

Playing Games with Implicit Human Feedback

Duo Xu*, Mohit Agarwal*, Faramarz Fekri and Raghupathy Sivakumar

Georgia Institute of Technology

Atlanta, GA, 30332

{dxu301, mohit, fekri, siva}@ece.gatech.edu

Abstract

Providing Reinforcement Learning (RL) agents with human feedback can dramatically improve various aspects of learning. However, previous methods require human observer to give inputs explicitly (e.g., press buttons, voice interface), burdening the human in the loop of RL agent’s learning process. Further, it is sometimes difficult or impossible to obtain the explicit human advice (feedback), e.g., autonomous driving, disabled rehabilitation, etc. In this work, starting from game playing, we investigate capturing human’s intrinsic reactions as implicit (and natural) feedback through EEG in the form of error-related potentials (ErrP), providing a natural and direct way for humans to improve the RL agent learning in various visual-based games. As such, the human intelligence can be integrated via implicit feedback with RL algorithms to accelerate the learning of RL agent. We develop three reasonably complex 2D discrete navigational games to experimentally evaluate the overall performance of the proposed work. Major contributions of our work are as follows,

(i) we propose and experimentally validate the zero-shot learning of ErrPs, where the ErrPs can be learned for one game, and transferred to other unseen games, (ii) we propose a novel RL framework for integrating implicit human feedbacks via ErrPs with RL models, improving the label efficiency and reducing human cognitive load, and (iii) compared to prior works, we scale the application of ErrPs to reasonably complex environments, and demonstrate the significance of our approach for accelerated learning through real user experiments.

Introduction

AI systems are increasingly applied to real-world tasks that involve interaction with humans. And humans are often in the loop of the RL agent’s learning process. Self-driving cars learn with humans ready to intervene in dangerous situations. Facebook’s algorithm for recommending trending news stories has humans filtering out inappropriate content. Therefore RL with *human-in-the-loop* has inspired several research efforts where either an alternative (or supplementary) feedback is obtained from the human participant, such

as human rankings or ratings (El Asri et al. 2016), human robot interaction and rehabilitation engineering for the disabled (Iturrate, Montesano, and Minguez 2010; Knox 2012), or the learning is performed through human demonstrations (Ng, Harada, and Russell 1999). Such approaches with explicit human input despite being highly effective, severely burdens the human interacting with RL agent. Further, it is difficult or even impossible to obtain the explicit human feedback in various situations, e.g., autonomous driving, disabled users, etc.

In this paper, we investigate an alternative paradigm that substantially increases the richness of the reward functions, while not severely burdening the human-in-the-loop. We study the use of electroencephalogram (EEG) based brain waves of the human-in-the-loop to generate the reward functions that can be used by the DRL algorithms. Such a model will benefit from the natural rich activity of a powerful sensor (the human brain), but at the same time not burden the human if the activity being relied upon is *intrinsic*. This paradigm is inspired by a high-level error-processing system in humans that generates error-related potential/negativity (ErrP or ERN) (Scheffers et al. 1996). When a human recognizes an error made by an agent, the elicited ErrP can be captured through EEG to inform agent about the sub-optimality of the taken action in the particular state.

As a baseline contribution, we demonstrate the feasibility of capturing error-potentials of a human observer watching an agent learning to play several different Atari-games, and then decoding the signals appropriately and using them as an auxiliary reward function to a DRL algorithm. We show that a *full access* approach, inquiring human feedback on every state-action pair visited by RL agent, can significantly speedup the training convergence of DRL algorithm. We contend that while obtaining such implicit human feedback through EEG is less burdensome, it is still a time-intensive task for the subject and the experimenter alike. This, combined with the noisy EEG signals and stochasticity in inferring error-potentials, raises significant challenges in terms of the practicality of the solution.

In this context, we first argue that the definition of ErrPs is generalizable across different environments. We show that ErrPs of an observer can be learned for a specific game,

*equal contribution

and the definition used as-is for another game without requiring re-learning of the ErrP. This is notably different from previous approaches (Chavariaga and Millán 2010; Salazar-Gomez et al. 2017), where the labeled ErrPs are obtained in the same environment (where the RL task is performed). For any new and unseen environment, it does not require the human to go through the training phase again, and assumes no prior knowledge about the optimal state-action pairs of the environment.

We present a framework to integrate DRL with human intelligence based on the implicit human feedback mechanism (via ErrP) in a practical, sample-efficient manner. This reduces the cost of human supervision sufficiently allowing the DRL systems to train. Our proposed framework allows humans to provide their feedback implicitly before the agent starts training. Based on the human feedback obtained during pre-training, a quality (Q) function is learned over these imperfect demonstrations to provide the supplementary reward to the RL agent. We present results from real ErrP experiments to evaluate the acceleration in learning, and sample efficiency, in the proposed frameworks. In summary, the novel contributions of our work are,

1. We demonstrate the generalizability of error-potentials over various Atari-like environments (discrete grid-based navigation games, studied in this work), enabling the estimation of implicit human feedback in new and unseen environments.
2. We propose a novel RL framework to integrate DRL model with implicit human feedback via ErrP in a practical, sample-efficient manner. Based on the proposed framework of learning from imperfect demonstrations, we only need human ErrP labels on the demonstrations given initially, reducing the number of inquiring human feedback without performance degradation.
3. We scale the implicit human feedback (via ErrP) based RL to reasonably complex environments and demonstrate the significance of our approach through experiments on various human subjects.

Related Work

(Daniel et al. 2015; El Asri et al. 2016; Wang, Liang, and Manning 2016) studied RL from human rankings or ratings, however rely on explicit human feedback, and assume that the feedback is noiseless. Demonstrations have been commonly used to improve the efficiency of RL (Kim et al. 2013; Chemali and Lazaric 2015; Piot, Geist, and Pietquin 2014), and a common paradigm is to initialize RL algorithms with good policy or Q function (Nair et al. 2018; Hester et al. 2018; Gao et al. 2018). In this work, we use rely on implicit feedback from non-expert humans (via ErrPs) which is inherently noisy.

(Chavariaga and Millán 2010; Iturrate, Montesano, and Minguez 2010; Salazar-Gomez et al. 2017) demonstrate the benefit of ErrPs in a very simple setting (i.e., very small state-space), and use ErrP-based feedback as the only reward. Moreover, in all of these works, the ErrP decoder is trained on a similar game (or robotic task), essentially using the knowledge that is supposed to be unknown in the RL

task. In our work, we use labeled ErrPs examples of very simple and known environments to train the ErrP decoder, and combine with the recent advances in DRL in a sample-efficient manner for reasonably complex environments.

Preliminaries and Setup

Definitions Consider a Markov Decision Process (MDP) problem M , as a tuple $\langle \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{A}, P, P_0, R, \gamma \rangle$, with state-space \mathcal{X} , action-space \mathcal{A} , transition kernel P , initial state distribution P_0 , accompanied with reward function R , and discounting factor $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$. Here the random variable $Z(s, a)$ denotes the accumulated discounted future rewards starting from state s and action a . In this work, we only consider MDP with discrete actions and states. In model-free RL method, the central idea of most prominent approaches is to learn the Q-function by minimizing the Bellman residual, i.e., $\mathcal{L}(Q) = E_{\pi}[(Q(x, a) - r - \gamma Q(x', \hat{a}))^2]$, and temporal difference (TD) (Tesauro 1995) update where the transition tuple (x, a, r, x') consists of a consecutive experience under behavior policy π . Modern techniques in DRL such as DQN (Mnih et al. 2015) and the target network (Van Hasselt, Guez, and Silver 2016) are also adopted here.

Bayesian Deep Q Network We introduce the DQN model adopted in this paper. *Bayesian DQN* is a neural architecture where the Q-function is approximated as a linear function, weighted by $\omega_a, a \in \mathcal{A}$, of the feature representation of states $\phi_{\theta}(x) \in R^d$, parameterized by neural network with weights θ (Osband, Russo, and Van Roy 2013). Here by utilizing the DQN architecture and imposing Gaussian distributions over ω_a , the Bayesian linear regression (BLR) (Rasmussen 2003) can give us the posterior of ω_a as below

$$\omega_a \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\omega}_a, Cov_a), \quad \bar{\omega}_a := \frac{1}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} Cov_a \Phi_a^{\theta} y_a,$$

$$Cov_a := \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} \Phi_a^{\theta} \Phi_a^{\theta T} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} I \right)^{-1}, \quad a \in \mathcal{A} \quad (1)$$

where we construct disjoint replay buffer \mathcal{D}_a corresponding to experience with action a , and a matrix $\Phi_a^{\theta} \in R^{d \times |\mathcal{D}_a|}$, vector y_a , i.e., the concatenation of state features and target values in set \mathcal{D}_a . Therefore the posterior of Q value can be the Gaussian distribution as below,

$$Q(x, a) \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\omega}_a^T \phi_{\theta}(x), \phi_{\theta}(x)^T Cov_a \phi_{\theta}(x)) \quad (2)$$

System Setup and Data Collection

We consider a setup where a non-expert human is silently observing (and assessing) a computer agent (driven by RL) interacting with an environment. The human’s intrinsic reactions to the agent’s behavior is sensed as implicit feedback by placing electrodes on the human scalp and monitoring what are known as event-related potentials (ErrPs). The implicit feedback is then used to augment the agent’s learning in the RL tasks. We develop a system to obtain and accurately decode the implicit human feedback (specifically error-related event potentials) for state-action pairs in an Atari-type environment.

Game Environments We have developed three discrete-grid based navigation games in OpenAI Gym emulating Atari framework (Brockman et al. 2016), namely (i) Wobble, (ii) Catch, and (iii) Maze, shown in Fig. 1(a). We use the default Atari dimensions (i.e., 210x160 pixels). The source codes of the games can be found in the public repository¹, and can be used with the OpenAI Gym module.

Wobble: Wobble is a simple 1-D cursor-target game, where the middle horizontal plane is divided into 20 discrete blocks. At the beginning of the game, the cursor appears at the center of the screen, and the target appears no more than three blocks away from the cursor position. The action space for the agent is moving one step either left or right. The game is finished when the cursor reaches the target. Once the game is finished, a new game is started with the cursor in place.

Catch: Catch is a simplistic version of *Eggomania*² (Atari 2600 benchmark), where we display a single egg on the screen at a time. The screen dimensions are divided into 10x10 grid space, where the *egg* and the *cart*, both occupies one block. The action space of the agent consists of “NOOP” (no operation), “moving left” and “moving right”. At the start of the game, the horizontal position of the egg is chosen randomly. At each time step, the *egg* falls one block in the vertical direction.

Maze: Maze is a 2-D navigational game, where the agent has to reach to a fixed target. The Atari screen is centered and divided into 10x10 equal-sized blocks. The agent and target occupy one block. The action space consists of four directional movements. The maze architecture is kept fixed for the purpose of this work. If an agent moves, but hits a wall, a quick blinking of the agent is displayed, to show the action taken by the agent.

EEG experimental protocol: We designed and developed an experimental protocol, where a machine agent plays a computer game, while a human silently observes (and assesses) the actions taken by the machine agent. These implicit human reactions are captured by placing raw electrodes on the scalp of the human brain in the form of EEG. The electrode cap was attached with the OpenBCI³ platform, which was further connected to a desktop machine over the wireless channel. In the game design (developed on OpenAI Gym), we open a TCP port, and continuously transmit the current state-action pair using the TCP/IP protocol. We used OpenViBE software (Renard et al. 2010) to record the human EEG data. OpenViBE continuously listens to the TCP port (for state-action pairs), and timestamps the EEG data in a synchronized manner. A total of five human subjects were recruited using standard procedures. We recruited five human subjects (mean age 26.8 ± 1.92 , 1 female) for collecting the EEG data. For each subject, we conducted three separate sessions over multiple days. For each subject-game pair, the experimental duration was less than 15 minutes. The agent took action every 1.5 seconds. All the research protocols for the user data collection were reviewed and approved by the Georgia Tech Institutional Review Board.

¹<https://github.com/meagmohit/gym-maze>

²<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eggomania>

³<http://openbci.com>

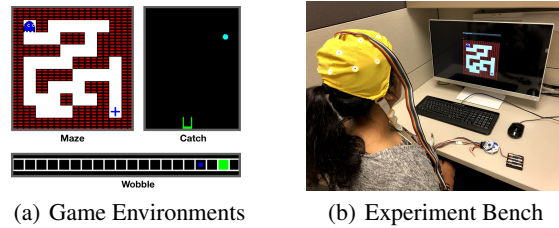


Figure 1: Experimental framework

Integrating DRL with Implicit Human Feedback: A Naive Approach

In this section, we provide our baseline contribution, i.e., (i) we demonstrate the feasibility of capturing error-potentials of a human observer watching an agent learning to play several different Atari-games using EEG, and then decoding the signals appropriately, and (ii) using them as an auxiliary reward function to a DRL algorithm with the intent of accelerating its learning of the game.

Obtaining the Implicit Human Feedback: Decoding ErrPs

We rely on the Riemannian Geometry framework for the classification of human’s intrinsic reaction (captured in the form of ErrPs) (Barachant and Congedo 2014; Congedo, Barachant, and Andreev 2013). We consider the classification of error-related potentials as a binary classification task indicating the presence (i.e., action taken by the agent is incorrect) and absence of error (i.e., action taken by the agent is correct). The Riemannian Geometry based framework was first proposed in (Barachant and Congedo 2014; Congedo, Barachant, and Andreev 2013) to translate the raw EEG signals into meaningful labels⁴. The raw EEG data is bandpass filtered in [0.5, 40] Hz. Epochs of 800ms were extracted relative to pre-stimulus 200ms baseline, and were subjected to spatial filtering. In spatial filtering, prototype responses of each class, i.e., “correct” and “erroneous”, are computed by averaging all training trials in the corresponding classes (“xDAWN Spatial Filter” (Rivet et al. 2009; Barachant and Congedo 2014; Congedo, Barachant, and Andreev 2013)). “xDAWN filtering” projects the EEG signals from sensor space (i.e., electrode space) to the source space (i.e., a low-dimensional space constituted by the actual neuronal ensembles in brain firing coherently). The covariance matrix of each epoch is computed, and concatenated with the prototype responses of the class. Further, dimensionality reduction is achieved by selecting relevant channels through backward elimination (Barachant and Bonnet 2011). The filtered signals are projected to the tangent space (Barachant et al. 2013; 2011) for feature extraction. The obtained feature vector is first normalized (using L1 norm) and fed to a regularized regression model. A threshold value is selected for the final decision by maximizing accuracy offline on the

⁴The authors successfully applied the framework and won multiple Kaggle challenges. E.g., <https://www.kaggle.com/c/inria-bci-challenge>. Later, this framework was successfully adapted in many other error-potential decoding works (Salazar-Gomez et al. 2017).

training set. We present the algorithm to decode the ErrP signals in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1: Riemannian Geometry based ErrP classification algorithm (Barachant et al. 2013)

Input : raw EEG signals EEG

- 1 Pre-process raw EEG signals ;
 - 2 Spatial Filtering: xDAWN Spatial Filter ($nfilter$) ;
 - 3 Electrode Selection: ElectrodeSelect ($nelec$, $metric='riemann'$) ;
 - 4 Tangent Space Projection : TangentSpace($metric = "logeuclid"$) Normalize using L1 norm ;
 - 5 Regression: ElasticNet ;
 - 6 Select decision threshold by maximizing accuracy
-

The Full Access Method

With the availability of implicit human feedback, we explore how the training of state-of-the-art DRL algorithms can be accelerated. A naive approach is to obtain feedback on every state-action pair while RL agent is learning (also known as *full access*). It is to add a negative penalty to the reward whenever ErrP is detected, and keep using the original reward from the environment whenever ErrP is not detected. The evaluation result of this method based on real ErrP data are presented later in the evaluation section, validating that this method can speed up the training convergence of RL agent significantly. However, obtaining the human feedback for every state-action pair is time-intensive and undesirable from a practical point of view. Ideally, an approach is desirable where the human feedback is obtained only for state-action pairs for which the learning agent has highest uncertainty.

Towards Practical Integration of DRL with Implicit Human Feedback

In this section, we propose two approaches towards integrating human implicit feedback with recent advances in DRL and make the ErrP-augmented RL deployable into practical system. Firstly, we show that ErrPs of an observer can be learned for a specific game, and the definition used as-is for another game without requiring re-learning of the ErrP. Further, in order to utilize ErrP data more efficiently, we propose a RL framework to integrate RL with the implicit human feedback mechanism (via ErrP) to accelerate the RL agent’s learning process. Specifically, we first obtain the implicit human feedback before the training of the RL agent. It exploits the initially given trajectories criticized by ErrP labels and learn a reward function for augmenting the following RL agent, where human with some prior knowledge is needed to specify some perturbed expert trajectories. Recently, Q function is shown to have better generalization in state-space if trained expert demonstrations perturbed by some noise (Laskey et al. 2017; Luo, Xu, and Ma 2019).

ErrP Generalization across Environments

Error-potentials in the EEG signals is studied under two major paradigms in human-machine interaction tasks, (i) *feedback and response ErrPs*: error made by human (Carter et al. 1998; Falkenstein et al. 2000; Blankertz et al. 2003; Parra et al. 2003; Holroyd and Coles 2002), (ii) *interaction ErrPs*: error made by machine in interpreting human intent (Ferrez and Millán 2005). Another interesting paradigm is when human is watching (and silently assessing) the machine performing a specific task (Chavarriaga and Millán 2010). The manifestation of these potentials across these paradigms were found quite similar in terms of their general shape, timings of negative and positive peaks, frequency characteristics etc., (Ferrez and Millán 2005; Chavarriaga and Millán 2010). This prompts us to explore the consistency of the error-potentials across different environments (i.e., games, in our case). We restrict the scope of our work to the paradigm of human acting as a silent observer of the machine actions. In Fig.2, we plot the grand average waveforms across three environments (Maze, Catch and Wobble), to visually validate the consistency of potentials. We can see that the shape of negativity, and the timings of the peaks is quite consistent across the three game environments studied in this work. Further, in experimental evaluation section, we show that error-potentials are indeed generalizable across environments, and can further be used to inform deep reinforcement learning algorithm in a new and unseen environments.

Proposed Framework: Learning from Imperfect Demonstrations with Human ErrP

RL algorithms deployed in the environment with sparse rewards demand heavy explorations (require a large number of trial-and-errors) during the initial stages of training. Imitation learning from a small number of demonstrations followed by RL fine-tuning is a promising paradigm to improve the sample efficiency in such cases (Večerík et al. 2017; Hester et al. 2018; Gao et al. 2018). Inspired by the paradigm of imitation learning, we develop a novel framework that can robustly learn a reward function to augment the DRL algorithms and accelerate the training of the RL agent. This reward function is derived from reward learning with imperfect demonstrations and human critique, inquiring the human feedback in the form of ErrP over a set of trajectories.

The flowchart of the proposed learning framework is shown in Fig. 3. In this framework, trajectories in the demonstration are first criticized by human ErrP in ErrP experiments, and then with ErrP labels decoded from the decoder, in the reward learning step, a quality (Q) function is learned from the trajectories where the correctness of state-action pairs is given by ErrP labeling. An alternative reward can be derived from the learned quality function, to augment the following RL agent. Here we only make queries for ErrP labeling on trajectories given initially, instead of inquiring in every training step in the *full access* method. So the number of ErrP queries needed can be reduced significantly here. These queries are made before the RL agent starts training, improving the efficiency of labeling (implicit, ErrP based) queries made to the external oracle (human). Constraint by

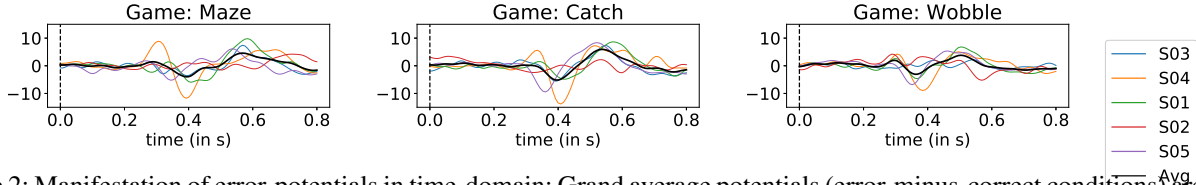


Figure 2: Manifestation of error-potentials in time-domain: Grand average potentials (error-minus-correct conditions) are shown for Maze, Catch and Wobble game environments. Thick black line denotes the average over all the subjects.

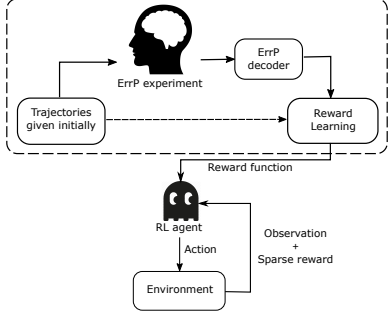


Figure 3: Learning from imperfect demonstration with implicit human feedback. The dashed arrow shows trajectories in $\mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_R$ are all used in reward learning

the coherence requirement in EEG experiments, the demonstrations for ErrP labeling can only consist of complete trajectories. We assume that the trajectories in the demonstration are initially specified by human or other external algorithms, without any reward information. This is a reasonable assumption since the reward function may be unknown to humans in general cases. In ErrP experiment, the human subject provides implicit feedback (via ErrP) on state-action pairs along the trajectories, labeling every pair as a *positive* or *negative* sample corresponding to the correctness from human judgement. Based on the decoded ErrP labels and trajectories, the proposed framework learns the reward function based on maximum entropy RL methods (Ziebart 2010), which is explained with details in the following.

Different from regular imitation learning, here these trajectories are not exactly same as expert demonstrations. This is beneficial, because the Q function learned from imperfect trajectories can have better estimations on states unseen in the demonstration, providing better generalization in the state space (Laskey et al. 2017; Luo, Xu, and Ma 2019).

Reward Learning Since implicit human feedback via ErrP is noisy (hence *imperfect demonstrations*), we model the reward learning as a probabilistic maximum entropy RL problem. Following the principle of maximum entropy, given Q function $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$, the policy distribution and value function in terms of Q function can be expressed as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} V_Q(s) &= \alpha \log \sum_a \exp(Q(s, a)/\alpha), \\ \pi_Q(a|s) &= \exp((Q(s, a) - V_Q(s))/\alpha) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where α is a free parameter, tuned empirically. The likelihood of positive and negative state-action pair are denoted as $\pi_Q(a|s)$ and $1 - \pi_Q(a|s)$. When demonstrations and corresponding implicit human feedback are ready, we train the

Q function by maximizing the likelihood of both positive and negative state-action pairs in the demonstrations, which is to maximize the following objective,

$$\begin{aligned} J_1(Q) &:= \sum_{(s,a) \in \mathcal{D}} \pi_Q(a|s)(1 - ErrP(s, a)) \\ &\quad + (1 - \pi_Q(a|s))ErrP(s, a) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where the binary variable $ErrP(s, a)$ denotes the correctness of state-action pair from human feedback.

In order to refine the reward shape and attenuate the variance of learning updates, we introduce another baseline function $t(s)$. Hence, the Q function becomes $Q_B(s, a) := Q(s, a) - t(s)$. It can be proved that $Q_B(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ induce the same optimal policy (Ng, Harada, and Russell 1999). The baseline function $t^*(\cdot)$ can be learned by optimizing $t^* = \arg \min_t J_2(t)$, and the objective is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} J_2(t) &:= \sum_{(s,a,s') \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_R} l(Q(s, a) - t(s) \\ &\quad - \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} (Q(s', a') - t(s'))) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where the loss function $l(\cdot)$ is chosen to be l_1 -norm via empirical evaluations. In addition to the demonstration \mathcal{D} , we incorporate another set of demonstrations \mathcal{D}_R , containing transitions randomly sampled from environment without reward information. The set \mathcal{D}_R is to help the function $t(\cdot)$ to efficiently learn the state dynamics, and does not require any human labeling, essentially not increasing the labeling workload. After reward learning, consisting of learning Q function and baseline function, for any transition tuple (s, a, s') , the learned reward function can be represented as $Q_B(s, a) - \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q_B(s', a')$. We then use this reward function to augment the following RL agent.

Experimental Results

Baseline results: Naive Approach

We first validate the feasibility of decoding ErrP signals using a 10-fold cross-validation scheme for each game. In this scheme, we train and test on the ErrP samples of the same game environment. In Fig. 4(a), we show the performance of three games in terms of Area Under Curve (AUC) score, sensitivity and specificity, averaged over 5 subjects. The Maze game has the highest AUC score (0.89 ± 0.05) followed by Catch (0.83 ± 0.08) and Wobble (0.77 ± 0.09).

The *full access* method as discussed above is the most preliminary approach to make ErrP labels augment the RL algorithm. It has the fastest training convergence rate (provides upper bound) but makes the maximum possible queries to the external oracle (human) for the implicit feedback. We

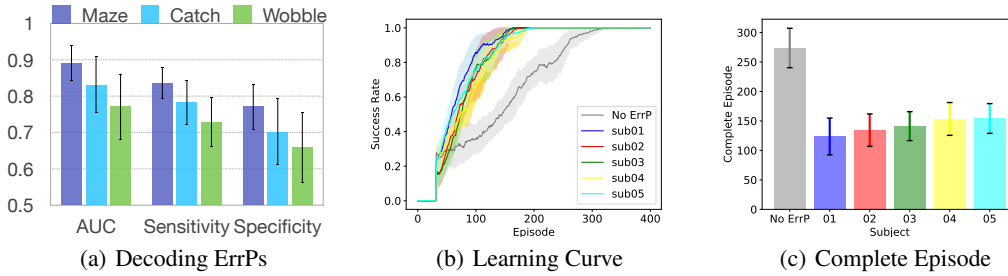


Figure 4: Baseline results of Naive Approach: (a) 10-fold CV performance of each game without any generalization, (b) and (c) RL with *full access* to ErrP feedback

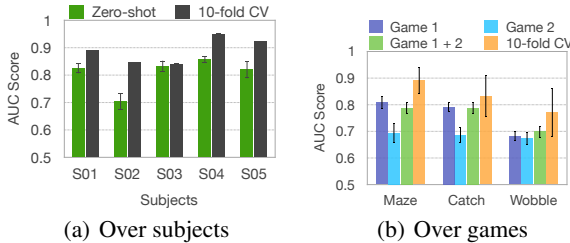


Figure 5: Generalizability of ErrP: (a) from Catch to Maze over subjects compared with 10-fold CV, (b) over all combinations of three games compared with 10-fold CV.

use this method as a benchmark for comparing the data-efficiency of other RL augmentation methods. The results with real ErrP data of 5 subjects are shown in Figure 4. We can see there is a significant improvement in the training convergence. In this paper, "No ErrP" method refers to regular RL algorithms without the help of any human feedback. The success rate is defined as the ratio of success plays in the previous 32 episodes. The training completes when the success rate reaches to 1. In all plots of this paper, solid lines are average values over 10 random seeds, and shaded regions correspond to one standard deviation. In the evaluations of this paper, the Q network is modeled by the Bayesian deep Q network introduced above.

Evaluation of practical solution

In this subsection, we evaluate the performance of three approaches to practically integrate the DRL with implicit human feedback (via ErrPs).

Generalizability To evaluate the generalization capability of error-potential signals and the decoding algorithm, we train on the samples collected from the Catch game and test on the Maze game. We assume that the information about state-action optimality is given for the Catch game, and thus labeled examples are obtained for the Catch game to train the ErrP decoder. However, the Maze game need to be solved, hence, we do not make any assumptions about the optimality of the actions. In Fig. 5(a), we provide the AUC score performance compared with the 10-fold Cross-Validation (CV) AUC score of Maze. We can see that the Catch game is able to capture more than 80% of the variability in the ErrPs for Maze game. To provide deeper insights into the generalizability extent, we present the AUC score of generalizability performance over all combinations in fig. 5(b). In fig. 5(b), for Maze, Game 1 and 2 refers to Catch and Wobble respectively. Similarly, for Catch, they refer to Maze and

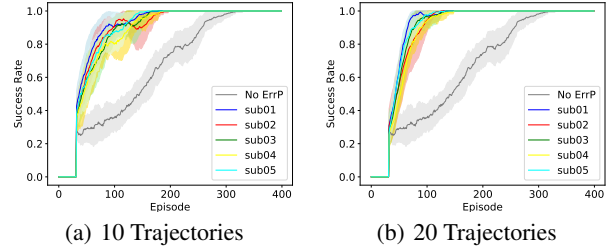


Figure 6: Evaluation of the proposed RL Framework.

Wobble respectively, and for Wobble, they refer to Maze and Catch. In the later subsections, we experimentally show that these performance numbers are sufficient to achieve 2.25x improvement in training time (in terms of the number of episodes required).

We performed preliminary experiments to gain fundamental insights into the extent of generalizability. All the three games considered in this work, differ in terms of their action space. Wobble can move either left or right (two actions), Catch has an additional "NOOP" (3 actions), and the agent in the Maze can move in either direction (4 actions). To understand the generalizability of ErrP in terms of the actions taken by the agent, we train on the Wobble, and test on the Catch game for two groups - (i) when the agent moves in either direction, and (ii) when the agent stays in the place. We obtain an average AUC score of $0.7359 (\pm 0.1294)$ and $0.6423 (\pm 0.1451)$ for both groups, respectively. Through a paired t-test, we found the difference in mean statistically significant. Similarly, for the Catch game, we test two groups - (i) when *egg* is close to the *paddle*, and (ii) when *egg* is far from the *paddle*. We found the mean AUC scores of $0.71 (\pm 0.1)$ and $0.84 (\pm 0.12)$ for each group, respectively. The difference of the mean of both groups was found statistically significant.

Evaluation of the Proposed Framework For the evaluation of the proposed framework, imperfect trajectories for the Maze game were generated based on the optimal paths corrupted by randomly chosen wrong actions, i.e., at every state, agent took a wrong action with the probability of 0.2 along the trajectory. Prior to training the RL agent, each human subject provided implicit feedback (via ErrP) as explained in the experimental protocol on the state-action pairs along these trajectories. The performance of the proposed approach was evaluated with 10 and 20 initial trajectories, each for 5 subjects. We use the Bayesian DQN as the DRL model.

Table 1: Average Number of Queries on Maze Game

Subject	01	02	03	04	05
Full access	1879.4	2072.1	2293.7	1975.4	2130.1
Proposed method	505.7	394.7	587.1	681.4	361.3

The acceleration performance of Bayesian DQN with human feedback is shown in Figure 6(a) for 10 trajectories. We can see the significant acceleration in training convergence in Figure 6(a) in terms of the *success rate* for 5 subjects and compared against the case of *No ErrP*, i.e. *no human feedback*. Subject 01 has the highest fidelity for error-potentials, and hence, RL algorithm converges at much faster rate when relies upon the feedback obtained by Subject 01. It is evident from the results that the error-potential decoding performance is sufficient to achieve around 2x improvement in training time (in terms of the number of episodes required). Similarly, Figure 6(b) shows the *success rate* and convergence curve for training to complete, for 20 trajectories. Comparing Figure 6(a) and (b), we can see that the training converges at much faster rate when the number of initial trajectories are increased. Further, the learning variance is also decreased with more trajectories. The comparison between Figure 6 and Figure 4(c) shows that the proposed framework learns faster than No-ErrP case, while outperforming the *full access* case, even though *full access* requires significantly larger amount of queries. We also compare the number of ErrP queries for *full access* and proposed method in Table 1, according to the statistics on experiments with 20 trajectories. On an average for 5 subjects, the proposed approach makes 75.56% less queries as compared to the *full access*. As *full access* queries for feedback label at every learning step, while the proposed framework queries only on the trajectories given initially, the total number of queries made are significantly reduced.

Conclusions and Future Work

We first demonstrate the feasibility of capturing error-potentials of a human observer watching an agent learning to play several different Atari-games, and then decoding the signals appropriately and using them as an auxiliary reward function to accelerate the learning process of an RL agent. Then we argue that the definition of ErrPs is generalizable across different game environments. In the ideal approach, we validate the acceleration effect of ErrP labels on the RL agent by the *full access* method. Then, in the practical approach, we propose an RL framework, based on imitation learning. It is to learn a reward function from imperfect demonstrations criticized by ErrP labeling.

The demonstration of the generalizability of error-potentials is limited across the environments presented in the paper. We have considered discrete grid-based reasonably complex navigation games. The validation of the generalization to a variety of Atari and Robotic environments is the subject of future work. We plan to test our framework of integrating implicit human feedback (via ErrPs) over robotic environments, and test the *generalization* capability of error-potentials between virtual and physical worlds. As part of

our future work, we also plan to investigate as to how machines can be assisted in DRL by using intrinsic EEG-based co-operations among humans and machines.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by the National Science Foundation under grants CPS-1837369 and CNS-1813242 and the Wayne J. Holman Endowed Chair.

References

- Barachant, A., and Bonnet, S. 2011. Channel selection procedure using riemannian distance for bci applications. In *2011 5th International IEEE/EMBS Conference on Neural Engineering*, 348–351. IEEE.
- Barachant, A., and Congedo, M. 2014. A plug&play p300 bci using information geometry. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.0107*.
- Barachant, A.; Bonnet, S.; Congedo, M.; and Jutten, C. 2011. Multiclass brain–computer interface classification by riemannian geometry. *IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering* 59(4):920–928.
- Barachant, A.; Bonnet, S.; Congedo, M.; and Jutten, C. 2013. Classification of covariance matrices using a riemannian-based kernel for bci applications. *Neurocomputing* 112:172–178.
- Blankertz, B.; Dornhege, G.; Schafer, C.; Krepki, R.; Kohlmorgen, J.; Muller, K.-R.; Kunzmann, V.; Losch, F.; and Curio, G. 2003. Boosting bit rates and error detection for the classification of fast-paced motor commands based on single-trial eeg analysis. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Systems and Rehabilitation Engineering* 11(2):127–131.
- Brockman, G.; Cheung, V.; Pettersson, L.; Schneider, J.; Schulman, J.; Tang, J.; and Zaremba, W. 2016. Openai gym. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.01540*.
- Carter, C. S.; Braver, T. S.; Barch, D. M.; Botvinick, M. M.; Noll, D.; and Cohen, J. D. 1998. Anterior cingulate cortex, error detection, and the online monitoring of performance. *Science* 280(5364):747–749.
- Chavarriaga, R., and Millán, J. d. R. 2010. Learning from eeg error-related potentials in noninvasive brain-computer interfaces. *IEEE transactions on neural systems and rehabilitation engineering* 18(4):381–388.
- Chemali, J., and Lazaric, A. 2015. Direct policy iteration with demonstrations. In *Twenty-Fourth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*.
- Congedo, M.; Barachant, A.; and Andreev, A. 2013. A new generation of brain-computer interface based on riemannian geometry. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1310.8115*.
- Daniel, C.; Kroemer, O.; Viering, M.; Metz, J.; and Peters, J. 2015. Active reward learning with a novel acquisition function. *Autonomous Robots* 39(3):389–405.
- El Asri, L.; Piot, B.; Geist, M.; Laroche, R.; and Pietquin, O. 2016. Score-based inverse reinforcement learning. In *Proceedings of the 2016 International Conference on Autonomous Agents & Multiagent Systems*, 457–465. Interna-

- tional Foundation for Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems.
- Falkenstein, M.; Hoormann, J.; Christ, S.; and Hohnsbein, J. 2000. Erp components on reaction errors and their functional significance: a tutorial. *Biological psychology* 51(2-3):87–107.
- Ferrez, P. W., and Millán, J. d. R. 2005. You are wrong!—automatic detection of interaction errors from brain waves. In *Proceedings of the 19th international joint conference on Artificial intelligence*, number CONF.
- Gao, Y.; Lin, J.; Yu, F.; Levine, S.; Darrell, T.; et al. 2018. Reinforcement learning from imperfect demonstrations. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.05313*.
- Hester, T.; Vecerik, M.; Pietquin, O.; Lanctot, M.; Schaul, T.; Piot, B.; Horgan, D.; Quan, J.; Sendonaris, A.; Osband, I.; et al. 2018. Deep q-learning from demonstrations. In *Thirty-Second AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*.
- Holroyd, C. B., and Coles, M. G. 2002. The neural basis of human error processing: reinforcement learning, dopamine, and the error-related negativity. *Psychological review* 109(4):679.
- Iturrate, I.; Montesano, L.; and Minguez, J. 2010. Robot reinforcement learning using eeg-based reward signals. In *2010 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation*, 4822–4829. IEEE.
- Kim, B.; Farahmand, A.-m.; Pineau, J.; and Precup, D. 2013. Learning from limited demonstrations. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2859–2867.
- Knox, W. B. 2012. Learning from human-generated reward.
- Laskey, M.; Lee, J.; Fox, R.; Dragan, A.; and Goldberg, K. 2017. Dart: Noise injection for robust imitation learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.09327*.
- Luo, Y.; Xu, H.; and Ma, T. 2019. Learning self-correctable policies and value functions from demonstrations with negative sampling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.05634*.
- Mnih, V.; Kavukcuoglu, K.; Silver, D.; Rusu, A. A.; Veness, J.; Bellemare, M. G.; Graves, A.; Riedmiller, M.; Fidjeland, A. K.; Ostrovski, G.; et al. 2015. Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning. *Nature* 518(7540):529.
- Nair, A.; McGrew, B.; Andrychowicz, M.; Zaremba, W.; and Abbeel, P. 2018. Overcoming exploration in reinforcement learning with demonstrations. In *2018 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 6292–6299. IEEE.
- Ng, A. Y.; Harada, D.; and Russell, S. 1999. Policy invariance under reward transformations: Theory and application to reward shaping. In *ICML*, volume 99, 278–287.
- Osband, I.; Russo, D.; and Van Roy, B. 2013. (more) efficient reinforcement learning via posterior sampling. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 3003–3011.
- Parra, L. C.; Spence, C. D.; Gerson, A. D.; and Sajda, P. 2003. Response error correction—a demonstration of improved human-machine performance using real-time eeg monitoring. *IEEE transactions on neural systems and rehabilitation engineering* 11(2):173–177.
- Piot, B.; Geist, M.; and Pietquin, O. 2014. Boosted bellman residual minimization handling expert demonstrations. In *Joint European Conference on Machine Learning and Knowledge Discovery in Databases*, 549–564. Springer.
- Rasmussen, C. E. 2003. Gaussian processes in machine learning. In *Summer School on Machine Learning*, 63–71. Springer.
- Renard, Y.; Lotte, F.; Gibert, G.; Congedo, M.; Maby, E.; Delannoy, V.; Bertrand, O.; and Lécuyer, A. 2010. Open-vibe: An open-source software platform to design, test, and use brain-computer interfaces in real and virtual environments. *Presence: teleoperators and virtual environments* 19(1):35–53.
- Rivet, B.; Souhoumiac, A.; Attina, V.; and Gibert, G. 2009. xdown algorithm to enhance evoked potentials: application to brain-computer interface. *IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering* 56(8):2035–2043.
- Salazar-Gomez, A. F.; DelPreto, J.; Gil, S.; Guenther, F. H.; and Rus, D. 2017. Correcting robot mistakes in real time using eeg signals. In *2017 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 6570–6577. IEEE.
- Scheffers, M. K.; Coles, M. G.; Bernstein, P.; Gehring, W. J.; and Donchin, E. 1996. Event-related brain potentials and error-related processing: An analysis of incorrect responses to go and no-go stimuli. *Psychophysiology* 33(1):42–53.
- Tesauro, G. 1995. Temporal difference learning and td-gammon. *Communications of the ACM* 38(3):58–68.
- Van Hasselt, H.; Guez, A.; and Silver, D. 2016. Deep reinforcement learning with double q-learning. In *Thirtieth AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*.
- Večerík, M.; Hester, T.; Scholz, J.; Wang, F.; Pietquin, O.; Piot, B.; Heess, N.; Rothörl, T.; Lampe, T.; and Riedmiller, M. 2017. Leveraging demonstrations for deep reinforcement learning on robotics problems with sparse rewards. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.08817*.
- Wang, S. I.; Liang, P.; and Manning, C. D. 2016. Learning language games through interaction. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.02447*.
- Ziebart, B. D. 2010. *Modeling purposeful adaptive behavior with the principle of maximum causal entropy*. Ph.D. Dissertation, figshare.