
Supplementary Material: Accelerating Robotic Reinforcement Learning via Parameterized Action Primitives

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1 A Results and Visualizations

2 **Website with Video Results:** Video results are provided in the supplementary zip file. To make it
3 easier to review the result videos, we have also hosted them at the following anonymized website:
4 <https://sites.google.com/view/neurips2021raps>.

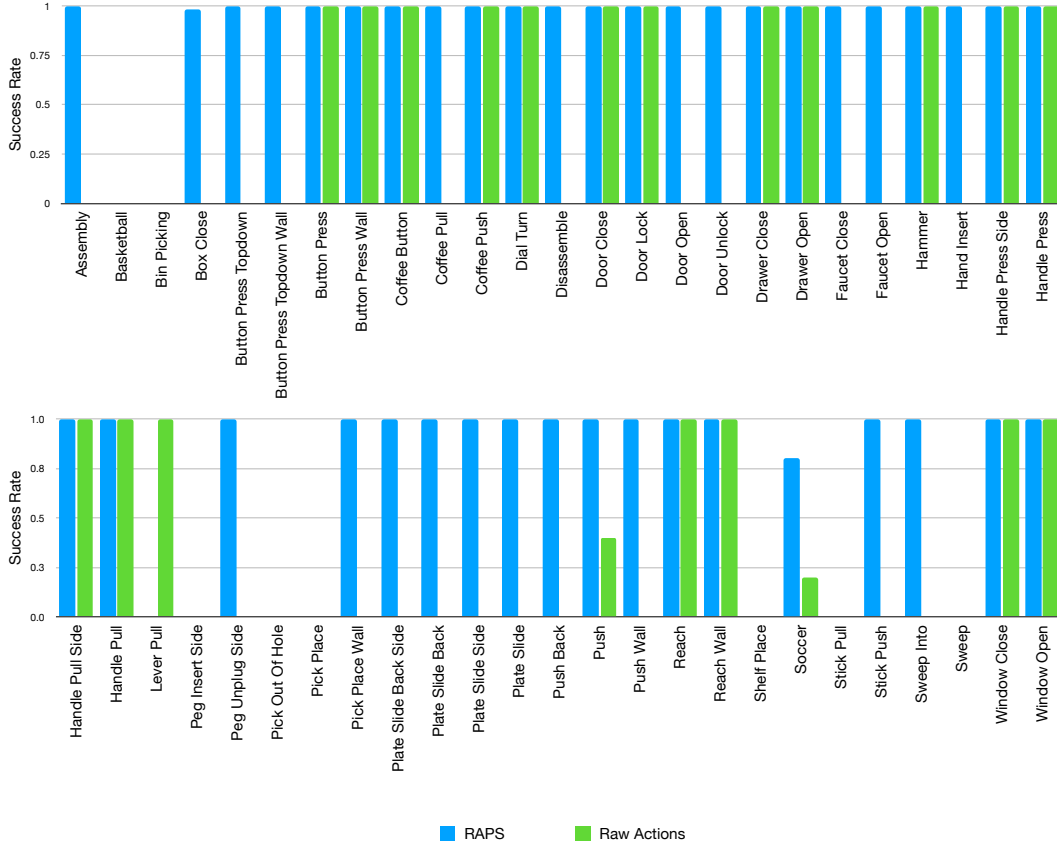


Figure 1: Final performance results for single task RL on the Metaworld domain after 3 days of training using the Dreamer base algorithm. RAPS is able to successfully learn most tasks, solving 43 out of 50 tasks while Raw Actions is only able to solve 21 tasks. See full results plots in Figure 7.

5 **Cross Robot Transfer** We train a higher level policy over RAPS from visual input to solve the
6 door opening task in Robosuite using the xARM 7. We then directly transfer this policy (zero-shot) to
7 an xARM 6 robot. The transferred policy is able to achieve **100%** success rate on the door opening
8 task with the 6DOF robot while trained on a 7DOF robot. This is possible due to the robot agnostic
9 property of RAPS.

10 **Comparison against Dynamic Motion Primitive Methods** As noted in the related works section,
11 Dynamic Motion Primitives (DMP) are an alternative skill formulation that is common robotics
12 literature. We compared RAPS with the latest state-of-the-art work that incorporates DMPs with
13 deep RL: Neural Dynamic Policies [1]. As seen in Figure 5, across nearly every task in the Kitchen
14 suite, RAPS outperforms NDP just as it outperforms all prior skill learning methods as well.

15 B Environments

16 We provide detailed descriptions of each environment suite and the specific tasks each suite contains.
17 All environments use the MuJoCo simulator [7].

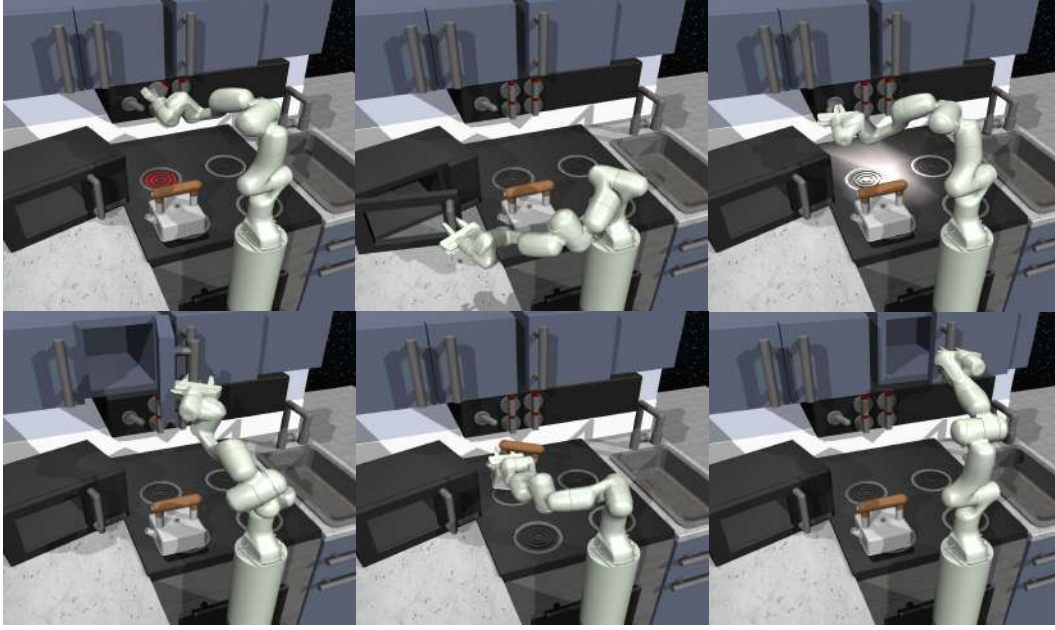


Figure 2: Visual depiction of the Kitchen environment; all tasks are contained within the same setup. Each image depicts the solution of one of the tasks, we omit the bottom burner task as it is the goal is the same as the top burner task, just with a different dial to turn. For the top row from the left: top-left-burner, microwave, light-switch. For the bottom row from the left: hinge-cabinet, kettle, slide cabinet.

18 B.1 Kitchen

19 The Kitchen suite, introduced in [2], involves a set of different tasks in a kitchen setup with a single
 20 Franka Panda arm as visualized in Figure 2. This domain contains 7 subtasks: `slide-cabinet`
 21 (shift right-side cabinet to the right), `microwave` (open the microwave door), `kettle` (place the
 22 kettle on the back burner), `hinge-cabinet` (open the hinge cabinet), `top-left-burner` (rotate the
 23 top stove dial), `bottom-left-burner` (rotate the bottom stove dial), and `light-switch` (flick the
 24 light switch to the left). The tasks are all defined in terms of a sparse reward, in which +1 reward is
 25 received when the norm of the joint position (qpos in MuJoCo) of the object is within .3 of the desired
 26 goal location and 0 otherwise. See the appendix of the RPL [2] paper for the exact definition of the
 27 sparse and the dense reward functions in the kitchen environment. Since the rewards are defined
 28 simply in terms of distance of object to goal, the agent does not have to execute interpretable behavior
 29 in order to solve the task. For example, to solve the burner task, it is possible to push it to the right
 30 setting without grasping and turning it.

31 For the sequential multi-task version of the environment, in a single episode, the goal is to complete
 32 four different subtasks. The agent receives reward once per sub-task completed with a
 33 maximum episode return (sum of rewards) of 4. In our case, we split the 7 tasks in the en-
 34 vironment into two multi-task environments which are roughly split on difficulty. We define
 35 the two multi-task environments in the kitchen setup: Kitchen Multitask 1 which contains
 36 microwave, kettle, light-switch and top-left-burner while Kitchen Multitask 2 con-
 37 tains the hinge-cabinet, slide-cabinet, bottom-left-burner and light-switch. As men-
 38 tioned in the experiments section, RL trained on joint velocity control is unable to solve almost any
 39 of the single task environments using image input from sparse rewards. Instead, we modify the
 40 environment to use 6DOF delta position control by adding a mocap constraint as implemented in
 41 Metaworld [8].

42 B.2 Metaworld

43 Metaworld [8] consists of 50 different manipulation environments in which a simulated Sawyer
 44 Rethink robot is charged with solving tasks such as faucet opening/closing, pick and place, assem-

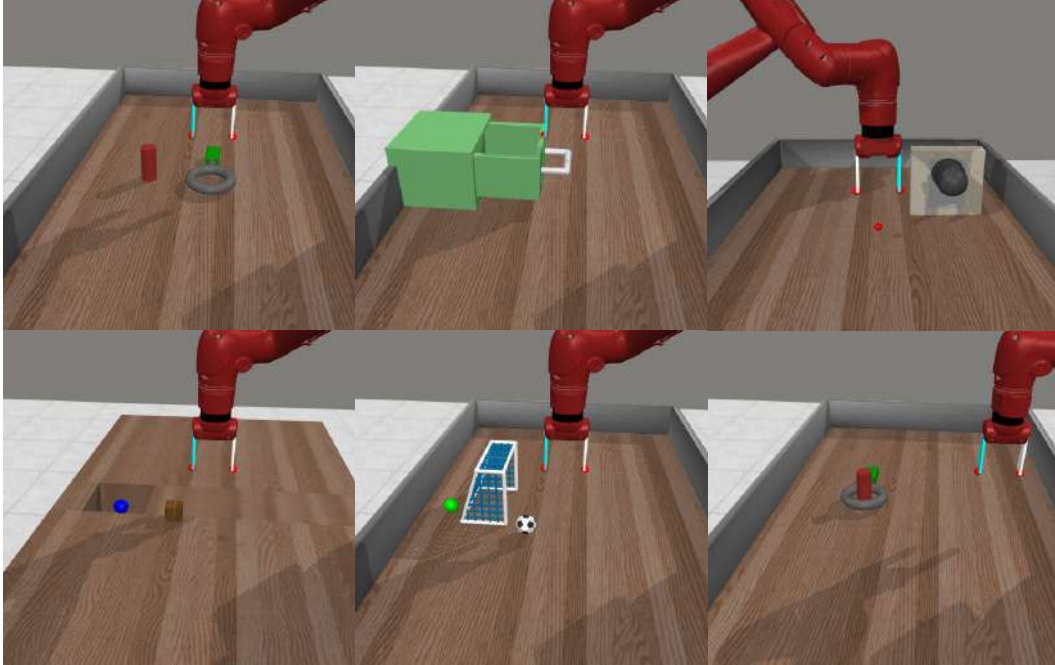


Figure 3: Visual depiction of the Metaworld environment suite. For the top row from the left: assembly-v2, drawer-close-v2, peg-unplug-side-v2. For the bottom row from the left: sweep-into-v2, soccer-v2, disassemble-v2.

45 bly/disassembly and many others. Due to computational considerations, we selected 6 tasks which
 46 range from easy to difficult: drawer-close-v2 (push the drawer closed), hand-insert-v2 (place
 47 the hand inside the hole), soccer-v2 (hit the soccer ball to a specific location in the goal box),
 48 sweep-into-v2 (push the block into the hole), assembly-v2 (grasp the nut and place over the thin
 49 block), and disassembly-v2 (grasp the nut and remove from the thin block).

50 In Metaworld, the raw actions are delta positions, while the end-effector orientation remains fixed.
 51 For fairness, we disabled the use of any rotation primitives for this suite. Metaworld has a hand
 52 designed dense reward per task which enables efficient learning, but is unrealistic for the real world
 53 in which it can be challenging to design dense rewards without access to the true state of the world.
 54 Instead, for more realistic evaluation, we run all methods with a sparse reward which uses the success
 55 metric emitted by the environment itself.

56 We run the environments in single task mode, meaning the target positions remain the same across
 57 experiments, in order to evaluate the basic effectiveness of RL across action spaces. This functionality
 58 is provided in the latest release of Metaworld. Additionally, we use the V2 versions of the tasks
 59 after correspondence with the current maintainers of the benchmark. The V2 environments have a
 60 more realistic visual appearance, improved reward functions and are now the primarily supported
 61 environments in Metaworld. See Figure 3 for a visualization of the Metaworld tasks.

62 B.3 Robosuite

63 Robosuite is a benchmark of robotic manipulation tasks which emphasizes realistic simulation and
 64 control while containing several tasks existing RL algorithms struggle to solve, even when provided
 65 state based information and dense rewards. This suite contains a torque based end-effector position
 66 control implementation, Operational Space Control [4]. We select the lift and door tasks for
 67 evaluation, which we visualize in Figure 4. The lifting task involves accurately grasping a small red
 68 block and lifting it to a set height. The door task involves grasping the door handle, pushing it down
 69 to unlock it and pulling it open to a set position. These tasks contain initial state randomization; at
 70 each reset the position of the block or door is randomized within a small range. This property makes
 71 the Robosuite tasks more challenging than Kitchen and Metaworld, both of which are deterministic
 72 environments. For this environment, sparse rewards were already defined so we directly use them in



Figure 4: Visual depiction of the Robosuite environments. On the left we have the door opening task, and on the right we have the block lifting task.

our experiments. We made several changes to these environments to improve learning performance of the baselines as well as RAPS. Specifically, we included a workspace limit in a large area around the object, which improves exploration in the case of sparse rewards. For the lifting task, we increased the frequency of the default OSC controller to 40Hz from 20Hz, while for the door opening task we changed the max action magnitude to .1 from .05.

C Primitive Implementation Details

In this section, we provide specific implementation details regarding the primitives we use in our experiments. In particular, we use an end-effector pose controller as C_k for all k . We compute the target state s^* using the components of the robot state which correspond to the input arguments of the primitive, s_{args} . We compute s^* using the formula $s^* = s_{\text{args}} + \text{args}$. The error metric is computed in a similar manner $e_k = s^* - s_{\text{args}}$ across primitives. Returning to the lifting primitive example in the main text, s_{args} would be the z position of the end-effector, s^* would be the target z position after lifting, and e_k would be the difference between the target z position and the current z position of the end-effector. In Table 4 we provide additional details regarding each primitive including the search spaces, number of low-level actions and which environment it was used in. One primitive of note is go to pose (delta) which performs delta position control. Using this primitive alongside the grasp and release primitives corresponds closely to the raw action space for Metaworld and Robosuite, environment suites in which we do not use orientation control.

We tuned the low-level actions per environment suite, but one could alternatively design a tolerance threshold and loop until it is achieved to avoid any tuning. We chose a fixed horizon which runs significantly faster and any inaccuracies in the primitives are accounted for by the learned policy. Finally, we do not use every primitive in every domain, yet across all tasks within a domain we use the same library. In Metaworld, the raw action space does not allow for orientation control so we do not either. Enabling orientation control with primitives can, in certain cases, make the task easier, but we do not include the x-axis and y-axis rotation primitives for fair comparison. In Robosuite, the default action space has orientation control. We found orientation control was unnecessary in order to solve the lifting and door opening tasks when we disabled orientation control for raw actions and for primitives. As a result, in this work we report results without orientation control in Robosuite.

D RL Implementation Details

Whenever possible, we use the original implementations of any method we compare against. We use standard implementations for each base RL algorithm except Dreamer, which we implement in PyTorch. We use the actor and model hyper-parameters from Dreamer-V2 [3] as we found it slightly improved the performance of Dreamer. For primitives, we made several hyper-parameter changes to better tailor Dreamer to hybrid discrete-continuous control. Specifically, instead of backpropagating the return through the dynamics, we use REINFORCE to train the actor in imagination. We additionally reduce the imagination trajectory length from 15 to 5 for the single task primitive experiments since the trajectory length is limited to 5 in any case. With the short trajectory lengths in RAPS,

Hyper Parameter	Value
Actor output distribution	Truncated Normal
Discount factor	0.99
λ_{GAE}	0.95
actor and value function learning rates	8e-5
world model learning rate	3e-4
Imagination horizon	15
Entropy coefficient	1e-4
Predict discount	No
Target value function update period	100
reward loss scale	2
Model hidden size	400
Stochastic state size	50
Deterministic state size	200
Embedding size	1024
RSSM hidden size	200
Use GRU layer norm	Yes
Actor hidden layers	4
Value hidden layers	3
batch size	50
batch length	50

Table 1: Dreamer hyper-parameters

110 imagination often goes beyond the end of the episode, so we use a discount predictor to downweight
111 imagined states beyond the end of the episode. Finally since we cannot sample batch lengths of 50
112 from trajectories of length 5 or 15, we instead sample the full primitive trajectory and change the
113 batch size to be $\frac{2500}{H}$, the primitive horizon. This results in an effective batch size of 2500, which is
114 equal to the Dreamer batch size of 50 with a batch length of 50.

115 In the case of SAC, we use the implementation of SAC [6] but without data augmentation, which
116 amounts to using their specific pixel encoder which we found to perform well. Finally for PPO, we
117 use the following implementation: Kostrikov [5]. See Tables 1, 2, 3 for the hyper-parameters used for
118 each algorithm respectively. We use the same algorithm hyper-parameters across all the baselines.
119 For primitives, we modify the discount factor in all experiments to $1 - \frac{1}{H}$, in which H is the primitive
120 horizon. This encourages the agent to highly value near term rewards with short horizons. For single
121 task experiments, we use a horizon of 5, taking 5 primitive actions in one episode, with a discount of
122 0.8. For the hierarchical control experiments we use a horizon of 15 and a corresponding discount of
123 .93. In practice, this method of computing the discount factor improves the performance and stability
124 of RAPS.

125 For each baseline we use the original implementation when possible as an underlying action space
126 for each RL algorithm. For VICES, we take the impedance controller from the iros_19_vices branch
127 and modify the environment action space to output the parameters for the controller. For PARROT,
128 we use an unreleased version of the code provided by the original authors. For SPIRL, we use an
129 improved version of the method which was released to the SPIRL code base recently. This version,
130 SPIRL-CL, uses a closed loop decoder to map latents back to action trajectories which they find
131 significantly improves performance on the Kitchen environment from state input. We use the authors’
132 code for vision-based SPIRL-CL and still find that RAPS performs better.

Hyper Parameter	Value
Discount factor	0.99
actor, critic, encoder learning rates	2e-4
alpha learning rate	1e-4
Target network update frequency	2
Polyak averaging constant	.01
Frame stack	4
Image size	64
Random policy warm up steps	2500
batch size	512

Table 2: SAC hyper-parameters

Hyper Parameter	Value
Entropy coefficient	.01
Value loss coefficient	0.5
Actor-value network learning rate	3e-4
Number of mini-batches per epoch	10
PPO clip parameter	0.2
Max gradient norm	0.5
λ_{GAE}	0.95
Discount factor	0.99
Number of parallel environments	12
Frame stack	4
Image size	84

Table 3: PPO hyper-parameters

Primitive Skill	Parameters	Action Space	# low-level actions	Environments
grasp	d	[0,1]	150-200	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
release	d	[-1,0]	200-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
lift	z	[0, 1]	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
drop	z	[-1, 0]	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
push	y	[0, 1]	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
pull	y	[-1, 0]	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
shift right	x	[0, 1]	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
shift left	x	[-1, 0]	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
go to pose (delta)	x,y,z	[-1, 0] ³	40-300	Kitchen, Metaworld, Robosuite
x-axis twist	θ	$[-\pi, \pi]$	300	Kitchen
y-axis twist	θ	$[-\pi, \pi]$	300	Kitchen
angled forward grasp	θ, x, y, d	$[-\pi, \pi], [-1, 0]^3$	1100	Kitchen
top z grasp	z,d	$[-1, 0]^2$	140-250	Robosuite
top grasp	x,y,z,d	$[-1, 0]^4$	1500	Metaworld

Table 4: Description of skill parameters, search spaces, low-level actions and environment usage.

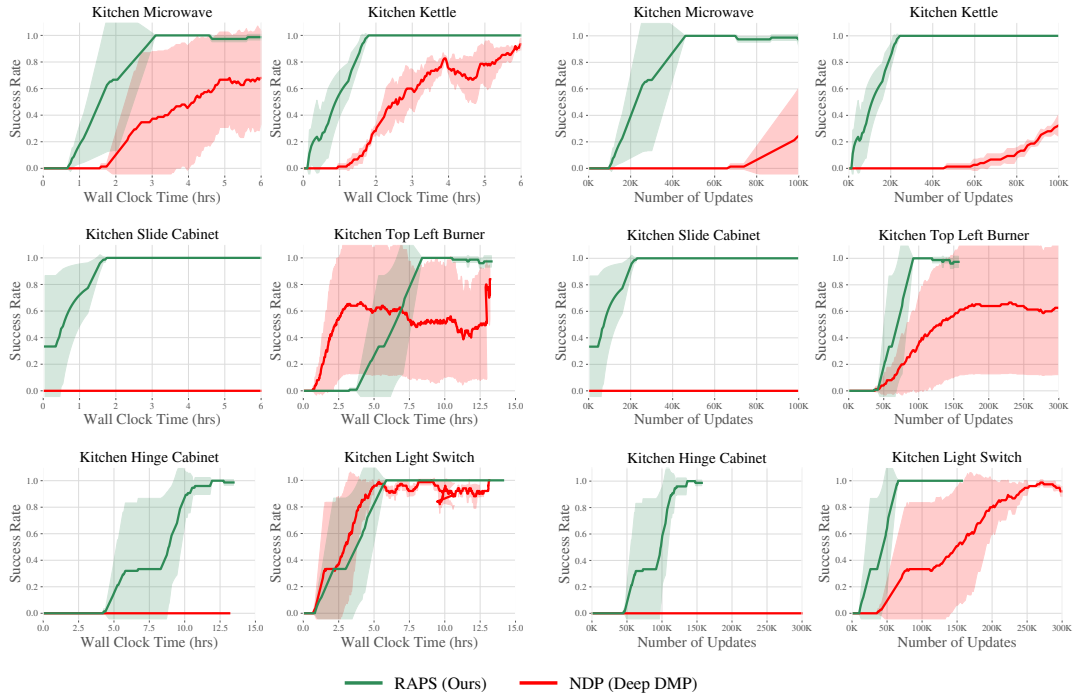


Figure 5: Comparison of RAPS against NDP, a deep DMP method for RL. RAPS dramatically outperforms NDP on nearly every task from visual input, both in terms of wall-clock time and number of training steps. This result demonstrates the increased capability of RAPS over DMP-based methods.

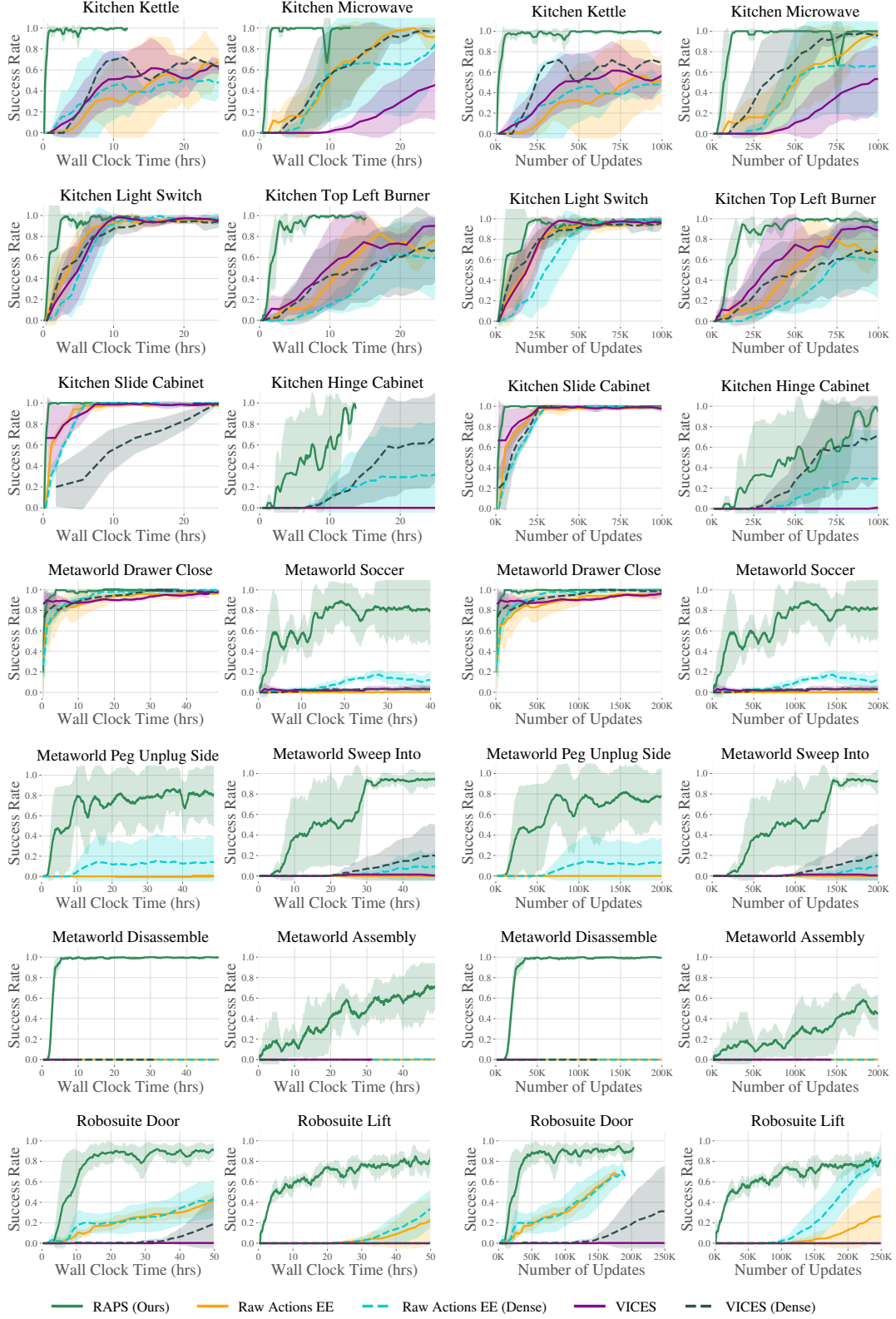


Figure 6: Full version of Figure 3 with excluded environments (slide-cabinet and soccer-v2) and plots against number of updates (right two columns). RAPS outperforms all baselines against number of updates as well.

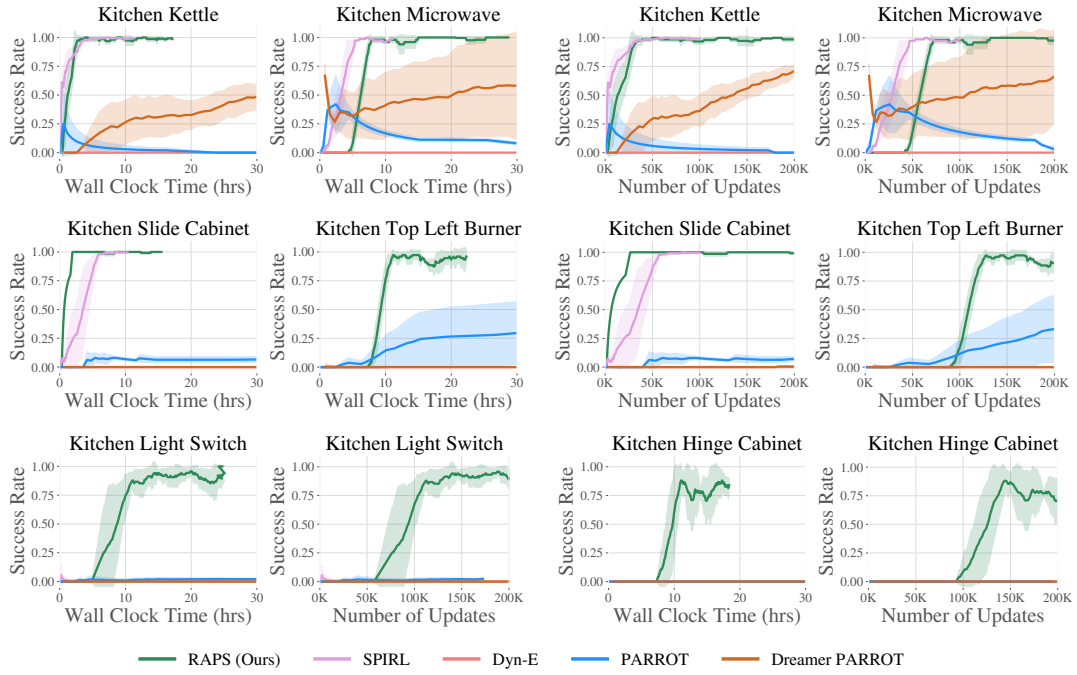
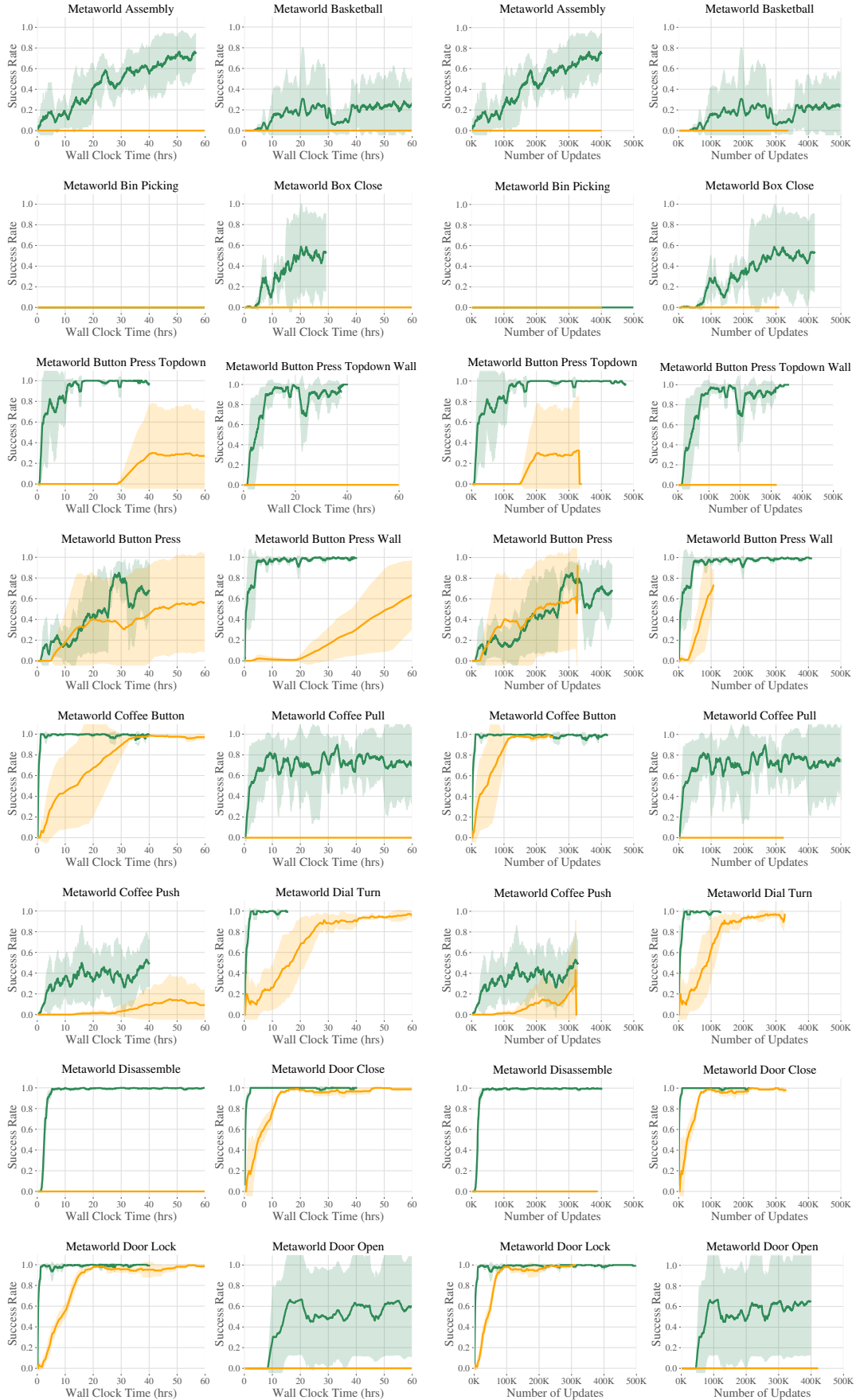
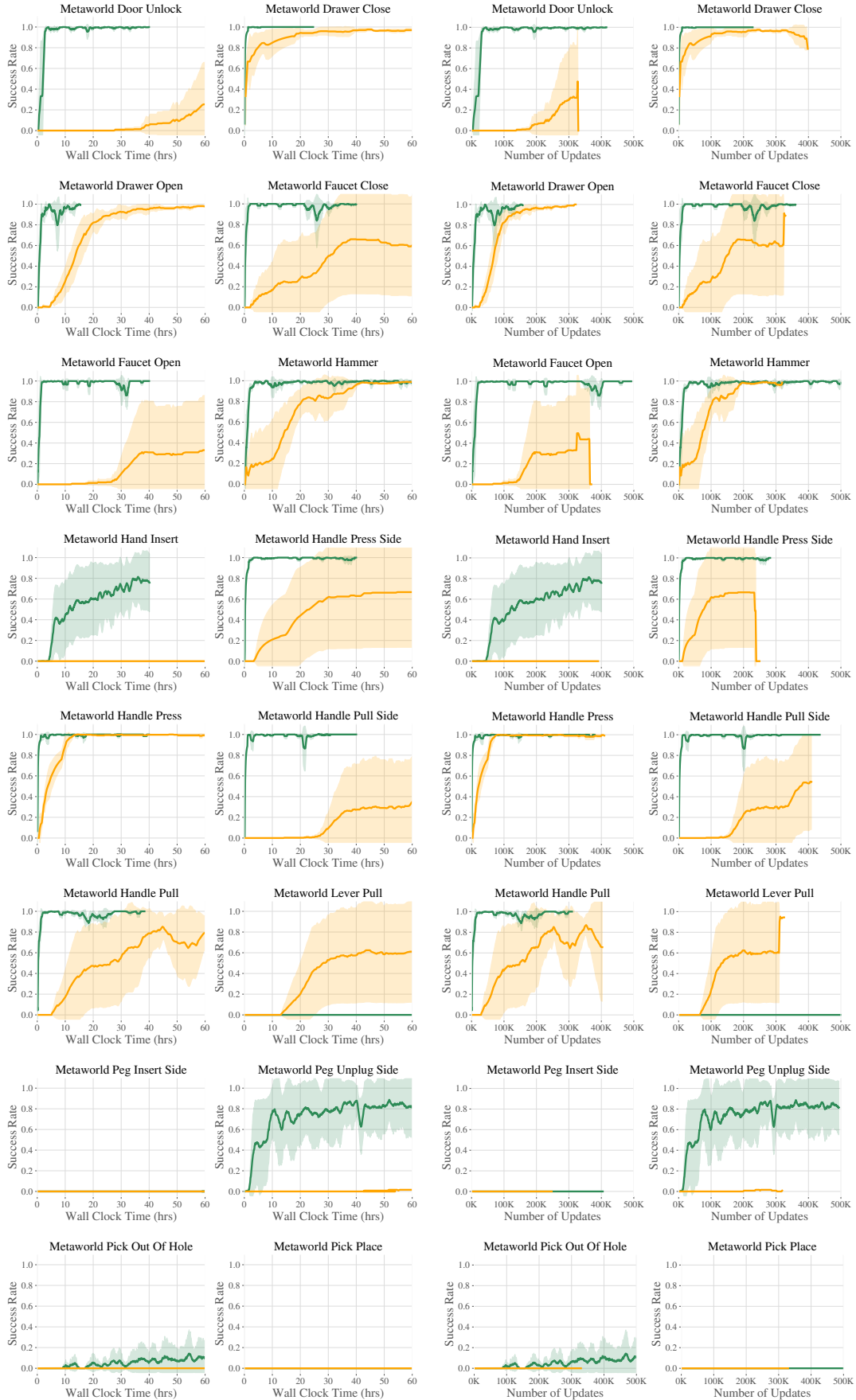
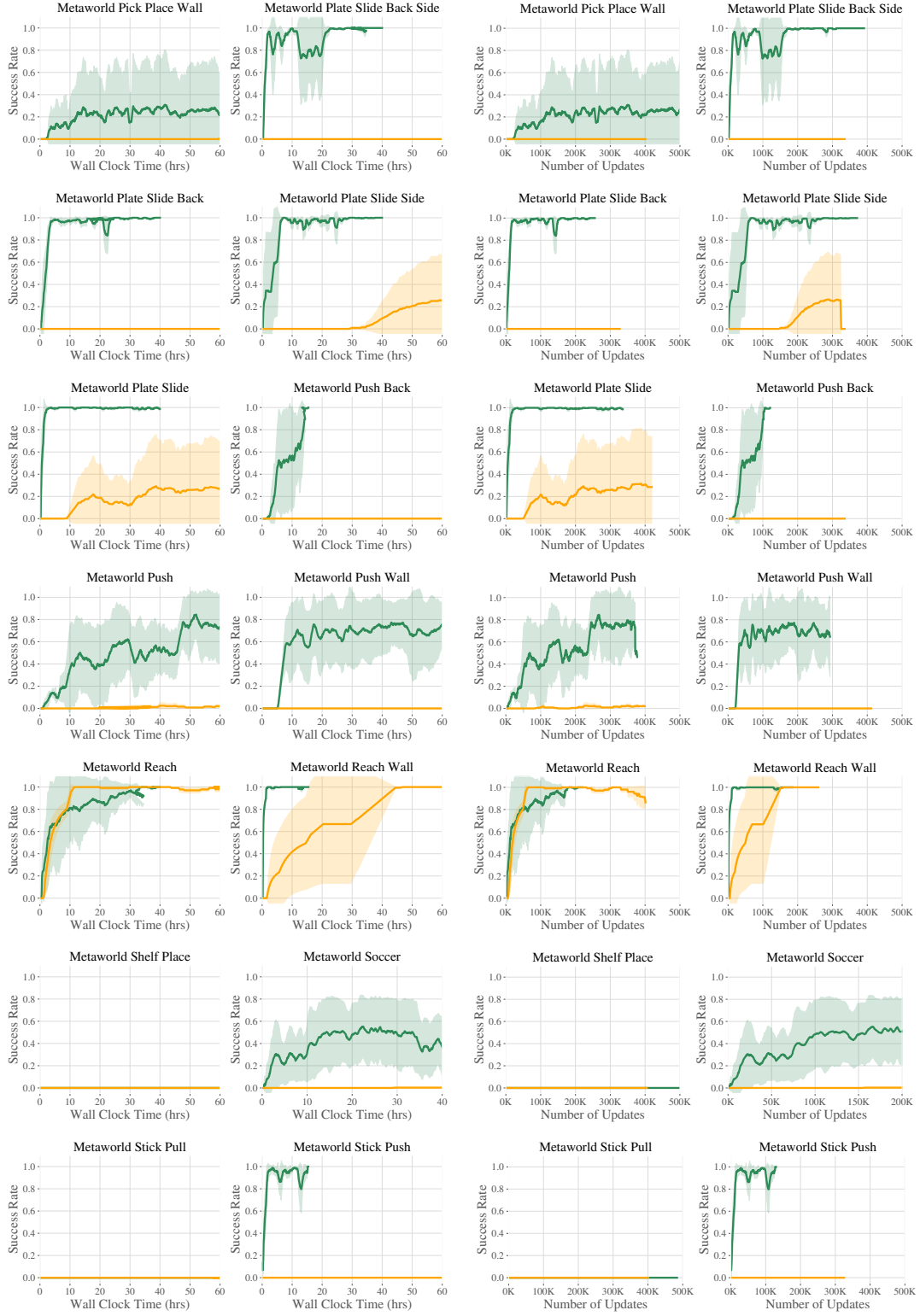


Figure 7: Full version of Figure 4 with plots against number of updates (right column) and excluded environments (light-switch). While SPIRL is competitive with RAPS on the easier tasks, it fails to make progress on the more challenging tasks.







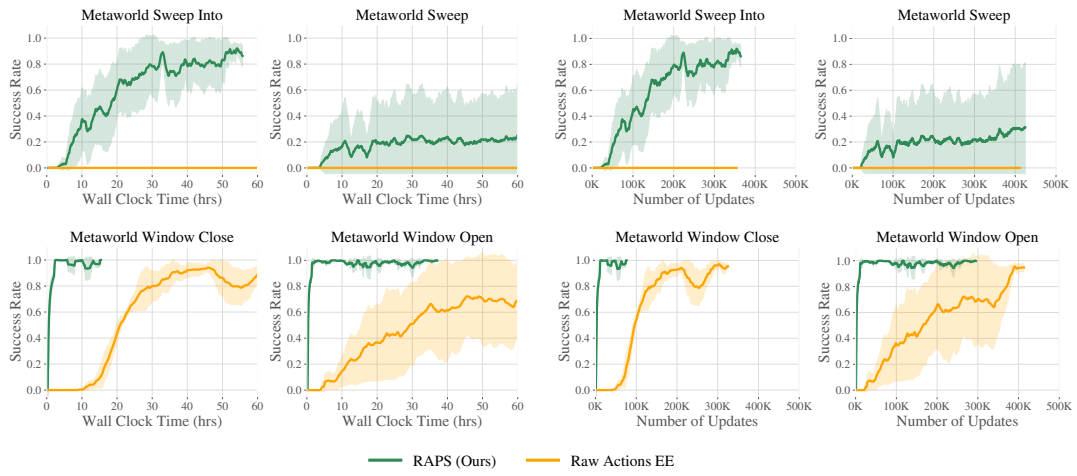


Figure 7: Comparison of RAPS against raw actions across all 50 Metaworld tasks from sparse rewards. RAPS is able to outright solve or make progress on up to **43 tasks** while Raw Actions struggles to make progress on most environments.

References

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