# 

# Computational summer school on modeling social and collective behavior - Konstanz (DE) July 4th - 7th

Charley Wu & Wataru Toyokawa July 5th

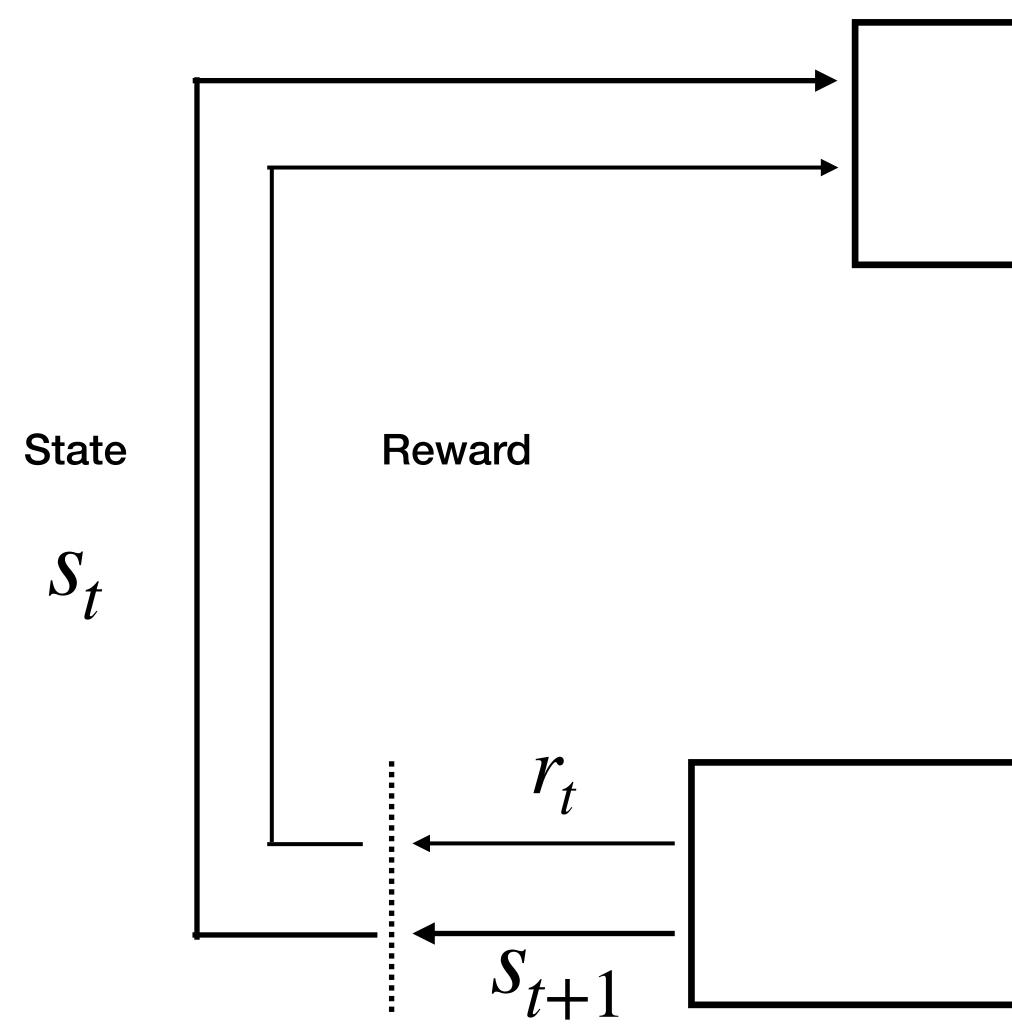


# **Goals of Tutorial 2:**

- **Brisk introduction to asocial RL** 
  - Simulating data lacksquare
  - Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) of model parameters  $\bullet$
  - Predicting choices  $\bullet$
- **Social learning models** 
  - Imitating actions
  - Combining asocial and social learning
  - Social learning hierarchy (from imitation to Theory of Mind)
- Scaling up to more complex problems
- **Evolutionary simulations**



## **Reinforcement Learning (RL)**



Agent

Action

 $a_t$ 

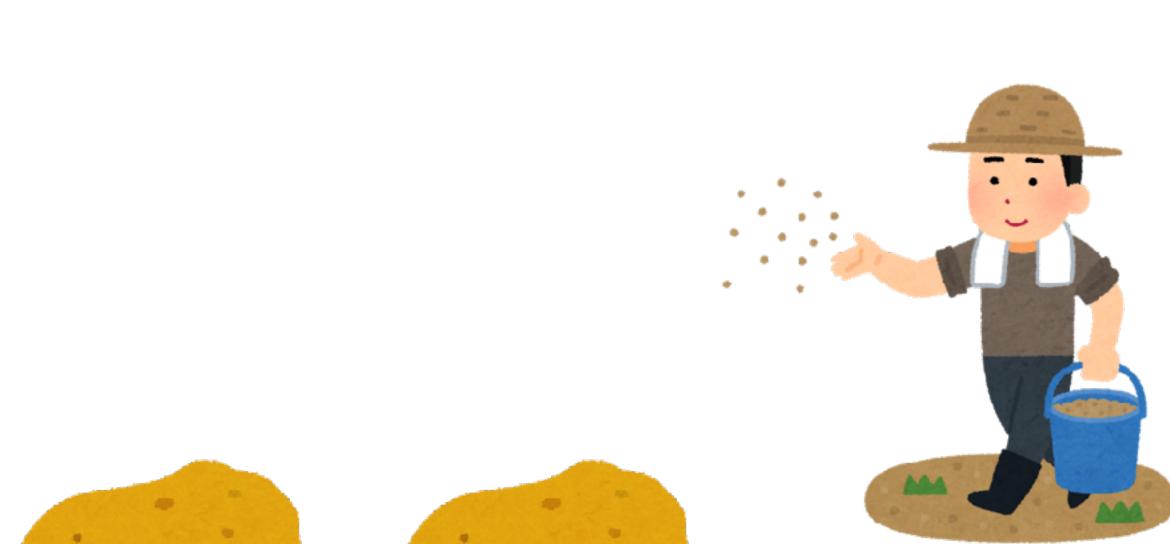


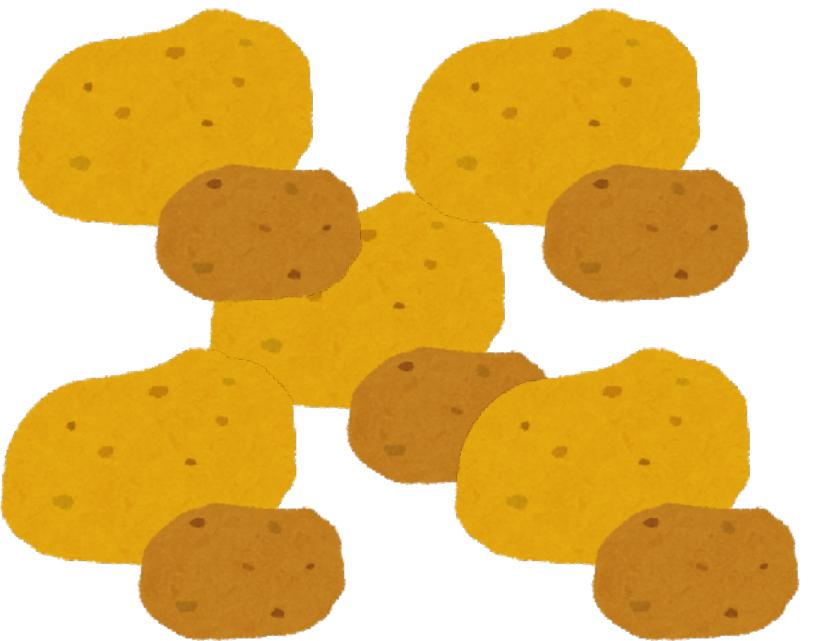
Sutton & Barto (1998)



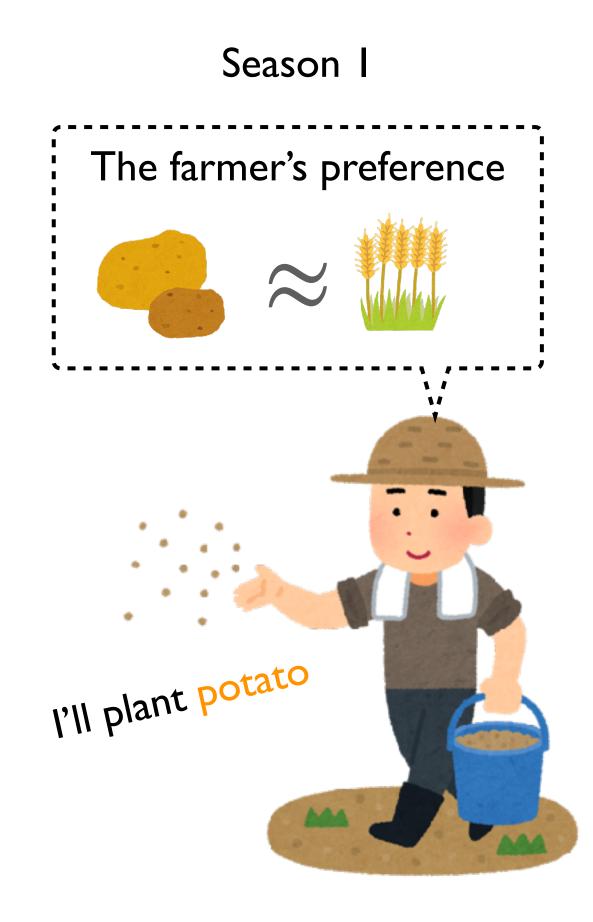


### A multi-armed bandit task

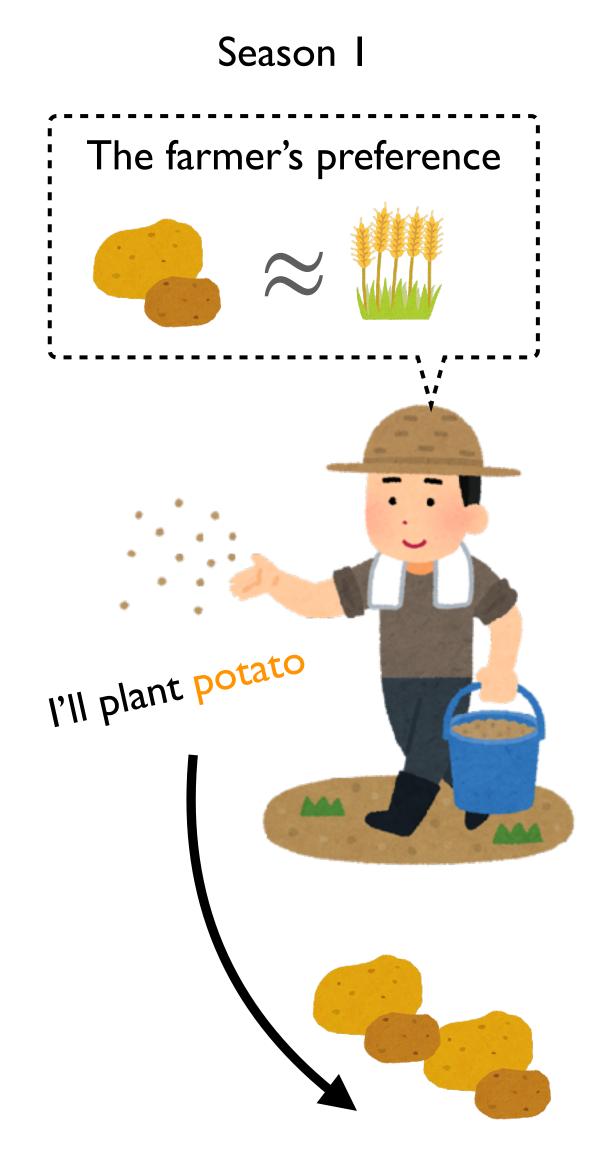




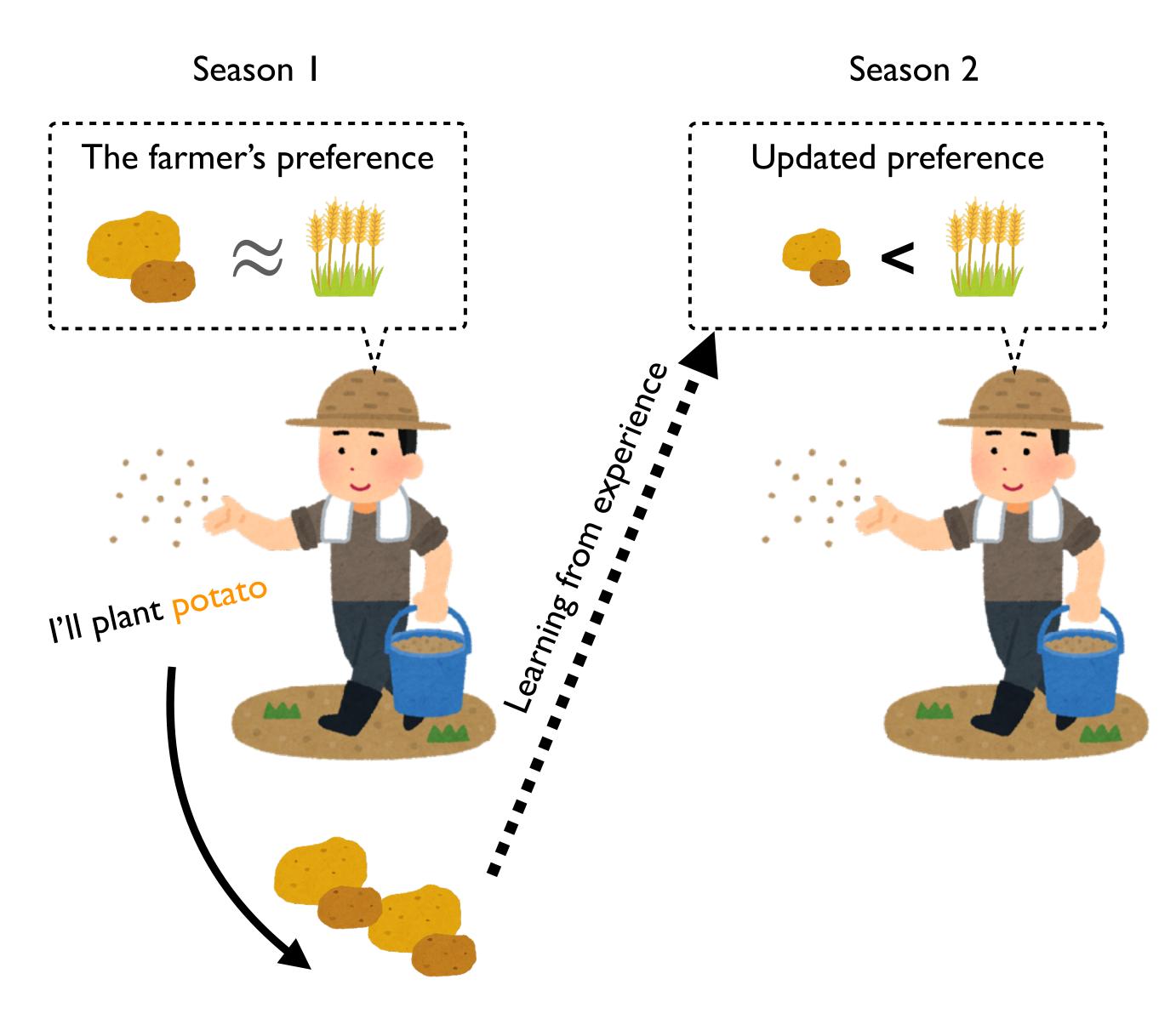


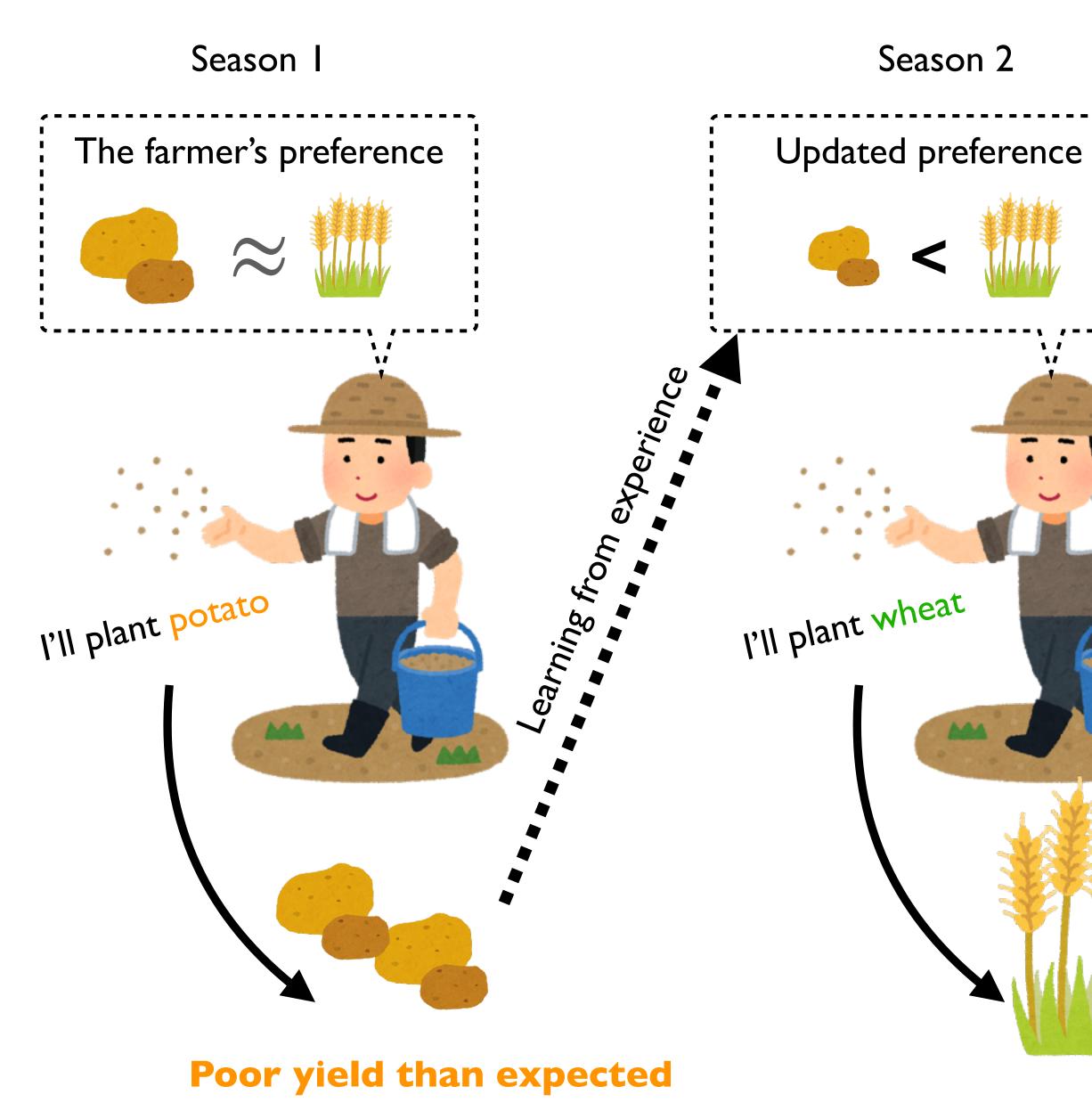


#### Poor yield than expected

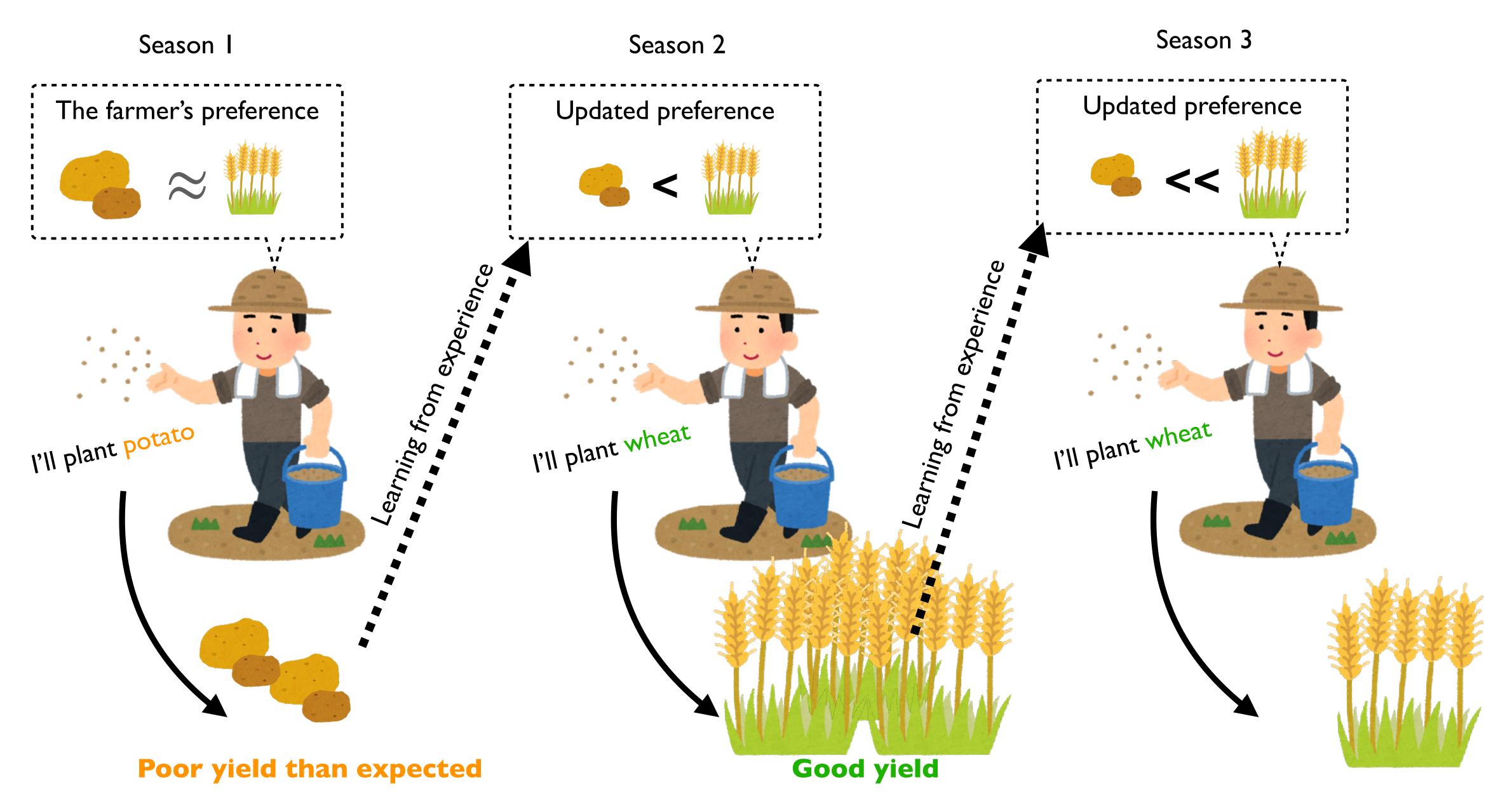


#### **Poor yield than expected**

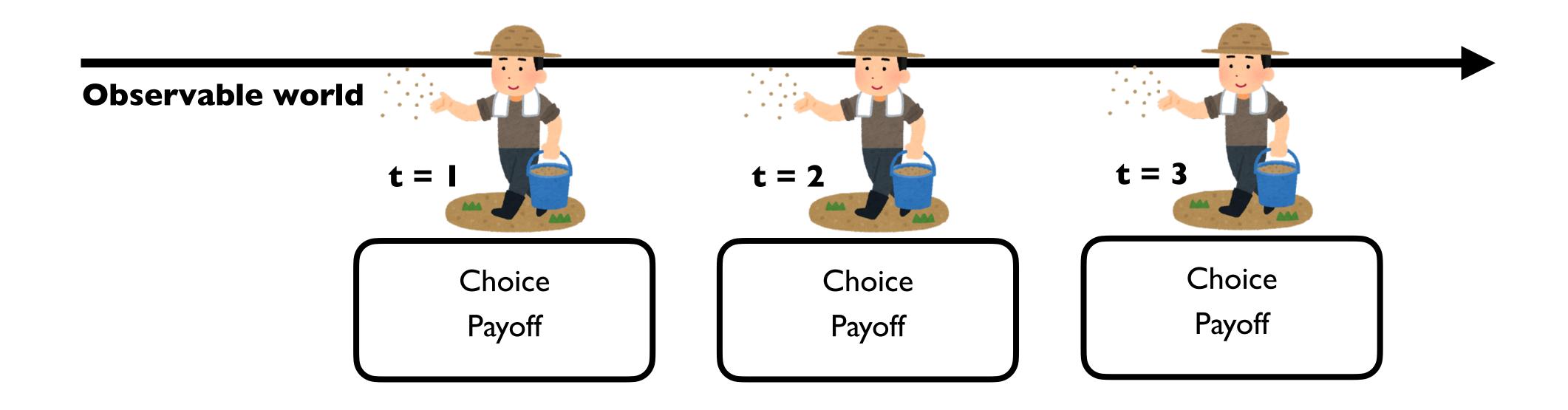




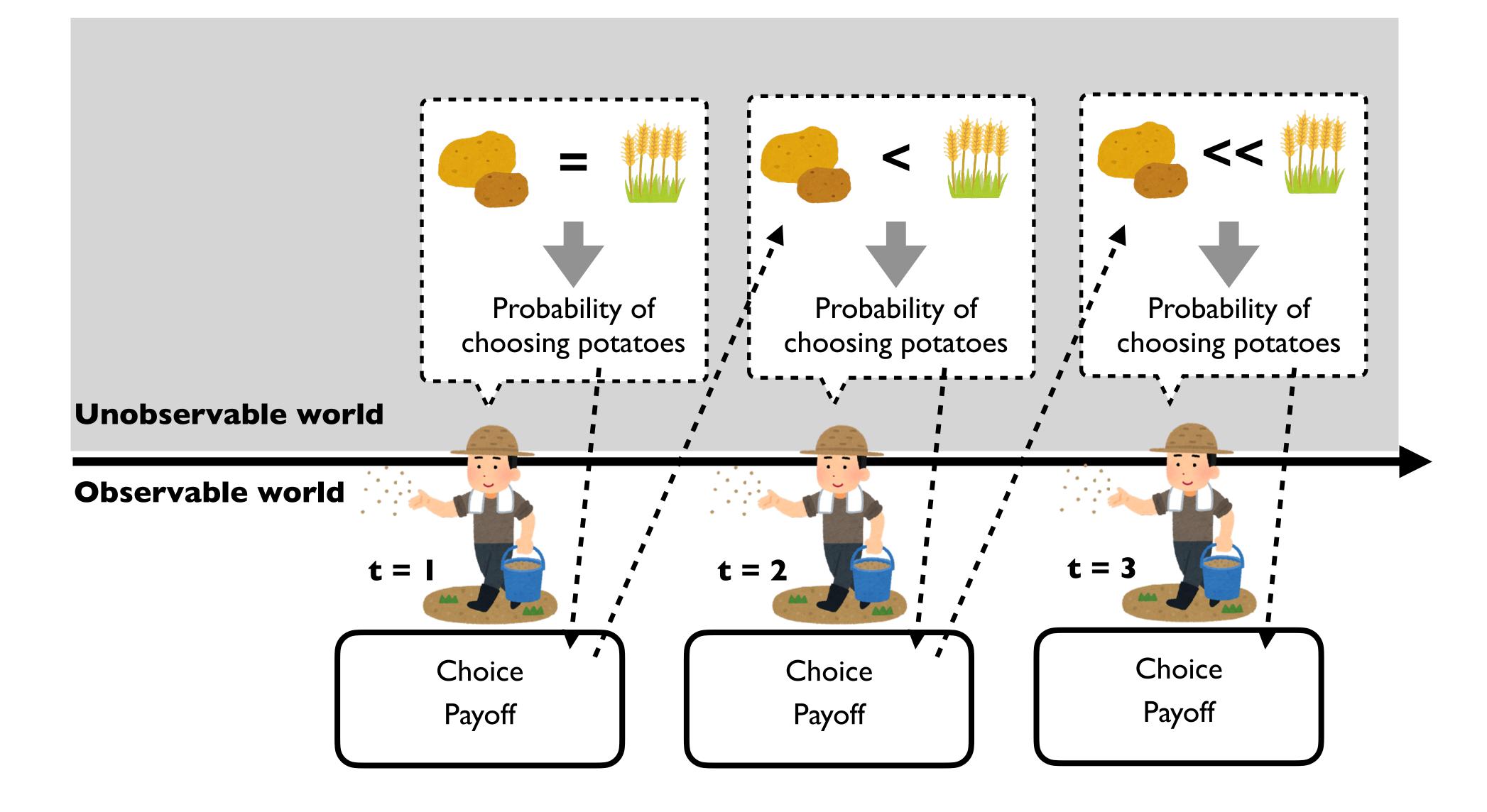




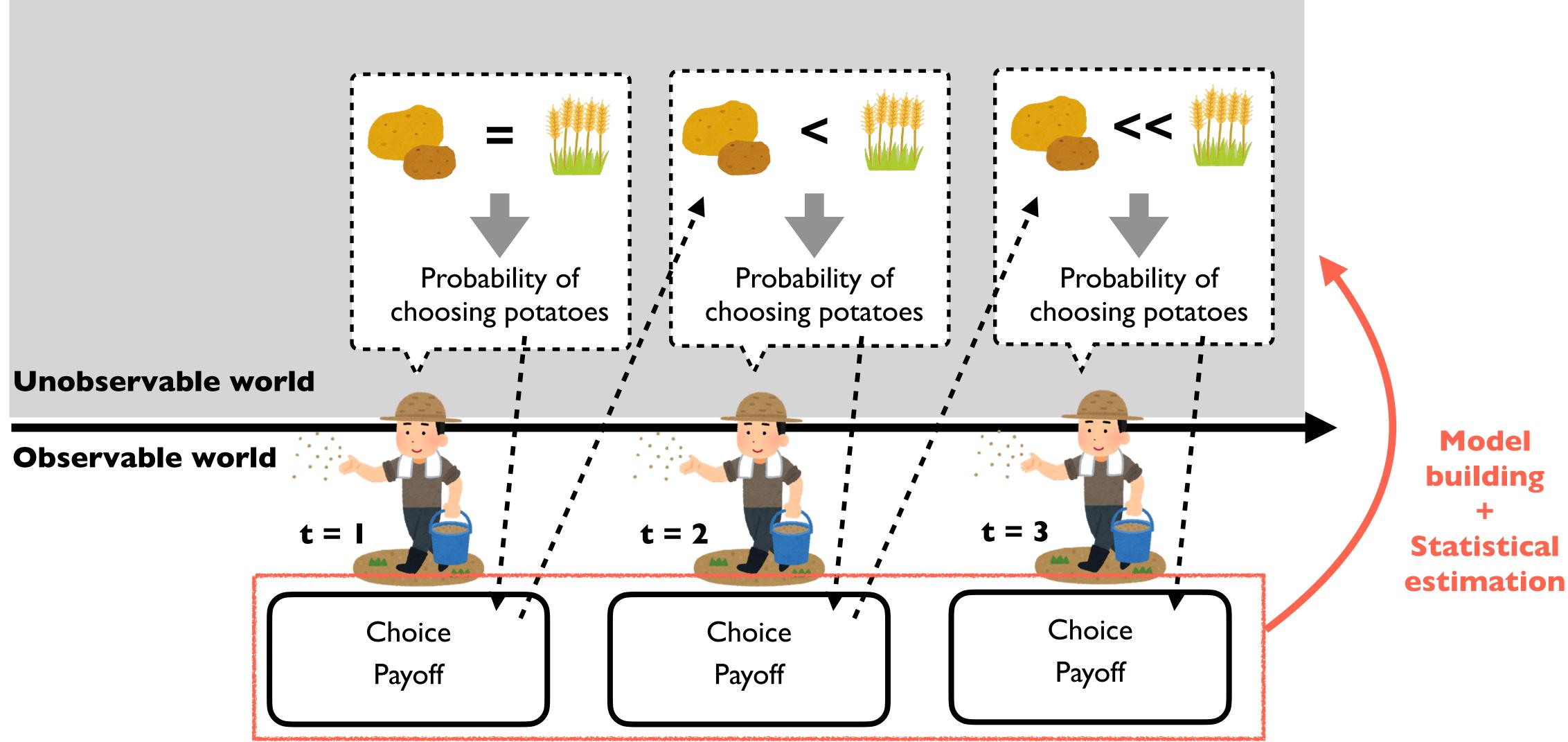
# RL process is not directly observable. It should be inferred statistically.



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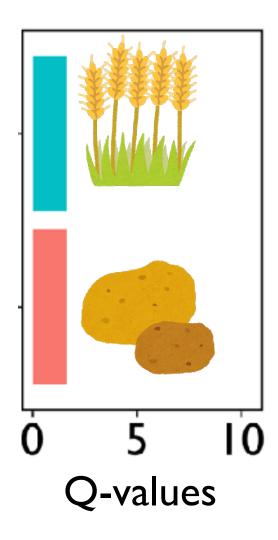


### **RL process is not directly observable. It should** be inferred statistically.



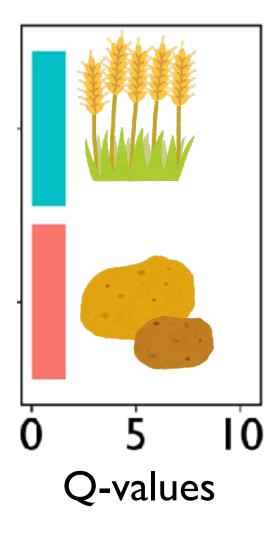


t = I

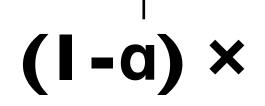


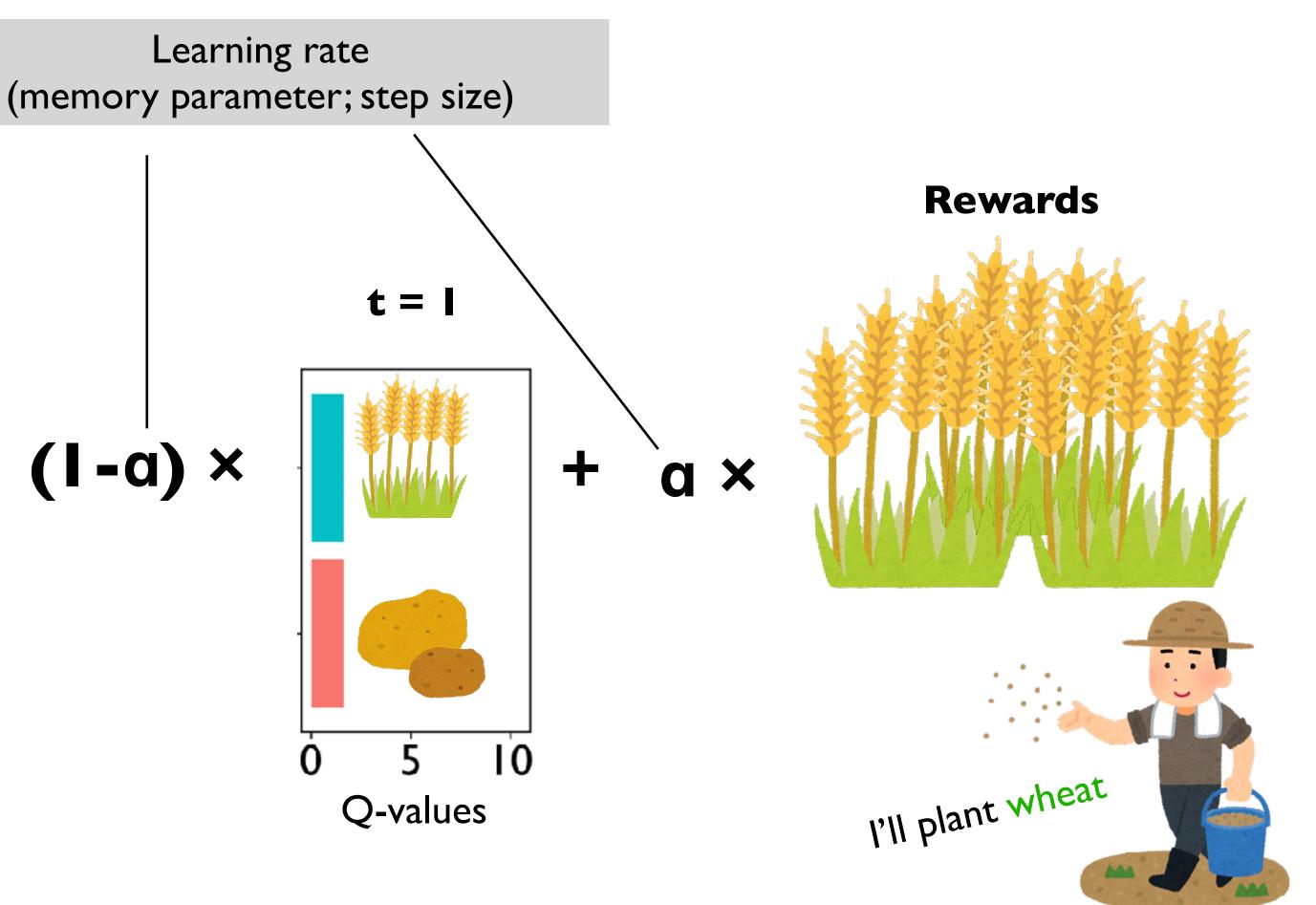


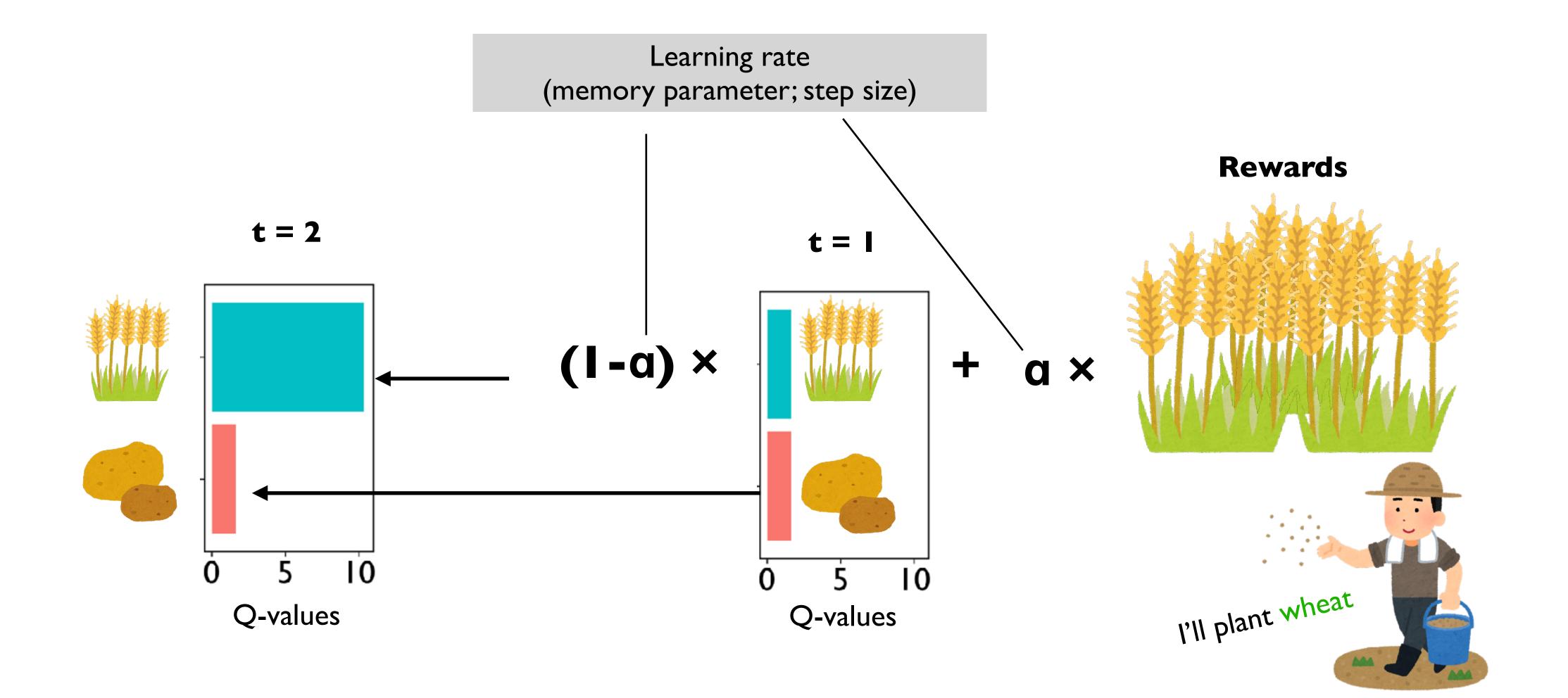




Learning rate













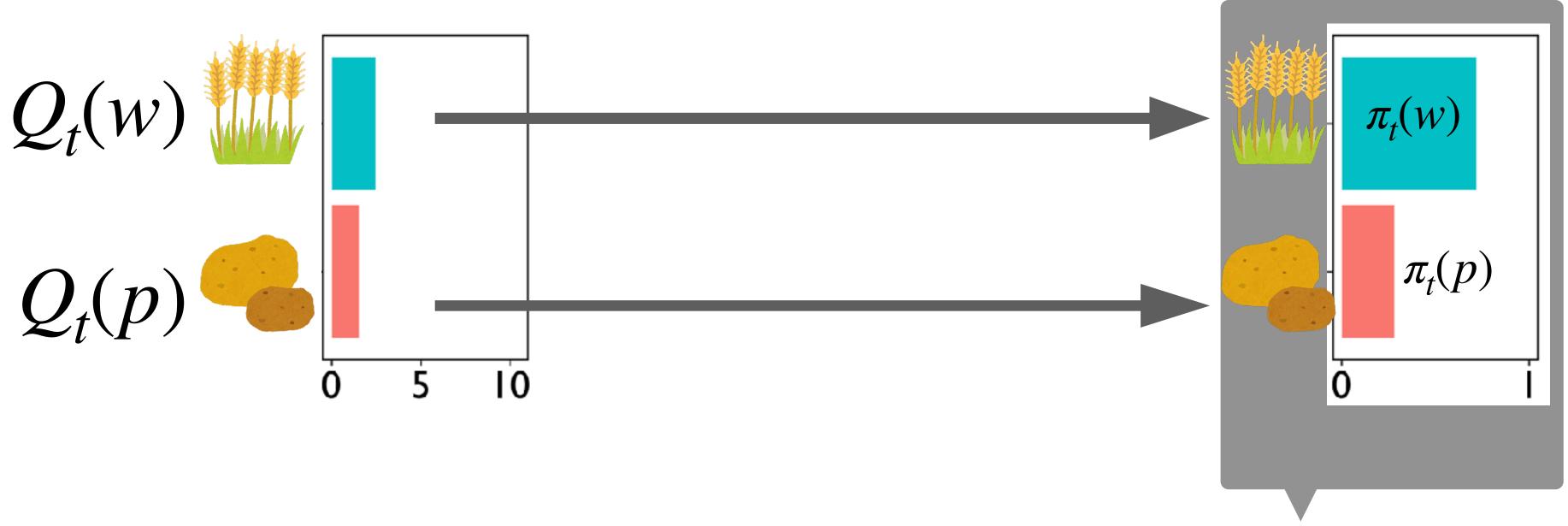


### $Q_{t+1}(a) \leftarrow Q_t(a) + \alpha \left[ r_t(a) - Q_t(a) \right]$

reward prediction error (RPE)

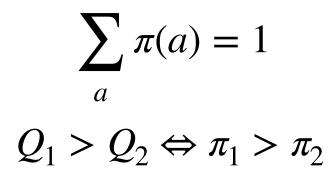
#### Converting value to actions: Softmax policy (i.e. multinomial logistic function)

#### Q-values



Policy  $\pi$ 

We want policy to satisfy:

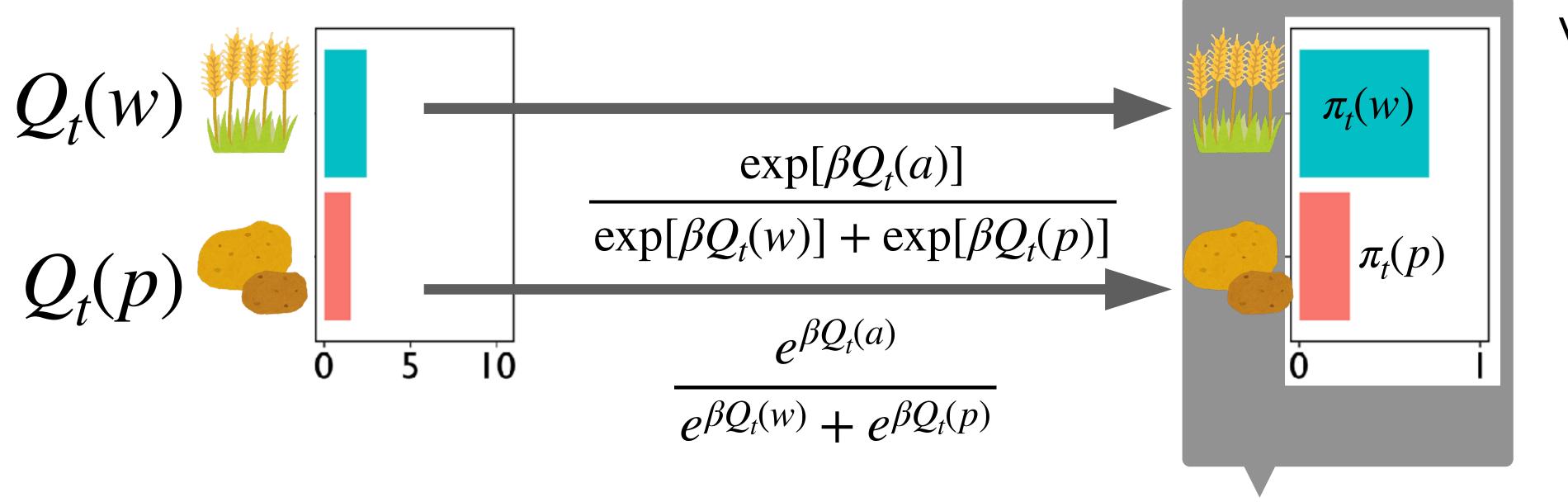






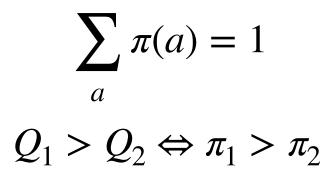
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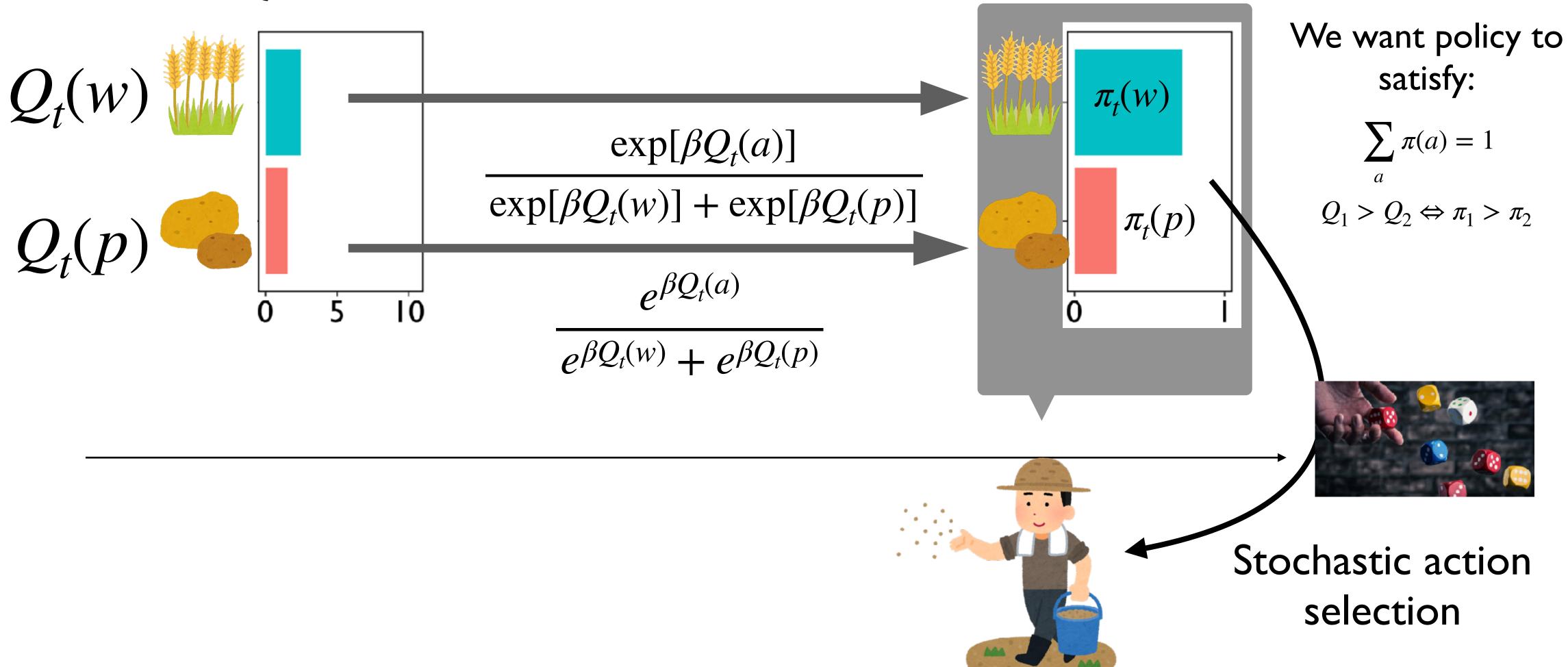




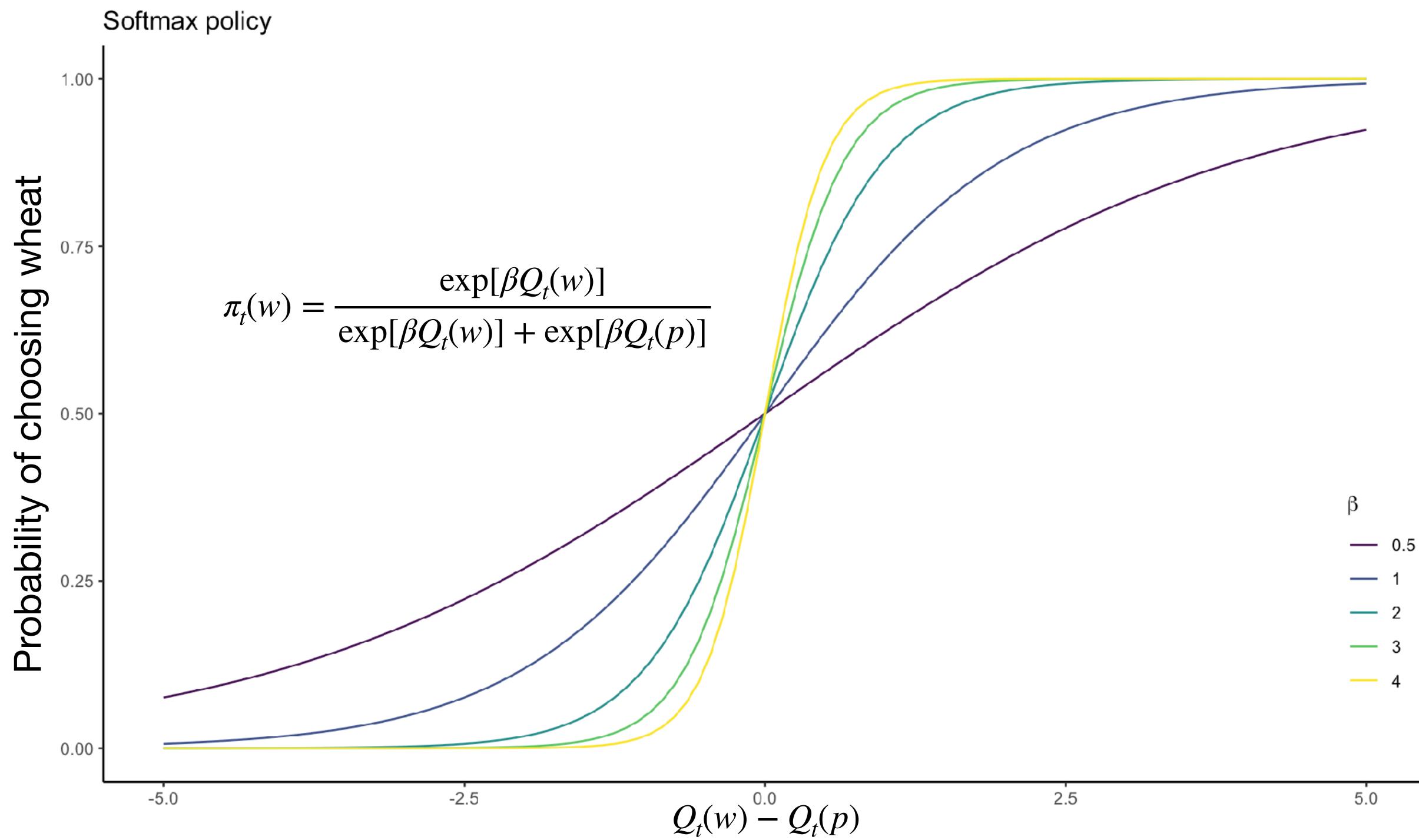


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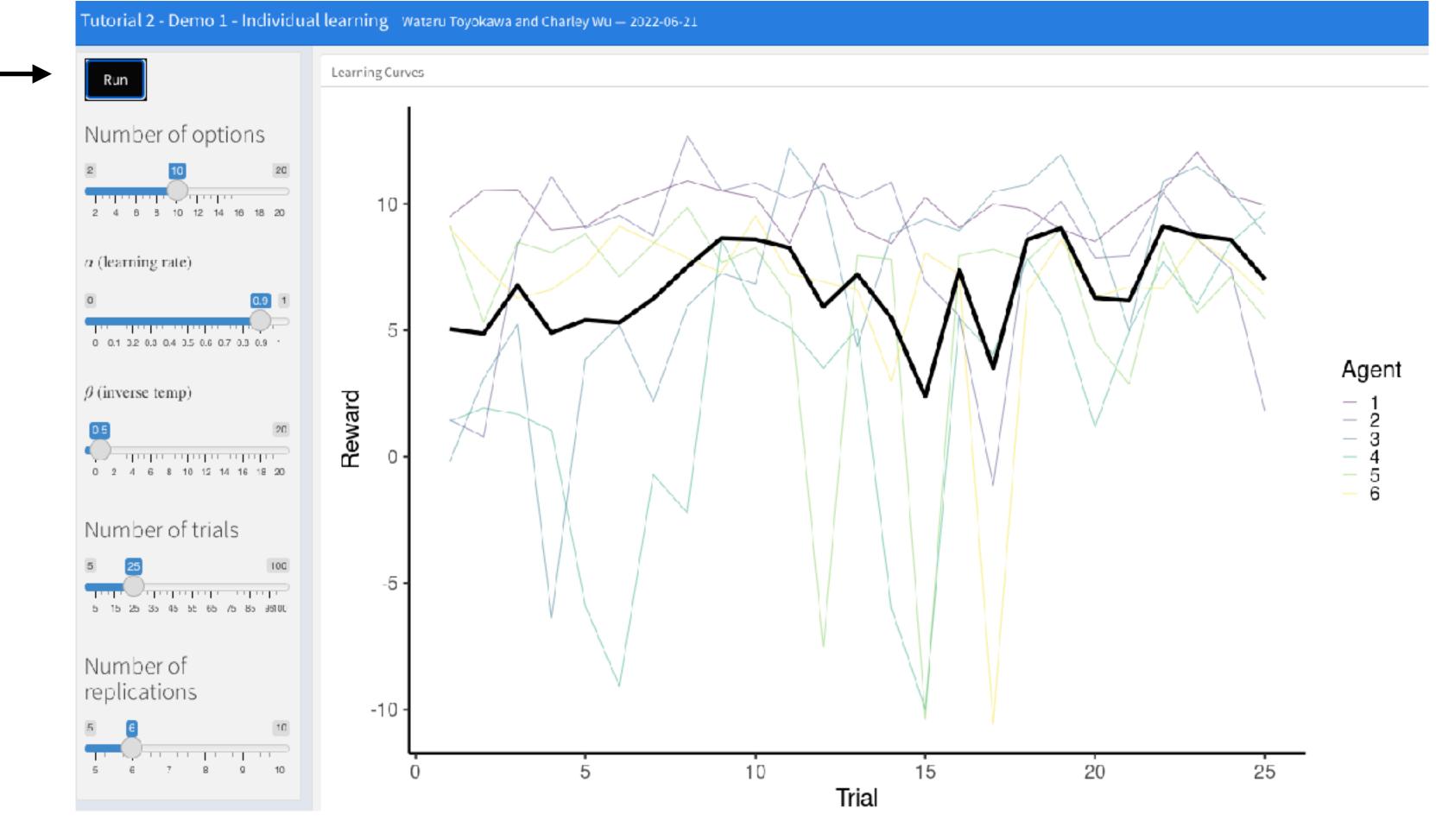






https://cosmos-konstanz.github.io/notebooks/tutorial-2-models-of-learning.html#simulating-data

### **Demo 1: Tweaking individual learning parameters**

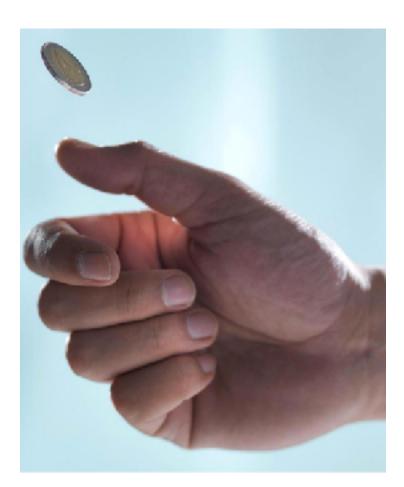


Which learning parameters ( $\alpha, \beta$ ) typically produce the best results?

11

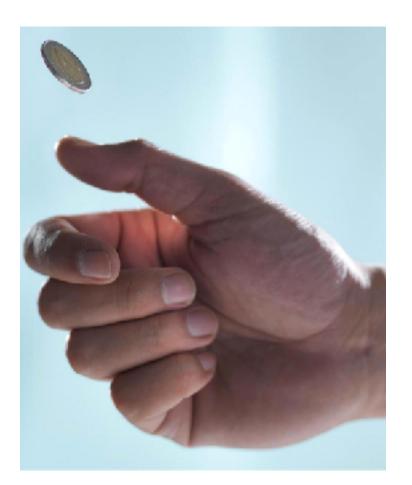


Coin Flip Model





Coin Flip Model



Observed Data:

$$D = \{d_1 = h, d_2 = t, \dots, d_n\}$$

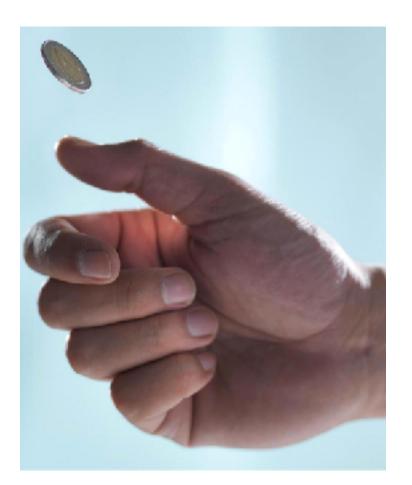
Model:

- $D \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$
- $\theta = P(h)$

= t



Coin Flip Model



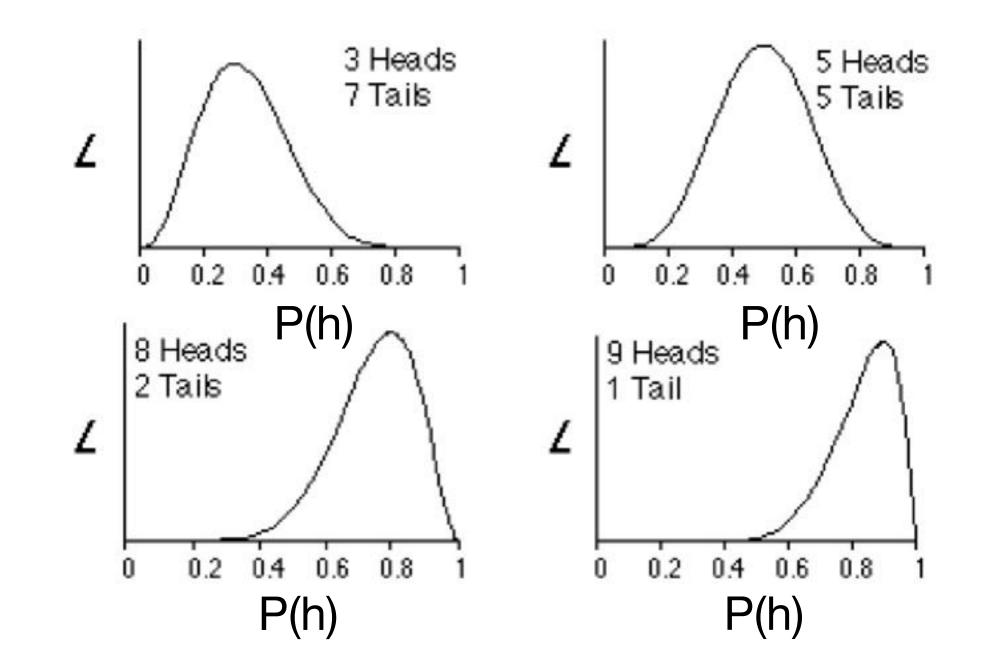
Observed Data:

$$D = \{d_1 = h, d_2 = t, \dots, d_n\}$$

 $= t \}$ 

Model:

- $D \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$
- $\theta = P(h)$

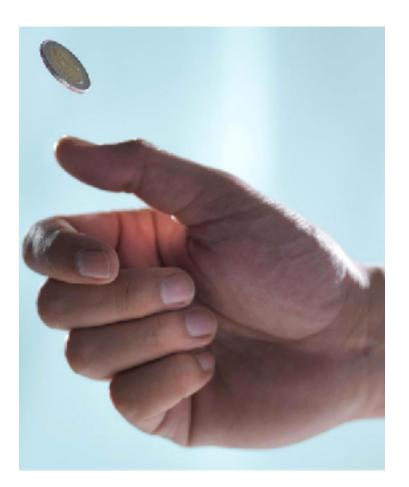




To fit a model to data, we first need to define a **Likelihood Function**:  $P(D \mid \theta)$ 

describing the probability that the observed data D was generated based on model parameters heta

Coin Flip Model



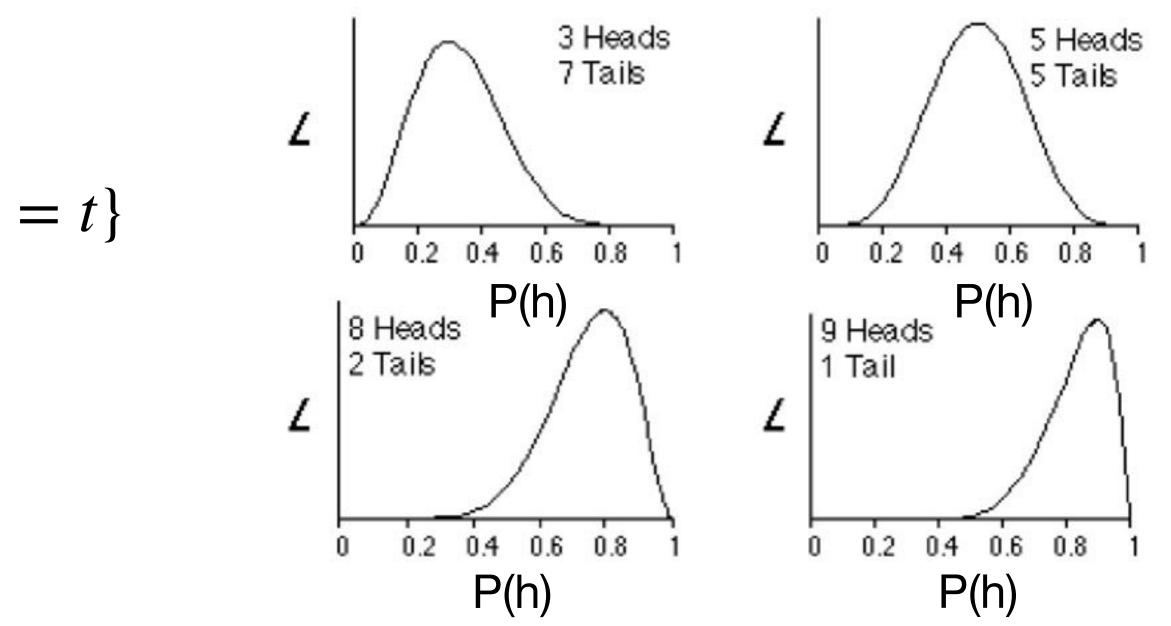
**Observed Data:** 

$$D = \{d_1 = h, d_2 = t, \dots d_n\}$$

Model:

- $D \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$
- $\theta = P(h)$

# Beyond only simulating data, we also want to use models to describe experimental data.





### Log Likelihoods

Since we are usually modeling multiple data points, we need to describe the **joint likelihood** over all observations:

This is much easier using logarithms, since we can replace multiplication with summation in log space to compute the log likelihood

 $\log P(D \mid \theta)$ 

Since probabilities are always <1, the log likelihood will always be negative. Thus, it's more convenient to express the fit of a model using the **negative log likelihood** (nLL) by inverting the sign:

### $nLL = -\log P(D \mid \theta)$

The nLL expresses the amount of error or loss (aka 'log loss') and will always be greater than zero. Smaller values thus describe better model fits.

\*Note that natural logs are used by default (sometimes written as  $\ln$ ) rather than base 10 logarithms  $\log_{10}$ 

## $P(D \mid \theta) = \prod P(d_i \mid \theta)$

$$P(t) = \sum_{t} \log P(d_t | \theta)$$





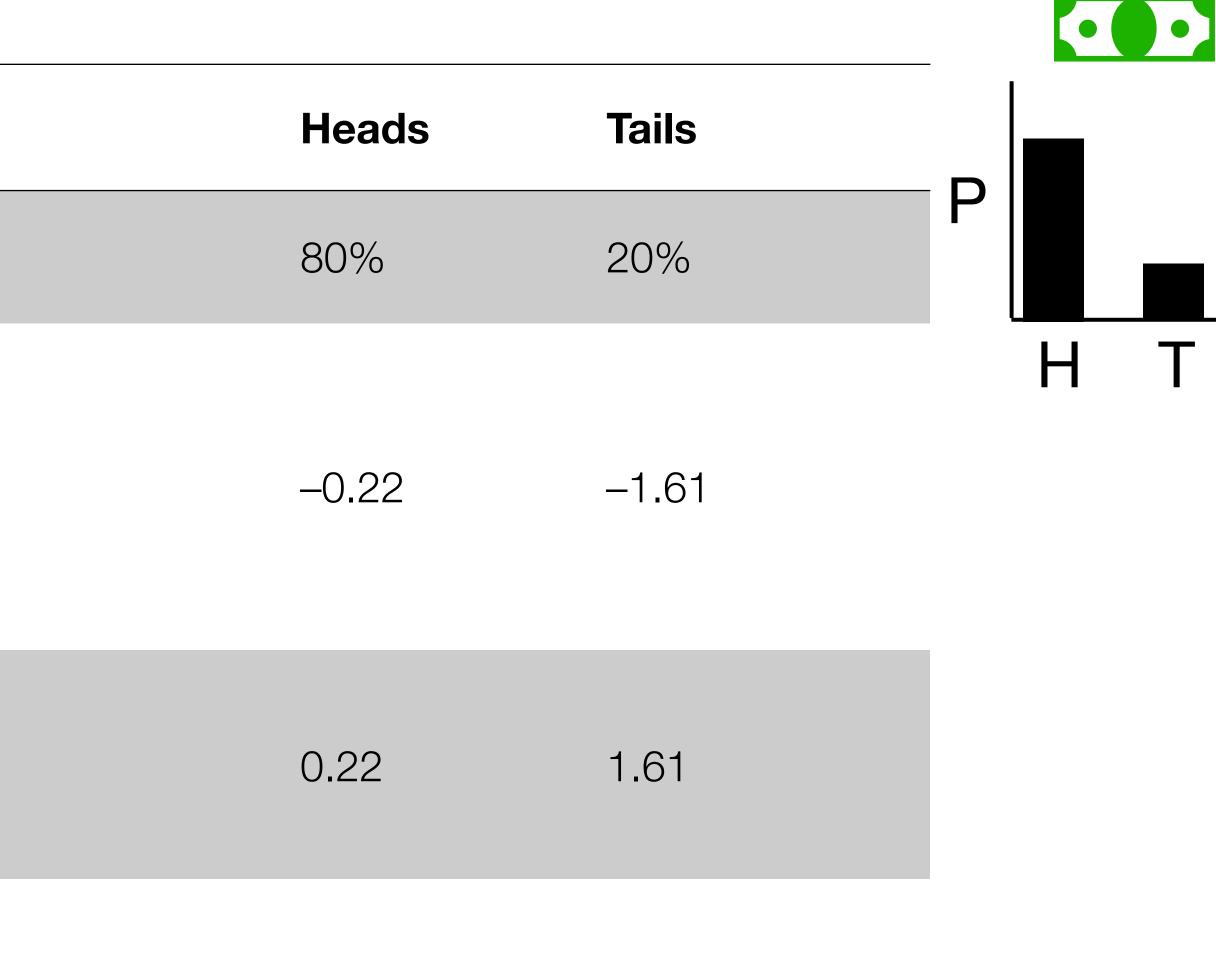


Measure	Formula
Likelihood	P(D 0)
Log likelihood	log P(D θ)

Negative Log Likelihood (nLL)	– log P(D θ)

Deviance

 $-2 \log P(D|\theta)$ 



3.22 0.44

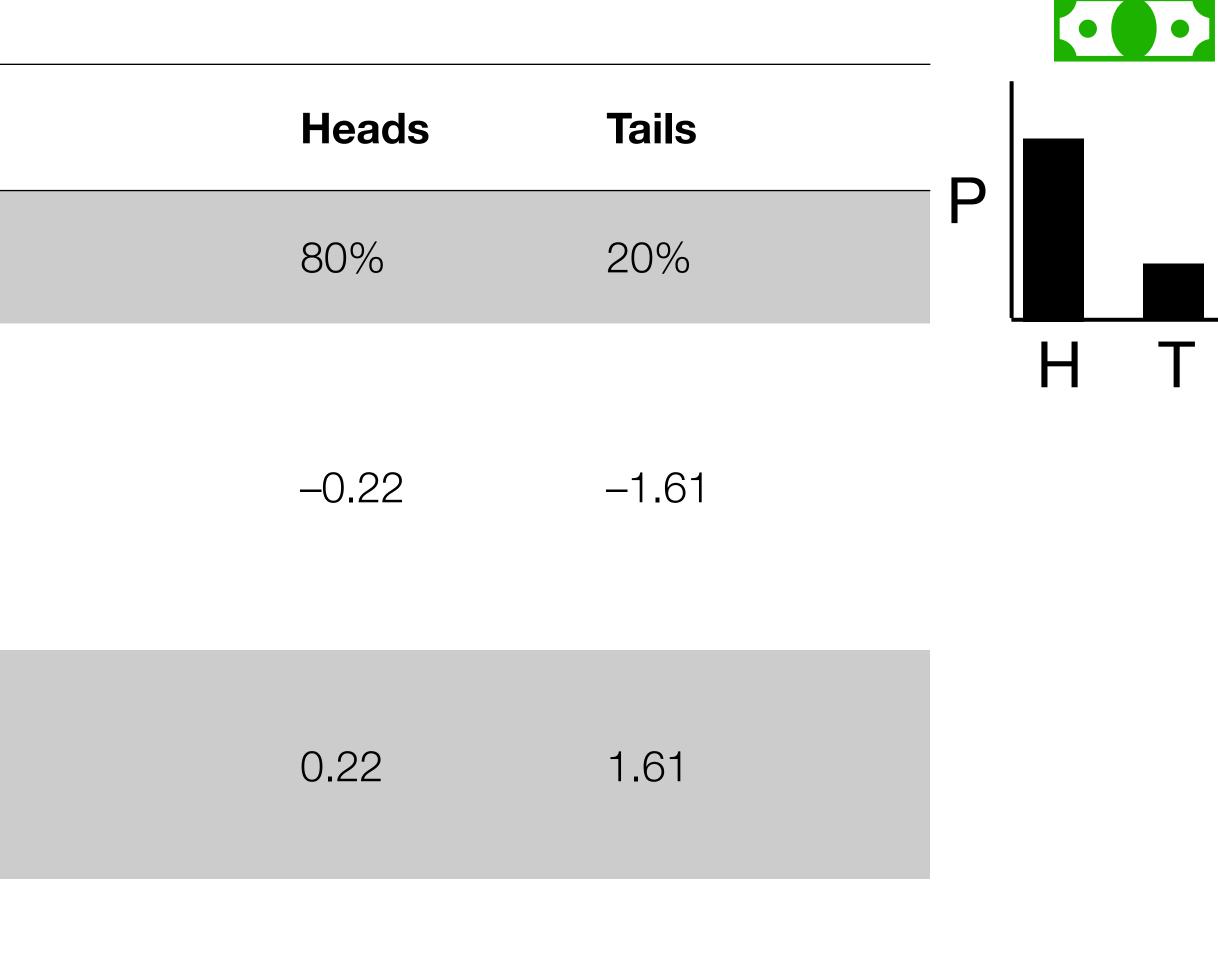


14

Measure	Formula
Likelihood	P(D 0)
Log likelihood	log P(D θ)

DSS	Negative Log Likelihood (nLL)	– log P(D θ)
	Deviance	–2 log P(D θ)

aka Log Los



3.22 0.44

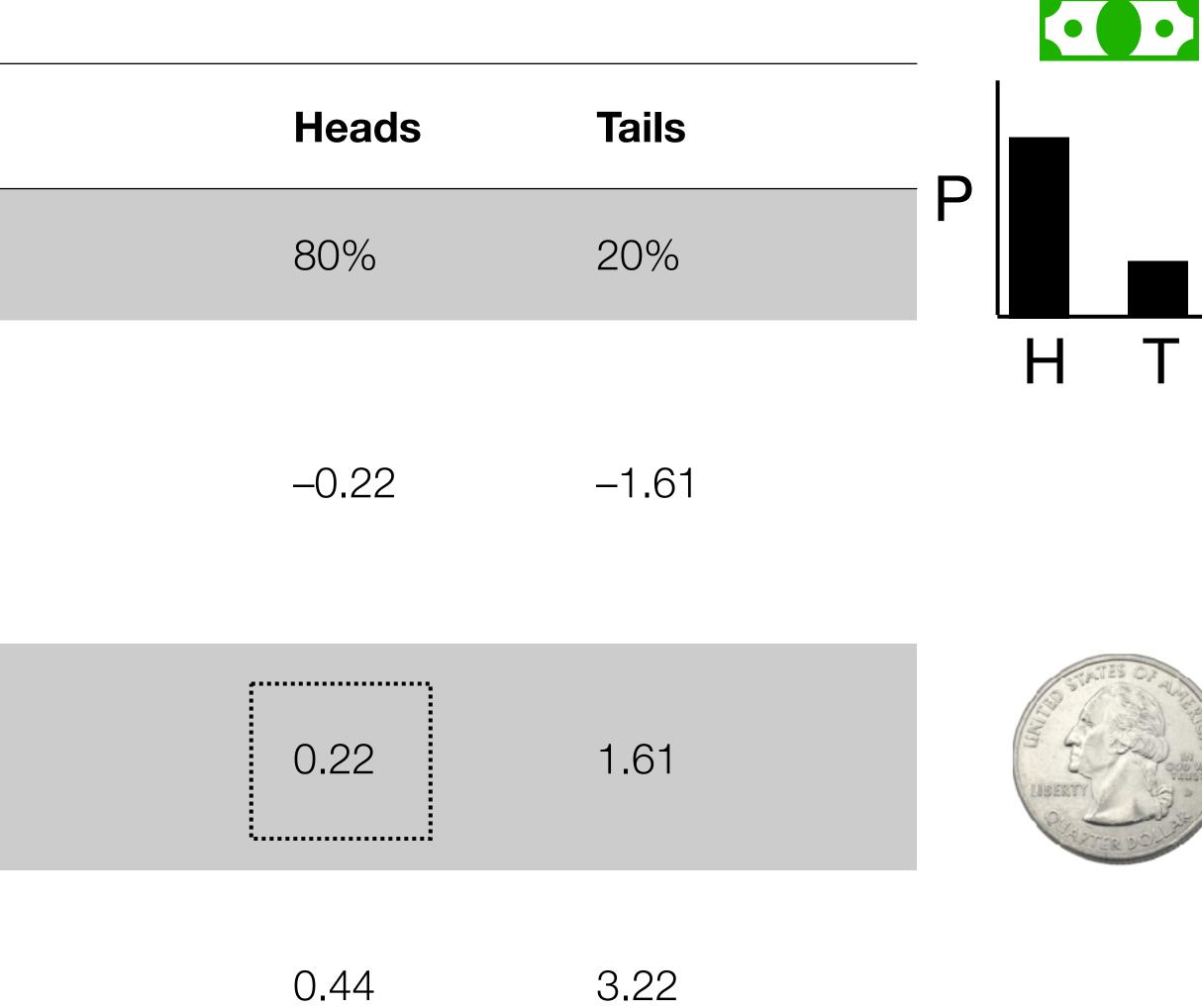


14

Measure	Formula
Likelihood	P(D 0)
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DSS	Negative Log Likelihood (nLL)	– log P(D θ)
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aka Log Los





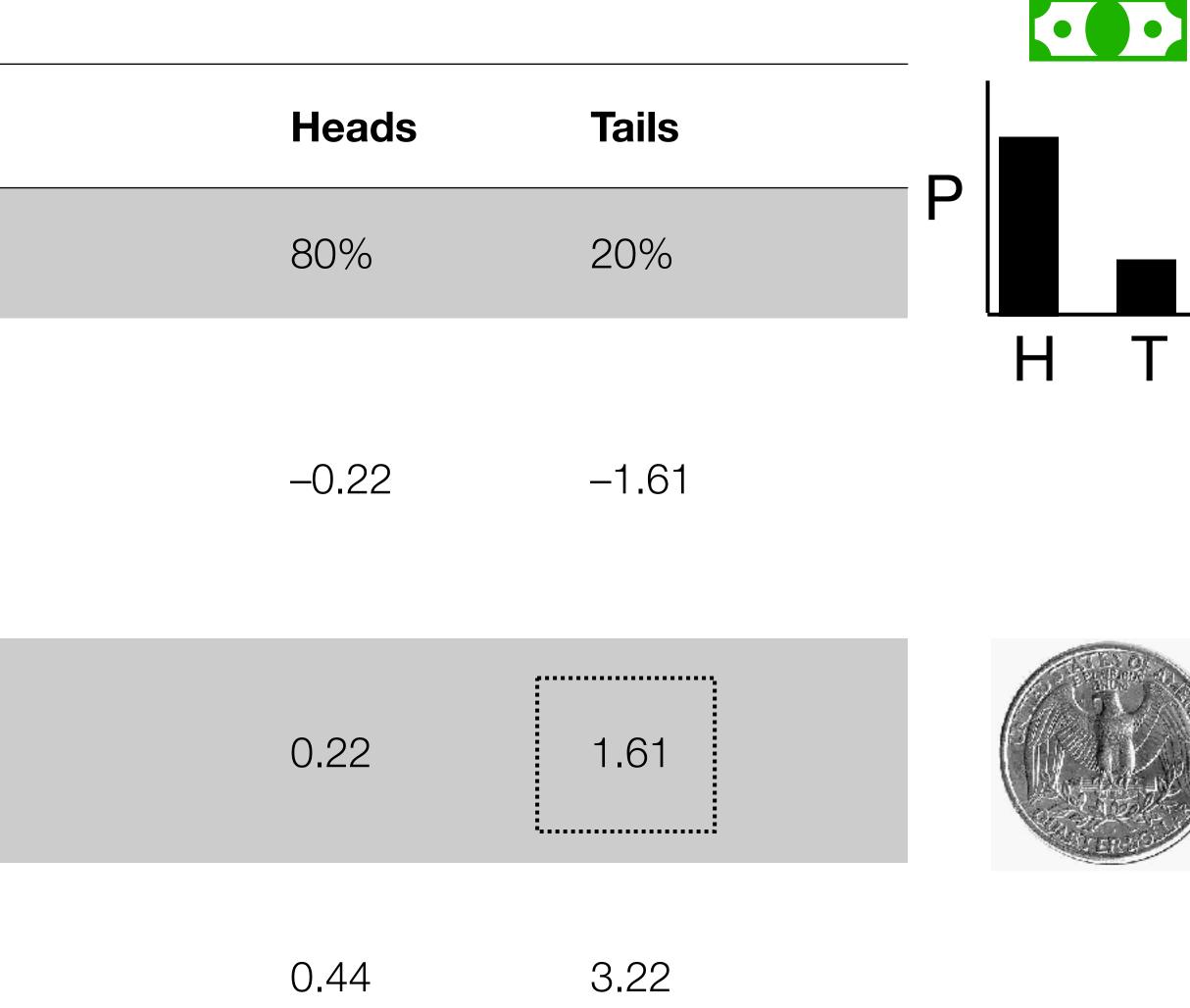




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### From model simulation to likelihood functions

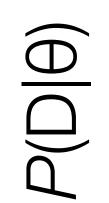
In practice, we can use code very simular to our model simulations to create a likelihood function

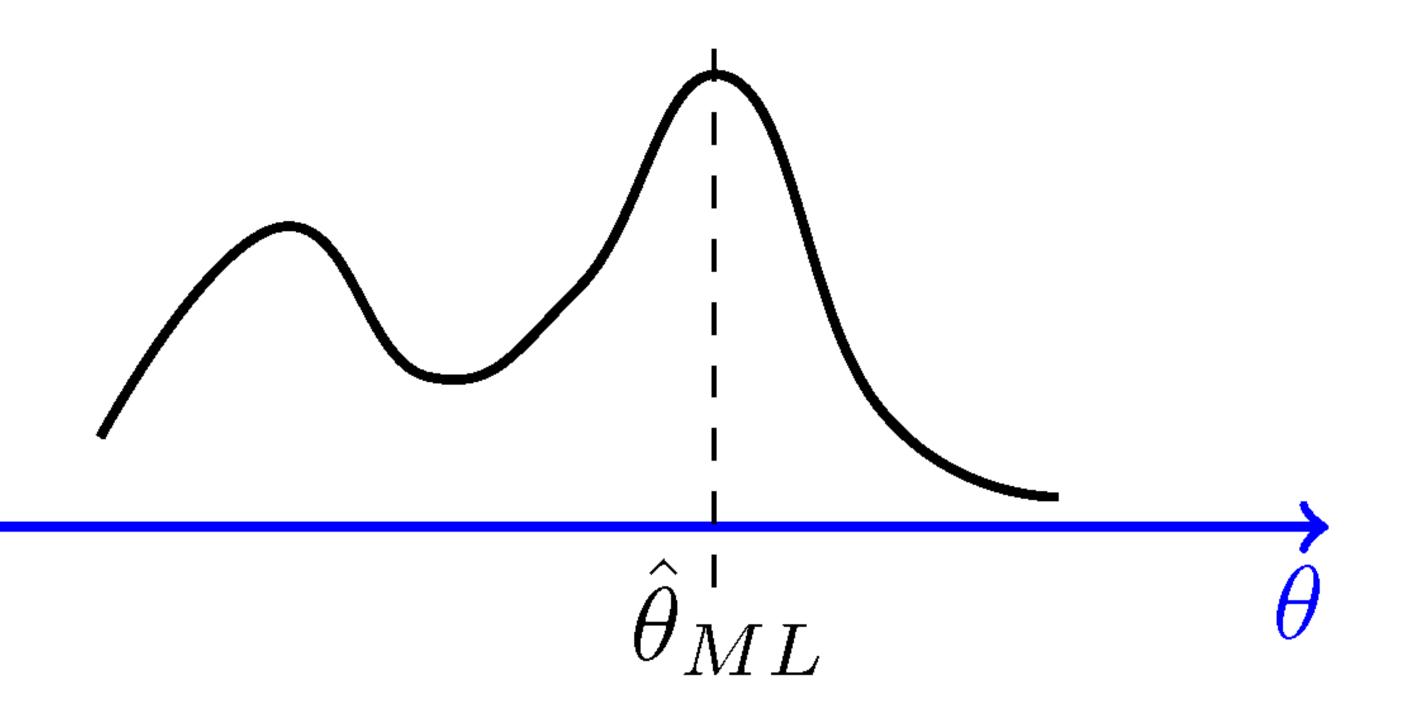
likelihood <- function(params, data){</pre> nLL <- 0 #initialize negative log likelihood for (d in data) { #loop through data predictions <- model(params) #make predictions</pre> observedAction <- d #define true outcome nLL <- nLL -log(predictions[observedAction]) #Update nLL</pre> return(nLL)



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Use the likelihood function to find the parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  where  $P(D \mid \theta)$  is largest



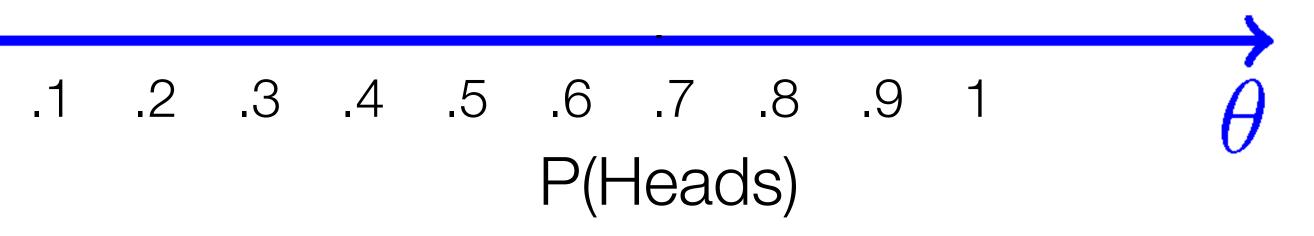




Use the likelihood function to find the parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  where  $P(D \mid \theta)$  is largest

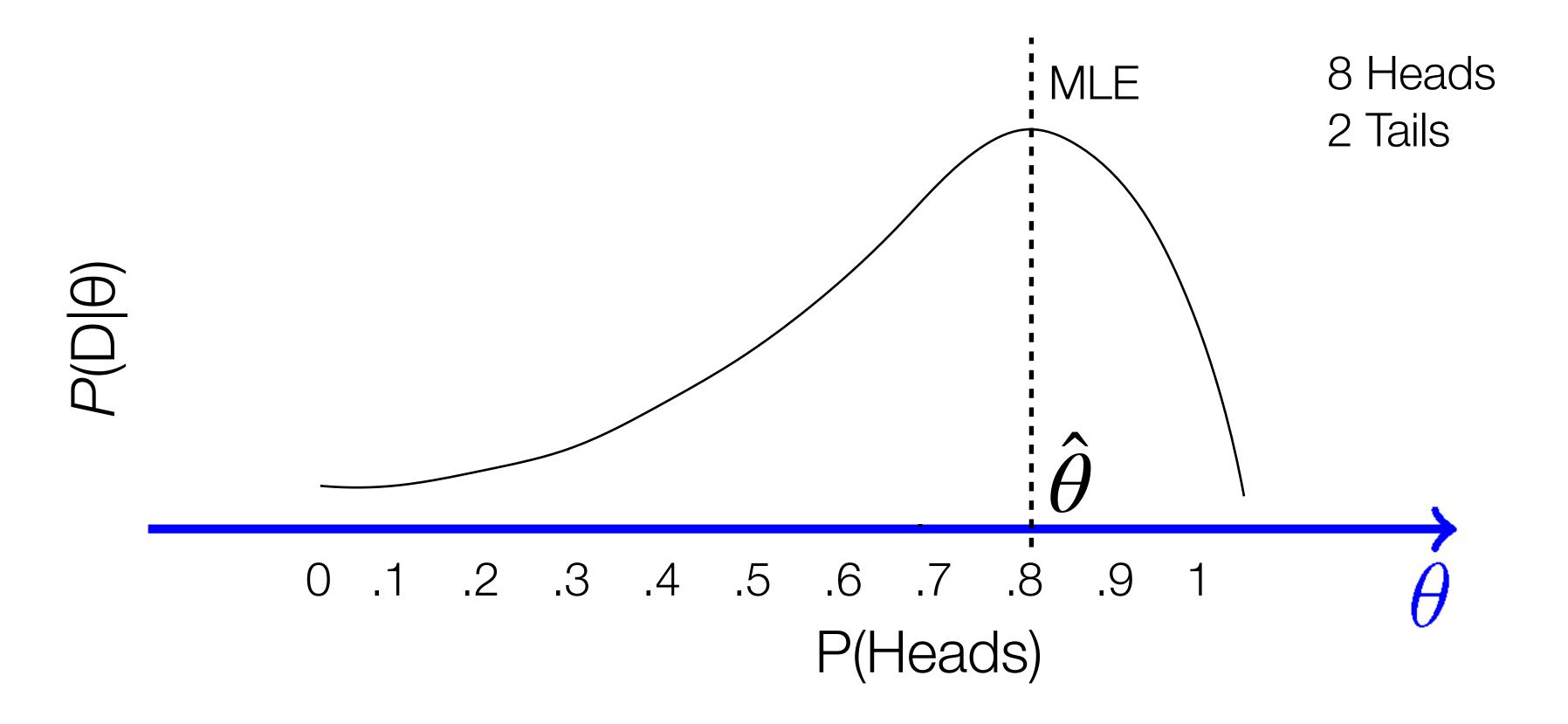
# $P(D|\theta)$

8 Heads 2 Tails





Use the likelihood function to find the parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  where  $P(D \mid \theta)$  is largest

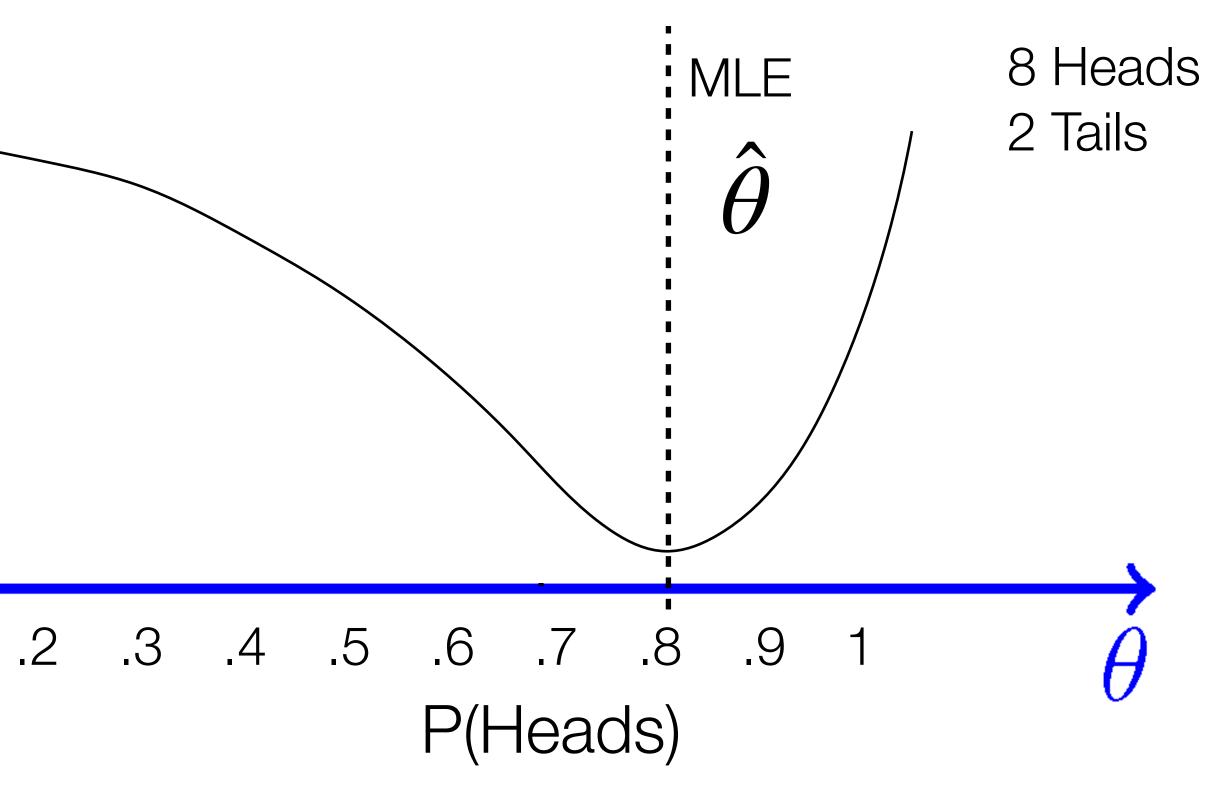




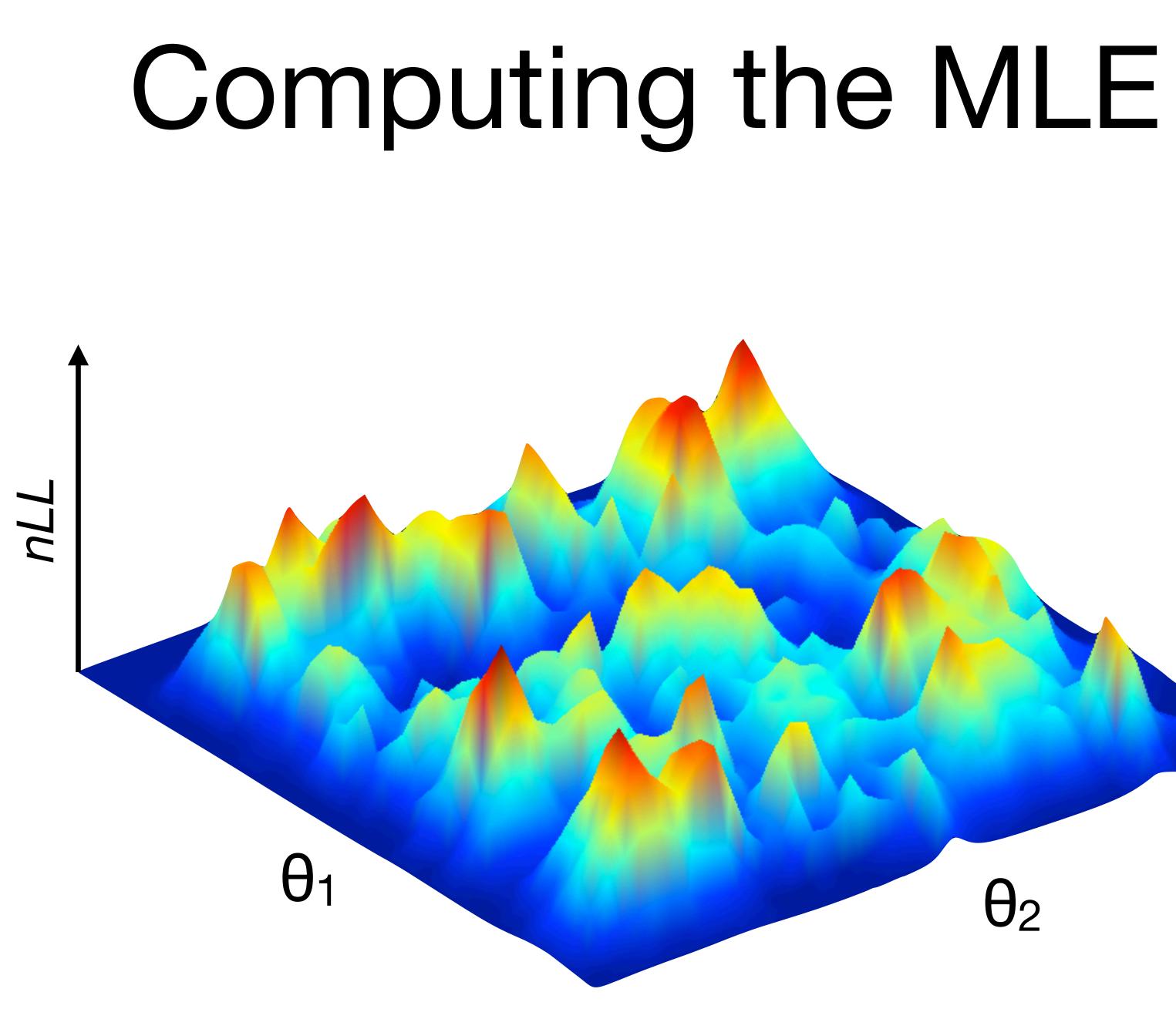
Use the likelihood function to find the parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  where  $P(D \mid \theta)$  is largest .... or where nLL is lowest

JLL

()







 $\theta_2$ 

**Optimization function** 

likelihood <-</pre> function(params , data)

Minimize nLL

Types of optimization algorithms

- Gradient descent
- Simplex methods •
- Differential evolution



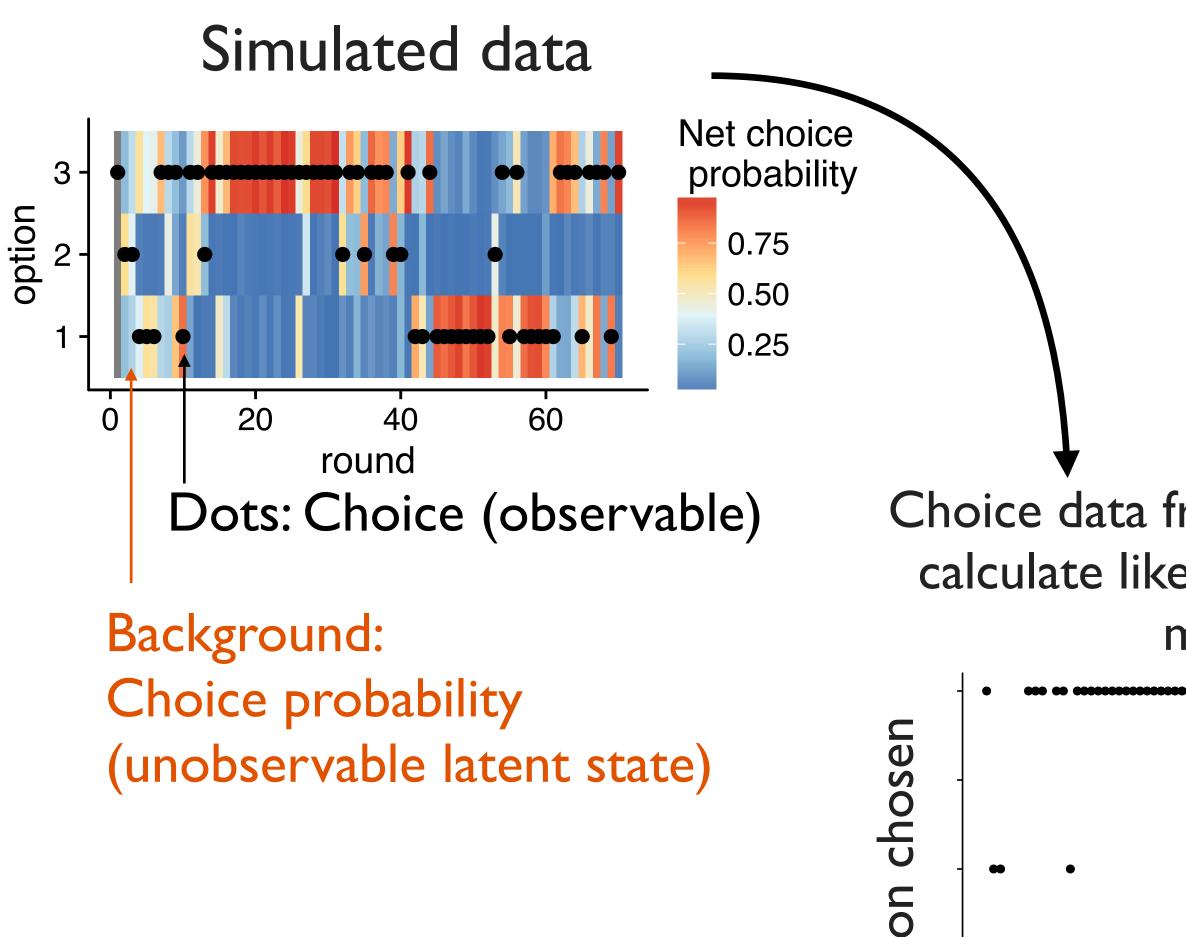


#### Simulated data Net choice 3 probability option 5 0.75 0.50 0.25 60 0 20 40 round Dots: Choice (observable)

Background: Choice probability (unobservable latent state)

# MLE for a RL model

# MLE for a RL model

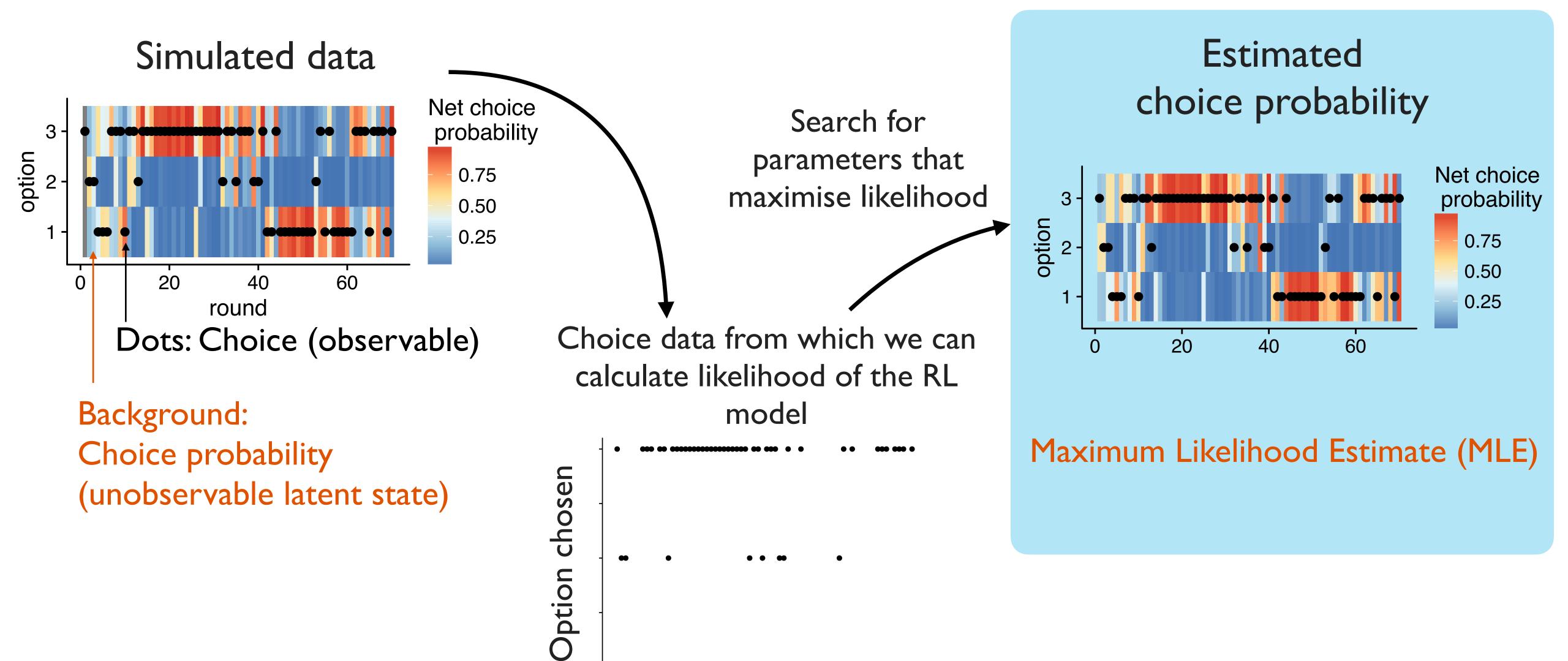


Opti

20

Choice data from which we can calculate likelihood of the RL model

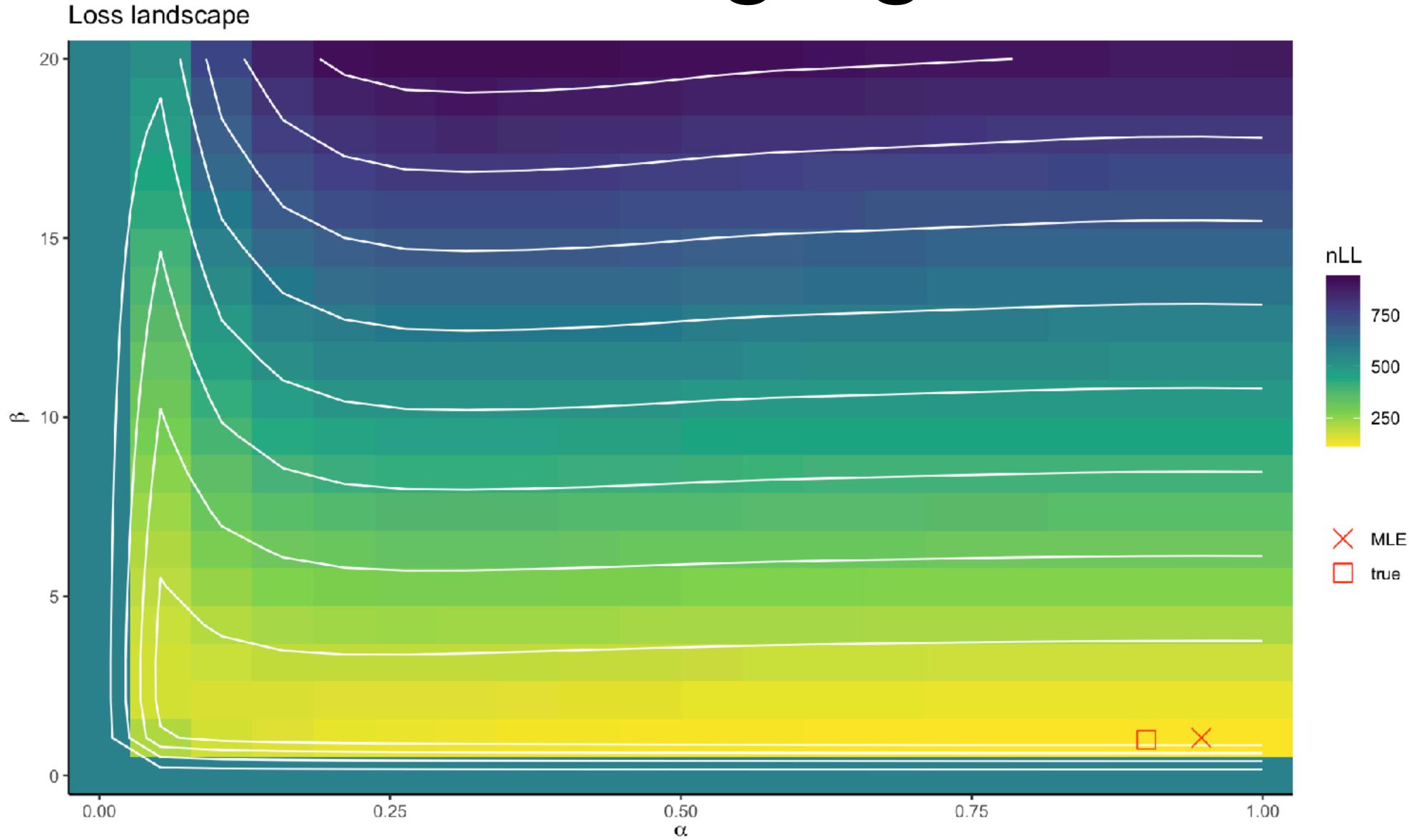
# MLE for a RL model



**40** 60

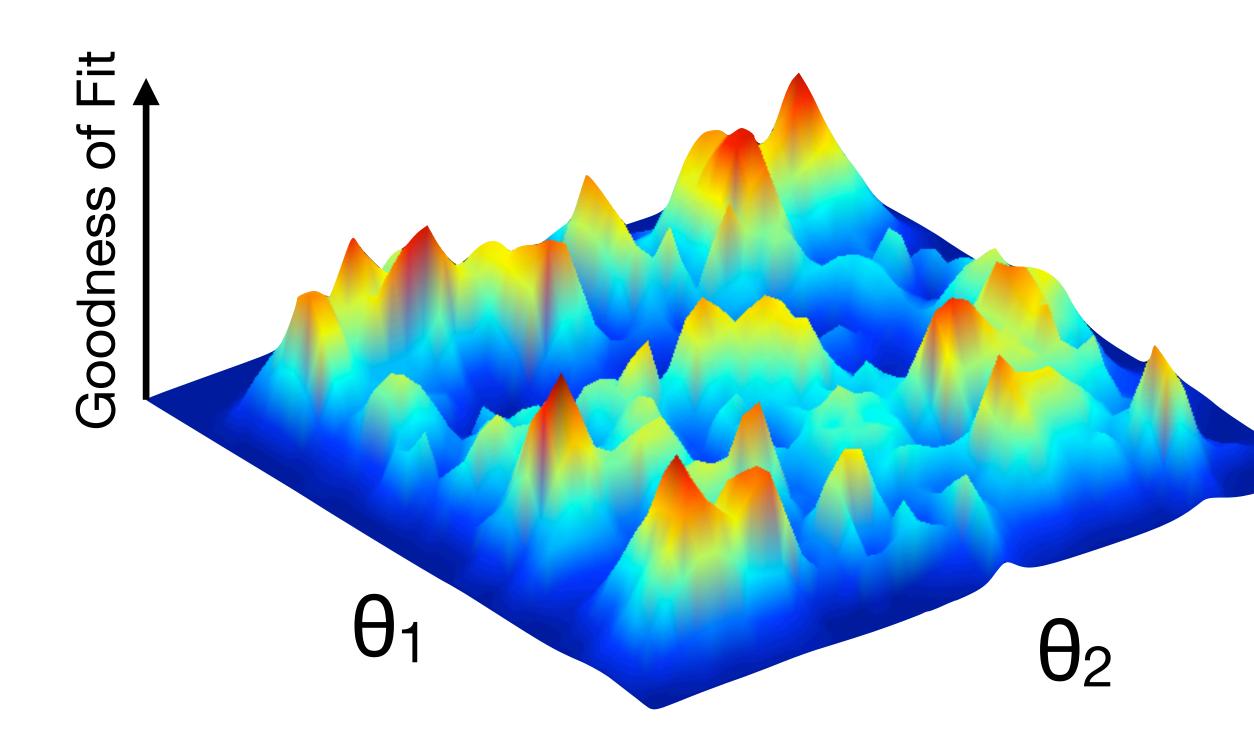
Trial

# Q-learning agent



### Parameter Space and Model Space

**Parameter Space** 



#### **Model Space**

 $M_1$ 



shutterstock.com + 210215599

 $M_2$ 

Structure



M<sub>3</sub>

Components



### Learning from social information (5 minute break)



# Learning from social information

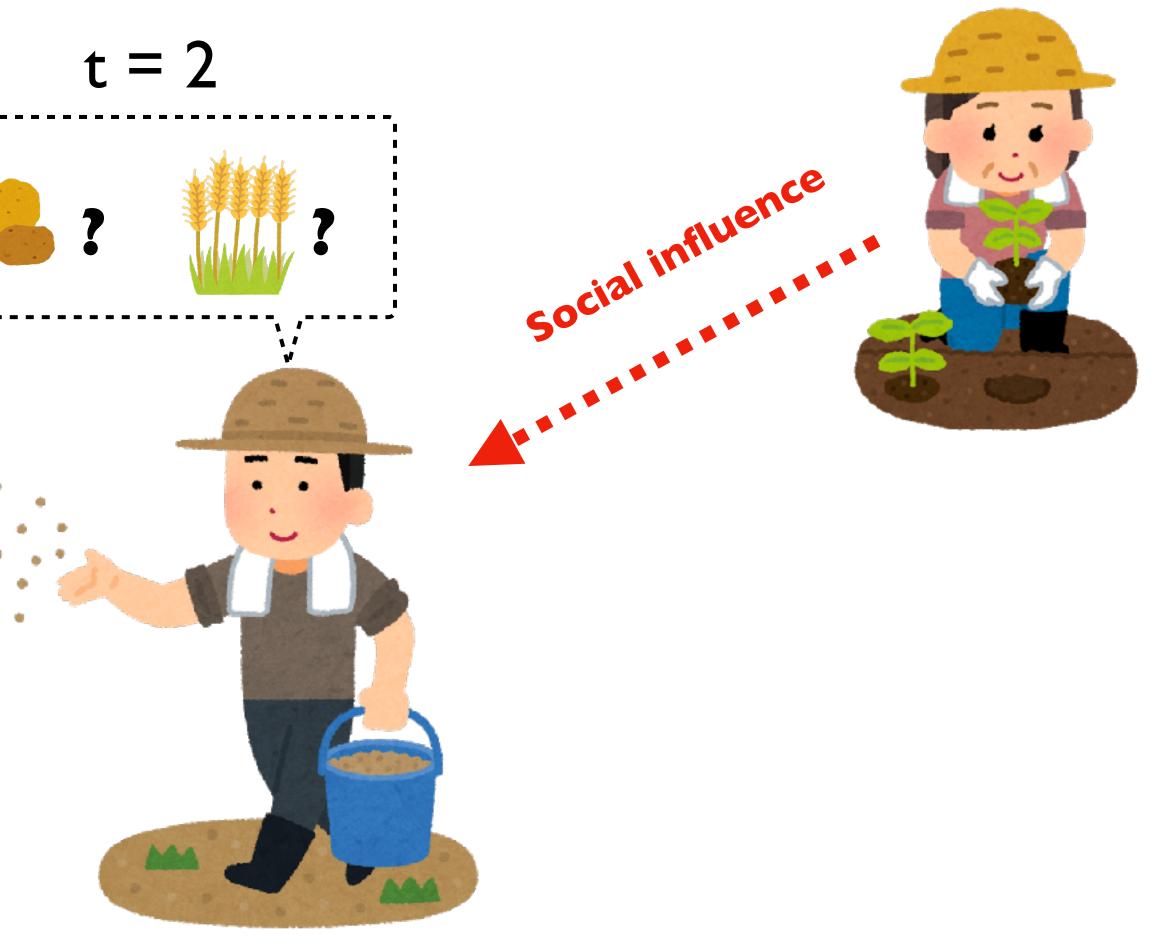
t = |





# Learning from social information

t = I





# Imitating actions

#### Probability of choosing option a



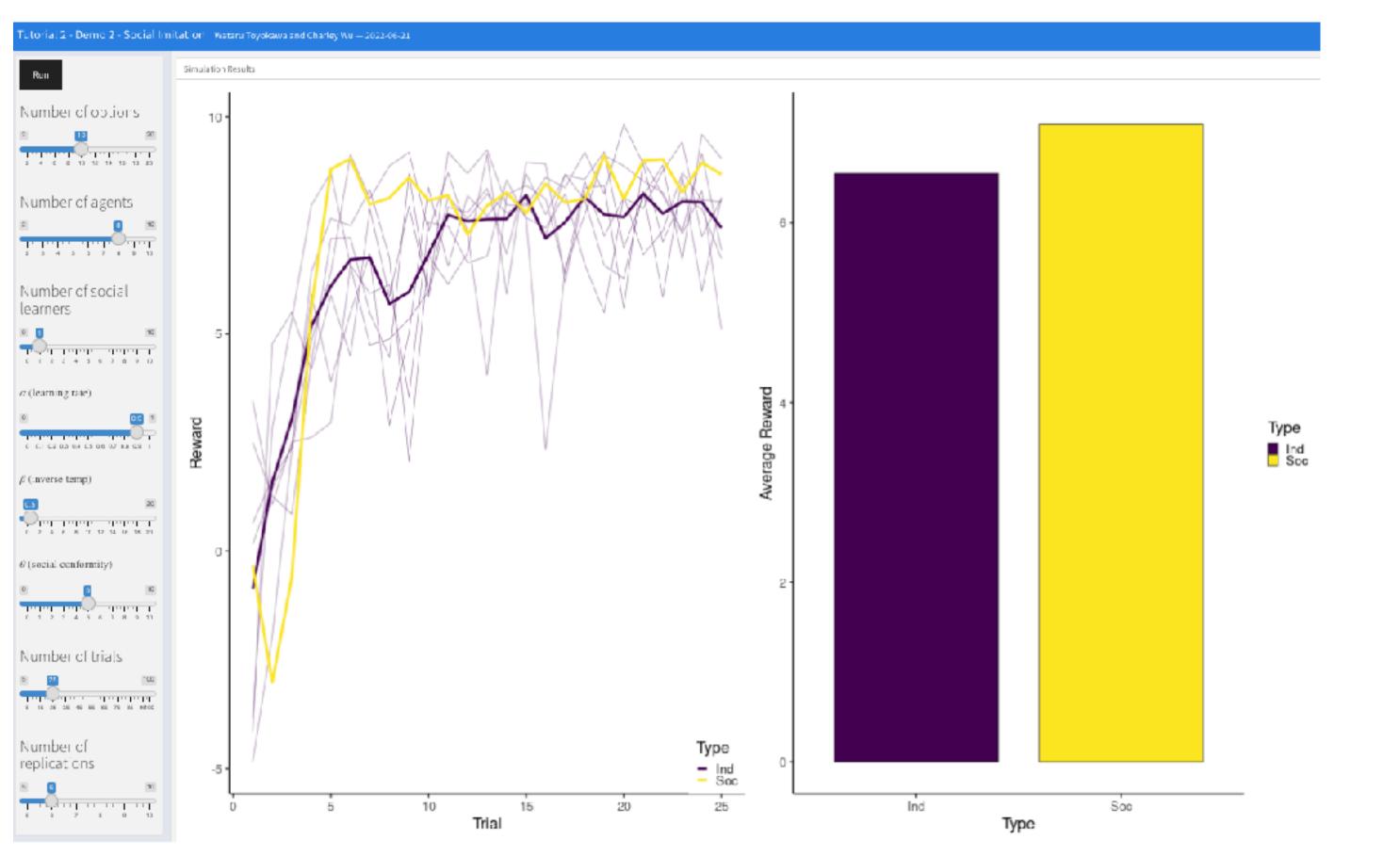
Frequency-dependent copying

#### frequency of other agents performing the same action $\propto$ $f(a)^{\theta}$ $\sum f(k)^{\theta}$



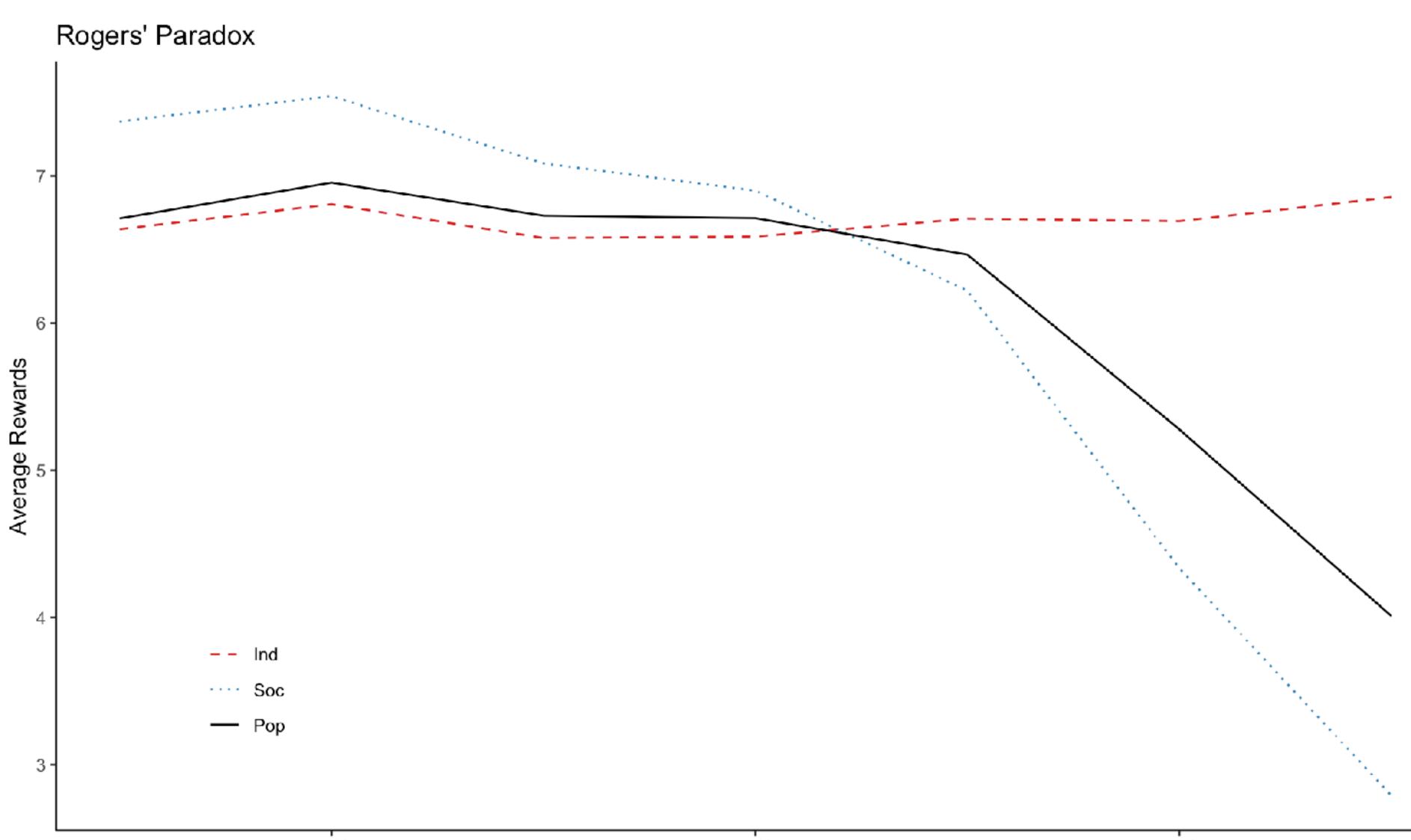
**Notebook** https://cosmos-konstanz.github.io/notebooks/tutorial-2-models-of-learning.html#imitating-actions

### **Demo 2: Imitation and Rogers' paradox**

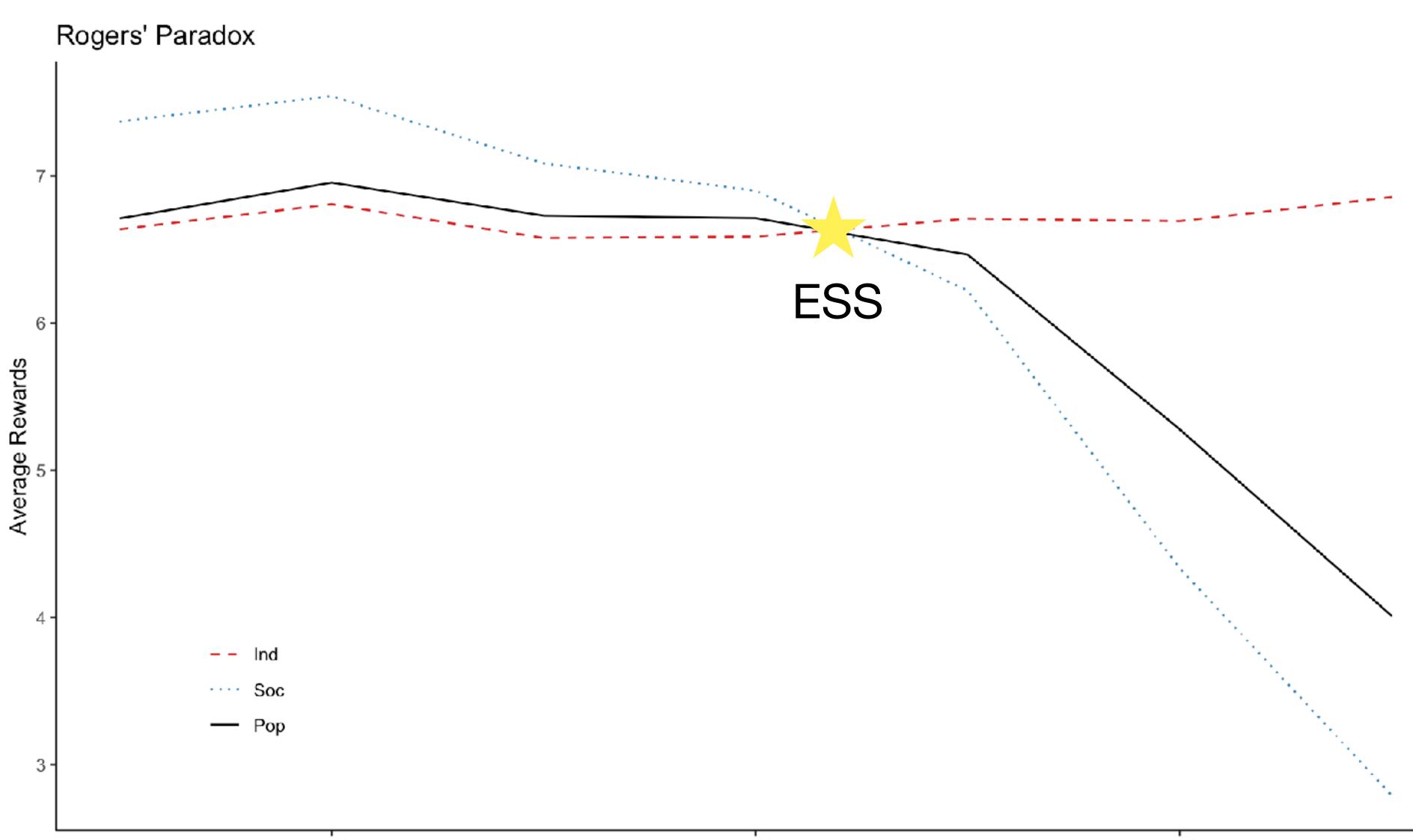


How do different ratios of individual vs. social learners change the performance of each agent type?

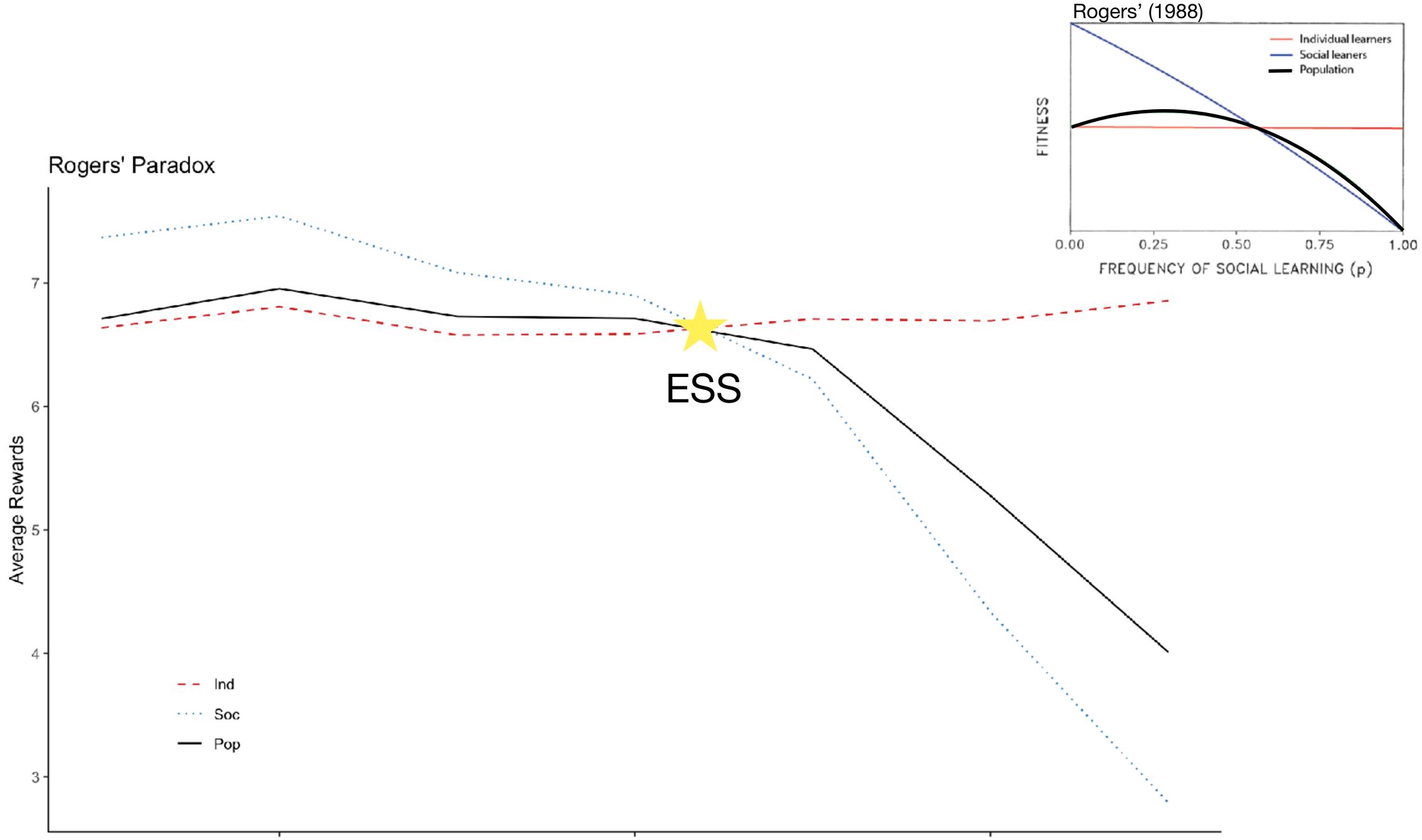










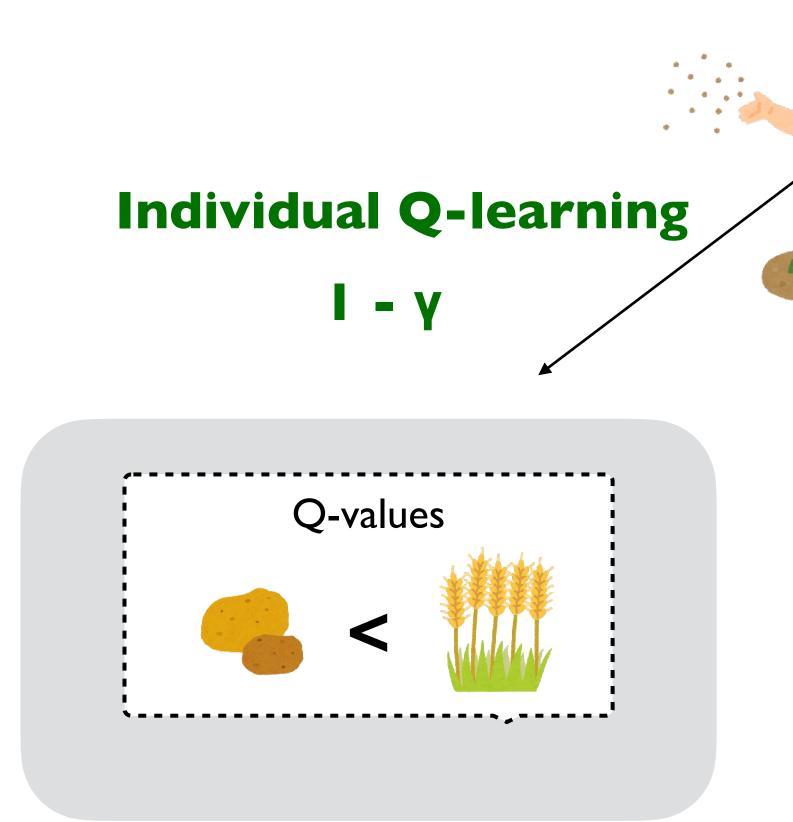




# Combining imitation and value-learning

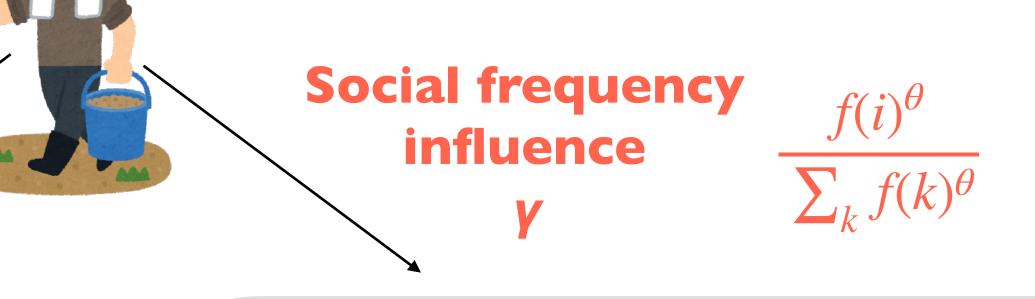


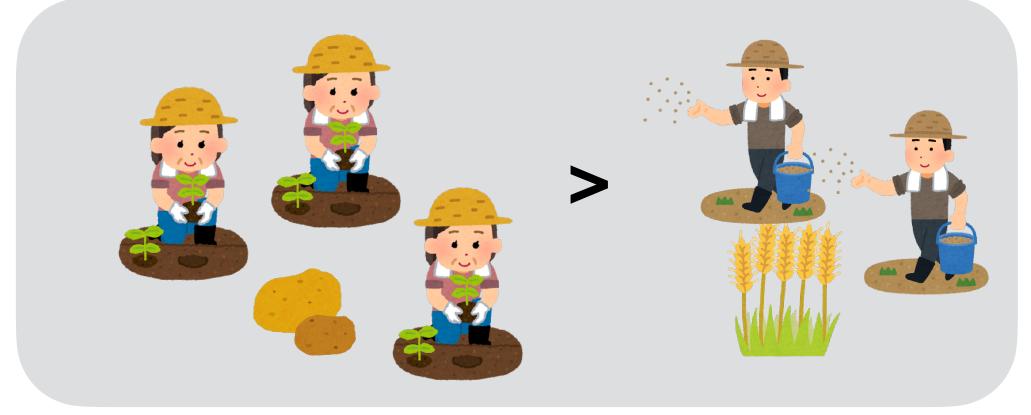
# Decision-biasing social influence



individual social

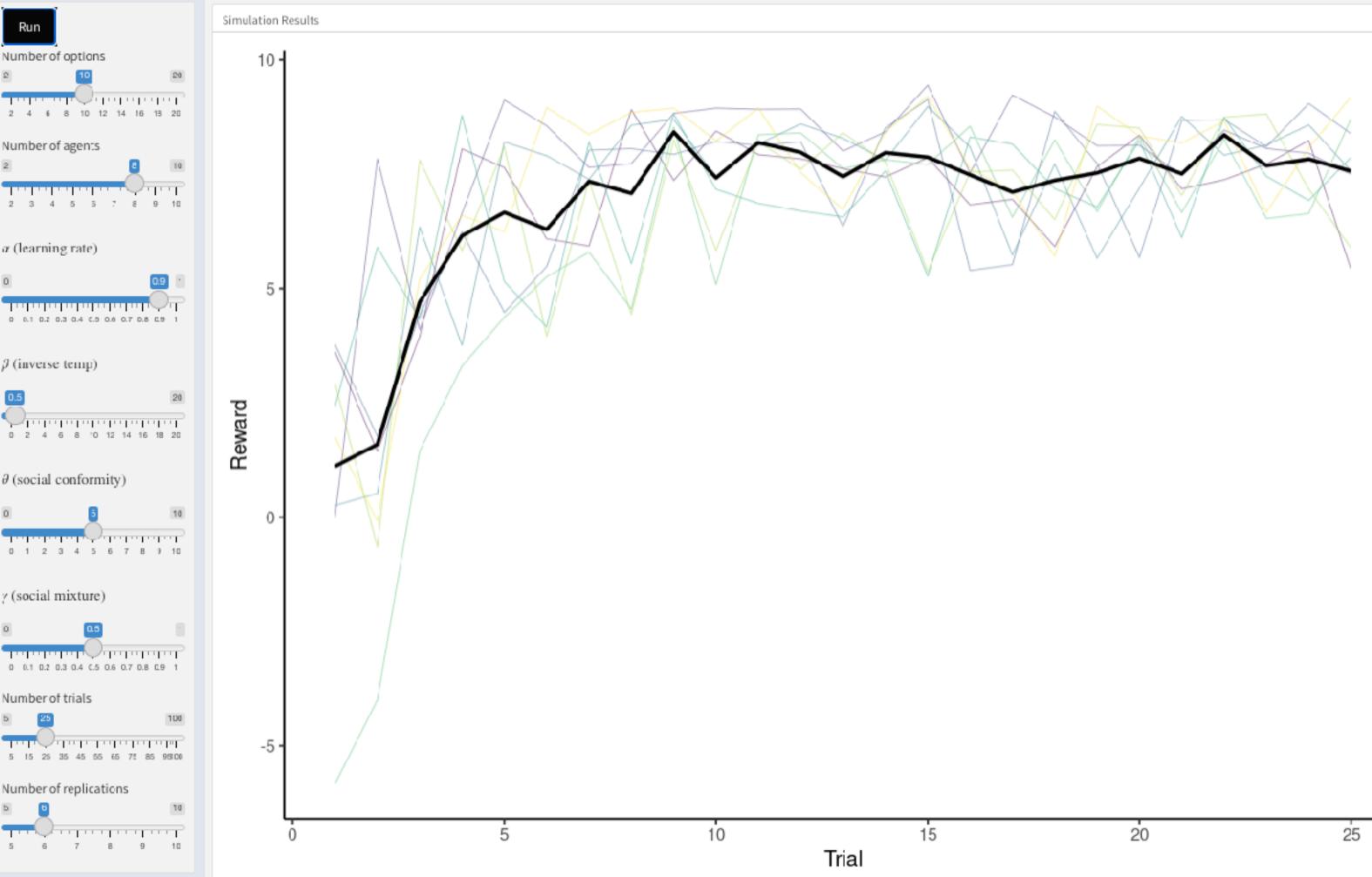
#### Choice probability at t = $(I - \gamma)$ Softmax + $\gamma$ FDC





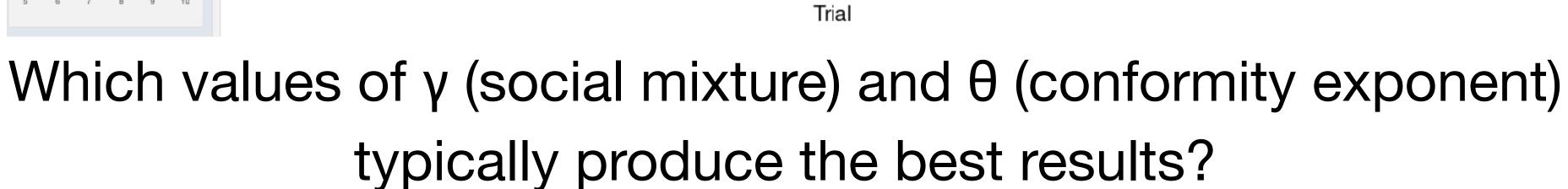


#### **Notebook** https://cosmos-konstanz.github.io/notebooks/tutorial-2-models-of-learning.html#combining-imitation-and-value-learning Demo 3: Decision-biasing



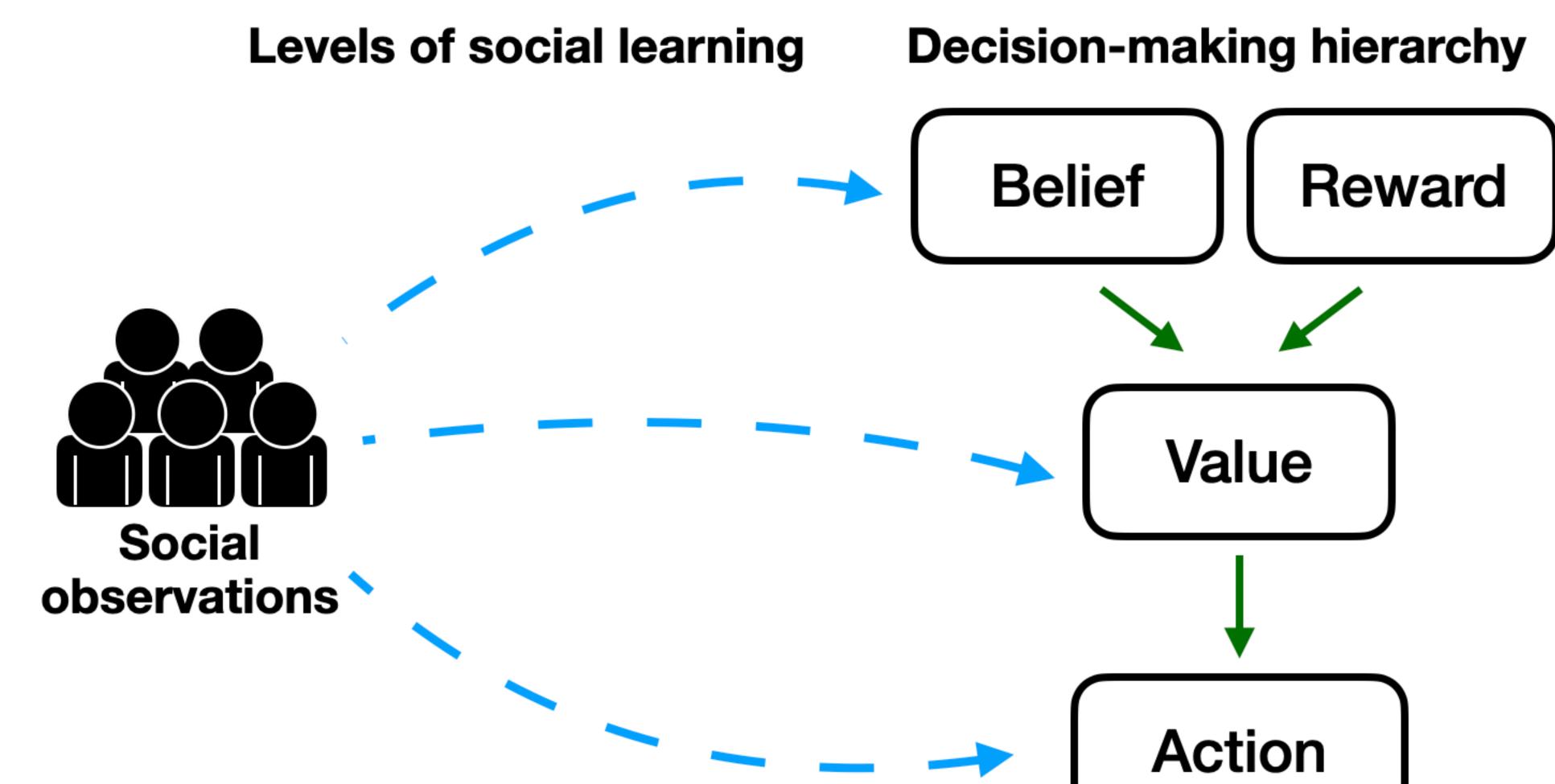








#### Social influence at different levels of learning

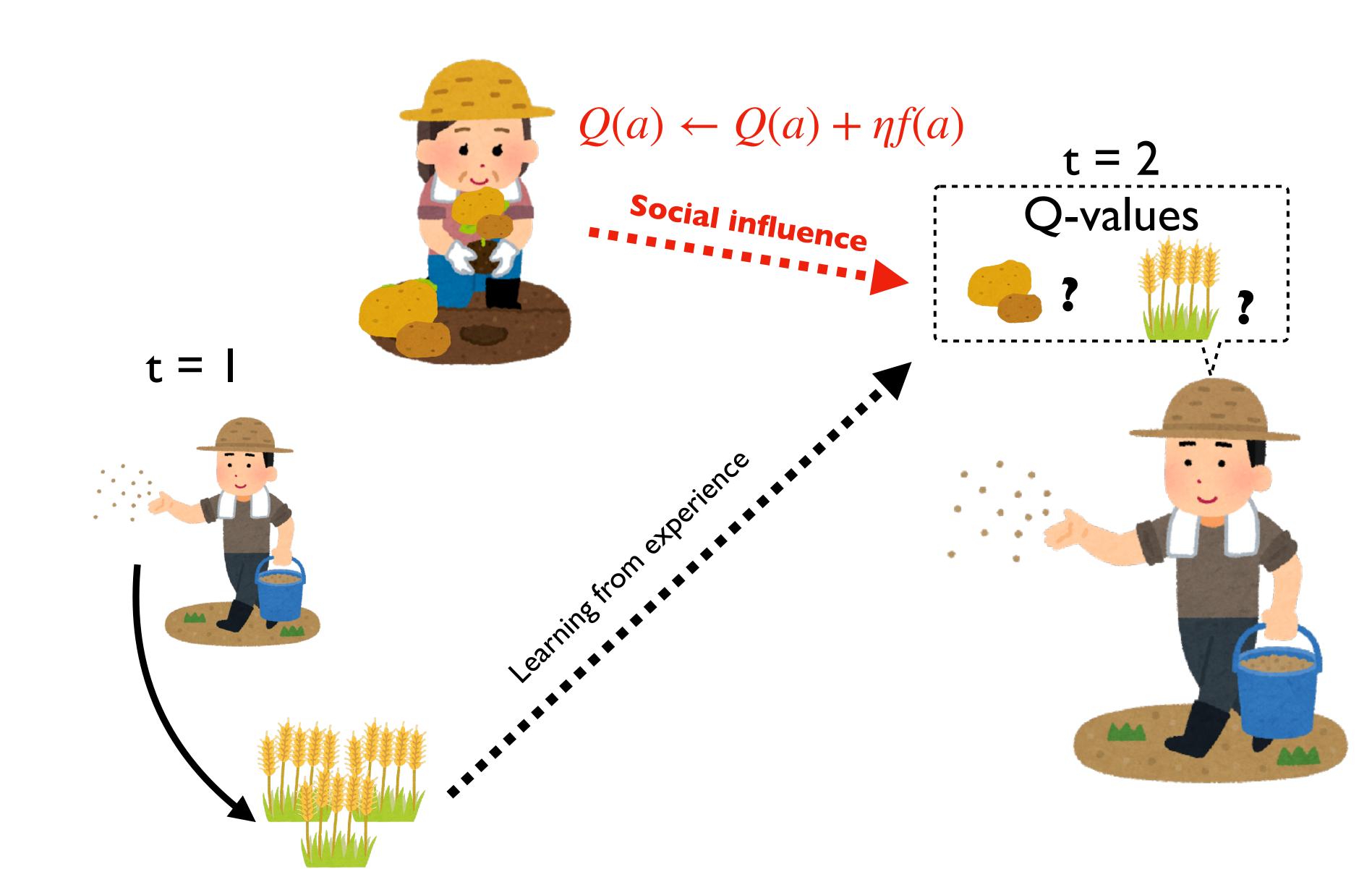


Wu, Vélez, & Cushman (2022)

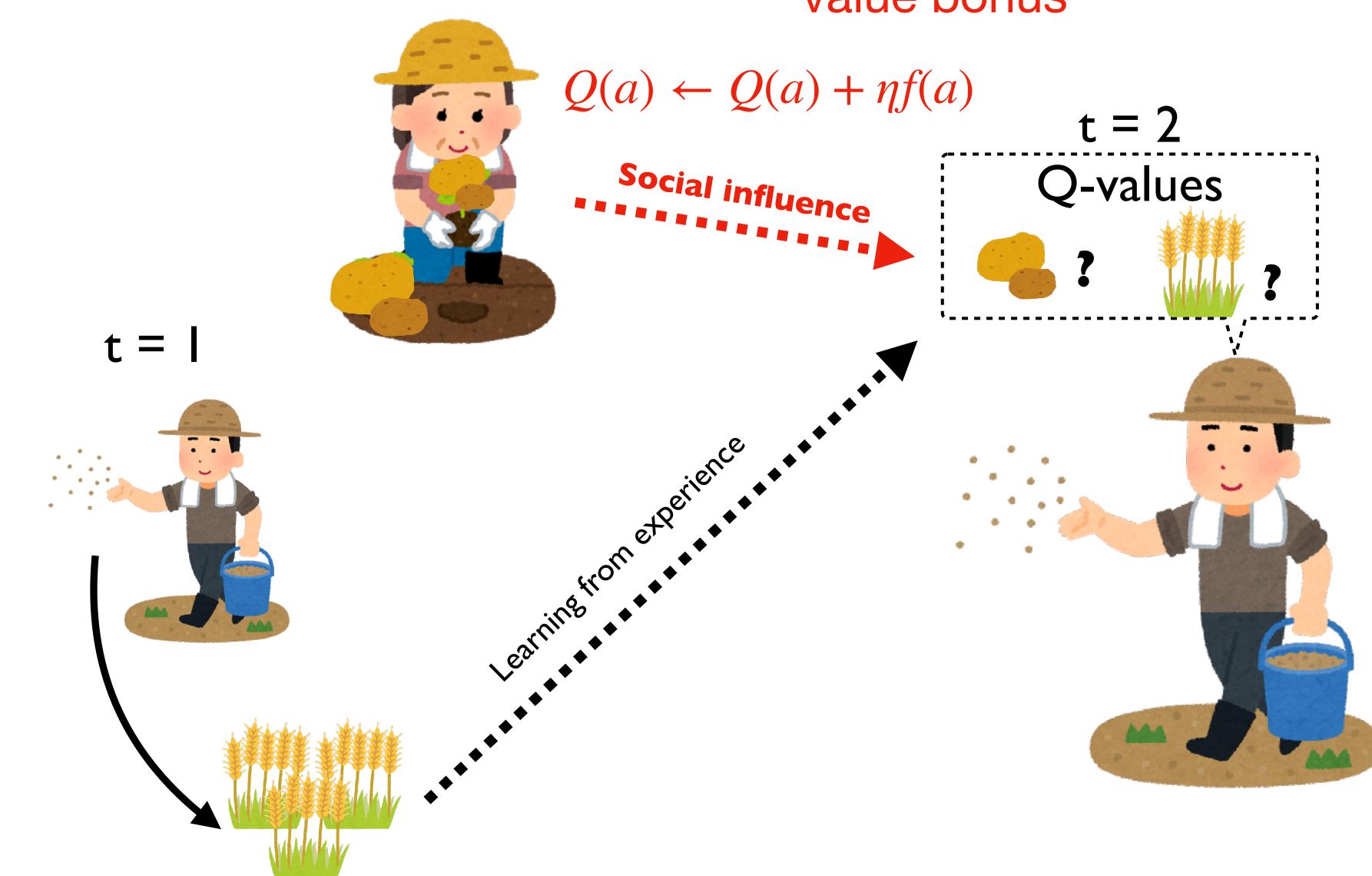




# Value-shaping social influence



# Value-shaping social influence



#### value bonus

**Notebook** https://cosmos-konstanz.github.io/notebooks/tutorial-2-models-of-learning.html#value-shaping

#### Demo 4: Heterogeneous groups



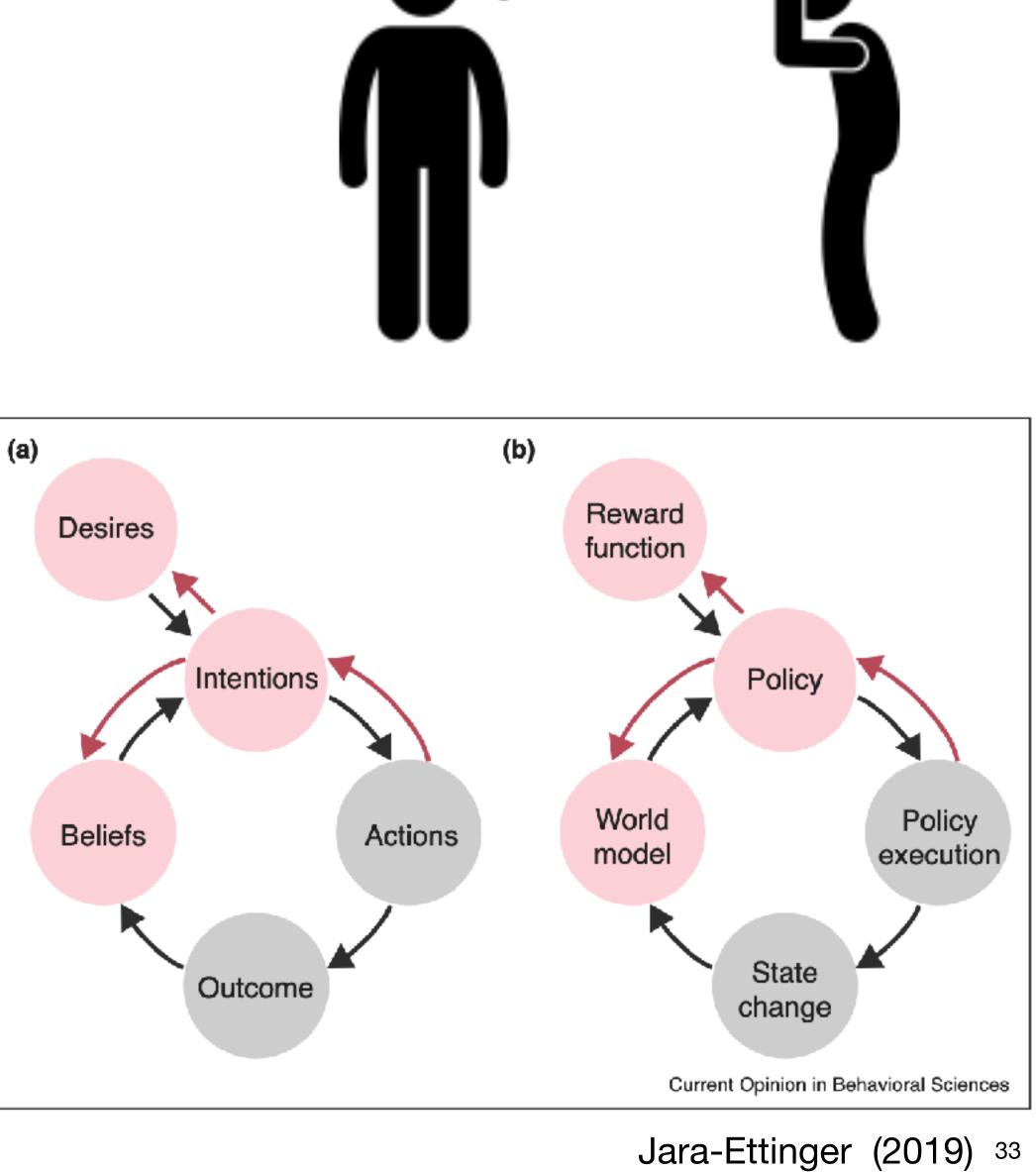
# different group compositions?



### Theory of Mind

- So far we have described very simple social learning mechanism
- Yet an important aspect of human social learning is our ability to "unpack" observed actions into imputed mental states
  - desires and intentions
  - beliefs and one's model of the world
- This is known as Theory of Mind (ToM) inference





### Scaling up to more complex tasks

#### Collective foraging in a dynamic and immersive virtual environment



- Participants forage for hidden rewards (blue splash) on a field of melons
- Realistic field of view creates attentional trade-offs and opportunity costs for social learning:
  - Looking at other players for social imitation comes at the cost of slower individual foraging
- Rich and dynamic social interactions through spatial position and visual gaze

Wu et al, (*bioRxiv* 2023) Wu et al., (Cogsci 2021)

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Wu et al, (*bioRxiv* 2023) Wu et al., (Cogsci 2021)

• Looking at other players for social imitation comes at the cost of slower individual foraging

#### Interactive Tutorial



#### 2x speed

- Smash blocks by clicking and holding mouse (2.25 seconds)
- Some blocks contain rewards, indicated by a blue splash, visible to other players
- Other blocks have no reward
- Participants incentivized to collect as many rewards as possible





#### Interactive Tutorial



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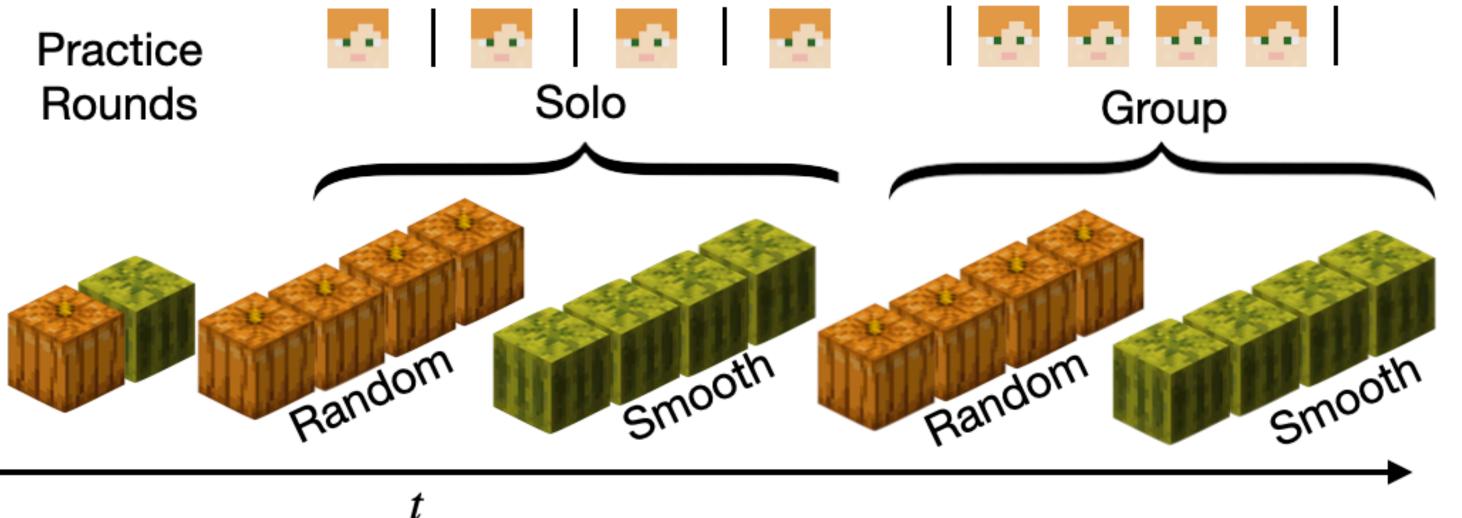


### **Experimental Design**

#### **Smooth**



Rounds



#### Random



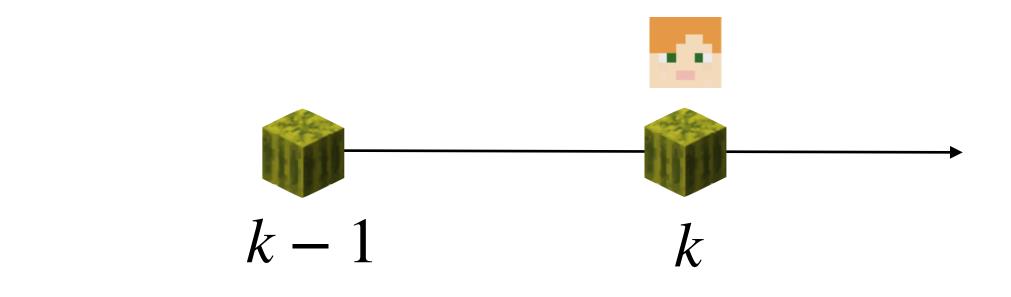
- Environment: smooth vs. random
- 16 rounds with a 2x2 within-subject design
- Condition: solo vs. groups of four



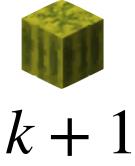
#### **Computational models**

- Sequentially predict each of the k blocks participants destroy:  $P(\text{Choice}_{k+1}) \propto \exp(\mathbf{f}_k \cdot \mathbf{w})$ using a softmax over a set of features **f** times weights **w**
- Model features capture hypotheses about individual and social learning mechanisms (details on next slide)

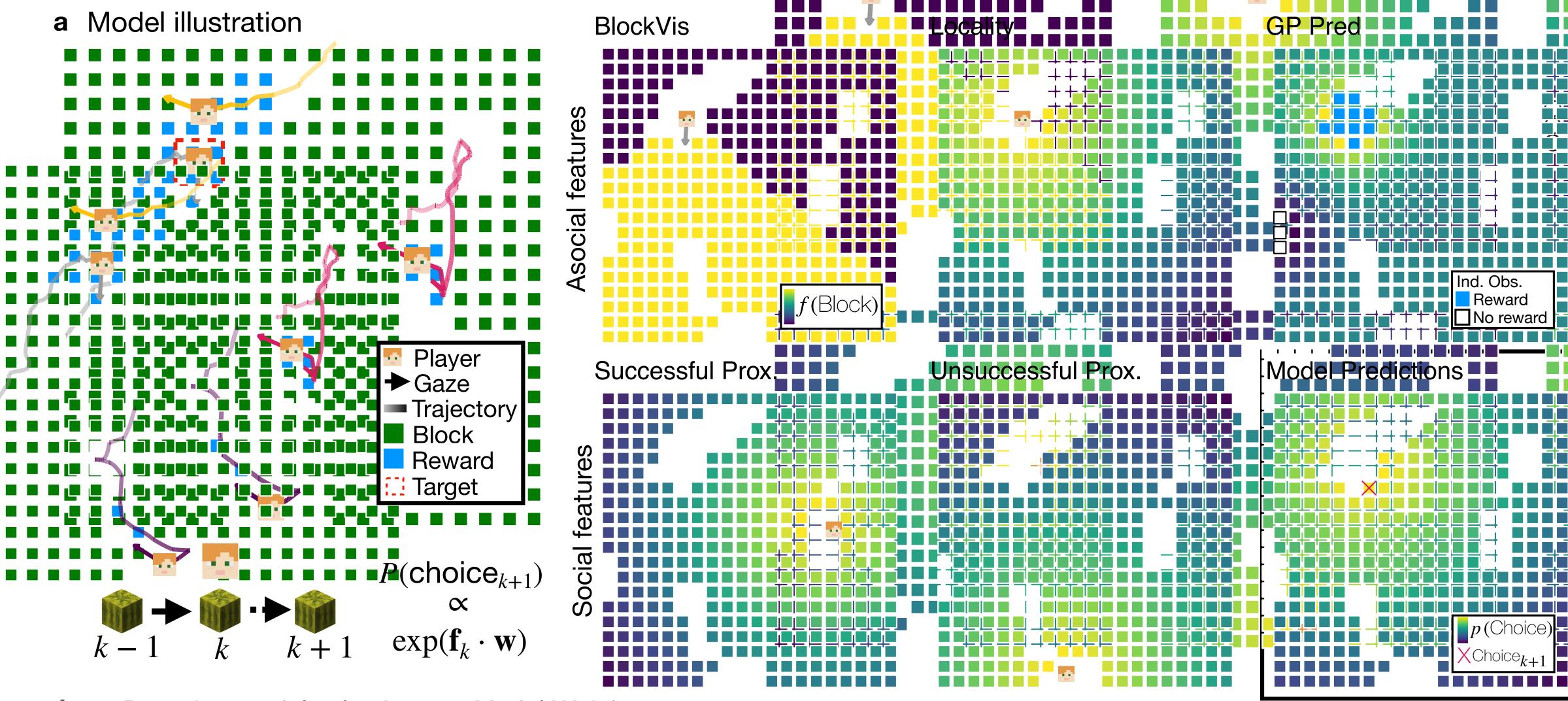
individual and group as random effects

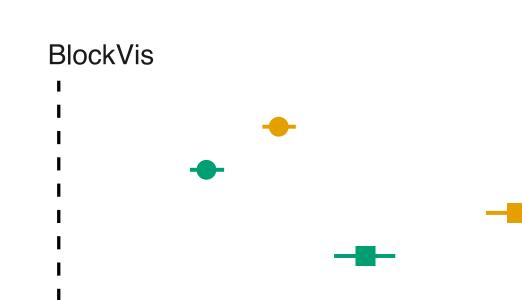


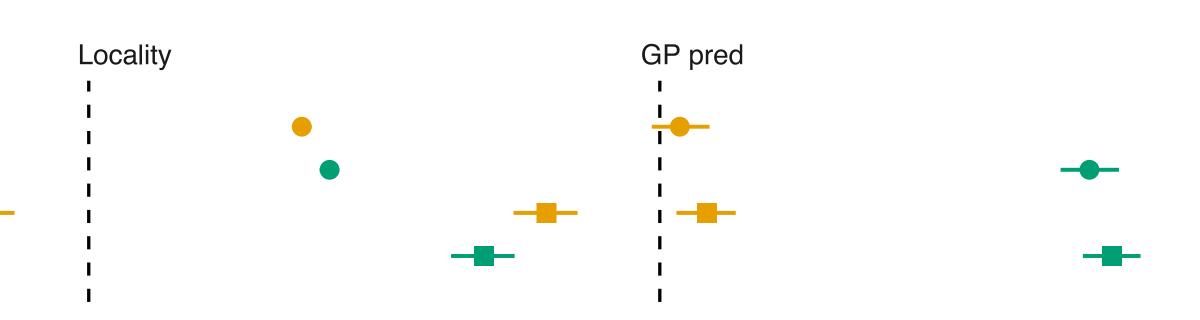
Model weights are estimated using hierarchical Bayesian methods in STAN with





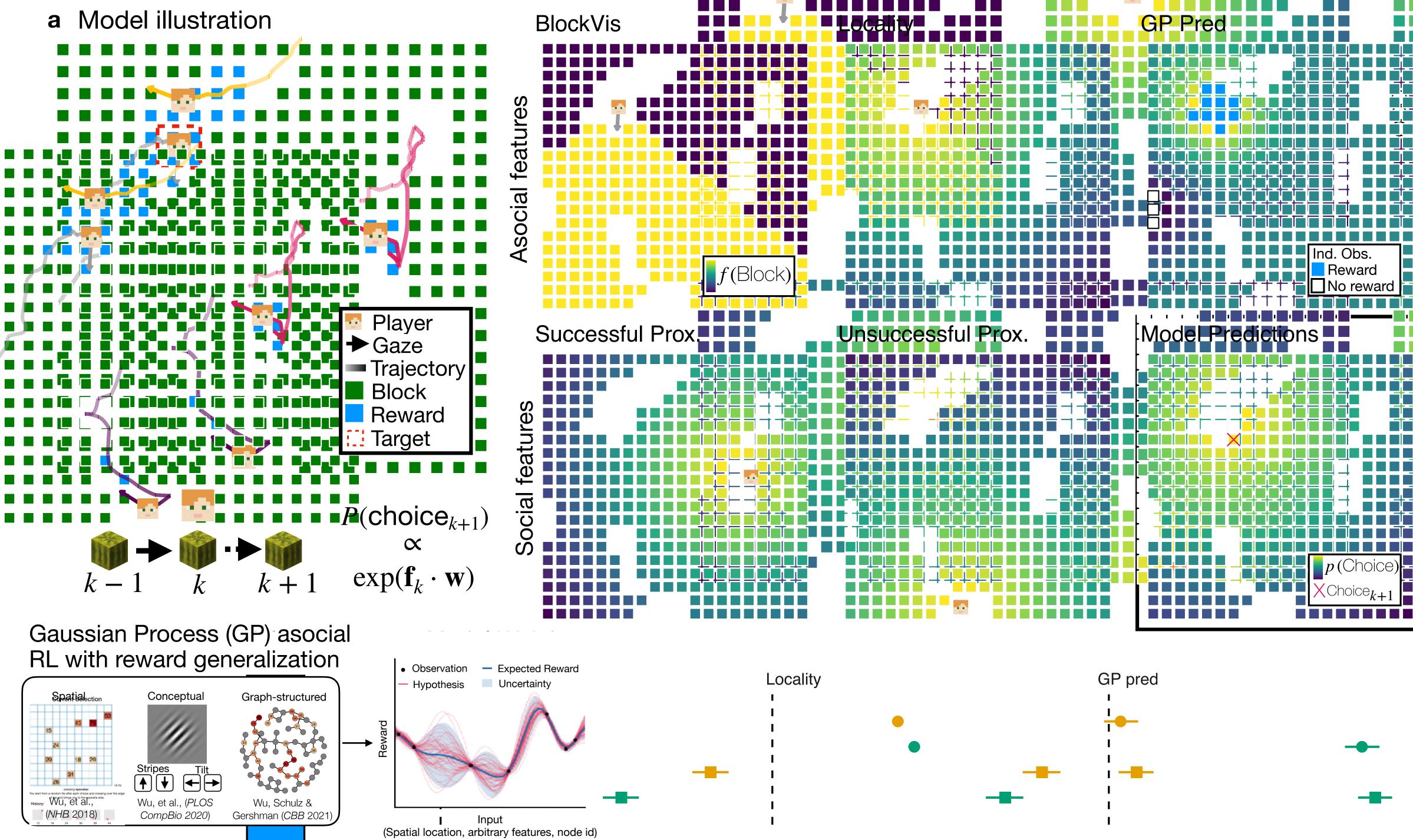






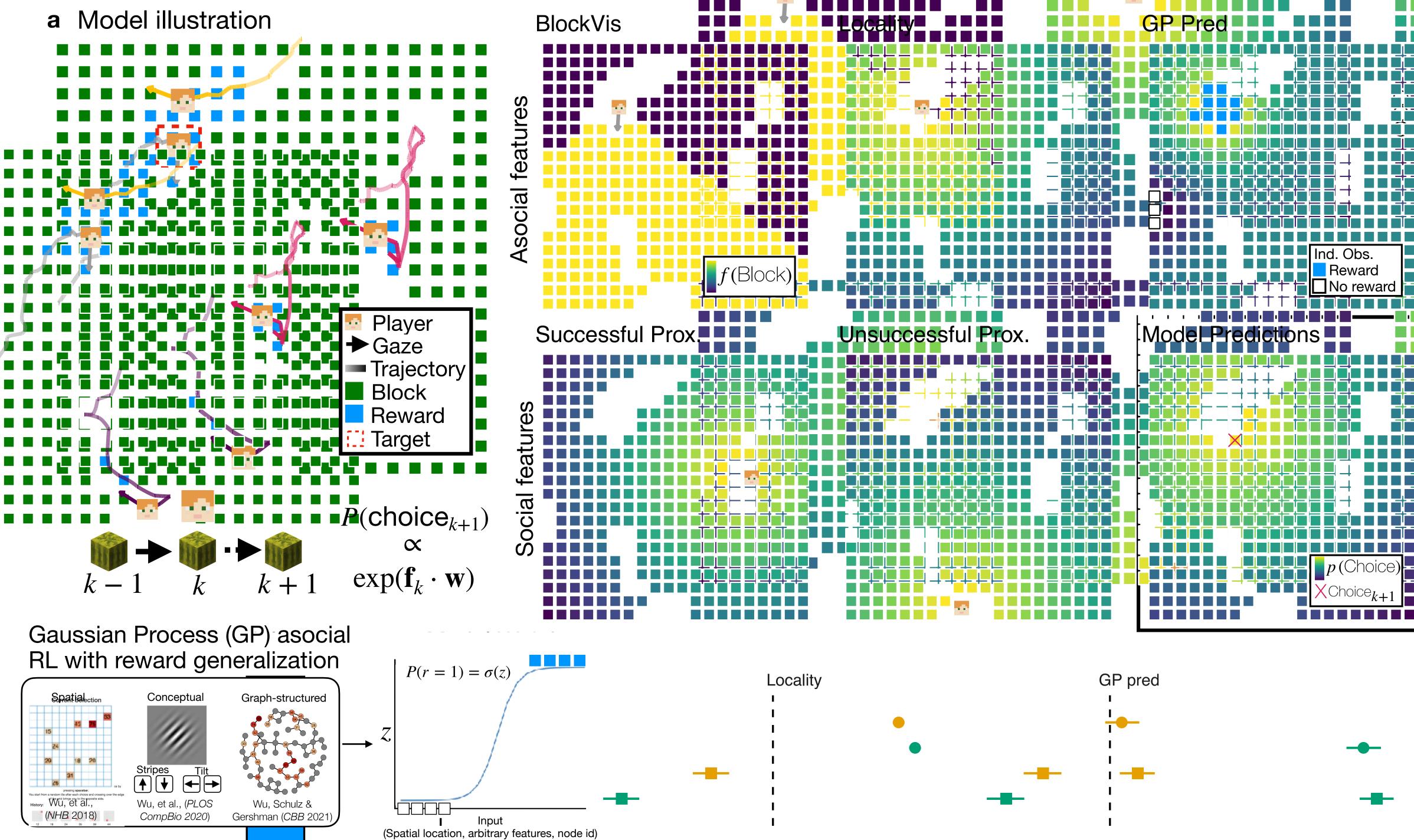
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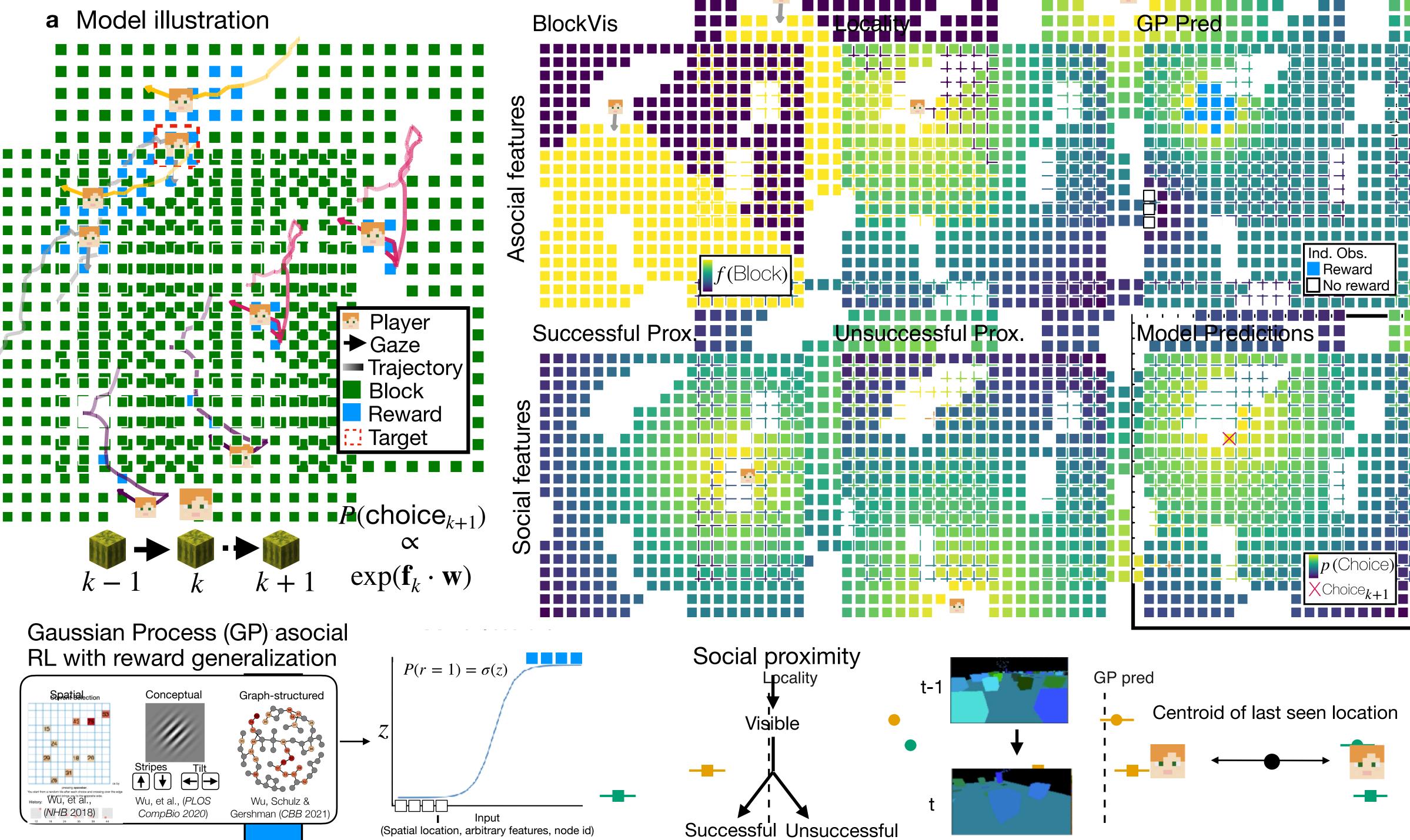
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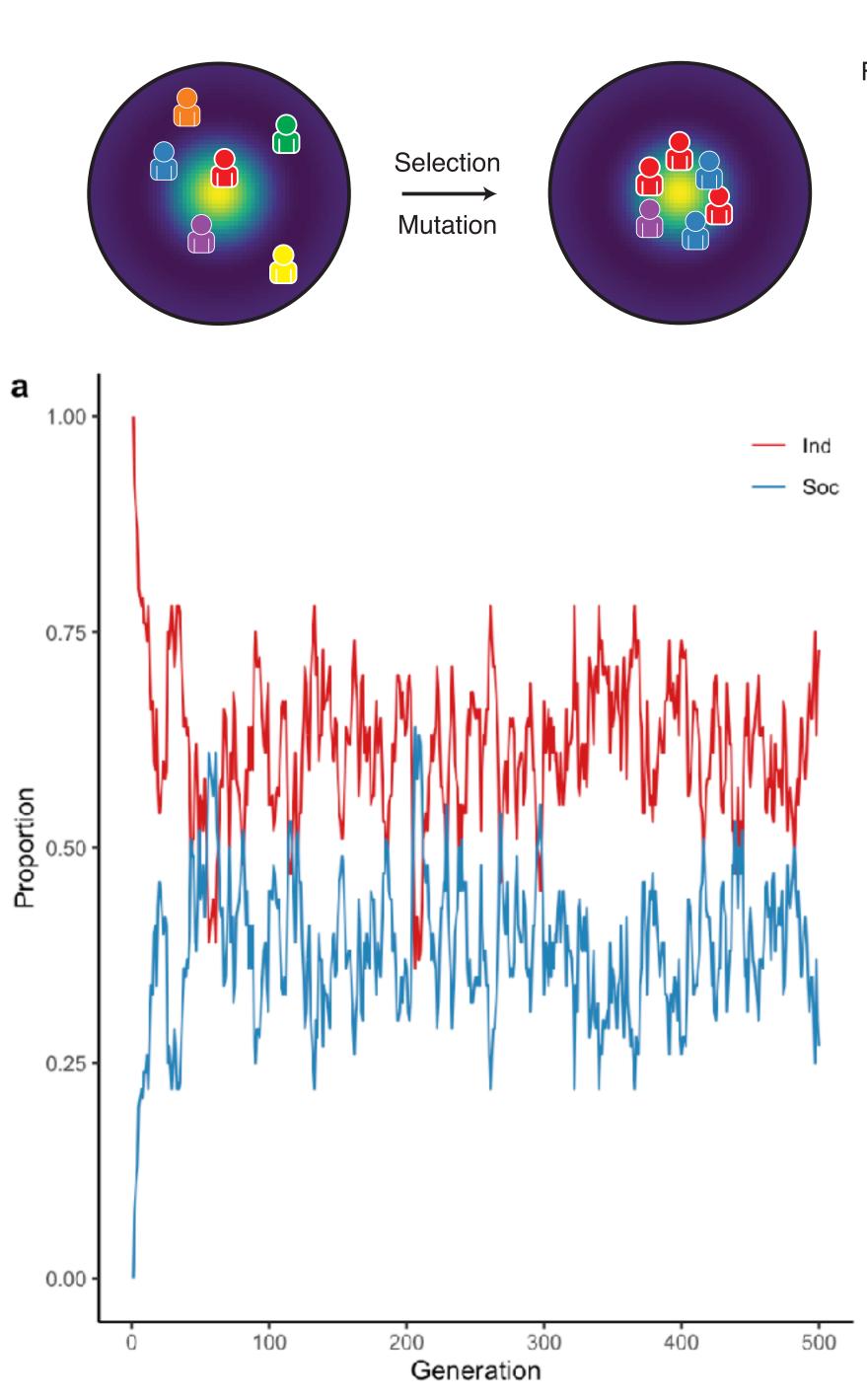


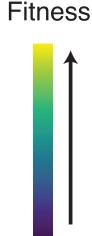
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				X	
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### **Evolutionary dynamics**

- Social learning has frequency-dependent fitness (Rogers, 1988)
  - The best strategy to use depends on what others in the population are doing
- In order to determine the best *normative* strategy, it is often helpful to use evolutionary simulations:
  - Initialize a population of agents
  - 2. Simulate performance on the task
  - 3. Select agents to seed the next generation (e.g., based on performance)
  - Add mutation (change agent type, modify parameters)
  - 5. Repeat until convergence







### **Evolutionary simulations**

- Social learning despite individual differences (Witt et al., 2023)
  - People can use social information, but not verbatim
  - Exact imitation strategies might fail to account for social differences
- Decision-Biasing (DB)
- Value-Shaping (VS)
- Social Generalization (SG):
  - integration social info in the reward generalization process
  - assume social info is noisier than individual experiences



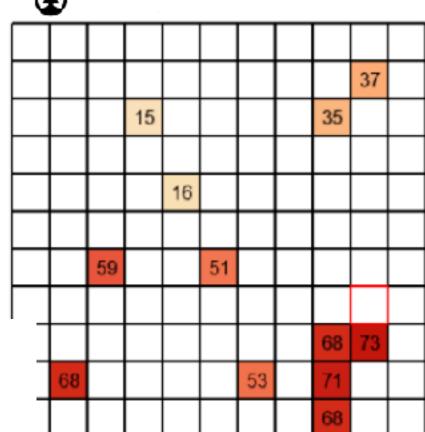
#### Witt, Toyokawa, Gaissmaier, Lala, & Wu (Cogsci 2023)

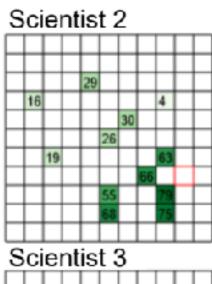
Gather as much salt as possible within 14 clicks

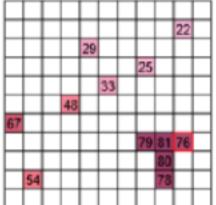
Salt concentration is correlated spatially ...



.... as well as socially



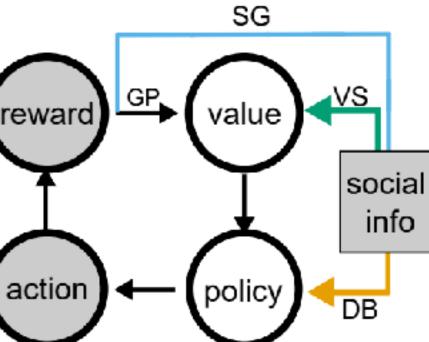




cientist 4

		38					
69				22			
		19					
					48		
42							
				67			
			67		70	60	

reward



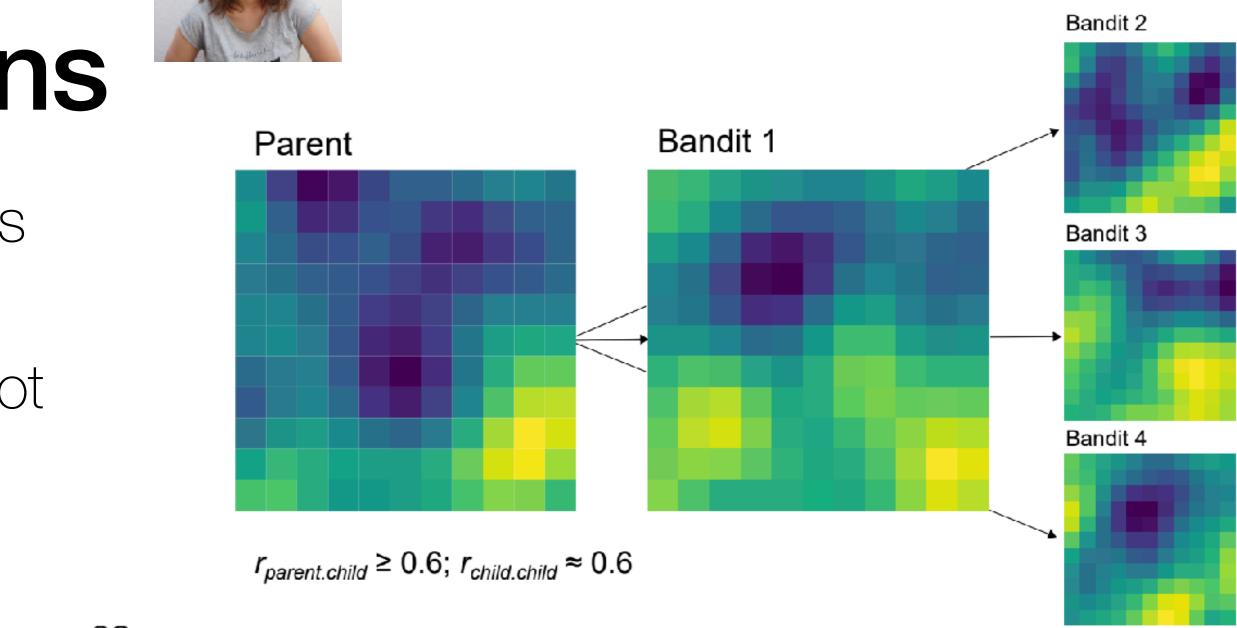


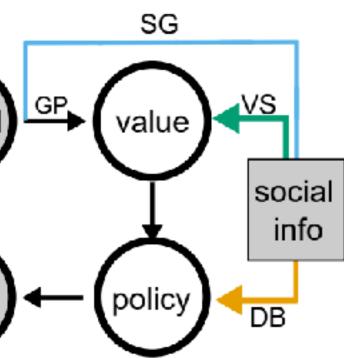
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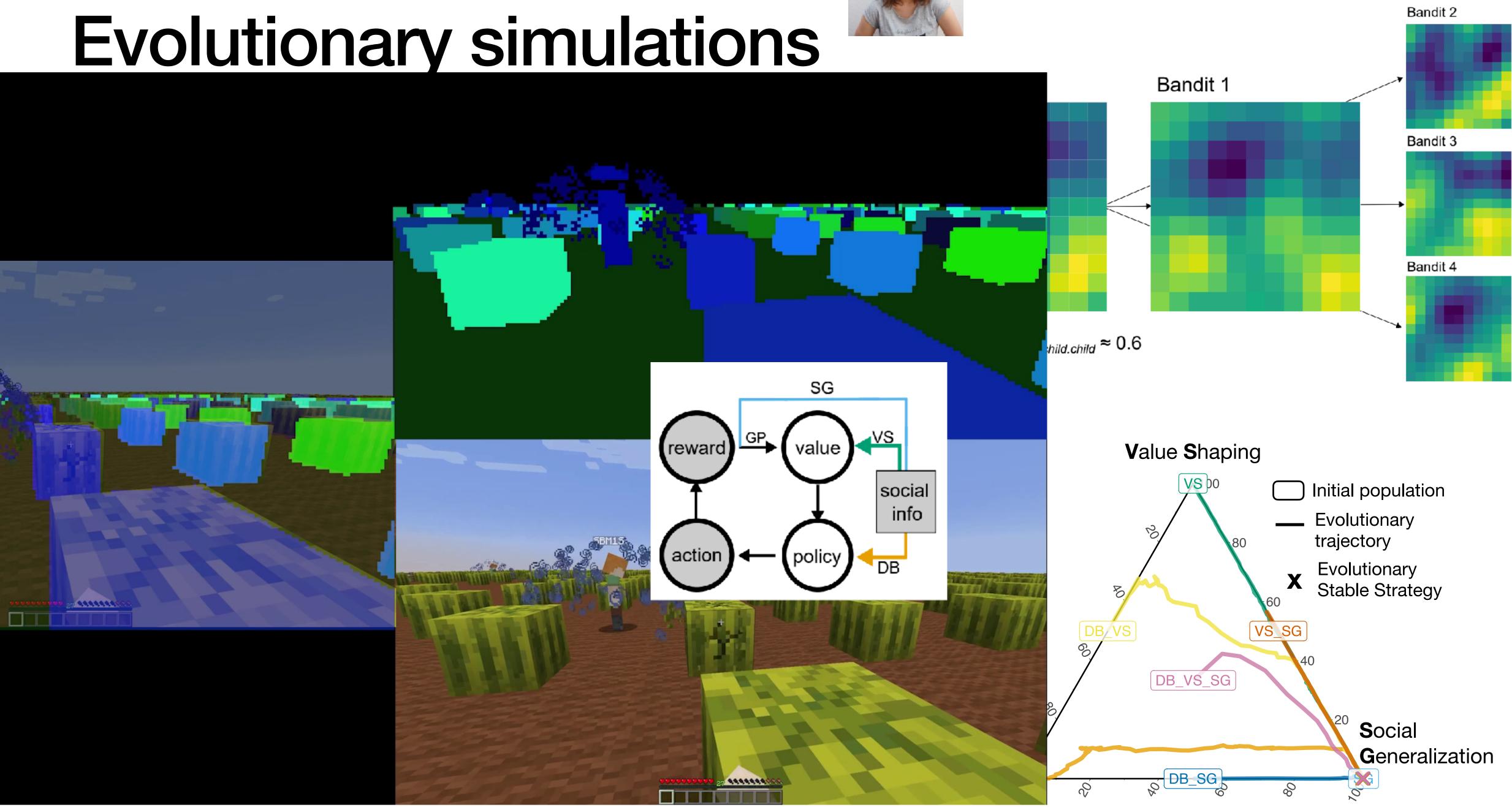


reward

action









#### Witt, Toyokawa, Gaissmaier, Lala, & Wu (Cogsci 2023)





### Summary and open challenges

- Social learning deploys a range of tools:
  - **imitation**: directly copy observed behaviors
  - value-shaping: add a heuristic bonus to observed behaviors
  - **ToM Inference:** inferring hidden value representations or hidden beliefs about the world
- However, this represents only a subset of social learning mechanisms:
  - Intelligent behavior is not only a function of each individual but also how well groups collectively solve problems
  - Over large time scales, simple innovations can cumulatively add up to produce massively complex cultural solutions
  - So far we have focused on observational learning, but social learning also involves pedagogy and explicit communication
- Yet for each mechanism we can describe verbally, we can also define a computational model that makes more precise commitments to the mechanisms of behavior
- Through experimentation and modeling, we can iteratively tweak and refine our understanding of social learning.

