Accelerated Robot Learning via Human Brain Signals

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Abstract—In reinforcement learning (RL), sparse rewards are a natural way to specify the task to be learned. However, most RL algorithms struggle to learn in this setting since the learning signal is mostly zeros. In contrast, humans are good at assessing and predicting the future consequences of actions and can serve as good reward/policy shapers to accelerate the robot learning process. Previous works have shown that the human brain generates an error-related signal, measurable using electroencephalography (EEG), when the human perceives the task being done erroneously. In this work, we propose a method that uses evaluative feedback obtained from human brain signals measured via scalp EEG to accelerate RL for robotic agents in sparse reward settings. As the robot learns the task, the EEG of a human observer watching the robot attempts is recorded and decoded into noisy error feedback signal. From this feedback, we use supervised learning to obtain a policy that subsequently augments the behavior policy and guides exploration in the early stages of RL. This bootstraps the RL learning process to enable learning from sparse reward. Using a robotic navigation task as a test bed, we show that our method achieves a stable obstacle-avoidance policy with high success rate, outperforming learning from sparse rewards only that struggles to achieve obstacle avoidance behavior or fails to advance to the goal.

I. INTRODUCTION

Reinforcement Learning (RL) remains one of the most popular learning approaches because of its simplicity and similarity to how humans learn from reward signals. Also, it achieves superior performance on a number of robotic tasks. However, RL requires defining a good reward function that captures the task to be learned, and deriving an appropriate reward function remains a challenge. The sparse reward is a natural way to specify a task; here the agent receives a positive feedback only when the task has been accomplished and nothing otherwise. This sparse reward formulation is easy to set up, and when it works, it is unlikely to produce unusual artifact behavior due to local optima. A drawback is that it provides poor learning signals especially when the task horizon is long. Since RL learns by trial and error, the chances that the agent would accidentally achieve the task’s goal is very small in the sparse reward setting. This makes RL from sparse rewards very challenging or sometimes impossible. A few methods have been devised to address this problem. For example, reward shaping is a common approach of designing rich reward functions that can better guide the learning process\cite{10.1007/s10918-009-9219-3, 10.1007/s10918-010-9305-z}. Reward function design can be

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Learning from feedback approach, where the feedback is the error signal detected from the brain of a human watching the agent learn. Previous work in neuroscience has shown that a distinctive error signal such as error-related potential (ErrP) occurs in the human brain when the human observes an error during a task [10]. We exploit this ability of a human expert to pick out erroneous actions committed by an apprentice robot during training.

Learning directly from human brain activity is appealing for a number of reasons. It presents a convenient way to transfer human knowledge of the tasks into an artificial agent, even when it is difficult to provide precise, explicit instructions. For tasks that can be easily assessed by a human, evaluative feedback is detected with little latency since the human does not need to react by pressing a button or other input, thus providing a temporally-local credit assignment. However, there are a few problems that need to be addressed: detecting ErrP signals with sufficient accuracy to be useful during the early stages of learning, keeping the user engaged during observations, and reducing the amount of human feedback needed for the learning process.

In this work, we examine key issues around learning from human brain signals and seek answers to a number of questions, including the following:

- How can artificial agents learn directly from human physiological signals, such as brain signals?
- What is a good way to combine learning from human brain signals with task-success sparse reward signals?
- How does the learning performance change with the error signal detection accuracy?

To answer these questions, we first simulate the ErrP-based feedback signals using a noisy oracle. This oracle detects whether an agent’s action was the optimal action and gives the feedback accordingly. Using different oracle accuracy levels, we are able to do extensive analysis on the behaviour of different task learning algorithms. Ultimately, we monitor their performance when the accuracy of the oracle feedback is set at a level that matches that of the human brain signal classifier. Based on the extensive simulated analysis, we obtain a robust algorithm that can learn from noisy human feedback such as human brain signals. Second, we demonstrate this in physical experiments where EEG signals from human subjects are used to improve an agent’s learning of a navigation task in a sparse reward setting (see fig[1]). On multiple navigation tasks, our Brain-Guided RL outperforms learning from baselines using sparse or rich rewards. It also shows robustness to low ErrP detection accuracy.

II. BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

A. Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning (RL) is an area of machine learning concerned with how agents ought to act to maximize a cumulative reward from the environment. The reward usually captures the objective of the task at hand, and the cumulative reward is maximized when the task is achieved.

Mathematically, an RL problem can be formulated as a Markov Decision Process (MDP) that consists of a set of states $S$, a set of actions $A$, a transition function $T : S \times A \rightarrow \Delta S$, and a reward function $R : S \times A \rightarrow \Delta \mathbb{R}$. A policy $\pi : S \rightarrow A$ is learned to maximize the cumulative reward $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(s_t, a_t)$, where $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$ is the discount factor.

The reward function can take on different forms, from sparse rewards where a reward is received only on goal completion to more complex, continual rewards that capture progress toward the goal. Specifying a good reward function is usually one of the key components of defining an RL problem. This generally entails using domain knowledge to define a function that captures progress on the tasks in terms of the state and action spaces. A such informative reward function can be complicated and difficult to realize, requiring a laborious iterative process.

B. Learning from Feedback

An alternative approach to defining the reward function is getting evaluative feedback from an expert that has a notion of how the task should be accomplished. The expert can be another software agent or a human observer. This expert evaluates the action (or sequence of actions) taken by the agent during an episode and provides a score. This score can serve as the reward in the RL framework.

The idea of learning from human feedback is not new. Previous works have explored using different interfaces that allow humans to provide feedback. While many works use binary feedback collected via mouse clicks [8][11], others use a more graduated feedback [11] such as via sliders. Other methods include facial expressions [12], and finger pointing [13] among others. In our work, we obtain the feedback information directly from the human brain.

[14] demonstrated that brain signals can be used to learn control policies for navigating in one- and two- dimensional environments; these discrete state spaces are relatively small, with a total of 8 and 13 distinct locations respectively. The size is the constrained because expert labels are expensive to obtain. In our work, we present a way to analyze the learning behavior in larger state spaces and how it varies with the error rate of the feedback.

C. The ErrP

Previous works have covered a few types of ErrP, including the Response, Observation, Feedback, and Interaction ErrPs [15]. The response ErrP occurs when a subject makes an error while responding to a stimulus within a short amount of time; the observation ErrP occurs when observing another agent make a mistake; the feedback ErrP occurs when a subject receive a negative assessment of the subject’s action; and the interaction ErrP occurs when the subject senses a mismatch between the subject’s command and the interface’s response. While the paradigms are different, similar signal processing and machine learning techniques are used to detect the different types of ErrP. In this work, we are interested in the observation ErrP as evaluative feedback to robot agents during learning.

To calibrate such a detector, the EEG signals of human subjects are recorded and time-locked to error onsets. These
signals then go through several pre-processing steps that include filtering, artifact removal, and subsampling. A classifier is then trained on the processed signal to differentiate brain activity when an error is being observed. The classification performance reported in the literature ranges from slightly above chance to 0.8 [16] [17].

A recent work [16] examined brain activities during robot-error observations, and their findings indicated relatively low decoding accuracies of observation ErrPs compared to other ErrP types. They concluded that further improvements in non-invasive recording and analysis techniques are necessary for practical applications. In this work, we develop a method to utilize the observation ErrP as a complement to learning from sparse rewards despite the low ErrP decoding accuracy.

D. Brain-Computer Interface (BCI) Robot Learning

BCI has been used across the gamut of direct robot control, robot error correction, to teaching a skill to a robot. While several works [18][19][20][21] have explored using human brain signals to issue commands and directly control robots, few have looked at using similar signals from human brain to teach a skill to an autonomous robot. [22] demonstrated the use of ErrPs obtained via EEG measurements of an observing subject to detect error and correct robot mistakes. Similarly, [23] developed a way to alter/guide the behavior of a robot based on a user’s goal which is inferred from the brain signals. While this error signal from the human brain prompts the robot to change its course of action, it does not result in an autonomous skill that persists when the human is no longer observing. Recent work [24] has used similar ErrPs as reward signals for teaching a behavior to the robot so the robot can autonomously achieve the task after training.

Our work differs from these existing works in that:

- we retain the ability to do reinforcement learning via easily specifiable sparse reward signals and achieve good-quality asymptotic performance on the task.
- our formulation ensures that the learning process is not limited by the low signal-to-noise ratio of BCI signals.
- we demonstrate the applicability of our algorithm to realistic autonomous mobile navigation—an important research area in robotics.

III. Method

Our Brain-Guided RL algorithm works in three stages (See Figure 2): train a classifier on EEG signals to detect occurrences of human-perceived error, learn a Human Feedback (HF) policy using the trained EEG classifier, and learn the final RL policy from sparse rewards as the HF policy guides RL exploration. In the first stage, we collect EEG signals, the robot actions and corresponding ground truth correct actions.

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A. EEG Classifier Training

To obtain evaluative feedback from the human brain, we need a function that maps EEG brain signals to ErrP labels (correct/incorrect) for the observed robot actions. This is done during a calibration stage where we collect data offline to train an EEG classifier. In the data collection step, the human subject watches an agent conducting a random policy while we simultaneously record EEG signals, the
robot actions and the labels indicating if the actions are correct or erroneous. The robot takes an action every 1.5s so that the brain signals elicited by each action can be time-locked without interfering with subsequent actions. Apart from avoiding assigning credits to each action, the slow speed enables the human to assess each action in a way that elicits the strongest brain signals when a wrong action is taken. We use the navigation task for our analysis; here a user watches a mobile robot navigate to a target location. Wrong actions that move the robot away from the target or into obstacles will elicit responses in the subject’s brain. Using the Dijkstra search algorithm, we obtain the optimal action at each step which provides ground-truth labels for good versus bad actions. A human expert can also provide these ground truth labels, especially for tasks whose optimal solutions cannot be easily scripted. In our experiments, the EEG signals are recorded at 2048 Hz using 64 channels of the BioSemi EEG Headset and around 800 data points of robot actions are collected.

After data collection, we preprocess the EEG data and train the classifier. During preprocessing, the data is band-pass filtered to 1-40 Hz to remove artificial noise and resampled to 128 Hz. EEG trials are extracted at [0, 0.8)s post the agent action where ErrPs are typically observed. Then, each processed EEG data \( x_i \) around a robot action \( a_i \) is used as input for the classifier to predict the corresponding label \( f_i \). Our classifier, denoted as \( g(\cdot; \theta_{EEG}) \), is a fine-tuned EEGNet [25]. 80% of the data are used for training, while 12% and 8% are held out for validation and testing respectively. We optimize the classifier using the Adam optimizer with the cross-entropy loss \( L_{EEG} \):

\[
\theta^*_{EEG} = \arg \min_{\theta_{EEG}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} L_{EEG}(g(x_i; \theta_{EEG}), f_i)
\]  

After training, the classifier \( f_i = g(x_i; \theta_{EEG}^*) \) maps the EEG signal \( x_i \) to human feedback \( f_i \), which the subject observes while executing an action \( a_i \), indicating if the action was erroneous or not.

### B. Human Reinforcement Policy

With the EEG classifier from the previous section, we can tell (from the human brain) if an observed action is correct or not. Instead of directly using this human feedback as a reward function for RL as in some previous work [26] [24], we use it in a supervised learning setting to learn the human feedback function \( F \) for the target task. This target task may be different from the task used in the EEG calibration step. The task used in the EEG calibration step can be simpler (e.g. navigation in a smaller room) where human feedback as ground truth labels is less expensive to collect. Formally, when the agent executes the action \( a_t \) at the state \( s_t \), the human observes and judges whether \( a_t \) is the optimal action captured by \( F(s_t, a_t) \). Using the classified brain signal \( f_t \) as noisy labels, we learn an approximation of \( F \) which we denote as \( \hat{F} \) and construct an HF policy from it given as:

\[
\pi_{HF}(s) = \arg \max_a \hat{F}(s, a)
\]  

Learning \( \hat{F} \) is exactly supervised learning: the input is the agent experience \((s_t, a_t)\) and the label is the human feedback \( f_t \). \( F \) can be any function approximator; we use a fully-connected neural network in this work. This function is learned in an online fashion; \( \hat{F} \) is continually updated with data as the robot acts based on the \( \pi_{HF} \). The challenges here are the limited amount of human feedback (1000 labels in 25 mins) and the inconsistent label \( f_t \) due to the noise from the EEG classifier. To mitigate this, we adopt three strategies: (1) reduce the number of parameters by choosing low-dimensional continuous state and action spaces (2) design a light network architecture (3) use a feedback replay buffer. We use a fully-connected network with 1 hidden layer of 16 units and one output node for each action. The predicted optimality for a state-action pair, \( \hat{F}(s_t, a_t) \), is obtained by passing \( s_t \) as input to the network and select the output node corresponding to \( a_t \). During training, we use the cross entropy loss and only backpropagate through the single output node for the observed action. To learn the parameters quickly, the network is updated at a faster rate than the rate of human feedback by reusing feedback labels. We adopt a feedback replay buffer which is a priority queue that stores all agent experiences \((s_t, a_t)\) and the corresponding human feedback \( f_t \); newer experiences are of greater importance. Batches of data are continually pulled from the replay buffer to optimize the network \( \hat{F} \).

At the end of the session, the policy \( \pi_{HF} \) has a general notion of which actions are good/bad and how to perform the task albeit with low success rate. This HF policy becomes the starting behavior policy for the next stage. Although imperfect classification of noisy EEG signals limits the performance of the learned HF policy, it still provides better exploration when doing RL in a sparse reward setting.

### C. Efficient Sparse-Reward RL with Guided Exploration

The final stage is to enable the RL agent to learn efficiently in an environment with sparse rewards. The challenge here is that random exploration is unlikely to stumble on positive rewards that would aid learning. To address this, we use \( \pi_{HF} \) as the initial behavior policy during RL learning. Even though \( \pi_{HF} \) may be far from perfect, this guides the exploration towards the goal and increase the chances of getting positive rewards. As learning proceeds, we reduce the use of \( \pi_{HF} \) and increasingly use the learned RL policy as the behavior policy. Eventually, the agent is able to learn the task as specified by the sparse reward function. Our full algorithm for Brain-Guided RL is given in Algorithm 1.

Implementation-wise, we can choose any off-policy Deep RL algorithm as the RL policy. Our method is even robust to on-policy Deep RL algorithms like PPO [27] which we adopt as the RL policy for the experiments. At the beginning of each episode, there is an \( \epsilon_{HF} \) chance to use the HF policy for this episode. \( \epsilon_{HF} \) linearly decays from \( \epsilon_{HF, init} \) to 0 in the first
\( t_{\text{trans}} \) time steps. After the RL policy learns the environment setting in the transition stage, the training is fully on-policy. The RL policy refines itself, gets beyond the suboptimal HF policy, and learns the optimal behavior.

**Algorithm 1: Brain-Guided RL**

Data: offline EEG signals \( x_{1:M} \) and labels \( f_{1:M} \), HF policy update epoch number \( K_{\text{HF}} \), RL policy update epoch number \( K_{\text{RL}} \)

\( \text{Train the EEG classifier.} \)

\[
\theta_{\text{EEG}}^* = \arg \min_{\theta_{\text{EEG}}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \mathcal{L}_{\text{EEG}}(g(x_i; \theta_{\text{EEG}}), f_i).
\]

\( \text{Train the HF policy.} \)

\( B = [] \) # initialize the feedback replay buffer.

for \( t = 1, 2, \ldots, t_{\text{HF}} \) do

observe state \( s_t \).

execute action \( a_t = \pi_{\text{HF}}(s_t) \).

receive human feedback by classifying EEG signal \( f_t = g(x_t; \theta_{\text{EEG}}^*) \).

update \( \hat{F} \) using SGD with \((s_t, a_t, f_t)\).

update \( \hat{F} \) using SGD \( K_{\text{HF}} \) epochs with minibatches sampled from \( B \).

append \((s_t, a_t, f_t)\) to \( B \).

end

\( \text{Train the RL policy.} \)

for episode \( i = 1, 2, \ldots \) do

\( \epsilon_{\text{HF}} = \max(0, \epsilon_{\text{HF}, \text{init}} \cdot (1 - \frac{i-1}{i_{\text{max}}})) \).

\( \pi = \pi_{\text{HF}} \) with chance \( \epsilon_{\text{HF}} \), otherwise \( \pi = \pi_{\text{RL}} \). run policy \( \pi \) for \( T \) timesteps.

optimize \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{PPO}} \) using SGD \( K_{\text{RL}} \) epochs with minibatches sampled from the episode.

end

**IV. EXPERIMENTS**

We use robot navigation tasks as the test-bed for our algorithm. The tasks are implemented in the Gibson simulation environment [28] as shown in Fig[1]. The Gibson environment is a high-fidelity simulation engine that was created from real-world data with 1400 floor spaces from 572 full buildings. It models real-world’s semantic complexity and enforces constraints of physics and space; it can detect collision and respects non-interpenetrability of rigid body, making it suitable for simulating navigation tasks in a realistic way. We use a \( 11 \times 12m^2 \) area with multiple obstacles, and we choose the Husky robot as the mobile robot platform. The goal location is represented by the blue square pillar. In all navigation tasks, the position of the goal is fixed, since it is very challenging to learn a HF policy for a variable goal task within the limited amount of feedback (1000 data points).

The state space is chosen as \( s_t = (l_t, d_t, \phi_t) \in \mathbb{R}^{13} \) where \( l_t \in \mathbb{R}^{10} \) is laser range observations evenly spaced between \(-90^\circ\) and \( 90^\circ \) relative to the robot’s frame, \( d_t \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) is displacement to the goal in global polar coordinates, and \( \phi_t \) is the yaw of the robot. The action space \( A \) is discretized, as it is easier for the human subject to identify the actions and judge its optimality. We consider three actions: moving forward, turning left and turning right, with a constant step length \( 0.3m \) and turning angle \( 30^\circ \).

The task is to navigate from a start location to the goal without colliding with obstacles. This task can be captured by the sparse reward function \( RL \) \( \text{sparse} \) given as:

\[
\begin{cases} 
+100, & \text{if reaches the goal} \\ 
-100, & \text{if collides with obstacles} \\ 
-1, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Alternatively, we can design a richer, more-expressive reward function \( RL \) \( \text{rich} \) as:

\[
r_{\text{rich}}(s_t, a_t) = r_{\text{sparse}}(s_t, a_t) + c_d \cdot d_t + c_{\theta} \cdot \theta_t
\]

where \( d_t \) is the euclidean distance from the goal, \( \theta_t \) is the difference between the current orientation and the orientation to the goal, \( c_d = -1.0 \) and \( c_{\theta} = -0.3 \) are hyperparameters. This rich reward motivates the robot to get closer to and face the goal, leading to more efficient exploration and learning.

In the environment, we check if the agent reaches the goal through distance threshold checking \( 0.5m \). Both reaching the goal or colliding with obstacles will end the episode.

**V. RESULTS**

In this section we evaluate our proposed algorithm on two variants of the navigation tasks: \textit{Same Start Same Goal} (SSSG) and \textit{Variable Start Same Goal} (VSSG). For VSSG, the robot’s starting location is uniformly chosen within a \( 0.2m \times 0.2m \) area. Beyond the scope of this work, this formulation can be extended to start the robot at any location by further expanding the starting square using curriculum learning. To ensure repeatability and enable extensive analysis, we first use a simulated oracle to provide noisy feedback on the agent’s actions. Then, we evaluate the performance of our system with human subjects using feedback from their EEG signals. For both simulation and real experiments, we report results comparing RL sparse, RL rich and HF+RL (Ours). To assess the performance of all three methods, we adopt the SPL metric (Success weighted by (normalized inverse) Path Length) [29] which captures both success rate and path
optimal for the navigation task. For fair comparison, we use the same architecture and hyperparameters for the RL part across all three methods.

A. Learning from Simulated Feedback

In the simulated setting, we vary the accuracy $C \in \{0.55, 0.6, 0.7\}$ of the feedback coming from the simulated oracle and evaluate how well the HF policy assists the RL learning with poor/noisy feedback. Figure 3 shows the result and $C = 0.6$ matches the typical classification accuracy of the EEG classifier. Using grid search, we select the value of $\epsilon_{\text{trans}} = 2e^{-4}$ i.e. after 50% of the total training steps. For both SSSG and VSSG, note that the sparse reward struggles to learn the task as it is rare to randomly stumble on the goal and obtain positive rewards required for learning. Our method (HF+RL-Sparse) solves the navigation task by using $\pi_{\text{HF}}$ policy obtained from noisy brain signals to guide the exploration and helps overcome the sparsity of the positive reward. The carefully-designed rich reward is also able to solve the navigation task but there are tasks where designing a rich reward function is prohibitively difficult. Our approach alleviates the need for such expert-level reward function design by combining evaluative feedback from a human’s brain and an easily specified sparse reward function that indicates critical moments of the task.

B. Learning from Real Human Feedback

We tested our HF+RL-Sparse method on the VSSG task with 7 human subjects providing feedback in the form of EEG signals. First, the subject is trained for 5 minutes to get familiar with the paradigm and understand how to navigate to the goal. Then, the subject has a 20-min offline session to collect data for training the EEG classifier, and finally provides feedback during a 25-min online session to train the $\pi_{\text{HF}}$ policy. This human feedback policy is subsequently used to guide the RL similar to the simulation experiments. Video of the experiments can be found at [http://crlab.cs.columbia.edu/brain_guided_rl/](http://crlab.cs.columbia.edu/brain_guided_rl/)

Shown in Figure 4, the $\pi_{\text{HF}}$ policies from 5 subjects, with ErrP detection accuracy between 0.60 and 0.67, were able to successfully guide the learning process during RL from sparse reward. The EEG classifiers obtained for the other two subjects (accuracy of 0.56 and 0.57) were not good enough to train a useful $\pi_{\text{HF}}$ policy and their learned feedback policy could not guide RL from sparse reward.

VI. DISCUSSION

The experiments on navigation tasks with feedback from either a simulated oracle and real humans show that Brain-Guided RL can accelerate RL in sparse reward environments. Using human feedback directly as reward for RL seems appealing but it would require the human’s attention for the entire training time which is typically very long for most RL algorithms. Rather than directly applying feedback to RL learning, our Brain-Guided RL approach learns a HF policy via supervised learning in a relatively short session and then uses the learned policy to guide the RL agent. This choice saves a huge amount of expensive human feedback. It is also robust to low ErrP classification accuracy as a suboptimal HF policy can still improve RL exploration while allowing pure RL to achieve optimal performance. Meanwhile, as the dimension of the state-action space increases, we observe that training a useful HF policy would require more feedback. But since it is a supervised learning problem, we could use other approaches to further increase feedback efficiency; for example active learning [30][31][32] can be used to determine which labels to query the user for. We leave this as a part of the future work.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper introduces Brain-Guided RL, a method to accelerate RL learning in sparse reward settings, by using evaluative human feedback extracted from EEG brain signals. Our approach of first training a HF policy using supervised learning and then using it to guide RL learning demonstrates robustness in three important ways. It is robust to inconsistent feedback as is the case with noisy EEG signals and the resulting poor classification accuracy. It is also robust to the low performance of the policy obtained via the noisy human feedback since it still provides coarse guidance for the RL learning process. Finally, our approach reduces the the amount of feedback needed since the subject is not required to evaluate the robot’s actions throughout the RL training process. Experiments using both simulated and real human feedback show that our Brain-Guided RL enables learning different versions of the navigation task from sparse rewards with high success rate. Future work includes using active learning techniques to maximize human feedback during the learning duration and adapting the proposed method to tasks with larger/continuous action spaces.
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