

Learning 3D Scene Analogies with Neural Contextual Scene Maps

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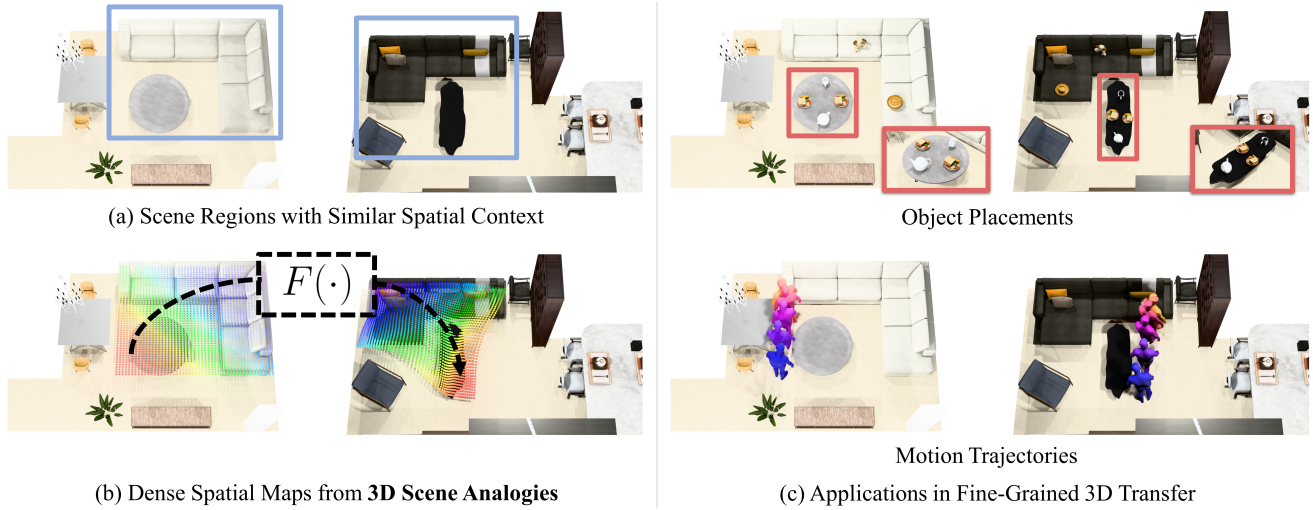


Figure 1. Overview of the 3D scene analogy task. (a) Given two scenes with regions possibly having similar contexts, (b) the 3D scene analogy task aims to find a dense 3D mapping between the corresponding regions. (c) The estimated maps can then be used for applications such as object placement or motion trajectory transfer.

Abstract

Understanding scene contexts is crucial for machines to perform tasks and adapt prior knowledge in unseen or noisy 3D environments. As data-driven learning is intractable to comprehensively encapsulate diverse ranges of layouts and open spaces, we propose teaching machines to identify relational commonalities in 3D spaces. Instead of focusing on point-wise or object-wise representations, we introduce **3D scene analogies**, which are smooth maps between 3D scene regions that align spatial relationships. Unlike well-studied single instance-level maps, these scene-level maps smoothly link large scene regions, potentially enabling unique applications in trajectory transfer in AR/VR, long demonstration transfer for imitation learning, and context-aware object rearrangement. To find 3D scene analogies, we propose neural contextual scene maps, which extract descriptor fields summarizing semantic and geometric contexts, and holistically align them in a coarse-to-fine manner for map estimation. This approach reduces reliance on individual feature points, making it robust to input noise or shape variations.

Experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in identifying scene analogies and transferring trajectories or object placements in diverse indoor scenes, indicating its potential for robotics and AR/VR applications. Project page including the code is available through this link: https://82magnolia.github.io/3d_scene_analogies/.

1. Introduction

The 3D world is rich in contextual information, shaped by the interplay of object placements and surrounding open spaces [5, 66]. The function of an object is often flexible, shifting according to its location and spatial relationship to nearby elements; a table might serve as a TV stand in one context or as a tea table beside a sofa in another. Capturing these nuanced, high-dimensional relationships is challenging. Decades of research in cognitive psychology [27–29, 31, 52, 73] suggest that humans rely on analogical reasoning to relate familiar scenes from past experiences to new observations. In Figure 1, humans can intuitively relate areas near a sofa-and-table setup in one room to simi-

lar areas in another, yet enabling machines to perform this mapping is far from straightforward. To achieve this, one must transfer not only the positions of objects but also their surrounding context which cannot be done through simple object or point-wise matching. How can we formulate this problem and extract generalizable representations that encode intricate object relationships and spatial context?

To address these challenges, we propose the **3D scene analogy task** of estimating a *dense map* between scenes that share similar contexts, as shown in Figure 1. This task demands a smooth map that preserves spatial coherence, allowing consistent relationships across mapped regions without abrupt transitions. By capturing both individual object placements and their surrounding context, the mapping enables transferring spatial arrangements between scenes in a structure-aware manner. This contrasts with conventional feature matching from vision foundation models [7, 70, 74] or 3D keypoints [15, 101], which are often computationally costly or lack scalability for fine-grained scene mapping. Moreover, these features struggle to capture semantic relationships or nuanced contextual cues necessary for transferring arrangements across scenes [39, 69]. As such, our task requires a holistic understanding of scene context, allowing for applications where spatial continuity and hierarchical understanding are critical. One example is in imitation learning for robotics and AR/VR [12, 13], where scene-to-scene task transfer can be more practical than generalizing control policies across environments.

Despite its practical benefits, the 3D scene analogy task poses unique challenges not addressed by traditional correspondence methods. First, a lack of dense ground-truth training data complicates learning, as contextual information varies widely across near-infinite scene configurations. Second, the task demands holistic reasoning about object relationships and surrounding open spaces at the point level, extending beyond conventional keypoint or scene graph matching methods, which often simplify objects as sparse keypoints or bounding boxes [15, 19, 37, 60, 61, 102]. Finally, robustness to appearance variation is crucial for managing cross-domain differences effectively.

As an effective solution to the 3D scene analogy problem, we introduce neural contextual scene maps. For a pair of 3D scenes, our method builds descriptor fields that capture detailed spatial relationships and finds matches by aligning the fields using a smooth map. Input to our method are sparsely sampled scene keypoints and their semantic information, resulting in a lightweight pipeline robust to input variations, noisy geometry, and appearance changes. Then the descriptor fields gather vicinity information to extract context-aware features. The fields are trained with contrastive learning, eliminating the need for densely labeled ground-truth data or inductive biases. Finally, our method estimates a smooth map aligning the descriptor

fields through a coarse-to-fine procedure, which reduces the dependence on individual keypoints to reason about the overarching regional relations holistically.

Our approach effectively identifies accurate scene analogies for complex indoor scenes including noisy 3D scans, and is applicable to practical downstream tasks. Quantitative results show that our method outperforms baselines using vision foundation models [7, 14, 19, 67] or scene graphs [75, 98] on both real and synthetic 3D scenes, despite using a smaller feature dimension and training data. Additionally, our method also supports mapping *between* real and synthetic scenes indicating its robustness against input domain variations. We further demonstrate that our pipeline can be used for downstream tasks such as motion trajectory transfer and object placement, which can be extended to transfer long-term demo trajectories for robotics or create co-presence experiences for AR/VR applications.

To summarize, our main contributions are: i) introducing the 3D scene analogy task to find dense mappings between scene regions with common contexts, ii) developing neural contextual scene maps that combine spatial and semantic contexts of 3D keypoints to create smooth, detailed maps, and iii) demonstrating our method’s generalizability across various inputs and applications.

2. Related Work

Instance and Group Correspondences While the 3D scene analogy task is fairly new, there is extensive research on related problems in correspondence estimation, categorized by input settings and granularity. On the instance level, sparse matching methods in 2D (i.e., *semantic correspondence*) [19, 48, 62] and 3D [15, 68, 88] extract neural network features at keypoints to match between instances within the same semantic category. Similarly, dense matching methods in 2D (also known as *semantic flow*) [32, 36–38, 45–47, 65] exploit dense features and correlate them in the entire image space for matching. On the other hand, dense matching methods in 3D [23, 50, 63, 64] often start by finding sparse correspondences and optimizing smooth surface maps that pass through them. Our approach extends instance-level dense matching methods to finding *dense maps* over scene regions in 3D sharing similar contexts.

Unlike instance-level, most approaches in group-level correspondence target keypoint or object-wise matches. In the 2D case, multi-instance semantic correspondence [54, 72, 81, 99] aims to link sparse keypoints from an object instance in one image to multiple corresponding instances in another. For 3D, scene graph matching [58, 75, 87, 98] seeks correspondences between graphs representing 3D objects as nodes and their relationships as edges [2]. In contrast to these methods focusing on sparse matches, our work finds dense maps of contextually corresponding regions, accounting for both near-surface points and open spaces.

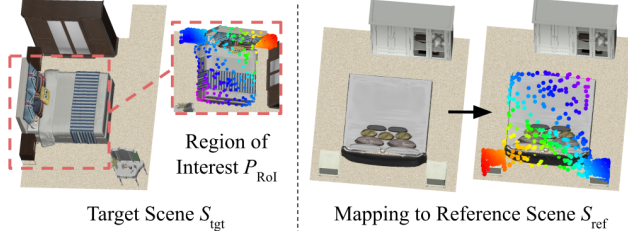


Figure 2. Overview of our approach. Given a region of interest from object groups in the target scene, our method finds a smooth map to the corresponding region in the reference scene.

Neural Fields Neural fields are spatio-temporal quantities that are parameterized fully or partially by a neural network [97]. Prominent applications of neural fields include photorealistic 3D reconstruction [11, 30, 59], 3D geometry extraction [91, 100], and SLAM [89, 90, 105]. While these studies primarily focus on visual fidelity and geometric accuracy, more recent works apply neural fields to semantic scene understanding [23, 35, 103] and robot motion planning [78–80, 92, 93]. Notably, studies on robot manipulation build fields using features from vision foundation models [7, 14, 67, 104] for establishing matches between observations during training and deployment. Our work aims to establish dense, context-aware correspondences that extend beyond visual/geometric fidelity or specific tasks such as manipulation. Further, while recent works in robotics [79, 104] consider transfer methods for *single* objects, our work enables transfer between *multiple* objects, encouraging future robotics research on multi-object demonstration transfer. Utilizing an efficient neural field based on sparse 3D keypoints, we achieve precise matches for both near-surface and open-space regions, which is difficult to attain from existing works.

3. Method: Neural Contextual Scene Maps

Given a pair of scenes, our method finds a mapping from a region of interest in one scene to the corresponding region with similar scene contexts in the other scene (Figure 2). From a sparse set of points sampled in 3D scene models (Section 3.1), our method first builds context descriptor fields that summarize the nearby geometry and semantic information for arbitrary query points (Section 3.2). Based on descriptor fields, our method finds the dense map in a coarse-to-fine manner, by first extracting an affine map followed by local displacement maps (Section 3.3).

3.1. Input Setup

Region of Interest (RoI) Representation Let S_{tgt} denote the *target* scene, where the region of interest (RoI) is chosen, and S_{ref} the *reference* scene, to which the target scene region is mapped. As shown in Figure 2, we represent the RoI as a set of points $P_{\text{RoI}} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, sampled from the surface

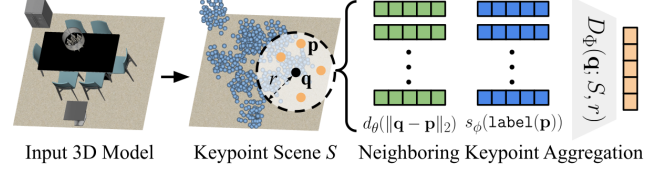


Figure 3. Overview of context descriptor fields. Using sparsely sampled keypoints as the scene representation, for an arbitrary query point $\mathbf{q}$, the field gathers points within a radius r and computes a Transformer embedding based on the distance embedding $d_\theta(\|\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{p}\|_2)$ and semantic embedding $s_\phi(\text{label}(\mathbf{p}))$.

of the object group we aim to match.

We then define the **neural contextual scene map** as a mapping $F(\cdot) : \text{conv}(S_{\text{tgt}}) \rightarrow \text{conv}(S_{\text{ref}})$, where $\text{conv}(S) \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ denotes the convex hull enclosing scene S . The scene map transforms points P_{RoI} to corresponding points in $\text{conv}(S_{\text{ref}})$ sharing similar scene contexts. Note, while we use specific points for feature encoding and loss calculation, the final output is a *dense map* across spatial regions, allowing us to find correspondences for any arbitrary point within the region. As an illustrative sample, Figure 1 shows our method mapping between a sofa-and-table group in the target scene to a similar object group in the reference scene.

Scene Representation As shown in Figure 3, our method operates on a lightweight representation of scenes, using sparsely sampled keypoints from the original dense 3D model for efficiency. Formally, each scene is represented as a tuple $S = (\mathcal{O}, C)$ with an object set $\mathcal{O}$ and scene corner points $C \subset \mathbb{R}^3$. The object set $\mathcal{O} = \{(P_i, l_i)\}$ consists of points and semantic labels for each object in the scene where $P_i \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ denotes the point coordinates of the i^{th} object and $l_i \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ denotes its semantic label among L classes. Scene corner points are either obtained from floor-plan data if available [25, 26] or from points on convex hulls enclosing the scenes [18].

3.2. Context Descriptor Fields

Using sparse input representations, we design descriptor fields as lightweight scene representations that summarize scene context for arbitrary locations by aggregating nearby semantic and geometric information. For a scene S and a query point $\mathbf{q} \in \text{conv}(S)$, the context descriptor field $D_\Phi(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ outputs a d -dimensional feature vector.

As shown in Figure 3, we implement the descriptor field using a Transformer encoder [85, 92]. The encoder first aggregates points in S that lie within distance r from $\mathbf{q}$, which we denote as $\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{q}; S, r)$. For each point $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{q}; S, r)$, we concatenate a learned distance embedding $d_\theta(\|\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{p}\|_2)$ and a semantic embedding $s_\phi(\text{label}(\mathbf{p}))$ as Transformer input tokens. The descriptor field is defined as follows:

$$D_\Phi(\mathbf{q}; S, r) = \text{Transformer}(\{\text{Token}(\mathbf{p})\}_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{q}; S, r)}), \quad (1)$$

where $\text{Token}(\mathbf{p}) = \text{Concat}(d_\theta(\|\mathbf{q}-\mathbf{p}\|_2), s_\phi(\text{label}(\mathbf{p})))$. To obtain the feature vector summarizing the input tokens, we append a learnable [CLS] token to the input token sequence in Equation 1 and use its output embedding as the final field vector [16, 17].

Descriptor fields holistically aggregate semantic and geometric information, enabling reasoning about fine-grained contextual correspondences. As an illustrative sample, Figure 4 shows the trained field distances between query points selected at open spaces in the target scene against uniformly sampled points in the reference scene. Notice sharp peaks are found only near chair arms next to the table corner (and not all chair arms), which indicates that descriptor fields can reason about detailed scene contexts.

3.2.1. Training Descriptor Fields

To train descriptor fields, we employ contrastive learning [8–10, 84, 96] on procedurally generated positive and negative scene pairs. Contrastive learning operates by maximizing the similarity of representations for positive data pairs with common attributes while minimizing similarity for negative pairs with dissimilar attributes. Since contrastive learning only requires positive and negative data pairs [8, 9, 96], our method can learn effective context-aware representations for descriptor fields without densely labeled training data, or hand-tuned inductive biases.

Dataset Generation As shown in Figure 5, we propose an automated procedure to generate positive and negative scene pairs. Our pipeline assumes a *source* dataset consisting of 3D scenes $\mathcal{D}_{\text{src}} = \{S_i\}$ with known object poses. Among the many possible definitions for a “correct” correspondence (e.g., appearance [76], style [56], or semantics [60]), we target finding point matches that share common nearby object semantics and local geometry, inspired from works in semantic correspondence [60, 61]. Based on this notion, the positive pairs (S_i, S_i^+) are generated by swapping objects in each scene S_i with randomly selected objects sharing the same semantic label from other scenes $\mathcal{D}_{\text{src}} \setminus S_i$. Here, the objects for replacement are sampled from the top-K (=100) list of objects having the most similar aspect ratios. Next, the negative pairs (S_i, S_i^-) are generated by adding noise perturbations to the object poses, similar to LEGO-Net [95]. Note that we constrain the pose noise to planar translation and z-axis rotation to prevent floating objects or ground penetrations. The resulting triplet dataset $\mathcal{D}_{\text{triplet}} = \{(S_i, S_i^+, S_i^-)\}$ is used for training.

Contrastive Learning We extract query points from the generated scene triplets (S_i, S_i^+, S_i^-) for contrastive learning. Specifically, for each object in the source scene $o \in S_i$ and its corresponding object $o^+ \in S_i^+$, we sample an equal number of query points Q, Q^+ within the objects’ oriented bounding box. Since objects o and o^+ share the same pose, we can associate each positive pair query point $\mathbf{q}^+$ with its

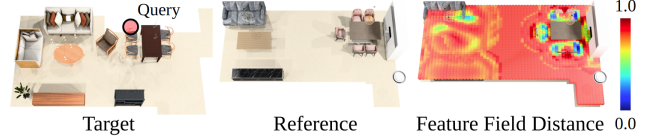


Figure 4. Visualization of feature distances in open spaces. For a query point (red) in the target scene lying on the chair arm, we show the descriptor field distances against densely sampled points in the reference scene. Field values are only similar for chair arms near table corners, indicating that descriptor fields can reason about fine-grained contextual correspondences.

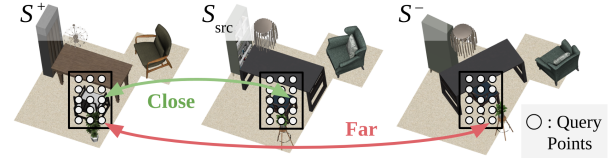


Figure 5. Context descriptor field training overview. We replace each object in scene S_{src} with one with the same semantic label to create the positive scene S^+ , and apply pose noise to obtain S^- . Contrastive learning is then applied to descriptor fields computed from points sampled within the object’s bounding box.

corresponding source query point $\mathbf{q} \in Q$, as shown in Figure 5. Setting the negative query points as identical locations to the positive query points, the contrastive learning objective is defined as an InfoNCE loss [8, 84, 96] namely,

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{q}^+} -\log \frac{\exp(D_\Phi(\mathbf{q}; S, r)^T D_\Phi(\mathbf{q}^+; S^+, r)/\tau)}{\sum_{\tilde{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \exp(D_\Phi(\mathbf{q}; S, r)^T D_\Phi(\mathbf{q}^+; \tilde{S}, r)/\tau)}, \quad (2)$$

where $\mathcal{S} = \{S^+, S^-\}$ and τ is a temperature parameter set to 0.2 in all our experiments. Our training objective enforces the descriptor field to output similar embeddings for points lying on positive scene pairs and dissimilar embeddings for those on negative scene pairs. The trained fields are then used to estimate scene maps in the next section.

3.3. Contextual Scene Map Estimation

We now create a smooth map aligning the descriptor fields between two scenes. The design intentionally respects spatial vacancies and fine details near keypoints while reducing reliance on individual descriptors for enhanced robustness. Here, we employ a coarse-to-fine procedure to calculate the contextual map, as shown in Figure 6. Since there are many possible scene arrangements, the target and reference scenes may contain a different number of objects with shape variations. The coarse initialization with the smooth mapping can effectively ignore minor deviations between the two scenes and focus on deducing a holistic map. Specifically, we decompose the contextual scene map into an affine map and local displacements,

$$F(\mathbf{x}) := \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} + d_w(\mathbf{x}; P_{\text{Rot}}), \quad (3)$$

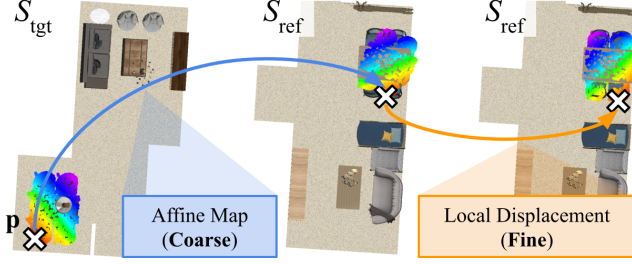


Figure 6. Scene map estimation process overview. Our method first estimates affine maps to account for large transformations, and finds local displacements for detailed alignment.

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ are the affine map parameters. We express the local displacement map as a linear combination of radial basis functions [24, 33],

$$d_w(\mathbf{x}; P_{\text{RoI}}) = \sum_k w_k \varphi(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}_k\|), \quad (4)$$

where the control points are set as points on the RoI $\mathbf{p}_k \in P_{\text{RoI}}$ described in Section 3.1. The basis function is set as the thin plate spline $\varphi(r) := r^2 \log(r)$. Intuitively, the affine map accounts for large, global transformations, and the local displacement map provides a fine-grained alignment for regions with similar contexts.

Affine Map Estimation We extract a pool of affine maps by combinatorially associating object pairs in scenes S_{tgt} and S_{ref} , and optimize the initial maps from descriptor field alignment. Due to the low-dimensional structure of affine maps and the sparse keypoint representation, we can quickly select maps for further optimization. For each object pair $(o_{\text{tgt}}, o_{\text{ref}})$ with centroids $(\mathbf{c}_{\text{tgt}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{ref}})$, we create a set of affine maps by associating object centroid displacements $\mathbf{c}_{\text{tgt}} - \mathbf{c}_{\text{ref}}$ with N_{ortho} uniformly sampled rotations and reflections in $SO(2)$. From the resulting $|\mathcal{O}_{\text{tgt}}| \times |\mathcal{O}_{\text{ref}}| \times N_{\text{ortho}}$ maps, we calculate the following cost function for each affine map $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$,

$$C_{\text{coarse}} = \sum_{\mathbf{p} \in P_{\text{RoI}}} \|D_{\Phi}(\mathbf{p}; S_{\text{tgt}}) - D_{\Phi}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{b}; S_{\text{ref}})\|, \quad (5)$$

where the descriptor fields are compared for points lying on the RoI P_{RoI} . Note we have omitted the radius input r for brevity. As the next step, we select K_{coarse} affine maps with the smallest cost values and perform a simple outlier object filtering procedure to remove objects in the RoI that are not matchable to the reference scene, where details are deferred to the supplementary material. After outlier removal, we optimize each affine map by minimizing the cost in Equation 5 with gradient descent [42, 51].

Local Displacement Map Estimation We finally refine each affine map $(\mathbf{A}_{\text{opt}}, \mathbf{b}_{\text{opt}})$ selected from the previous step

by further aligning fields with local displacements. Specifically, we minimize the following cost function

$$C_{\text{fine}} = \sum_{\mathbf{p} \in P_{\text{RoI}}} \|D_{\Phi}(\mathbf{p}; S_{\text{tgt}}) - D_{\Phi}(\mathbf{A}_{\text{opt}}\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{b}_{\text{opt}} + \delta; S_{\text{ref}})\| \quad (6)$$

where $\delta = d_w(\mathbf{p}; P_{\text{RoI}})$ is the local displacement defined in Equation 4. Similar to affine map estimation, we optimize the basis function weights w_k by minimizing Equation 6 with gradient descent. Finally, our method outputs the mapping with the smallest cost if the cost value is below a designated threshold ρ_{valid} , or otherwise labels the RoI to be *unmappable* to objects in the reference scene.

4. Experiments

We evaluate our method for estimating 3D scene analogies on a wide range of 3D scenes (Section 4.1) and examine applicability in downstream tasks (Section 4.2).

Baselines As finding 3D scene analogies is a new task, we compare our method against several contrived baselines, which are adaptations of recent 3D scene understanding pipelines [7, 19, 67, 75, 82, 93, 94]. First, the *scene graph matching* baseline constructs 3D scene graphs [2] and matches them via graph matching [87] followed by affine map estimation from object centroids. Next, the *multi-view semantic correspondence* baseline estimates 2D semantic correspondences between image rendering pairs of the input scenes using DINOv2 features [14, 19, 67], and lifts the 2D matches to 3D via back-projection.

The *visual feature field* and *3D point feature field* both generate 3D feature fields similar to our method and apply the map estimation from Section 3.3. The visual feature field uses back-projected DINOv2 [67] features from scene renderings [93], while the 3D feature field extracts Vector Neuron [15] features for 3D keypoints and interpolates them for arbitrary queries [94]. We discuss further details in the supplementary material.

Datasets We evaluate two diverse indoor scene datasets: synthetic 3D scenes from 3D-FRONT [25] and real 3D scans from ARKitScenes [4] that include object semantic, instance, and pose labels suitable for training and evaluation. Context descriptor fields are trained separately on each dataset. We generate 10,000 training triplets for 3D-FRONT [25] using the procedure in Section 3.2.1 and 4,498 triplets for ARKitScenes [4] following the standard train/test split. In the absence of densely annotated ground-truth, we prepare two types of evaluation data to assess 3D scene analogies.

- **Procedurally generated scene pairs:** For each scene, we randomly select object groups and procedurally create a new scene containing them. Since object poses are known for the generated group matches, we apply the Hungarian algorithm [53] to obtain pseudo ground-truth maps.

Metric	PCP		Bijectivity PCP		Chamfer Acc.	
Threshold	0.25	0.50	0.25	0.50	0.15	0.20
Scene Graph Matching	0.26	0.42	0.29	0.47	0.32	0.48
Multi-view Semantic Corresp.	0.10	0.20	0.14	0.21	0.62	0.86
Visual Feature Field	0.50	0.66	0.52	0.61	0.81	0.86
3D Point Feature Field	0.56	0.71	0.60	0.68	0.86	0.89
Ours	0.76	0.90	0.92	0.94	0.97	0.99

(a) Procedurally Generated Scene Pairs

Metric	Bijectivity PCP		Chamfer Acc.	
Threshold	0.25	0.50	0.15	0.20
Scene Graph Matching	0.22	0.36	0.27	0.40
Multi-view Semantic Corresp.	0.03	0.06	0.21	0.45
Visual Feature Field	0.56	0.58	0.69	0.75
3D Point Feature Field	0.53	0.56	0.64	0.69
Ours	0.70	0.73	0.71	0.76

(b) Manually Collected Scene Pairs

Table 1. 3D scene analogy comparison in 3D-FRONT [25].

- **Manually collected scene pairs:** We collect scene pairs with co-present object groups, along with pairs lacking common object groups to check whether any false positive 3D scene analogies are found.

We defer details on evaluation data preparation to the supplementary material.

Implementation Details On both datasets, we extract object keypoints from the dense 3D model using farthest point sampling [20]. Scene corner points are obtained from the floorplan corners for 3D-FRONT [25, 26], and from convex hull points for ARKitScenes [4]. For descriptor fields, we set $r=0.75$ and $d=256$. During scene map estimation, we set $N_{\text{ortho}}=16$, $K_{\text{coarse}}=5$, $\rho_{\text{valid}}=1.5$, and optimize scene maps using Adam [51] with step size 10^{-3} .

4.1. Performance Analysis

Metrics We use three metrics for quantitative evaluation:

- **Percentage of Correct Points (PCP)** [37, 60, 61, 102]: This metric is used for procedurally generated scene pairs with pseudo ground-truth annotations. For points on the region of interest, the metric is defined as follows, $\text{PCP}(P_{\text{Rol}})=1/|P_{\text{Rol}}|\sum_{\mathbf{p}_{\text{Rol}}\in P}\mathbb{1}[\|F(\mathbf{p})-\mathbf{p}_{\text{gt}}\|\leq\alpha]$, where α is a threshold parameter.
- **Bijectivity PCP** [63, 64]: After computing an inverse scene map $F^{-1}(\cdot):S_{\text{ref}}\rightarrow S_{\text{tgt}}$ taking $F(P_{\text{Rol}})$ as input, this metric is defined as follows: $\text{Bi-PCP}(P_{\text{Rol}})=1/|P_{\text{Rol}}|\sum_{\mathbf{p}\in P_{\text{Rol}}}\mathbb{1}[\|F^{-1}\circ F(\mathbf{p})-\mathbf{p}\|\leq\alpha]$.
- **Chamfer Accuracy:** The metric is defined as the percentage of predictions where i) the Chamfer distance [3, 22] between mapped points $F(P_{\text{Rol}})$ and sampled points in S_{ref} is below a threshold, or ii) no mappings are output for scene pairs with no common object groups.

The PCP and Bi-PCP metrics measure point-level accuracy of the estimated maps, while Chamfer accuracy evaluates group-level accuracy and penalizes false positive maps.

4.1.1. Scene Map Evaluation

3D-FRONT We first present a quantitative comparison of the scene analogies found from our method with those

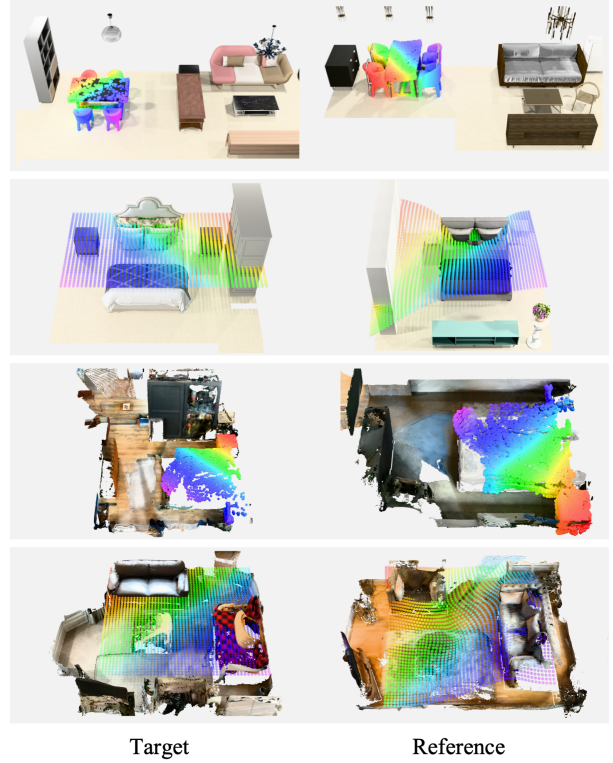


Figure 7. Visualizations of estimated 3D scene analogies in 3D-FRONT and ARKitScenes. We show mapping results both for near-surface and open-space points.

from baselines on 3D-FRONT [25] in Table 1. Our method consistently outperforms the baselines across all metrics for both procedurally generated and manually collected pairs. A large performance gap exists compared to the scene graph matching baseline, as it treats objects as single nodes, lacking geometric granularity. A similar trend is observed with the multi-view semantic correspondence baseline. While recent semantic correspondence methods excel at single object matching [19, 60, 61], they struggle to account for spatial relationships among multiple objects. Further, the feature field baselines based on DINOv2 [67] and Vector Neurons [15] also exhibit lower performance compared to our method, despite using the same coarse-to-fine map estimation process. Our method’s contrastive learning pipeline enables effective descriptor extraction for highly accurate mappings, as shown in Figure 7.

ARKitScenes We conduct further assessments on ARKitScenes [4], which, unlike 3D-FRONT, contains 3D scene meshes from real-world RGB-D camera measurements with noisy geometry and object layouts. As shown in Table 2, our method outperforms baselines on most metrics, similar to 3D-FRONT [25], and generates accurate mappings as shown in Figure 7. This indicates that our descriptor fields and coarse-to-fine mapping scheme robustly handle the noisy inputs from real 3D scans. Nevertheless, all met-

Metric	PCP		Bijectivity PCP		Chamfer Acc.	
Threshold	0.25	0.50	0.25	0.50	0.15	0.20
Scene Graph Matching	0.39	0.57	0.43	0.62	0.57	0.72
Multi-view Semantic Corresp.	0.10	0.21	0.10	0.18	0.59	0.78
Visual Feature Field	0.55	0.74	0.58	0.71	0.91	0.88
3D Point Feature Field	0.65	0.81	0.70	0.77	0.88	0.92
Ours	0.75	0.90	0.90	0.94	0.96	0.99

(a) Procedurally Generated Scene Pairs

Metric	Bijectivity PCP		Chamfer Acc.	
Threshold	0.25	0.50	0.15	0.20
Scene Graph Matching	0.25	0.37	0.33	0.45
Multi-view Semantic Corresp.	0.06	0.12	0.31	0.50
Visual Feature Field	0.26	0.29	0.40	0.42
3D Point Feature Field	0.41	0.49	0.51	0.60
Ours	0.51	0.62	0.59	0.69

(b) Manually Collected Scene Pairs

Table 2. 3D scene analogy comparison in ARKitScenes [4].

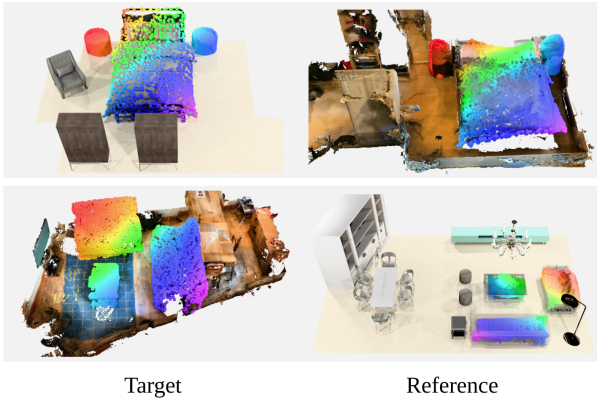


Figure 8. Visualizations of Sim2Real and Real2Sim scene analogies estimated between 3D-FRONT and ARKitScenes.

rics show a consistent performance drop compared to the 3D-FRONT [25] results in Table 1 for manually collected scene pairs. We attribute this drop to largely incomplete geometry in several manually split scenes, which could be solved by modifying the cost functions in Equation 5, 6 to account for such outliers. While such a level of incompleteness is uncommon in real-world applications, addressing this issue is left for future work.

Sim2Real and Real2Sim Map Estimation We investigate if our method can find analogies between synthetic 3D models in 3D-FRONT [25] and real scans in ARKitScenes [4]. Such capability is valuable for robotics and AR/VR applications: transferring pre-trained robot policies from virtual simulators to the real world [13], or enabling immersive telepresence by mapping real-world objects to their virtual counterparts [77]. Figure 8 shows estimated scene analogies for both sim-to-real and real-to-sim scenarios, using descriptor fields trained on 3D-FRONT [25] in both cases. The coarse-to-fine process allows holistic scene mapping, avoiding over-focus on individual descriptors and achieving reliable mappings across different domains. Additional results are in the supplementary material.

Metric	Bijectivity PCP		Chamfer Acc.	
Threshold	0.25	0.50	0.15	0.20
Ours w/ CLIP Emb. [70]	0.77	0.81	0.91	0.97
Ours w/ Sentence Emb. [71]	0.78	0.82	0.92	0.97
Ours w/o Local Displacement	0.83	0.89	0.77	0.85
Ours	0.90	0.92	0.94	0.96

Table 3. Ablation study of neural contextual scene maps, averaged on manual and procedural scene pairs from 3D-FRONT [25].

4.1.2. Ablation Study

Compatibility with Vision and Language Foundation Models We assess our method’s compatibility with vision and language foundation model features [16, 67, 70, 71] by training variants of the context descriptor fields using CLIP [70] or sentence embedding [71] in place of the semantic embedding described in Section 3.2. CLIP features are extracted from frontal view renders of each object in 3D-FRONT, while sentence embeddings are obtained by captioning each object renders with a vision-language model [1] and extracting text embeddings [71]. Table 3 shows scene map accuracy for manual and procedural scene pairs, with performance comparable to the original semantic embeddings and outperforming all the baselines. This shows that our method can effectively incorporate foundation model features without explicit semantic labels.

Local Displacement Maps We finally ablate the coarse-to-fine mapping procedure by comparing our method to a variant that omits the local displacement estimation process. This results in suboptimal performance, as reported in Table 3. Since mappings between scene regions with common contexts are often non-linear, relying solely on the affine map incurs inaccurate scene analogy detections.

4.2. Applications

Trajectory Transfer Given a trajectory in an open space near the region of interest, we test if our method can transfer it to the reference scene’s corresponding space. Such trajectory transfers aid in teleoperation [12], data augmentation / demonstration transfer for robot imitation learning [57, 104], or virtual co-presence [40] by mirroring the user’s trajectory in a virtual environment. Our method can be applied flexibly depending on the length of the input trajectory. For short trajectories, we *directly* use the estimated map to transfer each trajectory point. Figure 9 visualizes a short trajectory transfer of virtual human agents moving through the target scene. We map the virtual human’s bounding box corners at each timestamp and use the Umeyama algorithm [83] to find a rigid transformation to the reference scene. This result maintains consistent spatial relations with the surrounding objects: for example in Figure 9 the virtual human walking between a sofa and a table is accurately transferred. For long trajectories, directly using the estimated maps may cause collisions. We integrate our method with classical path planning [34, 55] by transferring sparse *waypoints* and finding collision-free paths us-

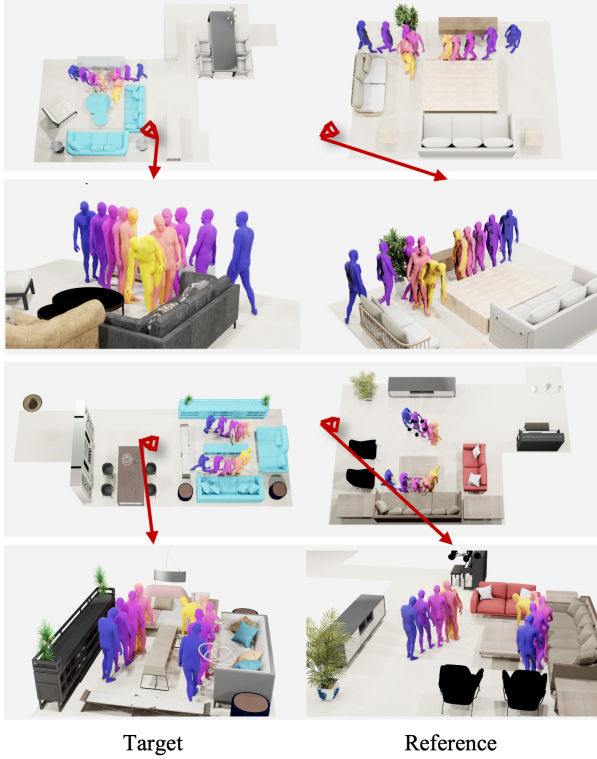


Figure 9. Visualization of short trajectory transfer by directly mapping trajectory points. We shade the region of interest in blue.

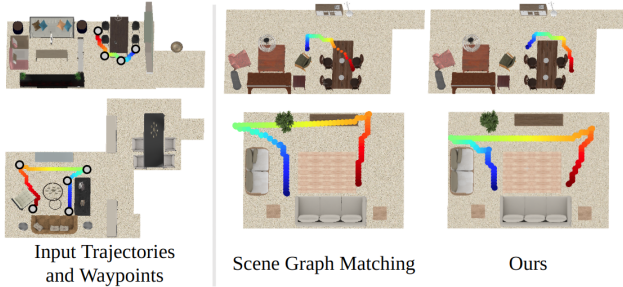


Figure 10. Comparison of long trajectory transfer against scene graph matching. We estimate scene analogies to map waypoints, and apply traditional path planning [34] for interpolation.

ing the A* algorithm [34] on the transferred waypoints. Figure 10 shows a comparison against scene graph matching. We interpolate object surface matches from the baseline to open space [6, 86] to find waypoint transfers, and directly apply the map when the A* algorithm fails due to inaccurate waypoint transfer. Compared to our method, this process results in erroneous transfers with penetrations. By producing a smooth map over $\mathbb{R}^3$, our method can flexibly handle trajectory transfer in open spaces, which is difficult with existing pipelines [19, 21, 75] that lack fine-grained understanding of spatial relations and surrounding context. Additional comparisons are in the supplement.

Object Placement Transfer In contrast to trajectory and waypoint transfer, which focuses on *open space*, object

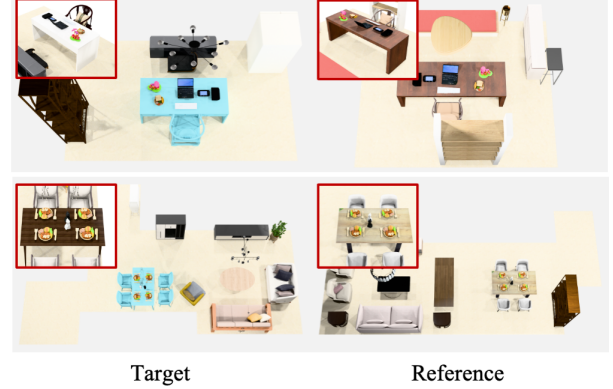


Figure 11. Visualization of object placement transfer. We shade the region of interest used for scene analogy estimation in blue.

placement transfer involves mapping small objects placed on a region of interest *surfaces* to the target scene. We first estimate scene maps from the region of interest and transfer objects placed on its surface via the scene map. The task is useful in AR/VR scenarios where users in different physical locations collaborate in a shared virtual space, allowing tools and objects in each user’s space to align within the common virtual environment [40, 41, 43, 44, 49, 77]. As shown in Figure 11, a desk with small items can be accurately mapped from the target to the reference space. Our method successfully transfers objects to coherent matching locations, demonstrating flexibility in handling both near-surface and open-space transfers.

5. Conclusion

We introduce *3D scene analogies*, which are dense maps between scenes with similar contexts, and propose neural contextual scene maps to find smooth, coherent mappings. Our method uses contextual descriptor fields and an effective coarse-to-fine estimation that holistically aligns the fields. Experiments demonstrate robustness across real-world scans and sim-to-real scenarios, with applications in trajectory and object placement transfer. We hope our work inspires future research in 3D scene context understanding.

Limitations We acknowledge several limitations that invite future work. Currently, our method outputs a single mapping, whereas generating multiple plausible mappings could better account for symmetries and multi-modal correspondences. Additionally, while our method handles a wide range of spatial variations, it may struggle when object positions swap, as such changes disrupt the initial affine mapping. Future work could explore more flexible alignment strategies to address these cases. Finally, our evaluation is based on semantic and local geometric similarity, but different tasks may require alternative notions of “correctness.” Expanding the evaluation framework to incorporate task-specific criteria could provide deeper insights. Further details are in the supplementary material.

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