

A Review of the Applications of Deep Learning-Based Emergent Language

Anonymous authors
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Abstract

Emergent language, or emergent communication, is the field of research which studies how human language-like communication systems emerge *de novo* in deep multi-agent reinforcement learning environments. The possibilities of replicating the emergence of a complex behavior like language have strong intuitive appeal, yet it is necessary to complement this with clear notions of how such research can be applicable to other fields of science, technology, and engineering. This paper comprehensively reviews the applications of emergent language research across machine learning, natural language processing, linguistics, and cognitive science. Each application is illustrated with a description of its scope, an explication of emergent language’s unique role in addressing it, a summary of the extant literature working towards the application, and brief recommendations for near-term research directions.

1 Introduction

Emergent language, or emergent communication, is the field of research which studies how human language-like communication systems emerge *de novo* in deep multi-agent reinforcement learning environments. Multi-agent reinforcement learning-based systems like AlphaZero (Silver et al., 2017) and OpenAI’s hide-and-seek agents (Baker et al., 2020) have leveraged self-play to exhibit convincing examples of non-trivially complex behavior emerging from basic environment dynamics. Such deep learning-based reinforcement learning techniques were applied discrete communication systems starting in 2016 and 2017 with papers like Foerster et al. (2016); Lazaridou et al. (2016); Havrylov & Titov (2017); Mordatch & Abbeel (2018). The possibility of replicating the emergence of a complex behavior like language has a strong intuitive appeal, yet it is necessary to complement it with clear notions of how such research can be applicable to other fields of science, technology, and engineering.

Thus, this work is a review of the most salient goals and applications of deep learning-based emergent language research. We illustrate each of the applications by providing a description of its scope, an explication of emergent language’s unique role in addressing it, a summary of the extant literature working towards the application, and brief recommendations for near-term research directions. This work has three primary goals. (1) This work is meant to inspire future emergent language research by compiling the most salient areas of research into a single document with relevant work cited. (2) It illustrates to practitioners outside of emergent language the potential ways that emergent language can be used in an easily-referenced format. (3) It define the ultimate aims of emergent language, which is critical to guiding the field of research through practices like establishing evaluation metrics and benchmarks. Evaluation metrics require explicitly defining what a *good* or *desirable* emergent language is, and understanding what emergent language can be used for is a foundational step in their development.

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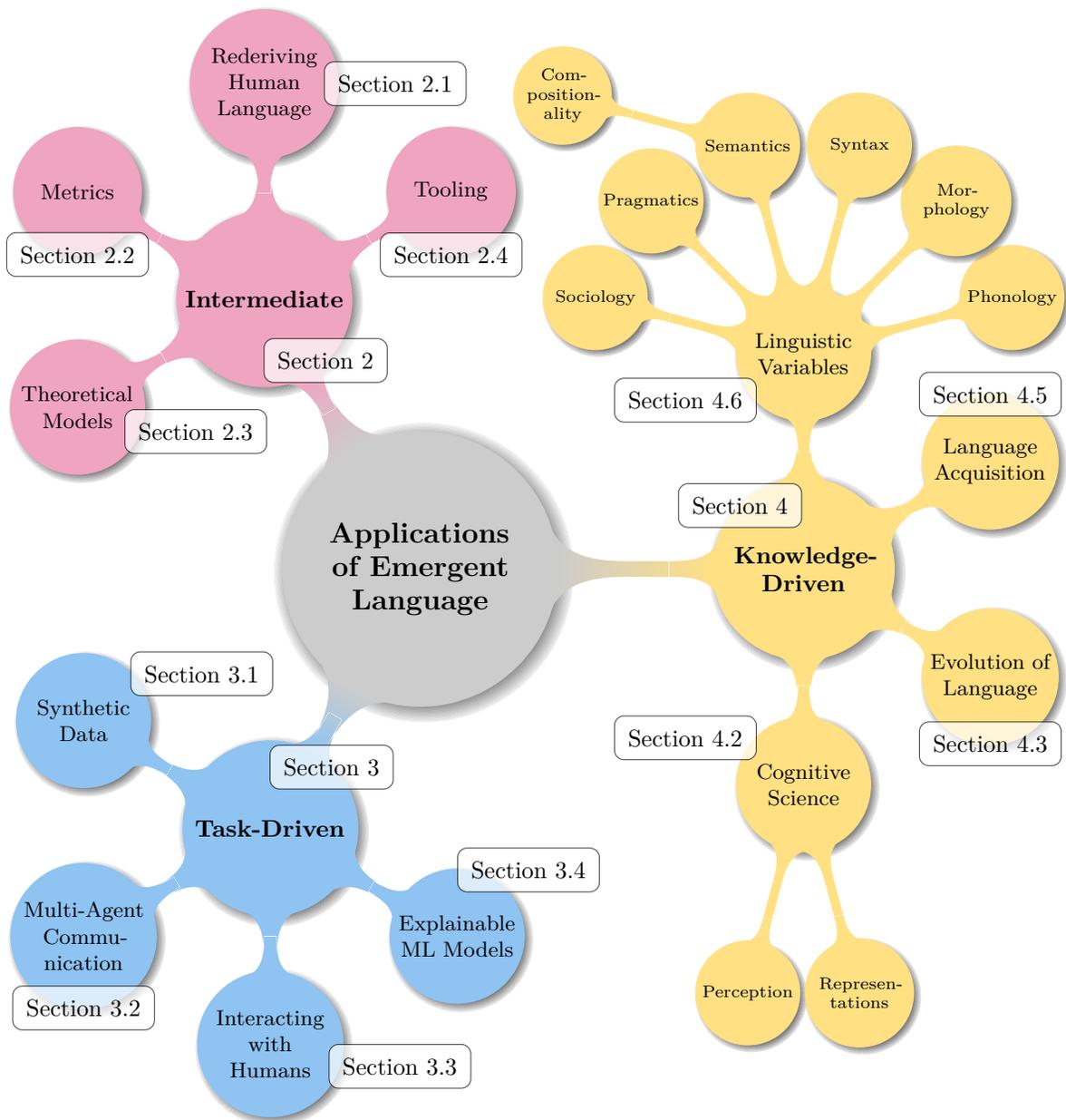


Figure 1: Structure of the applications discussed in this review.

1.1 Scope

In order to effectively select papers for the review, we need to define particular scope of “emergent language” that we are dealing with. We use the following criteria to decide whether or not a work is in-scope: The scope of this review comprises the following criteria:

- *Necessarily*, the topic is an agent-based model; that is, the simulation of individual agents in an environment.
 - *Typically*, it uses reinforcement learning.
 - *Necessarily*, it is not simply the result of training a model on human language data (e.g., emergent properties of pre-trained language models do *not* qualify).
 - *Typically*, the system contains multiple agents (e.g., an agent talking to itself could still qualify).

- *Necessarily*, the agents have a communication channel.
 - *Typically*, the communication channel is discrete symbols.
 - *Sometimes*, the communication channel may be continuous, but the structure of the channel or the resulting protocol must be of interest (i.e., an unconstrained, unstudied continuous channel does *not* count.)
- *Necessarily*, the communication protocol is not determined ahead of time, it “emerges” from simpler characteristics of the environments and agents.
- *Necessarily*, the approach uses deep learning methods.
 - *Typically*, methods use neural networks optimized by gradient descent.
 - *Typically*, work is associated with the communities of ICLR¹, NeurIPS², and ICML³ conferences and the EmeCom workshop⁴.

The following section briefly discusses some closely related areas of research that fall outside of the scope of this paper. Although the goals and applications of these research areas are relevant to those discussed in this paper, we do not incorporate these into this paper. While the applications are very similar to those of deep learning-based emergent language, the particular issues, methods, and possibilities which deep learning techniques present are quite different from these related areas. Focusing on deep learning-based approaches to emergent language will help limit the length of this paper while still comprehensively addressing a coherent body of literature.

1.2 Related work

Emergent language Lazaridou & Baroni (2020) offer a general review of emergent language research. The review covers the same body of literature as this paper but presents a much broader view of emergent language including related fields, methods, and results. This paper, on the other hand, focuses specifically on the goals and applications of emergent language research. A few other position papers have been published on emergent language and share this paper’s goal of guiding future work through a direct analysis and discussion of the literature. LaCroix (2019); Moulin-Frier & Oudeyer (2020); Galke et al. (2022) synthesize linguistic research on the evolution of language with contemporary methods in emergent language, highlighting what aspects do not line up and how emergent language research might change its approach. Finally, Zubek et al. (2023) provide a more robust critique of current methods in emergent language from various linguistic perspectives.

Emergent language without deep learning Computer simulations of the emergence of language are also possible without recourse to deep learning methods. Simulations along these lines might use other forms of machine learning or simply mathematical models of agents and environments. For example, Werner & Dyer (1991) simulate the emergence of a communication system in a population of mating animals. Female animals guide the male animals towards them by emitting discrete messages. Each agent is implemented as a connectionist artificial neural network which is optimized with a genetic algorithm. Another instance is Kirby (2000), who verifies the possibility of compositional communication emerging without biological evolution. Specifically, he uses a mathematical model of an agent population where new members must learn to communicate from older members (who eventually die off). This is implemented as a computer program which can empirically verify the hypothesis.

Although this research area has significant overlap in terms of goals, the methods have significantly different challenges. In particular, methods not based on deep learning tend to have strong inductive biases which constrain the range of languages that can emerge. In contrast, one of the main challenges of deep learning-based emergent language is trying to find the environmental pressures and functional advantages which shape language in place alongside the weaker inductive biases of deep neural networks.

¹<https://iclr.cc/>

²<https://neurips.cc/>

³<https://icml.cc/>

⁴<https://sites.google.com/view/emecom2022>

Emergent language with humans Research on the emergence of human language also takes place outside the context of computer simulation altogether. Experimentally, small-scale studies can be done with humans in the laboratory. For example, Kirby et al. (2008) test the emergence of structure in language from language transmission dynamics by having humans serve as the agents in a laboratory experiment. Observationally, there are recorded instances of a full human language emerging as in the case of Nicaraguan Sign Language, where deaf children with minimal prior linguistic knowledge developed language when placed together in a school environment (Kegl et al., 1999). Despite the relevance of this research to deep learning-based emergent language, the challenges of human-base studies diverge significantly from those based on machine learning.

Symbol emergence in robotics Taniguchi et al. (2015) survey a research area called “symbol emergence in robotics” (SER). SER is concerned with developing autonomous robots with the ability to discover meaning and communication skills from sensory-motor experiences with humans and other robots. In this way, both SER and emergent language the interest in studying “bottom-up” methods of autonomous agents acquiring the ability to use language in a deep, embodied way. SER is more concerned with the development of robotic agents which can dynamically learn to interact like humans through pragmatic and social facets of language. In contrast, emergent language is more concerned with observing the entire process of language creation in virtual environments through agents interacting with other agents.

1.3 Structure of review

We divide the applications of emergent language into three broad categories:

- *Intermediate applications* (Section 2) aim towards improving the technique in its own right. In a sense, these goals are the “basic research” of emergent language.
- *Task-driven applications* (Section 3) aim at solving a well-defined problem. These goals generally correlate with goals in the domain of engineering such as those found in NLP.
- *Knowledge-driven applications* (Section 4) aim at increasing the knowledge of some phenomenon. These goals generally correlate with the goals of sciences such as linguistics.

We illustrate each application with four sections which each answer a question:

- *Description*: What exactly is the problem being solved?
- *Applicability*: How do the techniques of emergent language uniquely address this problem?
- *Current state*: What kind of progress has been made towards this end?
- *Next steps*: What does the next important research paper towards this application look like?

We give a brief of analysis of the trends we found in reviewing the literature in Section 5 before concluding in Section 6. Details of the review process are presented in Appendix A, and a complete list of works surveyed is given in Appendix B.

2 Intermediate Applications

Intermediate applications are not what we would typically consider applications at all since they are focused on issues internal to the field of emergent language. Nevertheless, these applications are important because (1) they are prerequisites for applying emergent language to other areas, and (2) the primary contributions of many papers reference these goals. While, in a sense, any contribution could be considered an intermediate goal, we choose to address the intermediate goals which represent the clearest and most salient waypoints within emergent language research.

2.1 Rederiving human language

Description Resemblance to human language is one of the defining characteristics of emergent language, and it is central goal of emergent language research. This resemblance can include everything from low-level traits like compositional semantics and tree-like syntax to high-level traits like implicature (pragmatics) and sociolects (sociolinguistics). Aiming for resemblance does not necessitate exact replication of human language as even within human language we see a large amount of variation despite fundamental similarities. *Rederiving human language*, then, is the process of developing the conditions (e.g., environment, agent architecture, games) which produce emergent languages which resemble human language.

Rederiving human language distinct from, although related to, “Origin of language” (Section 4.3) and “Language acquisition” (Section 4.5). Research into the origin and acquisition of language has a primary interest in the specific historical, environmental, and cognitive contexts of humans and their use of language. In contrast, rederivation is only concerned with these contexts for their instrumental value in developing emergent languages which are similar to human language.

Applicability The resemblance of emergent language to human language is of fundamental importance to the applications of emergent language techniques since this resemblance is whence emergent language derives its unique potential to solve certain problems. “Task-Driven Applications” (Section 3), for example, rely on emergent language having: structural similarities to human language (“Synthetic language data” (Section 3.1)), generalizability to new situations (“Multi-agent communication” (Section 3.2)), pragmatic structure (“Interacting with humans” (Section 3.3)), and the capacity to externally represent internal states (“Explainable machine learning models” (Section 3.4)). “Knowledge-Driven Applications” (Section 4), for example, rely on emergent language resembling human language in terms of: cognitive processes influencing linguistic behavior (“Language, cognition, and perception” (Section 4.2)), macro-scale social processes (origin and evolution of language, Sections 4.3 and 4.4), mechanism of learning and acquisition (“Language acquisition” (Section 4.5)), and general structure at every level (“Linguistic variables” (Section 4.6)).

Current state No work in the current body of literature has explicitly pursued the rederivation of human language. There are a significant number of papers that look at individual components, such as compositional semantics, yet no papers have made steps towards rederivation as such. While understanding facets of language in isolation (i.e., divide and conquer) can yield easier research questions, the risk is that this isolation misses the ways in which emergent language is an *emergent* phenomenon within a complex system. Complex systems are characterized by non-obvious interactions among the many moving parts, and taking away single elements of the system might change the behavior in significant, unpredictable ways. To the extent to which this is true, studying isolated phenomena in simple environments has limited potential.

For example, Ren et al. (2020) show, in line with established experiments with mathematical models (Kirby et al., 2007) and human subjects (Kirby et al., 2008), that the imperfect transmission of language from generation to generation (i.e., “iterated learning”) can explain a bias toward compositionality in communication system without further agent-internal biases. Yet empirical investigation of compositionality in emergent language literature often uses fixed-population environments⁵. The fact that iterated learning has diverse support as an explanation for compositionality casts a shadow of doubt over compositionality research which does *not* take iterated learning into account, since iterated learning could be a sufficient driver for compositionality in emergent language, outweighing other potential sources like model capacity (Resnick et al., 2020) or perception (Lazaridou et al., 2018).

Next steps The first step of rederiving human language is laying down the theoretical foundations: identifying the most salient properties of human language and using these to develop a concrete problem definition of “rederiving human language.” Linguistics would be the primary resource for identifying such properties from a theoretical standpoint. This definition would provide the necessary groundwork for determining what research directions are most important for addressing the wholistic goal of rederiving human

⁵I.e., environments where the set of agents remains constant throughout the training process. Contrast this with dynamic populations where newly-initialized agents enter the population and older agents leave the population.

language. The applications of emergent language presented in this paper, subsequently, provide different downstream perspectives from which to more concretely gauge the progress of rederiving human language.

2.2 Metrics for emergent language

Description A metric, for our purposes, is a well-defined method for quantifying a property of or notion about an emergent language system. Some properties in emergent language are fairly concrete and are naturally quantitative such as vocabulary size or task success rate. Other properties are more abstract and can be quantified in multiple ways; for example, in statistics, the abstract notion of the “middle of a distribution” can be precisely formulated as the mean, median, or mode. Finally, *evaluation* metrics measure the most abstract of properties as they try to directly quantify how “good” or “desirable” a given object of measurement is. Since important properties of emergent language do not always have clear formulations, the work of designing metrics spans: designing precise formulations of abstract properties, developing practical computational methods for implementing these formulations, and demonstrating mathematically and empirically that they accurately quantify the particular property.

Applicability Metrics, in general, are a ubiquitous part research in most any area of science or engineering. They are integral to formulating testable hypotheses since they delineate precisely what is being considered empirically (or theoretically). They are also what enables effective summarization and statistical analysis of the results of experiments beyond mere qualitative analysis. Together, these two factors make principled comparison with prior work possible. Evaluation metrics, in particular, help identify approaches to a given problem are most effective. These are especially important for the long-term development of a field as they help gauge overall progress and direct efforts towards the most promising approaches.

Current state Metrics for compositionality and generalizability comprise the lion’s share of literature on this goal while only a few have been developed for other properties. This corresponds with the most common goals of emergent language papers which are to develop emergent languages which have compositional semantics and generalize beyond the scenarios seen during training.

Compositionality (or compositional semantics) refers to the general principal that utterances with complex meaning derive their meaning from a combination of the meaning of the components of the utterance (e.g., a “red car” is a car that is red). This is in contrast to “holistic” communication where there is no relationship between the meaning of an utterance and its components. The most popular metric for compositionality is topographic similarity (Brighton & Kirby, 2006; Lazaridou et al., 2018), which quantifies compositionality as the degree of correlation between distances in the referent feature space and distances in the message space. Representation similarity analysis (Kriegeskorte et al., 2008; Luna et al., 2020) takes a similar approach but measures the correlation in the feature space and agents’ internal representations. A handful of other metrics fall under the umbrella of *disentanglement*, where components of the message specify single attributes and do so independent of context. Such metrics include positional and bag-of-words disentanglement (Chaabouni et al., 2020), context independence (Bogin et al., 2018), and conflict count (Kuciński et al., 2020). Tree reconstruction error takes a deeper look at the compositionality of language by measuring how closely an explicitly compositional model of semantics can approximate what the emergent language agents produce (Andreas, 2019). Korbak et al. (2020) provide a meta-analysis of the above compositionality metrics and how well they detect various kinds of compositionality.

Generalizability, as in other areas of machine learning, generally refers to the ability to perform well outside of the training conditions. Generalizability is most often operationalized as agents successfully describing objects previously unseen combinations of attributes (i.e., generalizing from training data to test data) (Korbak et al., 2019; Chaabouni et al., 2020; Denamganai & Walker, 2020a; Kharitonov & Baroni, 2020; Resnick et al., 2020; Perkins, 2021a). Apart from this type of generalization, other work has looked at generalizing to new communication partners (Bullard et al., 2021), generalizing over different environments (Guo et al., 2021; Mu & Goodman, 2021), and generalizing across linguistic structures (e.g., disentangled syntax and semantics) (Baroni, 2020).

Yao et al. (2022) introduce an evaluation metric, that is, one which measures the *overall* quality of an emergent language using data-driven methods. The metric equates the quality of an emergent language

with the quality of machine translation from the emergent language to human language. The underlying intuition here is that the more human-like an emergent language is, the more effective substituting it for human language will be in machine learning tasks (i.e., using it as synthetic data, see Section 3.1).

Next steps For more focused metrics, like those for compositionality and generalizability, we do not present any general recommendations since these types of metrics are motivated by the particular needs of a given research program. Evaluation metrics, on the other hand, are mostly absent in the emergent language literature despite their importance to other fields of machine learning like reinforcement learning and natural language processing. Thus, it would be fruitful to explore and address the unique challenges of developing evaluation metrics for emergent language, The development of such metrics would enable practices like benchmarks and shared tasks which can greatly support the overall research process of a field.

2.3 Theoretical models

Description A theoretical model of emergent language is a mathematical or formal system which describes the behavior of an emergent language systems. Generally speaking, a theoretical model will describe a relationship between two or more variables in an emergent language system. Theoretical models are developed in conjunction with empirical work and represent a refinement and systematization of the knowledge gained from these experiments. Most importantly, their formal representation allows rigorously reasoning about the behavior of a systems without needing to directly run experiments.

Applicability Theoretical models benefit emergent language research primarily in two ways: they clarify research methods and can predict a system’s behavior in compute-intensive situations. For research methods, using a theoretical model to phrase a research question results in a hypothesis which is clear and testable. As a result, the empirical evaluation has a clear relationship with the assumptions and structure of the model, allowing subsequent research to more easily build on previous work. In the absence of theoretical models and their hypotheses, papers must often rely on qualitative hypotheses which are difficult to empirically verify or result in merely pointing out “interesting” observations from the experiments. For this reason, employing theoretical models can move emergent language research towards scientific investigation instead of less organized trial-and-error.

Second, theoretical models provide a way to predict the behavior of emergent language systems in situations where directly running the system is computationally expensive. The applicability of theoretical models on this front is discussed in the context of GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023) where the extreme computational cost of training the model made it critical that the designers could predict the behavior of the full-scale model ahead of time. In particular, they fit a mathematical equation predicting the loss based on computational input using smaller models. This gave the developers a way to accurately predict the final loss of the full-scale model at a fraction of the computational cost. As emergent language environments get more complex with more design choices, hyperparameters, and computational cost, it will also be important to be able to predict the behavior of the system without having to run the full environment in every situation.

Current state Only a handful of papers in the literature use theoretical models, and these models are usually not employed in any subsequent papers. Khomtchouk & Sudhakaran (2018) study the transition between two degenerate “phases” of language: single-symbol systems and full one-to-one systems, with the synonymy and ambiguity found in human language lying in the middle. This model is then tested with a pair of simple reinforcement learning-based agents. Ren et al. (2020) apply the iterated learning model (Smith et al., 2003) to deep learning-based emergent language; they use a formal probabilistic model of an iterated learning algorithm to express hypotheses which are empirically tested. Boldt & Mortensen (2022b) formulate a stochastic process which describes the entropy of an emergent language’s lexicon based on a handful of hyperparameters of the agent’s neural network; the predictions of this model are also empirically tested in four simple emergent language environments. Rita et al. (2022b) analyze emergent language environments based on the Lewis signalling game by providing a mathematical decomposition of the loss function. This decomposition explains the different overfitting pressures hidden in the loss function; from this, they suggest measures to counteract such pressures which result in more a more compositional emergent language.

Finally, the model presented in Resnick et al. (2020) is a good representative of theoretical models in emergent language and their attendant difficulties. The model describes the relationship between the capacity of an agent’s neural networks and the compositionality of the learned emergent language: if the capacity is too low to capture the regularities in the language the agents “underfit”, and if the capacity is too high, the agents “overfit”. The model predicts the compositionality to be low in both the under- and overfitting regimes and higher between them where the neural network learns regularities without memorizing individual examples.⁶ The precise formulation of the model results in a clear hypothesis based on the predictions of the model, allowing the experiments to more directly test the underlying principles of the model. The difficulties that persist, though, are that the model’s formulation and its predictions still lack precision. In the formulation, Resnick et al. (2020) do not fully articulate what constitutes “capacity”; a notion of capacity though would be extremely difficult if not impossible to formulate precisely for deep learning models. In the predictions, the paper is only able to articulate general trends and correlations rather than predicting exact values or distributions. These issues, though, are representative of more general issues with theoretical models in emergent language: the use of deep neural networks and reinforcement learning make precision inherently difficult (although approximation is not impossible as shown by the GPT-4 scaling case above). Finally, despite the fact that the model in Resnick et al. (2020) addresses compositionality, the most popular topic within emergent language, it does not see reuse subsequent papers.

Next steps As theoretical models are a response to specific questions and phenomena within emergent language, there is no general sense of what the “next steps” are for theoretical models. As emergent language research progresses, it may settle down on more specific problems which would allow theoretical models to see more use, reuse, and refinement. Nevertheless, even one-off uses of simple theoretical models can be helpful in clarifying the contributions, hypotheses, and results of a given paper. For example, instead of hypothesizing simply that changing X will improve Y , it could be stated instead that there will be a positive correlation between x and y , where x and y are quantitative metrics of X and Y respectively, and correlation is mathematically defined (e.g., Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient). This would facilitate experiments which more clearly do or do not refute the hypothesis and underlying claims.

2.4 Tooling

Description The central aim of tooling within emergent language is to develop apparatus that can be used to ease the process of implementing and running experiments. Since emergent language is under the broad category of computer science, the experimental apparatus are most often programs, their source code, and sometimes datasets. Although any codebase used for emergent language experiment can be reused and repurposed by other researchers for new experiments, codebases which are designed to be reused for a broad range of experiments are most proper to this application.

Applicability The most obvious benefit of shared and standardized tooling is that it saves time for researchers as less time needs to be spent reimplementing the basic features of emergent language experiments. Furthermore, the incidence of bugs decreases, implementation efforts can be spent *improving* existing tooling, and comparison across papers is more reliable since more implementation details will be the same. Finally, well-designed and easy-to-use tooling is a significant help to emergent language researchers who do not have a strong software development background. The task of putting ideas into code is much more difficult for such researchers, and decreasing the amount of unnecessary reimplementation can greatly improve their ability to contribute to the field of emergent language.

Current state Tooling for emergent language has a small degree of standardization, although the high degree of variety in problems and approaches in the field decrease the practicality of a one-size-fits-all framework. EGG (Emergence of lanGuage in Games) (Kharitonov et al., 2019) is the framework that has seen the most reuse as it provides a simple Python programming interface for some of the most common emergent language games, agent architectures, and metrics. ReferentialGym (Denamganai & Walker, 2020b) is similar to EGG in scope, although it has seen less subsequent use. Other tooling may target more specific aspects of experiments in emergent language. For example, TexRel (Perkins, 2021b) is a synthetic dataset

⁶This is a summarization of the model which is more precise in its original formulation.

designed specifically for use in emergent language games; in this case, data (images) are constructed such that *compositional* language could aptly describe them. Additionally, Ikram et al. (2021) introduce HexaJungle, a suite of environments for studying emergent language. For papers which explore beyond the typical environments (which is a significant portion), it is common to implement the emergent language game and agents from scratch using more general purpose tools like PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) (Evtimova et al., 2017; Mu & Goodman, 2021; Noukhovitch et al., 2021).

Next steps The next steps for tooling in emergent language largely depends on what tasks, problems, and methods receive the most attention going forward. If the field continues to study similar environments, EGG could continue to support such work, but if radically new environments or experimental paradigms appear, current tooling might prove insufficient. In part, this is due to an inherent trade-off between the flexibility of a framework and its convenience; while emergent language is rapidly changing, the required flexibility often does not provide much convenience, but as the field focuses on fewer problems, frameworks could play a greater role. A possible middle way between these two issues would be developing an interface (in the sense of object-oriented programming) for emergent language environments similar to OpenAI Gym (Brockman et al., 2016), which can provide some standardization while not impeding novel environments and implementations.

3 Task-Driven Applications

The task-driven applications of emergent language center around fields of engineering such as machine learning, natural language processing, and multi-agent systems, and typically involve solving a well-defined, practical problem. These applications have the most immediate impacts and, as such, offer some of the most convincing motivations for developing emergent language techniques in the short term. The primary challenges in this area come from competing against more established methods in deep learning which are continually advancing through larger and larger scales of data and compute.

3.1 Synthetic language data

Description In the context of deep learning, synthetic data refers to data which is generated with a computer program; this is in contrast to “real,” “authentic,” or “natural” data which is collected from an actual system being studied. For example, the language we find in books, conversations, speeches, etc. would all be real, in this sense, whereas a corpus of sentences generated by sampling from a probabilistic context-free grammar would be synthetic. Synthetic data has a number of advantages when applied to deep learning; this includes: availability in arbitrary quantities, availability in low-resource domains (e.g., endangered languages, multi-modal settings), alleviating concerns about bias, and alleviating privacy concerns (since data is not collected from humans, e.g., through surveillance). Although synthetic data finds niche uses alongside real data in deep learning and NLP, it fails to have widespread applicability because it often does not capture the plethora of nuances and irregularities that appear in real data, that is, the “long tail” of the real data distribution. In natural language, this can manifest as unnatural but valid syntactic structures, uncommon senses of words, idioms, and wordplay.

We consider all kinds of pretraining and evaluation of deep learning models with emergent language as part of this application even if it does not involve generating synthetic data in a typical sense. For example, you might use a trained emergent language agent itself to pretrain or evaluate a model.

Applicability Emergent language serves as a way to generate synthetic language data which more closely mimics the natural variation found in human language. The distribution of patterns within natural language has a long “long tail” insofar as a large proportion of the total mass comprises a large number of infrequent patterns, making it very difficult for something like synthetic data generated by handcrafted programs to sufficiently replicate the distribution (Naik, 2022). This is illustrated by the history of NLP: handcrafted expert systems have been surpassed by learning-based method which can scalably leverage computing power to mine patterns from increasingly large quantities of data. Emergent language, rather than mining patterns directly from data, seeks to uncover linguistic and behavioral patterns which are latent in embodied multi-agent environments. For example, homonymy could be a form of loss compression induced by the limited

capacity of an agent’s neural network. Analogously, AlphaGo (Silver et al., 2017) was able to leverage compute via reinforcement learning and self-play to learn latent strategies in the game of Go and, for the first time, surpass the best human players.

Current state Work towards using emergent language to generate synthetic data has been at the proof-of-concept level. The relevant two papers in our survey showed that emergent language could indeed improve the performance of neural NLP models when used for pretraining in very low-resource settings. That being said, experiments only cover a narrow selection of datasets/tasks and do not rigorously compare against alternative methods (e.g., traditional synthetic data, cross-lingual transfer). As a result, is difficult to gauge the practical impact of the proposed methods.

Li et al. (2020) pretrain encoder-decoder few-shot machine translation models with an emergent language signalling game; in addition to finding improvements in very low-resource settings, the experiments showed that the task success rate in the emergent language game was well-correlated with the downstream BLEU score. Downey et al. (2022) also tackle machine translation, but instead use an emergent language game to fine tune a multi-modal model for unsupervised machine translation, finding that emergent language is more effective than the back translation baseline. Yao et al. (2022) take a slightly different approach by using the emergent language game only to generate a synthetic corpus (instead of train the models itself); this corpus is then used to pretrain models for language modeling and image captioning tasks. The experiments compare emergent language corpora against two baselines: stochastic well-balanced brackets and Spanish; for the lowest data regimes, the emergent language corpora reliably outperformed both baselines. Finally, Mu et al. (2023) use emergent language to pretrain an instruction-following embodied control model; the experiments showed that not only does the proposed method outperform the baseline models but also that the emergent language captured more information than the ground truth natural language video captions.

Next steps The first direction is establishing a basic list and comparison of the different ways the emergent language can be used for generating synthetic data. Li et al. (2020) (using emergent language agent models directly downstream) and Yao et al. (2022) (using emergent language corpora for pretraining downstream models) both take different approaches to the same task of pretraining downstream NLP models. These approaches have different relative merits, and there are likely more ways to approach the same problem emergent language. Thus, next steps would consist of finding other promising methods of harnessing emergent language for model pretraining and comparing these approaches on a common ground. Determining which of the approaches is best is critical to giving emergent language the best chance of surpassing more traditional methods model pretraining and generating synthetic data.

The second direction which can be pursued after or in parallel to the first is rigorously comparing emergent language for pretraining neural NLP models with more established techniques like cross-lingual transfer and traditional synthetic data (Artetxe et al., 2020). First and foremost, this helps to establish whether or not emergent language data can truly surpass what is already present in the field. In particular, comparison against cross-lingual transfer should highlight how emergent language data is more available, that is, it can be attained in higher quantities with more relevance to the target language than cross-lingual data. Comparison against traditional synthetic data could tease out exactly what properties of emergent language make it more effective in downstream applications. For example, emergent language could be compared against increasingly complex synthetic languages: balanced parentheses, context-free grammars, then full-scale grammars (e.g., head-driven phrase structure grammar (Pollard & Sag, 1994)).

Both directions would entail developing a sort of benchmark for testing the effectiveness of pretraining methods. This would require not only finding suitable data sources and evaluation metrics, as usual, but also determining how to make the variety of methods for pretraining comparable. For example, emergent language is more computationally expensive than traditional synthetic data and standard NLP pretraining methods, yet it could surpass synthetic data in quality and standard pretraining in low-resource settings. Therefore the benchmark would have to take into account data and computational requirements in addition to raw performance.

3.2 Multi-agent communication

Description The area of multi-agent communication is concerned with autonomous (computer) agents coordinating their actions through the use of a communication protocol. Most prototypically, this would apply to a team of autonomous robots working together but could also include situations like self-driving cars on the road or IoT devices on a local area network. The two typical approaches to developing multi-agent communication protocols are handcrafting them or learning them like a latent variable between agents. Handcrafted protocols (e.g., DHCP for network configuration) are typically well-suited for specific tasks but also require significant expert design, which hinders much potential for open-domain or general purpose communication. Automatically learned continuous protocols (i.e., messages are learned continuous vectors) solve some of these issues but raise new issues related to deep, learned representations such as low interpretability. This task is distinct from autonomous agents communicating—instead—with humans, which we discuss in Section 3.3.

Applicability Emergent language addresses these issues in three main ways. First, emergent language is scalable to more general-purpose tasks since it is automatically learned. Second, it is more interpretable as the constraints on the communication protocol keep it more similar to human language (for example, it can be constrained to consist of sequences of discrete symbols). Finally, human language is the gold standard for communication protocols insofar as it can apply to previously unseen situations and is robust to noise and other hindering factors. Thus, developing communication protocols which deliberately mimic the structural properties of human language could be a way to better attain these desirable functional properties.

For example, the following design elements of an emergent language system could contribute to recreating some of the above desirable properties of an emergent language. To encourage general purpose language, we can start with an open world, open-ended environment (e.g., Minecraft) and/or one with many distinct situations (e.g., Starcraft, Dota 2). Furthermore, tasks which have adversarial components can especially elicit a diversity of situations since one team of agents is constantly trying to innovate to outcompete the other. Towards interpretability, the agents could be constrained to communicate only with discrete symbols at human-scales (e.g., not using 10 000-token sentences). Finally, elements like communication channel noise or constantly cycling out agents in the population can induce a more robust communication protocol since agents cannot as easily overfit to each other.

Current state Work on developing multi-agent communication protocols has experimented with a handful of environments and scenarios but has not established any one task as being definitively helped by emergent language. Many of the explored environments are a variation on navigation (Mul et al., 2019; Li et al., 2022; Masquil et al., 2022) or the signalling game (Bullard et al., 2021; Cope & Schoots, 2021; Wang et al., 2022; Tucker et al., 2021), although some include more abstract environments like a coalition-based voting game (Li et al., 2022) or semantic communication (Thomas & Saad, 2022). Emergent language for multi-agent communication has been compared against what can be considered its competitors, handcrafted protocols (Gupta et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2022) and learned continuous communication (Li et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022), although these comparisons use the competitors as baselines rather than comparing them head-to-head to show the real-world superiority of emergent language-based communication. In most cases, increasing the performance of the multi-agent team is the primary interest of the experiments; additionally, papers have also looked at emergent language’s robustness to corruption and noise (Cope & Schoots, 2021; Wang et al., 2022) as well as the potential for communicating with partners not seen during training (Bullard et al., 2021; Cope & Schoots, 2021).

Next steps The first direction of future work on emergent language for multi-agent communication is finding a niche task which convincingly demonstrates the strengths of emergent language. This is a significantly more difficult task than what most of the current literature accomplishes, namely demonstrating on a small scale that multi-agent communication is possible with emergent language techniques as a proof of concept. Based on the particular advantages of emergent language, such a task will likely have to be open-domain or demand continual adaptation, rendering hand-crafted protocols impractical, while also needing some element of interpretability, demonstrating an advantage over learned continuous communication. This is a

formidable task as presenting effective definitions of “open-domain” and “interpretable” require formalizing rather abstract notions.

In conjunction with this first direction, it will also be necessary to empirically verify the intuitions that (1) emergent language is more interpretable than continuous communication, and (2) emergent language’s structural similarities to human language confer some actual functional benefit beyond continuous communication.

3.3 Interacting with humans

Description A perennial goal of computer systems has been more naturally interacting and communicating with humans. This is an incredibly difficult task due to the complexities of human communication ranging from nuanced syntax and semantics to pragmatics and conversational dynamics. While deep learning methods have had good success learning syntax and decent success learning semantics, proficiency at the level of pragmatics has yet to be reached because these higher levels of language and communication tend to be more difficult to learn from purely from text through a language modeling objective. This is demonstrated in Ouyang et al. (2022) by the fact that an InstructGPT model outperforms a GPT-3 model 100× larger when it comes to following a human’s instructions (as evaluated by humans). They observe from this that the language modeling objective alone is misaligned with the objective of “follow the user’s instructions helpfully and safely”; for example, truthfulness is one dimension that is drastically increased by training on human feedback (Ouyang et al., 2022). Even with extensive training with human feedback, models like ChatGPT still significantly diverge from humans when it comes to pragmatics and communication strategies (Qiu et al., 2023; Guo et al., 2023). Thus, despite large language models’ fluency, they do not naturally capture critical aspects of interacting with humans, and current methods of addressing it entail relying directly on human supervision (Ouyang et al., 2022).

This application primarily refers to methods of interactively communicating in tasks like dialogue or human-robot collaboration. We distinguish this from creating explainable machine learning models which we address in Section 3.4.

Applicability The central argument for using emergent language to better communicate with humans comes from the fact that an emergent language agents naturally develop competency with a wide range of linguistic phenomena. The intuition here is that the same functional pressures that drive the pragmatic and social aspects of human language can be replicated by sufficiently rich and embodied emergent language environments. Thus, the emergent language agents would not only develop the syntax and semantics of the language but also pragmatic elements in response to the environmental and social pressures. In fact, Bisk et al. (2020) argue that embodiment and interaction, beyond simply modeling static corpora, are simply necessary for learning to use the full depth language. Emergent language, then, has the potential to a more compute-driven (and less human-feedback intensive) way of imbuing machine learning models with a full range of linguistic competency that is necessary for interacting with humans.

Current state Communicating with humans is an oft-cited potential application of emergent language techniques, although few papers have directly experimented with it. The papers we found in the survey were proof-of-concept tasks which demonstrated some possible methods for emergent language agents interacting with humans. One of the characteristic design choices of each paper is deciding the modality of how the human communicates with the agents and how the human understands the semantics of the communication system.

For the direction of human-to-agent communication, Tucker et al. (2021) map natural language to a joint embedding space with the emergent language and Li et al. (2022) have humans select embeddings directly from a labelled visualization. For the direction of agent-to-human communication, Tucker et al. (2021) visualize the embedding of agent messages in the joint space and Mihai & Hare (2021a) present the human directly with a “message” (i.e., sketch) in a sketch-based signalling game. Apart from direct human-agent interaction, Tucker et al. (2022a) demonstrate machine translation-based approach where human and emergent languages are aligned through an image captioning task.

Next steps The first direction for using emergent language to augment human-computer interaction is to determine the most the natural and scalable methods and modalities for human and computers to communicate. The existing literature uses a handful of methods some of which are either unnatural and not scalable to more complex communication (e.g., interacting with concept/word embeddings). Work on non-emergent human-computer interaction can inform emergent language research not only on methods of communication but also concerning what environments would have the potential for complex communication while still being simple enough to work with. For example, Narayan-Chen et al. (2019) present a collaborative building game in a Minecraft environment which could satisfy these criteria.

The second direction for this application is empirically demonstrating the intuitive advantages of emergent language over more established methods for human-computer interactions. The pragmatics of interacting with humans is one of the areas with the most potential because pragmatics are inherently flexible, tied to extra-linguistic knowledge, and are more difficult to formalize than, say, syntax or semantics. Nevertheless, emergent language could help in the more difficult regions of syntax and semantics, such as disambiguating utterances which rely on contextual knowledge or common sense reasoning.

3.4 Explainable machine learning models

Description Explainable machine learning models are those which can communicate to humans the reasons or factors behind a certain their decision. Such model are a response to deep, black-box neural models which may be able to make accurate decisions but often for opaque or seemingly arbitrary reasons. Instead it is desirable for explanations to be: (1) causally related to actual decision that is made (i.e., not a *post hoc* rationalization); (2) expressed natural language, which is one of the most effective ways to convey ideas to humans; and (3) not impose a significant negative impact on the performance of the model.

Two paradigms of explainable machine learning models illustrate solutions only satisfying some of the criteria. The first paradigm is using language generation models to generate explanations based on the hidden states of a model; while this permits the use of deep neural models, the explanations are decoupled from the actual decision since the explanation is superfluous with respect to the actual decision. The second paradigm is using explicit, interpretable steps in reasoning to the prediction (e.g., decision trees, knowledge graphs); although these explanations are now causally efficacious with respect to the prediction, it restricts the complexity of model that can be used to make the prediction. While the explanations these models generate are intrinsically related to the decisions made (e.g., the weights of a regression both explain the decision and cause it), they restrict the complexity of the model, and hence, can hamper overall performance.

Explainable models, in some sense, is a specification of “Interacting with humans” (Section 3.3); here the interaction is always focused on a machine learning model communicating accurate and interpretable explanations for its decision or behavior.

Applicability Emergent language takes a radical approach to both the causal efficacy and the natural language aspect of explainable models. To illustrate this, we can describe a “deliberative ensemble of emergent language agents”. Such an ensemble would be posed a semi-adversarial game where first each member of the ensemble would generate an output for a given input. After this, the ensemble members would communicate in the emergent language to try to convince the other members of the particular output before aggregating the members’ revised decisions. Given that emergent language is designed to resemble human language, the representation mismatch between natural language and the emergent language discourse is far less than natural language and the activations of a monolithic neural network. Furthermore, since the deliberation and communication among agents is critical in the final decision of the ensemble, the explanation has a direct causal link to the decision.

Current state Using emergent language for creating explainable machine learning models has only seen proof-of-concept exploration in one series of papers. Namely, Santamaria-Pang et al. (2020); Chowdhury et al. (2020a;b;c) implement and experiment with a medical image classification model which, internally, is a Lewis signalling game (Lewis, 1970). This means that the internal representations are themselves the discrete messages of an emergent language which are intended to be more interpretable to humans working with the model.

Next steps The first direction for using emergent language for explainable machine learning models is exploring methods of generating explanations beyond the signalling game that we see in the current literature. The signalling game, while providing potentially interpretable messages, does not effectively exhibit the multi-step reasoning which (1) is most suited to the complex decisions which we would want explained, (2) is how humans generally explain themselves, and (3) is where emergent language has the greatest potential to surpass more established methods. Such games or environments might incorporate incentives for agents to collaborate and reason sequentially using the emergent language. This reasoning process would then double as the basis for the decision and the explanation of the decision.

The second direction is incorporating state-of-the-art models into the emergent language games. This application, more so than others, requires that the emergent language-based model perform at levels comparable to the established alternatives since explainable decisions are of little use if they are not good decisions in the first place. Given the size of current SotA models and inherent difficulty of training emergent language models, this incorporation would likely have to take the form of leveraging pre-trained SotA models which would be at most finetuned.

4 Knowledge-Driven Applications

The knowledge-driven applications of emergent language center around the scientific fields of linguistics and cognitive science, and typically concern gaining a deeper understanding of phenomena in the natural world. These applications have tend to have more remote impacts than the task-driven applications, but they also present the opportunity to gain novel insights into how humans think and use language. The primary challenges in this area come from creating emergent languages which are realistic enough to legitimately claim insight in areas where there are gaps left by more traditional techniques in linguistics and cognitive science.

4.1 General paradigm of knowledge-driven applications

Description Some of the most persistent debates in linguistics are about the degree to which language and its characteristics are the product of very specific biology (the “Chomskyan” nativist position that dominated North American linguistics in the second half of the twentieth century) or can be derived from very general mechanisms of learning (the behaviorist position that dominated North American linguistics in the first half of the twentieth century). This conflict reflects a broader debate within the social and behavioral sciences about the relative importance of “nature” (the inductive biases of the human brain) and “nurture” (operant conditioning from parents, caregivers, and other aspects of the environment) in the cognitive development of human children. Such debates are difficult to resolve because of limited access to the necessary data: the ingredients of language (nature and nurture) are largely fixed, meaning we cannot (ethically) vary them in order to determine their effects on language. This is to say, the relevant data in these debates come largely from observation and only extremely limited experimentation. The lack of true experimentation hinders the type of scientific investigation which would yield more definitive answers to these questions.

Applicability Emergent language can address these unsolved problems by serving as a proxy for human language whose ingredients can be manipulated and experimented with. Emergent language makes a suitable proxy because (1) it aims at being a faithful reconstruction of human language, and (2) this reconstruction is a reflection of its ingredients. For example, we can see the “nature vs. nurture” distinction paralleled in the distinction between the systems inside of an agent and the interaction that takes place with other agents.

Deep learning-based emergent language is uniquely poised to serve as a proxy for human language for two reasons. First, deep learning methods are by far the closest methods to replicating human proficiency in language (as well as vision, planning, and so on). Hence, it would seem a model class of comparable power is necessary to support the emergence of a language with enough complexity to be useful for the most relevant linguistic problems. Second, deep neural networks also introduce minimal inductive bias when compared with traditional simulations and mathematical models. The behaviorist or “nurture” position can only be validated if language learning can take place without language-specific inductive biases and this is only possible in a context in which learning according to very general principles is possible, so deep learning is a natural fit for testing hypotheses about the necessity of language-specific learning mechanisms.

4.2 Language, cognition, and perception

Description This goal refers to the two-way relationship between language and cognitive (and perceptive) processes in the human brain: how language is shaped by the cognitive capacities of humans and what goes on in the brain to enable the use of language. By extension, this also includes behavior which proceeds from cognitive phenomena of interest (e.g., adjusting communication strategies based on a theory of mind). Aside from not being able to experimentally modify the brain, a major barrier in studying cognition is being able to merely *observe* the brain.

The primary way of studying language and cognition has been through laboratory experiments with humans. While we do have easy access to humans using language, the observation of the actual cognitive processes we are interested in has limitations in both its direct and indirect forms. Direct observation includes using apparatus like an EEG, MEG, or fMRI; its primary disadvantages are that it requires specialized instruments, often cannot be done *in situ*, and still has limits on what it can observe. Indirect observation includes methods which infer cognitive processes from external observations; for example, we might infer a limit to working memory by seeing how many digits in a long number a person can recall. The primary restrictions with indirect methods is that they, too, are very limited in what they can observe.

Some approaches to simulation for this application investigate the similarity of language models to humans in the cognitive domain (Schrimpf et al., 2020; Misra et al., 2021; Mahowald et al., 2023). These neural networks, though, are typically trained in a standard supervised or self-supervised manner (i.e., distinct from the embodied reinforcement of emergent language). Thus, they lack any true multi-modal integration, making them unsuitable for studying to the intersection between cognition, perception, and language.

Applicability Observing neural networks is easier than observing the results of human-subject experiments. This is because the state and processes of artificial neural networks are completely accessible, even when they are often not easy to interpret. Furthermore, any individual aspect of an artificial neural network can be manipulated, which allows for a far higher granularity in experimentation than human subjects. Compared to using language models, emergent language agents have a more natural integration of language capabilities with other capabilities such as perception or interpersonal communication goals. This is due to the automatically learned neural-to-neural interface between language, cognition, and perception, allowing the resulting use of language to be shaped by embodiment and pressures for useful communication.

Current state The current literature in this area focuses on observing abstract principles from cognitive science and perception in the context of emergent language systems. While these abstract facts do relate to cognitive science, they are more directly aimed at improving emergent language techniques themselves (i.e., like an *intermediate* goal). Work directly applying emergent language-trained models to particular questions within cognitive science (along the lines of Misra et al. (2021)) is largely absent.

The subtopic with the most attention in this application is the relationship between emergent language and the agents' perception of the environment. Bouchacourt & Baroni (2018) establish a simple but important point regarding perception: neural-network based agents may successfully communicate with degenerate perceptual strategies. Namely, they show how agents which learn to play an image discrimination game with natural images are just as successful when playing with random noise images, demonstrating that we cannot simply assume that agents will learn intuitive or interpretable perceptual representations without further investigation.⁷ Nevertheless, Dessì et al. (2021) counter this pessimism by demonstrating that it is still possible for emergent language agents to develop interpretable visual representations on their own.

Choi et al. (2018); Portelance et al. (2021) study how the balance of visual attributes in training data directly influences what attributes are actually perceived. Feng et al. (2023) look specifically at *relations* between visual elements in a referential game. More generally, Lazaridou et al. (2018); Ohmer et al. (2021b;a) study how the emergent language is sensitive, in general, to the perception of the emergent language environment. While most papers address *visual* perception, Khazar Khorrami (2019) looks at the emergent perception of units of sound.

⁷This is closely related, both technically and methodologically, to adversarial inputs in computer vision research.

Deeper than perception, some work studies the agents’ internal representations themselves. Sabathiel et al. (2022) look at how agents can represent numbers to themselves by interacting with their environment (e.g., counting on one’s fingers). Santamaría-Pang et al. (2019) compare representations learned with supervised methods (e.g., a convolutional neural network trained on image classification) with those learned with self-supervised learning; supervised learning yields better representations, generally, but self-supervised learning can be augmented to approach the same performance. Garcia et al. (2022) discuss how a mismatch in internal representation severely reduces the effectiveness of communication.

Finally, a handful of papers have addressed cognitive strategies themselves and specifically how human-inspired inductive biases can be beneficial both for task success and for learning intuitive representations. Todo & Yamamura (2020) find that agents restricting their own learning process lead to languages with more interpretable structure; specifically, agents would discard training examples which diverged more than certain threshold from their own representations. Yuan et al. (2020); Piazza & Behzadan (2023) encourage agents to develop a theory of mind by explicitly modeling the internal states of other agents. This leads to more effective communication by introducing pragmatics into the emergent language since agents can explicitly infer meaning from the communicative context. Masquil et al. (2022) propose adding intrinsic motivations to agents to improve communication. Finally, Cowen-Rivers & Naradowsky (2020) explore the use of world models (Ha & Schmidhuber, 2018) to improve agents’ ability to handle environments requiring longer episodes.

Next steps The next steps for this area of emergent language are to bring the research which already explores abstract principles of cognition in emergent language closer to the more concrete questions already present in cognitive science. This would entail using emergent language techniques in the same vein as Misra et al. (2021) and the other papers mentioned in the “Description” section. In particular, it would be especially important to identify the differences between traditional language models and emergent language agents in terms of their cognitive realism. More precise comparisons along these lines could better illuminate what aspects of human cognition might be lacking in emergent language techniques and how to fix them.

4.3 Origin of language

Description The origin of human language, as an task, comprises studying the environment and processes under which human language, as we recognize it today, emerged from pre-linguistic communication. In particular, one of the biggest questions surrounding the origin of human language is whether it occurs gradually or through saltations (discussed in LaCroix (2019)). The gradualist position holds that there was no clear boundary or and no clear discontinuities between pre-linguistic communication and true human language while the saltationist position holds that, at some point, pre-linguistic communication underwent a sudden transition into human language. Addressing this particular question is major step in determining the nature of the processes explaining the origin of human language.

Since language was originally only spoken, there are no direct data which describe what happened when it evolved. Thus, any data for research come from inferential data from animal communication, and contemporary examples of language invention (e.g., creolization, Nicaraguan Sign Language). These are relatively sparse, leaving the origin of language very difficult to study. As a result, simulation is, in a way, the closest source of data to direct observation. Yet critical factors in the origin of language include complex pre-linguistic elements such as perception, internal representation, and social dynamics which traditional simulations have difficulty representing.

Applicability Simulation is a natural way to address processes, such as the origination of language, for which we have no (or limited) direct observations. Yet, the dependence of the origin of language on pre-linguistic factors like perception, internal representations, and social dynamics indicates a significant need for simulations which integrate learning methods with a high capacity and flexibility, that is, deep neural networks. Using neural networks allows the simulation to reflect the evolutionary pressures in the environment instead of the stipulations of a handcrafted mathematical model.

Current state Work on language evolution and change comprises a few empirical papers which have used small-scale, simple environments to test specific hypotheses as well as a few position papers. The empirical

papers typically use environments and tasks from prior work with the added element of transmission of language from generation to generation. For example, Grupen et al. (2021) look specifically pre-linguistic communication (e.g., between animals) with emergent language techniques as a foundation for the emergence of truly linguistic communication. Li & Bowling (2019); Ren et al. (2020) test the effects of *iterated learning* in emergent language environments. Iterated learning (Smith et al., 2003), where language is imperfectly transmitted from generation to generation, comes from language evolution literature which shown it to be a possible explanation for compositionality present in human language (Kirby & Hurford, 2002; Kirby et al., 2008).

The position papers on this topic all specifically incorporate relevant work from the linguistics side of language evolution and try to square it with the contemporary approaches of emergent language. LaCroix (2019) compares the relative merits of gradualist and saltationist approaches to the origin of language and what bearing they have on emergent language research, specifically arguing that the focus on compositionality might not align with gradualism. Moulin-Frier & Oudeyer (2020) highlight the opportunities and challenges of using recent advancements in multi-agent reinforcement learning for studying the origin of language. Galke et al. (2022) specifically identify the elements of current emergent language research that must change in order to better apply to linguistically-grounded study of the origin of language.

Next steps Achieving realism in emergent language-based simulations of the origin of language must focus on closing the gap between the two data points we do actually possess: animal communication and behavior (pre-origin of language) and contemporary human language (post-origin). Thus, the pre-origin side of this entails aligning emergent language settings with what we can currently observe in the more sophisticated varieties of animal communication, along the lines of what Grupen et al. (2021) study. Subsequently, changes to the setting would be made to elicit more sophisticated forms of communication which would ideally result in communication bearing the traits of human language (i.e., rederivation as described in Section 2.1). Since the origin of language depends heavily on the aforementioned pre-linguistic concepts, simulations will have to take into account the relevant literature in cognitive science and behavioral psychology.

Additionally, empirical implementations of the principled, interdisciplinary recommendations of the position papers (LaCroix, 2019; Moulin-Frier & Oudeyer, 2020; Galke et al., 2022) also present concrete opportunities for quickly advancing emergent language’s relevance to studying emergent language.

4.4 Language change

Description Languages are perpetually changing, sometimes above and sometimes below the level of conscious awareness. Language change refers to the processes which govern how language changes and develops over time in human populations. In a groundbreaking paper in language change, Weinreich, Labov, and Herzog identified five problems regarding how languages change over time Weinreich et al. (1968):

constraints What constrains the transition of a language from a state s_{t-1} to a successor state s_t ? In particular, are there impossible languages that no change could produce?

transition What intervening stages must exist between states s_{t-1} and s_t ? For example, do the two language varieties coexist for a time?

embedding “How are the observed changes embedded in the matrix of linguistic and extralinguistic concomitants of the forms in question?” What other changes co-occur with the change non-accidentally?

evaluation How, subjectively, do members of the language community evaluate the change that is underway or has occurred?

actuation Why does a particular change occur at a particular point in time and space?

While human laboratory experiments have been useful in addressing some of these problems (Roberts, 2017), as have field studies and other social-scientific methodologies, emergent language simulations provide an unprecedented means of addressing all of these problems except *evaluation*.

Applicability Emergent languages in multi-agent simulations change over time. If they did not—in some respect—change, they would never develop language-like properties in the first place. Do they reach stable equilibria and, if so, do changes still occur, where and why? In answering this question, emergent language simulations can address the *actuation problem* (one of the most difficult problems in language change). These simulations allow us to dissect the relationships between language changes and changes in the “social” and “physical” environment as well, addressing the *embedding problem*. But because emergent language simulations give us a kind of omniscience, they also allow us to characterize the stages between stable equilibria, providing a window onto the *transition problem*. Finally, because emergent language researchers are free to add and remove constraints on possible languages at will, such simulations allow us to address questions about whether human-like language change requires constraints on what languages are “legal” (addressing the *constraints problem* in a way that bears upon the behaviorism-nativism debate).

Current state Language change has not received much attention in the literature; only two papers were found in the survey which approached the topic specifically. First, Graesser et al. (2019) study language contact, where two or more populations of agents who have developed their own language in relative isolation subsequently start communicating with each other. In particular, the experiments replicated a handful of general language contact phenomena that are known to occur with human language. First, while dialects start out as mutually unintelligible, interaction between subsets of to populations can cause convergence of all agents to a mutually intelligible language. Second, when this contact occurs, either the larger population’s language will dominate and take over the smaller population’s or a type of creole will form with a lower overall complexity. Finally, when there is a linear chain of populations, a continuum of mutual intelligibility emerges where populations with fewer degrees of separation develop more similar dialects. These findings primarily address the *embedding problem* mentioned above.

Dekker & De Boer (2020) propose a set of emergent language experiments studying a historical instance of language change, namely morphological simplification in Alorese, a language of Eastern Indonesia. Specifically, the experiments look to determine if adult language contact can explain the loss of verb inflection in the whole language over time. The proposed approach is based on deep neural networks and proposes leveraging cognitive two cognitive mechanisms: Ullman’s declarative/procedural model of language learning (Ullman, 2001b;a) and Lindblom’s H&H model (Lindblom, 1990).

Next steps Emergent language studies of the transition problem have the most potential near-term progress. In particular, studies could investigate quantitatively and at scale how transition between two stable states s_{t-1} and s_t takes place. Specifically, these should investigate whether two codes coexist within a community of agents, with one gradually gaining currency or first dominating a subgraph of the social network, or whether changes happen abruptly across the whole population.

4.5 Language acquisition

Description Language acquisition is the process by which a human acquires the ability to use a new language. For this application, we will focus on first language acquisition because it has weightier scientific implications than second language acquisition, and it stands to gain more from emergent language techniques. Compared to the origin of language (Section 4.3), observational data of first language acquisition data is readily available as it always occurring in a population of humans. Compared to the cognitive and perceptual aspects of language (Section 4.2), there is more to be learned from direct observation of external behavior, making the data easier to collect. Nevertheless, data on first language acquisition is predominantly *observational*, that is, not derived from controlled, randomized experiments. Experiments which test anything more than superficial aspects of language acquisition could have drastic negative effects on human subjects and would be wholly unethical. Thus, data from more involved experimental methods on first language acquisition has to come from other sources such as neural networks trained on language data. Neural networks trained purely on *text* language data, though, fall far short of human performance given a similar amount of language data, suggesting the pre-linguistic inputs are key to replicating human language acquisition (Warstadt & Bowman, 2022).

Applicability Emergent language naturally integrates pre-linguistic inputs to language, such as embodiment and interaction, into the acquisition of language by the neural network agents (Warstadt & Bowman, 2022; Bisk et al., 2020). The advantages of using emergent language as a simulation technique for studying language acquisition are generally similar to those discussed in “Origin of language” (Section 4.3) and “Language, cognition, and perception” (Section 4.2).

Current state Current literature has not often investigated language acquisition, so we will address the collected work exhaustively. At the level of individuals, current work has mainly looked at how the process of language acquisition interacts with the emergence of compositionality and other properties of language. Korbak et al. (2019; 2021) propose a developmentally-inspired curriculum which breaks down language learning into multiple phases; they then show that this method results in a more compositional emergent language. Cope & McBurney (2022) present a method by which a new agent could acquire a pre-existing emergent language purely through observation by inferring the intentions of the observed agents. Kharitonov & Baroni (2020) investigate a relationship in the opposite direction, looking at how the degree of compositionality of a language factors into the ease and speed of language acquisition. At a population level, Li & Bowling (2019) investigate the same relationship between ease of acquisition and compositionality in a generationally transmitted setting, arguing in line with Smith et al. (2003) that the pressure to acquire language quickly can translate to a pressure towards compositional language. Leaving aside compositionality, Portelance et al. (2021) study the origin of shape bias, arguing that it can be explained with communicative efficiency pressures rather than inductive biases in the human or machine agents.

Next steps The next steps for studying language acquisition are to demonstrate how emergent language techniques build directly on prior work studying deep neural network-based models of language acquisition. Warstadt & Bowman (2022) mention that neural networks hold potential for studying language learning but also present a number of difficulties; thus future work in emergent language would do well to follow existing work on the topic closely (at least for the near term). For example, Warstadt & Bowman (2020) determine that a neural network (namely BERT) is able to make structural generalizations in natural language but only after observing more data than is developmentally realistic. Similarly, Chang & Bergen (2022) compare word acquisition in children and language models. In both cases, emergent language could help determine if the lack of embodiment and interactivity in standard language model training explains part of why language models require significantly more data than humans to acquire the same proficiency with language.

4.6 Linguistic variables

Description Linguistic variables are the particular phenomena in language and its use which are the subject of scientific study in linguistics. This is a catch-all application which includes all study seeking to determine the relationships between linguistic and other linguistic/non-linguistic variables. These variables span all of the various subfields of linguistics, forming rough low- to high-level hierarchy:

phonology patterns of individual units of sound

morphology patterns of individual units of meaning at the word and sub-word level

syntax organization of words into meaningful structures (e.g., phrases, clauses, sentences)

semantics the inherent meaning of utterances in a language

pragmatics meaning derived from context clues in conjunction with semantics

sociolinguistics properties of language in the context of group and social dynamics

Beyond identifying individual relationships, broader questions within linguistics concern patterns across relationships. In particular, a central question across all of the above fields, has been the degree to which linguistic variables are the product of formal properties of cognition (formalism) and to what extent they are the emergent result of language use in a communicative context (functionalism). For example, is the tendency of vowel systems to be more-or-less maximally dispersed with the formant space a result of formal universals

such as a categorical phonological features that impose a straitjacket on the realization of the vowels or a result—in language evolution—of vowel distinctions that are not well-dispersed collapsing (leaving only the well-dispersed vowels behind) (Blevins, 2004).⁸

Likewise, it has been observed that prefixes and suffixes (in words that have more than one) are ordered so that those with the greatest relevance to the meaning of the root are closest to the root. This has been attributed to a formal constraint in which morphological scope mirrors syntactic scope (the Mirror Principle) Baker (1985) or as a functional tendency based on a motivation, on the part of speakers, to distribute information predictably so that units of language are closest to the other units to which they are most relevant (the Relevance Principle) (Bybee, 1985). This distribution is argued to be the result of evolutionary processes emerging from attempts of language users to communicate with one another (Bybee, 1985).

The evolution of pragmatics is even less-well understood. Is contextual meaning a result of inherent principles of inference or is it an emergent property of communicative interaction? Linguists have not been able to resolve these issues experimentally because they involve simulating conversations between speakers over decades and centuries—not interactions that can be observed during an afternoon in the lab.

Applicability In addition to the aforementioned applicable traits of emergent language, there are two ways in which emergent language is particularly applicable to studying linguistic variables. First, studying variables in any scientific discipline requires isolating these variables from confounding factors. Within emergent language, it is possible to strip away confounding factors in ways that are often not possible when studying humans directly.

Secondly, the holistic way in which emergent language simulates linguistic processes makes it particularly suitable to studying phenomena that span multiple levels of the linguistic hierarchy. For example, the variables relevant to the distinction between “who” and “whom” in modern English span morphology (“-m” as an affix), syntax (“who” functioning as a subject or object and “whom” as solely an object), and sociolinguistic (“whom” being perceived as formal, dated, etc.). Emergent language, by design, allows for the interaction between many of the levels in the hierarchy without stipulating a particular way in which they interact. On the other hand, more traditional methods of modeling linguistic variables tend to be limited to just the micro or macro scale, and any interaction between these has to be determined ahead of time through handcrafted schemata, introducing bias into the results.

Current state Linguistic variables, broadly construed, show up frequently in the literature as almost any property of emergent language can be considered a “linguistic variable”. For example, papers studying compositionality or grounding are addressing a relationship between *syntax* and *semantics* while papers looking at how to leverage extra-linguistic context for better communication are addressing *pragmatics*. Nevertheless, we mention papers here which directly tie into the study of human language and “linguistics” in the narrower sense. Given that emergent languages are in the stage of trying to look more like human language (cf. Section 2.1), the current literature in this application primarily focuses on recreating established linguistic phenomena in emergent language settings. The following is list of summarizing the existing literature:

phonology In contrast to most emergent language environments which have discrete communication channels, Lan et al. (2020); Eloff et al. (2021) look at continuous channels and discretization pressures analogous to the relationship between phones and phonemes.

syntax Chaabouni et al. (2019b) study whether or not emergent language displays word-order biases akin to many human languages. van der Wal et al. (2020) analyze the output of unsupervised grammar induction applied to emergent language.

semantics Chaabouni et al. (2021); Rita et al. (2020); Luna et al. (2020) study the conditions under which Zipf’s Law of Abbreviation (Zipf, 1949) is present in emergent communication. Kågebäck et al. (2018); Chaabouni et al. (2021) study the way emergent languages divide up color spaces as compared to

⁸Or, perhaps, due to a human drive to communicate as clearly as possible, given the same investment of effort (Flemming, 2013).

human languages. Finally, Steinert-Threlkeld (2019) looks at the emergence of function words in emergent language as opposed to the exclusively content-based words in most other settings.

sociolinguistics Graesser et al. (2019); Kim (2021); Fulker et al. (2022) look at the formation of dialects under different conditions in networks of interacting agents. See “Current State” of Section 4.4 for Dekker & De Boer (2020).

Next steps Phonology and morphology are relatively understudied in this area since most emergent language environments assume a one-to-one correspondence between discrete symbols and “words”. Thus, breaking this assumption by either treating discrete symbols as sub-word units or using (constrained) continuous communication channels opens a new realm of phenomena to study.

In order to go beyond the mere replication of human language phenomena in emergent language, the definitions linguistic phenomena and hypotheses in question will need to be translated into the emergent language paradigm. Emergent language, generally speaking, has fewer constraints on its form compared to human language due to the radical variety of possible agent architectures, environment structures, and training tasks. This means that linguistic phenomena in emergent language will require more comprehensive definitions and conditions than what is needed for human language, given the more limited variety of human languages. Given these translated definitions, not only will emergent language be more applicable to linguistics research, but it will also be possible to determine what linguistic phenomena in emergent language make the largest contributions towards improving the task-driven applications (Section 3).

5 Discussion

5.1 Quantitative summary of results

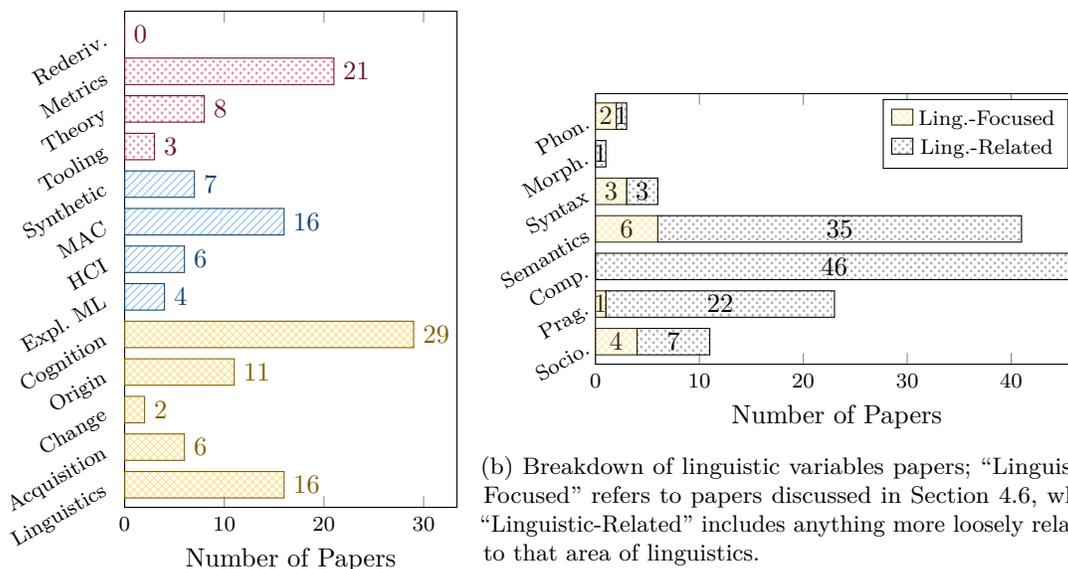
In Figure 2, we present a quantitative summary of the categorization of papers covered in our survey. Figure 2a shows the number of papers falling within the scope of each application, and Figure 2b further breaks the down “Linguistic variables” (Section 4.6) into the different fields of linguistics. Note that there is not a one-to-one correspondence between papers and applications, a paper may have no applications if its contributions are not properly applications or more than one application if its contribution touches on multiple areas.

5.2 Intermediate applications

The intermediate applications of emergent language prove tricky for this survey since they both make up the majority of contributions in emergent language papers but are also the least properly called “applications.” Many of the papers we surveyed listed contributions along the lines of “introducing an environment where we can observe X phenomenon” or “demonstrating a relationship between variable X in the environment and variable Y in the emergent language”. The second of these was by the most common in the 245 emergent language papers surveyed: it appeared 116 times whereas the next highest category was “related to compositionality” with only 46 papers. This is not to say that these contributions are unimportant or unnecessary, but they fail to be true applications in the sense of being a focused “goal” which a line research can attempt to achieve. Thus, such contributions were omitted from this survey.

Aside from these non-application contributions, the topic of *metrics* was the most common. Many of these metrics, though, are not treated as applications or goals in themselves as they are introduced for the needs of the paper and do not see reuse in subsequent papers. Nevertheless, some papers do explicitly aim towards better metrics, comparing the quality of metrics in an effort to refine the tools researchers have analyzing emergent language (Lowe et al., 2019; Korbak et al., 2020).

Finally, “Rederiving human language” (Section 2.1) was one goal which we included in this paper, functioning more like a position paper than a survey paper. This goal did not explicitly pursued by any of the papers we reviewed, although it is implicit in a large number of papers, namely those which seek align emergent language with some human language-like quality (e.g., compositionality, Zipf’s Law of Abbreviation). Nevertheless, we argue that rederiving human language should receive more attention which addresses it



(a) Number of papers corresponding to each section of this review.

(b) Breakdown of linguistic variables papers; “Linguistic-Focused” refers to papers discussed in Section 4.6, while “Linguistic-Related” includes anything more loosely related to that area of linguistics.

Figure 2: Quantitative summary of paper topics in this survey. Abbreviations: *MAC*: multi-agent communication, *HCI*: human-computer interaction, *Expl. ML*: explainable machine learning, and *Comp.*: compositionality.

holistically. This is because (1) it is critical to making possible the downstream task- and knowledge-driven applications and (2) it is an effective way to interpret the other contributions falling under the “intermediate” umbrella.

5.3 Task-driven applications

Within the task-driven applications we find that multi-agent communication has received the most attention. This is generally expected as it is one of the most natural applications of emergent language, given its foundation in deep multi-agent reinforcement learning. Although some papers have addressed using emergent language for synthetic data, it is somewhat surprising that the number is not higher since it is probably the application with the most potential for near-term success, especially in low-resource domains as a replacement for traditional synthetic data. Interacting with humans, while an important long-term goal, does not hold as much short-term promise because it is more difficult to conduct scientific studies with humans and anything short of near-human language-like emergent language is not going to surpass other methods for interfacing with humans through natural language.

5.4 Knowledge-driven applications

Within the knowledge-driven applications, we find the cognitive and core linguistic aspects of emergent language to be the most addressed. The number shown for “Cognition” in Figure 2a includes papers using a broader sense of “cognition” and “cognitive science” including topics like perception, internal representations, and neural architectures.⁹ As shown in Figure 2b, core linguistics, when given this broader interpretation, is far more prevalent with over 100 in total. By comparison, language change and language acquisition of language are more niche and have fewer papers associated with them.

⁹Although we did not perform the same focused-versus-related breakdown with cognition as was done with linguistic variables, we expect we would have found a similar divide with many cognition-related papers and only a handful of papers which focus on issues directly relevant to cognitive science (as illustrated in Figure 2b).

Within the umbrella of linguistic variables, we can see a handful of trends. First, we see generally in Figure 2b that the number of papers which address variables directly relevant to linguistics is dwarfed by the number of papers which take at a loose inspiration from linguistics. Compositionality is especially interesting in this regard as it is, by far, the most written-about topic under the broad umbrella of linguistics, yet we did not find that papers addressed with a focus on compositionality in human language. This may be due, in part, to the fact that human languages are universally compositional and generally have similar methods of composing meaning at a broad level in comparison to ways that emergent languages are or are not compositional. Aside from compositionality, semantics and pragmatics are the most studied topics. These areas of linguistics naturally line up with the most foundational aspects of emergent language, namely figuring out what emergent languages are actually communicating (semantics) and how this meaning derives from communication strategies and environmental pressures (pragmatics). Finally, phonology and morphology have the least amount of work focused on them. One potential reason for this is that emergent language systems are typically structured in a way to preclude phonology by using discrete communication channels and morphology by assuming discrete symbols to already be individual units of meaning (i.e., morphemes) without investigating potential subword structure further.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we have given a comprehensive summary of the goals and applications of deep learning-based emergent language research. The applications of emergent language can roughly be categorized into those which aim at: improving emergent language techniques themselves (intermediate); solving well-defined, practical problems (task-driven); and expanding human knowledge of the natural world (knowledge-driven). Each of these applications has been accompanied by a description of its scope, an explication of emergent language’s unique role in addressing it, a summary of the extant literature working towards the application, and brief recommendations for near-term research directions. Finally, we identify general trends observed in the course of surveying the applications of emergent language.

This work has three primary goals. First, it is meant to inspire future emergent language research by compiling the most salient areas of research into a single document with relevant work cited. Second, this work is meant to accessibly illustrate the potential applications emergent language to practitioners who are not as familiar with the multi-agent reinforcement learning or deep learning in general. Finally, defining the ultimate aims of emergent language is critical to guiding the field of research itself through practices like evaluation metrics and benchmarks. Evaluation metrics require explicitly defining what a *good* or *desirable* emergent language is, and understanding what emergent language can be used for is a foundational step. While this paper does not come close to exhausting the nuances of each of these applications, it highlights the nature and importance of applications as a whole in order to serve the future of emergent language research.

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A Review Methods

In this section, we give a brief account of the methods used for obtaining the papers referenced in this review. As a considerable amount of the content in this review will draw from the authors’ background knowledge, describing the methods does not imply that this paper is “fully reproducible”. Nevertheless, presenting the process used for producing this paper can aid in understanding its context and origin.

A.1 Collecting papers

To collect papers we searched arXiv (<https://arxiv.org/>) and Semantic Scholar (<https://www.semanticscholar.org/>) for: “emergent language”, “emergent communication”, “language emergence”, and “communication emergence”. Any paper that had a title plausibly related to emergent language was passed along to annotation stage. Occasionally, the abstract would be skimmed at this stage, but here we aired on the side of recall and not precision.

We selected arXiv because (1) a majority of emergent language papers are posted on arXiv and (2) the *Computer Science* archive provides a good signal to noise ratio due to the type of research that tends to be posted on arXiv. We supplemented arXiv with Semantic Scholar primarily to collect emergent language papers that come from sources outside typical computer science discipline (as well as any CS papers which simply were not posted to arXiv). Additionally, we collected papers from all years of EmeCom¹⁰, a series of workshops on (primarily deep learning-based) emergent communication. With very few (<5) exceptions, we gathered all of the emergent language papers through this method. This was done primarily because it provided a good balance between overall coverage, principled methodology, and labor intensity.

arXiv We searched arXiv with a disjunction of the aforementioned queries starting with the year 2015 up until present. This search was originally performed around July 1, 2022 and then again around May 4, 2023.¹¹ The result is approximately 4 500 entries of which 157 were selected for the next stage.

¹⁰EmeCom URLs <https://sites.google.com/site/emecom2017/accepted-papers>, <https://sites.google.com/site/emecom2018/accepted-papers>, <https://sites.google.com/view/emecom2019/accepted-papers>, <https://sites.google.com/view/emecom2020/accepted-papers>, and <https://openreview.net/group?id=ICLR.cc/2022/Workshop/EmeCom#all-submissions>.

¹¹Search URL for arXiv: https://arxiv.org/search/advanced?terms-0-operator=AND&terms-0-term=emergent+language&terms-0-field=all&terms-1-operator=OR&terms-1-term=language+emergence&terms-1-field=all&terms-2-operator=OR&terms-2-term=emergent+communication&terms-2-field=all&terms-3-operator=OR&terms-3-term=communication+emergence&terms-3-field=all&classification-computer_science=y&classification-physics_archives=all&classification-include_cross_list=include&date-year=&date-filter_by=date_range&date-from_date=2015-01-01&date-to_date=2023-05-04&date-date_type=submitted_date_first&abstracts=hide&size=100&order=-announced_date_first.

Semantic Scholar The search process of Semantic Scholar was a bit more complicated because the results could not be reviewed exhaustively. This was in part because the results were sorted by relevance and also because a wider range of topics were searched. Thus, the first 100–400 results were inspected, until further results seemed largely irrelevant to emergent language. Similarly to arXiv, the searches were performed in two batches with the first one spanning 2015 to July 28, 2022:

- “emergent language”: all fields; 100 titles reviewed: <https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year%5B0%5D=2015&year%5B1%5D=2022&fos%5B0%5D=computer-science&fos%5B1%5D=engineering&fos%5B2%5D=linguistics&fos%5B3%5D=philosophy&fos%5B4%5D=psychology&fos%5B5%5D=sociology&fos%5B6%5D=mathematics&fos%5B7%5D=biology&fos%5B8%5D=economics&q=emergent%20language&sort=relevance>
- “emergent language”: computer science; 220 titles reviewed: [https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year\[0\]=2015&year\[1\]=2022&fos\[0\]=computer-science&fos\[1\]=engineering&fos\[2\]=mathematics&q=emergent%20language&sort=relevance&page=1](https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year[0]=2015&year[1]=2022&fos[0]=computer-science&fos[1]=engineering&fos[2]=mathematics&q=emergent%20language&sort=relevance&page=1)
- “emergent communication”: all fields; 370 titles reviewed: [https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year\[0\]=2015&year\[1\]=2022&fos\[0\]=computer-science&fos\[1\]=engineering&fos\[2\]=mathematics&q=emergent%20communication&sort=relevance&page=1](https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year[0]=2015&year[1]=2022&fos[0]=computer-science&fos[1]=engineering&fos[2]=mathematics&q=emergent%20communication&sort=relevance&page=1)
- “emergent communication”: computer science; 260 titles reviewed: <https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year%5B0%5D=2015&year%5B1%5D=2022&fos%5B0%5D=computer-science&fos%5B1%5D=engineering&fos%5B2%5D=mathematics&fos%5B3%5D=biology&fos%5B4%5D=economics&fos%5B5%5D=linguistics&fos%5B6%5D=philosophy&fos%5B7%5D=psychology&fos%5B8%5D=sociology&q=emergent%20communication&sort=relevance&page=26>
- “language emergence”: computer science; 400 pages reviewed: [https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year\[0\]=2015&year\[1\]=2022&fos\[0\]=computer-science&fos\[1\]=engineering&fos\[2\]=mathematics&q=language%20emergence&sort=relevance](https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year[0]=2015&year[1]=2022&fos[0]=computer-science&fos[1]=engineering&fos[2]=mathematics&q=language%20emergence&sort=relevance)
- “language emergence”: biology, economics, linguistics, philosophy, psychology, sociology; 110 titles reviewed: <https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year%5B0%5D=2015&year%5B1%5D=2022&fos%5B0%5D=biology&fos%5B1%5D=economics&fos%5B2%5D=linguistics&fos%5B3%5D=philosophy&fos%5B4%5D=psychology&fos%5B5%5D=sociology&q=language%20emergence&sort=relevance&page=1>

The second pass was performed on May 8, 2023, spanning 2022 and 2023:

- “emergent language”: all fields; 300 titles reviewed: <https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year%5B0%5D=2022&year%5B1%5D=2023&fos%5B0%5D=computer-science&fos%5B1%5D=engineering&fos%5B2%5D=linguistics&fos%5B3%5D=philosophy&fos%5B4%5D=psychology&fos%5B5%5D=sociology&fos%5B6%5D=mathematics&fos%5B7%5D=biology&fos%5B8%5D=economics&q=emergent%20language&sort=relevance&page=2>
- “emergent communication”: computer science, engineering; 250 titles reviewed: [https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year\[0\]=2022&year\[1\]=2023&fos\[0\]=computer-science&fos\[1\]=engineering&fos\[2\]=mathematics&q=emergent%20communication&sort=relevance&page=1](https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year[0]=2022&year[1]=2023&fos[0]=computer-science&fos[1]=engineering&fos[2]=mathematics&q=emergent%20communication&sort=relevance&page=1)
- “emergent communication”: computer science, engineering, linguistics, philosophy, psychology, mathematics, biology, economics; 100 titles reviewed: <https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year%5B0%5D=2015&year%5B1%5D=2022&fos%5B0%5D=computer-science&fos%5B1%5D=engineering&fos%5B2%5D=linguistics&fos%5B3%5D=philosophy&fos%5B4%5D=psychology&fos%5B5%5D=sociology&fos%5B6%5D=mathematics&fos%5B7%5D=biology&fos%5B8%5D=economics&q=emergent%20language&sort=relevance>
- “language emergence”: all fields; 300 titles reviewed: [https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year\[0\]=2022&year\[1\]=2023&fos\[0\]=computer-science&fos\[1\]=engineering&fos\[2\]=linguistics&fos\[3\]=philosophy&fos\[4\]=psychology&fos\[5\]=sociology&fos\[6\]=mathematics&fos\[7\]=biology&fos\[8\]=economics&q=language%20emergence&sort=relevance](https://www.semanticscholar.org/search?year[0]=2022&year[1]=2023&fos[0]=computer-science&fos[1]=engineering&fos[2]=linguistics&fos[3]=philosophy&fos[4]=psychology&fos[5]=sociology&fos[6]=mathematics&fos[7]=biology&fos[8]=economics&q=language%20emergence&sort=relevance)

These searches yielded 214 papers which were selected for the next stage.

Category	Number of Papers
<i>Initial Search</i>	443
Duplicate	84
Out-of-scope	106
Not a research paper	5
No access	16
<i>Included</i>	232

Table 1: Number of papers excluded from initial search for various reasons. Duplicate papers were either overlaps between different sources or papers that were substantially similar and by the same authors.

A.2 Goal categorization

Given these papers from our initial search, we reviewed the papers first to determine if they are in-scope (as described by Section 1.1) and second to categorize them according to the goals they pursued. The number of papers included and excluded is given in Table 1.

The following categories were used for the annotation of the included papers. They do not precisely line up with the section ultimately used for the paper largely because the annotation categories were determined largely *a priori* while the paper sections were determined *a posteriori*.

- Intermediate
 - measure properties of emergent language
 - produce some property in emergent language
 - other emergent language improvement (e.g., efficiency, robustness)
 - tooling
 - theoretical frameworks
- Task-driven
 - artificial general intelligence, better NLP
 - replication of natural language
 - alternative data source/paradigm
 - robust multiagent communication
 - explainable models
 - synthetic data for evaluation
 - communicating with humans
- Knowledge-driven
 - increase understanding of language in general
 - evolution of language:
 - fundamentals of language (e.g., phonology, lexicon, syntax)
 - * phonology
 - * syntax
 - * semantics
 - * compositionality
 - * morphology
 - * pragmatics
 - * sociolinguistics
 - language acquisition
 - cognitive science and language
 - * perception

Some of these categories were eventually discarded since they either did not receive much attention in the literature or the category itself was too vague to productively discussed. A quantitative summary of the categorization after remapping them to section in the paper is for each paper is presented in Section 5.1.

For the majority of papers, we would read the abstract, introduction, and conclusion in order to assign the proper categories; this would take, on average, 6 minutes to complete per paper. These sections are the most common places for describing the broader applications and contributions of the papers. Paper were reviewed more thoroughly as needed to determine the proper categories. Determining which papers to highlight in the body of this paper depended on the application. For applications with a small number of papers, we were able to exhaustively discuss the applicable papers. For applications with many papers, we highlighted a representative sample of the papers which best illustrated that application.

B Complete List of Reviewed Papers

Rederiving human language *No papers.*

Metrics for emergent language Bogin et al. (2018); Bosc & Vincent (2022); Bosc (2022); Chaabouni et al. (2020; 2022); Denamganai et al. (2023); Guo et al. (2021; 2020); Korbak et al. (2020; 2021); Łukasz Kuciński et al. (2020); Lowe et al. (2019); Mu & Goodman (2021); Perkins (2021a); Resnick et al. (2020); Thomas & Saad (2022); Tucker et al. (2022b); Verma & Dhar (2019); van der Wal et al. (2020); Yao et al. (2022)

Theoretical models Boldt & Mortensen (2022b;a); Eeche et al. (2023); Khomtchouk & Sudhakaran (2018); Ren et al. (2020); Resnick et al. (2020); Rita et al. (2022b); Tucker et al. (2022b)

Tooling Denamganai & Walker (2020b); Ikram et al. (2021); Kharitonov et al. (2019); Perkins (2021b)

Synthetic language data Dessì et al. (2021); Downey et al. (2022); Li et al. (2020); Mu et al. (2023); Santamaría-Pang et al. (2019); Steinert-Threlkeld et al. (2022); Yao et al. (2022)

Multi-agent communication Bullard et al. (2021; 2020); Chen et al. (2022); Cope & Schoots (2021); Karten et al. (2023); Li et al. (2022); Mahaut et al. (2023); Masquil et al. (2022); Mul et al. (2019); Piazza & Behzadan (2023); Thomas & Saad (2022); Tucker et al. (2021); Wang et al. (2022); Xiang et al. (2023)

Interacting with humans Hagiwara et al. (2021); Karten et al. (2022c); Li et al. (2022); Mihai & Hare (2021a); Tucker et al. (2021; 2022a)

Explainable machine learning models Chowdhury et al. (2020b;c;a); Santamaria-Pang et al. (2020)

Language, cognition, and perception Bouchacourt & Baroni (2018); Chaabouni et al. (2021); Choi et al. (2018); Cowen-Rivers & Naradowsky (2020); Dekker & De Boer (2020); Denamganai et al. (2023); Dessì et al. (2021); Feng et al. (2023); Grupen et al. (2020); Hagiwara et al. (2021); Herrmann & VanDrunen (2022); Kågebäck et al. (2018); Lazaridou et al. (2018); Mahaut et al. (2023); Ohmer et al. (2021b); Masquil et al. (2022); Mihai & Hare (2021b); Ohmer et al. (2021a); Ossenkopf et al. (2022); Patel et al. (2021); Piazza & Behzadan (2023); Portelance et al. (2021); Sabathiel et al. (2022); Todo & Yamamura (2020); Yuan et al. (2021; 2020); Zubek et al. (2023)

Origin of language Chaabouni et al. (2020); Cogswell et al. (2019); Dagan et al. (2020); Dekker & De Boer (2020); Galke et al. (2022); Grossi & Ross (2017); Grupen et al. (2021); LaCroix (2019); Moulin-Frier & Oudeyer (2020); Ohmer et al. (2021a); Ren et al. (2020)

Language change Dekker & De Boer (2020); Graesser et al. (2019)

Language acquisition Cope & McBurney (2022); Kharitonov & Baroni (2020); Korbak et al. (2019; 2021); Li & Bowling (2019); Portelance et al. (2021)

Linguistic variables, phonology (focused) Eloff et al. (2021); Lan et al. (2020)

Linguistic variables, phonology (related) Eloff et al. (2021); Lan et al. (2020); Verma & Dhar (2019)

Linguistic variables, morphology (focused) *No papers.*

Linguistic variables, morphology (related) Mihai & Hare (2021a)

Linguistic variables, syntax (focused) Chaabouni et al. (2019b); Ueda et al. (2022); van der Wal et al. (2020)

Linguistic variables, syntax (related) Bosc & Vincent (2022); Chaabouni et al. (2019b); Resnick et al. (2020); Słowik et al. (2020b); Ueda et al. (2022); van der Wal et al. (2020)

Linguistic variables, semantics (focused) Chaabouni et al. (2019a; 2021); Kågebäck et al. (2018); Luna et al. (2020); Rita et al. (2020); Steinert-Threlkeld (2019)

Linguistic variables, semantics (related) Bosc & Vincent (2022); Bouchacourt & Baroni (2019); Chaabouni et al. (2020; 2019a; 2021); Cope & Schoots (2021); Dessi et al. (2019); Garcia et al. (2022); Grupen et al. (2020); Guo et al. (2021; 2020); Guo (2019b); Guo et al. (2019); Herrmann & VanDrunen (2022); Kågebäck et al. (2018); Kharitonov & Baroni (2020); Kharitonov et al. (2020); Khomtchouk & Sudhakaran (2018); Korbak et al. (2019); Kågebäck (2018); Lazaridou et al. (2016); Lin et al. (2021); Luna et al. (2020); Ohmer et al. (2021b); Mihai & Hare (2021b; 2019); Mu & Goodman (2021); Ohmer et al. (2021a); Portelance et al. (2021); Qiu et al. (2021); Rita et al. (2020); Sabathiel et al. (2022); Steinert-Threlkeld (2019); Słowik et al. (2020a); Tucker et al. (2021; 2022b;b); Unger & Bruni (2020); Yu et al. (2022); Zhang et al. (2019); Zubek et al. (2023)

Linguistic variables, compositionality (focused) *No papers.*

Linguistic variables, compositionality (related) Auersperger & Pecina (2022); Bogin et al. (2018); Bosc & Vincent (2022); Bosc (2022); Chaabouni et al. (2020; 2022); Chen et al. (2023); Choi et al. (2018); Cogswell et al. (2019); Denamganai & Walker (2020a); Denamganai et al. (2023); Galke et al. (2022); Garcia et al. (2022); Guo et al. (2020); Guo (2019b); Guo et al. (2019); Havrylov & Titov (2017); Hazra et al. (2021; 2020); Karten & Sycara (2022); Keresztury & Bruni (2020); Kharitonov & Baroni (2020); Korbak et al. (2021); Kottur et al. (2017); Łukasz Kuciński et al. (2021; 2020); LaCroix (2019); Lan et al. (2020); Lazaridou et al. (2018); Li & Bowling (2019); Liang et al. (2020); Luna et al. (2020); Mordatch & Abbeel (2018); Ohmer et al. (2022; 2021a); Perkins (2021a); Ren et al. (2020); Resnick et al. (2020); Rita et al. (2022a;b); Steinert-Threlkeld (2020); Słowik et al. (2020b); Thomas & Saad (2022); Ueda et al. (2022); Xu et al. (2022); Todo & Yamamura (2020)

Linguistic variables, pragmatics (focused) Kang et al. (2020)

Linguistic variables, pragmatics (related) Blumenkamp & Prorok (2020); Bouchacourt & Baroni (2019); Bullard et al. (2021; 2020); Cao et al. (2018); Eccles et al. (2019); Evtimova et al. (2017); Kalinowska et al. (2022b;a); Kang et al. (2020); Karten et al. (2023); Kolb et al. (2019); Leni et al. (2018); Lipinski et al. (2022); Lowe et al. (2019); Masquil et al. (2022); Mordatch & Abbeel (2018); Noukhovitch et al. (2021); Ossenkopf et al. (2022); Ossenkopf (2019); Piazza & Behzadan (2023); Yu et al. (2022); Yuan et al. (2020)

Linguistic variables, sociolinguistics (focused) Dekker & De Boer (2020); Fulker et al. (2022); Graesser et al. (2019); Kim (2021)

Linguistic variables, sociolinguistics (related) Dekker & De Boer (2020); Fitzgerald (2019); Fulker et al. (2022); Galke et al. (2022); Graesser et al. (2019); Grupen et al. (2022); Gupta & Dukkipati (2019); Kim (2021); Li & Bowling (2019); Liang et al. (2020); Rita et al. (2022a)

No applications Boldt & Mortensen (2022c); Brandizzi et al. (2021); Carmeli et al. (2022); Foguelman et al. (2021); Gaya (2017); Guo (2019a); Gupta et al. (2020); Hagiwara et al. (2019); Kajić et al. (2020); Karch et al. (2022); Karten et al. (2022a;b); Lannelongue et al. (2019); Lazaridou & Baroni (2020); Lee et al. (2018); Lipowska & Lipowski (2018); Yat Long Lo (2022); Lo & Sengupta (2022); Lowe et al. (2020); Nevens et al. (2020); Nicolo'Brandizzi & Iocchi (2022); Raviv et al. (2022); Sirota et al. (2019); Taniguchi et al. (2022); Wang et al. (2021); Wieczorek et al. (2023)