

Tool-as-Interface: Learning Robot Tool Use from Human Play through Imitation Learning

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<https://tool-as-interface.github.io>

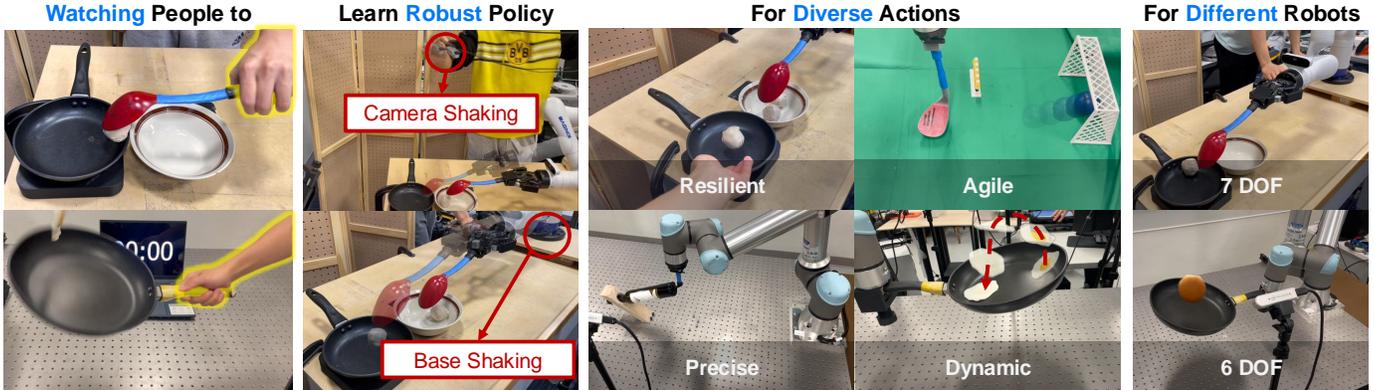


Fig. 1: **Tool-as-Interface**. We propose a scalable data collection and policy learning framework designed to transfer diverse, intuitive, and natural human play into effective visuomotor policies. The framework enables robots to learn robust policies that can operate effectively under challenging conditions, such as base and camera movement, and achieve high performance on a variety of complex manipulation tasks.

Abstract—Tool use is critical for enabling robots to perform complex real-world tasks, and leveraging human tool-use data can be instrumental for teaching robots. However, existing data collection methods like teleoperation are slow, prone to control delays, and unsuitable for dynamic tasks. In contrast, human play—where humans directly perform tasks with tools—offers natural, unstructured interactions that are both efficient and easy to collect. Building on the insight that humans and robots can share the same tools, we propose a framework to transfer tool-use knowledge from human play to robots. Using two RGB cameras, our method generates 3D reconstruction, applies Gaussian splatting for novel view augmentation, employs segmentation models to extract embodiment-agnostic observations, and leverages task-space tool-action representations to train visuomotor policies. We validate our approach on diverse real-world tasks, including meatball scooping, pan flipping, wine bottle balancing, and other complex tasks. Our method achieves a 71% higher average success rate compared to diffusion policies trained with teleoperation data and reduces data collection time by 77%, with some tasks solvable only by our framework. Compared to hand-held gripper, UMI [11], our method cuts data collection time by 41%. Additionally, our method bridges the embodiment gap, improves robustness to variations in camera viewpoints and robot configurations, and generalizes effectively across objects and spatial setups.

I. INTRODUCTION

Tool use is essential to how humans interact with and transform their environment [46, 28]. For instance, humans use a pan to fry food and flip it, ensuring even cooking on both sides. Despite its significance, tool use beyond parallel jaw grippers remains underexplored in robotics, with research primarily focused on simpler tasks like grasping and pick-

and-place operations [4, 32, 8, 24, 23]. In this paper, we focus on cost-effective data collection and efficient training of robot policies to rapidly acquire tool-use skills.

Imitation learning provides a promising pathway for robots to acquire tool-use skills by directly learning from human demonstrations [15, 17, 18, 19]. The paradigm excels in handling diverse tool-use tasks, as it bypasses the need for task-specific programming by relying solely on human demonstrations. However, its full potential hinges on addressing key challenges in collecting high-quality training data. Various teleoperation systems [21, 39, 6, 14, 19, 36, 52, 47, 26, 45, 31, 7] and hand-held grippers [44, 13, 37, 33, 30] have been developed to facilitate the collection of high-quality data. Teleoperation methods, such as kinematic replication and hand or body retargeting, show great potential [53, 16, 49, 42, 34]. However, their reliance on direct access to robot hardware limits both practicality and scalability. Hand-held grippers [40, 11] offer an alternative by enabling demonstrations in diverse environments. While they reduce dependency on robotic systems, their high costs and the technical expertise required for tasks like 3D printing and assembly restrict their accessibility to a specialized group of users.

To address these limitations, we turn to human play — a natural, intuitive method through which humans interact with their environment during everyday activities without relying on external devices or specialized setups. Human play refers to the natural process in which humans use their hands to operate tools and interact with and manipulate the environment freely. Unlike controlled demonstrations that require expensive

hardware or meticulous preparation, human play involves the spontaneous use of tools to interact with the environment. Human play is an accessible, scalable, and cost-effective approach to data collection, requiring no prior knowledge or technical expertise, such as 3D printing or assembly, from participants. However, existing methods struggle to fully harness the potential of human play. Key challenges include the embodiment gap and the reliance on single-view data, which limits the insights that can be drawn from human play data [41, 2, 25, 3, 43, 29, 38].

Our framework addresses these challenges by leveraging the observation that humans and robots can share the same tools. We propose a novel approach that utilizes human play data to train robust and adaptable robot policies for diverse tool-use tasks (Figure 1). Our method minimizes reliance on expensive hardware, making data collection more scalable and accessible to non-experts. By capturing 3D information using two RGB cameras and generating 3D reconstructions, our method enables view-invariant policy learning through novel view augmentation. To facilitate direct policy transfer from human play to robotic systems, we employ a segmentation model to filter out embodiment-specific information. Additionally, we leverage task-space tool-action representations to ensure robustness to variations in robot base configurations.

Our contributions are as follows:

- 1) We propose a novel framework that leverages two-view human play data to enable scalable, intuitive, and cost-effective data collection for training robot policies on complex tool-use tasks.
- 2) We validate the effectiveness of our approach across a range of challenging real-world tool-use tasks, including nail hammering, meatball scooping, pan flipping, wine bottle balancing, and soccer ball kicking. Our method achieves a 71% improvement in success rate and reduces data collection time by 77% compared to diffusion policies trained on SpaceMouse [12] or Gello [49] data, with some tasks solvable only by our method. Our method also outperforms handheld grippers like UMI [11], reducing collection time by 41%.
- 3) We provide an extensive analysis of our method’s robustness under varying conditions, including changes in camera poses, robot base movements, and human-induced perturbations. Additionally, we conduct ablation studies to evaluate the effects of different design choices on policy performance, including embodiment segmentation, random cropping, and novel view augmentation.

II. OUR ROBOT POLICY LEARNING FRAMEWORK

The following sections outline the framework’s design (Figure 2), its underlying principles, and logistical considerations for development and deployment.

A. Tool Usage for Data Collection and Manipulation

Humans naturally and intuitively use tools for everyday tasks such as cooking, eating, cleaning, and interacting with the world. Tools act as extensions of human actions, enabling

diverse interaction with objects. The natural relationship between tools and objects provides an ideal interface for training robots to mimic human actions using tools, with minimal gap between human and robot tool usage.

B. Embodiment-Agnostic Perception

To encourage cross-embodiment transfer, we adopt a strategy that reduces the perception gap between the training and deployment phases. During training, human play data is collected, featuring human hands interacting with tools and objects. In deployment, robots execute the learned tasks. As showcased in our experiments, the visual differences between human hands and robotic end-effectors can introduce discrepancies that hinder generalization. To address this, we employ Grounded-SAM [35] to segment and mask out the embodiments in each phase. During training, human hands are masked, while during deployment, the robotic embodiments are masked, which ensures that the remaining parts of the scene in both training and testing phases appear visually similar. By aligning perception across embodiments, the framework mitigates distractions caused by embodiment-specific features, enabling better generalization to human-to-robot policy transfer.

C. View Augmentation

We use cameras for data collection due to their availability. With approximately 7.14 billion smartphones equipped with cameras, our approach can scale effectively [20]. However, using data from a single camera introduces challenges such as a lack of 3D perception and sensitivity to camera pose.

a) *3D Reconstruction*: To address these issues, we use MAST3R [22], an image-matching model that reconstructs accurate 3D environments from two RGB images. This eliminates the need for additional depth sensors, which are less common and consume more power compared to RGB sensors. We use two cameras to capture demonstration data. Then MAST3R processes the images to reconstruct a 3D point cloud without requiring camera extrinsics or intrinsics, and globally align point maps within a multi-view 3D reconstruction framework. The process results in high-quality 3D representations.

b) *Data Augmentation*: Using 3D Gaussian splatting, we model the scene and synthesize novel viewpoints from human play data, which effectively augments the dataset, generating additional perspectives even if the training data was captured from only two views. These synthetic viewpoints provide the robot with a multi-angle understanding of the scene, allowing the policy to be trained on a more diverse and comprehensive set of visual inputs. Additionally, we apply random cropping to the images for data augmentation before feeding them into the policy network, following the approach from diffusion policy [9, 10]. Random cropping further improves the method’s robustness, enabling the policy to generalize better to variations in visual inputs.

D. Action Representation for Tool Manipulation

To support general tool usage, we propose a task-frame, tool-centric action representation denoted as $T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{task}}$. This repre-

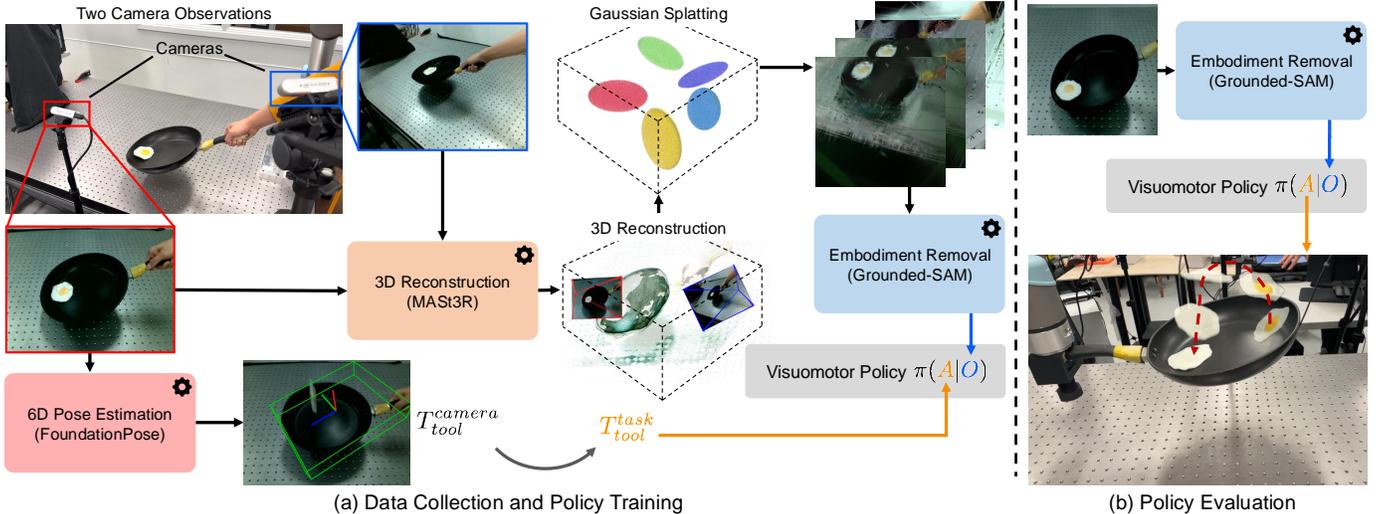


Fig. 2: **Policy Design.** Human play data was collected using two RGB cameras and processed through the foundation model MASt3R [22] to generate 3D reconstructions. Using 3D Gaussian splatting, we sampled novel views to augment the dataset. The human hand (embodiment) was segmented out from the images to create embodiment-agnostic observations, which serve as inputs to the policy. To label actions for policy training, a pose estimation model (FoundationPose [48] in this work) was used to extract the tool’s pose in the camera frame, $T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{camera}}$. A coordinate transformation was then applied to compute the tool’s pose in the task space, $T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{task}}$. Finally, a diffusion policy was implemented as the visuomotor policy to enable effective learning and execution.

sentation focuses on the tool being manipulated, independent of human or robot morphology or camera pose.

Using a 6D pose estimation model (e.g., FoundationPose [48]), we determine the tool’s pose in the camera frame, $T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{camera}}$. To make the policy robust to camera and base movement, we transform this into the task frame:

$$T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{task}} = T_{\text{camera}}^{\text{task}} T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{camera}},$$

where $T_{\text{camera}}^{\text{task}}$ represents the transformation from the camera to the task frame.

E. Training and Deploying Robot Policies

We use diffusion policy [9] as our policy representation to predict $T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{task}}$, trained using the ACCESS system [5]. During deployment, for stationary robots, the task frame aligns with the base frame. For robots with moving base, base movement is compensated using $T_{\text{task}}^{\text{base}}$. The final end-effector pose in the robot base frame, used as the control command for the robot controller, is computed as:

$$T_{\text{eef}}^{\text{base}} = T_{\text{task}}^{\text{base}} T_{\text{tool}}^{\text{task}} T_{\text{eef}}^{\text{tool}},$$

where $T_{\text{eef}}^{\text{tool}}$ is the fixed transformation between the tool and the robot end-effector.

III. EXPERIMENT RESULTS

In our experiments, we demonstrate that our framework is both effective and efficient for training robots with advanced capabilities. Furthermore, leveraging human play data enables robots to perform smoother movements and acquire skills that are challenging or even impossible to achieve with robot-generated data.

A. Capabilities and Effectiveness

Table II presents the results of our real-world robot tasks, showing that our framework consistently outperforms baseline methods by achieving significantly higher success rates across all evaluated scenarios. We further compare our method with a stronger hand-held gripper baseline, UMI [11], as shown in Table III. In our default setup, SLAM-based mapping failed due to low environmental texture. To address this limitation, we added a textured background to support reliable mapping for UMI. For the nail hammering task, we evaluated UMI using 25 demonstrations (matching our collection time) and 100 demonstrations (to assess its ideal performance). UMI failed all 13 trials with 25 demonstrations but succeeded in all 13 trials with 100. UMI could not be applied to the wine balancing task due to contact-induced tool displacement, nor to the pan flipping task due to tool inertial slippage. In the soccer kicking task, large and fast motions made it nearly impossible to localize the demonstration trajectory within the initial map.

B. Policy Execution Efficiency

Our framework demonstrates exceptional efficiency in task execution, achieving faster task completion times and producing smoother action motions compared to baseline methods, as shown in Table II. The efficiency is largely attributed to the nature of human play data, which captures the fluidity and speed of real-world human activities, resulting in smoother and more natural trajectories in the training dataset. In contrast, previous approaches relying on teleoperated data often suffer from significantly slower speeds and less natural motions, limiting their effectiveness in dynamic scenarios. By leveraging the realistic dynamics of human play, our framework not only accelerates task execution but also enhances motion quality, making it better suited for real-world applications.

TABLE I: **Benchmark Attributes of Real-World Tasks.** These benchmarks evaluate the precision, adaptability, and capability of our framework to address tasks requiring high precision, handling extreme dynamics, utilizing extrinsic dexterity, performing in contact-rich scenarios, and overcoming gravity.

Benchmark	High-Precision	Extreme Dynamics	Using Extrinsic Dexterity	Contact-Rich	Overcoming Gravity
Task 1: Nail Hammering	✓	—	—	—	—
Task 2: Meatball Scooping	✓	—	✓	✓	—
Task 3: Pan Flipping (Egg, Bun, Patty)	—	✓	✓	✓	✓
Task 4: Wine Balancing	✓	—	✓	✓	✓
Task 5: Soccer Ball Kicking	—	—	—	✓	—

TABLE II: **Task Success Rates and Completion Times.** Success rates are the number of successful trials out of total episodes, and average completion times are based on successful trials. “DP” refers to the diffusion policy trained on teleoperation data. “Not Feasible” tasks denote cases where teleoperation failed due to extreme dynamics, precision, or reactivity demands. Our method consistently achieves higher success rates and shorter completion times.

Task	Method	Success Rate	Time (s)
Hammer Nailing	DP	0/13	-
	Ours	13/13	11.0
Meatball Scooping	DP	5/12	42.0
	Ours	10/12	12.4
Pan Flipping - Egg	DP	Not Feasible	-
	Ours	12/12	1.5
Pan Flipping - Burger Bun	DP	Not Feasible	-
	Ours	9/12	1.9
Pan Flipping - Meat Patty	DP	Not Feasible	-
	Ours	10/12	2.3
Wine Balancing	DP	Not Feasible	-
	Ours	8/10	30.9
Soccer Ball Kicking	DP	Not Feasible	-
	Ours	6/10	2.0

TABLE III: **Task success rates comparing our method with the hand-held gripper-based method on Nail Hammering.**

Method	Demo Duration & Count	Success Rate
UMI [11]	~180 seconds (25 demos)	0/13
UMI	~720 seconds (100 demos)	13/13
Ours	~180 seconds (40 demos)	13/13

C. Generalization

Object Generalization: Our method generalizes effectively to different objects in pan flipping tasks, including a toy egg, a 3D-printed meat patty, and a real burger bun. With only 13 demonstrations, the policy succeeds by leveraging a simple but effective strategy: tilting the pan to slide the object into a corner, then flicking the pan to propel and flip the object. Our manipulation approach for pan flipping enables robust generalization across diverse object types.

Tool Generalization: To assess the generalization ability of our policy across different tools, we conducted a pan-flipping experiment using a burger bun and five pans: large, medium, small, tiny, and square. For each pan, we collected 12 trials with varying initial configurations and reported the success rates (Fig. 3). The policy was trained on demonstrations using the large, medium, and square pans, and evaluated on all five. Results indicate that our method exhibits some generalization across both pan sizes and shapes (circular vs. square). High

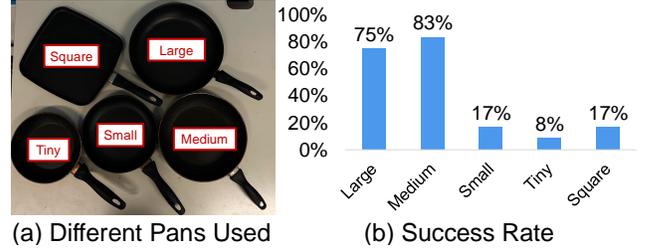


Fig. 3: **Tool Generalization** (a) The tested pans. (b) Success rate across 12 testing trials.

success rates were observed with the large and medium pans. However, performance declined on smaller pans, likely due to their limited surface area. The square pan also showed lower success rates, as its shallow edges allowed the bun to slide out during flipping.

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IV. CONCLUSION

In this work, we presented a novel framework for human-to-robot imitation learning that leverages human play data to bridge the embodiment gap and enables robust policy training for diverse tool-use tasks. Unlike traditional data collection methods, which are often costly, hardware-dependent, and require technical expertise, our framework democratizes data collection by removing the need for specialized equipment or prior knowledge. Our approach makes data collection more accessible and scalable, empowering broader adoption in robotic learning. We validated our framework across a range of challenging tasks, including nail hammering, meatball scooping, pan flipping with various objects, wine bottle balancing, and soccer ball kicking. The results demonstrate the framework’s superior performance, robustness to variations in camera poses and base movements, and adaptability to different embodiments, such as 6-DOF and 7-DOF robots. By enhancing accessibility, scalability, and reliability, our work lays a strong foundation for advancing robotic manipulation in complex, real-world scenarios.

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