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006 **Anonymous authors**

007 Paper under double-blind review

011 ABSTRACT

013 Enabling robots to perform precise and generalized manipulation in unstructured
014 environments remains a fundamental challenge in embodied AI. While Vision-
015 Language Models (VLMs) have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in semantic
016 reasoning and task planning, a significant gap persists between their high-level
017 understanding and the precise physical execution required for real-world manipu-
018 lation. To bridge this “semantic-to-physical” gap, we introduce GRACE, a novel
019 framework that grounds VLM-based reasoning through executable analytic con-
020 cepts (EAC)—mathematically defined blueprints that encode object affordances,
021 geometric constraints, and semantics of manipulation. Our approach integrates a
022 structured policy scaffolding pipeline that turn natural language instructions and
023 visual information into an instantiated EAC, from which we derive grasp poses,
024 force directions and plan physically feasible motion trajectory for robot execution.
025 GRACE thus provides a unified and interpretable interface between high-level in-
026 struction understanding and low-level robot control, effectively enabling precise
027 and generalizable manipulation through semantic-physical grounding. Extensive
028 experiments demonstrate that GRACE achieves strong zero-shot generalization
029 across a variety of articulated objects in both simulated and real-world environ-
030 ments, without requiring task-specific training.

031 1 INTRODUCTION

033 Developing general robotic manipulation systems that can operate effectively in complex, dynamic,
034 and unstructured real-world environments remains a longstanding challenge (Xu et al., 2024). Re-
035 cent advances in large-scale pretraining have enabled Large Language Models (LLMs) (Naveed
036 et al., 2025; Achiam et al., 2023), including multimodal Vision-Language Models (VLMs) (Zhang
037 et al., 2024; Hurst et al., 2024), to acquire rich world knowledge, demonstrating considerable po-
038 tential in robotic manipulation tasks. These models are capable of processing complex semantic
039 information and facilitating robust reasoning and planning across diverse scenarios, substantially
040 reducing the dependence on large quantities of high-quality action demonstration data.

041 Existing VLM-based methods for robotic manipulation have achieved promising results in several
042 areas: task planning (Ahn et al., 2022; Driess et al., 2023), where VLMs interpret natural language
043 instructions and produce high-level action sequences; error detection and recovery (Duan et al.,
044 2024a), where they identify execution failures or environmental anomalies and trigger replanning;
045 and fine-grained action generation (Huang et al., 2025; 2023), where visual representations are ex-
046 tracted and used by VLMs to infer constraints, which are then solved to produce executable robot
047 motions. Another popular approach integrates VLMs with Vision-Language-Action (VLA) models
048 to form a hierarchical architecture: the high-level layer provides semantic reasoning through the
049 VLM, while the low-level layer handles motion planning and execution via the VLA (Ma et al.,
050 2024; Shi et al., 2025).

051 Despite these advances, VLMs primarily operate within the domain of internet-scale text and 2D
052 images, where they demonstrate strengths in dialogue and static image understanding. However, a
053 significant gap persists between these capabilities and the physical demands of real-world robotic
tasks, which is required by precise manipulation within 3D environments. Fine-tuning them into

VLAs is a optional path, yet it is hindered by the high cost of data collection and the risk of creating agent-specific models that lack generalization. Consequently, VLMs struggle to adapt effectively to dynamic settings and complex physical interactions during embodied task execution.

This limitation underscores a fundamental challenge in merging VLMs with robotics: while VLMs reason at a semantic level—interpreting goals and inferring action sequences—robot control operates at the physical level, dealing with forces, velocities, and positions. Bridging this “semantic-to-physical” gap is nontrivial. On one hand, directly embedding LLM-derived knowledge as input features to control policies is often inefficient, as the policy must re-learn physical principles from scratch (Majumdar et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2025). On the other hand, VLMs struggle with the precise numerical reasoning required to express commonsense knowledge in a physically accurate manner, which is essential for tasks demanding high precision (Ahn et al., 2021).

To bridge the semantic knowledge inferred by VLMs and the physical realm in which robots operate, we leverage the notion of analytic concepts (Sun et al., 2024). An analytic concept is a procedural definition, expressed in mathematical terms, that captures the generalized physical commonality of an object or task. When a VLM receives a task prompt and the scene information, we also supply it with a library of concepts. Because the concepts are expressed in precise yet human-readable mathematics, the VLM can weave them naturally into its commonsense chain of thought: it selects the concept that matches the visual evidence, instantiates its free parameters, and determines the semantics of manipulation. The result is an Executable Analytic Concept (EAC): a blueprint containing grasp poses, force directions, and motion constraints expressed directly in robot coordinates. Within this analytic-concept paradigm the VLM no longer stops at naming objects or describing goals; it assembles a structured, physics-grounded plan whose parameters feed straight into a motion planner, thereby closing the gap between high-level semantics and low-level control.

By mediating between semantic reasoning and physical execution through analytic concepts, our approach leverages the robust commonsense capabilities of LLMs while enabling generalized, interpretable, and precise manipulation of articulated objects. We propose **GRACE** (From VLM-based Grounding to Robotic manipulation through Analytic Concept Execution) with the following contributions:

- We introduce a novel plug-and-play framework that elicits the inherent robotic control potential of VLMs by structured, physics-aware object representations. The framework provides a unified interface that bridges high-level instructions and low-level executable actions for long-horizon manipulation.
- We develop a policy scaffolding pipeline that incorporates analytic concept to translate object-centric semantic knowledge into physically meaningful blueprint, thereby building executable guidance for robot control policies. The executive analytic concepts bridge the gap between VLM’s commonsense reasoning and precise physical cognition.
- We demonstrate our approach’s outstanding performance in a wide range of manipulation tasks, showcasing the remarkable zero-shot generalization capability in both simulated and real-world environments. We also highlight the compatibility of our EAC-based approach with VLA architecture.

2 RELATED WORK

Structural Representations for Manipulation. The structural representation chosen for a manipulation system dictates how its modules interact and, consequently, shapes the system’s assumptions, efficiency, and overall capability. Traditional approaches rely on rigid-body models: once an object’s geometry and dynamics are fully specified, well-understood rigid-body motions can be executed in free space and long-range dependencies are handled efficiently (Migimatsu & Bohg, 2020; Dantam et al., 2018). Yet this strategy presupposes that accurate geometry and physical parameters of the environment are available *a priori*—a requirement rarely met outside carefully curated setups. To relax this constraint, recent research has explored data-driven alternatives, including learned object-centric embeddings (Hsu et al., 2023; Cheng et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2022), particle-based modeling (Bauer et al., 2024; Abou-Chakra et al., 2024), and keypoint or descriptors (Simeonov et al., 2022; Manuelli et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2024b). Although promising, these approaches often suffer from instabil-

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ity, manual annotation, or a reliance on hand-crafted geometric priors, limiting their reliability and breadth of application.

Vision-Language Models for Robotics. Our work builds upon recent advances in Vision-Language Models (VLMs) for robotic control, which demonstrate remarkable capabilities in scene understanding and high-level commonsense reasoning. Existing approaches can be broadly categorized into several paradigms (Shao et al., 2025). Some studies integrate environmental perception—including visual, linguistic, and robot state information—along with action generation into a unified Visual-Language-Action (VLA) model (O’Neill et al., 2024; Zitkovich et al., 2023; Deng et al., 2025). Alternatively, dual-system architectures employ a VLM backbone for scene interpretation and a separate action expert for policy generation, communicating through latent representation exchanges. Despite their promise, these methods often require large-scale data collection and face challenges in generalizing beyond training distributions. Other efforts seek to leverage visual foundation models to extract operational primitives, which then serve as visual or linguistic prompts to VLMs for task-level reasoning (Duan et al., 2024b; Huang et al., 2024a; Pan et al., 2025). These systems typically rely on traditional motion planners for low-level control. However, such approaches are limited by the loss of geometric detail when compressing 3D physical interactions into 2D images or 1D textual descriptions, as well as by the inherent hallucination problems of VLMs. These limitations often compromise the accuracy and executability of high-level plans generated by VLMs.

Addressing these challenges, we introduce analytic concepts as a core component that scaffolds the VLM’s reasoning process, enabling it to progressively derive physical knowledge of objects from fine-grained 3D geometric information and produce executable and accurate manipulation plans.

3 ANALYTIC CONCEPTS

The analytic concepts take inspiration from the advancements of researches on human cognition and brain science, where it is discovered that we humans learn about the physical world by perceiving geometry patterns from objects and inducing them along with related knowledge as commonsense for future reference. Based on such findings, a novel knowledge annotation paradigm for object understanding tasks is established by explicitly modeling such abstract commonsense information as concepts for regular geometry patterns and reversing the induction process (Sun et al., 2024). Specifically, by generalizing the concepts towards certain objects, various knowledge associated with the concepts can be automatically propagated to all these objects.

In engineering and architecture, a blueprint is a detailed plan that defines the structure of an object through specifications and guides its fabrication and assembly. We introduce analytic concepts to play an analogous role for robots: they are procedural, mathematics-based definitions that capture the shared physical essence of an object or its sub-components, turning abstract knowledge into an *executable blueprint* for manipulation. At their foundation, analytic concepts include a “factory” of geometric concept assets (Fig. 1a). Each asset code provides a set of free parameters to represent diverse variations, a canonical structural definition, and affordance annotations as concise descriptors of how the object can be grasped or acted upon. Besides, a function is also provided to render instances of the assets in 3D space. These assets are the atomic building blocks from which every executable blueprint is assembled with building structural blueprint and manipulation blueprint.

The analytic structural blueprint is a series of mathematical procedures revealing the essential commonality of the spatial structure, including spatial layout and structural relationships, shared by all instances of the concept, as shown in Fig. 1b. Further, there are variable parameters in the procedures to represent the variations among different physical instances. That is, a physical instance of this concept can be created with specific parameters, and in turn, a target in the physical world can be also resolved into parameters of a concept.

Effective interaction requires more than geometric fidelity; it demands knowledge of functional properties such as affordances and force dynamics. To this end, we can ground manipulation blueprint (Fig. 1c) that meet the functional properties of the concept and force directions that would cause effective movement. Similarly to the analytic structural blueprint, the analytic manipulation blueprint is also formulated by mathematical procedures with variable parameters. It may incorporate multiple interaction strategies, each accompanied by a precise natural-language synopsis to facilitate high-level reasoning by language models.

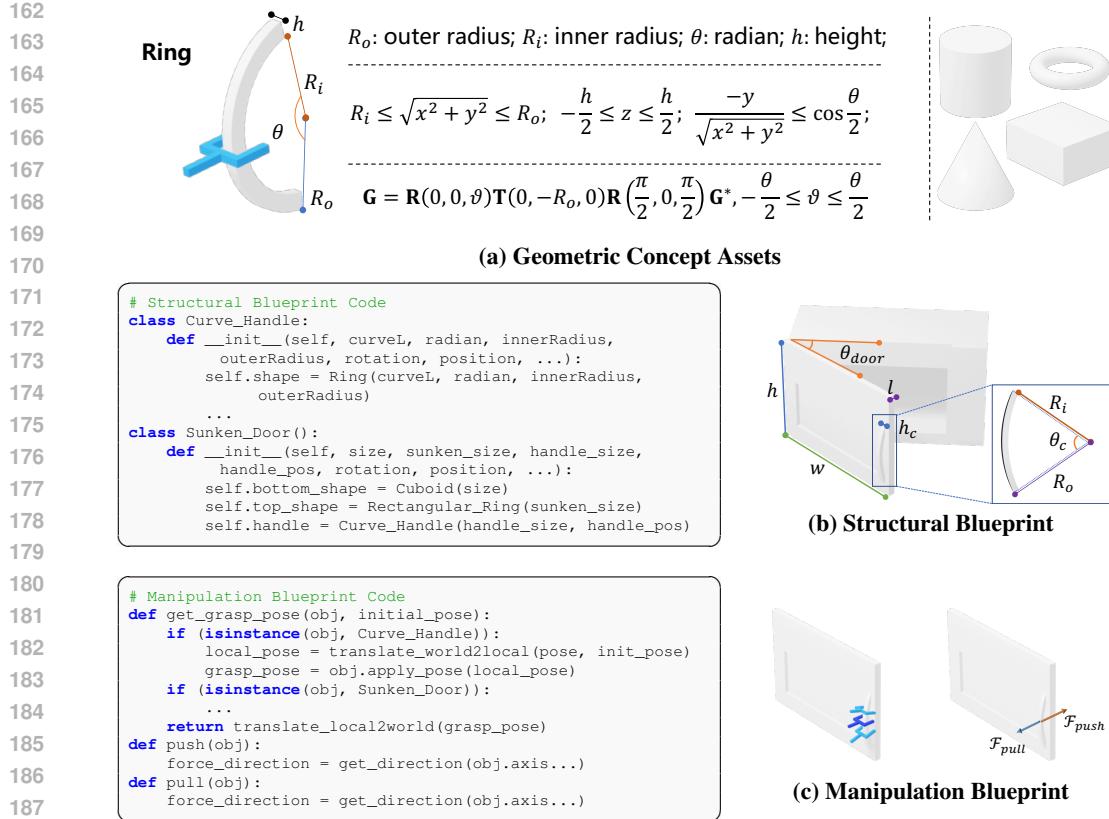


Figure 1: Example implementation of executable analytic concepts. (a) Geometric Concept Assets. Each asset exposes its free parameters (top), canonical structure (mid), and partial affordance cues (bottom). (b) Structural Blueprint: higher-level objects are procedurally composed by wiring multiple geometric assets together, forming a parametric graph that captures their spatial layout and structural relationships. (c) Manipulation Blueprint: parameterised routines compute grasp poses and force directions that exploit the affordances encoded in the underlying structure.

4 METHODOLOGY

Problem Formulation. This paper addresses the challenge of enabling a robotic system to perform manipulation tasks based on high-level language instructions. Our system is given a visual observation O_t of the environment and a natural language instruction l describing the desired task. The core difficulty lies in bridging the gap between high-level human commands and low-level physical actions due to the complexity of the object operated. The language instruction l can be both arbitrarily long-horizon and under-specified, requiring the system to possess advanced commonsense reasoning to infer user intent and contextual details. To successfully complete the task with a parallel gripper, the robot must not only understand the object and task description but also manage the complex physics of contact-rich interactions. This necessitates an intelligent system capable of generating precise affordances and robust grasp strategies.

Overview As illustrated in Figure 2, the proposed GRACE framework orchestrates a pipeline built around a Vision-Language Model (VLM) that transforms a natural language instruction and an RGB-D image into a successful robot action. The process begins with (I) Task Parsing, where the VLM parses and comprehends the user command (e.g., “Open the upper handle.”) within the visual context of the observed scene. The core contribution of our work lies in (II) Policy Scaffolding, a sophisticated VLM-driven process that constructs an Executable Analytic Concept (EAC). This is accomplished through a structured sequence: first segmenting the target point cloud, and then grounding both structural and manipulation blueprint. Finally, the VLM performs reasoning over this rich, structured EAC to generate precise motion parameters, which are subsequently passed to the mo-

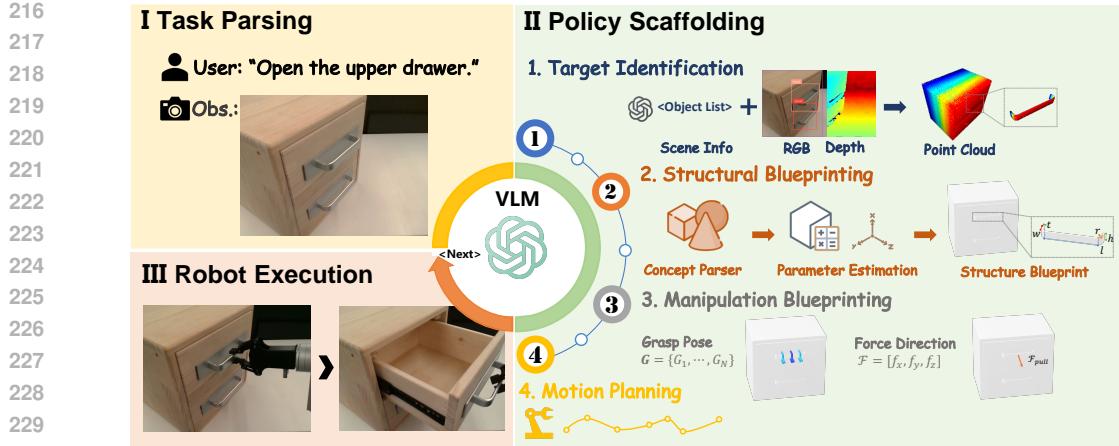


Figure 2: An overview of the proposed method GRACE. (I) **Task Parsing**: A Vision–Language Model (VLM) parses the natural-language instruction based on the current RGB image. (II) **Policy Scaffolding**: The process includes: 1. segmenting the target object from images and back-projecting it to a partial point cloud; 2. parsing the analytic concept and estimating geometric parameters to instantiate the structural blueprint; 3. constructing the manipulation blueprint to produce feasible grasp poses and force directions; 4. generating a joint-space trajectory via a motion-planning module using the blueprints. (III) **Robot Execution**: The trajectory is executed to complete the task.

tion planner for (III) Robot Execution. The EAC acts as the essential missing link that grounds the VLM’s abstract “insight” into a physically precise and executable format.

4.1 SPATIAL-AWARE TASK PARSING

Object Parsing. The Object Parsing step serves as the foundational stage for perception and language grounding. Its objective is to interpret the natural language instruction l within the context of the RGB-D scene images, producing a structured set of task-relevant object entities along with their critical spatial information. This process distills the “what” and “where” from the command, delivering a clean symbolic input for downstream task reasoning and planning.

We implement the parsing through a structured chain-of-thought (CoT) reasoning process with two core steps: (i) The VLM first performs a coarse-to-fine analysis to identify primary objects, extracting noun phrases and their synonymous references grounded in the visual scene layout. (ii) The VLM then assesses object states—particularly for articulated objects—and identifies binary spatial relationships between entities. The final output is a structured graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where \mathcal{V} denotes the set of object nodes—each represented as a structured dictionary containing id, name, and state—and \mathcal{E} constitutes a set of directed spatial relationships between objects, each expressed as a triple $e_{ij} = (v_i, r, v_j)$. This object-centric symbolic graph provides a semantically rich and structurally explicit representation for subsequent reasoning stages.

Task Decomposition. For complex, long-horizon tasks, our approach first decomposes the primary task into a series of stages, each defined by object interaction primitives with associated spatial constraints. Subsequently, a VLM, leveraging object parsing information, is used to decompose the main task instruction l into a series of discrete sub-tasks, represented as l_i , along with a corresponding verification condition c_i , for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. This transforms the instruction l into a sequence of specific sub-tasks and conditions: $\{(l_1, c_1), (l_2, c_2), \dots, (l_n, c_n)\}$. For instance, the high-level task “open the microwave door” could be decomposed into sub-tasks like “grasp the door handle” and “pull open the door,” with verification conditions such as “is the handle grasped?” and “is the door opened?”. Each sub-task then undergoes an execution loop, as depicted in Fig. 2. After the initial execution attempt, the task reasoning program is replaced with a corresponding condition verification program to ensure the successful completion of that sub-task. This structured approach allows for the precise definition of task requirements and facilitates the execution of complex manipulation tasks. See Appendix D for prompts.

270 4.2 POLICY SCAFFOLDING
271272 Policy scaffolding as core first determines the target object or part that needs to be analyzed, and then
273 builds the structural and manipulation blueprint in turn to obtain the executable analysis concept.
274275 4.2.1 TARGET IDENTIFICATION
276277 In the object parsing step, we obtain a structured object graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$. Using the names from
278 \mathcal{V} as object category prompts, we leverage Visual Foundation Models (VFs) to perform open-
279 vocabulary instance segmentation. Specifically, GroundingDINO (Liu et al., 2024) localizes referred
280 objects, and the Segment Anything Model (SAM) (Kirillov et al., 2023) generates fine-grained 2D
281 masks $\mathcal{M} = \{M_i \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$ for all foreground objects relevant to the task. Each 2D mask
282 M_i is then back-projected into 3D using the corresponding depth image, producing a set of object-
283 centric 3D point clouds $\mathcal{P} = \{P_i \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$. These point clouds are associated with the
284 semantic nodes $v_i \in \mathcal{V}$, effectively grounding the symbolic elements of \mathcal{G} into geometrically precise
285 representations.
286287 4.2.2 STRUCTURAL BLUEPRINTING
288289 With the obtained target part’s point cloud \mathcal{P} , we proceed to ground its geometric structure in a
290 formalized representation. We do so by querying a pre-defined library of analytic concepts, which
291 are parameter-driven models that capture common structural archetypes (e.g., primitive geometries,
292 typical handle designs), each paired with a short natural-language synopsis. For example, in the
293 Fig. 1(b), take the concept of ring, which frequently appears in the design of handles, by discovering
294 the ring concept on a handle as an analytic description, we can identify its size (e.g., inner radius
295 and outer radius) and pose, as well as the detailed parameters for the orientation of its hinge. The
296 grounding procedure unfolds in two successive stages. First, we prune the concept library according
297 to the part category detected in the previous step, and prompt the VLM with the synopses of the
298 remaining candidates, asking: “Find the part to interact within <target object> the in order to
299 complete the task <sub-task>, and determine the <concept> of the part.” This query lets the VLM
300 map its high-level semantic perception onto a node in our geometric knowledge graph, thereby fixing
301 the symbolic layout of the structural blueprint.
302303 Next, we must turn that symbolic layout into an executable program by instantiating every node with
304 concrete parameters, estimated directly from the point cloud \mathcal{P} . These parameters are of two types:
305306

- **Structural parameters** encode the concept’s intrinsic geometry of the analytic concept
307 (e.g., the size l, w, h of a sunken door). To estimate them, we encode the point cloud \mathcal{P}
308 into a deep feature vector using an encoder. This feature vector is then fed into multiple
309 specialized MLP heads, each regressing a specific structural parameter.
- **6-DoF pose parameters** locate the concept’s global position and orientation. These are
310 recovered analytically by combining the object’s known simulation pose with the newly
311 estimated structural variables.

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4.2.3 MANIPULATION BLUEPRINTING

313 The structural blueprint tells us *what* the target part is; the manipulation blueprint specifies *how* to
314 interact with it. Affordances of geometric ontologies are encoded as analytic manipulation knowl-
315 edge for grasp poses, pushing contacts, and similar actions, while kinematic ontologies additionally
316 provide force directions that produce motion. All of this knowledge is expressed by mathematical
317 formulas with tunable parameters and offers critical guidance for downstream control.
318319 We begin by presenting the VLM with the natural-language synopses of every candidate manipu-
320 lation function—e.g., “pull-type grasp on curve handle,” “push at door edge.” The VLM chooses
321 the module that best fulfills the high-level goal (“open the microwave door”) and returns its analytic
322 form. In this way, the model’s semantic understanding is mapped directly onto executable actions.
323324 Each selected function defines a category of grasp poses belonging to the same pattern. An exact
325 grasp pose \mathbf{G} is physically grounded by estimating the parameters of such analytic knowledge.
326 Different from the structural parameters which are unique for a specific part, grasp-pose parameters
327 have multiple valid solutions. For optimal door operation, grippers typically interact with the handle
328

324 within its designed graspable range. However, under certain circumstances, the door edge itself also
 325 presents functional affordances that enable operation. With the parameters, a physically grounded
 326 grasp pose \mathbf{G} can be calculated according to the analytic manipulation knowledge and initial grasp
 327 pose \mathbf{G}^* . For example, the equation
 328

$$329 \quad \mathbf{G} = \mathbf{R}(0, 0, \vartheta) \mathbf{T}(0, -R_o, 0) \mathbf{R}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, 0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \mathbf{G}^*, -\frac{\theta_c}{2} \leq \vartheta \leq \frac{\theta_c}{2}$$

$$330$$

331 indicates a function that transforms the initial gripper pose to a grasp pose for the curve handle shown
 332 in Fig. 1(b). Once \mathbf{G} is fixed, the force-direction formula—conditioned by the verb or manipulation
 333 type chosen by the VLM (e.g., *pull* vs. *push*)—is invoked to produce the vector \mathcal{F} , ensuring that
 334 the applied force is semantically aligned with the selected action and correctly oriented on the target
 335 part. Both \mathbf{G} and \mathcal{F} are exported as lightweight Python functions and fed to the physically-grounded
 336 evaluator, closing the loop from language to low-level control.
 337

338 4.3 LOW-LEVEL MOTION EXECUTION

339 **Blueprint Execution.** The instantiated structural and manipulation blueprints jointly output two
 340 quantities in the *local* frame of the target part: a grasp pose $\mathbf{G}_{\text{local}} = (\mathbf{t}_{\text{local}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{local}})$, and a force
 341 direction $\mathcal{F}_{\text{local}}$. Running the blueprint therefore reduces to transforming these local descriptors into
 342 the world frame and then feeding them to a standard motion-planning stack.
 343

344 **Transformation to World Coordinates.** Let $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$ denote the homogeneous transform of
 345 the target part with respect to the world frame, obtained from perception or simulation. For ev-
 346 ery point-set or inequality description F in the blueprint we apply $F((x, y, z, 1)^\top) \leq 0 \implies$
 347 $F(\mathbf{M}^{-1}(x, y, z, 1)^\top) \leq 0$, thereby re-expressing all structural constraints globally. The grasp pose
 348 is mapped by $\mathbf{G}_{\text{world}} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{G}_{\text{local}}$. For rotationally symmetric geometries we additionally enforce a
 349 minimal-rotation constraint on $\mathbf{r}_{\text{local}}$ to obtain a unique orientation. The force vector is transformed
 350 analogously: $\mathcal{F}_{\text{world}} = \mathbf{R}\mathcal{F}_{\text{local}}$, where \mathbf{R} is the rotational part of \mathbf{M} .
 351

352 **Motion Planning and Execution.** The world-frame grasp pose $\mathbf{G}_{\text{world}}$ and force vector $\mathcal{F}_{\text{world}}$ are
 353 forwarded to a low-level planner. The planner first synthesises a collision-free approach path, then
 354 a compliant trajectory to realise the grasp, and finally an interaction phase that applies a wrench
 355 aligned with $\mathcal{F}_{\text{world}}$. The resulting joint-space command sequence is streamed to the robot controller,
 356 closing the pipeline from high-level language to physical motion.
 357

358 5 EXPERIMENTS

359 To comprehensively evaluate the effectiveness and generalization capability of our proposed
 360 GRACE framework, we conduct extensive experiments in both simulated and real-world environ-
 361 ments. This section is organized as follows: We begin with a zero-shot manipulation evaluation in
 362 simulation in Section 5.1. In order to verify the structural understanding of articulated objects by the
 363 process of policy scaffolding, additional interactive experiments are carried out in Section 5.2. We
 364 also carry out the object manipulation experiments with physical robots in real-world environments
 365 to provide a more comprehensive and stronger evaluation in Section 5.3. We provide implementation
 366 details of GRACE in Appendix A.
 367

368 5.1 MANIPULATION EVALUATION IN SIMULATION

369 We select SimplerEnv (Li et al., 2024c) as our simulation platform due to its open-source nature
 370 and its focus on real-world robotic manipulation. It offers a standardized benchmark suite that
 371 emphasizes reproducible results and maintains close alignment with physical hardware constraints
 372 and realistic task conditions. We conduct quantitative evaluations of GRACE’s zero-shot execu-
 373 tion performance on Google Robot tasks & Widow-X tasks and compare it to baselines including
 374 Octo (Ghosh et al., 2024), OpenVLA (Kim et al., 2024) and more concurrent works (Qi et al., 2025;
 375 Qu et al., 2025; Li et al., 2024b).
 376

377 On the four Widow-X tasks (Table 1), GRACE powered by GPT-4o achieves an average success rate
 378 of 86.1%, clearly outperforming the strongest published baseline, SoFar (58.3%). Although it is not
 379 the best on every single task, GRACE never performs poorly, maintaining consistently high scores
 380

378
 379 **Table 1: SimplerEnv simulation evaluation results for the WindowX Robot task.** We report both
 380 the final success rate (“Success”) along with partial success (e.g., “Grasp Spoon”). “FT” denotes
 381 performance of the fine-tuned models.

382 383 384 385 Model	386 Put Spoon 387 on Towel		388 Put Carrot 389 on Plate		390 Stack Green 391 Block on Yellow		392 Put Eggplant 393 in Basket		394 Avg
	395 Grasp Spoon	396 Success	397 Grasp Carrot	398 Success	399 Grasp Block	400 Success	401 Grasp Eggplant	402 Success	
RT-1-X	16.7%	0.0%	20.8%	4.2%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%
Octo-small	77.8%	47.2%	27.8%	9.7%	40.3%	4.2%	87.5%	56.9%	30.0%
OpenVLA	4.1%	0.0%	33.3%	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	8.3%	4.1%	1.0%
RoboVLM	37.5%	20.8%	33.3%	25.0%	8.3%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	13.5%
RoboVLM (FT)	54.2%	29.2%	25.0%	25.0%	45.8%	12.5%	58.3%	58.3%	31.1%
SpatialVLA	25.0%	20.8%	41.7%	20.8%	58.3%	25.0%	79.2%	70.8%	34.4%
SpatialVLA (FT)	20.8%	16.7%	29.2%	25.0%	62.5%	29.2%	100.0%	100.0%	42.7%
SoFar	62.5%	58.3%	75.0%	66.7%	91.7%	70.8%	66.7%	37.5%	58.3%
SpatialVLA-EAC	91.7%	87.5%	79.2%	62.5%	75.0%	50.0%	79.2%	79.2%	69.8%
GRACE(Qwen2.5-VL)	83.3%	83.3%	79.2%	79.2%	87.5%	83.3%	91.7%	91.7%	84.4%
GRACE(GPT-4o)	83.3%	83.3%	79.2%	79.2%	87.5%	87.5%	95.8%	95.8%	86.1%

396
 397 **Table 2: SimplerEnv simulation evaluation results for the Google Robot setup.** We present
 398 success rates for the “Variant Aggregation” and “Visual Matching” approaches. “FT” denotes per-
 399 formance of the fine-tuned models.

400 401 402 403 Model	404 Variant Aggregation			405 Visual Matching			406 Avg
	407 Pick Coke Can	408 Move Near	409 Open/Close Drawer	410 Pick Coke Can	411 Move Near	412 Open/Close Drawer	
RT-1-X	49.0%	32.3%	29.4%	56.7%	31.7%	59.7%	43.1%
Octo-Base	0.6%	3.1%	1.1%	17.0%	4.2%	22.7%	8.11%
OpenVLA	54.5%	47.7%	17.7%	16.3%	46.2%	35.6%	36.3%
RoboVLM	68.3%	56.0%	8.5%	72.7%	66.3%	26.8%	49.8%
RoboVLM(FT)	75.6%	60.0%	10.6%	77.3%	61.7%	43.5%	54.8%
SpatialVLA	89.5%	71.7%	36.2%	81.0%	69.6%	59.3%	67.9%
SpatialVLA(FT)	88.0%	72.7%	41.8%	86.0%	77.9%	57.4%	70.6%
SoFar	90.7%	74.0%	29.7%	92.3%	91.7%	40.3%	69.6%
SpatialVLA-EAC	88.9%	77.9%	83.3%	86.1%	79.2%	85.4%	83.4%
GRACE(Qwen2.5-VL)	90.3%	87.5%	88.9%	91.7%	88.9%	84.7%	88.7%
GRACE(GPT-4o)	91.7%	87.5%	90.3%	90.3%	91.7%	88.9%	90.1%

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 415 across the entire suite. The pattern repeats on the Google-robot tasks (Table 2): GRACE(GPT-4o)
 416 attains 89.8% mean success, exceeding the best prior result by almost 30 pp. Notably, on the articu-
 417 lated Open/Close Drawer task the jump is the largest, rising from 29.7% (SoFar) and 36.2% (Spa-
 418 tialVLA) to 90.3% with GRACE for “Variant Aggregation”, highlighting the advantage of EACs
 419 when precise kinematic reasoning is required.

420 To isolate the contribution of analytic concepts, we retrofit SpatialVLA by replacing its native, end-
 421 to-end action output with EAC-guided motion planning when the gripper approaches the target; this
 422 variant is denoted *SpatialVLA-EAC*. The simple swap boosts SpatialVLA’s average success to 69.8%
 423 on Widow-X and to 83.4% on the Google robot, demonstrating that EACs can be used as a plug-and-
 424 play module to substantially enhance existing VLA architectures. Finally, GRACE’s performance is
 425 insensitive to the underlying VLM. The fully open-source Qwen2.5-VL backend trails GPT-4o by
 426 only 1–2 pp on both robot families, yet still outperforms every external baseline, confirming that the
 427 bulk of the gain comes from the analytic-concept layer rather than the choice of language model.

428 5.2 MANIPULATION EXPERIMENT OF ARTICULATED OBJECTS

429 To focus on articulated objects manipulation, we evaluate the GRACE through the success rate
 430 of interaction on the proposed task, i.e., changing an articulated object from its initial state to

432 a target final state. The success rate can reveal the quality of articulated concept discovery, in-
 433 cluding ontology discovery and affordance grounding. All experiments are carried out in SAPIEN
 434 under the standard Where2Act (Mo et al., 2021) settings (Appendix B for detail). We compare
 435 our method against three baselines, i.e., Where2Act, Where2Explore (Ning et al.) and Mani-
 436 pLLM (Li et al., 2024a), each representative of a distinct modelling paradigm for articulated-object
 437 manipulation. To isolate the contribution of VLM reasoning, we also report an ablated variant,
 438 GRACE-w/o-VLM, in which the concept-selection step is replaced by ground-truth ontology labels.
 439

440 Table 3 demonstrates that GRACE(GPT-4o) achieves the highest scores across all cat-
 441 egories. For instance, it attains 0.65 for “faucet” objects and 0.91 on “cabinet” doors, significantly outperforming ManipLLM, which scores 0.26 and 0.71, respectively. These re-
 442 sults decisively surpass both pixel-level af-
 443 fordance methods and the LLM-based Mani-
 444 pLLM. The substantial numerical margins un-
 445 derscore the advantage of integrating VLM-
 446 based reasoning with analytically grounded
 447 control. Replacing the oracle concept label
 448 with GPT-4o’s automatic selection reduces per-
 449 formance only slightly—from an average of 0.80 to 0.77, a drop of roughly three percentage points.
 450 The small gap indicates that the few remaining failures are due primarily to occasional VLM mis-
 451 classification rather than limitations of the analytic concepts themselves; once the correct concept is
 452 chosen, execution is highly reliable.
 453

454 5.3 OBJECT MANIPULATION EVALUATION IN REAL-WORLD

460 We conducted experiments in a real-world
 461 tabletop environment using a Realman RM75
 462 robotic arm equipped with a parallel gripper.
 463 Detailed visualizations of the environment and
 464 additional robot setup specifications are pro-
 465 vided in Appendix B. For qualitative analysis,
 466 we first visualize the outputs and success rate of
 467 our approach for four different objects in Fig. 3,
 468 demonstrating the promising zero-shot manipu-
 469 lation capability of EAC for physics-grounded
 470 planning. Experimental results indicate that the
 471 VLM only needs to identify the target part of
 472 an object and construct its EAC representation
 473 to enable the robot to successfully complete the
 474 task. To further thoroughly assess the general-
 475 ization ability of GRACE, we designed a long-
 476 horizon manipulation task involving six diverse objects. Preliminary observations suggest that
 477 GRACE maintains robust task reasoning capabilities even as task complexity increases. The overall
 478 performance in this long-horizon task is presented in the supplementary video.

479 6 CONCLUSION

481 We have introduced GRACE, a plug-and-play framework that grounds visual observations with a
 482 VLM, reasons over Executable Analytic Concepts, and converts the result into precise robot ac-
 483 tions. Extensive experiments on simulation and real world demonstrate marked gains in zero-shot
 484 success rates, particularly on kinematically challenging tasks. In future work we plan to extend ana-
 485 lytic concepts to multi-fingered hands and to explore on-the-fly concept refinement from real-world
 486 interaction data.

Table 3: Comparison of performance on different objects (icons represent object categories).

Objects						
Where2Act	0.14	0.68	0.27	0.23	0.15	0.15
UMPNet	0.44	0.54	0.28	0.54	0.28	0.25
ManipLLM	0.65	0.71	0.77	0.43	0.65	0.26
w/o-VLM	0.85	0.91	0.90	0.70	0.78	0.65
(GPT-4o)	0.84	0.85	0.88	0.70	0.72	0.60

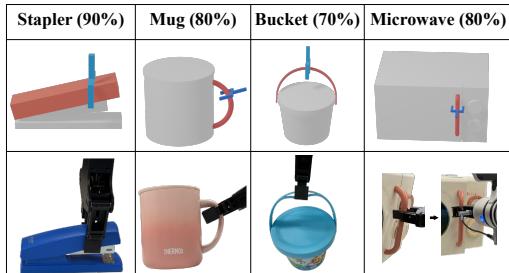


Figure 3: Visualize the results of grasping objects and their corresponding EAC. The red parts in the second column indicate the target part.

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702 A IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS OF METHOD
703

704 **Segmentation.** We use Grounded-SAM (Ren et al., 2024) consisting of two major components,
705 Grounding-Dino (Liu et al., 2024) and SAM (Kirillov et al., 2023). We keep SAM frozen and fine-
706 tune Grounding-Dino with RGB images with ground-truth bounding boxes of the actionable objects
707 or parts, along with natural language prompt that describes the actionable objects or parts provided
708 by VLM.

710 **Parameter Estimation.** The encoder is a Point-Transformer that extracts 128 groups of points
711 with size 32 from the input with 2048 points and has 12 6-headed attention layers. The subsequent
712 MLP has three layers with ReLU activation and outputs the structural parameters. The network is
713 trained with L2 loss between the estimated and ground-truth structural parameters. Throughout the
714 operation of the GRACE framework, the model parameters remain fixed. To construct the training
715 dataset for our models, we first create analytic concept annotations for real-world objects. Specifi-
716 cally, we label the concept parameters of the training objects from PartNet-Mobility. Each object is
717 then imported into the SAPIEN simulator, where a virtual camera captures RGB images and depth
718 maps. Using the object’s URDF file together with our analytic annotations, we can automatically
719 generate ground-truth data—including bounding boxes, point clouds and structural parameters for
720 every actionable part. Additionally, we leverage the FoundationPose (Wen et al., 2024) model for
721 6D object pose estimation.

722 B EXPERIMENTAL SETUP
723

724 **Articulated Objects Manipulation Setup** All evaluations are carried out in the SAPIEN [33]
725 physics simulator. At the start of each manipulation episode, the target object is placed at the scene
726 origin. Its articulated joint is initialized randomly: there is a 50 % chance of starting in the fully
727 closed configuration and a 50 % chance of starting in a random open configuration. An RGB-D
728 camera with known intrinsics is aimed at the scene centre from a point sampled on the upper hemi-
729 sphere, with azimuth uniformly drawn from $[0^\circ, 360^\circ]$ and elevation from $[30^\circ, 60^\circ]$. Interaction is
730 performed with a two-finger “flying” Franka Panda gripper. We restrict the controller to two primitive
731 actions: pushing and pulling. A flying Franka-Panda gripper serves as the agent, and perception
732 is obtained from a single RGB-D camera placed five units from the object centre.

733 **Real World Robot Setups** We detail our
734 hardware setup in Figure 4, which centers on a
735 Realman RM75 Arm. For perception, we inte-
736 grate a single RGB-D camera (Intel RealSense
737 D435) mounted on the end-effector. The sys-
738 tem is powered by a workstation equipped with
739 an Intel Core i9-14900K processor, 64GB of
740 RAM, and an NVIDIA RTX 4090 GPU, ensur-
741 ing real-time inference and planning.

743 **Long-horizon Task** We design a long-
744 horizon task to validate the capabilities of our
745 framework. All the objects being manipulated
746 are not seen by the model. The task instruction
747 is: *tidy up the table and open the microwave*.
748 The overall performance in this long-horizon
749 task is presented in the supplementary video.

750 C SYSTEM ERROR BREAKDOWN
751

753 The primary sources of failure in our system are pose estimation and inverse kinematics (IK). Our
754 analysis indicates that employing multi-view images for 3D object reconstruction significantly en-
755 hances the success rate of pose estimation. It is also recommended to use high-resolution cameras
to further improve estimation accuracy. Although structural parameter estimation introduces some



756 Figure 4: Hardware Configuration.

756 error, its impact on the overall success rate is relatively minor. In contrast, the VFM-based object
 757 grounding module, alongside the VLM-based task parsing and concept construction, demonstrates
 758 high stability and contributes negligibly to system failures.
 759

760 D PROMPTS FOR TASK PARSING

```
763 Task_Parsing_PROMPT_TEMPLATE_1 = """
764 **Role:** You are an expert robotic task planner. Your job is to analyze
765 a visual scene image and break down a high-level manipulation command
766 into a sequence of low-level, executable actions for a robot arm
767 equipped with a gripper.
768 **Task:** {task}
769 **Example:** Task: "Pour the water from the blue cup into the red mug."
770 **Scene Image Context:**  

  the given image
771 **Robot Capabilities:**  

  - The robot has a single arm with a parallel-jaw gripper.
  - It can perform primitives: grasp(object_name), lift(height), pour(
    into_object_name), place_on(object_name), release(), push(object_name
  ), pull(object_name).
  - It cannot perform actions requiring complex dexterity (e.g., tying
    knots, unscrewing tight lids).
  - It must avoid collisions with all objects not involved in the task.
772
773 **Output Instructions:**  

  1. **Reasoning:** First, reason step-by-step. Identify the key objects
    involved and their properties. The final output is a structured
    object graph  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  denotes the list of object nodes,
    each represented as a structured dictionary containing id, name, and
    state, and  $E$  constitutes a list of directed spatial relationships
    between objects, each expressed as a triple  $e = (v_i, r, v_j)$ .
  2. **Plan:** Based on your reasoning, generate a sequence of action
    commands. The sequence must be logical, safe, and efficient. Each
    action instruction must include a validation condition that can be
    understood, such as verifying the target object is successfully
    grasped.
  3. **Final Output:** Provide **only** a valid JSON array as the final
    output. Do not add any other text. The JSON must follow this schema:
774
  json
  {{  

    "task": "original_task_description",
    "objects_graph_V": "structured object list",
    "objects_graph_E": "structured object spatial relationships list",
    "action_instruction_sequence": [
      {"id": 1, "action": "action_name", "parameter": "
        target_object_or_value", "success": "validation_condition"},  

      {"id": 2, "action": "action_name", "parameter": "
        target_object_or_value", "success": "validation_condition"}  

    ]
  }}  

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  **Now, analyze the provided scene image and complete the task.**  

  """
Task_Parsing_PROMPT_TEMPLATE_2 = """
**Role:** You are a robotic task completion verifier. Your job is to
analyze whether a manipulation task has been successfully completed
by comparing the current scene state with the expected goal state.
**Original Task:** "{Origin_Task_Description}"
**Expected Goal State Description:**  

{Validation_Condition}
```

```

810
811 **Scene Image Context:**  

812 the given image  

813  

814 **Final Output:**  

815 Provide **only** a valid JSON array as the final output. Do not add any  

816 other text. The JSON must follow this schema:  

817 json  

818   {  

819     "task_completed": boolean,  

820     "error_message": string  

821   }  

822 """
823

```

E STATEMENT ON LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL USAGE

This paper employed Large Language Models to assist in the writing process. The LLM was used exclusively for the purpose of language polishing, which included:

- Correcting grammatical errors.
- Improving sentence fluency and readability.
- Refining word choice for better academic tone.

The LLM was **not** used for generating original ideas, formulating research hypotheses, conducting data analysis, or interpreting results. All intellectual content and scholarly contributions are solely those of the authors. The authors have thoroughly reviewed, revised, and take complete responsibility for the entire content of this manuscript.

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```