Make You Better: Reinforcement Learning from Human Gain

Anonymous Author(s) Affiliation Address email

Abstract

In human-agent collaboration tasks, it is essential to explore ways for developing 1 assistive agents that can improve humans' performance in achieving their goals. 2 3 In this paper, we propose the Reinforcement Learning from Human Gain (RLHG) 4 approach, designed to effectively enhance human goal-achievement abilities in 5 collaborative tasks with known human goals. Firstly, the RLHG method trains a value network to estimate primitive human performance in achieving goals. 6 Subsequently, the RLHG method trains a gain network to estimate the positive gain 7 of human performance in achieving goals when subjected to effective enhancement, 8 in comparison to the primitive performance. The positive gains are used for 9 10 guiding the agent to learn effective enhancement behaviors. Distinct from directly 11 integrating human goal rewards into optimization objectives, the RLHG method largely mitigates the human-agent credit assignment issues encountered by agents 12 in learning to enhance humans. We evaluate the RLHG agent in the widely popular 13 Multi-player Online Battle Arena (MOBA) game, Honor of Kings, by conducting 14 experiments in both simulated environments and real-world human-agent tests. 15 Experimental results demonstrate that the RLHG agent effectively improves the 16 goal-achievement performance of participants across varying levels. 17

18 1 Introduction

An intriguing research direction in the field of Artificial Intelligence (AI), particularly in the human-19 agent field, is how to effectively enhance human goal-achievement abilities within collaborative 20 tasks. Human-Agent Collaboration (HAC) (Crandall et al., 2018; Dafoe et al., 2020) has gained 21 significant attention from researchers, and numerous agents have been successfully developed to 22 collaborate with humans in complex environments (Jaderberg et al., 2019; Carroll et al., 2019; Hu 23 et al., 2020; Strouse et al., 2021; Bakhtin et al., 2022; Gao et al., 2023). However, as Amodei et al. 24 (2016) stated, "[F]or an agent operating in a large, multifaceted environment, an objective function 25 that focuses on only one aspect of the environment may implicitly express indifference over other 26 aspects of the environment". The current agents focus mainly on maximizing their own rewards 27 to complete the task, less considering the role of their human partners, which potentially leads to 28 behaviors that are inconsistent with human preferences (Fisac et al., 2020; Alizadeh Alamdari et 29 al., 2022). For instance, consider the scenario depicted in Figure 1, where there is an agent and a 30 human on either side of an obstacle. Only the agent is capable of pushing or pulling the obstacle once. 31 Both the human and the agent share the same task goal, i.e., obtaining the coin, while the human 32 33 needs the agent's assistance to get the coin. In this scenario, the HAC agent may push the obstacle to the human side and pass through to get the coin by itself. However, in a qualitative study (Cerny, 34 2015) on companion behavior, humans reported greater enjoyment of the game when AI assisted 35 them more like a sidekick. Thus, the human may prefer that the agent plays a more assisting role by 36 pulling the obstacle to its side, thereby enabling the human to get the coin. To advance AI techniques 37 for the betterment of humanity, it is crucial to consider ways to assist humans in improving their 38 goal-achievement abilities rather than replacing them outright (Wilson and Daugherty, 2018). 39



Figure 1: Toy scenario, where an agent and a human are on either side of an obstacle. Only the agent is capable of pushing or pulling the obstacle once. They share the same task goal of obtaining the coin. \Leftarrow : The agent replaces the human to get the coin by itself. \Rightarrow : The agent assists the human to get the coin.

In complex collaborative environments, such as Multi-player Online Battle Arena (MOBA) 40 games (Silva and Chaimowicz, 2017), humans pursue multiple individual goals, such as achieving 41 higher MVP scores and experiencing more highlight moments, beyond simply winning the game to 42 enhance their gaming experience (see Figure 4 (c), our participant survey). When human goals are 43 aware, an intuitive approach to learning assistive agents would be to combine the agents' original 44 rewards with the human's goal rewards (Hadfield-Menell et al., 2016; Najar and Chetouani, 2021; 45 Alizadeh Alamdari *et al.*, 2022). Nevertheless, directly incorporating the human's goal rewards may 46 cause negative consequences, such as human-agent credit assignment issues, i.e., human rewards 47 for achieving goals are assigned to non-assisting agents, which potentially leads the agent to learn 48 poor behaviors and forfeits its autonomy. When human goals are unknown, some studies attempt to 49 infer them from prior human behaviors using Bayesian Inference (BI) (Baker et al., 2005; Foerster et 50 al., 2019; Puig et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021) and Inverse Reinforcement Learning (IRL) (Ng et al., 51 2000; Ziebart et al., 2008; Ho and Ermon, 2016). Other work introduces auxiliary rewards, such as 52 the human empowerment (Du et al., 2020), i.e., the mutual information of human trajectories and 53 current state, for guiding agents to learn assistive behaviors. However, the diverse and noisy human 54 behaviors(Majumdar et al., 2017) may be unrelated to actual human goals, leading agents to learn 55 assistance behaviors that are not aligned with human preferences. Moreover, in tasks where human 56 goals are known, these methods may not be as effective as explicitly modeling human goals (Du et 57 al., 2020; Alizadeh Alamdari et al., 2022). 58 This paper focuses on the setting of known human goals in complex collaborative environments. 59 Our key insight is that agents can enhance human goal-achievement abilities without compromising 60 AI autonomy by learning from the human positive gains toward achieving goals under the agent's 61 effective enhancement. We propose the Reinforcement Learning from Human Gain (RLHG) method, 62 which aims to fine-tune a given pre-trained agent to be assistive in enhancing a given human model's 63 performance in achieving specified goals. Specifically, the RLHG method involves two steps. Firstly, 64 we determine the primitive performance of the human model in achieving goals. We train a value 65 network to estimate the primitive human return in achieving goals with episodes collected by directly 66 teaming the agent and the human to execute. Secondly, we train the agent to learn effective human 67 enhancement behaviors. We train a gain network to estimate the positive gain of human return in 68 achieving goals when subjected to effective enhancement, in comparison to the primitive performance. 69 The agent is fine-tuned using the combination of its original advantage and the human-enhanced 70

⁷¹ advantage calculated by the positive gains. The RLHG method can be seen as a plug-in that can be directly utilized to fine tune any pre-trained agent to be assistive in human aphanement.

⁷² directly utilized to fine-tune any pre-trained agent to be assistive in human enhancement.

We conducted experiments in Honor of Kings (Wei et al., 2022), one of the most popular MOBA 73 games globally, which has received much attention from researchers lately (Ye et al., 2020a,b,c; Gao 74 et al., 2021, 2023). We first evaluated the RLHG method in simulated environments, i.e., human 75 model-agent tests. Our experimental results indicate that the RLHG agent is more effective than 76 baseline agents in improving the human model goal-achievement performance. We further conducted 77 real-world human-agent tests to verify the effectiveness of the RLHG agent. We tested the RLHG 78 agent teaming up with different levels of participants. Our experimental results demonstrate that the 79 RLHG agent could effectively improve the performance of general-level participants in achieving 80 their individual goals to be close to those of high-level participants and that this enhancement can be 81 generalized to different levels of participants. In general, our contributions are as follows: 82

• We propose a novel insight to effectively enhance human abilities in achieving goals within collaborative tasks by training an assistive agent to learn from human positive gains.

• We achieve our insight by proposing the RLHG algorithm and providing a practical implementation.

• We validated the effectiveness of the RLHG method by conducting human-agent tests in the complex MOBA game *Honor of Kings*.

88 2 Problem Settings

89 2.1 Game Introduction

MOBA games, characterized by multi-agent cooperation and competition mechanisms, long time horizons, enormous state-action spaces (10^{20000}) , and imperfect information (OpenAI *et al.*, 2019; 90 91 Ye et al., 2020a), have attracted much attention from researchers. Honor of Kings is a renowned 92 MOBA game played by two opposing teams on the same symmetrical map, each comprising five 93 players. The game environment depicted in Figure 2 comprises the main hero with peculiar skill 94 mechanisms and attributes, controlled by each player. The player can maneuver the hero's movement 95 96 using the bottom-left wheel (C.1) and release the hero's skills through the bottom-right buttons (C.2, 97 C.3). The player can view the local environment on the screen, the global environment on the top-left mini-map (A), and access game states on the top-right dashboard (B). Players of each camp compete 98 for resources through team confrontation and collaboration, etc., with the task goal of winning the 99 game by destroying the opposing team's crystal. 100



Figure 2: (a) The UI of *Honor of Kings*. (b) The player's goals in-game (based on our participant survey).

101 2.2 Human-Agent Enhancement

We formulate the human enhancement problem in collaborative tasks as an extension of the Dec-102 POMDP, which can be represented as a tuple $\langle N, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{O}, P, R, \gamma, \pi^H, \mathcal{G}^H, R^H \rangle$, where N 103 denotes the number of agents. **S** denotes the space of global states. $\mathbf{A} = \{A_i, A^H\}_{i=1,...,N}$ denotes the space of actions of N agents and a human to be enhanced, respectively. $\mathbf{O} = \{O_i, O^H\}_{i=1,...,N}$ denotes the space of observations of N agents and the human, respectively. $P : \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{S}$ and 104 105 106 $R: \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A} \to \mathbb{R}$ denote the shared state transition probability function and reward function of N 107 agents, respectively. $\gamma \in [0,1)$ denotes the discount factor. $\pi^{\vec{H}}(a^H|o^H)$ is the human policy, which 108 cannot be directly accessible to the agent. $\mathcal{G}^H = \{g_i\}_{i=1,...,M}$ denotes the human individual goals, 109 where g_i is a designated goal and M is the total number of individual goals. $R^H : S \times \mathbf{A} \times \mathcal{G}^H \to \mathbb{R}$ 110 denotes the goal reward function of the human. In agent-only scenarios, the optimization objective is to maximize the expected return $V^{\pi_{\theta}} = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta}}[G]$, where $G = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R_{t}$ is the discounted total rewards (OpenAI *et al.*, 2019; Ye *et al.*, 2020a). In human non-enhancement scenarios, the optimization objective is $V^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}}[G] = \sum_{a} \pi_{\theta}(a|o,\pi^{H})\mathbb{E}_{\pi^{H}}[G]$ (Carroll *et al.*, 2019; Strouse *et al.*, 2021). However, in human enhancement scenarios, the agent learns to enhance the 111 112 113 114 115 human in achieving their goals \mathcal{G}^{H} . Therefore, the optimization objective can be formulated as: 116

$$V_{he}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} = V^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} + \alpha \cdot V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}}\left[G + \alpha \cdot G_{H}\right] = \sum_{a} \pi_{\theta}(a|o,\pi^{H})\mathbb{E}_{\pi^{H}}\left[G + \alpha \cdot G_{H}\right],$$

where $V_H^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^H} = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta},\pi^H} [G_H], G_H = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t^H$ is the discounted total human goal rewards, and a is a balancing parameter. The agent's policy gradient can be formulated as:

$$g(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a|o, \pi^{H}) \mathbb{E}_{\pi^{H}} \left[A + \alpha \cdot A_{H} \right], \tag{1}$$

where $A = G - V^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}}$ and $A_{H} = G_{H} - V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}}$ are the agent's original advantage and the human's enhanced advantage, respectively.

However, incorporating human rewards directly into the optimization objective may lead to negative consequences, such as human-agent credit assignment issues. Intrinsically, humans possess the primitive ability to achieve certain goals independently. Therefore, it is unnecessary to reward the agent for assisting in goals that the human can easily achieve, as it potentially impacts the agent's original behavior, resulting in losing its autonomy. In the subsequent section, we propose a novel insight to achieve effective human enhancement by instead learning from the positive gains that the human achieves goals better than his/her primitive performance.

128 **3** Reinforcement Learning from Human Gain

In this section, We present the RLHG method in detail. We start with describing the key insight in the RLHG method (Section 3.1). Then we implement our insights and present the RLHG algorithm (Section 3.2). We end by providing a practical implementation of the RLHG algorithm (Section 3.3).

132 3.1 Effective Human Enhancement

In the process of learning to enhance humans, agents explore three types of behaviors: effective enhancement, invalid enhancement, and negative enhancement. Intuitively, effective enhancement can help humans achieve their goals better than their primitive performance, invalid enhancement provides no benefits for humans in achieving their goals but also causes no negative impact, and negative enhancement hinders humans from achieving their goals. Our key insight is that agents are only encouraged to learn effective enhancement behaviors, which we refer to learn from *positive gains*. Formally, we denote the effective enhancement policy as π_{θ}^{ef} , the invalid enhancement policy as π_{θ}^{in} , and the negative enhancement policy as π_{θ}^{ne} . The agent's policy can be expressed as follows:

$$\pi_{\theta} = \begin{cases} \pi_{\theta}^{ef}, & \text{if } V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} > V_{H}^{\pi,\pi^{H}} \\ \pi_{\theta}^{in}, & \text{if } V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} = V_{H}^{\pi,\pi^{H}} \\ \pi_{\theta}^{ne}, & \text{if } V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}} < V_{H}^{\pi,\pi^{H}} \end{cases}$$
(2)

where π is a given pre-trained policy and V_H^{π,π^H} is the primitive value of the human policy π^H teaming with π to achieve goals. We use the ρ -function to represent the probability of exploring each policy, and we have $\rho(\pi_{\theta}^{ef}) + \rho(\pi_{\theta}^{in}) + \rho(\pi_{\theta}^{ne}) = 1$. Intuitively, the expected return of human goal-achievement under arbitrary enhancement is a lower bound of the expected return under effective enhancement, that is,

$$V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ef},\pi^{H}} \ge \rho(\pi_{\theta}^{ef}) \cdot V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ef},\pi^{H}} + \rho(\pi_{\theta}^{in}) \cdot V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta}^{in},\pi^{H}} + \rho(\pi_{\theta}^{ne}) \cdot V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ne},\pi^{H}} = V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^{H}}$$

¹⁴⁶ To ensure that the agent only learns effective enhancement behaviors, we replace the lower bound ¹⁴⁷ $V_H^{\pi_{\theta},\pi^H}$ with V_H^{π,π^H} . Therefore, the agent's policy gradient 1 can be reformulated as:

$$g(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a|o, \pi^{H}) \mathbb{E}_{\pi^{H}} \left[A + \alpha \cdot \widehat{A}_{H} \right],$$
(3)

where $\widehat{A}_{H} = (G_{H} - V_{H}^{\pi,\pi^{H}}) - \operatorname{Gain}_{\theta}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ef},\pi^{H}}$ and $\operatorname{Gain}_{\theta}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ef},\pi^{H}} = V_{H}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ef},\pi^{H}} - V_{H}^{\pi,\pi^{H}}$ is the expected of the effective enhancement benefit. We use $\operatorname{Gain}_{\omega}$ to denote an estimate of $\operatorname{Gain}_{\theta}^{\pi_{\theta}^{ef},\pi^{H}}$, which can be trained by minimizing the following loss function:

$$L(\omega) = \mathbb{E}_{s \in S} \left[I(G_H, V_{\phi}(s)) \cdot \| (G_H - V_{\phi}(s)) - \operatorname{Gain}_{\omega}(s) \|_2 \right], \quad I(G, V) = \begin{cases} 1, & G > V \\ 0, & G \le V \end{cases}$$
(4)

where *I* is an indicator function to filter invalid and negative enhancement samples and V_{ϕ} is an estimate of $V_{H}^{\pi,\pi^{H}}$.

153 **3.2 The Algorithm**

We achieve our insights and propose the RLHG algorithm as shown in Algorithm 1, which consists of two steps: the Human Primitive Value Estimation step and the Human Enhancement Training step.

Human Primitive Value Estimation: The RLHG algorithm initializes a value network $V_{\phi}(s)$, which is used to estimate the expected primitive human return for achieving \mathcal{G}^H in state *s*. $V_{\phi}(s)$ is trained by minimizing the Temporal Difference (TD) errors (Sutton and Barto, 2018) with trajectory samples collected by teaming the agent π and the human π^H to execute in a collaboration environment. Afterward, $V_{\phi}(s)$ is frozen for subsequent human enhancement training.

Human Enhancement Training: The RLHG algorithm initializes the agent's policy network π_{θ} and value network V_{ψ} by conditioned on the human policy π^{H} , respectively. The RLHG algorithm also initializes a value network $Gain_{\omega}(s)$, which is used to estimate the benefit value of the human return G_{H} in state *s* under effective enhancement over $V_{\phi}(s)$. $Gain_{\omega}(s)$ is trained by minimizing the loss function Eq. 4. The trajectory samples are also collected by teaming π_{θ} and π^{H} to execute in

- the collaboration environment. The agent's policy network π_{θ} is fine-tuned by the PPO (Schulman 166
- et al., 2017) algorithm using the combination of the original advantage A and the human-enhanced 167
- advantage A_H . The agent's value network V_{ψ} is fine-tuned using the agent's original return G. 168

Algorithm 1 Reinforcement Learning from Human Gain (RLHG)

Require: Human policy network π^H , human individual goals \mathcal{G}^H , agent policy network π , agent value network V, hyper-parameter α

Process:

- 1: Initialize human primitive value network V_{ϕ} ;
 - // Step I: Human Primitive Value Estimation
- 2: while not converged do
- Collect human-agent team $< \pi, \pi^H >$ trajectories; 3:
- Compute human return G_H for achieving goals \mathcal{G}^H ; 4:
- 5: Update $V_{\phi}(s) \leftarrow G_H$
- 6: end while
- 7: Initialize agent policy network $\pi_{\theta}(a|o, \pi^H) \leftarrow \pi$, agent value network $V_{\psi}(s, \pi^H) \leftarrow V$, human gain network $Gain_{\omega}(s)$;
 - // Step II: Human Enhancement Training
- 8: while not converged do
- Collect human-agent team $< \pi_{\theta}, \pi^{H} >$ trajectories; 9:
- Compute agent original return G and human return G_H ; Compute agent original advantage $A = G V_{\psi}(s, \pi^H)$; 10:
- 11:
- Compute human-enhanced advantage $\widehat{A}_H = (G_H V_{\phi}(s)) \operatorname{Gain}_{\omega}(s);$ 12:
- Update agent policy network $\pi_{\theta} \leftarrow A + \alpha \cdot \widehat{A}_{H}$; Update agent value network $V_{\psi}(s, \pi^{H}) \leftarrow G$; 13:
- 14:
- Update human gain network $Gain_{\omega}(s)$ with Eq. 4 15:
- 16: end while

3.3 Practical Implementation 169

We provide the overall training framework of the RLHG algorithm, as shown in Figure 3. We 170 elaborate on the integral components of the RLHG framework, including the human model, the agent 171 model, and the training details. 172

Human Model: The RLHG algorithm introduces a human model as a partner of the agent during the 173 training process. The human model can be trained via Behavior Cloning (BC) (Bain and Sammut, 174 1995) or any Supervised Learning (SL) techniques (Ye et al., 2020b), but this is not the focus of our 175 concern. The RLHG algorithm aims to fine-tune a pre-trained agent to enhance a given human model. 176

Agent Model: Any pre-trained agent can be used within our framework. Since in many practical 177 scenarios agents cannot directly access human policies, we input the observed human historical info 178 $h_t = (s_{t-m}^H, ..., s_t^H)$ into an LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) module to extract the human policy embedding, similar to Theory-of-Mind (ToM) (Rabinowitz *et al.*, 2018). The human policy 179 180 embedding is fed into two extra value networks, i.e., V_{ϕ} and Gain_{ω}, and fused into the agent's original 181 network. We use surgery techniques (Chen et al., 2015; OpenAI et al., 2019) to fuse the human 182 183 policy embedding into the agent's original network, i.e. adding more randomly initialized units to an internal fully-connected layer. $V_{\phi}(h_t)$ and $\operatorname{Gain}_{\omega}(h_t)$ output values estimate the human return for 184 achieving goals without enhancement and the benefit under enhancement in state s_t , respectively. 185

Training Details: The overall training framework of the RLHG algorithm is shown in Figure 3. 186 Figure 3 (a) shows the training process of the human primitive value network V_{ϕ} , in which the agent's 187 policy network is frozen. V_{ϕ} is trained by minimizing the TD errors. Figure 3 (b) shows the human 188 enhancement training process, in which V_{ϕ} is frozen. The agent's policy and value networks are 189 trained using the PPO algorithm. Gain $_{\omega}(h_t)$ is trained by minimizing the loss function Eq. 4. we 190 apply the absolute activation function to ensure that the gains are non-negative. In practical training, 191 we found that only conducting human enhancement training has a certain negative impact on the 192 agent's original ability to complete the task. Therefore, we introduce $1 - \beta \%$ agent-only environment 193 to maintain the agent's original ability and reserve $\beta\%$ human-agent environment to learn effective 194 enhancement behaviors. These two environments can be easily controlled through the task gate, i.e., 195 the task gate is set to 1 in the human-agent environment and 0 otherwise. 196



Figure 3: The RLHG training framework. (a) The human primitive value network V_{ϕ} is trained in the human-agent environment with the agent's policy π frozen. (b) The human enhancement training framework. V_{ϕ} is frozen. $\beta\%$ human-agent environment is used to learn human enhancement behaviors, and $1 - \beta\%$ agent-only environment is used to maintain the agent's original ability.

197 4 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate the proposed RLHG method by conducting both simulated human modelagent tests and real-world human-agent tests in *Honor of Kings*. All experiments¹ were conducted in the 5v5 mode with a full hero pool (over 100 heroes, see Appendix A.2). Our demo videos and code are present at https://sites.google.com/view/rlhg-demo.

202 4.1 Experimental Setup

214

Environment Setup: To evaluate the performance of the RLHG agent, we conducted experiments in 203 both the simulated environment, i.e., human model-agent game tests, and the real-world environment, 204 i.e., human-agent game tests, as shown in Figure 4 (a) and (b), respectively. All game tests were 205 played in a 5v5 mode, that is, 4 agents plus 1 human or human model team up against a fixed opponent 206 team. To conduct our experiments, we communicated with the game provider and obtained testing 207 authorization. The game provider assisted in recruiting 30 experienced participants with anonymized 208 personal information, which comprised 15 high-level (top 1%) and 15 general-level (top30%) par-209 ticipants. We first did an IRB-approved participant survey on what top 5 goals participants want to 210 achieve in-game, and the result is shown in Figure 4 (c). We can see that the top 5 goals voted the 211 most by the 30 participants including the task goal, i.e., game victory, and 4 individual goals, i.e., 212 high MVP score, high participation, more highlights, and more resources. We found that participants 213 consistently rated the high MVP score individual goal most, even more than the task goal.



Figure 4: Environment Setup. (a) Simulated environment: the human model-agent game tests. (b) Real-world environment: the human-agent game tests. (c) Top 5 goals based on the stats of our participant survey. * denotes the task goal. The participant survey contains 8 initial goals, each participant can vote up to 5 non-repeating goals, and can also add additional goals. 30 participants voluntarily participated in the voting.

Training Setup: We were authorized to use the Wukong agent (Ye *et al.*, 2020a) as the pre-trained

agent and use the JueWu-SL agent (Ye et al., 2020b) as the fixed human model. Note that both

¹All experiments are conducted subject to oversight by an Institutional Review Board (IRB).

the Wukong agent and the JueWu-SL agent were developed at the same level as the high-level (top 217 1%) players. We adopted the top 4 individual goals as \mathcal{G} for the pre-trained agent to enhance the 218 human model. The corresponding goal reward function can be found in Appendix B.3. We trained 219 the human primitive value network and fine-tune the agent until they converge for 12 and 40 hours, 220 respectively, using a physical computer cluster with 49600 CPU cores and 288 NVIDIA V100 GPU 221 cards. The batch size of each GPU is set to 256. The hyper-parameters α and β are set to 2 and 50, 222 respectively. The step size and unit size of the LSTM module are set to 16 and 4096, respectively. 223 Due to space constraints, detailed descriptions of the network structure and ablation studies on these 224 hyper-parameters can be found in Appendix B.6 and Appendix C.1, respectively. 225

Baseline Setup: We compared the RLHG agent with two baseline agents: the Wukong agent (the pre-trained agent) and the Human Reward Enhancement (HRE) agent (the pre-trained agent learns to be assistive by incorporating the human's goal rewards). The human model-agent team (4 Wukong agents plus 1 human model) was adopted as the fixed opponent for all tests. For fair comparisons, both the HRE and RLHG agents are trained using the same goal reward function, and all common parameters and training resources are kept consistent. Results are reported over five random seeds.

232 4.2 Human Model-Agent Test

Directly evaluating agents with humans is expensive, which is not conducive to model selection and iteration. Instead, we build a simulated environment, i.e., human model-agent game tests, to evaluate agents, in which the human model, i.e., the JueWu-SL agent, teams up with different agents.



Figure 5: The performance of the human model in achieving game goals after teaming up with different agents. (a) The task goal. (b) The top 4 individual goals (b.1, b.2, b.3, and b.4). (c) The follow rate metric: the frequency with which an agent follows a human in the entire game. Each agent played 10,000 games. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals, calculated over games.

Figure 5 shows the results of the human model on different game goals, including the top 4 individual 236 goals and the task goal, i.e., the Win Rate, after teaming up with different agents. From Figure 5 (b), 237 we can observe that both the RLHG agent and the HRE agent significantly enhance the performance 238 of the human model in achieving the top 4 individual goals, and the RLHG agent has achieved 239 the best enhancement effect on most of the individual goals. However, as shown in Figure 5 (a), 240 the HRE agent drops significantly on the task goal. We observed the actual performance of the 241 HRE agent teamed with the human model and found that the HRE agent did many unreasonable 242 behaviors. For example, to assist the human model in achieving the goals of Participation Rate and 243 Highlight Times, the HRE agent had been following the human model throughout the entire game, 244 such excessive following behaviors greatly affect its original ability to complete the task and lead 245 to a decreased Win Rate. This can also be reflected in Figure 5(c), in which the HRE agent has the 246 247 highest Follow-Rate metric. Although the Follow-Rate of the RLHG agent has also increased, we observed that most of the following behaviors of the RLHG agent can effectively assist the human 248 model. We also found that the Win Rate of the RLHG agent decreased slightly, which is in line 249 with expectations because the RLHG agent made certain sacrifices to the task goal while enhancing 250 humans in achieving their individual goals. In practical applications, we implemented an adaptive 251 adjustment mechanism by simply utilizing the agent's original value network to measure the degree 252 of completing the task goal and setting the task gate to 1 (enhancing the human) when the original 253 value is above the specified threshold ξ , and to 0 (completing the task) otherwise. The threshold 254 ξ depends on the human preference, i.e. the relative importance of the task goal and the human's 255 individual goals. We verify the effectiveness of the adaptive adjustment mechanism in Appendix C.2. 256

257 4.3 Human-Agent Test

In this section, we conduct online experiments to examine whether the RLHG agent can effectively enhance human participants (We did not compare the HRE agent, since the HRE agent learned lots of unreasonable behaviors, resulting in a low Win Rate). We used a within-participant design for the experiment: each participant teams up with four agents. This design allowed us to evaluate both objective performances as well as subjective preferences. All participants read detailed guidelines and provided informed consent before the testing. Each participant tested 20 matches. After each test, participants reported their preference over their agent teammates. For fair comparisons, participants were not told the type of their agent teammates. See Appendix D for additional experimental details, including experimental design, result analysis, and ethical review.

Table 1: The results of **high-level** participants achieving goals after teaming up with different agents. Results for the task goal are expressed as mean, and results for individual goals are expressed as mean (std.).

Agent \ Goals —	Task Goal	Top 4 Individual Goals					
	Win Rate	MVP Score	Highlight Times	Participation Rate	Resource Quantity		
Wukong	52%	8.86 (0.79)	0.53 (0.21)	0.46 (0.11)	5.3 (2.87)		
RLHG	46.7%	10.28 (0.75)	0.87 (0.29)	0.58 (0.09)	6.28 (2.71)		

Table 2: The results of **general-level** participants achieving goals after teaming up with different agents. Results for the task goal are expressed as mean, and results for individual goals are expressed as mean (std.).

Agent \ Goals —	Task Goal	Top 4 Individual Goals					
	Win Rate	MVP Score	Highlight Times	Participation Rate	Resource Quantity		
Wukong	34%	7.44 (0.71)	0.37 (0.349)	0.41 (0.11)	4.98 (2.73)		
RLHG	30%	9.1 (0.61)	0.75 (0.253)	0.59 (0.05)	5.8 (2.78)		

We first compare the objective performance of the participants on different goal-achievement metrics 267 after teaming up with different agents. Table 1 and Table 2 demonstrate the results of high-level and 268 general-level participants, respectively. We see that both high-level and general-level participants 269 had significantly improved their performance on all top 4 individual goals after teaming up with 270 the RLHG agent. Notably, the RLHG agent effectively improves the performance of general-level 271 participants in achieving individual goals even better than the primitive performance of high-level 272 participants. We also notice that the Win Rate of the participants decreased when they teamed up 273 with the RLHG agent, which is consistent with the results in the simulated environment. However, 274 we find in the subsequent subjective preference statistics that the improvement of Gaming Experience 275 brought by the enhancement outweighs the negative impact of the decrease in Win Rate. 276



Figure 6: **Participants' preference over their agent teammates.** (a) Behavioral Rationality: the reasonableness of the agent's behavior. (b) Enhancement Degree: The degree to which the agent enhances your abilities to achieve your goals. (c) Gaming Experience: your overall gaming experience. (d) Overall Preference: your overall preference for your agent teammates. Participants scored (1: Terrible, 2: Poor, 3: Normal, 4: Good, 5: Perfect) in these metrics after each game test. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals, calculated over games. See Appendix D.2.3 for detailed wording and scale descriptions.

277 We then compare the subjective preference metrics, i.e., the Behavioral Rationality, the Enhancement

²⁷⁸ Degree, the Gaming Experience, and the Overall Preference, reported by participants over their agent

teammates, as shown in Figure 6. We find that most participants showed great interest in the RLHG

agent, and they believed that the RLHG agent's enhancement behaviors were more reasonable than

that of the Wukong agent, and the RLHG agent's enhancement behaviors brought them a better

gaming experience. A high-level participant commented on the RLHG agent "The agent frequently

- helps me do what I want to do, and this feeling is amazing." In general, participants were satisfied
- with the RLHG agent and gave higher scores in the Overall Preference metric (Figure 6 (d)).

285 4.4 Case Study

To better understand how the RLHG agent effectively enhances participants, we visualize the values 286 predicted by the gain network in two test scenarios where participants benefitted from the RLHG 287 agent's assistance, as illustrated in Figure 7. In the first scenario (Figure 7 (a)), the RLHG agent 288 successfully assisted the participant in achieving the highlight goal, whereas the Wukong agent 289 290 disregards the participant, leading to a failure in achieving the highlight goal. The visualization 291 (Figure 7 (b)) of the gain network illustrates that the gain of the RLHG agent, when accompanying the participant, is positive, reaching the maximum when the participant achieved the highlight goal. 292 In the second scenario (Figure 7 (c)), the RLHG agent actively relinquishes the acquisition of the 293 monster resource, enabling the participant to successfully achieve the resource goal. Conversely, the 294 Wukong agent competes with the participant for the monster resource, resulting in the participant's 295 failure to achieve the resource goal. The visualization (Figure 7 (d)) of the gain network also reveals 296 that the gain of the RLHG agent's behavior - actively forgoing the monster resource, is positive, with 297 the gain peaking when the participant achieved the resource goal. These results indicate that the 298 RLHG agent learns effective enhancement behaviors through the guidance of the gain network. 299



Figure 7: The RLHG agent enhances participants in two scenarios. (a) The Wukong agent ignores the participant; The RLHG agent accompanies the participant and assists the participant in achieving the highlight goal. (b) The gain value in scenario (a). (c) The Wukong agent competes with the participant for the monster resource; The RLHG agent actively forgoes the monster resource, and the participant successfully achieves the resource goal. (d) The gain value in scenario (c).

300 5 Discussion and Conclusion

Summary. In this work, we introduced the Reinforcement Learning from Human Gain method, 301 dubbed RLHG, designed to effectively enhance human goal-achievement abilities within collaborative 302 tasks. The RLHG method first trains a value network to estimate the primitive performance of humans 303 in achieving goals. Subsequently, the RLHG method trains a gain network to estimate the positive 304 gain of human performance in achieving goals under effective enhancement over that of the primitive. 305 The positive gains are used for guiding the agent to learn effective enhancement behaviors. The 306 307 RLHG method can be regarded as a continual learning plug-in that can be directly utilized to fine-tune any pre-trained agent to be assistive in human enhancement. The experimental results in *Honor* 308 of Kings demonstrate that the RLHG agent effectively improves the performance of general-level 309 participants in achieving their individual goals to be close to those of high-level participants and that 310 311 this enhancement is generalizable across participants at different levels.

Limitations and Future Work. In this work, we only focus on the setting of known human goals. 312 But for many practical complex applications, human goals may be difficult to define and formalize, 313 and the goal reward function needs to be inferred using Inverse Reinforcement Learning (IRL) (Ng 314 et al., 2000; Ziebart et al., 2008; Ho and Ermon, 2016) or Reinforcement Learning from Human 315 Feedback (RLHF) (Christiano et al., 2017; Ibarz et al., 2018; Ouyang et al., 2022) techniques. Future 316 work can combine the RLHG method with goal inference methods to solve complex scenarios where 317 human goals are unknown. Besides, our method and experiments only consider the scenario where 318 multiple agents enhance one human. Another worthy research direction is how to simultaneously 319 enhance multiple humans with diverse behaviors. 320

321 **References**

- Parand Alizadeh Alamdari, Toryn Q Klassen, Rodrigo Toro Icarte, and Sheila A McIlraith. Be
 considerate: Avoiding negative side effects in reinforcement learning. In *Proceedings of the 21st*
- International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems, pages 18–26, 2022.
- Dario Amodei, Chris Olah, Jacob Steinhardt, Paul Christiano, John Schulman, and Dan Mané.
 Concrete problems in ai safety. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.06565*, 2016.
- Michael Bain and Claude Sammut. A framework for behavioural cloning. In *Machine Intelligence 15*, pages 103–129, 1995.
- Chris Baker, Rebecca Saxe, and Joshua Tenenbaum. Bayesian models of human action understanding.
 Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 18, 2005.
- Anton Bakhtin, David J Wu, Adam Lerer, Jonathan Gray, Athul Paul Jacob, Gabriele Farina, Alexan der H Miller, and Noam Brown. Mastering the game of no-press diplomacy via human-regularized
 reinforcement learning and planning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.05492*, 2022.
- Micah Carroll, Rohin Shah, Mark K Ho, Tom Griffiths, Sanjit Seshia, Pieter Abbeel, and Anca
 Dragan. On the utility of learning about humans for human-ai coordination. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32, 2019.
- Martin Cerny. Sarah and sally: Creating a likeable and competent ai sidekick for a videogame. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Interactive Digital Entertainment*, volume 11, pages 2–8, 2015.
- Tianqi Chen, Ian Goodfellow, and Jonathon Shlens. Net2net: Accelerating learning via knowledge transfer. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.05641*, 2015.
- Paul F Christiano, Jan Leike, Tom Brown, Miljan Martic, Shane Legg, and Dario Amodei. Deep
 reinforcement learning from human preferences. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 30, 2017.
- Jacob W Crandall, Mayada Oudah, Fatimah Ishowo-Oloko, Sherief Abdallah, Jean-François Bonne fon, Manuel Cebrian, Azim Shariff, Michael A Goodrich, and Iyad Rahwan. Cooperating with
 machines. *Nature Communications*, 9(1):233, 2018.
- Allan Dafoe, Edward Hughes, Yoram Bachrach, Tantum Collins, Kevin R McKee, Joel Z Leibo, Kate
 Larson, and Thore Graepel. Open problems in cooperative ai. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.08630*,
 2020.
- Yuqing Du, Stas Tiomkin, Emre Kiciman, Daniel Polani, Pieter Abbeel, and Anca Dragan. Ave:
 Assistance via empowerment. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:4560–4571,
 2020.
- Jaime F Fisac, Monica A Gates, Jessica B Hamrick, Chang Liu, Dylan Hadfield-Menell, Malayandi
 Palaniappan, Dhruv Malik, S Shankar Sastry, Thomas L Griffiths, and Anca D Dragan. Pragmatic pedagogic value alignment. In *Robotics Research: The 18th International Symposium ISRR*, pages
 49–57. Springer, 2020.
- Jakob Foerster, Francis Song, Edward Hughes, Neil Burch, Iain Dunning, Shimon Whiteson, Matthew
 Botvinick, and Michael Bowling. Bayesian action decoder for deep multi-agent reinforcement
 learning. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 1942–1951. PMLR, 2019.
- Yiming Gao, Bei Shi, Xueying Du, Liang Wang, Guangwei Chen, Zhenjie Lian, Fuhao Qiu, Guoan
 Han, Weixuan Wang, Deheng Ye, et al. Learning diverse policies in moba games via macro-goals.
 Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 34:16171–16182, 2021.
- Yiming Gao, Feiyu Liu, Liang Wang, Zhenjie Lian, Weixuan Wang, Siqin Li, Xianliang Wang, Xianhan Zeng, Rundong Wang, Jiawei Wang, et al. Towards effective and interpretable human-agent collaboration in moba games: A communication perspective. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.11632*, 2023.

- ³⁶⁸ Dylan Hadfield-Menell, Stuart J Russell, Pieter Abbeel, and Anca Dragan. Cooperative inverse ³⁶⁹ reinforcement learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 29, 2016.
- Jonathan Ho and Stefano Ermon. Generative adversarial imitation learning. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 29, 2016.
- Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. *Neural Computation*, 9(8):1735–
 1780, 1997.
- Hengyuan Hu, Adam Lerer, Alex Peysakhovich, and Jakob Foerster. "other-play" for zero-shot
 coordination. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 4399–4410. PMLR, 2020.
- Borja Ibarz, Jan Leike, Tobias Pohlen, Geoffrey Irving, Shane Legg, and Dario Amodei. Reward
 learning from human preferences and demonstrations in atari. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 31, 2018.
- Max Jaderberg, Wojciech M Czarnecki, Iain Dunning, Luke Marris, Guy Lever, Antonio Garcia
 Castaneda, Charles Beattie, Neil C Rabinowitz, Ari S Morcos, Avraham Ruderman, et al. Human level performance in 3d multiplayer games with population-based reinforcement learning. *Science*, 364(6443):859–865, 2019.
- Anirudha Majumdar, Sumeet Singh, Ajay Mandlekar, and Marco Pavone. Risk-sensitive inverse reinforcement learning via coherent risk models. In *Robotics: Science and Systems*, volume 16, page 117, 2017.
- Anis Najar and Mohamed Chetouani. Reinforcement learning with human advice: A survey. *Frontiers in Robotics and AI*, 8:584075, 2021.
- Andrew Y Ng, Stuart Russell, et al. Algorithms for inverse reinforcement learning. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 1, page 2, 2000.
- OpenAI, Christopher Berner, Greg Brockman, Brooke Chan, Vicki Cheung, Przemysław Dębiak,
 Christy Dennison, David Farhi, Quirin Fischer, Shariq Hashme, Chris Hesse, Rafal Józefowicz,
 Scott Gray, Catherine Olsson, Jakub Pachocki, Michael Petrov, Henrique Pondé de Oliveira Pinto,
 Jonathan Raiman, Tim Salimans, Jeremy Schlatter, Jonas Schneider, Szymon Sidor, Ilya Sutskever,
 Jie Tang, Filip Wolski, and Susan Zhang. Dota 2 with large scale deep reinforcement learning.
 arXiv preprint arXiv:1912.06680, 2019.
- Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong
 Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. Training language models to follow
 instructions with human feedback. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:27730–
 27744, 2022.
- Xavier Puig, Tianmin Shu, Shuang Li, Zilin Wang, Yuan-Hong Liao, Joshua B Tenenbaum, Sanja
 Fidler, and Antonio Torralba. Watch-and-help: A challenge for social perception and human-ai
 collaboration. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.09890*, 2020.
- Neil Rabinowitz, Frank Perbet, Francis Song, Chiyuan Zhang, SM Ali Eslami, and Matthew Botvinick.
 Machine theory of mind. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 4218–4227.
 PMLR, 2018.
- John Schulman, Filip Wolski, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alec Radford, and Oleg Klimov. Proximal policy
 optimization algorithms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.06347*, 2017.
- Victor do Nascimento Silva and Luiz Chaimowicz. Moba: A new arena for game ai. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1705.10443*, 2017.
- ⁴¹⁰ DJ Strouse, Kevin McKee, Matt Botvinick, Edward Hughes, and Richard Everett. Collaborating with ⁴¹¹ humans without human data. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34, 2021.
- 412 Richard S Sutton and Andrew G Barto. *Reinforcement learning: An introduction*. MIT press, 2018.

- Hua Wei, Jingxiao Chen, Xiyang Ji, Hongyang Qin, Minwen Deng, Siqin Li, Liang Wang, Weinan
 Zhang, Yong Yu, Liu Linc, et al. Honor of kings arena: An environment for generalization
- in competitive reinforcement learning. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems,
- 416 35:11881–11892, 2022.
- H James Wilson and Paul R Daugherty. Collaborative intelligence: Humans and ai are joining forces.
 Harvard Business Review, 96(4):114–123, 2018.
- Sarah A Wu, Rose E Wang, James A Evans, Joshua B Tenenbaum, David C Parkes, and Max
 Kleiman-Weiner. Too many cooks: Bayesian inference for coordinating multi-agent collaboration.
 Topics in Cognitive Science, 13(2):414–432, 2021.
- Deheng Ye, Guibin Chen, Wen Zhang, Sheng Chen, Bo Yuan, Bo Liu, Jia Chen, Zhao Liu, Fuhao
 Qiu, Hongsheng Yu, et al. Towards playing full moba games with deep reinforcement learning.
 Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:621–632, 2020.
- Deheng Ye, Guibin Chen, Peilin Zhao, Fuhao Qiu, Bo Yuan, Wen Zhang, Sheng Chen, Mingfei
 Sun, Xiaoqian Li, Siqin Li, et al. Supervised learning achieves human-level performance in moba
 games: A case study of honor of kings. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*, 2020.
- Deheng Ye, Zhao Liu, Mingfei Sun, Bei Shi, Peilin Zhao, Hao Wu, Hongsheng Yu, Shaojie Yang,
 Xipeng Wu, Qingwei Guo, et al. Mastering complex control in moba games with deep reinforce ment learning. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 34, pages
 6672–6679, 2020.
- Brian D Ziebart, Andrew L Maas, J Andrew Bagnell, Anind K Dey, et al. Maximum entropy inverse reinforcement learning. In *Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence*, volume 8,
- 435 pages 1433–1438. Chicago, IL, USA, 2008.