# Skill Acquisition by Instruction Augmentation on Offline Datasets

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Abstract: In recent years, much progress has been made in learning robotic ma-1 nipulation policies that follow natural language instructions. Commonly, such 2 methods learn from a corpora of robot-language data that was either collected 3 with specific tasks in mind or expensively re-labelled by humans with rich lan-4 guage descriptions in hindsight. Recently, large-scale pretrained vision-language 5 models like CLIP have been applied to robotics in the form of learning repre-6 sentations and planners. Can these pretrained models also be used to cheaply 7 impart internet-scale knowledge onto offline datasets, providing access to skills 8 9 that were not reflected in ground truth labels? To accomplish this, we introduce Data-driven Instruction Augmentation for Language-conditioned control (DIAL): 10 we utilize semi-supervised language labels leveraging the semantic understanding 11 of CLIP to propagate knowledge onto large datasets of unlabelled demonstration 12 data and then train language-conditioned policies on the augmented datasets. This 13 method enables cheaper acquisition of useful language descriptions compared to 14 expensive human labels, allowing for more efficient label coverage of large-scale 15 datasets. We apply DIAL to a challenging real-world robotic manipulation domain, 16 enabling imitation learning policies to acquire new capabilities and generalize to 17 60 novel instructions unseen in the original dataset. 18

# 19 1 Introduction

Recent advances in decision making have combined data-driven policies with language models 20 to enable control policies that respond to natural language instructions, an important capability 21 for practical adoption of general robots in the real world. A popular method used to accomplish 22 such language-controlled policies is behavioral cloning (BC) [16, 23, 1], which commonly acquires 23 language labels in two ways: i) using pre-defined tasks where the task descriptions are provided at the 24 time of data collection or ii) using cheap unstructured data collect like play data [21, 22] paired with 25 rich language labels provided by humans in hindsight. Both of these options have major drawbacks, 26 as pre-defining task instructions prior to data collection may limit data diversity, while hindsight 27 relabelling is expensive when applied at scale. 28

On the other hand, large-scale pretrained language models (LLMs) and vision-language models (VLMs) have seen increased adoption due to their ability to leverage internet-scale data to augment or even replace traditionally engineered parts of robot control systems, such as representation for perception [27, 31], as task representation for language [16, 20], or as planners [1, 15]. We seek to apply pretrained VLMs to the datasets themselves: can we use VLMs for *instruction augmentation*, where we relabel existing offline trajectory datasets with additional language instructions?

In this work, we provide an analysis of using instruction augmentation with VLMs to weakly relabel offline control datasets. We demonstrate this method on a challenging real-world robotic control domain, showing that instruction augmentation allows policies to acquire understanding of skills not contained in the original task labels, enabling generalization to 60 novel task instructions. We find that instruction augmentation with VLMs is especially important for generalizing to skills requiring understanding of spatial semantic concepts.

- 41 Our core contributions are as follows:
- We introduce Data-driven Instruction Augmentation for Language-conditioned control (DIAL) by using CLIP to label offline demonstrations for policy learning
- We study the sensitivity of policy performance to increasing instruction label noise
- We show the benefits of combining instruction augmentation predictions with existing labels
- We demonstrate the scalability of the method to a challenging real-world robotic task

## 47 2 Related Work

Language-instruction following in Robotics Language-instruction following agents have been 48 extensively explored in the reinforcement learning setting [19]. Recent advances in deep learning 49 with large amounts of data has led to works following natural language for robotic manipulations. 50 Latent Motor Control (LMP) [21] learns hierarchical goal-conditioned policies. Subsequent Language 51 from Play (LfP) [20] uses language goals provided by large dataset of hindsight human labels on 52 robotic play data. Similarly, LAVA [22] uses crowd-sourced hindsight labels on diverse play data for 53 table-top object rearrangements. In contrast, our method does not rely on crowd-sourced language 54 labels at scale, but instead focuses on collecting just a modest amount of language labels and then 55 using a learned model to provide weak hindsight labeling of the rest of the data. 56

Learned Language-conditioned Reward Functions Prior works have investigated using demon-57 strations with language annotations to learn language-conditioned reward functions for utilization in 58 downstream online [3, 14, 12] or offline RL [26, 8]. The complexity of the language instructions range 59 from templated language in small-scale environments to crowd-sourced language annotations in real 60 61 robotics or open-ended environments such as Minecraft. LOReL [26] learns a reward function from offline datasets of robot interactions with crowd sourced annotations using a convolutional neural 62 network trained from scratch combined with a pretraind DistilBERT sentence embedding [30] using 63 the binary cross entropy. MineCLIP [12] fine-tunes CLIP [29] encoders using a contrastive loss on a 64 large offline dataset of Minecraft videos and optimizes a language-conditioned control policy through 65 online RL. While their learned reward function can be used to train agents specifically on novel task 66 67 instructions, it requires an expensive and sample-inefficient stage of online RL, which is not tractable 68 in the real world. A frozen CLIP vision and text encoders has also been used as a baseline method for imitation learning [24] in the simulated robotic manipulation CALVIN benchmark [25]. Our 69 approach fine-tunes CLIP on our *real* robot offline dataset and is used for instruction augmentation for 70 a behavior cloning agent, instead of directly using the CLIP model as a reward model and optimizing 71 an RL agent. 72

Hindsight Relabeling for Goal-conditioned Reinforcement Learning The relabeling approach 73 for goal-conditioned reinforcement learning [28] originates from Hindsight Experience Replay (HER) 74 [2], which relabels the desired goals in a trajectory with achieved goals (hindsight goal) in the same 75 trajectories to generate positive examples in a sparse reward setting. Relabeling approach has later 76 been applied to environments where the goals are images [7], task IDs [18], and language instructions 77 [17, 6, 9]. Early works with templated language goals rely on environment simulators to provide 78 hindsight labels [17, 6], and more recently [9] uses a learned model. Our work further applies the 79 relabeling strategy with a learned model that scales to real robot environments. 80

Semi-supervised Imitation and Offline Reinforcement Learning Prior works in semi-81 supervised imitation learning focuses on labeling missing actions from demonstrations. The approach 82 of using a small curated dataset to train a model to then label a larger dataset has been explored in 83 Video PreTraining (VPT) [4]. While VPT uses the small curated dataset to train an inverse dynamics 84 model (IDM) to label actions, we fine-tuned CLIP [29] on our small dataset with crowd-sourced 85 natural language annotation in order to relabel the language instructions for a larger dataset of robot 86 trajectories. While LOReL [26] also applies instruction relabeling to an instruction from another 87 episode, the relabeling is used to create more *negative* examples for the reward model to train on. In 88 contrast, our approach creates new *positive* instruction labels for a given trajectory by leveraging an 89 already fine-tuned VLM, which is used to train a behaviour cloned policy. 90



Figure 1: DIAL consists of three steps: (1) Contrastive fine-tuning of a vision-language model (VLM) such as CLIP [29] on small dataset of robot manipulation trajectories with crowd-sourced natural language annotation, (2) using the fine-tuned VLM (in dashed outline) to score and rank the relevance of crowd-sourced annotations against a larger dataset of trajectories to produce novel instruction labels, and (3) training a language-conditioned policy using behavior cloning on the original and relabeled dataset. See Section 3 for more details.

## 91 3 Method

In this section, we describe DIAL consisting of three stages: (1) finetuning a VLM's vision and language representation on a small offline dataset of trajectories with crowd sourced episode-level natural language description, (2) generating alternative instructions for a larger offline dataset of trajectories with the VLM, and (3) learning a language-conditioned policy via behavior-cloning on this supersented effine dataset

96 this augmented offline data.

#### 97 3.1 Finetuning Vision-Language Model Representations on Offline Dataset

Given an offline dataset of N trajectories  $[\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_N]$ ,  $\tau_n = ([(s_0^n, a_0^n), (s_1^n, a_1^n), \ldots, (s_T^n)])$ , we collect a corresponding natural language description  $l^n$  for the *n*-th episode describing what the robot agent did in the episode via crowd-sourcing. When producing these descriptions, the crowdsourced evaluators observe the first frame,  $s_0$ , and last frame,  $s_T$ , from the agent's first-person view. We refer to these instructions as *hindsight instructions*. Together, we denote the first dataset  $\mathcal{D}_A = [(\tau_1, l_1), \ldots, (\tau_N, l_N)]$  as the paired trajectories and crowd-sourced labels. Our method then fine-tunes a vision and language model representation on  $\mathcal{D}_A$ .

Motivated by promising results of CLIP in robotics in prior works [31, 24], our instantiation of DIAL 105 uses CLIP [29] for both instruction augmentation and task representation; nonetheless, other VLMs or 106 captioning models could also be used to propose instruction augmentations. Given a batch of B initial 107 state  $s_0$ , final state  $s_T$ , and hindsight instruction l tuple, the model is trained to predict which of the 108  $B^2$  (initial-final state, hindsight instruction) pairs co-occurred. We use CLIP's Transformer-based text 109 encoder  $T_{enc}$  to embed the crowd-sourced instruction to a latent space  $z_l^n = T_{enc}(l^n) / ||T_{enc}(l^n)|| \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ 110  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and CLIP's Vision Transformer-based (ViT) [11] image encoder  $I_{enc}$  to embed the initial and final 111 state, and further concatenate these two embeddings and pass through fully connected neural network 112  $f_{\theta}$ , producing the vision embedding  $z_s^n = f_{\theta}([I_{enc}(s_0^n); I_{enc}(s_T^n)]) / \|f_{\theta}([I_{enc}(s_0^n); I_{enc}(s_T^n)])\| \in$ 113  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .  $B^2$  similarity logits are formed by applying dot product across all state-instruction pairs, and a 114 symmetric cross entropy loss term is calculated by applying softmax normalization with temperature 115

#### 116 $\alpha$ across the states and across the text:

$$\mathcal{L}_{CLIP} = -\left[\sum_{n=1}^{B} \log\left(\frac{e^{z_l^n \cdot z_s^n/\alpha}}{\sum_{k=1}^{B} e^{z_l^k \cdot z_s^n/\alpha}}\right) + \sum_{n=1}^{B} \log\left(\frac{e^{z_l^n \cdot z_s^n/\alpha}}{\sum_{k=1}^{B} e^{z_l^n \cdot z_s^k/\alpha}}\right)\right]$$
(1)

#### 117 3.2 Instruction Augmentation on Offline Datasets

We are also given a much larger offline dataset of 118  $M \gg N$  trajectories  $[\hat{\tau}_1, \ldots, \hat{\tau}_M]$ , where  $\hat{\tau}_m =$ 119  $([(\hat{s}_0^m, \hat{a}_0^m), (\hat{s}_1^m, \hat{a}_1^m), \dots, (\hat{s}_T^m)])$ . These trajec-120 tories may be collected from human teleoperated 121 demonstrations on a wide variety of tasks [1], or 122 from episodes from unstructured robotic "play" 123 collection [21]. In the first scenario, we may 124 have access to the original foresight instructions, 125  $\hat{l}^m$ , given to the human teleoperators to perform 126 the m-th demonstration episode, while in the lat-127 ter case there are no associated instructions with 128 the play episodes. Assuming that we do have the 129 foresight instructions, we denote this larger of-130 fline dataset as  $\mathcal{D}_B = [(\hat{\tau}_1, \hat{l}_1), \dots, (\hat{\tau}_M, \hat{l}_M)].$ 131 We use the fine-tuned VLM model to propose al-132

ternative natural language instructions  $\tilde{l}^m$  for the trajectory  $\hat{\tau}_m$  to augment the foresight/absent instructions in  $\mathcal{D}_B$ . Our specific instantiation of DIAL uses the fine-tuned CLIP text encoder to independently embed the crowd-sourced natural language instructions from the first stage, i.e.  $\tilde{l}^m \in L = \{l^1, \dots, l^N\} \sim \mathcal{D}_A$  and store them:

$$\{z_l^1, \dots, z_l^N\} = \{T_{enc}(l^1), \dots, T_{enc}(l^N)\}$$

• •

Similarly, we use the fine-tuned CLIP image
encoder and MLP fusion to embed the initial
and final observations from the second dataset:



Figure 2: The construction of datasets: Dataset A  $(\mathcal{D}_A)$  (blue) consists of the N trajectories  $\{\tau_n\}_{n=1}^N$  labeled with crowd-sourced hindsight instructions  $\{l^n\}_{n=1}^N$  describing what the robot agent performed in the episode. Dataset B  $(\mathcal{D}_B)$  (yellow) consists of a much larger set of trajectories,  $\{\hat{\tau}_m\}_{m=1}^M$  generated by foresight instructions  $\{l^m\}_{m=1}^M$  without hindsight labels. Dataset C  $(\mathcal{D}_C)$  (black, dashed) contains Dataset B trajectories relabeled with VLM-sourced hindsight instruction(s)  $\{\tilde{l}_1^m, \ldots, \tilde{l}_k^m\}_{m=1}^M$ .

$$\{\hat{z}_s^1, \dots, \hat{z}_s^M\} = \{f_\theta([I_{enc}(\hat{s}_0^1); I_{enc}(\hat{s}_T^1)]), \dots, f_\theta([I_{enc}(\hat{s}_0^M); I_{enc}(\hat{s}_T^M)])\}$$

With these embeddings pre-computed, we can retrieve the most likely candidates using k-Nearest Neighbors [13] with cosine similarity between the vision-language embedding pairs  $d(z_l^n, \hat{z}_s^m) = \frac{z_l^n \cdot \hat{z}_s^m}{\|z_l^n \cdot \hat{z}_s^m\|}$  as the metric. The resulting top-k candidate instructions  $\{\tilde{l}_1^m, \dots, \tilde{l}_k^m\}$  for each trajectory  $\hat{\tau}_m$ is used to construct the *relabeled* dataset  $\mathcal{D}_C = [(\hat{\tau}_1, \tilde{l}_1^1), \dots, (\hat{\tau}_1, \tilde{l}_k^1), \dots, (\hat{\tau}_M, \tilde{l}_1^M), \dots, (\hat{\tau}_M, \tilde{l}_k^M)]$ . Figure 2 visualizes the three datasets generated.

The hyperparameter k trades off precision and recall of the relabeled dataset. A smaller k will return mostly relevant candidate instructions, while a larger k value can recall a broader spectrum of potential hindsight descriptions for the episode at the expense of introducing irrelevant instructions. We will investigate the effects of k in Section 5 on the downstream policy performance.

#### 152 3.3 Learning Language Conditioned Policies with Behaviour Cloning

Given a dataset of robot trajectories and corresponding augmented language instructions, we can train a language-conditioned control policy with Behavior Cloning (BC). While instruction augmented offline datasets can be used by any downstream language-conditioned policy learning method such as offline RL or BC, we limit our work to the conceptually simpler BC in order to focus our analysis on the importance of instruction augmentation.



Figure 3: (a) A mobile manipulator robot performs a variety of manipulation tasks with various objects and cabinet drawers in an office kitchen environment. (b) An example of some of the kitchen objects found in the demonstration dataset. (c) The mobile manipulator robot receives RGB images from an over-the-shoulder camera and uses a 7 DoF arm with parallel-jaw grippers.

# **158 4 Experimental Setup**

### 159 4.1 Environment, Robot, and Datasets

We implement DIAL in a challenging real-world robotic manipulation setting in a kitchen environment 160 similar to SayCan [1]. We focus on the practically-motivated setting where a dataset of teleoperated 161 demonstrations is available, collected for downstream imitation learning [1, 16]. An Everyday Robots 162 robot [33], a mobile manipulator with RGB observations, is placed in an office kitchen to interact 163 with common objects using concurrent [34] continuous closed-loop control from pixels, as shown in 164 Figure 3. The robot uses parallel-jaw grippers, an over-the-shoulder RGB camera, and a 7 DoF arm. 165 We collect a large-scale dataset of over 80,000 robot trajectories via human teleoperation ( $\mathcal{D}_B$  in 166 Section 3.2), where teleoperators perform 551 unique tasks motivated by common manipulation skills 167 and objects in a kitchen environment [1]. Afterwards, we leverage crowd-sourced human annotators 168 to label 2,800 robot trajectories with two possible hindsight instructions each, resulting in a total of 169 5,600 unique episodes with crowdsourced captions ( $\mathcal{D}_A$  in Section 3.1). Human annotators are shown 170 the first and last frame of the episode and asked to provide a free-form text description describing 171 how a robot should be commanded to go from the start to the end. 172

#### 173 4.2 Instruction Augmentation and Policy Training

After finetuning a CLIP model on 5,600 annotated episodes using the procedure described Section 3.1, we then perform instruction augmentation on the 80,000 demonstrations which do not contain hindsight instructions ( $\mathcal{D}_C$  as in Section 3.2). By increasing the number *k* of instruction augmentations applied to each episode, we produce three instructed augmented datasets: 80,000 relabeled demonstrations (k = 1), 240,000 relabeled demonstrations (k = 3), and 800,000 relabeled demonstrations (k = 10).

<sup>180</sup> When increasing k, the augmented datasets become larger but the proposed instructions may become <sup>181</sup> increasingly irrelevant or inaccurate. To measure how instruction augmentation accuracy changes as <sup>182</sup> we increase k, we ask human labelers to rate whether the proposed captions are factually accurate <sup>183</sup> descriptions of a given episode. We show an example of predicted instruction augmentations in <sup>184</sup> Figure 4 and measure the accuracy of predicted instructions in Table **??**.



Figure 4: The top 10 proposed instruction augmentations for a single episode with original foresight instruction place green can in white bowl. In some cases, the predicted captions provide additional semantic information such as describing the location of the can or the material of the bowl.

Category	Instruction Samples
Spatial	['knock down the right soda', 'raise the left most can', 'raise bottle which is to the left of the can']
Rephrased	['pick up the apple fruit', 'liftt the fruit' [sic], 'lift the yellow rectangle']
Semantic	['move the lonely object to the others', 'push blue chip bag to the left side of the table', 'move the green bag away from the others']

Table 1: Sample novel instructions in each evaluation category. Spatial tasks focus on tasks involving Spatial relationships, Rephrased tasks contain tasks that directly map to a foresight skill, and Semantic tasks describe semantic concepts not contained in the relabeled or original datasets. In total, there are 60 instructions across the three categories.

Using these various instruction augmented datasets, we train vision-based language-conditioned behavior cloning policies similar to the formulation in BC-Z [16], as described in Section 3.3. Compared to BC-Z, we use a larger Transformer [32] based backbone instead of ResNet18 and use a CLIP language encoder instead of a Universal Sentence Encoder [5]. Nonetheless, we treat the behavior cloning policy as an independent component of our method and focus on studying instruction augmentation methods; we do not explore different policy architectures or losses in this work.

#### 192 4.3 Evaluation

In contrast to prior works [16] on instruction following, we focus our evaluation only on novel 193 *instructions unseen during training*. To source these novel instructions, we crowd-source instructions 194 from a different set of humans than the original dataset labelers and filter out any instructions already 195 contained in either the instruction augmentation process in Section 3.2 or in the original set of 196 551 foresight tasks in Section 4.1; in total, we sample 60 novel evaluation instructions. While 197 these evaluation instructions were not curated with specific properties in mind, after sourcing these 198 instructions we organize them into various semantic categories to allow for more detailed analysis of 199 qualitative policy performance; some examples are shown in Table 1. 200

- Spatial: 40 tasks focusing on instructions involving reasoning about spatial relationships.
   For example, this includes specifying an object's initial position relative to other objects in the scene.
- Rephrased: 10 tasks which are linguistic re-phrasings of the original 551 foresight tasks.
   For example, this includes referring to sodas and chips by their colors instead of their brand name.
- 3. Semantic: 10 tasks which encompass skills not contained in the original dataset. For
   example, this includes the instruction of moving objects away from all other objects, since
   the original dataset only contains trajectories of moving objects towards other objects.

# 210 **5** Experimental Results

## **5.1 Does using DIAL improve policy performance on unseen tasks?**

We investigate to what extent a behavior-cloned policy can be successfully learned from instruction augmented datasets, even when some relabeled instructions are potentially inaccurate. We use *all* available datasets containing foresight labels (FS), ground-truth hindsight labels (GT), and instruction augmentation (IA). We vary the amount of instruction augmentation by setting the hyperparameter  $k = \{1, 3, 10\}$ , resulting in additional 80k to 800k trajectory-instruction pairs. As baselines, we also consider training policies *without* instruction augmentation, i.e. only on FS, and on (FS + GT).

Table 2 summarises the evaluation results across three categories of novel tasks. Additional baselines we consider in Table 5 include methods that perform instruction augmentation without visual context. We find that only instruction augmentation using CLIP is able to perform well at novel "Spatial" tasks that require visual understanding and "Semantic" tasks that introduce generalizing to semantic skills not contained in the original foresight instructions.

#### 223 5.2 Does using DIAL for *unlabeled* datasets improve policy performance on unseen tasks?

Starting with a dataset of 5,600 trajectories with crowd-sourced hindsight labels, we apply different 224 amounts of instruction augmentation onto a dataset of 80,000 trajectories that do not have any 225 hindsight language labels. This experiment emulates the practical setting of when a large amount of 226 unstructured trajectory data is available but hindsight labels are expensive to collect, such as robot 227 play data [10, 21, 22]. We find that training on the instruction augmented trajectories increases 228 performance on a set of 60 sampled novel instructions not seen in the original hindsight label set, as 229 shown in Table 3. However, overall performance suffers when increasing the number of augmented 230 instructions from k = 3 to k = 10, suggesting there is some limit to how much label inaccuracy the 231 language-conditioned policies can tolerate. 232

Instruction Augmented Dataset Properties			<b>Evaluation on Novel Instructions</b>			
Episodes w/ FS	Episodes w/ GT	Episodes w/ IA	Spatial	Rephrased	Semantic	Overall
80k	0	0	33.3%	62.5%	10.0%	35.0%
80k	5600	0	45.2%	<b>87.5</b> %	0.0%	43.3%
80k	5600	80k ( $k = 1$ )	59.5%	75.0%	30.0%	56.7%
80k	5600	240k ( $k = 3$ )	64.3%	50.0%	30.0%	55.0%
80k	5600	800k ( $k = 10$ )	35.7%	50.0%	40.0%	35.0%

Table 2: Combining episodes with foresight labels of the structured tasks attempted during data collection (FS) with groundtruth crowd-sourced hindsight instructions (GT) with an increasing amount k of instruction augmentation (IA). DIAL performs the best at challenging "Spatial" tasks.

Instruction Augmented Dataset Properties			Evaluation on Novel Instructions			
Episodes w/ GT	Episodes w/ IA	IA Accuracy	Spatial	Rephrased	Semantic	Overall
5600	0	N/A	23.8%	37.5%	0.0%	21.7%
5600	80k ( $k = 1$ )	68.0%	50.0%	<b>75.0</b> %	0.0%	45.0%
5600	240k ( $k = 3$ )	65.3%	52.4%	50.0%	20.0%	46.7%
5600	800k ( $k = 10$ )	57.0%	38.1%	62.5%	10.0%	36.7%

Table 3: Training on groundtruth crowd-sourced hindsight instructions (GT) compared with utilizing increasing the amount k of instruction augmentation on unlabeled data (IA), with a corresponding decrease in label accuracy. Instruction Augmentation up to k = 3 significantly improves overall novel instruction performance, especially on "Spatial" tasks requiring visual reasoning.

		Evaluation on Novel Instructions			
Model	Task Instruction Encoder	Spatial	Rephrased	Semantic	Overall
GT Only	USE	16.7%	33.3%	0.0%	18.6%
GT Only	FT CLIP	23.8%	37.5%	0.0%	21.7%
FS + GT	Pretrained CLIP	42.9%	<b>75.0</b> %	0.00%	40.0%
FS + GT	FT CLIP	42.9%	75.0%	20.0%	41.7%
$\overline{\text{FS} + \text{GT} + \text{IA}, k = 1}$	USE	47.6%	50.0%	10.0%	43.3%
$\overline{\text{FS} + \text{GT} + \text{IA}, k = 1}$	FT CLIP	<b>59.5</b> %	<b>75.0</b> %	30.0%	56.7%

Table 4: Comparing downstream policy performance when improving the task representation from USE [5] to Pretrained CLIP [29] to Finetuned CLIP (FT CLIP), as described in Section 3.1. We find that the FT CLIP representation is the best task representation in all dataset settings.

#### 233 5.3 Is a VLM good at relabeling also a good task representation?

We study whether a VLM fine-tuned for instruction augmentation can also act as a better task representation for policy learning in the form of a more powerful language embedding. Across the various groundtruth and relabeled datasets we focus on, we find that Finetuned CLIP is the most effective task representation, as seen in Table 4. Finetuned CLIP is a good representation not only for freeform language instructions like those contained in the finetuning dataset in Section 4.2, but also for structured foresight commands like those contained in Section 4.1.

# 240 6 Conclusion

In this work, we introduced DIAL, a method that uses VLMs to label offline datasets for languageconditioned policy learning. We show that control policies are able to utilize relabeled demonstrations even when some labels are inaccurate, suggesting that DIAL is able to provide a cheap and automated option to extract additional semantic knowledge from offline control datasets. As the performance of internet-scale VLMs improve, we expect that DIAL might work increasingly better on even richer control settings.

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## 339 A Appendix

#### 340 A.1 Instruction Augmentation Accuracy

As described in Section 4.3, instruction prediction ac-341 curacy may decrease when increasing the number k of 342 instruction augmentations. In Figure 5, we sample 50 343 episodes and ask human labelers to assess the predicted 344 instruction accuracy as we increase the number of pre-345 dictions produced by CLIP. While the initial predictions 346 are correct often, the later predictions are often factually 347 inaccurate. The top-20-th instruction prediction is only 348 factually accurate 20.0% of the time. An example of the 349 top 10 predictions of an episode is shown in Figure 4. 350

#### 351 A.2 Additional Experiments

While our proposed method utilizes instruction augmentation with pretrained visual-language models, we can also attempt to increase the diversity of task instructions with

non-visual methods. Two potential methods to do this are



Figure 5: The accuracy of the top 20 instruction augmentation predictions of a sample of 50 episodes that have been relabeled by a Finetuned CLIP model in Section 4.2.

madlibs-style augmentations that replace words in the foresight instructions with synonyms and with Gaussian Noise augmentations that add noise with variance=0.05 to the text embeddings of foresight instructions. In Table 5, we compare relabeling methods in a setting similar to Section 5.1, where we apply relabeling to ground-truth labels from 80,000 episodes with foresight tasks and 5,600 episodes with groundtruth tasks. We note that while our dataset allows the baseline methods to relabel starting from the ground-truth foresight labels, "IA with CLIP" is able to relabel potentially unlabeled episodes, a setting that is not possible for the baseline methods.

	Evaluation on Novel Instructions					
Relabeling Method	Spatial	Rephrased	Semantic	Overall		
No relabeling	33.3%	62.5%	10.0%	35.0%		
Madlibs Text Augmentation	31.0%	87.5%	20.0%	35.0%		
Gaussian Noise	31.4%	75.0%	0.0%	30.0%		
IA with CLIP, $k = 1$	59.5%	75.0%	30.0%	56.7%		
IA with CLIP, $k = 3$	64.3%	50.0%	30.3%	55.0%		

Table 5: Comparing instruction augmentation with CLIP (IA) with non-visually grounded ways of relabeling the foresight tasks. We try Madlibs-style text augmentation as well as adding task embedding Gaussian noise. Policies train on foresight labels, groundtruth hindsight labels, and the additional relabeled episodes. While these improve performance on "Rephrased" tasks, they fail to improve performance on other task categories.