

Task-Unaware Lifelong Robot Learning with Retrieval-based Weighted Local Adaptation

Master Thesis
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Project Duration: February - November, 2024

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Cover: *Zima Blue - Love, Death & Robots*

An electronic version of this dissertation is available at <http://repository.tudelft.nl/>.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to everyone who has supported me throughout my master's journey.

First and foremost, I extend special thanks to Prof. Jens Kober and Prof. Frans A. Oliehoek, my thesis advisors, for providing me with invaluable support and insightful guidance along the way. I have learned so much not only on the topics related to my project, but also on the approaches to conduct better research, through both of your constructive feedback and engaging discussions.

I sincerely appreciate my daily supervisor, Dr. Cong Wang, for his patience, encouragement, trust, and so many times of discussions during the challenging journey. My heartfelt appreciation goes to my friends Xinyu Wang and Ruipeng Zhang for their assistance, collaboration, and countless discussions, and both of your help and work greatly enriched the work.

Finally, I am profoundly grateful to my family and friends for their endless support and unwavering belief in me. Without you, I could not have been through the arduous time and completed my studies. Thank you!

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TASK-UNAWARE LIFELONG ROBOT LEARNING WITH RETRIEVAL-BASED WEIGHTED LOCAL ADAPTATION

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ABSTRACT

Real-world environments require robots to continuously acquire new skills while retaining previously learned abilities, all without the need for clearly defined task boundaries. Storing all past data to prevent forgetting is impractical due to storage and privacy concerns. To address this, we propose a method that efficiently restores a robot’s proficiency in previously learned tasks over its lifespan. Using an Episodic Memory \mathcal{M} , our approach enables experience replay during training and retrieval during testing for local fine-tuning, allowing rapid adaptation to previously encountered problems without explicit task identifiers. Additionally, we introduce a selective weighting mechanism that emphasizes the most challenging segments of retrieved demonstrations, focusing local adaptation where it is most needed. This framework offers a scalable solution for lifelong learning in dynamic, task-unaware environments, combining retrieval-based local adaptation with selective weighting to enhance robot performance in open-ended scenarios.

Keywords: *Robotic Lifelong Learning, Task-Unaware Continual Learning, Episodic Memory Retrieval, Visuomotor Behavior Cloning, Error-driven Policy Adaptation*

1 INTRODUCTION

Lifelong learning seeks to endow neural networks with the ability to continually acquire new skills while retaining previously learned knowledge. This balance between stability and plasticity is crucial as models face sequences of tasks over time. While significant progress has been made in applying lifelong learning to domains such as computer vision (Huang et al., 2024; Du et al., 2024) and natural language processing (Shi et al., 2024; Razdaibiedina et al., 2023), the challenges are more pronounced in robotics. Robots are expected to adaptively learn and solve unseen tasks throughout their operational lifespan (Thrun & Mitchell, 1995). Their interactions with dynamic environments introduce complexities absent in static data domains; a single misstep in task execution can result in complete failure. Moreover, robotics is constrained by limited data availability due to the expense and complexity of real-world interactions (Zhu et al., 2022; Du et al., 2023). These factors not only intensify the difficulty of continual learning in robotics but also demand more robust lifelong learning capabilities.

Existing methods for lifelong robot learning typically require robots to learn a sequence of tasks, each distinguished by domain, scenario, scene, or task goals (Liu et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2022; Wan et al., 2024; Parakh et al., 2024). In those settings, robots often depend on specific task identifications with clear

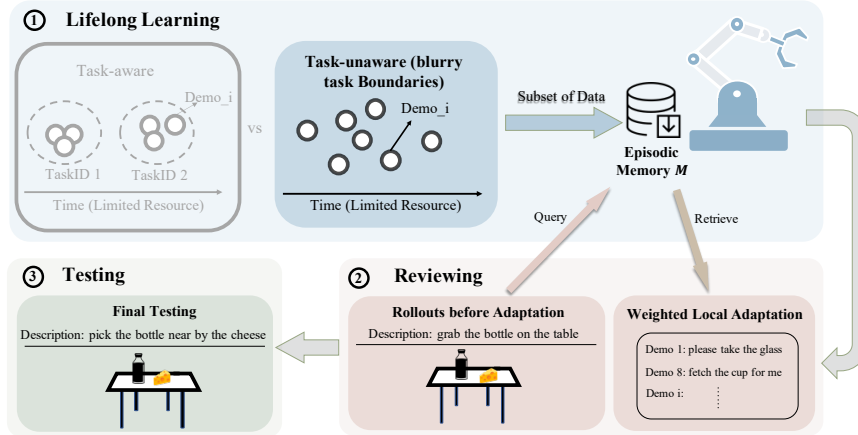


Figure 1: Method Overview. Our approach addresses lifelong learning in the absence of distinct task boundaries. By drawing inspiration from human learning patterns, we propose a three-stage process: lifelong learning, reviewing, and testing. During the *lifelong learning* stage, the robot encounters diverse task demonstrations and stores a subset of data in episodic memory, \mathcal{M} . Before deployment on a specific task, our method performs a *reviewing* stage by retrieving the most relevant data from \mathcal{M} and fine-tuning the policy network, which acts as a form of skill restoration. This process enhances the model’s performance in the *testing* stage on that specific task without explicit task ID.

boundaries — usually provided as task IDs or explicit descriptions — to specify the task they are working on (Liu et al., 2023). However, in dynamic real-world settings, it is impractical to predefine tasks or assign specific IDs, as robots are likely to encounter a vast array of unpredictable situations, with tasks that may be subdivided into smaller components of varying granularity. Therefore, approaches that rely on specific task identifications with clear boundaries are unrealistic and unscalable (Koh et al., 2021).

To address these challenges, we propose a novel task-unaware lifelong robot learning framework with visuomotor policies, utilizing vision perceptions as well as diverse paraphrased language descriptions. This framework enables robots to continually learn and adapt without explicit task identifiers. We employ our method in manipulation scenarios based on the LIBERO benchmark (Liu et al., 2024). Our approach leverages pre-trained models to generate consistent embeddings across different tasks and training phases, thereby mitigating the embedding drift that often occurs in sequential learning scenarios (Liu et al., 2023; Kawaharazuka et al., 2024). We adopt Experience Replay (ER) baseline (de Masson D’Autume et al., 2019) to rehearse samples from previous tasks, helping to maintain learned skills and reduce forgetting.

Despite these measures, some degree of forgetting remains inevitable due to the multitasking nature of lifelong learning and the robot’s limited access to previous demonstrations. Drawing inspiration from human learning processes — where individuals revisit tasks they once knew but have forgotten details — we introduce an efficient local adaptation mechanism. Humans often perform quick reviews using limited resources and try to retrieve memory to rebuild their knowledge, allowing them to efficiently regain proficiency without relearning all aspects of the task (Sara, 2000). Similarly, our mechanism enables the robot to adapt locally to previously encountered problems rapidly and regain skills through fast fine-tuning, using the same episodic memory employed for experience replay during training.

Given the indistinct task boundaries, we leverage retrieval-based mechanisms (Du et al., 2023; van Dijk et al., 2024; de Masson D’Autume et al., 2019) to retrieve data most similar to the current task based on

vision and language input similarities. To adapt the model effectively — especially focusing on the most challenging segments where the robot’s performance deviates — we first perform a few episodes of rollouts to test the model’s performance on the current task (Figure 1) before local adaptation: these rollouts are then used for automatic selective weighting by comparing them with the retrieved demonstrations without human intervention (Spencer et al., 2022; Mandlekar et al., 2020). The weighted samples facilitate the local adaptation, thereby improving performance.

In summary, the key contributions of our solution are:

- **Retrieval-Based Local Adaptation for Blurred Task Boundaries:** During testing, relevant past demonstrations are retrieved from episodic memory to adapt the neural network locally, enabling the robot to quickly regain proficiency on previously encountered tasks without relying on explicit task boundaries.
- **Selective Weighting Mechanism:** A weighting mechanism emphasizes the most challenging segments of the retrieved demonstrations, optimizing real-time local adaptation.
- **Paradigm for Memory-Based Lifelong Robot Learning:** We demonstrate that our approach can be applied to different memory-based robotic lifelong learning algorithms during test time, serving as a paradigm for skill restoration.

This framework allows robots to continually learn and adapt in dynamic environments without requiring predefined task identifiers or boundaries, making it highly practical and scalable for real-world applications. By combining retrieval-based local adaptation with selective weighting, our method offers a robust solution to the challenges of lifelong robot learning in open-ended settings.

2 RELATED WORK

2.1 LIFELONG ROBOT LEARNING

A key challenge in lifelong robot learning is *catastrophic forgetting*, where learning new tasks adversely affects performance on previously learned tasks (Parisi et al., 2019). Traditional lifelong learning methods often rely on explicit task identifiers or clear task boundaries to structure the learning process (Wan et al., 2024; Xie & Finn, 2022), such as Elastic Weight Consolidation (EWC) (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017) and Pack-Net (Mallya & Lazebnik, 2018). In real-world robotic applications, robots operate in dynamic environments where tasks are not clearly segmented, making explicit task identifiers impractical (Kim et al., 2024).

Recent efforts in lifelong reinforcement learning (Xie & Finn, 2022) and areas like task and motion planning (Mendez-Mendez et al., 2023), online object model reconstruction (Lu et al., 2022), interactive instruction-following agents (Kim et al., 2024), multi-task learning (Wang et al., 2022), interactive imitation learning (Spahn et al., 2024), and SLAM (Yin et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2022; Vödisch et al., 2022) show progress. Robot manipulation skills also evolve through interactions, aiding adaption when task executions fail (Parakh et al., 2024). Memory-based algorithms and selective weighting (Sun et al., 2022; Koh et al., 2021; Shim et al., 2021; Aljundi et al., 2019) enhance learning by prioritizing informative samples. Replay buffer methods (He et al., 2020; Mai et al., 2021; Caccia et al., 2021) have demonstrated success. However, there is still a lack of progress in settings where the model is unaware of task boundaries during both training and inference (Lee et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020; Ardywibowo et al., 2022).

A benchmark for lifelong robot learning, particularly focusing on manipulation tasks, has been introduced in LIBERO (Liu et al., 2024). Methods such as TAIL (Liu et al., 2023) rely on specific task identifiers, which can be limiting in dynamic environments, while Lotus (Wan et al., 2024) involves a pretraining phase to establish an initial skill set, providing a foundation for further continuous learning.

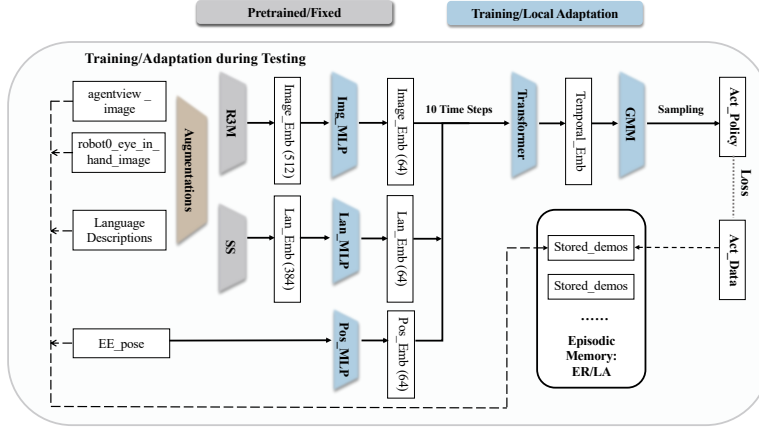


Figure 2: Policy Backbone Architecture used in Training and Testing. We input various data modalities into the system, including demonstration images, language descriptions, and the robot arm’s proprioceptive input (joint and gripper states). Pretrained R3M (Nair et al., 2022) and SentenceSimilarity (2024) models process the image and language data respectively. Along with the proprioceptive states processed by an MLP, the embeddings are concatenated and passed through a Transformer to generate temporal embeddings. A GMM (Gaussian Mixture Model) is then used as the policy head to sample actions for the robot. Throughout both training and testing, we utilize episodic memory to store a subset of demonstrations gathered throughout the training process.

2.2 TASK-UNAWARE CONTINUAL LEARNING

Despite the success of continual learning with clearly labeled task sequences, there still remains a gap in progress within settings where the model is unaware of task boundaries both in training and inference, an online situation more reflective of real-world scenarios. Many attempts (Lee et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020; Ardywibowo et al., 2022) focus on learning specialized parameters using expanding network structures. Memory-based algorithms remain effective by prioritizing informative samples (Sun et al., 2022), removing less important training samples (Koh et al., 2021), improving decision boundaries (Shim et al., 2021), and increasing gradient diversity (Aljundi et al., 2019). Methods aiming to exploit replay buffer (He et al., 2020; Mai et al., 2021; Caccia et al., 2021) have also demonstrated notable success.

2.3 INFORMATION RETRIEVAL FOR ROBOTICS

Information retrieval techniques have been used to optimize robotic behaviors by retrieving relevant actions from memory in novel tasks (Du et al., 2023). For example, path following based on image retrieval improves visual navigation (van Dijk et al., 2024), and incremental learning helps humanoid robots adapt to new environments by recalling past behaviors (Bärmann et al., 2023). Retrieval has also enabled skill transfer from videos (Papagiannis et al., 2024) and affordance transfer for zero-shot manipulation (Kuang et al., 2024), allowing robots to manipulate objects without prior training.

2.4 ROBOT LEARNING WITH ADAPTATION

Robots have learned to adapt to dynamic environments, such as agile flight in strong winds (O’Connell et al., 2022) and quadruped locomotion adaptation through test-time search (Peng et al., 2020). Meta-learning allows fast adaptation to new tasks (Kaushik et al., 2020; Nagabandi et al., 2018), while efficient

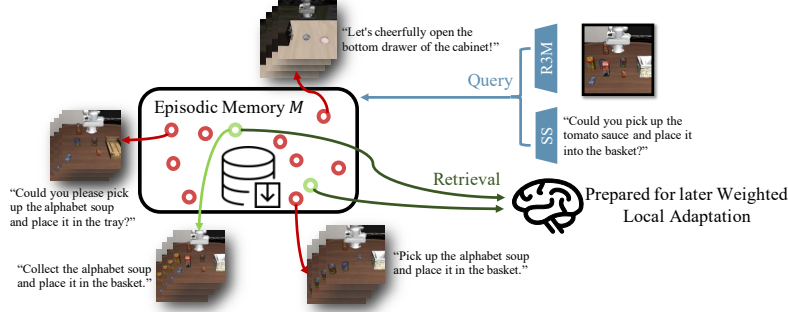


Figure 3: Demonstration Retrieval. The Episodic memory \mathcal{M} contains subset of demonstrations stored during *Lifelong Learning* Stage. To retrieve the most similar demonstrations compared with the current task, we apply Eq.2 to compute a weighted average of the distance based on both the image and language embeddings to avoid any confusion. The retrieved data would later be used for Weighted Local Adaptation.

adaptation techniques enable robots to generalize from limited data (Julian et al., 2020). Despite the success of retrieval-based adaptation and selective weighting, combining these methods for lifelong learning in open-ended environments remains an open challenge.

3 PRELIMINARY

Our robot utilizes a visuomotor policy learned through behavior cloning to execute manipulation tasks by mapping sensory inputs and task descriptions to motor actions. In a task-unaware lifelong learning setting, we adopt a continual learning framework where task boundaries are blurred by employing multiple paraphrased descriptions to define task goals, rather than relying on explicit task identifiers. This approach enhances the policy’s ability to generalize across varied instructions and tasks.

The policy is trained by minimizing the discrepancy between the predicted actions and the expert actions derived from demonstrations. Specifically, we optimize the following loss function across a sequence of tasks $\{\mathcal{T}_k\}$ with corresponding demonstrations $\mathcal{D}_k = \{\tau_1^k, \dots, \tau_N^k\}$. Notably, \mathcal{D}_k is not fully accessible for $k < K$ due to the use of experience replay data from Episodic Memory \mathcal{M} :

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbb{E}_{(o_t, a_t) \sim \mathcal{D}_k, g \sim G_k} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{l_k} \mathcal{L}(\pi_{\theta}(o_{\leq t}, g), a_t) \right], \quad (1)$$

where θ denotes the model parameters, l_k represents the number of samples for task k , $o_{\leq t}$ denotes the sequence of observations up to time t in demonstration n (i.e., $o_{\leq t} = (o_0, o_1, \dots, o_t)$), and a_t is the expert action at time t . The set G_k comprises paraphrased goal descriptions for task \mathcal{T}_k , with g being a sampled goal description from G_k . The policy output, $\pi_{\theta}(o_{\leq t}, g)$, is conditioned on both the observation sequence and the goal description.

By optimizing this objective function, the policy effectively continues learning new tasks and skills in its life span, without the need for explicit task identifiers, thereby facilitating robust and adaptable task-unaware continual learning.

Algorithm 1 Retrieval-based Weighted Local Adaptation for Lifelong Robot Learning

Initialization: Initialize the model parameters θ and the episodic memory \mathcal{M} .

Lifelong Learning Stage:

Train the model θ given the task sequence \mathcal{T}_k (robot is unaware of the task IDs) as in Eq.1 with replaying collected experience in \mathcal{M} .

Reviewing Stage:

Before deploying the model on a specific task \mathcal{T}_i ($1 \leq i \leq K$), rollout 10 episodes to test the model’s performance on \mathcal{T}_i ;

Retrieve data from \mathcal{M} based on combined distance measurement \mathcal{D}_R with Eq.2 for \mathcal{T}_i (4.1);

Calculate $w_{t,n}$ based on rollout and retrieved demonstrations with selective weighting (4.2.1);

Locally adapt the model θ using Eq.3 as skill restoration within limited epochs (4.2.2);

Testing Stage:

Lastly, test the model on \mathcal{T}_i after *reviewing* stage.

4 RETRIEVAL-BASED WEIGHTED LOCAL ADAPTATION FOR LIFELONG ROBOT LEARNING

In this section, we outline our proposed method depicted in Figure 1. To effectively interact with complex physical environments, the network integrates multiple input modalities, including visual inputs from workspace and wrist cameras, proprioceptive inputs of joint and gripper states, and paraphrased task descriptions.

Instead of training all modules jointly in an end-to-end manner, we employ pretrained visual and language encoders that leverage prior semantic knowledge. Pretrained encoders enhance performance on downstream manipulation tasks (Liu et al., 2023) and are well-suited to differentiate between various scenarios and tasks without relying on explicit task identifiers or clear task boundaries. Their consistent representations when new tasks continue to come is essential for managing multitask problems and retrieving relevant data to support our proposed local adaptation during test time.

When learning new tasks, the robot preserves previously acquired skills by replaying prior manipulation demonstrations stored in an episodic memory \mathcal{M} , which contains a small subset of previous task demonstrations (Chaudhry et al., 2019). Trained with the combined data from the latest scenarios and episodic memory \mathcal{M} , the model can acquire new skills while mitigating catastrophic forgetting of old tasks, thereby maintaining a balance between stability and plasticity (Wang et al., 2024). Figure 2 illustrates the network architecture, and implementation details are provided in Section A.2.

4.1 DATA RETRIEVAL

During deployment, we first retrieve the most relevant demonstrations from episodic memory \mathcal{M} based on similarity to the current scenario. Due to the blurred task boundaries, some tasks share similar visual observations but differ in their task objectives, while others have similar goals but involve different backgrounds, objects, etc. To account for these variations, we compare both visual inputs from the workspace camera (Du et al., 2023) and task descriptions (de Masson D’Autume et al., 2019) using L_2 distances of their embeddings. The retrieval process follows a simple rule:

$$\mathcal{D}_R = \alpha_v \cdot \mathcal{D}_v + \alpha_l \cdot \mathcal{D}_l, \quad (2)$$

where \mathcal{D}_R is the weighted retrieval distance, \mathcal{D}_v represents the distance between the embeddings of the scene observation from the workspace camera, and \mathcal{D}_l depicts the distance between the task description embeddings. The parameters α_v and α_l control the relative importance of visual and language-based distances.

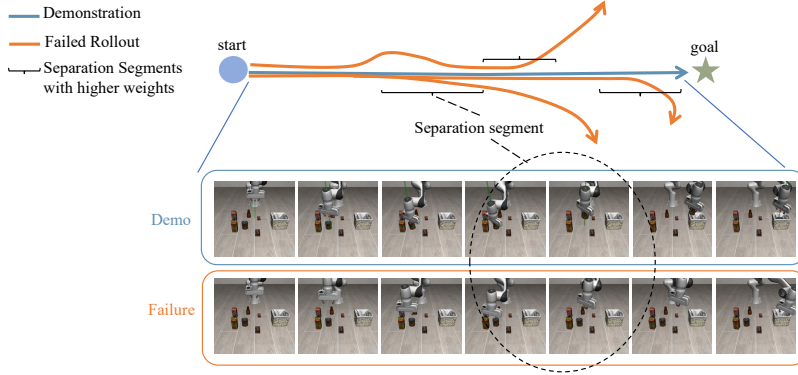


Figure 4: Trajectory and Weighting Visualizations. In the example shown, the rollout’s failure occurs during the bottle-grasping step, where the robot was unable to complete the action. Consequently, frames around the grasping procedure are identified as separation segments and receive increased weights for local adaptation.

Based on the distances \mathcal{D}_R , the most relevant demonstrations can be retrieved from \mathcal{M} . This process is illustrated in Figure 3.

4.2 WEIGHTED LOCAL ADAPTATION

4.2.1 LEARN FROM ERRORS BY SELECTIVE WEIGHTING

To make the best use of the limited data, we enhance their utility by assigning weights to critical or vulnerable segments in each retrieved demonstration. Specifically, before testing, the robot performs several rollouts on the encountered task using the existing model trained during the *lifelong learning* stage. This procedure allows us to evaluate the model’s performance and identify any forgetting effects.

When failed trajectories are identified, we compare each image in the retrieved demonstrations against all images from the failed trajectories using the L_2 distances of their embeddings. This comparison yields a distance vector for each demonstration, where each value represents the minimal distance between a demonstration frame and all images from the failed rollouts. This metric determines whether a particular frame has occurred during the rollout. Through this process, we identify the **Separation Segment** — frames in the demonstrations where the behavior deviates from what was executed during the failed rollouts (see Figure 4). Since these Separation Segments highlight behaviors that should have occurred but did not, we consider them vulnerable segments that contribute to the failure. We assign higher weights to these frames which will scale the losses during local adaptation. Detailed heuristics and implementation specifics are provided in Appendix A.4.

4.2.2 LOCAL ADAPTATION WITH FAST FINETUNING

Finally, we fine-tune the network’s parameters to better adapt to the current task using the retrieved demonstrations, focusing more on the difficult steps identified through selective weighting. Notably, the episodic memory \mathcal{M} contains the same data used during training for experience replay and during deployment for local adaptation. No additional demonstrations are available to the robot at test time. Despite this limited data, our experiments demonstrate that the model can effectively restore learned skills and improve its

performance across various tasks. Overall, the proposed weighted local adaptation is formalized as follows:

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^{\tilde{N}} \sum_{t=1}^{l_n} w_{t,n} \mathcal{L}(\pi_{\theta}(o_{\leq t,n}, g_n), a_{t,n}) \quad (3)$$

where \tilde{N} is the number of retrieved demonstrations, l_n is the length of demonstration n , and $w_{t,n}$ is the weight assigned to sample t in demonstration n . The variables $o_{\leq t,n}$ and $a_{t,n}$ denote the sequence of observations up to time t and the corresponding expert action, respectively, while g_n is the goal description for demonstration n . The parameter θ represents the network’s parameters before local adaptation.

In summary, the process is conceptually illustrated in Figure 1 as the *reviewing* stage, while the details for this proposed algorithm are outlined in Algorithm 1.

5 EXPERIMENTS

We conduct a comprehensive set of experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed retrieval-based weighted local adaptation method for lifelong robot learning. Specifically, our experiments aim to address the following key questions:

1. **Effect of Blurry Task Boundaries:** How do blurry task boundaries influence the model’s performance and data retrieval during testing?
2. **Advantages of Proposed Method:** Does retrieval-based weighted local adaptation enhance the robot’s performance across diverse tasks?
3. **Impact of Selective Weighting:** Is selective weighting based on rollout errors effective in improving task performance?
4. **Generalizability:** Can our method be applied to different memory-based lifelong robot learning approaches, serving as a paradigm that enhances the performance during test time by restoring previous knowledge and skills?
5. **Robustness:** Due to blurry task boundaries and retrieval imprecision, the retrieved demonstrations may not necessarily belong to the same task. How resilient is our method to inaccuracies in memory retrieval?

5.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

5.1.1 BENCHMARKS

We evaluate our proposed methods using LIBERO (Liu et al., 2024): `libero_spatial`, `libero_object`, `libero_goal`, and `libero_different_scenes`. These environments feature a variety of objects and layouts. The first three benchmarks all include 10 distinct tasks, each with up to 50 demonstrations collected in simulation with different initial states of objects and the robot. Specifically, `libero_different_scenes` is created from LIBERO’s provided `LIBERO_90`, which encompasses 20 tasks from distinct scenes.

For each task, we paraphrased the assigned single goal description into diverse descriptions to obscure task boundaries. These enriched descriptions were generated by rephrasing the original task descriptions from the benchmark using a large language model provided by *Phi-3-mini-4k-instruct* Model (mini-4k instruct, 2024), ensuring consistent meanings while varying phraseology and syntax. Please see Section A.3 for more details.

5.1.2 BASELINES

We evaluate our proposed method against the following baseline approaches:

1. **Elastic Weight Consolidation (EWC)** (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017): A regularization-based approach that constrains updates to the network’s parameters to prevent catastrophic forgetting of previously learned tasks.
2. **Experience Replay (ER)** (Chaudhry et al., 2019): A core component of our training setup, ER utilizes stored episodic memory to replay past demonstrations, helping the model maintain previously acquired skills and mitigate forgetting. As a baseline, we evaluate the standalone performance of ER without additional retrieval-based weighted local adaptation techniques.
3. **Average Gradient Episodic Memory (AGEM)** (Hu et al., 2020): Employs a memory buffer to constrain gradients during the training of new tasks, ensuring that updates do not interfere with performance on earlier tasks.
4. **AGEM with Weighted Local Adaptation (AGEM-WLA)**: An extension of AGEM that incorporates weighted local adaptation during the testing phase, enhancing the model’s ability to adapt to specific tasks based on retrieved demonstrations. This allows us to assess the generalizability of our proposed method as a paradigm framework on other memory-based lifelong learning approaches.
5. **PackNet** (Mallya & Lazebnik, 2018): An architecture-based lifelong learning algorithm that iteratively prunes the network after training each task, preserving essential nodes while removing less critical connections to accommodate subsequent tasks. However, its pruning and post-training phases rely heavily on clearly defined task boundaries, making PackNet a reference baseline when task boundaries are well-defined.

5.1.3 METRICS

Our primary focus is on the success rate of task execution, as it is a crucial metric for manipulation tasks in interactive robotics. Consequently, we adopt the **Average Success Rate (ASR)** as our primary evaluation metric to address the challenge of catastrophic forgetting within the lifelong learning framework, evaluating success rates on three random seeds across all diverse tasks within the same benchmark. Additionally, to account for the varying levels of difficulties across tasks within each benchmark, we computed the **Standard Errors (SE)** for our reported statistics over all seeds and tasks in each benchmark:

$$SE = \frac{STD}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{STD}{\sqrt{n_{seeds} \times n_{tasks}}}, \quad (4)$$

5.1.4 MODEL, TRAINING, AND ADAPTATION

As illustrated in Figure. 2, our model utilizes pretrained encoders for visual and language inputs: R3M (Nair et al., 2022) for visual encoding, Sentence Similarity model (SS Model) (SentenceSimilarity, 2024) for language embeddings, and a trainable MLP-based network to encode proprioceptive inputs. Embeddings from ten consecutive time steps are processed through a transformer-based temporal encoder, with the resulting output passed to a GMM-based policy head for action sampling. Specifically, R3M, a ResNet-based model trained on egocentric videos using contrastive learning, captures temporal dynamics and semantic features from scenes, while Sentence Similarity Model captures semantic relationships in task descriptions, enabling the model to differentiate between various natural language instructions.

We trained the model sequentially on multiple tasks, with each task trained for 50 epochs. For later tasks, we used experience replay, storing 8 demonstrations per task from the episodic memory \mathcal{M} . Every 10 epochs, we evaluated the model on the current task over 20 episodes, and the model with the highest ASR would be saved.

Table 1: Comparison with Baselines. The Average Success Rates (ASR) and their Standard Errors (both reported as percentages %) across various baselines are shown below. We provide PackNet’s performance on the right as a reference point for cases where task identifiers are accessible. Both EWC and vanilla AGEM demonstrate weak performance across all benchmarks, while ER performs better due to memory replay. Under our weighted local adaptation (WLA) paradigm, the WLA-enhanced versions of ER and AGEM show significant improvements over their vanilla counterparts, highlighting the effectiveness of WLA.

Benchmark\Method	Blurry Task Boundary					Explicit Task IDs
	EWC	AGEM	AGEM-WLA	ER	ER-WLA	PackNet
<i>libero_spatial</i>	0.0 \pm 0.0	7.33 \pm 2.60	35.83 \pm 2.87	15.67 \pm 2.47	39.83 \pm 3.62	53.17 \pm 4.51
<i>libero_object</i>	1.50 \pm 0.59	27.17 \pm 4.16	51.17 \pm 4.41	56.50 \pm 3.63	62.33 \pm 3.41	73.77 \pm 3.10
<i>libero_goal</i>	0.33 \pm 0.33	10.83 \pm 2.93	58.67 \pm 4.73	52.33 \pm 4.05	62.33 \pm 5.26	66.33 \pm 4.54
<i>libero_different_scenes</i>	2.58 \pm 1.16	20.43 \pm 4.04	41.75 \pm 5.30	34.08 \pm 3.69	45.17 \pm 4.11	32.92 \pm 5.68

During *reviewing* stage, the agent performs 10 rollout episodes before local adaptation, to assess initial performance and potential forgetting. We then retrieve the top 10% most similar demonstrations from \mathcal{M} using visual and language embeddings. Then, the model is fine-tuned for 20 epochs with those weighted retrieved demonstrations. Finally, the adapted model is evaluated over 20 episodes again (the *final testing* stage) to assess performance improvements. For experiments on all benchmarks, we train and test the models with three random seeds (1, 21, and 42) to reduce the impact of randomness.

5.2 RESULTS

5.2.1 COMPARISON WITH BASELINES

To address Question 2, we compared our proposed method, Retrieval-based Weighted Local Adaptation (ER-WLA), with all baseline approaches. As shown in Table 1, ER-WLA consistently outperforms baselines of EWC, AGEM, ER, and AGEM-WLA, which do not rely on clear task boundaries. By incorporating local adaptation during test time — our method mirrors how humans review and reinforce knowledge when it is partially forgotten — the continually learning robot could also regain its proficiency on previous tasks.

In contrast, PackNet serves as a reference method, as it requires well-defined task boundaries. However, as the number of tasks increases, the network’s trainable capacity under PackNet diminishes, leaving less flexibility for future tasks. This limitation becomes evident in the *libero_different_scenes* benchmark, which includes 20 tasks. PackNet’s success rate drops significantly for later tasks, resulting in poor overall performance and highlighting its constraints on plasticity compared with our proposed ER-WLA approach.

Additionally, when we applied WLA to the AGEM baseline (resulting in AGEM-WLA), it also improved its performance, demonstrating the effectiveness of our method as a paradigm for memory-based lifelong robot learning methods. These findings also support our conclusions regarding Question 4.

5.2.2 ABLATION STUDIES

We performed two ablation studies to validate the effectiveness of our implementation choices and address Questions 1, 3, and 5.

Selective Weighting. In the first ablation, we evaluated the impact of selective weighting on *libero_spatial*, *libero_object*, and *libero_goal* benchmarks to demonstrate its importance for effective local adaptation. We compared two variants of our method: 1) **ER-ULA**, which applies uniform local adaptation without selective weighting, adapting retrieved demonstrations uniformly; 2) **ER-WLA**,

Table 2: Ablation Study on Selective Weighting. This table presents the performance (Average Success Rates and their Standard Errors, both reported in percentage %) of uniform (ER-ULA) and weighted (ER-WLA) local adaptation across 15, 20, and 25 epochs of adaptation under three random seeds, with evaluations conducted on all 10 tasks within the benchmarks: `libero_spatial`, `libero_object`, and `libero_goal`. Compared to ULA, the weighting scheme improves the method’s performance on most benchmarks with different adaptation epochs.

Benchmark	Method	15 Epochs	20 Epochs	25 Epochs	Overall ASR (%)
		ASR (%)	ASR (%)	ASR (%)	
<i>libero_spatial</i>	ER-ULA	35.33 \pm 3.87	38.17 \pm 2.70	38.16 \pm 3.14	37.22 \pm 1.32
	ER-WLA	36.16 \pm 3.39	39.83 \pm 3.62	37.83 \pm 3.23	37.94 \pm 1.38
<i>libero_object</i>	ER-ULA	57.83 \pm 4.59	60.67 \pm 4.19	58.00 \pm 3.99	58.83 \pm 1.72
	ER-WLA	58.00 \pm 4.08	62.33 \pm 3.41	61.50 \pm 4.45	60.61 \pm 1.62
<i>libero_goal</i>	ER-ULA	61.33 \pm 5.19	62.00 \pm 5.41	66.17 \pm 4.97	63.17 \pm 2.10
	ER-WLA	62.83 \pm 5.14	62.33 \pm 5.25	67.50 \pm 5.26	64.22 \pm 2.11

which incorporates selective weighting during local adaptation. Both methods are trained with experience replay.

Since early stopping during local adaptation at test time is infeasible, and training can be unstable, particularly regarding manipulation success rates, we conducted local adaptation using three different numbers of epochs — 15, 20, and 25 — followed by final testing. The results, presented in Table 2, indicate that selective weighting enhances performance across different adaptation durations and various benchmarks, confirming our hypothesis in Question 3.

Language Encoding Model. To investigate the impact of language encoders under blurred task boundaries with paraphrased descriptions, we ablated the choice of language encoding model. Specifically, we compared our chosen Sentence Similarity (SS) Model, which excels at clustering semantically similar language descriptions, with BERT, the default language encoder from LIBERO. We selected the `libero_goal` benchmark for this study because its tasks are visually similar, making effective language embedding crucial for distinguishing tasks and aiding data retrieval for local adaptation.

Our experimental results yield the following observations:

- (1) As illustrated in Figure 5 (a) and (b), the PCA results show that the SS Model effectively differentiates tasks, whereas BERT struggles, leading to inadequate task distinction. Consequently, as shown in Figure 5 (c), the model trained with BERT embeddings on `libero_goal` performs worse than the one trained with SS Model embeddings.
- (2) Due to this limitation, BERT is unable to retrieve the most relevant demonstrations (those most similar to the current task from the episodic memory \mathcal{M}). As a result, Retrieval-based WLA with BERT does not achieve optimal performance. These two findings address Question 1.
- (3) Interestingly, from Figure 5 (c), despite BERT’s low Retrieval Accuracy (RA), if it attains a moderately acceptable rate (e.g., 0.375), the local adaptation using data retrieved based on BERT embeddings can still enhance model performance during test time. This demonstrates the robustness and fault tolerance of our proposed approach, further addressing Question 4 and 5.

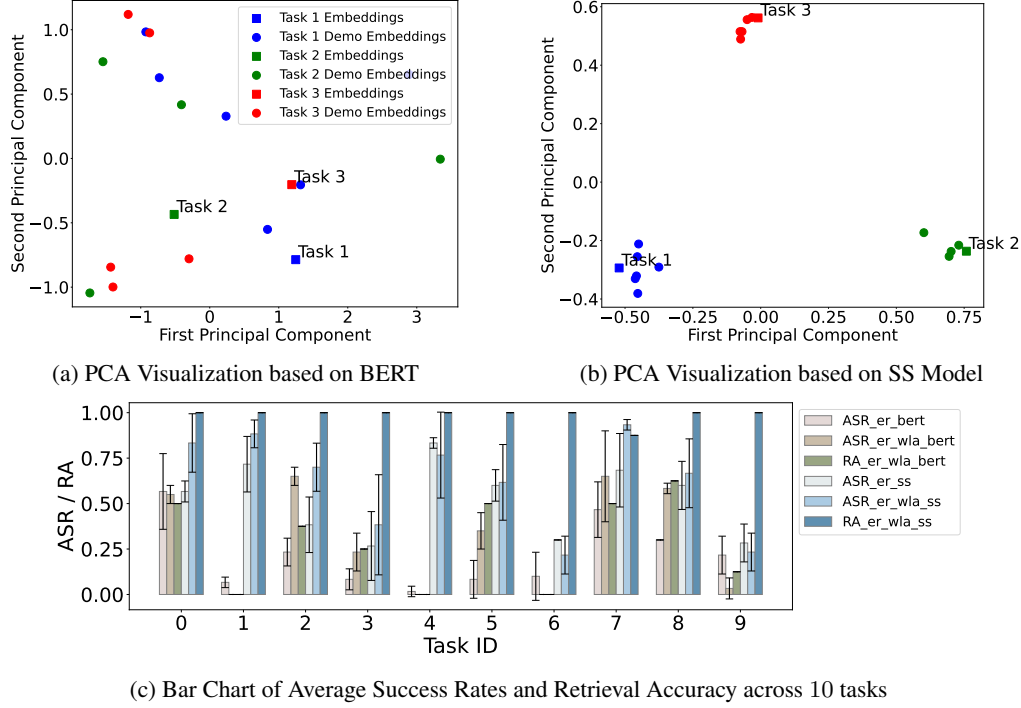


Figure 5: In Figure 5a and Figure 5b, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is used to visualize the distribution of language embeddings of 3 tasks from BERT and Sentence Similarity (SS), respectively. In Figure 5c, SS model, which distinguishes task descriptions, has higher success rate and retrieval accuracy than BERT.

6 CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this paper, we introduced a novel task-unaware lifelong robot learning framework that combines retrieval-based local adaptation with selective weighting during test time. Our approach enables robots to continuously learn and adapt in dynamic environments without explicit task identifiers or predefined boundaries. Leveraging an episodic memory \mathcal{M} , our method retrieves relevant past demonstrations based on visual and language similarities, allowing the robot to fine-tune its policy locally. The selective weighting mechanism enhances local adaptation by prioritizing the most challenging segments of the retrieved demonstrations. Notably, our framework is not only robust, but is compatible with various memory-based lifelong learning methods, enhancing a robot’s ability to perform previously learned tasks as a paradigm.

Limitations: Our proposed method requires a brief period of training during test time with limited data, which adds a computational burden to the system. While the data retrieval process for images is to some extent sensitive to the visual properties.

Another key challenge is the selective weighting process, specifically in accurately identifying the Separation Segment. Real-world noise, the multimodal nature of manipulation actions, and varying semantic content can make this identification challenging, potentially diminishing the effectiveness of selective weighting during local adaptation. Thus, the method is not well-suited for long-term tasks.

Addressing these limitations will be a primary focus of future work to enhance our approach.

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A APPENDIX

A.1 NOTATIONS

Table 3: Mathematical Notations

Symbol	Description
k	Index of tasks, $k = 1, \dots, K$
K	Total number of tasks
n	Index of retrieved demonstrations
\tilde{N}	Number of retrieved demonstrations
i	Index of samples within a demonstration
t	Time step
l_k	Number of samples for task k
l_n	Length of retrieved demonstration n
\mathcal{T}_k	Task k (represented by multiple goal descriptions)
\mathcal{D}_k	Set of demonstrations for task k
τ_i^k	Demonstration (trajectory) i for task k
\mathcal{M}	Episodic memory buffer
\mathbf{o}_t	Observation vector at time t
$\mathbf{o}_{\leq t}$	Sequence of observation vectors up to time t to deal with partial observability
\mathbf{a}_t	Action vector at time t
\mathbf{a}_t^k	Action vector at time t for task k
$x_{i,n}$	Input of sample i in retrieved demonstration n
$y_{i,n}$	Label (action) of sample i in retrieved demonstration n
θ	Model parameters
θ^*	Optimal model parameters
θ_k	Model parameters after local adaptation on task k
π_θ	Policy parameterized by θ
$\pi_\theta(\mathbf{s}_{\leq t}, \mathcal{T}_k)$	Policy output given states up to time t and task \mathcal{T}_k
\mathcal{L}	Loss function
$p(y x; \theta)$	Probability of label y given input x and parameters θ
$w_{i,n}$	Weight assigned to sample i in retrieved demonstration n during local adaptation
\mathbb{E}	Expectation operator
g_i	Goal descriptions in task \mathcal{T}_k

A.2 IMPLEMENTATION AND TRAINING DETAILS

A.2.1 NETWORK ARCHITECTURE AND MODULARITIES

Table 4 summarizes the core components of our network architecture, while Table 5 details the input and output dimensions.

A.2.2 TRAINING HYPERPARAMETERS

Table 6 provides a summary of the essential hyperparameters used during training and local adaptation. The model was trained on a combination of **A40** (Delft AI Cluster (DAIC), 2024), **A100** (Delft High Performance Computing Centre, DHPC), and **L40S** GPUs, while we also leveraged multi-GPU configurations

Table 4: Network architecture of the proposed Model.

Module	Configuration
Pretrained Image Encoder	ResNet-based R3M (Nair et al., 2022), output size: 512
Image Embedding Layer	MLP, input size: 512, output size: 64
Pretrained Language Encoder	Sentence Similarity (SS) Model (SentenceSimilarity, 2024), output size: 384
Language Embedding Layer	MLP, input size: 384, output size: 64
Extra Modality Encoder (Proprio)	MLP, input size: 9, output size: 64
Temporal Position Encoding	sinusoidal positional encoding, input size: 64
Temporal Transformer	heads: 6, sequence length: 10, dropout: 0.1, head output size: 64
Policy Head (GMM)	modes: 5, input size: 64, output size: 7

Table 5: Inputs and Output Shape.

Modularities	Shape
Image from Workspace Camera	$128 \times 128 \times 3$
Image from Wrist Camera	$128 \times 128 \times 3$
Max Word Length	75
Joint States	7
Gripper States	2
Action	7

to accelerate the training process. For each task, demonstration data was initially collected and provided by LIBERO benchmark. However, due to version discrepancies that introduced visual and physical variations in the simulation, we reran the demonstrations with the latest version to obtain updated observations. It is important to note that occasional rollout failures occurred because different versions of RoboMimic Simulation (Mandlekar et al., 2021) utilize varying versions of the MuJoCo Engine (Todorov et al., 2012).

Task performance was evaluated every 10 epochs using 20 parallel processes to maximize efficiency. The best-performing model from these evaluations was retained for subsequent tasks. After training on each task, we reassessed the model’s performance across all previously encountered tasks.

A.2.3 BASELINE DETAILS

We follow the implementation of all baselines and hyperparameters for individual algorithms from (Liu et al., 2024), maintaining the same backbone model and episodic memory structure as in our approach. During the training phase, we also apply the same learning hyperparameters outlined in Table 6.

A.3 DETAILS ABOUT TASK-UNAWARE SETTING

In this paper, we blur task boundaries by using multiple paraphrased descriptions that define the task goals. The following section elaborate more details about our dataset and process of task description paraphrase.

¹For each task, demonstration data was collected from LIBERO, but due to differences in simulation versions, the demonstrations were rerun in the current simulation to collect new observations, with the possibility of occasional failures during rollout (see Subsection A.2.2 for details).

Table 6: Hyperparameter for Training and Local Adaptation.

Hyperparameter	Value
Batch Size	32
Learning Rate	0.0001
Optimizer	AdamW
Betas	[0.9, 0.999]
Weight Decay	0.0001
Gradient Clipping	100
Loss Scaling	1.0
Training Epochs	50
Image Augmentation	Translation, Color Jitter
Evaluation Frequency	Every 10 epochs
Number of Demos per Task	Up to 50 ¹
Number of Demos per Task in EM	8
Rollout Episodes before Local Adaptation	10
Distance weights $[\alpha_v, \alpha_l]$ for <code>libero_spatial</code> and <code>libero_object</code>	[1.0, 0.5]
Distance weights $[\alpha_v, \alpha_l]$ for <code>libero_goal</code>	[0.5, 1.0]
Distance weights $[\alpha_v, \alpha_l]$ for <code>libero_different_scenes</code>	[1.0, 0.1]
Weights Added for Separation Segments	0.3
Clipping Range for Selective Weighting	2
Default Local Adaptation Epochs	20

A.3.1 DATASETS STRUCTURE

Our dataset inherits the dataset from LIBERO (Liu et al., 2024), maintaining all the attributes and data. Additionally, we add *demo description* to each demonstration to achieve task unawareness and *augmented description* to augment language description during training (See Figure 6). Unlike the dataset from LIBERO, which groups demonstrations together under one specific task, our dataset wraps all demonstrations with random order to eliminate the task boundary.

A.3.2 DESCRIPTION PARAPHRASE

We leverage the Phi-3-mini-4k-instruct model (mini-4k-instruct, 2024) to paraphrase the task description. The process and prompts that we use are illustrated in Figure 8.

A.4 DETAILS ABOUT SELECTIVE WEIGHTING

In this section, we introduce our Selective Weighting mechanism in detail.

A.4.1 DETAILED HEURISTICS AND IMPLEMENTATIONS

To assign weights to retrieved demonstrations, we analyze the distance between demonstration and failed rollout trajectories with a **Embedding Distance Matrix (EDM)**. Typically, the minimum comparison distance increases as the failed rollout diverges from the demonstration.

Due to the multi-modal nature of robotic actions and visual observation noise, raw distance comparisons can be erratic. To address this, we smooth the distance curves using a moving window. Despite smoothing, the trend may remain jittery, making it challenging to pinpoint a single separation point where performance

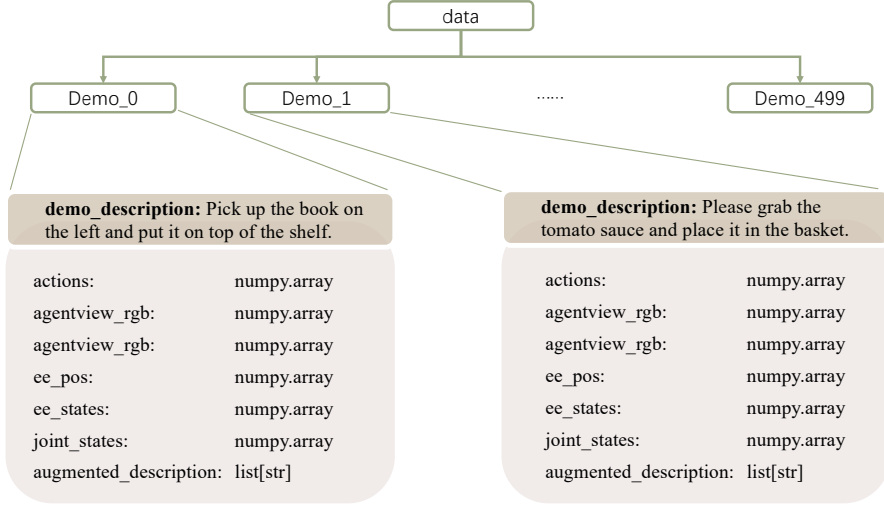


Figure 6: Data Structure

deviates. Instead, we identify a range of frames representing the **Separation Segment** where the distances worsen, indicating vulnerable steps in a manipulation task.

We apply two thresholds to detect the segment. Specifically, we locate frames where the distance falls between $\frac{1}{8}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the maximum observed distance. We focus on the last occurrence within this range to account for possible initial divergent paths that later converge. Once identified, we extend the separation segment by 15 frames before and after to mitigate noise effects.

For each frame within the separation segment, we add a weight of 0.3 to the initially uniform weight vector. This process is repeated for up to five failed rollouts per retrieved demonstration. After processing all demonstrations, we clip the weights to a maximum of 2 and normalize the weight vector to maintain a consistent loss function scale, ensuring stable gradient updates.

During local adaptation, the resulting weights ($w_{t,n}$) are integrated into the loss function as described in equation 3. This approach enhances the influence of critical samples while reducing the impact of less relevant ones, thereby improving the model’s learning efficiency. An illustration of the detailed heuristic and procedure can be referred in Figure 7.

A.4.2 DETAILED ABLATION STUDIES ON SELECTIVE WEIGHTING.

The average success rate per benchmark is illustrated in Table 2. The detailed results on each task are shown in Table 7, 8, and 9.

A.5 DETAILED TESTING RESULTS

A.5.1 QUANTITATIVE COMPARISONS

We selected 20 typical scenarios among `libero_90` to create benchmark `libero_different_scenes`. The list of those scenarios can be found in Table 10. Additionally, the testing results of our method and baselines including **ER-WLA**, **ER**, **Packnet**, are listed in Table 11.

Table 7: Ablation Study Results on `libero_object`: Average Success Rates and Standard Deviations for Each Task Across Epochs.

Method Task Epoch	ULA			WLA		
	Epoch 15	Epoch 20	Epoch 25	Epoch 15	Epoch 20	Epoch 25
0	0.68 ± 0.04	0.37 ± 0.12	0.62 ± 0.04	0.57 ± 0.14	0.67 ± 0.15	0.57 ± 0.04
1	0.20 ± 0.08	0.40 ± 0.13	0.35 ± 0.22	0.35 ± 0.15	0.45 ± 0.06	0.13 ± 0.06
2	0.77 ± 0.14	0.85 ± 0.06	0.78 ± 0.15	0.90 ± 0.08	0.78 ± 0.14	0.82 ± 0.11
3	0.68 ± 0.15	0.78 ± 0.06	0.70 ± 0.03	0.70 ± 0.09	0.60 ± 0.10	0.75 ± 0.08
4	0.75 ± 0.08	0.87 ± 0.02	0.78 ± 0.07	0.70 ± 0.06	0.78 ± 0.07	0.88 ± 0.03
5	0.47 ± 0.19	0.65 ± 0.05	0.53 ± 0.04	0.37 ± 0.09	0.42 ± 0.07	0.60 ± 0.13
6	0.52 ± 0.06	0.53 ± 0.09	0.38 ± 0.16	0.65 ± 0.12	0.52 ± 0.12	0.55 ± 0.08
7	0.47 ± 0.19	0.58 ± 0.14	0.57 ± 0.09	0.58 ± 0.04	0.73 ± 0.04	0.60 ± 0.18
8	0.55 ± 0.10	0.58 ± 0.17	0.50 ± 0.13	0.58 ± 0.06	0.70 ± 0.09	0.72 ± 0.09
9	0.70 ± 0.18	0.45 ± 0.10	0.58 ± 0.03	0.40 ± 0.15	0.58 ± 0.02	0.53 ± 0.09

Table 8: Ablation Study Results on `libero_goal`: Average Success Rates and Standard Deviations for Each Task Across Epochs.

Method Task Epoch	ULA			WLA		
	Epoch 15	Epoch 20	Epoch 25	Epoch 15	Epoch 20	Epoch 25
0	0.62 ± 0.09	0.75 ± 0.05	0.68 ± 0.10	0.72 ± 0.04	0.83 ± 0.09	0.65 ± 0.03
1	0.88 ± 0.03	0.92 ± 0.03	0.88 ± 0.02	0.87 ± 0.06	0.88 ± 0.04	0.92 ± 0.04
2	0.65 ± 0.13	0.72 ± 0.12	0.80 ± 0.03	0.68 ± 0.08	0.70 ± 0.08	0.83 ± 0.06
3	0.38 ± 0.07	0.25 ± 0.03	0.32 ± 0.09	0.32 ± 0.12	0.38 ± 0.16	0.32 ± 0.06
4	0.88 ± 0.04	0.80 ± 0.05	0.82 ± 0.03	0.87 ± 0.04	0.77 ± 0.14	0.92 ± 0.04
5	0.60 ± 0.10	0.53 ± 0.13	0.63 ± 0.20	0.58 ± 0.07	0.62 ± 0.12	0.77 ± 0.03
6	0.15 ± 0.03	0.15 ± 0.09	0.22 ± 0.07	0.13 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.06	0.20 ± 0.03
7	0.93 ± 0.04	0.95 ± 0.05	1.00 ± 0.00	0.97 ± 0.02	0.93 ± 0.02	0.93 ± 0.04
8	0.78 ± 0.07	0.80 ± 0.03	0.77 ± 0.04	0.72 ± 0.06	0.67 ± 0.11	0.90 ± 0.05
9	0.25 ± 0.03	0.33 ± 0.08	0.50 ± 0.10	0.43 ± 0.17	0.23 ± 0.06	0.32 ± 0.09

B CONTRIBUTIONS

Pengzhi Yang Proposed the initial idea and refined it iteratively throughout the implementation and experimentation phases, in discussion with Xinyu, Ruipeng, and thesis supervisors Dr. Cong Wang, Prof. Jens Kober, and Prof. Frans Oliehoek. Responsible for the entire project, including literature review, method development, implementation, benchmark selection, experimentation, paper writing, and etc.

Xinyu Wang Contributed to:

- 1) Multi-GPU training using DelftBlue and Daic Services to accelerate lifelong learning;
- 2) Implementing `MySequenceDataset` based on the Libero Benchmark and to blur task boundaries by paraphrasing task descriptions with an LLM and adding description augmentation during training.

Table 9: Ablation Study Results on `libero_spatial`: Average Success Rates and Standard Deviations for Each Task Across Epochs.

Method Task Epoch	ULA			WLA		
	Epoch 15	Epoch 20	Epoch 25	Epoch 15	Epoch 20	Epoch 25
0	0.35 \pm 0.18	0.33 \pm 0.07	0.47 \pm 0.07	0.45 \pm 0.10	0.45 \pm 0.10	0.42 \pm 0.13
1	0.48 \pm 0.09	0.43 \pm 0.04	0.48 \pm 0.10	0.30 \pm 0.05	0.58 \pm 0.19	0.40 \pm 0.13
2	0.32 \pm 0.11	0.35 \pm 0.13	0.28 \pm 0.12	0.40 \pm 0.19	0.50 \pm 0.13	0.45 \pm 0.13
3	0.48 \pm 0.03	0.47 \pm 0.09	0.60 \pm 0.05	0.48 \pm 0.07	0.47 \pm 0.11	0.50 \pm 0.00
4	0.17 \pm 0.04	0.30 \pm 0.03	0.13 \pm 0.07	0.22 \pm 0.07	0.18 \pm 0.07	0.23 \pm 0.02
5	0.12 \pm 0.09	0.20 \pm 0.08	0.28 \pm 0.09	0.25 \pm 0.10	0.22 \pm 0.09	0.27 \pm 0.02
6	0.60 \pm 0.13	0.58 \pm 0.02	0.47 \pm 0.10	0.57 \pm 0.07	0.58 \pm 0.07	0.67 \pm 0.03
7	0.52 \pm 0.06	0.42 \pm 0.02	0.38 \pm 0.07	0.38 \pm 0.06	0.38 \pm 0.04	0.38 \pm 0.06
8	0.30 \pm 0.05	0.42 \pm 0.08	0.30 \pm 0.00	0.40 \pm 0.10	0.28 \pm 0.03	0.30 \pm 0.03
9	0.20 \pm 0.10	0.32 \pm 0.09	0.42 \pm 0.03	0.17 \pm 0.07	0.33 \pm 0.06	0.17 \pm 0.04

Table 10: Selected Tasks for `libero_different_scenes` benchmark from `libero_90`

Task ID	Initial Descriptions	Scenes
1	Close the top drawer of the cabinet	Kitchen scene10
2	Open the bottom drawer of the cabinet	Kitchen scene1
3	Open the top drawer of the cabinet	Kitchen scene2
4	Put the frying pan on the stove	Kitchen scene3
5	Close the bottom drawer of the cabinet	Kitchen scene4
6	Close the top drawer of the cabinet	Kitchen scene5
7	Close the microwave	Kitchen scene6
8	Open the microwave	Kitchen scene7
9	Put the right moka pot on the stove	Kitchen scene8
10	Put the frying pan on the cabinet shelf	Kitchen scene9
11	Pick up the alphabet soup and put it in the basket	Living Room scene1
12	Pick up the alphabet soup and put it in the basket	Living Room scene2
13	Pick up the alphabet soup and put it in the tray	Living Room scene3
14	Pick up the black bowl on the left and put it in the tray	Living Room scene4
15	Put the red mug on the left plate	Living Room scene5
16	Put the chocolate pudding to the left of the plate	Living Room scene6
17	Pick up the book and place it in the front compartment of the caddy	Study scene1
18	Pick up the book and place it in the back compartment of the caddy	Study scene2
19	Pick up the book and place it in the front compartment of the caddy	Study scene3
20	Pick up the book in the middle and place it on the cabinet shelf	Study scene4

Very frequently discussed methodological and experimental details with Pengzhi throughout the summer and pre-submission. Also created/updated Figures 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8.

Ruipeng Zhang Provided insights on lifelong learning through discussions with Pengzhi every 2-3 weeks and more intensively before submission. Assisted with choosing baselines, structuring the paper, drafting Sections 2.2, 3, and the pseudocode, and helped proofread the paper.

Table 11: Detailed Comparisons on `libero_different_scenes` Benchmark. It illustrates that after reaching the capacity of PackNet, it could no longer deal with new tasks anymore.

Task	ER-WLA	ER	Packnet
0	0.85 ± 0.08	0.50 ± 0.03	1.00 ± 0.00
1	0.13 ± 0.08	0.27 ± 0.06	0.83 ± 0.09
2	0.73 ± 0.09	0.72 ± 0.10	0.92 ± 0.02
3	0.40 ± 0.03	0.13 ± 0.02	0.17 ± 0.03
4	0.93 ± 0.04	0.72 ± 0.10	1.00 ± 0.00
5	1.00 ± 0.00	0.57 ± 0.16	1.00 ± 0.00
6	0.52 ± 0.04	0.52 ± 0.03	0.78 ± 0.04
7	0.82 ± 0.07	0.63 ± 0.09	0.88 ± 0.02
8	0.32 ± 0.07	0.23 ± 0.06	0.00 ± 0.00
9	0.48 ± 0.15	0.38 ± 0.12	0.00 ± 0.00
10	0.23 ± 0.06	0.03 ± 0.02	0.00 ± 0.00
11	0.20 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.06	0.00 ± 0.00
12	0.23 ± 0.09	0.13 ± 0.02	0.00 ± 0.00
13	0.67 ± 0.09	0.83 ± 0.04	0.00 ± 0.00
14	0.15 ± 0.03	0.13 ± 0.04	0.00 ± 0.00
15	0.68 ± 0.09	0.30 ± 0.08	0.00 ± 0.00
16	0.03 ± 0.03	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00
17	0.28 ± 0.08	0.02 ± 0.02	0.00 ± 0.00
18	0.10 ± 0.08	0.02 ± 0.02	0.00 ± 0.00
19	0.27 ± 0.16	0.58 ± 0.07	0.00 ± 0.00

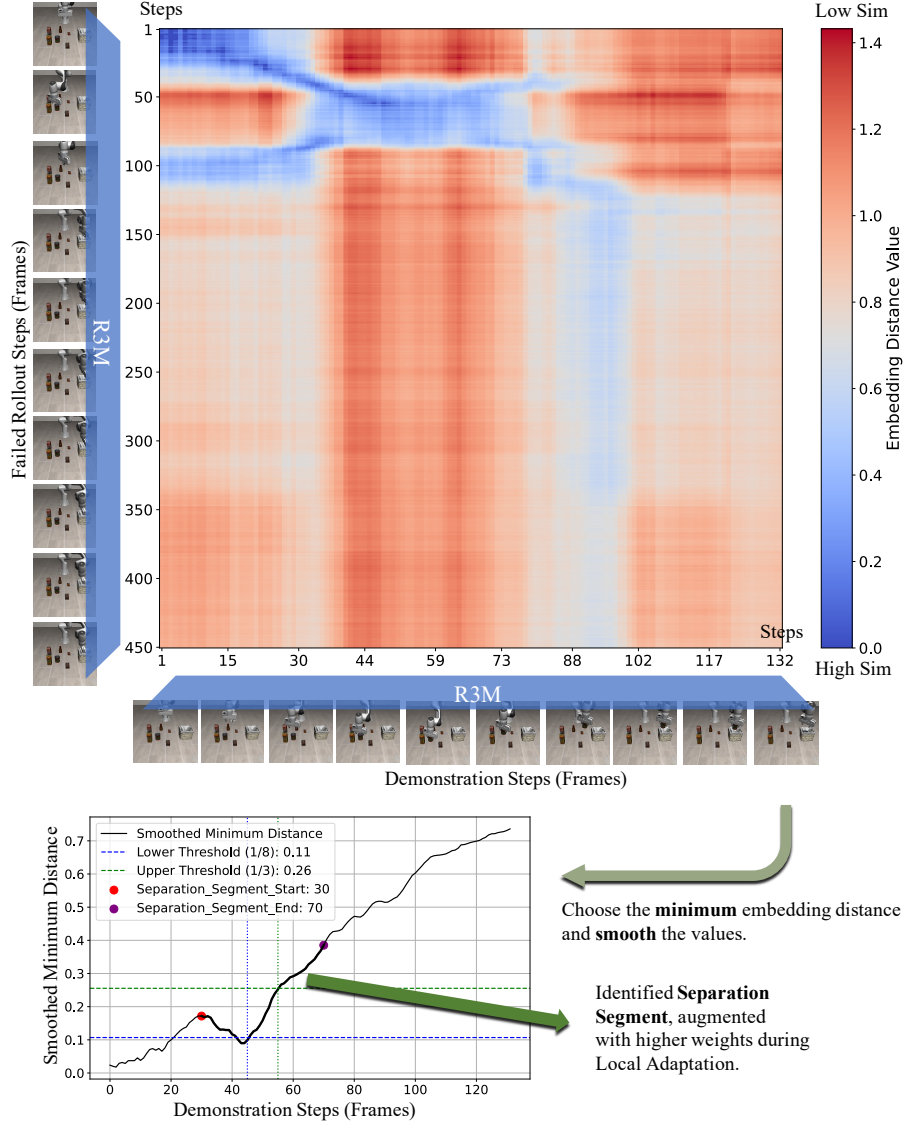


Figure 7: Illustration of the selective weighting heuristic with **Embedding Distance Matrix (EDM)** and **Similarity Curve**. In the demonstration, the robot successfully picks up a jar and places it into a basket. However, during the rollout, it fails comparatively, revealing a weakness in the picking stage. Consequently, the subsequent demonstration steps are absent in the rollout, and the steps surrounding the picking procedure are identified as **separation segments**. These segments are assigned higher weights during local adaptation to address the model’s shortcomings. Specifically, **separation segments** are determined using smoothed minimum embeddings’ L_2 distances computed from the **EDM** between demonstration and failed rollout frames, as depicted in the figure.

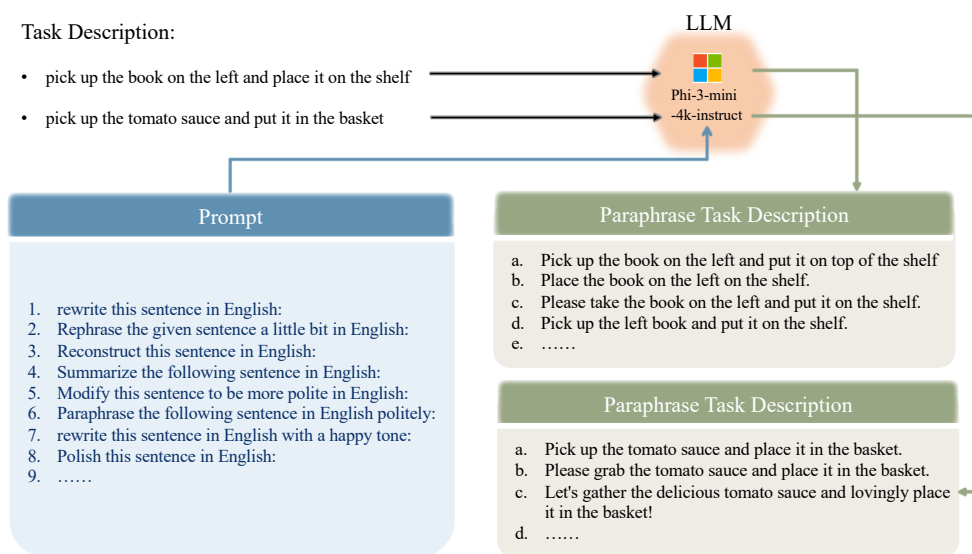


Figure 8: Paraphrase Description