

Physically Consistent Humanoid Loco-Manipulation using Latent Diffusion Models

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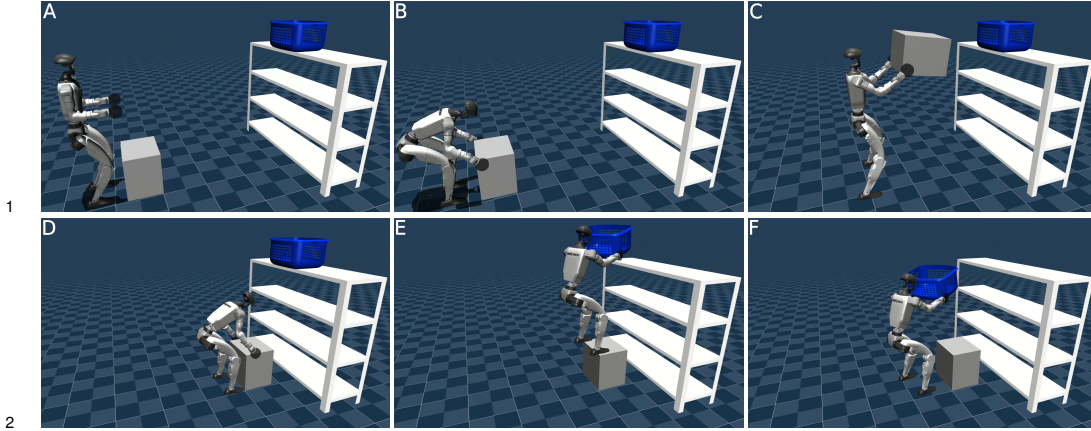


Figure 1: A long-horizon loco-manipulation task generated with our proposed method; the robot moves a box to enable reaching for a laundry basket.

Abstract: This paper uses the capabilities of latent diffusion models (LDMs) to generate realistic RGB human-object interaction scenes to guide humanoid loco-manipulation planning. To do so, we extract from the generated images both the contact locations and robot configurations that are then used inside a whole-body trajectory optimization (TO) formulation to generate physically consistent trajectories for humanoids. We validate our full pipeline in simulation for different long-horizon loco-manipulation scenarios and perform an extensive analysis of the proposed contact and robot configuration extraction pipeline. Our results show that using the information extracted from LDMs, we can generate physically consistent trajectories that require long-horizon reasoning.

Keywords: Contact Planning, Humanoids, Generative Models

1 Introduction

It has been long argued that humanoids are the best platform to replace humans in repetitive and dangerous tasks, because of the similarities in their morphologies. However, the complexity of these platforms poses significant challenges that have hindered the progress and we still do not see humanoid robots reliably doing real-world tasks. In particular, humanoids are high-dimensional systems with highly unstable dynamics (compared to wheeled and four-legged robots) which renders their planning problem highly challenging. Furthermore, performing any reasonable loco-manipulation task requires a long-horizon reasoning procedure and none of the existing methods can scale to such problems. The similarity between the human and humanoid morphologies can come to rescue in such a case, as the robot can imitate the behavior of humans doing the same task. Thanks to the recent advances in generative models, it is nowadays possible to generate a desired

human behavior from text prompts. While the outputs of these models do not respect the geometrical and physical constraints of the real world, they can guide the existing optimization frameworks to find physically consistent motions quickly.

In this paper, we develop a framework to rapidly synthesize plausible 3D human-object interaction scenes using latent diffusion models (LDMs) [1] for 2D image generation, without the need for ad hoc heuristics or 3D richly annotated data, and use the retargeted motion inside a whole-body trajectory optimization (TO) formulation to generate physically consistent motions to achieve complex long-horizon tasks.

The main contributions of this work are as follows:

- We introduce, to the best of our knowledge, the first pipeline that plans both contacts and robot configurations for humanoid loco-manipulation using LDMs.
- We integrate our proposed robot configuration and contact planner within a whole-body TO formulation to generate physically consistent trajectories.
- We validate our approach in simulation on two challenging long-horizon scenarios, and perform an extensive analysis with various baselines.

2 Related work

Classical approaches for planning and control of loco-manipulation for humanoids consider the effect of manipulated objects on the locomotion system as a disturbance [2, 3, 4, 5]. However, for general loco-manipulation problems, concurrent consideration of both locomotion and manipulation is essential. To reduce the complexity of the holistic loco-manipulation planning, more advanced approaches relied on splitting the system into simpler coupled dynamical systems [6], using heuristics to separate zones in which locomotion or loco-manipulation or manipulation occurs [7], splitting the object path planning and locomotion planning problems [8], or using a predefined contact sequence [9]. [10] used a hierarchy of optimal controllers to perform loco-manipulation automatically, augmenting the locomotion problem with logic predicates for manipulation [11]. However, they demonstrated only quadrupedal loco-manipulation with single arm, which is simpler than a humanoid with two arms.

There have been recent efforts on the use of Deep Reinforcement Learning (DRL) for loco-manipulation tasks in the real world [12, 13, 14, 15]. However, these approaches are limited to very simple manipulation tasks with a quadruped and cannot reason about the complex, long-horizon humanoid loco-manipulation tasks.

Recent advances in imitation learning have shown promise in generating loco-manipulation policies from teleoperation demonstrations [16, 17]. However, generating teleoperated demonstrations for humanoid robots is extremely difficult compared to other manipulation settings [18], as the system is highly unstable and can easily fall down. [19] used TO to generate demonstrations that are then imitated using DRL. However, TO is a local approach and would fail to generate long-horizon trajectories that require reasoning.

3 Method

In this section, we present our approach to plan contacts and robot configurations to guide a TO procedure for arbitrarily long-horizon humanoid loco-manipulation tasks. Our approach does not rely on task-specific heuristics or 3D interaction datasets. Instead, we propose a pipeline that introduces an optimization-based approach that leverages LDMs to generate realistic human-object interaction 2D scenes, given a high-level description of the desired interactions. These 2D RGB scenes are used to extract the contact locations and robot configurations that are later used by TO (Section 4). The pipeline overview is illustrated in Fig. 2.

3.1 Planning Contacts & Robot Configurations

The planner receives high-level instructions P (that can come from a language model) and RGB-D images of the objects in the scene as input. The high-level plan consists of ordered sequences of text prompts describing how to break down the long-horizon task. For tasks involving placement, we assume to receive the target 3D location and yaw of the object. The RGB-D images consist of the RGB frames R_s and respective depth images D_s of the objects to be manipulated. The output of the planner is the sequence of 3D contact locations L and associated robot configurations C . The planning process consists of three main steps, which are detailed in the sections below.

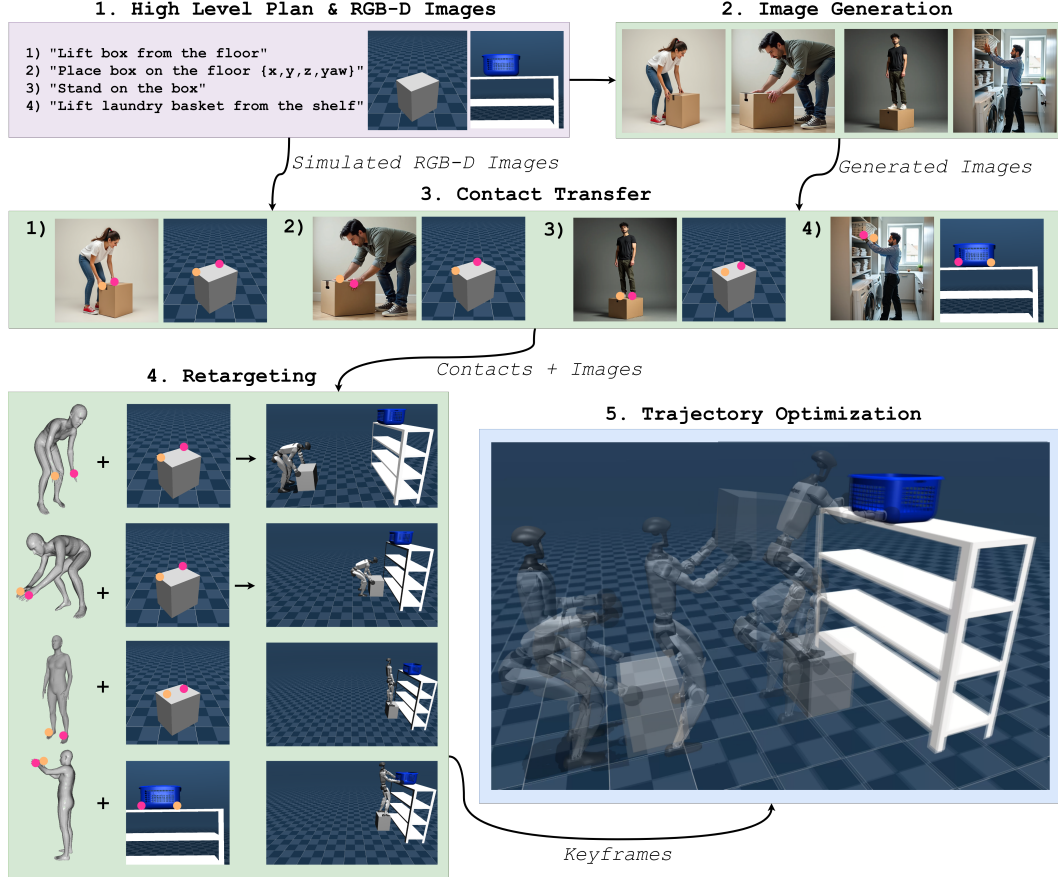


Figure 2: Pipeline overview.

3.1.1 Image Generation

Given P , we use a state-of-the-art latent diffusion model (LDM) [20] to generate a collection of images R_g demonstrating how to accomplish the long-horizon task. The instructions consist of an ordered sequence of short text prompts describing very minimally the expected interaction with the objects in the scene, as shown in Fig. 2. Using directly these prompts leads to images that do not depict a full-body person, which is essential for our pipeline. In fact, to extract the contact locations of the hand and feet, and the respective robot configuration the vast majority of the human body has to be visible in the generated image. Therefore, we automatically append a static set of words to the task prompts to generate a full-body person. The additional words are mainly a general description of the person’s hair color and clothing style, which forces the LDM to generate the correct interaction but also a full-body. Given an instruction, we modify it in the following way:

”A scene of a person {*predicate*}+ing {*subtask prompt without predicate*}. The person has dark hair and is wearing casual clothes such a shirt, jeans, and sneakers.”

91 where $\{\textit{predicate}\}$ is the verb describing the task’s action and is always the first word in the task
 92 prompt, while $\{\textit{task prompt without predicate}\}$ is what remains of the prompt after removing
 93 the predicate and it mainly describes the object to which the action applies and its position in the
 94 environment. The generated images are then fed to the contact transfer (Sec. 3.1.2) and retargeting
 95 (Sec. 3.1.3) modules.

96 3.1.2 Contact Transfer

97 The contact transfer stage extracts and maps the 2D contact information from the images in R_g to
 98 the corresponding 3D contact locations in the scene to manipulate the object of interest for the task.
 99 To achieve this we use a three-step approach as shown in Fig. 3.

100 First, we compute the 2D semantic masks of the objects in R_g and R_s . To do so, we use a Vision
 101 Language Model (VLM) [21] to perform open vocabulary object detection that returns the bounding
 102 box coordinates enclosing the objects. However, the obtained bounding box is not tight enough for
 103 the point cloud extraction later. Hence, we apply a visual segmentation foundation model [22] that
 104 further refines the VLM output and returns a per-pixel segmentation of the objects.

105 Second, using the objects’ masks and the depth information we proceed to compute the objects’
 106 point clouds by performing a 2D to 3D lifting procedure. For the simulated images R_s we have
 107 the ground truth depth D_s from the simulated RGB-D camera in the MuJoCo [23] simulator and its
 108 correct camera intrinsic parameters. However, for R_g we are missing both its depth estimate and
 109 correct camera intrinsics. This is because LDMs only output RGB images and do not adhere to a
 110 specific camera model during the image generation. Therefore, to estimate each generated image
 111 depth we leverage a zero-shot metric depth geometric foundation model [24] to obtain the estimated
 112 metric depth D_g . The missing camera intrinsics are computed using an empirical trial and error
 113 approach where we found that using the LDMs’ image resolution as the focal lengths and half the
 114 focal lengths for the principal point offsets leads to a reasonable point cloud geometry, without
 115 too much distortion. Finally, we also apply a noise removal process to the point clouds to remove
 116 outliers.

117 Third, we use a sampling-based optimization approach that combines the semantic scores from a
 118 semantic-aware foundation model and the object geometries to transfer the 2D contact locations
 119 from R_g to the 3D world. The task of finding correct semantic correspondences across images
 120 is a challenging one, and especially so in our case. This is mainly due to the fact that during
 121 the image generation process, we have limited control over the generated object properties, such
 122 as viewpoint, shape, and texture, leading to significant intra-class variation between the generated
 123 and the simulated objects. To solve the semantic correspondence problem, we use a semantic-
 124 aware foundation model [25] to obtain semantic matches between the images. However, depending
 125 exclusively on the model is not reliable, as the intra-class variation can be large leading to incorrect
 126 mappings that deteriorate the output trajectory (Sec. 5.2). Therefore, we propose a sampling-based
 127 algorithm that refines the correspondences from the semantic-aware model using the objects’ point
 128 cloud geometries. The underlying idea is that correct semantic matches should result in a good
 129 geometrical overlap between the objects’ point clouds. Hence, we generate a semantic score pool
 130 for some sampled 2D points on the objects’ masks found in R_g , such that for each sampled point we
 131 obtain the top N most plausible correspondences in the respective objects’ masks found in R_s from
 132 the model. To find the set of semantic matches that best aligns the objects’ geometries, we formulate
 133 a sampling-based algorithm that searches randomly within the semantic pool. More precisely, given
 134 the sampled semantic correspondences we compute the respective 3D correspondences and solve for
 135 the rigid-body transform with the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) algorithm. The transform
 136 is then further refined with the Iterative Closest Point (ICP) algorithm. We repeat this process for
 137 10 iterations and pick the rigid-body transform that obtained the highest overlapping score between
 138 the objects’ point clouds. In practice, we found that within 3 iterations the best transform is already
 139 found. Finally, we compute the 3D contact locations L by applying the transform to the 3D lifted
 140 hand and feet 2D locations obtained by running a human pose estimator [26] on the images in R_g .

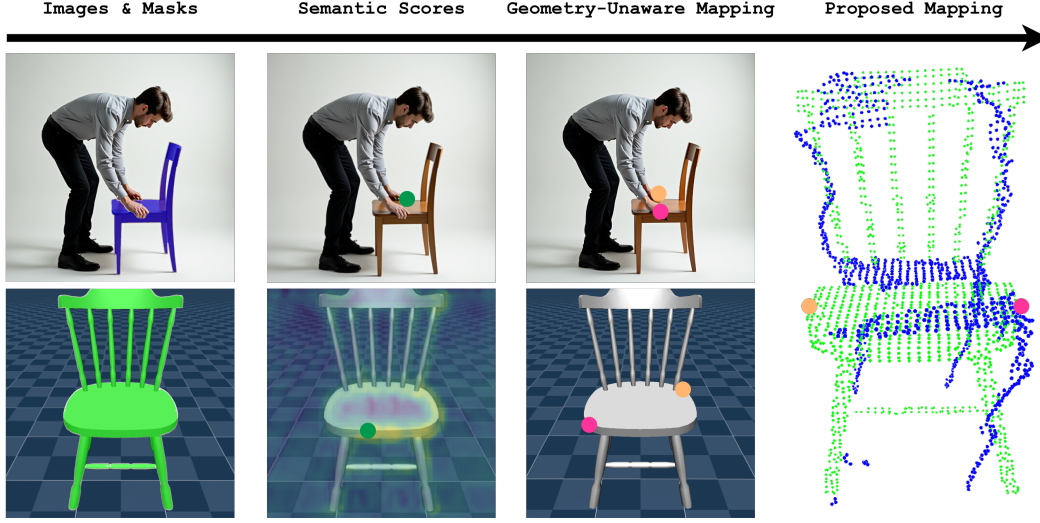


Figure 3: Contact extraction procedure.

To avoid penetrations between the real object and L , we apply a simple heuristic to L to make sure these are projected to the closest object’s surface.

3.1.3 Retargeting

In the retargeting stage, we use the depicted humans in R_g and L to obtain the robot configuration R . R consists of a 35D vector describing the robot’s 6D base state and joint angles for each actuated joint of the system. Extracting this configuration is an important step in our proposed pipeline, as this complementary information to the contacts guides the TO to a better local minima. However, we can’t map directly the human configuration to the robot, due to differences in the number of degrees of freedom, limb length, and height. Therefore, we formulate an Inverse Kinematics (IK) based retargeting process that remaps the extracted human configurations from the generated images to a kinematically feasible robot configuration. Figure 4 shows an outline of the retargeting process.

First, we extract the human configuration we wish to remap, that consists of the human’s joint angles, foot positions, and base orientation. To do so, we use WHAM [26] a 3D human pose estimation module that returns the 3D joint positions and the joint orientations given a 2D image depicting a human body. For the joint orientations, as our humanoid has a subset of the degrees of freedom obtained from WHAM, we follow a similar approach to [27], where we only consider the human’s joints that have a corresponding match on the robot. The foot positions are extracted from the 3D body model by computing the relative distance between the human’s pelvis and the left and right ankles, however we only consider the planar coordinates as the foot height is set based on the task. The base orientation is obtained by first applying the rigid body transformation, computed during the contact transfer stage (Sec. 3.1.2), to the 3D body model and then computing the relative orientation between the human’s pelvis and the simulated object of which we know the full state. Finally, we apply the IK retargeting which uses as constraints the hand and feet contact locations, and feet pitch angle. The joint angles only act as a regularization term to guide the IK output towards a human-like configuration.

4 Trajectory Optimization

In this section, we outline our TO formulation and how the extracted contact locations and robot configurations are used within the formulation. We use the centroidal dynamics coupled with whole-body kinematics formulation similar to [28].

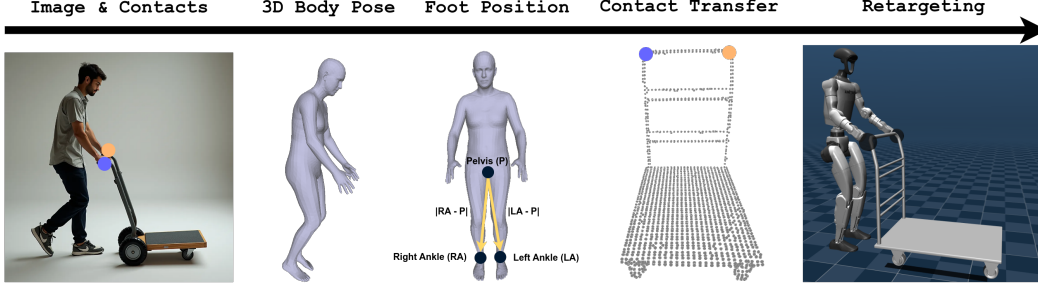


Figure 4: Keyframe extraction procedure.

170 4.1 Task-generic Cost

171 To avoid task-specific tuning, the stagewise cost L_{stage} is designed to regularize the robot locomotion
 172 with minimum heuristics:

$$L_{\text{stage}} := b_{\text{st}}L_{\text{st}} + (1 - b_{\text{st}})L_{\text{wk}} + L_{\text{reg}} + L_{\text{slack}}, \quad (1)$$

173 where b_{st} is the Boolean flag indicating whether the robot is in a stance phase, L_{st} , L_{wk} are respec-
 174 tively the cost of stance and walking phases, L_{reg} is the common regularization term, and L_{slack} is the
 175 penalty of the slack variables used for constraints. All costs are in quadratic form $w\|\cdot\|_2^2$, where
 176 w is the weight.

177 4.2 Keyframe Cost

178 The full configuration of the robot and the contact locations generated from the planning module
 179 constitute a *keyframe*, which provides waypoints for a long-horizon loco-manipulation task. We add
 180 the following cost term for the keyframe robot pose:

$$L_{\text{kf}}^{\text{b}} := W_{\text{kf}}^{\text{b}}[(r_{\text{base},z} - r_{\text{base},z}^{\text{kf}})^2, \|\Theta - \Theta^{\text{kf}}\|_2^2]^{\top}, \quad (2)$$

181 where $W_{\text{kf}}^{\text{b}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 2}$ is the cost weight for which we used $[100, 10]$ in this paper. $(\cdot)^{\text{kf}}$ denotes the
 182 corresponding value at a certain keyframe, $r_{\text{base},z}$ is the z component of the robot base, and Θ is
 183 the aforementioned base orientation. The keyframes also indicate the desired relative foot position
 184 w.r.t. the object, which can then be used to compute a global position reference $\mathbf{r}_f^{\text{des}}$. It is added as
 185 an additional term to the corresponding stance phase cost L_{st} :

$$L_{\text{kf}}^{\text{f}} := W_{\text{kf}}^{\text{f}}\|(r_{lf,xy} + r_{rf,xy})/2 - \mathbf{r}_f^{\text{des}}\|_2^2, \quad (3)$$

186 where W_{kf}^{f} is the keyframe foot position weight for which we used 5e2 in this paper.

187 The overall TO problem can be formulated as

$$\begin{aligned} \min. \quad & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^N [L_{\text{stage}}^i + L_{\text{col}}^i] + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{K}} L_{\text{kf}}^{\text{b},j} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \text{Dynamics, Contacts, Collision.} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

188 5 Experiments

189 In this section, we present the results of applying our proposed pipeline for two different scenarios,
 190 each involving a long-horizon task. The first scenario (S1) consists of fetching a laundry basket
 191 placed on top of a shelf. As the basket is not easily reachable, the robot needs to move a box
 192 close to the shelf and step on top of it to be able to reach the basket. The second scenario (S2)
 193 consists of moving a box placed on top of a table using a trolley and then pushing the trolley.
 194 We used the MuJoCo simulation environment [23] and the Unitree G1 humanoid robot for all the

195 visualization and comparisons. For both scenarios the pipeline took several minutes, with the main
196 bottlenecks being the image generation, the semantic-aware foundation model inference, and the
197 trajectory optimization. This currently hinders real-time capabilities.

198 First, we demonstrate the promise of our framework in generating physically plausible trajectories
199 for both scenarios. We also compare our results to a TO baseline that is guided only through contacts
200 from a semantic-aware foundation model. Note that without providing such information, it was
201 impossible for TO to solve the tasks, as both tasks require long-horizon reasoning that is unfeasible
202 to do with local TO.

203 Second, we perform an ablation study on our proposed contact extraction process (Sec. 3.1.2), where
204 we compare a geometry-unaware contact transfer and our method to see how much our proposed
205 contact refinement improves the resulting trajectories.

206 Third, we carry out an ablation study on the effect of each component of the keyframe information
207 (Sec. 3.1.3) on the TO output. We refer the reader to the supplementary video for the additional
208 qualitative results.

209 5.1 Physically Plausible Trajectories

210 We compare the output of the TO results (Sec. 4) when using the output of our proposed planning
211 pipeline (Sec. 3.1) and a naive approach. Our pipeline feeds both the refined contact information
212 and the respective robot configuration extracted from LDMs to TO. The naive approach only gives
213 the contact locations obtained directly from the semantic-aware foundation model to the TO. In both
214 cases, we use a minimal set of collision penalties constraints.

215 Figure 5 presents the total amount of negative collision penetrations at each timestep of the trajec-
216 tory from MuJoCo, while enabling collision penalties for both scenarios. Our proposed pipeline
217 maintains a collision-free behavior throughout the whole trajectory, while a naive approach experi-
218 ences significant negative penetrations during the whole trajectory. One might argue that all possible
219 collision constraints could be enabled in the TO to obtain a collision-free motion. However, in such
220 a case TO fails to solve the task and gets stuck in a local minima.

221 5.2 Geometry Improves Contact Transfer

222 We present a comparison between the trajectory outputs when using our proposed contact transfer
223 (Sec. 3.1.2) and a geometry-unaware contact extraction process. Our contact extraction approach
224 uses semantic and geometry cues from a semantic-aware foundation model and the objects’ point
225 clouds to refine incorrect semantic matches. On the other hand, the geometry-unaware contacts
226 directly use the output of the model without any correction. Our metric for the comparison is the
227 amount of collision penetration, both in terms of self-collisions and robot-object collisions. To study
228 the effect of the contact extraction in isolation, we disable all collision penalties in the TO problem
229 and use the same extracted robot configuration (Sec. 3.1.3) in both approaches.

230 Figure 5 shows the result of the ablation study for scenarios S1 and S2. For both S1 and S2, we
231 clearly see that a geometry-unaware contact transfer leads to a higher number of negative collisions,
232 and therefore a higher amount of negative penetration during the trajectory. While with our ap-
233 proach, there still exists some negative penetrations but these are substantially less for both scenarios
234 and can be prevented with a minimal set of collisions (Sec. 5.1). However, to obtain a collision-free
235 motion, a geometric-unaware approach would require significantly more collision constraints which
236 makes the problem extremely non-convex with many local minima. Local TO in such cases gets
237 stuck in local minima and is unable to solve the task.

238 5.3 Keyframes Reduce Penetration

239 In this section, we conduct ablation studies between the keyframe-guided TO and the TO without
240 keyframes (we call this baseline NoKeyframe). Note that in this case, we use the refined contact

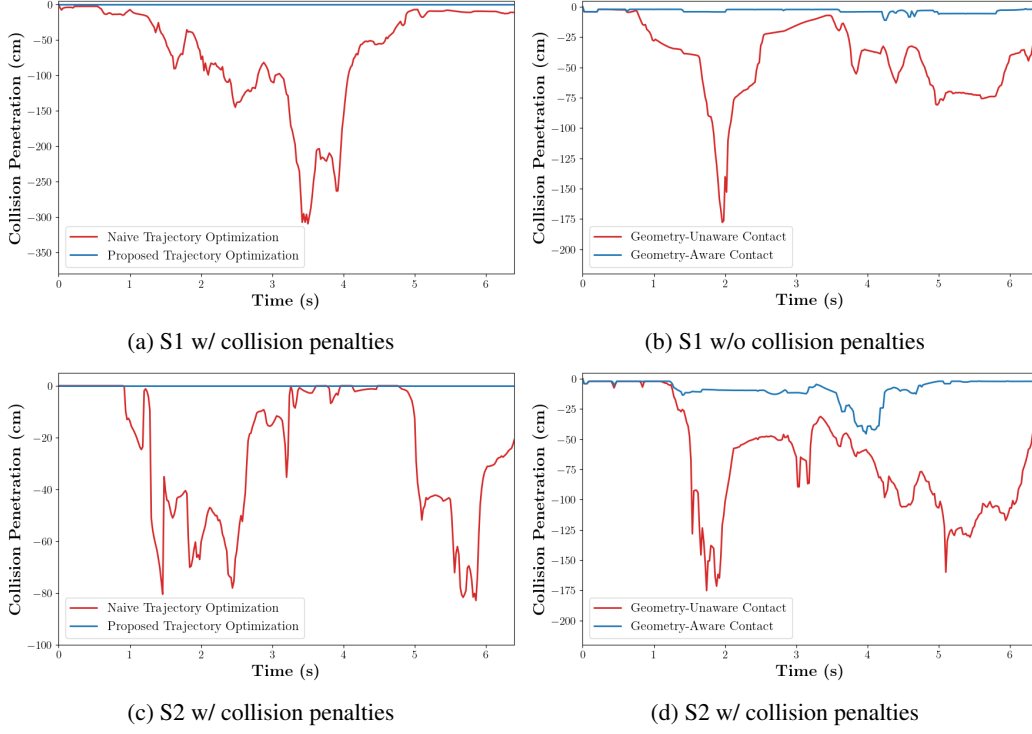


Figure 5: Collision penetrations comparison between the TO output using our proposed pipeline (blue) and a naive approach (red) for both the laundry scenario (S1) and the trolley scenario (S2) with and without collision penalties enabled.

information (Sec. 3.1.2) in all problems and the focus is to quantify the effect of the different components of the keyframe. To do that, we formulate various settings with different combinations of keyframe utilization. This includes the keyframe base cost in (2), the keyframe foot position cost as in (3), and the subtask-like warm start in Sec. 4.2. All formulations are provided with the same contact sequences and the same set of collision constraints as in Sec. 5.1.

5.3.1 S1 (Basket retrieval)

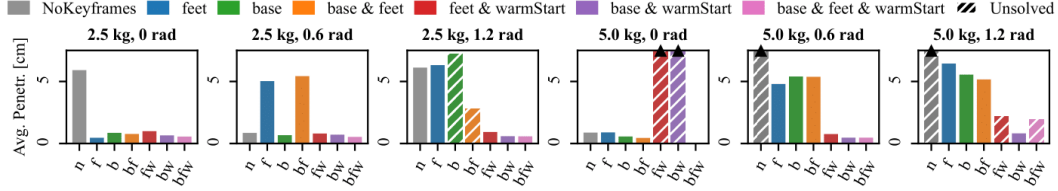
Three keyframes are used in this experiment: picking up the box, placing the box, and grabbing the basket while standing on the box. We also varied in the experiment the box mass in the range $\{2.5, 5.0\}$ kg, and the initial robot yaw angle ϕ in the range $\{0, 0.6, 1.2\}$ rad. We have observed in our experiments that these two parameters have a large impact on the performance of TO. We added only a minimal set of collision constraints as defined in Sec. 5.1 for S1. The results are shown in Fig. 6a.

5.3.2 S2 (Trolley pushing)

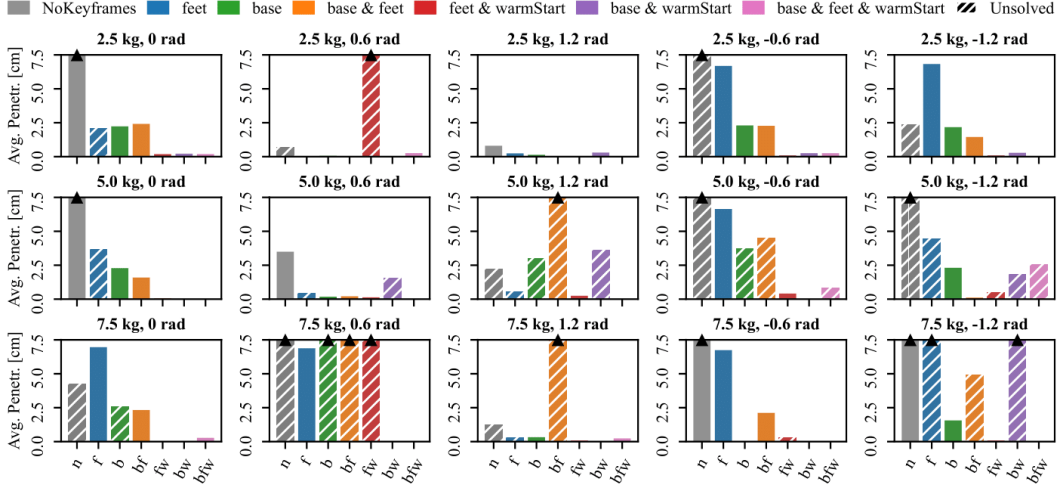
In this scenario, to describe the goal of pushing the trolley forward, an additional cost on the trolley's position is added. Three keyframes are used: picking up the box, placing the box, and the beginning of pushing the trolley. The set of tested box mass is $\{2.5, 5.0, 7.5\}$ kg, and that of the initial robot yaw angle ϕ is $\{0, 0.6, 1.2, -0.6, -1.2\}$ rad. A minimal set of collision constraints is added as explained in Sec. 5.1 for S2. The results are shown in Fig. 6b.

5.3.3 Discussion

For both S1 and S2, it can be observed in Fig. 6 that using keyframes helps the success rate of TO in solving the problem, and leads to better solutions with low penetration. This is evident when we



(a) S1 collision data. The y-axis bound of average penetration is 7.5cm.



(b) S2 collision data. The y-axis bound of average penetration is 15cm.

Figure 6: Collision ablation study data. Subtitles are (box mass, robot initial yaw). The upward solid triangles denote that the average penetrations exceed the y-axis bound. Slash hatches on bars mean the optimization failed to converge with the corresponding settings. The legends represent settings of keyframe utilization. The average penetration is calculated as the sum of penetration divided by the number of shooting nodes.

262 compare the case where AllKeyframe is used (pink, rightmost bars) versus the NoKeyframe case
 263 (grey, leftmost bars).

264 For example, in the (5.0kg, 0rad) test of S1, the AllKeyframe case results in zero penetration, while
 265 removing any part of the keyframe either hinders convergence or results in large penetrations. In
 266 particular, settings with the warm-start tend to have better convergence and lower penetration. In
 267 some cases, we can see that the AllKeyframe case has achieved slightly worse results than other
 268 cases. We believe this is due to some details in the trajectory optimization solver.

269 6 Conclusion

270 In this work, we presented a novel approach that generates physically consistent trajectories for
 271 long-horizon loco-manipulation tasks. We do so by leveraging LDMs to synthesize 2D images
 272 demonstrating how a human would accomplish a task. From such demonstrations, we extract the
 273 robot configurations and contact locations for a long-horizon high-level plan, which are used to guide
 274 a whole-body TO. We evaluated the proposed method in simulation for two challenging scenarios
 275 that require long-horizon reasoning, and showed that our proposed pipeline can generate physically
 276 plausible trajectories for long-horizon humanoid loco-manipulation tasks.

277 Future work will focus on evaluating the proposed work on a real humanoid robot. Furthermore,
 278 we will relax the assumption of being given the high-level plan, by developing a long-horizon task
 279 planner that leverages large language models instead. Finally, we will consider using human videos
 280 instead of 2D images due to the current limited capability of LDMs in generating more complex
 281 human-object interactions tasks.

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