

Teaching virtual agents to perform complex spatial-temporal activities

Tuan Do, Nikhil Krishnaswamy, and James Pustejovsky

Department of Computer Science

Brandeis University

Waltham, MA 02453 USA

{tuandn, nkrishna, jamesp}@brandeis.edu

Abstract

In this paper, we introduce a framework and our ongoing experiments in which computers learn to enact complex temporal-spatial actions by observing humans. Our framework processes motion capture data of human subjects performing actions, and uses qualitative spatial reasoning to learn multi-level representations for these actions. Using reinforcement learning, these observed sequences are used to guide a simulated agent to perform novel actions. To evaluate, we visualize the action being performed in an embodied 3D simulation environment, which allows evaluators to judge whether the system has successfully learned the novel concepts. This approach complements other planning approaches in robotics and demonstrates a method of teaching a robotic or virtual agent to understand predicate-level distinctions in novel concepts.

Motivation

The community surrounding “learning from (human) observation” (LfO) studies how computational and robotic agents can learn to perform complex task by observing humans (Young and Hawes 2015). Work in this area can be traced back to reinforcement learning studies by (Smart and Kaelbling 2002) or (Asada, Uchibe, and Hosoda 1999), and closely resembles the way humans learn. Children can imitate adults in a variety of household tasks, such as *pouring milk from a carton to a cup* or *cleaning a table*, and after one or a few observation(s), they can replicate the action with relative accuracy.

Most robots developed in the previous decades have shipped with pre-installed programs, limited to a set of predefined functionalities. Learning approaches in the robotics community seek to move toward smarter and more adaptable robots, for, among others, the following reasons:

- Consumer desire for mobile or household assistant robots that can perform multiple tasks with flexible apparatus, such as multiple grasping arms (Bogue 2017). Robots with behavioural robustness can learn from a wider range of experiences by running in a dynamic human environments (Hawes et al. 2017)
- Advances in deep learning have afforded robotic agents a high-level understanding of embedded semantics in multi-

ple modalities, including language, gesture, object recognition, and navigation. This increases the circumstances and modalities available for robotic learning.

Event recognition and classification have achieved recent relevance in human communication with robotic agents (Paul et al. 2017). Meanwhile, lexical computational semantic and approaches to events (e.g., Pustejovsky (1995), Pustejovsky and Moszkowicz (2011)) make it clear that event semantics are compositional with their arguments.

We have previously presented an approach toward facilitating human communication with a computational agent, using a rich model of events and their participants (Pustejovsky, Krishnaswamy, and Do 2017). Formally, we have devised a semantic framework *Multimodal Semantic Simulations (MSS)*, which can be used to encode events as programs in a dynamic logic with an operational semantics. Computationally, we have been looking at event representation through sequential modeling, using data from 3-dimensional video captures, to distinguish between different event classes (Do and Pustejovsky 2017a). In this work, we aim to bridge the gap between these two lines of research by proposing a methodology to learn programmatic event representations from linguistic and visual event representations.

Linguistic event representation in our framework is modeled as a verbal subcategorization in a frame theory, a la Framenet (Baker, Fillmore, and Lowe 1998), with thematic role arguments. However, we also account for *extra-verbal factors* in our event type distinction. For example, we consider *A moves B toward C* and *A moves B around C* to different event types and we learn each event type as a separate *atomic* action. By treating these actions as atomic, we avoid the complexity of modeling the composition of *verbs* and *motion-path adverbs*, which is usually inseparable given a sequence of feature vectors.

Our visual event representation comprises visual features extracted from tracked objects in captured videos or virtual object positions saved from a simulation environment. Both types of feature represent information visible to humans and observable by a machine in object state information. Using these data points and sequences, machines can observe humans performing actions through processing captured and annotated videos, while humans can observe machines performing actions through watching simulated scenes.

Programmatic event representation can be based on for-

mal event semantics or on features that can direct simulated or robotic agents to perform an action with an object of known properties. From a human perspective, the distinction between learning to recognize and learning to perform an action might be obvious. However from a machine’s perspective, these two tasks might require different learning methods. Our work aims to demonstrate that given an appropriate framework, it is feasible to map between them, in a manner similar to the way humans actually learn: by matching actions to observations.

In this paper, (1) we discuss related work in AI that focuses on then learning of action and object models, including our own past studies; (2) we discuss several technologies and machine learning methodologies that provide the foundation for our experiments; (3) we discuss two ongoing experiments: the first one to learn *atomic* actions, as discussed previously, and the second one to learn compositionality of these atomic actions for more complex actions; (4) we discuss our evaluation scheme and possible extensions to our framework.

Related Work

Work on action and object representation can generally be divided into two types of approaches: bottom-up approaches and top-down approaches.

Bottom-up approaches include both unsupervised and supervised feature-based learning. Work such as (Duckworth et al. 2016; Alomari et al. 2017) aims for unsupervised co-learning of object and event representations in the same step, and introduced the notion of a learned *concept* as an abstraction of feature spaces. In such a framework, “learnable” concepts are any distinctions meaningful to a human, such as a facial expression, color, object property, or action distinction, and these categories can then be assigned labels based on their commonly-occurring features. Notable supervised learning studies include (Koppula, Gupta, and Saxena 2013), which jointly models the human activities and object affordances, or attached behaviors which the object either facilitates by its geometry (which we term Gibsonian) (Gibson, Reed, and Jones 1982), or for which it is intended to be used (which we term “telic”) (Pustejovsky 1995). Such a model could be used to distinguish longer activities by means of labeling sub-activities and object affordances, for example, labeling a “meal preparation” and its different subtasks based on understanding the objects involved at each step.

The building block of our embodied event simulation is the modeling language known as VoxML (Visual Object Concept Markup Language) (Pustejovsky and Krishnaswamy 2016). We encode verbal programs into a dynamic logic format from which we can conduct programmatic planning of complex event from atomic subevents. This is a top-down approach in which verbs are encoded with their subevent structures into programmatic “voxemes,” or visual instantiations of lexemes which can then be visualized and enacted by an agent in a virtual environment. Subevent programs may themselves be linked to other voxemes, allowing for condition satisfaction as in Figure 1, where “touching” is defined as the RCC relation *EC* (externally connected). This is underspecified and may be further

constrained by relative orientations between the two objects involved: x and y .

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{touching} \\ \text{LEX} = \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{PRED} = \text{touching} \\ \text{CLASS} = \text{config} \\ \text{VALUE} = \text{EC} \\ \text{ARGS} = \left[\begin{array}{l} A_1 = x:3D \\ A_2 = y:3D \end{array} \right] \\ \text{CONSTR} = \text{nil} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

Figure 1: Sample voxeme: [[TOUCHING]]

We aim to unify the two broad types of approaches outlined above using a form of *apprenticeship learning*, wherein a learning model observes an expert demonstrating the task that we want it to learn to perform. We propose a model, cf. (Abbeel and Ng 2004), in which reinforcement learning is used as a backbone for planning, while estimating a reward function as measuring the progression of the event-actions to be learned.

Background

Simulators

VoxSim Our simulated environment is built in **VoxSim** (Krishnaswamy and Pustejovsky 2016), a semantically-informed visual event simulator built on top of the Unity game engine (Goldstone 2009). VoxSim contains a 3D agent capable of manipulating objects in the virtual world by creating parent-child relationships between the objects and its joints to simulate grasping. Assuming the simulated agent’s skeleton is isomorphic to the joint structure of a physical robot, this then allows us to simulate events in the 3D world that represent real-world events (such as moving the virtual robot around a virtual table that has blocks on it in a configuration that is generated from the positioning of real blocks on a real table). The embodied agent can perform a set of simple actions:

- *ENGAGE*: grasp object near its end-effector.
- *MOVE*(x): move end-effector (hand) to point x
- *DISENGAGE*: ungrasp current object, and retract the agent to standing position.

The simulation environment is used to demonstrate the agent’s understanding of learned behavior, by enacting new behaviors over a set of virtual objects. Scenes generated by VoxSim will be used to evaluate performance of the system, as discussed later.

Simplified Simulator For the updating loops in our reinforcement learning algorithm, we want to simulate observational data similar to the real captured data faster than real-time for effective computation. As a real-time, graphics heavy simulator, VoxSim is not feasible for this portion of the task. We are aware of a few other physical simulation environments such as Gazebo¹, but as we do not focus on physical constraints in this study, so we implemented our own simplified simulator in Python.

Our set of learnable actions is limited to ones that can be easily approximated in 2D space. 3D captured data is

¹<http://gazebo.org/>

transformed into simplified simulator space by projecting it onto a 2D plane defined by the surface of the table used for performing the captured interaction. Our 2D simulator has the following features:

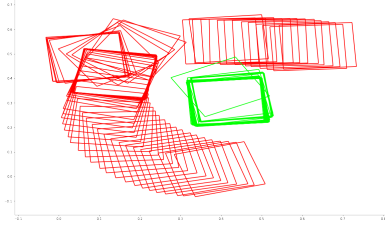


Figure 2: An event "Move A around B" projected into simulator. A is projected as a red square, B as a green square

- Each object is represented as a polygon (or square), with *transform* object that stores its position, rotation, and scale.
- The space is constrained so objects do not overlap.
- Speed can be specified so that object movement can be recorded as a sequence of feature vectors interpolated from frame to frame.

Qualitative Spatial Reasoning

Qualitative spatial reasoning (QSR), a sub-field of qualitative reasoning, is considered to be akin to the way humans understand geometry and space, due to the cognitive advantages of conceptual neighborhood relations and its ability to draw coarse inferences under uncertainty (Freksa 1992). It is also considered a promising framework in robotic planning (Cohn and Renz 2001). QSR allows formalization of many qualitative concepts, such as *near*, *toward*, *in*, *around*, and facilitates learning distinction between them (Do and Pustejovsky 2017b). The use of qualitative predicates ensure that scenes which are semantically close have very similar feature descriptions. We use the following QSR types for feature extraction.

- **CARDINAL DIRECTION** measures relations between two objects as compass directions (north, northeast, etc.)
- **MOVING or STATIC** measures whether a point is moving or not.
- **QUALITATIVE DISTANCE CALCULUS** discretizes the distance between two moving points, following (Yang and Webb 2009).
- **QUALITATIVE TRAJECTORY CALCULUS** is a representation of motions between two objects by considering them as two moving point objects (MPOs).

Event Annotation Framework

We use an event capture and annotation tool developed in our lab, ECAT (Do, Krishnaswamy, and Pustejovsky 2016), which employs Microsoft Kinect® to capture performers interacting with objects in a blocks world environment. Objects are tracked using markers fixed to their sides. They are then projected into three dimensional space using Depth of Field (DoF). Performers are also tracked using the Kinect® API, which provides three dimensional inputs of their joint points (e.g., wrist, palm, shoulder).

Learning Framework

Sequential Learning In this study, we consider a version of Long-short term memory (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber 1997) that processes sequential inputs to a sequence of output signals. LSTM has found utility in a range of problems involving sequential learning, such as speech and gesture recognition. Inputs are the feature vectors taken from action captures or from the simplified simulator and outputs are a function that correspond to the progress of an event. In particular, we create a function that takes a sequence S of feature vectors, current frame i and action e : $f(S, i, e) = 0 \leq q_i \leq 1$

The training set of sequential captured data is passed through an LSTM network, which is fitted to predict a linear progressing function. At the start or outside of an event span, the network produces 0, whereas at the end, it produces 1.

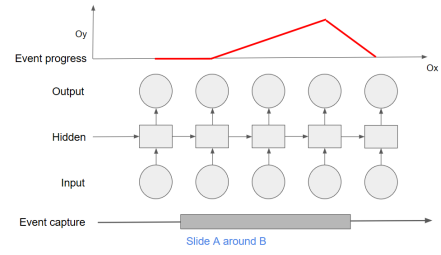


Figure 3: LSTM network producing event progress function

Reinforcement Learning The objective of the embodied agent is to generate a sequence of actions to attain a maximum reward, whereas our reward corresponds to how closely the produced object movement resembles movement of objects in the training data. Visual (tracked) information is used to evaluate performance of the system.

Currently, the action space is continuous. Therefore, planning is carried out by selecting the action at step k (u_k) based on the current state of the system ($X_k \in R^n$). A stochastic planning step is parameterized by policy parameters θ : $u_k \sim \pi_\theta(u_k|x_k)$

This type of parameterized reinforcement learning policies is best solved by using policy gradients (Gullapalli 1990; Peters and Schaal 2008). Here, we use the REINFORCE algorithm (Williams 1992), for its effectiveness in policy gradient learning.

We propose using a Gaussian distribution policy $\pi_\theta(u|x) = \text{Gaussian}(\mu, \sigma)$. For simplicity, the dimensions of μ and σ are the same as the degrees of freedom in our simplified simulator (2 dimensions for position and 1 dimension for rotation). An artificial neural network (ANN) will be used to produce values μ and σ . The set of weights in our ANN is the parameters θ in REINFORCE algorithm learned with gradient descent.

In future, we could generalize our algorithm to predict a Gaussian mixture policy instead, to allow more flexibility. For example, when a person moves *A next to B*, we can observe, because of the multiple possible contact points, that the distribution of *A*'s possible end positions is a multimodal one.

Input: Initial policy parameter θ , learning rate α ;
Result: Learned policy θ_{final}
for episode j do
 Initialization $\pi_\theta \leftarrow \theta$, randomize initial state in simulator space X_o , reward $r = 0$;
 while true do
 $current_step = k$;
 Draw set of N actions from policy distribution
 $u_{ki} \leftarrow \pi(\theta)$;
 for action u_{ki} do
 do action u_{ki} in simulator, record frame-to-frame sequential features, feed them into LSTM network to get progress output;
 calculate immediate reward as
 $r = \delta_f = f(after_the_action) - f(before_the_action)$
 end
 Select action u_k that leads to highest reward r_{max} ;
 if $r_{max} < 0$ then
 break;
 end
 do action u_k in simulator;
 get next state X_{k+1}
 end
 After episode terminates, obtain $X_{0:H}, u_{0:H}, r_{0:H}$;
 Estimate baseline b (Peters and Schaal 2008);
 Estimate gradient:

$$g = \langle (\sum_{h=0}^H \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(u_h | x_h)) (\sum_{h=0}^H a_h * r_h - b) \rangle$$

end
Until: $j > Max_episode$ or gradient converges

Algorithm 1: Williams Episodic REINFORCE algorithm

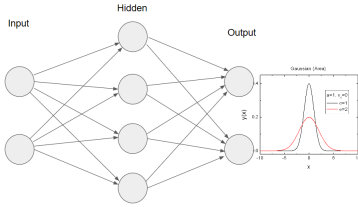


Figure 4: An ANN architecture producing Gaussian policy

Experiments

Here we describe two ongoing experiments.

Experiment 1: Learn to perform an atomic action

In this experiment, we are looking to use the learning framework drafted above for learning agent to perform a set of *atomic actions*. Atomic actions are ones when a performer interacts directly with only (or mostly) one object while the other objects stay relatively static and the interaction only takes over a continuous span.

1. An agent moves {object A} **closer to** {object B}
2. An agent moves {object A} **away from** {object B}

3. An agent moves {object A} **past** {object B}
4. An agent moves {object A} **next to** {object B}
5. An agent moves {object A} **around** {object B}

For each action type, we are capturing 40 sessions of two different performers for variation. Block positions are randomized at the setup. We mark the beginning and end of the captured action and give it a textual description.

We generate frame-by-frame feature vectors by employing the set of aforementioned QSR features: cardinal direction and qualitative distance between objects' positions and frame-to-frame difference; qualitative trajectory for each objects and frame-to-frame difference. These features are used only for the sequential model to predict event progress, where as we use objects' parameters (positions and rotations) of two consecutive frames as state of the system X_k .

Experiment 2: Learn to perform a compound action

In this experiment, we are testing if the virtual agent could use what it has already learned to learn more complex actions. The set of actions we want it to learn, in theory, can be composed of the atomic actions from the first experiment:

1. Agent groups 3 objects together: could be formalized as "move A closer to B" then "move C closer to A-B".
2. Agent scatters 3 objects on table: could be formalized as "move C away from A-B" then "move B away from A".
3. Agent makes a row from 3 objects: could be formalized as "move A next to B" then "move C next to A-B".

We propose using our event progress function to test the interval-containment relationship between a compound action and an atomic action. We should note the difficulty here, such as for "make a row from three objects", the second move might not create a valid row. By experimenting with different representations of the composite object A-B, we hypothesize that we can learn an appropriate relation between the composite object and the newly moved block.

Evaluation And Discussions

VoxSim can be used to evaluate the results of these experiments, but creating a testbed scene with blocks on a table, similar to the setup used in video captures. For each randomized configuration of objects (block positions and rotations), we would command the virtual agent to perform one of the action, and the scene would be recorded for evaluators to judge its performance.

Evaluations of this type using VoxSim-generated scenes have already been conducted in (Krishnaswamy 2017; Krishnaswamy and Pustejovsky 2017), using Amazon Mechanical Turk to crowdsource judgments. Human judgments of a scene are given as "acceptable" or "unacceptable" relative to the event's linguistic description. We can assess the probability that for a given scene, an arbitrary judge would judge it acceptable for its label, conditioned on the sequence of atomic events used to simulate the complex event. In this way we can assess the success of this method of learning complex actions relative to a ground truth established by a human "corpus."

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