
SupPhysField: Fast and Generalizable Supervised Learning of 3D Physics from Visual Features

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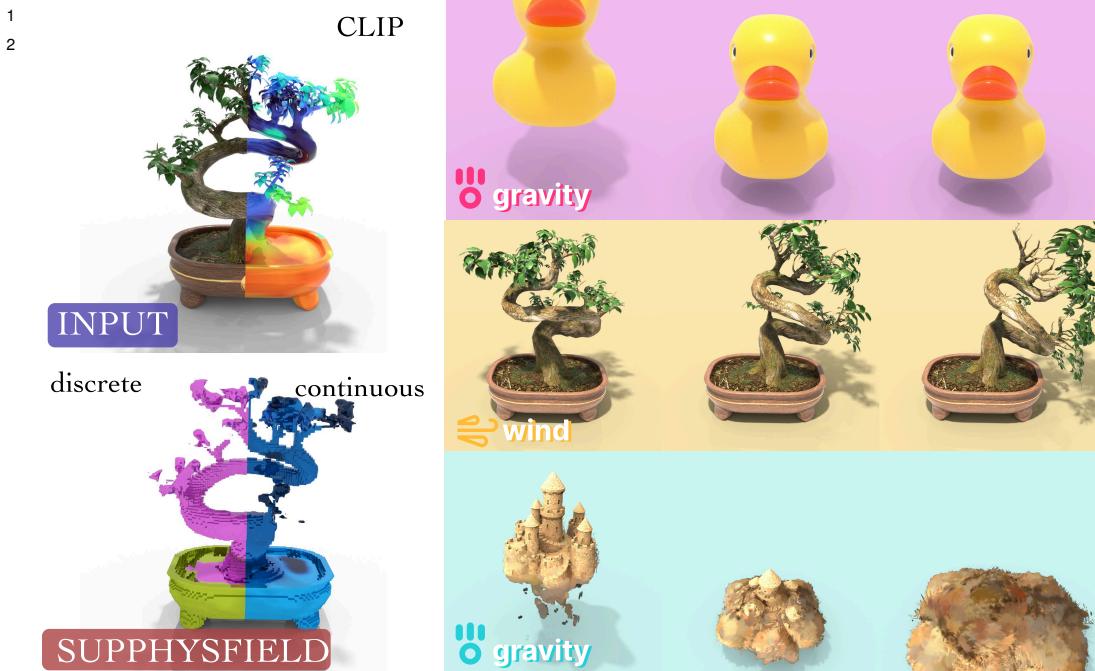


Figure 1: We introduce SUPPHYSFIELD, a novel method for learning simulatable physics of 3D scenes from visual features. Trained on a curated dataset of paired 3D objects and physical material annotations, SUPPHYSFIELD can predict both the discrete material types (e.g., rubber) and continuous values including Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio, and density for a variety of materials, including elastic, plastic, and granular. The predicted material parameters can then be coupled with a learned static 3D model such as Gaussian splats and a physics solver such as the Material Point Method (MPM) to produce realistic 3D simulation under physical forces such as gravity and wind.

Abstract

3 Inferring the physical properties of 3D scenes from visual information is a critical
4 yet challenging task for creating interactive and realistic virtual worlds. While
5 humans intuitively grasp material characteristics such as elasticity or stiffness,
6 existing methods often rely on slow, per-scene optimization, limiting their gen-
7 eralizability and application. To address this problem, we introduce SUPPHYS-
8 FIELD, a novel method that trains a generalizable neural network to predict phys-
9 ical properties across multiple scenes from 3D visual features purely using su-
10 pervised losses. Once trained, our feed-forward network can perform fast in-

11 ference of plausible material fields, which coupled with a learned static scene
12 representation like Gaussian Splatting enables realistic physics simulation under
13 external forces. To facilitate this research, we also collected SUPPHYSVERSE,
14 one of the largest known datasets of paired 3D assets and physic material anno-
15 tations. Extensive evaluations demonstrate that SUPPHYSFIELD is about 2.21-
16 4.58x better and orders of magnitude faster than test-time optimization methods.
17 By leveraging pretrained visual features like CLIP, our method can also zero-shot
18 generalize to real-world scenes despite only ever been trained on synthetic data.
19 <https://neurips-2025-20627.github.io/>

20 1 Introduction

21 Advances in learning-based scene reconstruction with Neural Radiance Fields [25] and Gaussian
22 Splatting [16] have made it possible to recreate photorealistic 3D geometry and appearance from
23 sparse camera views, with broad applications from immersive content creation to robotics and simu-
24 lation. However, these approaches focus exclusively on visual appearance—capturing the geometry
25 and colors of a scene while remaining blind to its underlying physical properties.

26 Yet the world is not merely a static collection of shapes and textures. Objects bend, fold, bounce,
27 and deform according to their material composition and the forces acting upon them. Consequently,
28 there has been a growing body of work that aims to integrate physics into 3D scene modeling
29 [27, 24, 20, 10, 9, 36, 28, 11, 23, 37, 5]. Current approaches for acquiring the material proper-
30 ties of the scene generally fall into two categories, each with significant limitations. Some works
31 such as [36, 11] require users to manually specify material parameters for the entire scene based
32 on domain knowledge. This manual approach is limited in its application as it places a heavy bur-
33 den on the user and lacks fine-grained detail. Another line of work aims to automate the material
34 discovery process via test-time optimization. Works including [14, 20, 40, 13, 23, 39] leverage dif-
35 ferentiable physics solvers, iteratively optimizing material fields by comparing simulated outcomes
36 against ground-truth observations or realism scores from video generative models. However, pre-
37 dicting physical parameters for hundreds of thousands of particles from sparse signals (i.e., a single
38 rendering or distillation scalar loss) is an extremely slow and difficult optimization process, often
39 taking hours on a single scene. Furthermore, this heavy per-scene memorization does not generalize:
40 for each new scene, the incredibly slow optimization has to be run from scratch again.

41 In this paper, we propose a new framework, SUPPHYSFIELD, which unifies geometry, appearance,
42 and physics learning via direct supervised learning. Our approach is inspired by how humans intui-
43 tively understand physics: when we see a tree swaying in the wind, we do not memorize the
44 stiffness values for each specific coordinate (x, y, z) – instead, we learn that objects with tree-like
45 visual features behave in certain ways when forces are applied. This physical understanding from
46 visual cues allows us to anticipate the motion of a different tree or even other vegetation like grass,
47 in an entirely new context. Thus, our insight is to leverage rich 3D visual features such as those
48 distilled from CLIP [29] to predict physical materials in a direct supervised and feed-forward way.
49 Once trained, our model can associate visual patterns (e.g., "if it looks like vegetation") with phys-
50 ical behaviors (e.g., "it should have material properties similar to a tree"), enabling fast inference
51 and generalization across scenes. To facilitate this research, we have curated and labeled SUPPHYS-
52 VERSE, a dataset of 1624 paired 3D objects and annotated materials spanning 10 semantic classes.
53 To our knowledge, this is the largest open-source dataset of paired 3D assets and physical material
54 labels. Trained on SUPPHYSVERSE, our feed-forward network can predict material fields that are
55 2.21-4.58x better and orders of magnitude faster than test-time optimization methods. By leverag-
56 ing pretrained visual features, SUPPHYSFIELD can also zero-shot generalize to real-world scenes
57 despite only ever being trained on synthetic data.

58 Our contributions include:

- 59 1. **Novel Framework for 3D Physics Prediction:** We introduce SUPPHYSFIELD, a unified frame-
60 work that predicts discrete material types and continuous physical parameters (Youngs modulus,
61 Poissons ratio, density) directly from visual features using supervised learning.
- 62 2. **SUPPHYSVERSE Dataset:** We curate and release SUPPHYSVERSE, the largest open-source
63 dataset of 3D objects with physical material annotations (1624 objects, 10 semantic classes).

- 64 3. **Fast and Generalizable Inference:** By leveraging pretrained visual features from CLIP and
 65 a feed-forward 3D U-Net, SUPPHYSFIELD performs inference orders of magnitude faster than
 66 prior test-time optimization approaches, achieving a 2.21-4.58x improvement in realism scores
 67 as evaluated by a state-of-the-art vision-language model.
- 68 4. **Zero-Shot Generalization to Real Scenes:** Despite being trained solely on synthetic data, SUP-
 69 PHYSFIELD generalizes to real-world scenes, showing how visual feature distillation can effec-
 70 tively bridge the sim-to-real gap.
- 71 5. **Seamless Integration with MPM Solvers:** The predicted material fields can be directly coupled
 72 with Gaussian splatting models for realistic physics simulations under applied forces such as
 73 wind and gravity, enabling interactive and visually plausible 3D scene animations.

74 2 Related Work

75 **2D World Models** Some early works [3, 2] learn to predict material labels on 2D images. Recently,
 76 learning forward dynamics from 2D video frames has also been explored extensively. For instance,
 77 Google’s Genie [26] trains a next-frame prediction model conditioned on latent actions derived from
 78 user inputs, capturing intuitive 2D physics in an unsupervised manner. While these methods achieve
 79 impressive 2D generation and control, they do not explicitly model 3D geometry or a physically
 80 grounded world. Other works such as [6, 21] also explore generating or editing images based on
 81 learned real-world dynamics. While these methods achieve impressive results in 2D visual synthe-
 82 sis and can imply motion dynamics, they typically do not explicitly model 3D geometry, and only
 83 encode physics implicitly via next-frame prediction rather than through explicit material parameters,
 84 nor do they infer physically grounded material properties decoupled from appearances. These can
 85 lead to problems such as a lack of object permanence or implausible interactions. In contrast, SUP-
 86 PHYSFIELD directly operates in 3D, predicting explicit physical parameters (e.g., Young’s modulus,
 87 density) for 3D objects, enabling their integration into 3D physics simulators or neural networks [33]
 88 for realistic interaction.

89 **Manual Assignment or Assignment of Physics using LLMs** A number of recent methods
 90 have explored combining learned 3D scene representations (e.g., Gaussian splatting) with a physics
 91 solver where material parameters are assigned manually or through high-level heuristics. This often
 92 involves users specifying material types for the scene [36, 1] or using scripted object-to-material
 93 dictionaries [28] or large language and vision-language models [12, 4, 37, 19, 35, 22] to guide the
 94 assignment.

95 **Test-time material optimization using videos** Other works explore more automatic and prin-
 96 cipled ways to infer material properties using rendered videos. Some techniques [14, 20, 40, 15, 38]
 97 optimize material parameters by comparing simulated deformations against ground-truth observa-
 98 tions, often requiring ground-truth multi-view videos of objects or ground-truth particle positions
 99 under known forces. More recent approaches [13, 23, 39] use video diffusion models as priors to op-
 100 timize physics via a motion distillation loss. Notably, these approaches suffer from extremely slow
 101 per-scene optimization, often taking hours on a single scene, and do not generalize to new scenes.
 102 In stark contrast, SUPPHYSFIELD employs a feed-forward neural network that, once trained, pre-
 103 dictes physical parameters in seconds, and can generalize to unseen scenes. A recent work Vid2Sim
 104 [5] also aims to learn a generalizable material prediction network across scenes. This was done by
 105 encoding a front-view video of the object in motion with a foundation video transformer [32] and
 106 learning to regress these motion priors into physical parameters. Unlike Vid2Sim, SUPPHYSFIELD
 107 does not require videos, relying instead on visual features from static images.

108 3 Method

109 Our central thesis is that 3D visual appearance provides sufficient information to recover an object’s
 110 physical parameters. Texture, shading, and shape features captured from multiple calibrated images
 111 correlate with physical quantities such as Young’s modulus and Poisson’s ratio. By learning a map-
 112 ping from these visual features to material properties, we can augment a volumetric reconstruction
 113 model (e.g., Gaussian splatting) with a point-wise material estimate, without requiring force re-
 114 sponse observations. In Sec. 3.1, we detail our framework, leveraging rich visual priors from CLIP
 115 to predict a material field, which can be used by a physics solver to animate objects responding to

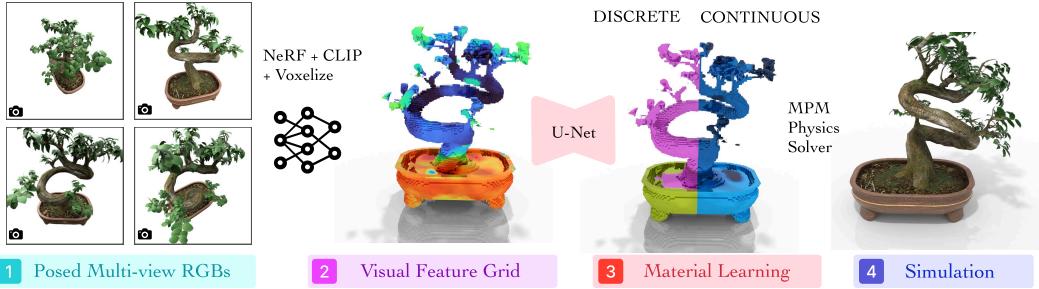


Figure 2: **Method Overview.** From posed multi-view RGB images of a static scene, SUPPHYSFIELD first reconstructs a 3D model with NeRF and distilled CLIP features [30]. Then, we voxelize the features into a regular $N \times N \times N \times D$ grid where N is the grid size and D is the CLIP feature dimension. A U-Net neural network [8] is trained to map the feature grid to the material field $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_G$ which consists of a discrete material model ID and continuous Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio, and density value for each voxel. Coupled with a separately trained Gaussian splatting model, $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_G$ can be used to simulate physics with a physics solver such as MPM.

116 external forces. To train this model, we curated SUPPHYSVERSE, a large dataset of paired 3D assets
 117 and material annotations, as detailed in Sec. 3.2. Figure 2 gives an overview of our method.

118 3.1 SUPPHYSFIELD Physics Learning

119 **Problem Formulation** Formally, the goal is to learn a mapping:

$$f_\theta : (\mathcal{I}, \Pi) \longrightarrow \hat{\mathcal{M}} \quad (1)$$

120 that turns some calibrated RGB images of the static scene $\mathcal{I} = \{I_k\}_{k=1}^K$ and their joint camera
 121 specification Π into a continuous three-dimensional *material field*. For every point $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ within
 122 the scene bounds, the field returns

$$\hat{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{p}) = \left(\hat{\ell}(\mathbf{p}), \hat{E}(\mathbf{p}), \hat{\nu}(\mathbf{p}), \hat{d}(\mathbf{p}) \right),$$

123 where $\hat{\ell} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \{1, \dots, L\}$ is the discrete material class and $\hat{E}, \hat{\nu}, \hat{d} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are the continuous
 124 Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio, and density value respectively. Recall that the discrete material
 125 class, also known as the constitutive law, in Material Point Method is a combination of the choices of
 126 an expert-defined hyperelastic energy function \mathcal{E} and return mapping \mathcal{P} (Sec. A.1). Learning a point-
 127 mapping like this provides a fine-grained material segmentation where for every spatial location we
 128 assign both a semantic material label and the physical parameters that characterise that material.
 129 Learning the mapping in Eqn. (1) directly from 2D images to 3D materials is clearly not simple
 130 neither sample efficient. Instead, we leverage a distilled feature field which has rich visual priors to
 131 represent the intermediate mapping between 2D images and 3D visual features, and then a separate
 132 U-Net architecture to compute the mapping between 3D visual features and physical materials. We
 133 describe these components below.

134 **3D Visual Feature Distillation** Recent work on distilled feature fields has shown that dense
 135 2D visual feature embeddings extracted from foundation models, such as CLIP, based on images
 136 can be lifted into 3D, yielding a volumetric representation that is both geometrically accurate and
 137 rich in terms of visual and semantic priors [30]. These works have used distilled features to better
 138 understand 3D scenes for robotics manipulation tasks. To our knowledge, this idea has not been
 139 applied to material prediction, despite the promise in using semantically rich 3D feature volumes
 140 to encode cues about an objects composition and stiffness. Here we augment the classical NeRF
 141 representation [25] to predict a view-independent feature vector in addition to color and density, i.e.,

$$F_\theta : (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{d}) \longmapsto (f(\mathbf{x}), c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{d}), \sigma(\mathbf{x})) ,$$

142 where $c \in \mathbb{R}^3$, and $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ are the standard color and radiance from NeRF and the extra output
 143 $f \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a high-dimensional descriptor capturing visual semantics (e.g., object identity or other
 144 attributes), which we assume to be view-independent. We can render both the color and feature
 145 channels into any camera view via the standard volume rendering procedure. Concretely, for a
 146 camera ray $r(t) = \mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d}$ passing through a pixel p , the accumulated color $C(p)$ and feature vector
 147 $F(p)$ are given by integrals along the ray:

$$C(p) = \int_{t_n}^{t_f} T(t, \sigma(r(t)), c(r(t), \mathbf{d})) dt \quad F(p) = \int_{t_n}^{t_f} T(t, \sigma(r(t)), f(r(t))) dt , \quad (2)$$

148 where $T(t) = \exp\left(-\int_{t_n}^t \sigma(r(s)) ds\right)$ is the accumulated transmittance from the ray origin to depth
 149 t . At each training iteration, a batch of rays is sampled from the input views. For each ray r (pixel
 150 p), we enforce that the rendered color $C(p)$ matches the ground-truth pixel RGB $C^*(p)$, while the
 151 rendered feature $F(p)$ matches the corresponding CLIP-based feature vector $F^*(p)$ extracted from
 152 the image. The loss of the network is:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_p \|C(p) - C^*(p)\|_2^2 + \lambda_{\text{feat}} \sum_p \|F(p) - F^*(p)\|_2^2 ;$$

153 the first term enforces color fidelity, while the second aligns the rendered volumetric CLIP features
 154 with the dense 2D features extracted from the training images.

155 From a trained distilled feature field F_θ , we obtain a regular feature grid F_G of dimension $N \times N \times$
 156 $N \times D$ grid, where $N = 64$ is the grid size and $D = 768$ is the CLIP feature dimension. This is
 157 done via voxelization using known scene bounds. For our synthetic dataset, we center and normalize
 158 all objects within a unit cube.

159 **Material Grid Learning** Our material learning network f_M consists of a feature projector f_P
 160 and a U-Net f_U . As the CLIP features are very high-dimensional which can cause memory issues
 161 on GPUs, we learn a feature projector network f_P , which consists of three layers of 3D convolution
 162 mapping CLIP features \mathbb{R}^{768} to a low-dimensional manifold \mathbb{R}^{64} . We then use the U-Net architecture
 163 f_U from OpenAI’s Guided Diffusion codebase [8] with 2D convolution replaced by 3D kernels to
 164 learn the mapping from the projected feature grid F_G to a material grid $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_G(\mathbf{p})$, which is a voxelized
 165 version of the material field $\hat{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{p})$. The feature projector f_P and U-Net f_U are jointly trained
 166 end-to-end via a cross entropy and mean-squared error loss to both predict the discrete material
 167 classification and the continuous values including Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio and density.

168 We found that our voxel grids are very sparse with around 98% of the voxels being background.
 169 Naively trained, the material network f_M would learn to always predict background. Thus, we
 170 also separately compute an occupancy mask grid $\mathbb{M} \in \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^N$, constructed by filtering
 171 out all voxels whose NeRF densities fall below a threshold $\alpha = 0.01$. The supervised losses—
 172 cross entropy and mean squared errors—are only enforced on the occupied voxels. Concretely, the
 173 masked supervised loss consists of a discrete cross entropy and continuous mean-squared error loss:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{occ}}} \sum_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{M}(\mathbf{p}) & \left[\lambda \cdot \text{CE}(\hat{\ell}(\mathbf{p}), \ell^{GT}(\mathbf{p})) + (\hat{E}(\mathbf{p}) - E^{GT}(\mathbf{p}))^2 \right. \\ & \left. + (\hat{\nu}(\mathbf{p}) - \nu^{GT}(\mathbf{p}))^2 + (\hat{d}(\mathbf{p}) - d^{GT}(\mathbf{p}))^2 \right] , \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

174 where $N_{\text{occ}} = \sum_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{M}(\mathbf{p})$ is the total number of occupied voxels in the grid, $\hat{\ell}(\mathbf{p})$ and $\ell^{GT}(\mathbf{p})$ are
 175 the predicted material class logits and the ground-truth, CE is the cross entropy loss, λ is a loss bal-
 176 aancing factor, and E, ν, d are the Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio and density values, respectively.
 177 The material network f_G is trained on 12 NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPUs, each with a batch size of 4,
 178 in one day using the Adam optimizer [18].

179 **Physics Simulation** We use the Material Point Method (MPM) to simulate physics. The MPM
 180 solver (Sec. A.1.2) takes a point cloud of initial particle poses along with predicted material prop-
 181 erties, and the external force specification, and simulates the particles’ transformations and defor-
 182 mations. Although it is possible to sample particles from a NeRF model (e.g., via Poisson disk
 183 sampling [9]), we have found that it is easier to use a Gaussian Splatting model (Sec. A.1.1) as each
 184 Gaussian can naturally be thought of as a MPM particle [36]. Thus, we separately learn a Gaussian
 185 splatting model from posed multi-view RGB images. We then transfer the material properties from
 186 our predicted material grid into the Gaussian splatting model via nearest neighbor interpolation.

188 3.2 SUPPHYSVERSE Dataset

189 We collect one of the largest and highest quality known datasets of diverse objects with annotated
 190 physical materials. Our dataset (Fig. 3) covers 10 semantic classes, ranging from organic matter
 191 (trees, shrubs, grass, flowers) and granular media (sand, snow and mud) to hollow containers (soda-
 192 cans, metal crates), and toys (rubber ducks, sport balls). The dataset is sourced from Objaverse
 193 [7], the largest open-source dataset of 3D assets. Since Objaverse objects do not have physical
 194 parameter annotations, we develop an automatic multi-stage labeling pipeline leveraging foundation
 195 vision-language models i.e., Gemini-2.5-Pro [31]. More details is given in Appendix A.2.



Figure 3: **SupPhysVerse Dataset Overview.** We collect 1624 high-quality single-object assets, spanning 10 semantic classes (a), and 6 constitutive material types (b). The dataset is annotated with detailed physical properties including spatially varying discrete material types (b), Young’s modulus (c), Poisson’s ratio (d), and mass density (e). The left figure shows representative examples from the dataset: organic matter (*tree, shrubs, grass, flowers*), deformable toys (*rubber ducks*), sports equipment (*sport balls*), granular media (*sand, snow & mud*), and hollow containers (*soda cans, metal crates*).

196 4 Experiments

197 **Dataset** We train SUPPHYSFIELD on a random 90% split of the SUPPHYSVERSE dataset. We
 198 evaluate on 38 synthetic scenes from the test set of SUPPHYSVERSE, and three real-world scene
 199 from the NeRF [25] and LERF [17] datasets.

200 **Simulation Details** We use the material point method (MPM) implementation from PhysGaussian [36] as the physics solver. The solver takes a gaussian splatting model augmented with physics
 201 where each Gaussian particle also has a discrete material model ID, and continuous Young’s modulus,
 202 Poisson’s ratio, and density values. Each simulation is run for around 50 to 125 frames on a
 203 single Nvidia RTX A6000 GPU. External forces such as gravity and wind are applied to the static
 204 scenes as boundary conditions to create physics animations.

205 **Baselines** We evaluate SUPPHYSFIELD against two recent test-time optimization methods:
 206 DreamPhysics [13] and OmniPhysGS [23], and a LLM method – NeRF2Physics [37]. Dream-
 207 Physics optimizes a Young’s modulus field, requiring users to specify other values including ma-
 208 terial ID, Poisson’s ratio, and density. OmniPhysGS, on the other hand, selects a hyperelastic energy
 209 density function and a return mapping model, which, in combination, specifies a material ID for
 210 each point in the field, requiring other physics parameters to be manually specified. Both methods
 211 rely on a user prompt such as “a tree swing in the wind” and a generative video diffusion model to
 212 optimize a motion distillation loss. SUPPHYSFIELD, in contrast, infers all discrete and continuous
 213 parameters jointly (Fig. 5). NeRF2Physics first captions the scene and query a LLM for all plausi-
 214 ble material types (e.g., “metal”) along with the associated continuous values. Then, the material
 215 semantic names are associated with 3D points in the CLIP feature field, and physical properties are
 216 thus assigned via weighted similarities. This method is similar to our dataset labeling in principle
 217 with some notable difference as detailed in Appendix A.2, allowing SUPPHYSVERSE to have much
 218 more high-quality labels. SUPPHYSFIELD thus produces much less noisy predictions (Fig. 6).

219 **Evaluation Metrics** We utilize a state-of-the-art vision-language model, Gemini-2.5-Pro [31],
 220 from Google as a judge. The model is prompted to compare the rendered candidate animations
 221 generated using physics parameters predicted by different baselines, and score those videos on a
 222 scale from 0 to 5, where a higher score is better. We also measure the reconstruction quality using

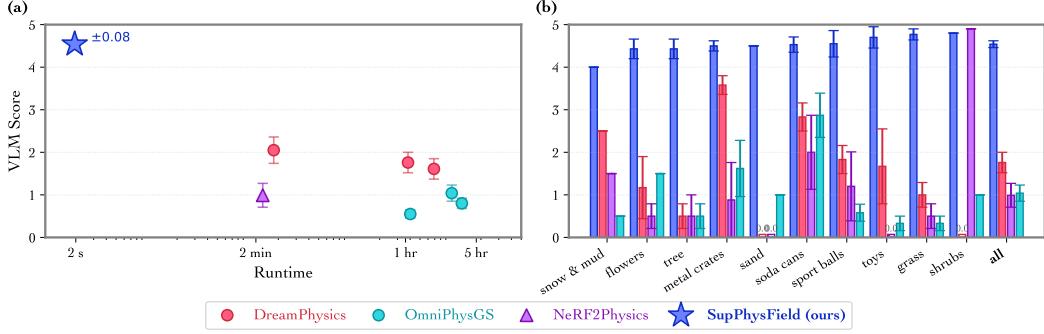


Figure 4: **Main VLM Results.** (a) **VLM score versus wall-clock time:** SUPPHYSFIELD is three orders of magnitude faster than previous works while achieving 2.21-4.58x improvement in realism. Test-time optimization methods are run with varying numbers of epochs i.e., 1, 25, 50 for DreamPhysics and 1, 2, 5 for OmniPhysGS while inference methods are only run once. (b) **Per-class VLM score:** Our method leads on every object class. Standard errors are also included.

Table 1: **Main Quantitative Results.** We report the average reconstruction quality (PSNR, SSIM) against the reference videos in SUPPHYSVERSE, the VLM scores, and five other metrics our method optimizes including material accuracy and continuous errors over E, ν, ρ . Standard errors and 95% CI are also included, and best values are **bolded**. SUPPHYSFIELD-CLIP is by far the best method across all metrics, achieving 2.21-4.58x improvement in VLM score and 3.6-30.3% gains in PSNR and SSIM. Our CLIP variant is also notably more accurate than RGB and occupancy features as measured by material class accuracy and average continuous MSE on the test set. While our method simultaneously recovers all physical properties, some prior works only predict a subset, hence “-”.

Method	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	VLM \uparrow	Mat. Acc. \uparrow	Avg. Cont. MSE \downarrow	E err \downarrow	ν err \downarrow	ρ err \downarrow
DreamPhysics [13]								
1 epoch	19.398 ± 1.090	0.880 ± 0.020	2.05 ± 0.31	-	-	2.393 ± 0.123	-	-
25 epochs	19.078 ± 0.939	0.881 ± 0.019	1.76 ± 0.24	-	-	1.419 ± 0.097	-	-
50 epochs	19.189 ± 0.980	0.880 ± 0.020	1.61 ± 0.24	-	-	1.387 ± 0.097	-	-
OmniPhysGS [23]								
1 epoch	17.907 ± 0.359	0.882 ± 0.007	0.55 ± 0.10	0.072 ± 0.0511	-	-	-	-
2 epochs	17.889 ± 0.372	0.882 ± 0.007	1.04 ± 0.19	0.109 ± 0.0704	-	-	-	-
5 epochs	17.842 ± 0.354	0.883 ± 0.007	0.80 ± 0.12	0.104 ± 0.0681	-	-	-	-
NeRF2Physics [37]								
	18.517 ± 0.644	0.886 ± 0.013	0.99 ± 0.28	0.274 ± 0.001	0.858 ± 0.109	1.115 ± 0.165	0.462 ± 0.106	0.997 ± 0.162
SUPPHYSFIELD								
Occupancy	17.887 ± 1.524	0.866 ± 0.027	1.76 ± 0.41	0.686 ± 0.054	0.175 ± 0.021	0.138 ± 0.027	0.177 ± 0.027	0.209 ± 0.032
RGB	18.652 ± 2.031	0.861 ± 0.035	2.53 ± 0.46	0.641 ± 0.066	0.197 ± 0.023	0.144 ± 0.026	0.191 ± 0.028	0.256 ± 0.035
CLIP (ours)	23.256 ± 2.456	0.918 ± 0.023	4.54 ± 0.08	0.809 ± 0.043	0.105 ± 0.013	0.072 ± 0.016	0.118 ± 0.015	0.125 ± 0.020

224 PSNR and SSIM metric against the reference videos in the SUPPHYSVERSE dataset. Other metrics
225 our method optimizes including class accuracy and continuous errors over E, ν, ρ are also computed.

226 4.1 Synthetic Scene Experiments

227 Figure 4 (a) plots Gemini score versus runtime. SUPPHYSFIELD achieves a VLM score of **4.54 ± 0.08** – a **2.21-4.58x** improvement over all baselines – while reducing inference time from minutes
228 or hours to **2 s**. A per-class breakdown in Fig. 4 (b) shows our lead in all classes. In Table 1, our
229 model improves perceptual metrics such as PSNR and SSIM by 3.6 – 30.3% and VLM scores by
230 2.21 – 4.58x over prior works. Figure 5 qualitatively visualizes the physical properties predicted
231 by our network, showing SUPPHYSFIELD’s ability to cleanly and accurately recover discrete and
232 continuous parameters across a diverse sets of objects and continuous value spectrum. Figure 6 vi-
233 sualises four representative scenes, comparing SUPPHYSFIELD against prior works. DreamPhysics
234 leaves stiff artifacts due to missegmentation or overly high predicted E values, OmniPhysGS col-
235 lapses under force, and NeRF2Physics introduces high-frequency noise, whereas SUPPHYSFIELD
236 generates smooth, class-consistent motion and segment boundaries.

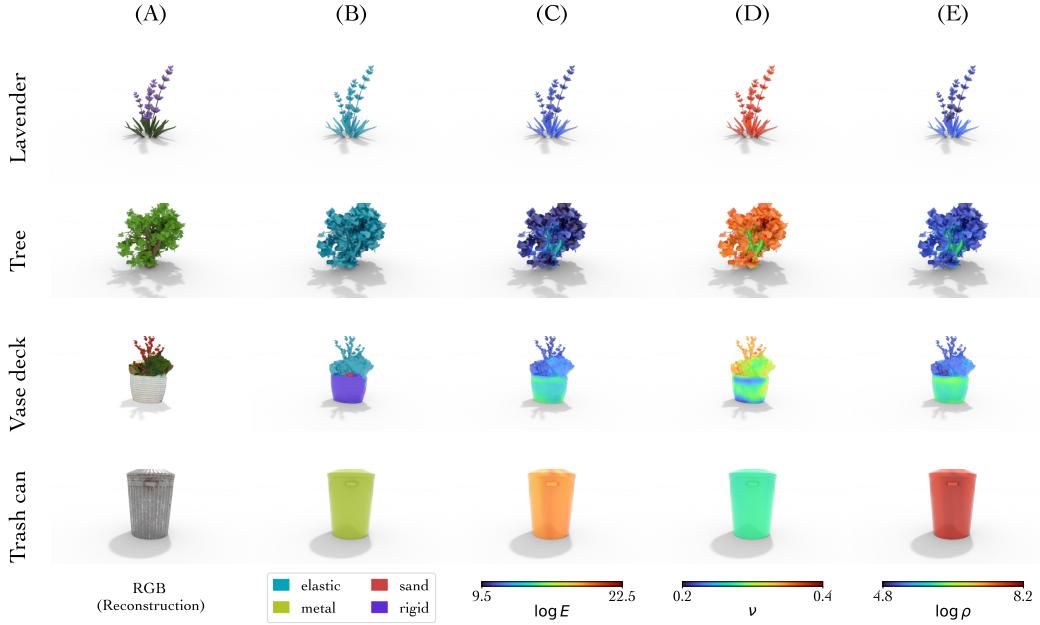


Figure 5: **SUPPHYSFIELD Prediction Visualization.** SUPPHYSFIELD simultaneously recovers discrete material class (B), continuous Young’s modulus (C), Poisson’s ratio (D), and mass density (E) with a high degree of accuracy. For example, the model correctly labels foliage as elastic and the metal can as rigid, while recovering realistic stiffness and density gradients within each object.

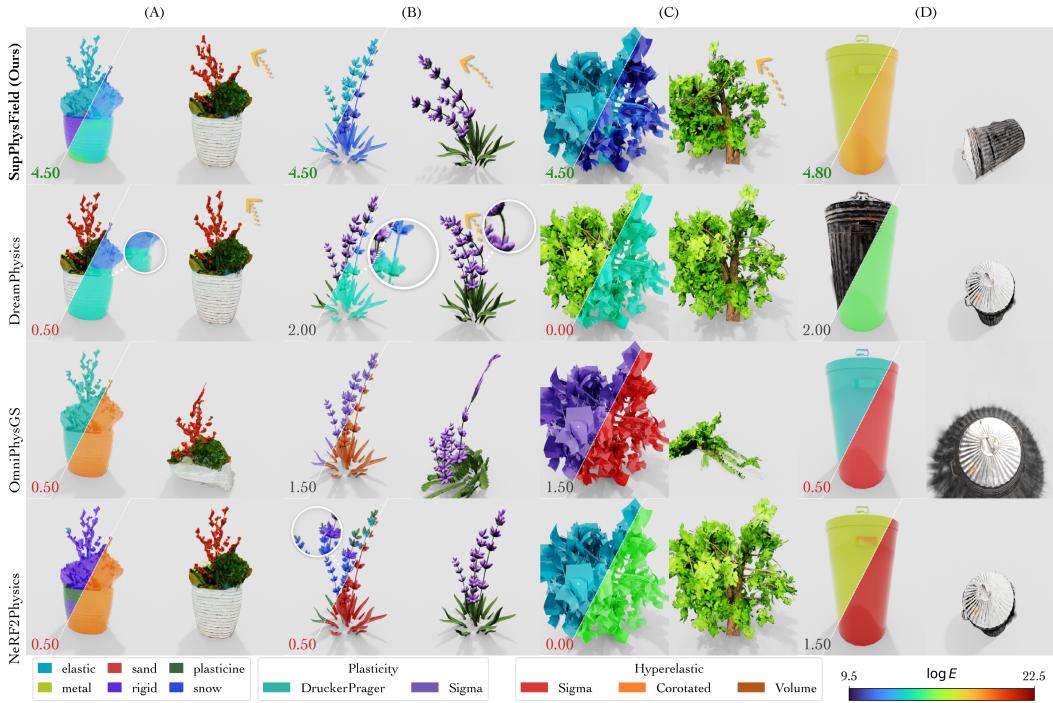


Figure 6: **Qualitative comparison on synthetic scenes.** Best Gemini score per scene is highlighted in **Green** while low scores are in **Red**. We visualized the predicted material class and E predictions (left, right respectively) for SUPPHYSFIELD and Nerf2Physics, E for DreamPhysics (right), and the plasticity and hyperelastic function classes predicted by OmniPhysGS. SUPPHYSFIELD produces stable, physically plausible motion while DreamPhysics remains overly stiff due to inaccurate fine-grained E prediction or too high E (e.g., see tree (C)), OmniPhysGS collapses under load due to unrealistic combination of plasticity and hyperelastic functions, and NeRF2Physics exhibits noisy artifacts. Please <https://neurips-2025-20627.github.io/> for the videos.



Figure 7: **SUPPHYSFIELD’s Zero-shot Real-scene Generalization.** Trained only on synthetic SUPPHYSVERSE, SUPPHYSFIELD can predict plausible physic properties, enabling realistic MPM simulation of real scenes. Here, we visualize the material types (left) and Young’s modulus (right) prediction in the first frame, and subsequent frames impacted by a wind force. Please see the videos in our website <https://neurips-2025-20627.github.io/>.

238 4.2 Zero-shot Generalization to Real-World Scenes

239 Without any real-scene supervision, SUPPHYSFIELD can zero-shot generalize as shown in Fig. 7.
 240 Our method correctly assigns rigid vase bases and flexible leaves, yielding realistic motion that
 241 closely matches human expectation. No other baseline generalises under this setting.

242 4.3 SUPPHYSFIELD’s Feature Type Ablation

243 Replacing CLIP with RGB or occupancy features drops VLM score by 40-60 % and nearly doubles
 244 parameter MSE (Table 1, rows Occupancy and RGB). The material class prediction also dramatically
 245 drops across most classes as shown in Fig. 9. Figure 8 shows the failure modes for real scenes,
 246 highlighting RGB and occupancy’s struggle to generalize to unseen data as compared to CLIP.

247 5 Conclusion and Limitations

248 We presented SUPPHYSFIELD, a framework that jointly reconstructs geometry, appearance, and ex-
 249 plicit physical material fields from posed RGB images. By distilling rich CLIP features into 3D and
 250 training a feed-forward 3D U-Net with per-voxel material supervision on our new SUPPHYSVERSE
 251 dataset, SUPPHYSFIELD avoids the expensive test-time optimization required by prior work. Once
 252 trained, it produces full material fields in a few seconds, improving Gemini realism scores by 14.5%
 253 to 51.8% over DreamPhysics and OmniPhysGS while reducing inference time by three orders of
 254 magnitude. SUPPHYSFIELD leverages CLIP’s strong visual priors, which enables zero-shot trans-
 255 fer to real scenes, even though it is only trained on synthetic data. The method enables realistic,
 256 physically plausible 3D scene animation with off-the-shelf MPM solvers.

257 **Limitations** We take the first step towards learning a supervised model for physical material pre-
 258 diction. Like prior art, our work focuses on single object interaction leaving multi-object scenes

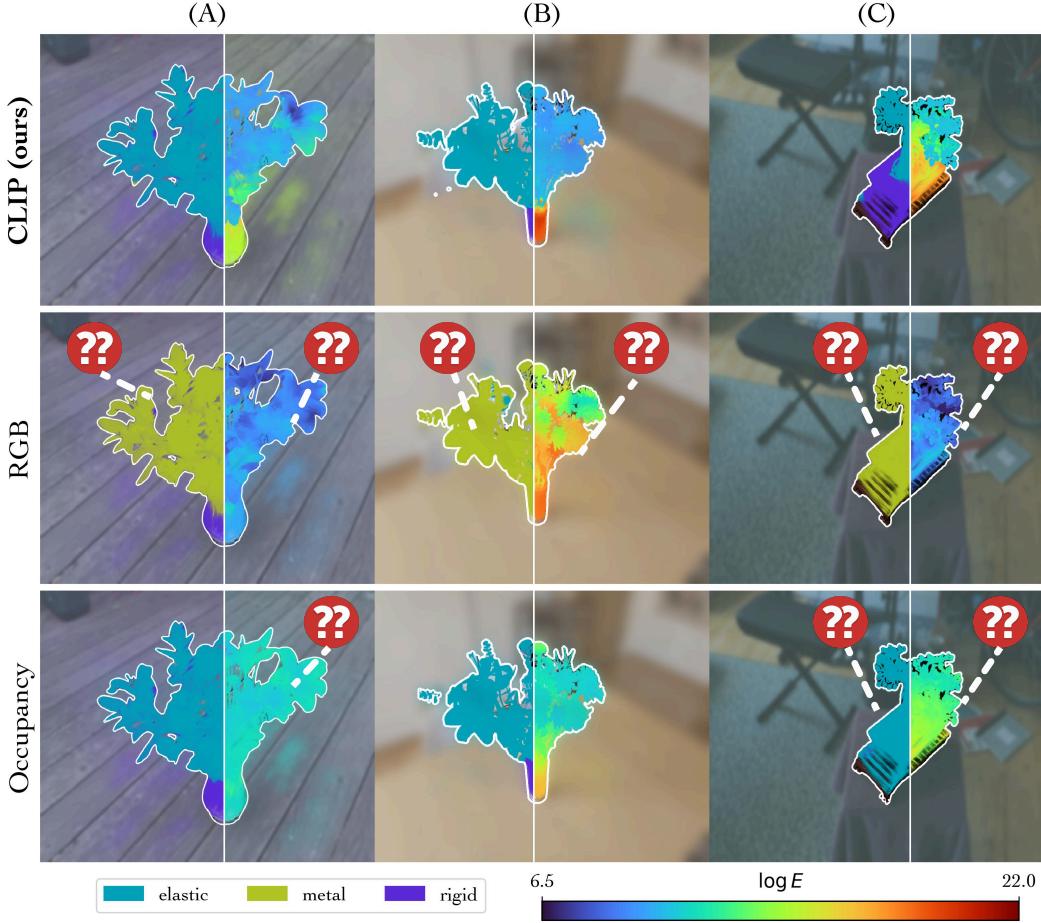


Figure 8: **SUPPHYSFIELD’s Feature Type Ablation on Real Scenes.** Replacing CLIP features with RGB or occupancy severely degrades the material prediction. Incorrect predictions such as leave mislabelled as metal or Young’s modulus being uniform within an object are marked with question marks. This highlights the power of pretrained visual features in bridging the sim2real gap.

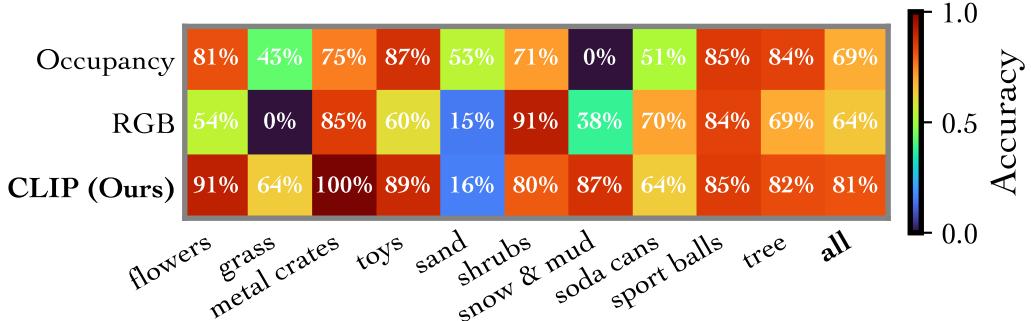


Figure 9: **SUPPHYSFIELD Ablation’s Per-class Accuracy on synthetic scenes.** CLIP features generalizes in synthetic scenes, outperforming RGB and occupancy on 9/10 classes.

for future investigation. Another limitation is that while our UNet predict a point estimate for each voxel, materials in the real-world contain uncertainty that visual information alone cannot resolve (e.g., a tree can be stiff or flexible). A promising extension is to learn a distribution of materials (e.g., using diffusion) instead.

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392 **A Appendix**

393 **A.1 Preliminaries**

394 This section briefly reviews foundational concepts in 3D scene representation and physics modeling
 395 relevant to our work.

396 **A.1.1 Learned Scene Representation**

397 Reconstructing 3D scenes from 2D images is commonly achieved by learning a parameterized representation,
 398 F_θ , optimized to render novel views that match observed images $\{I^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^M$ given camera
 399 parameters $\{\pi^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^M$. This typically involves minimizing a photometric loss:

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^M \left\| \hat{I}^{(i)}(\theta) - I^{(i)} \right\|_2^2,$$

400 where $\hat{I}^{(i)}(\theta)$ is the image rendered from viewpoint i . Two prominent representations are Neural
 401 Radiance Fields (NeRF) and Gaussian Splatting (GS) models.

402 **Neural Radiance Fields (NeRF)** [25] model a scene as a continuous function $F_\theta : (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{d}) \mapsto (c, \sigma)$,
 403 mapping a 3D location \mathbf{x} and viewing direction \mathbf{d} to an emitted color c and volume density σ .
 404 Images are synthesized using volume rendering, integrating color and density along camera rays.
 405 This process' differentiability allows for end-to-end optimization from images.

406 **Gaussian Splatting (GS)** [16] represents scenes as a collection of 3D Gaussian primitives, each
 407 defined by a center μ_i , covariance Σ_i , color \mathbf{c}_i , and opacity α_i . These Gaussians are projected onto
 408 the image plane and blended using alpha compositing to render views.

409 In our work, the principles of neural scene representation, particularly NeRF-like architectures, are
 410 leveraged not only for visual reconstruction but also for creating dense 3D visual feature fields. As
 411 detailed in Sec. 3.1, we utilize a NeRF-based model to distill 2D image features (e.g., from CLIP)
 412 into a volumetric 3D feature grid. This 3D feature representation, F_G , then serves as the primary
 413 input to our physics prediction network. For subsequent physics simulation, GS offers a convenient
 414 particle-based representation.

415 **A.1.2 Material Point Method (MPM) for Physics Simulation**

416 To simulate how objects move and deform under applied forces, a physics engine requires knowl-
 417 edge of their material properties. These properties are typically defined within the framework of
 418 continuum mechanics, which describes the behavior of materials at a macroscopic level. The funda-
 419 mental equations of motion (conservation of mass and momentum) are:

$$\rho \frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} = \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{f}^{\text{ext}} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0, \quad (4)$$

420 where ρ is mass density, \mathbf{v} the velocity field, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ the Cauchy stress tensor, and \mathbf{f}^{ext} any external force
 421 (e.g. gravity or user interactions). The material-specific *constitutive laws* define how $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ depends on
 422 the local deformation gradient \mathbf{F} . For elastic materials, stress depends purely on the recoverable
 423 strain; for plastic materials, a yield condition enforces partial flow once strain exceeds a threshold.

424 **Constitutive Laws and Parameters** Most continuum simulations separate the constitutive model
 425 into two core components:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}_\mu : \mathbf{F}^e &\mapsto \mathbf{P}, \\ \mathcal{P}_\mu : \mathbf{F}^{e,\text{trial}} &\mapsto \mathbf{F}^{e,\text{new}}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

426 where \mathbf{F}^e is the *elastic* portion of the deformation gradient, \mathbf{P} is the (First) Piola–Kirchhoff stress,
 427 and μ represents the set of material parameters (e.g. Young's modulus E , Poisson's ratio ν , yield
 428 stress). The *elastic law* \mathcal{E}_μ computes stress from the current elastic deformation, while the *return-*
 429 *mapping* \mathcal{P}_μ projects any trial elastic update $\mathbf{F}^{e,\text{trial}}$ onto the feasible yield surface if plastic flow
 430 is triggered. Typically, the constitutive laws i.e., \mathcal{E}_μ and \mathcal{P}_μ are hand-designed by domain experts.
 431 The choice of \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{P} jointly define a class of material (e.g., rubber). Within a material class,
 432 additional continuous parameters μ including Young's modulus, Poisson's ratio and density can be
 433 specified for a more granular control of the material properties (e.g., stiffness of rubber). In our work,
 434 SUPPHYSFIELD jointly predicts the discrete material model and the continuous material parameters.

435 **A.2 SUPPHYSVERSE Dataset Details**

436 We heavily curate the dataset to a set of 1624 objects after a multi-stage filter that removes multi-
437 object scenes, missing textures, duplicated assets, and objects whose material labeling is either am-
438 biguous or physically implausible.

439 First, we define some object class (e.g., “tree”) and some alternative query terms (e.g., “ficus, fern,
440 evergreen etc”). We then use a sentence transformer model [34] to compute the cosine similarity
441 between the search terms and the name of each Objaverse object. We select $k = 500$ objects
442 with the highest similarity score for each class, creating an initial candidate pool. However, since
443 Objaverse objects vary greatly in asset quality, lighting conditions, and some scenes contain multiple
444 objects which are not suitable for our material learning, an additional filtering step is needed. The
445 Gemini VLM is prompted to filter out low-quality or unsuitable scenes. A distilled NeRF model
446 is fitted to each object. Then, the VLM is provided five multi-view RGB images of an object, and
447 prompted to provide a list of the object’s semantic parts along with associated material class and
448 ranges for continuous values (e.g., see Fig. 10). The ranges such as $E \in \{1e4, 1e5\}$ allow us to
449 simulate a wider range of dynamics from flexible to more rigid trees. The VLM is also prompted to
450 specify a list of constraints such as to ensure that the leaf’s density is lower than the trunk’s. We then
451 sample the continuous values from the VLM’s specified ranges subject to the constraint via rejection
452 sampling. The semantic parts (e.g., “pot”) are used with the CLIP distilled feature field to compute
453 a 3D semantic segmentation of the object into parts, and the sampled material properties are applied
454 uniformly to all points within a part. This ground-truth material and feature fields are then voxelized
455 into regular grids for use in supervised learning by the SUPPHYSFIELD framework.

```
{ "pot": {"density": [400, 600], "E": [1e8, 2e8], "nu": [0.2, 0.4], "material_id": 6},  
  "trunk": {"density": [300, 500], "E": [5e5, 1e7], "nu": [0.3, 0.45], "material_id": 0},  
  "leaf": {"density": [100, 300], "E": [1e4, 1e5], "nu": [0.35, 0.48], "material_id": 0},  
  "constraints" : "assert leaf_{density} < trunk_{density}, ..."}}
```

Figure 10: An example of a material annotation by Gemini VLM for the SUPPHYSVERSE dataset.

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580 Answer: [Yes]

581 Justification: We provide implementation details.

582 Guidelines:

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- 584 • The experimental setting should be presented in the core of the paper to a level of detail that is
 585 necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
- 586 • The full details can be provided either with the code, in appendix, or as supplemental material.

587 **7. Experiment statistical significance**

588 Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate
 589 information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

590 Answer: [Yes]

591 Justification: We include standard error bars along with the mean scores.

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 595 vals, or statistical significance tests, at least for the experiments that support the main claims of
 596 the paper.
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 598 train/test split, initialization, random drawing of some parameter, or overall run with given
 599 experimental conditions).
- 600 • The method for calculating the error bars should be explained (closed form formula, call to a
 601 library function, bootstrap, etc.)
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- 605 • It is OK to report 1-sigma error bars, but one should state it. The authors should preferably
 606 report a 2-sigma error bar than state that they have a 96% CI, if the hypothesis of Normality of
 607 errors is not verified.
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 611 were calculated and reference the corresponding figures or tables in the text.

612 **8. Experiments compute resources**

613 Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer
 614 resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce the experi-
 615 ments?

616 Answer: [Yes]

617 Justification: We provide details on our hardware setup and training duration.

618 Guidelines:

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 621 provider, including relevant memory and storage.
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 623 mental runs as well as estimate the total compute.
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630 Answer: [Yes]

631 Justification: We conform to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics.

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