

ADAPTING WORLD MODELS WITH LATENT-STATE DYNAMICS RESIDUALS

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ABSTRACT

011 Simulation-to-reality reinforcement learning (RL) faces the challenge of reconciling
012 discrepancies between simulated and real-world dynamics, which can degrade agent
013 performance. When real data is scarce, a promising approach involves learning
014 corrections to simulator forward dynamics represented as a residual error function,
015 however this operation is impractical with high-dimensional states such as images.
016 To overcome this, we propose ReDRAW, a latent-state autoregressive world model
017 pretrained in simulation and calibrated to a target environment through residual
018 corrections of latent-state dynamics rather than of explicit observed states. Using
019 this adapted world model, ReDRAW enables RL agents to be optimized with
020 imagined rollouts under corrected dynamics and then deployed in the real world.
021 In multiple vision-based DeepMind Control Suite domains and a physical robot
022 visual lane-following task, ReDRAW effectively models changes to dynamics and
023 avoids overfitting in low data regimes where traditional transfer methods fail.
024

1 INTRODUCTION

025 Training robot control policies with reinforcement learning (RL) in real-world environments is
026 inherently expensive, time-consuming, and risky because it requires extensive interactions with
027 physical systems. Simulation provides a promising alternative as it offers a controlled, cost-effective,
028 and parallelizable setting for generating data and training capable policies. However, leveraging
029 simulated environments effectively is challenging due to inaccuracies in their representation of
030 agent observations and dynamics. These inaccuracies create a sim-to-real gap, where simulated
031 environments fail to correctly capture every relevant detail of real-world physics. This gap arises
032 when real-world dynamics are only partially understood or are too expensive to model accurately. As
033 a result, agents trained in simulation often struggle to successfully transfer their policies directly to
034 real-world settings without additional adaptation [20].
035

036 One approach to addressing this gap is to use a small amount of real-world data to learn corrections
037 to simulated transition functions, known as *residual dynamics corrections*. These corrections adjust
038 the simulated dynamics to better match the real world, allowing for more accurate training of control
039 policies [20; 35; 10]. However, this approach relies on the ability to efficiently learn corrections,
040 which is difficult when the state information is represented in high-dimensional formats such as
041 images. In these cases, significant feature engineering is often required to extract compact and
042 meaningful state representations for learning residuals.

043 This work introduces a novel method for learning residual dynamics corrections directly in the
044 *latent state space* of learned world models, eliminating the need for explicit feature engineering.
045 Specifically, we build on latent-state world models such as Dreamer [13; 14; 15] that encode high-
046 dimensional observations into compact latent states. These latent states can then be used to predict
047 future dynamics, rewards, policy values, and optimal actions. World models enable RL agents to
048 gather experience using synthetic trajectories in latent space, significantly reducing the need for
049 real-world interactions.

050 Focusing on fully-observable robot domains, we propose a Markov Decision Process (MDP) world-
051 model architecture, **DRAW** (**D**ynamics-**R**esidual **A**daptable **W**orld model), that encodes observations
052 solely into a discrete latent state representation that better supports data-efficient transfer learning.
053 After pretraining DRAW on simulated data, its weights are frozen to provide a fixed latent-state space
during adaptation. A small offline dataset of real-world trajectories is then used to learn a residual

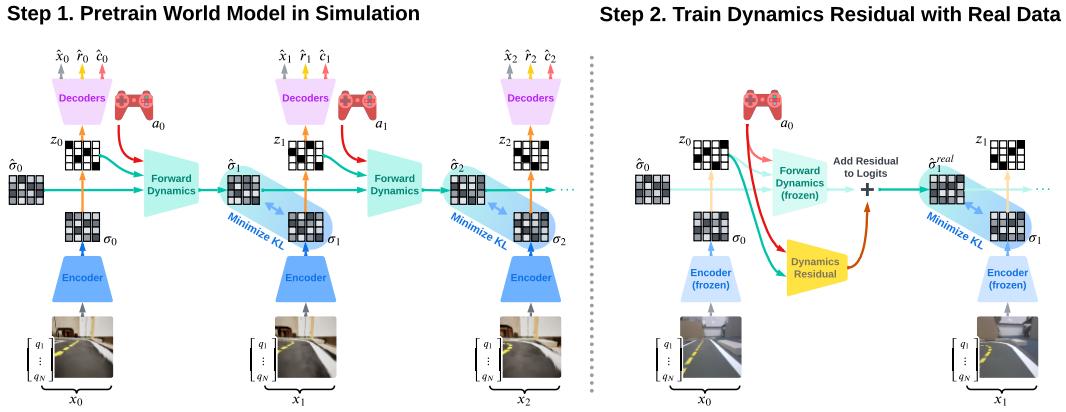


Figure 1: (Left) The DRAW world model is trained to encode states into a discrete latent representation without additional components, from which states, rewards, terminations, and future latent states are predicted. An RL agent can be trained in the world model via synthetic rollouts. (Right) The DRAW world model is frozen. Using a small reward-free dataset, world model dynamics are calibrated to a target environment by training an added residual error correction on latent state dynamics predictions. The RL agent can then be trained under rectified dynamics.

function in this fixed latent space. This function corrects the world model’s dynamics, enabling it to more accurately represent real-world behavior. We refer to this residual-calibrated model as **Rectified DRAW (ReDRAW)**. RL agents can be trained with ReDRAW using imagined rollouts, producing policies that perform well in the real environment. Importantly, we do not require reward labels from the real environment to make this calibration, extending ReDRAW’s applicability to real scenarios where rewards can be difficult to measure.

We evaluate ReDRAW on four vision-based DeepMind Control Suite (DMC) environments and further demonstrate the real-world usability of ReDRAW in sim-to-real applications by adapting from simulation to a physical real-time visual-navigation task on a Duckiebot robot [33]. Our experimental results suggest that ReDRAW outperforms traditional transfer learning methods in small data regimes to adapt to mismatched dynamics and avoids overfitting without early stopping. In real robot experiments, ReDRAW successfully performs simulation-to-reality dynamics adaptation with only 10K real steps (\sim 17-minute demonstration), transferring from simulation with synthetic visual inputs to real-world images collected on the robot.

CONTRIBUTIONS

1. We propose a new world-model architecture for dynamics adaptation in fully observable visual-control domains. DRAW encodes all state information into a single discrete latent space suitable for transfer in low-data regimes.
2. We demonstrate that the ReDRAW architectural extension can learn residual corrections in the latent space of DRAW to efficiently transfer between domains with mismatched dynamics, using only a small amount of offline target-domain data without reward labels.
3. We show that our method adapts dynamics from simulation to reality while also zero-shot transferring latent-state encoders from synthetic to real robot images.
4. Additionally, we open-source the code for our Unreal Engine [8] Duckiebot visual-control simulator to help facilitate further sim-to-real transfer research. Code and videos are available at <https://redraw-research.github.io/project/>.

2 PRELIMINARIES

2.1 RELATED WORK

Many existing methods calibrate or learn corrections to explicit state-transition models to better represent real dynamics during training [3; 2; 28], including through the use of error-correcting

108 residuals on simulation dynamics [20; 35; 10]. A limitation is that such explicit-state-based methods
 109 break down when all or part of the state representation is high-dimensional (e.g., images).
 110

111 Latent-state world models like Dreamer [13; 14; 15] model dynamics and rewards for environments
 112 with high-dimensional input spaces in a condensed learned state representation, enabling sample-
 113 efficient training of RL agents within this compressed model of the environment. In Section 4.1.2, we
 114 show that Dreamer is prone to overfitting when pretrained on a source environment (a simulation) and
 115 finetuned on a small offline dataset of transitions from a target environment with modified dynamics
 116 (the real world). This is a major issue when real-world evaluation is logically challenging and only
 117 doable in limited quantities.

118 In this work, for fully observable environments, we find that along with a few other architectural
 119 changes (Section 3.1, Appendix F.1), representing the latent state with only a discrete representation
 120 (as opposed to e.g., with a GRU state) allows the world model to be frozen after pretraining and
 121 its latent-state dynamics calibrated using an added error-correcting residual component. Compared to
 122 DreamerV3 [15], on the same offline datasets, we see a remarkably improved robustness to
 123 transfer-time overfitting with the proposed ReDRAW method.

124 Other approaches like physics domain randomization [34; 29; 7] and system-parameter identifica-
 125 tion [37; 1] use a configurable simulator along with expert knowledge of how simulated and real
 126 dynamics may differ to train agents that are robust to a variety of real physics. Often, a simulator
 127 cannot represent real dynamics under any parameterization, and differences between sim and real
 128 physics may not be known. For ReDRAW, we do not rely on configurable simulator physics or
 129 privileged insight into the discrepancies between environment dynamics. Offline RL techniques
 130 [25; 9; 26] can also learn policies from fixed real datasets, but they require real reward labels, which
 131 we assume unavailable since rewards can be challenging to measure in many real-world settings.

132 Due to the assumptions of states with high-dimensional image components, fixed simulator physics,
 133 and no real-reward labels, few existing works are meaningfully comparable in our setting. Ex-
 134 periments in this work primarily compare the ReDRAW adaptation method to other methods for
 135 fine-tuning a latent-state world model. In Appendix D, we also compare physics domain randomiza-
 136 tion on our robot sim-to-real task, which performs proportionally to how well the simulator can be
 137 configured to represent a distribution of potential real physics conditions. An extended related-work
 138 discussion is available in Appendix B, including a comparison of the high-level assumptions made by
 ReDRAW with other methods in Table 2.

139 2.2 PROBLEM DEFINITION

140 We consider two MDPs, denoted as M_{sim} and M_{real} , which share the same state space, action space,
 141 and reward function, but differ in their transition dynamics. Formally, each MDP is defined by a tuple
 142 $M_i = (X, A, R, \gamma, P_i)$, with a shared state space X , action space A , reward function upon entering a
 143 state $R : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, discount factor $\gamma \in [0, 1]$, and stochastic transition function P_i for $i \in \{\text{sim, real}\}$.
 144

145 Our objective is to find a policy π_{real} that achieves high expected discounted cumulative reward in
 146 M_{real} , $J_{\pi, \text{real}} = \mathbb{E}_{\pi, P_{\text{real}}} [\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(x_t)]$. To capture logistic challenges common in real robot settings,
 147 we have access to a limited amount of offline reward-free data (x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) from M_{real} . To make
 148 up for this, we can collect a large amount of online reward-labeled experience $(x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}, r_{t+1})$
 149 in M_{sim} . Our method aims to produce a well-performing agent in M_{real} by learning a compressed
 150 latent-state world model to emulate the simulation’s dynamics and reward functions. We then calibrate
 151 this world model’s latent dynamics on the limited real transition data such that a performant agent
 152 can be trained by collecting synthetic experience in the rectified world model.

153 Finally, sim-to-real transfer poses two challenges: adapting dynamics and transferring perception.
 154 Our proposed ReDRAW method addresses dynamics adaptation. For perception, we apply standard
 155 zero-shot techniques like image augmentation and camera-parameter randomization to ReDRAW
 156 and every baseline, outlined in Section 4.2.1.

157 3 METHOD

158 In this section, we describe our MDP world model architecture DRAW (Figure 1, Left) and its
 159 counterpart with calibrated dynamics, ReDRAW (Figure 1, Right). We first define the DRAW model,

162 how it represents latent states and dynamics, and how it is trained. Then we describe how we facilitate
 163 sample efficient transfer learning of dynamics by training a residual error correction on latent-state
 164 transitions, creating the ReDRAW world model.

166 3.1 DRAW ARCHITECTURE AND PRETRAINING

168 We use DRAW to model an MDP by encoding state inputs into a compressed stochastic latent
 169 representation using variational inference. Similar to DreamerV3 [15], our latent representation is
 170 trained via objectives for state and reward reconstruction along with future latent-state prediction.
 171 We then train an actor-critic reinforcement-learning agent on latent-state inputs by autoregressively
 172 rolling out synthetic trajectories as experience and using reconstructed rewards as a learning signal.
 173 Finally, the actor can be deployed to the environment by encoding immediate state inputs as latent
 174 states and providing these encodings to the actor. Figure 1 (Left) depicts connections during DRAW
 175 world model training, while Figure 5 in Appendix A depicts actor-critic training and deployment.

176 We model the latent state purely as a single stochastic multi-categorical discrete variable $z_t \in \mathcal{Z}$. z_t
 177 is a K -tuple of conditionally independent categorical variables, each represented as a 1-hot vector
 178 of length N . We denote z_t as the latent state encoded from the immediate state x_t (1) and \hat{z}_t as the
 179 latent state predicted via world model dynamics from the previous latent state and action (5). We
 180 denote $\hat{u}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$ as the logits for the multi-categorical distribution of \hat{z}_t and $\hat{\sigma}_t = \text{softmax}(\hat{u}_t)$ as
 181 the K concatenated normalized probability vectors. To estimate gradients in the sampling step for z_t
 182 or \hat{z}_t , we use the straight-through estimator [4; 14].

183 By compressing all state information into a single discrete representation z_t , we aim to provide a
 184 well-structured encoding of the underlying state x_t , enabling the learning of generalizable functions,
 185 such as residual corrections, from limited data using z_t as input. Illustrated in Figure 1 (Left), we
 186 define our DRAW world model and actor-critic agent, respectively parameterized by θ and ϕ , as:

$$187 \text{State Encoder } z_t \sim q_\theta(z_t|x_t) \quad (1) \quad \text{Reward } \hat{r}_t \sim p_\theta(\hat{r}_t|z_t) \quad (6)$$

$$189 \text{Forward Dynamics } \hat{u}_t = f_\theta(z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) \quad (2) \quad \text{Continuation } \hat{c}_t \sim p_\theta(\hat{c}_t|z_t) \quad (7)$$

$$190 \text{Forward Belief } \hat{\sigma}_t = p_\theta(\hat{z}_t|z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) \quad (3) \quad \text{State Decoder } \hat{x}_t \sim p_\theta(\hat{x}_t|z_t) \quad (8)$$

$$191 \quad = \text{softmax}(\hat{u}_t) \quad (4) \quad \text{Policy } a_t \sim \pi_\phi(a_t|z_t) \quad (9)$$

$$192 \text{Forward Sample } \hat{z}_t \sim \text{MultiCategorical}(\hat{\sigma}_t) \quad (5) \quad \text{Value Function } v_t = V_\phi(z_t) \quad (10)$$

193 We represent all functions in DRAW as multi-layer perceptrons (MLPs) except for image components
 194 of the state encoder and decoder, which are convolutional (CNNs). Interestingly, we found
 195 that providing $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}$ as an input to the forward dynamics function f_θ significantly increased our
 196 downstream adaptation performance. We speculate that this is because $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}$ helps provide a gradient
 197 signal for learning features relevant for long-term dynamics predictions without adding additional
 198 dimensionality to state prediction outputs. We provide ablations on this design choice in Appendix F.1.

199 We optimize DRAW on M_{sim} with a prediction loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}$ to reconstruct states, rewards, and episode
 200 terminations, as well as a dynamics loss \mathcal{L}_{dyn} and a representation loss \mathcal{L}_{rep} to learn latent-state
 201 dynamics under a predictable representation. Drawing subtrajectories ζ from a buffer of interaction
 202 experience, the world-model loss function $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ is:

$$204 \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q_\theta(z_{1:T}|\zeta)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \beta_{\text{pred}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}^t(\theta) + \beta_{\text{dyn}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{dyn}}^t(\theta) + \beta_{\text{rep}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{rep}}^t(\theta) \right], \quad (11)$$

207 where T is the length of ζ , and for $t = 1, \dots, T$:

$$208 \mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}^t(\theta) \doteq -\ln p_\theta(x_t|z_t) - \ln p_\theta(r_t|z_t) - \ln p_\theta(c_t|z_t) \quad (12)$$

$$210 \mathcal{L}_{\text{dyn}}^t(\theta) \doteq [\mathbb{D}[q_\theta(z_t|x_t)] || p_\theta(\hat{z}_t|z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}, a_{t-1})]_1 \quad (13)$$

$$211 \mathcal{L}_{\text{rep}}^t(\theta) \doteq [\mathbb{D}[q_\theta(z_t|x_t)] || p_\theta(\hat{z}_t|z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}, a_{t-1})]_1, \quad (14)$$

212 with \mathbb{D} the Kullback–Leibler divergence, $[\cdot]_1$ denoting clipping to 1 any value below 1, corresponding
 213 to free bits [23], and $\bar{\theta}$ a stopped-gradient copy of θ .

215 We train the actor-critic agent with the same procedure and losses as DreamerV3, providing the
 DRAW world model state \hat{z}_t as agent inputs during imagined rollouts and z_t during data collection

and evaluation. When training the actor–critic, we seed synthetic rollouts with starting states x_0 drawn from the same experience buffer as used for world-model training. We do not backpropagate value gradients through dynamics, and we train the policy using the Reinforce objective [41] with normalized returns and critic baselines [15].

We alternate mini-batch updates between the world model and the actor–critic. During source environment pretraining, updates are interleaved with online data collection. Since we cannot fully predict which trajectories in M_{sim} will best facilitate learning transferable features and dynamics for M_{real} , we employ Plan2Explore [36] to provide intrinsically motivated exploration, encouraging the collection of a highly diverse set of source-environment trajectories.

3.2 ADAPTATION VIA LATENT DYNAMICS RESIDUALS

After pretraining the DRAW world model online in the M_{sim} environment with a large amount of data, we propose the ReDRAW architecture and method to use a small offline dataset of transitions from the target environment to calibrate DRAW’s dynamics to match M_{real} using a latent-state error residual.

We model the dynamics residual using an MLP δ_ψ that predicts a correction \hat{e}_t to the forward-dynamics logit vector \hat{u}_t . This correction produces a modified transition distribution $\hat{\sigma}_t^{real}$, from which forward latent-state predictions \hat{z}_t^{real} are sampled to approximate M_{real} . We formulate the calibrated dynamics as:

$$\hat{u}_t = f_\theta(z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1}) \quad (15) \quad \hat{\sigma}_t^{real} = p_{\theta, \psi}(\hat{z}_t^{real} | z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1}) \quad (17)$$

$$\hat{e}_t = \delta_\psi(z_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) \quad (16) \quad = \text{softmax}(\hat{u}_t + \hat{e}_t) \quad (18)$$

$$\hat{z}_t^{real} \sim \text{MultiCategorical}(\hat{\sigma}_t^{real}). \quad (19)$$

To train the residual on real data, we freeze the world-model weights θ and only optimize the parameters ψ of the residual network δ_ψ . In the transfer phase, we only optimize the actor–critic agent and a new loss $\mathcal{L}_\delta(\psi)$ on the rectified world-model dynamics. Our objective is to predict corrections \hat{e}_t of \hat{u}_t so that our new dynamics predictions $\hat{\sigma}_t^{real}$ match the observed encoder distribution over latent states collected in M_{real} . The loss function for the residual is:

$$\mathcal{L}_\delta(\psi) = \mathbb{E}_{q_{\bar{\theta}}(z_{1:T} | \zeta^{real})} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{D}[q_{\bar{\theta}}(z_t | x_t) || p_{\bar{\theta}, \psi}(\hat{z}_t^{real} | z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1})] \right]. \quad (20)$$

Since we consider fully observable environments, the target encoder latent-state distribution $q_\theta(z_t | x_t)$ depends solely on x_t and can be frozen after pretraining in M_{sim} if the collected source-environment data adequately covers the state space. As a result, the latent-state representation for ReDRAW in M_{real} is unchanged from DRAW in M_{sim} .

Notably, due to this unchanged latent-state representation between M_{sim} and M_{real} , the frozen DRAW M_{sim} reward function $p_\theta(\hat{r}_t | \hat{z}_t)$ can be reused in world-model rollouts to train the ReDRAW agent with $p_\theta(\hat{r}_t | \hat{z}_t^{real})$ in M_{real} , eliminating the need for reward data from M_{real} . This is particularly beneficial since building a reward recording system in real-world scenarios, such as robotics, often requires costly and complex setups like additional sensors or feedback mechanisms, which may be infeasible in certain environments.

Finally, given the ReDRAW world model with dynamics adapted to match M_{real} , the actor–critic can learn a high-performing policy for the new environment by training in the world model under the new rectified dynamics, using \hat{z}_t^{real} as input during training. In our experiments, we alternate agent and world-model training during adaptation to measure the agent’s performance as world model training progresses.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We evaluate ReDRAW in two distinct settings: (1) adapting from DeepMind Control (DMC) [38] environments to modified counterparts with changed physics, and (2) transferring from a simulation

270 in Unreal Engine to a real robot visual lane-following task using the Duckietown [33] platform. Our
 271 experiments address three main questions:
 272

- 273 1. How do latent-space residuals compare to traditional finetuning methods in correcting
 274 world-model dynamics under limited target-domain data?
- 275 2. How do data quantity and collection policies influence transfer performance?
- 276 3. Can ReDRAW effectively close the sim-to-real gap in a robotics task with visual inputs?

278 4.1 DEEPMIND CONTROL EXPERIMENTS
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280 4.1.1 DMC DOMAINS
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282 We first consider four pairs of source and target environments from the DMC suite, each pair having
 283 the same state and reward structure but mismatched dynamics. We use original environments from
 284 DMC as sources, while the target environments introduce physics modifications such as applied
 285 wind, external torque, or reversed actions. For a detailed description, refer to Appendix I. These
 286 differences in dynamics between source and target environments are substantial enough to require
 287 policy adaptation for optimal performance. Although dynamics differ between source and target, the
 288 state spaces, reward functions, and episode termination conditions remain unchanged. To maintain
 289 full observability, we represent the state as an image paired with a vector of joint velocities. In
 290 Appendix H, we also demonstrate comparable performance using framestacking for the same purpose.

291 To pretrain on each source environment, we collect 9 million environment steps (4.5e6 decision
 292 steps with an action repeat of 2) using Plan2Explore [36], which promotes diverse state visitation
 293 rather than narrowly exploiting the original environment’s reward function. After this phase, we
 294 adapt to each target environment using a small offline dataset of 40K decision steps (equivalent to 80
 295 episodes), gathered by an expert policy in the target domain.

296 4.1.2 COMPARISON WITH FINETUNING
 297

298 We compare ReDRAW with several baselines that attempt to adapt a pretrained world model to the
 299 new domain. Critically, except where noted with *, the methods we test do not use reward labels or
 300 train with a reward-reconstruction objective during the adaptation phase. These baselines include:

301 **DRAW/DreamerV3 Zeroshot:** We take the source-trained DRAW or DreamerV3 agent and deploy
 302 it in the target environment without any adaptation.

303 **DRAW/DreamerV3 Finetune:** The world model and agent are finetuned on the target-domain
 304 offline dataset. To mitigate overfitting on the small dataset, we freeze the world model encoder and
 305 decoder parameters and only retrain the agent and dynamics components. For DRAW this entails
 306 optimizing only f_θ with \mathcal{L}_{dyn} . Analogously, for DreamerV3, the RSSM recurrent prior and posterior
 307 components are updated while leaving the observation feature embeddings and decoders unchanged.

308 **DRAW/DreamerV3 Finetune (No Freeze)*:** Every component, including the encoder and decoder,
 309 is finetuned using all original world model loss terms. These are the only two baselines requiring
 310 access to reward data during adaptation.

312 **DRAW New Dyn:** The entire world model is frozen after pretraining, but instead of learning a
 313 residual addition to f_θ , we train a new dynamics function $\hat{\sigma}_t^{\text{real}} = g_\psi(\hat{\sigma}_t, z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$ with a similar
 314 capacity to δ_ψ and conditioned on the next-latent-state distribution $\hat{\sigma}_t$ predicted by the frozen source
 315 dynamics (Eq. 3). This method demonstrates an alternate way to leverage frozen dynamics predictions
 316 learned from the source environment. Other variations of this baseline are investigated in Appendix G.

317 Figure 2 shows the returns in each target domain as a function of offline updates on each target
 318 dataset. Zero-shot deployment without adaptation fares poorly in these altered dynamics. Finetuning
 319 approaches initially improve in some cases but all eventually overfit to the small dataset. The *No
 320 Freeze** variations are quicker to overfit than their partially frozen counterparts.

321 In contrast, ReDRAW’s latent-space residual method attains a sustained level of high-performance
 322 and avoids overfitting during the 3 million updates (1-3 days of training) we test on. This highlights
 323 a critical benefit of the ReDRAW transfer method: once ReDRAW reaches high performance in
 the target domain, it demonstrates a remarkable resistance to performance degradation. ReDRAW’s

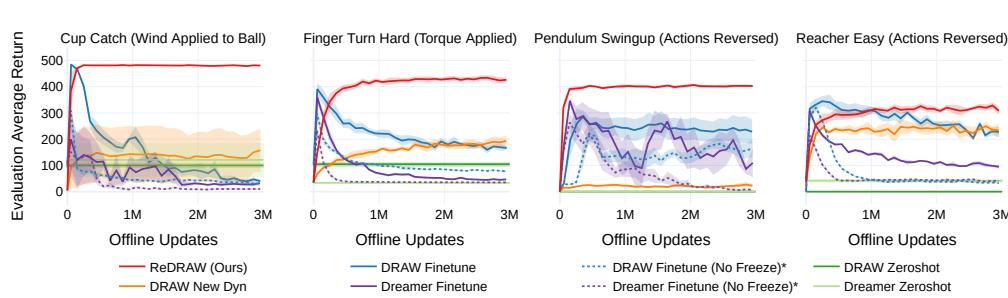


Figure 2: Average evaluation episode return transferring from each DMC environment to a modified variant of it given 40K offline target environment transition samples. Shaded regions indicate the standard error of the mean over 4 seeds for each method. ReDRAW consistently achieves high returns in the target environments and avoids overfitting.

ability to avoid overfitting for long periods of time makes it highly applicable to sim-to-real scenarios where validation testing on a real robot often cannot practically be done repeatedly and educated guesses need to be reliably made regarding stopping conditions of the training process.

ReDRAW excels at maintaining a high degree of validation performance by preserving existing dynamics predictions learned in simulation where data is abundant and using the limited target data to learn a low-complexity adjustment to those predictions. Comparing ReDRAW with *DRAW New Dyn*, we see that while both approaches utilize both the previous state and the frozen simulation dynamics predictions, the residual operation appears to play a key role in limiting the complexity of the changes made to the original world model dynamics, allowing ReDRAW to avoid overfitting.

4.1.3 DATA POLICIES AND QUANTITY

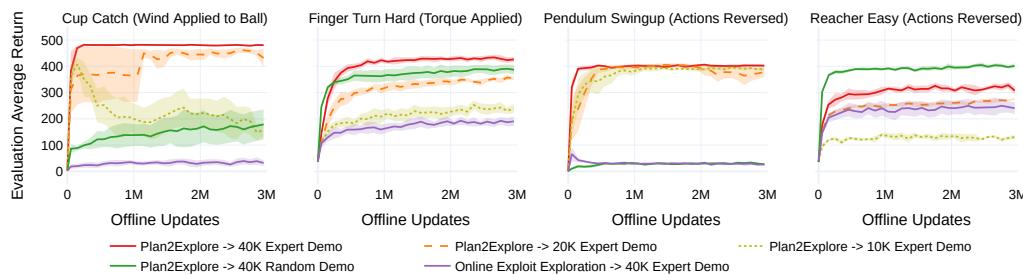
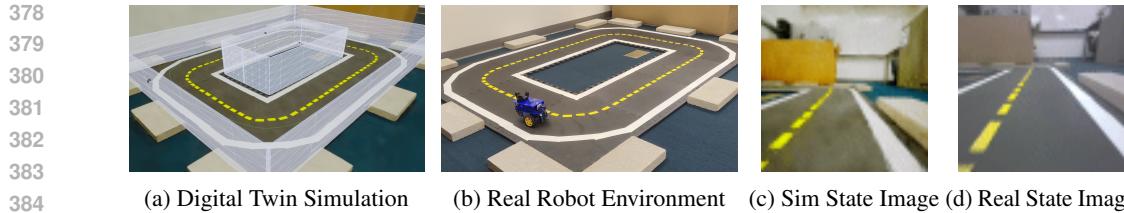


Figure 3: Impact of offline adaptation dataset size and source/target domain data collection strategies on ReDRAW. Expert demonstrations consistently provide useful target domain data for adaptation. Collecting diverse simulation experience with a method like Plan2Explore is essential for good transfer performance.

Figure 3 examines the effect of data collection on ReDRAW’s transfer performance by ablating: (i) the diversity of source-domain experience, contrasting Plan2Explore simulation data collection with the exploit policy, and (ii) the quality and quantity of target-domain transitions, comparing expert demonstrations versus random actions and varying expert dataset sizes (40K, 20K, 10K). In our default configuration (*Plan2Explore → 40K Expert Demo*), ReDRAW attains the strongest transfer performance.

Source-Domain Data: Collecting source trajectories with Plan2Explore consistently yields high returns after adaptation. When we replace Plan2Explore with the exploit policy as the pretraining data collection policy, critical source transitions that may help in the prediction of the target dynamics are missed and transfer performance is reduced significantly. This demonstrates that exploratory breadth in simulation rather than narrowly optimizing the source reward is essential for learning latent features that are useful for downstream residual corrections to match altered physics.



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Figure 4: (a) Digital-twin simulation constructed using Gaussian splatting [21]. (b) Real-world robot lane-following environment. (c) Simulation state image component. (d) Real-world state image component. The agent is tasked to drive quickly around the track while staying near the lane center using an egocentric camera and velocity sensor. We train our DRAW world model in simulation and calibrate its dynamics with ReDRAW on a small dataset of human demonstrations with mixed optimality, producing a successful agent in the real environment.

Target-Domain Data: Adapting with expert demonstrations consistently yields effective transfer, while using a dataset of random actions can either help or hurt transfer performance in comparison. We speculate that expert data is useful for modeling pertinent dynamics for performing well while high-entropy actions may additionally be useful in modeling failure scenarios for the agent to avoid. Investigating the quantity of target-domain data, reducing the size of the expert dataset leads to a drop in average return with 20K samples and a further drop along with overfitting in Cup Catch with 10K samples. Taken together, these results indicate a practical lower bound on required expert data for robust transfer with ReDRAW.

4.2 DUCKIEBOT SIM-TO-REAL TRANSFER

Finally, we evaluate ReDRAW in a sim-to-real robotic lane-following task using the Duckietown platform [33]. Here, the agent controls a wheeled robot to navigate around a track while remaining centered in its lane. The state space includes a forward-facing camera image plus egocentric forward and yaw velocity values, and actions are defined as continuous forward and yaw target velocities in $[-1, 1]$. To provide a simulation to transfer from, we construct an environment in Unreal Engine using a Gaussian splat [21] reconstruction of the robot’s environment to mimic the robot’s state space. Figures 4a and 4b show the digital twin and real environment, respectively. We also implement the simulation with a rough approximation of real dynamics, although details like precise handling while driving and control rate (6Hz sim vs 10Hz real) still differ from the real robot.

The Duckiebot receives rewards proportional to its projected velocity along the lane-center path but instead incurs penalties when it deviates too far from this path. When moving forward, we also penalize the agent proportionally to its yaw velocity to encourage smooth driving. Simulation episodes terminate either when the robot leaves the track, with a large penalty applied, or after 200 steps. Exact experiment details are presented in Appendix C.

4.2.1 BRIDGING THE SIM-TO-REAL VISION GAP

Despite efforts to recreate the real environment, visual disparities between the simulation and real environment still exist (Figure 4c vs 4d). Although our main focus in this paper is adapting dynamics, we employ visual randomization [40] along with image augmentation [5] for all compared methods to bridge the sim-to-real vision gap. Each episode, we randomize the simulation camera’s mounted location on the robot, camera tilt, and its field of view. We also apply image augmentations at train time to both sim and real image inputs to learn world-model image encoders robust to task-irrelevant features like lighting, color hue, and background furniture placement. Similar to [22], we train with augmented inputs, but the world-model decoder still reconstructs the original images as targets in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}$, thus focusing the latent-space features on task-relevant elements rather than the irrelevant augmentations we apply. We apply this asymmetric decoding objective to both DRAW and DreamerV3. ReDRAW trains its residual with augmented inputs but has no decoding objective during transfer learning since its latent-state representation is fixed.

432 Table 1: Mean and SEM performance on the real Duckiebots lane-following task aggregated over 5
 433 episodes each for 4 training seeds. Agents are given 300 steps (30 seconds) to complete a lap from a
 434 fixed starting position. *Center Offset* denotes distance from the lane center. Absence of a *Lap Time*
 435 indicates all runs either failing to complete a lap or terminating early by driving off the track.

| 437 438 439 440 Method | Transfer Sim to Unmodified Real | | | Transfer Sim to Actions-Reversed Real | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| | Avg Dense Reward (\uparrow) | Avg Lap Time (sec) (\downarrow) | Avg Center Offset (\downarrow) | Avg Dense Reward (\uparrow) | Avg Lap Time (sec) (\downarrow) | Avg Center Offset (\downarrow) |
| Dreamer Zeroshot | -1.18 ± 0.23 | — | 6.86 ± 0.56 | -2.35 ± 0.23 | — | 13.36 ± 1.13 |
| Dreamer Finetune | -0.87 ± 0.33 | — | 5.45 ± 1.55 | -1.61 ± 0.57 | — | 7.75 ± 1.53 |
| DRAW Zeroshot | 0.07 ± 0.06 | 22.41 ± 0.73 | 5.12 ± 0.41 | -2.72 ± 0.42 | — | 9.39 ± 1.35 |
| ReDRAW (Ours) | 0.38 ± 0.02 | 22.75 ± 0.26 | 2.47 ± 0.26 | 0.39 ± 0.03 | 24.21 ± 1.15 | 2.10 ± 0.39 |

445 446 447 4.2.2 TRANSFERRING TO THE REAL ROBOT 448

449 We pretrain DRAW and DreamerV3 in simulation using 600K random actions followed by 1.4 million
 450 online steps with Plan2Explore. On the real robot, we collect a small offline adaptation dataset of 1e4
 451 timesteps (~ 17 minutes) using human demonstrations employing a mixture of safe random actions
 452 and semi-proficient driving. Table 1 compares performance using this offline dataset to adapt to two
 453 variations of the real environment, *unmodified real*, where minor physics disparities between sim
 454 and real are the natural result of inaccurate dynamics modeling, and *actions-reversed real*, where
 455 actions (in adaptation data and deployment) are inverted, requiring large but regular adaptation to
 456 drive successfully. We adapt ReDRAW and DreamerV3 *Finetune* for 2e5 offline updates. All methods
 457 are evaluated for 5 episodes each over 4 training seeds. We additionally compare to physics domain
 458 randomization, in which the world models and agents are trained with a randomized physics training
 459 regime that other methods do not have access to, in Appendix D.

460 In *unmodified real*, DRAW *zeroshot* is able to successfully drive despite never seeing real data
 461 but incurs low rewards by veering far from the lane center. DreamerV3 *zeroshot* fails, driving off
 462 the track in all lap attempts. We speculate that DreamerV3 *zeroshot* fails while DRAW *zeroshot*
 463 succeeds because DreamerV3’s recurrent model observes out-of-distribution sequences under changed
 464 dynamics, resulting in inaccurate latent-state predictions. DRAW and ReDRAW are non-recurrent in
 465 deployment time and cannot suffer from this same issue. Similar to DMC experiments, DreamerV3
 466 *Finetune* fails to adapt, possibly due to overfitting, and ReDRAW achieves significantly higher average
 467 dense rewards than DRAW *zeroshot* by training with corrected dynamics and staying close to the
 468 lane center.

469 In the more extreme *actions-reversed real* transfer task, ReDRAW is the only method that successfully
 470 adapts and completes laps on the real robot due to the incompatibility of zero-shot policies to this
 471 environment and the limited real data in the case of DreamerV3 *Finetune*. These results demonstrate
 472 that ReDRAW can be effectively used to adapt dynamics from simulation to reality using a limited
 473 offline real dataset without rewards, and that ReDRAW can be combined with visual adaptation
 474 methods to do so.

475 5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

476 A potential limitation of ReDRAW is that it maintains high target-environment performance over
 477 many updates and avoids overfitting in-part due to the low complexity of the residual component. This
 478 suggests that only conceptually simple changes to dynamics may effectively be modeled with low
 479 amounts of data, warranting future investigation. Our method for collecting a broad set of simulation
 480 training data via Plan2Explore is also heuristic. We would like to investigate the problem of guiding
 481 simulation data collection for better transferability by adopting exploration policies informed by the
 482 offline target-environment data. Finally, we want to explore if residual adaptation methods can be
 483 meaningfully applied to foundation world models, efficiently converting them from generators of
 484 plausible dynamics to generators of specific dynamics.

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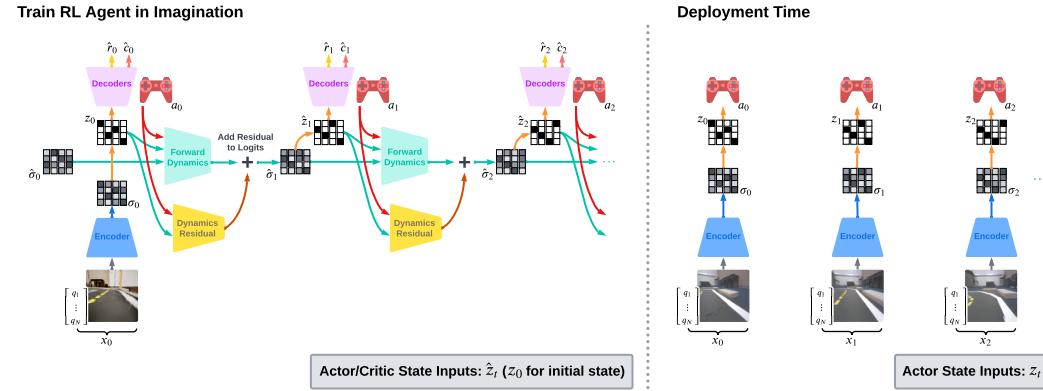
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 624 pp. 11097–11107, 2020.

648 **A ACTOR-CRITIC TRAINING AND DEPLOYMENT**
649

663
664 Figure 5: **(Left)** The actor and critic are trained by interacting with the world model. Starting from
665 an environment state sampled from the replay buffer, the world model generates imagined rollouts
666 using actions provided by the actor. The residual component is omitted during DRAW pretraining.
667 **(Right)** At deployment, only the encoder and actor modules are utilized. The immediate environment
668 state is processed by the encoder, and the actor generates an action based on z_t sampled from σ_t .
669

670 **B EXTENDED RELATED WORK**
671

672 Table 2: Comparison of alternative methods against key desiderata. ReDRAW uses a small reward-
673 free real-world dataset to calibrate a learned dynamics model of a simulation and match the real
674 environment. ReDRAW uses a latent-state representation to maintain compatibility with high-
675 dimensional state components like images, and it is agnostic to the types of discrepancies between
676 simulation and real dynamics.
677

| 678 Method | 679 No Real 680 Rewards | 681 High-Dimensional 682 Image Inputs | 683 No Configurable Simulator 684 or Disparity Insight | 685 Low Real 686 Data |
|---|----------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|
| 687 ReDRAW (Ours) | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 688 World Model Finetuning | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ |
| 689 Adapting Explicit State Transitions | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 690 Offline RL | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 691 Physics Domain Randomization | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ |

692 This research lies at the intersection of sim-to-real dynamics transfer and RL with latent-state world
693 models.
694

695 **B.1 TRANSFERRING DYNAMICS WITH EXPLICIT REPRESENTATIONS**
696

697 Sim-to-real transfer of dynamics aims to adapt existing simulators or dynamics models used for
698 planning and policy optimization to better match real-world environments. One way to transfer
699 dynamics from simulation to reality is to calibrate predefined simulator physics parameters to match
700 the target environment, either directly from real data [37] or as a correction to existing parameters
701 [1]. However, doing so can be insufficient if no good approximation of the real environment exists
702 in the space spanned by the allowed range of these parameters. In such cases, a more expressive
703 modification of the simulator state transition function may be needed.

704 Along these lines, Ball et al. [3] and Arcari et al. [2] calibrate linear error models on simulator
705 transition dynamics using real data for policy adaptation and, respectively, model predictive control.
706 Similarly, Mallasto et al. [28] use affine transport to adapt simulator state dynamics models to real
707 domains. Golemo et al. [10] train an LSTM conditioned on state-action history to predict a state
708 transition residual, and Schperberg et al. [35] efficiently adapt a neural-network state-dynamics

702 residual by using Unscented Kalman Filtering. Kaufmann et al. [20] employ k-nearest neighbor
 703 regression and Gaussian process residuals on transition dynamics and state encodings to calibrate
 704 their simulator for drone racing at an expert human level.

705 Each of these methods relies on the assumption that the environment state can be represented with a
 706 compact vector representation with which a generalizable dynamics correction can be learned with
 707 a relatively low-complexity model and small real-data requirements. We consider the case where
 708 the components of the state are instead in a *high-dimensional* format like images and we do not
 709 have a predefined mapping from these states to such a necessary compact vector representation. To
 710 adapt simulation transition dynamics under these more difficult conditions, we propose to learn a
 711 latent-state world model of the simulation and then train a residual correction on the world model’s
 712 dynamics to match transitions in the real environment.

714 B.2 WORLD MODELS WITH LATENT STATE SPACES

715 World models [11] with latent state spaces are environment models in which planning and policy
 716 learning can be more efficient than with environment states due to a succinct representation of
 717 environment states and dynamics. Dreamer [13; 14; 42; 15] models environments in the stochastic
 718 POMDP [6] by encoding observations as latent states and reconstructing future latent states, rewards,
 719 and observations. The Dreamer architecture allows agents to then train on synthetic experience by
 720 rolling out “imagined” trajectories inside of the world model. TD-MPC [17; 16] models deterministic
 721 fully observable MDPs by similarly reconstructing future latent states and rewards, as well as task
 722 value functions. TD-MPC2 [16] has shown good results learning shared features from a suite
 723 of environments to quickly transfer to new ones, while we focus on transferring from a single
 724 environment to a similar target environment by avoiding overfitting to limited data.

725 Concerning exploration with world models, collecting diverse source trajectories was crucial in our ex-
 726 periments for learning transferable features and dynamics. To achieve this, we use Plan2Explore [36],
 727 a method compatible with both Dreamer and our proposed DRAW architecture, which trains an
 728 auxiliary RL agent alongside the exploit policy to maximize model uncertainty in latent dynamics
 729 predictions, promoting wide-reaching exploration.

730 B.3 DOMAIN RANDOMIZATION

731 Domain randomization is widely used for sim-to-real transfer by exposing policies to diverse varia-
 732 tions in images [40; 19] or dynamics [34; 29]. In the case of variations with different optimal policies,
 733 training on a broad distribution of environment conditions can yield an overly conservative policy.
 734 Methods like [39; 7] partially mitigate this issue by leveraging real data to calibrate the parameters
 735 of a training-time dynamics domain randomization distribution to more closely represent the target
 736 environment.

737 Similar to the system-parameter-identification methods [37; 1] mentioned in Section B.1, domain
 738 randomization relies on having a configurable simulator with parameters that, if set correctly, can
 739 sufficiently represent real-world dynamics at training time. Domain randomization thus requires the
 740 practitioner to have A) an understanding of which dynamics parameters are likely to be mismatched
 741 between simulation and reality, and B) a simulator that allows those specific parameters to be
 742 configured. In practice, the nature of disparities between the training-time simulator and adaptation-
 743 time real environment may not be known, and the simulator may not be customizable along the
 744 necessary parameter dimensions (or at all).

745 With ReDRAW, we provide a dynamics adaptation method that is agnostic to the types of MDP
 746 physics disparities between the source and target environment, however, to do so, ReDRAW relies on
 747 being able to zero-shot perception from simulation to real. Given the availability of simulators with
 748 high-fidelity visuals like [27; 43; 8] and advances in 3D-reconstruction techniques like neural radiance
 749 fields [30] and Gaussian splatting [21] (as we employ in this paper), we believe this can often be a
 750 worthwhile tradeoff. In our duckiebots robot sim-to-real experiment, as described in Section 4.2.1,
 751 we apply image augmentations and limited camera-parameter randomization to ReDRAW and every
 752 baseline. With the exception of the physics domain randomization baseline in Appendix D, we do
 753 not vary simulator physics.

756 B.4 OFFLINE RL
757

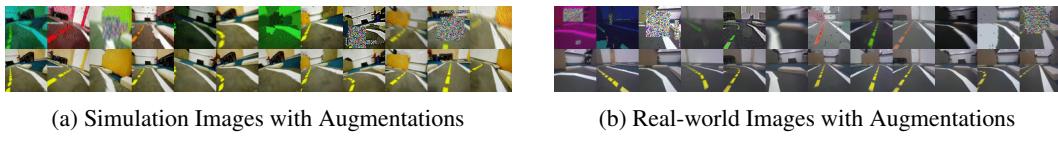
758 Offline RL approaches aim to learn well-performing policies from fixed datasets, usually while
759 avoiding taking out of distribution actions that are not well represented in the data [9; 25; 24]. In
760 cases like ours where offline real data is limited but online data from an error-prone simulator is
761 abundant, methods like [31; 32; 18] train on both real and simulated data by down-weighting the
762 effects of updates from simulated transitions with dynamics that differ from the offline real data.
763 However, to train a policy given offline real data, these methods require access to reward real reward
764 labels. Real-reward data can often be difficult to collect on physical robots, and we do not assume
765 access to reward labels in the offline real dataset. Instead, our proposed ReDRAW method learns a
766 reward function conditioned on the current latent state and leverages a fixed latent-state encoding
767 between simulation and the real environment to reuse this reward function in the real-calibrated world
768 model.

769 C DUCKIEBOTS EXPERIMENT DETAILS
770

771 **Simulation Reward Details** In simulation, the agent is densely rewarded at each timestep with a
772 value in $[0, 1]$ proportional to its projected velocity along the lane center unless its location is more
773 than 5cm from the lane center, in which case it incurs a penalty of -1. When moving forward, we
774 additionally provide a dense penalty proportional to egocentric yaw velocity to encourage turning
775 while at speed. The simulation episode horizon is 200 steps, slightly more than enough time to
776 complete a lap. We do not provide a termination signal when the horizon is reached. We terminate
777 early with a done signal and a penalty of -100 if the agent drives off the track.

778 We provide the agent with reward data during simulation pretraining, and we do not provide reward
779 labels in training data collected from the real environment. In order to measure test-time deployment
780 performance, during real evaluation only, we record the robot’s location with an HTC Vive motion
781 tracker to measure equivalent simulation rewards, lap times, and the robot’s distance from the lane
782 center. Information recorded from the motion tracker is not provided to the agent or world model.

783 **Image Augmentations** During simulation pretraining and offline adaptation to real data, we apply
784 image augmentations to world model encoder inputs, but we still train decoder objectives on the
785 original non-augmented images. Figure 6b shows original images (bottom) and their augmented
786 counterparts (top) for both simulation and the real environment offline human demonstration dataset.
787 In world model training for DRAW/ReDRAW and Dreamer, we apply new image augmentations to
788 each mini-batch after it is sampled from the experience buffer.



794 Figure 6: Comparison of image observations in simulation and the real world. **(Top)**: Augmented
795 images. **(Bottom)**: Original images.

800 D COMPARISON WITH PHYSICS DOMAIN RANDOMIZATION
801

802 We conduct an additional comparison in the Duckiebots domain in which we train DRAW and
803 DreamerV3 with dynamics domain randomization. After pretraining with Plan2Explore in simulation
804 with dynamics domain randomization for 1.4M timesteps, we zero-shot transfer to the target real
805 environments. To represent both the possible range of real robot speeds and the per-step variations
806 in speed present during real-world execution, we vary the simulator’s forward and yaw velocity
807 coefficients by a random value each timestep. A coefficient of 1.0 represents the default simulator
808 scaling for forward and yaw velocity. At the start of each episode, for each parameter, we sample a
809 mean scale μ_{episode}^i , $i \in \{\text{forward vel, yaw vel}\}$ from $\mathcal{N}(1, 0.1)$. Then, in each timestep, we sample
independent per-step parameter scales from $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{\text{episode}}^i, 0.01)$. Additionally, in every timestep, we

810
 811 Table 3: Mean and SEM performance on the real Duckiebots lane-following task aggregated over 5
 812 episodes each for 4 training seeds. Agents are given 300 steps (30 seconds) to complete a lap from a
 813 fixed starting position. *Center Offset* denotes distance from the lane center. Absence of a *Lap Time*
 814 indicates all runs either failing to complete a lap or terminating early by driving off the track. In the
 815 Duckiebots domain, physics Domain Randomization (DR) underperforms against other zero-shot and
 transfer-learning approaches.

| 816 817 818 819 820 Method | 821 Transfer Sim to Unmodified Real | | | 822 Transfer Sim to Actions-Reversed Real | | |
|---|--|--|---|---|--|---|
| | 823 Avg Dense Reward (\uparrow) | 824 Avg Lap Time (sec) (\downarrow) | 825 Avg Center Offset (\downarrow) | 826 Avg Dense Reward (\uparrow) | 827 Avg Lap Time (sec) (\downarrow) | 828 Avg Center Offset (\downarrow) |
| Dreamer Zeroshot | -1.18 \pm 0.23 | — | 6.86 \pm 0.56 | -2.35 \pm 0.23 | — | 13.36 \pm 1.13 |
| Dreamer DR | -0.19 \pm 0.14 | — | 5.04 \pm 1.56 | -1.53 \pm 0.47 | — | 5.46 \pm 1.64 |
| Dreamer Finetune | -0.87 \pm 0.33 | — | 5.45 \pm 1.55 | -1.61 \pm 0.57 | — | 7.75 \pm 1.53 |
| DRAW Zeroshot | 0.07 \pm 0.06 | 22.41 \pm 0.73 | 5.12 \pm 0.41 | -2.72 \pm 0.42 | — | 9.39 \pm 1.35 |
| DRAW DR | -0.32 \pm 0.12 | 23.75 \pm 1.56 | 8.26 \pm 1.38 | -2.81 \pm 0.33 | — | 7.15 \pm 1.81 |
| ReDRAW (Ours) | 0.38 \pm 0.02 | 22.75 \pm 0.26 | 2.47 \pm 0.26 | 0.39 \pm 0.03 | 24.21 \pm 1.15 | 2.10 \pm 0.39 |

829 uniformly sample the on-body position and tilt of the robot’s camera within a small range of values
 830 to simulate oscillations and shocks encountered while driving.

831 In Table 3, we compare the performance of DRAW and DreamerV3 Domain Randomization (DR)
 832 against other methods in the unmodified real and actions-reversed real environments. The unmodified
 833 real environment represents a scenario in which the dynamics randomization scheme is well-informed
 834 by potential simulator errors. In contrast, the actions-reversed real environment represents a scenario
 835 in which a critical disparity between simulation and reality was not anticipated or captured during
 836 randomized simulator training.

837 In the unmodified real environment, DRAW DR achieves low rewards by taking wide turns that cut
 838 corners and veer far from the lane center. Because driving off the track results in a large penalty,
 839 this behavior can be explained as taking conservative actions. The DRAW DR agent avoids taking
 840 otherwise optimal sharp and late turns, likely because this normally optimal behavior can have a
 841 dangerous outcome in the randomized simulation given unknown forward and yaw speed coefficients.

842 Dreamer DR fails in the unmodified real environment with agent behavior in most seeds staying still
 843 and occasionally rotating. Shown in Figure 9, Dreamer consistently exhibits instability w.r.t. M_{sim}
 844 returns when pretraining with randomized physics in the Duckiebots simulation environment. This
 845 behavior was repeatedly seen in preliminary experiments under various randomization conditions both
 846 with and without Plan2Explore. These observations suggest a possible limitation in DreamerV3’s
 847 capacity to learn highly stochastic dynamics, although more experimentation would be needed to
 848 fully confirm this.

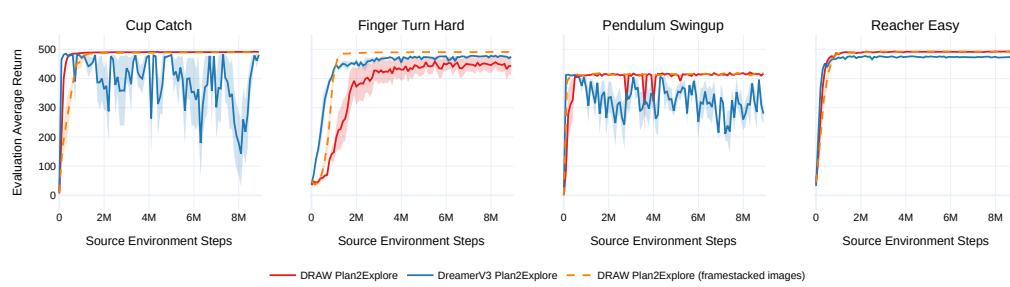
849 In the actions-reversed real environment, both DR methods fail to drive because the reversed actions
 850 represent an unexpected disparity between simulation and real that was not represented during
 851 training.

852 In both of these real environments, despite not having access to configurable simulator physics,
 853 ReDRAW is able to use a small amount of real transition data to calibrate its world model and drive
 854 with a near-optimal policy.

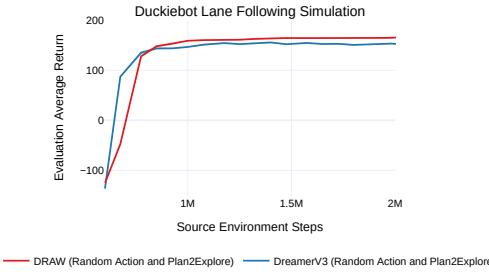
855 E LEARNING CURVES DURING PRETRAINING

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 857 Figure 7 and Figure 8 show training curves in the source environments in the DMC and Duckiebot
 858 domains, respectively. Both DRAW and DreamerV3 converge to similar performance in the source
 859 environments. In Appendix H, we also compare ReDRAW with framestacked image components to
 860 convey motion in lieu of joint-velocity vectors. The pretraining curves for DRAW with framestacking
 861 are similar to the default configuration.

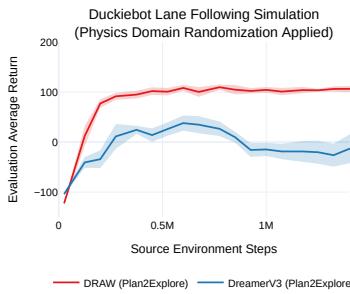
864 In Appendix D, we evaluate DRAW and Dreamer’s zero-shot performance on the real Duckiebots
 865 environment after training with physics domain randomization. Figure 9 shows pretraining perfor-
 866 mance on the simulated environment with episodic physics randomization applied. With physics
 867 domain randomization, DreamerV3’s source-environment returns decrease to a suboptimal level as
 868 training progresses.



880 Figure 7: Training curves during pretraining for DRAW and DreamerV3 across four environments
 881 from DMC. Plan2Explore is used for data collection during pretraining. The mean and standard error
 882 are shown over 4 seeds.



895 Figure 8: Training curves during pretraining for DRAW and DreamerV3 in the Duckiebot lane
 896 following simulation environment. Data collection is performed using random actions for the first
 897 0.6M steps, followed by Plan2Explore for 1.4M steps. Each episode starts from a valid random
 898 position. The mean and standard error are shown over 4 seeds.



911 Figure 9: Training curves during pretraining for DRAW and DreamerV3 in the Duckiebot lane
 912 following simulation environment with physics domain randomization applied.

F ARCHITECTURAL ABLATIONS

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 914 In this section, we examine how different choices for the inputs of the DRAW forward dynamics
 915 function f_θ and the ReDRAW residual function δ_ψ affect transfer performance.

918 F.1 FORWARD DYNAMICS INPUTS
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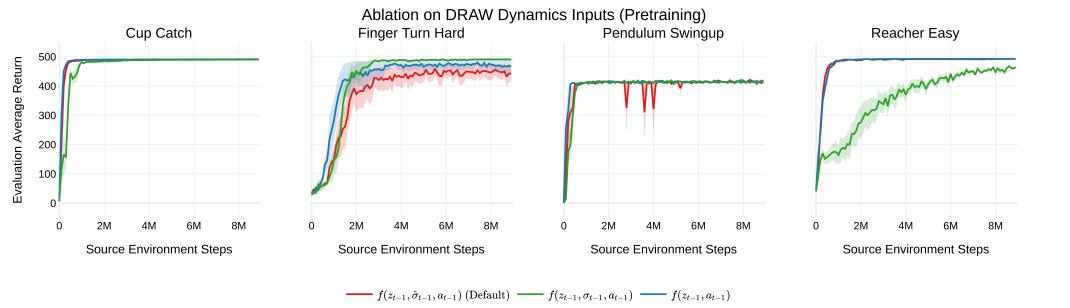
920 In the default DRAW architecture, f_θ is conditioned on the previous latent state z_{t-1} , the previous
921 action a_{t-1} , and the additional input of the previous latent-state dynamic distribution $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}$ (or $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}$
922 for ReDRAW). In DMC environments, we compare this choice of inputs against two alternatives: (1)
923 the minimal sufficient set (z_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) , and (2) conditioning on the encoder latent-state distribution
924 $\sigma_t = q_\theta(z_t | x_t)$. Figure 10a presents the performance of these different dynamics functions on
925 source environments during DRAW Plan2Explore pretraining, while Figure 10b shows their transfer
926 performance on target environments during offline ReDRAW adaptation.

927 During pretraining, most input choices yield similar source-task performance. However, during
928 adaptation, the default configuration, $f_\theta(z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$, consistently outperforms the alternatives,
929 achieving and maintaining higher performance in the target environments. We hypothesize that
930 because including $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}$ during world model pretraining facilitates gradient propagation over multiple
931 timesteps, this inclusion enables the learning of features that improve long-term predictions.

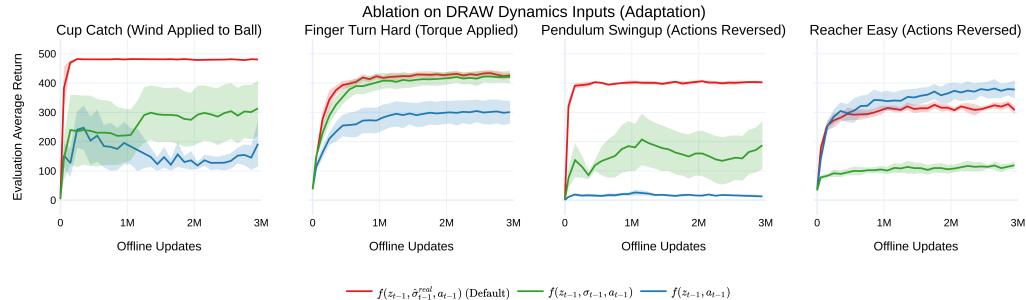
932 This advantage is achieved without increasing the residual’s complexity, which could have otherwise
933 negatively impacted transfer performance. During ReDRAW adaptation, $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}$ serves as an input to
934 $f_\theta(z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1})$. While conditioning on $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}$ increases the dimensionality of f_θ ’s input space, it
935 has minimal impact on the complexity of the residual prediction δ_ψ . Since $\hat{\sigma}_t^{real}$ is already an output
936 of the calibrated dynamics,
937

$$\hat{\sigma}_t^{real} = \text{softmax}(f_\theta(z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1}) + \delta_\psi(z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})),$$

940 it can be included as an input to f_θ without increasing the dimensionality of the input or output spaces
941 of δ_ψ . This helps maintain the residual function’s simplicity, reducing the risk of overfitting.



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945 (a) DMC source environment average return during DRAW pretraining with alternate dynamics function inputs.
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971 (b) DMC target environment average return during ReDRAW residual adaptation with alternate dynamics
972 function inputs.

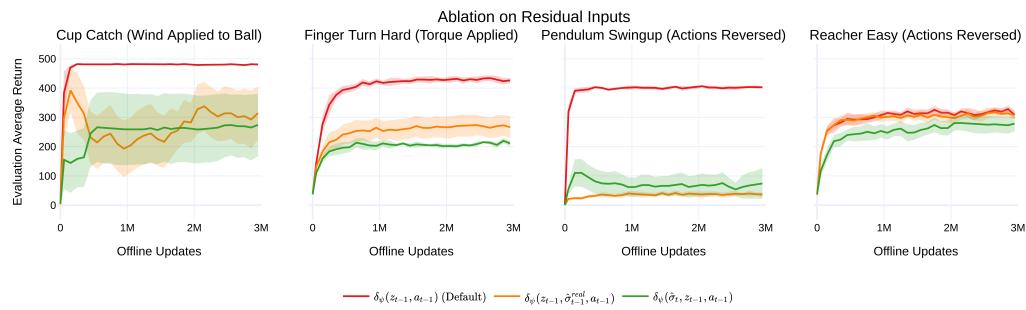
973 Figure 10: Comparison of different dynamics function architectures of DRAW during pretraining (a)
974 and adaptation (b).

972 F.2 RESIDUAL INPUTS
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974 Next, in Figure 11, we compare the target environment transfer performance of our default residual
975 function, $\delta_\psi(z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$, against two alternative input configurations. The first, $\delta_\psi(z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1})$,
976 conditions on the same inputs as f_θ , while the second, $\delta_\psi(\hat{\sigma}_t, z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$, additionally incorporates
977 the original source environment dynamics predictions made by the frozen forward belief,
978 $p_\theta(\hat{z}_t | z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1})$.

979 Although the additional inputs, $\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_t$, could theoretically provide useful information for the
980 residual prediction task, we observe that their inclusion leads to a decrease in target-environment
981 performance. We hypothesize that conditioning the residual function on an added real-valued vector,
982 alongside the discrete latent-state z_{t-1} , significantly expands the space of representable residual
983 functions. Given the limited dataset, this increased complexity likely impairs generalization to the
984 target domain.

985 This result underscores the importance of bottlenecking state information through the compressed
986 discrete representation z_t for effective low-data adaptation.
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989 Figure 11: Comparison of different residual inputs for ReDRAW.
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1001 G LATENT RESIDUAL VS NEW DYNAMICS FUNCTION
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1003 In this section, we compare the ReDRAW latent-state dynamics residual with an alternative adapta-
1004 tion method that also leverages frozen dynamics predictions learned from the source environment.
1005 Specifically, we contrast using a residual with learning a new replacement dynamics function, g_ψ ,
1006 which optionally conditions on the outputs of the original source environment dynamics f_θ . We
1007 evaluate three possible definitions for g_ψ :

1008 1. $\hat{\sigma}_t^{real} = g_\psi(z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$, where g_ψ conditions on the same inputs as the ReDRAW residual.
1009 2. $\hat{\sigma}_t^{real} = g_\psi(\hat{\sigma}_t, z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$, where g_ψ additionally conditions on the frozen DRAW predicted
1010 source dynamics distribution, $\hat{\sigma}_t = p_\theta(\hat{z}_t | z_{t-1}, \hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^{real}, a_{t-1})$.
1011 3. $\hat{\sigma}_t^{real} = g_\psi(\hat{z}_t, z_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$, where g_ψ additionally conditions on a discrete latent-state
1012 sample from the frozen DRAW source dynamics predictions, $\hat{z}_t \sim \text{MultiCategorical}(\hat{\sigma}_t)$
1013 as in (5).

1014 To train the replacement dynamics function on the offline M_{real} dataset, we employ a dynamics loss
1015 term equivalent to (20) used by ReDRAW:
1016

$$1017 \mathcal{L}_g(\psi) = \mathbb{E}_{q_{\bar{\theta}}(z_{1:T} | \zeta^{real})} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{D}[q_{\bar{\theta}}(z_t | x_t) || g_\psi(\hat{z}_t^{real} | \bullet)] \right] \quad (21)$$

1018 Figure 12 presents the average target environment return during adaptation for ReDRAW and
1019 all considered replacement dynamics functions. The results show that ReDRAW outperforms all
1020 variations of the replacement function baseline, including those that incorporate predictions from the
1021 frozen DRAW source dynamics function.
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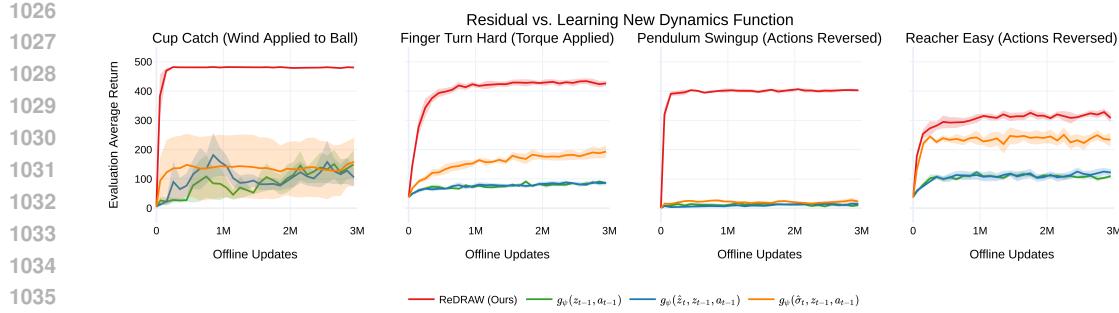


Figure 12: Comparison with a replacement dynamics function g_ψ with the same small capacity as the residual network.

From this experiment, we conclude that the residual operation, which modifies DRAW dynamics predictions without conditioning on them, is a key factor in achieving effective generalization to the target environment.

H DMC COMPARISON WITH FRAMESTACKING

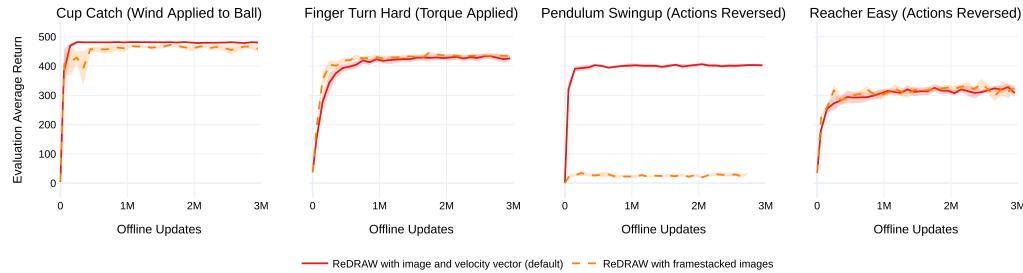


Figure 13: Framestacking images achieves similar transfer performance to a single image + a joint velocity vector in most but not all environments.

In DMC and Duckiebots environments, we ensure full observability by pairing the image state representation with a vector of joint velocities. So long as the time-delta between images remains consistent across source and target environments, framestacking should usually be a viable alternative to convey velocity information. In Figure 13, we compare ReDRAW transfer performance with the default state+velocity vector configuration against framestacking the previous and current image. In all DMC environments except Pendulum Swingup (Actions Reversed), ReDRAW achieves virtually the same performance with either input modality. Curiously, ReDRAW fails to transfer in the framestacked Pendulum Swingup (Actions Reversed) environment despite matching the default method’s performance when pretraining in the source environment (Figure 7). Possible causes for this could include Plan2Explore adopting different (and insufficient) source environment data collection strategies with a different state representation, inadequate image fidelity to capture precise velocity behavior with the small target environment dataset, or a more entangled latent-state representation due to decoding a higher-dimensional state. This experiment highlights potential directions for future improvements to ReDRAW.

I DMC EXPERIMENT DETAILS

The state spaces for the DMC environments in this work consist of an image of the robot paired with a vector of egocentric joint velocities. We use an action repeat of two, meaning that each episode consists of 500 decision steps, equivalent to 1000 environment steps. Additionally, to preserve state-based rewards, we do not sum rewards over the environment steps skipped due to action repeat.

1080
 1081 Below, we describe each pair of source and target environments used in our DMC experiments. The
 1082 source environment corresponds to the original DMC environment, while each target environment
 1083 has modified dynamics:
 1084

- 1084 • **Cup Catch**: The agent controls a cup to catch a ball tethered by a string. In the target
 1085 environment, a constant horizontal wind alters the ball’s trajectory, requiring the agent to
 1086 adapt by compensating for this external force.
- 1087 • **Finger Turn Hard**: The agent rotates a hinged spinner to a specified goal orientation. In
 1088 the target environment, an external torque continuously drives the spinner, forcing the agent
 1089 to counteract this disturbance to maintain control.
- 1090 • **Pendulum Swingup**: The agent swings a pendulum to an upright position. In the target
 1091 domain, action effects are reversed, requiring the agent to invert its control policy.
- 1092 • **Reacher Easy**: The agent maneuvers a two-link arm to reach a target position. As in
 1093 Pendulum Swingup, actions are inverted in the target environment, posing a challenge for
 1094 direct policy transfer.

1097 J HYPERPARAMETERS

1100 We implement DRAW and ReDRAW code as a modification to the official DreamerV3 implementa-
 1101 tion [12]. Except where otherwise stated, we use DreamerV3 default hyperparameters for all methods,
 1102 including a batch size of 16, batch length of 64, and learning rates of 1×10^{-4} for the world model
 1103 and 3×10^{-5} for the actor and critic. Additional parameters specific to our method or experiments
 1104 are listed below.

1105
 1106 Table 4: Modified or newly introduced hyperparameters used in experiments.

| | Hyperparameter | Value |
|--|---|-------------------------|
| 1109 1110 1111 1112 1113 1114 | pretraining replay buffer size | 1e7 |
| | online train ratio | 512 |
| | Encoder/Decoder CNN Depth | 32 |
| | Encoder/Decoder MLP hidden layers | 2 |
| | MLP hidden units | 512 |
| | image size | $64 \times 64 \times 3$ |
| 1115 1116 1117 1118 1119 1120 1121 1122 1123 1124 | K (number of categorical distributions) | 256 |
| | N (number of categorical classes) | 4 |
| | imagination horizon for actor-critic training | 40 |
| | β_{pred} | 1.0 |
| | β_{dyn} | 1.5 |
| | β_{rep} | 0.5 |
| | residual learning rate | 1e-2 |
| | forward dynamics MLP hidden layers | 1 |
| | residual MLP hidden layers | 1 |
| | residual MLP hidden units | 256 |

1126 K COMPUTE RESOURCES

1128 All experiments were performed on a server with 2x AMD EPYC 7763 64-core processors, 1TB
 1129 RAM, and 8x NVIDIA RTX A4500 GPUs each with 20GB of VRAM.
 1130

1131 Each individual experiment ran on a single GPU. With the exception of Duckiebots per-minibatch
 1132 image augmentation, which took 30-40 CPU cores, most experiments required less than 8 CPU cores.
 1133 Plan2Explore pretraining experiments typically ran for 3-6 days, using less than 100GB of RAM,
 and transfer-learning experiments typically ran for 1-3 days, using less than 30GB of RAM.

1134 **L LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL USAGE**
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1136 Large Language Models (LLMs) were used to provide sentence-level editing suggestions while
1137 writing this paper.
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