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# Action Recognition for Semantic Imitation Learning

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Pengfei Zhao<sup>\* 1</sup> Julen Urain De Jesus<sup>\* 1</sup> Georgia Chalvatzaki<sup>\* 1</sup>

## Abstract

In this work, we present action recognition approaches in the context of Semantic Imitation Learning. First we explain the concept of Semantic Imitation Learning and show how action recognition can help understand, but also imitate human motion in robotics. Then two approaches for action recognition are presented. An object-agnostic classifier, that disregards object labeling and only considers object features and a Graph Neural Network approach for action recognition.

## 1. Introduction

Humans and robot have essentially different qualities. While human have an innate ability to reason and decision making in unseen complex environments, robots offer accuracy, speed and repeatability. Having humans and robots complement those qualities and collaborate together, has being promised as a new frontier in robotics (Villani et al., 2018; Bauer et al., 2008; Mustapha et al., 2019). In situations for example where a task is too complicated or too expensive to automate, human-robot collaborations are an ideal solution.

With human and robots collaborating, we have to look at two challenges that needs to be solved. Firstly, for the robot to anticipate and react to human actions, it needs to *understand* human actions. Secondly, it is important that humans can easily interact with the robot. Having an intuitive human-robot interface, that allows the human to teach required skills by *demonstration*, facilitates the further acceptance of human-robot collaboration. This is in contrast to traditional industrial robots, that require programming by specialists (Villani et al., 2018).

Both of these aforementioned challenges are addressed with *Semantic Imitation Learning* (SIL). Unlike traditional imitation learning techniques like behavioural cloning (Torabi et al., 2018) or apprenticeship learning (Abbeel & Ng,

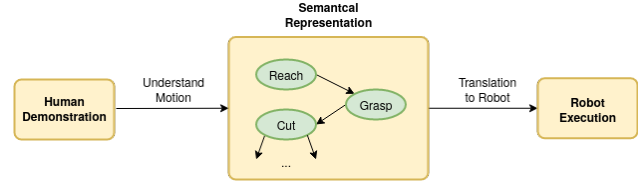


Figure 1. Overview of how SIL can be approached

2004), SIL aims to abstract from trajectory-level information and represent human motion in sequences of semantic blocks. These semantical blocks describe singular actions of a broader task like *cutting* in the broader task of *making a salad*. With the robot having a representation of the human actions in a semantic space, he can translate the demonstrated motion with respect to his own embodiment. Figure 1 shows an overview of the steps in SIL. Dividing a task into modular representations of its actions has the advantage of being able to structure the task *hierarchically*. This is in accordance with the hierarchical structure of many manipulation tasks (Kroemer et al., 2019a). Another advantage is that learning modular action policies is more tractable, because of a *shorter horizon* (Kroemer et al., 2019a). Moreover modularity also offers the benefit of being able to *reuse* already learned modules in different kind of tasks (Kroemer et al., 2019a).

SIL spans a wide range of sub-problems and topics. The concept map in figure 2 should give an overview of the involved topics. Here we can roughly divide concepts into two areas. One that answers the question of how the robot should *understand human motion* and one that answers the question of how the robot should *execute the motion*.

For *human motion understanding* we need to recognize actions and objects and how they relate to each other. According to the concept of *affordance* actions need to be understood in context of the objects surrounding the action and certain object *afford* certain actions. Having representations for actions and objects, we also need to structure those actions into a broader task. Here two of the most frequent approaches are logic based or utilize graphs. Looking at the *robot execution*, we need to understand how to translate the representation of the task to the actual robot. Here different

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<sup>\*</sup>Equal contribution <sup>1</sup>Department of Computer Science, Technical University Darmstadt, Germany. Correspondence to: Pengfei Zhao <pengfei.zhao@stud.tu-darmstadt.de>, Julen Urain De Jesus <urain@ias.informatik.tu-darmstadt.de>, Georgia Chalvatzaki <georgia@robot-learning.de>.

physical constraints has to be taken into account such as the Degrees of Freedom of the robot or environment variables like the size of the object. Furthermore we also need to understand when actions can be executed, i.e. what are the pre- and postconditions of actions and when actions are considered to be failed. This complements the task representation when we have gained from before. However policies for executing the individual action primitives still need to be learned. This can happen by for example hardcoding a library of primitives or using reinforcement learning to learn those policies. We refer to (Karinne Ramirez-Amaro, 2019) for a detailed survey of SIL.

Overall dealing with all these topics would go beyond the scope of this paper. With *action and object recognition* being the foundational first step of understanding and executing human motion, throughout this paper we will set our main focus to this subfield of SIL.

Therefore the main contribution of this paper is a comparison and discussion of action and object recognition models for semantic imitation learning.

## 2. Related Works

In this section we will first present works that provide an full pipeline for SIL. Next, different approaches for how to decompose a task into actions are introduced. Finally, we will focus on approaches towards action recognition.

### 2.1. Semantic Imitation Learning

Some works have focused on constructing full pipelines for SIL. Yang et al. (2015b) developed a system to learn manipulation tasks from constrained videos. Here CNNs are used for grasping type and object recognition. The action structure is then captured with Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars. Ramírez-Amaro et al. (2015) provided a framework suitable for *on-line* requirements. For this the authors utilize a simple perception system based on a decision tree for action classification. The execution module then takes as input the classified action and calls motor commands, that have been preprogrammed for each action. Huang et al. (2018) propose a *Conjugate Task Graph* to represent the task structure. This graph is generated with neural networks given video demonstrations together with labeled sequence of actions. For execution a neural network first identifies the current node and another network predicts the next node transition.

Finally, other approaches have been introduced that don't rely on action labeling. Therefore they circumvent the need to ground motion in language. Yu et al. (2018) decompose a task into primitive actions by predicting primitive ending with LSTMs. Policies for the segmented primitives are then learned with domain-adaptive meta-learning.

### 2.2. Task Decomposition

In task decomposition the goal is to describe the task through a structured representation of actions. (Konidaris et al., 2012) decompose a demonstration trajectory into a sequence of actions using changepoint detection and organize them in a tree structure.

Niekum et al. (2015) rely on Hidden Markov Models for sequencing actions while utilizing a finite-state machine to structure actions and determine state transitions with a trained classifier.

Probabilistic Context-Free Grammar has also been used to sequence task into hierarchical modular structures (Lioutikov et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2015b). With methods from the automated planning community, Petrick & Foster (2016) designed an action-planner that was deployed on a robotic bartender. Another frequent approach is to use graph based representations (Hayes & Scassellati, 2016; Huang et al., 2018; Neumann et al., 2009). (Neumann et al., 2009) structure a task as graph and learn transition conditions with a SVM.

### 2.3. Action Recognition

The problem of recognizing actions has been a widely studied topic in both computer vision and robotics. In computer vision CNNs have been applied to incorporate temporal and spatial information of videos for action recognition. Simonyan & Zisserman (2014) devised an architecture including two separate CNNs. The first one taking as input a single static frame includes the spatial information. For the second CNN the input is formed by stacking optical flow fields. For prediction the output of both CNNs are combined. Ji et al. (2013) instead use a single CNN performing 3D convolutions on stacked consecutive video frames. For a more detailed comparison of the use of CNNs for action recognition please see (Tran et al., 2018).

Other works build upon the Faster R-CNN framework (Gkioxari et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2018). Gkioxari et al. (2017) use Faster R-CNN to detect human and object bounding boxes. Then in a "human-centered-branch" features are extracted from the human bounding box to predict the actions. One central idea of their approach is that the human appearance is indicative of the action executed.

In previously mentioned works object information was not explicitly used for action recognition. However this contextual information of actions is proposed to be a key part in understanding actions (Yao et al., 2013; Kalogeiton et al., 2017). This is explained by the concept of *affordance* (Gibson, 1979). An object is said to *afford* a set of actions if the properties of the object limit the possible actions performed on the object to said set. For example a knife *affords* the action of cutting, but not drinking. There has been lots of

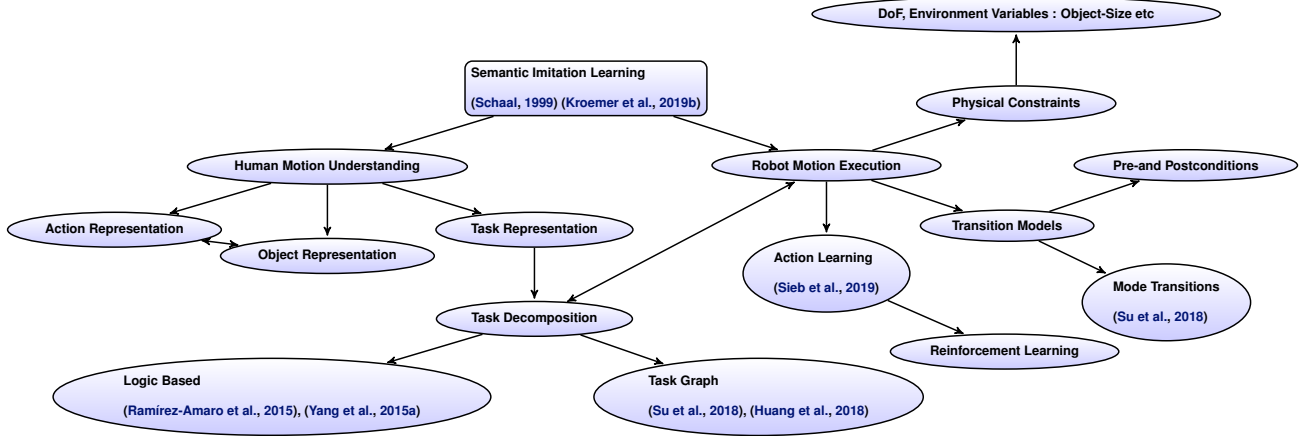


Figure 2. Concept map illustrating relationships of topics in SIL

work studying the semantical relationship between action and objects. Early works used hand-designed features and graphical models to model object affordances (Koppula et al., 2013; Kjellström et al., 2011).

More recently object context has been included using Graph Neural Networks (Liang et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2018; Kato et al., 2018). Guo et al. (2018) devise a Few-shot 3D action recognition approach by learning a metric function that compares interaction graphs. These interaction graphs capture information about the objects and body parts involved in the scene. Kato et al. (2018) include object context using a combination between word embeddings and graphs. Here a graph is constructed from Subject-Verb-Object pairs from a knowledge base. Each action node is then linked with a verb node and noun node and stores the corresponding word embedding. Using graph convolutions new action embeddings are learned and matched with a visual features from a CNN. Dreher et al. (2020) derive a graph representation using bounding boxes for objects and hands. This graph is then processed with a Graph Neural Network to predict actions for left and right hand.

### 3. Methods

In this section we will introduce two different approaches for action recognition that are later compared with each other. We start from a simple action-object recognition approach that avoids directly learning object representations. We then proceed to an approach that includes object relation explicitly using graph representations and classifies actions with a Graph Neural Network. Both methods can be used in the context of SIL to identify modular action primitives that can be composed into tasks and executed by the robot.

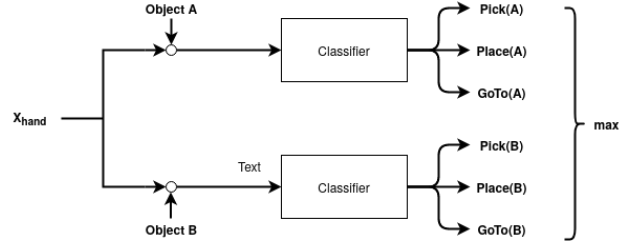


Figure 3. Architecture of the object-agnostic action recognition model

#### 3.1. Object-Agnostic Classifier

While object information is indicative of the action performed, directly including object as output prediction brings certain disadvantages. Having output labels like *cutting tomato*, where actions and objects are jointly labeled, yields a combinatorial complexity of labels. This could be circumvented with having two separated prediction branches. However here we have the problem of not being able to handle novel objects not encountered during training time. Therefore we propose an object-agnostic architecture that predicts actions explicitly and infers object information implicitly. This is especially helpful for SIL and robotics in general since there's a vast amount of different objects that a robot might need to handle and having labels for all of them is prohibitive.

##### 3.1.1. ARCHITECTURE

For the object-agnostic classifier, we have designed an architecture as shown in figure 3. The key idea is that we only make use of the object's characteristics for prediction, but do not ground the object in semantic labels. Therefore

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**Algorithm 1** Object Agnostic Classification
 

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**Input:** hand motion trajectory  $x_{hand}$   
 object trajectories  $x_{objects}$   
 Initialize  $max \leftarrow -1$   
**for**  $x_{object}$  **in**  $x_{objects}$  **do**  
    $x \leftarrow concatenate(x_{hand}, x_{objects})$   
    $prediction \leftarrow classifier(x)$   
   **if**  $prediction \geq max$  **then**  
      $action \leftarrow prediction$   
      $object \leftarrow object \text{ corresponding to } x_{object}$   
      $max \leftarrow action - prediction$   
   **end if**  
**end for**

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even when a novel object is encountered, we do not need to have a label for it. Instead we concatenate the motion data for object and hand and use the concatenated data as the input to the classifier. During training the classifier will learn to predict the correct action when the correct object is co-occurring. Here it is crucial to also learn when an object is not involved by predicting the *no-action*. We make use of the same classifier for all objects. For example, if we want to learn the action-object relation *pick tomato*, then hand and tomato motion data are concatenated. Given this input the classifier is tasked to learn *pick*. For all other non-involved objects in the scene the same concatenation is performed with the hand motion. The difference is that the *no-action* state should be predicted. During prediction time, we can infer the object involved by comparing the classifier output with outputs for other objects. This way there is no need to include objects labels. If we encounter novel objects that are similar to the objects seeing during training, we can distinguish them through comparison. A detailed description can be found in the pseudocode in ??

For the classifier we used a two-layered multilayer perceptron with ReLU activations and 70x100 neurons. The motion data is composed of position and orientation trajectories. We used a non-overlapping sliding window consisting of 5 samples to extract input data from the motion trajectories. The loss function is the cross entropy between the predicted action distribution and the ground truth action distribution. We train for 3 epochs with a learning rate of 0.001.

### 3.2. Graph Network Classifier

A more holistic approach towards including object information is to represent the object relations in the scene with a graph structure. Dreher et al. (2020) devised a pipeline for constructing graphs from RGB-D videos and using a Graph Neural Network to classify actions for the left and right hand simultaneously.

The pipeline follows the following steps :

- Identify bounding boxes for objects and left and right hand in the scene
- Determine object relations
- Construct a graph given objects and relations
- Classify actions using the Graph Neural Network

### 3.3. Graph Construction

The input of the pipeline are consecutive RGB-D images. In the first step 2D object boundary boxes are computed with YOLO. For the hand bounding boxes OpenPose is used. They then combine the depth information, to construct 3D bounding boxes. Finally, the spatial relations between objects are determined from the set of possible relations: *contact, above, below, left, right, front, behind, inside, surround, moving together, halting together, fixed moving together, getting close, moving apart, stable*. The graphs are constructed per frame and are later concatenated along new temporal dimension before inputting to the Graph Network.

### 3.4. Graph Classification

For classification Dreher et al. (2020) utilize a Graph Neural Network. Graph Neural Networks as introduced in (Battaglia et al., 2018) are designed to operate on graph like structures. Following definitions from (Battaglia et al., 2018), a graph is given by a 3-tuple  $G = (u, V, E)$ . Here  $u$  is a global attribute of the graph,  $V$  and  $E$  the set of nodes and edges respectively. For each  $v_a \in V$  is represented by a node attribute. Each  $e \in E$  is given by  $e = (e_a, s, r)$ , where  $e_a$  is the edge attribute,  $s$  and  $r$  represent sender and receiver nodes. A Graph Network takes this graph as input and process its attributes and return the updated graph. A Graph Network can come in different types and can also be composed into bigger Graph Networks from smaller ones.

For the classification the *encode-process-decode* architecture was used (Battaglia et al., 2018). Here there are three components: *encoder, decoder and core*. Each of the component is represented by a Graph Network. This model takes the constructed scene graph  $G_{in}$  as input, where edge attribute  $e_a$  is given by the object relation and node attribute  $v_a$  is the detected object class. The output of the classifier is a probability distribution over possible actions encoded by the global attribute  $u$ . To also train the classifier for the left hand, the constructed scene graph is simply mirrored.

## 4. Experiments

### 4.1. Object-Agnostic Classifier

We tested the object-agnostic classifier on a dataset containing object and hand motion trajectories. Trajectories were

Table 1. Performance metric for action-only prediction

ACTION	PRECISION	RECALL	F1
NO-ACTION	0.99	0.96	0.97
GO-TO	0.78	0.89	0.83
PICK	1.0	0.93	0.96
LEAVE	0.78	0.96	0.86

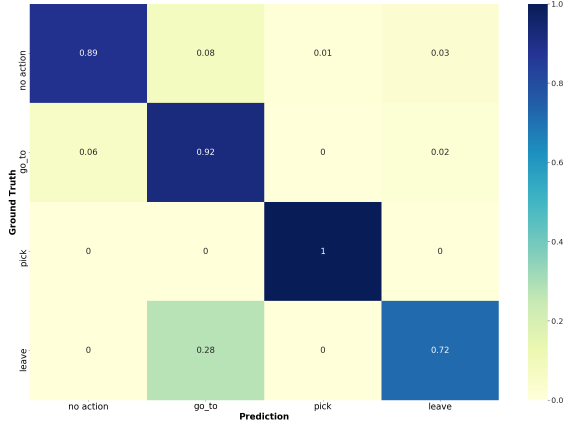


Figure 4. Confusion matrix for only action prediction

recorded for the objects : *dish, glass, tea, tomato*. In addition following actions were executed : *go-to, leave, pick, take*. The trajectories consists of position and orientation samples.

The classifier was tested on predicting action alone and prediction action and object combinations. Training was done on 60 of the data, and testing with 30 of the data. The remaining data was used for validation.

**Action Only Prediction** We first evaluate how the classifier performs when we only predict the actions. Actions are predicted given a time slice of 5 samples. Results can be seen in 1. For the confusion matrix please see 4.

**Action-Object Prediction** We evaluate the performance of predicting action explicitly and objects implicitly using the algorithm in 1. As before we take time slice of 5 samples as input for the classifier. The performance metrics can be viewed in table 3 and the confusion matrix in figure 5.

We can observe from figure 4 that most of the misclassifications can be attributed to confusing *go-to* with *no action* and vice versa. This could be possibly explained by the reason that *go-to* mostly involves hand motion whereas objects remain still. This is similar to when the classifier predicts *no action*. That is when object trajectory and hand motion trajectory taken as input are not linked to an action. Fur-

Table 2. Performance metric for action-object prediction

ACTION	PRECISION	RECALL	F1
GO-TO TOMATO	1.0	1.0	1.0
GO-TO DISH	0.94	0.78	0.86
GO-TO GLASS	1.0	0.93	0.96
PICK TOMATO	1.0	1.0	1.0
PICK DISH	1.0	1.0	1.0
PICK GLASS	1.0	1.0	1.0
LEAVE DISH	0.72	0.92	0.81

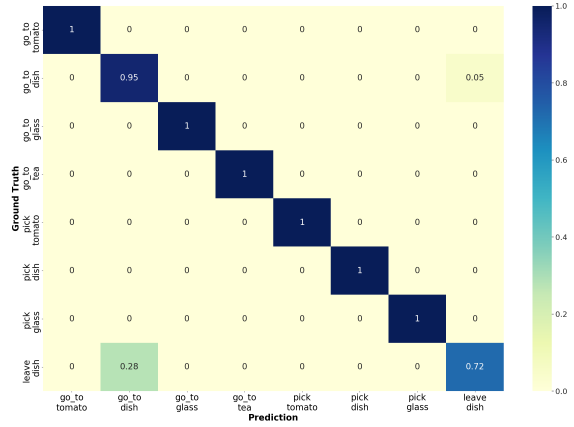


Figure 5. Confusion matrix for action-object prediction.

thermore, through the comparison between the confusion matrices 4 and 5, we can see that there are actually less missclassifications between actions when predict actions and objects. This is surprising, since we would expect lower performance due to an additional prediction task. However looking more closely, we actually include additional information through comparison of the classifier output for different objects. In other words, even-tough the hand motion trajectories remain the same, having different object trajectories as additional input changes the predicted action. Looking at this result, we could conclude that including object information that are not directly involved with the action could benefit our action recognition. This could also be a hint at a possible benefit of using graph structures to capture object information in the scene.

## 4.2. Graph Network Classifier

Results for the Graph Network are based on (Dreher et al., 2020). Therefore we will refer to the author’s results in this section and hope to produce our own results in near future. For evaluation a leave-one-subject-out cross validation is performed to obtain 6 folds of training and testing sets. The performance metrics s are listed in ?? . Furthermore figure 6



Table 3. Performance metric for action-object prediction

ACTION	PRECISION	RECALL	F1
IDLE	0.85	0.71	0.78
APPROACH	0.31	0.41	0.35
RETREAT	0.34	0.43	0.38
LIFT	0.32	0.50	0.39
PLACE	0.34	0.45	0.38
HOLD	0.82	0.64	0.72
POUR	0.66	0.65	0.66
CUT	0.74	0.67	0.70
HAMMER	0.64	0.56	0.60
SAW	0.68	0.58	0.63
STIR	0.92	0.84	0.88
SCREW	0.76	0.79	0.77
DRINK	0.70	0.71	0.70
WIPE	0.78	0.87	0.82

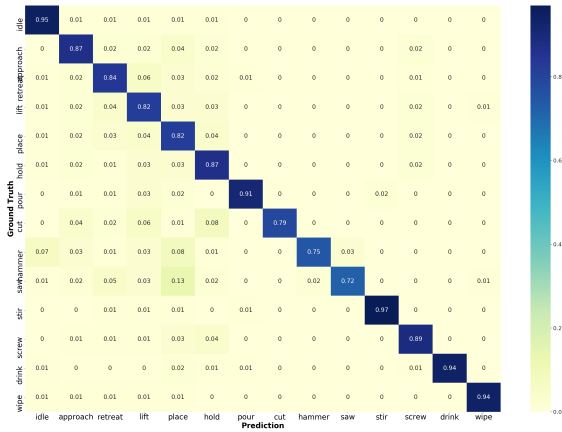


Figure 6. Confusion matrix for top action prediction. Should I cite him ?

The authors argue that some actions could not be distinguished because the scene graph needs to be extended with additional information. For example in order to distinguish between *drinking* and *holding*, one needs to add the head to the scene graph. Another problem encountered is the detection of bounding boxes for very thin objects like hammers.

## 5. Conclusions

The previously studied two models follow two different approaches. While the Graph Network represents object relations with a graph structure, the object-agnostic classifier avoids object labeling and only learns to predict actions from the object characteristics. We can say that the Graph Network has a different *inductive bias* than the object-agnostic classifier. An *inductive bias* is a structural difference of the learning algorithm causing it to prefer certain solutions or interpretation over others. For CNNs the bias would be

prefer to locality and translational invariance.

In our case both *inductive biases* for the Graph Network and the object-agnostic classifier have meaningful interpretations for SIL learning and robotics. On one hand the graph structure captures a holistic scene understanding involving object relations. This is helpful for SIL, since the actions the robot needs to learn has to be understood in the context of the surrounding objects. On the other for the object-agnostic classifier learning the meaning of an object for a particular action through the object’s characteristics instead of its labeling has an inherent benefit. For example, *orange* and *tomato* have different labeling, but a similar meaning for the action *cutting*.

Therefore in a future work, we hope to combine the benefits of *inductive biases* from both models. For example by using learned feature representations of objects characteristic as object node attributes for the Graph Neural Network.

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