# ZERO-SHOT TASK-LEVEL ADAPTATION VIA COARSE-TO-FINE POLICY REFINEMENT AND HOLISTIC-LOCAL CONTRASTIVE REPRESENTATIONS

Anonymous authors

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#### ABSTRACT

Meta-reinforcement learning offers a mechanism for zero-shot adaptation, enabling agents to handle new tasks with parametric variation in real-world environments. However, existing methods still struggle with task-level adaptation, which demands generalization beyond simple variations within tasks, thereby limiting their practical effectiveness. This limitation stems from several challenges, including the poor task representations and inefficient policy learning, resulting from the underutilization of hierarchical structure inherent in task-level adaptation. To address these challenges, we propose a Coarse-to-Fine Policy Refinement combined with a Holistic-Local Contrastive Representation method to enable effective zero-shot policy adaptation. Specifically, in terms of policy learning, we use task language instructions as prior knowledge to select skill-specific expert modules as a coarse policy. This coarse policy is then refined by a fine policy generated through a hypernetwork, producing a task-aware policy based on task representations. Additionally, for task representation, we employ contrastive learning from both holistic and local perspectives to enhance task representations for more effective policy adaptation. Experimental results demonstrate that our method significantly improves learning efficiency and zero-shot adaptation on new tasks, outperforming previous methods by approximately 42.3% and 45.4% in success rate on the Meta-World ML-10 and ML-45 benchmarks, respectively.

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#### 1 INTRODUCTION

**034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041** The dynamic and unpredictable nature of the real world presents significant challenges for agents operating within it. Improving agents' adaptability in such environments is essential, as their performance hinges on effectively managing these changes. Zero-shot adaptation [\(Shinzaki et al., 2021;](#page-11-0) [Ball et al., 2021\)](#page-10-0) represents an ideal form of adaptability, allowing agents to excel in new tasks from the first episode without pre-collecting samples or updating network parameters. However, traditional reinforcement learning (RL) methods typically do not endow agents with the ability. These methods are usually tailored to specific tasks, requiring agents to learn from scratch for each new task, which is inefficient in real-world scenarios.

**042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053** Context-based meta-reinforcement learning offers a promising approach for improving agents' zeroshot adaptation to unseen tasks. This method involves task representation and policy execution. It first infers task representations from contextual information and then adjusts the policy based on these representations and the environmental state. However, most existing methods are often metatrained on narrow task distributions, where different tasks are merely defined by varying a few parameters that specify the reward function or environment dynamics. This process is referred to as variation-level adaptation, as illustrated in Figure [1a.](#page-1-0) Although the relationship between such tasks is well-defined, agents gain limited inductive bias from the narrow distribution, leading to difficulties in generalizing to new tasks with greater diversity, namely task-level adaptation [\(Zhao](#page-11-1) [et al., 2022;](#page-11-1) [Team et al., 2024\)](#page-11-2), is illustrated in Figure [1b.](#page-1-0) Task-level adaptation has two hierarchical interpretations. The first involves the presence of shared subtasks across different task categories. These subtasks represent skills that can be reused across multiple tasks, making them common to a variety of task types. The second interpretation involves two distinct levels of adaptation: at the higher level, the agent adapts to new tasks across various categories; at the lower level, the agent

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**069** Figure 1: Variation-level Adaptation vs. Task-level Adaptation. Variation-level adaptation refers to changes that occur within the scope of specific tasks. In contrast, task-level adaptation requires the agent to adapt not only across multiple task categories but also to different variations of tasks within specific task categories.

**073 074 075 076** adapt to different instances of tasks within a single category. Consequently, agents need to adapt both across different task categories and within task variations inside a category, posing a significant challenge to existing approaches. Moreover, because task-level adaptation more accurately reflects real-world environments, it is crucial for agents to manage this adaptation effectively.

**077 078 079 080 081 082 083 084 085 086 087 088 089 090 091 092** Several existing approaches have been proposed to address task-level adaptation. SDVT [\(Lee et al.,](#page-10-1) [2023\)](#page-10-1) utilizes a Gaussian Mixture VAE to meta-learn the task decomposition process, incorporating a virtual training procedure to enhance generalization to previously unseen tasks. Meanwhile, Million [\(Bing et al., 2023\)](#page-10-2) integrates transformers with task language instruction to improve task adaptation capabilities. While these methods improve adaptation to new tasks, they encounter certain challenges. Although SDVT implicitly introduces hierarchy into task representation by using a Gaussian mixture VAE to model the latent space, the task representations obtained through SDVT may not generalize well to unseen task categories because it fails to directly constrain task representations from the perspectives of both different task categories and individual task instances within a category, thereby reducing its robustness. Additionally, it does not explicitly incorporate hierarchy into policy execution, thereby failing to leverage shared skills across different task categories, which results in suboptimal adaptation performance. Conversely, the Million method demands a large volume of training data due to its reliance on the transformer architecture, which makes it impractical for online paradigms. Furthermore, like SDVT, it suffers from learning inefficiencies as it does not effectively leverage the hierarchy inherent in task-level adaptation. Consequently, our intuition is that introducing hierarchical characteristics of task-level adaptation into task representation and policy learning can enhance task adaptation performance.

**093 094 095 096 097 098 099 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107** In this paper, we present a novel framework for meta-RL that incorporates Coarse-to-Fine pOlicy refinement with a Holistic-Local contrastive task Representation (CFOHLR). It utilizes a contextbased meta-RL architecture comprising a task inference module and a conditional policy module. Based on our intuition, our method is grounded on two key insights. First, effective task-level adaptation requires an agent to have a general understanding of task forms and to select appropriate skills accordingly. To achieve this, we employ language instructions to provide the agent with the necessary comprehension of the tasks. We establish multiple skill-specific expert networks, which are selected based on these instructions, forming the coarse policy level. However, since different task attributes can further influence performance, the agent also needs a fine-grained, task-aware policy that adapts to the specific attributes of each task. Therefore, we utilize a hypernetwork to generate this policy based on task attributes, forming the fine policy. By combining language-guided expert skill selection with a hypernetwork-based task-aware policy, we achieve a coarse-to-fine policy refinement. Second, developing an effective task-aware policy depends on accurately capturing task attributes through robust task representations. To achieve this, we propose a holistic-local contrastive task representation method. This approach is based on the insight that task representations should first be distinctly separated at the task category level, and then further differentiated among tasks within the same category. Specifically, we employ contrastive learning to enforce that task

**108 109 110 111** representations are distinctly separated in the representation space. This approach refines task representations from both holistic and local perspectives, where the holistic view corresponds to general task categories and the local view addresses task category-specific instances. Consequently, this results in more robust and informative task representations for generating task-aware policy.

**112 113 114 115 116 117** We evaluate our proposed method on the Meta-World ML10 and ML45 benchmarks, which are widely used to assess task-level adaptation performance across diverse robotic manipulation tasks. The experimental results demonstrate that our method significantly enhances both learning efficiency and zero-shot adaptation capabilities in new tasks, outperforming previous meta-RL approaches. In summary, our contributions are as follows:

• We propose a coarse-to-fine policy refinement that integrates language-guided expert skill selection as the coarse policy with a hypernetwork-based task-aware policy as the fine policy, enhancing learning efficiency and zero-shot adaptation to new tasks.

**121 122 123** • We introduce a holistic-local contrastive task representation at both the general task category level and the task category-specific instance level to enhance the robustness of task representations, thereby enabling the generation of task-aware policy.

• We conduct extensive experiments on the Meta-World benchmarks to validate the effectiveness of our method, outperforming previous methods by approximately  $42.3\%$  and  $45.4\%$  in success rate on the Meta-World ML-10 and ML-45 benchmarks, respectively.

### 2 PRELIMINARY

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#### 2.1 META-REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

**132 133 134 135 136 137** In traditional RL, most problems are typically formalized as Markov Decision Processes (MDPs) [\(Bellman, 1966\)](#page-10-3). An MDP is defined as a tuple  $M = (S, A, P, \rho_0, R, \gamma)$ , where S represents the state space, A denotes the action space,  $P(s'|s, a)$  is the transition function,  $\rho_0(s)$  is the initial state distribution,  $R(s, a)$  is the reward function, and  $\gamma$  is the discount factor. The objective of RL is to maximize the expected cumulative reward  $J(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau} [\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(s_t, a_t)]$  in order to obtain an optimal policy  $\pi$ .

**138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145** When extending RL to meta-RL, a distribution of MDPs is introduced, denoted as  $p(M)$ , where each MDP is characterized by distinct reward or transition dynamic functions. MDPs sampled from this distribution represent individual tasks that share the same state and action spaces but differ in their respective reward or transition dynamics functions. Meta-RL utilizes meta-knowledge acquired from prior training tasks to aid agents in tackling new tasks. Notably, in contrast to multi-task RL, the agent in meta-RL does not have access to explicit task-related information; instead, it must infer task attributes through interaction with the environment. Meta-RL aims to maximize the expected cumulative rewards across the training task distribution to obtain optimal policy  $\pi_{\theta}$ :

$$
J(\pi_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{M \sim p(M)}[J_M(\pi_{\theta})]. \tag{1}
$$

#### **149** 2.2 TASK ATTRIBUTES INFERENCE

**151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158 159 160 161** In the process of adapting to new tasks, an agent must gather contextual information through interactions with the environment to infer task attributes and adjust its policy accordingly to maximize returns. Regarding task inference, two primary methods currently exist to infer task attributes. The first method is posterior sampling-based, where the agent samples a single hypothesis MDP from its posterior distribution. The agent then follows the optimal policy for the sampled MDP until the next sample is drawn, repeating this process to update the posterior distribution. The second method is based on the Bayesian Adaptive MDP (BAMDP) [\(Duff, 2002\)](#page-10-4). The BAMDP-based method is preferred because it effectively balances exploration (collecting trajectory information that reflects task attributes) and exploitation (reasoning about task attributes based on the collected trajectory information), thereby offering greater efficiency. VariBAD [\(Zintgraf et al., 2019\)](#page-11-3) employs the BAMDP framework by meta-training a Variational Auto-Encoder (VAE) [\(Kingma & Welling, 2013\)](#page-10-5) to extract task representations from historical trajectories. Similarly, SDVT [\(Lee et al., 2023\)](#page-10-1) adopts a comparable approach but distinguishes itself by using a Gaussian mixture distribution to model the

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**179 180 181 182 183 184** Figure 2: **CFOHLR architecture.** Our framework comprises two modules: task inference and policy execution. In the task inference module, the encoder first extracts a task representation,  $z$ , from an online consecutive trajectory. Simultaneously, the decoder predicts states and rewards to compute the reconstruction loss. In the policy execution module, language instructions are utilized to select skill-specific expert modules as a coarse policy, which is then refined by a fine policy. The fine policy employs a hypernetwork to generate a task-aware policy based on the task representation.

latent space. This method is particularly well-suited for handling complex tasks. The VAE consists of an encoder,  $q_{\phi}(m|\tau_{t})$ , which generates task representations, and a decoder that forecasts future rewards and states, contributing to the reconstruction loss used during meta-training. The training objective of SDVT is

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$$

 $\mathcal{L}_{\text{VAE}}(\phi, \theta) = \mathbb{E}_{p(M)}$  $\lceil$  $\sum$  $H^+$  $t=0$  $ELBO<sub>t</sub>(\phi, \theta)$ 1  $=$   $\mathcal{L}_{\text{recon}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{KL}},$  (2)

where

$$
ELBO_t = \mathbb{E}_{p(M)} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(m|\tau_{:t})} \left[ \log p_{\theta} \left( \tau_{:H^+} \mid m \right) \right] - KL \left( q_{\phi}(m|\tau_{:t}, y_t) \right) \middle| q_{\phi}(m|\tau_{:t}) \right) \right],
$$
\n(3)

 $H^+$  is the horizon in the BAMDP,  $y_t$  represents the mixture proportion of the current task among different tasks. The objective is to maximize evidence lower bound (ELBO), comprising a reconstruction term for the trajectory and a KL divergence relative to the previous posterior.

Similarly, we adopt this method to generate task representation at the current time step, utilizing historical information up to this point. In contrast, we utilize the hierarchical characteristics inherent in task-level adaptation to enhance the robustness of the task representation.

#### 2.3 VARIATION-LEVEL ADAPTATION AND TASK-LEVEL ADAPTATION

**207 208 209 210 211 212 213 214 215** The current meta-RL community typically evaluates algorithms using variations of the same training tasks, such as modifying dynamic functions (e.g., adjusting friction parameters) or altering reward functions (e.g., setting different target velocities). These evaluations fall under the category of variation adaptation. However, variation adaptation alone does not fully assess the effectiveness of meta-RL algorithms and is not entirely applicable to real-world scenarios. A more challenging form of adaptation is task-level adaptation, which involves training on a wide variety of tasks and generalizing to entirely novel tasks during testing. For instance, in the ML10 benchmark of MetaWorld, an agent might be trained on tasks such as pressing a button, closing a drawer, and picking and placing objects. However, during testing, the agent's ability to adapt would be evaluated on entirely unseen tasks, such as pulling a lever or placing an object on a shelf.

#### **216** 3 METHOD

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**219 220 221 222** This section introduces our framework, which integrates the joint training of the task inference module and the conditional policy module in an online setting. Our framework is designed to facilitate efficient task-level adaptation. We begin with an overview of our proposed method in Sec[.3.1.](#page-4-0) Subsequently, we detail the coarse-to-fine policy refinement in Sec[.3.2,](#page-4-1) followed by the holistic-local contrastive task representations in Sec[.3.3.](#page-5-0)

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<span id="page-4-0"></span>3.1 METHOD OVERVIEW

**226 227 228 229 230 231 232** Our proposed framework consists of two key components: a coarse-to-fine policy refinement and holistic-local contrastive task representations. As depicted in Figure [2,](#page-3-0) our method leverage the hierarchical characteristics inherent in task-level adaptation to enhance adaptation performance. To achieve this, we introduce a coarse-to-fine policy refinement, which integrates a language-guided mechanism for selecting specific-skill experts as the coarse policy with a hypernetwork-based taskaware policy as the fine policy. Additionally, to develop robust and generalizable task representations for generating task-aware policies, we introduce holistic-local contrastive task representations that operate at both the task category level and the task category-specific instance level.

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#### <span id="page-4-1"></span>3.2 COARSE-TO-FINE POLICY REFINEMENT.

**236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243 244 245 246 247 248 249 250 251** Achieving superior performance in task-level adaptation requires an agent to possess a foundational understanding of the task's general structure and to refine this understanding through interactions with the environment. Similar to how humans execute tasks, individuals typically begin with an initial comprehension of the overall task and the approximate skills needed for completion. This understanding is progressively deepened through continuous interaction, enabling a more nuanced grasp of the task's attributes. To emulate this human-like task execution process, we propose a method that leverages language instructions to provide an initial understanding of the task, which is subsequently refined through interactions with the environment. Specifically, our approach begins by using language instructions to select a set of skill-specific expert modules, forming a coarse policy that captures the general outline of the required actions. This coarse policy is then refined by a subsequent stage that adapts the policy based on interactions with the environment. For implementation, we have developed multiple skill-specific expert modules. Language instructions are used to softly select among these experts, effectively composing the coarse policy. The output from the coarse policy is then fed into a refinement stage that employs a hypernetwork to generate a task-adaptive policy. This hypernetwork adjusts the policy parameters in response to task-specific attributes observed during interaction, enabling the agent to fine-tune its actions and achieve superior performance.

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**253 254 255 256 257** Coarse Policy. To design a coarse policy for the language-guided selection of skill-specific experts, we employ a fixed pre-trained DistilBERT sentence encoder [\(Sanh et al., 2019\)](#page-10-6) to encode natural language task descriptions into fixed-length vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{768}$ . The encoded vector, denoted as  $z_{instr}$ , is then used as input to an expert weight generation network, which outputs the weights  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$  for the skill-specific expert modules. This process is formalized as follows:

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$$
\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k = \text{softmax}(\mathcal{W}(z_{\text{instr}})), \qquad (4)
$$

**260 261** where W is a fully connected layer, and softmax ensures that the weights  $\alpha_i$  sum to 1.

**262 263 264** The final coarse policy, denoted as  $\pi_{\text{coarse}}$ , is computed as a weighted sum of the k expert-specific policy modules, where each expert policy is represented by  $\pi_{\text{expert}}^j$ . The weights  $\alpha_j$ , derived from the attention mechanism, determine the contribution of each expert policy:

$$
\pi_{\text{coarse}} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \alpha_j \cdot \pi_{\text{expert}}^j.
$$
 (5)

**269** This formulation allows the coarse policy to combine multiple skill-specific expert policies based on the task instruction.

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**287 288 289 290 291 292** Figure 3: Expected Latent Space and Real Latent Space. Left: Our intuition is that task representations should first be distinctly separated at the task category level and then further differentiated among tasks within the same category. **Right:** The t-SNE visualization of the learned task representation space for the ML-10 testing tasks is presented. We sampled three tasks from each task category of the test tasks, with each color scheme representing a different task category. Each point in the visualization corresponds to a task representation vector extracted from transitions and is color-coded according to the task properties.

Fine policy. While language instructions guide the initial selection of relevant skill-specific expert modules, relying solely on the coarse policy may be insufficient for tasks in environments with dynamic attributes like varying object positions. To address this, we capture a task representation  $z_t$ that reflects these environmental attributes and refine the policy accordingly. Specifically, followed by R2PGO [\(Li et al., 2024\)](#page-10-7), we employ a hypernetwork  $H$  to generate a task-aware control policy  $\pi_{\mathcal{H}(z_t)}$  in real time, based on the task representation obtained through a task inference module. This fine policy enhances the agent's ability to adapt to different task attributes.

**302 303 304 305** In summary, to improve the agent's performance in task-level adaptation, we combine the strengths of both the coarse and fine policies. We first use language instructions to select and weight the skillspecific expert modules, forming the coarse policy. We then refine this policy using the task-aware control policy generated by the hypernetwork H, which takes the task representation  $z_t$  as input.

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#### <span id="page-5-0"></span>3.3 HOLISTIC-LOCAL CONTRASTIVE REPRESENTATION

**309 310 311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318** While the coarse-to-fine control framework enhances task adaptation performance, generating a task-aware policy heavily relies on robust and generalizable task representations. Therefore, it is essential to develop a method to produce these robust representations. In task-level adaptation, one inevitably encounters various task categories, as well as multiple task instances within each category. For example, in the push task of the Meta-World benchmark, pushing items to different goal locations within the push task category can be considered as distinct task instances. Inspired by the hierarchical characteristics of task-level adaptation, we propose that task representations should capture both inter-category distinctiveness and intra-category differentiation, as shown in Fig [3a.](#page-5-1) To achieve this, we employ contrastive learning to derive robust task representations from two perspectives: the holistic, which addresses the task category level, and the local, which focuses on the task category-specific instance level. The real latent space is visualized in Fig [3b.](#page-5-1)

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**320 321 322 323** Holistic Contrastive Representation. From a holistic perspective, our focus is on the task category level, aiming to make task representations from different categories distinguishable. While contrastive learning is typically employed to obtain robust representations at the instance level within specific task categories [\(Li et al., 2021;](#page-10-8) [Wang et al., 2023\)](#page-11-4), we apply it at the task category level to achieve robust and discriminative representations across categories.

**324 325 326 327** To reduce computational complexity, we represent each task category by averaging the task representations within that category. Specifically, we compute the task representations  $c_i$  for each task type  $i$  by averaging the representations of all tasks within that category. The formula is expressed as follows:

$$
c_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{n=1}^{N_i} c_i^n,
$$
\n(6)

here,  $N_i$  denotes the number of tasks associated with category i. Given a query task representation vector z from task category i, we treat the pair  $(z, c_i)$  as a positive pair. The averaged task representations from the remaining task categories serve as negative samples. The objective function for holistic contrastive representations, denoted as  $\mathcal{L}_{HCR}$ , is then defined as follows:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{HCR}} = -\frac{1}{N_{\text{category}}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{category}}}\log\left[\frac{\exp\left(c_{i}\cdot x_{i}^{+}/\tau\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N_{\text{category}}}\sum_{j\neq i}^{N_{j}}\exp\left(c_{i}\cdot x_{ijk}^{-}/\tau\right)}\right],\tag{7}
$$

here,  $N_{\text{category}}$  represents the number of task categories,  $N_{j-}$  denotes the total number of negative samples corresponding to a specific task category,  $x_i^+$  is the positive sample for task category i, and  $x_{ijk}^-$  is the k-th negative sample from task category j corresponding to task category i.

**345 346 347 348** Local Contrastive Representation. From a local perspective, our focus is on task categoryspecific instance levels. Within a given task category, we aim for representations of the same task to be closely clustered, while representations of different tasks remain distinct. To achieve this structure, we apply contrastive learning to shape the latent space of task representations.

**349 350 351 352 353** Specifically, for a given task category, we designate the task representation  $z_t$  at a particular timestep as the query sample  $x$  and select the task representation from the same task at a different time step as the positive sample  $x^+$ . Task representations from other tasks within the same category serve as negative samples  $\{x_i^-\}_{i=1}^{N-1}$ . Accordingly, we define the objective function for local contrastive representations, denoted as  $\mathcal{L}_{LCR}$ , is then defined as follows:

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\mathcal{L}_{LCR} = -\frac{1}{N_{\text{category}}}\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{category}}}\frac{1}{N_{\text{tasks}}}\sum_{j=1}^{N_{\text{tasks}}}\log\left[\frac{\exp\left(x_{ij}\cdot x_{ij}^{+}/\tau\right)}{\sum_{k=1 \ k\neq j}^{N_{\text{tasks}}}\exp\left(x_{ij}\cdot x_{ijk}^{-}/\tau\right)}\right],\tag{8}
$$

where  $N_{\text{category}}$  represents the number of task categories,  $N_{\text{tasks}}$  denotes the total number of sampled tasks,  $x_{ij}^+$  is the positive sample corresponding to the query sample  $x_{ij}$ , and  $x_{ijk}^-$  is the k-th negative sample from task j corresponding to task i. Consequently, we adopt a composite loss function that combines reconstruction and contrastive learning objectives:  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{task inference}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{VAE}} + \lambda_{\text{HCR}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{HCR}} +$  $\lambda_{LCR} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{LCR}$ .

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### 4 EXPERIMENTS

#### **369** 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

**370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377** Environments. We evaluate our proposed method using the Meta-World benchmarks [\(Yu et al.,](#page-11-5) [2020\)](#page-11-5), which assess the generalization capabilities of agents across a wide range of task distributions. This benchmark contains 50 qualitatively distinct robotic manipulation tasks, each with 50 parametric variants that incorporate randomized goals and initial object positions. Specifically, the Meta-Learning 10 (ML-10) benchmark consists of  $N_{\text{train}} = 10$  training tasks and  $N_{\text{test}} = 5$  test tasks. Likewise, the Meta-Learning 45 (ML-45) benchmark comprises  $N_{\text{train}} = 45$  training tasks and  $N_{\text{test}} = 5$  test tasks. Notably, task IDs are not provided as input; agents need to identify task attributes from experience while maximizing their return within a meta-episode of  $H^+ = 1000$  steps, which consists of  $n_{roll} = 2$  rollout episodes of horizon  $H = 500$  steps each.

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Figure 4: Meta-World Success Rates and Returns in Test Tasks. The success rates and corresponding average returns of our methods and baselines, averaged across the test tasks of ML-10 and ML-45 in the second rollout, are presented. The individual maximum success rates and corresponding returns for all tasks are reported in Appendix [D.1.](#page-14-0)

Baselines. To demonstrate the effectiveness of our method, we compare it with the following methods: (1) VariBAD [\(Zintgraf et al., 2019\)](#page-11-3) leverages a VAE consisting of an RNN-based encoder and a prediction decoder as a task inference module to obtain task representations, which are then used for decision-making. (2) LDM [\(Lee & Chung, 2021\)](#page-10-9) utilizes synthetic tasks generated from mixtures of learned latent dynamics to enhance the generalization ability of agents. (3) **SDVT** [\(Lee](#page-10-1) [et al., 2023\)](#page-10-1) employs a Gaussian mixture VAE to meta-learn the task decomposition process and leverages a virtual training procedure to enhance generalization to unseen tasks. (4) Million [\(Bing](#page-10-2) [et al., 2023\)](#page-10-2) introduces a meta-RL paradigm comprising an instruction phase and a trial phase, integrating transformers with language instructions to improve task adaptation capabilities. To guarantee a fair comparison, each method is evaluated under the same experimental settings.

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### 4.2 COMPARISON UNSEEN TASKS ADAPTATION PERFORMANCE

**405 406 407 408** To evaluate the performance of our method, we compare it with other approaches. In Figure [4,](#page-7-0) we present the mean and standard deviation of returns and success rates across five random seeds. Performance is assessed based on the success rate and average return across all test tasks.

**409 410 411 412 413 414 415 416** Figure [4](#page-7-0) illustrates that our method outperforms other baselines in both the ML-10 and ML-45 tasks. This success can be attributed to two central aspects of our approach: First, we implement a coarse-to-fine policy refinement strategy, allowing the agent to initially utilize skill-specific expert modules, followed by further refinement using a task-aware policy informed by task representations. Second, we apply contrastive learning to structure the latent space at both holistic and local levels, thereby producing more robust task representations for generating task-aware policies. As a result, our methodology significantly improves learning efficiency and adaptive performance, representing an advancement over previous state-of-the-art approaches.

**417 418** 4.3 COMPARISON ZERO-SHOT ADAPTATION PERFORMANCE

**419 420** To evaluate the zero-shot adaptation performance of our method, we compared it with other approaches on the ML10 and ML45 tasks during the initial episodes.

**421 422 423 424 425 426** Table [1](#page-8-0) demonstrates that our method achieves respectable performance within the first episode when adapting to new tasks, outperforming other baselines across all environments. This demonstrates the strong zero-shot adaptation capabilities of our method, which are essential for agents functioning in dynamic and open-ended environments. While methods such as SDVT and LDM exhibit relatively good performance, they do not attain the highest performance in the first episode.

**427 428** 4.4 ABLATION

**429 430 431** To validate each proposed component of our method, we conducted a series of ablation experiments. The coarse-to-fine policy refinement and the holistic-local contrastive task representations are crucial elements of our approach. We compared our method with variants that excluded either the coarse-to-fine policy refinement or the holistic-local contrastive task representations to evaluate



<span id="page-8-0"></span>**432 433 434** Table 1: Success Rate and Return on ML-10 and ML-45 Benchmarks. To demonstrate their adaptability to unseen tasks, the meta-trained policies were rolled out over two episodes. We present the maximum success rate averaged across five random seeds, along with the corresponding returns.

**453 454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462** the contribution of each component. The maximum success rates, averaged over five random seeds, along with the corresponding return values, are displayed in Table [2.](#page-8-1) In both benchmarks, the absence of these components led to a reduction in average return. In contrast, incorporating either the coarse-to-fine policy or the holistic-local contrastive representation resulted in an increase in average return and task success rate. Notably, combining the holistic-local contrastive representations (HLR) with the coarse-to-fine policy refinement (CFO) significantly enhanced both success rate and average return across all environments. This improvement can be attributed to our innovative task representations, which structure the latent space at both holistic and local levels, producing more robust task representations. These robust representations enable the generation of effective task-aware policies, thereby enhancing adaptability to new tasks.

<span id="page-8-1"></span>**463 464 465** Table 2: Ablation study performed on the ML-10 and ML-45 benchmarks, comparing CFOHLR with methods that omit Coarse-to-Fine Policy Refinement (CFO) and Holistic-Local Contrastive Representation (HLR).



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### 5 RELATED WORK

Meta Reinforcement Learning. Meta-reinforcement learning (Meta-RL) aims to enable agents to quickly adapt to new tasks by leveraging meta-knowledge gained from training on a diverse set

**486 487 488 489 490 491 492 493** of similar tasks. Meta-RL approaches can be broadly categorized into two types: gradient-based methods [\(Finn et al., 2017\)](#page-10-10) and context-based methods [\(Rakelly et al., 2019;](#page-10-11) [Zintgraf et al., 2019\)](#page-11-3). Gradient-based meta-RL methods focus on developing models capable of rapid adaptation to new tasks through a few gradient updates but do not support zero-shot adaptation. In contrast, contextbased meta-RL methods comprise a task inference module and a conditional policy module. The task inference module infers task representations from trajectory information, while the conditional policy module guides the agent's action selection based on the environmental state and the inferred task representation. In this paper, we adopt the context-based meta-RL architecture.

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**495 496 497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504** Task-level Adaptation in Meta-RL. Most studies in meta-RL focus on narrow task distributions, where different tasks are defined by varying only a few parameters related to the reward function or environment dynamics [\(Duan et al., 2016;](#page-10-12) [Zintgraf et al., 2019;](#page-11-3) [Rakelly et al., 2019\)](#page-10-11). However, these approaches do not accurately reflect real-world scenarios and limit the agent's ability to adapt to a wide range of tasks, particularly at the task level. Consequently, recent research efforts are directed toward addressing the challenge of task-level adaptation. For example, SDVT [\(Lee et al.,](#page-10-1) [2023\)](#page-10-1) employs a Gaussian mixture VAE to meta-learn task representations and proposes a virtual training procedure to improve generalization to unseen tasks. Similarly, Million [\(Bing et al., 2023\)](#page-10-2) integrates transformers with task language instruction to enhance task adaptation capabilities. However, both approaches fail to fully leverage hierarchical characteristic of task-level adaptation in task representations and policy learning, thereby obtain limited gains in adaptation performance.

**506 507 508 509 510 511 512 513 514 Mixture of Expert.** To enhance performance in completing complex tasks, a promising approach is the use of compositional modules, specifically the mixture of experts (MoE) method [\(Masoudnia](#page-10-13) [& Ebrahimpour, 2014\)](#page-10-13). The core idea of MoE is to integrate multiple expert models, each specialized in processing a distinct type of input or a specific aspect of a task. These expert models can learn independently and develop specialized capabilities during the training process. For instance, Routing Networks [\(Rosenbaum et al., 2017\)](#page-10-14) consist of a router and a set of neural network modules; the router selects a module based on the given input and repeats this process iteratively. In contrast, soft modularization [\(Yang et al., 2020\)](#page-11-6) employs an attention network to generate weights for each module. In this paper, we adopt the mechanism of soft module selection to construct a coarse policy within the coarse-to-fine policy refinement process.

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**516 517 518 519 520 521 522 523 524 525 526 527** Contrastive Learning To structure the latent space of task representations and enhance their robustness, we employ contrastive learning to improve the task inference process. Previous studies [\(Li](#page-10-15) [et al., 2020;](#page-10-15) [2021;](#page-10-8) [Yuan & Lu, 2022;](#page-11-7) [Wang et al., 2023;](#page-11-4) [Gao et al., 2023\)](#page-10-16) have also utilized contrastive learning for this purpose. For instance, FOCAL [\(Li et al., 2021\)](#page-10-8) introduced a loss function that uses negative-power distance metrics to constrain the task representation space. Similarly, Moss [\(Wang et al., 2023\)](#page-11-4) employs contrastive learning to differentiate between distinct tasks while clustering similar ones. However, these methods focus exclusively on task instance-level contrastive representation learning, neglecting task category-level contrastive representation learning. This oversight results in a failure to structure the task representation space from a global perspective, thereby reducing the robustness of task representations. To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first to combine the strengths of both instance-wise and category-level contrastive representation methods in meta-RL to achieve robust task representation in task-level adaptation, thereby improving adaptation performance.

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## 6 CONCLUSION

**531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 539** In this study, we have introduced a novel method that significantly improves zero-shot performance in task-level adaptation within meta-RL. This enhancement is achieved by integrating a coarse-tofine policy refinement with a holistic-local contrastive task representation. Specifically, we leverage language instructions to select skill-specific expert modules as a coarse policy. This coarse policy is then refined by a fine policy employing a hypernetwork to generate a task-aware policy based on task representations. To derive robust task representations, we utilize contrastive learning to refine them from both holistic and local perspectives. Experimental results demonstrate that our method substantially boosts learning efficiency and zero-shot adaptation to new tasks, outperforming previous approaches on the Meta-World ML-10 and ML-45 benchmarks.



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### A TRAINING APPROACH AND PSEUDOCODE

We utilize Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [\(Schulman et al., 2017\)](#page-11-8) to train our policy network. PPO is an on-policy, actor-critic deep RL algorithm. The optimization objective for the policy is as follows:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{policy}}(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[ \min \left( r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t, \text{clip} \left( r_t(\theta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon \right) \hat{A}_t \right) \right]
$$
(9)

Here, At denotes the estimation of the advantage function, and  $r_t(\theta)$  represents the probability ratio, defined as  $r_t(\theta) = \frac{\pi \theta(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(a_t|s_t)}$ , where  $\pi_{\theta}$  represents the new policy and  $\pi_{\theta_{old}}$  represents the old policy.

In optimizing the conditional policy module, we utilize the  $\mathcal{L}_{policy}$  loss function. Notably, similar to the approach utilized in VariBAD [\(Zintgraf et al., 2019\)](#page-11-3), the optimization of the task inference module does not rely on the  $\mathcal{L}_{policy}$  loss function. Instead, we adopt a composite loss function that combines reconstruction and contrastive learning objectives. The specific pseudo-code is shown in Algorithm 1.

#### Algorithm 1 CFOHLR

**668 669 670 671 672 673 674 675 676 677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686 687 688 689 690 691 692 Require:** Encoder  $q_{\phi}$  and Decoder  $p_{\theta}$  of VAE; Coarse policy  $\pi_{\theta}$ ; Fine policy  $\pi_{\omega}$ ; Weight generator  $W_{\alpha}$  Skill-specific expert models  $\text{MoE}_{\theta_i}^{i=0,\dots,K}$ ; Hypernetworks  $H_{\phi}$ ; VAE buffer  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{VAE}}$ ; Policy buffer  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{Policy}}$ ; The number of meta-episodes  $n_{\text{meta}}$ ; The number of rollout episodes per metaepisode  $n_{roll}$ ; Language instruction  $U$ . while i=0,..., $N_{update}$  do Sample K training tasks  $M_i^{i=0,\dots,K} \sim M_{\text{train}}$ for timestep t =  $0,...,n_{roll} * H - 1$  do if t mod  $H = 0$  then Reset rollout episode for each task, obtain  $S_t = \{s_{t,1}, s_{t,2}, \ldots, s_{t,n}\}\$ end if for  $j=0,\ldots,K$  do Obtain weights  $\alpha_{1,j}, \ldots, \alpha_{k,j} = W_{\alpha}(\mathcal{U}_j)$  for each skill-specific expert module. Obtain the output of the coarse policy  $\pi_{\theta}$ , denoted as  $O_{\text{MOE}} = \sum_{i=0}^{K} \alpha_i \cdot \text{MoE}_{\theta_i}$ . Leverage  $H_{\phi}$  to generate the network parameters of the fine policy,  $\pi_{\omega} = H_{\phi}(z_t^j)$ . Obtain the action  $a_{t,j} = \pi_{\omega}(O_{\text{MOE}})$ . end for Finally, obtain actions for each task  $A_t = \{a_{t,1}, a_{t,2}, \ldots, a_{t,n}\}.$ Take an environment step, obtaining  $S_{t+1} = \{s_{t+1,1}, s_{t+1,2}, \ldots, s_{t+1,n}\}\$  and  $R_t =$  ${r_{t+1,1}, r_{t+1,2}, \ldots, r_{t+1,n}}.$ Add the transition  $(S_t, A_t, R_{t+1}, S_{t+1})$  to  $\mathcal{D}_{VAE}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_{Policy}$ . Update task representations  $Z_{t+1} = \{z_{t+1,n} = q_\phi(\tau_{t+1,n})\}_{i=0,\ldots,n}$ . end for Update VAE by minimizing  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{VAE} + \mathcal{L}_{contra}$ Update policy  $\theta$ ,  $\omega$  and weight generator  $\alpha$  by minimizing  $L_{\text{actor}} + L_{\text{critic}}$ . end while

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# B LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

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**698 699 700 701** Despite the significant progress, our method has limitations that were not addressed in this study. Notably, it is not directly applicable to the cross-entity adaptation problem, which involves generalizing a policy from one robotic entity to another. This limitation affects the overall generalizability of the policy. Future research will focus on tackling the challenge of cross-entity adaptation in a zero-shot manner, thereby enhancing the policy generalization.

#### **702 703** C IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

#### **704 705** C.1 REFERENCE IMPLEMENTATIONS

**706 707 708 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716** SDVT, LDM, and VariBAD We adapt the SDVT [\(Lee et al., 2023\)](#page-10-1), LDM [\(Lee & Chung, 2021\)](#page-10-9), and VariBAD [\(Zintgraf et al., 2019\)](#page-11-3) algorithms to the Meta-World benchmark. These algorithms are all based on the VariBAD method, which itself is grounded in the Bayesian Adaptive MDP (BAMDP) framework. VariBAD employs a VAE architecture consisting of a recurrent encoder and a dynamics decoder to obtain task representations. LDM introduces a virtual training procedure to VariBAD to address out-of-distribution challenges. Building on LDM, SDVT uses a Gaussian mixture distribution to model the latent space of the VAE. Notably, the virtual training steps of the LDM and SDVT methods are included in the total count of training steps, as these virtual processes necessitate agent interaction with the environment to obtain real states for generating imagined samples. We used open-source code to reproduce the results of the SDVT, LDM, and VariBAD methods, respectively, available at <https://github.com/suyoung-lee/SDVT>, [https://github.](https://github.com/suyoung-lee/LDM) [com/suyoung-lee/LDM](https://github.com/suyoung-lee/LDM), and <https://github.com/lmzintgraf/varibad>.

**718 719 720 721** Million Million [\(Bing et al., 2023\)](#page-10-2) introduces a meta-RL paradigm comprising an instruction phase and a trial phase, integrating transformers with language instruction to improve task adaptation capabilities. We used open-source code to reproduce the results of the Million methods, respectively, available at <https://github.com/yaoxt3/MILLION>.

- **723** C.2 HYPERPARAMETERS
- **724 725** C.2.1 SDVT

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- **726** We used the default hyperparameters from the paper, which are shown in Table [3.](#page-14-1)
- **728** C.2.2 LDM AND VARIBAD
	- We used the default hyperparameters from the paper, which are shown in Table [4.](#page-15-0)
- **731 732** C.2.3 MILLION
- **733 734** We used the default hyperparameters from the paper, which are shown in Table [5.](#page-15-1)
- **735** C.2.4 OURS
- **736 737** C.3 NETWORK ARCHITECTURE

**738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745** Our method utilizes a context-based architecture, comprising a task inference module and a conditional policy module. For the task inference module, similar to SDVT, we also employ a Gaussian mixture VAE to model the latent space. This module consists of an RNN-based encoder and a prediction decoder. Before being input into the encoder or decoder, all state, action, and reward inputs pass through embedding networks. Regarding the conditional policy module, it includes language-selected, skill-specific expert modules and a hypernetwork-based, task-aware policy. Similarly, before being input into the conditional policy module, all state, action, and reward inputs pass through embedding networks.

- **747** C.4 TASK DESCRIPTIONS
- **748 749** In Table [11,](#page-20-0) we provide the language instructions for each of the 50 Meta-World tasks.
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# D DETAILED EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

**753 754 755** We adhere to the success criterion established by Meta-World. A timestep is considered successful when the distance between the task-relevant object and the target falls within an acceptable range. Furthermore, an entire rollout episode is deemed successful if the agent achieves success at any timestep during the episode.



#### Table 3: Hyperparameters used for Garage experiments with SDVT

<span id="page-14-0"></span>D.1 PERFORMANCE ON INDIVIDUAL TASKS

D.1.1 ML-10

**793** D.1.2 ML-45

D.2 LEARNING CURVES

In Figure [5,](#page-16-0) we present the mean and standard deviation of returns and success rates across five random seeds.

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E ADDITIONAL RESULTS

E.1 VISULIZATIONS

**803 804 805 806 807 808** To demonstrate the quality of the learned task representations, we employed t-SNE [Van der Maaten](#page-11-9) [& Hinton](#page-11-9) [\(2008\)](#page-11-9) to map the task representation vectors into a 2D space, enabling the visualization of these representations. For each testing task, 150 transitions from the meta-testing phase were sampled to visualize the task representations. As depicted in Figure [6,](#page-21-0) our method effectively distinguishes task representations from different categories, with additional separation observed among tasks within the same category.

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<span id="page-15-0"></span>**813 814 815 816** Table 4: The hyperparameters used in experiments with LDM and VariBAD are consistent across both models in the general and policy categories of SDVT, as outlined in Table [3.](#page-14-1) The only difference lies in the modeling of the latent space: SDVT utilizes a Gaussian mixture model, while both LDM and VariBAD employ a Gaussian model.



Table 5: Hyperparameters used in experiments with Million.

<span id="page-15-1"></span>

<b>Description</b>	<b>ML10</b>	ML45
Meta-Task Hyperparameters		
Meta-batch size	10	10
Tasks sampled per epoch	10	10
General Hyperparameters		
<b>Batch Timesteps</b>	1,000	1,000
Action repeat	1,000	1,000
Demonstration action	1,000	1,000
repeat		
Max trials per episode	750	750
Discount factor	0.99	0.99
Algorithm-Specific Hyperparameters		
Learning rate	$1e-4$	$1e-4$
GAE lambda	0.97	0.97
Epsilon eta	$1 \times 10^{-2}$	$1 \times 10^{-2}$
Epsilon alpha	$1 \times 10^{-2}$	$1 \times 10^{-2}$
Epsilon alpha mu	0.0075	0.0075
Epsilon alpha sigma	$1e-5$	$1e-5$



<span id="page-16-0"></span>

Figure 5: Learning Curves on ML-10 and ML-45. The maximum success rates and corresponding returns of our methods, along with baseline comparisons, are presented. The plot shows the mean and standard deviation of returns across five random seeds.

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All results are reported as the mean success rate  $\pm 95\%$  confidence interval of five seeds. Index. Task Ours w/o C2F w/o HLC SDVT Million LDM VariBAD 1. Reach 85.2±3.6 53.2±4.6 44.0±7.3 53.6±14.4 10.4±11.3 50.4±7.9 78.0±5.7 2. Push 86.0±3.0 70.4±9.8 74.8±3.0 74.0±3.8 44.5±17.8 31.2±11.2 2.4±2.0 3. Pick-place  $85.2 \pm 4.5$   $66.0 \pm 6.9$   $66.0 \pm 2.9$   $53.2 \pm 6.0$   $48.1 \pm 29.8$   $37.2 \pm 20.0$   $0.8 \pm 0.7$ <br>4. Door-open  $81.2 \pm 1.9$   $99.6 \pm 0.6$   $97.2 \pm 3.9$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $81.1 \pm 25.1$   $99.6 \pm 0.6$   $74.8 \pm 25.4$ 4. Door-open 81.2 $\pm$ 1.9 99.6 $\pm$ 0.6 97.2 $\pm$ 3.9 100.0 $\pm$ 0.0 81.1 $\pm$ 25.1 99.6 $\pm$ 0.6 5. Drawer-close  $86.8 \pm 1.4$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $56.1 \pm 32.1$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$ 6. Button-press  $84.4 \pm 3.1$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $100.0 \pm 0.0$   $99.6 \pm 0.6$   $80.0 \pm 27.7$   $98.4 \pm 1.0$   $88.4 \pm 4.1$ 

Table 7: ML-10 of Meta-World success rate (%). We present the final success rates of our method and baseline approaches on both the training and test tasks of the Meta-World ML-10 benchmark.



Table 8: ML-10 of Meta-World returns. We present the performance metrics of our method and baseline approaches on both the training and test tasks of the Meta-World ML-10 benchmark. All results are reported as the mean return ±95% confidence interval of five seeds.

<b>Index. Task</b>	Ours	$w/o$ C2F	w/o <b>HLC</b>	<b>SDVT</b>	Million	<b>LDM</b>	<b>VariBAD</b>
1. Reach	3704±149	3778±128	$3520 \pm 141$	3763±296	$2324 \pm 447$	$3668 \pm 285$	$4054 \pm 138$
2. Push	3769±135	3338±342	$4094 + 90$	3675±272	$2225 \pm 750$	1795±812	$63 + 28$
3. Pick-place	3742±127	2089±254	$2420 + 116$	$1712 + 125$	$1678 \pm 803$	1258±709	$7\pm1$
4. Door-open	$3740 \pm 91$	$4503 \pm 51$	$4313 + 78$	$4439 \pm 26$	2790±980	$4442 + 47$	2978±470
5. Drawer-close	$3708 + 75$	$4857 + 7$	$4811 \pm 30$	$4852 \pm 10$	$2505+13024809+67$		$4637 + 77$
6. Button-press	$3622 \pm 144$	3489±93	$3250 \pm 108$	$3372 \pm 60$	1337±734	$3226 \pm 60$	$2028 \pm 155$
7. Peg-insert-side	$3703 \pm 113$	$2359 \pm 678$	2827±421	$2443 \pm 266$	1179±697	$1364 \pm 773$	$9\pm1$
8. Window-open	$3787 \pm 157$	4479±49	4398±49	$4476 \pm 51$	$2331 \pm 942$	$4384 \pm 61$	$3692 \pm 202$
9. Sweep	3786±147	$4093 \pm 85$	$3963 \pm 100$	$3801 \pm 208$	$2849 + 932$	3997±189	$92 \pm 28$
10. Basketball	3705±185	3532±196	3576±202	2937±618	$1624 + 774$	$3433+196$	$9\pm2$
<b>Train mean</b>	$3727 + 221$	$3652 + 289$	3717±112	$3547 + 203$	$2084+13653238+613$		$1757 + 178$
11. Drawer-open	3796+112	2477±393	$2477 \pm 190$	$2660 \pm 396$	1876±384	$2697 \pm 475$	$2036 \pm 329$
12. Door-close	$3740 + 119$	2489+566	$2887 + 769$	3087+944	$3302 + 415$	$1272 \pm 1538$ 2113 $\pm$ 558	
13. Shelf-place	3746±157	492±246	$607 \pm 115$	$341 + 99$	$141 + 204$	309+272	$0\pm 0$
14. Sweep-into	$3751 \pm 128$	1619±786	1705±434	1444±564	$716 \pm 264$	$1200 \pm 793$	$172 + 96$
15. Lever-pull	3634±197	$305 \pm 44$	$251 \pm 29$	$285 \pm 60$	$208 + 44$	$278 + 59$	$324 \pm 41$
<b>Test mean</b>	3734±165	1476±224	1585±290	1563±418	1249±205	$1151 \pm 692$	$929 \pm 208$

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Table 9: ML-45 of Meta-World success rate (%). We present the final success rates of our method and baseline approaches on both the training and test tasks of the Meta-World ML-45 benchmark. All results are reported as the mean success rate  $\pm 95\%$  confidence interval of five seeds.



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Table 10: ML-45 of Meta-World returns. We present the final returns of our method and baseline approaches on both the training and test tasks of the Meta-World ML-45 benchmark. All results are reported as the mean return  $\pm 95\%$  confidence interval of five seeds.

<b>Index. Task</b>	Ours	w/o C2F	w/o <b>HLC</b>	<b>SDVT</b>	<b>Million</b>	<b>LDM</b>	<b>VariBAD</b>
1. Assembly		2898±97 2847±27 2529±88 2590±61 329±53				$154 \pm 27$	$101 \pm 13$
2. Basketball		$2885 \pm 101$ 1417 $\pm$ 116 1444 $\pm$ 107 1569 $\pm$ 169 281 $\pm$ 86				$5\pm0$	$11\pm2$
3. Button-press-topdown		2693±1163582±100 <b>3712</b> ± <b>27</b> 3586±50 884±128 988±104					$1182 \pm 84$
4. Button-press-topdown-wall		2950±69 3541±120 <b>3686±52</b> 3594±62 868±132 977±99					$1209 \pm 81$
5. Button-press-wall		3186±28 3143±1113072±48 <b>3193</b> ± <b>101</b> 553±102 667±68					$615 \pm 96$
6. Button-press-wall							
7. Coffee-button		2746±53 <b>3465</b> ± <b>71</b> 2731±3363309±96 684±249 204±13					$211 \pm 25$
8. Coffee-pull		3123±79 1209±45 1385±128877±118			58±4	$40\pm 2$	$40\pm4$
9. Coffee-push		<b>3197±39</b> 1175±2031463±193729±55			$228 \pm 62$	$41 + 4$	$65 \pm 16$
10. Dial-turn		$2861\pm70$ 3711 $\pm$ 1343396 $\pm$ 1083607 $\pm$ 197670 $\pm$ 30				942±98	$803 \pm 76$
11. Disassemble		$2990\pm85$ 2823 $\pm$ 4312811 $\pm$ 2912878 $\pm$ 254124 $\pm$ 20				$156 \pm 11$	$130 \pm 10$
12. Door-close		2975±93 4310±44 4328±63 <b>4481</b> ± <b>19</b> 1138±1614359±27					$2661 \pm 580$
13. Door-open		$3080 \pm 50$ 4004 $\pm$ 1163948 $\pm$ 76 4010 $\pm$ 109636 $\pm$ 61				$624 \pm 76$	$607 \pm 62$
14. Drawer-close		2936±35 4443±1254730±28 <b>4748</b> ± <b>22</b> 3625±4624375±92 4482±122					
15. Drawer-open	2855±1124638±6						$4065 \pm 99$ $4391 \pm 14$ $1746 \pm 95$ $1284 \pm 71$ $1356 \pm 127$
16. Faucet-open	2945±94 4608±9						$4276 \pm 1584636 \pm 17$ 1669 $\pm 47$ 2212 $\pm 73$ 2584 $\pm 299$
17. Faucet-close							
18. Hammer	3013 $\pm$ 68 516 $\pm$ 28		$1299 \pm 301468 \pm 5$		$563 \pm 56$	$394 \pm 27$	397±25
19. Handle-press-side		2949±27 4689±52 4707±29 <b>4783</b> ± <b>8</b>			$480 \pm 68$	489±71	$1377 \pm 270$
20. Handle-press		2959±56 3647±1433060±2753340±240165±64					$2941\pm53$ 4648 $\pm$ 66 4601 $\pm$ 48 4579 $\pm$ 64 2063 $\pm$ 73 1791 $\pm$ 1002126 $\pm$ 116
21. Handle-pull-side 22. Handle-pull		3000±83 3482±3424019±59 2996±260996±392				$19\pm2$ $40\pm8$	$24 \pm 2$ $87 + 23$
	2999±46 762±79						
23. Lever-pull 24. Peg-insert-side		2978±42 1307±81 1616±1281238±50 192±36	381±33	878±89	276±13	240±10 $11\pm0$	$232 \pm 11$ $10\pm1$
25. Pick-place-wall		$3102 \pm 60$ 2542 $\pm$ 1572728 $\pm$ 1361812 $\pm$ 98 491 $\pm$ 181				$0\pm 0$	$2\pm 0$
26. Pick-out-of-hole						$10\pm1$	$13\pm1$
27. Push		$3157\pm49$ $2839\pm131$ $3313\pm108$ $2823\pm142$ $1555\pm125$ $3105\pm126$ $3193\pm89$					
28. Push-back		<b>2897±111</b> 1284±88 1799±66 881±203 16±2				$7\pm1$	$5\pm0$
29. Push		3094±1152428±123 <b>3421±56</b> 2247±92 651±156				55±6	$60\pm8$
30. Pick-place		$2921 \pm 54$ 1632 $\pm$ 76 2165 $\pm$ 83 1449 $\pm$ 141291 $\pm$ 115				$8\pm0$	$10\pm1$
31. Plate-slide-side		2942±63 2516±1382207±77 3221±98 1929±195359±18					546±40
32. Plate-slide-side		3022±1143250±84 2873±85 <b>3784±178</b> 818±54				$191 \pm 31$	$662 \pm 139$
33. Plate-slide back		$2764\pm46$ 4235 $\pm28$ 4109 $\pm20$ 4165 $\pm52$ 1021 $\pm52$ 556 $\pm15$					$561 \pm 67$
34. Plate-slide-back-side		3021±29 3776±179 <b>4173±24</b> 4124±58 631±142 183±35					728±134
35. Peg-unplug-side		2935±36 1390±2171984±187890±103			$43\pm9$	$33\pm3$	$27 \pm 1$
36. Soccer		2974 $\pm$ 67 1056 $\pm$ 25 1079 $\pm$ 41 1052 $\pm$ 65 515 $\pm$ 152 278 $\pm$ 30					$321 \pm 16$
37. Stick-push		<b>3074±21</b> 612±206 289±166		$26 \pm 8$	$125 \pm 28$	$11\pm1$	$14\pm 2$
38. Stick-pull	$2980\pm88$ 289 $\pm$ 92		$82 + 43$	$16\pm3$	129±37	$11\pm1$	$12\pm1$
39. Push-wall		$2925 \pm 74$ 2224 $\pm$ 97 3586 $\pm$ 50 2548 $\pm$ 308854 $\pm$ 218				$33 \pm 1$	$48 + 10$
40. Reach-wall		3063±41 2747±263 <b>3447</b> ±1802330±2731602±1672906±2633509±46					
41. Shelf-place	3041 $\pm$ 76 878 $\pm$ 70		$838\pm105$ 899 $\pm36$		$69 \pm 35$	$0\pm 0$	$1\pm 0$
42. Sweep-into		2756±79 3962±1404061±91 3095±422879±157 238±43					$207 + 45$
43. Sweep		2902±59 2976±139 <b>3251</b> ± <b>110</b> 1640±421325±62 65±8					$83 + 12$
44. Window-open		$2684 \pm 13$ 4142 $\pm 51$ 4125 $\pm 87$ 4225 $\pm 31$ 710 $\pm 62$				$471 \pm 30$	$795 \pm 116$
45. Window-close		2828±1124392±39 4397±28 4406±49 710±128 928±36					$1152 \pm 96$
<b>Train mean</b>		2961±1492797±2122879±2012685±154766±352 719±63					$779 \pm 171$
46. Bin-picking	2993±13884±48		$133 \pm 38$	$104 + 35$	$20 + 9$	$20 \pm 6$	$15 \pm 1$
47. Box-close	2844±133159±28		$255 \pm 78$	$145 \pm 19$	$231 \pm 72$	$248 + 20$	$209 \pm 34$
48. Hand-insert	$2708 \pm 238221 \pm 41$		$258 + 67$	$273 \pm 111$ $118 \pm 89$		$82 \pm 63$	$124 \pm 102$
49. Door-lock							$2960\pm3352048\pm1061901\pm7471565\pm2271659\pm1841692\pm3381589\pm374$
50. Door-unlock							2962±51 1844±2221952±2061763±264787±217 944±167 1219±339
<b>Test mean</b>		2912±105871±117 900±226 770±140 563±60				$597 \pm 154$ $631 \pm 203$	

<span id="page-20-0"></span>Table 11: A list of all of the Meta-World tasks and a description of each task.



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<span id="page-21-0"></span>