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# OptSplat: Recurrent Optimization for Generalizable Reconstruction and Novel View Renderings

BMVC 2024 Submission # ??

#### Abstract

We propose an efficient feed-forward model for novel view synthesis and 3D reconstruction based on Gaussian Splatting, featuring a scalable architecture that reliably predicts multi-view depth maps and 3D Gaussian primitives from as few as two input views. Existing multi-view depth estimation techniques typically depend on processing plane-017 swept cost volumes, which generate probability distributions over a discrete set of candidate depths. This approach limits scalability, especially when finer depth sampling or higher spatial resolution is required. To address this, we design an optimization-inspired architecture OptSplat, that employs recurrent iterative updates to refine depth maps and pixel-aligned Gaussian primitives based on previous predictions. Our model leverages a unified update operator that iteratively indexes global cost volumes, progressively improving predictions in the joint space of depth and Gaussian parameters. Comprehensive evaluations across the real world datasets of RealEstate10K, ACID and DL3DV shows that our model demonstrates strong cross-dataset generalization and competitive rendering quality for novel views compared to the existing works with plane swept cost volumes, while at the same time offering upto 5x reduction in the GPU memory requirements, especially for reconstruction with high-resolution inputs. 027

## 1 Introduction

Novel View Synthesis (NVS) involves generating photorealistic images of a scene from novel, unseen viewpoints, given one or more input views with known camera poses [B, III, 103]
III, III, As a core problem in computer vision and graphics, NVS underpins a wide range of applications, including free-viewpoint video, scene relighting, virtual teleportation, and immersive content creation. The central challenge lies in accurately modeling both the 3D scene geometry and complex, view-dependent appearance, particularly from sparse or unstructured observations.

Neural rendering methods—especially NeRF-based models  $[\Box, \Box]$ —have recently advanced the quality of novel view synthesis significantly. However, these methods typically rely on per-scene optimization, making them unsuitable for real-time or interactive applications. In contrast, generalizable NVS models aim to synthesize novel views for previously unseen scenes in a zero-shot or few-shot setting, offering significant gains in scalability, speed, and deployability. This property makes them particularly suitable for robotics,

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AR/VR, autonomous navigation, and real-time scene capture or editing, where fast, one-shot 046 inference is critical. 047

While recent transformer-based approaches such as LVSM [**[**] achieve high-quality synthesis without requiring explicit geometry, they often lack the geometric precision necessary for downstream tasks like scene editing or mixed-reality integration. In this work, we argue for the importance of explicit geometry-aware scene representations in generalizable models—not only for accurate rendering, but also to support tasks requiring rich geometric and semantic understanding. Building on the success of 3D Gaussian Splatting, which models the scene as a continuous volumetric representation composed of Gaussian primitives, we present a generalizable approach that leverages this representation to achieve both photorealism and geometric fidelity.

A central requirement for accurate 3D Gaussian reconstruction is reliable scene geometry, typically obtained via Multi-View Stereo (MVS). MVS estimates dense, 3D-consistent depth maps from posed input views, enabling accurate placement of Gaussian primitives. However, existing generalizable Gaussian Splatting methods—such as pixelSplat [**D**], MVSplat [**D**], and LS-GRM [**D**]—rely on full cost volume construction via plane sweep stereo [**D**]. These methods scale poorly with image resolution, number of viewpoints, and depth hypothesis density, often resulting in high memory usage and frequent out-of-memory (OOM) failures on resource-limited hardware.

To address these limitations, we propose **OptSplat**, a memory-efficient and scalable MVS architecture based on iterative refinement of local cost volumes. Instead of building a global cost volume, our network computes lightweight local volumes on-the-fly at each refinement step, significantly reducing memory consumption while maintaining high performance. We frame depth prediction as an optimization problem, where our model progressively refines depth estimates through a series of update blocks, leading to improved convergence and robustness across varied scenes.

In addition to geometry, capturing accurate view-dependent radiance is critical for photorealistic rendering, especially in sparse-view and zero-shot settings. Our method introduces 072 an iterative spherical harmonics refinement module that progressively improves the radiance 073 field over inference steps. This approach stabilizes early predictions from limited inputs and 074 allows the model to adaptively refine appearance features, improving generalization to novel 075 scenes. 076

Overall, our framework can be viewed as learning to optimize for generalizable reconstruction and novel view synthesis. Our network comprises a sequence of update operators 078 that emulate a first-order optimization process—not by explicitly computing gradients, but 079 by retrieving features from cost volumes to inform each update. Unlike recurrent methods 080 such as R-MVSNet [13], which focus solely on multi-view depth estimation, our update 081 mechanism jointly refines both multi-view depth and 3D Gaussian parameters, enabling cohesive and efficient optimization across geometry and appearance.

We summarize our key contributions as follows:

- 1. We propose a scalable architecture with iterative optimization layers based on GRU units, enabling sequential estimation and refinement of 3D Gaussian representations.
- Our method achieves competitive performance compared to state-of-the-art approaches, <sup>088</sup> demonstrating strong cross-dataset generalization, while reducing GPU memory con- <sup>089</sup> sumption by approximately 5×—making it suitable for deployment on resource-constrained hardware without compromising rendering quality. <sup>091</sup>

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3. The design of our model inherently supports scalability with respect to the number of input views, image resolution, and depth candidates, enabling efficient large-scale generalizable reconstruction and novel view synthesis.

# 2 Related Work

Optimizing 3D Representations: Neural Radiance Fields (NeRF) [□] pioneered differentiable volumetric scene representations for novel view synthesis from posed multi-view images. Subsequent efforts have advanced rendering quality [□, □], robustness to pose uncertainty [□, □], and real-time rendering speed [□, □]. Extensions incorporating explicit point-based primitives [□, □] improved efficiency but still rely on costly volumetric ray marching. Recently, Gaussian Splatting [□, □] offers a continuous, explicit, and differentiable representation that supports real-time rasterization-based rendering with high fidelity, presenting a compelling alternative for scalable view synthesis.

Sparse View Reconstruction: Early NeRF and Gaussian Splatting methods required dense
 multi-view inputs (often exceeding 100 views) for per-scene optimization. Recent approaches
 target sparse-view reconstruction and synthesis [5, 6, 8, 16], typically involving hand-crafted
 depth priors [11, 12] or diffusion-based generative regularization [52] to handle undercon strained regions. Despite improved quality, these methods rely on costly test-time optimiza tion. In contrast, our work addresses zero-shot reconstruction and synthesis, enabling direct
 feed-forward prediction from sparse inputs without per-scene fine-tuning.

113 Feed-Forward 3D Gaussian Splatting: Feed-forward models leveraging 3D Gaussians 114 **[5**, **8**, **23**, **56**] demonstrate advantages in real-time rendering compared to implicit NeRF representations [23], 59]. Single-view methods such as Splatter Image [29] and Flash3D [28] 115 regress pixel-aligned Gaussians using monocular depth priors but remain limited by inherent 116 monocular ambiguities and dependence on learned spatial priors. Multi-view approaches 117 like pixelSplat [5], MVSplat [5], and DepthSplat [5] improve reconstruction by estimat-118 ing consistent depth and Gaussian parameters from multiple views. These methods rely on 119 plane-sweep stereo to construct global cost volumes for depth inference, with DepthSplat 120 leveraging pretrained monocular depth features [1] for enhanced accuracy. However, pro-121 cessing full global cost volumes hinders scalability with input resolution and view count 122 due to high memory demands. Our approach circumvents this bottleneck by computing lo-123 cal cost volumes and performing iterative depth refinement, enabling efficient large-scale 124 reconstruction without sacrificing accuracy. 125

Recurrent Optimization for Scene Reconstruction: Optimization-inspired architectures 126 have improved generalization across vision tasks by mimicking iterative solvers [I, I]. RAFT 127 introduced GRU-based recurrent refinement of 4D correlation volumes for optical flow, 128 a concept extended to multi-view stereo depth estimation [13, 22]. DROID-SLAM [51] 129 and DPVO [1] further applied recurrent optimization to joint depth and pose estimation, typically trained with ground-truth supervision minimizing reprojection error. Our method 131 relates to RAFT-MVS [22] by recurrently updating depth predictions from cost volumes 132 but differs critically: we do not rely on ground-truth depth or pose for training, instead optimizing a photometric reconstruction loss. Furthermore, our recurrent update operator 134 jointly refines multi-view depth and Gaussian radiance parameters, enabling accurate, scalable estimation of geometry and appearance within a fully feed-forward pipeline. This design supports zero-shot generalization and efficient rendering from sparse multi-view inputs, addressing key challenges in practical novel view synthesis.

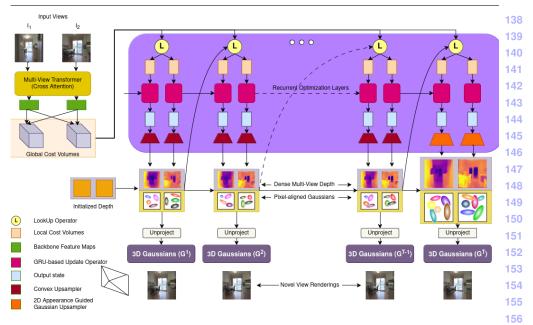


Figure 1: **Overview of the OptSplat architecture**. Given posed multi-view RGB inputs, <sup>157</sup> OptSplat constructs local cost volumes via plane sweep stereo and iteratively refines 3Dconsistent depth maps and 3D Gaussians using a GRU-based update operator. The entire <sup>159</sup> pipeline operates in a fully feed-forward, zero-shot manner, enabling efficient and scalable <sup>160</sup> novel view synthesis with high geometric and visual fidelity <sup>161</sup>

# 3 Method

Given N sparse input images  $\mathcal{I} = \{I_i\}_{i=1}^N$ ,  $(I_i \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3})$ , their corresponding intrinsics <sup>166</sup>  $\mathcal{K} = \{K_i\}_{i=1}^N$  and known camera poses  $\mathcal{E} = \{E_i\}_{i=1}^N$ ,  $(E_i = [R_i | t_i])$ , with  $R_i$  and  $t_i$  being the <sup>167</sup> rotation matrices and translation vectors respectively), we aim to (1) reconstruct the scene <sup>168</sup> using a representation  $\mathcal{G}$  comprised of Gaussian primitives, and (2) synthesize novel views <sup>169</sup>  $I_t$  given target camera intrinsics  $K_t$  and extrinsics  $E_t$ .

Scene Representation: The scene representation  $\mathcal{G}$  consists of a set of 3D Gaussians [ $\square$ ] 171  $\mathcal{G} = \{(\mu_i, \sigma_i, \Sigma_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^M$ , where  $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is the mean (position) of the Gaussian in 3D space, 172  $\sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}$  is the opacity,  $\Sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$  is the covariance matrix,  $s_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is the coefficient vector 173 for spherical harmonics [ $\square$ ], and M is the total number of Gaussians. Following prior works 174 [ $\square$ ,  $\square$ ], we assign a 3D Gaussian for every  $p \times p$  patch in the input image. The task thus 175 reduces to learning the parameters  $\theta$  of a neural network  $f_{\theta}$ , that maps the inputs ( $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}$ ) 176 to the scene representation  $\mathcal{G}$ : 177

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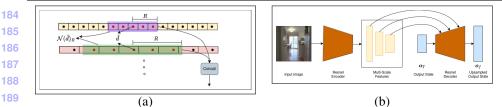
$$f_{\theta}: \{I_i, K_i, E_i\}_{i=1}^N \longrightarrow \{(\mu_i, \sigma_i, \Sigma_i, s_i)\}_{i=1}^{\frac{H}{p} \times \frac{W}{p} \times N}$$

$$(1)$$

$$(1)$$

$$(1)$$

In the following sections, we give an overview of the key components of our model <sup>182</sup> architecture (refer Fig 1).



190 Figure 2: Overview of the proposed modules in OptSplat. (a) Iterative local cost volume 191 extraction: At each refinement step, we dynamically index a global cost volume using the 192 current depth estimate to construct localized cost volumes for recurrent depth refinement. (b) Appearance-Guided Upsampler: A UNet-style architecture upsamples the final hidden state 194  $o^{T}$  to the input image resolution, producing dense 3D Gaussian parameters guided by image appearance features. 196

#### 197 **Multi-View Feature Extraction and Cost Volumes** 3.1 198

Given a set of K images  $\{I_i\}_{i=1}^K, (I_i \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3})$ , we use a UniMatch backbone [ $\mathbb{K}$ ], similar to [**S**], to extract cross-view context-aware feature maps  $\{F_i\}_{i=1}^K, (F_i \in \mathbb{R}^{\frac{H}{s} \times \frac{W}{s} \times d})$ , where s 201 is the downsampling factor and d the feature dimension. The backbone consists of a shallow ResNet [1] followed by a Swin-style transformer [2] with self- and cross-attention modules [1] to encode cross-view contextual information. 204

To enable geometry-aware scene reconstruction, we estimate dense depth maps for each 205 input view via plane sweep stereo [**D**]. We uniformly sample D depth values between  $d_{\min}$ 206 and  $d_{\text{max}}$  in inverse depth space. Then, for each input view *i*, we construct a cost volume  $C_i \in \mathbb{R}^{\frac{H}{s} \times \frac{W}{s} \times D}$  by measuring the similarity between the reference feature map  $F_i$  and the features of other views warped onto the depth planes of view *i*.

209 This cost volume serves as the geometric basis for depth prediction. For a comprehensive 210 overview of feature warping, projection, and view synthesis, we direct the readers to the 211 supplementary material. 212

#### 3.2 **Iterative Local Cost Volume Extractor** 214

Computing and processing full cost volumes at high resolution is computationally expensive 216 and memory-intensive, especially when scaling to high-resolution images, large depth sampling rates, or many input views. Prior works either restrict input resolution to  $256 \times 256$ 218 **[5**, **S**], or downsample the cost volumes significantly (e.g., by a factor of 8) **[III]**, limiting 219 reconstruction fidelity.

We propose a memory-efficient, iterative depth refinement strategy based on local cost 221 volume indexing. Rather than estimating depths in a single forward pass from the entire cost volume, we model the problem as an iterative search over a 1D depth space. At each step t 223 in T total iterations, the network predicts depth values  $d^t$  per pixel by locally querying the 224 global cost volume  $C_i$  around the previous estimate  $d^{t-1}$  (refer Fig 2a).

225 We extract a local cost vector  $LC_i^{t-1}(u_{p,q}) \in \mathbb{R}^{2R+1}$  for each pixel by performing a differ-226 entiable lookup over the global cost volume in a small window of radius R, centered at the 227 normalized previous estimate:

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$$LC_i^{t-1}(u_{p,q}) = \text{LookUp}\left(C_i(u_{p,q}), \mathcal{N}(\tilde{d}_{p,q}^{t-1})\right)$$
(2)

This local feature vector captures fine-grained matching scores near the current estimate 230 and enables the network to infer more accurate depth updates over time. Full lookup logic 231 and normalization details are provided in the supplementary material. 232

## 3.3 Recurrent Updates for Depth and Gaussian Predictions

We propose a unified, recurrent framework that jointly estimates multi-view depths and 236 pixel-aligned 3D Gaussian primitives. Unlike prior MVS approaches that refine depth alone 237 [12, 12], our model performs iterative updates over both geometry and appearance parameters, enabling efficient and accurate scene representation. 239

At each iteration t, the model refines a depth map  $d^t$  and predicts a set of 3D Gaussians 240  $\mathcal{G}^t$ . The update module receives the previous depth estimate  $d^{t-1}$ , a local cost volume  $LC^{t-1}$  241 (indexed from the global cost volume as described in Sec. 3.2), and context features  $F_c$  242 derived from backbone features via two convolutional layers. These are concatenated and 243 passed through a GRU-based update operator implemented using convolutional gates: 244

$$z^{t} = \sigma \left( \text{Conv}_{3 \times 3}([h^{t-1}, x^{t}]) \right), \quad r^{t} = \sigma \left( \text{Conv}_{3 \times 3}([h^{t-1}, x^{t}]) \right) \tag{3}$$

$$\tilde{h}^t = \tanh\left(\operatorname{Conv}_{3\times3}([r^t \odot h^{t-1}, x^t])\right), \quad h^t = (1 - z^t) \odot h^{t-1} + z^t \odot \tilde{h}^t \tag{4} 24$$

The hidden state  $h^t$  is used to generate an output state  $o^t$  and an upsampling mask  $m^t$ :

$$[o^{t}, m^{t}] = \text{OutputHead}(h^{t}), \quad o_{s}^{t} = \text{ConvexUpsampling}(o^{t}, m^{t})$$
 (5)

This upsampled output  $o_s^t$  is then decoded into three key prediction heads:

$$\Delta \tilde{d}^{t} = \texttt{DisparityHead}(o_{s}^{t}), \quad \sigma^{t} = \texttt{DensityHead}(o_{s}^{t}), \quad [\Sigma^{t}, s^{t}] = \texttt{GaussianHead}(o_{s}^{t})^{4}$$
(6)

These heads predict residual disparity updates  $\Delta \tilde{d}^t$ , Gaussian opacity  $\sigma^t$ , and both covariance  $\Sigma^t$  and SH color coefficients  $s^t$ . The predicted disparity is then refined as  $\tilde{d}^t = \frac{258}{259}$  $\tilde{d}^{t-1} + \Delta \tilde{d}^t$ .

To enforce a consistent optimization trajectory, the update module is weight-tied across all iterations, analogous to a learned first-order optimizer.

### 3.4 2D Appearance-Guided Upsampler for 3D Gaussians

While the update operator predicts depths and pixel-aligned Gaussian parameters at the input image resolution, the GRU itself operates at a lower spatial scale defined by the cost volume resolution (downsampling factor *s*). The intermediate upsampling via convex masks is context-aware but limited in resolving fine object boundaries, often leading to depth blurring and inaccurate Gaussian placements when unprojected to 3D.

To address this, we introduce a final refinement module based on a UNet-style architecture [ $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ ], designed to progressively upsample the final output state  $o^T$  using multi-scale image features (refer Fig 2b). The encoder processes the input image  $\mathcal{I}$  into feature maps at varying resolutions (down to *s*), while the decoder upsamples  $o^T$  to the full resolution. Skip connections inject appearance cues from the encoder into the decoder to guide high-fidelity upsampling.

276	Method	Time	GPU Memory	Re	alEstate1	0K	ACID			
277	Methou	(s)	(MB)	PSNR ↑	SSIM $\uparrow$	LPIPS $\downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM ↑	LPIPS $\downarrow$	
	pixelSplat	-	-	25.89	0.858	0.142	28.14	0.839	0.150	
278	latentSplat	-	-	23.93	0.812	0.164	-	-	-	
279	GS-LRM	-	-	28.10	0.892	0.114	-	-	-	
280	MVSplat	0.061	1217	26.39	0.869	0.128	28.25	0.843	0.144	
	DepthSplat	0.089	2638	27.47	0.889	0.114	-	-	-	
281	OptSplat (Ours)	0.091	658	25.74	0.866	0.124	28.17	0.849	0.136	

Table 1: In-domain novel view synthesis: Comaprison on RealEstate10K and ACID datasets
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The refined output state  $o_f$  is passed through parallel prediction heads to obtain the final estimates for disparity, density, covariance, and color:

$$o_f = \text{UNet}(\mathcal{I}, o^T) \tag{7}$$

$$[d_f, \sigma_f, \Sigma_f, s_f] = \texttt{PredictionHeads}(o_f) \tag{8}$$

These final predictions define the full-resolution multi-view depths and 3D Gaussian parameters, which are then rendered from novel views using a tile-based rasterizer [12].

# <sup>233</sup> 4 Experiments

#### <sup>295</sup> 296 **4.1 Settings**

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Datasets: We use large-scale scene level datasets of RealEstate10K [13], ACID [13] and 298 DL3DV-10K [1] to train a generalizable view synthesis model. RealEstate10K primar-299 ily comprises of real estate scenes with indoor layouts downloaded from YouTube, which are split into 67,477 training scenes and 7,289 testing scenes, while ACID contains nature 301 scenes captured by aerial drones, which are split into 11,075 training scenes and 1,972 testing scenes. DL3DV-10K is a comprehensive large-scale dataset of real-world scenes captured 302 from different points of interest like restaurants, shopping malls, tourist spots, etc, and with 303 diverse transparency, lighting and reflectance conditions. It consists of 51.2 million frames 304 in 4K resolution from 10,510 videos, and following DepthSplat [41], we split the dataset into 305 9076 training scenes and 95 test scenes.

**Comparison to Baselines:** To demonstrate the effectiveness of our method, we consider 307 several recent methods tackling the problem of generliazable novel view synthesis. We only 308 consider works that has 3D reconstruction as an intermediate step to novel view synthesis 309 [**5**, **8**, **56**, **50**, **50**, **50**], especially the ones with an explicit differentiable scene representation 310 parametrized by 3D Gaussians. We do not provide any comparison with models that treats 311 novel view synthesis as an end-to-end view prediction problem from input views without 312 the need for any geometry-aware scene representation [13, 13, 21], as this deviates from the 313 spirit of our proposed approach. 314

Please refer to the supplementary material for the training and implementation details.

#### <sup>316</sup> <sub>317</sub> 4.2 Main Results

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In this section, we demonstrate the effectiveness of our trained models in terms of the
quality of novel view renderings. We use Peak-Signal-To-Noise-Ratio (PSNR, StructuralSimilarity-Index-Measure (SSIM) and Learned-Perceptual-Image-Patch-Similarity (LPIPS)
measures to compare the quality of rendered images with the ground truth.

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	GPU Memory		DL3DV			ACID		322									
Method	(MB)	PSNR ↑	SSIM ↑	LPIPS $\downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM ↑	LPIPS $\downarrow$	323									
MVSplat	1217	25.55	0.833	0.119	28.15	0.841	0.147	324									
DepthSplat	2638	27.99	0.897	0.084	28.37	0.847	0.141										
OptSplat (Ours)	658	<u>26.69</u>	<u>0.875</u>	<u>0.093</u>	27.39	0.836	<u>0.144</u>	325 326									
Table 2: Cross-domain novel view synthesis: Zero-shot generalization on DL3DV and ACID																	
datasets for mod	els trained on R	ealEstate1	0K					327									
								328									
	¥	Inj	put View Dept	h Predictions			<b></b>	329									
-	P.F.				20 B	- B.	28	330									
Input View 1							331										
but the second se																	
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N								334									
Input View						10		335									
but								336									
P	Contraction of the local division of the loc	1.00	-			-		337									
	LPIPS 0.544	LPIPS 0.401	LPIPS 0.3	72 LPIPS	0.371 LF	PIPS 0.362	LPIPS 0.338	338									
(CI								339									
/jew							-										
Target View (GT)				340													
Tar		Salaria Salaria	Sec.	The second				341									
	τ		arget View (Re	,			T	342									
	Reccur	ent Optimizat	ion Iteration	s			Reccurent Optimization Iterations										

Figure 3: Input view depth predictions and novel view renderings from OptSplat over the 345 iterations of recurrent optimization. 346

**In-domain novel view synthesis**: In Table 1, we compare the rendering quality and memory efficiency of our model against MVSplat and DepthSplat on the RealEstate10K and ACID datasets. Our approach achieves competitive rendering performance while requiring significantly less memory—approximately 50% and 25% of the memory used by MVSplat and DepthSplat, respectively. Specifically, our model operates within a memory footprint of under 700,MB for 256 × 256 resolution inputs, compared to over 2600,MB required by DepthSplat, which offers only marginal improvements in rendering fidelity.

Cross-domain novel view synthesis: Table 2 presents a cross-dataset generalization study, where models trained on RealEstate10K are evaluated on the ACID and DL3DV datasets. Despite the DL3DV scenes featuring more complex geometry and larger viewpoint variations, our model generalizes robustly across datasets, maintaining strong rendering quality while consuming only a fraction of the memory used by DepthSplat. For visual comparison of depth predictions and novel-view renderings of our model with MVSplat and DepthSplat, we refer the readers to the supplementary material.

# 4.3 Ablation Study and Analysis

**Impact of number of refinement iterations**: Fron Table 3, we could see that our Table 3 <sup>365</sup> highlights the convergence behavior of our model as the number of recurrent refinement iter- <sup>366</sup> ations increases. In this analysis, we only consider outputs refined using convex upsampling. <sup>367</sup>

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The results validate our design objective: the update operator effectively learns to perform optimization-like refinement in a feed-forward manner, progressively improving scene geometry and appearance reconstruction. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 3, both the predicted depth maps and the synthesized novel views exhibit consistent refinement across iterations, capturing increasingly fine-grained details and producing sharper reconstructions over time.

374									
	# Recurrent	R	ealEstate1	0K		DL3DV		Time	GPU Memory
375	Updates	PSNR ↑	SSIM ↑	LPIPS $\downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM ↑	LPIPS $\downarrow$	(s)	(MB)
376	1	22.793	0.771	0.178	21.754	0.690	0.2	0.061	334
377	2	23.361	0.791	0.166	23.019	0.751	0.17	0.064	338
378	3	23.458	0.794	0.164	23.125	0.755	0.168	0.071	338
	4	23.493	0.795	0.163	23.154	0.756	0.168	0.078	338
379	5	23.509	0.796	0.163	23.163	0.756	0.168	0.080	338
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 Table 3: Model evaluation with different number of iterations of recurrent updates

**Resolution of the Cost Volumes**: We evaluate OptSplat with recurrent updates operating at downscale factors s = 4 and s = 8. As shown in Table 4, reducing the resolution of the local cost volume has minimal impact on rendering quality. Thanks to our update operator and appearance-guided upsampler, the model achieves up to 50% memory and 20% runtime savings with negligible performance drop.

388	Cost Volume	RealEstate10K				DL3DV	Time	GPU Memory	
389	Resolution	PSNR ↑	SSIM ↑	LPIPS $\downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM $\uparrow$	LPIPS $\downarrow$	(s)	(MB)
390	4	25.76	0.867	0.124	26.75	0.876	0.092	0.156	1279
	8	25.69	0.866	0.123	26.34	0.868	0.095	0.127	658
391		Table 4	C		1:00	1		and a second	

Table 4: Comparison with different cost volume resolutions

Impact of Appearance Guided Upsampling: As shown in Table 5, our appearance-guided
 upsampling module leads to consistent improvements across all evaluation metrics. This
 demonstrates its effectiveness in leveraging 2D image cues to refine and upsample the 3D
 Gaussian predictions. While this enhancement introduces a modest increase in memory
 consumption, the gains in reconstruction quality justify the trade-off.

399	Model	RealEstate10K				DL3DV	Time	GPU Memory	
400 —	Woder	PSNR ↑	SSIM $\uparrow$	LPIPS $\downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM $\uparrow$	LPIPS $\downarrow$	(s)	(MB)
400 -	w/o Appearance-Guided	23.51	0.796	0.163	23.16	0.756	0.168	0.080	338
401	Gaussian Upsampler	23.31	0.790	0.105	25.10	0.750	0.108	0.080	558
402 —	Full Model	25.69	0.866	0.123	26.34	0.868	0.095	0.127	658

Table 5: Effect of Appearance-Guided Gaussian Upsampling

# **5** Conclusion

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In this work, we have demonstrated that a generalizable model equipped with recurrent update blocks offers a scalable architecture suitable for deployment in resource-constrained environments, with minimal compromise in reconstruction and rendering quality. Furthermore, our framework opens promising directions for future research, particularly in integrating mechanisms inspired by scene-specific optimization techniques into the iterative refinement stage—potentially enhancing the model's generalization capabilities even further.

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