

Open X-Embodiment: Robotic Learning Datasets and RT-X Models

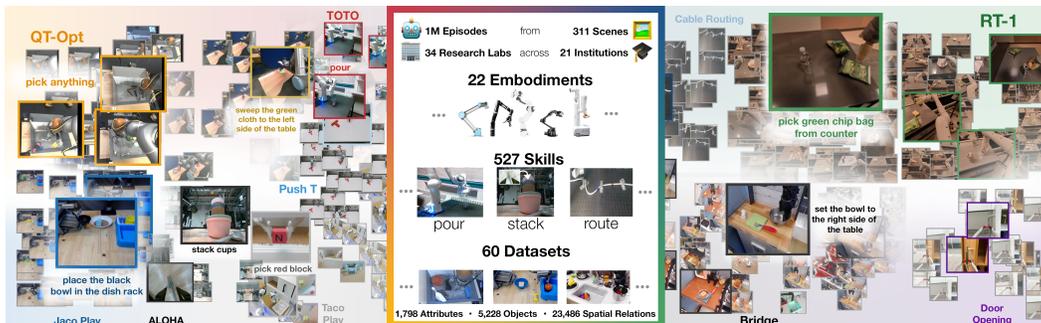
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1 **Abstract:** Large, high-capacity models trained on diverse datasets have shown
2 remarkable successes on efficiently tackling downstream applications. In domains
3 from NLP to Computer Vision, this has led to a consolidation of pretrained models,
4 with general pretrained backbones serving as a starting point for many applications.
5 Can such a consolidation happen in robotics? Conventionally, robotic learning
6 methods train a separate model for every application, every robot, and even every
7 environment. Can we instead train “generalist” X-robot policy that can be adapted
8 efficiently to new robots, tasks, and environments? In this paper, we provide
9 datasets in standardized data formats and models to make it possible to explore this
10 possibility in the context of robotic manipulation, alongside experimental results
11 that provide an example of effective X-robot policies. We assemble a dataset
12 from 22 different robots collected through a collaboration between 21 institutions,
13 demonstrating 527 skills (160266 tasks). We show that a high-capacity model
14 trained on this data, which we call RT-X, exhibits positive transfer and improves
the capabilities of multiple robots by leveraging experience from other platforms.



15 Figure 1: We propose an open, large-scale dataset for robot learning curated from 21 institutions across the globe. The dataset represents diverse behaviors, robot embodiments and environments.

16 1 Introduction

17 A central lesson from advances in machine learning and artificial intelligence is that large-scale
18 learning from broad and diverse datasets can enable capable AI systems by providing for general-
19 purpose pretrained models. In fact, large-scale general-purpose models typically trained on large and
20 diverse datasets can often outperform their *narrowly targeted* counterparts trained on smaller but
21 more task-specific data. For instance, open-vocabulary image classifiers (e.g., CLIP [1]) trained on
22 large datasets scraped from the web tend to outperform fixed-vocabulary models trained on more
23 limited datasets, and large language models [2, 3] trained on massive text corpora tend to outperform
24 systems that are only trained on narrow task-specific datasets. Increasingly, the most effective way to
25 tackle a given narrow task (e.g., in vision or NLP) is to adapt a general-purpose model. However,
26 these lessons are difficult to apply in robotics: any single robotic domain might be too narrow, and

27 while computer vision and NLP can leverage large datasets sourced from the web, comparably large
28 and broad datasets for robotic interaction are hard to come by. Even the largest data collection efforts
29 still end up with datasets that are a fraction of the size and diversity of benchmark datasets in vision
30 (5-18M) [4, 5] and NLP (1.5B-4.5B) [6, 7]. More importantly, such datasets are often still narrow
31 along some axes of variation, either focusing on a single environment, a single set of objects, or a
32 narrow range of tasks. How can we overcome these challenges in robotics and move the field of
33 robotic learning toward the kind of large data regime that has been so successful in other domains?

34 Inspired by the generalization made possible by pretraining large vision or language models on
35 diverse data, we take the perspective that the goal of training generalizable robot policies requires
36 **X-embodiment training**, i.e., with data from multiple robotic platforms. While each individual
37 robotic learning dataset might be too narrow, their union provide a better coverage of variations in
38 environments and robots. Learning generalizable robot policies requires developing methods that
39 can utilize X-embodiment data, tapping into datasets from many labs, robots, and settings. Even if
40 such datasets in their current size and coverage are insufficient to attain the impressive generalization
41 results that have been demonstrated by large language models, in the future, the union of such data
42 can potentially provide this kind of coverage. Because of this, **we believe that enabling research
43 into X-embodiment robotic learning is critical at the present juncture.**

44 Following this rationale, our work has two goals: **(1)** Demonstrate that policies trained on data
45 from many different robots and environments enjoy the benefits of positive transfer, attaining better
46 performance than policies trained only on data from each evaluation setup. **(2)** Provide datasets, data
47 formats and models for the robotics community to enable future research on X-embodiment models.

48 Addressing goal **(1)**, we demonstrate that several recent robotic learning methods, with minimal
49 modification, can utilize X-embodiment data and enable positive transfer. Specifically, we train
50 the RT-1 [8] and RT-2 [9] models on 9 different robotic manipulators. We show that the resulting
51 models, which we call RT-X, can improve over policies trained only on data from the evaluation
52 domain, exhibiting better generalization and new capabilities. Addressing **(2)**, we provide the Open
53 X-Embodiment (OXE) Repository, which includes a dataset with 22 different robotic embodiments
54 from 21 different institutions that can enable the robotics community to pursue further research on
55 X-embodiment models, along with open-source tools to facilitate such research. Our aim is not to
56 innovate in terms of the particular architectures and algorithms, but rather to provide the model that
57 we trained together with data and tools to energize research around X-embodiment robotic learning.

58 2 Related Work

59 **Transfer across embodiments.** A number of prior works have studied methods for transfer across
60 robot embodiments in simulation [10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22] and on real
61 robots [23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29]. These methods often introduce mechanisms specifically designed
62 to address the embodiment gap between different robots, such as shared action representations [14, 30],
63 incorporating representation learning objectives [17, 26], adapting the learned policy on embodiment
64 information [30, 31, 11, 18, 15], and decoupling robot and environment representations [24]. Prior
65 work has provided initial demonstrations of X-embodiment training [27] and transfer [25, 32, 29]
66 with transformer models. We investigate complementary architectures and provide complementary
67 analyses, and, in particular, study the interaction between X-embodiment transfer and web-scale
68 pretraining. Similarly, methods for transfer across human and robot embodiments also often employ
69 techniques for reducing the embodiment gap, i.e. by translating between domains or learning
70 transferable representations [33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43]. Alternatively, some works
71 focus on sub-aspects of the problem such as learning transferable reward functions [44, 17, 45, 46, 47,
72 48], goals [49], dynamics models [50], or visual representations [51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58] from
73 human video data. Unlike most of these prior works, we directly train a policy on X-embodiment data,
74 without any mechanisms to reduce the embodiment gap, and observe positive transfer by leveraging
75 that data.

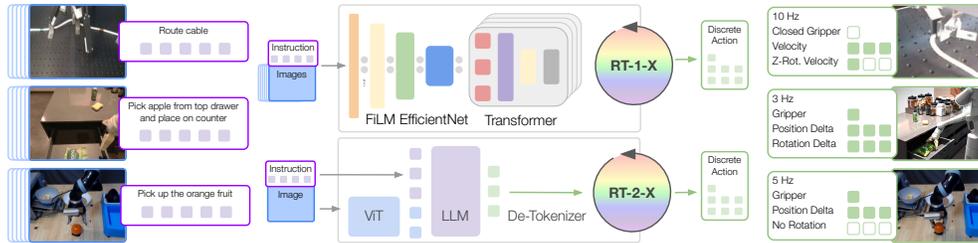


Figure 2: RT-1-X and RT-2-X both take images and a text instruction as input and output discretized end-effector actions. RT-1-X is an architecture designed for robotics, with a FiLM [113] conditioned EfficientNet [114] and a Transformer [115]. RT-2-X builds on a VLM backbone by representing actions as another language, and training action text tokens together with vision-language data.

76 **Large-scale robot learning datasets.** The robot learning community has created open-source
 77 robot learning datasets, spanning grasping [59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70], pushing
 78 interactions [71, 72, 73, 23], sets of objects and models [74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84],
 79 and teleoperated demonstrations [85, 86, 87, 8, 88, 89, 90, 91]. With the exception of RoboNet [23],
 80 these datasets contain data of robots of the same type, whereas we focus on data spanning multiple
 81 embodiments. The goal of our data repository is complementary to these efforts: we process and
 82 aggregate a large number of prior datasets into a single, standardized repository, called Open X-
 83 Embodiment, which shows how robot learning datasets can be shared in a meaningful and useful
 84 way.

85 **Language-conditioned robot learning.** Prior work has aimed to endow robots and other agents
 86 with the ability to understand and follow language instructions [92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97], often
 87 by learning language-conditioned policies [45, 98, 99, 100, 101, 40, 102, 8]. We train language-
 88 conditioned policies via imitation learning like many of these prior works but do so using large-
 89 scale multi-embodiment demonstration data. Following previous works that leverage pre-trained
 90 language embeddings [103, 45, 104, 99, 40, 105, 106, 8, 107, 108] and pre-trained vision-language
 91 models [109, 110, 111, 9] in robotic imitation learning, we study both forms of pre-training in our
 92 experiments, specifically following the recipes of RT-1 [8] and RT-2 [9].

93 3 The Open X-Embodiment Repository

94 We introduce the Open X-Embodiment Repository – an open-source repository which includes
 95 **large-scale data** along with **pre-trained model checkpoints** for X-embodied robot learning research.
 96 More specifically, we provide and maintain the following open-source resources to the broader
 97 community: (1) **Open X-Embodiment Dataset:** robot learning dataset with *1M+ robot trajectories*
 98 from *22 robot embodiments* (2) **Pre-Trained Checkpoints:** a selection of RT-X model checkpoints
 99 ready for inference and finetuning.

100 We intend for these resources to form a foundation for X-embodiment research in robot learning,
 101 but they are just the start. Open X-Embodiment is a community-driven effort, currently involving
 102 21 institutions from around the world, and we hope to further broaden participation and grow the
 103 initial Open X-Embodiment Dataset over time. The Open X-Embodiment Dataset contains 1M+
 104 real robot trajectories spanning 22 robot embodiments, from single robot arms to bi-manual robots
 105 and quadrupeds. The dataset was constructed by pooling 60 *existing* robot datasets from 34 robotic
 106 research labs around the world and converting them into a consistent data format for easy download
 107 and usage. We use the [RLDS](#) data format [112], which saves data in serialized `tfrecord` files and
 108 accommodates the various action spaces and input modalities of different robot setups.

109 4 RT-X Design

110 To evaluate how much X-embodiment training can improve the performance of learned policies on
 111 individual robots, we require models that have sufficient capacity to productively make use of such
 112 large and heterogeneous datasets. To that end, our experiments will build on two recently proposed

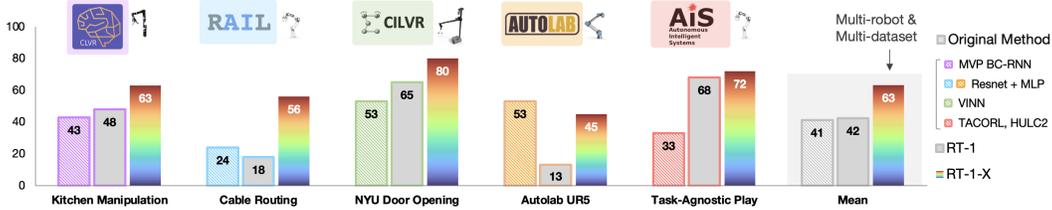


Figure 3: RT-1-X mean success rate is 50% higher than that of either the Original Method or RT-1. RT-1 and RT-1-X have the same network architecture. Therefore the performance increase can be attributed to co-training on the robotics data mixture. The lab logos indicate the physical location of real robot evaluation, and the robot pictures indicate the embodiment used for the evaluation.

113 Transformer-based robotic policies: RT-1 [8] and RT-2 [9]. We briefly summarize the design of
 114 these models in this section, and discuss how we adapted them to the X-embodiment setting in our
 115 experiments.

116 4.1 Data format consolidation

117 One challenge of creating X-embodiment models is that observation and action spaces vary signifi-
 118 cantly across robots. We use a coarsely aligned action and observation space across datasets. The
 119 model receives a history of recent images and language instructions as observations and predicts a
 120 7-dimensional action vector controlling the end-effector (x , y , z , roll, pitch, yaw, and gripper opening
 121 or the rates of these quantities). We select one canonical camera view from each dataset as the input
 122 image, resize it to a common resolution and convert the original action set into a 7 DoF end-effector
 123 action. We normalize each dataset’s actions prior to discretization. This way, an output of the model
 124 can be interpreted (de-normalized) differently depending on the embodiment used. It should be noted
 125 that despite this coarse alignment, the camera observations still vary substantially across datasets,
 126 e.g. due to differing camera poses relative to the robot or differing camera properties, see Figure 2.
 127 Similarly, for the action space, we do not align the coordinate frames across datasets in which the
 128 end-effector is controlled, and allow action values to represent either absolute or relative positions or
 129 velocities, as per the original control scheme chosen for each robot. Thus, the same action vector
 130 may induce very different motions for different robots.

131 4.2 Policy architectures

132 We consider two model architectures in our experiments: (1) RT-1 [8], an efficient Transformer-based
 133 architecture designed for robotic control, and (2) RT-2 [9] a large vision-language model co-fine-
 134 tuned to output robot actions as natural language tokens. Both models take in a visual input and
 135 natural language instruction describing the task, and output a tokenized action. For each model,
 136 the action is tokenized into 256 bins uniformly distributed along each of eight dimensions; one
 137 dimension for terminating the episode and seven dimensions for end-effector movement. Although
 138 both architectures are described in detail in their original papers [8, 9], we provide a short summary
 139 of each below:

140 **RT-1 [8]** is a 35M parameter network built on a Transformer architecture [115] and designed for
 141 robotic control, as shown in Fig. 2. It takes in a history of 15 images along with the natural language.
 142 Each image is processed through an ImageNet-pretrained EfficientNet [114] and the natural language
 143 instruction is transformed into a USE [116] embedding. The visual and language representations are
 144 then interwoven via FiLM [113] layers, producing 81 vision-language tokens. These tokens are fed
 145 into a decoder-only Transformer, which outputs the tokenized actions.

146 **RT-2 [9]** is a family of large vision-language-*action* models (VLAs) trained on Internet-scale vision
 147 and language data along with robotic control data. RT-2 casts the tokenized actions to text tokens,
 148 e.g., a possible action may be “1 128 91 241 5 101 127”. As such, any pretrained vision-language
 149 model (VLM [117, 118, 119]) can be finetuned for robotic control, thus leveraging the backbone
 150 of VLMs and transferring some of their generalization properties. In this work, we focus on the

Evaluation Setting	Bridge	Bridge	RT-1 paper 6 skills
Evaluation Location	IRIS (Stanford)	RAIL Lab (UCB)	Google Robotic Lab
Robot Embodiment	WidowX	WidowX	Google Robot
Original Method	LCBC [122]	LCBC [122]	-
Original Method	13%	13%	-
RT-1	40%	30%	92%
RT-1-X	27%	27%	73%
RT-2-X (55B)	50%	30%	91%

Table 1: Parameter count scaling experiment to assess the impact of capacity on absorbing large-scale diverse embodiment data. For these large-scale datasets (Bridge and RT-1 paper data), RT-1-X underfits and performs worse than the Original Method and RT-1. RT-2-X model with significantly many more parameters can obtain strong performance in these two evaluation scenarios.

151 RT-2-PaLI-X variant [117] built on a backbone of a visual model, ViT [120], and a language model,
 152 UL2 [121], and pretrained primarily on the WebLI [117] dataset.

153 4.3 Training and inference details

154 Both models use a standard categorical cross-entropy objective over their output space (discrete
 155 buckets for RT-1 and all possible language tokens for RT-2).

156 We define the robotics data mixture used across all of the experiments as the data from 9 manipulators,
 157 and taken from RT-1 [8], QT-Opt [65], Bridge [122], Task Agnostic Robot Play [123, 124], Jaco
 158 Play [125], Cable Routing [126], RoboTurk [127], NYU VINN [128], Austin VIOLA [129], Berkeley
 159 Autolab UR5 [130], TOTO [131] and Language Table [88] datasets. RT-1-X is trained on only robotics
 160 mixture data defined above, whereas RT-2-X is trained via co-fine-tuning (similarly to the original
 161 RT-2 [9]), with an approximately one to one split of the original VLM data and the robotics data
 162 mixture. Note that the robotics data mixture used in our experiments includes 9 embodiments which
 163 is fewer than the entire Open X-Embodiment dataset (22) – the practical reason for this difference
 164 is that we have continued to extend the dataset over time, and at the time of the experiments, the
 165 dataset above represented all of the data. In the future, we plan to continue training policies on
 166 the extended versions of the dataset as well as continue to grow the dataset together with the robot
 167 learning community.

168 At inference time, each model is run at the rate required for the robot (3-10 Hz), with RT-1 run locally
 169 and RT-2 hosted on a cloud service and queried over the network.

170 5 Experimental Results

171 Our experiments answer three questions about the effect of X-embodiment training: (1) Can policies
 172 trained on our X-embodiment dataset effectively enable positive transfer, such that co-training on data
 173 collected on multiple robots improves performance on the training task? (2) Does co-training models
 174 on data from multiple platforms and tasks improve generalization to new, unseen tasks? (3) What
 175 is the influence of different design dimensions, such as model size, model architecture or dataset
 176 composition, on performance and generalization capabilities of the resulting policy? To answer these
 177 questions we conduct the total number of 3600 evaluation trials across 6 different robots.

178 5.1 In-distribution performance across different embodiments

179 To assess the ability of our RT-X model variants to learn from X-embodiment data, we evaluate their
 180 performance on in-distribution tasks. We split our evaluation into two types of use cases: evaluation
 181 on domains that only have small-scale datasets (Fig. 3), where we would expect transfer from larger
 182 datasets to significantly improve performance, and evaluation on domains that have large-scale
 183 datasets (Table 1), where we expect further improvement to be more challenging. Note that we use
 184 the same robotics data *training* mixture (defined in Sec. 4.3) for all the evaluations presented in
 185 this section. For small-scale dataset experiments, we consider Kitchen Manipulation [125], Cable
 186 Routing [126], NYU Door Opening [128], AUTOLab UR5 [130], and Robot Play [132]. We use

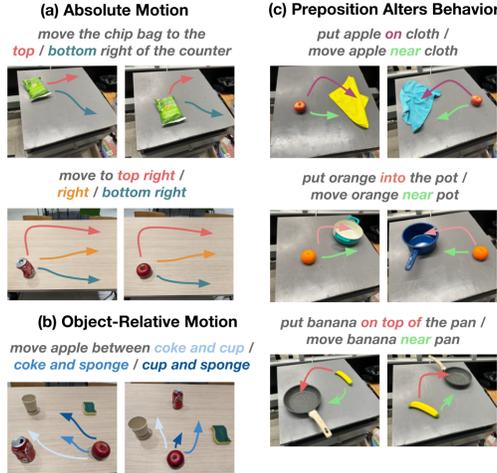


Figure 4: To assess transfer *between* embodiments, we evaluate the RT-2-X model on out-of-distribution skills. These skills are in the Bridge dataset, but not in the Google Robot dataset (the embodiment they are evaluated on).

187 the same evaluation and robot embodiment as in the respective publications. For large-scale dataset
 188 experiments, we consider Bridge [122] and RT-1 [8] for in-distribution evaluation and use their
 189 respective robots: WidowX and Google Robot.

190 For each small dataset domain, we compare the performance of the RT-1-X model, and for each
 191 large dataset we consider both the RT-1-X and RT-2-X models. For all experiments, the models
 192 are co-trained on the full X-embodiment dataset. Throughout this evaluation we compare with
 193 two baseline models: (1) The model developed by the creators of the dataset trained only on that
 194 respective dataset. This constitutes a reasonable baseline insofar as it can be expected that the model
 195 has been optimized to work well with the associated data; we refer to this baseline model as the
 196 *Original Method* model. (2) An RT-1 model trained on the dataset in isolation; this baseline allows
 197 us to assess whether the RT-X model architectures have enough capacity to represent policies for
 198 multiple different robot platforms simultaneously, and whether co-training on multi-embodiment data
 199 leads to higher performance.

200 **Small-scale dataset domains** (Fig. 3). RT-1-X outperforms Original Method trained on each of
 201 the robot-specific datasets on 4 of the 5 datasets, with a large average improvement, demonstrating
 202 domains with limited data benefit substantially from co-training on X-embodiment data.

203 **Large-scale dataset domains** (Table 1). In the large-dataset setting, the RT-1-X model does not
 204 outperform the RT-1 baseline trained on only the embodiment-specific dataset, which indicates
 205 underfitting for that model class. However, the larger RT-2-X model outperforms both the Original
 206 Method and RT-1 suggesting that X-robot training can improve performance in the data-rich domains,
 207 but only when utilizing a sufficiently high-capacity architecture.

208 5.2 Improved generalization to out-of-distribution settings

209 We now examine how X-embodiment training can enable better generalization to out-of-distribution
 210 settings and more complex and novel instructions. These experiments focus on the high-data domains,
 211 and use the RT-2-X model.

212 **Unseen objects, backgrounds and environments.** We first conduct the same evaluation of general-
 213 ization properties as proposed in [9], testing for the ability to manipulate unseen objects in unseen
 214 environments and against unseen backgrounds. We find that RT-2 and RT-2-X perform roughly on
 215 par (Table 2, rows (1) and (2), last column). This is not unexpected, since RT-2 already generalizes
 216 well (see [9]) along these dimensions due to its VLM backbone.

217 **Emergent skills evaluation.** To investigate the transfer of knowledge across robots, we conduct
 218 experiments with the Google Robot, assessing the performance on tasks like the ones shown in Fig. 4.

Row	Model	Size	History Length	Dataset	Co-Trained Web	Initial Checkpoint	Emergent Skills Evaluation	RT-2 Generalization Evaluation
(1)	RT-2	55B	none	Google Robot action	Yes	Web-pretrained	27.3%	62%
(2)	RT-2-X	55B	none	Robotics data	Yes	Web-pretrained	75.8%	61%
(3)	RT-2-X	55B	none	Robotics data except Bridge	Yes	Web-pretrained	42.8%	54%
(4)	RT-2-X	5B	2	Robotics data	Yes	Web-pretrained	44.4%	52%
(5)	RT-2-X	5B	none	Robotics data	Yes	Web-pretrained	14.5%	30%
(6)	RT-2-X	5B	2	Robotics data	No	From scratch	0%	1%
(7)	RT-2-X	5B	2	Robotics data	No	Web-pretrained	48.7%	47%

Table 2: Ablations to show the impact of design decisions on generalization (to unseen objects, backgrounds, and environments) and emergent skills (skills from other datasets on the Google Robot), showing the importance of Web-pretraining, model size, and history.

219 These tasks involve objects and skills that are not present in the RT-2 dataset but occur in the Bridge
220 dataset [122] for a different robot (the *WidowX robot*). Results are shown in Table 2, Emergent Skills
221 Evaluation column. Comparing rows (1) and (2), we find that RT-2-X outperforms RT-2 by $\sim 3\times$,
222 suggesting that incorporating data from other robots into the training improves the range of tasks
223 that can be performed even by a robot that already has large amounts of data available. Our results
224 suggest that co-training with data from other platforms imbues the RT-2-X controller with additional
225 skills for the platform that are not present in that platform’s original dataset.

226 Our next ablation involves removing the Bridge dataset from RT-2-X training: Row (3) shows the
227 results for RT-2-X that includes all data used for RT-2-X except the Bridge dataset. This variation
228 significantly reduces performance on the hold-out tasks, suggesting that transfer from the *WidowX*
229 data may indeed be responsible for the additional skills that can be performed by RT-2-X with the
230 Google Robot.

231 5.3 Design decisions

232 Lastly, we perform ablations to measure the influence of different design decisions on the general-
233 ization capabilities of our most performant RT-2-X model, which are presented in Table 2. We
234 note that including a short history of images significantly improves generalization performance (row
235 (4) vs row (5)). Similarly to the conclusions in the RT-2 paper [9], Web-based pre-training of the
236 model is critical to achieving a high performance for the large models (row (4) vs row (6)). We also
237 note that the 55B model has significantly higher success rate in the Emergent Skills compared to the
238 5B model (row (2) vs row (4)), demonstrating that higher model capacity enables higher degree of
239 transfer across robotic datasets. Contrary to previous RT-2 findings, co-fine-tuning and fine-tuning
240 have similar performance in both the Emergent Skills and Generalization Evaluation (row (4) vs row
241 (7)), which we attribute to the fact that the robotics data used in RT-2-X is much more diverse than
242 the previously used robotics datasets.

243 6 Discussion, Future Work, and Open Problems

244 We presented a consolidated dataset that combines data from 22 robotic embodiments collected
245 through a collaboration between 21 institutions, demonstrating 527 skills (160266 tasks). We also
246 presented an experimental demonstration that Transformer-based policies trained on this data can
247 exhibit significant positive transfer between the different robots in the dataset. Our results showed
248 that the RT-1-X policy has a 50% higher success rate than the original, state-of-the-art methods
249 contributed by different collaborating institutions, while the bigger vision-language-model-based
250 version (RT-2-X) demonstrated $\sim 3\times$ generalization improvements over a model trained only on
251 data from the evaluation embodiment. In addition, we provided multiple resources for the robotics
252 community to explore the X-embodiment robot learning research, including: the unified X-robot and
253 X-institution dataset, sample code showing how to use the data, and the RT-1-X model to serve as a
254 foundation for future exploration.

255 While RT-X demonstrates a step towards a X-embodied robot generalist, there are many more steps
256 needed to make this future a reality. Our experiments have a number of limitations: it does not

257 consider robots with very different sensing and actuation modalities, it does not study generalization
258 to new robots, and it does not provide a decision criterion for when positive transfer does or does not
259 happen. Studying these questions is an important direction for future work. We hope that this work
260 will serve not only as an example that X-robot learning is feasible and practical, but also provide the
261 tools to advance research in this direction in the future.

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