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Is symmetry inference an essential component of language?

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17 language evolution

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19 Summary:

- 20 Symmetry inference, i.e. spontaneously deriving the stimulus association B-A from
- A-B, was recently reported in preverbal infants (Kabdebon & Dehaene-Lambertz,
- 22 2019) and regarded as a "building block for human cognition". Here we argue that
- 23 empirical evidence supporting this claim is insufficient, and that absence of
- symmetry inference in non-human animals should be reassessed.

25 Main Text

Bidirectional associations are a central feature of human language, as they 26 permit a flexible and interchangeable use between spoken, written or sign words, 27 and representations of the objects referred to. For example, one can both think 28 about a dog upon hearing 'dog', and say 'dog' upon thinking about one. While such 29 symmetrical associations are easily conceived as arising from a bidirectional 30 training, as happens when parents repeatedly name and show a given object to a 31 32 child, human adults or children trained on successive stimulus pairings A-B have been reported to spontaneously derive the reversed, untrained relations B-A, i.e. 33 to infer bidirectional associations from unidirectional ones (e.g. Sidman et al., 34 35 1982). This capacity, called symmetry inference, has proved highly difficult to demonstrate experimentally in non-human animals (e.g. Medam, Marzouki, 36 Montant, & Fagot, 2016) and could thus be unique to people. Such findings have 37 38 raised strong interest as to the potential necessity of symmetry inference for 39 language to develop, making it the marker of a potential discontinuity between human and non-human behavior. 40

However, because symmetry inference means disregarding the order of elements that are associated, one can argue that such propensity can be detrimental, as it may break naturally occurring causal regularities and induce maladaptive behaviors. In this view, it is expected that non-human animals do not show symmetry inference, and surprising that humans do; such cognitive bias in humans might simply emerge together with language development, as a byproduct of our constant use of bidirectional associations.

A strong argument in favor of symmetry inference being required for 48 language would be to find it in preverbal humans. A recent PNAS article 49 (Kabdebon & Dehaene-Lambertz, 2019) has reported such results. Using EEG 50 recordings, the authors tested the ability of 5-month-old infants to abstract 51 representations from patterns of trisyllabic spoken non-sense words (e.g. 'ba-ke-52 tu') and associate these representations with visual or auditory labels (e.g. a lion 53 picture). In their critical Experiment 3, upon testing 34 infants with reversed pairs, 54 i.e. presenting them with label-pattern pairs after a pattern-label training, the 55 56 authors observed different brain activities depending on whether reversed pairs were consistent or inconsistent with initial pairings. They interpret this as evidence 57 that infants expected the second stimuli (the patterns) consistently with training, 58 59 meaning that they had inferred symmetrical associations from unidirectional ones. The authors view this ability as 'a foundational operation for any symbolic system', 60 and, arguing that other animals do not have it, they suggest that it constitutes 'a 61 62 building block for human cognition and notably language development, distinguishing humans from non-humans. We would like to argue that both 63 arguments supporting this claim, namely that preverbal humans can infer 64 symmetry, and that non-humans cannot, are insufficiently grounded. 65

66 First, the data interpretation in their study is certainly debatable. Contrary to 67 their claim, a careful inspection of the experimental design reveals that the trained 68 associations were already bidirectional and consequently, infants did not need to

infer symmetry. The flaw, present in all three experiments, was two-fold. During 69 the training period, infants were not exposed to well separated pattern-label pairs, 70 but with a regularly alternating sequence of word patterns and labels. Indeed, and 71 surprisingly, the inter-trial stimulus interval (ITI = 733 ms) was comparable to the 72 within-trial stimulus interval (980 ms). Consequently, infants experienced a similar 73 temporal contiguity for the backward associations label-pattern between two 74 consecutive pairs as for the forward associations pattern-label of each pair, and 75 had the opportunity to learn both types of relations. The artificial separation of trials 76 by a distracting visual stimulus (the blinking eyes) could not prevent such learning 77 from taking place, as infants are known to be particularly sensitive to statistical 78 79 structure in temporal sequences. This need not have been a problem, had a given label not systematically been followed by the same word pattern. Yet, precisely 80 this happened, as pairs were repeated in 12 consecutive trials (see their 81 82 Supplementary Material p.5). To illustrate, if one calls P and Q the word patterns and X and Y the labels, infants were effectively first exposed to PXPXPX...PX (12) 83 84 times) then QYQYQY...QY (12 times), i.e. almost as many reversed instances of the consistent pairs (XP and YQ, 11 times) as forward instances (PX and QY, 12 85 86 times). The subsequent randomized presentation of pairs was too brief to correct for the statistical structure already introduced: PX and QY each randomly 87 appearing 6 times yielded exposition to reversed consistent (XP and YQ) and 88 89 reversed inconsistent (XQ and YP) pairs, both on average 3 times, and at most 6. Consequently, not only were infants explicitly exposed to reversed pairs before 90 testing, but this happened with more consistent ones (around 14 times) than 91

Chartier & Rey – Symmetry inference

Page 5 of 7

inconsistent ones (around 3 times). Not surprisingly, when the test was performed 92 (Experiment 3), a differential brain response was detected between consistent and 93 inconsistent reversed pairings. The data thus only reveal a simultaneous learning 94 of several conditional associations and do not allow us to conclude that 5-month-95 old infants can infer symmetry. Adequate experiments would require a 96 familiarization phase with a longer ITI and a fully randomized presentation of pairs. 97 No other study, to our knowledge, has searched for symmetry inference in 98 preverbal humans, hence the important question of whether such capacity 99 develops before language use remains unanswered. To address it, investigations 100 in preverbal infants are crucial, because symmetry inference in verbal subjects is 101 102 easily accounted for in terms of verbal recoding. Since human subjects readily name experimental stimuli, the phonological loop is likely used, which naturally 103 transforms unidirectional associations into bidirectional ones. 104

105 Second, despite plentiful negative results, some words of caution are needed before asserting that symmetry inference is only observed in humans. A 106 107 familiarity with symmetry, as verbal humans always have, may simply be needed. 108 Indeed, one study including a symmetry training on a subset of stimulus pairs 109 revealed symmetry inference in a sea lion (Schusterman & Kastak, 1993). Besides, to our knowledge, symmetry inference in humans was never demonstrated with a 110 strictly unidirectional training. All studies (e.g. Sidman et al., 1982) have used 111 112 *identity training*, i.e. have included identical pairs A-A and B-B alongside arbitrary pairs A-B, to avoid the surprise effects of seeing items A and B in new ordinal 113 positions during the test with B-A. Adding such training in pigeons also yielded 114

Chartier & Rey – Symmetry inference

Page 6 of 7

evidence for symmetry inference (Frank & Wasserman, 2005). Hence, at least two 115 experimental conditions promote symmetry inference in non-humans, one of which 116 may even be required in humans. Furthermore, all studies so far have looked for 117 a spontaneous motor output exemplifying the reversed stimulus pairings. But it 118 might be that animal subjects do infer symmetry, though for some reason they do 119 not show *explicit* signs of it. Consequently, *implicit* signatures of symmetry 120 inference, for example, a faster learning of reversed pairs compared to arbitrary 121 pairs, should also be looked for. The purported absence of symmetry inference in 122 non-human animals should thus be reassessed, with new comparative 123 experiments examining the influence of both symmetry training and identity training 124 125 on symmetry inference, and including implicit tests.

Clarifying both major questions – whether symmetry inference is found only 126 in humans and whether it develops before language - will lead to one of four 127 128 outcomes. 1) If it is indeed absent in non-humans and present in preverbal humans, as speculated in the PNAS study, then it could constitute a key 129 130 prerequisite for language. Yet, proving that it is required would still be difficult, as 131 one would typically need to somehow suppress this ability and show that language 132 development is impaired. 2) If both non-humans and preverbal humans can infer symmetry, then it could still represent a crucial, though not sufficient, building block 133 of language. 3) If symmetry inference is unique to humans and develops only after 134 135 language, it would simply be a bias stemming from language, allowing for logically

136	wrong inferences. 4) If instead it is shared with non-humans, though this is less			
137	likely, it would be a capacity independent of language.			
138	Finally, it is probably important to distinguish between inferential and			
139	processing abilities. Non-human animals may be unable to infer reverse			
140	associations they have not experienced, while nevertheless using bidirectional			
141	associations which they would learn through simultaneous stimulus exposure, i.e.			
142	through bidirectional, not unidirectional training.			
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