
ROSE: Reconstructing Objects, Scenes, and Trajectories from Casual Videos for Robotic Manipulation

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

Abstract

1 In this paper, we build a real-to-sim-to-real (Real2Sim2Real) system for robot
2 manipulation policy learning from casual human videos. We propose a new frame-
3 work, ROSE, that directly leverages casual videos to reconstruct simulator-ready
4 assets, including objects, scenes, and object trajectories, for training manipulation
5 policies with reinforcement learning in the simulation. Unlike existing real-to-sim
6 pipelines that rely on specialized equipment or time-consuming and labor-intensive
7 human annotation, our pipeline is equipment-agnostic and fully automated, facil-
8 itating data collection scalability. From casual monocular videos, ROSE enables
9 the direct reconstruction of metric-scale scenes, objects, and object trajectories
10 with physics information in the same gravity-calibrated coordinate for robotic data
11 collection in the simulator. With ROSE, we curate a dataset of simulator-ready
12 scenes from casual videos from our own capture and the Internet, and create a
13 benchmark for real-to-sim evaluation. Across a diverse suite of manipulation tasks,
14 ROSE outperforms the existing baselines, laying the groundwork for scalable
15 robotic data collection and achieving efficient Real2Sim2Real deployment.

16

1 Introduction

17 Learning complex manipulation skills from human demonstrations is a long-standing goal in robotics.
18 Casual human videos offer a vast and diverse source of demonstrations, but translating this unstruc-
19 tured visual data into executable robot policies is a significant challenge. Since replicating these
20 scenes in the real world for direct imitation is often impractical or unsafe, a more scalable approach
21 is needed.

22 This paper develops a real-to-sim-to-real system that bridges this gap, enabling robust policy learning
23 by first reconstructing the essence of a human demonstration within a physically-realistic simulator.
24 Three features need be *simultaneously* present in one *gravity-aligned, metric world frame*: (G) *coll-*
25 *idable geometry* for both scene and objects; (P) *physics plausibility* so that contact, scale, and gravity
26 are sensible in simulation (coarse priors over material/density belong here, but exact identification
27 is not the point); and (M) *executable motion*—a time-aligned 6-DoF object trajectory the robot can
28 imitate, replay, or condition on. The minimal sufficient assets that let a robot both plan and act are
29 this G/P/M triad, coherently aligned in world coordinates.

30 Previous works have explored reconstructing robotics manipulation data from human videos. How-
31 ever, we argue that *four* elements based on the G/P/M triad need to co-occur for turning casual video
32 into robotic data as a scalable data engine—**casual video**, **object trajectory**, **scene**, and **object**. It
33 surfaces where representative methods in Tab. 1 leave gaps. (1) *Being Able to Reconstruct from*
34 *Casual Video*. Internet-scale demonstrations are predominantly casual (narrow baseline, dynamics).

Table 1: **Comparison with existing real-to-sim pipelines.** Scene mesh: 3D collision mesh of the scene. Object Mesh: 3D collision mesh of objects. Object Traj.: The 6-DoF pose of objects to be manipulated. Gravity Dir: The gravity direction of the reconstructed scene and objects. Metric Scale: If the reconstructed scene is in metric space (cm). World Coord.: If the reconstructed scene is in the world coordinate. Automation: It is a fully automated pipeline or requires human annotations (e.g., RialTo [57] needs expert human annotation using GUI tools). **O**: Unknown.

Method	Characteristics						Input / Platform
	Scene Mesh	Object Mesh	Object Traj.	Gravity Dir.	Metric Scale	World Coord.	
RialTo [57]	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	RGB-Video
Video2Policy [71]	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	MV-imgs / LiDAR
RL-GSBridge [65]	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	MV-imgs
SplatSim [46]	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	RGB-D
ReBot [10]	✗	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	Video / Mesh
Digital Cousins [7]	O	O	✗	✗	O	✓	Image
Chen et al. [4]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	Mesh / Trajectory
URDFFormer [5]	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	MV-imgs
Ditto In the House [19]	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	O	Image / Interaction
Ours	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	RGB-Video

35 GS-based pipelines such as [46, 57, 65] are typically tuned for multi-view, stable captures and are
36 sensitive to dynamics or camera-trajectory violations, which limits robustness under single-take
37 narrow-baseline inputs; several other entries rely on multi-view or controlled capture [4, 5, 7, 10, 19].

38 (2) *Object trajectory*. A world-aligned 6-DoF object trajectory provides task-resolution signals that
39 planners and policies can directly reuse; video-conditioned control and end-to-end policy learning
40 confirm the value of motion cues [21, 71], while methods emphasizing 3D assets or interaction with-
41 out exporting an executable, world-frame object trajectory offer less leverage for planning [5, 19, 57].
42 (3) *Scene*. Object motion is contextual: contact feasibility, clearances, and gravity alignment are
43 defined with respect to the scene; pipelines that do not reconstruct a collidable, metric-scale, gravity-
44 aligned scene (e.g., learning directly from videos without scene geometry [71]) provide limited
45 support for validating contacts or credibly replaying motion. (4) *Object*. Interaction requires an
46 *interactable* object; modern simulators assume well-behaved meshes for stable contact, so policies
47 validated without object geometry risk overfitting to appearance rather than contact-rich behavior.
48 Taken together, partial solutions in Tab. 1 (e.g., scene/object without motion, motion without scene,
49 or assets lacking world/scale/gravity alignment) are valuable components but harder to use as a
50 generalizable engine. Our aim is to deliver *simulator-ready* scene/object meshes and an executable,
51 world-aligned object trajectory from casual video so that downstream planners and policies can both
52 plan and act.

53 Our thesis is that casual, narrow-baseline videos can be turned into such assets at scale *if* two design
54 choices are made early and enforced end-to-end: first, *unify* camera, metric scale, and gravity so
55 that geometry and motion live in a single world frame throughout; second, treat reconstruction as
56 a high-throughput generator and guard it with a re-rendering consistency gate. We use SSIM with
57 geometric/physical sanity checks to convert long-tail failures into discardable samples before errors
58 cascade. In addition, we treat *physics as plausibility*: we incorporate coarse, category-conditioned
59 priors (e.g., mass estimated by VLM) into the simulation setup to avoid obviously non-physical
60 interactions without over-promising fine identification [34, 47, 62].

61 Concretely, from a single casual video we (i) recover cameras, metric scale, gravity and physics
62 information; (ii) produce *collidable* scene and object meshes suitable for standard simulators; (iii)
63 estimate an *object-centric 6-DoF trajectory* consistent with that world frame; and (iv) enforce a *post-*
64 *filtering gate* via differentiable re-rendering and SSIM, complemented by geometric and physical
65 checks. The result is a *simulator-ready* bundle with geometry, physics plausibility and motion
66 produced automatically from casual video.

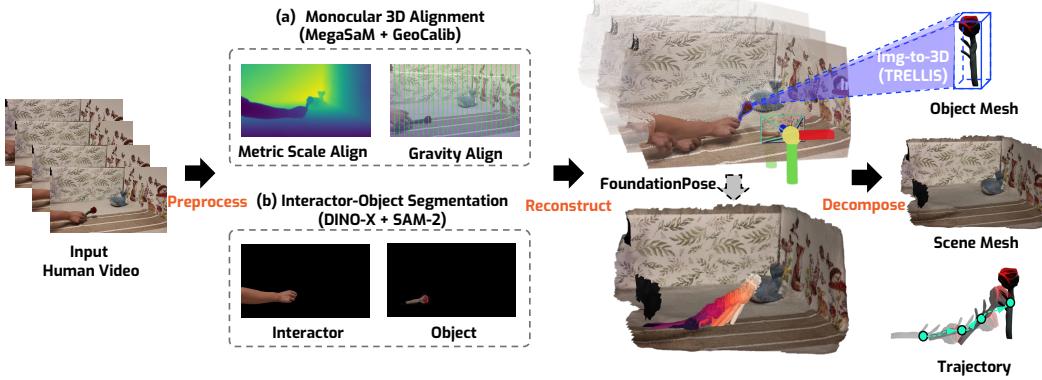


Figure 1: **ROSE Real2Sim pipeline illustration.** (a) We leverage MegaSaM[31] and GeoCalib[58] to reconstruct scene point cloud in the metric-scale and gravity-align world coordinates. (b) We further use SAM-2[48] and DINO-X[49] to detect and track interactor and object mask from videos.

67 Given only a single RGB camera moving through a real scene, ROSE automatically builds an interactive
68 3D simulation of that scene, reconstructing the geometry, appearance, and physics information of
69 objects and surfaces. The resulting simulation (a “digital twin” of the scene) can be used to train and
70 evaluate manipulation strategies in a safe and scalable manner. By eliminating much of the manual
71 effort required to create detailed simulated environments, ROSE aims to enable robots to learn and
72 test manipulation policies in faithful virtual replicas of real-world settings, then execute them reliably
73 in the physical world. We collect a large-scale dataset comprising diverse scenes, objects, trajectories,
74 and physically plausible robotic actions for task completion. The dataset includes more than 30
75 scenes, 50 objects, 600 trajectories, and 3,500 robot action samples.

76 2 Related Work

77 2.1 Sim-to-Real RL Policy Transfer

78 Training robot policies with RL in simulation, followed by a sim-to-real (Sim2Real) policy transfer,
79 has become one of the most successful robot learning strategies in wide applications, such as
80 locomotion [18, 25, 26, 32, 55], loco-manipulation [11, 12, 17, 51], dexterous manipulation [16, 45],
81 *etc.* One advantage of such Sim2Real RL training lies in the low-cost, safe, and more potential in
82 improving generalization through domain / dynamic randomizations [41, 56], making it a widely
83 adopted alternative to collecting real-world data that is typically time-consuming and labor-intensive.
84 However, such a low-cost and safe simulation training alternative may bring a Sim2Real gap that
85 makes it hard for the Sim2Real policy transfer. To address this issue, a lot of works have been proposed
86 to mitigate the gap, *e.g.*, curriculum learning of Sim2Real constraints [18, 27, 33, 52], teacher-student
87 distillation of privileged information like object states or environment extrinsics [25, 27, 43], 3D
88 awareness [15, 23, 39, 54, 72], and perception augmentation / randomization [1, 2, 6, 9, 35, 50].

89 2.2 Real-to-Sim Dynamic Scene and Object Transfer

90 Recently, a lot of efforts in 3D vision have been devoted to creating simulated twins of the real-world
91 scenes / objects from 2D videos [22, 30, 38], which is critical in enriching operating environments
92 when training robot policies in simulation. Generally, transferring real-world scene videos to the 3D
93 simulation that is useful for robot learning involves three key components: i) 3D scene geometry, ii)
94 3D object geometry, and iii) object dynamics, which requires two key techniques as follows.

95 **Dynamic 3D Scene Reconstruction from 2D** focuses on recovering the appearance and geometry
96 of scenes from 2D images or videos. Earlier methods [28, 30, 59, 64, 70] typically rely on dense
97 multiview capture and require significant computational resources to reconstruct dynamic scenes,
98 often using NeRF-based [37] or 3D Gaussian Splatting [24] representations that evolve over time.
99 More recently, with advances in deep multiview stereo [29, 61] and monocular depth estimation [42,
100 69], a new line of work has emerged that better captures the geometry of dynamic scenes from casual
101 inputs. Notably, approaches such as MegaSaM [31], MonST3R [73], and CUT3R [60] demonstrate
102 robust and efficient dynamic 3D reconstruction from casually captured monocular videos. These

103 methods mark a significant step towards scalable, large-scale scene reconstruction and asset creation
104 for downstream applications like robotics.

105 **3D Object Dynamics from 2D** provides the object-level kinematic dynamics encoded as object
106 spatial translation and orientation in 3D, offering valuable priors that help both traditional motion
107 planning methods and learning-based approaches. To capture such object dynamics, various object
108 representations have been used as the policy tracking goal. For example, Bharadhwaj et al. [2]
109 propose to use object and hand segmentation as proxy information, followed by a segmentation image
110 conditioned policy that achieves better generalization.

111 Meanwhile, some works utilize the point-level flow map of objects or images as the point tracking
112 objective and achieve great progress [3, 8, 13, 67]. Different from relying on such proxy represen-
113 tations, our approach directly collects 6DoF trajectories through pose estimation [63], offering a
114 scalable and efficient solution for acquiring high-quality motion data. Notably, a concurrent work,
115 Video2Policy [71], also proposes to use 6DoF object trajectories as object dynamics. However,
116 Video2Policy only reconstructs the object states and places objects on the same canonical tabletop
117 in a specific robot frame. In contrast, our approach transfers both the dynamic scenes and the
118 objects in the world coordinate, where the world frame reconstruction helps SLAM-based scene
119 reconstruction [31].

120 3 ROSE:Reconstructing Object, Scene, and Trajectory

121 3.1 Object Reconstruction

122 **Object Grounding.** As shown in Fig. 1, given a target object label from user input or LLM inference,
123 we scan the video frame-by-frame until the object is first detected by DINO-X [49]. The detected
124 bounding box is passed to SAM 2 [48] to obtain the initial target object mask M^{init} . SAM 2
125 then propagates this mask through the remainder of the sequence, yielding per-frame object masks
126 $\{M_t\}_{t=1}^N$.

127 **Object Mesh Reconstruction.** Using the segmented masks, we leverage TRELLIS [66] to reconstruct
128 the 3D object mesh M^{obj} , which provides 3D reconstruction pipelines from both single image and
129 multiview images. Since most manipulation videos are filmed from a single viewpoint, we select the
130 initial mask M^{init} to reconstruct M^{obj} . For highly occluded or feature unclear situation, we would
131 use masks from multiple non-occluded views to reconstruct.

132 3.2 Scene Reconstruction

133 **Scene Point Cloud Reconstruction.** For every video frame I_t , MegaSaM [31] provides the cam-
134 era intrinsics K_t , the camera pose $G_t = [R_t|t_t]$, and a relative depth map D_t^{rel} . We feed I_t to
135 UniDepth [42] to obtain an absolute depth estimate D_t^{abs} . A global scale factor $\hat{\alpha}$ and offset $\hat{\beta}$
136 align D_t^{rel} to metric depth D_t^{align} . Each pixel is back-projected using K_t , G_t and D_t^{align} to obtain
137 its corresponding 3D point, which we accumulate into a raw scene point cloud \mathcal{P} . Then we apply
138 GeoCalib [58] onto the first frame and obtain a gravity-align transformation $P^{gravity}$. Then we apply
139 $P^{gravity}$ to each of the following frame to ensure the scene is under the gravity-aligned coordinate.

140 **Scene Mesh Reconstruction.** The sparse, hole-ridden point cloud \mathcal{P} yielded by the previous
141 stage is first densified with Neural Kernel Surface Reconstruction (NCSR) [20]; its *detail* hyper-
142 parameter is tuned to close gaps while preserving fine geometry. To satisfy simulator requirements,
143 namely orientability, 2-manifoldness, and self-intersection freedom, we subsequently apply an Alpha
144 Wrapping procedure [44], producing a watertight, validity-guaranteed surface. Finally, color is
145 restored by a point-to-vertex transfer: each mesh vertex inherits the distance-weighted average RGB
146 of its three nearest neighbors in the processed point cloud, yielding a textured, simulation-ready scene
147 mesh M^{scene} .

148 3.3 Trajectory Reconstruction

149 **Improved Foundation Pose.** Given a set of segmentation masks $\{M_t\}_{t=1}^N$, we employ Foundation-
150 Pose [63] in a model-based setting to estimate the object’s 6-DoF pose P^{obj} . The estimator takes
151 as input the RGB image I , the reconstructed object mesh M^{obj} from Sec. 3.1, the camera intrinsics

152 matrix \mathbf{K} , and the aligned depth map $\mathbf{D}^{\text{align}}$ from Sec. 3.2. Since FoundationPose assumes metric
153 consistency between depth and mesh, we introduce a scale-alignment procedure.

154 Specifically, we backproject pixels (u, v) inside \mathbf{M}^{init} to 3D points $\mathbf{p}(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ in camera coordinates
155 using $\mathbf{D}^{\text{align}}$ and \mathbf{K} . We then compute the maximum pairwise distance among these points,

$$\mathbf{d}^{\text{image}} = \max_{(u_1, v_1), (u_2, v_2) \in \mathbf{M}^{\text{init}}} \|\mathbf{p}(u_1, v_1) - \mathbf{p}(u_2, v_2)\| \quad (1)$$

156 For the mesh, we compute the maximum vertex-to-vertex distance \mathbf{d}^{mesh} ,

$$\mathbf{d}^{\text{mesh}} = \max_{\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{x}_b \in \mathcal{M}^{\text{obj}}} \|\mathbf{x}_a - \mathbf{x}_b\|. \quad (2)$$

157 These yield an initial scale estimate $\rho_0 = \mathbf{d}^{\text{image}} / \mathbf{d}^{\text{mesh}}$.

158 To account for noise in depth, intrinsics, and occlusions, we refine the scale by a discrete search

$$\rho \in [\rho_0/\alpha, \rho_0\alpha] \quad \text{with step size } s.$$

159 For each candidate scale ρ , we scale the mesh \mathcal{M}^{obj} , run FoundationPose to obtain the pose $\mathbf{P}^{\text{obj}}(\rho)$,
160 render the corresponding silhouette $\hat{\mathbf{M}}(\rho)$, and select the ρ^* that minimizes the IoU loss with the
161 ground-truth mask \mathbf{M}^{init} :

$$L_{\text{IoU}}(\rho) = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i \in \Omega} \hat{m}_i(\rho) m_i}{\sum_{i \in \Omega} (\hat{m}_i(\rho) + m_i - \hat{m}_i(\rho) m_i)}. \quad (3)$$

162 Here Ω denotes the image domain, $m_i \in \{0, 1\}$ is the ground-truth mask value, and $\hat{m}_i(\rho) \in [0, 1]$ is
163 the rendered mask value at pixel i . We take the final pose as $\mathbf{P}^{\text{obj}} = \mathbf{P}^{\text{obj}}(\rho^*)$ and use it to initialize
164 pose tracking, yielding poses for subsequent frames.

165 3.4 Post Filtering System

166 To ensure our pipeline maintains a high level of quality we run each result through a filtering system.
167 In order to holistically evaluate the quality of our results, we combine our reconstructed scene, object,
168 trajectory, and camera poses and render them into a reconstructed video to compare with the original
169 video. This formulation enables our filtering system to remove results which may have malformed
170 object meshes, incorrectly textured scenes, or inaccuracies in trajectory and pose reconstruction as
171 well as filter based on the accumulated error from each of these potential sources over time.

172 To ensure there is temporally consistent accuracy between our pipeline’s reconstruction and original
173 video, our filtering system places the object back into the scene following the reconstructed trajectory
174 from each time step of our pipeline’s result. For each object position we render a frame from the
175 corresponding reconstructed camera pose. Upon rendering each of the reconstructed frames, f_t^{recon} ,
176 we compute the SSIM with each of the video’s original frames, f_t^{gt} . We average across all the frames
177 and finally filter results based on an established threshold from previous success and failure cases.

$$\text{SSIM}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \text{SSIM}(f_t^{\text{recon}}, f_t^{\text{gt}}) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{success} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \text{SSIM}_{\text{avg}} > \text{SSIM}_{\text{thresh}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

179 With this filtering system, our pipeline gains the capability to reconstruct scenes from large numbers
180 of casual videos, offering scalability while ensuring that reconstruction quality is maintained.

181 3.5 Robot Action Collection

182 Building on the object trajectories reconstructed by the pipeline described above, we further explain
183 how we collect robotic action data to enable the object to follow the trajectory and complete the task.
184 With the reconstructed scene and object, we first load them into the simulator. Given the object’s
185 motion, our goal is to control the robot to interact appropriately with the object and guide it along the

186 desired trajectory. We primarily utilize two baseline approaches for diverse robotic action collection:
187 motion planning-based and reinforcement learning-based methods.

188 **Motion Planning.** For the motion planning-based algorithm, we first predict an appropriate grasping
189 pose for the object. Once a stable grasp is achieved, the robot follows the object’s trajectory using end-
190 effector control based on cuRobo[53]. If the object remains stable and the trajectory is successfully
191 followed, a data sample is considered successfully collected. For this method, we only consider the
192 parallel-jaw gripper setting. In detail, we use GSNet [40] to predict grasp poses based on the point
193 cloud generated in the simulation. After executing a planned trajectory to successfully grasp the
194 object, the robot then follows the trajectory obtained from our vision pipeline to collect valid data.

195 **Reinforcement Learning.** Although the motion planning-based method is efficient and easy to
196 implement, it is not sufficient for all scenarios. For example, when using high-dimensional robotic
197 hands, as opposed to simple parallel-jaw grippers, predicting an appropriate grasping pose becomes
198 significantly more challenging. In such cases, reinforcement learning (RL) allows the robot to explore
199 and learn effective grasping strategies to complete the task.

200 Our RL baseline consists of two stages: object grasping and object manipulation. In the first stage,
201 we design a reward function composed of three terms: a reaching reward r_{reach} , a grasping reward
202 r_{grasp} . In the second stage, we follow the object trajectory generated by our previous pipeline to
203 complete the task. To achieve this, we use CuRobo to control the end-effector and track the trajectory
204 accurately.

205 It is also worth noting that we explored an end-to-end RL approach without the two-stage setting.
206 While we carefully designed a reward function for trajectory following, we found that it was difficult
207 for the policy to accurately replicate the generated motion, particularly in cases involving complex
208 rotations. This limitation arises from the inherent nature of RL: since learning relies heavily on
209 exploration, it is challenging for a policy to acquire precise trajectory-following behavior, especially
210 when the robot is simultaneously required to grasp and manipulate the object.

211 3.6 Sim-to-real Transfer

212 With action data collected, we further train a model for sim-to-real transfer. A key advantage of
213 our vision pipeline is its ability to generate high-quality, simulation-ready scene and object meshes,
214 along with corresponding object trajectories. This enables fast and accurate robotic data collection
215 in simulation. Using this data, we can leverage a high-quality renderer to produce realistic visual
216 datasets. This allows us to train a vision-based robotic model capable of directly transferring to
217 real-world scenarios.

218 4 Experiments

219 4.1 Experiment Setup

220 Our model is able to collect robotic data from diverse datasets from various sources, including
221 outdoor, indoor environments. We benchmarked our real-to-sim method in RoboVerse[14] simulation
222 environment and validated it in both simulation and real-world settings using the Franka arm and
223 Unitree G1 humanoid robots.

224 4.2 Benchmark Construction

225 We construct a new benchmark to evaluate the fidelity of real-to-sim-to-real pipeline scene recon-
226 structions from casual monocular videos as shown in Tab. 2. Because existing metrics treat scene
227 layout, object shape, and motion separately, our benchmark fuses them into one holistic evaluation. It
228 provides five simulated environments with full ground-truth geometry, appearance, and trajectories,
229 plus a casually captured video that serves as the pipeline’s input. Evaluation uses four metrics:
230 per-frame Chamfer distance between scene point clouds, Chamfer distance for object geometry, and
231 APE/RPE (translation and rotation) for object trajectories. Scores are averaged across frames to
232 yield stable measures. Together, these metrics reveal how well a method recovers both the static
233 environment and the dynamics of the objects within it.

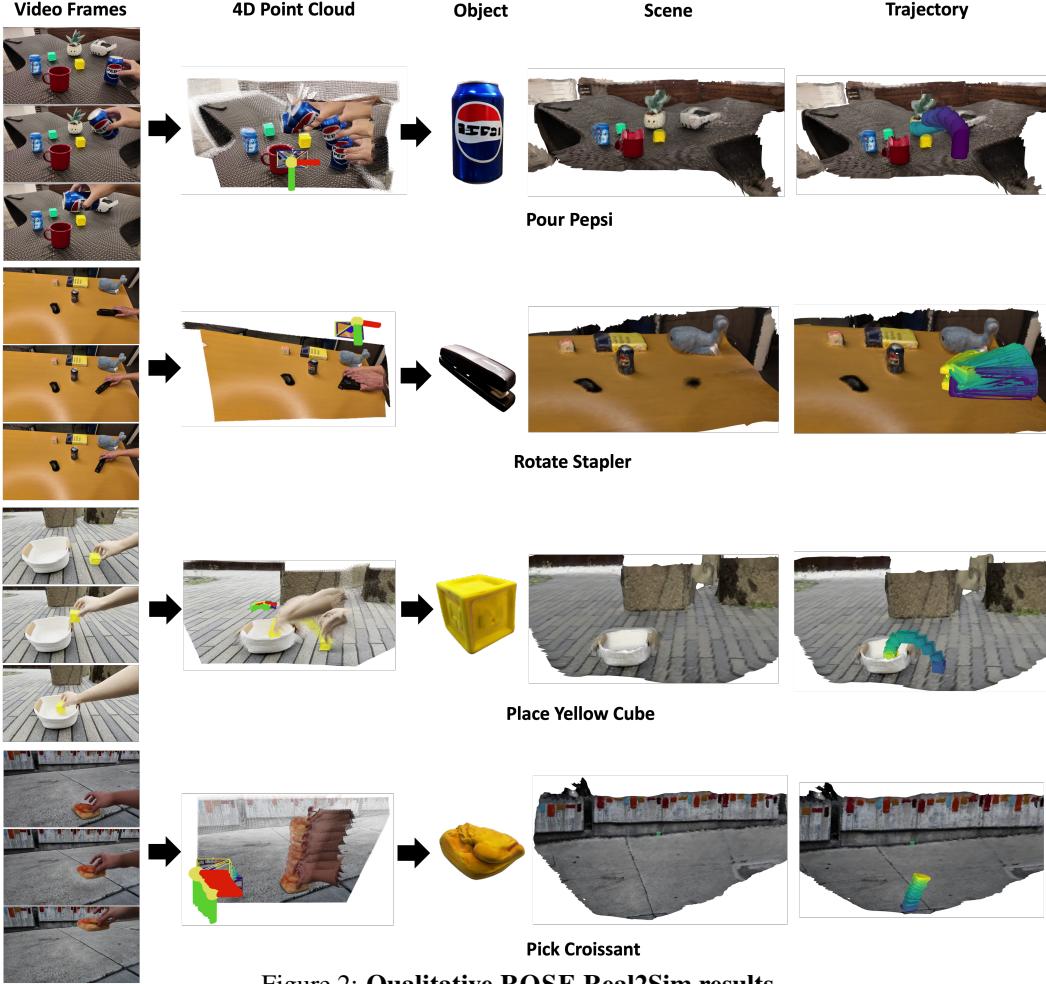


Figure 2: Qualitative ROSE Real2Sim results.

Task	Avg. Scene Chamfer Dist.	Object Chamfer Dist.	Translation APE	Rotation RPE	Translation RPE
Unstack	0.6211	0.02158	0.003242	3.724	0.001649
Place	0.6945	0.01060	0.02629	3.804	0.02269
Lift	0.6696	0.02786	0.02208	9.065	0.004374
Push	0.7513	0.01516	0.01086	4.229	0.002170
Rotate	0.6513	0.01394	0.008418	3.508	0.003301
Average	0.6776	0.01782	0.01418	4.866	0.006837

Table 2: **Benchmark comparison across tasks.** ROSE’s performance metrics from our benchmark. Avg. Chamfer distance is computed for scene reconstructions, while object metrics include Chamfer distance, Absolute Pose Error (APE), and Relative Pose Error (RPE).

234 4.3 Data Generation Time and Qualitative Results

235 With post filtering system we are able to reconstruct scenes from casual videos while maintaining
 236 the quality of our results. We present qualitative results on Fig. 2, demonstrating how our pipeline
 237 reconstructs geometrically accurate scene, object and object trajectory from casual videos to enable
 238 policy training. Additionally we compare the runtime of our pipeline against the runtime of the
 239 leading baseline which can be seen in Tab. 3. ROSE reconstructs environments and trajectory data
 240 around **8x faster** than the baseline on while remaining accuracy on geometry.

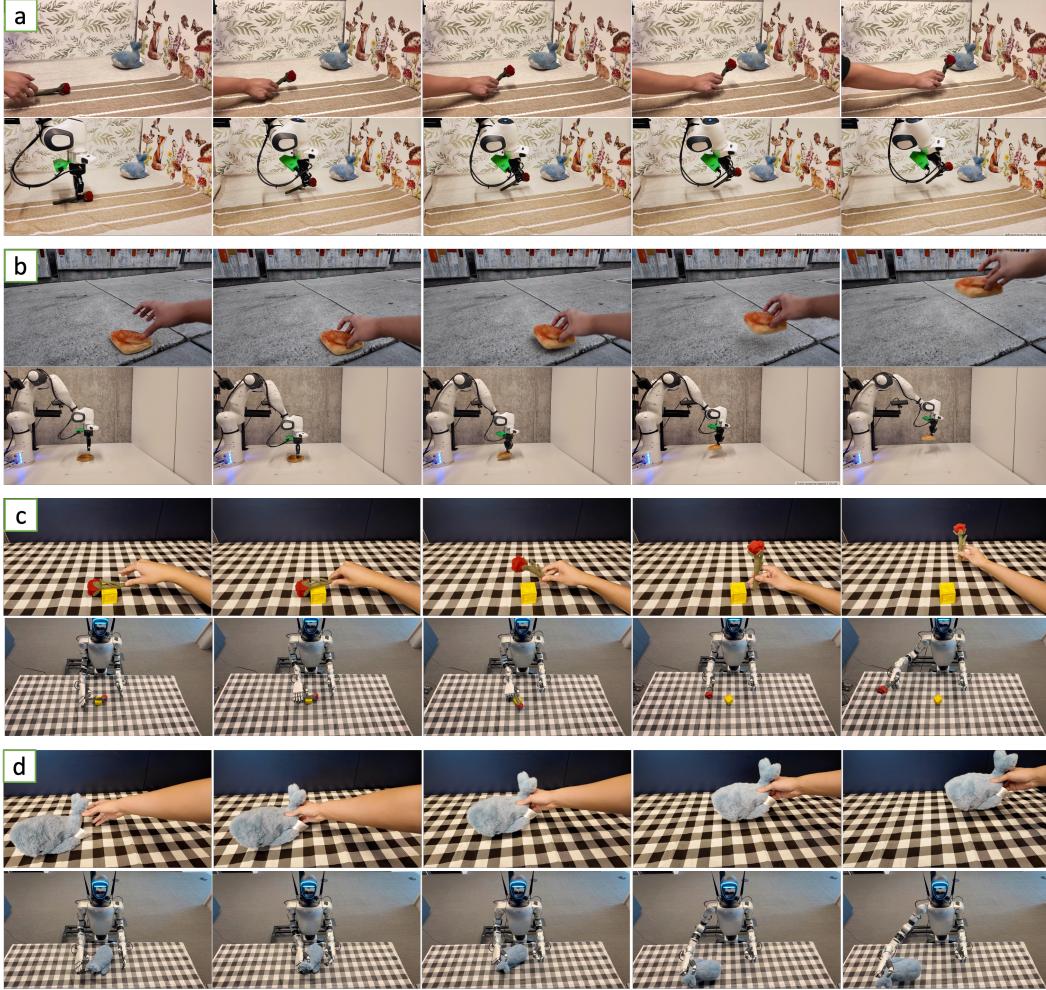


Figure 3: Qualitative ROSE real-world results.

Task Name	ROSE (Ours)		Improved V2P	
	Recon Time ↓	SSIM ↑	Recon Time ↓	SSIM ↑
Triangle Move Mouse	8m46s	0.803	72m39s	0.746
Circle Move Mouse	8m28s	0.789	71m45s	0.734
Flip Magic Cube	7m57s	0.718	70m37s	0.598
Rotate Stapler	8m39s	0.715	83m01s	0.582
Pour Pepsi	9m22s	0.713	77m58s	0.632

Table 3: Pipeline Runtime and Reconstruction Quality. Comparison of ROSE and Video2Policy (V2P) with 3DGS-based scene reconstruction runtimes and SSIM values.

241 4.4 Robotic Dataset Collection

242 Leveraging our scene, object, and trajectory reconstruction results, along with our robotic data
 243 collection pipeline, we construct a robotic manipulation dataset from monocular video. In the end,
 244 we collect **3.5k** valid robotic datasets with diverse task settings and environment variation.

245 **Simulation Environment Setup.** Based on RoboVerse [14], we develop a pipeline for generating
 246 simulation environments. We use a standardized configuration file to process scene layouts and object
 247 meshes. After loading the target robot into the simulation, we perform unit tests to ensure proper

248 setup and collision-free initialization. We then follow the data collection pipelines to gather robotic
249 manipulation data.

250 **Manipulation Benchmark in Simulation.** We establish a simulation benchmark to evaluate the
251 performance of different robotic data collection methods. Specifically, we compare our proposed
252 motion-planning-based approach and a two-stage reinforcement learning (RL) method against an
253 end-to-end RL baseline. Our results show that the motion planning-based and two-stage RL methods
254 perform differently across various settings—each demonstrating strengths in different scenarios.
255 Comparing with strong baselines, including the concurrent work Video2Policy [?], Our method
256 achieves the best performance on three out of four tasks as well as on the average score as shown
257 in Tab. 4.

Method	PickPepsi	StackBlock	PlaceBowl	MoveTriangle	Average
End-to-End RL	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.50
Video2Policy [71]	0.00	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.10
Ours (Motion Planning)	0.80	1.00	0.40	0.80	0.75
Ours (Two-stage RL)	1.00	0.60	1.00	1.00	0.90

Table 4: Task completion rate in simulation.

258 **4.5 Sim-to-Real Transfer**

259 To validate the usefulness of our collected data, we conduct experiments to demonstrate the effectiveness
260 of both the dataset and the trained policy.

261 **Zero-shot Robotic Manipulation and Data Collection.** We evaluate our collected robotic data and
262 data collection pipeline in real-world settings. Specifically, we deploy the motion-planning-based
263 method as shown at c and d row in Fig 3 in a physical environment to assess its capability for zero-shot
264 data collection and task execution using only a single demonstration. We test the data collection
265 system across 13 different scenarios, achieving success in 11 of them—resulting in an **84.6%** success.
266 The failure is primarily due to incorrect grasp poses and joint limit violations during motion planning.

267 **Policy Sim-to-Real Transfer.** We further train an RGB-based policy in simulation and demonstrate
268 that, using the assets generated by our real-to-sim pipeline, the action data collected in simulation,
269 and high-quality rendering based on RoboVerse [14], the resulting policy can zero-shot generalize to
270 the real world.

271 **5 Conclusion**

272 We present ROSE, an end-to-end, equipment-agnostic Real2Sim pipeline that lifts casual monocular
273 videos into simulator-ready assets: metric-scale, gravity-aligned scene reconstructions, watertight
274 textured meshes that meet simulator validity constraints, and consistent 6-DoF object trajectories
275 in a unified world frame. The system combines robust geometric recovery with a post-hoc filtering
276 stage that enforces temporal consistency, yielding assets that can be consumed directly by both
277 motion-planning and learning-based controllers. On top of this vision stack, we standardized the
278 handoff to robotics—curating a benchmark that evaluates scene, object, and trajectory fidelity jointly,
279 and building data-collection routines that translate demonstrations into scalable simulation rollouts.

280 Empirically, ROSE recovers geometry and dynamics with strong fidelity across diverse manipulation
281 tasks and outperforms prior Real2Sim baselines in simulation, while also enabling zero-shot transfer
282 on real robots. Together with the curated assets and 3D reconstructions, these results indicate
283 that high-quality manipulation data can be collected from casual videos at scale, reducing manual
284 environment authoring and separating risky exploration from the real world. We view ROSE as a
285 step toward video-driven Real2Sim2Real at population scale, where casual videos become a training
286 substrate for policies. It standardizes the interface between perception, asset creation, and policy
287 learning, and opens a path to richer, safer, and more diverse robotic data collection.

288 **6 Limitations**

289 Our current scope is restricted to rigid scenes and objects. Articulation, deformable materials, and
290 fluid-like dynamics are not modeled, and we do not yet reason about contact compliance or material
291 parameters beyond simple frictional settings. The object mesh is typically reconstructed from limited
292 viewpoints; under severe occlusion, low texture, specularity, or translucency, geometry and pose
293 tracking may degrade. As with any monocular pipeline, metric scale and intrinsics are estimated rather
294 than measured, making ROSE susceptible to residual scale or gravity misalignment in challenging
295 conditions.

296 On the control side, our data-collection stack emphasizes parallel-jaw grasping and a two-stage policy
297 structure; purely end-to-end trajectory following proved fragile for complex rotations, and we do
298 not yet leverage force/tactile feedback. Extending ROSE to articulated and deformable objects,
299 multi-object interactions, richer physics priors, tactile sensing, broader robot platforms, and physically
300 informed filtering is an important next step toward making casual videos a dependable substrate for
301 policy learning at scale.

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Supplementary Material

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331 **A Implementation Details**

332 In this section, we introduce the implementation details of ROSE. To be specific, we present the
 333 details of the Real2Sim transfer of human videos, Sim2Real policy training, and real-world setup in
 334 Appendix A.1, Appendix A.2, and Appendix A.3, respectively.

335 **A.1 Real-to-Sim Transfer**

336 We use the videos with a resolution of 512×288 containing 60~300 frames in 30 FPS (spanning 2s
 337 to 10s). We first reconstruct the 3D point clouds by running MegaSaM [31], detailed as follows.

338 **Point Cloud Reconstruction** For every frame, we follow MegaSaM [31] to get the affine-invariant
 339 monocular disparity map with Depth-Anything V2 [68], a camera pose in the world coordinate, and
 340 the focal length estimation obtained with UniDepth V2 [42]. With this information, we align the
 341 disparity to the metric scale, which is converted to the pixel-aligned 3D point clouds coordinated
 342 in the world frame. Afterwards, we use GeoCalib [58] on the first frame to estimate the scene’s
 343 gravity direction. We then rotate the camera rig so that the estimated gravity is to the negative of
 344 the z -axis in a right-hand coordinate system, resulting in gravity-aligned point clouds in the world
 345 frame. To further avoid residual artifacts, we apply edge dilation to remove colors at boundaries
 346 and depth-gradient pruning to remove point clouds with corresponding gravity exceeding a certain
 347 threshold of 0.8 for reducing depth discontinuities.

348 For every image, we use Ground-SAM-2 [48] with DINO-X-Track[49] to obtain binary masks of
 349 objects in the scene, used for object removal and reconstruction. For the scene point cloud, we fuse
 350 the point clouds by random sampling over the video to leverage complementary information to reduce
 351 the inaccurate point clouds caused by occlusions and partial scenes after object removal. The random
 352 sampling is used for balancing every frame’s contribution. On average, the point cloud reconstruction
 353 would take 3 minutes to process a 5-second casual video.

354 **3D Mesh Reconstruction** For the object mesh, we use TRELLIS [66] to reconstruct the 3D
 355 mesh, and we set the α channel’s threshold to 0.2 to help reconstruct dark objects. For the scene
 356 mesh, we use a three-stage method. In the first stage, we run Neural Kernel Surface Reconstruction
 357 (NCSR) [20] for surface fitting. To close the small gaps created by mask removal while preserving
 358 high-frequency geometry, we set the detail level to 0.4 and use a single MISE iteration. Afterwards,
 359 to make the mesh orientable, two-manifold, and self-intersection-free for simulator usage, we wrap
 360 the resulting mesh with CGAL alpha-wrapping algorithm [44]. The α value is set to 400. Finally,
 361 each mesh vertex v of $\mathcal{M}_{\text{wrap}}$ inherits the RGB value $c(\cdot)$:

$$c(v) = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{N}_k(v)} w(p, v) c(p), \quad w(p, v) \propto \frac{1}{\|p - v\|_2}.$$

362 This is the inverse-distance-weighted average of its k -nearest neighbours $\mathcal{N}_k(v)$ in the point cloud.
 363 In this work, we use $k = 3$ with a maximum distance of 5cm.

364 **Improved Foundation Pose** Foundation pose [63] requires that the scale of the mesh and the scale,
 365 unprotected from the depth map, be the same in order to ensure accurate pose estimation. Therefore,
 366 we align the trellis mesh $\mathbf{M}^{\text{trellis}}$ with the scene mesh $\mathbf{M}^{\text{scene}}$ by the following transformation:

$$\mathbf{M}^{\text{trellis-align}} = \mathbf{G}_0 \mathcal{Q} s \mathbf{M}^{\text{trellis}} f, \quad (6)$$

367 where s is the scale factor, \mathbf{G}_0 is the camera pose, \mathcal{Q} is the object pose, and f is the focal length.

368 For pose tracking, we begin by using the scale s estimated in the first frame to adjust the scale
 369 of $\mathbf{M}^{\text{trellis}}$. We then follow the approach outlined in FoundationPose [63]. The object pose \mathcal{Q}_i is
 370 initialized using the previously estimated pose \mathcal{Q}_{i-1} , and the refinement network is applied to further
 371 refine \mathcal{Q}_i , yielding the final estimation of the object pose for the current frame.

372 **A.2 Sim-to-Real Policy**

373 **Simulation Environment Setup** We use RoboVerse [14] as our simulation platform to establish
 374 the data collection pipeline. Specifically, we adopt the IsaacGym branch for mesh loading, policy ex-

375 ecution, and reinforcement learning, while leveraging the IsaacLab branch for high-fidelity rendering
376 and vision-based policy training.

377 Simulation and control parameters follow the default settings provided by RoboVerse. For both
378 objects and scenes, we set the friction coefficient to 0.5. To ensure accurate collision detection and
379 reliable physics simulation, we apply convex decomposition to the scene geometry.

380 **Robotic Data Collection based on Motion Planning** We utilize GSNet [40] and cuRobo [53]
381 as the core components of our motion planning pipeline, and conduct all simulations within the
382 Isaac Gym environment. After reconstructing the scene (as described in Appendix A.1), we load the
383 reconstructed environment and the target object mesh into the simulator. The object is represented
384 using a high-resolution mesh, preserving geometric detail necessary for accurate grasp prediction and
385 motion planning.

386 Using GSNet, we extract both the surface point cloud and a predicted grasp pose for the target object.
387 These predictions are then used to initialize an inverse kinematics (IK) solver provided by cuRobo,
388 which computes a feasible trajectory for the robot’s end effector to reach the designated grasping
389 configuration. During this process, we account for kinematic constraints, joint limits, and potential
390 collisions in the environment.

391 Upon reaching the grasp pose, the robot executes a grasp based on a set of hand-crafted heuristics,
392 which evaluate grasp stability using factors such as contact normals and finger placement. Once
393 the grasp is completed, the robot follows a trajectory generated by a previously introduced motion
394 prediction model, which guides the object to a specified goal position or task-specific location.

395 **Robotic Data Collection based on Reinforcement Learning** Our method adopts a two-stage
396 policy for robotic manipulation. In the first stage, we employ a reinforcement learning (RL) approach
397 to train a policy that guides the robot’s end effector toward the object and performs a grasp once
398 proximity is sufficiently close. To facilitate generalization across different grippers or robotic hands,
399 we design a simple yet broadly applicable reward function. This reward encourages the end effector
400 to reduce its distance to the target object and penalizes undesired motions, without relying on
401 gripper-specific parameters, making it adaptable to a wide range of hardware configurations.

402 During deployment, we execute the learned grasping policy for a fixed horizon of 50 steps, under
403 the assumption that a successful grasp is achieved by the end of this phase. In the second stage, we
404 switch to a motion planning phase using cuRobo [53]. The robot follows a precomputed trajectory
405 that guides the grasped object to its goal location or completes the assigned task. This two-stage
406 setup decouples grasp acquisition from subsequent manipulation, allowing each component to be
407 optimized independently while ensuring end-to-end effectiveness.

408 **A.3 Real-World Experimental Setups**

409 **Franka Setting** For our real-world experiments, we use a Franka Emika Panda robotic arm equipped
410 with a Robotiq 2F-85 adaptive gripper. This setup provides a reliable and widely used platform for
411 evaluating grasping and manipulation policies in physical environments. The robot is controlled via a
412 high-level interface that integrates seamlessly with our planning and control pipeline.

413 To reconstruct the environment, we capture RGB-D data using both an iPhone 16 Pro and a DJI Osmo
414 Pocket 3. These consumer-grade devices offer high-resolution color and depth sensing capabilities,
415 allowing for efficient and accessible scene scanning.

416 **B Real-to-sim Benchmark**

417 **B.1 benchmark evaluation metric details**

418 Our proposed benchmark is based on three primary evaluations: scene reconstruction similarity,
419 object reconstruction similarity, and object trajectory reconstruction.

420 **Uniform Sampling.** Uniform sampling extracts a point cloud from a mesh by taking N points
421 drawn *i.i.d.* over the surface of the mesh M . Unless stated otherwise, $N = 10,000$ in all our
422 experiments.

423 **Symmetric Chamfer Distance.** Given two point clouds A and B , symmetric chamfer distance is
 424 defined as:

$$\text{ChamferDist}(A, B) = \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{a \in A} \min_{b \in B} \|a - b\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{b \in B} \min_{a \in A} \|b - a\|_2^2.$$

425 **Scene Reconstruction Similarity.** To evaluate scene reconstruction similarity, we first construct a
 426 point cloud $\mathbf{P}^{\text{scene}}$ through uniform sampling the reconstructed mesh. We then align $\mathbf{P}^{\text{scene}}$ with each
 427 frame’s ground-truth point cloud $\mathbf{P}_i^{\text{gt-scene}}$ ($i = 1, \dots, F$) by optimizing an SE(3) transformation to
 428 yield $\hat{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{scene}}$. Finally, we compute the average chamfer distance across the aligned frame point cloud
 429 $\hat{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{scene}}$ and the ground-truth scene point clouds.

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{scene}} = \frac{1}{F} \sum_{i=1}^F \text{ChamferDist}(\mathbf{P}_i^{\text{gt-scene}}, \hat{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{scene}})$$

430 **Object Reconstruction Similarity.** Similarly to scene reconstruction similarity, we construct point
 431 clouds $\mathbf{P}^{\text{gt-obj}}$ and \mathbf{P}^{obj} by uniformly sampling the ground-truth and reconstructed object meshes
 432 respectively. We then align the point clouds by optimizing an SE(3) transformation to yield $\hat{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{obj}}$.
 433 Finally, we evaluate object reconstruction similarity as the chamfer distance between the aligned
 434 point clouds.

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{obj}} = \text{ChamferDist}(\mathbf{P}^{\text{gt-obj}}, \hat{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{obj}})$$

435 **Trajectory Reconstruction.** We evaluate object trajectory reconstruction using three metrics: absolute
 436 pose error translation ($\text{APE}_{\text{trans}}$), relative pose error translation ($\text{RPE}_{\text{trans}}$) and relative pose
 437 error rotation (RPE_{rot}). We compute these between the ground truth trajectory $\mathbf{Q}^{\text{gt-obj}}$ and the recon-
 438 structed trajectory $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}^{\text{obj}}$, after aligning the reconstructed trajectories scale and SE(3) transformations.

439 The absolute pose error (APE) measures the deviation between corresponding poses and is defined as:

$$e_{\text{ape}}(\mathbf{Q}^{\text{gt-obj}}, \mathbf{Q}^{\text{obj}}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left\| \mathbf{Q}_{xyz}^{\text{gt-obj}} - \hat{\mathbf{Q}}_{xyz}^{\text{obj}} \right\|_2$$

440 where \mathbf{Q}_{xyz} denotes the translation component of pose \mathbf{Q}_i and $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}$ denotes the aligned trajectory.

441 The relative pose error (RPE) measures the local consistency of motion between consecutive poses.
 442 For an interval $\Delta = 1$, we define the relative transformations as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{T}_i^{\text{gt-rel}} &= (\mathbf{Q}_i^{\text{gt-obj}})^{-1} \mathbf{Q}_{i+\Delta}^{\text{gt-obj}} \\ \mathbf{T}_i^{\text{obj-rel}} &= (\hat{\mathbf{Q}}_i^{\text{obj}})^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{Q}}_{i+\Delta}^{\text{obj}} \end{aligned}$$

443 The translation component of the RPE at time i is given by:

$$e_{\text{rpe,trans}}(i) = \left\| \text{trans} \left((\mathbf{T}_i^{\text{gt-rel}})^{-1} \mathbf{T}_i^{\text{obj-rel}} \right) \right\|_2$$

444 where $\text{trans}(\cdot)$ extracts the translation part of a transformation.

445 The rotation component of the RPE is given by:

$$e_{\text{rpe,rot}}(i) = \arccos \left(\frac{\text{trace} \left(\text{rot} \left((\mathbf{T}_i^{\text{gt-rel}})^{-1} \mathbf{T}_i^{\text{obj-rel}} \right) \right) - 1}{2} \right)$$

446 where $\text{rot}(\cdot)$ extracts the rotation matrix component of a transformation.

447 B.2 Data Details

448 We select 5 representative tasks from CALVIN [36] implemented in RoboVerse [14], covering the
 449 basic manipulation tasks on rigid objects: lift, push, rotate, “pick and place”, and unstack blocks.
 450 These tasks are performed on top of a delicate desk, allowing for evaluating the proposed pipeline by
 451 reconstructing both the scene (desk) and the objects in interest (blocks).

452 B.3 Qualitative Results

453

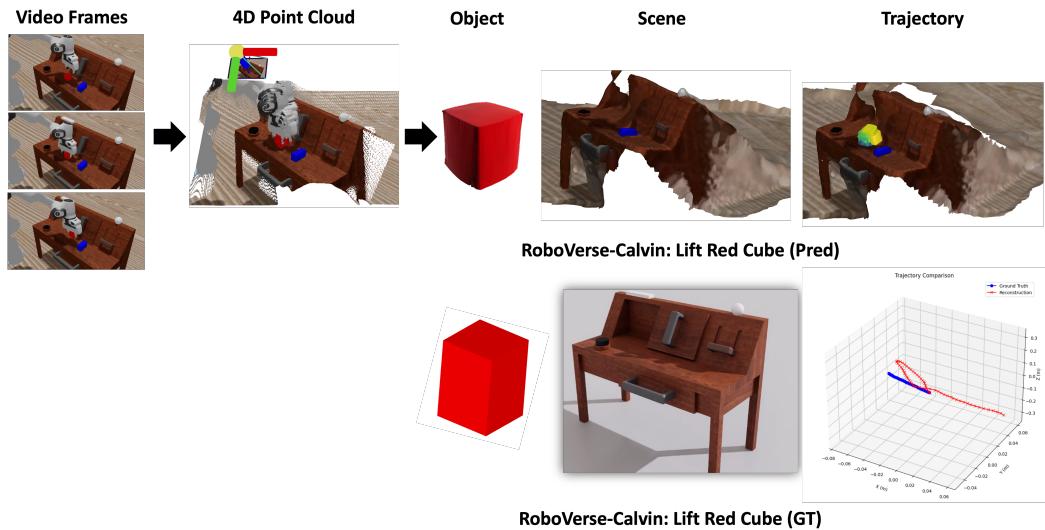


Figure 4: Qualitative examples of our real-to-sim benchmark.