Why do languages partition mental concepts into words the ways they do?

Recent work suggests that language is shaped by pressure for efficient communication¹. This involves an information-theoretic tradeoff between

- Cognitive load, or Complexity
- Informativeness

¹See for example: Gibson et al. (2017), Kemp et al. (2018) and Zaslavsky et al. (2019)

Numeral systems across languages reflect a need for efficient communication 2 .

- Approximate systems.
- Exact systems.
- Recursive systems.



Figure 1: Communication setup studied in Xu et al. 2020

 2 Xu et al. (2020)

Is there a computational learning mechanism that leads to efficient communication?

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In this work we show how efficient approximate and exact numeral systems emerge via Reinforcement Learning.

What do we mean by efficient communication?

We measure communication cost as expected surprisal³

$$C = -\sum_{n,w} p(n)p(w|n)\log p(n|w).$$

We measure complexity, or cognitive load, as the number of terms used in the numeral system.

 $^{^3}$ Gibson et al. (2017).

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 \rightarrow An efficient numeral system should, given a certain number of terms, minimize the expected surprisal.

³Gibson et al. (2017).

Signaling Game and Reinforcement Learning

We consider a Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning setup consisting of two agents playing a signaling game with

- finite set of numbers ${\cal N}$
- finite set of words \mathcal{W} .



Signaling Game and Reinforcement Learning

- 3 different need probabilities estimated from human data.
- Uniformed need probability
- Power-law estimated as in Xu et al. (2020).
- We consider the range [1, 20].



We consider the following three reward functions

•
$$r_{\text{linear}}(n, \hat{n}) = 1 - \frac{|n-\hat{n}|}{20}$$

• $r_{\text{inverse}}(n, \hat{n}) = \frac{1}{1+|n-\hat{n}|}$.

•
$$r_{\exp}(n,\hat{n}) = e^{-|n-\hat{n}|}$$



In Q-learning an agent estimates the expected reward for each state-action pair

$$\begin{split} F_{\mathcal{S}} &: \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{W} \longrightarrow [0,1] \\ F_{\mathcal{L}} &: \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow [0,1]. \end{split}$$

Here F_S and F_L are parameterized by a neural network with one hidden layer of 50 neurons and with ReLU activation.

Signaling Game and Reinforcement Learning

Given a number n

1. The sender applies dropout to its hidden layer to get a network f_S .



Signaling Game and Reinforcement Learning

Given a number *n*

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2. The expected reward are then estimated for each pair (n, w).

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 $w^* = \operatorname{argmax}_w f_S(n, w).$

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Dropout encourages exploration. This can be seen as an implicit form of Thompson Sampling.

Agents are updated by minimizing the mean-squared error between predicted reward and actual reward, using the optimizer Adam.



After the agents have converged we estimate p(w|n) as

$$p(w|n) \approx \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{i=1}^{1000} 1(w = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\hat{w}} f_{S,i}(\hat{w}, n)).$$

- If p(w|n) is not peaked we treat it as an approximate numeral system.
- We take the mode of p(w|n) as an exact numeral system.

- Maximum vocabulary size of 10.
- For each combination of need and reward we trained 6000 independent sender-listener pairs.
- We trained each pair for 10 000 updates.
- Batch size was 100.



Figure 2: Linear reward and power-law prior.





Figure 4: Linear reward and uniformed prior.



Consensus system using Correlation Clustering



Figure 6: Consensus systems for 5 terms using the power-law prior.

- RL agents can learn task specific communication protocols which are near-optimal in information-theoretic sense.
- Same level of efficiency as human systems and with similarities between artificial and human languages.

References

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