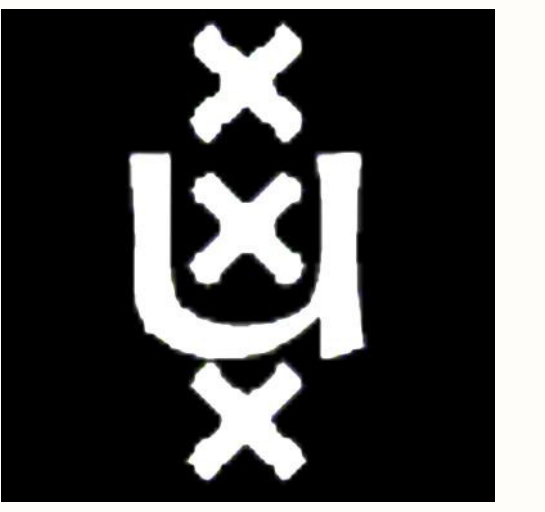


# Rule Learning in Humans and Animals



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## Introduction: a separate rule learning mechanism?

Peña et al. [2] present human adults with sequences of syllables composed of triplets of the form **AxC**, where A and C consistently co-occur and X varies.

- stream: pulikiberagatafodupurakibefogatalidu...
- partwords: (CxA, xAC): kibera, ragata, ...
- rulewords: (AyC): pumoki, besuga, tanedu

Interesting results:

- Micropause Effect:** with only two minutes of exposure, if adding subliminal pauses between items, participants choose rulewords over partwords.
- Time Effect:** while showing no preference between rulewords and partwords after 10 minutes of exposure, participants prefer partwords after 30 minutes.



Toro and Trobalón [3] performed similar experiments with rats, and report qualitatively different results. Although the rats learn to discriminate between stimuli on the basis of co-occurrence frequencies, they don't display any form of rule learning.

The time and the micropause effect are often taken as evidence of two learning mechanisms (e.g. see [1]):

- a statistical mechanism that tracks transitional probabilities
- a rule mechanism for structure detection (perhaps human specific)

Do we really need both?

## R<sup>2</sup>: the Retention-Recognition Model

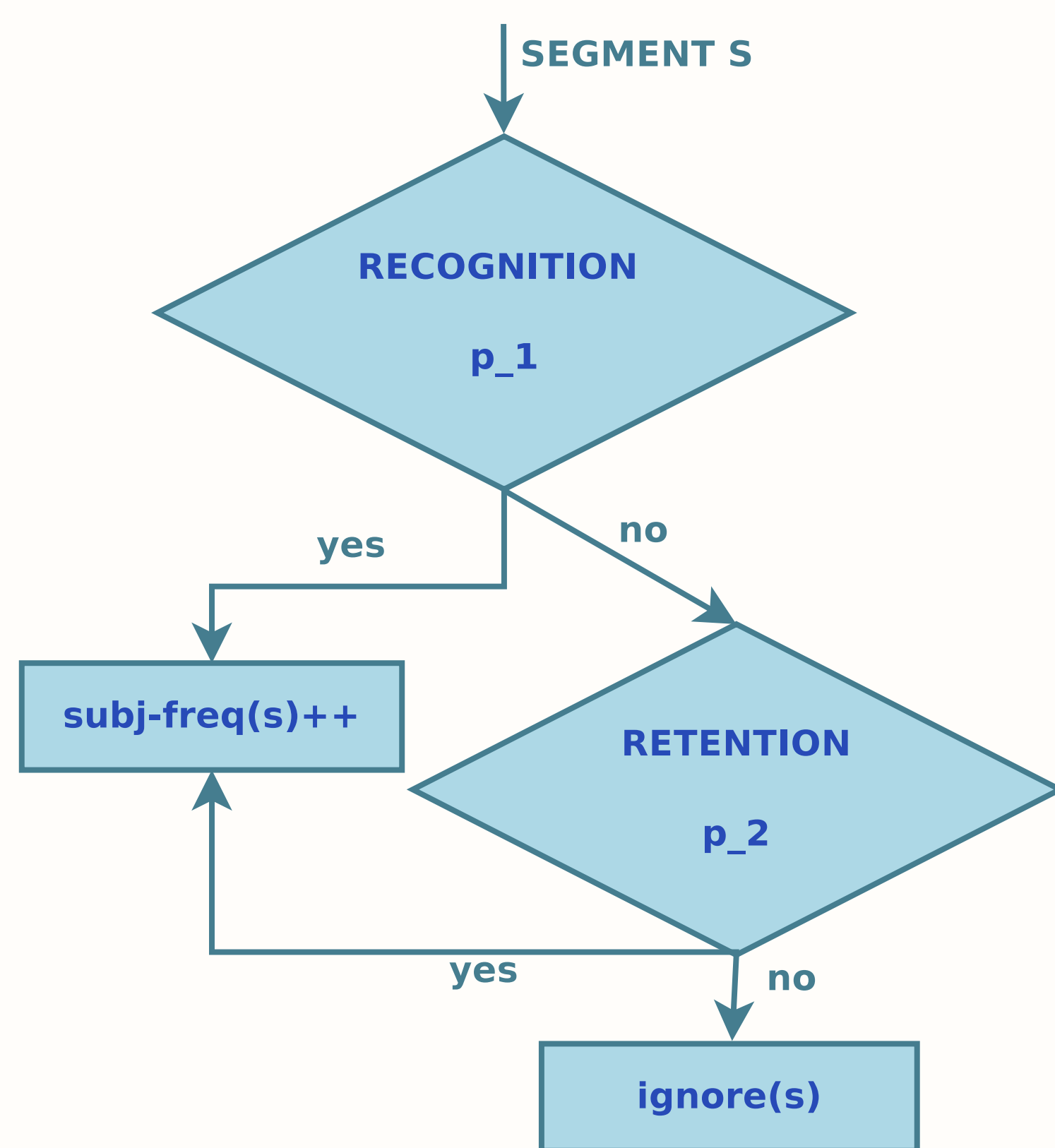


Figure 1: R<sup>2</sup>:The Retention-Recognition Model

$$p_1(s) = (1 - B^{\text{activation}(s)}) * D^{\text{\#types}} \quad (1)$$

$$p_2(s) = A^{\text{length}(s)} * C^\pi \quad (2)$$

$$0 \leq A, B, C, D \leq 1$$

$$\pi = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{after pause} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We model the probability that a subject memorizes a particular subsequence or increases its subjective count. The model involves free parameters that determine memory constraints which may be fitted to empirical data.

## Results I: model predicts observed skew in response distribution in rats

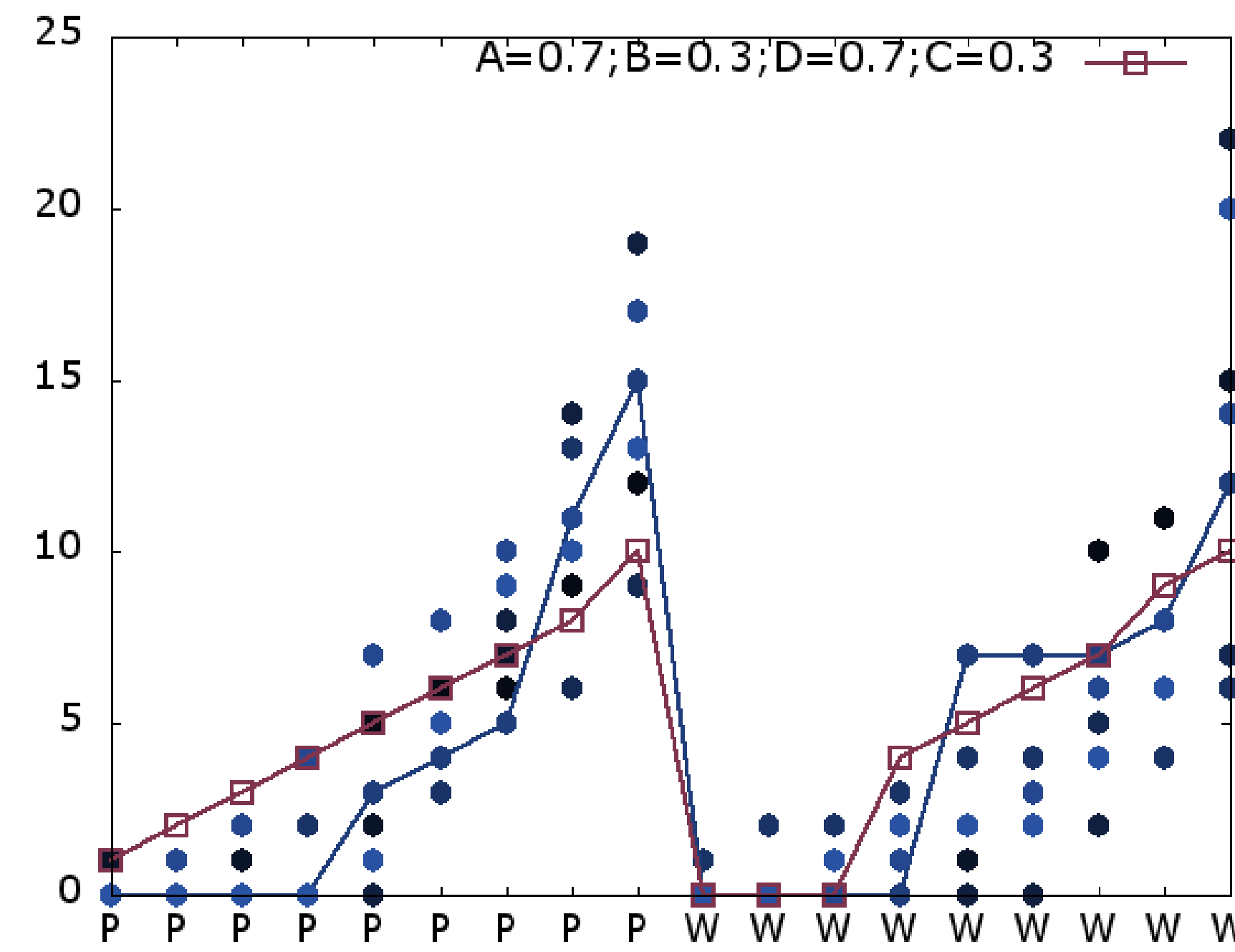


Figure 2: Responses of rats (blue) and subjective frequencies of the model (pink), without pauses. W denotes words; P partwords; both ordered by response frequency.

The model also predicts boost of words over partwords due to micropauses (but incorrectly predicts decreased skew).

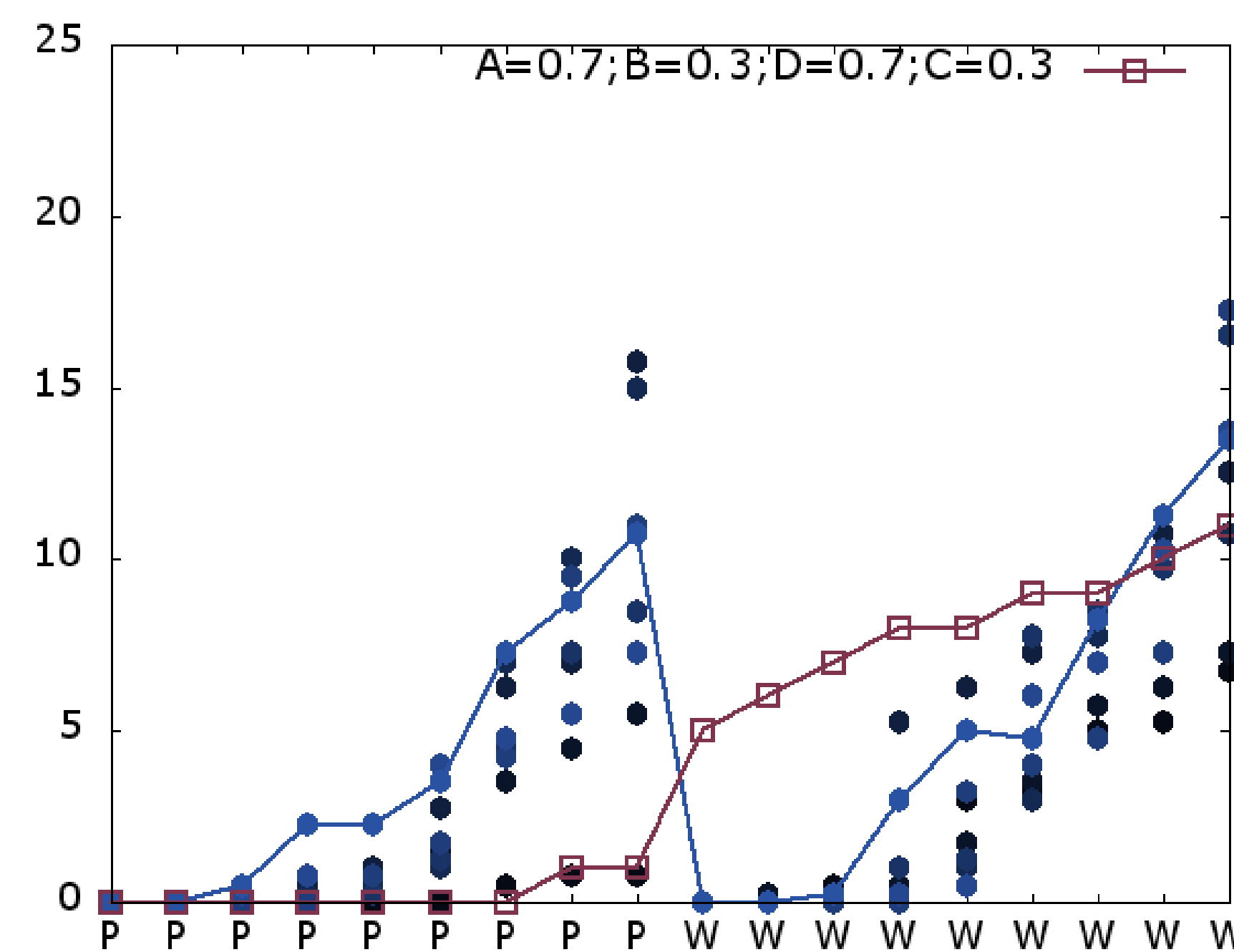


Figure 3: Responses of rats (blue) and subjective frequencies of the model (pink), with pauses. W denotes words; P partwords; both ordered by response frequency.

## How do we model the willingness to generalize? Good-Turing

The **time effect** implies that the subjects' willingness to generalize decreases with the number of exposures. But how do we model generalization? With Good-Turing Smoothing!

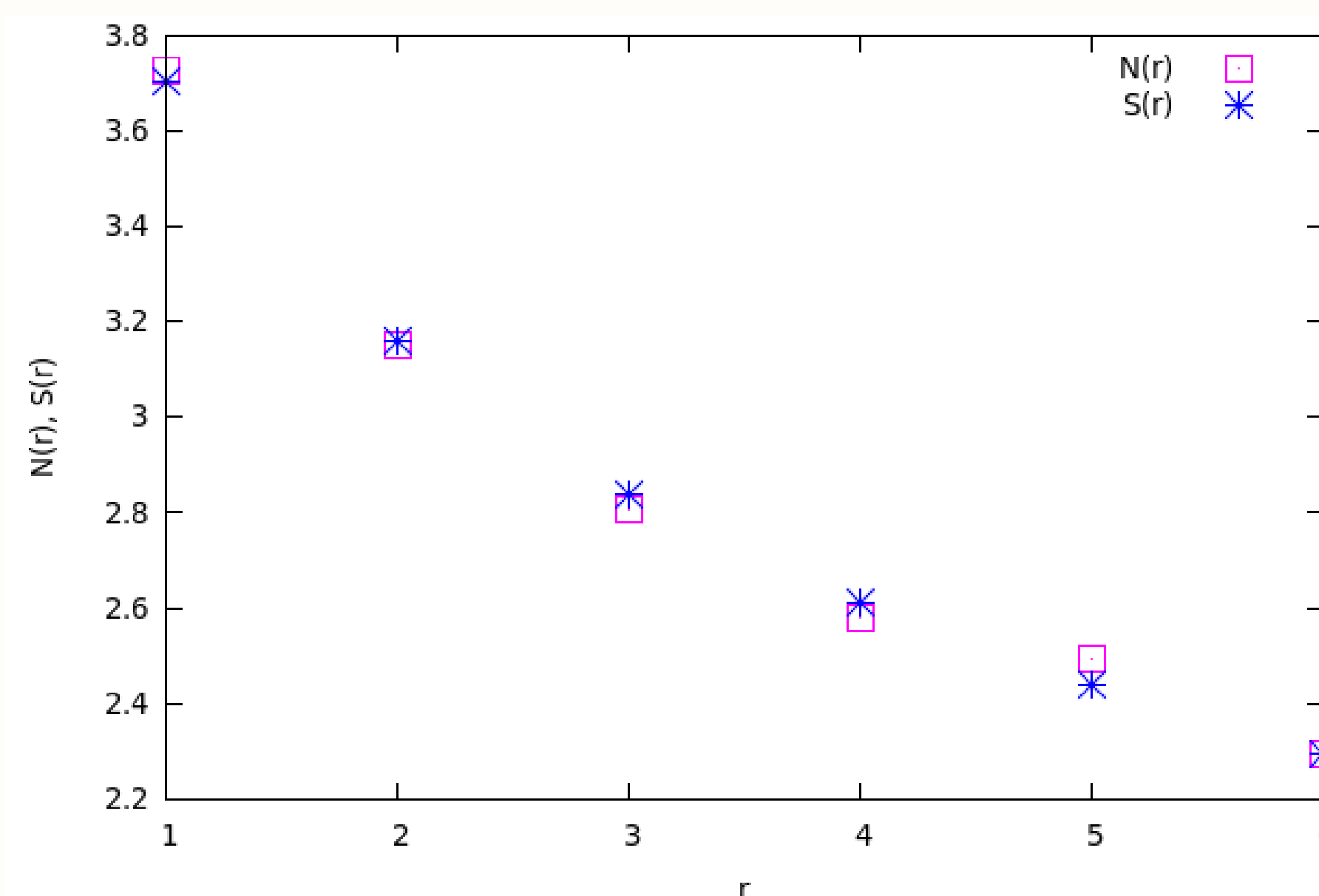


Figure 4: Example of Simple Good Turing.

- Probability of unseen objects: the **Missing Mass** [4]
- Missing mass:  $P_0 = E(N_1)/N$
- Reestimate probabilities:

$$P_r = r'/N$$

- Reestimate frequencies:

$$r' = (r + 1) \frac{E(N_{r+1})}{E(N_r)}$$

## Results II: model predicts observed decrease in willingness to generalize in humans

Evidence of **Time Effect**: the missing mass decreases as the number of exposures increases.

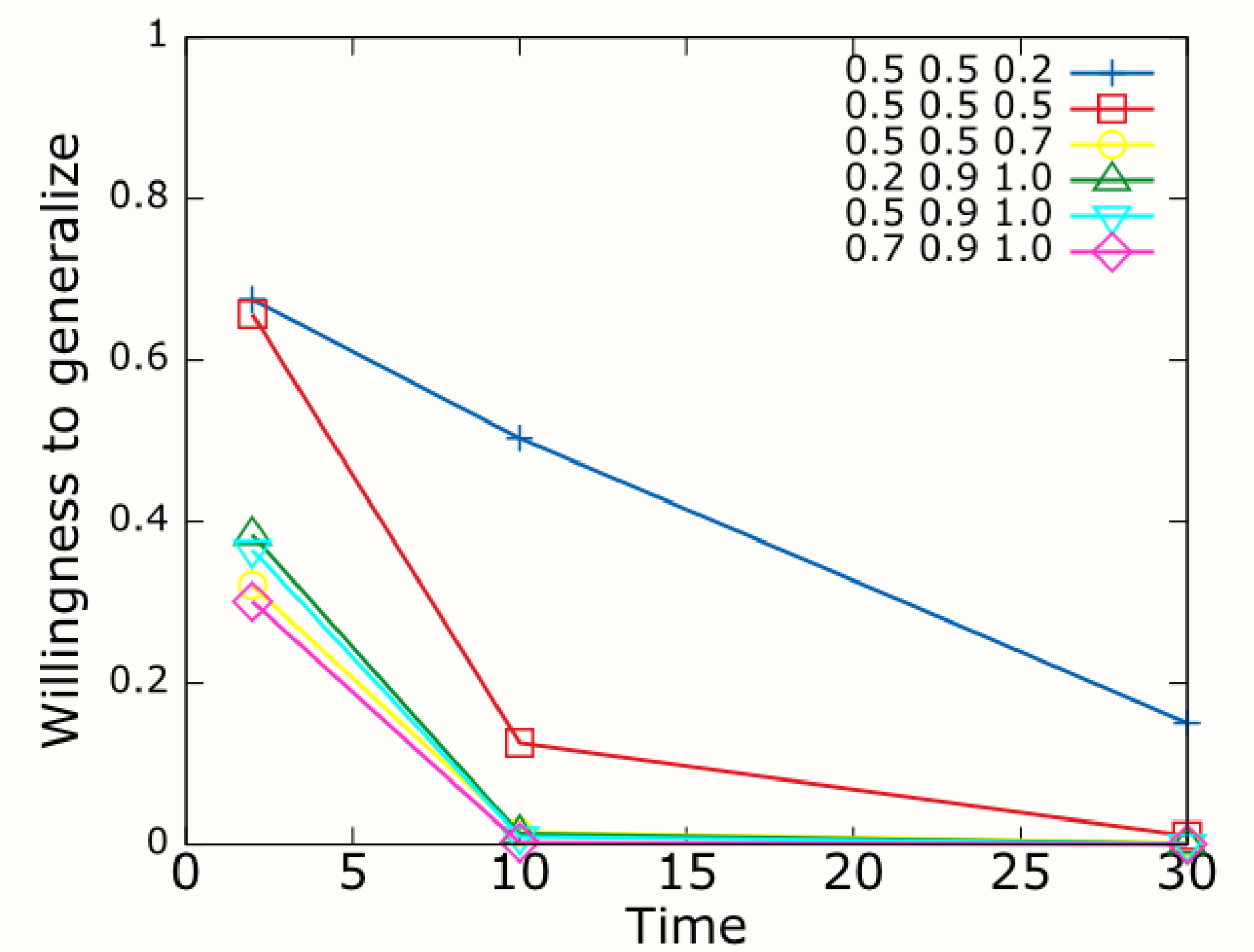


Figure 5: Missing mass for several parameters of the model.

The difference between words and partwords decreases as the number of exposures increases.

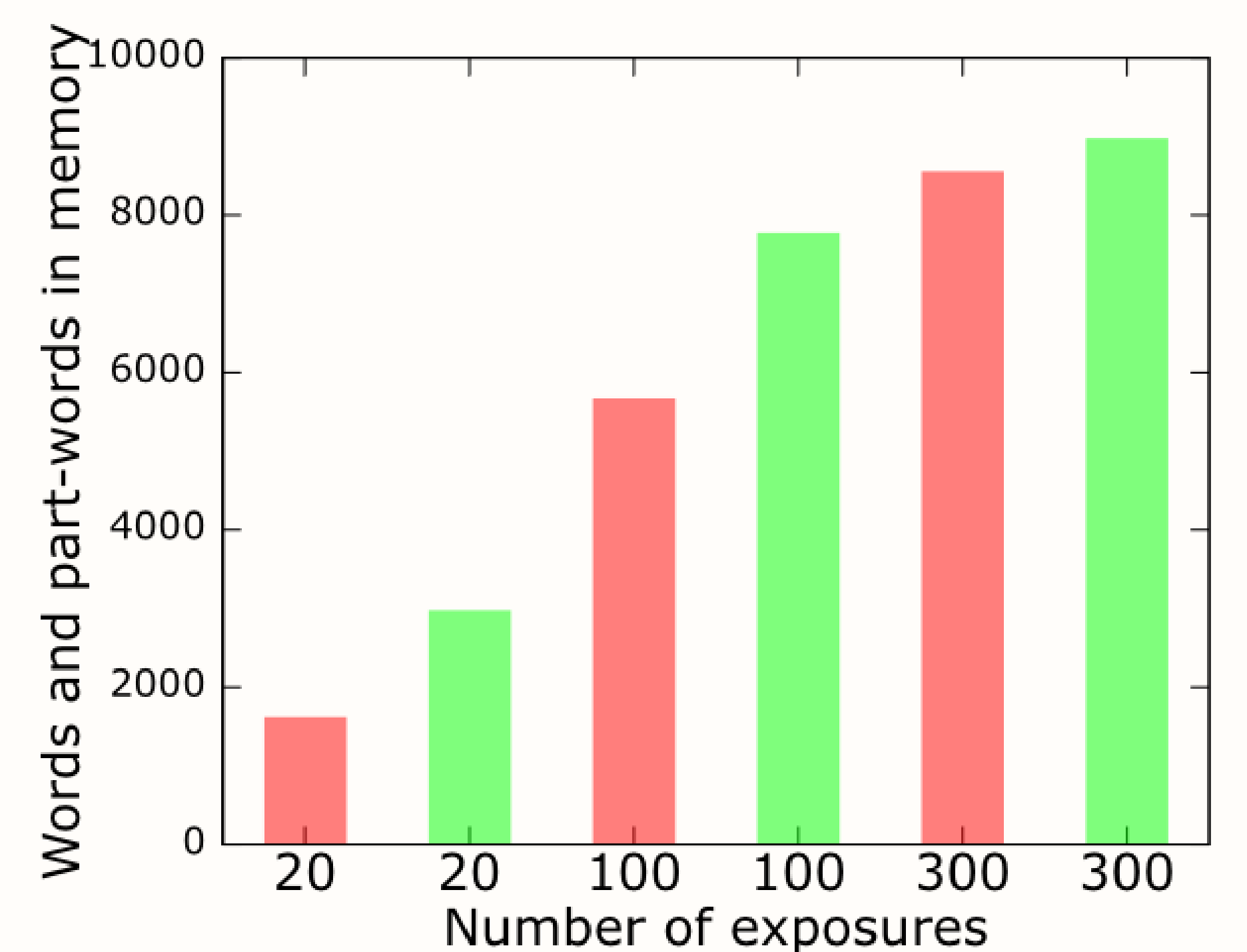


Figure 6: Subjective frequencies of words (green) and partwords (red) in 10K runs of a model with an arbitrary parameter setting ( $A=B=D=0.5$ ;  $C=1.0$ ).

## Conclusions

We present a single statistical model that qualitatively accounts for the experimental findings with humans and rats. This suggests that a single statistical mechanism suffices for learning non-adjacent dependencies and hence provides some insight on the mechanisms underlying language acquisition.

## References

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