



# Robot Navigation Path Teaching: A Comparative Study of Trajectory Demonstrations and Keyframe Demonstrations

Miao Qi  
qimiao@utexas.edu

Chunheng Luo  
chunheng.luo@utexas.edu

## ABSTRACT

Policy learning enables a robot to select an action based on the current world state. It is the core of many modern robotic applications. Learning from Demonstration (LfD) is the policy learning approach within which a policy is learned from examples, or demonstrations, given by a teacher. In this paper, we explore different demonstration methods in robot Learning from Demonstration. Specifically, two demonstration methods, TD and KD, are compared in terms of their effectiveness and the human teacher's task load. Algorithms are implemented based on our mobile robotic platform, Sphero SPRK, and experiments are designed and conducted to do the comparison using both quantitative measures and survey results. Our experimental results show that, in general, while TD requires less task load from the human teacher, KD is more effective in terms of the robot's performance of reproducing the demonstrated navigation path. Our experiments also reveal that human teacher's strategies have a considerable effect on the effectiveness of teaching: Different human teachers tend to use different teaching strategies, and they usually deliberately adjust their strategies between demonstrations attempting to improve the robot's learning performance.

## Keywords

Robotics; Learning from Demonstration

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Policy learning enables a robot to select an action based on the current world state. It is the core of many modern robotic applications. Learning from Demonstration (LfD) is the policy learning approach within which a policy is learned from examples, or demonstrations, given by a teacher. LfD algorithms utilize the demonstrations to derive a policy that reproduces the demonstrated behavior. [3] In this paper, we focus on the "path teaching" scenario where a human teacher remotely guides the robot to navigate through a specific

path. The scenario is common in everyday practical applications, e.g., training robotic guides or auto-navigating cleaning robots used in museums, shopping malls, hospitals, homes, etc.

In LfD, the approaches for providing demonstration data can be categorized into two types, i.e., teleoperation and shadowing. [3] In teleoperation, the teacher operates the robot learner platform and the robot's sensors keep record of the execution. In shadowing, the robot learner records the execution using sensors while attempting to mimic the teacher's motion as the teacher executes the task. This paper focuses on a specific scenario of teleoperation, where the teacher remotely operates the robot learner through speech dialog. Such an approach has the advantage that it provides a direct method for information transfer and thus no additional hardware processing components are required to enable the learner to mimic the teacher.

The teacher can give demonstrations through teleoperation using various methods. In the path teaching scenario discussed in this paper, each demonstration can be either an entire state trajectory which provides a continuous demonstration of the path, namely, a Trajectory Demonstration (TD), or a set of consecutive keyframes which achieves the task when connected together, namely, a Keyframe Demonstration (KD). [2] In this paper, we present simulations and experiments to compare the two demonstration methods in terms of effectiveness and the human teacher's task load using quantitative measures and survey results.

The remaining of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses related work on the LfD topic, including various demonstration methods and learning models proposed by previous research. Section 3 gives a detailed description of the two demonstration methods we compare, i.e., TD and KD, and the learning algorithms by which the teacher's behavior is reproduced based on the demonstrations. Section 4 describes the implementation of our path learning system, including the hardware platform and the software architecture. The results of the system simulation is given in Section 5. Section 6 describes the design and measures of the comparative experiments we conducted, followed by the experiment results given in Section 7. We further discuss the simulation and experiment results in Section 8 and reach the conclusion in Section 9.

## 2. RELATED WORK

A survey of the robot LfD technique is done in [3], in which LfD research is categorized in terms of demonstration approach and policy derivation. While there is a considerable

amount of research done in policy derivation models, such as Dynamic Systems (DS) [4], Dynamic Movement Primitives (DMP) [5], etc., there is less work that focuses primarily on demonstration approaches.

Previous researches focus more about TD. [6] uses the result of principal component analysis (PCA) to represent the robot movement trajectory and built Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) upon the PCA-based representation. [7] [8] point out the GMM is not adequate for temporal representation, and therefore learning trajectories using Hidden Markov Model (HMM).

All those trajectory learning approaches involve sampling sensor data/position data along the path learning. This requires the system carefully deal with timestamp of each sample. [6] segments the sample data into sub-trajectories. [7] [8] train their models on several demonstrations for the same path learning use Dynamic time warping for time alignment, which allow the robot learning the movement speed at the same time. This feature is not necessary if the user only care about the trajectory learning, and some time bring more workload on teachers.

The idea of using KD in kinesthetic teaching is proposed in [2], in which different demonstration methods (e.g. KD and TD) are applied to kinesthetic teaching and compared. The idea is further explored and developed in [1], in which KD and TD are combined to use their complementary advantages. In this work, we extend the idea of KD to the path teaching application and attempt to find out whether there is any differences in the comparison results between KD and TD given that the comparison is done in a different application.

### 3. DEMONSTRATION METHODS

Two demonstration methods are explored and compared in this work: Trajectory Demonstration (TD) and Keyframe Demonstration (KD). In both demonstration methods, the human teacher is asked to use speech instructions to teach the robot a navigation path remotely. This section gives a detailed description of the two demonstration methods, and the learning algorithms (policy derivation algorithms) by which the teacher's behavior is reproduced based on the demonstrations.

#### 3.1 Trajectory Demonstration

##### 3.1.1 Interaction

In TD, the robot is initially reset and positioned at the starting point of the navigation path that the robot is supposed to learn. The human teacher then uses motion control instructions, "Go straight", "Turn left", "Turn right" and "Stop", to guide the robot navigate along the path. The human teacher is informed that all robot movement will be recorded automatically in the process, and no additional instructions are required to make the robot remember the navigation path. The human teacher signals the experiment conductors when she/he thinks her/his demonstration is complete. The robot is made to reproduce the learned path after each demonstration so that the human teacher can adjust her/his demonstrations according to the robot's behavior.

##### 3.1.2 Learning

The robot keeps sending its position information at a fixed-rate for position sampling during the whole demonstration process. We use GMM to build the learning model. The demonstration trajectory does not have overlap and intersection to avoid mistakes due to the lack of GMM temporal information addressing capability. The learning model only involve with two-dimension ( $x$  position and  $y$  position), the timestamp is only used for next state clarification. We use a constant number of Gaussian components of 16 for GMM for simple path learning. The initial central of each component is calculated by K-means. The system use expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm to calculate result covariance matrices and it assume each component has its own covariance. The robot learnt movement by predicting cluster/state of its currently position and move toward its next state by looking at the relative timestamp of each cluster. Multiple demonstration clustering result will only use the first time demonstration relative timestamp for time alignment.

#### 3.2 Keyframe Demonstration

##### 3.2.1 Interaction

In TD, the robot is initially reset and positioned at the starting point of the navigation path that the robot is supposed to learn. The human teacher then uses motion control instructions, "Go straight", "Turn left", "Turn right" and "Stop", to guide the robot navigate along the path. The human teacher is informed that the robot will record its current position when she/he gives the instruction "Keep this frame", and the movement between the recorded frames will not be remembered by the robot. The human teacher signals the experiment conductors when she/he thinks her/his demonstration is complete. The robot is made to reproduce the learned path after each demonstration so that the human teacher can adjust her/his demonstrations according to the robot's behavior.

##### 3.2.2 Learning

The robot still keeps sending its position information at a fixed-rate during the demonstration, but only the position information and timestamp when teacher gives "Keep this frame" will be recorded. The system records the start and the end position information regardless of teacher giving "keep this frame" instruction or not.

The learning model is same to the TD learning part, but the training data requires pre-process the recorded data. We generate the sampling data with noise at 0.02(m) scale along the line from one "key point" to its next "key point" according to the timestamp. The sample data generation process also add timestamp at a fixed-rate within single line segment. To avoid the GMM ignore the intersection of different line segments, i.e. the corner point of trajectory, the sample data generation process add 40 samples with noise at same scale at each intersection. Then the GMM model then use the generated data as training data in the same discussed in TD learning section.

### 4. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

The system is implemented based on Sphero SPRK, a mobile robotic platform supporting Bluetooth wireless communication. The robot has two motors controlling the linear velocity and angular velocity, respectively. It can achieve

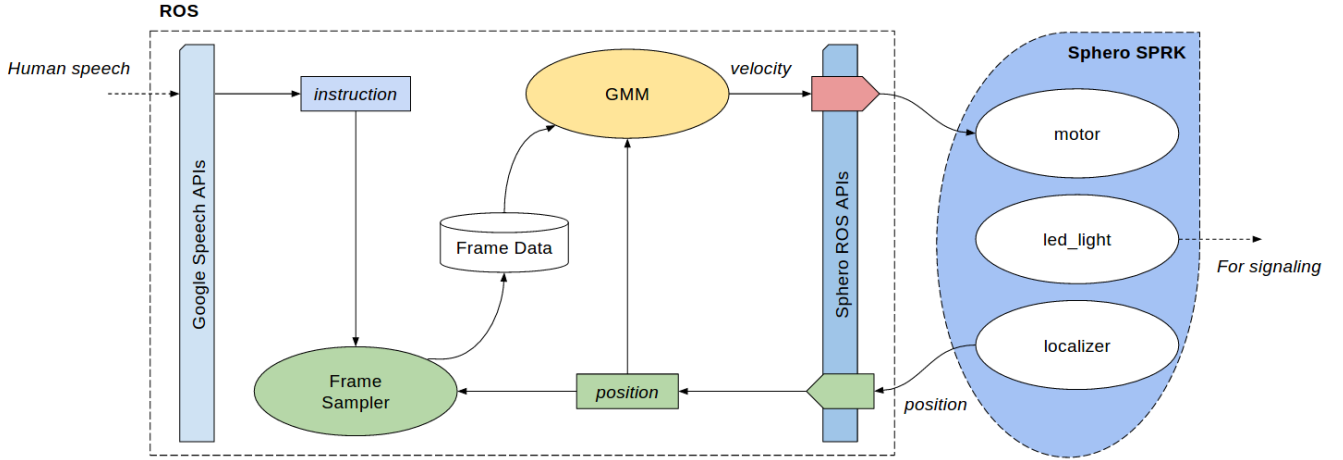


Figure 1: System Framework

self-localization on an absolute coordinate system using a gyroscope and an accelerometer. The robot is also equipped with a full RGB spectrum LED.

As shown in Figure 1, a controller based on Robot Operating System (ROS) is built on a computer terminal to interface the robot learner with the human teacher. The terminal and the robot communicate with each other via Sphero ROS, an open-source bluetooth driver providing Sphero APIs.

The path teaching scenario involves two phases: the teaching phase, where the human teacher teaches the navigation path to the robot learner through either KD or TD, and the execution phase where the robot attempts to repeat the navigation based on the information perceived from human demonstrations.

#### 4.1 Teaching Phase

In the teaching phase, speech instructions given by the human teacher are recognized by the robot through Google Cloud Speech APIs. The speech instructions include motion control instructions, i.e., “Go straight”, “Turn left”, “Turn right” and “Stop”, and the keyframe recording instruction, i.e., “Keep this frame”.

The motion control of the robot is implemented using a Finite State Machine (FSM). “Go straight” makes the robot move ahead towards its current headings. “Turn left” offsets the robot’s headings by 90 degrees and drives the robot ahead towards the offsetted headings. “Turn right” offsets the robot’s headings by -90 degrees and drives the robot ahead towards the offsetted headings. “Stop” makes the robot stop immediately without changing its headings. In KD, “Keep this frame” makes the robot remember its current time stamped position.

In order to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the human demonstrations, the robot gives back an acknowledgement signal via LED lights on receiving each speech instruction. Each type of instructions corresponds to a certain color of LED lights. The acknowledgement signals give timely feedback so that the human teacher can know whether or not the robot has understood her speech instructions correctly. If the robot misunderstands an instruction, the human teacher can quickly make a correction by giving new

instructions.

Frames are sampled along the navigation path while the human teacher guides the robot using speech instructions. Each frame contains two fields: a coordinate representing the robot’s position relative to the initial position where the demonstration starts, and the corresponding timestamp. The coordinate is provided by the accelerometer-based self-localization system instantiated in Sphero SPRK, and the timestamp is given by the system time of the computer terminal.

In TD, frames are sampled evenly over time, while in KD, frames are sampled on receiving a “Keep this frame” instruction. The sampled frames are stored in a data file to be used in the execution phase.

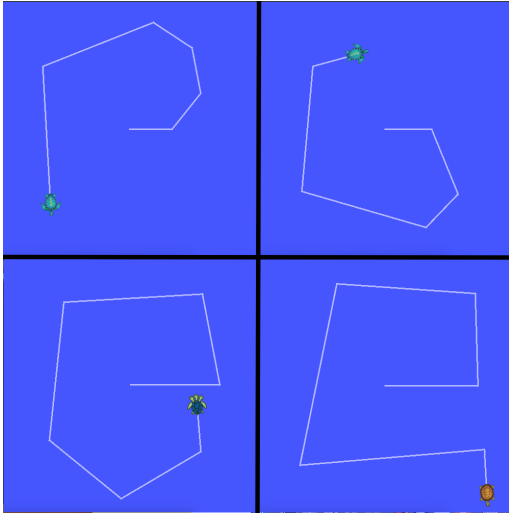
#### 4.2 Execution Phase

In the execution phase, the GMM-based learning algorithm derives the complete navigation path from the frames recorded in the data file. The derived path, represented by an array of sub-destination coordinates ordered by time, is then utilized to control the navigation of the robot in a step-by-step manner, the velocity in each step being calculated based on the current position of the robot and the sub-destination of the current step.

The position of the robot is constantly checked against the current sub-destination during the navigation. Once the robot’s distance from the current sub-destination is within a threshold (5 cm, set according to the accuracy of Sphero’s motion control and localization system), the current step is marked as complete and the robot is made start moving to the next sub-destination. The navigation is completed when the last sub-destination is reached.

### 5. SIMULATIONS

To verify the model selection and the system setup is fair for both TD and KD, we implement our system on turtlesim, which is a agent simulator on ROS platform. The purpose of simulation is to show given the position information under ideal environment, i.e. position information with no noise and data sampling with no delay and the robot having its direction information.



**Figure 2: Simulation Path**

The system setup in simulation and the experiment are generally the same. The only difference between the simulation setup and the experiment setup is the movement instruction is generated by various algorithm. The Twist messages defined in ROS platform standard library, in our case, received by the turtlesim node and the Sphero SPRK are different towards value of linear velocity and angular velocity due to the reason that turtlesim changes direction using angular velocity and the Sphero SPRK requires linear velocity in contrast. The turtlesim also requires time to turn around while the movement direction changing of Sphero SPRK happens immediately after receive new Twist.

To accommodate the difference between the simulation and the experiment setup, we add a transaction state in simulation when robot repeat the learnt path. In this state, the turtlesim node only make direction change without position changing to simulate the behavior of Sphero SPRK.

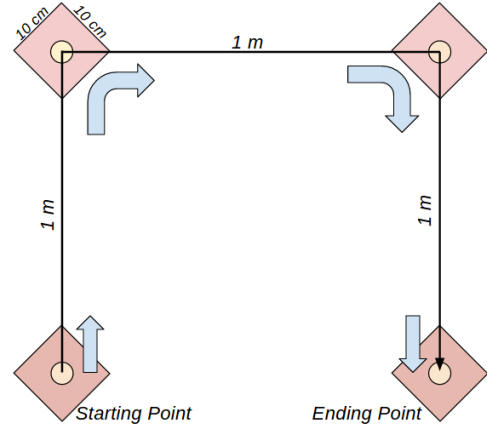
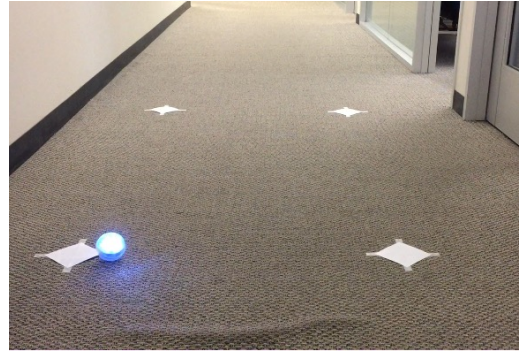
In the simulation, we test 4 different paths as shown in Figure 2. on TD and KD. All the test paths only construct with straight line segments and no curve. We assume each teacher will give “Keep this frame” instruction on each turning point. The results show that GMM with both sampling data along movement and generated on key points can perfectly repeat the demonstration movement. This indicated that our model selection is fair to the TD and KD under ideal environment.

## 6. EXPERIMENTS

Experiments are conducted to compare TD and KD in the path teaching scenario. The experiments are designed to address three questions: 1) Does the demonstration method have any effect on the success rate of teaching? 2) Is there any difference in the accuracy of learning when using different demonstration methods? 3) Does the human teacher feel any difference in terms of the task load of teaching the robot when using different demonstration methods?

### 6.1 Experiment Design

#### 6.1.1 Task



**Figure 3: Experiment Path**

Ten students of The University of Texas at Austin are recruited as experiment participants. Each of them is required to teach the robot to navigate through a path with two 90-degree right turns and three one-meter segments, as shown in Figure 3. The goal of the human teacher is 1) to enable the robot to reach the end point of the path without assistance, and 2) to make the robot follow the shape of the path as accurately as possible.

The experiments are conducted on the floor of a laboratory. The navigation path is marked by the starting point, the end point and the two turning points, using 10cm x 10cm diamond shaped paper stickers.

#### 6.1.2 Conditions

Our experiments have two conditions: TD and KD. In TD, participants give only motion control instructions, while in KD, participants give both motion control instructions and the keyframe recording instruction. We use a within-subject design to better control the differences between subjects.

### 6.2 Experiment Protocol

Each participant does two groups of teaching using TD and KD, respectively. The order of the two methods is counterbalanced. Each group involves 3 attempts. Each attempt consists of 2 phases, i.e., the teaching phase and the execution phase.

In the teaching phase, participants are free to deploy any strategies based on the instruction set of the teaching method

they are using, in order to improve the effectiveness of their teaching. In the execution phase, the participants are allowed to observe the robot's behavior. Participants are allowed to adjust their strategies between different attempts based on their observation of the execution phases.

### 6.3 Measures

The experiment results are evaluated in terms of a Teaching Effectiveness Index (TEX) and a Teaching Task Load Index (TLX). Subjective and objective measures are combined to achieve comprehensive evaluations.

#### 6.3.1 Teaching Effectiveness Index

Three dependent variables are measured in the execution phase for each attempt, as listed below.

- Trend ( $T$ , objective measure), i.e., whether or not the robot successfully reproduce the trend of the navigation path, as measured by a 3-level criteria:
  - Successful ( $T = 2$ ) if the robot makes two right turns along the way and the angle errors are within 5 degrees;
  - Not quite successful ( $T = 1$ ) if the robot makes two right turns along the way but the angle errors are greater than 5 degrees but less than 60 degrees;
  - Unsuccessful ( $T = 0$ ) if the robot behaves otherwise.
- Accuracy ( $A$ , objective measure), i.e., whether or not the robot accurately follows the navigation path, as measured by a 3-level criteria:
  - Accurate ( $A = 2$ ) if the robot follows the center-line of the navigation path with less than  $\pm 10$  cm error along the way;
  - Not quite accurate ( $A = 1$ ) if the robot is sometimes out of the  $\pm 10$  cm bound but always within  $\pm 15$  cm bound along the way;
  - Inaccurate ( $A = 0$ ) if the robot behaves otherwise.
- Human teacher evaluation ( $E$ , subjective measure), i.e., whether or not the human teacher considers the path reproduction as successful, as measured by a 3-level criteria: successful ( $E = 2$ ), not quite successful ( $E = 1$ ) or unsuccessful ( $E = 0$ ).

The teaching effectiveness of each demonstration method is evaluated by combining the three dependent variables of each attempt and averaging the evaluation results of the three attempts, as described by

$$TEX = 0.4 \cdot \text{avg}(T[1 : 3]) + 0.2 \cdot \text{avg}(A[1 : 3]) + 0.4 \cdot \text{avg}(E[1 : 3])$$

#### 6.3.2 Task Load Index

We use the NASA Task Load Index (NASA TLX) to evaluate the human teacher's task load in the path teaching scenario. Each participant is asked to fill a NASA TLX evaluation form for each demonstration method. The evaluation form consists of six parts: Mental Demand (MD), Physical Demand (PD), Temporal Demand (TD), Performance (PF), Effort (EF) and Frustration (FR). We do not take TD and

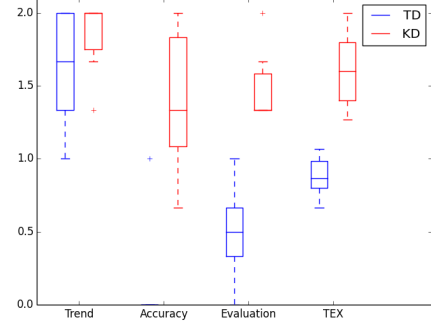


Figure 4: Teaching Effectiveness Result

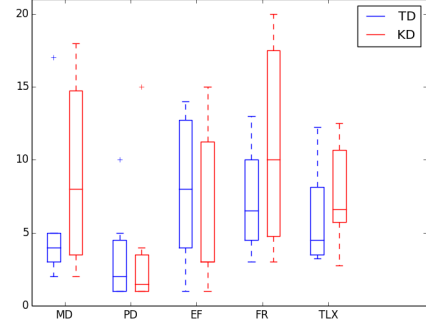


Figure 5: NASA Task Load Result

PF into the combined evaluation of TLX since we do not set time limits for the teaching task and we have already taken the teacher's subjective evaluation of the task performance into account in TEX. So the task load of each demonstration method is evaluated as

$$TLX = \text{avg}([MD, PD, EF, FR])$$

## 7. RESULTS

We collected data from 10 participants and calculate TEX and TLX based on the experiment results.

Figure 4. shows the result Teaching Effectiveness measurements from the experiments. KD get higher scores consider all three measurement aspects. Both TD and KD get high scores in aspect of Trend, which means the robot learnt correct direction according to the trajectory. However TD get much higher score in aspect of Accuracy. Only one teacher get partial success on TD learning on average which cause the single point in Accuracy column in Figure 4. The robot either doesn't move smoothly to the next target point or turns at the point that falls outside the 10cm range around the corner point. Only 2 partial success happens in all 60 times of learning. The robot either successfully moves along the designed trajectory or has large error at the beginning of the path. The large error happening at the very start point, usually along the first line segment, causes the position inaccuracy in the following movement consequently.

The higher Accuracy scores also leads to higher scores

of KD in terms of Teacher Evaluation of learnt trajectory. The accuracy aspects vector has very high correlation with Teacher Evaluation vector (Pearson correlation of 0.82), while the Trend vector has fairly low correlation towards Teacher Evaluation vector (Pearson correlation of 0.40). In other words, the participants focus more on the accuracy of learnt trajectory, regardless of the correct trend of robot movement.

Figure 5. shows the result NASA Task Load measurements from the experiments. TD get lower TLX. The differences between TD and KD in PD is fairly small because the instructors are only required to give verbal instructions to guide the robot. The differences scores on MD, EF and FR will be discussed in the Discussion section.

Noticed that the range of user evaluation of NASA task load varies a lot between teachers, we apply Wilcoxon signed rank test on our experiment result, which pairs up the rankings from the same users.

## 8. DISCUSSION

In this section, we explain the observations from the experiments and further discuss the experimental results shown in the last section.

### 8.1 Limitations of the Robotic Platform

As shown in Section 5, the simulation results show that, no matter which demonstration method is used, the learning algorithm can precisely reproduce the demonstrated navigation path. However, in the experiments based on Sphero, large deviation from the desired path is observed, especially in the case of TD. Such an inconsistency is caused by the limited accuracy of Sphero’s velocity control and self-localization. As is observed from the experiments, the actual moving direction of the robot can be up to 10 degrees away from the desired headings given by the velocity control signals, and the error of self-localization can be up to 15 cm.

Apart from the noise of the robot sensors and the inaccurate nature of the navigation and localization system, other factors also contribute to the deviation that is observed during experiments.

Firstly, the inertia of the robot causes undesirable displacement that is undetectable by the robot sensors. One common situation is that the robot keeps spinning for a short period of time when it suddenly stops on receiving a “Stop” instruction. The spinning causes up to 3 cm of displacement without being detected by the self-localization system. Another situation that is observed in our experiments is that a turn instruction is received when the robot is still moving and the angle of the turn has an error of up to 5 degrees due to the previous spinning state of the robot.

Secondly, the robot’s coordinate system is rotated by an angle of up to 5 degrees when a collision happens. Such a rotation causes inconvenience in the human teacher’s demonstration (since the moving direction of the robot is no longer the same with what is expected), and also causes error in reproducing the navigation path since the frames that are recorded are not in terms of the rotated coordinate system.

Finally, the unevenness of the friction caused by carpet patterns also contribute to the error in velocity control. Such unevenness gives different amount of friction in different directions, which results in different speed deviations in different directions, and thus an error of the robot’s moving direction is caused.

### 8.2 TD Requires Less Task Load

TD casts less task load on teachers ( $P = 0.074$  in Wilcoxon signed rank test on TLX) according to the result collected from the experiment.

The difference of LTX mainly comes from MD and FR as shown in Figure 5. The mental demand of KD is higher than TD because KD requires the teacher giving extra an instruction when the robot approached the corner points, or the position that teacher feels is important. FR also contributes great portion towards LTX. The frustration feeling mainly comes from the teachers forgetting to keep certain frame on the corner, and realized it before keep next frame. In this situation, most of teachers choose to guide the robot move back to the last keyframe end position. This back and forth process generates makes the teachers get more and more frustrated.

Again, due to the limitation of the robot platform, both TD and KD require the teachers put effort in guide the robot. They usually find the latency between the give instructions and the robot response to the instruction, and then try to accommodate to this latency by giving the instructions as the robot approaching its next target point. This process requires extra effort from teachers. In future work, the language recognize process should be optimized to reduce the system setup limitation effect on the experiment result.

### 8.3 KD is More Effective

As shown in the result section, KD has better performance than TD in terms of effectiveness considering all trend, accuracy, teacher evaluation and TEX ( $P = 0.027$  in Wilcoxon signed rank test).

The Figure 4. shows that the trajectories learnt from TD and KD get similar trend scores, but the trajectory learnt from KD has much better scores in accuracy. This could be due to the position noise and error get accumulated along the time, as the system keep all the data sampled along the entire TD process. The noise and error in robot position information may be not necessary to affect the clustering results because the relative position between each sample position may remain accurate, but the recommendation given by the model may have error because the model gives target position in absolute value.

Another possible reason that causes the accuracy difference is the TD may not collect enough data at the corner point to make it a stand-alone cluster. In simulation, the turtles node stay in the every corner for a period of time waiting for the turtle node turning into its target direction. In the experiment setup, in contrast, the teachers usually let the robot stay at the corner for fairly short of time, or even given turning instruction in advance to the robot getting to the next the intersection of two line segments. This causes the GMM clustering the corner into its adjacent line segment. The model will then give the robot recommendation directly goes to the mean of next line segment instead of going to the corner first. The KD have no issue with sample data distribution because almost all the users successfully keep the corner points as one of key points.

### 8.4 Teaching Strategies

We found from our observations that different human teachers tend to use different teaching strategies, and they usually deliberately adjust their strategies between demonstrations

attempting to improve the robot’s performance.

#### 8.4.1 TD Strategies

One commonly observed strategy difference in TD is that while most human teachers make the robot stop before giving a turn instruction, a few directly give turn instructions while the robot is still moving. Some teachers turn the robot using different strategies in different demonstrations, attempting to improve the teaching effectiveness by trying different strategies. Some even combine the two strategies in one demonstration.

from the data collected from those participants who use both the stop-and-turn and the turn-without-stopping strategies, we observe a slight enhancement of teaching effectiveness by using the turn-without-stopping strategy. As is stated in the first part of this section, sudden stops in the movement of the robot causes undesirable displacement which the sensors are not able to detect. Therefore, the turn-without-stopping strategy improves the teaching effectiveness by reducing the navigation errors of the robotic platform.

#### 8.4.2 KD Strategies

Three strategy differences are observed in KD during the experiments. Firstly, most teachers make the robot stop before giving a “Keep this frame” instruction, while a few teachers give “Keep this frame” instructions while the robot is moving. Secondly, teachers use different granularities of frames, i.e., different frequencies of using “Keep this frame”, along the navigation path. Some teachers attempt to increase the frame granularity to improve the teaching effectiveness. Thirdly, some teachers try following the path as accurately as possible during their demonstrations, while others, knowing that only the keyframes will be remembered by the robot, only try keeping the keyframes accurately, not constrained by the paths the robot takes to reach those keyframe positions.

Our experiments show that the stop-and-keep-this-frame strategy helps the teachers to keep the desired keyframes accurately. Most teachers choose the turning point of the path as keyframes, in which case it is hard to get the accurate keyframes if the “Keep this frame” instruction is given without first putting the robot to a stop.

One participant tries different keyframe granularities in his demonstrations. Apart from the turning point, he adds some middle points of straight-line parts of the path in one of his demonstration. The result shows that, by adding extra keyframes, even though the robot still reproduces the trend of the path correctly, the accuracy is undermined. Such a result can be explained by extra self-localization errors caused by additional sub-destinations. However, it is hard to tell whether this is a common trend since only one comparison is done.

Several participants simply guide the robot to reach the turning points one after another. Sometimes the between-keyframe paths can be far deviated from the desired path. Such deviation does not make an observable difference in the effectiveness of teaching since the robot does not remember anything about the between-keyframe paths. However, these teachers’ subjective evaluation of mental demand is higher due to the extra effort taken to make the keyframes as accurate as possible.

#### 8.4.3 Path Adjustment

Another strategy that is used by teachers during our experiments is path adjustment, whereby the teacher adjusts the shape of the path they demonstrate to the robot to compensate the navigation error that is observed in previous demonstration attempts. Such a strategy can be used to compensate errors with predictable directions. For example, if it is observed that the robot skews its path toward the right side of the desired path in the past two demonstration attempts, the teacher can adjust the path to the left when she/he gives the third demonstration. In our experiments, only one participant deliberately uses such path adjustment strategy, which gives the best learning effectiveness of TD among all TD attempts of all participants.

## 9. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, demonstration methods in LfD are explored in the path teaching scenario. Specifically, two demonstration methods, TD and KD, are compared in two aspects, i.e., the demonstration methods’ effectiveness and the human teacher’s task load. Algorithms are implemented based on Sphero SPRK, and experiments designed and conducted to do the comparison using both subjective and objective measures.

Due to the limitations of the robotic platform, the robot’s learning performance is undermined by the inaccuracy of velocity control and self-localization. Although the path reproduction is accurate in simulations no matter which demonstration method is used, it is not as accurate in the experiments using Sphero, where the difference in effectiveness of different demonstration methods shows up. Our experimental results show that, in general, while TD requires less task load from the human teacher, KD is more effective in terms of the robot’s performance of reproducing the demonstrated navigation path.

We also found from our observations that different human teachers tend to use different teaching strategies, and they usually deliberately adjust their strategies between demonstrations attempting to improve the robot’s performance. And our experiments show that human teacher’s strategies have a considerable effect on the effectiveness of teaching.

## 10. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We want to acknowledge Prof. Andrea L. Thomaz for providing the robotic platform and giving valuable advices during different phases of this research. We also acknowledge those students of The University of Texas at Austin who have participated in our experiments.

## 11. REFERENCES

- [1] Akgun, B., Cakmak, M., Jiang, K., & Thomaz, A. L. (2012). Keyframe-based learning from demonstration. *International Journal of Social Robotics*, 4(4), 343-355.
- [2] Akgun, B., Cakmak, M., Yoo, J. W., & Thomaz, A. L. (2012, March). Trajectories and keyframes for kinesthetic teaching: A human-robot interaction perspective. In *Proceedings of the seventh annual ACM/IEEE international conference on Human-Robot Interaction* (pp. 391-398). ACM.
- [3] Argall, B. D., Chernova, S., Veloso, M., & Browning, B. (2009). A survey of robot learning from demonstration. *Robotics and autonomous systems*, 57(5), 469-483.
- [4] Khansari-Zadeh, S. M., & Billard, A. (2011). Learning



stable nonlinear dynamical systems with gaussian mixture models. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics*, 27(5), 943-957.

[5] Pastor, P., Hoffmann, H., Asfour, T., & Schaal, S. (2009, May). Learning and generalization of motor skills by learning from demonstration. In *Robotics and Automation, 2009. ICRA'09. IEEE International Conference on* (pp. 763-768). IEEE.

[6] F. Bashir, A. Khokhar and D. Schonfeld, Automatic Object Trajectory-Based Motion Recognition Using Gaussian Mixture Models, 2005 IEEE International Conference on Multimedia and Expo, Amsterdam, 2005, pp. 1532-1535.

[7] F. I. Bashir, A. A. Khokhar and D. Schonfeld, Object Trajectory-Based Activity Classification and Recognition Using Hidden Markov Models, in *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing*, vol. 16, no. 7, pp. 1912-1919, July 2007.

[8] A. Vakanski, I. Mantegh, A. Irish and F. Janabi-Sharifi, Trajectory Learning for Robot Programming by Demonstration Using Hidden Markov Model and Dynamic Time Warping, in *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, Part B (Cybernetics)*, vol. 42, no. 4, pp. 1039-1052, Aug. 2012.