

Non-equilibrium and Irreversible Simulation of Competition among Languages

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Abstract: The bit-string model of Schulze and Stauffer (2005) is applied to non-equilibrium situations and then gives better agreement with the empirical distribution of language sizes. Here the size is the number of people having this language as mother tongue. In contrast, when equilibrium is combined with irreversible mutations of languages, one language always dominates and is spoken by at least 80 percent of the population.

Keywords: linguistics, size distribution, nonequilibrium, Monte Carlo simulation

1 Introduction

Computer simulations of languages have a long tradition [1, 2], particularly for the learning of one language [3, 4]. More recent is the simulation of the extinction of old and the emergence of new languages [5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. To explain the coexistence of 10^4 present human languages, the bit-string model of Schulze and Stauffer [13], continued in [14], is particularly convenient for simulation since with 8 or 16 bits it simulates $2^8 = 256$ or $2^{16} = 65536$ different languages (or different grammars). Also the model of de Oliveira et al [12] allows for numerous languages, but does not allow for the distinction of equilibrium from non-equilibrium which the present note concentrates on.

One of the open questions of linguistics is, whether the present distribution of human languages (e.g. [15]) is similar to those of ancient past and distant future, or whether it merely presents a transition between a past multitude of languages and a future paucity: Every ten days on average a human language dies out, and in Brazil already half the indigenous languages were replaced during the last half millennium by Portuguese. On the other hand, national languages like Hebrew for Israel were resurrected, and Francophones in Quebec fight for the survival of their French as official language in all of Quebec. Moreover, a continuous, albeit slow, addition of languages takes place by the drifting apart of dialects.

We leave it to others to separate languages from dialects, and follow standard statistics [16], as cited in [15], for the present language sizes. The size s of a language is defined as the number of people speaking it as mother tongue, and varies from 10^9 for Mandarin Chinese down to 1 for the last surviving speaker of a dying language. The number n_s of languages with s speakers each follows roughly a log-normal distribution,

$$\log[n_s/n_{s_{\max}}] \propto -[\log(s) - \log(s_{\max})]^2 \quad ,$$

where s_{\max} is the language size which appears most often. This is an empirical observation, and our aim is to explain it through a microscopic model. In a double-logarithmic plot of $\log n_s$ versus $\log s$ such data follow a parabola with a maximum at s_{\max} . Sutherland [17] pointed out that for small sizes below 10 the observed number of languages is higher than the log-normal distribution, and our Fig.1 shows these data.

Past simulations of the bit-string model of Schulze and Stauffer [13] showed this desired log-normal distribution with upward deviations for the smallest sizes, but s seldomly exceeded 100 or 1000. The model of [12] gave much larger s but in our simulations gave two power laws instead of one log-normal distribution. We now try two modifications, of which one worked, in the next section.

2 Computer Model

The model symbolizes each language as a string of 16 bits, each of which can be up (1) or down (0) and may represent some important aspect of the grammar. Simulations with 8 to 64 bits, or with more than two choices for each grammatical feature, were also made but mostly gave qualitatively

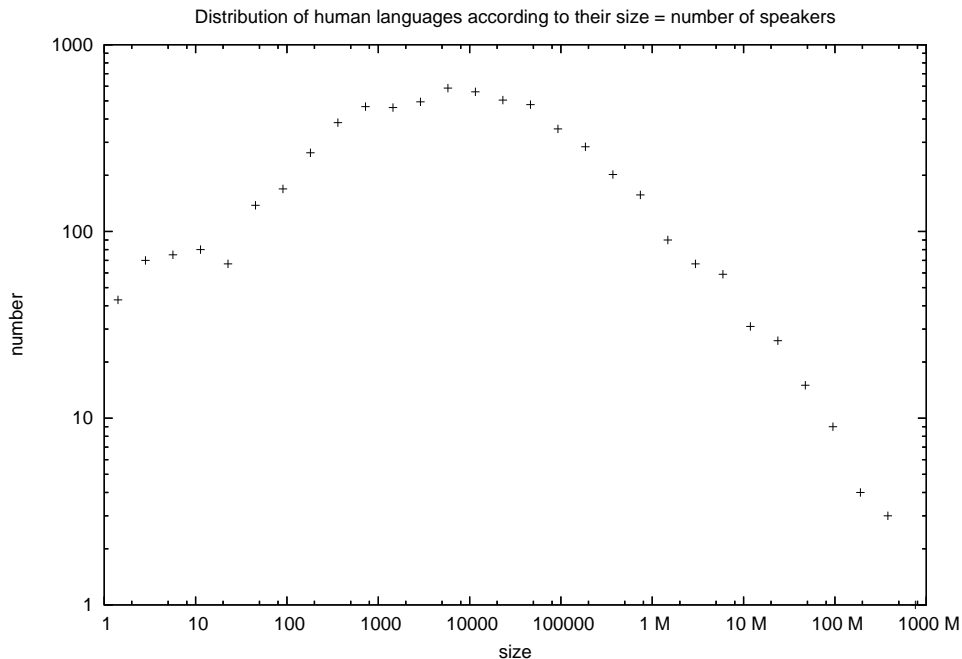


Figure 1: Size histogram n_s for human languages; this figure describes reality as summarized in the work of [16] on the number of people speaking a given language. We binned the sizes s by factors of two; for example, all languages with sizes from 64 to 127 were summed up into one data point. Binning by factors ten gives smoother data [17]. In these double-logarithmic plots a log-normal distribution forms a parabola.

similar results. Languages are defined as different if they differ in at least one bit.

At birth, the child adopts the mother tongue, apart from a possible modification ("mutation", reversal of one bit). Adults speaking a rare language may switch to a more widespread language. After a few hundred time steps a dynamic equilibrium is established where the deaths roughly cancel out the births and the size distribution no longer changes systematically. In this equilibrium we either have a dominance of one language spoken by at least 3/4 of the total population, or the fragmentation of the population into up to 65536 different languages of roughly equal sizes. The choice depends on parameters and initial conditions. More details are given in the appendix.

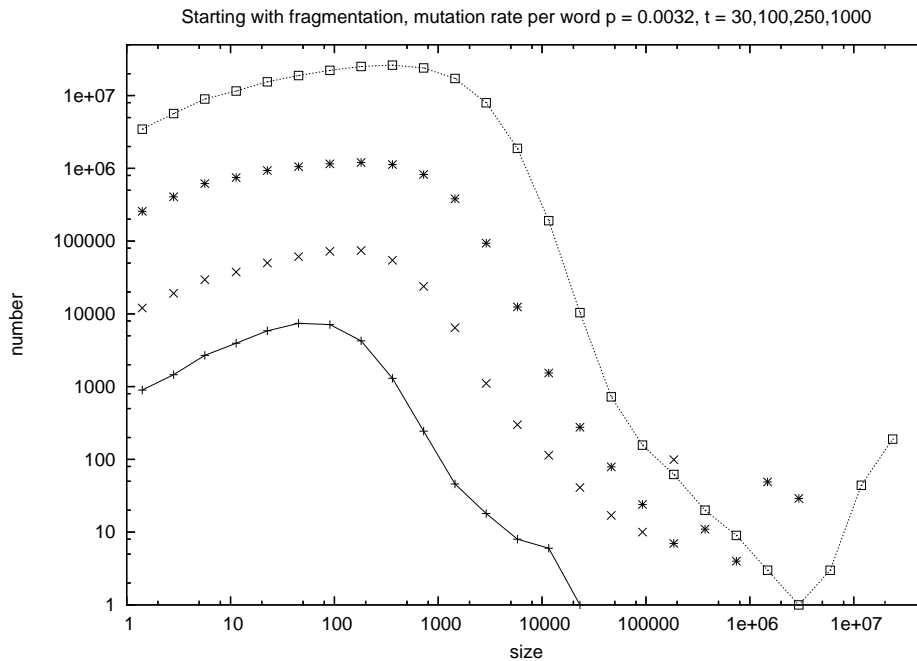


Figure 2: Double-logarithmic plot of n_s for population sizes 20,000, 0.2 million, 2 million and 20 million (from left to right), various times t (= numbers of iterations) increasing with population size, and a mutation rate of 0.0002 per bit. We start with a random (fragmented) distribution of languages. Here and later we usually sum over ten simulations. Histograms with 8 instead of 16 bits were similar.

One time step or iteration means that each individual is updated once: switching languages, giving birth, dying. In a comparison with reality, an "individual" may correspond to a whole line of ancestors and offspring since one iteration may correspond to several centuries for the present mutation rates. A proper scaling of probabilities in order to allow one iteration to correspond to arbitrary time intervals still needs to be done.

Modification A is very simple: "Irreversibility". Bits may be changed from 0 to 1 but never from 1 to 0. In this case, language 1111111111111111 (i.e. all 16 bits set to 1) plays a special role since it never changes. Languages rarely change from state A to state B and then back again. For some phenomena this may happen, e.g., word order, but irreversibility is more

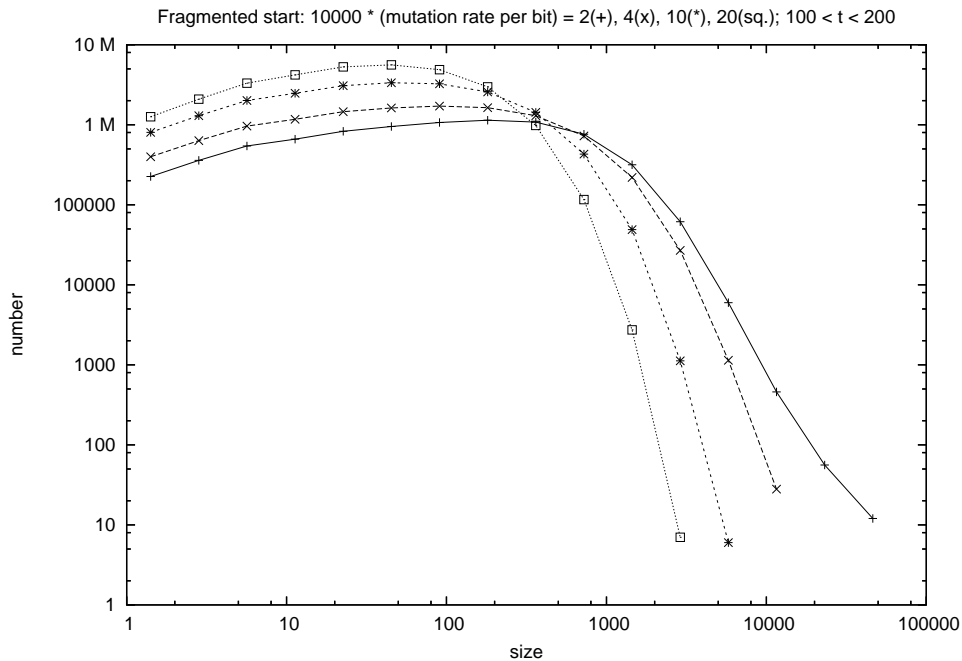


Figure 3: Double-logarithmic plot of n_s for 2 million people, summing up all 100 times between 101 and 200 iterations, and various mutation rates. For increasing mutation rate the distribution shifts to the left.

common, for instance as concerns phonological changes.

Modification B is "Nonequilibrium with noise". We look not at the late times of equilibrium but at the earlier times, and average over an extended time interval which includes the transition from fragmentation to dominance, or from dominance to fragmentation. Now we have one more important parameter, the observation time, and we adjust it such that the results approximate a log-normal distribution.

Noise is included as random multiplicative: At each iteration, each language size s is ten times multiplied by a factor selected randomly between 0.9 and 1.1, with different factors for each of the ten different multiplications. This noise incorporates changing pressures to use various languages, for for example as caused by changes in birth rates, migrations, ethnic intermarriage, etc.

In both cases we select the initial population such that apart from minor

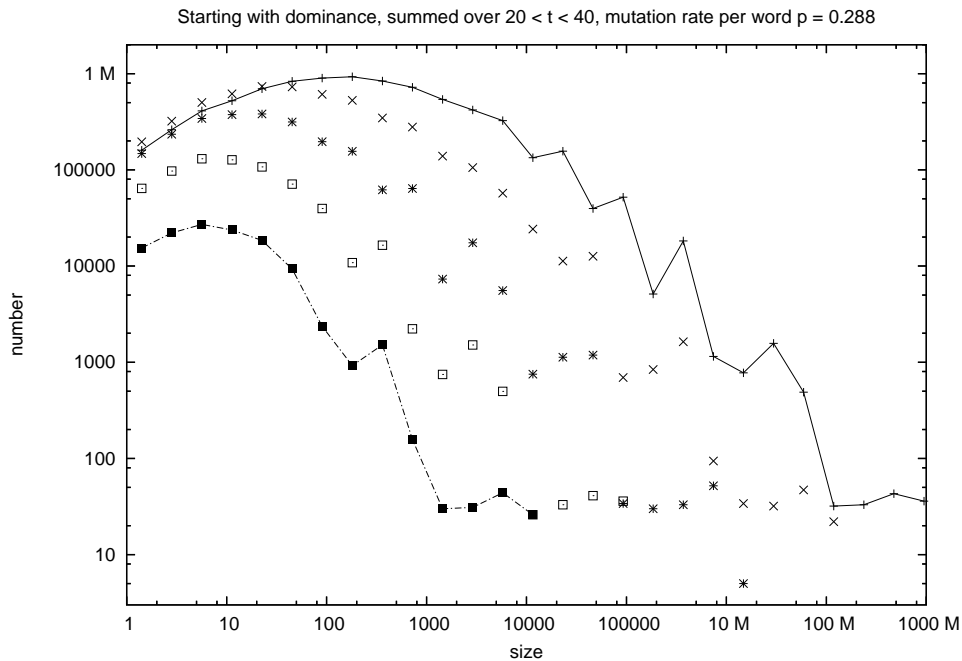


Figure 4: Double-logarithmic plot of n_s for 0.02, 0.2, 2, 20 and 200 million people from left to right, mutation rate 0.018 per bit. In contrast to Figs.2 and 3 we start here with everybody speaking the same language.

fluctuations it agrees with the equilibrium population.

3 Results

Modification A (irreversibility) always resulted in dominance even if we started with fragmentation, also with 8 instead of 16 bits. Depending on the mutation probability, the end result was everybody speaking the same language (usually the one with all bits set to 1), or with between 80 and 100 percent of the people speaking one language and the others distributed among many other languages. None of these two choices is what we want: Mandarin Chinese is spoken by only one sixth of the human population.

Modification B (non-equilibrium with noise) gave Fig.2 if we start with fragmentation: The whole population is randomly distributed among the 65536 languages. For increasing population size we get larger languages and

better results, but the shape of the curves does not change much. Figure 3 shows for two million people the rather minor effects of changing mutation rates, between 0.0002 and 0.002 per bit or 0.0032 and 0.032 per bit-string. The tails at the right end depend strongly on when we stopped the simulation and are anyhow far below the numbers (relative to the maximum) seen in reality, Fig.1.

If we start with dominance, i.e. everybody speaks language zero, we need a larger mutation rate to get fragmentation; Fig.4 shows again log-normal distributions for various total population sizes, but now the left part near the maximum looks like the corresponding right part near the maximum. Reality, Fig.1, shows enhanced numbers in the left part, and this left-right asymmetry is visible in Figs.2 and 3, not in Fig.4. Thus while Figs.2 and 3 may correspond to the present shrinking of language diversity, Fig.4 may average over the times shortly before and after the biblical story of the Tower of Babel.

4 Conclusion

Figure 2 for modification B shows that with non-equilibrium and random multiplicative noise we got the desired roughly log-normal distribution with an enhanced number of languages for small sizes, just as in present reality, Fig.1. This is an argument in favor of regarding the present language sizes as a transient phenomenon between past fragmentation and future dominance. But since it is only a computer model, it does not prove that in the future everybody will speak Mandarin Chinese and its mutants.

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5 Appendix: The old bit-string model

Our simulation model in general is based on three probabilities p, q, r for change, for transfer, and for flight from small languages. A language (perhaps better: a grammar) is defined as a chain of F features ($4 \leq F \leq 64$) each of which can take one of Q different values $1, 2, \dots, Q$ with $2 \leq Q \leq 10$. The binary case $Q = 2$ allows memory-saving representation as bit-strings, particularly if $F = 8, 16, 32$ or 64 . In the present paper we use only $F =$

16, $Q = 2$, storing the whole "language" in one two-byte computer word. When a child is born, with probability p its language differs from that of the mother (fathers are assumed not to help in rearing children and are thus neglected) on one randomly selected position where the bit is changed with probability q and is taken from the corresponding bit of a randomly selected other person with probability $1 - q$. In the present paper we set the transfer probability q to zero: No language learns from other languages.

Finally, speakers of small languages switch with a probability r to the language of a randomly selected other person (which usually is a widespread language); this r is quadratic in the fraction of people speaking a language since a language is mostly used for communication between two people. If x_i is the fraction of people speaking language i , then $r = (1 - x_i)^2$, $r = 1 - x_i^2$ and $r = 0.9(1 - x_i^2)$ have been used; the present paper uses $1 - x_i^2$ if we start with everybody speaking the same language, and $(1 - x_i)^2$ if the initial population is distributed randomly among the 65536 possible languages.

Each person gives birth to one child per iteration, and dies with a Verhulst probability proportional to the current total number $N(t)$ of people, due to lack of space and food. In the present paper we start with the same population which for the given Verhulst probability is already the equilibrium population N_0 . If instead one starts with only one person, the flight probability r is reduced by a factor $N(t)/N_0$ since for low population densities the selection pressure on languages is weaker [2]. We averaged the numbers n_s of language sizes over the second half of the simulation.

A complete program with description is published in [18]; the present programs are available by e-mail as language35.f and language36.f.

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