

Lying with a kernel of truth: propaganda with generics

Robert van Rooij

Institute for Logic, Language and Computation

Amsterdam

Lying with a kernel of truth: propaganda with generics

Robert van Rooij

Institute for Logic, Language and Computation

Amsterdam



Persuasion and Propaganda by indirect communication

- People are persuaded to do things that go against their better interests
- They would have never been persuaded if they saw through this
- Successful propaganda makes heavy use of **indirect communication, weak truth conditions + strong pragmatics** using biases of audience
- Politicians (well, the successful ones) know this very well
- **Claim:** The use of **generic sentences** is an excellent rhetorical tool

Persuasion and Propaganda by indirect communication

- People are persuaded to do things that go against their better interests
- They would have never been persuaded if they saw through this
- Successful propaganda makes heavy use of **indirect communication, weak truth conditions + strong pragmatics** using biases of audience
- Politicians (well, the successful ones) know this very well
- **Claim:** The use of **generic sentences** is an excellent rhetorical tool
Birds fly, Dogs bark, Rubber stretches, John is a smoker

Generics and Political Rhetorics

Generics and Political Rhetorics

- Mexicans are rapists says Trump

Generics and Political Rhetorics

- Mexicans are rapists says Trump
- Trump-supporters are deplorable says Clinton

Generics and Political Rhetorics

- Mexicans are rapists says Trump
- Trump-supporters are deplorable says Clinton
- Hillary is a liar says Trump

Generics and Political Rhetorics

- Mexicans are rapists says Trump
- Trump-supporters are deplorable says Clinton
- Hillary is a liar says Trump
- We have a gigantic problem with Muslims
Wilders, Volkskrant, 7-10-2006

Generics and Political Rhetorics

- Mexicans are rapists says Trump
- Trump-supporters are deplorable says Clinton
- Hillary is a liar says Trump
- We have a gigantic problem with Muslims
Wilders, Volkskrant, 7-10-2006
- PVV-voters are racist says the RSM

Is the use of generics lying?

- Many/some uses of propagandic generics are not obvious lies
- Most importantly,
 - ➊ they work(ed)
 - ➋ Although they are misleading

Questions to be addressed

- ① What is semantics of generics?
- ② What is strong pragmatics that makes them misleading?
and where does this come from?

Questions to be addressed

- ① What is semantics of generics?

It has something to do with **typicality**

- ② What is strong pragmatics that makes them misleading?
and where does this come from?

cognitive limitations

From cooperative pragmatics to rhetorics

- Standard Pragmatics: well-studied, but limited
- based on Gricean cooperativity
- Assumption: people are only interested in truth
- Most talk: less idealistic
- Game theory, as the theory of rational interaction, seems to be ideal for this.

Persuasion and decision problems

- You face a decision problem: $\langle S, P, A, u \rangle$

S : states

P : probability over states

A : actions to choose

u utility function

- I know the actual state better, and I have a preference over what *you* choose.
- Persuasion: influence you in my favor by communication.
- Involves actions of speaker and hearer: game theory.

When credible communication?

-

	P	a	b
t_1	0.4	1	0
t_2	0.1	0	1.2
t_3	0.3	1	0
t_4	0.2	0	1.2

When credible communication?

- | | P | a | b |
|-------|-----|-----|-----|
| t_1 | 0.4 | 1 | 0 |
| t_2 | 0.1 | 0 | 1.2 |
| t_3 | 0.3 | 1 | 0 |
| t_4 | 0.2 | 0 | 1.2 |

- H prefers a , because this has the highest expected utility

When credible communication?

-

	P	a	b
t_1	0.4	1,1	0,0
t_2	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
t_3	0.3	0,1	1,0
t_4	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

- H prefers a , because this has the highest expected utility
- in the actual situation, t_3 , S prefers b

When credible communication?

-

	P	a	b
t_1	0.4	1,1	0,0
t_2	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
t_3	0.3	0,1	1,0
t_4	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

- H prefers a , because this has the highest expected utility
- in the actual situation, t_3 , S prefers b
- Suppose speaker is known to know true state.

When credible communication?

-

	P	a	b
t_1	0.4	1,1	0,0
t_2	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
t_3	0.3	0,1	1,0
t_4	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

- H prefers a , because this has the highest expected utility
- in the actual situation, t_3 , S prefers b
- Suppose speaker is known to know true state.
- If no constraint on truth, ' $\{t_4\}$ ' is **not credible**, thus not believed.

When credible communication?

- | | P | a | b |
|-------|-----|-----|---------|
| t_1 | 0.4 | 1,1 | 0,0 |
| t_2 | 0.1 | 0,0 | 1.2,1.2 |
| t_3 | 0.3 | 0,1 | 1,0 |
| t_4 | 0.2 | 0,0 | 1.2,1.2 |

- H prefers a , because this has the highest expected utility
- in the actual situation, t_3 , S prefers b
- Suppose speaker is known to know true state.
- If no constraint on truth, ' $\{t_4\}$ ' is **not credible**, thus not believed.
- If truth demanded, being more general

When credible communication?

	P	a	b
t_1	0.4	1,1	0,0
t_2	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
t_3	0.3	0,1	1,0
t_4	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

- H prefers a , because this has the highest expected utility
- in the actual situation, t_3 , S prefers b
- Suppose speaker is known to know true state.
- If no constraint on truth, ' $\{t_4\}$ ' is **not credible**, thus not believed.
- If truth demanded, being more general
 - ' $\{t_3, t_4\}$ ' but H will still do a .
 - ' $\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}$ ' would result in b , but **not credible**

Problem

- If it is common knowledge what is hearer's decision problem,
- it is clear what the speaker's preferences are,
- and both are perfectly rational,
(all these assumptions are made in standard game theory)
- Then, **persuasion** is predicted as **incredible**, if preferences not aligned.
(Unraveling): hearer will see through the intention of the speaker

Problem

- If it is common knowledge what is hearer's decision problem,
- it is clear what the speaker's preferences are,
- and both are perfectly rational,
(all these assumptions are made in standard game theory)
- Then, **persuasion** is predicted as **incredible**, if preferences not aligned.
(Unraveling): hearer will see through the intention of the speaker
- **Challenge:** How to predict that persuasion can also now be credible?
to understand that people also communicate in these circumstances. **How can propaganda work?**

Natural solutions

Natural solutions

- Less common knowledge than usually assumed.
- Hearers make reasoning mistakes because of cognitively limitations and speakers make use of that

Natural solutions

- Less common knowledge than usually assumed.
 - e.g. hearer does not know speaker's preferences
 - Hearer is unaware of set of actions speaker can take
- Hearers make reasoning mistakes because of cognitively limitations and speakers make use of that

Natural solutions

- Less common knowledge than usually assumed.
 - e.g. hearer does not know speaker's preferences
 - Hearer is unaware of set of actions speaker can take
- Hearers make reasoning mistakes because of cognitively limitations and speakers make use of that
 - do not see 'see through' enough levels of intentions of others

Natural solutions

- Less common knowledge than usually assumed.
 - e.g. hearer does not know speaker's preferences
 - Hearer is unaware of set of actions speaker can take
- Hearers make reasoning mistakes because of cognitively limitations and speakers make use of that
 - do not see 'see through' enough levels of intentions of others
 - Cognitive biases

Natural solutions

- Less common knowledge than usually assumed.
 - e.g. hearer does not know speaker's preferences
 - Hearer is unaware of set of actions speaker can take
- Hearers make reasoning mistakes because of cognitively limitations and speakers make use of that
 - do not see 'see through' enough levels of intentions of others
 - Cognitive biases
- To account for cognitive biases
 - Tversky & Kahneman & others (1970-1990s): alternatives to probability & decision theory
 - More recently: try to incorporate biases within standard theories

Some biases

- Judgment heuristic: an informal (but adaptive) algorithm which generates an approximate answer to a problem. It speeds up cognition, but it sometimes produces errors (biases).

Some biases

- Judgment heuristic: an informal (but adaptive) algorithm which generates an approximate answer to a problem. It speeds up cognition, but it sometimes produces errors (biases).
- Tversky & Kahneman e.o: for judgements and decisionmaking:

Some biases

- Judgment heuristic: an informal (but adaptive) algorithm which generates an approximate answer to a problem. It speeds up cognition, but it sometimes produces errors (biases).
- Tversky & Kahneman e.o: for judgements and decisionmaking:
 - ① Representiveness bias
 - ② Availability bias
 - ③ Causality bias
 - ④ Framing
 - ⑤ ...

Kahneman: Thinking, Fast and Slow thinking, **Systems 1** and **2**

Some biases

- Judgment heuristic: an informal (but adaptive) algorithm which generates an approximate answer to a problem. It speeds up cognition, but it sometimes produces errors (biases).
- Tversky & Kahneman e.o: for judgements and decisionmaking:
 - ① Representativeness bias
 - ② Availability bias
 - ③ Causality bias

Kahneman: Thinking, Fast and Slow thinking, **Systems 1** and **2**

- **Claim:** The first three important for the persuasive use of generics

Some biases

- Judgment heuristic: an informal (but adaptive) algorithm which generates an approximate answer to a problem. It speeds up cognition, but it sometimes produces errors (biases).
- Tversky & Kahneman e.o: for judgements and decisionmaking:
 - ① Representativeness bias
 - ② Availability bias
 - ③ Causality bias

Kahneman: Thinking, Fast and Slow thinking, **Systems 1** and **2**

- **Claim:** The first three important for the persuasive use of generics
- (Note: Bayesians try to account for biases as well. Making use of noise, and limited memory. We will see, this is not so different)

Representiveness

Conjunction fallacy

Linda is a young woman who is a stereotypical leftist, and in particular was a college activist.

Which alternative is more probable?

- Linda is a bankteller
- Linda is a bankteller and a feminist.

Although $P(BT/--) \geq P(BT \wedge F/--)$, many subjects say otherwise.

Tversky and Kahneman: Linda is more similar to, or representative for, a feminist bankteller than for a bankteller.

We will analyse representativeness i.t.o. **contingency** between c and e

What is contingency?

- Pavlov (1920ties): conditioning i.t.o. co-occurrence

What is contingency?

- Pavlov (1920ties): conditioning i.t.o. co-occurrence
- Rescorla (1968): Rats learn a Tone → Shock **association** so long as the frequency of shocks following the tone is higher than the frequency of shocks experienced otherwise **Contingency** ΔP_{tone}^{sh}
- $\Delta P_t^{sh} = P(sh/t) - P(sh/\neg t)$. This is $P(sh/t)$, if $P(sh/\neg t) = 0$

What is contingency?

- Pavlov (1920ties): conditioning i.t.o. co-occurrence
- Rescorla (1968): Rats learn a Tone → Shock **association** so long as the frequency of shocks following the tone is higher than the frequency of shocks experienced otherwise **Contingency** $\Delta P_{\text{tone}}^{\text{sh}}$
- $\Delta P_t^{\text{sh}} = P(\text{sh}/t) - P(\text{sh}/\neg t)$. This is $P(\text{sh}/t)$, if $P(\text{sh}/\neg t) = 0$
- the strength of the association is greater the more intense the shocks

What is contingency?

- Pavlov (1920ties): conditioning i.t.o. co-occurrence
- Rescorla (1968): Rats learn a Tone → Shock **association** so long as the frequency of shocks following the tone is higher than the frequency of shocks experienced otherwise **Contingency** $\Delta P_{\text{tone}}^{\text{sh}}$
- $\Delta P_t^{\text{sh}} = P(\text{sh}/t) - P(\text{sh}/\neg t)$. This is $P(\text{sh}/t)$, if $P(\text{sh}/\neg t) = 0$
- the strength of the association is greater the more intense the shocks
- Thus a rat responds with fear to a tone even when 90% of the time this is the wrong response as long as
 - the shocks without tone occur less frequently, and
 - the cost of error (wasted **fear**) is less than cost of being unexpectedly shocked

What is contingency?

- Pavlov (1920ties): conditioning i.t.o. co-occurrence
- Rescorla (1968): Rats learn a Tone → Shock **association** so long as the frequency of shocks following the tone is higher than the frequency of shocks experienced otherwise **Contingency** $\Delta P_{\text{tone}}^{\text{sh}}$
- $\Delta P_t^{\text{sh}} = P(\text{sh}/t) - P(\text{sh}/\neg t)$. This is $P(\text{sh}/t)$, if $P(\text{sh}/\neg t) = 0$
- the strength of the association is greater the more intense the shocks
- Thus a rat responds with fear to a tone even when 90% of the time this is the wrong response as long as
 - the shocks without tone occur less frequently, and
 - the cost of error (wasted **fear**) is less than cost of being unexpectedly shocked
- Gluck & Bower (1988): humans behave similarly

A technical note

- $\Delta P_Q^f > 0$ iff $\frac{P(f/Q)}{P(f/\neg Q)} > 1$ iff $P(f/Q) > P(f)$ iff $P(Q/f) > P(Q)$
- Bayes rule: $P(Q/f) = \frac{P(f/Q) \times P(Q)}{P(f)}$ $P(\neg Q/f) = \frac{P(f/\neg Q) \times P(\neg Q)}{P(f)}$
- $\frac{P(Q/f)}{P(\neg Q/f)} = \frac{P(f/Q)}{P(f/\neg Q)} \times \frac{P(Q)}{P(\neg Q)}$
- $\frac{P(Q/f)}{P(\neg Q/f)} > \frac{P(Q/g)}{P(\neg Q/g)}$ iff $\frac{P(f/Q)}{P(f/\neg Q)} > \frac{P(g/Q)}{P(g/\neg Q)}$
- f is a good clue of Q iff Q is a good clue of f

Represent properties by salient features

Represent properties by salient features

- Represent properties i.t.o. salient features (**kernel of truth**)

Represent properties by salient features

- Represent properties i.t.o. salient features (**kernel of truth**)

	f_1	f_2	f_3	f_4	...
Q_1	x	y
Q_2	z	v
...

Represent properties by salient features

- Represent properties i.t.o. salient features (**kernel of truth**)

	f_1	f_2	f_3	f_4	...
Q_1	x	y
Q_2	z	v
...

- Represent Q_1 by feature $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q_1) - P(f/Q_2)$
Compared to its alternative (i.e. Q_2) there is a relatively high chance
that Q_1 has feature f , f is distinctive for Q_1

Represent properties with salient features

- Represent problem i.t.o. salient features (**kernel of truth**)

	f_1	f_2	f_3	f_4	...
Q_1	x	y
Q_2	z	v
...

- Represent Q_1 by feature $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q_1) - P(f/Q_2)$

$$r(Q_1) = f_1, \quad \text{iff } \frac{x}{x+y} - \frac{z}{z+v} > \frac{y}{x+y} - \frac{v}{z+v}$$

Represent properties with salient features

- Represent problem i.t.o. salient features (**kernel of truth**)

	f_1	f_2	f_3	f_4	...
Q_1	x	y
Q_2	z	v
...

- Represent Q_1 by feature $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q_1) - P(f/Q_2)$
 $r(Q_1) = f_1, \quad \text{iff } \frac{x}{x+y} - \frac{z}{z+v} > \frac{y}{x+y} - \frac{v}{z+v}$
- **Strong Generalization:** Confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q_1) - P(f/Q_2)$

Represent properties with salient features

- Represent problem i.t.o. salient features (**kernel of truth**)

	f_1	f_2	f_3	f_4	...
Q_1	x	y
Q_2	z	v
...

- Represent Q_1 by feature $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q_1) - P(f/Q_2)$
 $r(Q_1) = f_1, \quad \text{iff } \frac{x}{x+y} - \frac{z}{z+v} > \frac{y}{x+y} - \frac{v}{z+v}$
- Strong Generalization: Confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q_1) - P(f/Q_2)$
- x and v taken to be larger y and z taken smaller

When is it 'correct'?

- | | f_1 | f_2 |
|-------|-------|-------|
| Q_1 | 0.15 | 0.025 |
| Q_2 | 0.025 | 0.8 |

- $P^*(Q_1) = \frac{P(Q_1 \wedge f_1)}{P(Q \wedge f_1) + P(Q_2 \wedge f_2)} \approx P(Q_1)$
- Works well if $(Q_1 \wedge f_1) \vee (Q_2 \wedge f_2)$ covers most of state space.

When is it 'correct'?

- | | f_1 | f_2 |
|-------|-------|-------|
| Q_1 | 0.15 | 0.025 |
| Q_2 | 0.025 | 0.8 |

- $P^*(Q_1) = \frac{P(Q_1 \wedge f_1)}{P(Q \wedge f_1) + P(Q_2 \wedge f_2)} \approx P(Q_1)$
- Works well if $(Q_1 \wedge f_1) \vee (Q_2 \wedge f_2)$ covers most of state space.
- But can go wrong:

	unfamiliar	familiar
unqualified	0.52	0.026
qualified	0.43	0.024

When is it 'correct'?

- | | f_1 | f_2 |
|-------|-------|-------|
| Q_1 | 0.15 | 0.025 |
| Q_2 | 0.025 | 0.8 |

- $P^*(Q_1) = \frac{P(Q_1 \wedge f_1)}{P(Q \wedge f_1) + P(Q_2 \wedge f_2)} \approx P(Q_1)$
- Works well if $(Q_1 \wedge f_1) \vee (Q_2 \wedge f_2)$ covers most of state space.
- But can go wrong:

	unfamiliar	familiar
unqualified	0.52	0.026
qualified	0.43	0.024

- Although 'familiar' is representative for 'qualified', being familiar (with candidate) does hardly give any information about being qualified : bad representative

Conjunction fallacy

<i>Activist</i>	<i>F</i>	$\neg F$
<i>BT</i>	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$
$\neg BT$	$\frac{9}{20}$	$\frac{1}{20}$

- $P(\neg F/BT) - P(\neg F/\neg BT) > P(F/BT) - P(F/\neg BT)$
 $\Rightarrow r(BT) = \neg F_{BT}$
- But now $r(BT \wedge F) = BT \wedge F$
- $P(r(BT)) = P(BT \wedge \neg F) = \frac{1}{6}$
- $P(r(BT \wedge F)) = P(BT \wedge F) = \frac{1}{3}$

Our game again

Our game again

-

	P	a	b
t_1	0.4	1,1	0,0
t_2	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
t_3	0.3	0,1	1,0
t_4	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

Our game again

- | | P | a | b |
|-------|-----|-----|---------|
| t_1 | 0.4 | 1,1 | 0,0 |
| t_2 | 0.1 | 0,0 | 1.2,1.2 |
| t_3 | 0.3 | 0,1 | 1,0 |
| t_4 | 0.2 | 0,0 | 1.2,1.2 |

- ' $\{t_4\}$ ', ' $\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}$ ' not credible, and ' $\{t_3, t_4\}$ ' not desired effect .

Our game again

-

	P	a	b
$t_1 \neg Q$	0.4	1,1	0,0
$t_2 \neg Q$	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
$t_3 Q$	0.3	0,1	1,0
$t_4 Q$	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

	f_1	f_2
$\neg Q$	0.4	t_1
Q	0.3	t_3

- ' $\{t_4\}$ ', ' $\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}$ ' not credible, and ' $\{t_3, t_4\}$ ' not desired effect
- But now suppose that
 - ① $Q = \{t_3, t_4\}$ and
 - ② and $f_1 = \{t_1, t_3\}$ and $f_2 = \{t_2, t_4\}$

Our game again

	P	a	b
$t_1 \neg Q$	0.4	1,1	0,0
$t_2 \neg Q$	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
$t_3 Q$	0.3	0,1	1,0
$t_4 Q$	0.2	0,0	1.2,1.2

	f_1	f_2
$\neg Q$	0.4	t_1
Q	0.3	t_3

- ' $\{t_4\}$ ', ' $\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}$ ' not credible, and ' $\{t_3, t_4\}$ ' not desired effect
- But now suppose that

- ① $Q = \{t_3, t_4\}$ and
- ② and $f_1 = \{t_1, t_3\}$ and $f_2 = \{t_2, t_4\}$

- Hearer represents Q by f_2

because $\Delta_Q^{f_2} > \Delta_Q^{f_1}$

Our game again

	P	a	b
$t_1 \neg Q$	0.4	1,1	0,0
$t_2 \neg Q$	0.1	0,0	1.2,1.2
$t_3 Q$	0.2	0,1	1,0
$t_4 Q$	0.3	0,0	1.2,1.2

	f_1	f_2
$\neg Q$	0.4 t_1	0.1 t_2
Q	0.2 t_3	0.3 t_4

- ' $\{t_4\}$ ', ' $\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}$ ' not credible, and ' $\{t_3, t_4\}$ ' not desired effect
- But now suppose that
 - ① $Q = \{t_3, t_4\}$
 - ② and $f_1 = \{t_1, t_3\}$ and $f_2 = \{t_2, t_4\}$
- Hearer represents Q by f_2 because $\Delta_Q^{f_2} > \Delta_Q^{f_1}$
- Now saying ' Q ' has effect that $P(\{t_4\}) > P(\{t_3\})$, and b is done.
This is as desired by S , but bad for H \leadsto misleading

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.
- Two stages in analysis of rhetorical (mis)use of generics

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.
- Two stages in analysis of rhetorical (mis)use of generics
 - ① Relatively **weak kernel of truth** in terms of **representative features**.
(speaker is responsible for this)

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.
- Two stages in analysis of rhetorical (mis)use of generics
 - ① Relatively **weak kernel of truth** in terms of **representative features**. (speaker is responsible for this)
 - ② **Overgeneralisation:** Hearer confuses

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.
- Two stages in analysis of rhetorical (mis)use of generics
 - ① Relatively **weak kernel of truth** in terms of **representative features**. (speaker is responsible for this)
 - ② **Overgeneralisation:** Hearer confuses
 - ① most distinguishing feature ($\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)$), for

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.
- Two stages in analysis of rhetorical (mis)use of generics
 - ① Relatively **weak kernel of truth** in terms of **representative features**. (speaker is responsible for this)
 - ② **Overgeneralisation:** Hearer confuses
 - ① most distinguishing feature ($\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)$), for
 - ② most probable feature ($\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$)

Back to generics

- **Claim:** The rhetorical (mis)use of generics is based on the same idea
- What is striking about **misleading** uses of **generics** is that they are typically about (social) **categories** most **hearers** have only **limited knowledge** of.
- Two stages in analysis of rhetorical (mis)use of generics
 - ① Relatively **weak kernel of truth** in terms of **representative features**. (speaker is responsible for this)
 - ② **Overgeneralisation:** Hearer confuses
 - ① most distinguishing feature ($\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)$), for
 - ② most probable feature ($\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$)
 - ③ + fear

Leslie's subdivision of generics

Leslie's subdivision of generics

① Characterizing generics

Triangles have three sides

Necessary condition

Leslie's subdivision of generics

① Characterizing generics

Triangles have three sides

Necessary condition

② Normative generics

- Boys don't cry, Real men don't eat quiche

Leslie's subdivision of generics

① Characterizing generics

Triangles have three sides

Necessary condition

② Normative generics

- Boys don't cry, Real men don't eat quiche

③ Statistical generics

- Dogs bark, Birds fly, Tigers are striped

Most

Leslie's subdivision of generics

① Characterizing generics

Triangles have three sides

Necessary condition

② Normative generics

- Boys don't cry, Real men don't eat quiche

③ Statistical generics

- Dogs bark, Birds fly, Tigers are striped
*Dogs sleep

Most

Leslie's subdivision of generics

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">① Characterizing generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">Triangles have three sides
② Normative generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Boys don't cry, Real men don't eat quiche
③ Statistical generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Dogs bark, Birds fly, Tigers are striped<ul style="list-style-type: none">*Dogs sleep
④ Striking generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mosquitoes carry the West Nile virus | <p>Necessary condition</p> <p>Most</p> <p>Only very few needed</p> |
|--|--|

striking often means 'horrific or appalling'

Leslie's subdivision of generics

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">① Characterizing generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">Triangles have three sides
② Normative generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">Boys don't cry, Real men don't eat quiche
③ Statistical generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">Dogs bark, Birds fly, Tigers are striped<ul style="list-style-type: none">*Dogs sleep
④ Striking generics<ul style="list-style-type: none">Mosquitoes carry the West Nile virusSharks attack people. | <p>Necessary condition</p> <p>Most</p> <p>Only very few needed</p> <p>problematic for default theories</p> |
|--|--|
- striking often means 'horrific or appalling'

Leslie's subdivision of generics

- ③ Statistical generics Most
 - Dogs bark, Birds fly, Tigers are striped
 - *Dogs sleep
- ④ Striking generics Only very few needed
 - Mosquitoes carry the West Nile virus
 - Sharks attack people. problematic for default theories

striking often means 'horrific or appalling'
- The **descriptive generics** are based on **useful representative features**

Leslie's subdivision of generics

- ③ Statistical generics Most
 - Dogs bark, Birds fly, Tigers are striped
 - *Dogs sleep
- ④ Striking generics Only very few needed
 - Mosquitoes carry the West Nile virus
 - Sharks attack people. problematic for default theories

striking often means 'horrific or appalling'
- The **descriptive generics** are based on **useful representative features**
features are **independent** of kind/group *Books are paperbacks

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

- Apply prior experience to **make decisions** in new situations

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

- Apply prior experience to make decisions in new situations
 - Categorization decision

I see an object, have to decide whether it belongs to category C or not
'Birds lay eggs'

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

- Apply prior experience to make decisions in new situations
 - Categorization decision
I see an object, have to decide whether it belongs to category C or not
'Birds lay eggs'
 - Decision how to respond to arbitrary $x \in C$

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

- Apply prior experience to make decisions in new situations
 - Categorization decision
I see an object, have to decide whether it belongs to category C or not
'Birds lay eggs'
 - Decision how to respond to arbitrary $x \in C$
Especially important if feature is 'horrific or appalling'.
'Sharks attack people.'

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

- Apply prior experience to make decisions in new situations
 - Categorization decision
I see an object, have to decide whether it belongs to category C or not
'Birds lay eggs'
 - Decision how to respond to arbitrary $x \in C$
Especially important if feature is 'horrific or appalling'.
'Sharks attack people.'
 - Decision on how to explain behavior of arbitrary $x \in C$
'Dutchmen are good sailors.'

Usefulness of representative features/individuals

- Apply prior experience to **make decisions** in new situations
 - **Categorization decision**
I see an object, have to decide whether it belongs to category C or not
'Birds lay eggs'
 - Decision **how to respond** to arbitrary $x \in C$
Especially important if feature is 'horrific or appalling'.
'Sharks attack people.'
 - Decision on how to **explain behavior** of arbitrary $x \in C$
'Dutchmen are good sailors.'
- Representative features/individuals: **clues for behavior**

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f)$ is **high**)
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$ is high
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$
 - ② There is no salient alternative h s.t. relatively more G s have h :
 $(\Delta P_G^h \times Value(h)) > \Delta P_G^f \times Value(f)$

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$ is high
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$
 - ② There is no salient alternative h s.t. relatively more G s have h :
 $(\Delta P_G^h \times Value(h) > \Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$
(Rescorla-Wagner: maybe it is the first good distinctive feature that is learned. This blocks learning the later distinctive features)

Representative feature as good clues

- ‘ G is f ’ is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$ is high
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$
 - ② There is no salient alternative h s.t. relatively more G s have h :
 $(\Delta P_G^h \times Value(h) > \Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$
(Rescorla-Wagner: maybe it is the first good distinctive feature that is learned. This blocks learning the later distinctive features)
- $\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f) = (P(f/G) \times Value(f)) - (P(f/\neg G) \times Value(f))$

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$ is **high**
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$
 - ② There is no salient alternative h s.t. relatively more G s have h :
 $(\Delta P_G^h \times Value(h) > \Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$
(Rescorla-Wagner: maybe it is the **first** good distinctive feature that is learned. This blocks learning the later distinctive features)
- $\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f) = (P(f/G) \times Value(f)) - (P(f/\neg G) \times Value(f))$
 - ① $P(f/G)$ is high f is likely for G (if $P(f/\neg G)$ is normal)

Representative feature as good clues

- ‘ G is f ’ is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$ is high
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$
 - ② There is no salient alternative h s.t. relatively more G s have h :
 $(\Delta P_G^h \times Value(h) > \Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$
(Rescorla-Wagner: maybe it is the first good distinctive feature that is learned. This blocks learning the later distinctive features)
- $\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f)$ is $(P(f/G) \times Value(f)) - (P(f/\neg G) \times Value(f))$
 - ① $P(f/G)$ is high f is likely for G (if $P(f/\neg G)$ is normal)
 - ② $P(f/\neg G) \approx 0$ f is distinctive for G (if $P(f/G)$ is normal)

Representative feature as good clues

- ' G is f ' is true/has kernel of truth iff f is a representative feature of G
- f is a representative feature/type of group G iff
 - ① Relatively many G s have f $(\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$ is high
with $\Delta P_G^f = P(f/G) - P(f/Alt(G))$
 - ② There is no salient alternative h s.t. relatively more G s have h :
 $(\Delta P_G^h \times Value(h) > \Delta P_G^f \times Value(f))$
(Rescorla-Wagner: maybe it is the first good distinctive feature that is learned. This blocks learning the later distinctive features)
- $\Delta P_G^f \times Value(f)$ is $(P(f/G) \times Value(f)) - (P(f/\neg G) \times Value(f))$
 - ① $P(f/G)$ is high f is likely for G (if $P(f/\neg G)$ is normal)
 - ② $P(f/\neg G) \approx 0$ f is distinctive for G (if $P(f/G)$ is normal)
 - ③ $Value(f)$ is high (f is 'horrific or appaling') (if $\Delta P_G^f > 0$)

Compositionality of representativeness

- Good: $W(f, G) = \log \frac{P(f/G)}{P(f/\neg G)}$
- Behaves monotone w.r.t. ΔP_G^f
- But behaves more ‘compositional’
 - ① $W(f, \neg G) = -W(f, G)$
 - ② $W(f, G \wedge H) = W(f, G) + W(f, H)$, if $[G \perp H|f]_P$
 - ③ $W(f, G \vee H) = \exists \alpha \in [0, 1] : \alpha W(f, G) + (1 - \alpha) W(f, H)$, if $G \cap H = \emptyset$

Some properties of this analysis of representativeness

- motivated by **limited recall/attention**, and guided by **contrast**
- Representative features are context-sensitive
- Looks for **distinctive** features
- They highlight/**exaggerate** real differences between groups
- They can be ‘false’ in case there is much overlap

Exaggerate?

Good for normative generics

Exaggerate?

Good for normative generics

- Real men don't eat Quiche!

Exaggerate?

Good for normative generics

- Real men don't eat Quiche!
- What is the stereotypical or 'real' man?

Exaggerate?

Good for normative generics

- Real men don't eat Quiche!
- What is the stereotypical or 'real' man?
The average one? (what some call the 'prototype')

Exaggerate?

Good for normative generics

- Real men don't eat Quiche!
- What is the stereotypical or 'real' man?
The average one? (what some call the 'prototype')
- Ask Google!

Exaggerate?

Good for normative generics

- Real men don't eat Quiche!
- What is the stereotypical or 'real' man?
The average one? (what some call the 'prototype')
- Ask Google!



What of descriptive ones? Prototypes or Stereotypes?

What of descriptive ones? Prototypes or Stereotypes?

- Categories have typical representatives.

What of descriptive ones? Prototypes or Stereotypes?

- Categories have typical representatives.
- Rosch: Typical representative is **normal/average** Prototype

What of descriptive ones? Prototypes or Stereotypes?

- Categories have typical representatives.
- Rosch: Typical representative is **normal/average** Prototype
- Barsalou (1985): typical members of goal-derived categories are those **best satisfying the goal**
We know that weapons are created in order to (threaten to) hurt other people. Therefore, the most typical ones are the ones that do this in an effective way.

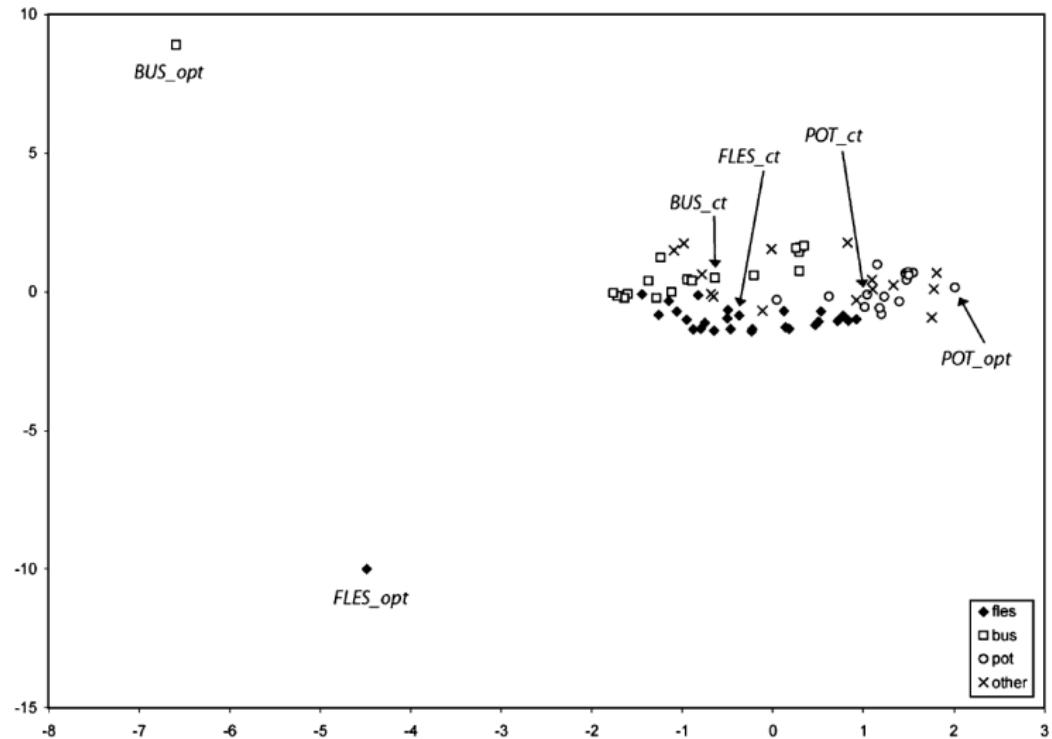
What of descriptive ones? Prototypes or Stereotypes?

- Categories have typical representatives.
- Rosch: Typical representative is **normal/average** Prototype
- Barsalou (1985): typical members of goal-derived categories are those **best satisfying the goal**
We know that weapons are created in order to (threaten to) hurt other people. Therefore, the most typical ones are the ones that do this in an effective way.
- Others (e.g. Lynch, Storms): extreme representatives important also if categorisation done in **contrastive** way

What of descriptive ones? Prototypes or Stereotypes?

- Categories have typical representatives.
- Rosch: Typical representative is **normal/average** Prototype
- Barsalou (1985): typical members of goal-derived categories are those **best satisfying the goal**
We know that weapons are created in order to (threaten to) hurt other people. Therefore, the most typical ones are the ones that do this in an effective way.
- Others (e.g. Lynch, Storms): extreme representatives important also if categorisation done in **contrastive** way
- Typical is **Ideal** (cf. Plato) or **exaggerated** individual Stereotype

Ideal representatives of groups (Bus, Fles, Pot)



Some examples

Some examples

✓ Birds fly

Most do, others don't

Some examples

- ✓ Birds fly Most do, others don't
- ✓ Birds lay eggs indeed, non-birds don't lay eggs

Some examples

- ✓ Birds fly Most do, others don't
- ✓ Birds lay eggs indeed, non-birds don't lay eggs
- ✓ Peacocks lay eggs because birds do (come back)

Some examples

Some examples

Some examples

Some examples

- ✓ Birds fly Most do, others don't
- ✓ Birds lay eggs indeed, non-birds don't lay eggs
- ✓ Peacocks lay eggs because birds do (come back)
- ✓ Sharks attack people. few do, but more than other animals
- *Dogs have three legs. a three-legged animal is probably a dog
Aren't there other features that distinguish dogs better?
ehh, they bark

Some remarkable predictions

Some remarkable predictions

- Because of **weak truth conditions** all the following are (arguably) true:

Some remarkable predictions

- Because of **weak truth conditions** all the following are (arguably) true:
 - 1 Peacocks lay eggs because birds do
 - 2 Peacocks have brightly colored tail-feathers

Some remarkable predictions

- Because of **weak truth conditions** all the following are (arguably) true:
 - 1 Peacocks lay eggs because birds do
 - 2 Peacocks have brightly colored tail-feathers
- But there is no peacock that has both features
With non-monotonic logic? \rightsquigarrow needs impossible worlds

Some remarkable predictions

- Because of **weak truth conditions** all the following are (arguably) true:
 - 1 Peacocks lay eggs because birds do
 - 2 Peacocks have brightly colored tail-feathers
- But there is no peacock that has both features
With non-monotonic logic? \leadsto needs impossible worlds
- The analysis correctly predicts **conjunction fallacy** for generics:
Only male lions have manes: $P(\text{manes/lion}) < P(\text{male/lion})$
 - 1 Lions have manes is true
 - 2 Lions are male is false

Predictions about social-group generics

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

Floridians are elderly

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

 Floridians are elderly
- Moroccans are criminals

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

Floridians are elderly

- Moroccans are criminals

- | 2012 | criminal activities | no criminal activities |
|-------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Moroccans | 5% | 95% |
| ¬ Moroccans | 1% | 99% |

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

 Floridians are elderly
- Moroccans are criminals
 - | 2012 | criminal activities | no criminal activities |
|-------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Moroccans | 5% | 95% |
| ¬ Moroccans | 1% | 99% |
 - Relatively many Moroccans have been engaged in criminal activities

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

Floridians are elderly

- Moroccans are criminals

- | 2012 | criminal activities | no criminal activities |
|-------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Moroccans | 5% | 95% |
| ¬ Moroccans | 1% | 99% |

- Relatively many Moroccans have been engaged in criminal activities
- Hillary is a liar

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

Floridians are elderly

- Moroccans are criminals

- | 2012 | criminal activities | no criminal activities |
|-------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Moroccans | 5% | 95% |
| ¬ Moroccans | 1% | 99% |

- Relatively many Moroccans have been engaged in criminal activities

- Hillary is a liar

she lied in 27% of the cases (which is more than an average American)

Predictions about social-group generics

- | age | 0-18 | 19-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Florida | 23:9% | 31:6% | 27:0% | 17:3% |
| US | 26:6% | 33:4% | 26:5% | 13:5% |

Floridians are elderly

- Moroccans are criminals

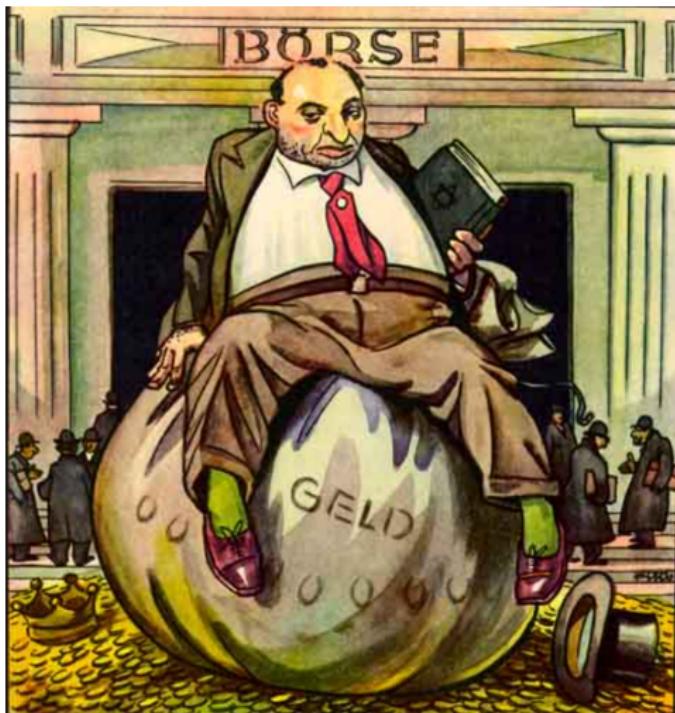
- | 2012 | criminal activities | no criminal activities |
|-------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Moroccans | 5% | 95% |
| ¬ Moroccans | 1% | 99% |

- Relatively many Moroccans have been engaged in criminal activities

- Hillary is a liar

she lied in 27% of the cases (which is more than an average American)
and it is about dangerous information

Jews are bankers/capitalists



„Der Gott des Juden ist das Geld. Und um Geld zu verdienen, begeht er die größten Verbrechen. Er ruht nicht eher, bis er auf einem großen Geldsack sitzen kann, bis er zum König des Geldes geworden ist.“

Jews are bolshevists



BOLSCHEWISMUS ist JUDENTUM!

Generation/accepting and Interpretation of generics

- There is a difference between
 - Saying when generic is true, or **accepting** generic
 - **Interpreting** a generic sentence
- A. Cimpian, A. Brandone, and S. Gelman, Cognitive Science, 2010
<https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/ulterior-motives/201011/the-power-generic-statements>

How strong reading, if this is meaning?

- Even if we know that truth of generics is based on small percentage, hearers still conclude something much **stronger** misleading

How strong reading, if this is meaning?

- Even if we know that truth of generics is based on small percentage, hearers still conclude something much **stronger** misleading
- Claim:** this can be explained in the same way as the cognitive bias was explained: We **confuse**
 $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f((P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)) \times \text{Val}(f))$

How strong reading, if this is meaning?

- Even if we know that truth of generics is based on small percentage, hearers still conclude something much **stronger** misleading
- Claim:** this can be explained in the same way as the cognitive bias was explained: We **confuse**
 $\operatorname{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\operatorname{argmax}_f ((P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)) \times \operatorname{Val}(f))$
- Because
 - we forget about importance of $\operatorname{Value}(f)$

How strong reading, if this is meaning?

- Even if we know that truth of generics is based on small percentage, hearers still conclude something much **stronger** misleading
- Claim:** this can be explained in the same way as the cognitive bias was explained: We **confuse**
 $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f((P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)) \times \text{Val}(f))$
- Because
 - we forget about importance of $\text{Value}(f)$
 - we tend to think that if f is representative for Q , $P(f/\neg Q) \approx 0$

How strong reading, if this is meaning?

- Even if we know that truth of generics is based on small percentage, hearers still conclude something much **stronger** misleading
- Claim:** this can be explained in the same way as the cognitive bias was explained: We **confuse**
 $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f((P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)) \times \text{Val}(f))$
- Because
 - we forget about importance of $\text{Value}(f)$
 - we tend to think that if f is representative for Q , $P(f/\neg Q) \approx 0$
- Notice if $g = \text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$, then probably $P(g/Q) \gg 0.5$

Intuition and Question

Intuition and Question

- If we confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f (\Delta P_G^f \times \text{Val}(f))$, we think that we deal with another P^* then we actually do; typically one where $P^*(f/A) \gg 0.5$

Intuition and Question

- If we confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f (\Delta P_G^f \times \text{Val}(f))$, we think that we deal with another P^* then we actually do; typically one where $P^*(f/A) \gg 0.5$
- Why? more heuristics

Intuition and Question

- If we confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f (\Delta P_G^f \times \text{Val}(f))$, we think that we deal with another P^* then we actually do; typically one where $P^*(f/A) \gg 0.5$
- Why? more heuristics
- What is the effect of high $\text{Value}(f)$ on P^* ?

Intuition and Question

- If we confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f (\Delta P_G^f \times \text{Val}(f))$, we think that we deal with another P^* then we actually do; typically one where $P^*(f/A) \gg 0.5$
- Why? more heuristics
- What is the effect of high $\text{Value}(f)$ on P^* ?
- What is the effect of high $P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)$ on P^* ?

Intuition and Question

- If we confuse $\text{argmax}_f P(f/Q)$ with $\text{argmax}_f (\Delta P_G^f \times \text{Val}(f))$, we think that we deal with another P^* then we actually do; typically one where $P^*(f/A) \gg 0.5$
- Why? more heuristics
- What is the effect of high $\text{Value}(f)$ on P^* ?
Availability
- What is the effect of high $P(f/Q) - P(f/\neg Q)$ on P^* ?
Causality

Availability

Availability

Availability

- People assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind

Availability

- People assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind
- What percentage of commercial flights crash per year?

Availability

- People assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind
- What percentage of commercial flights crash per year?
- What makes something salient, and hence retrievable?

Availability

- People assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind
- What percentage of commercial flights crash per year?
- What makes something salient, and hence retrievable?
 - ① familiar (Harrison Ford vs. Geraldine Page)
 - ② personal (uncle Bob's story about his Volvo vs. statistical report on Volvos)
 - ③ recent

Availability

- People assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind
- What percentage of commercial flights crash per year?
- What makes something salient, and hence retrievable?
 - ① familiar (Harrison Ford vs. Geraldine Page)
 - ② personal (uncle Bob's story about his Volvo vs. statistical report on Volvos)
 - ③ recent
 - ④ **important** (death of a friend in a car accident vs. car accident reported on evening news)

Availability

- People assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind
- What percentage of commercial flights crash per year?
- What makes something salient, and hence retrievable?
 - ① familiar (Harrison Ford vs. Geraldine Page)
 - ② personal (uncle Bob's story about his Volvo vs. statistical report on Volvos)
 - ③ recent
 - ④ **important** (death of a friend in a car accident vs. car accident reported on evening news)
fearfull if high Value

Causation

Causation

- Tversky & Kahneman (1974): If we see a correlation, we tend to interpret it in the preferred (strongest) way: **as causal**
- How do we learn and determine strength of causal relations?

Causation

- Tversky & Kahneman (1974): If we see a correlation, we tend to interpret it in the preferred (strongest) way: **as causal**
- How do we learn and determine strength of causal relations?
- Salmon's (1965) theory of causal strength = ΔP_G^f

⇒ Is same as Rescorla's psychological theory of association!
(Salmon's theory problematic (common cause))

Causation

- Tversky & Kahneman (1974): If we see a correlation, we tend to interpret it in the preferred (strongest) way: **as causal**
- How do we learn and determine strength of causal relations?
- Salmon's (1965) theory of causal strength = ΔP_G^f

⇒ Is same as Rescorla's psychological theory of association!
(Salmon's theory problematic (common cause))
- Meehl (1973), Tversky & Kahneman (1974): an event is seen as **more normal** if it can be understood: if it can be **causally explained**.

Causation

- Tversky & Kahneman (1974): If we see a correlation, we tend to interpret it in the preferred (strongest) way: **as causal**
- How do we learn and determine strength of causal relations?
- Salmon's (1965) theory of causal strength = ΔP_G^f

⇒ Is same as Rescorla's psychological theory of association!
(Salmon's theory problematic (common cause))
- Meehl (1973), Tversky & Kahneman (1974): an event is seen as **more normal** if it can be understood: if it can be **causally explained**.
- A **causal explanation** of a possibility **increases its probability**.

Causation

- Tversky & Kahneman (1974): If we see a correlation, we tend to interpret it in the preferred (strongest) way: **as causal**
- How do we learn and determine strength of causal relations?
- Salmon's (1965) theory of causal strength = ΔP_G^f

⇒ Is same as Rescorla's psychological theory of association!
(Salmon's theory problematic (common cause))
- Meehl (1973), Tversky & Kahneman (1974): an event is seen as **more normal** if it can be understood: if it can be **causally explained**.
- A **causal explanation** of a possibility **increases its probability**.
- So, if ΔP_G^f is high, we tend to think that $P(f/G)$ is high

Social Essentialism

Social Essentialism

- (Psychological) **essentialism**: the belief that there is an underlying essence that causes membership in the category

Social Essentialism

- (Psychological) **essentialism**: the belief that there is an underlying essence that causes membership in the category
- **Social** categories (though largely conventional) are often perceived as having essence as well (Rothbart & Taylor, 1992)

Social Essentialism

- (Psychological) **essentialism**: the belief that there is an underlying essence that causes membership in the category
- **Social** categories (though largely conventional) are often perceived as having essence as well (Rothbart & Taylor, 1992)
- \rightsquigarrow by default, we understand generics to express generalizations that hold because of essential features of the members of the kind.
(Haslanger)

Social Essentialism

- (Psychological) **essentialism**: the belief that there is an underlying essence that causes membership in the category
- **Social** categories (though largely conventional) are often perceived as having essence as well (Rothbart & Taylor, 1992)
- ↵ by default, we understand generics to express generalizations that hold because of essential features of the members of the kind. (Haslanger)
- Another reason why we overgeneralize after hearing a generic statement.

Social Essentialism

- (Psychological) **essentialism**: the belief that there is an underlying essence that causes membership in the category
- **Social** categories (though largely conventional) are often perceived as having essence as well (Rothbart & Taylor, 1992)
- \rightsquigarrow by default, we understand generics to express generalizations that hold because of essential features of the members of the kind.
(Haslanger)
- Another reason why we overgeneralize after hearing a generic statement.
- Blacks are good in athletics because here equal opportunity

Conclusions

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)
- Two issues for successful use of generics

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)
- Two issues for successful use of generics
 - ① Why weak kernel of truth?

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)
- Two issues for successful use of generics
 - ① Why weak kernel of truth?
 - ② Why strong hearer effect?

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)
- Two issues for successful use of generics
 - ① Why weak kernel of truth?
Representativeness defined i.t.o. contrast
 - ② Why strong hearer effect?

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)
- Two issues for successful use of generics
 - ① Why weak kernel of truth?
Representativeness defined i.t.o. contrast
 - ② Why strong hearer effect?
Overrepresentation of stereotypical cases

Conclusions

- Generics (on groups, and repetitive events) important for propaganda
- Study persuasion in terms of Game Theory
- Standard game theory cannot explain obvious cases
- Cognitive biases (Representativeness, Causality)
- Two issues for successful use of generics
 - ① Why weak kernel of truth?
Representativeness defined i.t.o. contrast
 - ② Why strong hearer effect?
Overrepresentation of stereotypical cases
Due to availability and causation heuristics

Literature

- Ameel, E. and G. Storms (2006), From prototypes to caricatures: Geometrical models for concept typicality, *Journal of Memory and Language*, 55 (2006) 402421
- Asher, N. and M. Morreau, 1995, 'What Some Generic Sentences Mean', in Carlson and Pelletier, *The Generic Book*, 1995: 300-339.
- Barsalou, L. W. (1985). Ideals, central tendency and frequency of instantiation as determinants of graded structure in categories. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition*, 11(4), 629654.
- Bordalo, Pedro, Katherine Coffman, Nicola Gennaioli, and Andrei Shleifer (2016), Stereotypes. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 131 (4): 1753-1794.
- Cohen, Ariel, (1996), *Think generic! the meaning and use of generic sentences*: Carnegie Mellon University dissertation.
- Cohen, Ariel. (2004a), 'Existential generics', *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 27(2). 137 168.
- Cohen, Ariel. (2004b), 'Generics and mental representations', *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 27(5). 529556.
- Deo, A. & M. Madiman (2016), 'Scale structure and genericity: Understanding generics using stochastic comparison', SALT.
- Devine, Patricia. 1989. Stereotypes and Prejudice: Their Automatic and Controlled Components. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56 (1): 5 18.
- Gennaioli, Nicola, and Andrei Shleifer (2010), 'What Comes to Mind', *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 125 (4): 1399 1433.
- Hampton, J. A. (1993). Prototype models of concept representation. In I. van Mechelen, J. A. Hampton, R. S. Michalski, & P. Theuns (Eds.), *Categories and concepts: Theoretical views and inductive data analysis*, London: Academic Press.
- Haslanger, S. (2011), Ideology, Generics, and Common Ground, in Feminist Metaphysics: Explorations in the Ontology of Sex, Gender, and the Self, Charlotte Witt (ed.), Dordrecht: Springer, pp. 179209.
- Kahneman, Daniel, and Amos Tversky (1972), 'Subjective Probability: A Judgment of Representativeness', *Cognitive Psychology*, 3 (3): 430 454.
- Krifka, M. Francis Jeffry Pelletier, Gregory Carlson, Alice ter Meulen, Gennaro Chierchia, and Godehard Link (1995), 'Genericity: An introduction', In Gregory Carlson and Francis Jeffry Pelletier, editors, *The Generic Book*, pages 1124. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1995.
- Leslie, Sarah-Jane, (2007), *Generics, cognition, and comprehension*: Princeton University dissertation.
- Leslie, Sarah-Jane, (2008), 'Generics: Cognition and acquisition', *The Philosophical Review*, 117(1). 147.
- Leslie (2013), Essence and Natural Kinds: When Science Meets Preschooler Intuition, in T. Gandler and J. Hawthorne (eds.), *Oxford Studies in Epistemology*, 4: 108166.
- Pelletier, Francis Jeffry and Nicholas Asher. Generics and defaults (1997), In J. van Benthem and A. ter Meulen, editors, *Handbook of Logic and Language*, pages 11251177. North Holland, Amsterdam. Rescorla, R.A. (1968). Probability of shock in the presence and absence of CS in fear conditioning. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*. 66. 15.

- Rosch, E. (1973). On the internal structure of perceptual and semantic categories. In T. E. Moore (Ed.), *Cognitive development and the acquisition of language*. New York: Academic Press.
- Schneider, David, (2004), *The Psychology of Stereotyping*, New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Tversky, Amos, and Daniel Kahneman (1974), 'Judgment under Uncertainty: Heuristics and Biases', *Science*, 185 (4157): 1124 1131.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1980), 'Causal schemas in judgments under uncertainty' In M. Fishbein (Ed.), *it Progress in social psychology* (pp. 4972). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.