

LAGEA: LANGUAGE GUIDED EMBODIED AGENTS FOR ROBOTIC MANIPULATION

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Robotic manipulation benefits from foundation models that describe goals, but today’s agents still lack a principled way to learn from their own mistakes. We ask whether natural language can serve as feedback, an error-reasoning signal that helps embodied agents diagnose what went wrong and correct course. We introduce LAGEA (Language Guided Embodied Agents), a framework that turns episodic, schema-constrained reflections from a vision language model (VLM) into temporally grounded guidance for reinforcement learning. LAGEA summarizes each attempt in concise language, localizes the decisive moments in the trajectory, aligns feedback with visual state in a shared representation, and converts goal progress and feedback agreement into bounded, step-wise shaping rewards whose influence is modulated by an adaptive, failure-aware coefficient. This design yields dense signals early when exploration needs direction and gracefully recedes as competence grows. On the Meta-World MT10 embodied manipulation benchmark, LAGEA improves average success over the state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods by 9.0% on random goals and 5.3% on fixed goals, while converging faster. These results support our hypothesis: language, when structured and grounded in time, is an effective mechanism for teaching robots to self-reflect on mistakes and make better choices.

1 INTRODUCTION

Multimodal foundation models have reshaped sequential decision-making (Yang et al., 2023), from language-grounded affordance reasoning (Ahn et al., 2022) to vision–language–action transfer, robots now display compelling zero-shot behaviour and semantic competence (Driess et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2024; Brohan et al., 2024). Yet converting such priors into reliable learning signals still hinges on reward design, which remains a bottleneck across tasks and scenes. To reduce engineering overhead, a pragmatic trend is to treat VLMs as zero-shot reward models (Rocamonde et al., 2023), scoring progress from natural-language goals and visual observations (Baumli et al., 2023). Yet these scores usually summarize overall outcomes rather than provide step-wise credit, can fluctuate with viewpoint and context, and inherit biases and inconsistency (Wang et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024).

Densifying VLM-derived rewards into per-step signals helps but does not remove hallucination or noise-induced drift. Simply adding these signals can destabilize training or encourage reward hacking. Contrastive objectives like FuRL (Fu et al., 2024) reduce reward misalignment, but on long-horizon, sparse-reward tasks, early misalignment can compound, misdirecting exploration. This highlights the need for structured, temporally grounded guidance that reduces noise and helps the agent recognize and learn from its own failures.

Agents need to recognize what went wrong, when it happened, and why it matters for the next decision. General-purpose VLMs, while capable at instruction-following, are not calibrated for this role, as they can hallucinate or rationalize errors under small distribution shifts (Lin et al., 2021). Prior self-reflection paradigms (Shinn et al., 2023) show that textual self-critique can improve decision making, but these demonstrations largely live in text-only environments such as ALFWorld (Shridhar et al., 2020), where observation, action, and feedback share a symbolic interface. Learning from failure is a fundamental aspect of reasoning; therefore, we ask a critical question: *How can embodied policies derive reliable, temporally localized failure attributions directly from visual trajectories of the stochastic robotic environments where explorations are expensive?*

Learning from mistakes requires detecting failures and causal understanding. For this purpose, we present our framework **LAGEA**, which addresses this by using VLMs to generate episodic natural-language reflections on a robot’s behavior, summarizing what was attempted, which constraints were violated, and providing actionable rationales. As smaller VLMs can hallucinate or drift in free-form text (Guan et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024), feedback is structured and aligned with goal and instruction texts, making LAGEA transferable across agents, viewpoints, and environments while maintaining stability.

With these structured reflections in hand, we turn feedback into a signal the agent can actually use at each step rather than as a single episode score. LAGEA maps the feedback into the agent’s visual representation and attaches a local progress signal to each transition. We adopt potential-based reward shaping, adding only the change in this signal from successive states, which avoids over-rewarding static states (Wiewiora, 2003). The potential itself blends two agreements: how well the current state matches the instruction-defined goal, and how well the transition aligns with the VLM’s diagnosis around the key frames, so progress is rewarded precisely where the diagnosis says it matters. To keep learning stable, we dynamically modulate its scale against the environment task reward and feed the overall reward to the critic of our online RL algorithm (Haarnoja et al., 2018).

We evaluate LAGEA on diverse robotic manipulation tasks (Yu et al., 2020). LAGEA transforms VLM critique into localized, action-grounded shaping, obtains faster convergence and higher success rates over strong off-policy baselines. Our core contributions are:

- We present LAGEA, an embodied VLM-RL framework that generates causal episodic feedback which are localized in time to turn failures into guidance and improve recovery after near misses.
- We demonstrate that LAGEA can convert episodic, natural language self-reflection into a dense reward shaping signal through feedback alignment and feedback-VLM delta reward potential that can solve complex, sparse reward robot manipulation tasks.
- We provide extensive experimental analysis of LAGEA on state-of-the-art (SOTA) robotic manipulation benchmarks (Yu et al., 2020) and present insights into LAGEA’s learning procedure via thorough ablation studies.

2 RELATED WORK

VLMs for RL. Foundation models (Wiggins & Tejani, 2022) have proven broadly useful across downstream applications (Khandelwal et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2025), motivating their incorporation into reinforcement learning pipelines. Early work showed that language models can act as reward generators in purely textual settings (Kwon et al., 2023), but extending this idea to visuomotor control is nontrivial because reward specification is often ambiguous or brittle. A natural remedy is to leverage visual reasoning to infer progress toward a goal directly from observations (Adeniji et al., 2023). One approach (Wang et al., 2024) queries a VLM to compare state images and judge improvement along a task trajectory; another aligns trajectory frames with language descriptions or demonstration captions and uses the resulting similarities as dense rewards (Fu et al., 2024). However, empirical studies indicate that such contrastive alignment introduces noise, and its reliability depends strongly on how the task is specified in language (Nam et al., 2023).

Natural Language in Embodied AI. With VLM architectures pushing this multimodal interface forward (Liu et al., 2023; Karamcheti et al., 2024), a growing body of work integrates visual and linguistic inputs directly into large language models to drive embodied behavior, spanning navigation (Majumdar et al., 2020), manipulation (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020b), and mixed settings (Suglia et al., 2021). Beyond end-to-end conditioning, many systems focus on interpreting natural-language goals (Nair et al., 2022; Lynch et al., 2023) or on prompting strategies that extract executable guidance from an LLM—by matching generated text to admissible skills (Huang et al., 2022b), closing the loop with visual feedback (Huang et al., 2022c), incorporating affordance priors (Ahn et al., 2022), explaining observations (Wang et al., 2023b), or learning world models for prospective reasoning (Nottingham et al., 2023). Socratic Models (Zeng et al., 2022) exemplify this trend by coordinating multiple foundation models under a language interface to manipulate objects in simulation. Conversely, our framework uses natural language not as a direct policy or planner, but as structured, episodic feedback that supports causal reasoning in robotic manipulation.

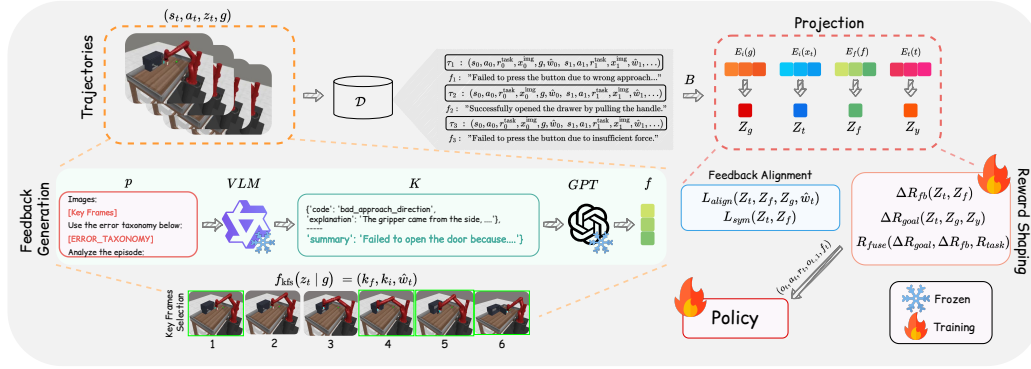


Figure 1: Overview of LAGEA framework. (a) After each rollout, key-frame selection identifies causal moments and computes per-step weights $\hat{w}_t$; a VLM queried on those frames returns a schema-constrained self-reflection that is encoded as a feedback embedding f . Trajectories, f , and $\hat{w}_t$ are stored in buffer $\mathcal{D}$. (b) Trainable projectors (E_i, E_t, E_f) map state images x_t , goal g , instruction y , and f into a shared space; a hybrid calibration+contrastive objective ($\mathcal{L}_{align}, \mathcal{L}_{sym}$) enforces control relevance. (c) Computes goal-delta ΔR_{goal} and feedback-delta ΔR_{fb} , fuses them with sparse task reward R_{task} , and produces the final dense reward for policy updates.

Failure Reasoning in Embodied AI. Diagnosing and responding to failure has a long history in robotics (Khanna et al., 2023), yet many contemporary systems reduce the problem to success classification using off-the-shelf VLMs or LLMs (Ma et al., 2022; Dai et al., 2025), with some works instruction-tuning the VLM backbone to better flag errors (Du et al., 2023). Because VLMs can hallucinate or over-generalize, several studies probe or exploit model uncertainty to temper false positives (Zheng et al., 2024); nevertheless, the resulting detectors typically produce binary outcomes and provide little insight into *why* an execution failed. Iterative self-improvement pipelines offer textual critiques or intermediate feedback—via self-refinement (Madaan et al., 2023), learned critics that comment within a trajectory (Paul et al., 2023), or reflection over prior rollouts (Shinn et al., 2023)—but these methods are largely evaluated in text-world settings that mirror embodied environments, where perception and low-level control are abstracted away. In contrast, our approach targets visual robotic manipulation and treats language as structured, episodic *explanations* of failure that can be aligned with image embeddings and converted into temporally grounded reward shaping signals. Extended references to related work can be found in the Appendix A.2

3 METHODOLOGY

We extend on prior work (Fu et al., 2024) by incorporating a feedback-driven VLM-RL framework for embodied manipulation. Each episode, Qwen-2.5-VL-3B emits a compact, structured self-reflection, which we encode with a lightweight GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) model and pair it with keyframe-based saliency over the trajectory. Our framework overview is given in Figure 1

3.1 FEEDBACK GENERATION

To convert error-laden exploration into guidance and steer the exploration through mistakes, we employ a VLM, i.e. Qwen 2.5VL 3B (Bai et al., 2025) model for a compact, task-aware natural language reflection of what went wrong and how to proceed, which shapes subsequent learning. Appendix A.7, Figure 8 compactly illustrates our feedback generation pipeline.

3.1.1 STRUCTURED FEEDBACK

Small VLMs can drift: the same episode rendered with minor visual differences often yields divergent, sometimes hallucinatory explanations. To make feedback reliable and comparable across training, we impose a structured protocol at the end of each episode. We uniformly sample $\mathcal{N}$ frames and prompt the VLM with the task instruction, a compact error taxonomy, two few-shot

exemplars (success/failure), and a short history from the last $\mathcal{K}$ attempts. The model is required to return only a schema-constrained JSON. We then embed the natural language episodic reflection by GPT-2, yielding a 768- D feedback vector that is stable across near-duplicate episodes and auditable for downstream use. More details are provided in Appendix A.10.

3.1.2 KEY FRAME GENERATION

Uniformly broadcasting a single episodic feedback vector across all steps of the episode yields noisy credit assignment because it ignores when the outcome was actually decided. We therefore identify a small set of *key frames* and diffuse their influence locally in time, so learning focuses on causal moments (approach, contact, reversal). To keep the gate deterministic and model-agnostic, we compute key frames from the *goal-similarity trajectory* using image embeddings.

Let $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be the image embedding at time t and $g \in \mathbb{R}^d$ the goal embedding. We compute a proximity signal s_t and its temporal derivatives and convert them into a per-step saliency p_t , which favours frames that are near the goal, rapidly changing, or at sharp turns.

$$s_t = \cos(x_t, g) \in [-1, 1], \quad v_t = s_t - s_{t-1}, \quad a_t = v_t - v_{t-1}, \quad v_0 = a_0 = 0$$

$$p_t = \omega_s [z(s_t)]_+ + \omega_v z(|v_t|) + \omega_a z(|a_t|), \quad \omega_s + \omega_v + \omega_a = 1$$

Here $z(\cdot)$ is a per-episode z-normalization score and $[\cdot]_+$ is ReLU. We then form $\mathcal{K}$ keyframes by selecting up to M high-saliency indices with a minimum temporal spacing (endpoints always kept), yielding a compact, causally focused set of frames. We convert $\mathcal{K}$ into per-step weights with a triangular kernel (half-window h) and a small floor β , followed by mean normalization:

$$\tilde{w}_t = \max_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \left(1 - \frac{|t-k|}{h+1} \right)_+, \quad w_t = \beta + (1 - \beta) \tilde{w}_t$$

These weights $\hat{w}_t$ (normalized to unit mean) concentrate mass near key frames; elsewhere, the weighting is near-uniform. They are later used in *feedback alignment*, where each timestep’s contribution is scaled by $\hat{w}_t$ so image-feedback geometry is learned primarily from causal moments, and *reward shaping*, where $\hat{w}_t$ gates the per-step feedback-delta signal.

3.1.3 FEEDBACK ALIGNMENT

Key-frame weights $\hat{w}_t$ identify when gradients should matter; the remaining step is to make the episodic feedback f actionable by aligning it with visual states in a shared space. We project images and feedback with small MLP projectors E_i, E_f , and use unit-norm embeddings for the image state, $z_t = \frac{E_i(x_t)}{\|E_i(x_t)\|}$, the episodic feedback $z_f = \frac{E_f(f)}{\|E_f(f)\|}$, and the goal image $z_g = \frac{E_i(g)}{\|E_i(g)\|}$. Each step is weighted by u_t (key-frame saliency $\times$ goal proximity, renormalized to mean one) to concentrate updates on causal, near-goal moments.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{bce}} = \frac{1}{\sum_t u_t} \sum_t u_t \text{BCE}(\sigma(\psi_t / \tau_{\text{bce}}), y_t), \quad \psi_t = \langle z_t, z_f \rangle, \quad y_t \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ncc}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i: y_i=1} u_i} \sum_{i: y_i=1} u_i \text{CE}(\text{softmax}(S_{i:}), i), \quad S_{ij} = \frac{\langle z_f^{(i)}, z^{(j)} \rangle}{\tau_{\text{ncc}}}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{align}} = \lambda_{\text{bce}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{bce}} + \lambda_{\text{ncc}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ncc}}$$

We align feedback to vision with two complementary losses. The first enforces absolute calibration: the diagonal cosine $\psi_t = \langle z_t, z_f \rangle$ is treated as a logit (scaled by temperature τ_{bce}) and supervised with the per-step success label $y_t \in \{0, 1\}$, so successful steps pull image and feedback together while failures push them apart. The second loss shapes the relative geometry across the batch. For each success row i , we form $S_{ij} = \langle z_f^{(i)}, z^{(j)} \rangle / \tau_{\text{ncc}}$ and apply cross-entropy over columns so feedback i prefers its own image over batch negatives. The hybrid objective balances these terms via hyperparameters $\lambda_{\text{bce}}, \lambda_{\text{ncc}}$.

To further polish the geometry, we refine the shared space with a symmetric, weighted contrastive step that uses the same weights but averages the cross-entropy in both directions (feedback-to-image

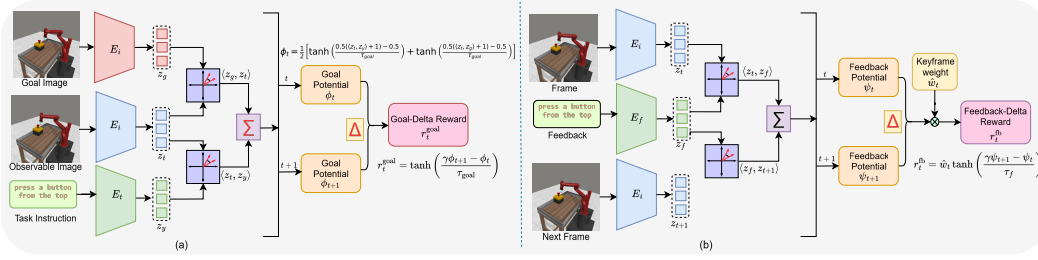


Figure 2: The computation of our delta-based rewards. (a) A Goal Potential ϕ_t is formed by aligning the current state z_t with the goal image z_g and instruction z_y . (b) A Feedback Potential ψ_t is formed by aligning z_t with the VLM feedback z_f . The temporal difference of these potentials creates the fused feedback-VLM rewards.

and image-to-feedback). With per-row weights renormalized, label smoothing, and small regularizers ($\lambda_{\text{align}}, \lambda_{\text{uni}}$) for pairwise alignment and uniformity on the unit sphere, the update becomes,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sym}} = \frac{1}{2} [\text{CE}_{fi} + \text{CE}_{if}] + \lambda_{\text{align}} \mathbb{E} \|z_t^{(i)} - z_f^{(i)}\|^2 + \lambda_{\text{uni}} \log \mathbb{E}_{z_a, z_b \in \mathcal{Z}} \exp(-2\|z_a - z_b\|^2)$$

Here, CE_{fi} and CE_{if} are cross-entropies reward over cosine-similarity softmaxes from feedback to image and image to feedback, and a, b index distinct unit-norm embeddings $z_a, z_b \in \mathcal{Z}$ from the current minibatch (images and feedback).

Together, the calibration (BCE), discrimination (InfoNCE) (Oord et al., 2018), and symmetric refinement yield a stable, control-relevant geometry driven by key frames near the goal. Key-frame and goal-proximity weights ensure these gradients come from moments that matter. The learned projector is used downstream to compute goal and feedback-delta potentials for reward shaping, and to estimate instruction text–feedback agreement for reward fusion.

3.2 REWARD GENERATION

With the shared space in place, we convert progress toward the task and movement toward the feedback into dense, directional rewards. We project images, instruction text, and feedback with E_i, E_t, E_f and use unit-norm embeddings for the current state z_t , the goal image z_g , the episodic feedback z_f , and the instruction text $z_y = \frac{E_t(\text{instruction})}{\|E_t(\text{instruction})\|}$. Potentials are squashed with tanh to keep scale bounded and numerically stable. We define a goal potential ϕ_t by averaging instruction text– and image–goal affinities, then shape its temporal difference and get the goal-delta reward, r_t^{goal} :

$$\phi_t = \frac{1}{2} \left[\tanh\left(\frac{0.5(\langle z_t, z_y \rangle + 1) - 0.5}{\tau_{\text{goal}}}\right) + \tanh\left(\frac{0.5(\langle z_t, z_g \rangle + 1) - 0.5}{\tau_{\text{goal}}}\right) \right], \quad r_t^{\text{goal}} = \tanh\left(\frac{\gamma\phi_{t+1} - \phi_t}{\tau_{\text{goal}}}\right)$$

where $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ is the shaping discount and $\tau_{\text{goal}} > 0$ controls slope. r_t^{goal} supplies shaped progress signals while preserving scale, and is positive when the state moves closer to the goal and negative otherwise.

In parallel, we reward movement toward the feedback direction and concentrate credit to causal moments via the key-frame weights $\hat{w}_t$. Let $\psi_t = \langle z_t, z_f \rangle$ be feedback embeddings cosine with the state and feedback temperature $\tau_f > 0$ shaping the slope, we form a feedback-delta reward, r_t^{fb} . We then combine goal and feedback delta reward and get the fused reward $\tilde{r}_t$ using a confidence-aware mixture that increases with instruction–feedback agreement, $a = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \langle z_y, z_f \rangle) \in [0, 1]$

$$r_t^{\text{fb}} = \hat{w}_t \tanh\left(\frac{\gamma\psi_{t+1} - \psi_t}{\tau_f}\right), \quad \psi_t = \langle z_t, z_f \rangle$$

$$\tilde{r}_t = (1 - \alpha) r_t^{\text{goal}} + \alpha r_t^{\text{fb}}, \quad \alpha = \text{clip}(\alpha_{\text{base}} \cdot a, [\alpha_{\text{min}}, \alpha_{\text{max}}])$$

Here, $\alpha_{\text{base}}, \alpha_{\text{min}}, \alpha_{\text{max}}$ are hyperparameters. All terms are tanh-bounded, so $\tilde{r}_t \in [-1, 1]$, providing informative reward signals without destabilizing the critic. In the next subsection we describe how $\tilde{r}_t$ is added to the environment task reward $r_t^{\text{task}} \in \{-1, 1\}$ under an adaptive ρ -schedule.

3.3 DYNAMIC REWARD SHAPING

Critic receives, reward signal $r = r_t^{\text{task}} + \rho \tilde{r}_t$, where r_t^{task} is the environment task reward. Environment task reward r_t^{task} is episodic and sparse, whereas the fused VLM signal $\tilde{r}_t$ is dense but can overpower the task reward if used naively. We therefore gate shaping with a coefficient ρ , that is failure-focused, progress-aware, and smooth, so language guidance is strong when exploration needs direction and recedes as competence emerges.

We apply shaping only on failures using the mask $m_t = \mathbf{1}[r_t^{\text{task}} < 0]$, and we down-weight shaping as the policy improves. Progress is estimated in $\bar{s} \in [0, 1]$ by combining an episodic success exponential moving average (EMA) with a batch-level improvement signal from the goal delta.

$$P = \max\left(\bar{s}, \left(\frac{1}{B} \sum_t \mathbf{1}[r_t^{\text{goal}} > 0]\right)^2\right).$$

$$\rho_t = \rho_{\min} + (\rho_{\max} - \rho_{\min})(1 - P), \quad 0 < \rho_{\min} < \rho_{\max} < 1,$$

We map P to an effective shaping weight ρ_t , so that shaping is large early and fades as competence grows. As the shaping is only applied to failures m_t , per-step shaped coefficient becomes $\hat{\rho}_t = m_t \rho_t$. The SAC algorithm is finally trained on, reward $r_t = r_t^{\text{task}} + \hat{\rho}_t \tilde{r}_t$, which preserves the task reward while letting VLM shaping accelerate exploration and early credit assignment, then gradually relinquish control as the policy becomes competent. The pseudo-code algorithm of LAGEA is illustrated in the Appendix A.6.

4 EXPERIMENTS

Table 1: Experiment results on MT10 benchmarks with fixed goal. Average success rate across five random seeds.

Environment	SAC	LIV	LIV-Proj	Relay	FuRL w/o goal-image	FuRL	LAGEA
$r^{\text{VLM}}_{\text{feed}}$	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓
r^{VLM}	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
r^{task}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
button-press-topdown-v2	0	0	0	60	80	100	100
door-open-v2	50	0	0	80	100	100	100
drawer-close-v2	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
drawer-open-v2	20	0	0	40	80	80	100
peg-insert-side-v2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
pick-place-v2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
push-v2	0	0	0	0	40	80	100
reach-v2	60	80	80	100	100	100	100
window-close-v2	60	60	40	80	100	100	100
window-open-v2	80	40	20	80	100	100	100
Average	37.0	28.0	24.0	54.0	70.0	76.0	80.0

We evaluate LAGEA on a suite of simulated embodied manipulation tasks, comparing against baseline RL agents and ablated LAGEA variants to measure the contributions of VLM-driven self-reflection, keyframes selection, and feedback alignment. Our experiments demonstrate that incorporating compact, structured feedback from VLM’s leads to faster learning, more robust policies, and improved generalization to goal configurations.

We investigate the following research questions:

RQ1: How much does VLM-guided feedback improve policy learning and task success?

RQ2: Does natural language feedback guide embodied agents to achieve policy convergence faster?

RQ3: How important is each component of LAGEA? (Ablations)

Setup: We evaluate LAGEA framework on ten robotics tasks from the Meta-world MT10 benchmark (Yu et al., 2020) utilizing sparse rewards. LAGEA leverages Qwen-2.5-VL-3B for generating structured feedback, encoded with GPT-2. Visual observations are embedded using the LIV model (Ma et al., 2023). Further implementation details are available in Appendix A.5

4.1 RQ1: HOW MUCH DOES VLM-GUIDED FEEDBACK IMPROVE POLICY LEARNING AND TASK SUCCESS?

Baseline: To thoroughly evaluate LAGEA, we compare its performance against a suite of relevant reward learning baselines. We begin with a standard Soft Actor-Critic (SAC) agent (Haarnoja et al., 2018) trained solely on the sparse binary task reward. We also include LIV (Ma et al., 2023), a robotics reward model pre-trained on large-scale datasets, and a variant, LIV-Proj, which utilizes randomly initialized and fixed projection heads for image and language embeddings. To further assess the benefits of exploration strategies, we incorporate Relay (Lan et al., 2023), a simplified approach that integrates relay RL into the LIV baseline. Finally, we compare against FuRL (Fu et al., 2024), a method employing reward alignment and relay RL to address fuzzy VLM rewards.

Task	SAC	Relay	FuRL	LAGEA
button-press-topdown-v2	16.0 (32.0)	56.0 (38.3)	64.0 (32.6)	96 (8)
door-open-v2	78.0 (39.2)	80.0 (30.3)	96.0 (8.0)	100 (0)
drawer-close-v2	100.0 (0.0)	100.0 (0.0)	100.0 (0.0)	100 (0)
drawer-open-v2	40.0 (49.0)	50.0 (42.0)	84.0 (27.3)	92 (9.8)
pick-place-v2	0.0 (0.0)	0.0 (0.0)	0.0 (0.0)	4 (4.9)
peg-insert-side-v2	0.0 (0.0)	0.0 (0.0)	0.0 (0.0)	0
push-v2	0.0 (0.0)	0.0 (0.0)	6.0 (8.0)	12 (4)
reach-v2	100.0 (0.0)	100.0 (0.0)	100.0 (0.0)	100 (0)
window-close-v2	86.0 (28.0)	96.0 (4.9)	100.0 (0.0)	100 (0)
window-open-v2	78.0 (39.2)	92.0 (7.5)	96.0 (4.9)	100 (0)
Average	49.8 (7.9)	57.4 (7.0)	64.6 (5.0)	70.4 (1.85)

Table 2: Experiment results on MT10 benchmarks with random goal. We present the average success rate across five random seeds.

4.1.1 RESULTS ON METAWORLD MT10

Our experiments on the Meta-World MT10 benchmark demonstrate the effectiveness of LAGEA in leveraging VLM feedback for reinforcement learning. As shown in Table 1, LAGEA achieves a strong performance improvement of 5.3% over baselines, with an average success rate of 80% on hidden-fixed goal tasks. More importantly, its true strength lies in its ability to generalize to varied goal positions. In the observable-random goal setting (Table 2), LAGEA achieves a 70.4% average success rate, representing a 9% improvement over all baselines. Importantly, LAGEA demonstrates a clear advantage over FuRL. While FuRL achieves respectable performance, LAGEA consistently surpasses it, notably in the hidden-fixed goal setting (e.g., drawer-open-v2 and push-v2), and tasks in the more challenging observable-random goal setting (e.g., button-press-topdown-v2 and drawer-open-v2). Performance on the MT10 benchmark illustrates that LAGEA’s benefits extend beyond simply learning a policy for a specific goal location.

4.2 RQ2: DOES NATURAL LANGUAGE FEEDBACK GUIDE EMBODIED AGENTS TO ACHIEVE POLICY CONVERGENCE FASTER?

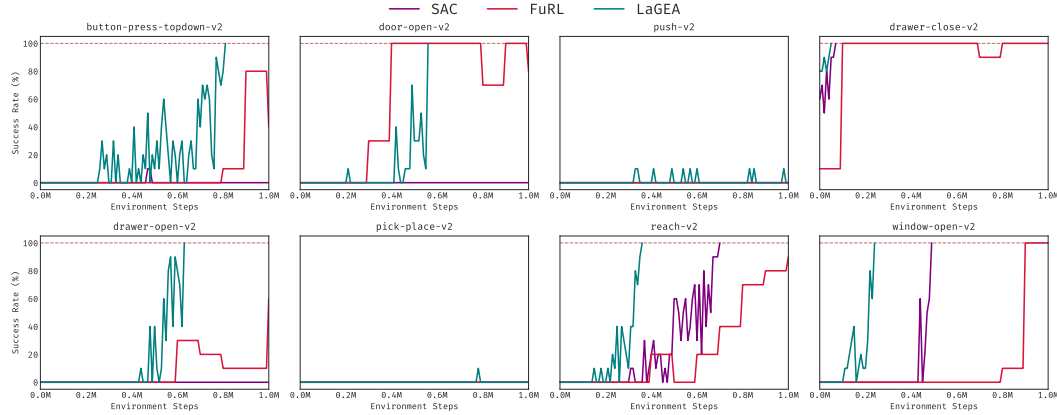


Figure 3: Natural-language feedback accelerates convergence: across eight Meta-World tasks, LAGEA reaches high success in far fewer steps than FuRL and SAC, which plateau late or stall.

Figure 3 provides a comprehensive comparison of convergence dynamics across eight Meta-World tasks, offering a definitive answer to our research question (RQ2). The results demonstrate that LAGEA achieves significantly faster policy convergence than both the FuRL and SAC baselines in almost all of the tasks. The efficiency of LAGEA is evident, as it consistently reaches task completion substantially sooner than its counterparts. This accelerated learning is driven by the

dense, corrective signals from our feedback mechanism, which fosters a more effective exploration process compared to the slower, incremental learning of FuRL or the near-complete failure of sparse-reward SAC. Even on the most challenging tasks (button-press-topdown-v2 and drawer-open-v2), LAGEA is the only method to show meaningful, non-zero success, demonstrating its ability to provide actionable guidance where other methods fail.

4.3 RQ3: HOW IMPORTANT IS EACH COMPONENT OF LAGEA?

To validate our design choices and disentangle the individual contributions of our core components, we conduct a series of comprehensive ablation studies. Our analysis focuses on four primary modules of the LAGEA framework: (1) Keyframe Selection mechanism (4.3.1), designed to solve the feedback credit assignment problem; (2) Reward Engineering (4.3.2), which includes the delta reward formulation and the dynamic reward shaping schedule; (3) Feedback Quality (4.3.3), to determine the usefulness of structured vs free-form feedback, and (4) Feedback Alignment module (4.3.4), responsible for creating a control-relevant embedding space. Our central finding is that these components are highly synergistic; while each provides a significant contribution, the full performance of LAGEA is only realized through their combined effort.

4.3.1 KEYFRAME EXTRACTION & CREDIT ASSIGNMENT

Figure 4 visualizes the ablation on the *Drawer Open* task, showing the impact of our keyframe generation mechanism. LAGEA with keyframing learns the task efficiently, while the variant without keyframing catastrophically fails. As the agent learns to approach the goal correctly, the VLM reward signal appropriately increases, reflecting true progress just before the agent achieves success. This is a direct result of our keyframing’s emphasis on goal proximity and our gating mechanism. The agent, without keyframing, lacks this focused guidance and fails to make this crucial connection and thus remains trapped in its suboptimal policy.

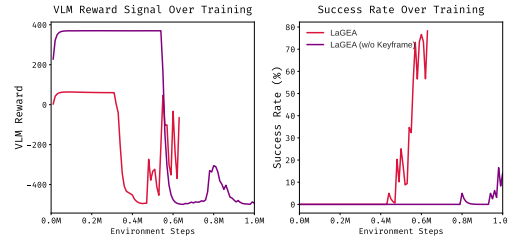


Figure 4: Keyframe Ablation on the Drawer Open Task.

4.3.2 SYNERGY OF DELTA REWARDS AND ADAPTIVE SHAPING

To isolate the contributions of our key reward components, we performed a targeted ablation study on both observable random goal and hidden fixed goal tasks (e.g., button press topdown, drawer open, door open), with results visualized in Figure 5. This analysis demonstrates the roles of goal delta reward, r_t^{goal} , feedback delta reward, r_t^{fb} and our proposed dynamic reward shaping, ρ . Figure 5 unequivocally demonstrates that all components are critical and contribute synergistically to the high performance of the full LAGEA system. The complete LAGEA framework achieves a near-perfect average success score outperforming other baselines in these experiments. In contrast, removing any single component leads to a substantial performance degradation. This assessment suggests that the components of our reward generation are not merely additive but deeply complementary. As visualized in the Figure 5, the final 19% performance gain achieved by the full LAGEA model over the best-performing ablation is a direct result of the synergy between measuring long-term progress, incorporating short-term corrective feedback, and dynamically balancing this guidance as the agent’s competence grows.

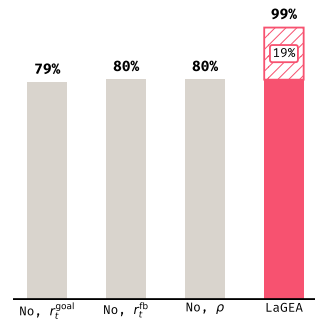


Figure 5: Reward shaping: Removing r_t^{goal} , r_t^{fb} , or ρ leads to a significant performance drop.

4.3.3 IMPACT OF STRUCTURED FEEDBACK

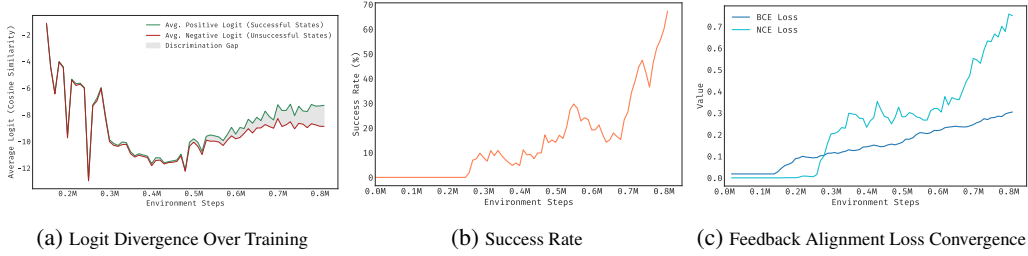


Figure 6: Alignment enables control-relevant geometry: (a) success/failure logit margin increases over training, (b) policy success accelerates, and (c) BCE/InfoNCE objectives co-train the shared space for LAGEA.

We conducted a crucial ablation study comparing our structured feedback approach against a baseline using free-form textual feedback from the VLM to validate our hypothesis regarding the benefits of structured VLM feedback. The results, presented in Table 3, show a clear and significant advantage for using structured feedback. On average, our structured feedback approach outperforms the freeform feedback baseline. We attribute this performance disparity to feedback consistency. Freeform feedback, while expressive, introduces significant challenges by generating verbose, ambiguous, or irrelevant text, leading to noisy and often misleading guidance. In contrast, our structured taxonomy compels the VLM to provide a compact, unambiguous, and consistently formatted signal, which enables reliable guidance.

Task	Freeform Feedback	Structured Feedback
Button press topdown v2 obs.	10	93.33
Drawer open v2 obs.	96.67	100
Door open v2 obs.	100	100
Push v2 hidden	66.67	100
Drawer open v2 hidden	100	100
Door open v2 hidden	100	100
average	78.89	98.89

Table 3: Ablation performance of Freeform vs Structured Feedback.

4.3.4 FEEDBACK-REWARD ALIGNMENT

To provide a deeper insight into our framework, we visualize the interplay between agent performance and the internal metrics of our feedback alignment module in Figure 6. The plots illustrate a clear, causal relationship: successful policy learning is contingent upon the convergence of a meaningful, control-relevant embedding space as engineered by our methodology. Initially, as shown in Figure 6a, the average logits for successful and unsuccessful states $\psi_t = \langle z_t, z_f \rangle$ are alike. This indicates that our hybrid alignment objective, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{align}}$, has not yet converged, and the feedback is not yet meaningfully aligned with the visual states. Consequently, the agent’s success rate remains at zero (Figure 6b). The turning point occurs around the 0.5M step mark, where a stable and growing *Discrimination Gap* emerges. This is direct evidence of our methodology at work: the $\mathcal{L}_{\text{bce}}$ component is successfully calibrating the logits based on the success label y_t , while the contrastive $\mathcal{L}_{\text{nce}}$ term is simultaneously shaping the relative geometry to distinguish correct pairs from negatives within the batch. Figure 6c reveals the cause of this emergent structure: as the agent’s policy improves, it presents the alignment module with more challenging hard negative trajectories, causing the BCE and NCE losses to rise. This rising loss is not a sign of failure but a reflection of a co-adaptive learning process where the alignment module is forced to learn the fine-grained distinctions.

5 CONCLUSION

Natural-language can be a training signal as error feedback for embodied manipulation rather than mere goal description. In this paper, we present LAGEA, which operationalizes this idea by turning schema-constrained episodic reflections into temporally grounded reward shaping through keyframe-centric gating, feedback–vision alignment, and an adaptive, failure-aware representation. On the Meta-World MT10 benchmark, LAGEA improves average success over SOTA by a large margin with faster convergence, substantiating our claim that time-grounded language feedback sharpens credit assignment and exploration, enabling agents to learn from mistakes more effectively.

6 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

We provide an anonymized repository in the supplemental materials with all code needed to train and evaluate LAGEA, including environment wrappers for Meta-World (Yu et al., 2020) tasks, the SAC agent, the feedback-projection module, and reward function scripts. The Method and Experiments sections specify the full algorithmic pipeline, while the Appendix details hyperparameters, hardware settings, and feedback framework details with examples. We release the exact VLM prompts and error-code ontology, and the key-frame selection procedure used in all runs. To support deterministic reruns, we fix random seeds, pin library versions, and include an environment file with all dependencies (CUDA/cuDNN versions, PyTorch/JAX where applicable). We also provide a requirements.txt file in the repo to recreate the conda environment to run the experiments. For each benchmark task, we provide launch scripts that reproduce the reported results across multiple seeds, and we report the average results of multiple seed runs. Any data preprocessing (e.g., camera/viewpoint settings and task resets) is described in the Appendix, as well as the code and implemented in the repo to match the paper’s protocol.

REFERENCES

- Ademi Adeniji, Amber Xie, Carmelo Sferrazza, Younggyo Seo, Stephen James, and Pieter Abbeel. Language reward modulation for pretraining reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.12270*, 2023.
- Michael Ahn, Anthony Brohan, Noah Brown, Yevgen Chebotar, Omar Cortes, Byron David, Chelsea Finn, Chuyuan Fu, Keerthana Gopalakrishnan, Karol Hausman, et al. Do as i can, not as i say: Grounding language in robotic affordances. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.01691*, 2022.
- Shuai Bai, Keqin Chen, Xuejing Liu, Jialin Wang, Wenbin Ge, Sibao Song, Kai Dang, Peng Wang, Shijie Wang, Jun Tang, Humen Zhong, Yuezhi Zhu, Mingkun Yang, Zhaohai Li, Jianqiang Wan, Pengfei Wang, Wei Ding, Zheren Fu, Yiheng Xu, Jiabo Ye, Xi Zhang, Tianbao Xie, Zesen Cheng, Hang Zhang, Zhibo Yang, Haiyang Xu, and Junyang Lin. Qwen2.5-vl technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.13923*, 2025.
- Kate Baumli, Satinder Baveja, Feryal Behbahani, Harris Chan, Gheorghe Comanici, Sebastian Flennerhag, Maxime Gazeau, Kristian Holsheimer, Dan Horgan, Michael Laskin, et al. Vision-language models as a source of rewards. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.09187*, 2023.
- Anthony Brohan, Noah Brown, Justice Carbajal, Yevgen Chebotar, Xi Chen, Krzysztof Choromanski, Tianli Ding, Danny Driess, Avinava Dubey, Chelsea Finn, et al. Rt-2: Vision-language-action models transfer web knowledge to robotic control, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2307.15818>, 2024.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:1877–1901, 2020.
- Xuwei Chen, Ziqiao Ma, Xuejun Zhang, Sihan Xu, Shengyi Qian, Jianing Yang, David Fouhey, and Joyce Chai. Multi-object hallucination in vision language models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:44393–44418, 2024.
- Abdul Monaf Chowdhury, Rabeya Akter, and Safaied Hossain Arib. T3time: Tri-modal time series forecasting via adaptive multi-head alignment and residual fusion. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2508.04251*, 2025.
- Yinpei Dai, Jayjun Lee, Nima Fazeli, and Joyce Chai. Racer: Rich language-guided failure recovery policies for imitation learning. In *2025 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, pp. 15657–15664. IEEE, 2025.
- Danny Driess, Fei Xia, Mehdi SM Sajjadi, Corey Lynch, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Ayzaan Wahid, Jonathan Tompson, Quan Vuong, Tianhe Yu, Wenlong Huang, et al. Palm-e: An embodied multimodal language model. 2023.

- Yuqing Du, Ksenia Konyushkova, Misha Denil, Akhil Raju, Jessica Landon, Felix Hill, Nando De Freitas, and Serkan Cabi. Vision-language models as success detectors. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.07280*, 2023.
- Jiafei Duan, Wentao Yuan, Wilbert Pumacay, Yi Ru Wang, Kiana Ehsani, Dieter Fox, and Ranjay Krishna. Manipulate-anything: Automating real-world robots using vision-language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.18915*, 2024.
- Daniel Fried, Ronghang Hu, Volkan Cirik, Anna Rohrbach, Jacob Andreas, Louis-Philippe Morency, Taylor Berg-Kirkpatrick, Kate Saenko, Dan Klein, and Trevor Darrell. Speaker-follower models for vision-and-language navigation. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 31, 2018.
- Justin Fu, Anoop Korattikara, Sergey Levine, and Sergio Guadarrama. From language to goals: Inverse reinforcement learning for vision-based instruction following. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1902.07742*, 2019.
- Yuwei Fu, Haichao Zhang, Di Wu, Wei Xu, and Benoit Boulet. Furl: Visual-language models as fuzzy rewards for reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.00645*, 2024.
- Xiuye Gu, Tsung-Yi Lin, Weicheng Kuo, and Yin Cui. Open-vocabulary object detection via vision and language knowledge distillation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.13921*, 2021.
- Tianrui Guan, Fuxiao Liu, Xiyang Wu, Ruiqi Xian, Zongxia Li, Xiaoyu Liu, Xijun Wang, Lichang Chen, Furong Huang, Yaser Yacoob, et al. Hallusionbench: an advanced diagnostic suite for entangled language hallucination and visual illusion in large vision-language models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14375–14385, 2024.
- Huy Ha, Pete Florence, and Shuran Song. Scaling up and distilling down: Language-guided robot skill acquisition. In *Conference on Robot Learning*, pp. 3766–3777. PMLR, 2023.
- Tuomas Haarnoja, Aurick Zhou, Pieter Abbeel, and Sergey Levine. Soft actor-critic: Off-policy maximum entropy deep reinforcement learning with a stochastic actor. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2018.
- Felix Hill, Sona Mokra, Nathaniel Wong, and Tim Harley. Human instruction-following with deep reinforcement learning via transfer-learning from text. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.09382*, 2020.
- Chenguang Huang, Oier Mees, Andy Zeng, and Wolfram Burgard. Visual language maps for robot navigation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.05714*, 2022a.
- Wenlong Huang, Pieter Abbeel, Deepak Pathak, and Igor Mordatch. Language models as zero-shot planners: Extracting actionable knowledge for embodied agents. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 9118–9147. PMLR, 2022b.
- Wenlong Huang, Fei Xia, Ted Xiao, Harris Chan, Jacky Liang, Pete Florence, Andy Zeng, Jonathan Tompson, Igor Mordatch, Yevgen Chebotar, et al. Inner monologue: Embodied reasoning through planning with language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2207.05608*, 2022c.
- Siddharth Karamcheti, Suraj Nair, Ashwin Balakrishna, Percy Liang, Thomas Kollar, and Dorsa Sadigh. Prismatic vlms: Investigating the design space of visually-conditioned language models. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2024.
- Apoorv Khandelwal, Luca Weihs, Roozbeh Mottaghi, and Aniruddha Kembhavi. Simple but effective: Clip embeddings for embodied ai. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14829–14838, 2022.
- Parag Khanna, Elmira Yadollahi, Mårten Björkman, Iolanda Leite, and Christian Smith. User study exploring the role of explanation of failures by robots in human robot collaboration tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.16010*, 2023.

- Moo Jin Kim, Karl Pertsch, Siddharth Karamcheti, Ted Xiao, Ashwin Balakrishna, Suraj Nair, Rafael Rafailov, Ethan Foster, Grace Lam, Pannag Sanketi, et al. Openvla: An open-source vision-language-action model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.09246*, 2024.
- Minae Kwon, Sang Michael Xie, Kalesha Bullard, and Dorsa Sadigh. Reward design with language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.00001*, 2023.
- Li-Cheng Lan, Huan Zhang, and Cho-Jui Hsieh. Can agents run relay race with strangers? generalization of rl to out-of-distribution trajectories. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.13424*, 2023.
- Hugo Laurençon, Léo Tronchon, Matthieu Cord, and Victor Sanh. What matters when building vision-language models? *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:87874–87907, 2024.
- Haitao Li, Qian Dong, Junjie Chen, Huixue Su, Yujia Zhou, Qingyao Ai, Ziyi Ye, and Yiqun Liu. Llms-as-judges: a comprehensive survey on llm-based evaluation methods. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.05579*, 2024.
- Jacky Liang, Wenlong Huang, Fei Xia, Peng Xu, Karol Hausman, Brian Ichter, Pete Florence, and Andy Zeng. Code as policies: Language model programs for embodied control. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.07753*, 2022.
- Stephanie Lin, Jacob Hilton, and Owain Evans. Truthfulqa: Measuring how models mimic human falsehoods. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.07958*, 2021.
- Haotian Liu, Chunyuan Li, Qingyang Wu, and Yong Jae Lee. Visual instruction tuning. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 36:34892–34916, 2023.
- Corey Lynch and Pierre Sermanet. Grounding language in play. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.07648*, 40(396):105, 2020a.
- Corey Lynch and Pierre Sermanet. Language conditioned imitation learning over unstructured data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.07648*, 2020b.
- Corey Lynch, Ayzaan Wahid, Jonathan Tompson, Tianli Ding, James Betker, Robert Baruch, Travis Armstrong, and Pete Florence. Interactive language: Talking to robots in real time. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 2023.
- Yecheng Jason Ma, Shagun Sodhani, Dinesh Jayaraman, Osbert Bastani, Vikash Kumar, and Amy Zhang. Vip: Towards universal visual reward and representation via value-implicit pre-training. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.00030*, 2022.
- Yecheng Jason Ma, Vikash Kumar, Amy Zhang, Osbert Bastani, and Dinesh Jayaraman. Liv: Language-image representations and rewards for robotic control. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 23301–23320. PMLR, 2023.
- Aman Madaan, Niket Tandon, Prakhar Gupta, Skyler Hallinan, Luyu Gao, Sarah Wiegrefe, Uri Alon, Nouha Dziri, Shrimai Prabhumoye, Yiming Yang, et al. Self-refine: Iterative refinement with self-feedback. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:46534–46594, 2023.
- Parsa Mahmoudieh, Deepak Pathak, and Trevor Darrell. Zero-shot reward specification via grounded natural language. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 14743–14752. PMLR, 2022.
- Arjun Majumdar, Ayush Shrivastava, Stefan Lee, Peter Anderson, Devi Parikh, and Dhruv Batra. Improving vision-and-language navigation with image-text pairs from the web. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*, pp. 259–274. Springer, 2020.
- Suraj Nair, Eric Mitchell, Kevin Chen, Silvio Savarese, Chelsea Finn, et al. Learning language-conditioned robot behavior from offline data and crowd-sourced annotation. In *Conference on Robot Learning*, pp. 1303–1315. PMLR, 2022.
- Taewook Nam, Juyong Lee, Jesse Zhang, Sung Ju Hwang, Joseph J Lim, and Karl Pertsch. Lift: Unsupervised reinforcement learning with foundation models as teachers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.08958*, 2023.

- Kolby Nottingham, Prithviraj Ammanabrolu, Alane Suhr, Yejin Choi, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Sameer Singh, and Roy Fox. Do embodied agents dream of pixelated sheep: Embodied decision making using language guided world modelling. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 26311–26325. PMLR, 2023.
- Aaron van den Oord, Yazhe Li, and Oriol Vinyals. Representation learning with contrastive predictive coding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1807.03748*, 2018.
- Debjit Paul, Mete Ismayilzada, Maxime Peyrard, Beatriz Borges, Antoine Bosselut, Robert West, and Boi Faltings. Refiner: Reasoning feedback on intermediate representations. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.01904*, 2023.
- Alec Radford, Jeff Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, and Ilya Sutskever. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. 2019.
- Aditya Ramesh, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alex Nichol, Casey Chu, and Mark Chen. Hierarchical text-conditional image generation with clip latents. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.06125*, 1(2):3, 2022.
- Juan Rocamonde, Victoriano Montesinos, Elvis Nava, Ethan Perez, and David Lindner. Vision-language models are zero-shot reward models for reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.12921*, 2023.
- Dhruv Shah, Błażej Osiniński, Sergey Levine, et al. Lm-nav: Robotic navigation with large pre-trained models of language, vision, and action. In *Conference on robot learning*, pp. 492–504. PMLR, 2023.
- Noah Shinn, Federico Cassano, Ashwin Gopinath, Karthik Narasimhan, and Shunyu Yao. Reflexion: Language agents with verbal reinforcement learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:8634–8652, 2023.
- Mohit Shridhar, Xingdi Yuan, Marc-Alexandre Côté, Yonatan Bisk, Adam Trischler, and Matthew Hausknecht. Alfworld: Aligning text and embodied environments for interactive learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.03768*, 2020.
- Mohit Shridhar, Lucas Manuelli, and Dieter Fox. Cliport: What and where pathways for robotic manipulation. In *Conference on robot learning*, pp. 894–906. PMLR, 2022.
- Ishika Singh, Valts Blukis, Arsalan Mousavian, Ankit Goyal, Danfei Xu, Jonathan Tremblay, Dieter Fox, Jesse Thomason, and Animesh Garg. Progprompt: Generating situated robot task plans using large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.11302*, 2022.
- Sumedh Sontakke, Jesse Zhang, Séb Arnold, Karl Pertsch, Erdem Bıyık, Dorsa Sadigh, Chelsea Finn, and Laurent Itti. Roboclip: One demonstration is enough to learn robot policies. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:55681–55693, 2023.
- Alessandro Suglia, Qiaozi Gao, Jesse Thomason, Govind Thattai, and Gaurav Sukhatme. Embodied bert: a transformer model for embodied, language-guided visual task completion (2021). *arXiv preprint arXiv:2108.04927*, 2021.
- Lirui Wang, Yiyang Ling, Zhecheng Yuan, Mohit Shridhar, Chen Bao, Yuzhe Qin, Bailin Wang, Huazhe Xu, and Xiaolong Wang. Gensim: Generating robotic simulation tasks via large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.01361*, 2023a.
- Xin Wang, Qiuyuan Huang, Asli Celikyilmaz, Jianfeng Gao, Dinghan Shen, Yuan-Fang Wang, William Yang Wang, and Lei Zhang. Reinforced cross-modal matching and self-supervised imitation learning for vision-language navigation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 6629–6638, 2019.
- Xuezhi Wang, Jason Wei, Dale Schuurmans, Quoc Le, Ed Chi, Sharan Narang, Aakanksha Chowdhery, and Denny Zhou. Self-consistency improves chain of thought reasoning in language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.11171*, 2022.

- Yufei Wang, Zhanyi Sun, Jesse Zhang, Zhou Xian, Erdem Biyik, David Held, and Zackory Erickson. RL-vlm-f: Reinforcement learning from vision language foundation model feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03681*, 2024.
- Zihao Wang, Shaofei Cai, Guanzhou Chen, Anji Liu, Xiaojian Ma, and Yitao Liang. Describe, explain, plan and select: Interactive planning with large language models enables open-world multi-task agents. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.01560*, 2023b.
- Eric Wiewiora. Potential-based shaping and q-value initialization are equivalent. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 19:205–208, 2003.
- Walter F Wiggins and Ali S Tejani. On the opportunities and risks of foundation models for natural language processing in radiology. *Radiology: Artificial Intelligence*, 4(4):e220119, 2022.
- Sherry Yang, Ofir Nachum, Yilun Du, Jason Wei, Pieter Abbeel, and Dale Schuurmans. Foundation models for decision making: Problems, methods, and opportunities. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.04129*, 2023.
- Sean Ye, Glen Neville, Mariah Schrum, Matthew Gombolay, Sonia Chernova, and Ayanna Howard. Human trust after robot mistakes: Study of the effects of different forms of robot communication. In *2019 28th IEEE international conference on robot and human interactive communication (ro-man)*, pp. 1–7. IEEE, 2019.
- Tianhe Yu, Deirdre Quillen, Zhanpeng He, Ryan Julian, Karol Hausman, Chelsea Finn, and Sergey Levine. Meta-world: A benchmark and evaluation for multi-task and meta reinforcement learning. In *Conference on robot learning*, pp. 1094–1100. PMLR, 2020.
- Rowan Zellers, Ari Holtzman, Matthew Peters, Roozbeh Mottaghi, Aniruddha Kembhavi, Ali Farhadi, and Yejin Choi. Piglet: Language grounding through neuro-symbolic interaction in a 3d world. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.00188*, 2021.
- Andy Zeng, Maria Attarian, Brian Ichter, Krzysztof Choromanski, Adrian Wong, Stefan Welker, Federico Tombari, Aveek Purohit, Michael Ryoo, Vikas Sindhwani, et al. Socratic models: Composing zero-shot multimodal reasoning with language. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.00598*, 2022.
- Zhi Zheng, Qian Feng, Hang Li, Alois Knoll, and Jianxiang Feng. Evaluating uncertainty-based failure detection for closed-loop llm planners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.00430*, 2024.

A APPENDIX

A.1 LLM USAGE

We used ChatGPT (GPT-5 Thinking) solely as a general-purpose writing assistant to refine prose after complete, author-written drafts were produced. Its role was limited to language editing—suggesting alternative phrasings, improving clarity and flow, and reducing redundancy—without introducing new citations or technical claims. The research idea, methodology, experiments, analyses, figures, and all substantive content were conceived and executed by the authors. LLMs were not used for ideation, data analysis, or result generation. All AI-assisted text was reviewed, verified, and, when necessary, rewritten by the authors, who take full responsibility for the manuscript’s accuracy and originality.

A.2 EXTENDED RELATED WORK

VLMs for RL. Foundation models (Wiggins & Tejani, 2022) have proven broadly useful across downstream applications (Ramesh et al., 2022; Khandelwal et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2025), motivating their incorporation into reinforcement learning pipelines. Early work showed that language models can act as reward generators in purely textual settings (Kwon et al., 2023), but extending this idea to visuomotor control is nontrivial because reward specification is often ambiguous or brittle. A natural remedy is to leverage visual reasoning to infer progress toward a goal directly from observations (Mahmoudieh et al., 2022; Rocamonde et al., 2023; Adeniji et al., 2023). One approach (Wang et al., 2024) queries a VLM to compare state images and judge improvement along a task trajectory; another aligns trajectory frames with language descriptions or demonstration captions and uses the resulting similarities as dense rewards (Fu et al., 2024; Rocamonde et al., 2023). However, empirical studies indicate that such contrastive alignment introduces noise, and its reliability depends strongly on how the task is specified in language (Sontakke et al., 2023; Nam et al., 2023).

Natural Language in Embodied AI. With VLM architectures pushing this multimodal interface forward (Liu et al., 2023; Karamcheti et al., 2024; Laurençon et al., 2024), a growing body of work integrates visual and linguistic inputs directly into large language models to drive embodied behavior, spanning navigation (Fried et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019; Majumdar et al., 2020), manipulation (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020a;b), and mixed settings (Suglia et al., 2021; Fu et al., 2019; Hill et al., 2020). Beyond end-to-end conditioning, many systems focus on interpreting natural-language goals (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020b; Nair et al., 2022; Shridhar et al., 2022; Lynch et al., 2023) or on prompting strategies that extract executable guidance from an LLM—by matching generated text to admissible skills (Huang et al., 2022b), closing the loop with visual feedback (Huang et al., 2022c), planning over maps or graphs (Shah et al., 2023; Huang et al., 2022a), incorporating affordance priors (Ahn et al., 2022), explaining observations (Wang et al., 2023b), learning world models for prospective reasoning (Nottingham et al., 2023; Zellers et al., 2021), or emitting programs and structured action plans (Liang et al., 2022; Singh et al., 2022). Socratic Models (Zeng et al., 2022) exemplify this trend by coordinating multiple foundation models (e.g., GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020) and ViLD (Gu et al., 2021)) under a language interface to manipulate objects in simulation. Conversely, our framework uses natural language not as a direct policy or planner, but as structured, episodic feedback that supports causal credit assignment in robotic manipulation.

Failure Reasoning in Embodied AI. Diagnosing and responding to failure has a long history in robotics (Ye et al., 2019; Khanna et al., 2023), yet many contemporary systems reduce the problem to success classification using off-the-shelf VLMs or LLMs (Ma et al., 2022; Ha et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023a; Duan et al., 2024; Dai et al., 2025), with some works instruction-tuning the vision–language backbone to better flag errors (Du et al., 2023). Because large models can hallucinate or over-generalize, several studies probe or exploit model uncertainty to temper false positives (Zheng et al., 2024); nevertheless, the resulting detectors typically produce binary outcomes and provide little insight into *why* an execution failed. Iterative self-improvement pipelines offer textual critiques or intermediate feedback—via self-refinement (Madaan et al., 2023), learned critics that comment within a trajectory (Paul et al., 2023), or reflection over prior rollouts (Shinn et al., 2023)—but these methods are largely evaluated in text-world settings that mirror embodied environments such as ALFWorld (Shridhar et al., 2020), where perception and low-level control are abstracted away. In contrast, our approach targets visual robotic manipulation and treats language as struc-

tured, episodic *explanations* of failure that can be aligned with image embeddings and converted into temporally grounded reward shaping signals.

A.3 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

All experiments (including ablations) were run on a Linux workstation running Ubuntu 24.04.2 LTS (kernel 6.14.0-29-generic). The machine is equipped with an Intel Core Ultra 9 285K CPU, 96 GB of system RAM, and an NVIDIA GeForce RTX 4090 (AD102, 24 GB VRAM) serving as the primary accelerator; an integrated Arrow Lake-U graphics adapter is present but unused for training. Storage is provided by a 2 TB NVMe SSD (MSI M570 Pro). The NVIDIA proprietary driver was used for the RTX 4090, and all training/evaluation leveraged GPU acceleration; results reported in the paper were averaged over multiple random seeds with identical software and driver configurations on this host.

A.4 META-WORLD MT10

We evaluated LAGEA on the MetaWorld (Yu et al., 2020) MT-10 benchmark. Meta-World MT10 is a widely used benchmark for multi-task robotic manipulation, comprising ten goal-conditioned environments drawn from the broader Meta-World suite (Yu et al., 2020). All tasks are executed with a Sawyer robotic arm under a unified control interface: a $4D$ continuous action space (three Cartesian end-effector motions plus a gripper command) and a fixed $39D$ observation vector that encodes the end-effector, object, and goal states. Episodes are capped at 500 steps and share a common reward protocol across tasks, enabling a single policy to be trained and evaluated in a consistent manner.

Figure 7 depicts the ten tasks, and Table 4 lists the corresponding natural-language instructions that ground each goal succinctly. The suite spans fine motor skills (e.g., button pressing, peg insertion) as well as larger object interactions (e.g., reaching, opening/closing articulated objects), making MT10 a demanding testbed for generalization and multi-task policy learning.

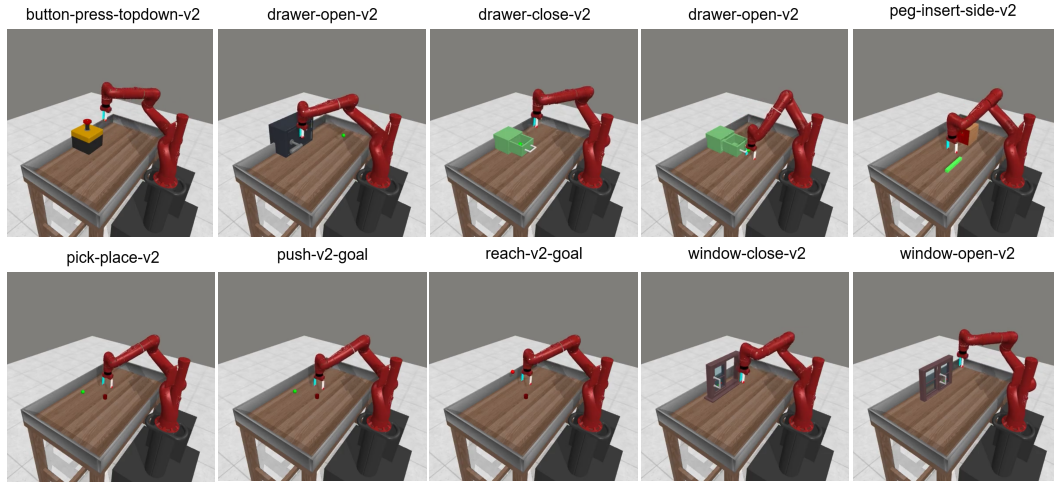


Figure 7: Meta-world MT10 benchmark tasks.

Table 4: Environments and their text instructions of Meta-world MT10 benchmark tasks.

Environment	Text instruction
button-press-topdown-v2	Press a button from the top.
door-open-v2	Open a door with a revolving joint.
drawer-close-v2	Push and close a drawer.
drawer-open-v2	Open a drawer.
peg-insert-side-v2	Insert the peg into the side hole.
pick-place-v2	Pick up the puck and place it at the target.
push-v2	Push the puck to the target position.
reach-v2	Reach a goal position.
window-close-v2	Push and close a window.
window-open-v2	Push and open a window.

A.5 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

In our experiments, we use the latest Meta-World M10 (Yu et al., 2020) environment. The main software versions are as follows:

- Python 3.11
- jax 0.4.16
- jaxlib 0.4.16+cuda12.cudnn89
- flax 0.7.4
- gymnasium 0.29.1
- gymnasium-robotics 1.2.4
- mujoco 2.3.7
- optax 0.2.1
- torch 2.2.1
- torchvision 0.17.1
- numpy 1.26.4
- imageio 2.34.0
- matplotlib 3.8.3

A.6 ALGORITHM

The pseudocode algorithm 1 formalizes the LAGEA training loop. Each episode, the policy collects a trajectory with RGB observations and a task instruction; we select a small set of key frames and query an instruction-tuned VLM (Qwen-2.5-VL-3B) (Bai et al., 2025) to produce a structured reflection (error code, key-frame indices, brief rationale). The instruction and reflection are encoded with a lightweight GPT-2 text encoder and paired with visual embeddings; a projection head is trained with a keyframe-gated alignment objective followed by a symmetric, weighted contrastive loss so that feedback becomes control-relevant. At training time we compute two potentials from these aligned embeddings: one that measures instruction–state goal agreement and one that measures transition consistency with the VLM diagnosis around the cited frames. We use only the change in these signals between successive states as a per-step shaping reward, add it to the environment reward with adaptive scaling and simple agreement gating (emphasizing failure episodes early and annealing over time), and update a standard SAC (Haarnoja et al., 2018) agent from a replay buffer with target networks.

Algorithm 1: LAGEA: Feedback–Grounded Reward Shaping (lean)

Input : Encoders Φ_I, Φ_T, Φ_F ; VLM $\mathcal{Q}$; goal image o_g ; instruction y ; replay buffer $\mathcal{D}$; episodes N

Output: trained policy π

1 **Initialize**: projection heads E_i, E_t, E_f ; policy π ; SAC learner.

2 $z_g \leftarrow \text{norm}(E_i(\Phi_I(o_g)))$, $z_y \leftarrow \text{norm}(E_t(\Phi_T(y)))$.

3 **for** $i = 1$ to N **do**

4 /* Collect Trajectories Figure 1 */

5 Roll out π to obtain $\{(o_t, r_t^{\text{task}})\}_{t=0}^{T-1}$; push to $\mathcal{D}$.

6 /*Key frames & per-step weights Section 3.1.2*/

7 $x_t \leftarrow \Phi_I(o_t)$; $s_t \leftarrow \langle \text{norm}(E_i(x_t)), z_g \rangle$;

8 $\mathcal{K} \leftarrow \text{GETKEYFRAMES}(s_{0:T-1}, M)$; $\hat{w} \leftarrow \text{TRIANGULARWEIGHTS}(\mathcal{K}, h)$ (unit mean).

9 /*Structured episodic reflection Section 3.1.1*/

10 Subsample N frames; query $\mathcal{Q}$ with frames; encode feedback $z_f \leftarrow \text{norm}(E_f(\Phi_F(f)))$

11 /*Feedback alignment Section 3.1.3*/

12 $\text{UPDATEFEEDBACKALIGNMENT}(E_i, E_f; \mathcal{D}, \hat{w})$;

13 $\text{UPDATEFEEDBACKCONTRASTIVEWEIGHTED}(E_i, E_f; \mathcal{D}, \hat{w})$.

14 /*Dense Reward shaping Section 3.2*/

15 **for** $t = 0$ to $T - 2$ **do**

16 $z_t \leftarrow \text{norm}(E_i(x_t))$, $z_{t+1} \leftarrow \text{norm}(E_i(x_{t+1}))$;

17 Calculate goal delta; $r_t^{\text{goal}} \leftarrow \text{GOALDELTA}(z_t, z_{t+1}; z_y, z_g)$;

18 Calculate feedback delta; $r_t^{\text{fb}} \leftarrow \text{FEEDBACKDELTA}(z_t, z_{t+1}; z_f)$;

19 $\alpha \leftarrow \text{CLIP}(\alpha_{\text{base}} \cdot \frac{1 + \langle z_y, z_f \rangle}{2}, [\alpha_{\text{min}}, \alpha_{\text{max}}])$;

20 Calculate fused dense reward; $\tilde{r}_t \leftarrow (1 - \alpha) r_t^{\text{goal}} + \alpha \hat{w}_t r_t^{\text{fb}}$.

21 /*Adaptive reward shaping Section 3.2*/

22 $\rho_t \leftarrow \text{ADAPTIVERHO}(\text{progress EMA / schedule})$;

23 Overall reward; $r_t \leftarrow r_t^{\text{task}} + \rho_t \tilde{r}_t$.

24 /*Update SAC*/

25 $\text{UPDATESAC}(\pi; \mathcal{D}, r_t)$.

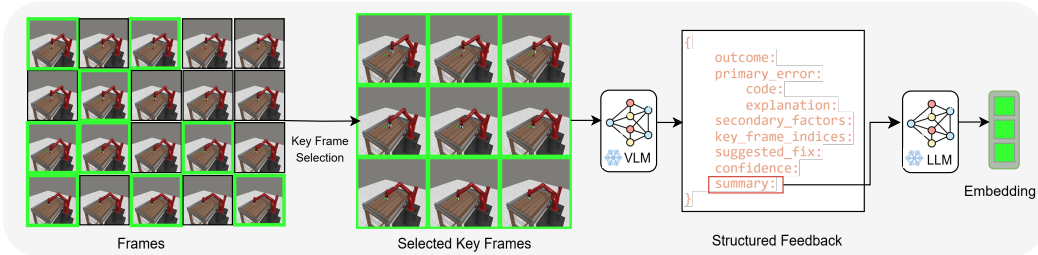


Figure 8: **Feedback Generation Pipeline**: Keyframes are selected from an episode, analyzed by a VLM to produce structured feedback text, which is then encoded into a final feedback embedding.

A.7 FEEDBACK PIPELINE

At the end of each episode, we run a deterministic key-frame selector over the image sequence to extract a compact set of causal moments $\mathcal{K}$. We then assemble a prompt with the task instruction, a compact error taxonomy, few-shot exemplars, and the selected frames, and query a frozen VLM (Qwen-2.5-VL-3B). The model is required to return a schema-constrained JSON with fields `outcome`, `primary_error`{`code`, `explanation`}, `secondary_factors`, `key_frame_indices`, `suggested_fix`, `confidence`, and `summary`. Responses are validated against the schema and retried on violations. Textual slots are normalized and embedded with a lightweight GPT-2 encoder to produce a feedback vector f that is time-anchored via $\mathcal{K}$.

This structured protocol reduces hallucination, yields feedback comparable across episodes and viewpoints, and makes the language signal embeddings directly consumable by the alignment and reward-shaping modules.

A.8 HYPERPARAMETERS

Hyperparameters for LAGEA are illustrated in Table 5. We followed the hyperparameter and relay steps parameters provided in (Fu et al., 2024). Many of these hyperparameters are not tuned to perfection; therefore, tuning them could achieve slightly better performance.

Table 5: Summarization of hyper-parameters.

Parameter	Value
Camera Id	2
Residual connection	False
Total environment steps	1×10^6
Start timesteps	10,000
Decay timesteps	7.5×10^5
Evaluation episodes	100
Evaluation frequency	1e6/100
Checkpoint frequency	1e6/10
Adam learning rate	1×10^{-4}
Batch size	256
Discount factor γ	0.99
Target network τ	0.01
Hidden dimensions	(256, 256)
Initializer	Orthogonal
Random seed	0
Relay threshold	2500
Exploration noise	0.2
VLM reward weight ρ	0.25
ρ cap	1.0
Gap	10
Crop	False
L2 margin	0.25
Cosine margin	0.25
Embed buffer size	20,000
Feedback coefficient α_{feedback}	0.5
Episode success threshold	100
Contrastive start step	25,000
Contrastive temperature τ	0.07
Label smoothing	0.05
λ_{align}	0.02
λ_{uniform}	1×10^{-3}
Shaping target ratio	0.20
Shaping warmup steps	20,000
Shaping anneal end step	600,000
Shaping scale cap	10.0
Shaping scale floor	0.1
Shaping clip per step	1.0
Shaping EMA β	0.1
Shape only on fail	True
Use goal delta	True
Success EMA β	0.01
Progress power	2.0
α_{min}	0.20
α_{max}	0.95

A.9 ERROR TAXONOMY

An error taxonomy is introduced to systematically characterize the types of failures observed in robot manipulation trajectories. This taxonomy provides discrete error codes that capture common failure modes in manipulation tasks, such as interacting with the wrong object, approaching from an incorrect direction, failing to establish a stable grasp, applying insufficient force, or drifting away from the intended goal. By mapping trajectories to these interpretable categories, we enable

Table 6: Error codes and their descriptions.

Error Code	Description
wrong_object	Interacted with the wrong object.
bad_approach_direction	Approached object from a wrong angle/direction.
failed_grasp	Contact without a stable grasp; slipped or never closed gripper appropriately.
insufficient_force	Touched correct object but did not exert proper motion/force.
drift_from_goal	Trajectories drifted away from the goal, no course correction.

```

{
  task: {string},
  outcome: {success | failure},
  primary_error: {
    code: {error_code or success_code},
    explanation: {one sentence explanation}
  },
  secondary_factors: [{error_code, ...}],
  key_frame_indices: [{int, int, int}],
  suggested_fix: {string or (n/a)},
  confidence: {float in [0,1]},
  summary: {one sentence summary}
}

```

Figure 9: Schema for structured feedback returned by the VLM

structured analysis of failure cases and facilitate targeted improvements in policy learning. Table 6 summarizes the error codes and their descriptions.

A.10 STRUCTURED FEEDBACK

Structured feedback mechanism constrains the VLM to produce precise, interpretable, and reproducible outputs. After each rollout, the model returns a JSON object that follows the schema shown in Figure 9, rather than free-form text. The schema records the task identifier, the binary outcome (**success** or **failure**), a single primary error code with a short explanation, optional secondary factors, key frames, a suggested fix, a confidence score, and a concise summary. This format anchors feedback to concrete evidence, keeps annotations consistent across episodes, and makes the signals directly usable for downstream analysis.

Example structured feedback is shown for two Meta-World tasks - button-press-topdown-v2 and door-open-v2 - with two success cases in Figures 10 and Figure 11 and two failure cases in Figures 12 and Figure 13.

For the success cases, the schema assigns `primary_error.code=good_grasp`, with empty `secondary_factors`, high confidence, and `suggested_fix=(n/a)`. In button-press-topdown-v2, success is attributed to a secure grasp followed by a vertical, normal-aligned press that achieves the goal. In door-open-v2, success is similarly tied to a stable grasp on the handle and the application of sufficient force to open the door.

In the failure counterparts, the same schema yields concise, actionable diagnoses. For button-press-topdown-v2, `primary_error.code=bad_approach_direction` reflects a lateral approach that causes sliding; the prescribed fix is a topdown, normalaligned press. For door-open-v2, `primary_error.code=failed_grasp` with `insufficient_force` as a secondary factor attributes failure to unstable closure and inadequate actuation; the recommended remedy is a tighter grasp and sufficient force. Across both tasks, explanations remain succinct and suggested fixes translate diagnosis into concrete adjustments, ensuring comparability and evidential grounding within the structured format.

```

{
  task: button-press-topdown-v2-goal-observable,
  outcome: success,
  primary_error: {
    code: good_grasp,
    explanation: The gripper successfully grasped the
button.
  },
  secondary_factors: [ ],
  key_frame_indices: [12, 18],
  suggested_fix: (n/a),
  confidence: 0.9,
  summary: The agent succeeded because it grasped the
button securely and pressed it straight down, achieving the
goal.
}

```

Figure 10: Success case with structured feedback for *button-press-topdown-v2-goal-observable* task.

```

{
  task: door-open-v2-goal-observable,
  outcome: success,
  primary_error: {
    code: good_grasp,
    explanation: The gripper successfully grasped the black
block and opened its door.
  },
  secondary_factors: [ ],
  key_frame_indices: [9, 18, 27],
  suggested_fix: (n/a),
  confidence: 0.9,
  summary: The robot successfully opened the door of the
black block by grasping it and applying the appropriate
force.
}

```

Figure 11: Success case with structured feedback for *door-open-v2-goal-observable* task.

A.11 ABLATION

To quantify the contribution of each component in LAGEA, we run controlled ablations with identical training settings, three random seeds per task, and we report mean (std.) success. All variants use the same encoders, SAC learner, and goal image; unless noted otherwise. The protocol followed for the ablation study is as follows:

Feedback Alignment Drop the multi-stage feedback—vision alignment and rely on frozen encoder similarities; tests whether learned alignment is required to obtain a control-relevant embedding geometry.

Feedback Quality Ablation Replace the schema-constrained (structured) feedback with unconstrained free-form VLM feedback text; measures the impact of feedback structure, reliability and hallucination on reward stability.

Keep all, drop adaptive ρ Use the full shaping signals but fix the mixing weight instead of scheduling it; probes the role of progress-aware scaling for stable learning.


```

{
  task: button-press-topdown-v2-goal-observable,
  outcome: failure,
  primary_error: {
    code: bad_approach_direction,
    explanation: The gripper came from the side, sliding
off the button instead of a vertical press.
  },
  secondary_factors: [ ],
  key_frame_indices: [18, 22],
  suggested_fix: Approach from directly above the button;
align gripper normal to the button surface, then press
straight down.,
  confidence: 0.85,
  summary: The robot failed to press the button correctly
because it approached from the side instead of a vertical
press. This resulted in the gripper sliding off the button.
}

```

Figure 12: Failure case with structured feedback for *button-press-topdown-v2-goal-observable* task.

```

{
  task: door-open-v2-goal-observable,
  outcome: failure,
  primary_error: {
    code: failed_grasp,
    explanation: The gripper did not close properly around
the door handle, leading to a failed attempt to open the
door.
  },
  secondary_factors: [insufficient_force],
  key_frame_indices: [16, 24],
  suggested_fix: Ensure the gripper closes tightly around
the door handle and applies sufficient force.,
  confidence: 0.9,
  summary: The agent failed to open the door as the gripper
did not close properly around the handle, indicating a failed
grasp.
}

```

Figure 13: Failure case with structured feedback for *door-open-v2-goal-observable* task.

Drop all, keep adaptive ρ Remove goal-/feedback-delta terms and keyframe gating while retaining the adaptive schedule (no auxiliary signal added); controls for the possibility that the schedule alone yields gains.

Key frame ablation Replace keyframe localization with uniform per-step weights; assesses the value of temporally focused credit assignment around causal moments.

Delta reward ablation Use absolute similarities instead of temporal deltas; tests whether potential-based differencing (which avoids static-state bias) is essential.

Table 7: Ablation results of LAGEA. Experiments were done using three different seeds. Results are averaged here.

Task	Feedback Alignment	Feedback Quality Ablation	Keep all, drop adaptive ρ	Drop all, keep adaptive ρ	Key frame ablation	Delta reward ablation
button-press-topdown-v2-observable	20 (34.64)	10 (10)	13.33(23.09)	33.33(57.74)	30 (51.96)	30 (51.96)
drawer-open-v2-observable	100 (0)	96.67(5.77)	100 (0)	0 (0)	76.67(40.41)	100 (0)
door-open-v2-observable	100 (0)	100 (0)	100 (0)	0 (0)	100 (0)	76.67(40.41)
push-v2-hidden	100 (0)	66.67(57.74)	66.67(57.74)	33.33(57.74)	100 (0)	100 (0)
drawer-open-v2-hidden	100 (0)	100 (0)	100 (0)	33.33(57.74)	100 (0)	66.67(57.74)
door-open-v2-hidden	100 (0)	100 (0)	100 (0)	33.33(57.74)	100 (0)	100 (0)

A.12 SUCCESSFUL TRAJECTORY VISUALIZATION

Figure 14 presents successful trajectory visualizations generated by LAGEA across nine environments from Meta-World MT10. Each trajectory illustrates how LAGEA effectively completes the corresponding manipulation task, highlighting its generalization ability across diverse settings. The only exception is `peg-insert-side-v2`, where LAGEA was unable to produce a successful episode; therefore, no trajectory is shown for this environment.

A.13 LIMITATIONS

LAGEA still inherits occasional hallucinations from the underlying VLM, which our structure and alignment mitigate but cannot eliminate. While the study spans diverse simulated tasks, real-robot generalization and long-horizon observability remain open challenges. A natural next step is to translate from simulation to real-robot deployment, closing the sim-to-real gap.



Figure 14: Visualization of successful trajectories using LAGEA on environments from Meta-World MT10 benchmark tasks.