

Failure-Aware RL: Reliable Offline-to-Online Reinforcement Learning with Self-Recovery for Real-World Manipulation

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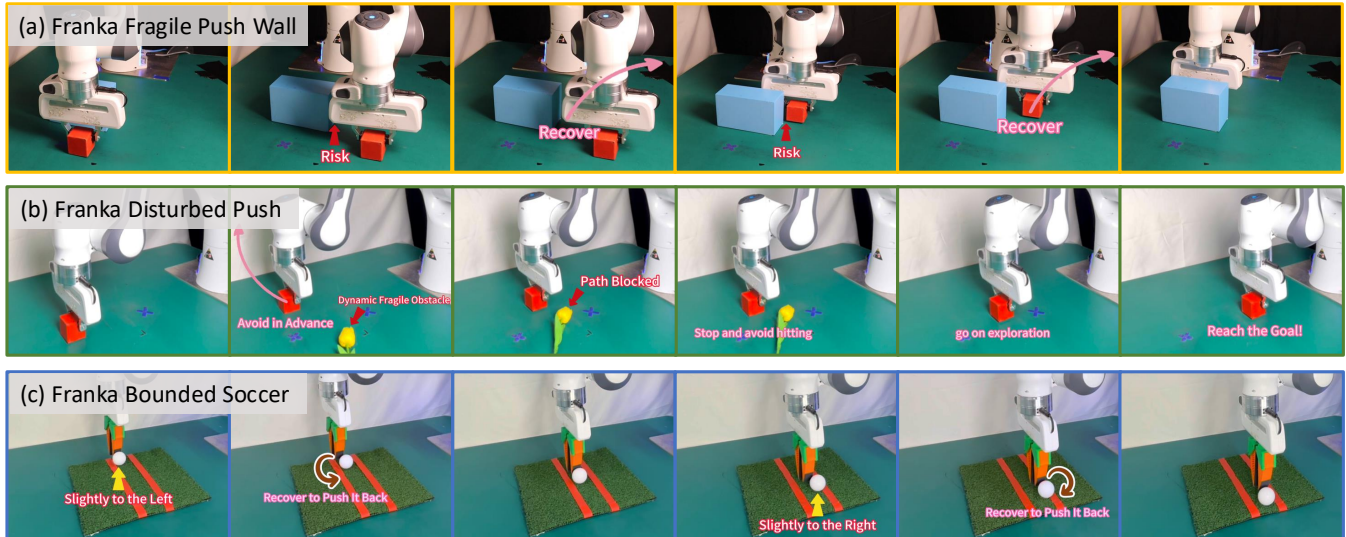


Fig. 1: FARM demonstrated on a Franka Emika Panda robot across three manipulation tasks: (a) pushing fragile objects while avoiding wall collisions, (b) pushing with dynamic obstacle avoidance, (c) soccer with boundary constraints (detailed in Section VI.C.1). FARM predicts potential failures and executes recovery actions, significantly reducing Intervention-requiring Failures during real-world RL while improving task performance.

Abstract—Post-training algorithms based on deep reinforcement learning can push the limits of robotic models for specific objectives, such as generalizability, accuracy, and robustness. However, Intervention-requiring Failures (IR Failures) (e.g., a robot spilling water or breaking fragile glass) during real-world exploration happen inevitably, hindering the practical deployment of such a paradigm. To tackle this, we introduce Failure-Aware Offline-to-Online Reinforcement Learning (FARM), a framework for minimizing failures during real-world reinforcement learning. We create FailureBench, a benchmark that incorporates common failure scenarios requiring human intervention, and propose an algorithm that integrates a world-model-based safety critic and a recovery policy trained offline to prevent failures during online exploration. Extensive simulation and real-world experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of FARM in significantly reducing IR Failures while improving performance and generalization during online reinforcement learning post-training. FARM reduces IR Failures by 73.1% while elevating performance by 11.3% on average during real-world RL post-training.

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning efficient and accurate policies has been longed for years by roboticists and AI researchers. However, pure imitation learning [1–3] often overfits the training distribution, while reinforcement learning is notoriously data-inefficient. Consequently, reinforcement learning (RL) based

post-training becomes crucial for continuously refining specific objectives and adapting policies to the dynamic conditions of the real world. Specifically, offline-to-online RL [4–6], where the agent is first trained offline on demonstrations and then fine-tuned through online RL, leverages the advantages of both demonstration-based pre-training and RL-based post-training. However, a significant challenge in deploying RL in such settings is the occurrence of Intervention-requiring Failures (IR Failures) during the learning process. These failures stem from the intrinsic necessity for exploration in RL, which introduces randomness into the agent’s actions. While exploration is crucial for learning optimal policies, it can result in actions that lead to irreversible damage or unsafe situations, such as breaking fragile objects, knocking items out of reach, or damaging the robot arm by hitting objects. Thus, IR Failures often necessitate human intervention to resolve, as they cannot be easily addressed through heuristic methods or reset-free RL techniques [7–9].

To this end, we introduce the concept of Failure-Aware Offline-to-Online Reinforcement Learning (FARM), where the agent refines its policy while minimizing IR Failures that would otherwise require human intervention. Our method builds on an offline-to-online RL algorithm [6], which employs a policy gradient objective to unify online and offline RL in an on-policy manner. In this work, we focus on failure-aware post-training within real-world manipulation settings.

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To study various failure scenarios in simulation environments, we introduce a new benchmark, **FailureBench**. **FailureBench** builds upon existing simulation environments [10] by incorporating common IR Failure scenarios that frequently occur in real-world manipulation tasks. We simulate situations where failures necessitate human intervention, such as objects being pushed out of the workspace or the robot entering unsafe states. This benchmark enables us to evaluate how effectively the RL algorithms balance performance improvement and generalization while minimizing IR Failures during exploration.

Our research reveals that existing online and offline-to-online RL algorithms [6, 11, 12] frequently encounter IR Failures in this setting due to the inherent exploration-exploitation trade-off in RL. To mitigate this problem, we introduce a safety critic based on a latent world model for failure prediction, along with a recovery policy designed to prevent failures foreseen by the safety critic. Both components are trained offline using carefully curated demonstrations and later deployed to prevent failures during the online task policy post-training process.

Our framework demonstrates significant reductions in IR Failures across various simulated settings within FailureBench, while simultaneously enhancing task performance and generalizability. We validate the effectiveness of FARL through real-world experiments conducted on a Franka Emika Panda robot, showing that our methods substantially reduce the need for human intervention during training. **Our contributions are summarized as follows:**

- We identify a major barrier to deploying RL in real-world scenarios: IR Failures caused by exploration-induced randomness. To study such potential risks, we introduce **FailureBench**, a benchmark that repurposes existing RL environments to study IR Failure cases requiring human intervention, enabling evaluation of RL algorithms for both performance and failure minimization.
- We propose a failure-aware offline-to-online framework, including a specifically designed world model and recovery policy to minimize IR Failures while facilitating learning and adaptation with RL, theoretically justified by an “advantage correction” analysis to simultaneously enhance learning and safety.
- We conduct extensive experiments in both simulated environments and three challenging real robotic tasks susceptible to IR Failures to validate the effectiveness of our approach.

II. RELATED WORK

Previous research in safe reinforcement learning has extensively examined safety through various approaches, focusing mainly on learning-from-scratch scenarios [13–15]. However, with advances in modern robotic models that learn from demonstrations [1–3, 16–18], there is an increasing recognition of the importance of online post-training strategies. Consequently, this work shifts its focus to a failure-aware offline-to-online reinforcement learning setting.

Safe RL. Constrained Markov Decision Processes (CMDPs) [19–21] have gained significant attention within the RL community, particularly in the context of constrained and safe real-world learning. Safe and recovery RL seeks to address two primary challenges [22]: the development of effective safety constraints [23] and the formulation of safe actions. To tackle these challenges, a substantial body of work utilizes the established online RL workflow to balance task rewards and constraints, their focus lies on optimization techniques, such as Lagrangian relaxation [24–26], Lyapunov functions [27, 28] and robustness guarantees [29–32]. However, a common issue is that these constraints are often enforced prematurely, which limits exploration and can reduce overall performance [33]. The term “recovery” in safe RL can be misleading. True recovery methods like damage adaptation [34] address post-failure adaptation, while many “recovery RL” methods actually prevent failures. Recovery RL [35] and ABS [33] predict constraint violations and employ recovery policies to avoid unsafe states before failures occur. Similarly, recent prevention methods include Control Barrier Functions [36] that ensure forward invariance of safe sets, and predictive safety filters [37] that use MPC to modify unsafe control inputs. SafeDreamer [38] integrates Lagrangian methods into the DreamerV3 planning process for model-based safe RL. While SafeDreamer focuses on traditional safe RL tasks in simulation, our FARL addresses offline-to-online post-training of pre-trained policies in the real world.

Offline-to-online RL. Offline RL aims to address distributional shift issues that arise when a policy encounters out-of-distribution (OOD) state-action pairs. Prior methods mitigate this challenge by incorporating conservatism [4] or constraint-based regularization [5, 39, 40], thereby either discouraging the policy from exploring OOD regions or providing conservative value estimates. Once pre-trained with offline data, policies can be further improved through online fine-tuning. However, directly applying standard online off-policy RL algorithms often leads to severe performance degradation due to distributional shift during online exploration [41]. Uni-O4 [6] directly applies the PPO [42] objective to unify offline and online learning, eliminating the need for extra regularization. RL-100 [43] combines iterative offline RL with online RL to train diffusion-based policies for deployable robot learning. However, deploying such offline-to-online methods in real-world robotic systems remains unsafe and expensive due to the high risk of IR Failures during online exploration. In this work, we build upon Uni-O4 and extend it to address safety concerns in real-world manipulation tasks, enabling safer and more efficient policy refinement in real-world environments.

III. PROBLEM STATEMENT

We consider RL-based post-training under constrained Markov decision processes (CMDPs) [19]. Following Thananjeyan et al. [35], we restrict constraint costs to binary indicator functions that identify constraint-violating state-

where ρ_π is the stationary distribution of states under policy π , $r(\pi) = \frac{\pi(a|s)}{\pi_k(a|s)}$ denotes the importance sampling ratio between the target policy π and behavior policy π_k , $\text{clip}(\cdot)$ is a conservatism operation that constrains the ratio, hyperparameter ϵ is used to adjust the degree of conservatism, and $A(s_t, a_t)$ is the advantage function. Subsequently, we continue fine-tuning within the environment to optimize the objective in Equation 3 using GAE advantage estimation. Next, we train the recovery policy using recovery demonstrations, following the same offline pipeline as the task policy. Specifically, we keep the recovery policy fixed during the online phase due to limited failure data, which we found enhances safe exploration in real-world environments.

We also pre-train a world model using both task and failure demonstrations to predict near-future failures. Following prior work on recovery reinforcement learning [35], the world model focuses on a short prediction horizon rather than modeling the entire episode. Our empirical results suggest that short-horizon planning is sufficient to effectively reduce failures in real-world manipulation. To enable explicit failure prediction, we augment the world model with an additional constraint prediction head. The training objective of the world model is defined as

$$\mathcal{J}(\theta; \Gamma_t) = \sum_{i=t}^{t+H} \lambda^{i-t} \mathcal{L}(\theta; \Gamma_i), \quad (4)$$

where Γ_t denotes a trajectory segment starting at time step t , and the per-step loss is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\theta; \Gamma_i) = & c_1 \underbrace{\text{CE}(R_\theta(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{a}_i), r_i)}_{\text{reward prediction}} \\ & + c_2 \underbrace{\text{CE}(Q_\theta(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{a}_i), r_i + \gamma Q_\theta(\mathbf{z}_{i+1}, \pi_\theta(\mathbf{z}_{i+1})))}_{\text{value prediction}} \\ & + c_3 \underbrace{\|d_\theta(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{a}_i) - h_\theta(s_{i+1})\|_2^2}_{\text{latent dynamics consistency}} \\ & + c_4 \underbrace{\|C_\theta(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{a}_i) - c_i\|_2^2}_{\text{constraint prediction}} \\ & + c_5 \underbrace{\|S_\theta(\mathbf{z}_i) - s_i\|_2^2}_{\text{decoder}}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Here, $\mathbf{z}_i = h_\theta(s_i)$ is the latent representation of observation s_i , $d_\theta(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{a}_i)$ predicts the next latent state, R_θ , Q_θ , and C_θ predict the reward, value, and constraint respectively, S_θ reconstructs the observation from the latent state, and π_θ denotes the policy. We incorporate value and reward signals during training to enrich latent representations while providing gradient-based regularization that prevents overfitting to constraint patterns.

After pre-training, we infer the discounted near-future constraint of π_{task} mentioned in Eq. (1) as:

$$C_H^\pi = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[\sum_{i=t}^{t+H} \gamma_{\text{risk}}^{i-t} [C_\theta(z_i, a_i) | z_i = h_\theta(s_i); \right. \\ \left. a_i = \pi_{task}(S_\theta(z_i)); z_{i+1} = d_\theta(z_i, a_i)] \right] \quad (6)$$

B. Online fine-tuning with recovery

The task policy is fine-tuned by online PPO with the policy and value network initialization from offline pre-training, following Uni-O4. However, we consider the safe exploration setting, in which we require each state-action tuple (s, a) to be safe. Let task policy π_{task} interact with the environments, each state action tuple will be checked by the world model to consider safety in the near-future steps through planning. We define the task transitions as $\mathcal{T}_{task}^\pi = (s_t, a_t^{\pi_{task}}, s_{t+1}, r_t)$, where $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} : C_H^{\pi_{task}} \leq \epsilon_{\text{safe}}$ and the recovery transitions $\mathcal{T}_{rec}^\pi = (s_t, a_t^{\pi_{rec}}, s_{t+1}, r_t)$, where $(s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} : C_H^{\pi_{task}} > \epsilon_{\text{safe}}$. In other words, if the action sampled from the task policy π_{task} under state s does not satisfy $C_H^{\pi_{task}} \leq \epsilon_{\text{safe}}$, we would revise the task transition to the recovery transition via the action a_{rec} sampled from π_{rec} . The workflow is also described in the *safe exploration* area of the online phase in Figure 2. The safe transitions could be defined as:

$$\mathcal{T}_{\text{safe}}^\pi = \begin{cases} \mathcal{T}_{\text{task}}^\pi, & C_H^{\pi_{task}} \leq \epsilon_{\text{safe}} \\ \mathcal{T}_{\text{rec}}^\pi, & C_H^{\pi_{task}} > \epsilon_{\text{safe}} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Based on the safe transitions, we fine-tune the task policy using Objective 3 with GAE advantage estimation.

V. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

We provide theoretical justification for FARL's superior performance through an "action correction" mechanism.

A. Preliminaries

Let $A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)$ denote the GAE-based advantage function under policy π_{task} . We classify actions based on H-step constraint violation:

$$\mathcal{A}_{\text{risk}}(s) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid C_H^{\pi_{task}}(s, a) > \epsilon_{\text{safe}}\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}_{\text{safe}}(s) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid C_H^{\pi_{task}}(s, a) \leq \epsilon_{\text{safe}}\}$$

The risk probability at state s is defined as:

$$p_{\text{risk}}(s) = \mathbb{P}_{a \sim \pi_{task}(\cdot|s)}[a \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{risk}}(s)]$$

B. Assumptions

Assumption 1 (Non-trivial Risk Distribution): There exists a non-negligible fraction of states where the task policy samples risky actions:

$$\mathbb{E}_{s \sim \rho_{\pi_{task}}} [p_{\text{risk}}(s)] > 0$$

where $\rho_{\pi_{task}}$ is the state visitation distribution under policy π_{task} .

Assumption 2 (Probabilistic Safe Recovery): For any state s , the recovery policy provides safe actions with high probability:

$$\mathbb{P}_{a \sim \pi_{rec}(\cdot|s)}[a \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{safe}}(s)] \geq 1 - \epsilon_{\text{rec}}$$

where $\epsilon_{\text{rec}} > 0$ is the recovery failure rate.

We denote the conditional expected advantages as $\bar{A}_{\text{safe}}^{\text{rec}}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi_{rec}(\cdot|s) | a \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{safe}}(s)} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)]$,

$$\bar{A}_{safe}^{task}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi_{task}(\cdot|s) | a \in \mathcal{A}_{safe}(s)} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)], \text{ and}$$

$$\bar{A}_{risk}^{task}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi_{task}(\cdot|s) | a \in \mathcal{A}_{risk}(s)} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)].$$

Assumption 3 (Safe Action Advantage): For states where both safe and risky actions exist, safe actions from the recovery policy provide better expected advantage than risky actions from the task policy:

$$\bar{A}_{safe}^{rec}(s) \geq \bar{A}_{risk}^{task}(s) + \delta$$

where $\delta > 0$ represents the advantage gap.

C. Main Result

Theorem 1 (Action Correction Benefit): Under Assumptions 1-3, the policy improvement from FARL’s corrected transitions satisfies:

$$\Delta J_{FARL} \geq \Delta J_{baseline} + \mathbb{E}_{s \sim \rho_{\pi_{task}}} [p_{risk}(s)] \cdot \delta \cdot (1 - \epsilon_{rec}) - O(\epsilon_{rec}) \quad (8)$$

where $p_{risk}(s) = \mathbb{P}_{a \sim \pi_{task}} [a \in \mathcal{A}_{risk}(s)]$ is the probability of sampling risky actions at state s .

Proof: [Proof Sketch] The baseline improvement is $\Delta J_{baseline} = \mathbb{E}_{s, a \sim \pi_{task}} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)]$.

FARL’s action correction yields expected advantage:

$$\mathbb{E}_{FARL} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)] = (1 - p_{risk}(s)) \bar{A}_{safe}^{task}(s) + p_{risk}(s) \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi_{rec}} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)] \quad (9)$$

The improvement per state is:

$$\mathbb{E}_{FARL} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)] - \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{task}} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)] = p_{risk}(s) (\mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi_{rec}} [A^{\pi_{task}}(s, a)] - \bar{A}_{risk}^{task}(s)) \quad (10)$$

Under Assumptions 2-3, this difference is at least $p_{risk}(s) \cdot \delta \cdot (1 - \epsilon_{rec}) - O(\epsilon_{rec})$. Averaging over states yields the result. ■

D. Discussion

The improvement bound $\mathbb{E}_{s \sim \rho_{\pi_{task}}} [p_{risk}(s)] \cdot \delta \cdot (1 - \epsilon_{rec}) - O(\epsilon_{rec})$ shows FARL gains most when: (1) risky states are frequent ($\mathbb{E}_s [p_{risk}(s)]$ large), (2) safe actions significantly outperform risky ones (δ large), and (3) recovery demonstrations are high-quality (ϵ_{rec} small).

This explains FARL’s dual benefit: improved safety and enhanced performance by selectively replacing risky actions with recovery alternatives when necessary.

VI. EXPERIMENTS

A. FailureBench: Simulation Benchmark for Evaluating Failure-Aware RL

To evaluate failure-aware RL algorithms, we introduce FailureBench, a benchmark suite comprising modified versions of the MetaWorld environment [10]. FailureBench is designed to incorporate realistic failure scenarios that typically require human intervention in real-world settings. We categorize these failure scenarios into four representative tasks:

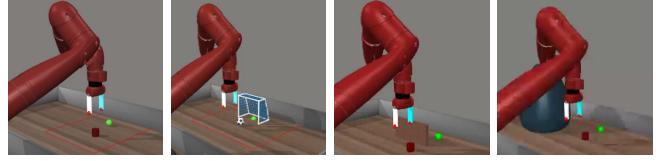


Fig. 3: Illustration of the four tasks in our FailureBench. From left to right: Bounded Push, Bounded Soccer, Fragile Push Wall, and Obstructed Push.

- **Sawyer Bounded Push.** The robot must push a puck to the target while keeping it within a bounded workspace. If it pushes the object beyond the boundary, it is considered an IR Failure, simulating scenarios where objects become unreachable or fall to the ground, necessitating human intervention.
- **Sawyer Bounded Soccer.** The robot must hit a ball into a goal while keeping it within a boundary. The dynamic nature of the rolling ball makes it more prone to IR Failures.
- **Sawyer Fragile Push Wall.** The robot must push a fragile object to a target position behind a wall. If the object collides with the wall, it is considered an IR Failure, simulating real-world scenarios where fragile objects would be damaged upon collision and require replacement.
- **Sawyer Obstructed Push.** The robot must navigate around a fragile vase while pushing the object to its goal location. Any collision with the vase is treated as an IR Failure.

B. Simulation Experiments

We conduct extensive experiments using our proposed FailureBench to evaluate the effectiveness of FARL. We compare FARL against the baseline Uni-O4 algorithm [6], which represents the state-of-the-art offline-to-online RL approach but without explicit failure avoidance mechanisms. Additionally, we compare our method with three state-of-the-art online safe RL algorithms, i.e., PPO-Lagrangian [13], P3O [14], and CPO [15], where each is used to fine-tune the same offline pre-trained policy.

1) *Experimental Setup:* For each environment in FailureBench, we collect three types of demonstration data for offline pre-training:

- **Task demonstrations:** 20 medium expert trajectories for each task collected using BAC [44], representing sub-optimal demonstration for manipulation tasks.
- **Recovery demonstrations:** 120 trajectories demonstrating recovery behaviors from near-failure states collected with script policy.
- **Failure demonstrations:** 20k–200k transition sequences containing failures for world model training. Specifically, we simulate online exploration by adding controlled stochastic noise during the deployment of the offline pre-trained policy. We then collect the failing trajectories, which match the distribution of failures likely to occur during online fine-tuning.

We evaluate performance using two key metrics:

- **Average Return:** The mean episodic reward improvement after 10^6 steps of online finetuning.
- **Failure Episodes:** The number of episodes containing IR Failures during 10^6 steps of online finetuning.

2) *Results and Analysis:* Figure 4 compares failure episodes between our method FARL and the baseline Uni-O4 across all four environments. Our approach consistently encounters significantly fewer failure episodes with an average reduction of **43.6%** across all tasks and up to **65.8%** in the most challenging environments. The larger improvements in highly dynamic environments (Bounded Soccer) and complex constraint scenarios (Obstructed Push) highlight our method’s strength in handling challenging interaction dynamics.

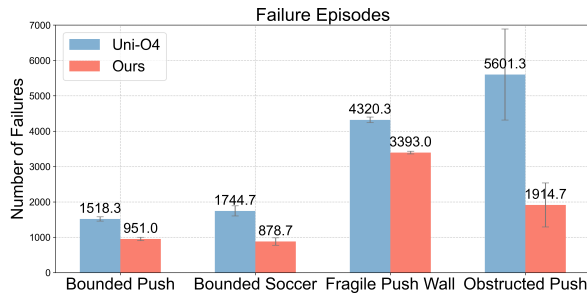


Fig. 4: Comparison of average failure episodes during fine-tuning for Uni-O4 (blue) and our method (red) in FailureBench.

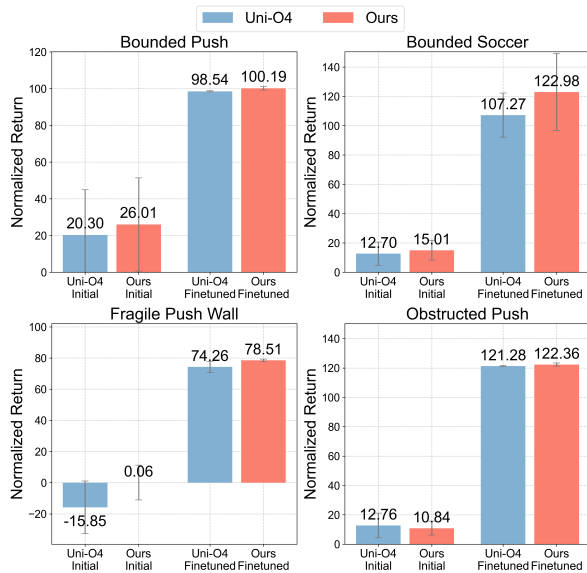


Fig. 5: Performance comparison between Uni-O4 (blue) and our method (red) in FailureBench. The bars show average return before and after fine-tuning. All returns are normalized relative to an expert script policy’s performance (100).

Analysis of average returns (Figure 5) reveals that despite the additional constraints imposed by our failure-avoiding mechanisms, our approach achieves competitive or higher performance in terms of task rewards. This demonstrates that our method successfully balances exploration and safety, achieving effective learning without sacrificing performance.

Traditional safe RL methods significantly underperform when applied to offline-to-online scenarios, despite careful hyperparameter tuning. Table I shows that FARL outperforms these approaches by an average of over 800% across tasks, suggesting a fundamental incompatibility between standard safe RL algorithms and pre-trained policy initialization. This performance gap likely stems from their optimization objectives creating distributional shifts that prevent effective utilization of pre-trained knowledge.

TABLE I: Performance comparison after fine-tuning from the same offline pre-trained policy. Values represent average returns across three seeds.

Method	Bounded Push	Bounded Soccer	Fragile Push Wall	Obstructed Push
FARL (Ours)	4593.96 ± 50.69	2276.53 ± 554.32	3220.12 ± 66.67	1227.18 ± 12.40
PPO-Lag	420.79 ± 841.07	404.80 ± 334.67	268.83 ± 695.50	543.95 ± 387.59
P3O	95.33 ± 61.51	598.55 ± 653.84	-278.62 ± 530.71	455.86 ± 348.82
CPO	156.28 ± 212.07	692.90 ± 267.52	-994.55 ± 1139.89	47.40 ± 37.26

3) *Ablation Studies:* To better understand the contribution of each component in FARL, we conduct two key ablation studies focused on our failure prediction and avoidance mechanisms:

Study 1. World Model vs. Recovery-RL Safety Critic

First, we investigate whether our world-model-based safety critic with future rollout prediction is necessary by replacing it with a Q-function safety critic from Recovery-RL [35], which is based on a simple MLP. This approach estimates the discounted future probability of constraint violation under the current policy:

$$Q_{\text{safe}}(s_t, a_t) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\sum_{t'=t}^{\infty} \gamma_{\text{safe}}^{t'-t} c_{t'} | s_t, a_t \right] \quad (11)$$

$$= c_t + (1 - \gamma_{\text{safe}}) \mathbb{E}_{\pi} [Q_{\text{safe}}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) | s_t, a_t]. \quad (12)$$

Study 2. Recovery Policy vs. MPPI Planning

Second, we evaluate the necessity of a separate pre-trained recovery policy by replacing it with Model Predictive Path Integral (MPPI) [45], a sampling-based model predictive control method. Our implementation plans actions by:

- Sampling multiple action trajectories from a Gaussian distribution.
- Computing rewards and constraints for each trajectory using the world model.
- Filtering trajectories based on a safety threshold (ϵ_{safe}).
- Selecting the best trajectory among safe options according to expected returns.

Result Analysis

Table II presents the failure episode results of our ablation studies. Replacing our world-model-based safety critic with the simple critic from Recovery-RL [35] leads to substantially more failures in all environments, most pronounced in Bounded Soccer with a 92% increase in failure episodes, where complex dynamics make accurate long-term risk assessment crucial. This confirms that our approach’s explicit modeling of future state-action sequences provides superior prediction of potential failures compared to a simple Q-function estimator. MPPI planning also underperforms our

learned recovery policy, particularly in dynamic environments, suggesting that expert recovery demonstrations capture behaviors difficult to discover through planning alone. The return comparison in Figure 6 further confirms that FARL achieves superior final performance after fine-tuning.

TABLE II: Comparison of Average Failure Episodes across FailureBench environments.

Failure Episodes ↓	FARL (Ours)	Rec-RL	MPPI
Bounded Push	951.00 ± 52.37	1250.67 ± 293.33	1112.00 ± 180.01
Bounded Soccer	878.67 ± 120.65	1687.00 ± 130.85	2022.67 ± 279.74
Fragile Push Wall	3393.00 ± 42.51	4234.00 ± 56.93	3753.00 ± 13.23
Obstructed Push	1914.67 ± 711.46	2175.00 ± 128.42	2229.00 ± 727.12

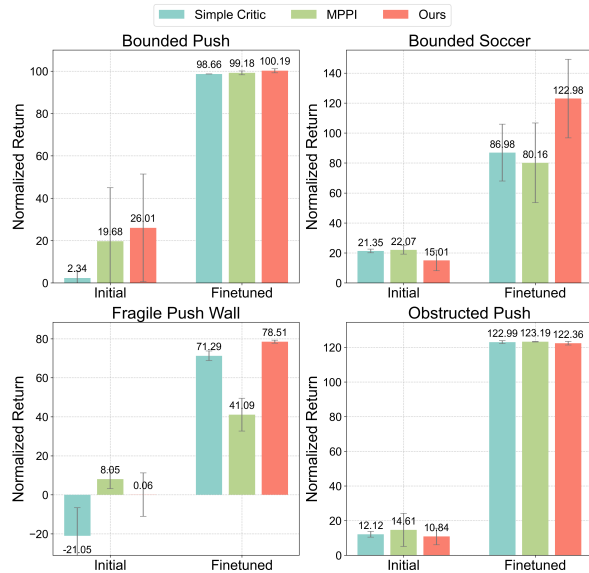


Fig. 6: Comparison of average returns before and after fine-tuning for our method and the two ablation variants. All returns are normalized relative to an expert script policy’s performance (100).

TABLE III: Average return comparison for three Franka tasks.

Task	Method	Initial	Finetuned
Franka Fragile Push Wall	Uni-O4	343.28 ± 121.23	369.15 ± 8.93
	FARL (Ours)	349.95 ± 123.12	363.65 ± 14.38
Franka Disturbed Push	Uni-O4	262.62 ± 129.59	308.29 ± 79.83
	FARL (Ours)	321.49 ± 149.57	384.52 ± 87.45
Franka Bounded Soccer	Uni-O4	512.79 ± 143.34	615.97 ± 103.20
	FARL (Ours)	578.77 ± 133.80	638.96 ± 91.59

C. Real-World Experiments

To validate the practical effectiveness of FARL, we deploy FARL on a Franka Emika Panda robot to evaluate its performance in challenging real-world scenarios. We implement three representative tasks and assess both failure reduction and performance improvement (Figure 1).

1) Experimental Setup:

- **Franka Fragile Push Wall.** The robot must push an object, which is assumed to be fragile, to a target position behind a wall. If the object collides with the wall during manipulation, it is considered damaged

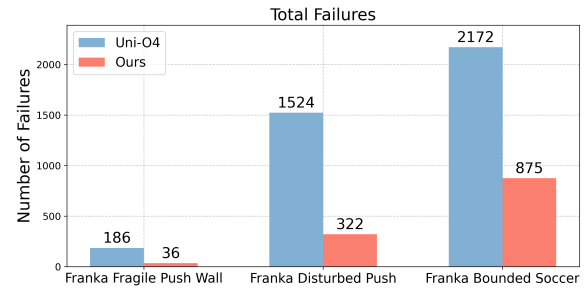


Fig. 7: Comparison of total failure state-action pairs during 50 training episodes in real-world experiments.

and requires replacement, indicating an IR Failure that necessitates human intervention.

- **Franka Disturbed Push.** The robot must push an object to a target while avoiding a dynamic obstacle (a decorative flower) that is randomly moved by a human operator, simulating unpredictable environmental changes.
- **Franka Bounded Soccer.** The robot must use a UMI gripper [46] to "kick" a ball toward a target on an uneven turf surface. If the ball rolls beyond the defined boundaries due to the irregular surface dynamics, it is considered an IR Failure.

We use an Intel RealSense D435 camera for real-time image acquisition. State estimation is performed using YOLOv8 object detection and color-based filtering to track the positions of objects in the workspace. The system operates at approximately 5Hz for both perception and control.

For each task, we conduct training sessions consisting of 50 episodes and compared FARL against the baseline algorithm. We collect 40-80 trajectories for three types of demonstration via teleoperation. Each demonstration type requires approximately 10-20 minutes of teleoperation, resulting in a total human effort of 30-60 minutes per task for collecting all three demonstration types. For the recovery demonstrations, the teleoperator identifies when the robot is approaching a failure state, e.g., object near a wall or boundary edge, and demonstrates corrective actions to return to safe states; no task-specific expertise beyond basic teleoperation is required. For the failure demonstrations, we guide the robot via teleoperation into various failure states that it would likely encounter during autonomous execution, providing representative data for safety critic pre-training. Across our three tasks, we found that 3–5 common failure types per task (e.g., pushing too hard toward the wall, overshooting the boundary) were sufficient for effective safety critic training.

2) *Results and Analysis:* Figure 7 presents a comparison of total failures during the 50-episode training phase for all environments. The results demonstrate a dramatic reduction in failures when using FARL compared to the baseline.

Table III shows the average return before and after fine-tuning. Online RL finetuning boosts task performance and decreases variance, with particularly notable gains in Disturbed Push and Bounded Soccer. This confirms that FARL successfully leverages online RL finetuning while minimiz-

ing failures requiring human intervention.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

We introduce a failure-aware offline-to-online reinforcement learning framework that integrates a world-model-based safety critic and a recovery policy to reduce IR Failures during exploration significantly.

Limitations and future work. Our current work does not incorporate additional modalities such as 2D/3D vision, tactile sensing, and others, which could further enrich the perceptual capabilities of the system. In future work, we plan to extend FAREL to address mobile manipulation and dual-arm robotic platforms and to integrate these other modalities.

Another promising direction is to pre-train large-scale failure world models across diverse tasks and embodiments, potentially enabling better generalization to unseen failure modes in new domains.

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