AdaptSim: Task-Driven Simulation Adaptation
for Sim-to-Real Transfer

Abstract: Simulation parameter settings such as contact models and object geometry approximations are critical to training robust manipulation policies capable of transferring from simulation to real-world deployment. There is often an *irreducible gap* between simulation and reality: attempting to match the dynamics between simulation and reality may be infeasible and may not lead to policies that perform well in reality for a specific task. We propose AdaptSim, a new *task-driven* adaptation framework for sim-to-real transfer that aims to optimize task performance in target (real) environments. First, we meta-learn an adaptation policy in simulation using reinforcement learning for adjusting the simulation parameter distribution based on the current policy's performance in a target environment. We then perform iterative real-world adaptation by inferring new simulation parameter distributions for policy training. Our extensive simulation and hardware experiments demonstrate AdaptSim achieving 1-3x asymptotic performance and ~2x real data efficiency when adapting to different environments, compared to methods based on Sys-ID and directly training the task policy in target environments.

1   Introduction

Learning robust and generalizable policies for real-world manipulation tasks typically requires a substantial amount of training data. Since using real data exclusively can be very expensive or even infeasible, we often resort to training mostly in simulation. This raises the question: how should we specify simulation parameters to maximize performance in the real world while minimizing the amount of real-world data we require?

A popular method is to perform *domain randomization* [1, 2, 3, 4]: train a policy using a wide range of different simulation parameters in the hope that the policy can thus handle possible real-world variations in dynamics or observations. However, the trained policy may achieve good *average* performance, but perform poorly in a particular real environment. There has been work in performing system identification (Sys-ID) for providing a point or a distributional estimate of parameters that best matches the robot or environment dynamics exhibited in real-world data. This estimation can be performed using either a single iteration [5] or multiple ones [6]. These *adaptive* domain randomization techniques allow training policies suited to specific target environments.

Figure 1: AdaptSim iteratively improves task performance in dynamic scooping task under "irreducible" sim-to-real gap.

While simple objects such as a box and its properties like the inertia can be well-modeled, there is a substantial amount of *"irreducible"* sim-to-real gap in many settings such as contact-rich manipulation tasks. Consider the task of using a cooking spatula to dynamically scoop up small pieces of food from a table (Fig. 1). The exact geometry of the pieces and spatula is difficult to specify, deformations such as the spatula bending against the table are not yet maturely implemented in simulators, and contact models such as point contact have been known to poorly approximate the complex real-world contact behavior [7] in these settings. In this

Submitted to the 7th Conference on Robot Learning (CoRL 2023). Do not distribute.

case, real environments are out-of-domain (OOD) from simulation, and performing Sys-ID of simulation parameters might fail to train a useful policy for the real world due to this inherent irreducible gap.

Contributions. In this work we take a *task-driven* approach: instead of trying to align the simulation with real-world dynamics, we focus on finding simulation parameters such that the resulting policy optimizes task performance. Such an approach can lead to policies that achieve high reward in the real world even with an irreducible sim-to-real gap. We consider settings where the robot has access to a simulator between iterations of real-world interactions, allowing it to observe real-world dynamics and adapt the simulator accordingly with the goal of improving task performance in reality. We propose *AdaptSim* — a two-phase framework where (i) an adaptation policy that updates simulation parameters is first meta-trained using reinforcement learning in simulation, and (ii) then deployed on the real environment iteratively. Training the adaptation policy to maximize task reward enhances the efficiency of real data usage by identifying only task-relevant simulation parameters and helps trained policies better generalize to OOD (real) environments. We demonstrate our approach achieving 1-3x asymptotic performance and $\sim$2x real data efficiency in OOD environments in three robotic tasks including two that involve contact-rich manipulation, compared to methods based on Sys-ID and directly training the task policy in target environments.

2   Related Work

Sim-to-real transfer in robotics has been primarily addressed using Domain Randomization (DR) techniques [1, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13] that inject noise in simulation parameters related to visuals, dynamics, and actuations. Below we summarize techniques that better adapt to real environments.

Sys-ID domain adaptation. Inspired by classical work in Sys-ID [14, 15], there has been a popular line of work identifying simulation parameters that match the robot and environment dynamics in the real environment. BayesSim [6] and follow-up work [16, 17] apply Bayesian inference to iteratively search for a posterior distribution of the simulation parameters based on simulation and real-world trajectories. However, these methods consider relatively well-modeled environment parameterizations such as object mass or friction coefficient during planar contact; Sys-ID approaches can be brittle when the simulation does not closely approximate the real world [13, 18].

Task-driven domain adaptation. AdaptSim better fits within a different line of work that aims to find simulation parameters that maximize the task reward in target environments. Muratore et al. [19] apply Bayesian Optimization (BO) to optimize parameters such as pendulum pole mass and joint damping coefficient in a real pendulum swing-up task. Other work focus on adapting to simulated domains only [20, 21, 22]. One major drawback of these methods is that they require a large number of rollouts in target environments (e.g., 150 in [19]), which is very time-consuming for many tasks requiring human reset. AdaptSim meta-learns adaptation strategies in simulation and requires only a few real rollouts for inference (*e.g.,* 20 in our pushing experiments).

3   Problem Formulation

Environment. In simulation, we consider a space Ω that parameterizes quantities such as friction coefficients and dimensions of geometric primitives. Let $\mathcal{E}$ denote a distribution of sim parameters with support on Ω. Denote a single sim environment $E \in \Omega$ and a real environment E^r.

Task Policy and Trajectory. We denote a task policy $\pi \in \Pi : \mathcal{O} \to \mathcal{A}$ that maps the robot's observation o_t to action a_t. Running it in an environment results in a state-action trajectory $\tau(\pi;E) : [0,T] \times \Pi \times \mathcal{E} \to \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$ with time horizon T. The trajectory is also subject to an initial state distribution. We specify tasks for the robot using a reward function, and let $R(\tau) \in [0,1]$ denote the normalized cumulative reward accrued by a trajectory. We let $R(\pi;E)$ denote the reward of running the task policy π in the environment E, in expectation over the initial state distribution.

Goal. Our eventual goal is to find a task policy that maximizes the task performance in a real environment E_r. Instead of directly searching for the policy, we search for the best sim parameter distribution $\mathcal{E}$ for training π in the following bi-level optimization objective:

$$\sup_{\mathcal{E}} R(\pi_{\mathcal{E}}^*;E^r), \text{ where } \pi_{\mathcal{E}}^* := \sup_{\pi} \mathbb{E}_{E \sim \mathcal{E}} [R(\pi;E)], \tag{1}$$

Figure 2: AdaptSim consists of two phases: (1) meta-training an adaptation policy in sim by maximizing task reward on randomly sampled simulated target environments; (2) iteratively adapting simulation parameter distributions based on real trajectories. The upper-right illustration shows that using only a few real trajectories, the task policy is adapted to push the bottle closer to the target location (yellow cross).

the optimal task policy for $\mathcal{E}$. Performing the outer level of (1) requires interactions with E^r (the real world); we allow a small budget of such interactions. We emphasize that the objective above identifies the optimal distribution of simulation parameters for maximizing task performance, unlike objectives that attempt to match the dynamics between simulation and reality.

4 Approach

One way to solve (1) is to perform blackbox optimization on $\mathcal{E}$ by evaluating $R(\pi_{\mathcal{E}}^*; E^r)$ [19], which requires a large budget of real trajectories (see results in Sec. 6). AdaptSim instead amortizes the expensive outer loop to simulation: it solves (1) for many simulated environments, learns the mapping to the solutions, and then *infers* the solution for E_r. There are two phases (Fig. 2):

1) **Meta-learn the adaptation policy in sim**: randomly sample target environments $E^s \in \Omega$ in sim, and then train an "adaptation" policy $f : (\mathcal{E}, \tau) \mapsto \Delta_{\mathcal{E}}$ using RL to maximize task reward in E^s, by updating the sim parameter distribution (and the corresponding task policies) in iterations.

2) **Iteratively adapt sim parameters with real data**: given a real environment E^r, iteratively infer better sim parameter distributions using the trained f and a few real trajectories; the task policy is iteratively fine-tuned in sim to improve task reward with the updated parameter distribution.

4.1 Phase 1: meta-learning the adaptation policy in sim

In order to correctly infer simulation parameters for an unseen real environment at test time, we first train the adaptation policy to infer better parameters for many simulated target environments. This phase happens entirely in simulation. Formally, we model the problem as a partially-observable contextual bandit [23].

Definition 1 *A Simulation-Adaptation Contextual Bandit (SA-CB) is specified by a tuple $(\Omega, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{P}, R)$:*

- Ω *is the space of contexts. Each context corresponds to a simulated target environment E^s; the context is not directly observable.*
- $\mathcal{T}$ *is the space of partial observations of the context. Each observation corresponds to a trajectory observed by running the task policy in a given context.*
- $\mathcal{P}$ *is the space of actions. An action corresponds to choosing a sim parameter distribution $\mathcal{E}$.*
- R *is the reward associated with choosing an action in a particular context (i.e., the reward $R(\pi_{\mathcal{E}}^*; E^s)$ of the task policy $\pi_{\mathcal{E}}^*$ trained with $\mathcal{E}$ when deployed in the target environment E^s).*

It may be difficult to infer the optimal $\mathcal{E} \in \mathcal{P}$ using a single iteration of interactions with the target environment — if the current task policy fails badly in the target environment, the interaction may reveal little information. Thus, we iteratively apply incremental changes to $\mathcal{E}$, with the parameter distribution initialized as $\mathcal{E}_{i=0}$. Solving the SA-CB (using techniques that we detail below), we meta-learn an adaptation

policy $f(\mathcal{E},\tau)$ to maximize:

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{E^s\sim\mathcal{U}_\Omega}\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\mathcal{E}_0\sim\mathcal{U}_\mathcal{P}}\sum_{i=0}^{I}\gamma^i R(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i};E^s), \tag{2}$$

$$\text{where } \mathcal{E}_{i+1}=\mathcal{E}_i+\Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i}, \Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i}=f\big(\mathcal{E}_i,\tau(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i};E^s)\big),$$

and $\mathcal{U}_\Omega$ and $\mathcal{U}_\mathcal{P}$ are uniform distributions over Ω and $\mathcal{P}$ respectively, and $\gamma<1$ is the discount factor. This is the expected discounted sum of task rewards over multiple interactions from $i=0$ to the adaptation horizon I, over random sampling of simulated target environment and initial sim parameter distribution.

Sim parameter distribution space. We choose the space $\mathcal{P}$ of possible simulation parameter distributions to be Gaussian with mean bounded within Ω and a fixed variance. We also use a fixed step size δ for adapting each simulation parameter, ranging from 10% to 15% of the parameter range depending on the dimension of Ω — thus the set of possible $\Delta_\mathcal{E}$ along each dimension is $\{\delta,-\delta,0\}$.

(a-1)   (a-2)   (b)

Figure 3: Task-policy trajectories better reveal task-relevant information such as scooping dynamics under fast contact.

Algorithm 1 Meta-learning the adaptation policy in sim

Require: $(\Omega,\mathcal{T},\mathcal{P},R)$, SA-CB
Require: $S_f=\varnothing$, replay buffer
Require: $S_\mathcal{E}=\varnothing$, set of all simulation parameter distributions (and their task policies) used
1: Initialize $\epsilon\leftarrow 1$
2: **for** $k\leftarrow 0$ to K **do**
3: Sample target $E^s\sim\mathcal{U}_\Omega$ and $\mathcal{E}_{i=0}\sim\mathcal{U}_\mathcal{P}$
4: **for** $i\leftarrow 0$ to I **do**
5:    Train task policy $\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}$ (Sec.A2.2)
6:    Collect $\tau(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i};E^s)$ and $R(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i};E^s)$
7:    Sample random $\Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i}$ or infer $\Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i}=f(\mathcal{E}_i,\tau(\cdot;\cdot))$
8:    Update $\mathcal{E}_{i+1}\leftarrow\mathcal{E}_i+\Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i}$
9:    Add $\big(\mathcal{E}_i,\Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i},\tau(\cdot;\cdot),R(\cdot;\cdot)\big)$ to S_f
10:   Add $\mathcal{E}_i$ (and $\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}$) to $S_\mathcal{E}$
11: **end for**
12: Train f using Double Q-Learning and S_f
13: Anneal ϵ towards 0
14: **end for**
15: **return** $f,S_\mathcal{E}$

Task-policy trajectory as observation. We have chosen the task policy $\pi^*_\mathcal{E}$ to generate the trajectory observations used by the adaptation policy. Our intuition is that, compared to arbitrary policies or ones that generate the most "informative" trajectories in terms of dynamics [24], $\pi^*_\mathcal{E}$ better reveal the task-relevant information of the target environment . In the scooping task, the robot needs to attempt to scoop up the pieces so it can learn about the effect of the environment on the task (e.g., a piece with a flat bottom is generally harder to scoop). Simply pushing the pieces around does not exhibit the behavior of the pieces under fast contact (Fig. 3).

Training the adaptation policy using RL. The adaptation policy f is parameterized using a Branching Dueling Q-Network [25], which outputs the state-action value of choosing any of the $\{\delta,-\delta,0\}$ along each action dimension. It takes in (1) the vector of the mean of current simulation parameter distribution and (2) trajectory observation. We apply reinforcement learning (RL) to train f to maximize Eq. (2). In simulation, we collect K "adaptation trajectories"; each trajectory is a set $\{\big(\mathcal{E}_i, \Delta_{\mathcal{E}_i}, R(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i};E^s), \tau(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i};E^s)\big)\}_{i=0}^I$ and saved in a replay buffer S_f. Since each step involves training the corresponding task policy $\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}$, which can be expensive, we apply off-policy Double Q-Learning [26] for sample efficiency. Using this, the adaptation policy outputs the greedy action of a parameterized Q function, $f(\mathcal{E},\tau)=\arg\max_{\Delta_\mathcal{E}}Q(\mathcal{E},\tau;\Delta_\mathcal{E})$. We use ϵ-greedy exploration with ϵ initialized at 1 and annealed to 0.

This constitutes the first phase of AdaptSim. Algorithm 1 details the steps for collecting adaptation trajectories in the inner loop (Line 4-15) and meta-learning the adaptation policy. We save all distributions (and their corresponding task policies, omitted in notations for convenience) in a set $S_\mathcal{E}$, which are used again in the second phase. Training the task policy for each $\mathcal{E}$ is the most computationally heavy component of Algorithm 1; in Sec. A2.2 we explain the heuristics applied to allow re-using task policies between $\mathcal{E}$ in order to improve computational efficiency.

4.2 Phase 2: iteratively adapt sim parameters with real data

After meta-training the adaptation policy to find good task policies for a diverse set of target environments in simulation, we can apply it for inference and perform adaptation for the real environment E^r. Algorithm 2 details the iterative process. We apply the same adaptation process as the inner loop of Algorithm 1 for I^r iterations: train the task policy in simulation, evaluate it in the real environment, and infer the change of simulation parameters based on real trajectories. We always apply the greedy action from $f(\mathcal{E},\tau)$ ($\epsilon=0$).

Figure 4: Setup of the dynamic pushing and dynamic scooping tasks in both simulation and reality.

Algorithm 2 Iteratively adapt sim parameters with real data
***
Require: E^r, real environment
Require: $(\Omega, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{P}, R)$, SA-CB
Require: f, adaptation policy trained in Phase 1
Require: S_f, set of sim parameter distributions (and corresponding task policies) from Phase 1
1: Sample S'_f from S_f
2: **for** $i \leftarrow 0$ to I^r **do**
3:     **for** $\mathcal{E}_i \in S'_f$ **do**
4:         Train or fine-tune the task policy $\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}$ in sim
5:         Collect $\tau(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}; E^r)$ and $R(\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}; E^r)$ in real
6:         Update $\mathcal{E}_{i+1} \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_i + f(\mathcal{E}_i, \tau(\cdot; \cdot))$
7:     **end for**
8: **end for**
9: **return** $\pi^*_{\mathcal{E}_i}$ with the highest $R(\cdot; E^r)$
***

Since we have sampled a large set $S_{\mathcal{E}}$ of parameter distributions and trained their task policies in Phase 1, we may re-use them here. At the beginning of Phase 2, we sample $S'_{\mathcal{E}}$, a set of N distributions saved in $S_{\mathcal{E}}$, as the initial distributions to be adapted independently. Usually we pick $N = 2$ considering the trade-off between number of real trajectories needed and convergence of task performance (see Appendix A5 for analysis).

5 Tasks

Next we detail the three robotic tasks for evaluating AdaptSim and baselines. We choose these tasks and design the environments to highlight the irreducible gap between training and test domains.

5.1 Swing-up of a linearized double pendulum

This is a classic control task where the goal is to swing up a simple double pendulum with two actuated joints at one end of the two links. We consider the dynamics linearized around the state with the pendulum at the top, and thus the optimal policy can be solved exactly using Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR) [27] for a particular set of simulation parameters (*i.e.,* a Dirac delta distribution). The task cost (reward) function is defined with the standard quadratic state error and actuation penalty. The trajectory observation is evenly spaced points along trajectory of the two joints.

Simulation setup. The environment is parameterized with four parameters: m_1 and $m_2 \in [1, 2]$, point mass of the two joints, and b_1 and $b_2 \in [1, 2]$, damping coefficients of the two joints. The dynamics is simulated with numerical integration without a dedicated physics simulator.

5.2 Dynamic table-top pushing of a bottle

The robot needs to dynamically push a bottle to a particular target location on the table (Fig. 4). Since the target can be outside the workspace of the robot, the robot must push objects with high velocity — causing them to slide after a short period of contact. The task policy is parameterized with a neural network that maps the desired target location to (1) planar pushing angle and (2) robot end-effector speed (see Appendix A4 for visualization). The task cost (reward) is defined as the distance between the target location and the final location of the bottle. The trajectory observation is either (1) the final 2D position of the bottle only, or (2) evenly spaced points along the 2D trajectory — we consider both representations in the experiments.

Simulation setup. We employ the Drake physics simulator [28] for its accurate contact mechanics. In this simulated environment, a small patch of the table is simulated with different physics properties, simulating a wet or sticky area on the work surface. Parameter settings for this task are shown in Table 1. The hydroelastic modulus is a parameter of the hydroelastic contact model [7] implemented in Drake — it roughly simulates how "soft" the contact is between the objects, with lower values being softer.

Notation	Description	Range
μ	table friction coefficient	$[0.05, 0.2]$
e	hydroelastic modulus [7]	$[1e4, 1e6]$
μ_{p}	patch friction coefficient	$[0.20, 0.80]$
y_{p}	patch lateral location	$[-0.10, 0.10]$

Table 1: Sim setup for the pushing task.

Real setup. Two 3D-printed bottles (Fig. 4, Heavy and Light) with the same dimensions but different materials and masses are used. With an idealized model, the sliding distance should only depend on the contact surface but not the mass — which is the case in simulation — but in real experiments, we find the two bottles consistently travel different distances. Additionally, Heavy tends to rotate slightly despite being pushed straight due to a slightly uneven bottom surface. This type of unmodeled effect exemplifies the irreducible sim-to-real gap. We also adhere a small piece of high-friction Neoprene rubber to the table, which decelerates the bottle and further complicate the task dynamics.

5.3 Dynamic scooping of food pieces with a spatula

The robot needs to use a cooking spatula to scoop up small food pieces on the table (Fig. 4). It is a challenging task that requires intricate planning of the scooping trajectory — we notice humans cannot complete the task consistently without a few trials to practice. The task policy is parameterized with a neural network that maps the initial positions of the food pieces to parameterization of the scooping trajectory: (1) initial distance of the spatula from the pieces, (2) initial pitch angle of the spatula from the table, and (3) the timestep to lift up the spatula (see Appendix A4 for details). The task reward is defined as the ratio of food pieces on the spatula at the end of the action. The trajectory observation is evenly spaced points along 2D trajectories of the food pieces.

Simulation setup. We again use the Drake simulator. The parameter settings are shown in Table 2.

Real setup. Six different kinds of food pieces are used (Fig. 4): (1) chocolate raisin, (2) (fake, rubber-like) sliced carrot, (3) (fake, rigid) sliced cucumber, (4) raw Brussels sprout, (5) raw sliced mushroom, and (6) Oreo cookie. They cover different shapes from being round, ellipsoidal, to roughly cylindrical, and also have different amounts of deformation and friction.

Notation	Description	Range
μ	friction coefficient	$[0.25, 0.4]$
e	hydroelastic modulus	$[1e4, 5e5]$
g	food piece geometry	{ellipsoid, cylinder}
h	food piece height	$[1.5cm, 2.5cm]$

Table 2: Sim setup for the scooping task.

6 Experiments

Through extensive adaptation experiments and additional studies in both simulated and real environments, we demonstrate that AdaptSim improves asymptotic task performance compared to Sys-ID and other baselines when adapting to real and OOD simulated environments, while also improving data efficiency. For baselines, first we consider methods that directly optimizes the task policy: (1) **Uniform domain randomization (UDR):** train a task policy to optimize the average task reward over environments from $\mathcal{U}_\Omega$; (2) **UDR+Target:** fine-tune the task policy from UDR with real data; (3) **LearnInTarget:** directly train a task policy with data in the target environment only by fitting a small neural network that maps action to final reward. The policy then outputs the action with the highest predicted reward. Next, we consider two that perform SysID and iteratively train the task policy like AdaptSim: (4) **SysID-Bayes [6, 29]:** iteratively infer the sim parameter distribution based on real trajectories to match dynamics in sim and reality; (5) **SysID-Point:** infer a point estimate of the sim parameter instead of a distributional one (in some settings randomizing sim parameters with a distribution can negatively impact task policy training).

6.1 AdaptSim achieves better task performance through adaptation

Sim-to-Sim Adaptation. We perform experiments for all baselines adapting to different WD (Within-Domain) and OOD simulated environments. WD environments are generated by sampling all simulation parameters within Ω of each task, and OOD environments are generated by sampling some parameters outside Ω (see Appendix A5 for details). Table 3 shows the adaptation results in the target environments in the three tasks. While Sys-ID baselines achieve high reward in WD environments, AdaptSim outperforms Sys-ID baselines in almost all OOD environments.

Sim-to-Real Adaptation. Next we perform experiments for adapting to real environments. Fig. 5 shows the average reward achieved at each adaptation iteration in the pushing and scooping tasks. Generally the performance gap between AdaptSim and Sys-ID baselines is larger in reality, with AdaptSim achieving better performance. In the scooping task, for example, AdaptSim is able to train a task policy for sliced cucumbers with decent performance (60% success rate); the pieces are very thin and difficult to scoop under (Fig. 8). Other baselines fail to scoop up the pieces.

Method	Double Pendulum Swing-Up					Bottle Pushing					Food Scooping				
	WD	OOD-1	OOD-2	OOD-3	OOD-4	WD	OOD-1	OOD-2	OOD-3	OOD-4	WD	OOD-1	OOD-2	OOD-3	OOD-4
AdaptSim	**0.98**	**0.96**	**0.95**	**0.95**	**0.98**	0.95	0.87	**0.73**	0.86	0.77	**1.00**	0.64	**1.00**	**1.00**	**0.55**
SysID-Bayes [6]	0.85	0.76	0.79	0.23	0.96	**0.98**	0.80	0.65	0.81	**0.79**	0.90	**0.66**	0.81	**1.00**	0.36
SysID-Point	0.95	0.60	0.73	0.39	0.76	0.94	0.84	0.68	0.85	0.78	0.94	0.63	0.90	**1.00**	0.42
UDR	-	-	-	-	-	0.68	0.65	0.61	0.67	0.58	0.65	0.22	0.43	0.55	0.12
UDR+Target	-	-	-	-	-	0.78	0.73	0.66	0.71	0.70	0.61	0.31	0.49	0.60	0.21
LearnInTarget	-	-	-	-	-	0.91	0.75	0.66	0.74	0.71	0.03	0.00	0.25	0.26	0.03

Table 3: **Sim-to-Sim Adaptation.** Best average reward achieved over adaptation horizons at different WD and OOD simulated target environment in the three tasks. For the pendulum task, the values are normalized in [0,1] using the reward achieved by UDR (lower bound) and by using the best possible parameters within Ω (upper bound, estimated with exhaustive sampling). For the pushing task, the values are normalized with 20cm as the maximum error, which is the range of possible goal locations in the forward direction.

Figure 5: **Sim-to-Real Adaptation.** Reward achieved over adaptation iterations by all methods, in the task of pushing (left) and scooping up (right) different real objects (see Fig. 4 for images). Results are averaged over 10 trials in the pushing task and 5 in the scooping task.

6.2 AdaptSim improves real data efficiency

Pushing task. We compare AdaptSim with Learn-InTarget and UDR+Target with different number of real data budget. With enough data, LearnInTarget and UDR+Target should achieve high reward in the target environment. We do not compare with Sys-ID baselines here since Sec. 6.1 shows they typically fail to achieve the same level of task performance in real environments. In the task of pushing Heavy bottle, Table 4 shows that Adapt-

	Real data budget							
Method	0	4	8	16	24	32	40	48
AdaptSim	0.30	0.69	0.80	0.83	0.84	0.84	0.82	0.83
LearnInTarget	0.05	0.04	0.63	0.69	0.76	0.80	0.84	0.83
UDR+Target	0.63	0.56	0.62	0.66	0.68	0.74	0.82	0.82
BayesOpt	-	-	-	-	0.65	0.72	0.79	0.80

Table 4: **Adaptation Data Efficiency.** Normalized reward achieved using different amount of real data in the pushing task with Heavy bottle.

Sim achieves a similar level of task performance ($\sim$0.83) using only 16 trials while LearnInTarget and UDR+Target uses 40. Fine-tuning with real data in UDR+Target is ineffective until the real budget is sufficient and can negatively impact the performance in the low-data regime (*e.g.,* 4 and 8). This also exemplifies using simulation to amortize data requirements for policy training. We also introduce a new baseline **BayesOpt** here based on [19] that directly optimizes Eq. (1) with Bayesian Optimization. However, with 24 rollouts (the minimum needed to initialize the optimization) it only achieves 0.65.

Larger improvement in scooping task. While LearnInTarget and UDR+Target achieve reasonable performance in the pushing task, LearnInTarget achieves low reward on all the food pieces in the scooping task, and UDR+Target does not improve upon the performance of UDR policies. The action space in the scooping task is more complex and requires significantly more data to search for or improve task policies. AdaptSim's adaptation pre-training in simulation considerably amortizes the real data requirement.

6.3 AdaptSim finds sim parameters that are different from ones from SysID

We expect that AdaptSim finds simulation settings that achieve better task performance while not necessarily minimizing the full dynamics discrepancies between sim and reality. Fig. 6 shows SysID-Bayes finds parameters that are closer to the target in the parameter space, but for the pendulum task, such parameters lead to inferior task reward compared to those found by AdaptSim.

Figure 7: **Adaptation in Pushing Task.** AdaptSim correctly learns to push the bottle swiftly and close to the target. The task-relevant sim parameters learned by AdaptSim noticeably differ from those by SysID-Bayes which tends to underestimate table and patch friction, resulting in a less forceful push of the bottle and worse task performance.

Figure 8: **Adaptation in Scooping Task.** With AdaptSim, the cucumber is successfully scooped up by lifting up the spatula off the table late; otherwise, the piece slips off the spatula. AdaptSim infers an ellipsoidal shape ($g = 1$, food piece geometry), while SysID-Bayes infers a cylindrical shape.

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 further show cases where SysID-Bayes under-performs AdaptSim and there are visible differences between sim parameter distributions found by the two approaches. In the pushing task, SysID-Bayes infers table and patch friction coefficients that are too low, and the trained task policy pushes the bottle with little speed. In the scooping task, interestingly, AdaptSim infers an ellipsoidal shape for the sliced cucumber despite it resembling a very thin cylinder, and the task policy achieves 60% success rate. Sys-ID infers a cylindrical shape but the task policy fails completely.

7 Discussions

Summary. We find that black-box SysID is often suboptimal, attempting to fit non-task-relevant parts of the environment dynamics at the expense of downstream performance. To overcome this, we present *AdaptSim*, a framework for efficiently adapting simulation-trained task policies to the real world. AdaptSim meta-learns how to adapt simulation parameter distributions for better performance in diverse simulated target environments, and then infers better distributions for training real-world task policies using a small amount of real data.

Figure 6: Sim parameters found by AdaptSim vs. SysID-Bayes in the OOD-1 setting of the double pendulum task. The colors indicate the maximum possible reward at each parameter. SysID-Bayes finds parameters closer to the target in the parameter space (dark red star), but the task performance is worse.

Limitations and Future Work. In some settings AdaptSim does not outperform baselines (*e.g.,* OOD-4 in the pushing task and scooping up Brussels sprout in hardware). First, AdaptSim's task-driven adaptation training requires the trained task policy being (nearly) optimal on the corresponding simulation parameter distribution — while it can be solved exactly in the double pendulum task, the task policy training in the two manipulation tasks can be noisy. Second, if the target environment is extremely OOD from the simulation domain, AdaptSim may not work as well. An example is to scoop up Brussels sprouts (Fig. A8). We believe the first issue can be mitigated by allowing more simulation budget for task policy training and better design of task policy re-use. The second issue can be addressed by designing the simulation parameter space Ω to better cover possible real-world behavior. We are also interested in examining the effect of under-parameterization and over-parameterization of the simulation (Ω) on best achievable task performance.

References

[1] I. Akkaya, M. Andrychowicz, M. Chociej, M. Litwin, B. McGrew, A. Petron, A. Paino, M. Plappert, G. Powell, R. Ribas, et al. Solving rubik's cube with a robot hand. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1910.07113*, 2019.

[2] A. Handa, A. Allshire, V. Makoviychuk, A. Petrenko, R. Singh, J. Liu, D. Makoviichuk, K. Van Wyk, A. Zhurkevich, B. Sundaralingam, et al. DeXtreme: Transfer of Agile In-hand Manipulation from Simulation to Reality. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.13702*, 2022.

[3] J. Lee, J. Hwangbo, L. Wellhausen, V. Koltun, and M. Hutter. Learning quadrupedal locomotion over challenging terrain. *Science Robotics*, 5(47):eabc5986, 2020.

[4] A. Loquercio, E. Kaufmann, R. Ranftl, A. Dosovitskiy, V. Koltun, and D. Scaramuzza. Deep drone racing: From simulation to reality with domain randomization. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics*, 36 (1):1–14, 2019.

[5] V. Lim, H. Huang, L. Y. Chen, J. Wang, J. Ichnowski, D. Seita, M. Laskey, and K. Goldberg. Planar robot casting with real2sim2real self-supervised learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2022.

[6] F. Ramos, R. C. Possas, and D. Fox. Bayessim: adaptive domain randomization via probabilistic inference for robotics simulators. In *Proceedings of Robotics: Science and Systems*, 2019.

[7] J. Masterjohn, D. Guoy, J. Shepherd, and A. Castro. Velocity Level Approximation of Pressure Field Contact Patches. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 7(4):11593–11600, 2022.

[8] K.-C. Hsu, A. Z. Ren, D. P. Nguyen, A. Majumdar, and J. F. Fisac. Sim-to-Lab-to-Real: Safe reinforcement learning with shielding and generalization guarantees. *Artificial Intelligence*, 314: 103811, 2023.

[9] J. Tobin, R. Fong, A. Ray, J. Schneider, W. Zaremba, and P. Abbeel. Domain randomization for transferring deep neural networks from simulation to the real world. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS)*, 2017.

[10] F. Sadeghi and S. Levine. Cad2rl: Real single-image flight without a single real image. In *Proceedings of Robotics: Science and Systems*, 2017.

[11] X. B. Peng, M. Andrychowicz, W. Zaremba, and P. Abbeel. Sim-to-real transfer of robotic control with dynamics randomization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2018.

[12] G. B. Margolis and P. Agrawal. Walk These Ways: Tuning Robot Control for Generalization with Multiplicity of Behavior. In *Proceedings of the Conference on Robot Learning (CoRL)*, 2022.

[13] F. Muratore, F. Ramos, G. Turk, W. Yu, M. Gienger, and J. Peters. Robot learning from randomized simulations: A review. *Frontiers in Robotics and AI*, 9, 2022.

[14] M. Gautier and W. Khalil. On the identification of the inertial parameters of robots. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Decision and Control (CDC)*, 1988.

[15] P. K. Khosla and T. Kanade. Parameter identification of robot dynamics. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Decision and Control (CDC)*, 1985.

[16] E. Heiden, C. E. Denniston, D. Millard, F. Ramos, and G. S. Sukhatme. Probabilistic Inference of Simulation Parameters via Parallel Differentiable Simulation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2022.

[17] R. Antonova, J. Yang, P. Sundaresan, D. Fox, F. Ramos, and J. Bohg. A bayesian treatment of real-to-sim for deformable object manipulation. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 7(3):5819–5826, 2022.

[18] C. Chi, B. Burchfiel, E. Cousineau, S. Feng, and S. Song. Iterative residual policy: for goal-conditioned dynamic manipulation of deformable objects. In *Proceedings of Robotics: Science and Systems*, 2022.

[19] F. Muratore, C. Eilers, M. Gienger, and J. Peters. Data-efficient domain randomization with bayesian optimization. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 6(2):911–918, 2021.

[20] Q. Vuong, S. Vikram, H. Su, S. Gao, and H. I. Christensen. How to pick the domain randomization parameters for sim-to-real transfer of reinforcement learning policies? *arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.11774*, 2019.

[21] W. Yu, C. K. Liu, and G. Turk. Policy transfer with strategy optimization. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2018.

[22] N. Ruiz, S. Schulter, and M. Chandraker. Learning to simulate. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2019.

[23] A. Bensoussan. *Stochastic control of partially observable systems*. Cambridge University Press, 1992.

[24] J. Swevers, C. Ganseman, D. B. Tukel, J. De Schutter, and H. Van Brussel. Optimal robot excitation and identification. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics and Automation*, 13(5):730–740, 1997.

[25] A. Tavakoli, F. Pardo, and P. Kormushev. Action Branching Architectures for Deep Reinforcement Learning. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2018.

[26] H. Van Hasselt, A. Guez, and D. Silver. Deep reinforcement learning with double q-learning. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, 2016.

[27] R. Tedrake. *Underactuated Robotics*. 2023. URL https://underactuated.csail.mit.edu.

[28] R. Tedrake and the Drake Development Team. Drake: Model-based design and verification for robotics, 2019. URL https://drake.mit.edu.

[29] R. Antonova, F. Ramos, R. Possas, and D. Fox. BayesSimIG: Scalable Parameter Inference for Adaptive Domain Randomization with Isaac Gym. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.04527*, 2021.

[30] Y. Chebotar, A. Handa, V. Makoviychuk, M. Macklin, J. Issac, N. Ratliff, and D. Fox. Closing the sim-to-real loop: Adapting simulation randomization with real world experience. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2019.

[31] A. Allevato, E. S. Short, M. Pryor, and A. Thomaz. Tunenet: One-shot residual tuning for system identification and sim-to-real robot task transfer. In *Proceedings of the Conference on Robot Learning (CoRL)*, 2020.

[32] A. Ajay, M. Bauza, J. Wu, N. Fazeli, J. B. Tenenbaum, A. Rodriguez, and L. P. Kaelbling. Combining physical simulators and object-based networks for control. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2019.

[33] A. Zeng, S. Song, J. Lee, A. Rodriguez, and T. Funkhouser. Tossingbot: Learning to throw arbitrary objects with residual physics. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics*, 36(4):1307–1319, 2020.

[34] A. Kumar, Z. Fu, D. Pathak, and J. Malik. RMA: Rapid motor adaptation for legged robots. In *Proceedings of Robotics: Science and Systems*, 2021.

[35] W. Yu, J. Tan, C. K. Liu, and G. Turk. Preparing for the unknown: Learning a universal policy with online system identification. In *Proceedings of Robotics: Science and Systems*, 2017.

[36] B. Evans, A. Thankaraj, and L. Pinto. Context is everything: Implicit identification for dynamics adaptation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2022.

[37] J. Liang, S. Saxena, and O. Kroemer. Learning active task-oriented exploration policies for bridging the sim-to-real gap. In *Proceedings of Robotics: Science and Systems*, 2020.

[38] W. Jin and M. Posa. Task-Driven Hybrid Model Reduction for Dexterous Manipulation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.16657*, 2022.

[39] A. Z. Ren and A. Majumdar. Distributionally robust policy learning via adversarial environment generation. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 7(2):1379–1386, 2022.

[40] H. S. Gomes, B. Léger, and C. Gagné. Meta learning black-box population-based optimizers. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2023.

[41] M. Wistuba, N. Schilling, and L. Schmidt-Thieme. Scalable gaussian process-based transfer surrogates for hyperparameter optimization. *Machine Learning*, 107(1):43–78, 2018.

[42] Y. Chen, M. W. Hoffman, S. G. Colmenarejo, M. Denil, T. P. Lillicrap, M. Botvinick, and N. Freitas. Learning to learn without gradient descent by gradient descent. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2017.

[43] M. Volpp, L. P. Fröhlich, K. Fischer, A. Doerr, S. Falkner, F. Hutter, and C. Daniel. Meta-learning acquisition functions for transfer learning in bayesian optimization. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.

[44] A. Z. Ren, B. Govil, T.-Y. Yang, K. Narasimhan, and A. Majumdar. Leveraging Language for Accelerated Learning of Tool Manipulation. In *Proceedings of the Conference on Robot Learning (CoRL)*, 2022.

[45] L. Johannsmeier, M. Gerchow, and S. Haddadin. A framework for robot manipulation: Skill formalism, meta learning and adaptive control. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2019.

[46] A. Nagabandi, G. Kahn, R. S. Fearing, and S. Levine. Neural network dynamics for model-based deep reinforcement learning with model-free fine-tuning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2018.

[47] J. Fu, K. Luo, and S. Levine. Learning robust rewards with adversarial inverse reinforcement learning. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2018.

[48] S. Gu, T. Lillicrap, I. Sutskever, and S. Levine. Continuous deep q-learning with model-based acceleration. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2016.