### **000 001 002 003 004** PROPOSER-AGENT-EVALUATOR (PAE): AUTONOMOUS SKILL DISCOVERY FOR FOUNDATION MODEL INTERNET AGENTS

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## ABSTRACT

The vision of a broadly capable and goal-directed agent, such as an Internetbrowsing agent in the digital world and a household humanoid in the physical world, has rapidly advanced, thanks to the generalization capability of foundation models. Such a generalist agent needs to have a large and diverse skill repertoire, such as finding directions between two travel locations and buying specific items from the Internet. If each skill needs to be specified manually through a fixed set of human-annotated instructions, the agent's skill repertoire will necessarily be limited due to the quantity and diversity of human-annotated instructions. In this work, we address this challenge by proposing Proposer-Agent-Evaluator(PAE), a complete working system that enables foundation model agents to autonomously discover and practice skills in the wild. At the heart of PAE is a context-aware task proposer that autonomously proposes tasks for the agent to practice with context information of the websites such as user demos or even just the name of the website itself. Then, the agent policy attempts those tasks with thoughts and actual web operations in the real world with resulting trajectories evaluated by an autonomous model-based success evaluator. The success evaluation serves as the reward signal for the agent to refine its policies through RL. We validate PAE on challenging vision-based web navigation, using both real-world and self-hosted websites from WebVoyager [\(He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) and WebArena [\(Zhou et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-0). Our results show that PAE significantly improves the zero-shot generalization capability of VLM Internet agents (more than 30% relative improvement) to both unseen tasks and websites. Our model also achieves an absolute advantage of over 10% (from 22.6% to 33.0%) comparing to other state-of-the-art open source VLM agents including Qwen2VL-72B. To the best of our knowledge, this work represents the first working system to apply autonomous task proposal with RL for agents that generalizes real-world human-annotated benchmarks with sota performances. We plan to release our models and code to facilitate further research.

#### **039** 1 INTRODUCTION

**040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049** The vision of broadly capable and goal-directed agent, such as an Internet-browsing agent in the digital world and a household humanoid in the physical world, has long captured our imagination. With recent advancements in foundation models [\(OpenAI, 2024;](#page-12-0) [GeminiTeam, 2024\)](#page-11-1), this vision is no longer a distant dream. These developments have significantly accelerated the progress of generalist agents [\(Liu et al., 2023b\)](#page-12-1) in real-world decision-making scenarios such as navigating through online websites to make travel plans [\(He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) and solving real-user Github issues [\(Jimenez](#page-11-2) [et al., 2024\)](#page-11-2), making them a rapidly emerging research frontier. To succeed in these decision-making domains, goal-directed post-training is often needed to elicit long-horizon reward-maximizing behaviors such as information seeking [\(Hong et al., 2023a\)](#page-11-3) and recovery from mistakes [\(Bai et al.,](#page-10-0) [2024\)](#page-10-0), instead of only imitating the most probable actions in the pre-training corpus.

**050 051 052 053** A crucial requirement for a successful post-training approach is to endow the generalist agent with a large and diverse goal-directed skill repertoire. This can include finding directions between two travel locations and buying specific items from the Internet, which the agent can then exploit to solve real-world tasks proposed by users. However, manually specifying the skills [\(Deng et al., 2023\)](#page-10-1) (i.e. through a static set of human-annotated instruction templates such as "Find the driving directions **054 055 056 057 058 059 060 061 062** and estimated time to travel from Location A to Location B") will likely result in a limited skill repertoire. First of all, generating high-quality human-annotated task templates can be expensive, making it impractical to scale up. The use of a small set of task templates fails to capture the range of skills an agent needs for the full breadth of the real world, leading to distribution shift problems when deployed at the test time. Furthermore, human-generated instructions have limited diversity due to human creativity [\(Wang et al., 2023b\)](#page-12-2), failing to capture the long-tail distribution of realworld tasks that the agent needs to solve. With these disadvantages, it naturally raises the research question: *instead of requiring users to manually define tasks for foundation model agents, can these agents automatically discover and practice potentially useful skills on their own?*

**063 064 065 066 067 068 069 070 071 072 073 074 075** In order to discover its own skills and improve autonomously, such an agent would need to be able to propose semantically meaningful tasks and then determine if it was successful in performing them. Such success detections can then serve as reward signals to apply Reinforcement Learning (RL) to optimize the agents. While prior works have explored the use of foundation models to propose skills to the agents to practice and detecting successes in simplified environments such as games [\(Du et al., 2023;](#page-11-4) [Colas et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023\)](#page-10-2) and robotics with limited number of

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Figure 1: An overview of our method showing the main components of our autonomous skill discovery framework, that endows the agent with autonomously discovered skills to prepare for future human requests.

**076 077 078** scenes [\(Zhang et al., 2023b;](#page-13-1) [Zhou et al., 2024b\)](#page-13-2), little has been understood in terms of whether such diverse skills can generalize to real-world human request such as web agents and what the key design decisions are to improve such generalization.

**079 080 081 082 083 084 085 086 087 088 089 090 091 092 093 094 095 096 097** To this end, our main contribution is to propose a fully working system, Proposer-Agent-Evaluator(PAE), for foundation model agents (in particular, Internet agents) to autonomously discover new skills without any human supervision and such new skills can be effectively exploited to solve unseen real-world human-annotated tasks in a zero-shot manner. In this way, the training workflow can be easily scaled to make use of diverse self-generated instructions in large quantities to enrich the skill repertoire of the agent. PAE is built with the awareness the asymmetric capabilities of sota VLMs as task proposers/ evaluators and as agents (discussed in Section [6\)](#page-6-0) in some realistic task settings such as web agents and designed to make best use of this asymmetry. Intuitively, VLMs are very good at confirming whether a specific product has been added to the shopping cart (e.g. by looking at the final screenshot to see if the shopping cart contains the product), while less good at actually navigating the web to find the product and add it to the cart. To obtain the most robust reward signal without accessing the hidden state information, we apply an image-based evaluator that only provides sparse 0/1 rewards based on the final outcome. To propose feasible and realistic tasks, PAE employs a class of context-aware task proposers where the context of functions and constraints crucially define what actions are supported by the specific environments (e.g., creating a reddit post) while others may not be supported (e.g., checking the protected information of other users). Such context can be implicitly defined from different sources and are shown to be effective, such as user demos and even website name alone! Finally, we design an additional reasoning step before the agent outputs actual actions, which enables the agents to better reflect on its skills and results in a significant improvement in its generalization capability to unseen human-annotated tasks.

**098 099 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107** The scope of our experiments covers challenging end-to-end vision-based web navigation, where the observation space simply contains the screenshot of the current web page and the action space contains primitive web operations such as clicking on links and typing into text boxes. We validate the effectiveness of PAE framework with realistic web-navigation benchmarks, including 16 domains both from online websites like Amazon from WebVoyager [\(He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) and self-hosted websites like PostMill from WebArena [\(Zhou et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-0). In our experiments, we find that PAE with LLaVa-1.6 [\(Liu et al., 2024\)](#page-11-5) as the agent policy can autonomously discover useful skills through interactions with various websites without any human supervisions. More importantly, our results demonstrate that these skills can zero-shot transfer to unseen test instructions and even unseen test websites. On websites from WebVoyager and WebArena, PAE attains a 30% relative improvement in average success rate, enabling LLaVa-1.6-7B to achieve performance comparable with LLaVa-

**108 109 110 111 112** 1.6-34B fine-tuned with demonstration data despite using 5x fewer test-time compute. Compared to other state-of-the-art open-sourced VLM agents, including Qwen2VL-72B [\(Yang et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-3), our model achieves an absolute performance gain of over 10% (22.6% to 33.0%). *To the best of our knowledge, this work is the first to develop a working system of autonomous skill discovery for foundation model agents that directly generalizes to real-world human-annotated benchmarks.*

#### **113 114** 2 RELATED WORKS

**115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131** Foundation model agents. Thanks to the generalization capabilities of Large Language Models (LLMs) [\(Brown et al., 2020;](#page-10-3) [Llama3Team, 2024;](#page-12-3) [GeminiTeam, 2024\)](#page-11-1) and Vision Language Models (VLMs) [\(OpenAI, 2024;](#page-12-0) [Liu et al., 2024;](#page-11-5) [Wang et al., 2024b;](#page-12-4) [Liu et al., 2023a\)](#page-11-6), recent works have successfully extended such agents to more general real-world use cases [\(Bai et al., 2024;](#page-10-0) [Zheng et al.,](#page-13-4) [2024;](#page-13-4) [He et al., 2024;](#page-11-0) [Zhang et al., 2023a;](#page-13-5) [Zhou et al., 2024a;](#page-13-0) [Koh et al., 2024;](#page-11-7) [Gur et al., 2021;](#page-11-8) [Furuta et al., 2024\)](#page-11-9). Besides constructing prompting wrappers around proprietary VLMs [\(Zhang](#page-13-5) [et al., 2023a;](#page-13-5) [He et al., 2024;](#page-11-0) [Zheng et al., 2024;](#page-13-4) [Xie et al., 2024;](#page-12-5) [Yang et al., 2024b;](#page-13-6) [Wang et al.,](#page-12-6) [2023a\)](#page-12-6) and fine-tuning open-source VLMs with expert demonstrations [\(Gur et al., 2021;](#page-11-8) [Hong et al.,](#page-11-10) [2023b;](#page-11-10) [Furuta et al., 2024;](#page-11-9) [Zhang & Zhang, 2024;](#page-13-7) [Zeng et al., 2023;](#page-13-8) [Chen et al., 2023\)](#page-10-4), a recent trend has emerged involving the interactive improvement of LLM/VLM, in particular web/GUI agents, through autonomous evaluator feedback [\(Pan et al., 2024;](#page-12-7) [Bai et al., 2024;](#page-10-0) [Putta et al., 2024\)](#page-12-8), where evaluator LLMs/VLMs are prompted to evaluate the success of the agents to serve as the reward signal. This approach aims to elicit goal-oriented and reward-optimizing behaviors from foundation models with minimal human supervision. However, these methods still depend on a static set of human-curated task templates, which can constrain their potential and scalability. Our work introduces a novel framework where agents can *discover* and practice the skills they find useful, thereby eliminating the reliance on predefined and human-curated task templates. This approach opens up new possibilities for scalability and adaptability in training autonomous LLM/VLM agents.

**132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143** Self-generated instructions. Self-generated instructions for improving LLMs have been shown to be effective in single-turn LLM alignment [\(Wang et al., 2023b;](#page-12-2) [Yuan et al., 2024;](#page-13-9) [Wu et al., 2024;](#page-12-9) [Wang et al., 2024a\)](#page-12-10) and reasoning [\(Pang et al., 2024\)](#page-12-11) domains without interactions with an external environment. AgentGen [\(Hu et al., 2024\)](#page-11-11) employs a similar methodology to fine-tune LLM agents with ground-truth trajectories in self-generated environments and tasks. However, its feasibility in the self-play agent setting with RL and autonomous evaluators has not been understood. The closest works to ours employ autonomous RL and foundation model task proposers to simplified environments such as games [\(Zhang et al., 2024a;](#page-13-10) [Faldor et al., 2024;](#page-11-12) [Colas et al., 2023;](#page-10-2) [2020\)](#page-10-5) and robotics settings with limited number of scenes [\(Du et al., 2023;](#page-11-4) [Zhang et al., 2023b;](#page-13-1) [Zhou et al.,](#page-13-2) [2024b\)](#page-13-2). While they have shown that the use of autonomous RL combined with foundation model task proposers can help the agent learn diverse skills, this work takes an important step forward to study when those skills can generalize to human requests in realistic benchmarks in the context of web agents and what the best design choices are for such generalization.

**144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154** Unsupervised skill discovery in deep RL. Unsupervised skill discovery has been an important research direction in the field of traditional deep RL literatrue [\(Achiam et al., 2018;](#page-10-6) [Eysenbach](#page-11-13) [et al., 2018\)](#page-11-13) where various algorithms have been developed to discover new robotic skills such as humanoid walking without the need of explicitly defined reward functions. Common algorithms in this field aim to discover *every possible* skill (either meaningful skills like walking or less meaningful ones like random twisting) through either maximizing the mutual information between different states and skill latent vectors [\(Campos et al., 2020;](#page-10-7) [Laskin et al., 2022;](#page-11-14) [Sharma et al., 2020\)](#page-12-12), or maximizing the divergence of each skill as measured in a metric space [\(Park et al., 2022;](#page-12-13) [2023;](#page-12-14) [2024\)](#page-12-15). In contrast, our work *only discovers meaningful skills* as specified through natural language instructions with the help of pre-trained foundation models, significantly reducing the search space of skills in LLM/VLM agent applications with complex state spaces.

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# <span id="page-2-0"></span>3 PROPOSER-AGENT-EVALUATOR (PAE): AUTONOMOUS SKILL DISCOVERY SYSTEM FOR FOUNDATION MODEL AGENTS

**158 159 160 161** Next, we will explain the technical contributions of this paper. In this section, we will define the general system of PAE including a task proposer, an agent policy, and an autonomous evaluator. We will begin by formalizing the learning goal of this system and detailing the roles of each key component in the system. Then we will walk through our practical algorithm in the system. In the section to follow, we will provide the example of applying PAE to VLM Internet agents.

**162 163 164 165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177 178 179** Problem setup We begin by formalizing the problem setup of autonomous skill discovery for realworld agents. The learning goal of PAE is to find a reward-maximizing policy  $\pi$  parameterized by  $\theta$ in a contextual Markov Decision Process (MDP) environment defined by  $\mathcal{M} = \{S, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{R}, H, C\}$ , where  $S, A$  are the state space and action space respectively, and H is the horizon within which the agent must complete the task. We assume that the agent has access to the environment and can collect online roll-out trajectories through accessing the dynamics model  $\tau$  as a function of determining the next states given the current states and actions. *Crucially, we assume that the ground-truth task distribution* C *and the reward function* R *are hidden during training and we have to use a proxy task distribution*  $\hat{C}$  *and reward function*  $\hat{R}$  *instead.* Consider the setting of training a real-world Internet agent. The dynamics model  $\mathcal T$  would be a simulated browser environment that the Internet agent can interact with. The ground-truth task distribution  $\mathcal C$  might be the distribution of tasks that would be asked by the real users when the Internet agent is deployed and a possible choice for the reward function  $\mathcal R$  might be whether the agent has satisfactorily completed the tasks for the real users. In such a real-world setting, although the agent can freely access resources from the Internet through a simulated browser environment during training, assuming knowledge of the ground-truth task distribution and reward function is impractical. Therefore, we employ VLM-based task proposers  $\hat{C}$  and reward model  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$  as proxies. The desired outcome is that improving the policy  $\pi_{\theta}$  with  $\hat{\mathcal{C}}$  and  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$  can lead to an improved policy that can successfully generalize to the ground-truth task distribution and reward functions only used as evaluations.

**180 181 182 183 184 185 186 187 188 189 190 191 192 193 194 195 196** Key components Figure [1](#page-1-0) shows the interplay between the key components in our framework, including a context-aware task proposer, an agent policy, and an autonomous evaluator. The role of the **task proposer**  $\hat{C}$  is to serve as a proxy to improve on the ground-truth task distribution  $\mathcal C$  during the learning process. However, it might be unrealistic to expect the task proposer to generate feasible tasks without knowledge of the environment. To provide more context of the functions and constraints of the environment, we assume access to some key information of the environment  $z_{\mathcal{M}}$  based on which the tasks  $\mathcal{C}(z_{\mathcal{M}})$  are proposed. In the Internet agent example, this key information can be screenshots of the websites from user demos, or even just the name of the website itself if it

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Figure 2: An illustration of the observation space and action space of our vision-based web navigation environment. The observation space is augmented with set-of-marks that label each interactable element with a unique number. At each step, the web agent first chooses an element to interact with by referring to its number and then choose the action type to perform on this element (e.g., click, type, and etc.).

**197 198 199 200 201 202** is a well-known website such as Amazon.com. Similarly, the **autonomous evaluator**  $\mathcal{R}$  serves as a proxy of the ground-truth reward function  $\mathcal{R}$ . The input to the autonomous evaluator is the current state, the current action from the agent policy, and current task that the agent is attempting. In principle, any RL algorithm can be used to update the **agent policy**  $\pi$  using a dataset  $D$  that stores all the autonomous interaction data. In practice, we instantiate VLM-based task proposers and autonomous evaluators by prompting foundation models and they are kept unchanged throughout our practical algorithm.

## 4 PROPOSER-AGENT-EVALUATOR FOR VLM INTERNET AGENTS

**205 206 207** With the general framework set up, we are now ready to discuss the concrete instantiation of PAE in the setting of VLM Internet agents. We start by introducing the environment of vision-based web navigation and then explain how we implement the key components from the PAE in this setting.

**208** 4.1 VISION-BASED WEB BROWSING ENVIRONMENT

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**209 210 211 212 213 214 215** We consider the general vision-based web browsing environment [\(He et al., 2024;](#page-11-0) [Koh et al., 2024\)](#page-11-7). The goal for VLM agents in this environment is to navigate through realistic web pages to complete some user tasks  $c_t$  such as "Investigate in the Hugging Face documentation how to utilize the 'Trainer' API for training a model on a custom dataset, and note the configurable parameters of the Trainer class". As illustrated in Figure [2,](#page-3-0) each **observation**  $s_t$  from the observation space contains only the screenshot of the last web page just like how humans interact with the Internet. To provide better action grounding, we follow the practice from prior works [\(Zheng et al., 2024;](#page-13-4) [He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) to augment the observation space with number marks on top of each interactive element such as web **216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223 224 225 226** links and text boxes. To execute a web browsing action, the Internet agent can directly output the number of the element to interact with and the corresponding action such as clicking and typing, without the need of locating the coordinates of each web element. Therefore each web action  $a_t$ contains the type of the action to perform and the number of the element to interact with. Each episode finishes either when the agent chooses to finish through the "Answer" action or when a maximum number of 10 steps have been reached. In our experiments, we use ground-truth success detectors (based on either human annotations or functional verifiers) and human annotated tasks from WebArena [\(Zhou et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-0) and WebVoyager [\(He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) to evaluate the performance of different policies. Crucially, both the ground-truth success detector and the distribution of human tasks are kept hidden, which challenges the generalization capability of the learnt skills to generalize to a hidden reward function and task distributions.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>**227** 4.2 CONTEXT-AWARE TASK PROPOSER

**228 229 230 231 232 233 234 235 236** In order to generate a diverse set of feasible tasks, we frame task proposing  $\hat{C}$  as a conditional auto-regressive generation based on the context information of the websites. Thanks to the vast pre-training knowledge of relevant context for popular websites like Amazon.com, we find it suffice to use only website name as  $z_M$ . However, for less common or access restricted websites such as self-hosted websites in WebArena, it is necessary to supply the task proposer with richer context. In the cases of **user demos** being available, we consider an alternative to sample some additional screenshots from the user demos to serve as the context information. In our experiments, we consider both using proprietary models such as Claude-3-Sonnet [\(Anthropic, 2024\)](#page-10-8) and open-source models such as Qwen2VL-7B [Yang et al.](#page-13-3) [\(2024a\)](#page-13-3) for the task proposers, with promptsd in Appendix [B.](#page-14-0)

**237** 4.3 IMAGE-BASED OUTCOME EVALUATOR

**238 239 240 241 242 243 244 245** To take full advantage of the asymmetric capability of SOTA VLMs as agents and as evaluators (experiment results presented in Section [6,](#page-6-0) we empirically find it reliable for the autonomous evaluators to complete the easiest evaluation: evaluating the success of the final outcome [\(Bai et al., 2024;](#page-10-0) [He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) based on the final three screenshots and the agents' final answers to provide only 0/1 response in the end. Other alternatives such as code-based [\(Zhang et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-10) or step-based evaluations [\(Pan et al., 2024\)](#page-12-7) are either impractical without access to hidden state information or too noisy because of the hallucination issues present even in SOTA VLMs. In our experiments, we also consider both using proprietary models such as Claude-3-Sonnet [\(Anthropic, 2024\)](#page-10-8) and open-source models such as Qwen2VL-7B [Yang et al.](#page-13-3) [\(2024a\)](#page-13-3), with prompts presented in Appendix [B.](#page-14-0)

**246** 4.4 CHAIN-OF-THOUGHT AGENT POLICY

**247 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257** Crucially, as the ultimate goal for the agent policy is to complete human requests, the agent should not only learn diverse skills on the proposed tasks but also reflect on the skills learnt so that they can be helpful for unseen human requests. Therefore, we incorporate an additional reasoning step to outputs the agent's chain-of-thought before the actual web operation. This reasoning step is optimized with the RL algorithm just like the actual web operation. Because of the 0/1 reward structure and infrastructure complexity of thousands of distributed fully-functioning web browsers, we employ the most simple online policy optimization algorithm Filtered Behavior Cloning (Filtered BC), that simply imiatates all thoughts and actions in successful trajectories with the negative logliklihood loss. We find that this simple policy optimization objective can already lead to an superior generalization capability of the learnt agent. In our experiments, our agent policy is initialized from LLaVa-1.6-Mistral-7B and LLaVa-1.6-Yi-34B [\(Liu et al., 2024\)](#page-11-5).

#### <span id="page-4-1"></span>**258** 5 EXPERIMENTS

**259 260 261 262 263 264 265** The goal of our experiments is to understand the effectiveness of PAE to complete real-world visual web tasks. Specifically, we design experiments to answer the following questions: (1) Can our autonomous skill discovery framework successfully discover skills useful for zero-shot transfer to tasks from an evaluation task distribution unseen to the task proposer? (2) How does the models trained with PAE compare with other open-source VLM agents? (3) How does the effectiveness of PAE scale with the size and performance of the base model? (4) How does the use of different contexts (e.g. website names and user demos) affect the performance?

**266** 5.1 ENVIRONMENTS

**267 268 269** Web Voyager [\(He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) contains a set of 643 tasks spanning 15 websites in the real world such as ESPN and Arxiv. As tasks in Google Flights and Booking domain are no longer feasible due to website updates, we use the subset of 557 tasks spanning the other 13 websites. Human annotations are carried out for evaluating the success of each trajectory as the ground-truth performance measure.

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Table 1: Success rate comparisons on WebVoyager. The results are automatically annotated by Claude Sonnet 3 and human alignment is reported in Figure [4.](#page-7-0) For PAE , a running average of the evaluation results at each iteration is reported. The final column is a weighted average by the number of tasks on different websites. The results may be different from reported in other papers due to the dynamic nature of online websites.

**288 289 290 291 292 293 294 295 296** WebArena [\(Zhou et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-0) is a sand-boxed environment that kept an archived version of 5 popular websites from different domains, including OpenStreetMap, GitLab, PostMill, a store content management system (CMS), and an E-commerce website (OneStopMarket). It includes in total 812 hand-written tasks with functional verifications as the ground-truth reward function. Since GitLab and CMU do not support multi-thread data collection necessary for RL fine-tuning, our experiments are carried out using the task subsets on OpenStreetMap, PostMill, and OneStopMarket. As opensource VLM agents fail to achieve non-trivial performances on PostMill and OneStopMarket [\(Zhou](#page-13-0) [et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-0), we hand rewrote tasks in those two websites and supplement them with verification functions. Due to these practical constraints, the resulting WebArena Easy contains 108 original tasks on OpenStreetMap and 50 rewritten tasks on PostMill and OneStopMarket each.

- <span id="page-5-2"></span>**297** 5.2 BASELINE COMPARISONS
- **298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310** We validate the effectiveness of PAE by comparing it with  $(1)$ proprietary VLMs, (2) state-of-theart open-source VLMs, and (3) an alterative supervised fine-tuning (SFT) approach. We consider Claude 3 Sonnet and Claude 3.5 Sonnet [\(Anthropic, 2024\)](#page-10-8) for proprietary VLMs, and Qwen2VL-7B, Qwen2VL-72B [\(Yang et al.,](#page-13-3) [2024a\)](#page-13-3), InternVL-2.5-XComposer-7B [\(Zhang et al., 2024b\)](#page-13-11), and LLaVa-Next-7B/34B [\(Liu et al.,](#page-11-5) [2024\)](#page-11-5) for SOTA open-source VLMs.

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Table 2: Success rate comparisons on WebArena Easy. Success and failure are detected with ground-truth verification functions. For PAE , a running average of the evaluation results at each iteration is reported. The final "Average" column is a weighted average by the number of tasks on different websites.

**311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320** All models are prompted similar to [He et al.](#page-11-0) [\(2024\)](#page-11-0) using set-of-marks augmented screenshot observations and including chain-of-thought in the action outputs. The prompts are included in Appendix [B.](#page-14-0) As SOTA open-source models struggle to achieve non-trivial performance in the challenging web navigation benchmarks except the largest Qwen2VL-72B, we include another baseline LLaVa-SFT that fine-tunes LLaVa with Claude 3 Sonnet [\(Anthropic, 2024\)](#page-10-8) agent trajectories on self-generated tasks on 85 real-world websites not included in WebVoyager and WebArena. More details in the data generation for SFT can be found in Appendix [D.](#page-16-0) To study the effects of different contexts for our task proposer, we compare the performance of two variants from PAE as discussed in Section [4.2.](#page-4-0) LLaVa-34B PAE and LLaVa-7B PAE uses only the name of the website as the context, while LLaVa-7B-PAE (User Demos) uses 10 additional screenshots per website from human collected user demos.

**322** 5.3 MAIN RESULTS

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**323** We present our main baseline comparisons of PAE with other baselines in Table [1,](#page-5-0) [2,](#page-5-1) and [3.](#page-6-1) Overall, comparing to the SFT checkpoint using demonstration data, LLaVa-7B PAE can achieve an average **324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331** of 7.4% and 10.8% absolute improvement in terms of success rates on WebVoyager and WebArena Easy respectively. A similar improvement of 10.4% on WebVoyager is observed for LLaVa-34B PAE as well, indicating a favorable scaling performance of PAE. As a result, our resulting model LLaVa-34B PAE achieves an absolute success rate of 10.4% on WebVoyaer over the prior state-ofthe-art open-source VLM agents. Similarly, LLaVa-7B PAE also establishes a new state-of-the-art performance on WebArena Easy, surpassing the prior best performing model Qwen2VL-72B with  $10\times$  more parameters. More importantly, our analysis shows that PAE can enable Internet agents to learn general web browsing capabilities that zero-shot transfer to unseen websites.

**332 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347** How does existing open-source and proprietary models perform in vision-based web navigation? First, we note the difficulty and significance of real-world visionbased web navigation, even for state-of-the-art mediumsize open-source VLM agents such as Qwen2VL-7B and InternVL2.5-8B with set-of-marks augmented observations and chain-of-thought prompting. In particular, on the WebVoyager benchmark, among open-source VLM agents, only the largest Qwen2VL-72B can achieve a non-trivial average success rate of 22.6% on WebVoyager, while all other open-source agents completely fail on this benchmark with average success rate under 2%. On the other hand, closed-source proprietary models start to show promise in becoming a generalist Internet agent with Claude 3.5 Sonnet achieving an average success rate at 50.5% and 50.1% on WebVoyager and WebArena Easy. Comparing LLaVa-7B SFT and LLaVa-7B, we find that

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Table 3: Task success rate comparisons on unseen websites that PAE never interacts with. We select 85 unseen real-world online websites and generate 500 synthetic tasks similar to the procedure in WebVoyager [\(He et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0). Seen websites are 13 online websites in WebVoyager. Results show that PAE can discover general web browsing skills useful for unseen websites.

**348 349 350 351** supervised fine-tuning on demonstration data can significantly improve the general web browsing capabilities of open-source VLM agents. Even if the SFT demonstration data is collected on outof-distribution online websites, the general web browsing capabilities can zero-shot transfer to WebVoyager websites, resulting in a performance improvement from 0% to 14.9%.

**352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 361 362 363** Is PAE able to autonomously discover and practice skills useful for unseen evaluation instructions? On top of the performance gain from downstream fine-tuning, LLaVa-7B PAE additionally improves the success rate by more than 30% relatively (14.9% to 22.3% on WebVoyager and 18.0% to 24.6% on WebArena Easy). In particular, LLaVa-7B PAE beats LLaVa-7B SFT across the board with substantial improvements on 10 out of 13 websites from WebVoyager and all 3 websites from WebArena Easy, showing the robustness of the PAE framework. In fact, LLaVa-7B PAE even beats the LLaVa-34B SFT (22.3% compared to 22.2%), a model more than 5x larger (7B and 34B), resulting a better performing model with 5x less test-time compute. The release of our models marks a significant advancement of screenshot-based web browsing capabilities of open-source VLM agents from the prior SOTA of 22.6% to 33.0% on WebVoyager. It also enables medium-size VLMs such as LLaVa-7B to beat the prior SOTA Qwen2VL-72B with  $10\times$  more parameters on WebArena Easy. Notably, all of the improvements from PAE are achieved in a self-play setting without any human intervention, only knowing the names of the websites!

**364 365 366 367 368 369 370** Does PAE scale well with larger and more capable base models? To test the scaling performance of PAE , we repeat our experiments on WebVoyager with a larger and more capable VLM base model LLaVa-1.6-34B [\(Liu et al., 2024\)](#page-11-5). With a better base model, we still find a similar performance gain of PAE despite the model size change from 7B to 34B (7.4% compared to 10.8% absolute success rate improvement). Again, LLaVa-34B PAE beats LLaVa-7B PAE on 12 out of 13 websites from WebVoyager. Our scaling experiments suggest that PAE a favorable scaling property that can similarly improve better and larger base VLM agents as they become available.

**371 372 373 374 375 376 377** Do the skills learnt by PAE generalize to unseen environments? To understand the generalization of LLaVa-7B PAE to the websites that it has never interacted with, we apply the workflow from [He](#page-11-0) [et al.](#page-11-0) [\(2024\)](#page-11-0) to generate 500 tasks using Claude 3 Sonnet on 85 unseen online websites and test the checkpoints from WebVoyager experiments. Results are presented in Table [3](#page-6-1) and a list of the websites is included in Appendix [D.](#page-16-0) We observe that PAE for both LLaVa-7B and LLava-34B enable the agents to learn general web-browsing skills that can be zero-shot transferred to unseen websites, with 7.2% and 5.3% improvement in absolute success rate respectively.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>6 DISCUSSIONS

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(a) Correlation between Human and Autonomous Evaluator. (b) Confusion Matrix

Figure 4: Correlation and confusion matrix analysis of different models in Webvoyager. (a) Correlation between human evaluations and our autonomous evaluator across various models at the system level. (b) Confusion matrix of the overall correlation between human evaluations and our autonomous evaluator at the instance level. Both results show strong correlation between our autonomous evaluator and human evaluations.

Open-source VLMs as task proposers and autonomous evaluators In Figure [3,](#page-7-1) we present the results of using open-source VLMs (Qwen2VL-7B and Qwen2VL-72B)

> as task proposers and autonomous evaluators, thus eliminating the dependence of PAE on proprietary models. We found that LLava-7B PAE using Qwen2VL-72B as the task

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Figure 3: Ablation experiments on WebArena Easy. The left figure measures the performance on the set of proposed tasks by different models with autonomous evaluators while the right figure measures the performance on WebArena Easy with the groundtruth evaluator.

**400 401 402 403 404 405 406 407 408** proposer and evaluator achieved a similar performance as using Claude 3 Sonnet as the task proposer and evaluator, despite their significant difference in agent performances (23.9% compared to 26.0% average success rate). As a result of this improvement, LLava-7B PAE using Qwen2VL-72B as the task proposer and evaluator achieved a better performance compared to Qwen2VL-72B itself. Perhaps more surprisingly, even Qwen2VL-7B with much inferior agent performance compared to LLaVa-7B SFT (7.5% compared to 18.0%) can be used to make significant improvements (from 18.0% to 23.1%). These results demonstrate that the improvements from PAE root in the asymmetric capabilities of state-of-the-art VLMs as agents and as task proposers/evaluators, instead of imitating a stronger VLM.

**409 410 411 412 413 414 415** The effect of additional reasoning step. We also perform an additional ablation on the effect of the PAE design choice of asking the VLMs to output their thoughts first prior to the actual web operations. We consider an additional baseline of directly outputting the web operations without thoughts, and carry out the similar SFT and Filtered BC experiments using the same setup described in Section [5.2.](#page-5-2) As reported in Figure [3,](#page-7-1) although PAE without reasoning can also achieve improvements in the proposed set, the lack of additional reasoning step results in a significant inferior performance in its generalization to the unseen human-written evaluation set.

**416 417 418 419 420 421 422** Alignment with human judgements. We demonstrate the effectiveness of our autonomous evaluator with a user study. We randomly select 200 trajectories for each method and present all screenshots in the trajectories, the corresponding actions at each step, and the task descriptions to the human annotator to decide if the task has actually been completed or not. As shown in Figure [4\(](#page-7-0)a), there is a high correlation between our evaluator and human assessments across different models with an average misalignment of 1.7% at the system level and 8.9% at the instance level. The effectiveness of PAE as judged by human annotators is consistent with what is reported in Table [1.](#page-5-0)

**423 424 425 426 427 428 429 430 431** Error analysis. To understand where the improvement of PAE comes from, we conducted a user study to analyze different error types across various models. With a high-level evaluation of model capacities, we classified the error types into the following categories: (1) Low-level skills missing error refer to the cases where the agent has a reasonable plan to solve the problem but fails to execute precise actions on the website, such as not knowing which button to click to navigate to the desired page. (2) High-level planning or reasoning errors refer to the cases where the agent fails to generate a plan in its thoughts to solve the given task or cannot arrive at the correct answer through reasoning with the website's screenshots. (3) Visual hallucinations refer to the cases where the agent generates responses with made-up information that are not supported by the screenshot. For example, the agent may claim that it has found a product that the task asked for while remaining at the homepage of google search, or the agent may produce a wrong answer while being on the right

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<span id="page-8-1"></span>Figure 6: Online sample complexity comparisons on different websites in WebArena Easy between PAE using different contexts. Note that PAE with different contexts for task proposers uses different training tasks. Learning curves are smoothed with exponential running averages.

**450 451 452 453** page. (4) Timeouts refer to the cases where the agent is on the right track to solving the tasks, but couldn't complete the task within maximum number of steps. (5) Technical Issues are not the fault of the agent but caused by environment problems such as websites out of service and connection issues. (6) Others include other less often error types such as the task itself is impossible.

**454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468** We present the results of error analysis for different models in WebVoyager in Figure [5,](#page-8-0) with a more detailed analysis and full trajectories in Appendix [H.](#page-22-0) Comparing LLaVa-7B SFT with LLaVa-34B SFT, we observe that the predominant failure mode for LLaVa-7B SFT is visual hallucinations while that for LLaVa-34B is low-level skill missing errors. This is because the reasoning capability for LLaVa-7B base model is limited so it tends to imitate the demonstration data to produce answers that look similar without being aware of the correctness of the answers. While LLaVa-34B SFT is more aware of the correctness of answers (evidenced by a reduced visual hallucination rate), it does not have the low-level web navigation skills so often fall short of low-level operations. PAE can effectively improve on the major failure mode for both 7B and 34B models. In particular, for LLaVa-7B SFT, PAE can reduce the visual hallucination rate (from 37% to 23%), making the agent more aware of the goal of actually completing the tasks instead of imitating the demonstrations. For LLaVa-34B SFT, PAE can effectively enrich the skill repertoire with low-level web navigation skills, thereby reducing the low-level skill missing error (from 45% to 21%). Comparing our models with other VLM agents, we find that other open-source VLM agents such as Qwen2VL-7B and Qwen2VL-72B mostly struggle with low-level web navigation skills while the error types for more advanced proprietary models such as Claude 3.5 Sonnet are more spread out.

**469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485** Comparison of different choices of contexts. We present our study on the effects of using different contexts on WebArena in Table [2](#page-5-1) and Figure [6.](#page-8-1) By comparing the success rate between LLaVa-7B PAE and LLaVa-7B PAE (User Demos), we find additional information significantly improves the performance in the original WebArena task set Map (19.5% to 21.7%) but does not make a big difference in the rewritten easier task sets on PostMill and OneStopMarket. By manually inspecting the tasks proposed with and without user demos, we find that many tasks proposed with website names alone are too hard or even impossible given the supported features of OpenStreetMap. For example, a task like "Locate the closest movie theater to the address 456 Oak Street, Chicago, Illinois, and provide the theater's name, address, and current movie showtimes." is impossible to be completed on OpenStreetMap as it does not contain information related to the current movie showtimes. As shown in the learning curve in Figure [6,](#page-8-1) indeed the agent achieves a significantly lower performance on the training tasks of PAE compared to that of PAE (User Demos). On the contrary, this gap in terms of training set performances is much reduced on PostMill and OneStopMarket. We hypothesize that this is because our simplified tasks on PostMill and OneStopMarket only examine the basic usages of the websites such as "Go to a forum related to relationship advice" and "Browse the Patio and Garden shopping category" and such tasks can be easily proposed with rudimentary understanding of the websites inferred from the names of the websites alone. As the tasks get harder and involve more complicated interactions with elements on different websites, we expect the use of context information to play a more important role.

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Figure 7: Qualitative comparison between LLaVa-7B PAE and LLaVa-7B SFT on the same tasks. LLaVa-7B PAE model successfully completed two tasks using learned skills from the RL training.

 Qualitative comparisons. To qualitatively understand the benefits of PAE , we present snippets of example trajectories in Figure [7](#page-9-0) from evaluations on WebVoyager where LLaVa-7B PAE and LLaVa-7B SFT attempt the same tasks. Full trajectories are included in Appendix [H.](#page-22-0) In the first example, we find that while LLaVa-7B knows SFT that it should use the search bar to find models related to error correction, it fails to choose the correct search bar (should be [18] instead of [1]). However, LLaVa-7B PAE learns the skill of using the search bar through typing into the correct index [1] and executes its plan to complete the task. In the second example, the agent needs to navigate to the Advanced Security page of Github. While both models are able to navigate to the Security page of Github first, there turns out to be no direct links from the Security page to the Advanced Security page. As a result, LLaVa-7B SFT ends up wandering in Github without finding the Advanced Security page. In contrast, LLaVa-7B PAE learns the skill of using Google Search in the absence of a direct link and it successfully navigates to the right page with its help. In both cases, we observe qualitative evidence of PAE teaching the agent a diverse repertoire that can effectively help the agent to complete unseen tasks.

 

## 7 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

 In this paper, we introduced a working system, PAE, for autonomous skill discovery with foundation model agents, addressing the limitations of using a static set of human-annotated instructions for fine-tuning agents. Instead of manually specifying what the agents should learn, our system enables the agents to explore, practice, and refine new skills autonomously through open-ended interactions with various environments. The framework's key components—task proposer, action policy, and autonomous evaluator—work together to generate, attempt, and evaluate tasks without any human intervention, leading to more than 10% improvement over prior state-of-the-art performance across benchmarks like WebArena Easy and WebVoyager among open-source VLM agents (22.6% to 33%). This work paves the way for more capable open-source foundation model agents, with future research focused on extending this approach to other domains and integrating it with better approaches to make use of the context information.

#### **540** REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

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**544 545 546** To facilitate reproducibility of our work, we plan to open-source the model checkpoint and code. To provide more details about our practical algorithm, we have included the algorithm pseudo-code in Algorithm [1.](#page-14-1) We have also included all the prompts that we have used for the task proposer, the agent policy, and the autonomous evaluator in Appendix [B.](#page-14-0) More details for gathering and processing the SFT dataset have been included in Appendix [D.](#page-16-0) An discussion of the hyperparameter tuning of our method has been included in Appendix [G.](#page-22-1)

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## ETHICS STATEMENT

**551 552 553 554 555 556 557** This work aims to enhance autonomous Internet agents through open-ended interactions with the web. However, the irresponsible or unrestricted use of such agents may pose risks, including personal data leaks or vulnerabilities to malicious attacks. To mitigate these risks, it is crucial to implement robust precautionary measures. In our experiments involving open-ended web navigation, we ensure that the agent is restricted from accessing personal accounts and employ appropriate firewalls to block DNS requests to suspicious websites. These safeguards help prevent unintended consequences and protect sensitive information.

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# Appendices

# A ALGORITHM

<span id="page-14-1"></span>In Algorithm [1,](#page-14-1) we include a formal definitions of our practical algorithm of PAE as presented in Section [3.](#page-2-0)

**764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787** Algorithm 1 Proposer-Agent-Evaluator: Practical Algorithm **Require:** Context information  $z_M$ , task proposer  $\tilde{C}$ , autonomous evaluator  $\tilde{\mathcal{R}}$ . 1: Initialize policy  $\pi$  from a pre-trained checkpoint. 2: Initialize replay buffer  $\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \{\}.$ 3: ## Propose tasks based on the context information. 4: Obtain proposal task distribution  $\mathcal{C}(z_M)$ . 5: for each global iteration do 6: for each trajectory to be collected do 7: Sample a task from the task proposer  $c \sim \mathcal{C}(z_{\mathcal{M}})$ . 8: Reset the environment to obtain the initial observation  $s_0$ 9: **for** each environment step  $t$  **do** 10: Sample  $a_t \sim \pi(\cdot|s_t, c), s_{t+1} \sim \mathcal{T}(\cdot|s_t, a_t, c)$ . 11: if done then 12: ## Autonomously evaluate the outcome of the agent rollout. 13:  $r_t \leftarrow \mathcal{R}(s_t, a_t, c).$ <br>14: **else** else 15:  $r_t \leftarrow 0$ . 16: end if 17:  $\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \mathcal{D} \cup \{(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}, c)\}.$ 18: end for 19: end for 20: ## Update the agent policy with any RL algorithm. 21:  $\pi \leftarrow \text{RL\_update}(\pi, \mathcal{D})$ 22: end for

<span id="page-14-0"></span>B ALL PROMPTS IN THE EXPERIMENTS

For completeness, we include examples of the prompts that we have used in this section. In particular, in Figure [8,](#page-15-0) we have provided the prompt that we used for the Claude-Sonnet-3 autonomous evaluator to evaluate the success for the task completion for all tasks in WebArena. A similar is used for all tasks in WebVoyager. In Figure [9,](#page-16-1) [10,](#page-17-0) [11](#page-18-0) we have included the prompts that we used for generating the proposal tasks for each domain. We used the same prompts with 3 additional website screenshots appended to the messages for PAE + User Demos. It is worth noting that our task proposers are domain-general and have little domain customizations. In particular, for all 13 real-world websites from WebVoyager, we use the same prompt to generate tasks except with the placeholder of "web name". This shows that our PAE framework can easily scale to multiple websites without the need for domain-specific knowledge. The prompt for zero-shot VLM agents are included in Figure [12,](#page-19-0) [13,](#page-20-0) and [14.](#page-21-0)

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## C PROMPTS FOR ZERO-SHOT VLM AGENTS

**806 807 808 809** We also append the prompts (Figure [12,](#page-19-0) [13,](#page-20-0) and [14\)](#page-21-0) that we used for the zero-shot baselines including Claude-Sonnet-3, Claude-Sonnet-3.5, Qwen2VL, InternVL2b5, LLaVa-1.6-7B, and LLaVa-1.6- 34B. The prompt for WebVoyager tasks largely follow from that used in the prior literature [\(He et al.,](#page-11-0) [2024\)](#page-11-0). We include additional necessary domain knowledge of the WebArena tasks and evaluation protocols in the prompt that we used for WebArena.

<span id="page-15-0"></span>**810 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 823 824 825 826 827 828 829 830 831 832 833 834 835 836 837 838 839 840 841 842 843 844 845 846 847 848 849 850 851 852 853 854 855 856 857 858 859 860** Autonomous Evaluator Prompt You are an expert in evaluating the performance of a web navigation agent. The agent is designed to help a human user navigate a website to complete a task. Your goal is to decide whether the agent's execution is successful or not. As an evaluator, you will be presented with three primary components to assist you in your role: 1. Web Task Instruction: This is a clear and specific directive provided in natural language, detailing the online activity to be carried out. 2. Result Response: This is a textual response obtained after the execution of the web task. It serves as textual result in response to the instruction. 3. Result Screenshots: This is a visual representation of the screen showing the result or intermediate state of performing a web task. It serves as visual proof of the actions taken in response to the instruction. – You SHOULD NOT make assumptions based on information not presented in the screenshot when comparing it to the instructions. – Your primary responsibility is to conduct a thorough assessment of the web task instruction against the outcome depicted in the screenshot and in the response, evaluating whether the actions taken align with the given instructions. – NOTE that the instruction may involve more than one task, for example, locating the garage and summarizing the review. Failing to complete either task, such as not providing a summary, should be considered unsuccessful. – NOTE that the screenshot is authentic, but the response provided by LLM is generated at the end of web browsing, and there may be discrepancies between the text and the screenshots. – NOTE that if the content in the Result response is not mentioned on or different from the screenshot, mark it as not success. You should explicilt consider the following criterions: - Whether the claims in the response can be verified by the screenshot. E.g. if the response claims the distance between two places, the screenshot should show the direction. YOU SHOULD EXPECT THAT THERE IS A HIGH CHANCE THAT THE AGENT WILL MAKE UP AN ANSWER NOT VERIFIED BY THE SCREENSHOT. - Whether the agent completes EXACTLY what the task asks for. E.g. if the task asks to find a specific place, the agent should not find a similar place. In your responses: You should first provide thoughts EXPLICITLY VERIFY ALL THREE CRITE-RIONS and then provide a definitive verdict on whether the task has been successfully accomplished, either as 'SUCCESS' or 'NOT SUCCESS'. A task is 'SUCCESS' only when all of the criteria are met. If any of the criteria are not met, the task should be considered 'NOT SUCCESS'. Figure 8: The prompt used by the autonomous evaluator for Claude-Sonnet-3. Same prompt is used to evaluate tasks from WebArena websites. The evaluator takes as inputs the task description, the response from the agent's ANSWER action, and last three screenshots in the trajectory. The evaluation result is a binary verdict of 'SUCCESS' or 'NOT SUCCESS'.

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<span id="page-16-0"></span>**909 910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917** SFT for WebVoyager. As shown in Table [1,](#page-5-0) unlike proprietary VLMs, none of the open-source VLM agent is able to follow the instructions and achieve non-trivial performances in real-world web navigation tasks in the zero-shot manner. Such models can rarely get success rewards in the process of RL, thus leading to very slow convergence. To "warm-up" the open-source VLM agent to achieve a non-trivial performance at the start of RL training, we turn to enhancing the performances with SFT before RL. Note that the SFT process may not be needed if the base VLM agent model can already achieve non-trivial performances such as Claude 3 Sonnet. To prevent data contamination, we gather 85 out-of-distribution real-world websites (listed in Figure [15](#page-25-0) and [16\)](#page-26-0), and collect 11220 trajectories in total using Claude 3 Sonnet with the prompt specified in Figure [12.](#page-19-0) The average trajectory success rate is 25% as measured by our Claude 3 Sonnet evaluator. Each action in the

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**969 970 971** For example, most real-world map websites such as Google Maps and Apple Maps support advanced fuzzy search capabilities such as "pittsburgh to new york" while OpenStreetMap from WebArena will not return any results with such queries. Therefore, we collect 3000 Claude 3 Sonnet generated trajectories each from OpenStreetMap, Reddit, and OneStopMarket websites from WebArena. We

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**1017 1018 1019 1020 1021 1022 1023 1024 1025** For completeness, we have also provided additional experiment results of different models from Table [2](#page-5-1) in the original task split of WebArena [\(Zhou et al., 2024a\)](#page-13-0). As shwon in the comparison results presented in Table [4,](#page-22-2) even SOTA proprietary VLM agents like Claude 3 Sonnet struggle with the tasks in WebArena with a success rate of only 14.6% with set-of-marks observations and chain-ofthought prompting. After performing SFT using the demonstrations generated by Claude 3 Sonnet, LLaVa-7B SFT can only achieve 1.4% and 5.8% success rate on PostMill and OneStopMarket. By manually inspecting the roll-out trajectories generated by LLaVa-SFT, we found that around half of the successful trajectories on those two websites are false positives from the WebArena evaluator. In these trajectories, the agent simply guessed the answer to be "no" or "N/A" where the ground truth happens to be that the task is not executable. As a result, the actual success rate on those two

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**1077 1078** LLaVa-1.6-34B.

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**1129 1130 1131** Figure 13: The prompt used for all zero-shot VLM agents for WebArena websites, including Claude-Sonnet-3, Claude-Sonnet-3.4, Qwen2-VL, InternVL-2.5-XComposer, LLaVa-1.6-7B, and LLaVa-1.6-34B. To be continued in Figure [14.](#page-21-0)

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**1185 1186** 1.6-34B. Continued from Figure [13.](#page-20-0)

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**1188 1189 1190 1191** websites is lower than 2%, leaving very sparse reward signals for RL to make meaningful improvements. We therefore rewrote the tasks on PostMill and OneStopMarket to be easier and report the performances of PAE in Table [2.](#page-5-1)

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Table 4: Success rate comparisons across different domains from WebArena. Success and failure are detected with ground-truth verification functions. All tasks from OpenStreetMap are kept unchanged from WebArena task splits.

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#### **1205 1206** F LIMITATIONS

**1207 1208 1209 1210 1211 1212 1213 1214 1215** Despite the progress of PAE for open-source VLM agents, there are still some limitations due to practical constraints. First of all, due to the limitations in fundamental capabilities of open-source base VLM models, our models trained with PAE are still inferior to state-of-the-art proprietary models in realistic web navigations, where advanced reasoning and planning capabilities are required. Moreover, because of the hallucination issues of open-source VLMs, we found them unreliable to serve as the autonomous evaluators and had to rely on advanced proprietary VLMs for judging the success and providing rewards. Finally, because of the dynamic nature of the real websites that we are using, some of our results may not be produced exactly, although a significant improvement from PAE should still be observed.

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## <span id="page-22-1"></span>G HYPERPARAMETERS

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**1220 1221 1222 1223 1224** We include the hyperparameters that we have used in Table [5.](#page-23-0) As shown in the table, the only hyperparameters that PAE have on top of standard supervised fine-tuning are number of trajectories to collect in each global iteration in Algorithm [1,](#page-14-1) number of proposed tasks from the task proposer before RL training, and the number of seen screenshots for the evaluator. In our experiments, we found that PAE is relatively not sensitive to the choices of these hyperparameters, showing the robustness of PAE .

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#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**1226 1227** H MORE QUALITATIVE EXAMPLES

**1229 1230 1231** In this section, we present additional qualitative examples of agent trajectories while performing tasks to further demonstrate the effectiveness of our PAE . We will also release the full dataset for further analysis.

**1232 1233 1234** Full trajectories of examples in Section [6.](#page-6-0) Here, we provide the complete trajectories for the examples discussed in the qualitative comparisons in Section [6,](#page-6-0) as shown in Figures [17–](#page-27-0)[20.](#page-30-0) We detail the agent's thoughts and actions at each time step throughout the entire trajectory.

**1235 1236 1237 1238 1239 1240 1241** Some representative successful trajectories. We also showcase representative successful trajectories generated by the LLaVa-7B PAE model to highlight the strengths of our method. In Figure [21,](#page-31-0) the task is "Show the most played games on Steam, and tell me the number of players currently in-game." In Figure [22,](#page-31-1) the task is "Find out the starting price for the most recent model of the iMac on the Apple website." In Figure [23,](#page-32-0) the task is "Look up the use of modal verbs in the grammar section for expressing possibility (e.g., 'might', 'could', 'may') and find examples of their usage in sentences on the Cambridge Dictionary." Finally, in Figure [24,](#page-33-0) the task is "Search for plumbers available now but not open 24 hours in Orlando, FL."

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## Table 5: Hyperparameters for All Experiments

**1268 1269 1270** Detailed explanations of the error type definitions. To clarify the precise definition of the different error categories used in Section [6,](#page-6-0) we provide more comprehensive explanations with example trajectories:

**1271 1272 1273 1274 1275 1276 1277** (1) Low-level skill missing errors refer to cases where the agent has a reasonable plan to solve the problem but fails to execute precise actions on the website, such as not knowing which button to click to reach the desired page. We classify trajectories where the agent seems to follow a reasonable plan but struggles with specific operations into this category. For example, in Figure [25,](#page-34-0) the task is "Find the Easy Vegetarian Spinach Lasagna recipe on Allrecipes and tell me what the latest review says." The agent attempts to search for the desired item but fails to click the correct button to reach the detailed page in the search results.

**1278 1279 1280 1281 1282 1283 1284** (2) High-level planning or reasoning errors occur when the agent fails to generate a complete plan or cannot reason correctly with the website's screenshots to solve the task. Trajectories where the agent cannot devise a plan for complex tasks or misinterprets the screenshot's content are categorized as such. For instance, in Figure [26,](#page-35-0) the task is "Give 12 lbs of 4-cyanoindole, converted to molar and indicate the percentage of C, H, N." The agent should first search on Google about the chemical definition of 4-cyanoindole, then use WolframAlpha to calculate the result. However, the agent fails to get the precise definition of 4-cyanoindole, and doesn't know how to solve the task.

**1285 1286 1287 1288 1289 1290** (3) Visual hallucinations refer to instances where the agent generates fabricated responses not supported by the screenshot. The agent might, for example, claim to have found a requested product while still on the Google homepage or provide an incorrect answer even when on the correct page. In Figure [27,](#page-36-0) the task is "Find out the trade-in value for an iPhone 13 Pro Max in good condition on the Apple website". The agent claims with a very detailed answer but actually it never access any page related to the trade-in on the website.

**1291 1292 1293 1294 1295** (4) Timeouts occur when the agent is on the right track to solving the task but cannot complete it within the maximum number of steps. This error indicates that the agent did nothing wrong but was constrained by the environment's step limits. For example, in Figure [28,](#page-37-0) the task is "Go to the Plus section of Cambridge Dictionary, find Image quizzes, and complete an easy quiz about Animals. Tell me your final score." The agent reaches the maximum time step limit (10) while attempting to finish the quiz.



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**1401 1402** Figure 15: A list of 85 websites that we used to collect demonstration trajectories with Claude 3 Sonnet. In total 11220 trajectories were collected with different tasks. These websites were also used for testing the zeroshot generalization of PAE to out-of-distribution websites in Section [5.](#page-4-1) List continued in Figure [16.](#page-26-0)

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Figure 17: Full trajectories of success trajectory 1 in Figure [7](#page-9-0) with task 'Find the most recently updated machine learning model on Huggingface which focuses on Error Correction' executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE.

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 Figure 18: Full trajectories of fail trajectory 1 in Figure [7](#page-9-0) with task 'Find the most recently updated machine learning model on Huggingface which focuses on Error Correction' executed by model LLaVa-7B SFT.



 Figure 19: Full trajectories of success trajectory 2 in Figure [7](#page-9-0) with task 'Find the Security topic in GitHub Resources and answer the role of GitHub Advanced Security' executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE.

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 Figure 20: Full trajectories of fail trajectory 2 in Figure [7](#page-9-0) with task 'Find the Security topic in GitHub Resources and answer the role of GitHub Advanced Security' executed by model LLaVa-7B SFT.

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Figure 21: Extra full trajectories of successful trajectory 1 with task 'Show most played games in Steam. And tell me the number of players in In game at this time' executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE.

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 Figure 22: Extra full trajectories of successful trajectory 2 with task 'Find out the starting price for the most recent model of the iMac on the Apple website' executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE.

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 Figure 23: Extra full trajectories of successful trajectory 3 with task 'Look up the use of modal verbs in grammar section for expressing possibility (e.g., 'might', 'could', 'may') and find examples of their usage in sentences on the Cambridge Dictionary' executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE.

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Figure 24: Extra full trajectories of successful trajectory 4 with task 'Search for plumbers available now but not open 24 hours in Orlando, FL' executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE.

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Figure 25: Extra full trajectories of fail trajectory 1, with error type **Low-level Operational error**, executed by model LLaVa-7B SFT. The task is 'Find the Easy Vegetarian Spinach Lasagna recipe on Allrecipes and tell me what the latest review says'.

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Figure 26: Extra full trajectories of fail trajectory 2, with error type Planning or Reasoning error, executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE. The task is 'Give 12 lbs of 4-cyanoindole, converted to molar and indicate the percentage of C, H, N'.

 

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Figure 27: Extra full trajectories of fail trajectory 3, with error type Visual Hallucination, executed by model LLaVa-7B SFT. The task is 'Find out the trade-in value for an iPhone 13 Pro Max in good condition on the Apple website'.

 

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Figure 28: Extra full trajectories of fail trajectory 4, with error type Timeouts, executed by model Claude 3.5 Sonnet. The task is 'Go to the Plus section of Cambridge Dictionary, find Image quizzes and do an easy quiz about Animals and tell me your final score'.

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Figure 29: Extra full trajectories of fail trajectory 5, with error type Technical issues, executed by model LLaVa-7B PAE. The task is 'Identify a course on Coursera that provides an introduction to Psychology, list the instructor's name, the institution offering it, and how many hours it will approximately take to complete'.