# LEARNING INTERACTIVE REAL-WORLD SIMULATORS

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Paper under double-blind review

### Abstract

Generative models trained on internet data have revolutionized how text, image, and video content can be created. Perhaps the next milestone for generative models is to simulate realistic experience in response to actions taken by humans, robots, and other interactive agents. Applications of a real-world simulator range from controllable content creation in games and movies, to training embodied agents purely in simulation that can be directly deployed in the real world. We explore the possibility of learning a universal simulator (UniSim) of real-world interaction through generative modeling. We first make the important observation that natural datasets available for learning a real-world simulator are often rich along different axes (e.g., abundant objects in image data, densely sampled actions in robotics data, and diverse movements in navigation data). With careful orchestration of diverse datasets, each providing a different aspect of the overall experience, UniSim can emulate how humans and agents interact with the world by simulating the visual outcome of both high-level instructions such as "open the drawer" and low-level controls such as "move by x, y" from otherwise static scenes and objects. There are numerous use cases for such a real-world simulator. As an example, we use UniSim to train both high-level vision-language planners and low-level reinforcement learning policies, each of which exhibit zero-shot real-world transfer after training purely in a learned real-world simulator. We also show that other types of intelligence such as video captioning models can benefit from training with simulated experience in UniSim, opening up even wider applications. Video demos can be found at anonymous-papers-submissions.github.io.

### **1** INTRODUCTION

Generative models trained on internet data can now produce highly realistic text (OpenAI, 2023), speech (Borsos et al., 2023), image (Ramesh et al., 2022), and video (Ho et al., 2022a). Perhaps the ultimate goal of generative models is to be able to simulate every aspect of the human experienced world, from how cars are driven on a street to how furniture is assembled and meals prepared. With a comprehensive real-world simulator, humans can "interact" with diverse scenes and objects, robots can learn from simulated experience without risking physical damage, and a vast amount of "real-world" data can be simulated to train other types of machine intelligence.

One roadblock to building such a real-world simulator lies in the datasets that are available. While there are billions of texts, images, and video snippets available on the internet, different datasets cover different information axes, and these have to be brought together to simulate realistic experience of the world. For instance, paired text-image data contains rich scenes and objects but little movement (Lin et al., 2014; Schuhmann et al., 2022; Zhai et al., 2022), video captioning and question answering data contain rich high-level activity descriptions but little low-level movement detail (Xu et al., 2016; Krishna et al., 2017), human activity data contains rich human action but little mechanical motion (Miech et al., 2019; Grauman et al., 2022), and robotics data contains rich robot action but are limited in quantity (Dasari et al., 2019; Mandlekar et al., 2018). Since different datasets are curated by different industrial or research communities for different tasks, divergence in information is natural and hard to overcome, posing difficulties to building a real-world simulator that seeks to capture realistic experience of the world we live in.

In this work, we take the first steps towards building a universal simulator (UniSim) of real-world interaction through generative modeling. Specifically, we propose to combine a wealth of data—ranging from internet text-image pairs, to motion and action rich data from navigation, manipulation, human activities, robotics, and data from simulations and renderings—in a conditional video generation framework. With careful orchestration of data rich along different axes, we show that

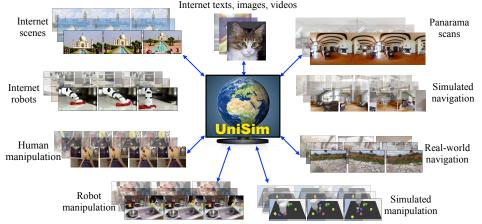


Figure 1: A universal Simulator (UniSim). UniSim is a simulator of the real-world that learns from broad data rich in different axes including objects, scenes, human activities, motions in navigation and manipulation, panorama scans, and simulations and renderings.

UniSim can successfully merge the different axes of experience and generalize beyond the data, enabling rich interaction through fine-grained motion control of otherwise static scenes and objects. In simulating long-horizon interactions with UniSim, we develop a fundamental connection between autoregressive video generation during inference and performing rollouts in a partially observable Markov decision processes (POMDPs) (Monahan, 1982; Bertsekas, 1987). As a result, UniSim can simulate long-horizon interactions consistently across video generation boundaries.

While the potential applications of UniSim are vast, we demonstrate a few practical use cases centered around using simulated experience from UniSim. We first demonstrate how an embodied vision-language planner can be trained to complete long-horizon goal-conditioned tasks through hindsight relabeling of simulated experience (Andrychowicz et al., 2017). In addition to high-level planning, we further illustrate how UniSim can enable learning low-level control policies by leveraging model-based reinforcement learning (Sutton, 1988). We show that both the high-level visionlanguage planner and the low-level control policy, while trained purely in simulation, can generalize to real robot settings in a zero-shot manner, achieving one step towards bridging the sim-to-real gap in embodied learning (Rusu et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2020; Salvato et al., 2021). This is enabled by using simulators that are nearly visually indistinguishable from the real world. Lastly, we note that UniSim can be used to simulate rare events where data collection is expensive or dangerous (e.g., crashes in self-driving cars). Such simulated videos can then be used to improve other machine intelligence such as rare event detectors, suggesting broad applications of UniSim beyond embodied learning. The main contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We take the first step toward building a universal simulator (UniSim) of real-world interaction by combining diverse datasets rich in different axes—such as objects, scenes, actions, motions, language, and motor controls—in a unified video generation framework.
- We establish the connection between conditional video generation and partially observable Markov decision process (POMDP), and leverage multi-frame history conditioning to simulate consistent long-horizon interactions from otherwise static scenes and objects.
- We illustrate how UniSim can simulate realistic experiences for training embodied planners, lowlevel control policies, and video captioning models, equipping these other forms of machine intelligence with the ability to generalize to the real world when trained purely in simulation, thereby bridging the sim-to-real gap.

### 2 LEARNING INTERACTIVE REAL-WORLD SIMULATORS

The major differences between an interactive real-world simulator and typical video generation models are that a simulator requires support for (1) a diverse set of actions and (2) long-horizon rollouts. In this section, we first enable action-rich interaction by combining datasets rich in different axes through joint training, and then enable long-horizon interaction through history conditioning inspired by rollouts in a POMDP.

### 2.1 ORCHESTRATING DATASETS RICH IN DIFFERENT AXES

A realistic world simulator should be able to simulate diverse scenes, objects, human activities, robot actions, camera motions, other aspects of the world. While this seems difficult, there already

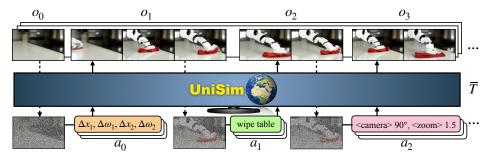


Figure 2: **Training and inference of UniSim.** UniSim  $(\overline{T})$  is a video diffusion model trained to predict the next (variable length) observation frames  $(o_1)$  given the noisy version of the previous observation  $(o_0)$  and action input  $(a_0)$ . UniSim can handle actions of varying modalities such as motor controls of varying length  $(\Delta x_1, \Delta \omega_1, \Delta x_2, ...)$ , language descriptions of the action ("wipe table"), and actions extracted from camera motions and other sources. Dotted arrows add noise to the true video during training or to the previously generated video during inference to autoregressively rollout observations in supporting long-horizon interactions.

exist billions of text, image, and video samples on the internet, as well as various robotic, 3D, and navigation datasets scattered across institutions. The main difficulty comes down effectively extracting information from broad datasets rich in these different axes and fusing this information into a single learned simulator.

**Extracting Information from Broad Data.** Although data exists across many different modalities on the Internet, our focus in this paper will be on visual observations of the world and actions that cause changes to these visual observations. Note that this choice inevitably misses states that are not visual (e.g., temperature-dependent friction), but we only focus on problems that can be visually captured. In such a scenario, if we can express the two modalities in terms of a universal interface that relates videos and text, we can fuse the information between different datasets by training a simulator that operates through this universal interface. Thus, the key challenge is to extract then fuse observations and actions from different types of datasets into a common format, which we describe below. The datasets we included in this study are as follows (further details of the datasets used to train UniSim are given in Appendix B).

- Simulated execution and renderings. While annotating actions for real-world videos is expensive, simulation engines such as Habitat (Savva et al., 2019) and Language Table (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020) are able to render a wide variety of actions. We use datasets previously collected from these simulators, i.e., Habitat object navigation using HM3D (Ramakrishnan et al., 2021) and Language Table Data from Lynch et al. (2023) to train UniSim. We extract text descriptions as actions when available. For simulated continuous control actions, we encode them via language embeddings and concatenate the text embeddings with discretized control values.
- **Real robot data.** An increasing amount of video data of real-robot executions paired with task descriptions such as the Bridge Data (Ebert et al., 2021; Walke et al., 2023) and data that enabled RT-1 and RT-2 (Brohan et al., 2022) are becoming increasingly available. Despite low-level control actions often being different across robots, the task descriptions can serve as high-level actions in UniSim. We further include discretize continuous controls actions when available similar to simulated robotics data.
- Human activity videos. Human activity data such as Ego4D (Grauman et al., 2022), EPIC-KITCHENS (Damen et al., 2018), and Something-Something (Goyal et al., 2017) have videos filled with human activities. Different from low-level robot controls, these activities are high-level actions that humans take to interact with the world. But these actions are sometimes provided as labels for video classification or activity recognition tasks (Goyal et al., 2017). In this case, we convert the video labels into text actions. In addition, we subsample the videos to construct chunks of observations at a frame rate that captures meaningful actions.
- **Panorama scans.** There exists a wealth of 3D scans such as Matterport3D (Chang et al., 2017). These static scans do not contain actions. We construct actions (e.g., turn left) by truncating panorama scans and utilize information such as change in camera poses between two images.
- Internet text-image data. Paired text-image datasets such as LAION (Schuhmann et al., 2021) contain rich static objects without actions. However, even though the images are static, the text labels often contain motion information such as "a person walking". In addition, internet text-image data can describe a richer set of objects than other datasets above, making them good

candidates for training UniSim. To use text-image data in UniSim, we treat individual images as single-frame videos and text labels as actions.

For each of these datasets, we process text tokens into continuous representations using T5 language model embeddings (Raffel et al., 2020) to better fuse with continuous actions such as robot controls.

**Fuse Information into UniSim.** Given the observation and action data extracted from the broad datasets above, we train a diffusion model (architecture and training details in Appendix C) to predict observations conditioned on actions and noisy previous observations as shown in Figure 2. During training, Gaussian noise with a fixed schedule is added to the true previous observation as a part of the forward process of the diffusion model (Ho et al., 2020), then UniSim learns to denoise the previous noisy observation to the next observation conditioned on the input action. Since the observations from different environments have all been converted to videos, while actions of different modalities (e.g., text descriptions, motor controls, camera angles) have all been converted to continuous embeddings, UniSim can learn a single world model across all datasets.

### 2.2 ENABLING LONG-HORIZON INTERACTIONS THROUGH ROLLOUTS IN POMDP

While combining diverse data might enable rich interaction, the true value of a simulator like UniSim lies in simulating long episodes to enable optimizing decisions through search (Silver et al.), planning (Montemerlo & Thrun, 2007), optimal control (Wang & Jin, 2000), or reinforcement learning (Mnih et al., 2013). In this section, we show that inference in UniSim is analogous to performing rollouts in a partially observable Markov decision process (POMDP) (Monahan, 1982). This connection enables UniSim to support learning decision making policies with established algorithms.

**Real World as A POMDP.** A POMDP can be defined as a tuple  $\mathcal{M} := \langle S, A, O, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{E} \rangle$  consisting of state, action, and observation spaces as well as reward, transition, and observation emission functions. A POMDP can characterize interactions with the real world, where  $s_t \in S$  is the true state of the world,  $o_t \in O$  contains video frames, and  $a_t \in A$  contains actions carried out by humans or agents, all at interactive step t. A policy  $\pi$  can learn to choose actions that lead to high rewards through interacting with  $\mathcal{M}$ .

UniSim as Transition Function. Given an observation  $o_t$  from  $\mathcal{M}$  at interaction step t, UniSim can parametrize the transition function  $\mathcal{T}$  to sample the next observation  $o_{t+1} \sim \overline{\mathcal{T}}(\cdot|o_t, a_t)$  conditioned  $o_t$  and action input  $a_t$ . Note that the distribution of temporally extended observations can be factorized into segments:

$$\overline{\mathcal{T}}(o_l|o_{l-1}, a_{l-1}) = \overline{\mathcal{T}}(o_t, o_{t+1}|o_{t-1}, a_{t-1}, a_t) = \overline{\mathcal{T}}(o_t|o_{t-1}, a_{t-1})\overline{\mathcal{T}}(o_{t+1}|o_t, a_t),$$
(1)

where  $o_l = [o_t, o_{t+1}]$ ,  $a_{l-1} = [a_{t-1}, a_t]$ , and  $o_{l-1} = o_{t-1}$ . This enables the modeling of dynamics at any temporal control frequency by chaining together actions, and allows high-level abstract action descriptions (e.g., "move left") and low-level motor controls (e.g.,  $\Delta x, \Delta \omega$ ) to be jointly modeled within the same framework. Temporally extended actions have been found to be beneficial in various settings such as learning hierarchical policies (Kaelbling & Lozano-Pérez, 2011; Nachum et al., 2018), skills, and options (Sutton et al., 1999; Konidaris & Barto, 2009). Rolling out a policy  $\pi$  in  $\mathcal{M}$ corresponds to generating the next video segment conditioned on the (noisy) previously generated video and a new action input. As a result, UniSim can simulate arbitrarily long interactions by conditionally generating each video segment autoregressively. Note that while UniSim only models  $\mathcal{T}$ , reward signals  $\mathcal{R}$  can be extracted from the generated videos for optimizing  $\pi$ , as we illustrate in Section 4.2 below.

**Parametrizing and training UniSim.** To instantiate the UniSim method outlined in Figure 2, we use diffusion models (Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2020) to parametrize  $\overline{\mathcal{T}}(o_t|o_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$ . Specifically, the reverse process learns a denoising model  $\epsilon_{\theta}(o_t^{(k)}, k|o_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$  that denoises a previous observation into the next observation using K denoising steps. We concatenate the last four frames from  $o_{t-1}$  with initial noise samples  $o_t^{(K)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$  channelwise to serve as conditional inputs to the denoising model. To condition on an action  $a_{t-1}$ , we leverage classifier-free guidance (Ho & Salimans, 2022). The final  $\overline{\mathcal{T}}(o_t|o_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$  is parametrized by the variance schedule:

$$\epsilon_{\theta}(o_t^{(k)}, k | o_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) = (1+\eta)\epsilon_{\theta}(o_t^{(k)}, k | o_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) - \eta\epsilon_{\theta}(o_t, k | o_{t-1}),$$
(2)

where  $\eta$  controls action conditioning strength. With this parametrization, we train  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  by minimizing

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MSE}} = \left\| \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta} \left( \sqrt{1 - \beta^{(k)}} o_t + \sqrt{\beta^{(k)}} \epsilon, \, k \Big| o_{t-1}, a_{t-1} \right) \right\|^2$$

where  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ , and  $\beta^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}$  are a set of K different noise levels for each  $k \in [1, K]$ . Given the learned  $\epsilon_{\theta}$ , an observation  $o_t$  can be generated by sampling from the initial distribution

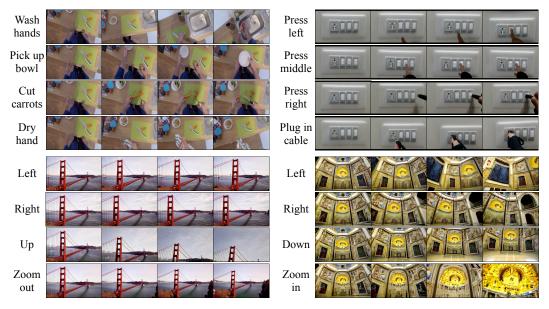


Figure 3: Action-rich simulations. UniSim can support manipulation actions such as "cut carrots", "wash hands", and "pickup bowl" from the same initial frame (top left) and other navigation actions.

 $o_t^{(K)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$  and iteratively denoising according to the following process for k from K to 0

$$o_t^{(k-1)} = \alpha^{(k)} (o_t^{(k)} - \gamma^{(k)} \epsilon_\theta (o_t^{(k)}, k | o_{t-1}, a_{t-1})) + \xi, \quad \xi \sim \mathcal{N} \big( 0, \sigma_k^2 I \big), \tag{3}$$

where  $\gamma^{(k)}$  is the denoising step size,  $\alpha^{(k)}$  is a linear decay on the current denoised sample, and  $\sigma_k$  is a time varying noise level that depends on  $\alpha^{(k)}$  and  $\beta^{(k)}$ .

**Training Policies using UniSim.** With the approximated dynamics model  $\overline{T}$  parametrized by a denoising model  $\epsilon_{\theta}$ , we can then optimize policies using planning, search, or reinforcement learning algorithms by sampling from  $\overline{T}$ . Using UniSim as an environment to train policies has a few advantages including unlimited environment access (through parallelizable video servers), real-world like observations (through photorealistic diffusion outputs), and flexible temporal control frequencies (through temporally extended actions across low-level robot controls and high-level text actions).

### **3** SIMULATING REAL-WORLD INTERACTIONS

We now demonstrate UniSim in emulating real-world manipulation and navigation environments by simulating both action-rich and long-horizon interactions for both humans and robots.

### 3.1 ACTION-RICH, LONG-HORIZON, AND DIVERSE INTERACTIONS

Action-Rich Simulation. We first demonstrate action-rich interactions with UniSim through natural language actions. Figure 3 shows simulation of human manipulation and navigation starting from the same initial observation (left-most column). We can instruct a person in the initial frame to perform various kitchen tasks (top left), press different switches (top right), or navigate scenes (bottom). We note that the model only trained on generic internet data, without action-rich manipulation data such as EPIC-KITCHENS (Damen et al., 2018), fails to simulate action-rich manipulations (see Appendix E).

**Long-Horizon Simulation.** Next, we illustrate 8 *sequential* interactions with UniSim in Figure 4. Specifically, we condition the simulation of each interaction on previous observation and new language action as described in Section 2.2. UniSim successfully preserves objects manipulated by previous instructions (e.g., the orange and can are preserved in the drawers in Columns 4, 5, 7, 8 after being put in the drawers). Additional results on long-horizon interaction are included in Appendix A.1.

**Diversity and Stochasticity in UniSim** In addition to supporting action-rich and long-horizon interactions, UniSim can also support highly diverse and stochastic environment transitions, such as diversity in objects being revealed after removing the towel on top (Figure 5 left), diversity in object colors and locations (cups and pens in Figure 5 right), and real-world variabilities such as wind and change in camera angles. We can use language actions to specify the appearance of diverse objects, and leverage the stochastic sampling process of video generation to support environment stochas-

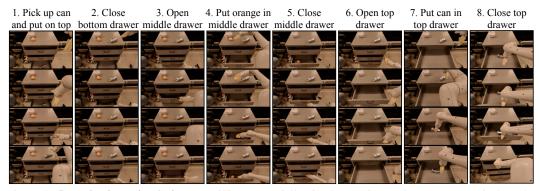


Figure 4: **Long-horizon simulations.** UniSim sequentially simulates 8 interactions autoregressively. The simulated interactions maintain temporal consistency across long-horizon interactions, correctly preserving objects and locations (can on counter in column 2-7, orange in drawer in column 4-5).

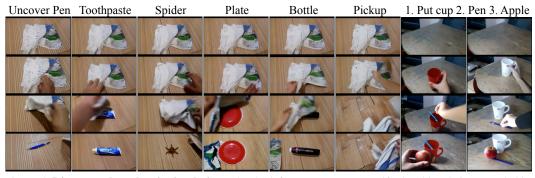


Figure 5: **Diverse and stochastic simulations.** On the left, we use text to specify the object being revealed by suffixing "uncovering" with the object name. On the right, we only specify "put cup" or "put pen", and cups and pens of different colors are sampled as a result of the stochastic sampling process during video generation.

Condition	$FID\downarrow$	$ $ FVD $\downarrow$	IS ↑	$ $ CLIP $\uparrow$
1 frame	59.47	315.69	3.03	22.55
4 distant	34.89	237	3.43	22.62
4 recent	34.63	211.3	3.52	22.63



Table 1: **Ablations of history conditioning** using FVD, FID, and Inception score, and CLIP score on Ego4D. Conditioning on multiple frames is better than on a single frame, and recent history has an edge over distant history.

Figure 6: **Simulations of low-data domains** using the Habitat object navigation using HM3D dataset (Ramakrishnan et al., 2021) with only 700 training examples. Prefixing language actions with dataset identifier leads to videos that completes the action (top).

ticity such as wind and camera angles. Since diffusion models are flexible in capturing multi-modal distributions, they can generate diverse samples representing highly stochastic environments. Note that stochasticity associated with the sampling process cannot be directly controlled by users, which corresponds to the uncontrollable environment stochasticity from Dichotomy of Control (Yang et al., 2022) that is ubiquitous in real-world environments (e.g., wind).

### 3.2 Ablation and Analysis

**Frame Conditioning Ablations.** We ablate over choices of past frames to condition on (detailed in Section 2.2) using the Ego4D dataset (Grauman et al., 2022), which contains egocentric movement requiring proper handling of observation history. We compare UniSim trained by conditioning on a different number of past frames and report generative modeling metrics (e.g., FID, FVD) in Table 1. We observe that conditioning on more frames from the past is better than conditioning on a single frame, but conditioning on history that is too far in the past (4 frames with exponentially increasing distances) can hurt performance. We found increasing the number of conditioning frames beyond 4 did not further improve performance on Ego4D, but it could be helpful for applications that require memory from distant past (e.g., navigation for retrieval).

**Simulating Low-Data Domains.** During joint training of UniSim on diverse data, we found that naïvely combining datasets of highly varying size can result in low generation quality in low-data

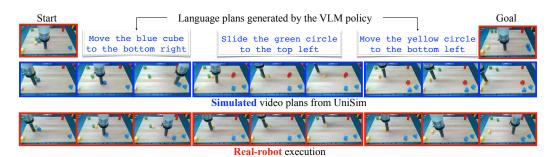


Figure 7: Long-horizon plans from UniSim. A VLM poly generates high-level language plans (first row) which are executed in UniSim (middle row) similar to how they are executed in the real world (bottom row) using the Language Table robot. The VLM trained on data from UniSim can plan for long-horizon tasks by successfully moving three blocks (blue, green, yellow) to match their target location in the goal image.

domains. While we can increase the weight of these domains in the data mixture during training, we found that attaching a domain identifier such as the name of the dataset to the actions being conditioned on improves generation quality in low-data domains, as shown in Figure 6.

### 4 APPLICATIONS OF UNISIM

Having learned a realistic simulator of the real world, we now demonstrate how UniSim can be used to train other types of machine intelligence such as embodied planners, reinforcement learning agents, and vision-language models through simulating highly realistic experiences.

### 4.1 TRAINING LONG-HORIZON EMBODIED PLANNER THROUGH HINDSIGHT LABELING.

One of the recent advances in learning embodied agents has been the adoption of language models or vision language models (VLM) as policies or planners that can operate in image or text based observation and action spaces (Du et al., 2023b; Driess et al., 2023; Brohan et al., 2023). One major challenge in learning such agents lies in the need for large amounts of data from the real world. The labor intensity in data collection only increases as tasks increase in horizon and complexity. Below, we demonstrate how UniSim can generate large amounts of training data for VLM policies through hindsight relabeling.

**Setup and Baseline.** We use data from the Language Table environment (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020) for learning geometric rearrangements of blocks on a table. The dataset consists of 160k simulated trajectories and 440k real trajectories where each trajectory contains a language instruction (e.g., "move blue cube to the right"), a sequence of visuomotor controls, and a sequence of image frames corresponding to the execution of the task. The original trajectories have short horizons (e.g., only moving one block). We train an image-goal conditioned VLM policy to predict language instructions and the motor controls from the start and goal images using the PALM-E architecture (Driess et al., 2023) (See details in Appendix D.1). For the baseline, the goal is set to the last frame of the original short-horizon trajectories. During each evaluation run, we set the goal by modifying the location of 3-4 blocks in the Language Table Simulation environment, and measure the blocks' distance to their goal states after executing 5 instructions using the VLM policy. We define the reduction in distance to goal (RDG) metric as

$$RDG = \frac{\|s_0 - s_{\text{goal}}\|_2 - \|s_T - s_{\text{goal}}\|_2}{\|s_0 - s_{\text{goal}}\|_2},$$
(4)

where  $s_T$  represents the underlying block locations after executing the policy,  $s_0$  and  $s_{\text{goal}}$  represents the initial and goal block locations.

**Generating Hindsight Data with UniSim.** To use UniSim for long-horizon tasks, we draw inspiration from hindsight relabeling (Rauber et al., 2019). Specifically, we create a total of 10k long-horizon trajectories from UniSim by doing rollouts in UniSim 3-5 times per trajectory, where each rollout corresponds to one scripted language instruction similar to the original dataset. We then use the final frame from each long-horizon rollout as a goal input and the scripted language instructions as supervision for training the VLM policy.

**Results on Zero-shot Real-World Transfer.** The true value of UniSim lies in simulating the real world. Figure 7 shows that the language plans produced by the VLM, the generated videos from UniSim according to the language plans, and the executions on the real robot. The policy purely

	RDG (moved)	RDG (all)
VLM-BC UniSim-Hindsight	$0.11\pm0.13$	$0.07 \pm 0.11$
UniSim-Hindsight	<b>0.34</b> ±0.13	$0.34 \pm 0.13$

	Succ. rate (all)	Succ. rate (pointing)
VLA-BC	0.58	0.12
UniSim-RL	0.81	0.71

Table 2: **Evaluation of long-horizon plans.** Reduction in distance to goal (RDG) defined in Equation 4 across 5 evaluation runs of VLM trained in UniSim simulated long-horizon data (bottom row) compared to VLM trained on original short-horizon data (top row). Using UniSim performs much better both in RGD of moved blocks (left) and RGD in all blocks (right).

Table 3: **Evaluation of RL policy.** Percentage of successful simulated rollouts (out of 48 tasks) using the VLA policy with and without RL finetuning on Language Table (assessed qualitatively using video rollouts in UniSim). UniSim-RL improves the overall performance, especially in pointing-based tasks which contain limited expert demonstrations.

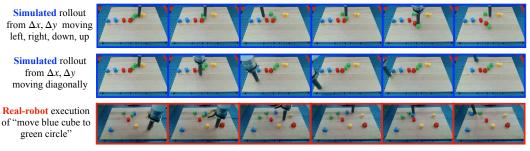


Figure 8: **[Top] Simulation from low-level controls.** UniSim supports low-level control actions as inputs to move endpoint horizontally, vertically, and diagonally. **[Bottom] Real-robot execution of an RL policy** trained in UniSim and zero-shot onto the real Language Table task. The RL policy can successfully complete the task of "moving blue cube to green circle".

trained in UniSim can directly perform long-horizon tasks in the real world in a zero-shot manner. See additional sim-to-real results with zero-shot real-world transfer in Appendix A.2.

**Results on Simulated Evaluation.** In addition to testing real-world transfer, we also conduct simulator based evaluation to compare the reduction in distance to goal (RDG) of the VLM policy trained on UniSim's generated long-horizon data to the VLM policy trained on the original shorthorizon data in Table 2. The VLM trained using long-horizon data generated by UniSim performs 3-4 times better than the VLM trained on original short-horizon data in completing long-horizon goal-conditioned tasks.

### 4.2 REAL-WORLD SIMULATOR FOR REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

Reinforcement learning (RL) has achieved superhuman performance on difficult tasks such as playing Go and Atari games (Silver et al.; Mnih et al., 2015), but has limited real world applications due to the lack of a realistic environment simulator (Dulac-Arnold et al., 2019). We investigate whether UniSim can enable effective training of RL agents by providing the agent with a realistic simulator that can be accessed in parallel.

**Setup.** We finetune the PaLI 3B vision-language model (Chen et al., 2022b) to predict low-level control actions (joint movements in  $\Delta x, \Delta y$ ) from an image observation and a task description (e.g., "move the blue cube to the right") using the behavioral cloning (BC) loss to serve as the low-level control policy and the baseline, which we call the vision-language-action (VLA) policy similar to Brohan et al. (2023). Because UniSim can take low-level control actions as input, we can directly conduct model-based rollouts in UniSim using control actions outputted by VLA policy. To acquire reward information, we use the number of steps-to-completion from the training data as a proxy reward to train a model that maps the current observation to learned reward. We then use the REINFORCE algorithm (Williams, 1992) to optimize the VLA policy, treating the rollouts from UniSim as the on-policy rollouts from the real environment and use the learned reward model to predict rewards from simulated rollouts. See details of RL training in Appendix D.2.

**Results.** We first assess the quality of UniSim in simulating real-robot executions by applying low-level control actions (e.g.,  $\Delta x = 0.05$ ,  $\delta y = 0.05$ ) repeatedly for 20-30 environment steps to move the endpoint left, right, down, up, and diagonally in Figure 8 (top two rows). We see that the simulated rollouts capture both the endpoint movements and the physics of collision. To compare the RL policy trained in UniSim to the BC policy, we qualitatively assessed the simulated rollouts in UniSim. Table 3 shows that RL training significantly improves the performance of the VLA policy across a wide set of tasks, especially in tasks such as "point to blue block". We then directly deploy the RL policy trained in UniSim onto the real robot in zero-shot, and observe successful task

executions as shown in Figure 8 (bottom row). Additional results on zero-shot transfer to real robot can be found in Appendix A.3.

4.3 REALISTIC SIMULATOR FOR BROADER VISION-LANGUAGE TASKS.

UniSim can generate training data for other machine intelligence such as detectors of rare events. This is especially useful when natural data is rare or difficult to collect (e.g., footage of crimes or accidents). We provide such a proof-of-concept by training vision-language models on purely generated data from UniSim, and observe significant performance benefits in video captioning tasks.

**Setup.** We finetune PaLI-X (Chen et al., 2023), a VLM with 55B parameters pretrained on a broad set of image, video, and language tasks, to caption a set of videos generated by UniSim using texts from the training split of ActivityNet Captions (Krishna et al., 2017). We measure the CIDEr score of the finetuned model on the test split of ActivityNet Captions as well as other captioning tasks following the same setup as Chen et al. (2023). See finetuning details of PaLI-X in Appendix D.3.

	Activity	MSR-VTT	VATEX	SMIT
No finetune	15.2	21.91	13.31	9.22
Activity	54.90	24.88	36.01	16.91
UniSim	46.23	27.63	40.03	20.58

Table 4: **VLM trained in UniSim** to perform video captioning tasks. CIDEr scores for PaLI-X finetuned only on simulated data from UniSim compared to no finetuning and finetuning on true video data from ActivityNet Captions. Finetuning only on simulated data has a large advantage over no finetuning and transfers better to other tasks than finetuning on true data.

**Results.** We compare PaLI-X finetuned on purely generated videos to PaLI-X without finetuning and

PaLI-X finetuned on original ActivityNet Captions in Table 4. Purely finetuning on generated data drastically improves the captioning performance from no finetuning at all on ActivityNet (15.2 to 46.23), while achieving 84% performance of finetuning on true data. Furthermore, PaLI-X finetuned on generated data transfers better to other captioning tasks such as MSR-VTT (Xu et al., 2016), VATEX (Wang et al., 2019), and SMIT (Monfort et al., 2021) than PaLI-X finetuned on true data, which tends to overfit to ActivityNet. These results suggest that UniSim can serve as an effective data generator for improving broader vision-language models.

### 5 RELATED WORK

**Internet-Scale Generative Models.** Language models trained on internet text succeed at textbased tasks (OpenAI, 2023; Anil et al., 2023) but not physical tasks, which requires perception and control. Internet-scale generative models can synthesize realistic images and videos (Wu et al., 2021; Ho et al., 2022a; Singer et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023), but have mostly been applied to generative media (Zhang et al., 2023) as opposed to empowering sophisticated agents capable of multi-turn interactions. Du et al. (2023a) shows video generation can serve as policies, but the major bottleneck for policy learning often lies in limited access to real-world environments (Dulac-Arnold et al., 2019). We focus on this exact bottleneck by learning universal simulators of the real world, enabling realistic and unlimited "environment" access for training sophisticated agents interactively.

**Learning World Models.** Learning an accurate world model in reaction to control inputs has been a long-standing challenge in model-based planning, optimization, and reinforcement learning (Sutton, 1988; Kaelbling et al., 1998; Wang & Jin, 2000). Most systems choose to learn dynamics models in lower dimensional state spaces as opposed to in the pixel space (Ferns et al., 2004; Achille & Soatto, 2018; Lesort et al., 2018; Castro, 2020), which limits knowledge sharing across systems. With large transformer architectures, learning image-based world models became plausible (Hafner et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2022a; Seo et al., 2022; Micheli et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022; Hafner et al., 2023), but mostly in games or simulated domains with visually simplistic and abundant data. In video generation, previous works have leveraged text prompts (Yu et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2022), driving videos (Siarohin et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022), 3D geometries (Weng et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2018), physical simulations (Chuang et al., 2005), frequency information (Li et al., 2023), and user annotations (Hao et al., 2018) to introduce movements into videos. However, they focus on generating domain specific videos as opposed to building a universal simulator that can further improve other agents as in UniSim.

### 6 LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSION

We have shown it is possible to learn a universal simulator of the real world in response to various action inputs ranging from texts to robot controls. UniSim can simulate highly realistic experiences for interacting with humans and training autonomous agents. UniSim requires large compute to train similar to other modern foundation models. Despite this disadvantage, we hope UniSim will instigate broad interest in learning and applying real-world simulators to improve machine intelligence.

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# Appendix

In this Appendix we provide additional qualitative results on long-horizon simulation of human and robot interactions (Section A.1), zero-shot sim-to-real transfer results on long-horizon planning (Section A.2), and zero-shot sim-to-real transfer of the RL policy (Section A.3). We also provided details on the dataset used to train UniSim in Section B, the model architecture and training details of UniSim in Section D. Finally, we provide failed examples when UniSim is not jointly trained on broad datasets (Section E). Video demos can be found at anonymous-papers-submissions.github.io

### A ADDITIONAL RESULTS

### A.1 ADDITIONAL LONG-HORIZON INTERACTION

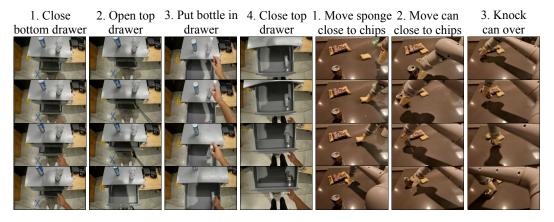
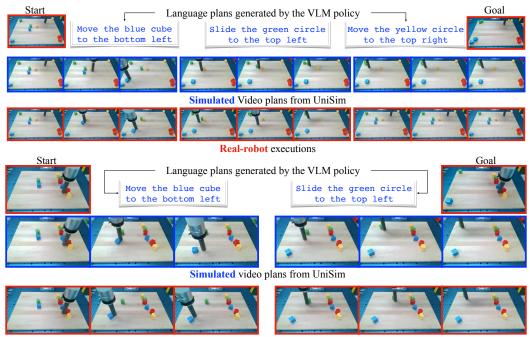


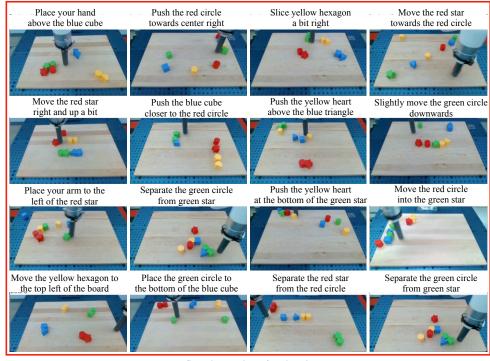
Figure 9: Additional results on long-horizon interaction with humans and robots similar to Figure 4. UniSim can generate consistent video rollouts across 3-4 high-level language actions.



### A.2 ADDITIONAL REAL-ROBOT RESULTS FOR LONG-HORIZON PLANNING

**Real-robot** executions

Figure 10: Additional results (similar to Figure 7) on applying UniSim to train vision-language planners to complete long-horizon tasks. VLM finetuned with hindsight labeled data is able to generate long-horizon instructions that moves two or three blocks successfully to match their location in the goal image.



### A.3 ADDITIONAL RESULTS ON LEARNING RL POLICY IN UNISIM

Real first observation of each trajectory

Simulated last observation of each trajectory

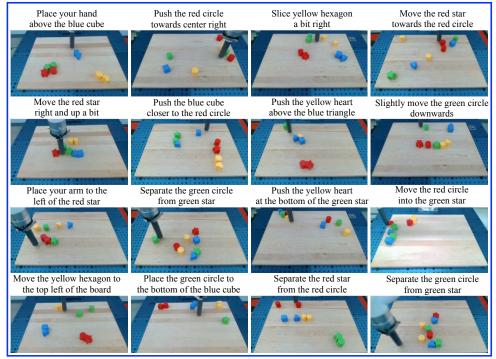
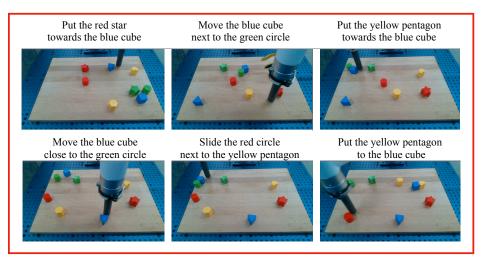
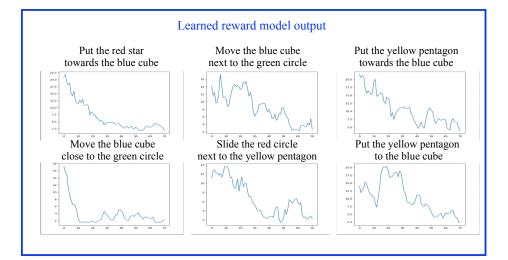


Figure 11: First real observations and last simulated observations of rolling out the RL policy trained in UniSim.



Real first observation of each trajectory



### Real-robot last observation of each trajectory

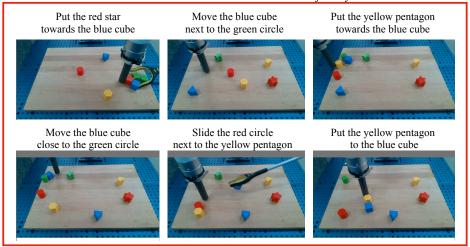


Figure 12: First real observations and last real observations of executing the RL policy trained from UniSim in the real world in zero-shot. Middle plot also shows the output of the learned reward model (steps-to-completion) during policy execution, where step 0 corresponds to the top plot (initial observation) and step 70 corresponds to the bottom plot (final observation).

## **B** DATASETS

We provide the datasets used to train UniSim below, including dataset name, number of training examples (approximate), and weight in the data mixture. Miscellaneous data are collections of datasets that have not been published. Some of these datasets have been processed into train and validation split, hence the number of training examples may differ from the original data size. When text are available in the original dataset, we use T5 language model embeddings (Raffel et al., 2020) to preprocess the text into continuous representations. When low-level controls are available in the original dataset, we encode them both as text and normalize then discretize them into 4096 bins contatenated with language embeddings (if present). The choice of mixture weights are either 0.1 or 0.05 without careful tuning. How data mixture weights affect simulation performance is an interesting line of future work.

	Dataset	# Examples	Weight
Simulation	Habitat HM3D (Ramakrishnan et al., 2021)	710	0.1
Simulation	Language Table sim (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020)	160k	0.05
	Bridge Data (Ebert et al., 2021)	2k	0.05
Real Robot	RT-1 data (Brohan et al., 2022)	70k	0.1
Real Robot	Language Table real (Lynch & Sermanet, 2020)	440k	0.05
	Miscellaneous robot videos	133k	0.05
Human activities	Ego4D (Grauman et al., 2022)	3.5M	0.1
	Something-Something V2 (Goyal et al., 2017)	160k	0.1
	EPIC-KITCHENS (Damen et al., 2018)	25k	0.1
	Miscellaneous human videos	50k	0.05
Panorama scan	Matterport Room-to-Room scans (Anderson et al., 2018)	3.5M	0.1
Internet text-image	LAION-400M (Schuhmann et al., 2021)	400M	0.05
	ALIGN (Jia et al., 2021)	400M	0.05
Internet video	Miscellaneous videos	13M	0.05

Table 5: Dataset name, number of training examples, and mixture weights used for training UniSim.

### C ARCHITECTURE AND TRAINING

We the 3D U-Net architecture (Çiçek et al., 2016; Ho et al., 2022b) to parametrize the UniSim video model. We apply the spatial downsampling pass followed by the spatial upsampling pass with skip connections to the downsampling pass activations with interleaved 3D convolution and attention layers as in the standard 3D U-Net. The video models in UniSim consist of one history conditioned video prediction model as the base and two additional spatial super-resolution models similar to Ho et al. (2022a). The history conditioned base model operates at temporal and spatial resolution [16, 24, 40], and the two spatial super-resolution models operate at spatial resolution [24, 40]  $\rightarrow$  [48, 80] and [48, 80]  $\rightarrow$  [192, 320], respectively. To condition the base video model on the history, we take 4 frames from the previous video segment and concatenate them channelwise to the noise samples inputted to the U-Net. We employ temporal attention for the forward model to allow maximum modeling flexibility but temporal convolution to the super-resolution models for efficiency reasons similar to Ho et al. (2022a). The model and training hyperparamters of UniSim are summarized in Table 6.

Hyperparameter	Value
Base channels	1024
Optimizer	Adam ( $\beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.99$ )
Channel multipliers	1, 2, 4
Learning rate	0.0001
Blocks per resolution	3
Batch size	256
Attention resolutions	6, 12, 24
Num attention heads	16, 16, 8
Conditioning embedding dimension	4096
Conditioning embedding MLP layers: 4	
Conditioning token length	64
EMA	0.9999
Dropout	0.1
Training hardware	512 TPU-v3 chips
Training steps	1000000
Diffusion noise schedule	cosine
Noise schedule log SNR range	[-20, 20]
Sampling timesteps	256
Sampling log-variance interpolation	$\gamma = 0.1$
Weight decay	0.0
Prediction target	$\epsilon$

Table 6: Hyperparameters for training the UniSim diffusion model.

### D DETAILS OF EXPERIMENTAL SETUPS

### D.1 DETAILS OF LONG-HORIZON PLANNING

**PALM-E VLM Policy.** We modify the original PALM-E 12B model (Driess et al., 2023) to condition on a goal image as additional input before decoding the text actions. The VLM is finetuned on either the original short horizon data or the long horizon simulated data using 64 TPUv3 chips for 1 day. The supervision for short-horizon baseline is the single step language instruction in the original data, whereas the supervision for long-horizon UniSim data is the scripted long-horizon language instructions chained together that generated the video data. Other model architecture and training details follow Driess et al. (2023).

**Simulated evaluation.** In setting up goal in the simulated environments, a subset of 3-4 blocks (randomly selected) are moved by 0.05, 0.1, or 0.2 along the x,y axes (randomly selected). The original observation space has  $x \in [0.15, 0.6]$  and  $y \in [-0.3048, 0.3048]$ . So the modification of goal location corresponds to meaningful block movements. For executing the long-horizon VLM policy trained on UniSim data, we first sample one language instruction from the VLM, predict a video of 16 frames, and use a separately trained inverse dynamics model similar to Du et al. (2023a) to recover the low-level control actions, which we found to slightly outperform directly regressing on control actions from language outputs of the VLM. We execute 5 instructions in total, and measure the final distance to goal according to the ground truth simulator state. We 5 evaluations each with a different random seed for sampling the initial state and resetting the goal, and report the mean and standard error in Table 2.

D.2 DETAILS OF RL POLICY TRAINING

#### Stage 1 (Supervised Learning)

**Model Architecture** The PaLI 3B model trained on Language-Table uses a Vision Transformer architecture G/14 (Zhai et al., 2022) to process images, and the encoder-decoder architecture of UL2 language model (Tay et al., 2022) for encoding task descriptions and decoding tokens which can represent language, control actions, or other values of interest (described below).

**Objectives** In the first stage of training, using a dataset of demonstrations, we finetune the pretrained PaLI 3B vision language model checkpoint (Chen et al., 2022b) with the following tasks:

- Behavioral Cloning: Given observations and task instruction, predict the demonstration action. The continuous actions of the Language-Table domain are discretized into the form "+1 -5", and represented using extra tokens from the PaLI model's token vocabulary. As an example, "+1 -5" is represented by the token sequence (<extra\_id\_65>, <extra\_id\_1>, <extra\_id\_66>, <extra\_id\_5>).
- **Timestep to Success Prediction:** Given observations and task instruction, predict how many timesteps are left until the end of episode (i.e. success). Similar to actions, the number of steps remaining is represented via extra tokens from the PaLI model's token vocabulary.
- **Instruction Prediction:** Given the first and last frame of an episode, predict the task instruction associated with that episode.

We use learning rate 0.001, dropout rate 0.1, and batch size 128 to finetune the PaLI 3B model for 300k gradient steps with 1k warmup steps on both the simulated and real Language Table dataset similar to RT-2 Brohan et al. (2023).

### Stage 2 (RL Training)

**Reward Definition** As mentioned above, during Stage 1, given an observation and goal, the PaLI model is finetuned to predict how many timesteps are left until the demonstration episode reaches a success state. Let us denote this function by d(o, g). The reward we use during RL training is defined as  $r(o_t, a_t, o_{t+1}, g) = -[d(o_{t+1}, g) - d(o_t, g)] \cdot C$ , where C > 0 is a small constant used to stabilize training (C = 5e - 2 in this work). Intuitively, this reward tracks if from timestep t to t + 1 the policy arrived closer to accomplishing the desired goal. Before starting Stage 2, we make a copy of the Stage 1 model checkpoint and keep it frozen to use as the reward model for RL training.

**Environment Definition** To implement video generation as environment transitions, we expose the inference interface of the video generation model through remote procedure call, and use the DeepMind RL Environment API (also known as DM Env API) (Tassa et al., 2018) to wrap the remote procedure call in the step function of the environment. When the environment is reset to

start a new episode, a goal instruction is randomly sampled from the ones available in the dataset of demonstrations used in Stage 1.

**RL Method** We initialize the RL trained policy using the Stage 1 checkpoint, which as mentioned was also trained with a Behavioral Cloning objective. A collection of actor processes perform policy rollouts in the video generation environment, and add rewards to the trajectories using the reward model defined above. The policy is updated using the REINFORCE (Williams, 1992) objective, i.e.  $\nabla_{\pi} \mathcal{L}(o_t, a_t, g) = \nabla_{\pi} \log \pi(a_t | o_t, g) \cdot \left[ \sum_{i=t}^{T} \gamma^{i-t} \cdot r(o_i, a_i, o_{i+1}, g) \right]$ , where  $\mathcal{L}(o_t, a_t, g)$  represents the loss associated with the observation-action pair  $(o_t, a_t)$  in an episode with the goal g. The actors are rate limited to prevent generated trajectories from being very off-policy. We report the hyperparameters associated with RL training in Table 7.

Hyperparameter	Value
Max steps per episode	100
Number of actor processes	64
Number of image history stack	2
Learner batch size	64
Discounting factor $\gamma$	0.9

Table 7: Hyperparameters for training the VLA RL policy using the ACME framework.

### D.3 DETAILS OF VIDEO CAPTIONING

Note that even though UniSim is a video based simulator trained to condition on past history, we can achieve text-only conditioning by inputting placeholder frames such as white images while increasing the classifier-free guidance strength on text. We found this to work well in generating videos purely from captions of ActivityNet Captions. For generating data to train VLMs, we take the training split of ActivityNet Captions which consists of 30,740 text-video examples after the 50/25/25% train/val1/val2 split as in Chen et al. (2023). For each of the 30,740 text, we generate 4 videos from UniSim, and use the text labels as supervision in finetuning PaLI-X. As a result, we have 4X amount of the original training data (in terms the number of videos). In addition, we found the generated videos to generally align better semantically than the original ActivityNet Captions videos, which could contain noise and ambiguous videos that could be labeled differently. We use ground truth temporal proposals at evaluation following Chen et al. (2023) and Krishna et al. (2017). Following Chen et al. (2023) and Wang et al. (2021), we use the val1 split for validation and val2 split for testing.

# E FAILED SIMULATIONS WITHOUT JOINT TRAINING

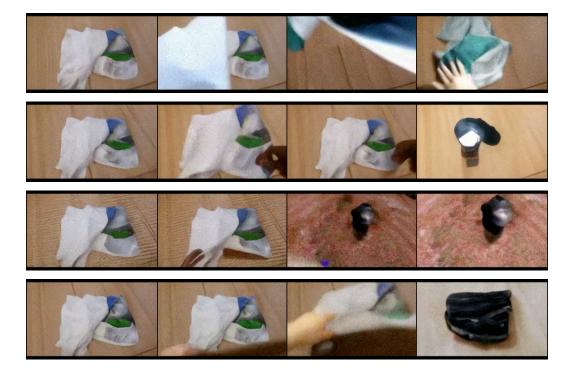


Figure 13: Failed environment simulation from the action "uncover bottle" without training on broad data as in UniSim. Top two videos are generated from only training on SSV2. Bottom two videos are generated from only training on generic internet data (without SSV2, EpicKitchen, Ego4D, and various robotics dataset).

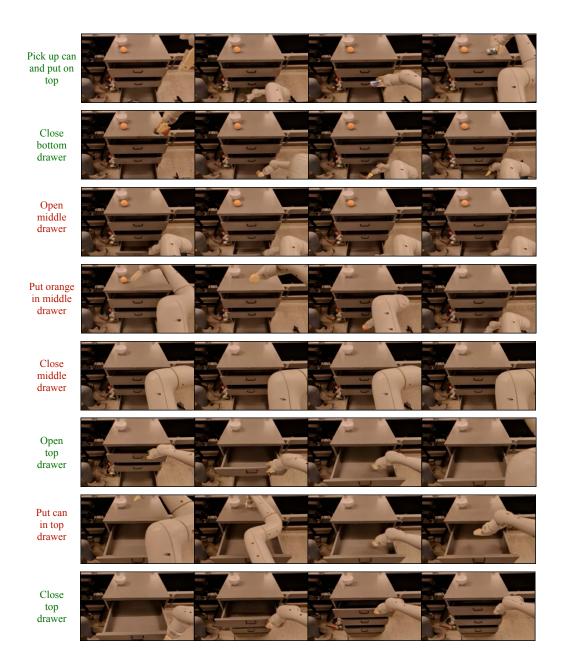


Figure 14: When the text-to-video model behind UniSim is only trained on data from Brohan et al. (2022) as opposed incorporating broad data from the internet and other manipulation datasets, long-horizon interaction simulations fail half of the time (red text).