

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

Inferring the physical properties of 3D scenes from visual information is a critical yet challenging task for creating interactive and realistic virtual worlds. While humans intuitively grasp material characteristics such as elasticity or stiffness, existing methods often rely on slow, per-scene optimization, limiting their generalizability and application. To address this problem, we introduce SUPPHYSFIELD, a novel method that trains a generalizable neural network to predict phys-

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ical properties across multiple scenes from 3D visual features purely using supervised losses. Once trained, our feed-forward network can perform fast inference of plausible material fields, which coupled with a learned static scene representation like Gaussian Splatting enables realistic physics simulation under external forces. To facilitate this research, we also collected SUPPHYSVERSE, one of the largest known datasets of paired 3D assets and physic material annotations. Extensive evaluations demonstrate that SUPPHYSFIELD is about 2.21-4.58x better and orders of magnitude faster than test-time optimization methods. By leveraging pretrained visual features like CLIP, our method can also zero-shot generalize to real-world scenes despite only ever been trained on synthetic data. <https://neurips-2025-20627.github.io/>

1 Introduction

Advances in learning-based scene reconstruction with Neural Radiance Fields [23] and Gaussian Splatting [15] have made it possible to recreate photorealistic 3D geometry and appearance from sparse camera views, with broad applications from immersive content creation to robotics and simulation. However, these approaches focus exclusively on visual appearance—capturing the geometry and colors of a scene while remaining blind to its underlying physical properties.

Yet the world is not merely a static collection of shapes and textures. Objects bend, fold, bounce, and deform according to their material composition and the forces acting upon them. Consequently, there has been a growing body of work that aims to integrate physics into 3D scene modeling [25, 22, 19, 10, 9, 34, 26, 11, 21, 35, 5]. Current approaches for acquiring the material properties of the scene generally fall into two categories, each with significant limitations. Some works such as [34, 11] require users to manually specify material parameters for the entire scene based on domain knowledge. This manual approach is limited in its application as it places a heavy burden on the user and lacks fine-grained detail. Another line of work aims to automate the material discovery process via test-time optimization. Works including [14, 19, 37, 13, 21, 36] leverage differentiable physics solvers, iteratively optimizing material fields by comparing simulated outcomes against ground-truth observations or realism scores from video generative models. However, predicting physical parameters for hundreds of thousands of particles from sparse signals (i.e., a single rendering or distillation scalar loss) is an extremely slow and difficult optimization process, often taking hours on a single scene. Furthermore, this heavy per-scene memorization does not generalize: for each new scene, the incredibly slow optimization has to be run from scratch again.

In this paper, we propose a new framework, SUPPHYSFIELD, which unifies geometry, appearance, and physics learning via direct supervised learning. Our approach is inspired by how humans intuitively understand physics: when we see a tree swaying in the wind, we do not memorize the stiffness values for each specific coordinate (x, y, z) – instead, we learn that objects with tree-like visual features behave in certain ways when forces are applied. This physical understanding from visual cues allows us to anticipate the motion of a different tree or even other vegetation like grass, in an entirely new context. Thus, our insight is to leverage rich 3D visual features such as those distilled from CLIP [27] to predict physical materials in a direct supervised and feed-forward way. Once trained, our model can associate visual patterns (e.g., "if it looks like vegetation") with physical behaviors (e.g., "it should have material properties similar to a tree"), enabling fast inference and generalization across scenes. To facilitate this research, we have curated and labeled SUPPHYSVERSE, a dataset of 1624 paired 3D objects and annotated materials spanning 10 semantic classes. To our knowledge, this is the largest open-source dataset of paired 3D assets and physical material labels. Trained on SUPPHYSVERSE, our feed-forward network can predict material fields that are 2.21-4.58x better and orders of magnitude faster than test-time optimization methods. By leveraging pretrained visual features, SUPPHYSFIELD can also zero-shot generalize to real-world scenes despite only ever being trained on synthetic data.

Our contributions include:

1. **Novel Framework for 3D Physics Prediction:** We introduce SUPPHYSFIELD, a unified framework that predicts discrete material types and continuous physical parameters (Youngs modulus, Poissons ratio, density) directly from visual features using supervised learning.

2. **SUPPHYSVERSE Dataset:** We curate and release SUPPHYSVERSE, the largest open-source dataset of 3D objects with physical material annotations (1624 objects, 10 semantic classes).
3. **Fast and Generalizable Inference:** By leveraging pretrained visual features from CLIP and a feed-forward 3D U-Net, SUPPHYSFIELD performs inference orders of magnitude faster than prior test-time optimization approaches, achieving a 2.21-4.58x improvement in realism scores as evaluated by a state-of-the-art vision-language model.
4. **Zero-Shot Generalization to Real Scenes:** Despite being trained solely on synthetic data, SUPPHYSFIELD generalizes to real-world scenes, showing how visual feature distillation can effectively bridge the sim-to-real gap.
5. **Seamless Integration with MPM Solvers:** The predicted material fields can be directly coupled with Gaussian splatting models for realistic physics simulations under applied forces such as wind and gravity, enabling interactive and visually plausible 3D scene animations.

2 Related Work

2D World Models Some early works [3, 2] learn to predict material labels on 2D images. Recently, learning forward dynamics from 2D video frames has also been explored extensively. For instance, Google’s Genie [24] trains a next-frame prediction model conditioned on latent actions derived from user inputs, capturing intuitive 2D physics in an unsupervised manner. While these methods achieve impressive 2D generation and control, they do not explicitly model 3D geometry or a physically grounded world. Other works such as [6, 20] also explore generating or editing images based on learned real-world dynamics. While these methods achieve impressive results in 2D visual synthesis and can imply motion dynamics, they typically do not explicitly model 3D geometry, and only encode physics implicitly via next-frame prediction rather than through explicit material parameters, nor do they infer physically grounded material properties decoupled from appearances. These can lead to problems such as a lack of object permanence or implausible interactions. In contrast, SUPPHYSFIELD directly operates in 3D, predicting explicit physical parameters (e.g., Young’s modulus, density) for 3D objects, enabling their integration into 3D physics simulators or neural networks [31] for realistic interaction.

Manual Assignment or Assignment of Physics using LLMs A number of recent methods have explored combining learned 3D scene representations (e.g., Gaussian splatting) with a physics solver where material parameters are assigned manually or through high-level heuristics. This often involves users specifying material types for the scene [34, 1] or using scripted object-to-material dictionaries [26] or large language and vision-language models [12, 4, 35, 18, 33] to guide the assignment.

Test-time material optimization using videos Other works explore more automatic and principled ways to infer material properties using rendered videos. Some techniques [14, 19, 37] optimize material parameters by comparing simulated deformations against ground-truth observations, often requiring ground-truth multi-view videos of objects or ground-truth particle positions under known forces. More recent approaches [13, 21, 36] use video diffusion models as priors to optimize physics via a motion distillation loss. Notably, these approaches suffer from extremely slow per-scene optimization, often taking hours on a single scene, and do not generalize to new scenes. In stark contrast, SUPPHYSFIELD employs a feed-forward neural network that, once trained, predicts physical parameters in seconds, and can generalize to unseen scenes. A recent work Vid2Sim [5] also aims to learn a generalizable material prediction network across scenes. This was done by encoding a front-view video of the object in motion with a foundation video transformer [30] and learning to regress these motion priors into physical parameters. Unlike Vid2Sim, SUPPHYSFIELD does not require videos, relying instead on visual features from static images.

3 Method

Our central thesis is that 3D visual appearance provides sufficient information to recover an object’s physical parameters. Texture, shading, and shape features captured from multiple calibrated images correlate with physical quantities such as Young’s modulus and Poisson’s ratio. By learning a mapping from these visual features to material properties, we can augment a volumetric reconstruction model (e.g., Gaussian splatting) with a point-wise material estimate, without requiring force response observations. In Sec. 3.1, we detail our framework, leveraging rich visual priors from CLIP

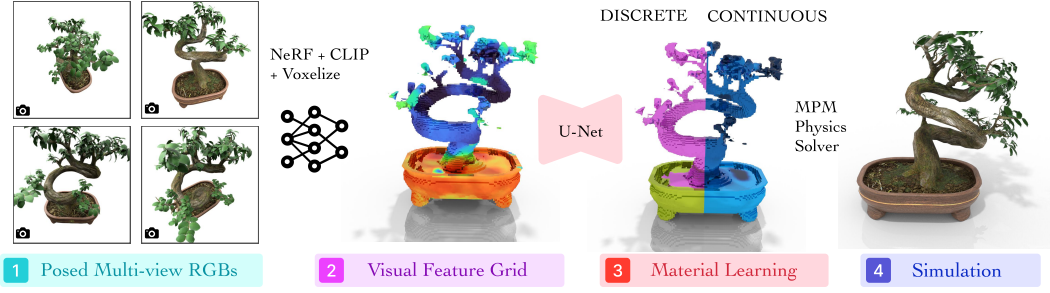


Figure 2: **Method Overview.** From posed multi-view RGB images of a static scene, SUPPHYSFIELD first reconstructs a 3D model with NeRF and distilled CLIP features [28]. Then, we voxelize the features into a regular $N \times N \times N \times D$ grid where N is the grid size and D is the CLIP feature 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.

to predict a material field, which can be used by a physics solver to animate objects responding to external forces. To train this model, we curated SUPPHYSVERSE, a large dataset of paired 3D assets and material annotations, as detailed in Sec. 3.2. Figure 2 gives an overview of our method.

3.1 SUPPHYSFIELD Physics Learning

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

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

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

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

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

3D Visual Feature Distillation Recent work on distilled feature fields has shown that dense 2D visual feature embeddings extracted from foundation models, such as CLIP, based on images can be lifted into 3D, yielding a volumetric representation that is both geometrically accurate and rich in terms of visual and semantic priors [28]. These works have used distilled features to better understand 3D scenes for robotics manipulation tasks. To our knowledge, this idea has not been applied to material prediction, despite the promise in using semantically rich 3D feature volumes to encode cues about an objects composition and stiffness. Here we augment the classical NeRF representation [23] to predict a view-independent feature vector in addition to color and density, i.e.,

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

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 $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a high-dimensional descriptor capturing visual semantics (e.g., object identity or other attributes), which we assume to be view-independent. We can render both the color and feature channels into any camera view via the standard volume rendering procedure. Concretely, for a camera ray $r(t) = \mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d}$ passing through a pixel p , the accumulated color $C(p)$ and feature vector

$F(p)$ are given by integrals along the ray:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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 the predicted material class logits and the ground-truth, CE is the cross entropy loss, λ is a loss balancing factor, and E, ν, d are the Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio and density values, respectively. The material network f_G is trained on 12 NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPUs, each with a batch size of 4, in one day using the Adam optimizer [17].

Physics Simulation We use the Material Point Method (MPM) to simulate physics. The MPM solver (Sec. A.1.2) takes a point cloud of initial particle poses along with predicted material properties, and the external force specification, and simulates the particles’ transformations and deformations. Although it is possible to sample particles from a NeRF model (e.g., via Poisson disk sampling [9]), we have found that it is easier to use a Gaussian Splatting model (Sec. A.1.1) as each Gaussian can naturally be thought of as a MPM particle [34]. Thus, we separately learn a Gaussian splatting model from posed multi-view RGB images. We then transfer the material properties from our predicted material grid into the Gaussian splatting model via nearest neighbor interpolation.

3.2 SUPPHYSVERSE Dataset

We collect one of the largest and highest quality known datasets of diverse objects with annotated physical materials. Our dataset (Fig. 3) covers 10 semantic classes, ranging from organic matter



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*).

(trees, shrubs, grass, flowers) and granular media (sand, snow and mud) to hollow containers (soda cans, metal crates), and toys (rubber ducks, sport balls). The dataset is sourced from Objaverse [7], the largest open-source dataset of 3D assets. Since Objaverse objects do not have physical parameter annotations, we develop an automatic multi-stage labeling pipeline leveraging foundation vision-language models i.e., Gemini-2.5-Pro [29]. More details is given in Appendix A.2.

4 Experiments

Dataset We train SUPPHYSFIELD on a random 90% split of the SUPPHYSVERSE dataset. We evaluate on 38 synthetic scenes from the test set of SUPPHYSVERSE, and three real-world scene from the NeRF [23] and LERF [16] datasets.

Simulation Details We use the material point method (MPM) implementation from PhysGaussian [34] as the physics solver. The solver takes a gaussian splatting model augmented with physics where each Gaussian particle also has a discrete material model ID, and continuous Young’s modulus, Poisson’s ratio, and density values. Each simulation is run for around 50 to 125 frames on a single Nvidia RTX A6000 GPU. External forces such as gravity and wind are applied to the static scenes as boundary conditions to create physics animations.

Baselines We evaluate SUPPHYSFIELD against two recent test-time optimization methods: DreamPhysics [13] and OmniPhysGS [21], and a LLM method – NeRF2Physics [35]. DreamPhysics optimizes a Young’s modulus field, requiring users to specify other values including material ID, Poisson’s ratio, and density. OmniPhysGS, on the other hand, selects a hyperelastic energy density function and a return mapping model, which, in combination, specifies a material ID for each point in the field, requiring other physics parameters to be manually specified. Both methods rely on a user prompt such as “a tree swing in the wind” and a generative video diffusion model to optimize a motion distillation loss. SUPPHYSFIELD, in contrast, infers all discrete and continuous parameters jointly (Fig. 5). NeRF2Physics first captions the scene and query a LLM for all plausible material types (e.g., “metal”) along with the associated continuous values. Then, the material semantic names are associated with 3D points in the CLIP feature field, and physical properties are thus assigned via weighted similarities. This method is similar to our dataset labeling in principle with some notable difference as detailed in Appendix A.2, allowing SUPPHYSVERSE to have much more high-quality labels. SUPPHYSFIELD thus produces much less noisy predictions (Fig. 6).

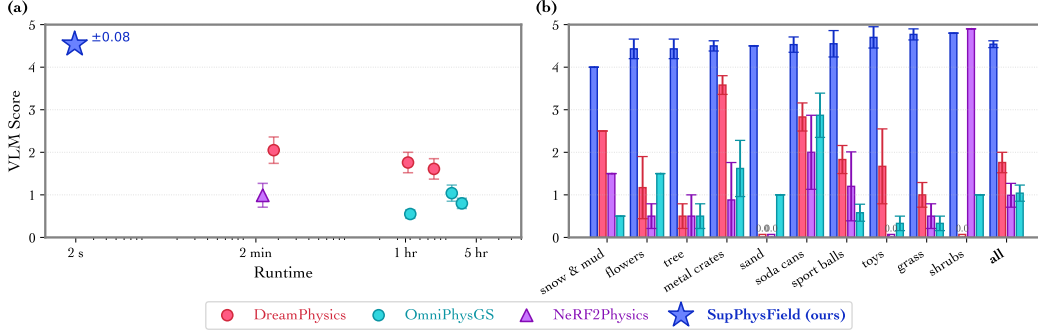


Figure 4: **Main VLM Results.** (a) **VLM score versus wall-clock time:** SUPPHYSFIELD is three orders of magnitude faster than previous works while achieving 2.21-4.58x improvement in realism. Test-time optimization methods are run with varying numbers of epochs i.e., 1, 25, 50 for DreamPhysics and 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 Gemini VLM scores, and five other metrics our method optimizes including discrete material accuracy and continuous errors over E , ν , ρ . Standard errors 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 $\pm$ 1.090	0.880 $\pm$ 0.020	2.05 $\pm$ 0.31	-	-	2.393 $\pm$ 0.123	-	-
25 epochs	19.078 $\pm$ 0.939	0.881 $\pm$ 0.019	1.76 $\pm$ 0.24	-	-	1.419 $\pm$ 0.097	-	-
50 epochs	19.189 $\pm$ 0.980	0.880 $\pm$ 0.020	1.61 $\pm$ 0.24	-	-	1.387 $\pm$ 0.097	-	-
OmniPhysGS [21]								
1 epoch	17.907 $\pm$ 0.359	0.882 $\pm$ 0.007	0.55 $\pm$ 0.10	0.072 $\pm$ 0.0511	-	-	-	-
2 epochs	17.889 $\pm$ 0.372	0.882 $\pm$ 0.007	1.04 $\pm$ 0.19	0.109 $\pm$ 0.0704	-	-	-	-
5 epochs	17.842 $\pm$ 0.354	0.883 $\pm$ 0.007	0.80 $\pm$ 0.12	0.104 $\pm$ 0.0681	-	-	-	-
NeRF2Physics [35]	18.517 $\pm$ 0.644	0.886 $\pm$ 0.013	0.99 $\pm$ 0.28	0.274 $\pm$ 0.001	0.858 $\pm$ 0.109	1.115 $\pm$ 0.165	0.462 $\pm$ 0.106	0.997 $\pm$ 0.162
SUPPHYSFIELD								
Occupancy	17.887 $\pm$ 1.524	0.866 $\pm$ 0.027	1.76 $\pm$ 0.41	0.686 $\pm$ 0.054	0.175 $\pm$ 0.021	0.138 $\pm$ 0.027	0.177 $\pm$ 0.027	0.209 $\pm$ 0.032
RGB	18.652 $\pm$ 2.031	0.861 $\pm$ 0.035	2.53 $\pm$ 0.46	0.641 $\pm$ 0.066	0.197 $\pm$ 0.023	0.144 $\pm$ 0.026	0.191 $\pm$ 0.028	0.256 $\pm$ 0.035
CLIP (ours)	23.256 $\pm$ 2.456	0.918 $\pm$ 0.023	4.54 $\pm$ 0.08	0.809 $\pm$ 0.043	0.105 $\pm$ 0.013	0.072 $\pm$ 0.016	0.118 $\pm$ 0.015	0.125 $\pm$ 0.020

Evaluation Metrics We utilize a state-of-the-art vision-language model, Gemini-2.5-Pro [29], from Google as a judge. The model is prompted to compare the rendered candidate animations generated using physics parameters predicted by different baselines, and score those videos on a scale from 0 to 5, where a higher score is better. We also measure the reconstruction quality using PSNR and SSIM metric against the reference videos in the SUPPHYSVERSE dataset. Other metrics our method optimizes including class accuracy and continuous errors over E , ν , ρ are also computed.

4.1 Synthetic Scene Experiments

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

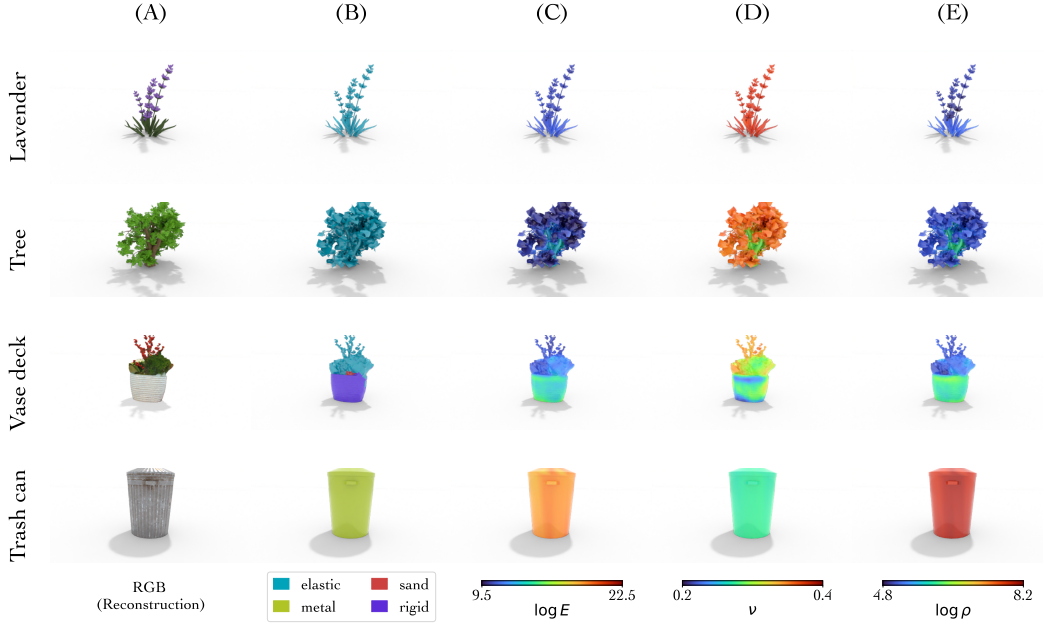


Figure 5: **SUPPHYSFIELD Prediction Visualization.** SUPPHYSFIELD simultaneously recovers discrete material class (B), continuous Young’s modulus (C), Poisson’s ratio (D), and mass density (E) with a high degree of accuracy. For example, the model correctly labels foliage as elastic and the metal can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

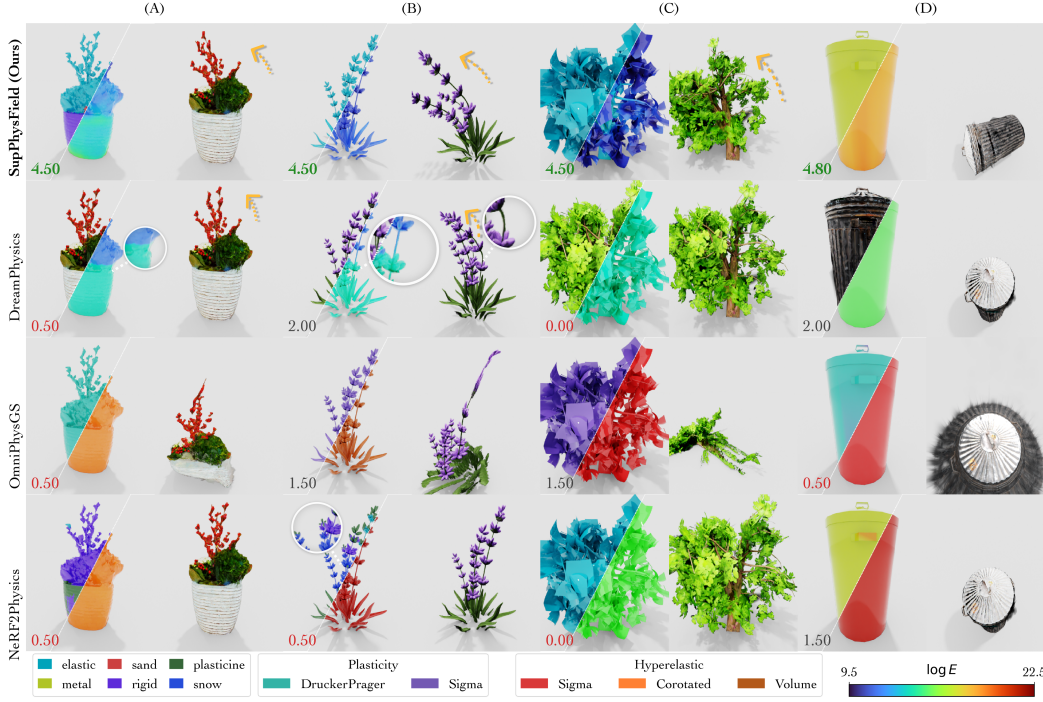


Figure 6: **Qualitative comparison on synthetic scenes.** Best Gemini score per scene is highlighted in **Green** while low scores are in **Red**. We visualized the predicted material class and E predictions (left, right respectively) for SUPPHYSFIELD and Nerf2Physics, E for DreamPhysics (right), and 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/>.

4.2 Zero-shot Generalization to Real-World Scenes

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

4.3 SUPPHYSFIELD’s Feature Type Ablation

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

5 Conclusion and Limitations

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

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

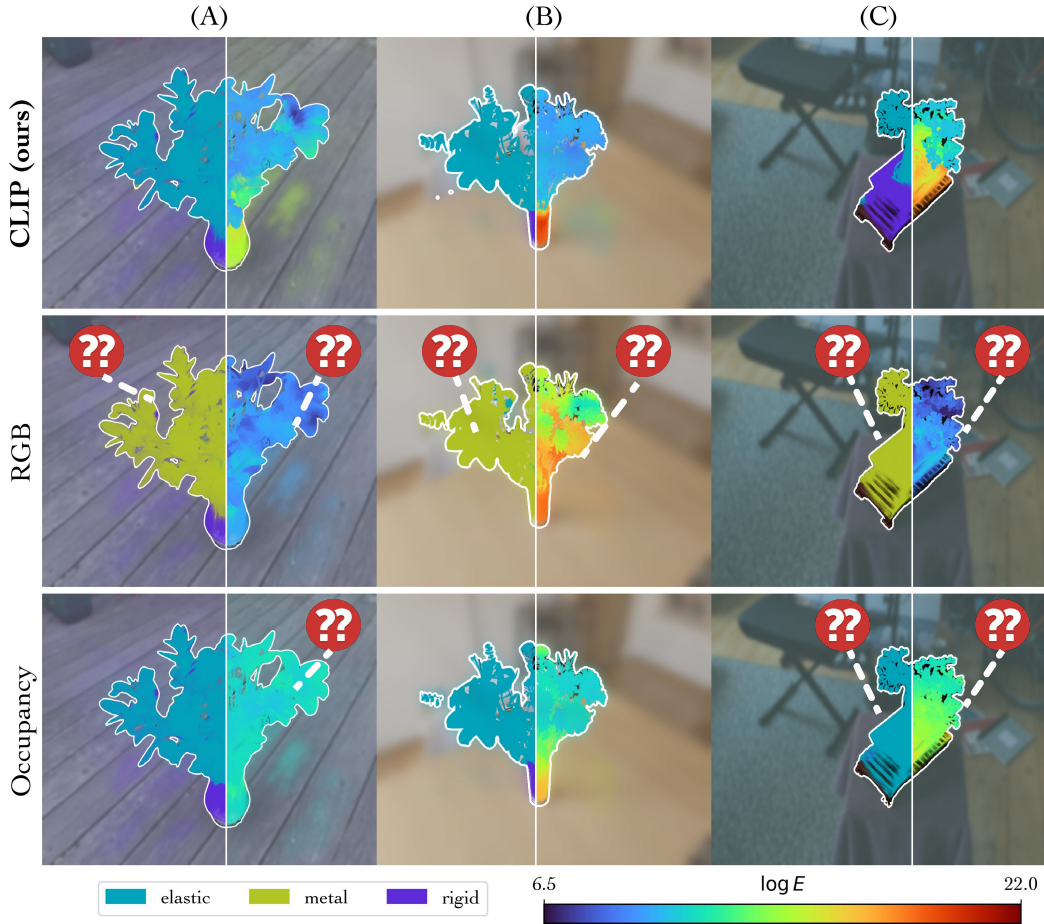


Figure 8: **SUPPHYSFIELD's Feature Type Ablation on Real Scenes.** Replacing CLIP features with RGB or occupancy severely degrades the material prediction. Incorrect predictions such as leave mislabelled as metal or Young's modulus being uniform within an object are marked with question marks. This highlights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

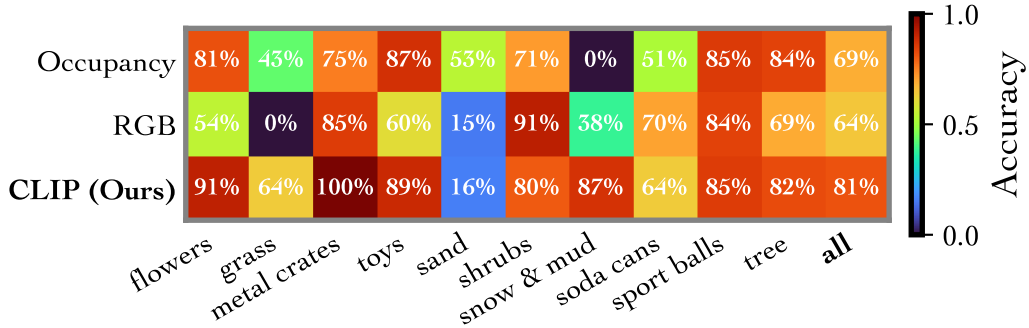


Figure 9: **SUPPHYSFIELD Ablation's Per-class Accuracy on synthetic scenes.** CLIP features generalizes in synthetic scenes, outperforming RGB and occupancy on 9/10 classes.

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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A Appendix

A.1 Preliminaries

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

A.1.1 Learned Scene Representation

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

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

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

Neural Radiance Fields (NeRF) [23] model a scene as a continuous function $F_\theta : (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{d}) \mapsto (c, \sigma)$, mapping a 3D location $\mathbf{x}$ and viewing direction $\mathbf{d}$ to an emitted color c and volume density σ . Images are synthesized using volume rendering, integrating color and density along camera rays. This process’ differentiability allows for end-to-end optimization from images.

Gaussian Splatting (GS) [15] represents scenes as a collection of 3D Gaussian primitives, each defined by a center μ_i , covariance Σ_i , color $\mathbf{c}_i$, and opacity α_i . These Gaussians are projected onto the image plane and blended using alpha compositing to render views.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

A.2 SUPPHYSVERSE Dataset Details

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

First, we define some object class (e.g., “tree”) and some alternative query terms (e.g., “ficus, fern, evergreen etc”). We then use a sentence transformer model [32] to compute the cosine similarity between the search terms and the name of each Objaverse object. We select $k = 500$ objects with the highest similarity score for each class, creating an initial candidate pool. However, since Objaverse objects vary greatly in asset quality, lighting conditions, and some scenes contain multiple objects which are not suitable for our material learning, an additional filtering step is needed. The Gemini VLM is prompted to filter out low-quality or unsuitable scenes. A distilled NeRF model is fitted to each object. Then, the VLM is provided five multi-view RGB images of an object, and prompted to provide a list of the object’s semantic parts along with associated material class and ranges for continuous values (e.g., see Fig. 10). The ranges such as $E \in \{1e4, 1e5\}$ allow us to simulate a wider range of dynamics from flexible to more rigid trees. The VLM is also prompted to specify a list of constraints such as to ensure that the leaf’s density is lower than the trunk’s. We then sample the continuous values from the VLM’s specified ranges subject to the constraint via rejection sampling. The semantic parts (e.g., “pot”) are used with the CLIP distilled feature field to compute a 3D semantic segmentation of the object into parts, and the sampled material properties are applied uniformly to all points within a part. This ground-truth material and feature fields are then voxelized 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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