Learning Communication Policies for Different Follower Behaviors in a Collaborative Reference Game

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Abstract

In this work, we evaluate the adaptability of neural agents towards assumed partner behaviors in a collaborative reference game. In this game, success is achieved when a knowledgeable guide can verbally lead a follower to the selection of a specific puzzle piece among several distractors. We frame this language grounding and coordination task as a reinforcement learning problem and measure to which extent a common reinforcement training algorithm (PPO) is able to produce neural agents (the guides) that perform well with various heuristic follower behaviors that vary along the dimensions of confidence and autonomy. We experiment with a learning signal that in addition to the goal condition also respects an assumed communicative effort. Our results indicate that this novel ingredient leads to communicative strategies that are less verbose (staying silent in some of the steps) and that with respect to that the guide's strategies indeed adapt to the partner's level of confidence and autonomy.

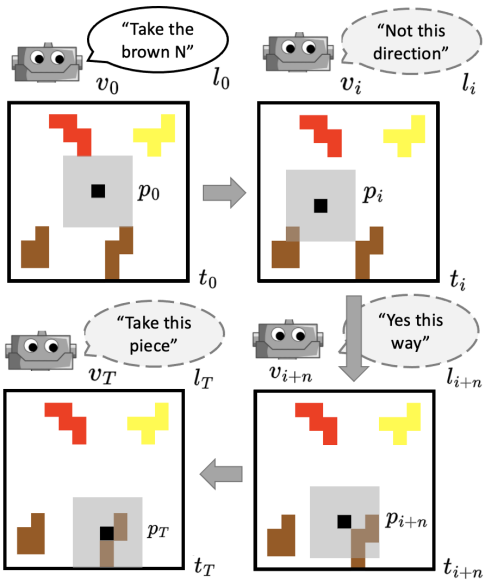

Figure 1: An exemplary interaction between a guide and a follower who controls the gripper (the black dot). The guide observes the scene v_0 and refers to a piece initially with l_0. The follower has only a partial view p_0 (the grey box) and might go wrong. The guide can provide further information based on the follower's actions until a piece is selected at time step T. The guide should learn that fewer utterances are necessary with a more autonomous and confident follower.

1 Introduction

Sometimes we feel like we could continue another person's sentence. This happens in particular with people we know well or we often interact with. A common phrase coined to this phenomenon is that "people are on the same wavelength". Indeed Davidesco et al. (2023) found that brain activities somewhat synchronize between teachers and students during lessons. Even more surprising, synchronicity becomes a good predictor of the learning success of the students. A psycho-linguistic study by Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs (1986) observed the language use of collaborative partners during an ongoing goal-oriented interaction: They (implicitly) agree on newly introduced noun phrases and a common strategy to achieve the goal together. Interestingly, the number of used words drastically decreases during the collaboration. The participants strive towards reduced individual efforts while the number of successful outcomes stays high. We see that human-human interaction is characterized by synchronicity (adaption) and the reduction of individual efforts. Still, the modelling of changing behaviors (or different others) remains an open problem "due to the essentially unconstrained nature of what other agents may do" (Albrecht and Stone, 2018). Are neural agents capable of adapting to their interactants and converge to useful strategies when the partner's behavior becomes apparent only during an ongoing interaction itself?

In this work, we frame a collaborative language coordination and grounding task (see Figure 1) as a reinforcement learning problem (Sutton and

Barto, 2018) and evaluate, if and to which extent a common training algorithm Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017) is able to produce neural agents that perform well with a variety of partner behaviors. To study how learning agents potentially adapt to an assumed partner's behavior, we propose a challenging vision and language grounding task where two players have to coordinate on the selection of a puzzle piece (a Pentomino, a shape of five adjacent squares; Golomb (1996)) among several distractors while (i) the actual target piece is only known to one of them (the guide), and (ii) only the other can perform the selection (the follower).

The main idea is that we assume an ongoing interaction in which the follower's behavior changes. After some time the follower should become more autonomous and more confident in choosing actions and executing its own plan (as pointed out by Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs (1986)). But instead of treating this as a multi-agent setting directly, we follow Yang et al. (2022) with the notion of assigning different agents to different sub-tasks and learn a policy for each of the controllable follower behaviors (the sub-tasks) separately. The resulting policies represent a guide's communicative strategy at certain points in time of the assumed ongoing interaction.

Our expectations on the learned communicative strategies of the guide are that in the beginning (with a less autonomous, less confident follower) more is to be said. Later on, with a more autonomous and confident follower, the guide learns that it "does not need to say anything" to be successful and consequently reduces its effort. Our contributions are as follows[1]:

- We propose a challenging RL environment: a reference game in which a neural agent (the guide) has to learn communication strategies that are **successful and reduce an assumed effort**, and
- contribute a plausible follower policy (the training partner) that is variable on two dimensions: **confidence** and **autonomy**, and
- present strong baseline guide policies for this difficult cooperative reference game that are indeed able to balance out episode success and their individual effort by **learning to stay silent**.

[1]Source code is publicly available at: https://github.com/clp-research/different-follower-behaviors

2 Related Work

Vision and language navigation. The use of natural language to guide an instruction following agent has been heavily studied for the vision and language navigation task (Gu et al., 2022; Nguyen et al., 2019; Nguyen and Daumé III, 2019; Fried et al., 2018; Thomason et al., 2019). For example, Nguyen and Daumé III (2019) train an instruction giver (IG) on a pre-collected dataset of instructions. The follower is then allowed to ask the IG for more information during task execution. Although the setting is very similar, but in our work the guide has to learn when to provide more information to the follower. In our setting, the language back-channel for the follower is cut, so the players must use the vision signal in their coordination and the guide's must monitor the follower's behavior.

Natural language goals in RL. Using natural language to describe the goal state in an RL problem has become a common theme (Chevalier-Boisvert et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2022; Padmakumar et al., 2022; Pashevich et al., 2021; Suhr and Artzi, 2023). This research direction is interesting because it could allow humans to interact more easily with learned agents. There is work that shows that intermediate language inputs are a valuable signal in task-oriented visual environments (Co-Reyes et al., 2019; Mu et al., 2022). Indeed Huang et al. (2023) found that natural language can "provide a gradient" towards the goal state. But they also point out the "brittleness" of these signals because the language input might align badly with sub-trajectories. A key challenge here is the variability of expressions in language that can be produced and understood in the defined action space. Even in relatively simple environments, there might arise an overwhelming amount of situations for an agent to handle (Chevalier-Boisvert et al., 2019). We weaken the action space exploration problem by using ideas from natural language understanding (Moon et al., 2020; E et al., 2019) and let the guide produce language actions in a well-defined reduced "intent space". These intents are then verbalized (using templates; which could be a conditioned pre-trained language model) and given to the follower.

Interactive sub-goal generation in RL. Sun et al. (2023) use a pre-trained large language model to generate possible plans (in the form of source code) for the completion of a task. The learning process is extended with a mechanism that allows

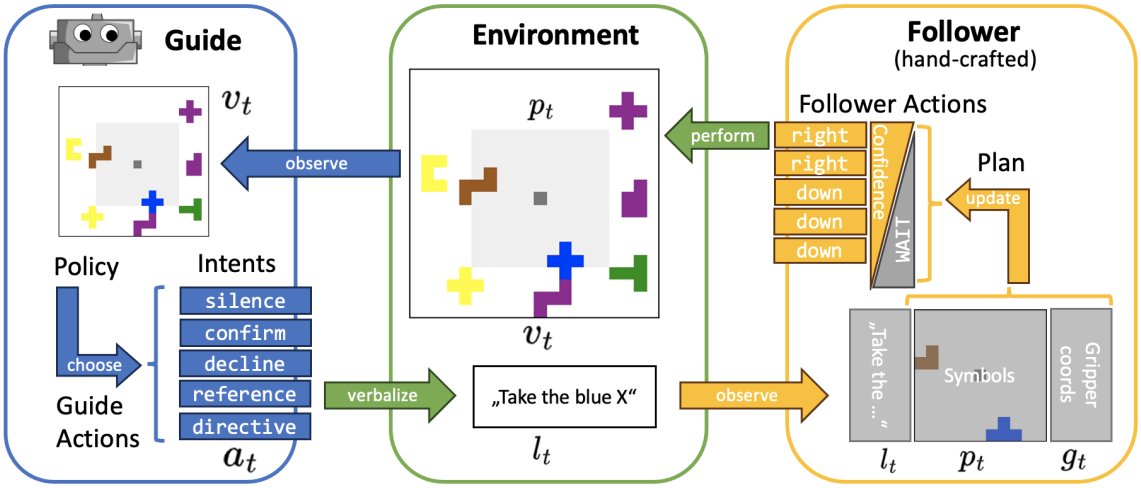

Figure 2: The general information and decision-making flow of the reference game. The guide observes v_t which contains the full scene in pixel space and additionally the gripper position (4th-channel) and target piece (5th-channel). Given this, the guide chooses an intent action a_t that gets verbalized into a template-based sentence l_t. Then, the follower receives the utterance l_t, the gripper coordinate g_t and a symbolic representation of a partial view of the scene p_t. The hand-crafted policy updates the plan accordingly based on its given representation of the world. Finally, the follower's next planned action (or `wait`) is performed with a certain chance defined by the attached confidence. The process repeats until a piece is taken or time runs out.

the model to learn the refinement of single actions or an entire plan respectively. Indeed neural agents perform better when they self-predict sub-goals to be achieved (with an intrinsic reward) instead of reaching for the final goal immediately (Jurgenson and Tamar, 2023; Chane-Sane et al., 2021; Pertsch et al., 2020; Jeon et al., 2022). For example, Lee and Kim (2023) study the task of finding the best route in a simple visual domain by training a sub-goal system that predicts intermediate coordinates. In contrast to them, our guiding agent has to produce utterances to describe a sub-goal (and we use referring expressions or directions). Gürtler et al. (2021) also address the question of "when to provide sub-goals", which is necessary in our task. Nevertheless, in distinction to these works, we treat the sub-goal generation not just as additional information for the follower's success but are interested in the learned communicative strategies themselves. We treat the sub-goal providing guide as an individual participant in the environment similar to a multi-agent setting.

Skill learning in cooperative multi-agent RL. We treat both guide and follower as agents in a cooperative setting and follow work that uses hand-crafted policies (Wang et al., 2021; Ghosh et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2020). In this sense, our approach is similar to heterogeneous skill learning (Chang et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2023) where a single agent is trained to acquire a variety of skills (in our case communication strategies). This is, in particular, helpful due to the differences in the action spaces of the guide (language acts) and the follower (movements). In addition, this method of having a hand-crafted follower policy allows us to avoid the problem of emergent communication where agents agree on a language that becomes inaccessible to humans (Lowe et al., 2019).

3 The Collaborative Reference Game

We use a collaborative game of referential and interactive language with Pentomino pieces (Sadler et al., 2023) and extend it for guidance learning. A guide has to instruct a follower to select a specific target piece with a gripper. In this setting, both players are constrained as follows: The guide can provide utterances but cannot move the gripper. The follower can move the gripper but is not allowed to provide an utterance. This asymmetry in knowledge and skill forces them to work together and coordinate. Zarrieß et al. (2016) found that such a reference game leads to diverse language use on the guide's side.

3.1 Problem Formulation

We frame this game as an RL problem with sparse rewards. At each time-step t, given an observation $o_t \in \mathcal{O}$ of the environment (see Figure 2), the guide has to choose an action a_t such that the overall resulting sequence of actions $(a_0, ..., a_t, ..., a_T)$

(which become verbalized into $(l_0, ..., l_t, ..., l_T)$) maximizes the sparse reward $\mathcal{R}(o_T) = r$ that is given on episode end, either when a piece is selected by the follower or t reaches $T_{max} = 30$. This maximal number of steps is sufficient to navigate to the target piece with some extra steps for corrections on our 21×21 tile maps. The follower starts in the center of the map so that the farthest tile would be 10 horizontal plus 10 vertical steps away.

3.2 Actions

We let the guide predict "intent" actions and translate them into sentences instead of predicting words directly to reduce the agent's burden on action space exploration (later this verbalization process could be done by a language generation system). Here we focus on the guide's choice among five intent categories: `silence`, `confirm`, `decline`, `directive`, `reference`. For the `directives`, we allow more fine-grained control over the utterance production, so that the agent has to choose between `left`, `right`, `up`, `down` and `take`. Similarly, for the `references` the agent has to choose among possible preference orders `PCS`, `PSC`, `SPC`, `CPS`, `SCP` and `CSP` (in which `P`, `C` and `S` stand for piece, color, and shape, respectively). These preference orders (PO) define the order in which properties are compared between the target piece and its distractors. This means, for example, that a `CSP`-based reference is likely to mention the target piece's color because the color is tried first to distinguish the target from its distractors (and it is very unlikely that all pieces share the same color). These six `reference` actions, five `directive` actions, `silence`, `confirm` and `decline` lead to a total of $|A| = 14$ actions. In comparison, the vocabulary contains 37 tokens and the maximal sentence length is 12 which results in 37^{12} possible utterances when predicting individual words instead of intents.

3.3 Verbalization

The chosen intent is then verbalized based on templates by application of the following rules:

`silence` → `<empty string>`
`confirm` → `Yes this [way|<piece>]`
`decline` → `Not this [way|<piece>]`
`directive(take)` → `Take <piece>`
`directive(dir)` → `Go <dir>`
`reference(PO)` → `Take the <IA(PO)>`

where `<piece>` resolves to a piece's color and shape when the current gripper position is located over a piece (or otherwise simply `piece`). The direction `<dir>` resolve to the according intent name. The fine-grained reference intent (`PO`) is given to the "Incremental Algorithm" (Dale and Reiter, 1995), which produces the referring expression for reference verbalization (see Appendix A.1).

3.4 Rewards

Following Chevalier-Boisvert et al. (2019), we define a basic sparse reward for playing the game:

$$\mathcal{R}_{\text{Game}} = 1 - 0.9 * (T/T_{\text{max}}) \quad (1)$$

In addition, we introduce a sparse reward for the guide's individual effort in an episode:

$$\mathcal{R}_{\text{Guide}} = 1 - 0.9 * (E_{\text{Guide}}/T_{\text{max}}) \quad (2)$$

where the guide's effort E_{Guide} is the sum over the assumed efforts of taking the respective actions:

$$E_{\text{Guide}} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } a_t \in \{\texttt{silence}\} \\ 1.0, & \text{if } a_t \in \{\texttt{confirm,decline}\} \\ 1.1, & \text{if } a_t \in \{\texttt{directive}\} \\ 1.2, & \text{if } a_t \in \{\texttt{reference}\} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

These action-based efforts follow the assumed cognitive load for producing them i.e. saying nothing is the cheapest and comparing pieces with each other to produce a reference is the highest. Finally, we give an additional reward ($\mathcal{R}_{\text{Outcome}}$) of $+1$ when the correct piece or a penalty of -1 if the wrong or no piece has been taken at all, so that:

$$\mathcal{R} = (\mathcal{R}_{\text{Game}} + \mathcal{R}_{\text{Guide}})/2 + \mathcal{R}_{\text{Outcome}} \quad (4)$$

Given this formulation, the guide has to play the game by being active (not just stay silent), achieve the goal (get the bonus) and reduce its individual effort (stay mostly silent) to reach a high reward.

3.5 Observations

The environment exposes at each time-step t an observation o_t that contains the following:

- the follower's gripper coordinates $g_t = (x, y)$
- the guide's utterance l_t (might be empty)
- a full view of the scene v_t for the guide
- a partial view p_t of the scene for the follower

The visual observations are 3-dimensional representations of the full $W \times H$-sized board for the guide (RGB-images) and a 11×11-sized cut-out centered on the gripper's position for the follower (CSI-images). We add a 4th channel to the visual observations to indicate the gripper position by setting the values to zero at g_t and one otherwise. In addition, the guide is informed about the target piece coordinates by setting the according values to zero for the target piece and ones otherwise on a 5th channel of its visual observation. For our purposes, the follower receives a symbolic representation of the partial view where colors, shapes and piece IDs are mapped to numbers (see Appendix A.1).

3.6 Task Instances

The task is that a guide provides utterances to a follower who has to take an intended target piece among several other pieces (the distractors). Thus, a game instance of this task is defined by the number and identity of pieces on the board, including which of these is the target piece, and by the size of the board.

The appearance and positioning of the pieces is derived from symbolic piece representations: a tuple of shape (9), color (6), and position (8). We experiment with 360 of these symbolic pieces which include all shapes, colors, and positions and split them into distinct sets (see Table 1). Therefore, the target symbols for the testing tasks are distinct from the ones seen during training (they might share color and shape though, but are for example positioned elsewhere).

We ensure the reproducibility of our experiments by constructing 2500 training, 175 validation, and 420 testing tasks representing scenes with a map size of 21×21 tiles (see Appendix A.2 for the detailed generation process) where each piece occupies five adjacent tiles and overlapping is avoided.

	TPS	Tasks	Boards
Training	275	2500	700
Validation	25	175	175
Testing	60	420	420

Table 1: The number of tasks and boards in each data split. The target pieces for the tasks are chosen from non-overlapping sub-sets of target piece symbols (TPS). For evaluation splits, we mix-in training pieces as distractors. We construct boards with at least 1 and up to 7 distractors.

4 The Follower Behaviors

For the follower, we take inspiration from Sun et al. (2023) who suggest a plan-based approach towards solving text-based tasks with language models: given a task's natural language instruction their model initially produces a plan, which is then executed and repeatedly refined or revised. We implement a policy that keeps track of a plan that contains up to 10 actions (the plan horizon; which is exactly the number of actions needed to reach the diagonal corner of the partial view). Our follower's behavior of following the plan is adjustable along two dimensions: confidence and autonomy.

Confidence. The actions in the plan are associated with a decreasing probability of being executed (the "confidence triangle" in Figure 2) so that given a discount factor $\phi \in [0, 1]$ and a lower threshold $\mathrm{L} \in [0, 1]$ we calculate:

$$\text{Confidence}(a_i) = \max(\phi^i, \mathrm{L}) \tag{5}$$

Which introduces a notion of confidence: either the planned action is executed or a wait action occurs (hesitation). Furthermore, this conceptualizes that a follower becomes increasingly unsure about the continuation of the plan without receiving feedback from the guide.

Autonomy. The revision process for our follower policy is conceptually divided into five subprograms that run after the guide's utterance is received, parsed and the assumed intent type is determined, as follows:

- `on_silence`: The follower executes, based on confidence, the next action in the plan (if available). Otherwise, it waits.
- `on_confirm`: The follower sets the confidence for all actions in the current plan to 1. Then the next action is chosen as described under `on_silence`.
- `on_decline`: The follower erases the current plan. As the plan is then empty, a wait action will be returned.
- `on_directive`: The follower parses the utterances for the concrete directives (a direction or a "take" prompt). For "take", the plan is replaced with take action under the assumption that this is the last action to be performed. Otherwise, the plan is filled with actions that align with the direction prompt.

Then, the next action is chosen as described under `on_silence`.

- `on_reference`: The follower updates its internal target descriptor (color, shape, position) based on the new reference. Given this updated descriptor, the follower identifies candidate coordinates in the symbolic representation of the current field of view, for example, coordinates that are blue given a reference "Take the blue piece". If such a coordinate is identified and the follower has not already approached it, then the shortest path to that candidate is established as a new plan. Otherwise, if the descriptor only contains a position, then a direction towards that position is approached. In the case where the follower is already in that position, a randomly chosen piece in the field of view is approached. When none of this matches, then the current plan proceeds as described under `on_silence`.

Now, the autonomy defines which procedures the follower undertakes, when intermediate feedback *is missing* (the guide stays silent). The **cautious** follower is performing solely the previously defined procedures: when the plan is exhausted, then it waits until a new directive or reference is given. If this follower is over an assumed target piece, then it waits until the "take" directive is given by the guide. In contrast, the **eager** follower aims to actually take an assumed target piece when approaching it in the current field of view. Furthermore, the eager follower autonomously looks for target candidates at each step (as described in the `on_reference` procedure) and potentially revises the plan (also when the guide stays silent).

5 Learning Communication Policies for Different Follower Behaviors

Mnih et al. (2015) showed that vision-driven reinforcement learning policies can achieve human-level performance in pixel-based environments like Atari games. Similarly, the guide as an agent in our environment has the challenging task to learn:

(a) when to produce an utterance (or stay silent),
(b) what to produce (confirm, decline, direct, refer), and
(c) how to produce it (which directive or preference order)

based solely on visual observation of the board state and the follower actions.

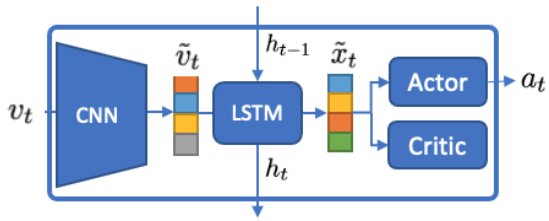

Figure 3: The guide's recurrent vision network.

5.1 The Guide

The observation $o_t = (v_t)$ with $v_t \in \mathbb{R}^{21\times21\times5}$ is encoded into a 128-dimensional feature vector $\tilde{v}_t \in \mathbb{R}$ using a 4-layer convolutional neural network similar to that by Chevalier-Boisvert et al. (2019). Then, the feature vector $\tilde{v}_t$ is fed through an LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) which functions as a memory mechanism (updating a state vector h_t that is passed forward in time). Given the resulting memory-conditioned visual feature vector $\tilde{x}_t$, we learn a parameterized actor-critic-based policy $\pi(\tilde{x}_t;\theta) \sim a_t$ where the actor predicts a distribution over the action space (intents) and the critic estimates the value of the current state (Figure 3). For the recurrent policy, we use the implementation of *StableBaselines3-Contrib* v1.8.0 (Raffin et al., 2021), which performs back-propagation through time until the first step in an episode.

5.2 Experiment Setup

We employ the Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) algorithm (Schulman et al., 2017) for policy learning in our sparse reward environment that respects an assumed accumulated effort over actions. Then we evaluate to which extent the resulting policies (the guides) are adapted towards the follower behaviors in such ways that align with expectations based on the follower's dimensions of confidence and autonomy. Thus, for the experiments, we initiate different **cautious** and **eager** follower's with increasing confidence discount factors so that $\phi \in [0.75, 0.85, 0.90, 0.95, 0.97, 0.99]$.

We use *StableBaselines3* v1.8.0 (Raffin et al., 2021) to learn for each of these follower behaviors a separate guide. We train each guide with 4 parallel running environments (batch size) and 1 million time steps in total. This means that each board in the training split is seen at least 13 times. Every 100k steps during training, we evaluate the pairings against the validation set. We keep for each pairing the guides that achieve the highest mean episode reward based on these validation runs. We conduct the experiments with three different seeds.

5.3 Results and Discussion

Overall Results. The overall results in Table 2 show that learned policies are communicative strategies that can successfully guide the follower (towards the target piece) in most of the cases (on average in 92% of the test episodes). This indicates that the guide learned the goal of the game and hereby almost reaches the best episode length (on average only 1.93 steps longer than the shortest path). The overall average effort (9.72) covers only about 71.5% of the average episode length (13.58) which means that the policies altogether produce an utterance in about 2 out of 3 steps.

Has the guide learned to stay silent? Indeed, Figure 4 shows that the policies converge to a mode where the `silence` intent is chosen in at least 23% of the steps: The guides are in general able to learn to say nothing. The most chosen intent is `reference` which is reasonable because it provides crucial information (the target piece description) and triggers an update of the follower's plan.

What preference orders are chosen for the `reference` production? The `reference` intents define the order in which properties are compared between the target piece and its distractors. This means, for example, that a CSP reference is likely to mention the target piece's color because the color attribute is first compared to distinguish the target from its distractors (and it is very likely that at least one distractor gets excluded because otherwise, all pieces would share the same color). Thus, it is reasonable that there are communicative strategies learned that choose CSP in the majority of cases as shown in Figure 5. This means that the guide produces a reference that likely includes the shape and the color of the target piece. These properties are indeed useful for the follower to identify and approach the target in its field of view. On the other hand, preference orders that test positions first (PCS and PSC) are also chosen rather often. These strategies lead the follower to the target piece without having it necessarily already in the field of view.

The effects of the follower's autonomy mode. We experimented with two levels of autonomy of the follower. The results in Table 2 show that the policies that learn from interactions with the **eager** follower require on average 2.00 points less effort than the **cautious** one. This is reasonable as the eager follower is autonomously updating the plan and looking for target candidates at each step. Along

Metrics:	mR ↑	mSR ↑	mEPL ↓	mEff. ↓
— Cautious —				
100% Silent	0.00	0.00	30.00	0.00
100% Ref.	-1.04	0.00	30.00	34.8
PPO-Guide	1.55	0.94	13.97	10.72
ϕ=75	1.52	0.93	15.02	11.07
ϕ=85	1.47	**0.96**	14.13	14.63
ϕ=90	1.59	0.95	13.87	10.33
ϕ=95	1.57	0.94	13.67	10.49
ϕ=97	1.57	0.93	13.27	10.00
ϕ=99	1.57	0.90	13.88	7.78
— Eager —				
100% Silent	0.45	0.23	16.78	0.00
100% Ref.	0.86	0.75	18.57	21.09
PPO-Guide	1.57	0.91	13.19	8.72
ϕ=75	1.54	0.92	13.54	10.04
ϕ=85	**1.60**	0.89	14.28	**6.15**
ϕ=90	1.49	0.92	13.24	11.67
ϕ=95	1.59	0.92	12.86	8.39
ϕ=97	1.58	0.90	12.64	7.28
ϕ=99	1.59	0.93	**12.58**	8.76
— Overall —				
100% Silent	0.23	0.11	23.39	0.00
100% Ref.	-0.09	0.37	24.29	27.94
PPO-Guide	1.56	0.92	13.58	9.72

Table 2: The mean rewards (mR), success rates (mSR in %), episodes lengths (mEPL) and efforts of the agents on the test tasks for the chosen autonomy and confidence combinations of the follower (averaged over all seeds). A shortest path solver reaches 11.65 mEPL (3.13 std). Given this, the upper bound for the mean reward is 1.83. Best values in bold.

Chosen Intent:	S	C	D	O	R
— Cautious —					
PPO-Guide	0.27	0.04	/	0.09	0.60
ϕ=75	0.27	0.08	/	0.08	0.56
ϕ=85	0.06	0.08	/	0.09	0.78
ϕ=90	0.29	0.09	/	0.08	0.53
ϕ=95	0.28	/	/	0.09	0.63
ϕ=97	0.30	/	/	0.09	0.61
ϕ=99	0.43	/	/	0.09	0.48
— Eager —					
PPO-Guide	0.34	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.46
ϕ=75	0.25	0.26	0.03	0.08	0.38
ϕ=85	0.53	0.01	0.09	0.08	0.29
ϕ=90	0.16	0.05	0.11	0.08	0.59
ϕ=95	0.34	/	0.13	0.09	0.45
ϕ=97	0.42	/	/	0.11	0.47
ϕ=99	0.33	0.02	/	0.08	0.57
— Overall —					
PPO-Guide	0.31	0.05	0.03	0.09	0.53

Table 3: The intent's mean chance of being chosen at a step (for each policy evaluated on the test split) broken down by a follower's confidence and autonomy. The intents are abbreviated as follows: `silence` (S), `confirm` (C), `decline` (D), `directive` (O) and `reference` (R). It appears reasonable that the cautious follower's actions are never declined because the behavior is to always wait for the guide's instructions (in contrast to the eager ones that explore occasionally on their own). Similarly, the higher confidence follower's require less re-assurance (confirms) of their actions.

these lines, it is also reasonable that the decline intent is never selected for the cautious follower (see Table 3) because it never tried to approach a target piece without the guide referencing it.

The effects of the follower's confidence. The differences in the intent selection strategy of the learned policies (guides) shown in Table 3 indicate that guides learned from interaction with more confident follower's ($\phi > 0.9$) produce less or no `confirm` actions. This seems reasonable as the decrease in the execution probability of these followers is less steep and a `reference` action has a similar effect. Furthermore, we see a slight tendency of guides to stay quieter (on average) when trained with more confident followers as shown in Figure 6. However we cannot see such a tendency for guides trained with less confident followers.

6 Conclusions

In this work, we examined an interesting intersection between psycho-linguistic studies and deep learning with reinforcement learning. We considered neural agents as possible interaction partners (for humans) in a challenging reference game where a guide has to learn when, what, and how information (actionable intents) is to be provided to a follower. As a proxy for different follower behaviors, we implemented a hand-crafted policy that is controllable along two dimensions: autonomy in exploration and confidence in executing an action. We experimented with a learning signal that in addition to the goal condition also respects an assumed communicative effort. Our results indicate that this formulation of the learning signal leads to communicative strategies that are less verbose (stay silent more often) and that the resulting guide behaviors are adapted (in terms of intent selection distributions) to the follower's autonomy and confidence levels. We think this work presents a useful case study of neural agents that have to learn adapted communication strategies in an interactive setting (possibly with humans). In future work, we want to investigate other reward formulations for the reference game and evaluate the learning of communication policies where the utterance production process spans multiple time steps (one word at a time) and the production must be possibly interrupted and revised during the interaction.

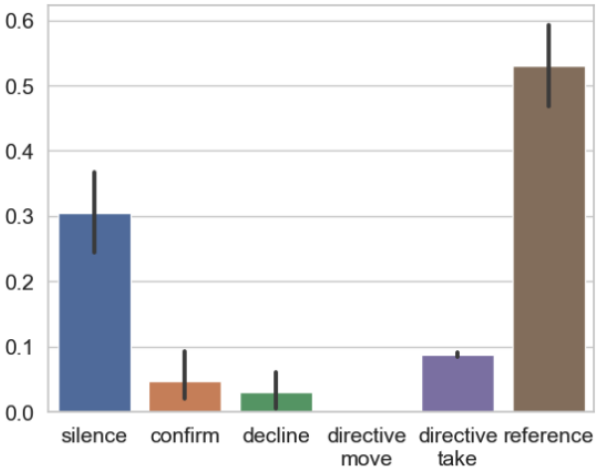

Figure 4: An intent's mean chance of being chosen at a step (for all learnt policies evaluated on the test split).

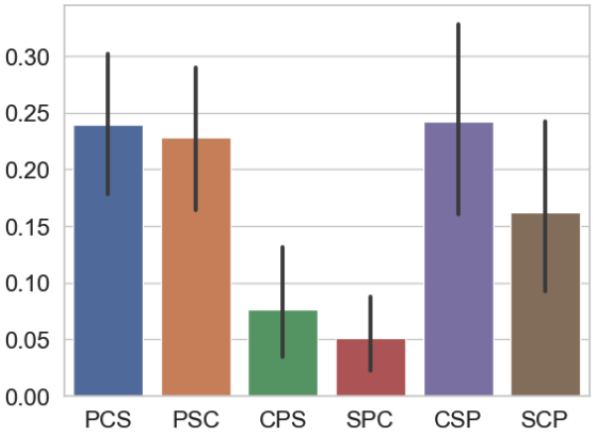

Figure 5: The distribution of the preference order choices for the `reference` action (from Figure 4). The preferences over position (P), shape (S) and color (C) are given to the IA for reference production.

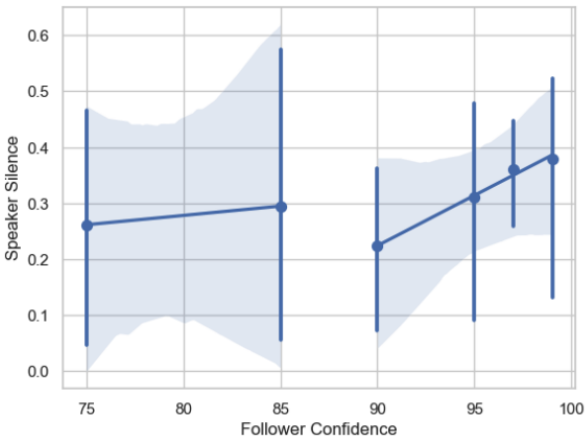

Figure 6: The mean number of silent turns performed by the learnt policies (incl. all seeds) during the test episodes. We fitted a linear regression with a confidence interval of 99% through the data points separately for the followers with $\phi = \{75, 85\}$ and $\phi = \{90, 95, 97, 99\}$. The latter shows a trend towards more silence turns when the guide is paired with more confident followers.

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A Appendix

Robot image in Figure 1 adjusted from `https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cartoon_Robot.svg`. That file was made available under the Creative Commons CC0 1.0 Universal Public Domain Dedication.

A.1 Environment Details

Board The internal representation of the visual state is a 2-dimensional grid that spans $W \times H$ tiles where W and H are defined by the map size. A tile is either empty or holds an identifier for a piece (the tile is then occupied). The pieces are defined by their colour, shape and coordinates and occupy five adjacent tiles (within a virtual box of 5×5 tiles). The pieces are not allowed to overlap with another piece's tiles. For a higher visual variation, we also apply rotations to pieces, but we ignore the rotation for expression generation, though this could be an extension of the task. The colors are described in Table 4.

Name	HEX	RGB
red	#ff0000	(255, 0, 0)
green	#008000	(0, 128, 0)
blue	#0000ff	(0, 0, 255)
yellow	#ffff00	(255, 255, 0)
brown	#8b4513	(139, 69, 19)
purple	#800080	(128, 0, 128)

Table 4: The colors for the Pentomino pieces.

Symbols The symbolic repesentations for the shapes are: P (2), X (3), T (4), Z (5), W (6), U (7), N (8), F (9), Y (10). The colors are encoded as: red (2), green (3), blue (4), yellow (5), brown (6), purple (7). The 0-symbol is reserved for out-of-world tiles (which can occur in the partial view). The 1-symbol is reserved for an empty tile.

Gripper The gripper can only move one position at a step and can move over pieces, but is not allowed to leave the boundaries of the board. The gripper coordinates are defined as $\{(x, y) : x \in [0, W], y \in [0, H]\}$.

The IA on symbolic properties as based on the formulation by van Deemter (2016)

Require: A set of distractors M, a set of property values $\mathcal{P}$ of a referent r and a linear preference order $\mathcal{O}$ over the property values $\mathcal{P}$

$\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \emptyset$
for P in $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{P})$ **do**
  $\mathcal{E} \leftarrow \{m \in M : \neg P(m)\}$
  if $\mathcal{E} \neq \emptyset$ **then**
    Add P to $\mathcal{D}$
    Remove $\mathcal{E}$ from M
  return $\mathcal{D}$

References The Incremental Algorithm (Algorithm 1), in the formulation of (Dale and Reiter, 1995), is supposed to find the properties that uniquely identify an object among others given a preference over properties. To accomplish this the algorithm is given the property values $\mathcal{P}$ of distractors in M and of a referent r. Then the algorithm excludes distractors in several iterations until either M is empty or every property of r has been tested. During the exclusion process the algorithm computes the set of distractors that do *not* share a given property with the referent and stores the property in $\mathcal{D}$. These properties in $\mathcal{D}$ are the ones that distinguish the referent from the others and thus will be returned.

The algorithm has a meta-parameter $\mathcal{O}$, indicating the *preference order*, which determines the order in which the properties of the referent are tested against the distractors. In our domain, for example, when *color* is the most preferred property, the algorithm might return BLUE, if this property already excludes all distractors. When *shape* is the preferred property and all distractors do *not* share the shape T with the referent, T would be returned. Hence even when the referent and distractor pieces are the same, different preference orders might lead to different expressions.

There are 3 expression templates that are used when only a single property value of the target piece is returned by the Incremental Algorithm (IA):

- *Take the [color] piece*
- *Take the [shape]*
- *Take the piece at [position]*

Then there are 3 expression templates that are selected when two properties are returned:

- *Take the [color] [shape]*
- *Take the [color] piece at [position]*
- *Take the [shape] at [position]*

And finally there is one expression templates that lists all property values to identify a target piece:

- *Take the [color] [shape] at [position]*

Vocabulary Overall, the property values and sentence templates lead to a small vocabulary of 37 words:

- 9 shapes: P, X, T, Z, W, U, N, F, Y
- 6 colors: red, green, blue, yellow, brown, purple
- 6 position words: left, right, top, bottom, center (which are combined to e.g., right center or top left)
- 12 template words: take, the, piece, at, yes, no, this, way, go, a, bit, more
- 4 special words: <s>, <e>, <pad>, <unk>

The maximal sentence length is 12.

A.2 Task Details

To create a task, we first place the target piece on a board. Then, we sample uniformly random from all possible pieces and place them until the wanted number of pieces is reached (we experiment with 2 to 8 pieces on a board). If a piece cannot be placed after a certain amount of tries, then we resample a piece and try again. The coordinates are chosen at random uniform from the coordinates that fall into an area of the symbolic description. We never set a piece into the center, because that is the location where the gripper is initially located. In this way, we construct 100 training boards (or 1 evaluation board respectively) for each number of pieces (2-8). To ensure that a board scene in the training split cannot be aligned with a target piece, we create 3 extra tasks for a single board by choosing extra targets (when fewer than 4 pieces are on a board, then we create a task for each piece). For evaluation, we only create a single task for each target piece symbol.

A.3 Guide Details

Agent Parameters: $602,447$

feature_dims	128
normalize_images	True
shared_lstm	True
enable_critic_lstm	False
n_lstm_layers	1
lstm_hidden_size	128

Table 5: Policy arguments for the the RecurrentPPO agent

Policy Architecture We instantiate the actor-critic PPO agent with an architecture defined by `pi=[64, 64], vf=[64, 64]` meaning that the actor is a 2-layer feedforward network with 64 parameters per layer. The critic has the same architecture, but does not share the weights with the actor.

Vision Encoder The visual encoder is a convolutional neural network (CNN) with 4 layers that maps the visual observations $v_t \in \mathbb{R}^{21\times21\times5}$ into a 128-dimensional features vector $\tilde{v} \in \mathbb{R}$. We consecutively apply four blocks of `(nn.Conv2d(),nn.BatchNorm2d(),nn.ReLU())` with same padding where the kernel size is 3×3, except for the first blocke where we set the kernel size to 1×1. After the fourth block we apply a `nn.AdaptiveMaxPool2d((1, 1))` layer from PyTorch v1.13.0 (Paszke et al., 2019) to collapse the spatial dimensions of the feature maps.

Learning Algorithm We use the RecurrentPPO implementation from StableBaselines-Contrib v1.8.0 (Raffin et al., 2021) with the hyperparameters in Table 6 (and the defaults otherwise).

learning_rate	3e-4
clip_range	0.2
gamma	0.99
gae_lambda	0.95
ent_coef	0.0
vf_coef	0.5
max_grad_norm	0.5
lr_init	3e-4
n_steps	128
batch_size	128
num_epochs	10

Table 6: RecurrentPPO hyperparameters

A.4 Experiment Details

We trained the agents simultaneously on 8 GeForce GTX 1080 Ti (11GB) where each of them consumed about 4GB of GPU memory. The training for the 36 configurations took around 144 hours in total (about $4h$ for the 1 million steps each). The random seeds were set to 49184, 98506 or 92999 respectively. As the evaluation criteria on the testings tasks we chose success rate which indicates the relative number of episodes (in a rollout or in a test split) where the agent selected the correct piece:

$$\text{mSR} = \frac{\sum^N s_i}{N} \text{ where } s_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for correct piece} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Efforts. We choose $E_{\text{Guide}} := \{0, 1.0, 1.1, 1.2\}$ for the efforts of the categories of actionable intent in such a way that the silence action is the one with the least effort. The silence action simply results into the metabolic costs necessary to perform the task over multiple time steps (the game reward). The other language actions introduce an additional effort. These actions should differ on the magnitude in such a way that they can be ordered based on the effort where the reference production is presumably taking the most effort (1.2) and a confirmation ("Yes") or rejection signal ("No") is taking less effort (1.0). We assumed that directive are on the middle ground (1.1) and that they should appear more often, when used. This basically means for around every 10th action an additional non-silence action can be taken, when choosing to use directives over references. Moreover, when using the maximal number of 30 steps and only taking the respective actions, this results into an effort reward of $1 - (0.9 \cdot 1.2) = -0.08$ (slightly negative) for the references and $1 - (0.9 \cdot 1.1) = 0.01$ (slightly positive) for the directives and $1 - (0.9 \cdot 1.0) = 0.1$ (still positive) for the confirmations or corrections. These magnitudes are supposed to be close to the initial formulation for the game reward and thus around -2 and $+2$ (incl. the outcome) to keep the learning of the value function more stable. We note that the signal for the ordering of the actionable intents is very small, but it should make an effect.