

Supplementary Material for *Curiosity-Driven Learning of Joint Locomotion and Manipulation Tasks*

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1 In the following, we provide the implementation details of the simulation and real-world experiments
2 presented in the main manuscript.

3 **1 Simulation Setup**

4 We train with NVIDIA’s Isaac Gym [1] and employ Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [2]. A
5 detailed description of the used training pipeline can be found in [3]. A full training run comprises
6 2000 policy updates to ensure reward convergence for all investigated tasks. It takes one hour to
7 train a policy on a single NVIDIA RTX 2080 Ti graphics card. Subsequently, we give a detailed
8 description of the training environment.

- 9 • **Reward Formulation:** The definitions and weights of the reward terms used for the door and
10 the package task are detailed in Table 1. We decided to add two task-related shaping rewards for
11 the task of package manipulation to improve the behavior for real-world tests. Namely, the agent
12 receives penalties for generating high package velocities and exerting large contact forces onto the
13 table. Notice that this choice is not violating the idea of the proposed approach. Firstly, the added
14 penalties are unrelated to the main task, which is still defined by a single sparse reward. Secondly,
15 our approach first generates unbiased behaviors and can then be augmented for more pleasing
16 results. In contrast, other formulations bias the agent as a byproduct of defining the desired task
17 in a dense fashion. Penalizing table contacts and the package velocity, which is part of the chosen
18 curiosity state, clearly increases the difficulty of discovering the desired skill. To compensate
19 for this, we employ a simple reward scaling scheme. The first 1000 training iterations serve as
20 a discovery phase, as most runs discover the sparse reward in that time. Shaping and standing
21 rewards are active but scaled by a factor of 0.1. The second half of training acts as a shaping phase
22 where the scaling factor is gradually increased to 1 over the course of 500 iterations.
- 23 • **Observations:** The corresponding observation definitions can be found in Table 2. All observa-
24 tions are subject to noise to account for uncertainties and sensor noise in reality. For more detail
25 in that regard, please refer to [3].
- 26 • **Randomization:** To improve generalization to different environments, as well as robustness
27 against mismatches between simulation and reality, masses and friction coefficients are random-
28 ized as detailed in Table 3. Additionally, the robot spawns in a randomized pose, i.e., initial
29 position, orientation, and joint configuration vary. All randomized properties are sampled from a
30 uniform distribution in the interval of $[\mu - \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \mu + \frac{\epsilon}{2}]$ for every training environment.

Table 1: Rewards

Name	Formula	Weight
Intrinsic Reward		
Random Network Distillation (RND) prediction error	$\ f(s_c) - \hat{f}(s_c)\ _2$	200
Task Rewards		
Door opened	$\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbf{q}_{\text{hinge}} > 1.5 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	1.0
Package delivered	$\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathcal{I}r_{\text{package}} \in \mathcal{S}_{\text{bin}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	1.0
Standing Rewards		
Height	$\mathcal{I}z_{\text{base}}$	0.5
Upright base	$\frac{\pi/2 - \arccos(\mathcal{I}e_x^{\mathcal{B}} \cdot \mathcal{I}e_z^{\mathcal{I}})}{\pi/2}$	0.5
Straight shoulder joints	$-\ \mathbf{q}_{\text{shoulders}}\ ^2$	0.5
Straight knee joints	$\exp(-\ \mathbf{q}_{\text{knees}}\ ^2)$	0.25
Shaping Rewards		
Joint torque	$-\ \boldsymbol{\tau}\ ^2$	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$
Joint acceleration	$-\ \ddot{\mathbf{q}}\ ^2$	$2.5 \cdot 10^{-7}$
Joint velocity	$-\ \dot{\mathbf{q}}\ ^2$	$2.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$
Table contact force	$-\ \mathbf{F}_{c, \text{table}}\ ^2$	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-5}$
Package velocity	$-\ \mathcal{I}\dot{r}_{\text{package}}\ ^2$	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-2}$

Table 2: Observations

Robot-related Observations	
$\mathcal{B}\dot{r}_{\text{base}} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Linear base velocity
$\mathcal{B}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{base}} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Angular base velocity
$\mathcal{B}\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Projected gravity vector
$\mathbf{q}_{\text{legs}} \in \mathbb{R}^{12}$	Joint configuration without wheels
$\mathbf{o}_{\text{hooks}} \in \mathbb{R}^4$	Hook directions (for pull doors)
$\dot{\mathbf{q}} \in \mathbb{R}^{16}$	Joint velocity
$\mathbf{a}_{\text{prev}} \in \mathbb{R}^{16}$	Previous actions
Door-related Observations	
$c\mathbf{r}_{CH} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Relative door handle position
$c\mathbf{r}_{CH_{\text{init}}} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Relative initial door handle position
Package-related Observations	
$c\mathbf{r}_{CP} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Relative package position
$c\mathbf{r}_{CT} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Relative table position
$c\mathbf{r}_{CB} \in \mathbb{R}^3$	Relative bin position

Table 3: Randomization Parameters

Uniformly Randomized Property	Mean μ	Range ϵ	Unit
Global friction coefficient	0.75	0.75	-
Robot position (x, y)	0	0.6	m
Initial robot yaw angle	0	1	rad
Initial joint angle deviation	0	1	rad
Added robot mass	0	10	kg
Package mass	1.375	1.0	kg
Door torque offset τ_{const}	$[10 \ 0]^\top$	$[10 \ 0]^\top$	N m
Door spring coefficient \mathbf{k}	$[0 \ 5]^\top$	$[0 \ 5]^\top$	$\frac{\text{N m}}{\text{rad}}$
Door damping coefficient \mathbf{d}	$[25 \ 1]^\top$	$[25 \ 1]^\top$	$\frac{\text{N m s}}{\text{rad}}$

31 • **Termination Conditions:** Episodes terminate after 8 seconds, resetting the environments to their
 32 initial state. An episode terminates early if either the robot is in collision, or if the robot’s center
 33 is too low, i.e., if the robot does not manage to stand and falls. The second condition accelerates
 34 training but is not necessary for successful learning. We also terminate an episode if the package is
 35 not in contact with either the table or the front wheels to prevent the agent from directly throwing
 36 the package. This termination condition is disabled in close proximity to the bin to allow the
 37 dropping of the package into the bin.

38 • **Door Model:** The considered doors feature standard lever door handles that need to be pressed
 39 to a certain degree to unlock the door. In simulation, the handle needs to be pressed once to keep
 40 the door unlocked for the rest of the episode. Dynamics of the hinge and handle are modeled as
 41 spring-damper systems with a constant torque offset τ_{door} . This is achieved by applying the torque

$$\tau_{\text{door}} = \tau_{\text{const}} + \text{diag}(\mathbf{k}) \cdot \mathbf{q}_{\text{door}} + \text{diag}(\mathbf{d}) \cdot \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{\text{door}}, \quad (1)$$

42 to the door joints. Constants τ_{door} , \mathbf{k} , and \mathbf{d} are randomized by sampling from a uniform distribu-
 43 tion. Measurements on the lab door provide reference values for realistic door dynamics. Further
 44 details are provided in Table 3.

45 • **Field of View Simulation:** To mimic the perception system of the real robot we simulate the Field
 46 of View (FOV) for egocentric vision, as introduced in simulation experiments in [4], resulting in
 47 behaviors that actively direct the robot’s gaze. A visual marker, further explained in section 2,
 48 specifies the position of the door handle. Consequently, the observation $c\mathbf{r}_{CH}$ is only available if
 49 the marker is detected by a camera. Always passing the door handle observation in the simulation
 50 would therefore not capture the real system behavior. Instead, the observation is set to $\mathbf{0}$ if the
 51 visual marker leaves the camera’s FOV. This way, the agent learns to approximately partition the
 52 observation space and reason about when it is necessary to see the visual marker. The agent can
 53 develop behaviors to mitigate a lost observation and to actively keep the marker in the FOV. An
 54 illustration of the approach is provided in Fig. 1. Note that the second door-related observation
 55 $c\mathbf{r}_{CH_{\text{init}}}$ is not set to $\mathbf{0}$ because the initial door handle position is static with respect to the inertial
 56 frame. The observation can thus be bootstrapped with the onboard localization of the robot even
 57 if the visual marker leaves the FOV.

58 **2 Real-World Setup**

59 We utilize AprilTags [5] to obtain task-related observations in the real world. The AprilTag system
 60 features a vision-based algorithm that determines the relative position and orientation of detected
 61 tags. Two visual markers attached to the door provide the relative door handle position observation
 62 $c\mathbf{r}_{CH}$. If the robot does not detect the tags, the observation is set to $\mathbf{0}$ to achieve the same behavior
 63 as in simulation. The initial door handle position observation $c\mathbf{r}_{CH_{init}}$ is determined by two markers
 64 attached to the door frame. We make use of the robot’s onboard localization to obtain an observation
 65 even if the tags leave the FOV of the camera. AprilTags also provide relative positions of the
 66 package, bin, and table. We do not make use of the proposed FOV simulation for the package
 67 manipulation task for two reasons. Firstly, it increases the difficulty of learning the desired behavior
 68 because the robot tries to keep the package in the FOV by leaning over the bin and falling. Secondly,
 69 the package is kept in the FOV naturally until the package is dropped, rendering the additional FOV
 constraint unnecessary for this task.

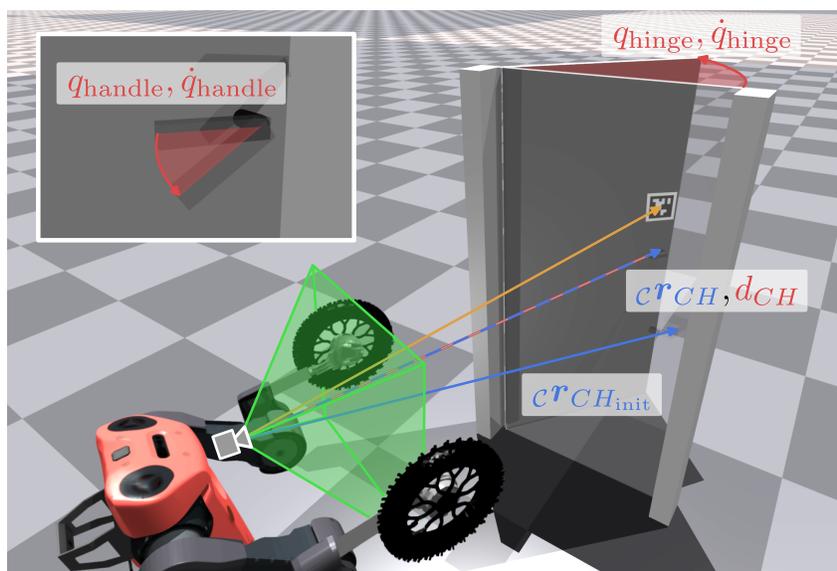


Figure 1: Door setup and FOV simulation. Components of the curiosity state s_c are marked in red, while observations are marked in blue. The green cone represents the camera’s FOV. A visual marker, attached to the door, is used to calculate the door handle observation $c\mathbf{r}_{CH}$. If the vector from the camera to the visual marker (orange) leaves the FOV cone, the door handle observation is set to $\mathbf{0}$.

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