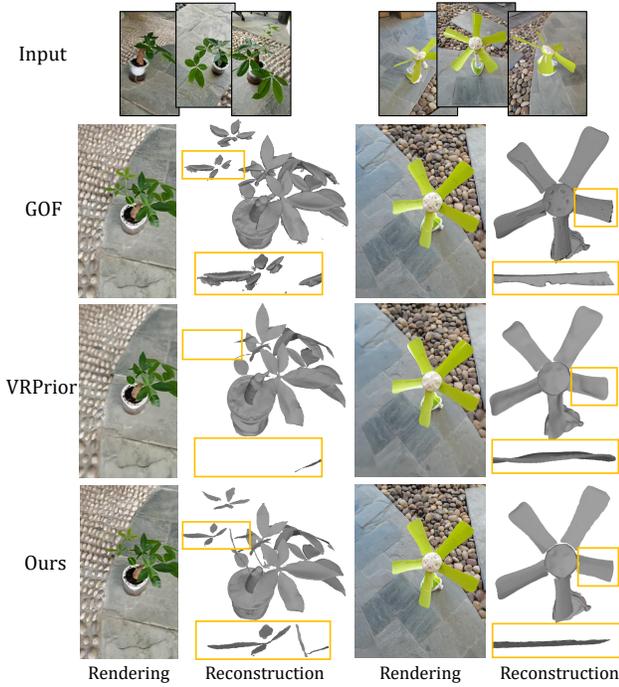


Figure 7. The reconstruction results on NeUDF [22] dataset. Our method accurately reconstructs the open surfaces in real scans.

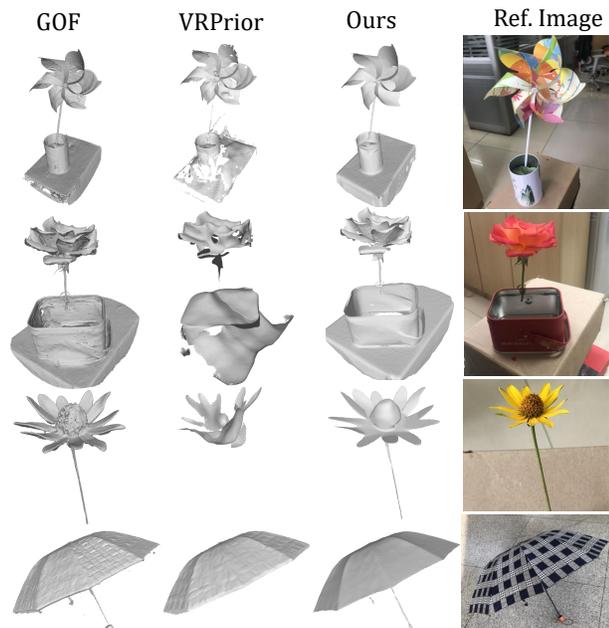


Figure 8. The reconstruction results on real scans. Our method reconstructs accurate and complete surfaces.

404 Splatting, our method achieves more complete geometry reconstruction compared to the NeRF-based state-of-the-art
 405 VRPrior [49], such as the plant leaves, even if it uses additional data-driven learned priors. We further report our
 406
 407

Settings	Far	Near	Proj	Warp	CD ↓
Only Far	✓				0.99
Far & Near	✓	✓			0.78
Far & Proj	✓		✓		0.88
w/o Warp	✓	✓	✓		0.74
w/o Near	✓		✓	✓	0.77
w/o Proj	✓	✓		✓	0.76
Full Model	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.68

Table 3. Ablation studies on DTU dataset. The results show that all designs in our method are effective.

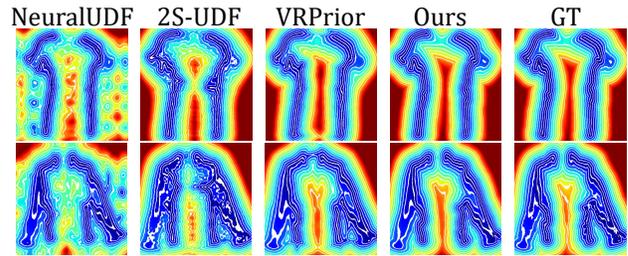


Figure 9. The learned UDFs for different methods. Our method learned more complete and smoother level sets in the field.

408 results on our self-captured four scenes with thin and open
 409 surfaces. As shown in Figure 8, VRPrior [49] struggles to reconstruct correct structures for objects with relatively
 410 simple textures, and GOF [46] reconstructs double-layer surfaces without smoothness. Instead, our method can re-
 411 construct more complete, accurate, and smoother meshes.
 412
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4.3. Visual Analysis in Unsigned Distance Fields 414

Visualization of Unsigned Distance Fields. We visualize 415
 416 the learned unsigned distance fields in Figure 9. We use the
 417 unsigned distances from UDFs learned by different methods
 418 and map these distances in colors. Points near the surface
 419 are close to blue, while points far from the surface are close
 420 to red. NeuralUDF [23] learns zero UDF values far from the
 421 surface, which increases the difficulty of convergence.
 422 2S-UDF [9] learns a complex function close to the surface
 423 due to overfitting on textures. With the help of depth prior,
 424 VRPrior [49] learns better fields. However, it fails to cap-
 425 ture the correct boundaries and almost closes the adjacent
 426 open surfaces. Our method learns the most accurate implicit
 427 functions without any extra prior.

Point Cloud Deformation. With the learned unsigned dis- 428
 429 tance function, we can obtain the distance and the direction
 430 pointing to the surface for any point. Therefore, the UDF
 431 can deform source point clouds into the shape represented
 432 by the UDF. As shown in Figure 10, we gradually pull the
 433 input point clouds into the garments with Eq. (3), which val-
 434 idates that the implicit function has learned correct surface 434

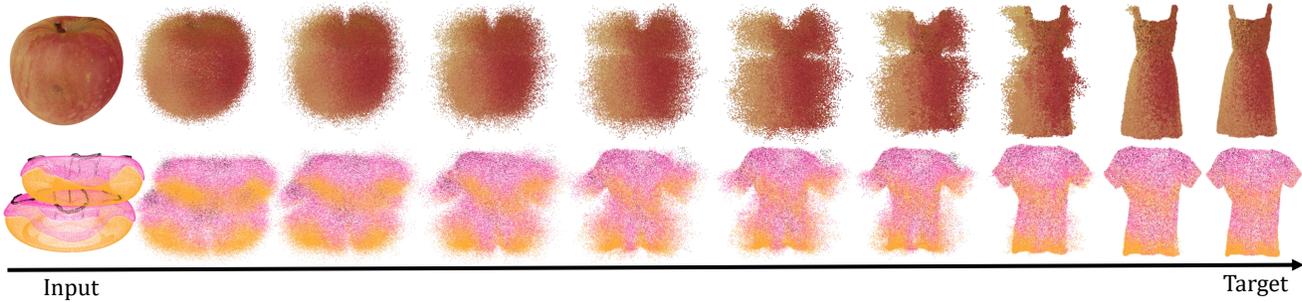


Figure 10. Point cloud deformation in the learned unsigned distance field. Accurate field can deform point clouds with any shapes (such as apple and donut) into the target shapes represented by the UDFs.

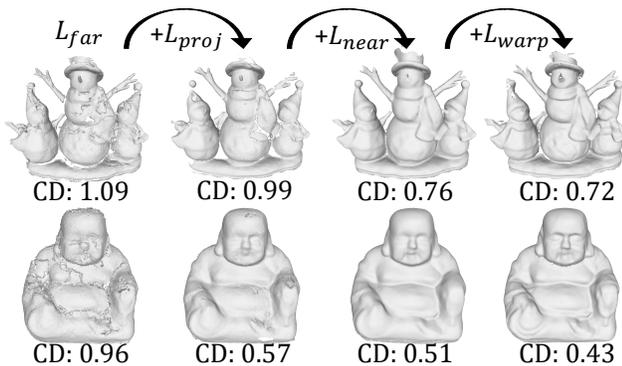


Figure 11. Visual changes for adding different constraints. The results show all components in our method are critical for our accurate surface reconstruction.

435 information at any point in space.

436 4.4. Ablation Studies

437 We conduct ablation studies on the DTU dataset [16] to
438 show the impact of each module on the performance, and
439 the full quantitative results are reported in Table 3.

440 Firstly, We try to learn the unsigned distance fields di-
441 rectly from the Gaussian point clouds, which is similar to
442 the target of point cloud reconstruction [27, 51]. As shown
443 by the row “Only Far” in Table 3, the performances drop
444 significantly and the reason is that the point clouds of Gaus-
445 sians are noisy, sparse and uneven, which cannot provide
446 accurate geometry information. Overfitting a low-quality
447 point cloud results in a poor surface, as shown in the first
448 picture in Figure 11. We also combine the L_{far} with L_{proj}
449 and L_{near} respectively. The results in “Far & Near” and
450 “Far & Proj” show that both losses are critical for the accu-
451 rate reconstruction and L_{near} plays a more important role.

452 To show how each loss affects our method, we remove
453 the terms one by one and report the metrics as “w/o Near”,
454 “w/o Proj” and “w/o Warp”. The results show that each loss
455 plays a positive role in the final result, verifying the effec-
456 tiveness of different parts of our method. Besides, removing

the L_{near} loss leads to the largest drop in average metrics, 457
which also proves that the self-supervision loss provides the 458
most important information for learning UDF. 459

We gradually add different losses in the order of L_{far} , 460
 L_{proj} , L_{near} , and L_{warp} , and show the changes in results in 461
Figure 11. Projecting Gaussians to the surface helps to learn 462
a smooth surface, and self-supervision can fill the holes in 463
the meshes. The warp loss captures more details. All loss 464
terms contribute to more accurate surface reconstruction. 465

Limitations. Compared to SDF-based reconstruction 466
methods, our approach demonstrates reduced performance 467
in reconstructing textureless structures. This limitation 468
arises from the high flexibility of UDF, which introduces 469
complexities into the optimization process. Moreover, ex- 470
tracting surfaces from UDF fields is still an ongoing chal- 471
lenge [47, 51], which constrains the quality of the recon- 472
structed open mesh. These factors result in a lack of de- 473
tail in the surfaces reconstructed by our method, particularly 474
for complex structures. In future work, incorporating addi- 475
tional priors, such as normals, masks, and depth, could help 476
capture higher-frequency signals. Furthermore, integrating 477
our approach with the latest UDF extraction methods [5, 47] 478
may also enhance the quality of the reconstructed mesh. 479

5. Conclusion 480

We introduce an approach to reconstruct shapes with open 481
surfaces and sharp boundaries from multi-view images with 482
3DGS. Our method can not only benefit from the high train- 483
ing efficiency of 3DGS, but also recover more accurate, 484
complete, and continuous UDFs from discrete 3D Gaus- 485
sians. The proposed constraints effectively overfit 3D Gaus- 486
sians on surfaces, based on which our strategies for un- 487
signed distance inference can recover more accurate un- 488
signed distances. Our evaluations justify the effectiveness 489
of each module, and show advantages over the latest meth- 490
ods in terms of accuracy, completeness, and sharpness on 491
reconstructed open surfaces. 492

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