

# Visual-Tactile Geometric Reasoning

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1      **Abstract:**

2      This work provides an architecture which uses a learning algorithm that incorpo-  
3      rates depth and tactile information to create rich and accurate 3D models from  
4      single depth images. The models are then able to be used for robotic manipulation  
5      tasks. This is accomplished through the use of a 3D convolutional neural network  
6      (CNN). Offline, the network is provided with both depth and tactile information  
7      and trained to predict the object's geometry, filling in the occluded regions of the  
8      object. At runtime, the network is provided a partial view of an object. The net-  
9      work then produces an initial object hypothesis using depth alone. A grasp is  
10     planned using this hypothesis and a guarded move takes place to collect tactile  
11     information. The network can then improve the system's understanding of the  
12     object's geometry by utilizing the newly collected tactile information.

13     **Keywords:** Sensor Fusion, Grasping, Deep Learning

14    **1 Introduction**

15    Grasp planning based on raw sensory data is difficult due to occlusion and incomplete information  
16    regarding scene geometry. Often one sensory modality does not provide enough context to enable  
17    reliable planning. For example a single depth sensor image cannot provide information about oc-  
18    cluded regions of an object, and tactile information is incredibly sparse spatially. This work utilizes  
19    a 3D convolutional neural network to enable stable robotic grasp planning by incorporating both  
20    tactile and depth information to infer occluded geometries. This multi-modal system is able to uti-  
21    lize both tactile and RGBD information to form a more complete model of the space the robot can  
22    interact with and also to provide a complete object model for grasp planning.

23    During the runtime stage, a point cloud of the visible portion of the object is captured. As described  
24    in section 3 it is voxelized and sent through a CNN to provide an initial hypothesis of the object's  
25    geometry. This initial hypothesis is used to plan a grasp. As described in section 4 the hand is then  
26    moved to the planned grasp via a guarded move, stopping when contact with the object occurs. At  
27    this point, the newly acquired tactile information is combined with the original partial view and sent  
28    through the CNN to create an updated object geometry hypothesis. This new hypothesis incorporates  
29    both the depth and tactile information.

30    The contributions of this work include: 1) an open source dataset for training a shape completion  
31    system using both tactile and depth sensory information, 2) a framework for integrating multi-modal  
32    sensory data to reason about object geometry, and 3) results comparing the completed object models  
33    using depth only and combined depth-tactile information.

34    **2 Related Work**

35    The idea of incorporating sensory information from vision, tactile and force sensors is not new [1].  
36    Despite the intuitiveness of using multi-modal data, there is still no agreed upon framework to best  
37    integrate multi-modal sensory information in a way that is useful for robotic manipulation tasks. In  
38    this work, we are interested in reasoning about object geometry in particular.

39 Several recent uses of tactile information to improve estimates of object geometry has focused on  
40 the use of Gaussian Process Implicit Surfaces(GPIS) [29]. Several examples along this line of work  
41 include [7][30] [6][10][16][26][21]. This approach is able to quickly incorporate additional tac-  
42 tile information and improve the estimate of the objects geometry local to the tactile contact or  
43 observed sensor readings. There has additionally been several works that incorporate tactile infor-  
44 mation to better fit planes of symmetry and super quadrics to observed point clouds [15][14][5].  
45 These approaches work well when interacting with objects that confirm to the heuristic of having  
46 clear detectable planes of symmetry or are easily modeled as super quadrics.

47 There has been successful research in utilizing continuous streams of visual information similar to  
48 Kinect Fusion[24] or SLAM[28] in order to improve models of 3D objects for manipulation. One  
49 example being [20][19] In this work, the authors develop an approach to building 3D models of  
50 unknown objects based on a depth camera observing the robots hand while moving an object. The  
51 approach integrates both shape and appearance information into an articulated ICP approach to track  
52 the robots manipulator and the object while improving the 3D model of the object. Similarly [13]  
53 attaches a depth sensor to a robotic hand, and plans grasps directly in the sensed voxel grid. These  
54 approaches improve their models of the object using only a single sensory modality, but from many  
55 time points.

### 56 **3 Visual Geometric Reasoning for Robotic Grasping**

57 In previous work, we created a shape completion method using single depth images [2]. The work  
58 provides an architecture to enable robotic grasp planning via shape completion. Shape completion is  
59 accomplished through the use of a 3D convolutional neural network (CNN). The network is trained  
60 on an open source dataset of over 440,000 3D exemplars captured from varying viewpoints. At  
61 runtime, a 2.5D point cloud captured from a single point of view is fed into the CNN, which fills  
62 in the occluded regions of the scene, allowing grasps to be planned and executed on the completed  
63 object. Runtime shape completion is very rapid because most of the computational costs of shape  
64 completion are borne during offline training. This work explored how the quality of completions  
65 vary based on several factors. These include whether or not the object being completed existed in  
66 the training data and how many object models were used to train the network, and the ability of the  
67 network to generalize to novel objects allowing the system to complete previously unseen objects at  
68 runtime. Below we summarize this method and discuss how we can augment it with tactile data to  
69 generate more accurate complete models.

#### 70 **3.1 Data Generation**

71 In order to train a network to reconstruct a diverse range of objects, meshes were collected from  
72 the YCB[8] and Grasp Database[17]. The models were run through bivox[23] in order to generate  
73 2563 occupancy grids. In these occupancy grids, both the surface and interior of the meshes are  
74 marked as occupied. In addition, all the meshes were placed in Gazebo, and 726 depth images were  
75 generated for each object subject to different rotations uniformly sampled (in roll-pitch-yaw space,  
76 11\*6\*11) around the mesh. The depth images are used to create occupancy grids for the portions of  
77 the mesh visible to the simulated camera, and then all the occupancy grids generated by bivox are  
78 transformed to correctly overlay the depth image occupancy grids. Both sets of occupancy grids are  
79 then down-sampled to 403 to create a large number of training examples. The input set (X) contains  
80 occupancy grids that are filled only with the regions of the object visible to the camera, and the  
81 output set (Y) contains the ground truth occupancy grids for the space occupied by the entire model.  
82 An illustration of this process is shown in Fig. 2.

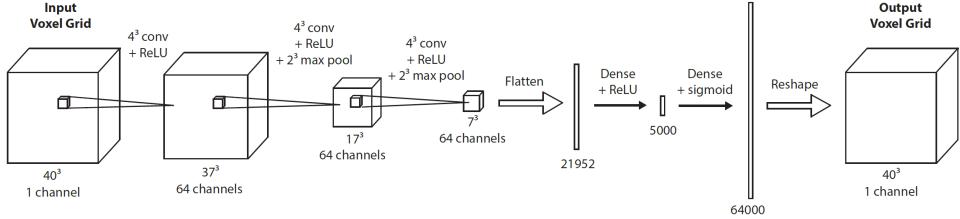


Figure 1: CNN Architecture. The CNN has three convolutional and two dense layers. The final layer has 64000 nodes, and reshapes to form the resulting  $40^3$  occupancy grid. The numbers on the bottom edges show the input sizes for each layer. All layers use ReLU activations except for the last dense layer, which uses a sigmoid.

### 83 3.2 Model Architecture and Training

84 The architecture of the CNN is shown in Fig. 1. The model  
 85 was implemented using Keras[9], a Theano[4][3] based deep  
 86 learning library. Each layer used rectified linear units as  
 87 nonlinearities except the final fully connected (output) layer  
 88 which used a sigmoid activation to restrict the output to the  
 89 range  $[0, 1]$ . They used the cross-entropy error  $E(y, y')$  as the  
 90 cost function with target  $y$  and output  $y'$ :

$$E(y, y_0) = -(y \log(y') + (1 - y) \log(1 - y'))$$

91 This cost function encourages each output to be close to ei-  
 92 ther 0 for unoccupied target voxels or 1 for occupied. The  
 93 optimization algorithm Adam[18], which computes adaptive  
 94 learning rates for each network parameter, was used with de-  
 95 fault hyperparameters ( $\beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.999, \epsilon = 10^{-8}$ )  
 96 except for the learning rate, which was set to 0.0001. Weights  
 97 were initialized following the recommendations of [12] for  
 98 rectified linear units and [11] for the logistic activation layer.  
 99 The model was trained with a batch size of 32. Each of the 32  
 100 examples in a batch was randomly sampled from the full train-  
 101 ing set with replacement. They used the Jaccard similarity to  
 102 evaluate the similarity between a generated voxel occupancy  
 103 grid and the ground truth. The Jaccard similarity between sets  
 104 A and B is given by:

$$J(A, B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|}$$

105 The Jaccard similarity has a minimum value of 0, where A and B have no intersection and a maxi-  
 106 mum value of 1 where A and B are identical. During training, this similarity measure is computed  
 107 for input meshes that were in the training data (Training Views), meshes from objects within the  
 108 training data but from novel views (Holdout Views), and for meshes of objects not in the training  
 109 data (Holdout Models). The CNNs were trained with an NVIDIA Titan X GPU. When we integrated  
 110 the tactile completion into this pipeline we chose to use the same comparison of training objects and  
 111 holdout objects as a methodology for evaluating the success of the network.

### 112 3.3 Runtime

113 At runtime the point cloud for the target object is acquired from a 3D sensor, scaled, voxelized and  
 114 then passed through the CNN. The output of the CNN, a completed voxel grid of the object, goes  
 115 through a post processing algorithm that returns a mesh model of the completed object. Finally, a  
 116 grasp can be planned and executed based on the completed mesh model. Fig. 3 demonstrates the full  
 117 runtime pipeline on a novel object never seen before. With our included tactile process we expand  
 118 on this process by integrating an additional two steps which are described in section 4.

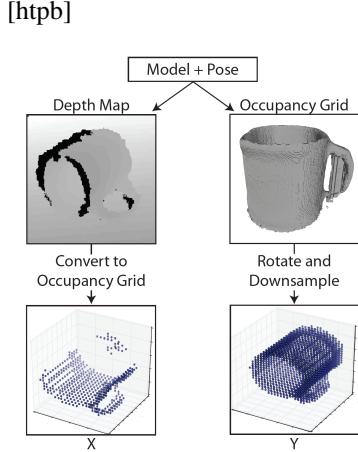


Figure 2: Training Data: In X, the input to the CNN, the occupancy grid marks visible portions of the model. Y, the expected output, has all voxels occupied by the model marked.

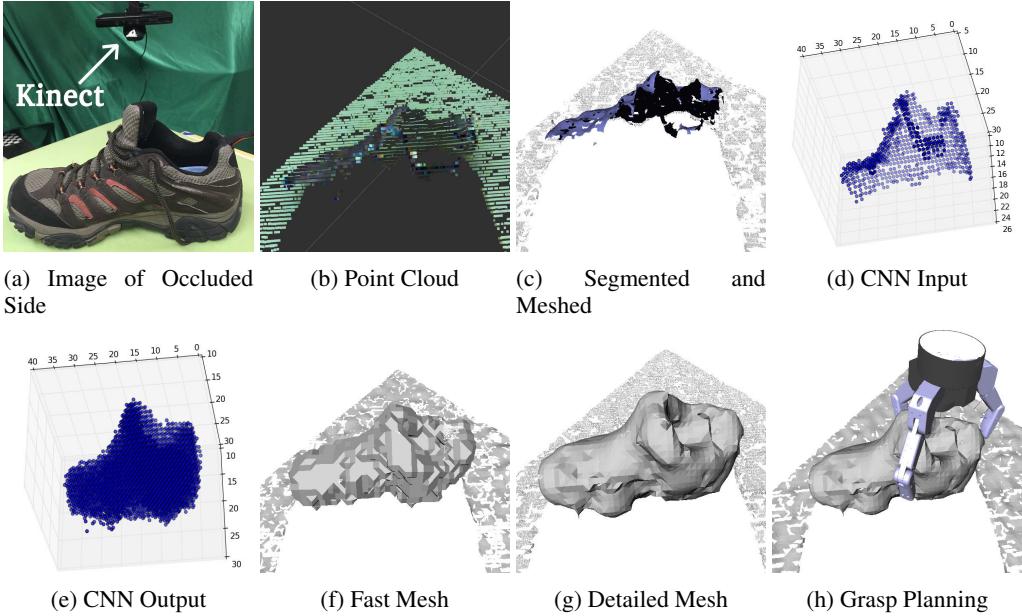
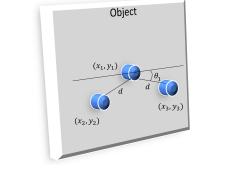


Figure 3: Stages to Shape Completion using vision data only. These images are not shown from the angle in which the data was captured in order to visualize the occluded regions. (a): An object to be grasped is placed in the scene. (b): A point cloud is captured. (c): The point cloud is segmented and meshed. (d): A partial mesh is selected by the user and then voxelized and passed into the 3D shape completion CNN. (e): The output of the CNN. (f): The resulting occupancy grid can be run through a marching cubes algorithm to obtain a mesh quickly. (g): Or, for better results, the output of the CNN can be combined with the observed point cloud and preprocessed for smoothness before meshing. (h): Grasps are planned on the smoothed completed mesh. Note: this is a novel object not seen by the CNN during training.

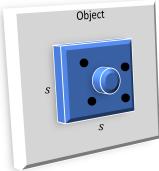
119 First a targeted point cloud is acquired using a Microsoft Kinect and segmented using PCL’s [25]  
 120 implementation of Euclidian clustering. Then the partial mesh is completed using a CNN with a res-  
 121 olution of  $40^3$  with an architecture as described in 3.2. The mesh is then smoothed using a march-  
 122 ing cubes algorithm and then upscaled using a quadratic programming algorithm as described in [2].  
 123 Finally a grasp is calculated using the Graspit! [22] software using the Barrett Hand model. The  
 124 reachability of the planned grasps are checked using MoveIt![27] and the highest quality reachable  
 125 grasp is then executed. For the purposes of this paper this last step has been omitted from our data  
 126 collection step.

### 127 3.4 Performance

128 We created a test dataset by randomly sampling 50 training views (Training Views), 50 holdout  
 129 views (Holdout Views), and 50 views of holdout models (Holdout Models). The Training Views and  
 130 Holdout Views were sampled from the 14 YCB training objects. The Holdout Models were sampled  
 131 from holdout YCB and Grasp Dataset objects. We used three metrics to compare the accuracy of the  
 132 different completion methods: Jaccard similarity, Hausdorff distance, and geodesic divergence. We  
 133 were able to show improvements over the partial and mirror methods by a significant margin. When  
 134 comparing our shape completion method to a RANSAC based algorithm we were able to show our  
 135 algorithm was more generalizable Jaccard (Ours: 0.771, RANSAC: 0.8566), Hausdorff (Ours: 3.6,  
 136 RANSAC: 3.1), geodesic (Ours: 0.0867, RANSAC: 0.1245). Our approach significantly outper-  
 137 forms the RANSAC approach when encountering an object that neither method has seen before  
 138 (Holdout Models): Jaccard (Ours: 0.6496, RANSAC: 0.4063), Hausdorff (Ours: 5.9, RANSAC:  
 139 20.4), geodesic (Ours: 0.1412, RANSAC: 0.4305). The RANSAC based approaches performance on  
 140 the Holdout Models is also worse than that of the mirrored or partial completion methods on both  
 141 the geodesic and Hausdorff metrics.

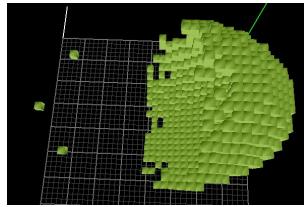


(a) Sampling of object

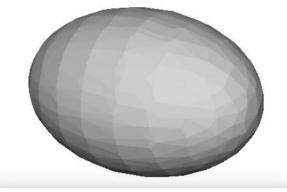


(b) Sampling around contact

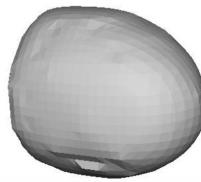
Figure 4: To generate the simulated tactile data we used an approximation of the Barrett hand’s geometry which included finger offset as well as rotation about the z-axis of the camera frame. We then sample around three suggested contact points.



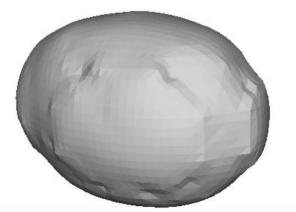
(a) Input



(b) Ground Truth



(c) Depth Only Completion



(d) Tactile + Depth Completion

Figure 5: Egg completion from the YCB and grasp database holdout model set. It is hard to determine how far back the completion actually goes, and it is hard to differentiate what object this is as the dataset contains both eggs and bowls. The Tactile + Depth Completion is better as it uses the tactile information to alleviate both concerns.

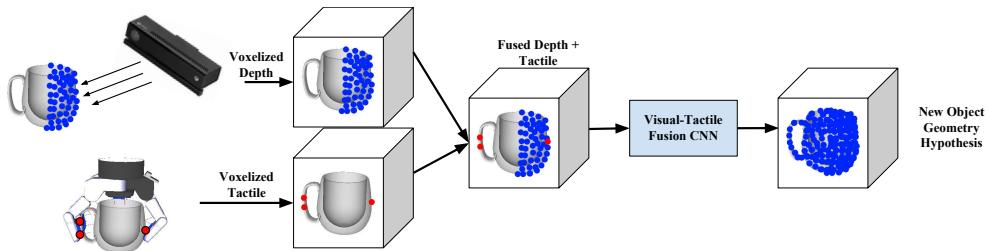


Figure 6: Both Tactile and Depth information are independently captured and voxelized into  $40^3$  grids. These are merged into a shared occupancy map which is fed into a CNN to produce a hypothesis of the object’s geometry.

## 142 4 Visual-Tactile Geometric Reasoning for Robotic Grasping

143 The results above provide a series of reasonable shape approximations using a CNN which is trained  
 144 on a data set of partial views. However a CNN trained on depth alone is not able to account for full  
 145 range of object geometry that cannot be viewed. To alleviate this, our solution is to add tactile data  
 146 from tactile probing to the hypothesized shape completed model and generate a new more accurate  
 147 model incorporating both visual and tactile information. To generate synthetic tactile data we used  
 148 an approximation of the Barrett hand shown in Fig. 4. This model can then be used for grasp  
 149 planning and manipulation. An overview of our sensory fusion architecture is shown in Fig. 6.

### 150 4.1 Training

151 The dataset consists of approximately half a million pairs of oriented voxel grids. Where one grid’s  
 152 voxels are marked as occupied if visible to a camera, and the second grid’s voxels are marked  
 153 as occupied if the object intersects a given voxel, independent of perspective. This dataset was  
 154 augmented with tactile information either from a tactile grasp, or tactile exploration as shown in  
 155 Fig. 10.

156 We generated a series of simulated tactile points and combined these points in a 3D voxel grid with  
 157 a partial view of a ground truth mesh as described in section 3.1. We stored these as a series of

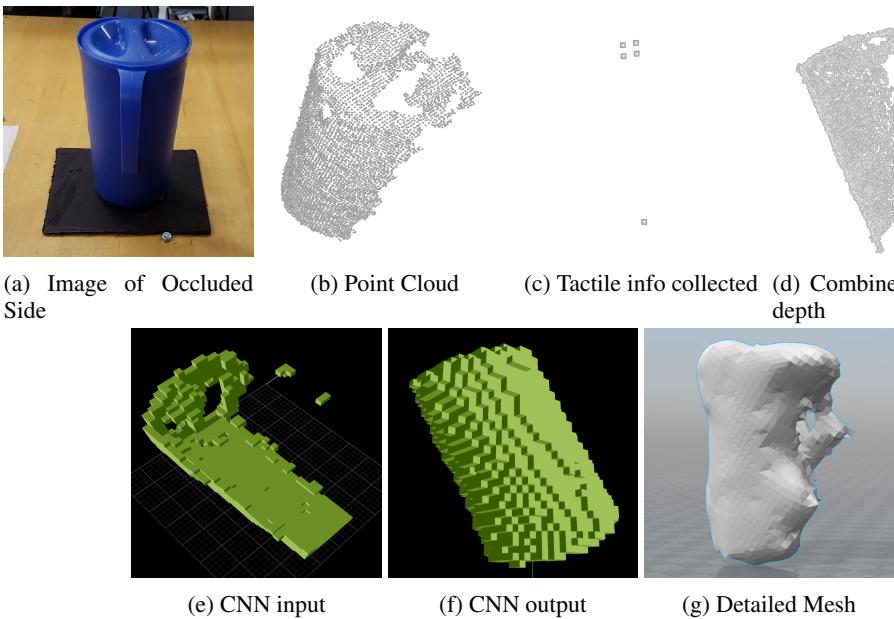


Figure 7: Stages to Shape Completion using vision and tactile data. These images are not shown from the angle in which the data was captured in order to visualize the occluded regions. (a): An object to be grasped is placed in the scene. (b): A point cloud is captured. (c): Tactile information is collected. (d): Tactile information and depth information are merged into one point cloud. (e): The input to the CNN. (f): The output of the CNN. (g): A smoothed mesh of the CNN output using the marching cubes algorithm.

158 bivox files for the purposes of training a CNN. In order to generate the tactile points we found a  
 159 set of three points by taking samples across the y-axis of the object in the -z direction. These three  
 160 points were generated by taking rays through the 3D voxel grid and combining them with the partial  
 161 view of the object as shown in Fig. 7.

162 This provided information about up to three additional occupied voxels marking where each finger  
 163 intersects the object. We then changed our runtime pipeline to incorporate the new tactile informa-  
 164 tion as shown in Fig. 4. A good example of this additional benefit is shown in Fig. 5 where the  
 165 network was able to complete the given egg voxel grid despite not seeing the back half of the object  
 166 by incorporating the new tactile information. The tactile information allows the system to correctly  
 167 predict how far back the completed object should extend and disambiguate between objects used in  
 168 training that have similar depth maps but very different completions. Fig. 8 shows how completion  
 169 quality improves as training progresses for two networks one trained using depth alone, and the  
 170 second trained using depth and tactile information. It is interesting to note that difference in perfor-  
 171 mance between the two networks is much larger on Holdout Models than on Train Views. This can  
 172 be interpreted to mean that the additional tactile information is more useful on novel objects, while  
 173 depth alone maybe sufficient for good completions if the object was used during training.

## 174 5 Experimental Results

175 In order to evaluate our system, it was first trained on a simple shape dataset. This dataset consisted  
 176 of conjoined half shapes. Both front and back halves of the objects were randomly chosen to be  
 177 either a sphere, cube, or diamond. The front and back halves do match in size. Several example  
 178 shapes are shown in Fig. 9 (b) half cube half sphere and (d) half sphere half diamond. Next,  
 179 synthetic sensory data was generated for these example shapes. Depth information was captured  
 180 from a fixed camera location, and tactile information was collected using both a tactile exploration,  
 181 and a tactile grasp. The sensory data for two shapes is shown in Fig. 9 (a) and (c). Fig 10 shows the  
 182 difference between the tactile grasp and tactile exploration.

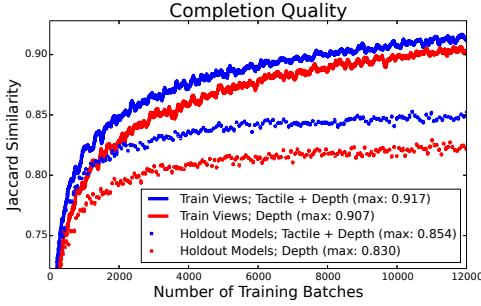


Figure 8: Jaccard similarity for two CNNs, one (Red: Depth) trained with depth alone, the second (Blue: Tactile + Depth) trained with tactile and depth information. While training, the CNNs were evaluated on inputs they were being trained on (Train Views) and novel inputs from meshes they have never seen before (Holdout Models). In both evaluations the network provided with both depth and tactile is able to do a better job, this is especially true for Holdout Models demonstrated by the widened performance gap between the two networks.

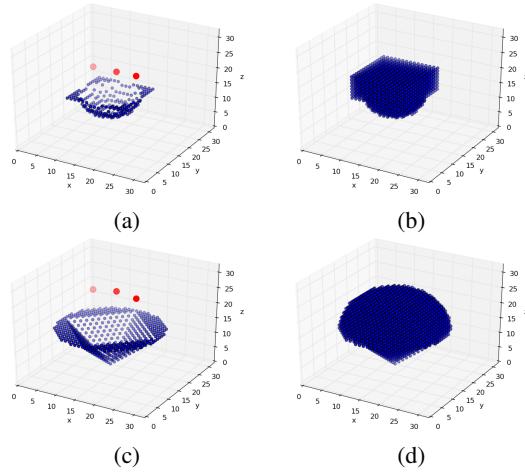


Figure 9: Example training pairs from simple shape dataset. The red dots represent the tactile readings from tactile exploration. The blue dots on (a) and (c) represent to occupancy map gathered from the depth image. The blue points in (b) and (d) represent the ground truth 3d geometry.

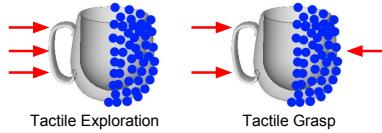


Figure 10: Red arrows show how the fingers approach the object for the tactile exploration case and for the tactile grasp case. Blue dots show points in the depth image captured by the camera. When using both tactile and grasp information, the system is able to complete the object almost and for the tactile grasp case. Blue dots show 100% of the time. While depth or tactile alone are not sufficient to successfully reason about object geometry in all cases.

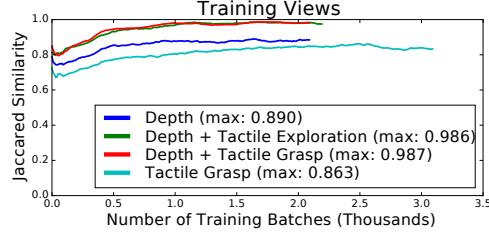


Figure 11: Different runs of the shape completion system where input is provided from: Depth, Depth and Tactile Exploration, Depth and Tactile from Grasp, and only from a Tactile Grasp. When using both tactile and grasp information, the system is able to complete the object almost and for the tactile grasp case. Blue dots show 100% of the time. While depth or tactile alone are not sufficient to successfully reason about object geometry in all cases.

183 Four networks with the exact same architecture were trained on this dataset using different sensory  
 184 data as input. The results are shown in Fig. 11. One network was only provided the tactile grasp  
 185 information during training, and performed poorly. A second network was given only the depth  
 186 information during training, and performed better than the first network, but still encountered many  
 187 situations where it did not have enough information to accurately complete the back half of the  
 188 object. The other two networks were given the depth and tactile information. One in the form of  
 189 a tactile grasp and the other from a tactile exploration. These networks were able to learn the task  
 190 to completion. They successfully utilized the tactile information to differentiate between plausible  
 191 geometries of occluded regions.

## 192 5.1 YCB Live Hardware Experiments

193 After demonstrating on the simple shape dataset, we trained two additional models using 486 of the  
 194 grasp and YCB dataset objects, the remaining models were kept for a holdout set. One model was  
 195 again trained using only the depth information, while a second model was trained using both depth  
 196 and tactile information provide from a tactile exploration performed in a similar manner as with the

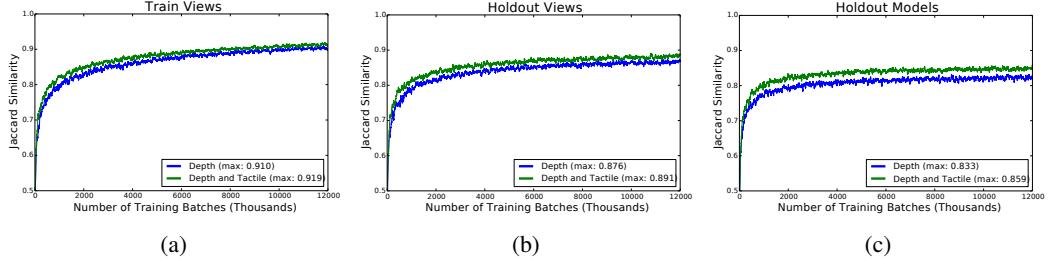


Figure 12: Jaccard similarity for two CNNs, one (shown in blue) trained with depth alone, the second (green) trained with depth and tactile information. For each plot, while training, the CNNs were evaluated on inputs they were being trained on (Training Views, plot a), novel inputs from meshes they were trained on (Holdout Views, plot b) and novel inputs from meshes they have never seen before (Holdout Models, plot c).

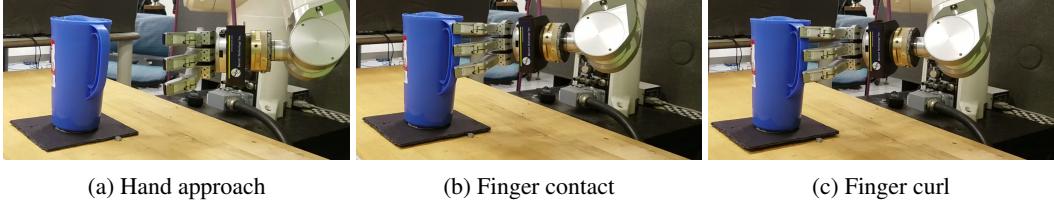


Figure 13: Barrett hand showing contact with the object. The hand is first brought to the position shown in a), followed by an approach as shown in b) and then the fingers are curled towards the object to collect any additional tactile information in c).

197 simple shape dataset. We then used this model to complete the partial meshes of objects combined  
 198 in tactile information acquired from the Barrett hand as shown in Fig. 13. This new methodology  
 199 was tested on the Rubbermaid object from the YCB dataset. The network was able to correctly  
 200 determine a handle on the back of the object as shown in Fig. 14. An explanatory video is available  
 201 at <https://rebrand.ly/visualtactilevideo>.

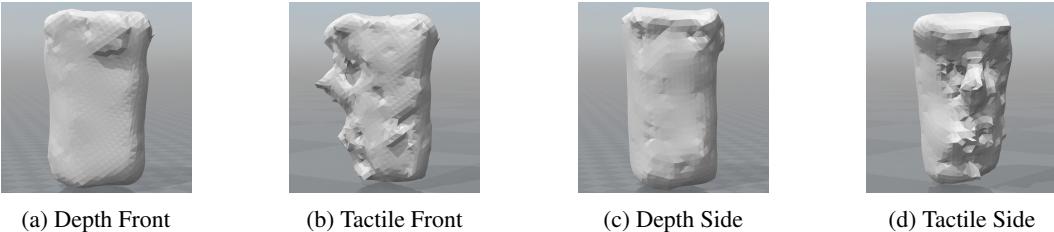


Figure 14: a) and c) are both depth only completion which missed the handle on the reverse side of the pitcher. b) and d) however were able to recreate a handle using the tactile information from the robotic hand.

## 202 6 Conclusion

203 We have developed an integrated system for shape modeling and geometric reasoning based upon  
 204 machine learning from large data sets of 3D models. Both visual and tactile imagery were used to  
 205 create a CNN that can merge single views of objects with sparse tactile data to create accurate and  
 206 complete 3D models. The models, once completed, can then be used by a grasp planner to find  
 207 suitable and stable grasps. Experimental results show that using both tactile data and vision data  
 208 provides more accurate completed models than using either vision or tactile data alone.

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