

# 000 001 002 003 004 005 CORAL: CONTACT-RICH ADAPTIVE LLM-BASED 006 CONTROL FOR ROBOTIC MANIPULATION 007 008 009

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## ABSTRACT

031 Vision-Language-Action (VLA) systems often lack adaptability and explainability  
032 due to their black-box structure and dependency on fixed action sets from extensive  
033 tele-operated datasets, limiting their effectiveness in complex, dynamic  
034 manipulation scenarios. To address this issue, we propose Contact-Rich Adaptive  
035 LLM-based Control (CoRAL), a novel modular framework capable of effectively  
036 managing complex, dynamic, and contact-rich manipulation tasks. By integrating  
037 foundational vision and language models with motion planning and reactive  
038 controllers, our system achieves zero-shot planning and adaptive manipulation  
039 without relying on extensive tele-operated action datasets. Unlike conventional  
040 VLAs, we explicitly separate the roles of vision models and Large Language Models  
041 (LLM): the vision module handles environmental parameter initialization and  
042 object pose tracking, while the LLM generates initial contact strategies and cost  
043 function estimations. This collaboration establishes a physical understanding of  
044 the scene, instantiated as a dynamic planning world model for our planner. Additionally,  
045 this modular approach significantly enhances both the explainability and  
046 performance of the overall framework, as demonstrated by ablation studies. Furthermore,  
047 we introduce a memory unit to leverage past manipulation experiences, enabling  
048 the generalization and efficient reuse of learned contact strategies and  
049 parameter adjustments across diverse manipulation scenarios. Experiments con-  
050 ducted on challenging contact-rich tasks validate our framework’s robustness and  
051 highlight the critical design elements that contribute to its effectiveness. Website:  
052 <https://sites.google.com/view/CoRAL>

## 1 INTRODUCTION

053 Foundational models have demonstrated significant success in various fields, leading to increased  
054 efforts to apply these models within robotics (Firoozi et al., 2025; Tayyab Khan & Waheed, 2025).  
055 Particularly, Vision-Language-Action (VLA) systems have garnered considerable attention for their  
056 potential in robotic manipulation tasks (Ma et al., 2024; Zhong et al., 2025; Sapkota et al., 2025).  
057 However, existing VLA frameworks struggle to effectively handle contact-rich manipulation tasks,  
058 which constitute a substantial portion of daily interactions (Hao et al., 2025; Yu et al., 2025; Xue  
059 et al., 2025). These tasks pose significant challenges, as they require not only precise trajectory plan-  
060 ning but also sophisticated interaction force management and adaptive control strategies. Achieving  
061 success in such complex scenarios typically necessitates extensive training through teleoperation or  
062 detailed dynamic modeling, methods that are labor-intensive and reduce generalizability.

063 Humans, by contrast, rely on initial estimations, subsequently refine their strategies based on sen-  
064 sory feedback, and adjust interactions accordingly (Flanagan et al., 2006; Johansson & Flanagan,  
065 2009; Kim et al., 2015). Similar to this cognitive framework, we propose a novel modular system,  
066 **Contact-Rich Adaptive LLM-based Control (CoRAL)**, that integrates reasoning, planning, and  
067 control modules into a cohesive architecture. Our model begins by estimating 6-DoF object poses  
068 from RGB-D data using FoundationPoseWen et al. (2024), and then a Vision-Language Model  
069 (VLM) infers physical parameters such as mass and friction from the estimated object poses, the  
070 environment image, and the textual task description (Fig. 1). The planning stage generates initial  
071 contact strategies and actions, which are executed in the evaluation environment through reactive  
072 control modules. The outcomes from these actions are continuously monitored, with the tracked  
073 poses from FoundationPose being used for iterative refinement of plans.

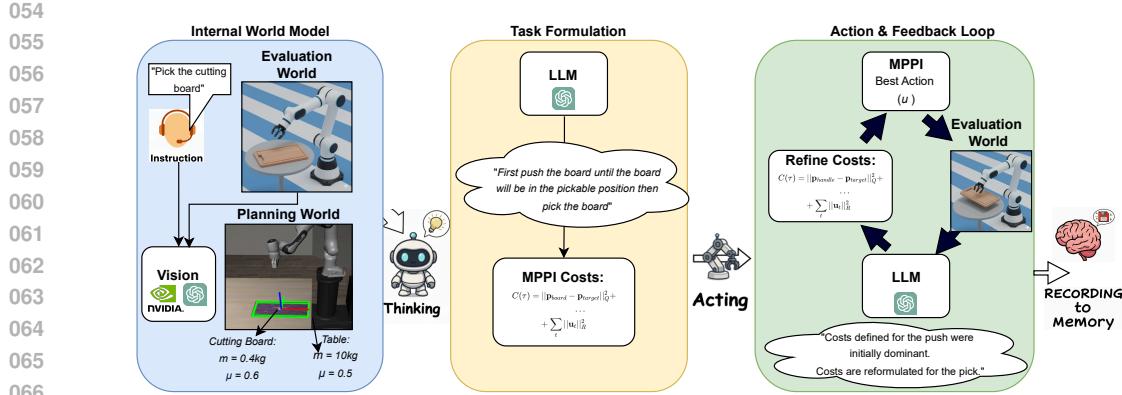


Figure 1: The conceptual workflow of CoRAL, illustrated with the “pick the cutting board” task. Photorealistic images were synthetically generated.

A key innovation of our approach is the strategic integration of vision and Large Language Models (LLMs) with motion planners and controllers, substantially enhancing action explainability and enabling more effective reasoning. Our modular structure clearly delineates roles: vision module manages parameter estimation for environment modeling, while LLM provides symbolic reasoning, initial contact strategies, and cost estimations. The reactive controller then applies these symbolic outputs in the evaluation world, establishing a tight feedback loop between high-level strategy and low-level sensory information. Our main contributions are:

- We propose a novel framework that integrates a Large-Language-Model (LLM) model with a reactive motion controller, enabling zero-shot planning and robust execution for dynamic, contact-rich manipulation.
- Unlike monolithic VLA architectures, we explicitly separate the roles of the vision models for perception and the LLM for reasoning, a design choice that demonstrably enhances both manipulation performance and system explainability.
- We introduce an LLM-driven, closed-loop feedback mechanism that enables the system to adapt its plan mid-execution, successfully completing complex, multi-step manipulation sequences.
- Our framework’s performance and adaptability are further enhanced by a memory unit that stores and retrieves past experiences to bootstrap effective solutions for novel tasks.

We evaluate CoRAL on a challenging suite of manipulation tasks, including novel contact-rich problems, such as picking up a thin object from a table and standardized benchmarks from the LIBERO suite Liu et al. (2023). Our extensive experiments and detailed ablation studies confirm that this modular structure significantly improves system performance and explainability, effectively addressing the limitations of conventional VLA frameworks.

## 2 RELATED WORK

**From End-to-End Policies to Decoupled Reasoning** The advent of foundation models has shifted robotic manipulation towards Vision-Language-Action (VLA) models, which learn general-purpose policies from large-scale datasets Firooz et al. (2025); Ma et al. (2024). Leading examples like OpenVLA Kim et al. (2025b),  $\pi_0$  Black et al. (2024) and RT-X O’Neill et al. (2024) utilize an end-to-end approach, directly mapping multimodal inputs to low-level actions. While powerful, this paradigm’s reliance on imitation learning makes it data-dependent and often brittle in novel physical scenarios, particularly those involving complex contact dynamics not well-represented in the training data. To overcome these limitations, an emerging trend decouples high-level reasoning from low-level control. Frameworks like ThinkAct Huang et al. (2025), Inner Monologue Huang et al. (2022) and those using Embodied Chain-of-Thought (ECoT) Zawalski et al. (2024) leverage LLMs to generate explicit reasoning steps that guide a separate, learned action policy. Similarly,

108 MolmoAct Lee et al. (2025) produces mid-level spatial plans as “trajectory traces” before predicting  
 109 actions, enhancing explainability and steerability. The OneTwoVLA architecture Lin et al. (2025)  
 110 formalizes this by explicitly modeling a System 1 (fast, reactive acting) and System 2 (slow, de-  
 111 liberate reasoning). Our work, CoRAL, aligns with this decoupling philosophy but takes a distinct  
 112 neuro-symbolic path by grounding the LLM’s reasoning directly in a controller, rather than another  
 113 learned model.

114 **Integrating Foundation Models with Motion Planners and Controllers** A promising alterna-  
 115 tive to end-to-end learning is the integration of foundation models with traditional motion planners,  
 116 leveraging semantic understanding to guide physically-grounded trajectory optimization. For in-  
 117 stance, IMPACT Ling et al. (2025) utilizes a VLM to generate a static 3D cost map of the envi-  
 118 ronment, assigning higher costs to fragile objects to enable a planner like RRT\* to find paths with  
 119 “acceptable contact”. Similarly, VLMPC Zhao et al. (2024) embeds a VLM within a Model Predic-  
 120 tive Control (MPC) Garcia et al. (1989) loop, where it provides perceptual guidance by identifying  
 121 sub-goals and sampling candidate action sequences. CoRAL significantly advances this paradigm  
 122 by elevating the role of the LLM from a perceptual guide to a high-level strategist. Instead of merely  
 123 identifying objects or goals, our LLM formulates the structure of the Model Predictive Path Inte-  
 124 gral (MPPI) Williams et al. (2017) controller cost function itself and proposes symbolic contact  
 125 strategies. This approach grounds abstract, commonsense reasoning directly into the mathematical  
 126 formulation of the optimal control problem, enabling a more profound and explainable link between  
 127 high-level intent and low-level dynamic execution.

128 **Tackling Contact-Rich Manipulation** Contact-rich manipulation remains a grand challenge, as  
 129 it requires nuanced force control and physical understanding beyond simple trajectory generation.  
 130 One major line of work addresses this by augmenting perception with physical sensors, such as in  
 131 ForceVLA Yu et al. (2025), TLA Hao et al. (2025) and VLA-Touch Bi et al. (2025), which explic-  
 132 itly integrate force or tactile data into the policy’s input stream. Further research in this direction,  
 133 such as Reactive Diffusion Policy (RDP) Xue et al. (2025) and FACTR Liu et al. (2025), proposes  
 134 specialized architectures and training curricula to more effectively fuse this real-time feedback into  
 135 a learned policy. While effective, this hardware-centric approach risks creating a new data bottle-  
 136 neck, as it requires large-scale, specialized multimodal demonstration datasets that are difficult to  
 137 collect Firooz et al. (2025). CoRAL tackles this problem from a different angle. Although it also  
 138 leverages real-time force feedback for its reactive controller, it critically eliminates the need for  
 139 prior demonstration datasets containing such data. Instead, our framework uses the LLM to formu-  
 140 late a high-level strategy and cost function that explicitly reasons about interaction forces, which the  
 141 MPPI controller then robustly executes by adapting to live sensor data online. This neuro-symbolic  
 142 approach combines the benefits of physical sensing with the zero-shot reasoning of foundation mod-  
 143 els, thereby avoiding the imitation learning bottleneck while still achieving precise, force-aware  
 144 control.

### 3 METHODOLOGY

147 CoRAL is a neuro-symbolic framework designed for zero-shot, contact-rich manipulation. It strate-  
 148 gically decouples high-level reasoning from low-level control by integrating a vision pipeline that  
 149 continuously tracks object poses and enriches the world model with physical parameters estimated  
 150 by the VLM, a LLM acting in two distinct roles (Task Formulation and Online Adaptation), a Mem-  
 151 ory Unit for experience retrieval, and a Model Predictive Path Integral controller (MPPI) for reactive  
 152 execution. The overall architecture, which features nested feedback loops for rapid and robust adap-  
 153 tation, is illustrated in Figure 2. Below, we detail each component of this architecture.

#### 3.1 ENVIRONMENT PERCEPTION AND WORLD MODEL INITIALIZATION

154 The first step is to translate raw visual, textual, and geometric inputs into a structured, physics-aware  
 155 world model. Our perception pipeline achieves this through a two-stage process that first establishes  
 156 the geometric state of the scene and then identifies it with physical properties. The process involves  
 157 two core steps:

158 1. **Pose Estimation and Tracking:** We employ **FoundationPose** Wen et al. (2024), a state-  
 159 of-the-art pose estimation model, to determine and continuously track the 6-DoF poses of

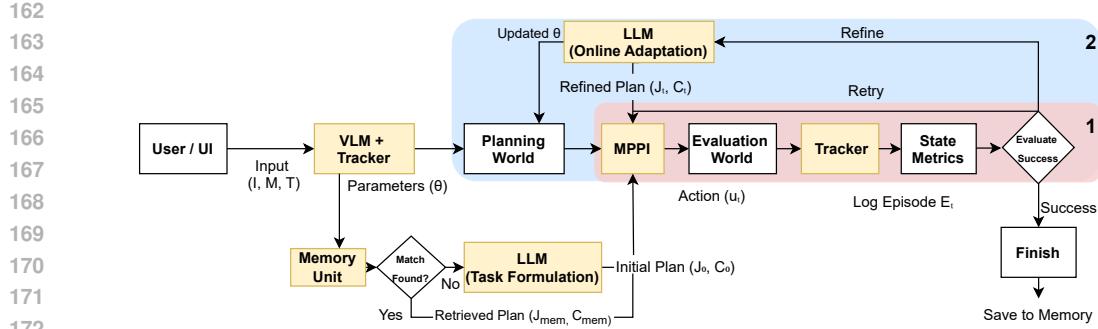


Figure 2: The overall architecture of the **CoRAL** framework. Given an input image  $I$ , object models  $M$  and task description  $T$ , the vision module extracts world parameters  $\theta$ . If the Memory Unit finds a similar successful experience, its retrieved plan  $(J_{\text{mem}}, C_{\text{mem}})$  is used to guide the MPPI controller. Otherwise, the LLM (Task Formulation) module generates an initial plan  $(J_0, C_0)$ . The system then enters the main execution cycle, which is governed by two nested feedback loops labeled (1) and (2). **(1) The Inner Loop** is a high-frequency re-planning cycle. At each step, the MPPI, guided by the current plan, generates an action  $u_t$  based on the latest ‘State Metrics’. This loop (‘Retry’) continues until the task succeeds or a refinement is needed. **(2) The Outer Loop** is a low-frequency, high-level adaptation cycle. If the inner loop fails persistently, the ‘Refine’ path is taken, where the LLM (Online Adaptation) updates both the world model parameters  $(\theta)$  for the ‘Planning World’ and the strategic ‘Refined Plan  $(J_t, C_t)$ ’ for the MPPI. Successful episodes are stored back into the Memory Unit.

all interactable objects. This model takes the RGB-D camera images  $I$ , and the known 3D geometric models of the objects,  $M$ , as input. The output is a real-time stream of estimated pose data for each object in the scene.

**2. Physical Parameter Estimation:** The pose data, along with the visual input and the language-based task description  $T$ , is then fed into a multimodal foundation model (GPT-4o), which acts as our VLM. The VLM’s role is to leverage its extensive world knowledge to infer the unobservable physical properties of the objects based on their appearance and the context provided by the task. It estimates crucial attributes like *mass* and *friction coefficients*, which are vital for accurate physical simulation.

The combined output of this perception pipeline is a structured set of world parameters,  $\theta$ . For each object,  $\theta$  contains its semantic label (derived from the input 3D model), its continuously tracked pose from FoundationPose, and its estimated physical attributes from the VLM. These parameters are crucial as they are used to construct and continuously update the internal Planning World that the MPPI planner operates on.

### 3.2 LLM-DRIVEN TASK FORMULATION AND MEMORY RETRIEVAL

Once the world is perceived, the system formulates a concrete plan. This is handled by the ‘LLM (Task Formulation)’ module, which can generate a plan from scratch or leverage past experiences from the ‘Memory Unit’.

**Memory Retrieval:** Before invoking the LLM, the system queries the ‘Memory Unit’ with the current world parameters  $\theta$  and task  $T$ . Our memory module is based on Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG), storing successful “experience episodes” indexed by task definitions and environmental parameters. Instead of relying on predefined similarity metrics, the LLM embeds the current task into a latent semantic space to retrieve the most relevant past experience:

$$(J_{\text{mem}}, C_{\text{mem}}) = \text{RAG}_{\text{Retrieve}}(T, \theta) \quad (1)$$

where  $J_{\text{mem}}$  denotes the final cost function that led to a successful episode, and  $C_{\text{mem}}$  denotes the corresponding contact strategy, which also resulted in a successful completion of the task. If a sufficiently similar and successful past experience is found, its stored plan  $(J_{\text{mem}}, C_{\text{mem}})$  is retrieved and

used as the initial plan, bypassing the computationally expensive initial LLM call and accelerating performance.

**Plan Generation from Scratch:** If no suitable memory is found, the ‘LLM (Task Formulation)’ module is invoked. It acts as a high-level strategist, translating the task  $T$  and world parameters  $\theta$  into a formal optimization problem. Its output is an initial plan tuple  $(J_0, C_0)$ , where:

- **Initial MPPI Cost Function ( $J_0$ ):** The LLM generates the mathematical structure and relative weights of a cost function. Specifically, for a given task, the LLM provides a structured cost functional, for instance:

$$J_0(\mathbf{x}_{0:H}, \mathbf{u}_{0:H-1}) = \sum_{t=0}^{H-1} \left[ w_d \|\mathbf{p}_{\text{target}} - \mathbf{p}_{\text{obj}}(t)\|^2 + w_c \mathbb{I}\{\text{no contact at } t\} + w_u \|\mathbf{u}_t\|^2 \right] \quad (2)$$

Here, the weights  $w_d, w_c, w_u$  are determined by the LLM based on the task description (e.g., for a pushing task,  $w_c$  would be high).  $\mathbf{p}_{\text{obj}}(t)$  is the object’s tracked position at time  $t$ , and  $\mathbb{I}\{\cdot\}$  is an indicator function penalizing the absence of contact. **This expression is only an illustrative example: in general, the LLM is free to introduce any cost terms constructible from the available state, pose, and action variables, and is not restricted to a fixed finite set of cost terms.**

- **Initial Contact Strategy ( $C_0$ ):** The LLM proposes promising surfaces for making contact to guide the planner’s exploration. It specifies a set of focused surface regions  $\{R_j\}$ , from which we generate candidate contact points as:

$$C_0 = \bigcup_{j=1}^M \left\{ c_j + e_j (\cos \phi \mathbf{t}_{1,j} + \sin \phi \mathbf{t}_{2,j}) \mid \phi = \frac{2\pi k}{N_j}, k = 0, \dots, N_j - 1 \right\} \quad (3)$$

where for each region  $j$ ,  $c_j$  is the center,  $e_j$  is the radius, and  $\{\mathbf{t}_{1,j}, \mathbf{t}_{2,j}\}$  are tangent vectors. This biases sampling towards strategically advantageous regions.

This generated strategy is then used within the MPPI sampling process by biasing the initial control perturbations to explore actions that bring the end-effector closer to the LLM-proposed contact regions, thereby significantly pruning the search space.

### 3.3 REACTIVE PLANNING AND EXECUTION (THE INNER LOOP)

The core of our system is a high-frequency, reactive execution cycle governed by the MPPI controller. This corresponds to the Inner Loop (1) in Figure 2.

**MPPI Formulation:** The MPPI controller solves a stochastic optimal control problem at each timestep. Given a state-transition model  $x_{t+1} = f(x_t, u_t) + \epsilon_t$ , where  $x_t$  is the system state,  $u_t$  is the control input, and  $\epsilon_t$  is system noise, the objective is to find a sequence of control inputs  $U = \{u_0, \dots, u_{H-1}\}$  that minimizes the expected total cost:

$$U^* = \arg \min_U \mathbb{E} \left[ \phi(x_H) + \sum_{t=0}^{H-1} q(x_t, u_t) \right] \quad (4)$$

where  $\phi(x_H)$  is a terminal state cost and  $q(x_t, u_t)$  is the running cost at each step. The LLM-generated cost function,  $J_0$  (from Eq. 2), directly defines the terms used in this optimization. Specifically, the running cost  $q(x_t, u_t)$  is the expression inside the summation of  $J_0$ :

$$q(x_t, u_t) = w_d \|\mathbf{p}_{\text{target}} - \mathbf{p}_{\text{obj}}(t)\|^2 + w_c \mathbb{I}\{\text{no contact at } t\} + w_u \|\mathbf{u}_t\|^2 \quad (5)$$

MPPI approximates this optimization by:

270 1. Sampling  $K$  control sequence perturbations  $\delta U_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$  from a Gaussian distribution.  
 271 2. Creating  $K$  rollout trajectories by applying the perturbed control sequences  $V_k = U_{prev} +$   
 272  $\delta U_k$  in the ‘Planning World’.  
 273 3. Calculating the total cost  $S(V_k)$  for each of the  $K$  trajectories.  
 274 4. Computing an exponentially weighted average of the perturbations to update the control  
 275 sequence:

276 
$$U_{new} = U_{prev} + \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \delta U_k \quad \text{where} \quad w_k = \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{\lambda} S(V_k))}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(-\frac{1}{\lambda} S(V_j))} \quad (6)$$

281 Following the receding horizon principle, only the first action,  $u_0$ , of the newly optimized sequence  
 282  $U_{new}$  is executed.

283 **Reactive Control Augmentation:** To achieve robustness against the inherent sim-to-real gap, we  
 284 augment the nominal planned action with a real-time feedback term. The final control command  $\nu_t$   
 285 sent to the robot is:

286 
$$\nu_t = u_t + K_f \cdot (x_{des} - x_{measured}) \quad (7)$$

287 where  $u_t$  is the action computed by MPPI, the error term is calculated from real-time sensors (e.g.,  
 288 force/torque, proprioception), and  $K_f$  is a feedback gain matrix. This ‘Retry’ loop continues at a  
 289 high frequency, constantly re-planning and correcting based on physical feedback.

### 291 3.4 ONLINE ADAPTATION VIA LLM-DRIVEN REFINEMENT (THE OUTER LOOP)

293 If the inner loop fails to make progress after a predefined number of attempts, a hyperparameter  
 294 we denote as  $N_{retry}$ , the system triggers the low-frequency Outer Loop (2). This invokes the ‘LLM  
 295 (Online Adaptation)’ module, which acts as a diagnostician and re-strategist.

296 The input to this module is the logged episode data  $E_t$ , which contains the history of states, actions,  
 297 the contact strategies and cost functions that were used, and the estimated physical parameters that  
 298 led to the failure. By analyzing this rich context, the LLM performs two critical functions:

300 1. **World Model Correction:** The LLM can refine the initial physical parameter estimates.  
 301 For example, if the robot pushes an object but the object moves less than predicted, the  
 302 LLM can infer that its initial estimate of the object’s mass was too low and output an  
 303 ‘Updated  $\theta$ ’.  
 304 2. **Strategy Refinement:** The LLM can also alter the plan itself. It might change the weights  
 305 of the cost function (e.g., prioritizing force control over position accuracy) or propose an  
 306 entirely new contact strategy. This results in a ‘Refined Plan  $(J_t, C_t)$ ’.

307 This refined world model and plan are then fed back into the inner loop, allowing the system to learn  
 308 from its failures and adapt its entire approach within a single task execution.

## 310 4 EXPERIMENTS

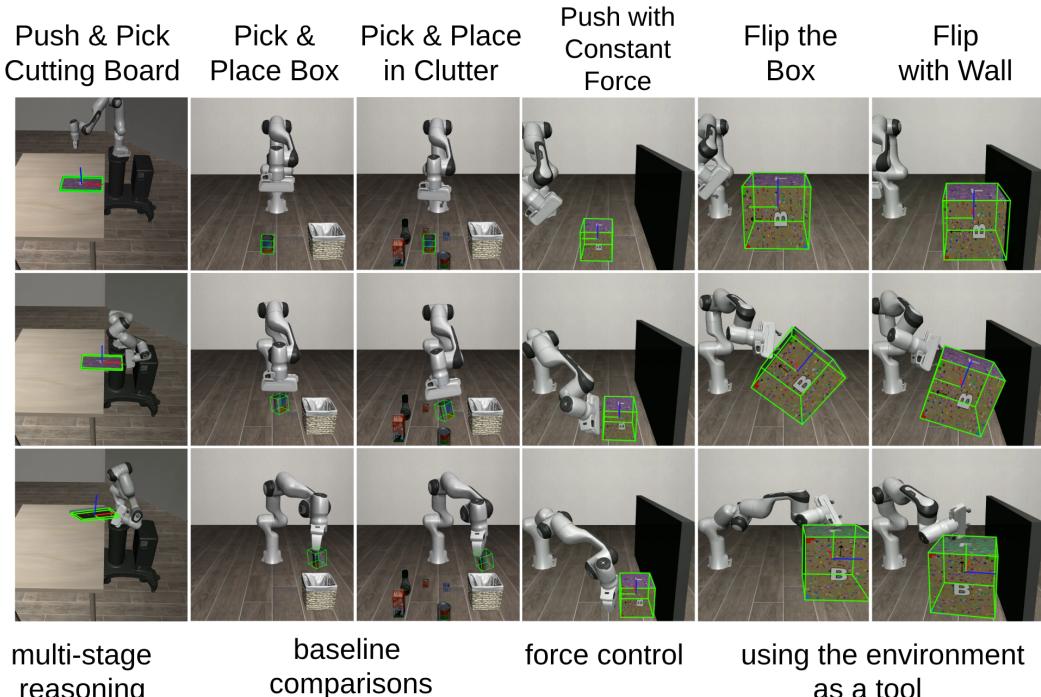
313 We conducted a series of experiments in a simulated environment to rigorously evaluate the performance  
 314 of CoRAL. Our evaluation is designed to answer three key research questions: **(RQ1)** How  
 315 does CoRAL perform on complex, contact-rich manipulation tasks in a zero-shot setting compared  
 316 to state-of-the-art baselines? **(RQ2)** How critical is each core component of our neuro-symbolic  
 317 architecture—specifically the vision/language model role separation, the online refinement loop,  
 318 and the memory unit—to the overall success? **(RQ3)** Can the system demonstrate robustness and  
 319 adaptability by reasoning about and recovering from failures?

320 **Simulation Environment:** All experiments were conducted in the evaluation world, implemented  
 321 using ROBOSUITE library Zhu et al. (2020), which is based on the MUJoCO physics engine Todorov  
 322 et al. (2012). The robot is a simulated 7-DoF Franka Emika Panda arm with a parallel-jaw gripper.  
 323 Sensory inputs include RGB-D images from a fixed camera, proprioceptive feedback, and force/  
 torque data provided by the physics engine, which are essential for our reactive control. In addition

324 to our custom environments, two benchmark tasks from the LIBERO suite Liu et al. (2023) were  
 325 also incorporated for evaluation.

326 **Implementation Details:** The VLM and LLM modules were implemented using the GPT-4o API.  
 327 The MPPI controller was integrated on top of the ROBOSUITE/MUJOCO environment. To improve  
 328 computational efficiency, our MPPI implementation parallelizes the rollout of  $K = 200$  trajectories  
 329 over a planning horizon of  $H = 50$  steps at each control cycle on the CPU. The key hyperparameters  
 330 for the controller are the temperature  $\lambda = 0.1$  and the outer-loop trigger threshold  $N_{retry} = 15$   
 331 persistent failures. The entire framework was run on a desktop computer with an Intel Core i9-  
 332 13900K CPU, 64 GB of RAM, and a single NVIDIA RTX 4060 Ti GPU.  
 333

334 **Tasks and Evaluation Metrics:** We evaluated our framework on six challenging, contact-rich  
 335 manipulation tasks, shown in Fig. 3, designed to be difficult for purely vision-based, collision-  
 336 avoidant planners. Each task was performed 10 times with randomized initial object poses, **object**  
 337 **masses**, **surface friction coefficients** and **the object dimension for the box object**. The tasks are as  
 338 follows: **T1: Push and Pick Cutting Board**, a multi-stage task testing pushing and reasoning about  
 339 object parts and pose for grasping; **T2: Pick Box & T3: Pick and Place in Clutter**, a standard  
 340 pick-and-place task to establish a baseline; **T4: Push with Constant Force**, testing the reactive  
 341 controller’s ability to manage force feedback; **T5: Flip Box**, a dynamically complex maneuver and;  
 342 **T6: Flip with Wall**, requiring multi-contact reasoning to use the wall as a fixture; **Evaluation**  
 343 **Metrics:** We use two primary metrics: **Success Rate** (binary measure across 10 trials) and **Average**  
 344 **Completion Time** in seconds for successful trials.



368  
 369 Figure 3: CoRAL on six different tasks with the tracked pose overlay of the object of interest.  
 370

371 **Comparative Baselines:** We compare CoRAL against two state-of-the-art methods and four in-  
 372 ternal ablations. The **State-of-the-Art Baselines** are: **OpenVLA-OFT** Kim et al. (2025a) and  
 373  $\pi_{0.5}$  Black et al. (2025), two leading end-to-end VLA models. For each model, we rely on the  
 374 officially released LIBERO-OBJECT checkpoint for pick-and-place tasks and the LIBERO-GOAL  
 375 checkpoint for all other tasks. This setup tests CoRAL’s zero-shot capabilities against powerful  
 376 policies. In addition, we include two **Human Expert-Designed Cost** baselines. In the *single-stage*  
 377 variant, an expert manually designs a single MPPI running-cost for each task. In the *FSM* variant,  
 the expert is allowed to construct an explicit finite-state machine with phase-specific costs (e.g.,

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 382 Table 1: Comprehensive comparison against the state-of-the-art baselines and ablation study of our  
 383 method variants across all tasks. Performance is measured by success rate (x/10 trials) and average  
 384 completion time in seconds for successful trials.  
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Method	T1: Push+Pick Board		T2: Pick+Place Box		T3: Pick+Place Clutter		T4: Push Const. Force		T5: Flip Box		T6: Flip w/ Wall	
	Success	Time (s)	Success	Time (s)	Success	Time (s)	Success	Time (s)	Success	Time (s)	Success	Time (s)
<i>State-of-the-Art Baseline</i>												
OpenVLA-OFT Kim et al. (2025a)	0/10	-	10/10	<b>5</b>	9/10	<b>7</b>	0/10	-	1/10	<b>9</b>	0/10	-
$\pi_{0.5}$ Black et al. (2025)	0/10	-	10/10	12	8/10	13	0/10	-	3/10	21	0/10	-
<i>Human Expert-Designed Cost Baselines</i>												
Expert (hand-designed cost, single-stage)	0/10	-	10/10	38	10/10	40	9/10	32	9/10	47	3/10	79
Expert (hand-designed costs, FSM)	8/10	154	10/10	40	10/10	44	10/10	48	10/10	58	9/10	95
<i>Our Method (Ablation Study)</i>												
<b>CoRAL (Ours, with Memory)</b>	<b>4/10</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>10/10</b>	45	<b>10/10</b>	49	<b>9/10</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>9/10</b>	63	<b>7/10</b>	<b>108</b>
CoRAL (w/o Memory)	2/10	212	10/10	54	9/10	61	9/10	109	7/10	98	5/10	164
CoRAL (w/o Refinement)	0/10	-	10/10	42	3/10	36	6/10	34	4/10	51	2/10	92
CoRAL (Unified VLM)	0/10	-	2/10	21	0/10	-	1/10	35	0/10	-	0/10	-
CoRAL (w/o Pose Tracking)	0/10	-	0/10	-	0/10	-	0/10	-	0/10	-	0/10	-

391  
 392 push-then-pick or push-then-flip). In both cases, the cost functions are tuned in a separate de-  
 393 sign environment and then evaluated *as-is* in our randomized test environment, providing an upper  
 394 bound on what carefully engineered, task-specific objectives can achieve. Our **Ablation Baselines**  
 395 are: **CoRAL (w/o Pose Tracking)**, which removes FoundationPose and relies on the VLM to es-  
 396 timate object poses, testing the criticality of a dedicated pose estimator; **CoRAL (w/o Memory)**,  
 397 which removes the experience retrieval mechanism; **CoRAL (w/o Refinement)**, which disables the  
 398 online adaptation loop; and **CoRAL (Unified VLM)**, which uses a single multimodal prompt for  
 399 both perception and planning to test the importance of separating VLM/LLM roles.

## 400 4.1 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

401 Table 1 presents a comprehensive overview of our experimental findings.

### 402 4.1.1 STATE-OF-THE-ART COMPARISON (RQ1)

403 CoRAL significantly outperforms both state-of-the-art baselines, OpenVLA-OFT and  $\pi_{0.5}$ , partic-  
 404 ularly in tasks requiring sophisticated physical reasoning (T1, T4, T5, T6). While both baselines  
 405 perform well on the simpler pick-and-place tasks (T2, T3), their performance degrades sharply on  
 406 the more complex, contact-rich scenarios. This is a critical finding, as both models were fine-tuned  
 407 on the LIBERO benchmark, which should theoretically demonstrate some generalization for  
 408 manipulation tasks in similar environments. However, our results indicate that even fine-tuning an  
 409 end-to-end policy is insufficient for scenarios that demand explicit physical modeling and reasoning  
 410 about forces or multi-contact strategies. These policies fail to generate the non-obvious maneuvers  
 411 required for tasks like the wall-flip (T6) or maintaining steady force for pushing (T4). In contrast,  
 412 our framework excels by allowing the LLM to directly formulate a cost function that optimizes for  
 413 these physical interaction dynamics, enabling robust zero-shot execution without any task-specific  
 414 fine-tuning.

### 415 4.1.2 COMPARISON TO HUMAN-DESIGNED COST FUNCTIONS

416 The two human baselines approximate an upper bound from carefully engineered, task-specific ob-  
 417 jectives. As expected, the *Expert (FSM)* variant achieves the strongest overall performance, and the  
 418 single-stage expert design remains competitive, particularly on simpler tasks such as T2–T4, where  
 419 CoRAL largely matches but does not surpass its success rate and speed (Table 1). On more sequen-  
 420 tial and contact-heavy tasks (T1, T5, T6), CoRAL narrows the gap to the expert, achieving higher  
 421 success rates than the single-stage baseline while remaining below the FSM upper bound. This  
 422 shows that our LLM-based controller can recover much of the structure of expert-designed costs au-  
 423 tomatically, substantially reducing manual tuning effort while approaching expert-level performance  
 424 on the hardest tasks.

### 425 4.1.3 ABLATION STUDY ANALYSIS (RQ2)

426 Our ablation studies clearly demonstrate the necessity of each component in our architecture.

**The Synergy of Separated VLM/LLM Roles:** The *CoRAL (Unified VLM)* variant, which tasked a single VLM with both perception and planning, failed on nearly all complex tasks. This starkly illustrates our core hypothesis: separating the role of a VLM for perception from a dedicated LLM for strategy formulation is crucial for robust performance. The specialized modules provide more reliable and structured outputs for the planner.

**The Importance of Online Refinement:** The *w/o Refinement* variant showed a dramatic performance drop in multi-stage tasks like T1 (Push and Pick Board), with success falling from 4/10 to 0/10. In this task, the initial plan often failed because the VLM’s initial friction estimate was slightly off, causing the board to slip during the pick. The full *CoRAL* framework, however, used the outer loop for the LLM to diagnose this from the physical outcome, refine the friction parameter in its world model, and successfully complete the task. This shows the system’s ability to learn from failure.

**The Benefit of Experience Reuse:** The full framework *with Memory* consistently achieved the highest success rates and fastest completion times. For instance, in T1 and T3, memory boosted the success rate from 2/10 to 4/10 and 9/10 to 10/10, respectively. By retrieving a successful “push-to-edge” strategy from a past experience, the system provided the planner with a superior initialization, accelerating convergence and leading to more robust solutions.

**The Criticality of a Dedicated Pose Estimator:** The *w/o Pose Tracking* ablation, which removed *FoundationPose* and relied solely on the VLM for pose estimation, resulted in a catastrophic failure across all tasks (0/10 success). The VLM, while powerful for semantic understanding, is ill-suited for the precision required by 6-DoF pose tracking through dynamic interactions. It frequently produced trivial or physically impossible pose estimations (“hallucinations”) that rendered the planner’s output useless. This result provides conclusive evidence that a dedicated, high-fidelity pose estimator is not merely beneficial but a critical and non-negotiable component of our architecture, serving as the geometric foundation upon which all subsequent physical reasoning is built.

#### 4.1.4 ROBUSTNESS ANALYSIS (RQ3)

**Analysis of LLM-Guided Contact Strategy:** To isolate the contribution of the LLM’s initial contact strategy ( $C_0$ ), we conducted a targeted ablation on the challenging “Flip with Wall” task (T6). We compared the performance of our full framework against a variant where the LLM only provided the cost function ( $J_0$ ), forcing the MPPI planner to rely on uninformed, random sampling to find useful contact points.

The guided trajectory (With Strategy, green) is direct and purposeful, immediately moving the end-effector to the correct corner of the box to initiate the flip (Figure 5 in Appendix). In contrast, the unguided trajectory (Without Strategy, red) is chaotic and inefficient, exploring large, irrelevant portions of the workspace. The planning cost for the unguided agent remains high and erratic, indicating a constant struggle to find a viable plan. This visual difference is confirmed by the quantitative results: the guided approach was **83.9% faster** (32 vs. 199 steps) and the end-effector traveled a **63.9% shorter path** (1.33 m vs. 3.69 m). This analysis provides clear evidence that the LLM’s symbolic contact strategy is critical for transforming a computationally intractable, long-horizon contact problem into a solvable one by intelligently pruning the vast action search space.

**Robustness of Online Parameter Adaptation:** Beyond strategy and cost function refinement, *CoRAL*’s ‘Online Adaptation’ module, driven by the LLM, exhibits a crucial ability to correct the agent’s internal world model online. To demonstrate this, we intentionally initialized the *Evaluation World* with a severely overestimated mass (2.0 kg vs. a ground truth of 0.1 kg) and friction coefficient (0.9 vs. 0.5) for the cutting board. These initial biases represent a severe sim-to-real gap or a VLM hallucination.

Figure 4 vividly illustrates the adaptation process. The LLM’s ‘Online Adaptation’ module, when triggered by persistent failures in the inner loop (e.g., the board not moving as expected despite high pushing force), diagnosed the discrepancy. Through an iterative refinement process, it progressively adjusted its estimated mass and friction parameters. As shown in the graph, after several adaptation cycles, the agent’s belief about both mass and friction converged remarkably close to their true values. This online correction of physical parameters is fundamental to the framework’s robustness, allowing it to overcome initial environmental mischaracterizations and successfully execute contact-rich tasks that would otherwise fail due to a misaligned internal world model. This capability is a

486 cornerstone for deploying robots in unknown environments where accurate a priori physical models  
 487 are often unavailable.

488 **Sequential Reasoning and Experience Reuse**  
 489 **in the Cutting Board Task** The “Push and  
 490 Pick Cutting Board” task (T1) is specifically  
 491 designed to test the framework’s capabilities  
 492 in long-horizon, sequential manipulation. The  
 493 task’s difficulty lies in its two distinct phases:  
 494 a stable push across a surface until a portion of  
 495 the board is exposed for grasping followed by  
 496 a precise grasp of the board. As evidenced by  
 497 our results in Table 1, this sequential challenge  
 498 highlights the importance of two core components of our architecture: online adaptation and expe-  
 499 rience reuse.

500 First, the long-horizon nature of the task means that small errors in the initial world model can ac-  
 501 cumulate and lead to failure in the later stages. This is clearly demonstrated by the *w/o Refinement*  
 502 ablation, which failed entirely on this task (0/10 success rate). While its initial plan was often suffi-  
 503 cient for the pushing phase, slight inaccuracies in the estimated friction parameter caused the board  
 504 to end up in an unexpected final pose, leading to a failed grasp. Our full model, however, leverages  
 505 the outer loop to learn from the outcome of the push, allowing the ‘LLM (Online Adaptation)’ to  
 506 refine its friction estimate and update the plan for the subsequent pick, thereby enabling success.

507 Second, this task powerfully illustrates the benefit of the ‘Memory Unit’. The performance of our  
 508 full model without memory was respectable (2/10), but the inclusion of the memory module boosted  
 509 the success rate significantly to 4/10. This shows that after just a single successful completion, the  
 510 system can store the entire successful interaction context (the refined parameters, cost function, and  
 511 contact strategy). When faced with a similar task configuration, it retrieves this proven strategy,  
 512 providing the MPPI planner with a superior initialization that leads to more robust and efficient  
 513 execution. This result demonstrates that CoRAL can learn from its experiences, and it highlights a  
 514 clear path towards few-shot performance improvements where the system becomes more adept as it  
 515 gathers successful episodes.

516 **Explainability and Automated Failure Recovery** A key advantage of our neuro-symbolic design  
 517 is its inherent explainability, particularly during failure recovery. Unlike opaque end-to-end models,  
 518 CoRAL can articulate *why* it failed and *what* it is doing to correct its plan. We demonstrate this with  
 519 a scenario where the “Flip with Wall” task persistently fails, triggering the Outer Loop.

520 Instead of just outputting a new set of parameters, the ‘LLM (Online Adaptation)’ module provides a  
 521 full natural language diagnosis of the failure and a detailed log of the corrective actions it is taking.  
 522 The LLM provided a correct natural language diagnosis of a poorly weighted cost function and  
 523 proceeded to adjust the specific weights to remedy the failure (Appendix ??). This capability to  
 524 “think out loud” is a critical feature for building trust and diagnosing failures in complex robotic  
 525 systems, providing a level of transparency that is simply not possible with black-box policies.

## 528 5 LIMITATIONS & CONCLUSION

531 In this paper, we introduced **CoRAL**, a novel framework that addresses the challenges of zero-shot,  
 532 contact-rich manipulation. Our approach departs from conventional end-to-end paradigms by inte-  
 533 grating foundation models with a reactive controller. Experiments on challenging tasks demon-  
 534 strate that this modular, synergistic design enables the system to adapt to unseen scenarios without prior  
 535 demonstrations, significantly enhancing both performance and explainability over monolithic ap-  
 536 proaches. While promising, the framework’s performance is currently contingent on the fidelity of  
 537 the vision-based world model and is subject to computational latency from its sequential pipeline.  
 538 These limitations and future research directions are discussed in detail in Appendix A.3.2. We  
 539 believe this hybrid paradigm—coupling large-scale, pre-trained knowledge with rigorous real-time  
 control—is a promising direction for creating more capable and physically intelligent robotic agents.

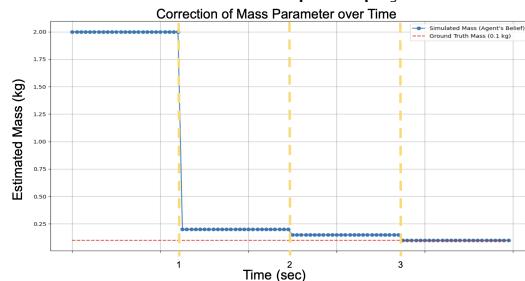


Figure 4: Object mass correction.  
 highlights the importance of two core components of our architecture: online adaptation and expe-  
 rience reuse.

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648 **A APPENDIX**649  
650 **A.1 QUALITATIVE COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ART VLA MANIPULATION**  
651 **FRAMEWORKS**  
652653 Table 2: Comparison with State-of-the-Art VLA Manipulation Frameworks  
654

Framework	Primary Modality	Planning & Control Strategy	Reasoning Mechanism	Data Requirement
OpenVLA Kim et al. (2025b)	Vision, Language	End-to-End Learned Policy (Action Token Prediction)	Implicit (in VLM backbone)	Large-scale Imitation Learning Demos
$\pi_0$ (pi-zero Black et al. (2024)	Vision, Language	End-to-End Learned Policy (Flow Matching)	Implicit (in VLM backbone)	Large-scale Imitation Learning Demos
ForceVLA Yu et al. (2025), TLA Hao et al. (2025)	Vision, Language, <b>Tactile/Force</b>	End-to-End Learned Policy	Implicit (in network weights)	Large-scale Tactile/Force Demos
VLA-Touch Bi et al. (2025)	Vision, Language, <b>Tactile</b>	VLA Policy + Tactile-based Refinement Controller	Explicit VLM Planning + Semantic Tactile Feedback	Leverages pretrained models; no VLA fine-tuning
ThinkAct Huang et al. (2025), ECoT Zawalski et al. (2024)	Vision, Language	End-to-End Learned Policy	<b>Explicit LLM Reasoning</b> (Chain-of-Thought)	Large-scale Imitation Learning Demos
OneTwoVLA Lin et al. (2025)	Vision, Language	Unified Policy (Adaptive Acting & Reasoning)	<b>Explicit LLM Reasoning</b> (System 2)	Imitation Demos + Synthetic Reasoning Data
MobileVLA Lee et al. (2025)	Vision, Language	Multi-stage Pipeline (Perception, Spatial Plan, Action)	<b>Explicit Spatial Reasoning</b> (Trajectory Traces)	Large-scale Imitation Learning Demos
MPPI-CT Ling et al. (2025)	Vision, Language	VLM-guided Model Predictive Control (MPPI)	Implicit (semantic object labeling)	N/A (Planner-based)
VLMPC Zhao et al. (2024)	Vision, Language	VLM-guided Model Predictive Control (MPC)	<b>Explicit VLM Reasoning</b> (for cost & sampling)	N/A (Planner-based)
<b>CoRAL (Ours)</b>	Vision, Language, <b>Tactile/Force</b>	<b>LLM-guided MPPI + Reactive Control</b>	<b>Explicit LLM Reasoning</b> (Strategy Formulation)	<b>Zero-Shot</b> (No Demos)

661 As the comparative analysis in Table 2 illustrates, the field of robotic manipulation has historically  
662 involved a trade-off. End-to-end VLA models achieve impressive behaviors but are fundamentally  
663 constrained by large-scale demonstration datasets, while traditional planner-based systems are zero-  
664 shot but often lack high-level semantic reasoning. CoRAL is designed to synthesize the strengths of  
665 these disparate paradigms. To the best of our knowledge, CoRAL is the first framework to simultaneously  
666 integrate **explicit LLM-driven strategy formulation** with a **dynamic, reactive controller**  
667 that leverages real-time **tactile and force feedback**, all while operating in a **zero-shot** manner that  
668 completely eliminates the need for prior demonstration data.

669 **A.2 PRELIMINARIES**  
670

671 In this section, we introduce the Model Predictive Path Integral (MPPI) controller, which forms the  
672 core of our methodology, and provide a formal problem formulation for the contact-rich manipula-  
673 tion tasks we address.

674 **A.2.1 MODEL PREDICTIVE PATH INTEGRAL (MPPI)**  
675

676 Model Predictive Path Integral (MPPI) Williams et al. (2017) is a sampling-based Model Predictive  
677 Control (MPC) Garcia et al. (1989) algorithm designed to solve stochastic optimal control problems.  
678 It is particularly effective for systems with nonlinear and complex dynamics. MPPI operates by  
679 simulating thousands of potential control sequences in parallel from the current state to determine  
680 the optimal subsequent control input.

681 Consider a system with discrete-time stochastic dynamics described by  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = f(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t) + \epsilon_t$ , where  
682  $\mathbf{x}_t$  is the state of the system,  $\mathbf{u}_t$  is the control input, and  $\epsilon_t$  represents system noise. The objective  
683 of MPPI is to find a control sequence  $\mathbf{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{H-1}\}$  that minimizes an expected cost  
684 function:

$$J(\mathbf{U}) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \phi(\mathbf{x}_H) + \sum_{t=0}^{H-1} q(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t) \right] \quad (8)$$

685 Here,  $\phi(\mathbf{x}_H)$  is the terminal cost, and  $q(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t)$  is the running (or stage) cost, which typically in-  
686 cludes terms for tracking error and control effort.  $H$  is the planning horizon.

687 At each time step, MPPI samples  $K$  candidate control sequences by adding random noise pertur-  
688 bations to a nominal sequence. These are rolled out in simulation to get trajectories, and the total  
689 cost  $S_k$  for each is computed. The optimal control is then calculated via an exponential weighting  
690 of these costs. This process is repeated at each time step following the receding horizon principle.  
691 In our approach, the symbolic reasoning provided by the LLM forms the initial structure for the  
692 running cost function  $q(\cdot)$ .

693 **A.2.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION**  
694

695 In this work, we address long-horizon, contact-rich manipulation tasks specified by visual and lin-  
696 guistic commands. Our goal is to develop a robotic system capable of interacting with objects of  
697 unknown physical properties (e.g., mass, friction) and generalizing to new scenarios in a zero-shot  
698 manner.

We formulate the problem as a POMDP. The state of the system,  $\mathbf{x}_t \in \mathcal{X}$ , includes the robot's state  $\mathbf{x}_r(t)$  and the states of environmental objects  $\mathbf{x}_o(t)$ . The action space,  $\mathcal{U}$ , consists of continuous control commands applicable to the robot's end-effector.

At the beginning of each task, the system receives an RGB-D image  $I$ , a natural language instruction  $T$ , and the corresponding 3D object models  $M$ . The system's objective is not to learn a fixed policy, but rather to compute, at each step, a control action  $u_t$  that leads to a sequence of actions  $\mathbf{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_0, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{H-1}\}$  that successfully completes the task.

The core challenge is to bridge the gap from high-level, multimodal inputs  $(I, M, T)$  to these low-level, continuous control actions. Our approach decomposes this problem into two stages:

1. **Strategy Formulation:** We use the vision module and LLM to translate the multimodal inputs  $(I, M, T)$  into an initial cost function  $J_0$  and contact candidates  $C_0$  for the planner.
2. **Online Planning and Control:** We employ the MPPI planner to compute the optimal action sequence online, guided by the LLM's strategy and adapted using real-time sensory feedback.

This formulation accurately frames our system as an online planner that reasons and computes actions on the fly, rather than an agent executing a pre-learned, static policy.

### A.3 DISCUSSION & LIMITATIONS

Our work introduces CoRAL, a framework that represents a deliberate architectural shift away from the prevailing end-to-end paradigm for Vision-Language-Action (VLA) models. By decoupling high-level reasoning from low-level, physics-based planning and control, we address several fundamental challenges in contact-rich manipulation, particularly regarding explainability, data efficiency, and physical grounding.

#### A.3.1 DISCUSSION

Our experimental results validate the core hypotheses of CoRAL, demonstrating that a modular, neuro-symbolic architecture can overcome the fundamental limitations of end-to-end models in complex, contact-rich manipulation. We discuss the key implications of our findings below.

**The Synergy of Grounded Reasoning and Reactive Control:** Our experiments reveal a clear synergy between high-level reasoning and low-level reactive control. The performance gap between CoRAL and end-to-end baselines like OpenVLA, especially in tasks requiring non-trivial strategies (e.g., T6: Flip with Wall), highlights the brittleness of purely imitative policies. These models fail because their training data lacks examples of using the environment as a tool. In contrast, CoRAL's success stems from its ability to reason: the LLM formulates an explicit optimization problem ( $J_0$ ) that defines the task's success conditions, while the MPPI controller finds a physically plausible solution. This makes the system's intent transparent and grounds abstract reasoning in a formal control framework, a more robust approach than conditioning a black-box policy as is done in works like ECoT Zawalski et al. (2024).

**Online Adaptation as an Alternative to Large-Scale Tactile Datasets:** A significant implication of our work is a path away from the data-hungry paradigm of modern robotics. State-of-the-art methods like ForceVLA Yu et al. (2025) achieve impressive results by incorporating tactile feedback, but this requires creating massive, specialized demonstration datasets. Our results demonstrate a more data-efficient alternative. CoRAL also uses real-time force feedback, but its role is redefined: it serves as a signal for *online adaptation*, not offline imitation. The success of our outer feedback loop, particularly in tasks where initial parameter estimates were deliberately inaccurate, proves that the LLM can diagnose physical failures and refine its world model on the fly. This ability to learn from direct interaction significantly lowers the barrier to entry for creating sophisticated, contact-aware robots without relying on pre-collected, large-scale tactile data.

**Zero-Shot Planning and the Path to Lifelong Learning:** Perhaps the most significant result is CoRAL's ability to perform zero-shot planning for novel tasks. This capability stems from its core design: instead of learning *how to act*, it leverages the pre-existing knowledge of foundation models to reason about *how to plan*. By generating a cost function from a single image and a language com-

756 mand, the system dynamically tackles new objectives. The consistent performance boost provided  
 757 by the ‘Memory Unit’ in our ablation studies further points towards a lifelong learning capability.  
 758 By retrieving and bootstrapping successful strategies, the system becomes more efficient and robust  
 759 over time, a contrast to the static nature of policies that require extensive fine-tuning or retraining to  
 760 adapt Kim et al. (2025b); Lee et al. (2025).

761

### 762 A.3.2 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

763

764 Despite its promising results, CoRAL has several limitations that define clear directions for future  
 765 research.

766 **Fidelity of the Internal World Model:** The entire framework is predicated on the quality of the  
 767 simulated planning world constructed by the vision module. This dependency is a significant limita-  
 768 tion; the performance of the MPPI planner is directly correlated with how accurately this internal  
 769 model reflects real-world physics. We can think of this simulated planning environment as the  
 770 robot’s “mind,” where it mentally rehearses actions before execution. The better this mental model,  
 771 the more seamlessly the robot can translate its plans into successful evaluation-world actions. Cur-  
 772 rently, the system is vulnerable to inaccuracies in object pose estimation, and VLM “hallucinations”  
 773 or inaccuracies—misjudging an object’s material could lead to a grossly incorrect estimate for mass  
 774 or friction. While our feedback loop is designed to correct for such errors, a sufficiently poor ini-  
 775 tialization could prevent the planner from converging. Future work should focus on creating higher-  
 776 fidelity internal world model, potentially by learning residual dynamics models online to capture  
 777 unmodeled effects (e.g., non-rigid dynamics, complex friction) and better bridge the sim-to-real  
 778 gap.

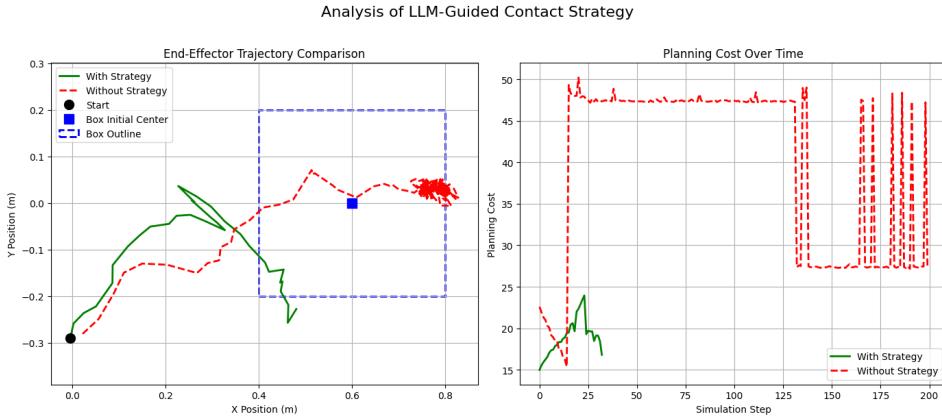
779 **Computational Latency:** Vision perception, LLM reasoning, and MPPI planning are the sources of  
 780 computational latency. In our implementation, the LLM and VLM component uses GPT-4o via the  
 781 OpenAI API, and a single query takes on average around 1.5 seconds to return a response as an LLM  
 782 and 2.3 seconds to responds as a VLM. Importantly, the LLM call is not issued at every control step;  
 783 it is only triggered when the outer loop (e.g., strategy or cost-function/parameter update) is invoked,  
 784 every 15 control steps. Before execution starts, we make a single VLM call for physical parameter  
 785 estimation (2.3 s) and perform the initial object registration with FoundationPose (2.1 s), leading  
 786 to a one-time startup latency of about 4.4 s. During execution, FoundationPose tracking incurs 36  
 787 ms per pose update, and MPPI (200 trajectories, horizon 50) takes, on average, 0.4 s per planning  
 788 iteration, which is the main bottleneck. As a result, a typical inner-loop update without an LLM  
 789 call has an image-to-command latency of roughly 0.44 s, while an outer-loop update that involves  
 790 online LLM adaptation or failure recovery adds about 3 s (two GPT-4o calls: one for cost, one for  
 791 parameters). If a similar episode is found in the memory unit, the initial LLM call is skipped and  
 792 the rollout starts from a warm cost function, which reduces both the number of LLM queries and the  
 793 overall latency.

794 Another important bottleneck arises from the use of simulation environments for planning. MPPI  
 795 requires rolling out many trajectories in parallel, and while this is embarrassingly parallel in prin-  
 796 ciple, its efficiency is constrained by the underlying physics engine. In our work, we implement MPPI  
 797 with parallelized environments on the CPU, since MuJoCo currently does not support GPU-based  
 798 simulation and we aim to remain comparable to VLA baselines that are commonly benchmarked on  
 799 LIBERO, which is built on top of MuJoCo. In a real-world deployment, or with a GPU-accelerated  
 800 physics backend, the trajectory rollouts could be significantly faster. More generally, the perfor-  
 801 mance of the MPPI planner can be improved by combining such systems-level optimizations with  
 802 algorithmic advances, such as more efficient sampling strategies and horizon adaptation Firooz et al.  
 803 (2025); Ma et al. (2024); Pezzato et al. (2025), to bring the overall latency closer to what is required  
 804 for highly dynamic, real-time robotic tasks.

805 **Reliance on Generalist LLMs for Strategy Formulation:** A core component of our system is  
 806 the LLM’s ability to generate a viable cost function for the MPPI planner. We currently use a  
 807 generalist, off-the-shelf LLM (GPT-4o), which performs remarkably well but is not specialized for  
 808 robotics or physics-based planning. The quality and coherence of the generated cost function are  
 809 not guaranteed for entirely novel or abstract tasks that fall outside the LLM’s vast but general pre-  
 810 training data. A promising direction for future work is to fine-tune or develop LLMs specifically for  
 811 the task of generating optimization objectives for robotic control, potentially leading to more robust  
 812 and efficient strategy formulation.

810 A.4 CONTACT STRATEGY ABLATION  
811

812 Figure 5 illustrates the results of the LLM-guided contact strategy ablation, detailed in the main  
813 text’s robustness analysis. To purely isolate the impact of the strategic guidance on the planner,  
814 this specific experiment was conducted using known ground truth object poses and sizes, thereby  
815 eliminating any potential confounds from the perception module. The figure visualizes the stark  
816 difference between the direct, efficient trajectory generated with the LLM’s guidance (green) and  
817 the erratic, inefficient path taken by the unguided planner (red).  
818



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Figure 5: Ablation of the LLM-guided contact strategy on the “Flip with Wall” task. **(Left)** The  
840 trajectory with the LLM’s strategy (green) is direct and efficient, while the unguided trajectory (red)  
841 is erratic. **(Right)** The planning cost for the guided agent is significantly lower and more stable,  
842 indicating an easier optimization problem.  
843

844 A.5 INTERNAL WORLD MODEL FOR PLANNING AND ADAPTATION  
845

846 The core of CoRAL’s reasoning capability lies in its use of an explicit internal world model. This  
847 model is a simulated, physics-aware representation of the real world, constructed and parameterized  
848 by the vision module’s output,  $\theta$ . This internal model is not merely a passive environment for the  
849 planner; it serves two critical functions in our architecture:

- 850 **1. A Sandbox for Mental Rehearsal:** The MPPI controller leverages this world model to  
851 perform a number of parallel “mental rehearsals” (rollouts) of potential action sequences.  
852 This allows the agent to anticipate the physical consequences of its actions—such as contact  
853 forces and object displacement—before executing them in the evaluation world, enabling  
854 proactive and intelligent decision-making.
- 855 **2. An Adaptable Belief State:** This world model represents the agent’s current “belief” about  
856 the physical properties of its environment. Crucially, this belief is not static. The outer feed-  
857 back loop, driven by the ‘LLM (Online Adaptation)’ module, directly refines this model by  
858 updating its parameters ( $\theta$ ) based on discrepancies between predicted and observed out-  
859 comes. This turns the world model into a dynamic, adaptable belief state that is continu-  
860 ously improved through physical interaction, connecting our work to principles of online  
861 system identification and model-based reinforcement learning.

862 Below is the direct natural language output from the ‘LLM (Online Adaptation)’ module after being  
863 triggered by persistent failures in the “Flip with Wall” task. The LLM was provided with the episode  
864 history ( $E_t$ ) and prompted to diagnose the failure and propose a refined cost function.

865 A.6 EXAMPLE OF AN LLM-GENERATED COST FUNCTION  
866

867 Figure 1 shows a direct example of a Python cost function generated by the ‘LLM (Task Formu-  
868 lation)’ module for the multi-stage “Push and Pick Cutting Board” task (T1). This code serves as the  
869

```

864     --- Outer Loop Triggered: Analyzing failure and refining strategy...
865     ---
866
867 LLM Explanation: The previous cost function was failing because it did not sufficiently prioritize
868 the critical aspects of the task, such as ensuring the box is flipped onto its side and maintaining
869 contact with the wall. The rewards and penalties were not balanced effectively to guide the robot towards
870 achieving the task goal. Specifically, the orientation error was not heavily penalized, and the rewards for
871 contact and elevation were not strong enough to drive the desired behavior.
872
873 In the new version, the following improvements have been made:
874
875 1. Increased Penalty for Orientation Error: The weight on the angle error has been increased
876 to emphasize the importance of achieving the correct orientation.
877
878 2. Stronger Rewards for Contact and Elevation: The rewards for maintaining contact with the
879 wall and elevating the box have been increased, encouraging the robot to push the box against
880 the wall and attempt a flip.
881
882 3. Adjusted Proximity Penalties: The penalties for the end-effector's distance from the box and
883 the box's distance from the wall have been adjusted to better guide the robot's actions.
884
885 4. Relaxed Orientation Threshold: The threshold for the orientation reward has been slightly
886 relaxed to allow for some tolerance in achieving the target orientation, which can help in stabilizing
887 the box on its side.
888
889 These changes aim to create a more balanced and effective cost function that better aligns with the task objectives. Simulated
890 environment's cost function has been updated.

```

886 Figure 6: Direct output from the LLM during an online adaptation cycle. The model provides a  
887 clear, human-readable diagnosis of the previous plan’s failure and details the specific changes made  
888 to the cost function for the next attempt.

890  
891 running cost,  $q(x_t, u_t)$ , within the MPPI objective (Eq. 4). The function demonstrates the LLM’s  
892 ability to translate a complex, sequential goal—“push the board until the handle is over the edge,  
893 then pick it”—into a structured, computable objective that the planner can optimize.

894 The function skillfully balances multiple, often competing, objectives by implementing a dynamic,  
895 state-aware logic:

- 896 • **Dynamic Goal Blending:** It calculates a ‘grasp\_score’ based on the board’s stability and  
897 how far its handle overhangs the table edge. This score is used in a sigmoid function to  
898 create a “soft switch” that smoothly transitions the robot’s objective from pushing the board  
899 to picking the handle.
- 900 • **Phase-Specific Rewards:** The cost function provides rewards tailored to the current phase.  
901 In the push phase, it rewards progress in moving the board to the edge (‘Push progress  
902 reward’). In the pick phase, it rewards correct gripper alignment and lifting the board  
903 (‘Pick-phase alignment’, ‘Reward lift after grasp’).
- 904 • **Stability Constraints:** Throughout the push phase, it heavily penalizes any lateral drift or  
905 rotation of the board, ensuring a stable push.
- 906 • **Contact Management:** It explicitly manages contact, penalizing the gripper for losing  
907 contact with the board during the push phase.

908 This example highlights how CoRAL’s LLM grounds abstract, sequential instructions into a sophisticated,  
909 mathematical objective that enables the execution of complex, long-horizon tasks.

```

912 1 def state_cost(self):
913 2     # --- Helper lambdas ---
914 3     def sigmoid(x): return 1.0 / (1.0 + np.exp(-x))
915 4     def clip01(v): return max(0.0, min(1.0, float(v)))
916 5
917 6     # --- EE pose ---
918 7     ee_state = p.getLinkState(self.panda, self.grasp_link,
919 8                                     computeForwardKinematics=True,

```

```

918
919          physicsClientId=self.cid)
920  ee_pos = np.array(ee_state[0])
921  cost = 0.0
922
923  # --- Board pose/vel ---
924  board_pos, board_ori = p.getBasePositionAndOrientation(self.board,
925  physicsClientId=self.cid)
926  board_pos = np.array(board_pos)
927  linvel, angvel = p.getBaseVelocity(self.board, physicsClientId=self.
928  cid)
929
930  # --- World/task params with safe defaults ---
931  push_axis = np.array(getattr(self, 'push_axis', [1.0, 0.0, 0.0]),
932  dtype=float)
933  push_axis /= (np.linalg.norm(push_axis) + 1e-9)
934  table_edge_x = getattr(self, 'table_edge_x', self.board_init_pos[0]
935  + 0.25)
936  desired_overhang = getattr(self, 'desired_overhang', 0.06)
937
938  # --- Contact strategy points ---
939  pick_point = np.array(getattr(self, 'best_contact_point', board_pos
940  ), dtype=float)
941  push_point = np.array(getattr(self, 'push_contact_point',
942  board_pos + 0.5 * desired_overhang *
943  push_axis), dtype=float)
944
945  # --- Overhang & readiness for grasping ---
946  overhang_m = np.dot(pick_point - np.array([table_edge_x, board_pos
947  [1], board_pos[2]]), push_axis)
948  overhang_nrm = clip01(overhang_m / max(1e-6, desired_overhang))
949  v = np.linalg.norm(linvel) + 0.5 * np.linalg.norm(angvel)
950  stability = clip01(np.exp(-3.0 * v))
951  grasp_score = 0.7 * overhang_nrm + 0.3 * stability
952  r = sigmoid(12.0 * (grasp_score - 0.55)) # soft switch: r -> 1 as
953  grasp becomes viable
954
955  # --- Blended target following (Push vs. Pick) ---
956  w_follow_push = 12.0 * (1.0 - r)
957  w_follow_pick = 20.0 * r
958  cost += w_follow_push * np.linalg.norm(ee_pos - push_point)
959  cost += w_follow_pick * np.linalg.norm(ee_pos - pick_point)
960
961  # --- Push progress reward ---
962  cost -= 18.0 * (1.0 - r) * overhang_nrm
963
964  # --- Contact management (for push phase) ---
965  in_contact = bool(getattr(self, 'in_contact', True))
966  cost += (22.0 * (1.0 - r)) * (0.0 if in_contact else 1.0)
967
968  # --- Pick-phase alignment ---
969  ee_quat = ee_state[1]
970  if hasattr(self, 'handle_desired_ori') and self.handle_desired_ori
971  is not None:
972      q_diff = p.getDifferenceQuaternion(ee_quat, self.
973      handle_desired_ori)
974      w = max(-1.0, min(1.0, float(q_diff[3])))
975      angle = 2.0 * math.acos(w)
976      cost += (28.0 * r) * angle
977
978  # --- Lateral drift & rotation penalties (for push phase) ---
979  dp = board_pos - np.array(self.board_init_pos)
980  axial = np.dot(dp, push_axis) * push_axis
981  lateral = dp - axial
982  cost += 10.0 * (1.0 - r) * np.linalg.norm(lateral)
983  q_diff_b = p.getDifferenceQuaternion(board_ori, self.board_init_ori)

```

```

972
973     wb = max(-1.0, min(1.0, float(q_diff_b[3])))
974     ang_b = 2.0 * math.acos(wb)
975     cost += 8.0 * (1.0 - r) * ang_b
976
977     # --- Reward lift after grasp ---
978     lift_h = board_pos[2] - self.board_init_pos[2]
979     cost -= (32.0 * r) * max(0.0, float(lift_h))
980
981     # --- General penalties ---
982     if hasattr(self, 'last_action'):
983         cost += 0.001 * np.linalg.norm(self.last_action) ** 2
984     cost += 0.01 * getattr(self, 'current_step', 0)
985
986     return cost
987
988

```

Listing 1: The complete, LLM-generated running cost function  $q(x, u)$  for the “Push and Pick Cutting Board” task (T1). It demonstrates a sophisticated, multi-stage logic with a soft switch to blend objectives between the pushing and picking phases.

#### A.7 VLM PROMPTING FOR PHYSICAL PARAMETER ESTIMATION

This section details the query sent to the VLM (GPT-4o) to infer the physical properties of objects in the scene, which are used to parameterize the internal world model,  $\theta$ . Unlike methods that use VLMs for identification, our approach leverages the VLM’s physical commonsense reasoning. The VLM’s task is not to identify objects, but to estimate their unobservable physical attributes based on their known identity and estimated geometric state.

The prompt, shown in Figure 2, provides the model with all available context: the full scene image (passed implicitly to the multimodal model), the natural language task description  $T$ , and a JSON object for each relevant item. This JSON object is populated with the object’s known semantic ‘label’ (from its 3D model) and its current 6-DoF ‘pose’, as estimated by FoundationPose.

The VLM’s sole task is **Estimation**: It must use its vast, pre-trained knowledge about the real world to estimate the physical properties of the object, such as its ‘mass\_kg’ and ‘friction\_coeff’, based on its visual appearance (e.g., material, size) and the provided context. By constraining the output to be only the completed JSON object, we ensure the response is directly parsable by our system.

```

1004 1 # Prompt sent to GPT-4o to act as the VLM
1005 2 You are a robotics expert with a deep understanding of physics.
1006 3 Your task is to estimate the physical properties of an object for a
1007     simulation, based on its appearance in an image.
1008 4
1009 5 Task Description: ``Push the cutting board until the handle is off the
1010     table, then pick it up.''
1011 6
1012 7 I have an object in the scene. I know what it is and I have an estimate
1013     of its current pose. Please provide your best estimate for its mass (
1014     in kg) and friction coefficient based on the image.
1015 8
1016 9 Object Data:
1017 10 {
1018 11     'cutting_board': {
1019 12         'pose_estimated': [0.5, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0],
1020 13         'mass_kg': "?",
1021 14         'friction_coeff': "?"
1022 15     }
1023 16 }
1024 17
1025 18 Respond ONLY with the completed JSON object, filling in the unknown
1026     values.
1027 19
1028 20 #
1029 21 # Example VLM JSON Response for the task above:
1030 22 {

```

```
1026 23     ``cutting_board": {  
1027 24         ``pose_estimated": [0.5, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0],  
1028 25         ``mass_kg": 0.4,  
1029 26         ``friction_coeff": 0.4  
1030 27     }  
1031 28 }  
1032 29 }
```

1032 Listing 2: The structured prompt sent to the multimodal model (GPT-4o) to act as our VLM. The  
 1033 model is provided with the object’s known label and estimated pose, and is tasked only with filling  
 1034 in the unknown physical parameters (?).

## A.8 LLM PROMPTING FOR COST FUNCTION GENERATION

```
1 You are an expert in optimal control, physics-based planning, and contact
2 -rich manipulation.
3 Your job is to generate an initial mppi cost function that adapts to the
4 task description
5 and world parameters.
6
7 IMPORTANT: The structure must be GENERAL and TASK-ADAPTIVE.
8 Do NOT hard-code logic for a specific task. Instead, infer the
9 requirements from the task description.
10
11 You must output ONLY a Python-like function:
12
13 def state_cost(self):
14
15 STRUCTURAL REQUIREMENTS:
16
17 1. The cost must be composed of weighted terms for:
18     - distance-to-goal or subgoal
19     - contact or interaction constraints (if relevant)
20     - orientation/alignment terms (if relevant)
21     - force or stability terms (if relevant)
22     - control effort
23     - time/step penalty
24
25 2. If the task involves MULTIPLE PHASES (e.g., push then pick, flip then
26 place),
27 you MUST:
28     - infer subgoals,
29     - compute a phase progress score,
30     - optionally blend objectives using a soft switch (sigmoid-based).
31
32 3. If the task involves CONTACT-RICH behavior (e.g., pushing, flipping,
33 using a wall),
34 include:
35     - contact incentives or penalties,
36     - drift or slippage penalties,
37     - force-dependent shaping terms (if sensed).
38
39 4. If the task is SIMPLE (e.g., pick-and-place),
40 use a single-stage goal-driven cost with alignment and distance terms.
41
42 5. ALL TERMS must be conditional on task semantics.
43 Only include what is relevant for the input task.
44
45 6. ALL WEIGHTS must be numeric (choose reasonable magnitudes).
46
47 7. The function MUST be fully executable Python-like pseudocode using:
48     - norms
49     - dot products
50     - quaternions (if needed)
51     - sigmoid for soft transitions
```

```

1080
1081     - optional heuristics (e.g., stability)
1082
1083 FORMAT (MANDATORY):
1084 Return ONLY the code block:
1085
1086     def state_cost(self):
1087         ...
1088         return cost
1089
1090 -----
1091 TASK DESCRIPTION:
1092 "{TASK_DESCRIPTION}"
1093
1094 POSE_STATE:
1095 {TRACKED_POSES_JSON}
1096
1097 PHYSICAL_PARAMS:
1098 {ESTIMATED_PARAMS_JSON}
1099
1100 Return ONLY the Python code block.

```

Listing 3: General task-adaptive prompt used by the LLM to generate initial MPPI cost functions.

### 1100 A.9 LLM PROMPTING FOR ONLINE ADAPTATION

1102 The ‘LLM (Online Adaptation)’ module is triggered when the system detects persistent failures.  
 1103 Unlike the initial task formulation, the adaptation prompts are designed to be diagnostic, providing  
 1104 the LLM with a history of recent failed interactions to inform its corrections. The module employs  
 1105 two distinct prompting strategies depending on the type of refinement needed: strategy refinement  
 1106 (correcting the plan) and world model correction (correcting physical parameters).

1107

#### 1108 A.9.1 STRATEGY REFINEMENT PROMPT

1109 When the logic of the plan itself is suspected to be flawed, the system asks the LLM to act as a  
 1110 robotics programmer and rewrite the core ‘state\_cost’ function. As shown in Figure 4, the prompt  
 1111 provides the LLM with the task, the environment’s attributes, the recent execution history (e.g.,  
 1112 last 5 steps of object positions and resulting costs), and critically, the **current, failing source code**  
 1113 of the cost function. It is then instructed to return a corrected code block and a natural language  
 1114 explanation of its changes. This process is the source of the explainable failure recovery analysis  
 1115 presented in the main text.

```

1116 1 # Python function that builds the prompt for cost function refinement.
1117 2 def ask_state_cost_fn(self, task: str, history: list, env: BoxPushEnv):
1118 3     # Grab the current, failing source code of the cost function.
1119 4     try:
1120 5         current_src = inspect.getsource(env.state_cost.__func__)
1121 6     except (OSError, IOError):
1122 7         current_src = env.state_cost_src
1123 8
1124 9     # --- The prompt sent to the LLM ---
1125 10    prompt = (
1126 11        f'`Task: {task}\n'
1127 12        f'`You have full freedom to compute any cost that helps '{task}'.\n'
1128 13        f'`History of last 5 steps (object_pos, resulting_cost):\n'
1129 14        f'<RECENT_EXECUTION_HISTORY>\n\n'
1130 15        f'`Please output TWO things, separated by `---`:\n'
1131 16        f'`1) Python code for a method `def state_cost(self): ...` (\n'
1132 17        f'`indented block only)\n'
1133 18        f'`2) A brief explanation why the previous cost was failing and\n'
1134 19        f'`how the new one addresses it.\n\n'
1135 20        f'`Here is the CURRENT implementation that is failing:\n'
1136 21        f'`{current_src}`'

```

```
1134 20
1135 21
1136 22     # Query the LLM and parse the response (code_str, explanation)
1137 23     resp = openai.chat.completions.create(...)
1138 24     content = resp.choices[0].message.content
1139 25     code_str, explanation = content.split("---", 1)
1140 26     return code_str.strip(), explanation.strip()
1141 27
```

Listing 4: The Python function and prompt structure used for Strategy Refinement. The LLM is given the failing code and recent history to rewrite the cost function.

### A.9.2 WORLD MODEL CORRECTION PROMPT

If the strategy is believed to be correct but the physical outcomes do not match the simulation (e.g., the robot pushes but the object barely moves), the system asks the LLM to act as a physicist and refine the object parameters. The prompt, detailed in Figure 5, provides the LLM with the agent's current belief about the physical parameters (mass, friction) and the recent execution history. The LLM's task is to analyze the discrepancy between actions and outcomes in the history and propose corrected physical parameters, returning them in a machine-parsable JSON format.

```
1 # Python function that builds the prompt for physical parameter
1152 1153     refinement.
1154 2 def ask_params_refinement(self, history: list, object_params: list):
1155 3
1156 4     # --- The prompt sent to the LLM ---
1157 5     prompt = (
1158 6         'We have the following object parameters:\n'
1159 7         f'{json.dumps(object_params, indent=2)}\n\n'
1160 8         'Recent execution history (last 5 steps):\n'
1161 9         f'<RECENT_EXECUTION_HISTORY>\n\n'
1162 10        'Based on this, propose refined values for mass and
1163 11        friction_coef.'
1164 12        'Return ONLY a JSON array of objects with keys '
1165 13        "'label', 'mass', and 'friction'.\n"
1166 14        'Example output:\n"
1167 15        "[\n"
1168 16        "    {\``label``: ``cutting_board``, ``mass``: 0.45, ``friction
1169 17        ````: 0.35}\n"
1170 18        "]"
1171 19    )
1172 20
1173 21    # Query the LLM and parse the JSON response
1174 22    resp = openai.chat.completions.create(...)
1175 23    text = resp.choices[0].message.content.strip()
1176 24    try:
1177 25        return json.loads(text)
1178 26    except json.JSONDecodeError:
1179 27        # Fallback to extract JSON if LLM adds extra text
1180 28        ...
1181 29
1182 30
1183 31
1184 32
1185 33
1186 34
1187 35
1188 36
1189 37
1190 38
1191 39
1192 40
1193 41
1194 42
1195 43
1196 44
1197 45
1198 46
1199 47
1200 48
1201 49
1202 50
1203 51
1204 52
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1233 81
1234 82
1235 83
1236 84
1237 85
1238 86
1239 87
1240 88
1241 89
1242 90
1243 91
1244 92
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Listing 5: The Python function and prompt structure for World Model Correction. The LLM analyzes the recent history to refine its belief about the object’s physical properties.

## A.10 LLM-DRIVEN CONTACT STRATEGY GENERATION

A key challenge in contact-rich manipulation is determining precisely *where* to make contact with an object. Uniformly sampling an object’s entire surface is computationally inefficient and unlikely to yield strategically useful points. To overcome this, CoRAL leverages the LLM’s commonsense physical reasoning to intelligently narrow the search space. This is achieved through a two-stage process, detailed in Figure 6, which translates a high-level task into a concrete set of candidate contact points ( $C_0$ ).

1188  
 1189 **Stage 1: Strategic Region Proposal.** First, the ‘LLM (Task Formulation)’ module queries a foun-  
 1190 dation model (GPT-4o) with a structured prompt that includes the task description and the VLM-  
 1191 estimated object parameters. The prompt, shown in Figure 7, explicitly instructs the LLM to act  
 1192 as a robotics expert and identify 1-3 small, promising surface regions for contact on each relevant  
 1193 object. The LLM is constrained to return this information in a structured JSON format, specifying  
 1194 each region’s 3D center, surface normal, radius (extent), and the desired number of samples. For the  
 1195 “Push and Pick Cutting Board” task, the LLM correctly identifies that pushing should occur on the  
 1196 board’s main surface, while grasping should target the handle.

1196 **Stage 2: Geometric Candidate Sampling.** Second, the structured JSON response from the LLM  
 1197 is passed to a geometric sampling function (‘sample-points-in-region’). This function translates  
 1198 the LLM’s abstract region definitions into a dense set of 3D point coordinates. For each region, it  
 1199 defines a 2D disk in 3D space oriented by the provided center and normal vectors. It then samples  
 1200 the requested number of points within this disk, generating the final set of candidate contact points,  
 1201  $C_0$ , which are then used to bias the MPPI planner’s exploration as described in the main text.

```
1202 1 # Stage 1: Query the LLM to propose strategic contact regions.
1203 2 def ask_region_strategy(object_params, task_desc):
1204 3     # The prompt is shown in Figure~\ref{fig:contact_prompt}
1205 4     prompt = f"...
1206 5     resp = client.chat.completions.create(...)
1207 6     return resp.choices[0].message.content
1208 7
1209 8 # Stage 2: Sample concrete 3D points from an LLM-defined region.
1210 9 def sample_points_in_region(region):
1211 10     c = np.array(region['center'], dtype=float)
1212 11     n = np.array(region['normal'], dtype=float)
1213 12     r = float(region['extent'])
1214 13     k = int(region['num_samples'])
1215 14
1216 15     # Create two orthonormal tangent vectors to define the plane of the
1217 16     # disk.
1218 17     if abs(n[2]) < 0.9:
1219 18         axis = np.array([0.0, 0.0, 1.0])
1220 19     else:
1221 20         axis = np.array([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
1222 21     t1 = np.cross(n, axis)
1223 22     t1 /= np.linalg.norm(t1)
1224 23     t2 = np.cross(n, t1)
1225 24     t2 /= np.linalg.norm(t2)
1226 25
1227 26     # Sample k points within the 2D disk defined by the tangents.
1228 27     pts = []
1229 28     for _ in range(k):
1230 29         rho = np.sqrt(np.random.rand()) * r # Uniform sampling in a
1231 30         disk
1232 31         theta = np.random.rand() * 2 * np.pi
1233 32         offset = rho * np.cos(theta) * t1 + rho * np.sin(theta) * t2
1234 33     pts.append((c + offset).tolist())
1235 34
1236 1 # The prompt sent to the LLM (Task Formulation) module:
1237 2 Task: Push the cutting board until the handle is off the table, then pick
1238 3 it up.
1239 4 You have objects with parameters:
1240 5 {
1241 6     'board': [{TRACKED_POSES_JSON}, {ESTIMATED_PARAMS_JSON}],
1242 7
```

1232 **Listing 6:** The two-stage Python implementation for generating the contact strategy  $C_0$ . The ‘ask-  
 1233 region-strategy’ function queries the LLM for high-level guidance, and ‘sample-points-in-region’  
 1234 translates that guidance into concrete 3D coordinates.

```
1235
1236 1 # The prompt sent to the LLM (Task Formulation) module:
1237 2 Task: Push the cutting board until the handle is off the table, then pick
1238 3 it up.
1239 4 You have objects with parameters:
1240 5 {
1241 6     'board': [{TRACKED_POSES_JSON}, {ESTIMATED_PARAMS_JSON}],
1242 7
```

```

1242 8   ``table": [{TRACKED_POSES_JSON} , {ESTIMATED_PARAMS_JSON}]
1243 9 }
1244 10
1245 11 Instead of uniform sampling, identify for each object 1-3 small surface
1246 12 regions
1247 13 where contact is most promising.
1248 14 For each region, return:
1249 15   - center: [x,y,z]
1250 16   - normal: unit surface normal [nx,ny,nz]
1251 17   - extent: radius in meters around center
1252 18   - num_samples: how many points to sample there
1253 19 Respond ONLY a JSON mapping each label to its ``regions" array.
1254 20
1255 21 # Example LLM JSON Response:
1256 22 {
1257 23   ``object": {
1258 24     ``regions": [
1259 25       {
1260 26         ``center": [0.5, 0.0, 0.01],
1261 27         ``normal": [0, 0, 1],
1262 28         ``extent": 0.1,
1263 29         ``num_samples": 30
1264 30       }
1265 31     ]
1266 32   }
1267 33 }
```

Listing 7: The structured prompt and an example JSON response for the “Push and Pick Cutting Board” task. The prompt constrains the LLM to provide a structured, machine-readable output.

```

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