

EAGLE: Episodic Appearance- and Geometry-aware Memory for Unified 2D-3D Visual Query Localization in Egocentric Vision

Yifei Cao¹, Yu Liu^{1*}, Guolong Wang^{2*},
Zhu Liu¹, Kai Wang³, Xianjie Zhang⁴, Jizhe Yu¹, Xun Tu¹

¹Dalian University of Technology

²University of International Business and Economics

³Harbin Institute of Technology

⁴Academy of Satellite Application Innovation, CASC

{yfcao,liuzhu,yujizhe,tuxun}@mail.dlut.edu.cn, yuliu@dlut.edu.cn, wangguolong@uibe.edu.cn, kai_wang@hit.edu.cn, xj_zh@foxmail.com

Abstract

Egocentric visual query localization is vital for embodied AI and VR/AR, yet remains challenging due to camera motion, viewpoint changes, and appearance variations. We present EAGLE, a novel framework that leverages episodic appearance- and geometry-aware memory to achieve unified 2D-3D visual query localization in egocentric vision. Inspired by avian memory consolidation, EAGLE synergistically integrates segmentation guided by an appearance-aware meta-learning memory (AMM), with tracking driven by a geometry-aware localization memory (GLM). This memory consolidation mechanism, through structured appearance and geometry memory banks, stores high-confidence retrieval samples, effectively supporting both long- and short-term modeling of target appearance variations. This enables precise contour delineation with robust spatial discrimination, leading to significantly improved retrieval accuracy. Furthermore, by integrating the VQL-2D output with a visual geometry grounded Transformer (VGGT), we achieve a efficient unification of 2D and 3D tasks, enabling rapid and accurate back-projection into 3D space. Our method achieves state-of-the-art performance on the Ego4D-VQ benchmark.

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1 Introduction

Visual query localization (VQL) is a fundamental task in egocentric episodic memory, which aims to spatio-temporally localize the final occurrence of a target within a video, guided by a visual crop. This capability serves as a cornerstone for downstream applications such as virtuality or augmented reality (VR/AR), embodied AI, etc..(Grauman et al. 2022; Plizzari et al. 2024; Jiang, Ramakrishnan, and Grauman 2024; Mai et al. 2023; Xu et al. 2023; Tang et al. 2024) Nevertheless, the egocentric perspective presents challenges, including drastic camera motion, severe motion blur, and variations in object appearance and scale. These

factors frequently lead to retrieval failures, critically impeding progress in this field.

We revisit the prevalent “detect-then-track” pipeline for VQL and expose its limitations. (i) The aforementioned paradigm couples a detector (the *identifier*) with a tracker (the *navigator*), manifests following principal shortcomings: the identifier’s reliance on bounding boxes leads to the inclusion of substantial background pixels, especially for non-rigid targets. These view-dependent background signals can contaminate the target’s appearance, thus impairing search accuracy. Concurrently, the navigator lacks the robustness to handle challenges such as extreme view changes, drastic scale transformations, motion blur, and similar distractors. (ii) During retrieval, relying on a static, low-visibility query is often insufficient to capture the target’s appearance variations over time; instead, humans typically integrate multiple visual cues from different temporal snapshots to compensate for the limitations of a single-frame query. (iii) The prevailing VQL paradigms have not yet achieved a natural unification between 2D and 3D tasks, notwithstanding the intimate correlation between them in real world.

The avian visual system offers profound insights into this problem. Eagle, for instance, exhibit remarkable episodic memory and spatial localization, enabling them to retain the appearance of a specific object over extended periods and precisely recall its spatiotemporal position(Bevandić et al. 2024; Dickerson and Eichenbaum 2010). This capability originates from a “memory consolidation” mechanism: initially, the system rapidly forms a short-term memory “imprint” of key features. Subsequently, through continuous observation, it actively disambiguates the target from its evolving environment, eventually solidifying this information into a stable, long-term memory. Inspired by this biological schema, an ideal VQL system should transcend the passive storage of static visual cues. It must instead actively filter and encode object that is both critical for long-term recognition and inherently stable. Such a selective memorization mechanism enhances the model’s robustness to environmental distractors, thereby facilitating precise target retrieval within dynamic and variable egocentric videos.

*Corresponding authors: Yu Liu and Guolong Wang.

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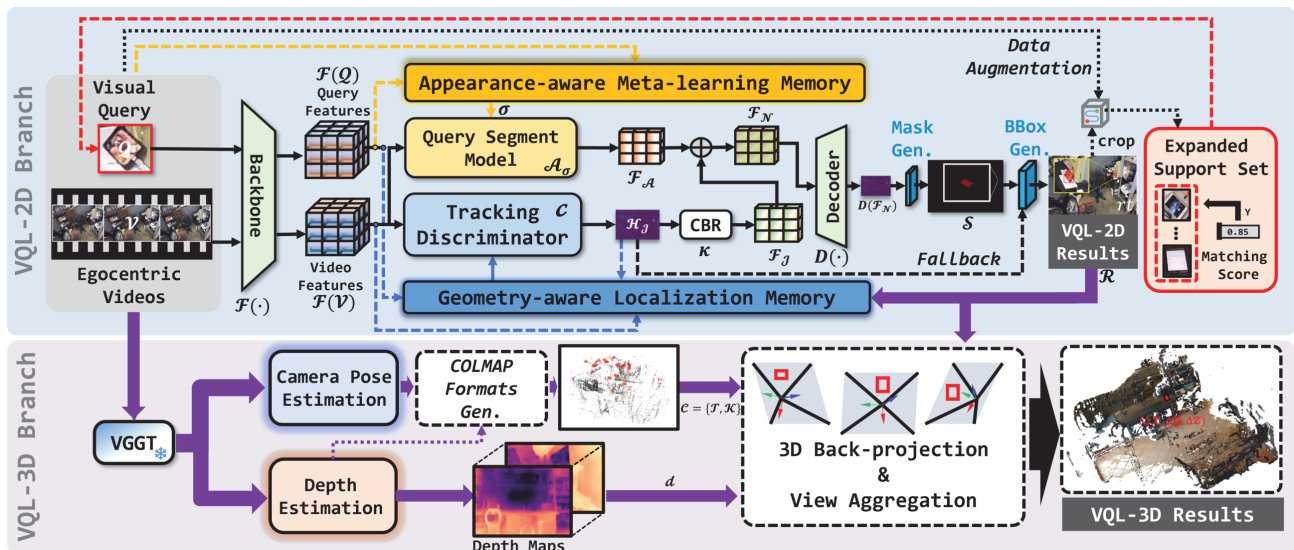


Figure 1: Overview of EAGLE. Our framework consists of two branches: VQL-2D and -3D. The VQL-2D features a dual-branch architecture built upon a shared backbone. The segmentation branch serves as a precise identifier, guided by an appearance-aware meta-learning memory (Figure. 2) to generate pixel-level masks with fine-grained semantic cues. The tracking branch, acting as a navigator, is driven by a geometry-aware localization memory (Figure. 3) to produce a discriminative score map robust to egocentric view changes. Finally, a decoder fuses the outputs from both branches to yield the results. 3D branch leverages the VGGT to jointly process the 2D results, camera pose, and depth, ultimately predicting the positional offset of the query in 3D space.

To address the aforementioned challenges, we introduce a novel VQL framework that integrates two parallel branches—segmentation and tracking—which serve as the *identifier* and *navigator*, respectively. Inspired by the memory consolidation mechanism in avian vision systems, both branches are driven by independent online episodic memory banks. These banks dynamically update their support sets by continuously filtering for high-confidence visual observations, enabling long-term adaptive learning of the target’s state. Figure.1 illustrates the framework. Specifically, the segmentation branch incorporates an appearance-aware meta-learning memory (AMM). Starting with an initial mask generated by SAM(Kirillov et al. 2023), it constructs rich supervisory signals via a pseudo-label modulator network and a target re-weighting network. This module populates its episodic memory bank with high-confidence retrieval results and employs the steepest descent method to rapidly update model parameters, facilitating continuous meta-learning of the target’s appearance for pixel-level accurate retrieval. The tracking branch employs a discriminative correlation filter (DCF)(Bolme et al. 2010) to rectify potential instance misassignments from the segmentation branch. By maintaining a memory bank that stores both the static initial query and dynamic high-confidence observations, this branch proactively encodes stable geometric information crucial for long-term recognition. This provides strong constraints on the segmentation results and enables robust, long-term modeling of target appearance and scale variations. Furthermore, to efficiently unify 2D and 3D tasks, we feed the 2D-VQL output into a VGGT(Wang et al.

2025) to refine camera pose and depth estimations. Subsequently, the 2D segmentation results are back-projected into 3D space, yielding a unified 3D-VQL output. This design significantly enhances inference efficiency and memory utilization, laying a solid foundation for more realistic embodied episodic memory retrieval. In summary, the contributions are as follow:

- We propose a novel dual-branch framework for egocentric VQL that synergizes segmentation and tracking to leverage precise, pixel-level appearance cues and robust geometric-temporal constraints, overcoming the limitations of traditional “detect-then-track” paradigms.
- Inspired by biological cognitive processes, we devise an online episodic memory bank-driven memory consolidation mechanism for both branches. This mechanism selectively incorporates high-confidence observations into structured appearance and geometry memory banks, enabling continuous, long-term adaptation to target variations while mitigating interference from distractors.
- We achieve an efficient and unified 2D-to-3D localization by back-projecting the refined 2D VQL outputs into 3D space, significantly enhancing the applicability of our method for embodied AI scenarios.
- Comprehensive experiments on the Ego4D-VQ benchmark validate the superiority of our method, demonstrating state-of-the-art performance in accuracy, robustness, and efficiency.

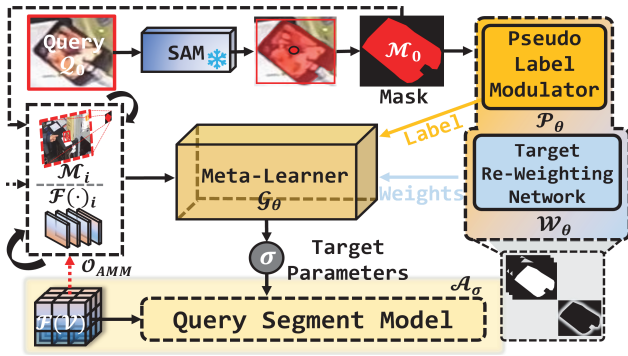


Figure 2: The architecture of AMM

2 Related Work

Few-shot Visual Object Tracking. VQL is fundamentally a few-shot, open-world tracking problem (Xu et al. 2022; Fan et al. 2025; Khosla et al. 2025; Tang et al. 2024; Zhao et al. 2024). While meta-learning-based trackers (Lukezic, Matas, and Kristan 2020; Bhat et al. 2019; Choi, Kwon, and Lee 2019; Park and Berg 2018; Dai et al. 2020; Bhat et al. 2020; Yan et al. 2019) show promise due to their rapid adaptation capabilities, they primarily address “how to update”. We argue that the core challenge in VQL is “what to learn”—constructing an optimal and robust target representation. To this end, inspired by biological memory consolidation, we introduce a dual-memory mechanism. Our model jointly leverages segmentation and tracking to dynamically build online memory banks from query-response interactions within the video, enabling it to actively distill discriminative features and robustly handle the target’s evolving states.

2D & 3D Visual Query Localization. VQL, comprising both 2D and 3D tasks, aims to spatio-temporally localize a target’s final occurrence. Early methods for VQL-2D relied on multi-stage “detect-then-track” pipelines (Grauman et al. 2022; Xu et al. 2023, 2022), while more recent works like PRVQL (Fan et al. 2025), HERO-VQL (Chang et al. 2025), and RELOCATE (Khosla et al. 2025) have streamlined this into single-stage or training-free frameworks. For VQL-3D, existing approaches (Forigua et al. 2023; Mai et al. 2023, 2024) typically depend on Structure-from-Motion (SfM) (Ullman 1979) techniques like COLMAP (Schonberger and Frahm 2016) for pose estimation. However, SfM is often fragile, failing in texture-less or high-motion scenarios, and leads to fragmented, inefficient pipelines. To overcome these limitations, we first address VQL-2D by integrating memory-guided segmentation and tracking for robust retrieval. We then tackle VQL-3D by replacing the brittle SfM-based pose estimation with VGGT (Wang et al. 2025). Compared to other learning-based geometric foundation models (Mildenhall et al. 2021; Tschernetzki, Larlus, and Vedaldi 2021; Kerbl et al. 2023; Wang et al. 2024), VGGT more efficiently infers camera pose and depth in a feedforward pass. This substitution not only enhances 3D displacement accuracy but also unifies the 2D and 3D tasks into a single, efficient pipeline.

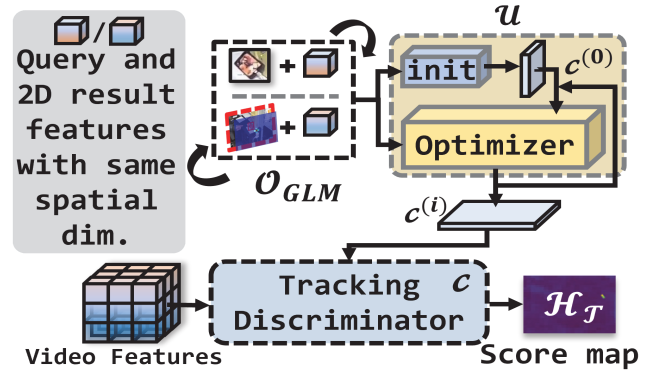


Figure 3: The architecture of GLM

3 The Proposed Method

3.1 The AMM-guided segmentation branch

As shown in Figure.2, we leverage SAM to obtain an initial segmentation mask, denoted as $\mathcal{M}_0 = SAM(Q_0)$, for the visual query Q_0 . To provide richer supervision for the subsequent meta-learning process, we introduce a pseudo-label modulator network, \mathcal{P}_θ . This trainable, lightweight convolutional network transforms the input binary mask into a multi-channel pseudo-label, $\mathcal{QM}_i = \mathcal{P}_\theta(\mathcal{M}_i)$, which encapsulates rich semantic information such as boundaries and centers. Concurrently, we design a target re-weighting network (\mathcal{W}_θ) with a similar architecture to \mathcal{P}_θ , aiming to guide the loss function to focus on critical regions of the target. To facilitate an efficient and differentiable meta-learning process, \mathcal{A}_σ maps a tensor from $\mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ to $\mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times D}$. This is formulated as $\mathcal{A}_\sigma(x) = x * \sigma$, where σ represents the weights of a $\mathbb{R}^{K \times K \times C \times D}$ convolutional layer, and $*$ denotes the convolution operation. Our proposed meta-learner, \mathcal{G}_θ , optimizes the parameters σ by minimizing the weighted squared error between the prediction of the query segment model \mathcal{A}_σ and the corresponding pseudo-labels over the episodic memory bank \mathcal{O}_{AMM} . Initially, \mathcal{O}_{AMM} contains only the query sample $(\mathcal{F}_{Q_0}, \mathcal{M}_0)$. Subsequently, it is updated by incorporating segmentation retrieval results extracted from the video stream. Specifically, a segmentation sample based on the segmentation result \mathcal{S}_{I_i} generated by the model on a retrieved video frame I_i is added to the memory bank only if the target exhibits low entropy or high certainty in its corresponding confidence map. This condition is met when the mean confidence score within the predicted mask region exceeds a threshold, $s_{conf} \geq 0.6$. The corresponding region’s segmentation sample is then cropped and resized proportionally ($\mathcal{M}_i = \text{crop}(\mathcal{S}_{I_i})$) before being added to the memory bank, updating it as $\mathcal{O}_{AMM} = \mathcal{O}_{AMM} \cup \{(\mathcal{F}(I_i), \mathcal{M}_i)\}$. The loss function is then defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{2} \sum \|\mathcal{W}_\theta(\mathcal{M}_i) \odot (\mathcal{A}_\sigma(\mathcal{F}_i) - \mathcal{QM}_i)\|^2 + \frac{\delta}{2} \|\sigma\|^2, \quad (1)$$

where δ is a learnable regularizer. $(\mathcal{F}_i, \mathcal{M}_i)$ is the i -th feature-pseudo-label pair from the memory \mathcal{O}_{AMM} . Given that Eq.(1) defines a convex quadratic objective with respect

to σ , admitting a closed-form solution in either its primal or dual form, we solve it using the iterative steepest descent method. At each iteration, given the current estimate σ_i , the step size α^i is chosen to minimize the loss along the gradient direction, i.e., $\alpha^i = \arg \min_{\alpha} \mathcal{L}(\sigma_i - \alpha g^i)$, where $g^i = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\sigma_i)$ represents the gradient of the loss function evaluated at σ_i . The parameters are iteratively updated using the steepest descent method, as below:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{i+1} &= \sigma_i - \alpha^i g^i, \\ \alpha^i &= \frac{\|g^i\|^2}{\sum_i \|\mathcal{W}_\theta(\mathcal{M}_i) \odot (\mathcal{F}_i * g^i)\|^2 + \delta \|g^i\|^2}, \\ g^i &= \sum_i \mathcal{F}_i^T (\mathcal{W}_\theta^2(\mathcal{M}_i) \odot (\mathcal{F}_i * \sigma_i - \mathcal{P}_\theta(\mathcal{M}_i))) + \delta \sigma_i. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $(\cdot)^T$ represents the transposed convolution. After i iterations, the resulting parameter σ_i is differentiable with respect to all network parameters θ . The function $\mathcal{G}_\theta(\mathcal{O}_{AMM}, \sigma_0) = \sigma_N$ is defined by performing N iterations of the steepest descent update in Eq.(2), initialized with σ_0 . Leveraging the rapid convergence of the steepest descent method, our optimization-based paradigm facilitates efficient updates to σ . New samples are added to \mathcal{O}_{AMM} , and a few iterations are performed starting from the current estimate of σ (Eq.(2)).

3.2 The GLM-guided tracking branch

To mitigate potential instance misassignments from the segmentation branch, we introduce a tracking-based navigator. This branch employs DCF to provide robust geometric constraints on the segmentation output. We construct a geometric localization memory (GLM) bank, \mathcal{O}_{GLM} , which stores both the initial static query and a dynamic set of high-confidence historical observations retrieved by the 2D branch. Figure.3 illustrates the architecture of the GLM. The initial query features and their corresponding Gaussian labels are stored as static snapshots in the episodic memory bank, \mathcal{O}_{GLM} . Concurrently, feature maps corresponding to the 2D retrieved target regions from the query-expanded support set are isotropically scaled by a factor of 1.5. These scaled features, along with their Gaussian labels, are then added to \mathcal{O}_{GLM} as dynamic snapshots, which are updated following a FIFO policy. The model updater, \mathcal{U} , serves as the core module for constructing the DCF. It takes $\mathcal{O}_{GLM} = \{(\mathcal{F}(\cdot)_i, G(\cdot)_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ as input, where $\mathcal{F}(\cdot)_i$ represents either the query or the result of 2D branch features, and $G(\cdot)_i$ is the corresponding Gaussian label. The objective is to learn a set of convolutional kernel weights, c , to construct the target model, formulated as $c = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{O}_{GLM})$.

We employ a least-squares regression loss function to supervise the training of the DCF, defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(c) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{O}_{GLM}|} \sum_{(\mathcal{F}(\cdot), G(\cdot)) \in \mathcal{O}_{GLM}} \|\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}}, G)\|^2 + \|\lambda c\|^2. \quad (3)$$

Here, λ is the regularization coefficient. $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}}, G)$ represents the spatial residual between the predicted score $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}}$ =

$\mathcal{F}(\cdot) * c$ and the corresponding Gaussian label G . Drawing inspiration from the efficacy of Hinge loss in addressing data imbalance, we formulate the residual as: $\mathcal{H} = sw_G \cdot (\mathcal{S}_i \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}} + (1 - \mathcal{S}_i) \max(0, \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}}) - G_i)$, where sw_G denotes a spatial weighting function contingent on the Gaussian label G , which assigns higher weights to positions proximate to the target’s center and lower weights to those in the background. \mathcal{S}_i represents the corresponding distinct binary masks, originating from the initial query only when $i = 0$, and otherwise from 2D retrieval results. This formulation precisely fits the target score G_i when $\mathcal{S}_i = 1$; employs the hinge branch when $\mathcal{S}_i = 0$, focusing solely on whether $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}} > 0$; and automatically learns the boundary distance of the target object when $0 < \mathcal{S}_i < 1$. This approach enables the loss function to smoothly transition between least squares and hinge based on the pixel’s distance to the target center.

Previous works optimize DCF through a limited number of iteration steps (Danelljan et al. 2019; Bhat et al. 2020): $c^{(i+1)} = c^{(i)} - \beta \nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)})$. We adopt a more refined optimization strategy—steepest descent iteration—to compute an adaptive step size. First, we perform a quadratic approximation at the current estimate $c^{(i)}$:

$$\mathcal{L}(c) \approx \hat{\mathcal{L}}(c) = \frac{1}{2} (c - c^{(i)})^\top PDS^{(i)} (c - c^{(i)}) + (c - c^{(i)})^\top \nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)}) + \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)}). \quad (4)$$

Both c and $c^{(i)}$ are treated as vectors, and $PDS^{(i)}$ is a positive definite matrix. Subsequently, in the gradient direction (Eq.(4)), we solve for the step size β that minimizes the approximate loss by setting $\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \hat{\mathcal{L}}(c^{(i)} - \beta \nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)})) = 0$:

$$\beta = \frac{\nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)})^\top \nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)})}{\nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)})^\top PDS^{(i)} \nabla \mathcal{L}(c^{(i)})}. \quad (5)$$

This formula computes the step size β in the update Eq.(4). Similar to (Danelljan et al. 2019; Bhat et al. 2019), we set $PDS^{(i)} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial c^2}(c^{(i)})$, which is the Hessian matrix of the loss function (Eq.(3)), employing the second-order Taylor expansion from Eq.(5). For Eq.(3), the Gauss-Newton method based on first-order derivatives is more efficient, where $PDS^{(i)} = (J^{(i)})^\top J^{(i)}$, and $J^{(i)}$ is the Jacobian matrix of the residuals at $c^{(i)}$. Beyond the initial phase, during online inference, if the score map $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}}$ fails to consistently produce high responses (exceeding 60% of the historical frame length), we update the DCF using the original static snapshot; otherwise, we employ the most recent dynamic snapshot to update the model. This approach enables learning filter weights that balance static and dynamic scenarios, representing the responses of the query target against the background across varying times, scenes, and states via geometric response scores.

3.3 Dual Branches Integration

To mitigate the risk of individual branch degradation, we adopt a dual-branch framework wherein each branch provides complementary prior knowledge. Specifically, the tracking branch’s score map, $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}}$, is encoded by a convn-relu block, κ_θ , resulting in $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{J}} = \kappa_\theta(\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{J}})$, which is

Method	stAP ₂₅ ↑	tAP ₂₅ ↑	Succ.(%) ↑	Rec.(%) ↑
<i>Validation Set</i>				
Ego4D baseline	0.15	0.22	43.24	32.92
NFM	0.19	0.26	47.90	37.88
CocoFormer	0.19	0.26	47.68	37.67
VQLoc	0.22	0.31	55.89	47.05
HERO-VQL	0.28	0.38	61.10	44.90
PRVQL	0.27	0.35	57.93	47.87
RELOCATE	0.33	0.41	58.03	50.50
EAGLE (Ours)	0.42	0.47	61.29	52.09
<i>Test Set</i>				
Ego4D baseline	0.13	0.20	39.80	32.20
NFM	0.17	0.24	43.07	35.29
CocoFormer	0.18	0.25	48.37	42.34
VQLoc	0.24	0.32	55.88	45.10
HERO-VQL	0.28	0.37	60.72	45.32
PRVQL	0.28	0.37	59.43	45.70
RELOCATE	0.35	0.43	60.10	50.60
EAGLE (Ours)	0.40	0.46	62.70	53.51

Table 1: Comparison results on Ego4D-VQ2D benchmark. Ego4D(Grauman et al. 2022) provides the complete definitions of the evaluation metrics.

dimensionality-matched to the mask encoding, \mathcal{F}_A . These features are then fused via element-wise addition, yielding a combined feature representation, $\mathcal{F}_N = \mathcal{F}_A + \mathcal{F}_J$. The decoder, \mathbf{D} , processes \mathcal{F}_N to produce a segmentation score map, $\mathbf{D}(\mathcal{F}_N)$. Finally, mask generation yields the segmentation result, \mathcal{S} , at the original resolution, and the bbox trajectory, \mathcal{R} , used for evaluation is derived from the minimum bounding rectangle enclosing the connected components of \mathcal{S} .

3.4 VGGT-Powered 3D Visual Localization

Given an input video sequence $\mathcal{V} = \{I_i\}_{i=1}^N$ consisting of N frames, VGGT jointly infers per-frame geometric cues in a single, end-to-end pass. For each image I_i , the model outputs the camera parameters $\mathcal{C}_i = \{\mathcal{T}_i, \mathcal{K}_i\}$, a dense depth map \mathcal{D}_i , and a pixel-wise depth uncertainty map $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{D}_i$. This pipeline reduces the processing time from the several minutes or even hours required by COLMAP to only a few seconds, while delivering geometry estimations of comparable accuracy. The resulting geometric priors form the backbone of the subsequent aggregation strategy. VGGT predicts 3D geometry in a self-consistent, yet arbitrary, coordinate system. To evaluate on the VQL-3D benchmark, we must align our predictions with the ground-truth matterport scan coordinate system for each sequence. This is achieved by solving for a 7-DoF similarity transformation, $\mathbf{T}_\eta \in \text{Sim}(3)$, which maps our predicted point cloud ($\mathbf{pc}^{\text{vggt}}$) to the ground-truth (\mathbf{pc}^{ms}). We formulate this as a least-squares optimization problem: $\mathbf{T}_\eta = \arg \min_{\mathbf{T} \in \text{Sim}(3)} \sum_j \|\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{pc}_j^{\text{vggt}} - \mathbf{pc}_j^{\text{ms}}\|^2$, where j indexes corresponding 3D point pairs. Once the optimal transformation \mathbf{T}_η is found, we apply it to all predicted camera poses and 3D structures, thereby unifying them into the canonical benchmark coordinate system for evaluation.

We propose a novel multi-view aggregation mechanism that fuses the semantic confidence from the VQL-2D branch

Method	Succ.(%) ↑	Succ.*(%) ↑	L2 ↓	Angle ↓	QwP(%) ↑
<i>Validation Set</i>					
Ego4D*	1.22	30.77	5.98	1.60	1.83
Eivul	73.78	91.45	2.05	0.82	80.49
EgoCOL	59.15	93.39	2.31	0.58	63.42
EgoLoc	80.49	98.14	1.45	0.61	82.32
EgoLoc-v1	81.13	98.10	1.45	0.55	84.73
EAGLE (Ours)	84.77	98.54	1.18	0.42	85.68
<i>Test Set</i>					
Ego4D baseline	7.95	48.61	4.64	1.31	0.16
Ego4D*	8.71	51.47	4.93	1.23	15.15
Eivul	25.76	38.74	8.97	1.21	66.29
CocoFormer	9.09	50.60	4.23	1.23	16.29
EgoCOL	62.88	85.27	2.37	0.53	74.62
EgoLoc	87.12	96.14	1.86	0.92	90.53
EgoLoc-v1	88.64	96.15	1.86	1.24	92.05
EAGLE (Ours)	89.02	96.14	1.84	1.21	92.42

Table 2: Comparison results on Ego4D-VQ3D benchmark. * indicates official improved baseline.

with the geometric uncertainty derived from the VGGT, enabling robust estimation of the spatial location of the object. The strategy relies on the key assumption that the 3D location of the target remains relatively stable within a short observation window, an assumption we deem reasonable for the majority of human-object interaction scenarios within Ego4D. Specifically, the VQL-2D network returns a visual track \mathcal{R} in the form of bounding boxes during the retrieval stage. The center coordinates (u_i, v_i) of the corresponding segmentation mask \mathcal{S}_i are used as the 2D localization result for the target in that frame. To associate location information across multiple views, we lift these 2D coordinates into 3D space using the aforementioned aligned geometric information. Based on the principle of inverse projection from the standard pinhole camera model, the corresponding 3D coordinates $[\mathcal{X}_i, \mathcal{Y}_i, \mathcal{Z}_i]^T$ are computed as: $[\mathcal{X}_i, \mathcal{Y}_i, \mathcal{Z}_i, 1]^T = (\mathbf{T}_\eta \mathcal{T}_i) \mathcal{D}_i(u_i, v_i) \mathcal{K}_i^{-1}[u_i, v_i, 1]^T$, where \mathcal{T}_i and \mathcal{K}_i correspond to the camera extrinsics and intrinsics, respectively. Given that single-view localization results are susceptible to various factors, we propose a multi-view aggregation process to obtain an accurate and robust 3D location of the target. The core idea is to perform a weighted average of the 3D coordinates contributed by each view, where the weights are jointly determined by the quality of the segmentation results from the 2D branch and the reliability of the 3D reconstruction. To this end, we define a fused weight $\mathcal{FW}_i = s_{conf}^i \cdot g_{conf}^i$, which is obtained by multiplying two orthogonal confidence components: the semantic confidence s_{conf}^i and the geometric confidence g_{conf}^i . This weight attains a higher value only when both the 2D segmentation quality and the 3D geometric reconstruction are reliable, thus ensuring the robustness of the aggregation process. s_{conf}^i is used to evaluate the quality of the 2D segmentation results from VQL-2D. Since the VQL-2D retrieval results are directly reflected by the segmentation results, the semantic confi-

dence comprehensively measures the localization clarity by considering the pixel probabilities within the segmentation mask \mathcal{S} . Specifically, we define three sub-metrics: the average probability \mathbf{P}_{av} , the maximum probability \mathbf{P}_{max} , and the average probability of pixels above a specific threshold λ , denoted as \mathbf{P}_λ . These are defined as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{P}_{av} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}_i|} \sum_{(u,v) \in \mathcal{S}_i} pr_i^{(u,v)}, \\ \mathbf{P}_\lambda = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(u,v) \in \mathcal{S}_i, pr_i^{(u,v)} > \lambda} pr_i^{(u,v)}, \\ \mathbf{P}_{max} = \max_{(u,v) \in \mathcal{S}_i} pr_i^{(u,v)}, \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

where $pr_i^{(u,v)}$ is the predicted probability that pixel (u,v) belongs to the target, $|\mathcal{S}_i|$ is the total number of pixels in the mask, and n is the number of pixels within the mask whose probability exceeds the threshold λ . The final semantic confidence is a linear combination of these three metrics: $s_{conf}^i = \varphi \mathbf{P}_{av} + \psi \mathbf{P}_\lambda + \mu \mathbf{P}_{max}$, where φ , ψ , and μ are hyperparameters, all set to 1/3 in our experiments. The geometric confidence $g_{conf}(i)$ is directly derived from the predicted uncertainty of VGGT. We extract the depth uncertainty value $\tau_i = \mathcal{U}_i(u_i, v_i)$ at the target’s center point (u_i, v_i) and convert it into a normalized confidence score $g_{conf}^i = \exp(-\zeta \tau_i)$, where ζ is a hyperparameter used to adjust the influence of the uncertainty. This confidence ensures that the contribution of a point to the final aggregation is effectively suppressed when VGGT lacks confidence in its depth prediction for that point. We apply the fused weights \mathcal{FW}_i to multi-view aggregation to obtain a final, aggregated 3D world coordinate for the target, denoted as $[\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \hat{\mathcal{Y}}, \hat{\mathcal{Z}}]^T = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{FW}_i \cdot [\mathcal{X}_i, \mathcal{Y}_i, \mathcal{Z}_i]^T}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{FW}_i}$. Finally, we transform this aggregated result back into the camera coordinate system of each specific frame, thus obtaining a 3D relative displacement vector δ_i with respect to the current observing camera: $\delta_i = (\mathbf{T}_\eta \mathbf{T}_i)^{-1} [\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \hat{\mathcal{Y}}, \hat{\mathcal{Z}}, 1]^T = (\Delta \mathcal{X}, \Delta \mathcal{Y}, \Delta \mathcal{Z})$. δ_i represents the final 3D localization result output by our framework for the i -th frame, and it implicitly incorporates the consistency constraints derived from multi-view information.

4 Experiments

4.1 Implementation

Video clips undergo preprocessing, which includes uniform scaling to a 448×448 resolution via cropping along the longer side and subsequent zero-padding. A Laplacian operator with a window size of 100 is then applied to filter frames. Both training and inference phases involve partitioning the videos into fixed-length clips. The backbone comprises a pre-trained ViT(Oquab et al. 2023), fine-tuned on EgoTracks and subsequently frozen. The segmentation branch is trained using the Ego4D, EgoTracks(Tang et al. 2024), and VISOR(Darkhalil et al. 2022) datasets. For the Ego4D and EgoTracks, which provide only bounding box annotations, we leverage SAM to generate segmentation masks, treating them as ground truth. Within the AMM, the meta-learner employs $N_{init}^{train} = 10$ and $N_{update}^{train} = 3$ for the initial phase and historical frames, respectively. The memory bank size (\mathcal{O}_{MAX}) for \mathcal{O}_{AMM} and \mathcal{O}_{GLM} is set to 50.

The AdamW is employed for 25,000 iterations, with a peak learning rate of 0.0025 and a weight decay of 0.05, using a linear learning rate scheduler with 2,500 warm-up iterations. We utilize the 1B version of VGGT. We conduct experiments on GTX4090 GPUs. The details of training and inference are provided in Appendix.A.5.

4.2 Comparison to the state-of-the-art

We evaluate EAGLE on Ego4D-VQ, the unique publicly available benchmark for VQL. As shown in Table.1, On the test set, our method surpasses the previous best, RELOCATE, by 6.9% in tAP₂₅, 14.3% in stAP₂₅, 5.8% in Rec, and 4.3% in Succ. On the validation set, we achieve performance gains of 14.6%, 27.3%, 3.1%, and 5.6% in the same metrics, respectively, while maintaining a comparable inference speed¹. For the VQL-3D, EAGLE’s performance is detailed in Table.2. Compared to EgoLoc-V1, EAGLE improves Succ and QwP by 0.4% on the test set, while reducing L2 and Angle errors by 1.1% and 2.4%. The improvements on the validation set are more substantial, with gains of 4.5% in Succ, 0.4% in Succ*, and 1.12% in QwP, alongside significant reductions of 18.6% in L2 and 23.6% in Angle errors. These advancements are attributed to VGGT’s comprehensive estimation of camera pose and depth, which allows for the utilization of a greater number of camera poses in the computation.

4.3 Ablation Analysis

Impact of AMM. To investigate the impact of each component within AMM, we conduct an ablation study with five variants, as detailed in Table.4: (i) $STA \rightarrow SAM$: We replace SAM with a pre-trained STA(Zhao et al. 2021) model during the pseudo-mask generation phase. (ii) w/o \mathcal{P}_θ : We ablate the pseudo label modulator network, utilizing only binary mask information. (iii) w/o \mathcal{W}_θ : We remove the target re-weighting network. (iv) $\mathcal{Q}_0! \rightarrow \phi$: Within \mathcal{O}_{AMM} , all queues except for the initial query’s are set to a FIFO scheme, preventing the initial query from being replaced. (v) w/o \mathcal{O}_{AMM} : We completely remove the \mathcal{O}_{AMM} module. The results indicate that the removal of any component adversely affects performance. Most notably, ablating the \mathcal{O}_{AMM} leads to the most significant performance degradation, with drops of 11.9% in tAP₂₅, 40% in stAP₂₅, 23.4% in Rec, and 12.2% in Succ. This underscores the critical role of the memory bank in stabilizing target retrieval. The second most impactful change is the substitution of SAM with STA, which demonstrates that SAM generates higher-quality pseudo-labels containing more discriminative information for retrieval, thereby enabling more precise segmentation.

Impact of GLM. We also designed two variants to investigate the impact of the GLM: (i) $\mathcal{Q}_0 \rightarrow \phi$: In \mathcal{O}_{GLM} , all queues are updated using a FIFO scheme, allowing the initial query to be replaced; and (ii) w/o \mathcal{O}_{GLM} : The \mathcal{O}_{GLM} is completely removed. The experimental results show that

¹The visualizations of our qualitative analysis are presented in Appendix.A.8.

Last-Resp. (Baseline)	s_{conf}				g_{conf}	Ego4D-VQ3D Validation Set				
	\mathbf{P}_{av}	\mathbf{P}_{λ}	\mathbf{P}_{max}			Succ.	Succ.*	L2	Angle	QwP
✓	-	-	-	-	-	79.26	92.35	1.54	0.65	85.68
-	✓	-	-	-	-	79.95	92.76	1.52	0.63	85.68
-	-	✓	-	-	-	80.01	93.25	1.48	0.57	85.68
-	-	-	✓	-	-	81.65	94.53	1.34	0.51	85.68
-	✓	✓	-	-	-	81.92	96.75	1.28	0.49	85.68
-	✓	-	✓	-	-	82.22	96.49	1.25	0.45	85.68
-	-	✓	✓	-	-	82.29	96.88	1.26	0.45	85.68
-	-	-	-	✓	-	80.33	94.65	1.51	0.55	85.68
-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	84.77	98.54	1.18	0.42	85.68

Table 3: Ablation study of multi-view aggregation function

STA →SAM	w/o \mathcal{P}_{θ}	w/o \mathcal{W}_{θ}	Q_0 !→ ϕ	w/o \mathcal{O}_{AMM}	Ego4D-VQ2D Validation Set			
					tAP ₂₅ ↑	stAP ₂₅ ↑	Rec.(%)↑	Succ.(%)↑
✓	-	-	-	-	0.44	0.30	45.19	57.28
-	✓	-	-	-	0.46	0.33	51.08	60.22
-	-	✓	-	-	0.47	0.32	51.55	61.01
-	-	-	✓	-	0.46	0.32	50.61	60.57
-	-	-	-	✓	0.42	0.30	42.22	54.62
-	-	-	-	-	0.47	0.42	52.09	61.29

Table 4: Ablation study of AMM

Q_0 → ϕ	w/o \mathcal{O}_{GLM}	Ego4D-VQ2D Validation Set			
		tAP ₂₅ ↑	stAP ₂₅ ↑	Rec.(%)↑	Succ.(%)↑
✓	-	0.44	0.29	46.35	57.73
-	✓	0.42	0.28	42.36	53.09
-	-	0.47	0.42	52.09	61.29

Table 5: Ablation study of GLM

removing \mathcal{O}_{GLM} has the most pronounced impact on performance, leading to decreases of 10.6% in tAP₂₅, 29.8% in stAP₂₅, 18.7% in Rec, and 13.4% in Succ. This demonstrates that the historical visual cues provided by \mathcal{O}_{GLM} is crucial for stable, long-term tracking within the discriminative branch. Interestingly, we find that the optimal update strategy for the GLM’s memory is the inverse of that for the AMM; updating GLM’s initial query along with the other memory sequences degrades performance. We attribute this to the distinct feature granularities handled by the two branches. The segmentation branch processes pixel-level information and is highly sensitive to contour and scale consistency; any accumulated error directly degrades the mask, so memory must be updated synchronously to reflect the latest appearance. In contrast, the GLM-guided discriminative tracking branch operates on region-level geometric descriptors and focuses on the target’s identity (“what it is”), which gives it greater tolerance to minor appearance drift. Retaining the initial query as a fixed identity anchor effectively mitigates drift caused by prolonged occlusion or appearance changes, thereby maintaining tracking stability.

Impact of multi-view aggregation function. Table.3

presents the ablation study on variants of semantic and geometric confidence. The results indicate that each semantic confidence metric (\mathbf{P}_{av} , \mathbf{P}_{λ} , and \mathbf{P}_{max}), when used individually, outperforms the baseline(only use last response). This superiority stems from their distinct approaches to handling mask pixel confidence: \mathbf{P}_{av} mitigates the impact of missed detections by comprehensively evaluating the quality of region coverage; \mathbf{P}_{λ} reduces background interference by filtering out low-confidence pixels via a threshold; and \mathbf{P}_{max} focuses on high-confidence pixels to decrease sensitivity to noise and false positives, thereby significantly improving the L2 and Angle metrics. Notably, these three methods are complementary when combined. Furthermore, geometric confidence reflects the reliability of pixels in 3D space. Its integration with semantic confidence creates a synergistic effect, where their complementary strengths jointly enhance the precision of spatial localization.

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we addressed critical limitations in VQL by moving beyond “detect-then-track” methods. We introduced a novel framework inspired by biological memory consolidation, which synergizes segmentation and tracking to build a robust, long-term episodic memory. We establish the online memory bank that actively filters and stores high-confidence samples, enabling stable retrieval through significant appearance variations and environmental distractors. Furthermore, we unified 2D and 3D localization into an efficient pipeline. Our work achieves SOTA performance on the Ego4D-VQ benchmark, demonstrating its potential as a new baseline.

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