EMPIRICALLY VERIFYING HYPOTHESES USING REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

This paper formulates hypothesis verification as an RL problem. Specifically, we aim to build an agent that, given a hypothesis about the dynamics of the world, can take actions to generate observations which can help predict whether the hypothesis is true or false. Existing RL algorithms fail to solve this task, even for simple environments. We formally define this problem, and develop environments to test different algorithms' performance. We analyze methods which are given additional pre-training rewards and find that the most effective of these is one that exploits the underlying structure of many hypotheses, factorizing them as {*pre-condition*, *action sequence, post-condition*} triplets. By leveraging this structure we show that RL agents are able to succeed. Furthermore, subsequent fine-tuning of the policies allows the agent to correctly verify hypotheses not amenable to this factorization.

1 INTRODUCTION

Empirical research on early learning Gopnik (2012); Kushnir & Gopnik (2005) shows that infants build an understanding of the world by constantly formulating hypotheses about how some physical aspect of the world might work and then proving or disproving them through deliberate play. Through this process the child builds up a consistent causal understanding of the world. This contrasts with manner in which current ML systems operate. Both traditional i.i.d and interactive learning settings use a single user-specified objective function that codifies a high-level task, and the optimization routine finds the set of parameters (weights) which maximizes performance on the task. The learned representation (knowledge of how the world works) is embedded in the weights of the model - which makes it harder to inspect, hypothesize or even enforce domain constraints that might exist. On the other hand, hypothesis generation and testing is a process explored in classical approaches to AI Brachman & Levesque (2004). In this paper we take a modest step towards the classical AI problem of building agents capable of testing hypotheses about its world using modern ML approaches.

The problem we address is illustrated in Figure 1. Agents are placed in a world which has several interactive elements. They are provided with a hypothesis (an "action sentence" Pearl (2009)) about the underlying mechanics of the world via a text string (e.g. " \mathcal{A} will be true if we do \mathcal{B} "). The task is to determine if the hypothesis is true or not. This problem cannot be solved without *interaction* with a dynamic world (comparing the state before and after taking action \mathcal{B}).

A key novelty in our work is formulating the task in a manner that permits the application of modern RL methods, allowing raw state observations to be used rather than abstract Boolean expressions of events. To do this, we use a model composed of two different deep parametric functions which are learned through interaction: (i) a policy that generates observations relevant to verification of the hypothesis and (ii) a prediction function which uses the observations to predict whether it is true.

We first show that agents trained end-to-end using deep RL cannot learn policies that can generate observations to verify the hypothesis. To remedy this, we exploit the underlying structure of hypotheses – they can often be formulated as a triplet of a pre-condition (\mathcal{P}), an action sequence (collectively \mathcal{B}), and a post-condition (\mathcal{A}) that is causally related to the pre-condition and actions. Using this structure, we can seed our action policy to learn behaviors which alter the truth of the pre-condition and post-condition. This allows agents to learn policies that can generate meaningful observations for training the prediction function. We further demonstrate that these policies can be adapted to learn to verify more general hypotheses that do not necessarily fit into the triplet structure. Our experiments

Hypot	hesis:	"when	you ar	e at cra	ftingta	ble and	l you h	ave sti	ck and t	hen yo	u craft	then to	orch is	made"
		1		٩										
			ickup]											
		1				S	[craft]				¢.	[answ	er: tru	e]
			\checkmark					\checkmark					V	
	3					1					5			

Figure 1: Example "crafting" world. The agent verifies a hypothesis (provided a text). Acting according a learned policy, the agent manipulates the observation to one that allows a learned predictor to determine if the hypothesis is true. The learning of policy and predictor is aided by a pretraining phase, during which an intermediate reward signal is provided by utilizing hypotheses that factor into {pre-condition state, action sequence, post-condition state}.

show that this approach outperforms naive RL and several flavors of intrinsic motivation designed to encourage the agent to interact with the objects of interest.

RELATED WORK 2

Knowledge representation and reasoning (KRR) Brachman & Levesque (2004) is a central theme of traditional AI. Commonsense reasoning Davis (1990); Davis & Marcus (2015); Liu & Singh (2004) approaches, e.g. CYC Lenat (1995), codify everyday knowledge into a schema that permits inference and question answering. However, the underlying operations are logic-based and occur purely within the structured representation, having no mechanism for interaction with an external world. Expert systems Giarratano & Riley (1998) instead focus on narrow domains of knowledge, but are similarly self-contained. Logic-based planning methods Fikes & Nilsson (1971); Colaco & Sridharan (2015) generate abstract plans that could be regarded as action sequences for an agent. By contrast, our approach is statistical in nature, relying on Reinforcement Learning (RL) to guide the agent.

Our approach builds on the recent interest Mao et al. (2019); Garcez et al. (2012) in neural-symbolic approaches that combine neural networks with symbolic representations. In particular, some recent works Zhang & Stone (2015); Lu et al. (2018) have attempted to combine RL with KRR, for tasks such as navigation and dialogue. These take the world dynamics learned by RL and make them usable in declarative form within the knowledge base, which is then used to improve the underlying RL policy. In contrast, in our approach, the role of RL is to verify a formal statement about the world. Our work also shares some similarity with Konidaris et al. (2018), where ML methods are used to learn mappings from world states to representations a planner can use.

Causality and RL: There are now extensive and sophisticated formalizations of (statistical) causality Pearl (2009). These provide a framework for an agent to draw conclusions about its world, and verify hypothesis as in this work. This is the approach taken in Dasgupta et al. (2019), where RL is used to train an agent that operates directly on a causal Bayesian network (CBN) in order to predict the results of interventions on the values on its nodes. In contrast, the approach in this work is to sidestep this formalization with the hope of training agents who test hypotheses without building explicit CBNs. Unlike Dasgupta et al. (2019), our agents intervene on the actual world (where interventions may take many actions), rather than the abstract CBN. Nevertheless, we find that it is necessary to add inductive bias to the training of the agent; here we use the pretraining on $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{A})$ triplets. These approaches are complementary; one could combine explicit generation and analysis of CBNs as an abstract representation of an environment with our training protocols.

Our work is thus most similar to Denil et al. (2016), which uses RL directly on the world, and the agent gets reward for answering questions that require experimentation. However, in that work (and in Dasgupta et al. (2019)), the "question" in each world is the same; and thus while learning to interact led to higher answer accuracy, random experimental policies could still find correct answers. On the other hand, in this work, the space of questions possible for any given world is combinatorial, and random experimentation (and indeed vanilla RL) is insufficient to answer questions.

Cognitive development: Empirical research on early learning Gopnik (2012); Kushnir & Gopnik (2005) shows infants build an understanding of the world in ways that parallel the scientific process: constantly formulating hypotheses about how some physical aspect of the world might work and then proving or disproving them through deliberate play. Through this process the child builds up an abstract consistent causal understanding of the world. Violations of this understanding elicit measurable surprise Spelke et al. (1992).

Automated Knowledge Base completion: This work is also related to knowledge base completion Fader et al. (2011); Bordes et al. (2013); Suchanek et al. (2007), especially as formulated in Riedel et al. (2013). Instead of using facts in the knowledge base or a text corpus to predict edges, here the agent acts in a world and observes the results of its actions. This recalls Mitchell et al. (2018), where the system verifies facts it had hypothesized by searching for corroboration in the corpus.

Automation of the scientific process: has been tried in several domains. Robotic exploration of chemical reactivity was demonstrated Granda et al. (2018) using ML techniques. King et al. (2009) developed a robot scientist that explored geonomics hypotheses about yeast and experimentally tested them using laboratory automation. In biochemistry Vanlier et al. (2014) used Bayesian methods for optimal experiment design. More generally, the Automated Statistician project Steinruecken et al. (2019) uses a Bayesian approach to reason about different hypotheses for explaining the data, with the aim of creating interpretable knowledge.

Embodied Question and Answering: The problem studied in this paper is closely related to the embodied visual question-answering problem in Das et al. (2018). Indeed, our basic formulation is a particular case of the most general formulation of embodied QA, as the agent is rewarded for successfully answering questions about the world that require interaction. However, the form of the questions is different than those considered in that work, as they may require drawing a conclusion about the *dynamics* of the world, rather than a static property. Even the questions about static properties we are interested in have a different flavor, as they encode rules, rather than statements about the current configuration. Our approach is built around hypothesis-conclusion structure special to these questions. There is also a large body of work on visual QA Kafle & Kanan (2017); Wu et al. (2016a) and text-based QA Rajpurkar et al. (2018). From this, most relevant to our work is Wu et al. (2016b) who use a structured knowledge base to augment standard QA techniques.

3 THE HYPOTHESIS VERIFICATION PROBLEM

An agent is spawned in a world sampled from a distribution over possible worlds. In the case of "Crafting", shown in Figure 1, there are items lying around that the agent can pick up and combine using a "craft" action. The exact dynamics change for every newly instantiated world; so in one world, taking a craft action with a stick might produce a torch, and in another, it might produce a pickaxe. At the start of each episode, the agent is given a hypothesis about the world, such as the one shown at the top of Figure 1. The agent gets a reward when it correctly answers if that hypothesis is true or false. Because the dynamics and rules change each episode, the agent must learn to interact with the world in order to decide if the hypothesis is true. In Figure 1 the agent picks up the stick and does a craft action to see that a torch is created. It then has enough information to decide the hypothesis is true, and the agent receives reward for verifying the hypothesis correctly.

In this work, we will structure our hypotheses using templated language. One could imagine using more expansive formal symbolic systems (e.g. first order logic), or alternatively, using natural language descriptions of the hypotheses. The former might allow interfacing with symbolic solvers or otherwise using combinatorial approaches; whereas the latter would allow scaling annotation to untrained humans. We choose templated language because it is simple, and sufficient for the environments on which we test, which are already challenging for standard RL. Moreover, in our view it is a good starting point for further work that would use either more sophisticated formal representations or more natural language representations.

Formal Definition We define a world as a set of states and actions with Markovian dynamics (an MDP without reward). We define an environment \mathcal{E} as a distribution over a set of worlds \mathcal{W} and hypotheses \mathcal{H} . A world $W \in \mathcal{W}$ is specified by rules L_W describing the dynamics of the world. We define this reward-less MDP of one specific world W as $MDP_W = \{S_W, A_W, T_W\}$ where state space S_W includes the position and state of objects in the world (e.g. the placement of the agents and the object), A_W is the action space, and T_W is the transition function. Note that T_W depends on L_W , the rules of this specific world. Actions have different consequences depending on L_W .

Now \mathcal{E} is an episodic POMDP where each episode consists of sampling¹ a W and h. (G is a ground-truth function that takes in the hypothesis h and world W and outputs {true, false}. In this work, hypotheses are generated via templated language and their truth function G depends on W, more specifically L_W . The episode ends when the agent executes either the true or false action.

¹See Appendix B for details on sampling procedures

Given a world W and hypothesis h, an agent gets reward:

$$R_{Hyp} = \begin{cases} +1 & a = G(h, W) \\ -1 & a = \neg G(h, W) \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

The observation in this POMDP is $o = (s_W, h)$, the state from the world W plus the hypothesis. The state is $s = (s_W, h, L_W)$. This includes the rule L_W which is not visible in the observation. The action space is just $A_W \cup \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$ for any W (they are the same for a given environment); and $T = T_W$. Note that the transition function T depends on the (hidden) L_W . The goal of hypothesis verification is now to discover the truth of h, which depends on L_W .

4 Methods

RL baseline Given the formulation of the hypothesis verification problem as a POMDP, we could try to solve it using an RL agent with $a = \pi(O_t, h)$, where $O_t = \{o_t, o_{t-1}, \dots, o_{t-K}\}$. Here *o* is an observation of the current world, *K* is a history window size, and *h* is the hypothesis for the current world. We found that standard RL agents struggle to solve this problem.

To make the problem easier to solve, we can augment the reward with direct supervision of a prediction network $f(O_t, h)$ which takes in the last K observed observations and the hypothesis and predicts whether or not the hypothesis is true. The policy network now, instead of taking true or false actions, takes a special stop action which is replaced by true or false based on the prediction of f.

Even with the augmented supervision, as shown in Fig. 4, an RL baseline is not able to solve the task. In order determine whether a hypothesis is true, the agent needs to take the correct sequence of actions related to the hypothesis. But in order to know that a particular sequence of actions was the right one, it needs to be able to correctly predict the hypothesis. Guessing with no information gives a zero average reward, and despite the supervision on the output of the predictor, the predictor does not see state transitions that allow it to learn.

Motivation to interact the world Given that naive RL and supervised learning is not up to our task, how can we encourage policies to explore the world? The first thing we might think of would be to initially reward agents for "exploring" the world. This can be done by encouraging the agent to explore the world to minimize prediction error Pathak et al. (2017). We more directly incentivize this kind of exploration by encouraging our agents to interact with the elements of the world we know are related to our hypotheses. We test four variants of an "intrinsic" reward to see if other pretraining schemes might perform equally well. We show results on the gridworld domains using 4 different intrinsic forms of pretraining: (i) change any item state in the world; receive reward at end of episode. (ii) change any item referenced in the hypothesis; receive reward at end of episode. (iii) change any item state in the world; receive reward instantaneously. (iv) change any item referenced in the hypothesis; receive raw object that is not the agent (including crafting items, switches, pushblocks, etc.). See Appendix H for additional details.

Note our baselines more directly reward the agents for exploring the specific subject of the hypotheses compared to Pathak et al. (2017). Despite this, these methods still have relatively poor performance on our problem (see Section 6). Is there a way we can more directly train our policies to explore the cause and effect relationship of our hypotheses?

Pretraining using Triplet Hypotheses In light of the difficulties directly training an RL model using terminal reward and hypothesis prediction supervision, we take advantage of the fact that many causal statements about the world have the form: (*pre-condition, action sequence*) \implies *post-condition*

We define this formally in Appendix B.2, but informally this means that when the state meets a "precondition" and an "action sequence" is taken, this will result in the state meeting a "post-condition." In Figure 1 the pre-condition is having a stick and being at craftingtable, the action sequence is craft, and the post-condition is that a torch is made.

This structure can be converted into a reward function that can be used to pretrain the agent policy π . The idea is to reward the agent for taking actions which alter the truth of the pre-condition and post-condition (i.e. changing the world state so that pre/post-conditions are met or not). If it matches the pre-condition state and takes the action, if the statement is true, the post-condition should toggle from false to true in the world. Similarly, if post-condition changes but the pre-condition did not



Figure 2: Examples of the four environments used in our experiments: ColorSwitch, Pushblock, Crafting and Cartpole.

change, the statement must be false. This can be formalized in the following reward function to encourage the agent to toggle pre-condition and post-condition states:

$$R_{\rm pre} = \begin{cases} +C & a = \operatorname{stop} \& \\ & \text{pre-condition changed in last } K \text{ steps} \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$
$$R_{\rm pre+post} = \begin{cases} +C & a = \operatorname{stop} \& \text{ post+pre-condition} \\ & \text{changed in last } K \text{ steps} \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

This encourages the policy π to change the pre-condition and post-conditions (via pre-condition) in the last K steps, so that a predictor looking at the last K observations will be able to deduce the truth value of the hypothesis. More generally, training with this reward function forces the policy network to ground text concepts (e.g. the text "stick" means [object_stick]) and also captures the causal rules within the world. Consequently, following pretraining, the policy network can then be fine-tuned using the original reward function R_{Hyp} . Since the policy network is no longer random, a robust prediction network f can also be learned. While not all hypotheses fit into the triplet format, we show in the experiments that the knowledge captured by the policy and prediction networks during this phase of training can generalize to less structured hypotheses. We have a set of hypotheses for each world that contains only these triplet-structured hypotheses. We use this set for pretraining.

Training using Triplet hypothesis After pretraining the policy π , we further train π , as well as the prediction network f using the same set of triplet hypotheses, but now using R_{Hyp} instead of R_{pre} or $R_{pre+post}$. Two variants are explored: (i) "fixed" – keep π fixed but train the prediction network f and (ii) "finetune" – finetune π and train f. Performance in this phase is used to select promising models for subsequent stages of training. Specifically, runs achieving <90% accuracy (see the appendix for alternate cutoff) are eliminated.

Adaptation to non-triplet hypotheses Next, we want to show that we can adapt these networks to hypotheses other than those that fall neatly into the triplet structure. To adapt to the larger set of hypotheses, we start with the networks trained previously on triplet templates. During this training stage, the triplet-form constraint is relaxed and training proceeds with both triplet and non-triplet hypotheses (see Sec. 5), using an even split between the two types.

5 EVALUATION ENVIRONMENTS

In this section we describe our environments. The environments \mathcal{E} are designed so that the prior probability p(h = true) = 0.5 and the initial observation o_0 does not contain information about h.

Environments We created four different environments for hypothesis verification. ColorSwitch, Pushblock and Crafting are all gridworld-based environments. A fourth environment is created by adapting the standard Cartpole task to include interactive elements. See Fig. 2.

ColorSwitch: The agent is placed in a world with one or more color switches (randomly on or off) and a door (open or closed). The agent can move and toggle the switch positions. One switches, when in the correct position (on/off) will cause the door to open. The other switches have no effect. Hypotheses relate to the color and position of switches and how that opens or closes the door.

Pushblock: The agent is placed in a world with a block which can be pushed by the agent, and a door. The agent can push on the block. The door opens when the block is in a particular part of the

grid: "up" – top two rows, "down" – bottom two rows, "left" – leftmost two rows, "right" – rightmost two rows. The hypotheses relate to the position of the pushblock and how that affects the door.

Crafting: The agent is placed in a world with crafting rules similar to that of the popular Minecraft game. The agent is spawned along with a number of crafting items, and a crafting location. The agent is able to move, pick up items into its inventory and use the crafting location using special crafting actions. There is some true "recipe" which produces some new item in the agent's inventory.

Cartpole: This is the standard cartpole problem where a pole is attached by an un-actuated joint to a cart. The actions are "left" and "right" and if the pole falls, the episode ends. In our modification, there are "zones" (an interval on the x axis) where the physical laws change by either changing the gravity constant, or applying a "wind force" blowing the cart in one direction. Like in ColorSwitch, the zones are specified by color. Typically one color zone has an effect and the other is a decoy zone that has no effect. The hypotheses relate to which zones correspond to changes to the physics.

In the grid world environments, items are randomly generated in a 5 by 5 grid. The world observation is given by a 1-hot vector for each grid location and inventory. The hypothesis is encoded as sequence of tokens. In Cartpole the state is the standard dynamics as well as a 1-hot vector specifying the location and color of the zones.

Hypothesis Construction We now describe how the hypotheses for each world in each environment are automatically generated via templates. Three different varieties are considered: (i) triplet hypotheses, (ii) general templates and (iii) special case templates. (See Appendix B.3 for all of the possible templates for an environment and further details).

Triplet hypotheses: Here hypotheses take the form of an logical statement: (pre-condition, action sequence) \implies post-condition. When the pre-condition is true, and the action sequence is performed, the post-condition becomes true. To generate triplet hypotheses, we: (i) randomly select a pre-condition template from a set list; (ii) randomly select an action template; (iii) randomly select a post-condition template; and (iv) fill in any entities. In our example from Fig. 1 this would be ("when you are at crafting table and you have stick"; "and then you craft"; "then torch is made").

General templates: Instead of drawing a template from the triplet form, a single template for the hypothesis is drawn and the values populated. For instance, in Pushblock, a template might be "the door can only be opened when the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION" and then "left" would be drawn for PUSHBLOCK_POSITION. These templates are more general than the triplet ones in that they have no explicit (pre-condition, action sequence and post-condition) structure.

Special cases: We also use more difficult and general hypothesis templates. These cannot be neatly fit into a triplet format by rewording, and may not fully describe the rules of the world. Some examples of these harder templates are: (i) Negating effects (e.g. "door is not open"); (ii) Negating conditions (e.g. "switch is not on"); and independence (e.g. "door independent of blue switch").

6 EXPERIMENTS

Figure 3 shows results from learning with pretraining rewards $R_{pre+post}$ and R_{post} . There is relatively little variance, with all runs achieving near the theoretical maximal rewards² For Crafting and Cartpole, $R_{pre+post}$ is not always achievable if true and distractor items are far away from each other. See Appendix G.1 for further discussion.³

In Figure 4, we show the results on non-triplet adaptation (Sec. 3). As discussed in Section 5, this stage includes the more difficult, non-triplet templates not seen during pretraining or during triplet hypothesis training. We also break down the final hypothesis prediction accuracy for the triplet methods in Table 1. This allows us to see whether triplet methods were able to adapt to non-triplet hypotheses. All network architectures for the policy and prediction networks, as well as hyper-parameters are the same for all methods.

RL baseline Figure 4 shows the RL baseline at chance-level performance, the only exception being CartPole were it achieves $\sim 60\%$, versus the $\sim 90\%$ of triplet methods. Note that this is the RL

²For Pushblock, sometimes the block can be stuck against a wall, so not all worlds are solvable

³For gridworld environments we show variance runs on 25 seeds and 5 for Cartpole. We provide further hyperparameters, and training details in Appendix C and D and network architecture and details in Appendix D

baseline *with* the supervised predictor, as discussed in Section 3. This poor performance is a result of training both policy and predictor from scratch; see Figure 6.



Figure 3: Pretraining reward $(R_{pre} + R_{pre+post})$ on our four environments.



Figure 4: Hypothesis prediction accuracy on *both* triplet *and* non-triplet hypotheses (1-1 ratio) for the ColorSwitch, Pushblock, Crafting and Cartpole environments, using R_{Hyp} reward for training.

Other baselines We also include two other simple baselines "no act" and "random act." The "no act" baseline simply takes the stop action at t = 0, forcing the prediction network to give an answer from just the first observation. This fails because the agent needs to take actions in the world to be able to predict the hypothesis accurately. This also confirms that we do not accidentally leak the ground truth of h into the initial observation. For "random act", a random policy is used (i.e. uniform across actions). This fails as random actions are extremely unlikely to verify the hypothesis.

Discussion From these results, we can clearly see that naive RL and other baselines cannot efficiently solve hypothesis verification tasks. When we use triplet pretraining we use the insight that hypotheses often have a clear causal structure that can be exploited when they are formed as "triplet hypotheses." Not all hypotheses fall neatly into this form, and we may not have this form for all hypotheses. But if we have some that fit this form, we can gain a foothold that lets us make progress on this problem, and then later adapt them to other hypotheses. From Figure 4 we can see that this pretraining, triplet training and adaptation works. We also show in Section 6 that other plausible pretraining rewards fail to achieve the same results as our method.

Looking at the different environments, we see that in Pushblock and ColorSwitch, even with the policy learned from the triplet pre/post reward, the agent is able to generalize and perform well on hypotheses not seen in the pretraining phase as we can see in Table 1. Because the finetuning step adds additional variance to training, there is a small, but non-trivial drop in average performance. This drop is less extreme when comparing max values (see Appendix G.3).

Table 1: Average Hypothesis Prediction scores, broken down by triplet (pretrained) and non-triplet (not seen in pretraining)

	Method	Overall	Triplet Accuracy	Non-triplet Accuracy
ColorSwitch	Fixed Policy	86.6%	91.1%	82.1%
ColorSwitch	Finetuned Policy	77.5%	79.7%	75.4%
Duchblook	Fixed Policy	86.9%	87.9%	85.9%
FUSIDIOCK	Finetuned Policy	85.6%	86.3%	84.8%
Crafting	Fixed Policy	77.3%	92.8%	61.8%
Cratting	Finetuned Policy	90.7%	98.4%	83.0%
Controlo	Fixed Policy	84.2%	92.0%	76.3%
Cartpole	Finetuned Policy	92.5%	93.4%	91.6%

In Crafting and Cartpole on the other hand, to do well on the unseen templates, the policy also needs to be fine-tuned. This tells us that when we do have to generalize to unseen hypotheses (especially non-triplet hypotheses), adapting the policy as well as the prediction network is necessary. Recall



Figure 5: Hypothesis accuracies with intrinsic pretraining versus triplet pretraining (purple).

that we test very different hypotheses such as as negations and "independence" hypotheses not see in triplets (see suplementary). We see from Table 1 that indeed, finetuned policies greatly outperform the fixed policies on the non-triplet templates.

We further break down these results by specific templates, entities mentioned (e.g. colors) and whether the given template was true or false. We find for instance that for most environments it is harder to determine a hypothesis is false than true. See Appendix F for the full analysis.

Alternate forms of pretraining

In Figure 5 we show the accuracies on the final hypothesis verification task for both triplet and non-triplet hypotheses, using the four intrinsic pretraining methods discussed in Setion 3. We also plot the final average accuracy obtained by triplet methods from Figure 4. For the intrinsic pretrained policies the best run is shown to show the best-possible case of the alternative methods. For Crafting the dense intrinsic pretraining works about as well as triplet pretraining. This can be explained by the fact that this particular form intrinsic pretraining directly rewards the agent for doing many of the operations in the actual Crafting task, i.e. picking up objects and crafting objects. However, averaging across the three environments, all the intrinsic pretraining methods do worse.

Oracle ablations We also show two oracle analysis in the Crafting environment. In the first, we provide an "oracle" hypothesis predictor which will output the ground truth of the hypothesis if it is inferable from the last K frames, and test whether we can learn a policy directly using reward R_{Hyp} . Similarly, we also train a hypothesis prediction network with observations from an oracle policy network (observations from which the ground truth of the hypothesis is always inferable).



Figure 6: (Left) Results on training an RL using R_{Hyp} with oracle predictor on the Crafting environment. (Right) Results training just hypothesis prediction on oracle policy.

Figure 6 (left) shows the prediction oracle agent quickly converging. From this we surmise that if we can predict the hypothesis already, learning an optimal policy is relatively straightforward. Similarly, (right) show that with the correct observations from an oracle policy, the hypothesis predictor is able to quickly converge as well. This shows the joint nature of the problem (i.e. learning both policy and predictor) is what makes it challenging for the RL baseline.

7 DISCUSSION

In this work, we propose a tractable formulation of the problem of training agents that can interact with a world to test hypotheses. We show that generic RL techniques struggle with the problem, but we show that methods exploiting the structure of hypotheses are able to successfully complete the problem. We hope that our formulation and analysis serve as a starting point for researchers to explore the problem of hypotheses verification and further on how we can build towards agents that can ask and answer questions about the world.

REFERENCES

- A. Bordes, N. Usunier, A. Garca-Durn, J. Weston, and O. Yakhnenko. Irreflexive and hierarchical relations as translations. arXiv 1304.7158, 2013.
- Ronald J. Brachman and Hector J. Levesque. *Knowledge Representation and Reasoning*. Morgan Kaufmann Series in Artificial Intelligence, 2004.
- Devendra Singh Chaplot, Kanthashree Mysore Sathyendra, Rama Kumar Pasumarthi, Dheeraj Rajagopal, and Ruslan Salakhutdinov. Gated-attention architectures for task-oriented language grounding. In *Thirty-Second AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2018.
- Jinyoung Choi, Beom-Jin Lee, and Byoung-Tak Zhang. Multi-focus attention network for efficient deep reinforcement learning. In *Workshops at the Thirty-First AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2017.
- Zenon Colaco and Mohan Sridharan. Mixed logical and probabilistic reasoning for planning and explanation generation in robotics. *arXiv* 1508.00059, 2015.
- Abhishek Das, Samyak Datta, Georgia Gkioxari, Stefan Lee, Devi Parikh, and Dhruv Batra. Embodied question answering. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops, pp. 2054–2063, 2018.
- Ishita Dasgupta, Jane Wang, Silvia Chiappa, Jovana Mitrovic, Pedro Ortega, David Raposo, Edward Hughes, Peter Battaglia, Matthew Botvinick, and Zeb Kurth-Nelson. Causal reasoning from meta-reinforcement learning. arXiv preprint arXiv:1901.08162, 2019.
- Ernest Davis. *Representations of Commonsense Knowledge*. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc., 1990. ISBN 1-55860-033-7.
- Ernest Davis and Gary Marcus. Commonsense reasoning and commonsense knowledge in artificial intelligence. *Commun. ACM*, 58(9):92–103, August 2015.
- Misha Denil, Pulkit Agrawal, Tejas D Kulkarni, Tom Erez, Peter Battaglia, and Nando de Freitas. Learning to perform physics experiments via deep reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1611.01843*, 2016.
- A. Fader, S. Soderland, and O. Etzioni. Identifying relations for open information extraction. In *EMNLP*, 2011.
- Richard E Fikes and Nils J Nilsson. Strips: A new approach to the application of theorem proving to problem solving. *Artificial intelligence*, 2(3-4):189–208, 1971.
- Artur S d'Avila Garcez, Krysia B Broda, and Dov M Gabbay. *Neural-symbolic learning systems: foundations and applications*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.
- Joseph C Giarratano and Gary Riley. Expert systems. PWS publishing co., 1998.
- A. Gopnik. Scientific thinking in young children. theoretical advances, empirical research and policy implications. *Science*, 28(337):1623–1627, Sept 2012.
- Jarosław M Granda, Liva Donina, Vincenza Dragone, De-Liang Long, and Leroy Cronin. Controlling an organic synthesis robot with machine learning to search for new reactivity. *Nature*, 559(7714): 377, 2018.
- Kushal Kafle and Christopher Kanan. Visual question answering: Datasets, algorithms, and future challenges. *Computer Vision and Image Understanding*, 163:3–20, 2017.
- Ross D King, Jem Rowland, Stephen G Oliver, Michael Young, Wayne Aubrey, Emma Byrne, Maria Liakata, Magdalena Markham, Pinar Pir, Larisa N Soldatova, et al. The automation of science. *Science*, 324(5923):85–89, 2009.
- Diederik P Kingma and Jimmy Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6980*, 2014.

- George Konidaris, Leslie Pack Kaelbling, and Tomas Lozano-Perez. From skills to symbols: Learning symbolic representations for abstract high-level planning. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 61:215–289, 2018.
- Ilya Kostrikov. Pytorch implementations of reinforcement learning algorithms. https://github.com/ikostrikov/pytorch-a2c-ppo-acktr, 2018.
- Tamar Kushnir and Alison Gopnik. Young children infer causal strength from probabilities and interventions. *Psychological Science*, 16(9):678–683, 2005.
- Douglas B. Lenat. Cyc: A large-scale investment in knowledge infrastructure. *Commun. ACM*, 38 (11):33–38, November 1995.
- Hugo Liu and Push Singh. Conceptnet—a practical commonsense reasoning tool-kit. *BT technology journal*, 22(4):211–226, 2004.
- K. Lu, S. Zhang, P. Stone, and X. Chen. Robot representation and reasoning with knowledge from reinforcement learning. *arXiv* 1809.11074, 2018.
- Anthony Manchin, Ehsan Abbasnejad, and Anton van den Hengel. Reinforcement learning with attention that works: A self-supervised approach. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.03367*, 2019.
- Jiayuan Mao, Chuang Gan, Pushmeet Kohli, Joshua B. Tenenbaum, and Jiajun Wu. The neurosymbolic concept learner: Interpreting scenes, words, and sentences from natural supervision. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2019. URL https://openreview. net/forum?id=rJgMlhRctm.
- T. Mitchell, W. Cohen, E. Hruschka, P. Talukdar, B. Yang, J. Betteridge, A. Carlson, B. Dalvi, M. Gardner, B. Kisiel, J. Krishnamurthy, N. Lao, K. Mazaitis, T. Mohamed, N. Nakashole, E. Platanios, A. Ritter, M. Samadi, B. Settles, R. Wang, D. Wijaya, A. Gupta, X. Chen, A. Saparov, M. Greaves, and J. Welling. Never-ending learning. *Commun. ACM*, 61(5):103–115, April 2018. ISSN 0001-0782. doi: 10.1145/3191513. URL http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/3191513.
- Deepak Pathak, Pulkit Agrawal, Alexei A Efros, and Trevor Darrell. Curiosity-driven exploration by self-supervised prediction. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops*, pp. 16–17, 2017.
- Judea Pearl. *Causality: models, reasoning and inference*. Cambridge University Press, 2 edition, 2009.
- Pranav Rajpurkar, Robin Jia, and Percy Liang. Know what you don't know: Unanswerable questions for squad. *CoRR*, abs/1806.03822, 2018.
- Sebastian Riedel, Limin Yao, Andrew McCallum, and Benjamin M Marlin. Relation extraction with matrix factorization and universal schemas. In *Proceedings of the 2013 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 74–84, 2013.
- Alexander Rush. The annotated transformer. In *Proceedings of Workshop for NLP Open Source* Software (NLP-OSS), pp. 52–60, 2018.
- John Schulman, Filip Wolski, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alec Radford, and Oleg Klimov. Proximal policy optimization algorithms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.06347*, 2017.
- Elizabeth S Spelke, Karen Breinlinger, Janet Macomber, and Kristen Jacobson. Origins of knowledge. *Psychological review*, 99(4):605, 1992.
- C. Steinruecken, E. Smith, D. Janz, J. Lloyd, and Z. Ghahramani. *Automated Machine Learning*. Springer Series on Challenges in Machine Learning, 2019.
- F. Suchanek, G. Kasneci, and G. Weikum. Yago: a core of semantic knowledge. In *Proceedings of the 16th international conference on World Wide Web*, 2007.

- Joep Vanlier, Christian A Tiemann, Peter AJ Hilbers, and Natal AW van Riel. Optimal experiment design for model selection in biochemical networks. *BMC systems biology*, 8(1):20, 2014.
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pp. 5998–6008, 2017.
- Qi Wu, Damien Teney, Peng Wang, Chunhua Shen, Anthony R. Dick, and Anton van den Hengel. Visual question answering: A survey of methods and datasets. *arXiv 1607.05910*, 2016a.
- Qi Wu, Peng Wang, Chunhua Shen, Anthony Dick, and Anton van den Hengel. Ask me anything: Free-form visual question answering based on knowledge from external sources. In *The IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, June 2016b.
- Shiqi Zhang and Peter Stone. Corpp: Commonsense reasoning and probabilistic planning as applied to dialog with a mobile robot. In AAAI, 2015.

A APPENDICES

Our Appendices include additional experiments, further details on environments and methods, standard hyper-parameters and an exhaustive list of the hypothis templates used in this work.

In Appendix B, in B.1 we further detail how we randomly construct environment rules and hypotheses. In B.2 we provide a fuller definition of our notion of "triplets". And in B.3 we exhaustively list our templates and named entities.

In Appendix C we provide additional training details including training hyperparameters.

In Appendix D we provide details and diagrams of our neural networks, a brief ablation analysis, and network hyperparameters.

In Appendix E we show results of the triplet pretraining methods on held-out test hypotheses.

In AppendixF we show the performance of the triplet methods on different crosstabs of the hypotheses and rules, including results on each individual hypothesis.

In Appendix G we provide additional details of the triplet pretrain methods and justification of some parameter choices and results.

Finally, in Appendix we describe the intrinsic pretraining method in a bit more detail and show training curves for the pre-training objectives

B TEMPLATES

B.1 WORLD AND HYPOTHESIS CONSTRUCTION

Returning again to our notation from the main paper, the environment at each spawn needs to construct a world W, and a hypothesis h that is either true or false in the world. W in particular describes the rules about how the environment works (i.e. which switch opens the door) which in our case can precisely be describe by a hypothesis. So given a true hypothesis, we can exactly describe the rules of the world. Therefore, in order to create an instance of a possible W, we can instead draw a true hypothesis about the world at random. From the hypothesis, we can then construct the rules the determine how objects in the world behave. Note that there are couple exceptions to this for our harder hypotheses, where the hypothesis can be true but only partially describes all the rules of W. For these cases, we draw yet another template which is consistent with the hypothesis and use that to construct the rules, such as deciding which color switch really opens the door.

Because we have to randomly give either a true or false hypothesis, we also need to be able to generate a false hypothesis for the world. So for every instance, we also draw a random false hypothesis. Now, given a true and false hypothesis, we can fully generate the world and all the items that appear in either statement. So for instance, if the true hypothesis mentions a green switch and the false one mentions a blue switch, we generate both a green and blue switch. Then, we can set the rules such that the right thing happens. So in this example, switching the green switch opens the door and the blue switch does nothing.

The final step is then to randomly choose either the true or false statement as the "visible" hypothesis which is passed to our agent to verify. Because we generate the world and spawn the items before we make this choice, we ensure that we do not accidentally give away the truth of the hypothesis based on what items spawned.

Our process for generating a new spawn of environment can thus be summarized as follows:

- 1. We randomly generate a true hypothesis
- 2. We randomly generate a false hypothesis
- 3. We construct a ruleset from the true hypothesis
- 4. We spawn the agent and the items in the world described in both the true and false hypothesis
- 5. We randomly choose either the true or false hypothesis as the "visible" hypothesis that the agent must verify

B.2 TRIPLET DEFINITIONS

Here we further define our terms "pre-condition" "action sequence" and "post-condition."

Consider a state s (here we ignore the state/observation distinction for clarity of explanation, this would be an observation in our POMDP). We can consider a pre-condition or post-condition to be a boolean function of the state s. Given a state s, we can say whether a particular pre-condition or post-condition is true or false. For example, the condition "the door is open" is a function of the state s, which we can write as $f_{thedoorisopen}(s)$ which is true when the door is open, and false when it is not. Action sequences are also boolean functions, but over a sequence of states and actions. So for instance, "the agent moves to the craftingtable" can be written as $f_{theagentmovestothecraftingtable}(s_1, s_2, ..., a_1, a_2, ...)$ for some sequence of states and actions, which is true when the agent starts not at the craftingtable and takes actions that move it to the craftingtable.

Now we can connect these three functions or conditions to causality. In this construction, what we are doing is hypothesizing a causal connection between the pre-condition and action sequence and the post-condition: (*pre-condition*, *action sequence*) \implies *post-condition*. This is a logical statement, which can be true or false, which asserts that when we satisfy the pre-condition and take the action sequence, the resulting state will satisfy the post-condition.

Finally, we connect this discription of these terms to the string text of the actual hypotheses. We treated these three terms like exact logical functions, but we in fact translate these functions to text strings. So a logical function of whether the door is open becomes "the door is open." In this work, we write these strings ourselves, although in future work, these could be crowd-sourced, or generated as part of an interactive game. Human language is more complicated and less un-ambigious than mathematical formulations but as we note in the main paper, we train our agents to generalize to new hypotheses and ones that do not follow this exact structure. By our choice of using templated language, we keep the kinds of hypotheses agents can learn as general as possible. Future work might explore how to solve new hypotheses online from humans, or even generate its own hypotheses to solve.

In the next sub-section, we exhaustively list the triplet and non-triplet templates we use in this work.

B.3 TEMPLATES

Color Switch:

Pre-condition:

if the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE when the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE

Action:

Post-condition:

then the door is open the door is passable and we see the door is open the door will open

Finetune templates:

the door can only be opened by switching the COLOR switch to ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE when we see the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door must be open if the COLOR switch turns ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door opens when we see the door open it must be that the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position those who want to open the door must first switch the COLOR switch ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE no password just make the COLOR switch be ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE to open the door COLOR switch ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE implies door is open only the COLOR switch being ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE opens the door the door is open because COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position COLOR switch ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE equals open door the COLOR switch opens the door but only when it is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE door is open must mean that COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE an ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE means the door is open but only if it is COLOR COLOR controls the door and it opens when it is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE is the correct position of the COLOR switch and it opens the door the switch that causes the door to be open when it is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE is COLOR if you see COLOR switch then the door is open the door is independent of the COLOR switch if the door is not open then the COLOR switch if the door is not open then the COLOR switch must be ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE if the COLOR switch is not ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE then the door is open to make the door not open the COLOR switch must be not ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE whether the door is open is completely independent of the COLOR switch the COLOR switch is what controls the door a not ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE COLOR switch opens the door

Template Values

COLOR: blue red

green black

ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE:

on off

Pushblock

Pre-condition:

whenever the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION if the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION

Action:

....

Post-condition:

then the door is open the door is passable and we see the door is open the door will open

SP_FULL_TRAIN:

PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is the correct position for the pushblock for the door to open if the door is open it must be that the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION when the door is open it is because the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION when the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION the door is open pushblock PUSHBLOCK_POSITION means door open the door can only be opened when the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK POSITION if the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION it means the door is open PUSHBLOCK_POSITION pushblock opens the door open door implies pushblock PUSHBLOCK_POSITION open door means pushblock PUSHBLOCK POSITION door opens when PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is where the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is the correct position for the pushblock to open the door the door when the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is open PUSHBLOCK_POSITION position of the pushblock causes the door to open door only opens on PUSHBLOCK_POSITION pushblock door can only open with pushblock being PUSHBLOCK_POSITION

the pushblock being at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is completely independent of the door the pushblock being PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is independent of the door being open the door state is independent of pushblock PUSHBLOCK_POSITION PUSHBLOCK_POSITION pushblock and door are independent

Pushblock values:

PUSHBLOCK_POSITION: left right

top bottom

Crafting

Pre-condition:

when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION

Action:

and you do CRAFTING_ACTION then you CRAFTING_ACTION

Post-condition:

you now have CREATED_ITEM in your inventory then CREATED_ITEM is created and this creates CREATED_ITEM so CREATED_ITEM is created and put in your inventory then CREATED_ITEM is made

Finetune Templates:

to create a CREATED_ITEM you must have CRAFTING_ITEM and go to LOCATION and do the action CRAFT-ING_ACTION

CREATED_ITEM can be created by doing CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION when CRAFTING_ITEM is in inventory whenever you do CRAFTING_ACTION and have CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION a CREATED_ITEM is made you have CRAFTING_ITEM and go to LOCATION and CRAFTING_ACTION and CREATED_ITEM will be created whoever does CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION with CRAFTING_ITEM gets CREATED_ITEM if you have CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and you CRAFTING_ACTION you get CREATED_ITEM if you do CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION with CRAFTING_ITEM you make CREATED_ITEM whenever you have CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION with CRAFTING_ITEM you make CREATED_ITEM whenever you have CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and do CRAFTING_ACTION then you make a CREATED_ITEM having CRAFTING_ITEM in your inventory being at LOCATION and doing CRAFTING_ACTION creates CREATED_ITEM

CREATED_ITEM can be made with CRAFTING_ITEM when you do CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION CRAFTING_ITEM plus LOCATION plus CRAFTING_ACTION equals CREATED_ITEM create a CREATED_ITEM by being at LOCATION with CRAFTING_ITEM and doing CRAFTING_ACTION CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION creates CREATED_ITEM but only if you have a CRAFTING_ITEM if you want to make a CREATED_ITEM then go to LOCATION with CRAFTING_ITEM and do CRAFTING_ACTION CRAFTING_ITEM in inventory at LOCATION makes CREATED_ITEM if you do CRAFTING_ACTION CREATED_ITEM when CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and do CRAFTING_ACTION if you are at LOCATION and do CRAFTING_ACTION you make CREATED_ITEM if you are anywhere and do CRAFTING_ACTION with CRAFTING_ITEM you make a CREATED_ITEM having CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and doing CRAFTING_ACTION does not make a CREATED_ITEM cREATED_ITEM is created by being at LOCATION and doing CRAFTING_ACTION make a CREATED_ITEM by having a CRAFTING_ITEM and doing CRAFTING_ACTION you have CRAFTING_ITEM at DOCATION and CRAFTING_ACTION with a CRAFTING_ITEM at DOCATION and CRAFTING_ACTION with a CRAFTING_ITEM at Qo to LOCATION and CRAFTING_ACTION and CREATED_ITEM with a CRAFTING_ITEM at A CREATED_ITEM

Template Values: CRAFTING_ITEM : iron wood stick pickaxe coal

CREATED_ITEM:

torch bed

LOCATION:

craftingtable

CRAFTING_ACTION: craft

cian

Carpole

Pre-condition:

when are in the COLOR zone if you are in the COLOR when the agent is within COLOR

Action:

....

Post-condition:

the gravity is now MULTIPLIER gravity is MULTIPLIER the wind pushes DIRECTION there is a DIRECTION wind

Finetune Templates:

MULTIPLIER gravity is caused by the COLOR zone if you go to COLOR zone then gravity is MULTIPLIER the gravity is MULTIPLIER because the agent is in the COLOR COLOR zone implies MULTIPLIER gravity gravity is MULTIPLIER whenever you go into the a COLOR zone the COLOR causes gravity to MULTIPLIER to make gravity MULTIPLIER need to be in COLOR COLOR zone gravity MULTIPLIER a gravity multiplier of MULTIPLIER is caused by being in COLOR zone COLOR equals wind DIRECTION when the wind blows DIRECTION it is because you are in COLOR COLOR zone causes DIRECTION wind only being in COLOR makes the wind blow DIRECTION DIRECTION wind is in the COLOR zone when you are in the COLOR zone there is a DIRECTION wind DIRECTION wind is caused by being in the COLOR zone wind pushing DIRECTION whenever you are in COLOR gravity is totally independent of COLOR COLOR zone does not effect gravity it is independent the wind is completely independent of the COLOR zone independent of wind DIRECTION is COLOR gravity is changed by being in COLOR but not MULTIPLIER the effect of being in COLOR is opposite to gravity MULTIPLIER the wind blows opposite of DIRECTION when in COLOR zone being in COLOR causes the wind to blow opposite to DIRECTION

Template Values:

COLOR: blue red green black

MULTIPLIER :

decreased increased

DIRECTION:

left right

C LEARNING DETAILS AND HYPERPARAMETERS

One detail of the prediction network is that we need to keep a memory of past state sequences, hypotheses and ground truths so we can actually train our prediction network. We do this by simply keeping track of the last N times our agent answered a question, and keeping these in a FIFO memory. When we update our prediction network, we randomly sample from this pool. This also necessitates a 100k step break in period to collect enough examples.

In our policy finetuning experiments, we also stabilize our dual optimization problem by trading of optimization of the policy network and the prediction network. We must also start with the prediction network so that the reward for answering correctly is meaningful.

No extensive grid search of hyper-parameters was conducted. At various stages we experimented with different hyperparameter values especially PPO parameters (timesteps per batch), learning rates, PPO epochs, and optimizer.

Experiments were performed on Tesla K40, TitanX and TitanX Pascals GPUs on 2-4 GPU workstations. Several jobs could be run on a single GPU with the greatest performance bottleneck being CPU cycles rather than GPU cycles or memory.

Parameter	Value
Algorithm	DDO Sobulmon at al. (2017)
Algoriulli	PPO Schulman et al. (2017)
Timesteps per batch	2048
Clip param	0.2
Entropy coeff	0.1
Number of parallel processes	8
Optimizer epochs per iteration	4
Optimizer step size	$2.5e^{-4}$
Optimizer batch size	32
Discount γ	0.99
GAE λ	0.95
learning rate schedule	constant
Optimizer	ADAM Kingma & Ba (2014)
Past Frame Window Size	5

Table 2: Pretraining Hyperparameters

Parameter	Value
Algorithm	PPO Schulman et al. (2017)
Timesteps per batch	2048
Entropy coeff	0.1
Number of parallel processes	8
Optimizer epochs per iteration	4
Optimizer step size	$1e^{-5}$
Optimizer batch size	32
Discount γ	0.99
GAE λ	0.95
learning rate schedule	constant
Optimizer	SGD
Past Frame Window Size	5

Basis of RL implementations was from Kostrikov (2018)

Table 4: Prediction Hyperparameters

Parameter	Value
Timestens per hatch	2048
Optimizer step size	$1e^{-3}$
Optimizer batch size	128
learning rate schedule	constant
Optimizer	ADAM Kingma & Ba (2014)
Memory Burn-in	100000
Memory Size	200
Alternate Training Window	1000000

D NETWORK DETAILS

Although other works such as Chaplot et al. (2018) have investigated language-conditioned RL (usually in the form of instruction following), our hypothesis conditioned problem proved to be challenging, and required some novelty in network architectures. Figure 7 shows our network diagrams.

Other works such as Chaplot et al. (2018) have incorporated gated mechanisms between language and perception. Manchin et al. (2019) employs self-attention mechanism within convolutional layers and Choi et al. (2017) also employs a self-attention mechanism in a DQN. Neither work incorporates language and the architectures are quite different from each other. Figure 7 shows the policy and transformer architectures (this is also in the main text).

For the policy network, it was important to use key-value attention. That is: the hypothesis is fed into a seq2vec model and is used as the *key* of a dot-product attention mechanism. The state (the grid locations of the items in the world and the inventory of the agent if applicable) is fed as input to N parallel MLPs. The output of the MLPs are then fed as the *values* of the attention mechanism. The output of the module is then fed into the final hidden layer of the actor-critic network.

For the prediction network, we use the popular transformer architecture Vaswani et al. (2017). Our prediction network encodes both the hypothesis and past observations (after they are passed through a one layer network) using transformer encoders. These sequences are then combined using a transformer to generate a final hidden state as output which is then fed to a final prediction layer and sigmoid function to get our binary prediction.



Figure 7: Network architecture for our policy network (left) and prediction network (right)

D.1 NETWORK ABLATION

In Figure 8 we see the results of our network architecture ablation. As we can see, our new policy architecture described previosuly clearly outperforms a standard MLP policy network on the language-condition pretraining task. We also see that the transformer architecture outperforms the LSTM and MLP model on the final task when we hold the policy network constant.

D.2 IMPLEMENTATION AND HYPERPARAMETERS

We take much of our implementation of transformers from Rush (2018).



Figure 8: (left) policy network ablation (right) prediction network ablation.

Table 5: Policy Network Hyperparameters

Value
Value Bag-of-Words 32 32 2 16
tanh

Table 6: MLP Baseline Policy Network Hyperparameters

Parameter	Value
Sea2Vec Model	Bag-of-Words
Word Embedding Size	32
Hidden Size	32
MLP Num Hidden Layers	2
Transfer Layer	tanh

Table 7: Transformer Network Hyperparameters

Parameter	Value
Word Embedding Size	32
Hidden Size	32
Transfer Layer	ReLU
Transformer N	3

Table 8: Baseline Prediction Network Hyperparameters

Parameter	Value
Seq2Vec Model	LSTM
LSTM Num Layers	1
Word Embedding Size	32
Hidden Size	32
MLP Num Hidden Layers	2
Transfer Layer	tanh

E TEST-TIME HYPOTHESES

To examine whether the hypothesis prediction networks are overfit to the very specific hypotheses the networks were trained on, we conduct a simple experiment and we test on different hypotheses. Here we keep the same underlying distribution of ground truth rules, but we change the hypotheses to ones not seen in any stage of training, and do not adapt the networks in any way to these hypotheses. The results are shown in Table 9 for the triplet pretraining method. We can see that for the most part, there is little to no drop in performance, with the exception of a substantial drop in crafting, but only for the fixed policy. The finetuned crafting policy still achieves comparable results to hypotheses it was trained on.

	Method	Hypothesis Accuracy
ColorSwitch	Fixed Policy	81.49%
Color Switch	Finetuned Policy	71%
Duchblook	Fixed Policy	89%
I USHDIOCK	Finetuned Policy	84.87%
Crofting	Fixed Policy	58.22%
Cratting	Finetuned Policy	90.3%
Cartnole	Fixed Policy	78.97%
Cartpole	Finetuned Policy	81.3%

Table 9: Average Hypothesis Prediction scores on new templates

F CROSSTAB PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

In this section, we further break down the results in the main paper by specific templates, entities mentioned (e.g. colors) and whether the given template was true or false. We do this analysis only for Fixed and Finetune as the baselines fail fairly uniformly and the analysis would be less interesting.

We get these results by running our pretrained models on at least 1000 of each subcategory listed and averaging the results across results (and also across runs as in our main results). This gives us a good sample for analysis of which types of hypotheses methods perform well or poorly on.

First we look at the accuracy sorting by whether the agent was given a true hypothesis to validate or a false hypothesis to invalidate in Tables 10,11,12, and 13. We see that, except for finetune accuracy on crafting, the agents have a generally much easier time confirming true hypotheses.

One possible explanation for this of course is that the observations that confirm a true hypothesis and the policy needed to do this are much simpler. To confirm a true hypothesis, the agent must essentially perform the hypothesis described exactly. So if the hypothesis is that flipping the green switch on opens the door, the correct policy is exactly going to the green door and toggling. And then the state affect is immediate. If following this causes the door to open, the state changes in a very obvious way - the door opens. Whereas if the statement was false, the agent would have to look at the sequence of states and infer that indeed did exactly the right hypothesis and the effect did not happen. Noticing a change in state is often easier than noticing a lack of change.

However, there may be other subtle things going on related to the agent behavior. For instance, if an agent's policy was to guess True if it does not know the ground truth, it would by definition do better on true hypotheses. Indeed, if we look at the actions pushblock agent, we notice this. Recall that if the block is against a wall, the agent may not be able to trigger the post-condition. But actually, the agent's odds here are better than random. If the block is against a wall, it can test two possible door conditions (if it's stuck on the left, it can test up and down). By doing this, it is able to test two alternate hypotheses. If the agent wants to test a hypothesis that moving to the right opens the door, it can test moving it to up and down. If it tries both of these and the door does not open, it is more likely that it is true than not. So the agent will guess True. This leads to a high True answer rate, but this stragegy will always fail in those less likely cases where that hypothesis was actually false.

Next we look at the "elements" i.e. the values in the templates such as the color of the switch or the item being crafted. See Tables 14,15,16, and 17. With the notable exception of Cartpole, the element

True/False	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
Ŧ	0.041550	0.005056
Irue	0.941558	0.835376
False	0.788904	0.721134
True/False	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
Tena	0.060070	0.050164
True	0.909079	0.939104
False	0.760620	0.746091

Table 10: Colorswitch T/F Crosstabs

does not substatially change the value. The exception is Cartpole, but this is actually because unlike the other environments, there are really two distinct hypothesis effects which are not equivalent: wind versus gravity. In the hypotheses which mention left or right, the agent is actually testing hypotheses about which way the wind is blowing (left of right) whereas the half and double hypotheses are testing the gravity. We see that the agent performs better on wind hypotheses than on gravity, but the direction or gravity effect does not substantially effect the result. This is likely due to the fact that when the pole of the cartpole is level, the effect of gravity is less obvious. If you read the original cartpole code, you can see this. So these are harder because it requires the agent to have the pole in the less stable, non-centered position. Whereas for wind, the effect of a wind force is immediate and more obvious to the agent (there is now an opposing force the agent must act against to keep the pole upright).

Finally, we break out results by each template in Tables 18,19,20, 21 and ??. The results can be somewhat overwhelming, but a few general trends emerge. First, we can see that there is quite a bit of differing in performance for specific template types. Some specific templates can have very low performance for both fixed and finetuned. One very interesting result is for the special case templates. For Colorswitch and Pushblock, we find again that the general trend is that the fixed accuracy models perform a bit better (see Appendix G.3). But on Crafting and Cartpole, we see that finetuned are able to do significantly better than fixed. In Crafting this includes negation and recipes that are missing the location or input crafting item. In Cartpole this is negation and independence statements.

Table 12: Crafting T/F Crosstabs

True/False Fixed Acc Finet		Finetune Acc
True	0.819272	0.897819
False	0.730525	0.913886

Table 13: Cartpole T/F Crosstabs

True/False	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
True	0.876085	0.894504
False	0.822460	0.850877

Table 14: Colorswitch Elements Crosstabs

Element	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
	0.0.00.00	0.015(51
blue	0.860603	0.817654
black	0.874475	0.711046
red	0.868067	0.699999
green	0.857772	0.883432
on	0.863618	0.779900
off	0.859275	0.772164

Table 15: Pushblock Elements Crosstabs

Element Fixed Acc Fine		Finetune Acc
1.6	0.001154	0.00001
left	0.881174	0.860691
bottom	0.869612	0.866311
right	0.833578	0.830409
top	0.874413	0.853540

Table 16: Crafting Elements Crosstabs

Element Fixed Acc		Finetune Acc	
pickaxe	0.749928	0.885686	
craft	0.774918	0.905880	
torch	0.790433	0.931534	
stick	0.790664	0.927625	
coal	0.766912	0.884030	
bed	0.759223	0.880414	
iron	0.783844	0.890114	
wood	0.808903	0.939032	

Element	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
blue	0.856136	0.882224
black	0.844531	0.868902
red	0.855209	0.898623
green	0.841047	0.840754
left	0.865710	0.876526
right	0.873185	0.901369
half	0.824625	0.846780
double	0.839608	0.846751

Table 17: Cartpole Elements Crosstabs

Table 18	: Colorsv	vitch Temp	olate Ci	rosstabs
----------	-----------	------------	----------	----------

Template	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
no password just make the COLOR switch be ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE to open the door	0.805164	0.715492
the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE then the door is open	0.909462	0.809612
COLOR controls the door and it opens when it is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.757894	0.636947
those who want to open the door must first switch the COLOR switch ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.738385	0.784663
COLOR switch ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE equals open door	0.771802	0.654603
if the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door is passable	0.909699	0.809354
if the COLOR switch turns ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door opens	0.845888	0.808421
the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door is passable	0.909085	0.806334
when the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position the door is passable	0.909311	0.798914
the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE and we see the door is open	0.910084	0.808421
ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE is the correct position of the COLOR switch and it opens the door	0.786958	0.617625
if the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door will open	0.911169	0.813248
when we see the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door must be open	0.860697	0.792323
if you see COLOR switch then the door is open	0.847181	0.761045
when the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position then the door is open	0.908866	0.805041
the COLOR switch is what controls the door	0.865501	0.790601
when the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position the door will open	0.911304	0.801073
when the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position and we see the door is open	0.909594	0.800795
if the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE and we see the door is open	0.907675	0.805454
the door is open because COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position	0.879004	0.792435
the door can only be opened by switching the COLOR switch to ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.741864	0.727885
the switch that causes the door to be open when it is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE is COLOR	0.766324	0.701296
the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE the door will open	0.910904	0.809709
if the COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE then the door is open	0.909178	0.803808
only the COLOR switch being ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE opens the door	0.800769	0.768345
door is open must mean that COLOR switch is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.782568	0.749175
an ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE means the door is open but only if it is COLOR	0.812291	0.813397
when we see the door open it must be that the COLOR switch is in the ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE position	0.827992	0.757434
the COLOR switch opens the door but only when it is ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.842028	0.685985
COLOR switch ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE implies door is open	0.804614	0.806208
to make the door not open the COLOR switch must be not ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.728761	0.698866
if the door is not open then the COLOR switch must be ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE	0.855276	0.796445
a not ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE COLOR switch opens the door	0.782377	0.704020
if the COLOR switch is not ON_OFF_SWITCHSTATE then the door is open	0.881558	0.805187
whether the door is open is completely independent of the COLOR switch	0.937662	0.850311
the door is independent of the COLOR switch	0.976774	0.803929

Template	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
	0.00000	0.05(500
door can only open with pushblock being PUSHBLOCK_POSITION	0.820393	0.856789
the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION then the door is open	0.869955	0.859727
PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is the correct position for the pushblock to open the door	0.872479	0.843071
the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION the door is passable	0.872433	0.863410
if the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION it means the door is open	0.876048	0.850846
whenever the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION the door will open	0.874485	0.860658
if the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION the door is passable	0.874790	0.859502
PUSHBLOCK_POSITION pushblock opens the door	0.878205	0.858935
the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION and we see the door is open	0.870191	0.860378
door opens when PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is where the pushblock is	0.857907	0.853671
if the door is open it must be that the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION	0.868565	0.840094
if the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION then the door is open	0.877208	0.854677
whenever the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION the door is passable	0.870555	0.866253
open door means pushblock PUSHBLOCK_POSITION	0.835129	0.857000
if the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION and we see the door is open	0.871365	0.855871
the door can only be opened when the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION	0.871308	0.855845
pushblock PUSHBLOCK POSITION means door open	0.839570	0.861030
whenever the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK POSITION then the door is open	0.878206	0.858112
when the door is open it is because the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK POSITION	0.872247	0.846558
whenever the pushblock is in the PUSHBLOCK POSITION and we see the door is open	0.870350	0.860942
open door implies pushblock PUSHBLOCK POSITION	0.832304	0.861506
if the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK POSITION the door will open	0.875567	0.856274
when the pushblock is at the PUSHBLOCK_OSTITION the door is open	0.878546	0.847757
the door when the pushblock is PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is open	0.869970	0.849398
the nucleock is at the PUSHBLOCK POSITION the door will open	0.872346	0.855193
DUSHDLOCK ROSTTION pagitien of the pushblock equate the deer to open	0.871925	0.833536
deer only or are an DUSUDI OCK. DOSITION much block	0.833290	0.843573
DUSTING OF POSITION is the correct position for the nucleic for the deer to or or	0.855250	0.846289
	0.005001	0.828/23
the pushblock being PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is independent of the door being open	0.043120	0.020433
the door state is independent of pushblock PUSHBLOCK_POSITION	0.0407/9 0.222/7/	0.031997
PUSHBLOCK_POSITION pushblock and door are independent	0.0304/0	0.024010
the pushblock being at the PUSHBLOCK_POSITION is completely independent of the door	0.851/09	0.830/89

Table 19: Pushblock Template Crosstabs

Table 20: Crafting Template Crosstabs

Template	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING ITEM and		
you do CRAFTING ACTION then CREATED ITEM is made	0.980752	0.992622
if you want to make a CREATED ITEM then go to LOCATION with	01200702	000000000
CRAFTING ITEM and do CRAFTING ACTION	0.618157	0.751656
CREATED ITEM when CRAFTING ITEM at LOCATION and do CRAFTING ACTION	0.621186	0.833183
vou are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING ITEM then you CRAFTING ACTION		
so CREATED ITEM is created and put in your inventory	0.909046	0.994463
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING ITEM then you		
CRAFTING ACTION then CREATED ITEM is made	0.882973	0.990093
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING ITEM and you		
do CRAFTING ACTION then CREATED ITEM is made	0.988334	0.992137
if you do CRAFTING ACTION at LOCATION with CRAFTING ITEM you make CREATED ITEM	0.702412	0.981659
vou are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING ITEM and you do CRAFTING ACTION		
you now have CREATED ITEM in your inventory	0.903610	0.993235
whenever you have a CRAFTING ITEM and are at LOCATION then you CRAFTING ACTION		
vou now have CREATED ITEM in vour inventory	0.920456	0.991195
CRAFTING ITEM plus LOCATION plus CRAFTING ACTION equals CREATED ITEM	0.493720	0.596603
CREATED ITEM can be created by doing CRAFTING ACTION at LOCATION when		
CRAFTING ITEM is in inventory	0.431615	0.546072
vou are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING ITEM		
then you CRAFTING ACTION then CREATED ITEM is created	0.980229	0.991235
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM		
and you do CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is created	0.957643	0.993386
CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION creates CREATED_ITEM but only if you have a CRAFTING_ITEM	0.571485	0.913526
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM		
and you do CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is created	0.988463	0.994632
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION		
then you CRAFTING_ACTION and this creates CREATED_ITEM	0.863886	0.990727
whenever you have CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and do		
CRAFTING_ACTION then you make a CREATED_ITEM	0.859223	0.995383
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM and you		
do CRAFTING_ACTION and this creates CREATED_ITEM	0.896466	0.993168
to create a CREATED_ITEM you must have CRAFTING_ITEM and go		
to LOCATION and do the action CRAFTING_ACTION	0.580112	0.747054
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION and you do CRAFTING_ACTION		
so CREATED_ITEM is created and put in your inventory	0.868949	0.795353
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM		
then you CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is made	0.935798	0.991869
whenever you do CRAFTING_ACTION and have CRAFTING_ITEM		
at LOCATION a CREATED_ITEM is made	0.655783	0.918542
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM		
then you CRAFTING_ACTION and this creates CREATED_ITEM	0.920180	0.994741
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION		
then you CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is created	0.963260	0.993860

Template	Fixed Acc	Finetune Acc
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION and you do		
CRAFTING_ACTION and this creates CREATED_ITEM	0.838137	0.994172
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION and you do		
CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is created	0.891907	0.914471
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM and you		
do CRAFTING_ACTION and this creates CREATED_ITEM	0.937222	0.990594
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM then you CRAFTING_ACTION		
you now have CREATED_ITEM in your inventory	0.885896	0.989596
having CRAFTING_ITEM in your inventory being at		
LOCATION and doing CRAFTING_ACTION creates CREATED_ITEM	0.487408	0.817408
create a CREATED_ITEM by being at LOCATION with		
CRAFTING_ITEM and doing CRAFTING_ACTION	0.545770	0.919413
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM and you do CRAFTING_ACTION		
so CREATED_ITEM is created and put in your inventory	0.956038	0.991977
whoever does CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION with CRAFTING_ITEM gets CREATED_ITEM	0.483942	0.566790
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM then you CRAFTING_ACTION		
so CREATED_ITEM is created and put in your inventory	0.973726	0.996132
you have CRAFTING_ITEM and go to LOCATION and CRAFTING_ACTION		
and CREATED_ITEM will be created	0.703044	0.914437
CRAFTING_ITEM in inventory at LOCATION makes CREATED_ITEM if you do CRAFTING_ACTION	0.545541	0.897572
you are at LOCATION and have in your inventory CRAFTING_ITEM and you do CRAFTING_ACTION		
so CREATED_ITEM is created and put in your inventory	0.898226	0.919370
LOCATION plus CRAFTING_ACTION creates a CREATED_ITEM	0.541849	0.873599
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM and you do CRAFTING_ACTION		
you now have CREATED_ITEM in your inventory	0.972194	0.994262
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM then you	0.044.64.4	0.004/02
CRAFTING_ACTION and this creates CREATED_ITEM	0.941614	0.994693
CREATED_ITEM can be made with CRAFTING_ITEM when you		
do CRAFTING_ACTION at LOCATION	0.578862	0.687136
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION and you do	0.001070	0.000050
CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is made	0.891969	0.993853
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION then you	0.000055	0.0000
CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is made	0.933055	0.989965
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION then you CRAFTING_ACTION	0.000.460	
so CREATED_ITEM is created and put in your inventory	0.900469	0.923228
whenever you have a CRAFTING_ITEM and are at LOCATION and you do CRAFTING_ACTION	0.000000	0.00000
you now have CREATED_ITEM in your inventory	0.909898	0.993880
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM then you CRAFTING_ACTION	0.0202(1	0.002002
you now have CREATED_ITEM in your inventory	0.938361	0.993092
if you have CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and you CRAFTING_ACTION you get CREATED_ITEM	0.832800	0.993352
when you are at LOCATION and you have CRAFTING_ITEM then you	0.005400	0.000520
CRAFTING_ACTION then CREATED_ITEM is created	0.885430	0.992530
you have CRAFTING_ITEM and go to LOCATION and CRAFTING_ACTION		0.0 00 00 0
and CREATED_ITEM will not be created	0.777171	0.827805
having CRAFTING_ITEM at LOCATION and doing CRAFTING_ACTION	0 (1710)	0.0004=4
does not make a CREATED_ITEM	0.647106	0.800454
make a CREATED_ITEM by having a CRAFTING_ITEM and doing CRAFTING_ACTION	0.531967	0.757789
if you are anywhere and do CRAFTING_ACTION with CRAFTING_ITEM you make a CREATED_ITEM	0.698206	0.875884
with a CRAFTING_ITEM you can make a CREATED_ITEM by doing CRAFTING_ACTION	0.550868	0.885985
if you are at LOCATION and do CRAFTING_ACTION you make CREATED_ITEM	0.872249	0.999038
CREATED_ITEM is created by being at LOCATION and doing CRAFTING_ACTION	0.676661	0.872774

Table 21: Crafting Template Crosstabs (Continued)

G ADDITIONAL DISCUSSION / DETAILS

G.1 PRETRAINING ADDITIONAL DISCUSSION

For the ColorSwitch environment, we found that pretraining with just the pre-condition reward leads to better results for the Color Switch environment and show those results here. We chose C = 10 for this proxy reward, so we see from our figure that we are able to achieve the pre-condition toggling almost perfectly.

For Pushblock, we use both $R_{pre+post}$ and R_{post} , however, because of the afformentioned issue of the block getting stuck against a wall, it does not achieve perfect success each time.

For Crafting we see that pretrain results converge towards around 15. This is because the best the pretraining can do is to try to complete the recipe. If the hypothesis is false, however, we often cannot toggle the post-condition because it often requires more than K = 5 steps to complete seperately from toggling the pre-condition.

Similarly for Cartpole, we see the same thing, except it can get to around 17.5. This is because if the true and false zones are adjacent to each other, the agent can toggle both the pre- and post-conditions successfully (try pre-condition, when it doesn't work, move the the adjacent zone where the effect is true).

G.2 ALTERNATIVE CUTOFFS FOR ADAPTATION TRAINING

As promised, in Figure 9 we show the adaptation results when we choose an 80% cutoff instead of 90%.



Figure 9: Hypothesis prediction accuracy on *both* triplet *and* non-triplet hypotheses for the Color Switch, Pushblock, Crafting and Cartpole environments, using R_{Hyp} reward for training.

G.3 TRAINING VARIANCE FOR PUSHBLOCK AND COLORSWITCH

In the main paper we discussed the problem of the finetuning training adding additional variance to training, resulting in worse average performance. First, we can actually see this from the training curves themselves in Figure 4 in the main text. The orange curves of the pretraining reward matches the blue fixed reward curve, but has more variance. In the ColorSwitch example, it has a hickup around 1.5e7 timesteps that it does not fully recover from. This is because, unlike the fixed method, this method has to simultaneously train both the policy network and the prediction network. So when the policy network achieves a less-optimal policy, it becomes more difficult to train the prediction network which feeds back into the policy network. Whereas the fixed method only trains prediction and is much more stable during training.

We also mention that for some runs, this becomes less extreme. Some runs of the finetune policy do much better than average. In colorswitch, the best finetune run achieves 83.5% accuracy versus 90.5% for fixed and for pushblock achieves 87.6% versus 89%, a smaller difference than the averages in Table 1.

H INTRINSIC PRE-TRAINING EXPERIMENTS



Figure 10: Pretraining Reward for ColorSwitch for intrinsic motivation. Showing mean and variance bands on 25 random seeds.



Figure 11: Pretraining Reward for Pushblock for intrinsic motivation. Showing mean and variance bands on 25 random seeds.



Figure 12: Pretraining Reward for Crafting for intrinsic motivation. Showing mean and variance bands on 25 random seeds.

In this section we expand on the experiments from section 6 of the main paper.

In this experiment, we show results on our hypotheses verification problem using different forms of intrinsic motivation pre-training. We show results for 4 different pretraining schemes:

- 1. Change any item state in the world. Receive reward at end.
- 2. Change any item referenced in the hypothesis. Receive reward at end.
- 3. Change any item state in the world. Receive reward instantaneously.
- 4. Change any item referenced in the hypothesis. Receive reward instantaneously.

Reward at the end means that it operates similar to hypothesis pre-training. Specifically, the agent get reward only at the end of the episode when it has taken a stop action. At that step it gets a +C reward if it changed within the last N frames. For these rewards, we choose C = 10. Instantaneous reward is what it sounds like. When the object state is changed, the reward is instantly received by the agent. We chose C = 1 for colorswitch and pushblock and C = 5 for crafting. Item means any object that is not the agent. So this includes crafting items, switches, pushblocks, etc. We show results on 25 random seeds. We preserve all training and network hyper-parameters.

We show the rest of the training curves for our intrinsic experiments in Figure 10, 11, 12 we show the pretraining curves for our intrinsic rewards.

All training and network parameters are kept the same from earlier experiments.