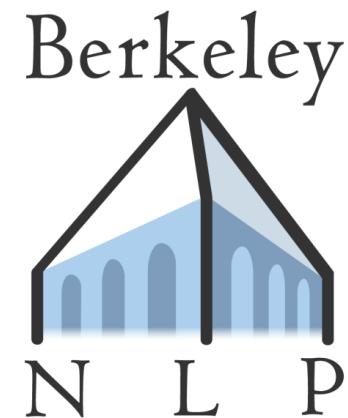


Computational Pragmatics



Nicholas Tomlin

w/ slides from Daniel Fried



Reasoning About Alternatives

Core Idea:

Large chunks of linguistic understanding can be attributed to reasoning about alternatives. E.g., if a speaker says X but not Y, then perhaps Y isn't true, or the speaker doesn't want to talk about Y.



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Example:

“I didn’t steal your car.”



Reasoning About Alternatives

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Large chunks of linguistic understanding can be attributed to reasoning about alternatives. E.g., if a speaker says X but not Y, then perhaps Y isn't true, or the speaker doesn't want to talk about Y.

Example:

“I didn’t steal your car.”

Conveyed meaning:

Someone stole your car, but it wasn’t me.



Reasoning About Alternatives

Core Idea:

Large chunks of linguistic understanding can be attributed to reasoning about alternatives. E.g., if a speaker says X but not Y, then perhaps Y isn't true, or the speaker doesn't want to talk about Y.

Example:

“I didn’t steal your car.”

Conveyed meaning:

Contrary to what you think, I did not steal your car.



Reasoning About Alternatives

Core Idea:

Large chunks of linguistic understanding can be attributed to reasoning about alternatives. E.g., if a speaker says X but not Y, then perhaps Y isn't true, or the speaker doesn't want to talk about Y.

Example:

“I didn’t steal your car.”

Conveyed meaning:

I did something to your car, but not stealing it. E.g., I just borrowed it.



Reasoning About Alternatives

Core Idea:

Large chunks of linguistic understanding can be attributed to reasoning about alternatives. E.g., if a speaker says X but not Y, then perhaps Y isn't true, or the speaker doesn't want to talk about Y.

Example:

“I didn’t steal your car.”

Conveyed meaning:

I stole somebody else's car.



Reasoning About Alternatives

Core Idea:

Large chunks of linguistic understanding can be attributed to reasoning about alternatives. E.g., if a speaker says X but not Y, then perhaps Y isn't true, or the speaker doesn't want to talk about Y.

Example:

“I didn’t steal your car.”

Conveyed meaning:

I stole something you own, but not your car.



Overview of Pragmatic Phenomena

“I ate some of the curry.”

- ▶ *There is some curry leftover.*

Scalar Implicature

“The car was stolen.”

- ▶ *The speaker doesn’t know, or doesn’t want to tell, who stole it.*

Conversational Implicature

“I stopped going to the office.”

- ▶ *I used to go to the office.*

Presupposition



Scalar Implicature



The New York Times 
@nytimes



We've deleted an earlier tweet and updated a sentence in our article that implied that only "some experts" view the ingestion of household disinfectants as dangerous. To be clear, there is no debate on the danger.

9:17 AM · Apr 24, 2020 · [Twitter Web App](#)

4.7K Retweets 22K Likes



Scalar Implicature

Q: Does *some* mean *not all*?

A: Not always:

- ▶ “Some of the students were late for class; in fact, they all were.”
- ▶ “I’d be much happier if some grocery stores had eggs in stock.”

We call this *implicature*. The implicature occurs because a rational listener might assume that the speaker would have said *all* if they meant to, since *all* is the more informative choice.



Implicature ≠ Entailment

Implicatures are cancellable:

“Some of the students were late for class; in fact, they all were.”

But presuppositions and entailments aren’t:

“I stopped going into the office; in fact, I’ve never been there before.”

“I stopped going into the office; in fact, I didn’t stop going in.”



Implicature ≠ Entailment

This distinction even shows up in perjury law (*Bronston v. United States*):

Q. “Do you have any bank accounts in Swiss banks, Mr. Bronston?”

A. “No, sir.”

Q. “Have you ever?”

A. “The company had an account there for about six months, in Zürich.”

Q. “Have you any nominees who have bank accounts in Swiss banks?”

A. “No, sir.”

Q. “Have you ever?”

A. “No, sir.”



Additional Phenomena

“The investor is a shark.”

- ▶ *The investor is cunning/aggressive.*

Metaphor

“He went to the bank, the grocery store, and the mall.”

- ▶ *He visited each place in that order.*

Ordering

“Class will begin at 2pm.”

- ▶ *Class will begin around 2pm.*

Loose Use



Gricean Maxims

Grice (1975) claims that speakers and listeners typically follow four maxims for cooperative communication.

1. Quantity – be as informative as possible, give as much information as needed, but no more
2. Quality - be truthful, and don't give information that is false or unsupported by evidence
3. Relation – be relevant, and say things that are pertinent to the discussion
4. Manner – be clear, brief, and orderly as possible; avoid unnecessary prolixity



The Cooperative Principle

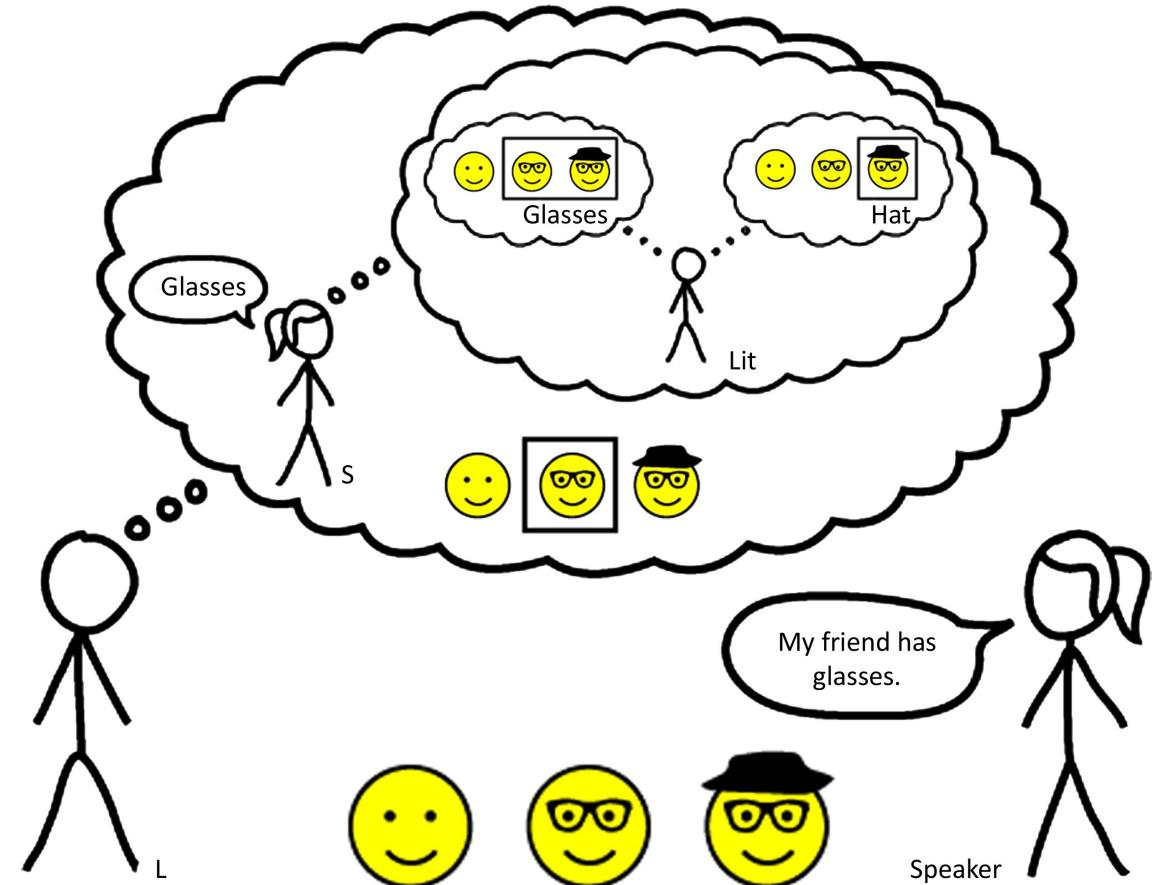
The Cooperative Principle (Grice 1975):

Make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.



Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

- Recursive reasoning between speakers and listeners about utterances and intentions
- Meant to operationalize the cooperative principle





Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Base listener:

$$L_0(w, L \mid \text{msg}) \propto \text{Lex}(\text{msg}, w) \cdot P(w)$$

Pragmatic speaker:

$$S_1(\text{msg} \mid w, L) \propto \exp \lambda (\log L_0(w, L \mid \text{msg}) - C(\text{msg}))$$

Pragmatic listener:

$$L_1(w, L \mid \text{msg}) \propto S_1(\text{msg} \mid w, L) \cdot P(w)$$



Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Base listener:

$$L_0(w, L \mid \text{msg}) \propto \underset{\text{Lexicon}}{\text{Lex}(\text{msg}, w)} \cdot \underset{\text{State prior}}{P(w)}$$

Pragmatic speaker:

$$S_1(\text{msg} \mid w, L) \propto \exp \lambda (\log L_0(w, L \mid \text{msg}) - \underset{\text{Utterance cost}}{C(\text{msg}))}$$

Pragmatic listener:

$$L_1(w, L \mid \text{msg}) \propto S_1(\text{msg} \mid w, L) \cdot \underset{\text{State prior}}{P(w)}$$



Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Sample RSA Calculation: *Look at the man who is wearing glasses.*

	Glasses	Hat		
	1	0		L_2
	1	1		S_1 L_0 Lex



Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Sample RSA Calculation: *Look at the man who is wearing glasses.*

	Glasses	Hat		
	0.5	0	L_2	S_1
	0.5	1	L_0	Lex



Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Sample RSA Calculation: *Look at the man who is wearing glasses.*

	Glasses	Hat	
	1	0	L_2
	0.33	0.67	S_1 L_0 Lex



Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Sample RSA Calculation: *Look at the man who is wearing glasses.*

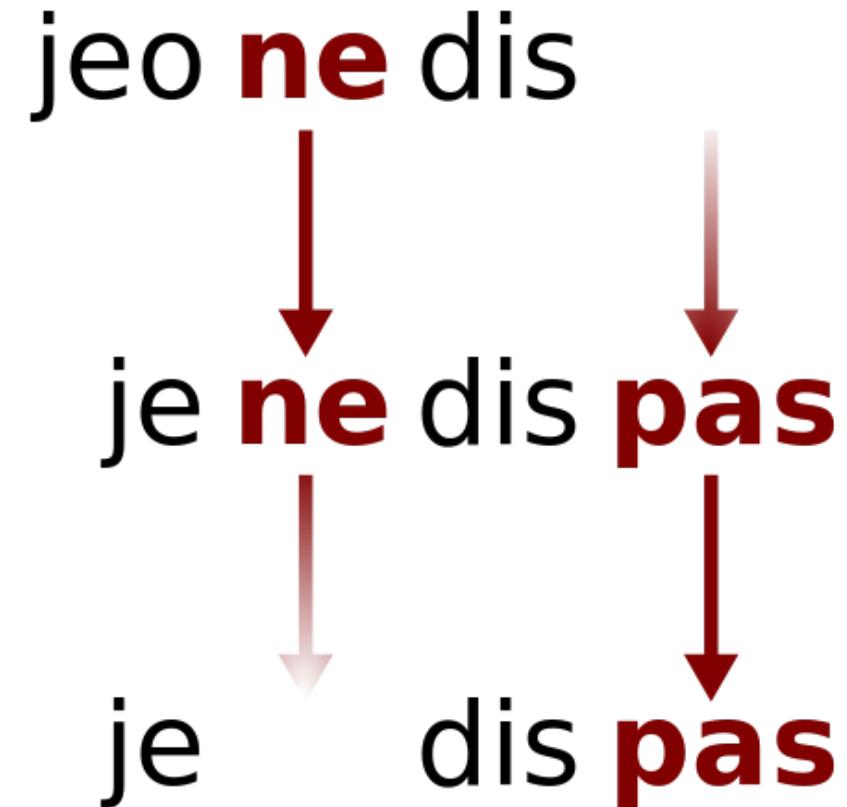
	Glasses	Hat	
	0.75	0	L_2
	0.25	1	S_1 L_0 Lex



Diachronic Pragmatics

Jespersen's Cycle describes a historical model of negation marking

Can be modeled as a pragmatic phenomena (Lund, et al. 2019) with a tradeoff between informativity (quantity) and brevity (manner)





Rational Speech Acts (RSA) Model

Base listener:

$$L_0(w, L \mid \text{msg}) \propto \text{Lex}(\text{msg}, w) \cdot P(w)$$

|
Lexicon

State prior

Pragmatic speaker:

$$S_1(\text{msg} \mid w, L) \propto \exp \lambda (\log L_0(w, L \mid \text{msg}) - C(\text{msg}))$$

Utterance cost

Pragmatic listener:

$$L_1(w, L \mid \text{msg}) \propto S_1(\text{msg} \mid w, L) \cdot P(w)$$

State prior



Issues with the RSA Model

Some issues with the Frank & Goodman (2012) model:

- Requires explicit lexicon for semantic evaluation
- Requires normalization over small set of alternative utterances and alternative meanings
- Doesn't account for real-world pragmatic phenomena like over-informative referring expressions, anticipatory implicatures, etc.
- No model of topic relevance



Learning in the RSA Model

Monroe & Potts (2015) propose a differentiable RSA model, without a fixed lexicon:

- Feature representation $\varphi(\text{msg}, w, L)$ and parameters θ , e. g.:

$$S_0(\text{msg} \mid w, L; \theta) \propto e^{\varphi(\text{msg}, w, L)}$$

- Continue for layered models, and maximize probability of learned text under S_2 model



Learning in the RSA Model

Evaluate on TUNA Corpus of referring expressions:

- Given list of items with attributes and a target referent, generate a list of attributes needed to distinguish target item
- Modify feature representation by generating feature combinations
- Measure performance with multiset Dice



TUNA Corpus of Referring Expressions

<p>COLOUR:GREEN ORIENTATION:LEFT SIZE:SMALL TYPE:FAN X-DIMENSION:1 Y-DIMENSION:1</p> 	<p>COLOUR:GREEN ORIENTATION:LEFT SIZE:SMALL TYPE:SOFA X-DIMENSION:1 Y-DIMENSION:2</p> 	<p>COLOUR:RED ORIENTATION:BACK SIZE:LARGE TYPE:FAN X-DIMENSION:1 Y-DIMENSION:3</p> 	
<p>COLOUR:RED ORIENTATION:BACK SIZE:LARGE TYPE:SOFA X-DIMENSION:2 Y-DIMENSION:1</p> 	<p>COLOUR:BLUE ORIENTATION:LEFT SIZE:LARGE TYPE:FAN X-DIMENSION:2 Y-DIMENSION:2</p> 		
<p>COLOUR:BLUE ORIENTATION:LEFT SIZE:LARGE TYPE:SOFA X-DIMENSION:3 Y-DIMENSION:1</p> 	 <p>COLOUR:BLUE ORIENTATION:LEFT SIZE:SMALL TYPE:FAN X-DIMENSION:3 Y-DIMENSION:3</p>		

Utterance: “blue fan small”

Utterance attributes: [*colour:blue*]; [*size:small*]; [*type:fan*]



Results on TUNA Corpus

Model	Furniture		People		All	
	Acc.	Dice	Acc.	Dice	Acc.	Dice
RSA s_0 (random true message)	1.0%	.475	0.6%	.125	1.7%	.314
RSA s_1	1.9%	.522	2.5%	.254	2.2%	.386
Learned S_0 , basic feats.	16.0%	.779	9.4%	.697	12.9%	.741
Learned S_0 , gen. feats. only	5.0%	.788	7.8%	.681	6.3%	.738
Learned S_0 , basic + gen. feats.	28.1%	.812	17.8%	.730	23.3%	.774
Learned S_1 , basic feats.	23.1%	.789	11.9%	.740	17.9%	.766
Learned S_1 , gen. feats. only	17.4%	.740	1.9%	.712	10.3%	.727
Learned S_1 , basic + gen. feats.	27.6%	.788	22.5%	.764	25.3%	.777



Issues with the RSA Model

Some issues with the Frank & Goodman (2012) model:

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- Doesn't account for real-world pragmatic phenomena like over-informative referring expressions, anticipatory implicatures, etc.
- No model of topic relevance



Neural RSA (Andreas & Klein, 2016)

Applies sampling-based method to address normalization over theoretically infinite set of potential utterances. Focuses on reference game task shown below:



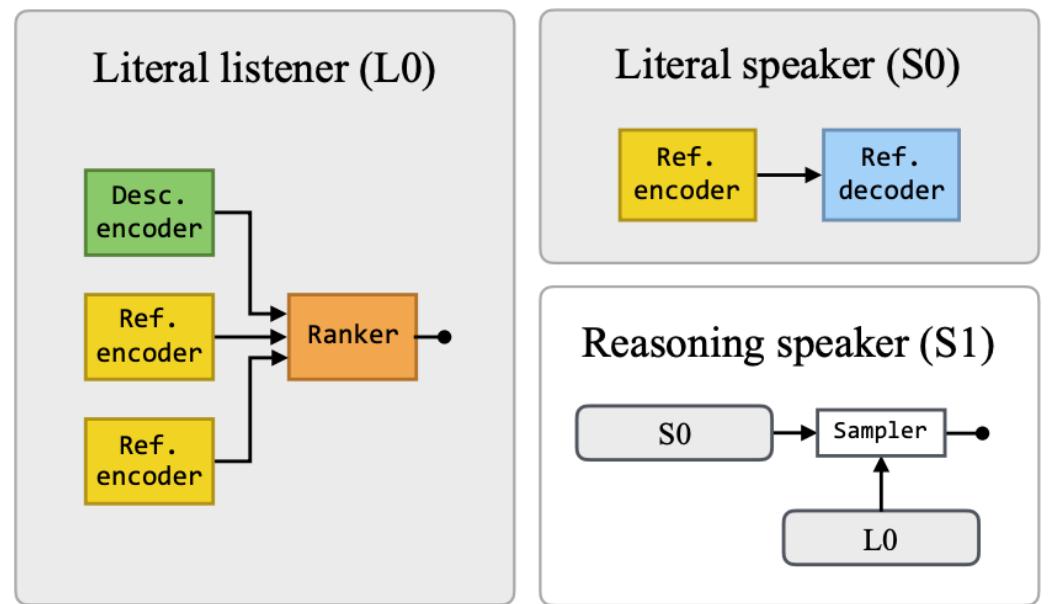
(a) target



(b) distractor

the owl is sitting in the tree

(c) description





Neural RSA (Andreas & Klein, 2016)

Despite worries about normalizing over entire set of potential utterances, the required number of samples levels off:

# samples	1	10	100	1000
Accuracy (%)	66	75	83	85

Table 1: S1 accuracy vs. number of samples.



Colors in Context

A brown dog and a tan one

[Young, et al. 2014; McMahan & Stone 2014]





Colors in Context

A brown dog and a tan one

A tan dog and a white one

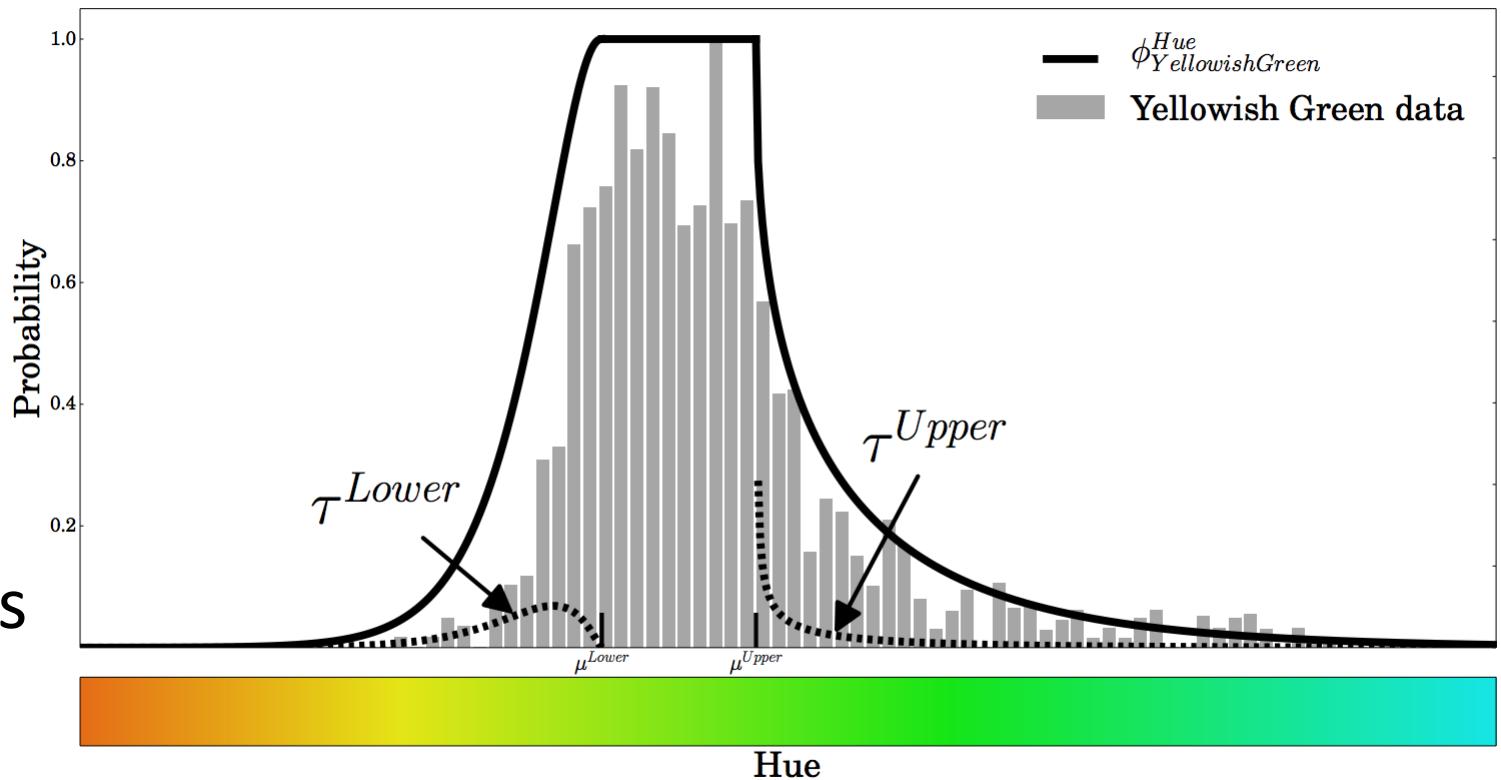
[Young, et al. 2014; McMahan & Stone 2014]





Colors in Context

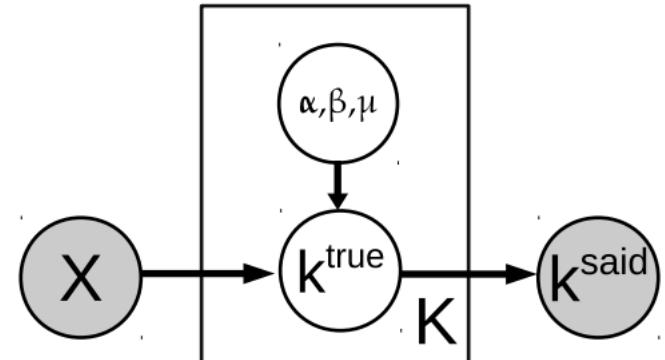
- ▶ When we say “yellowish-green”, what does that mean?
- ▶ Color descriptions governed by perception as well as *availability*: how commonly it is used (yellowish green vs. chartreuse)





Colors in Context

- ▶ $P(k_{\text{true}} \mid X)$: distribution parameterized in HSV space as follows: there are certain ranges where a color can “definitely apply”, others where it can apply
- ▶ $P(k_{\text{said}} \mid k_{\text{true}})$: captures availability; prior towards common colors
- ▶ Model combines language / reasoning with basic perception — characteristic of grounding

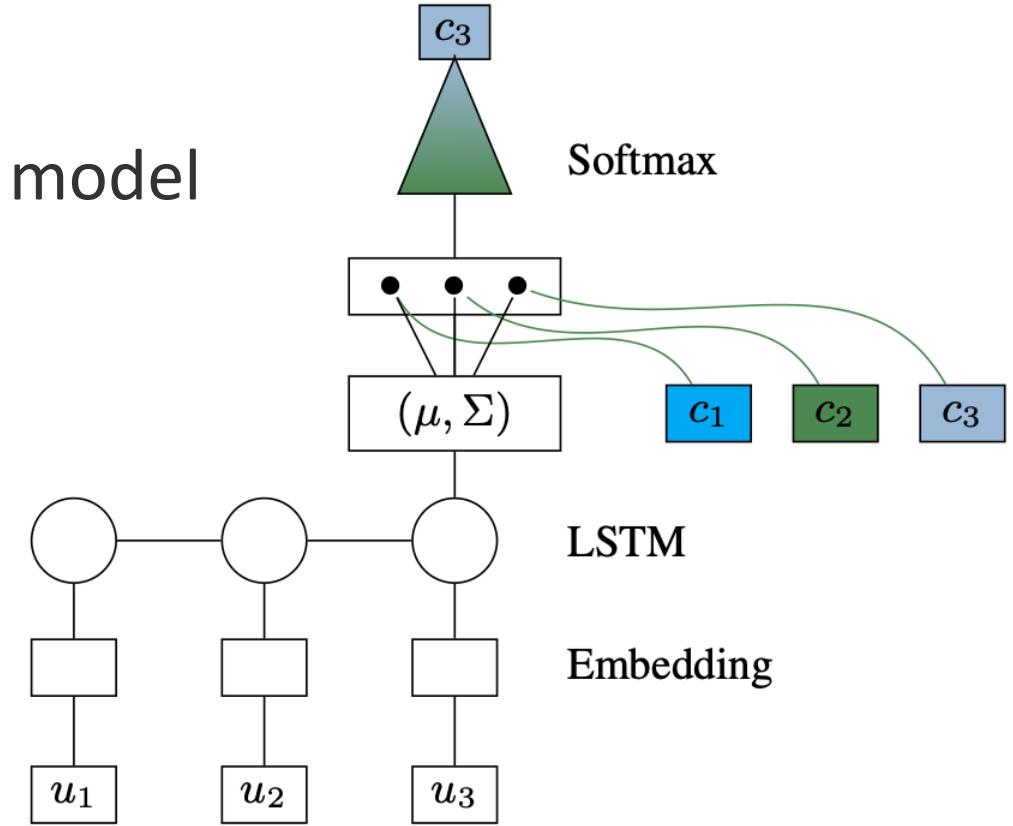




Colors in Context

From the listener perspective: sample generations from a base speaker language model

	Context	Utterance	
1.			darker blue
2.			Purple
3.			blue
4.			blue





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Some issues with the Frank & Goodman (2012) model:

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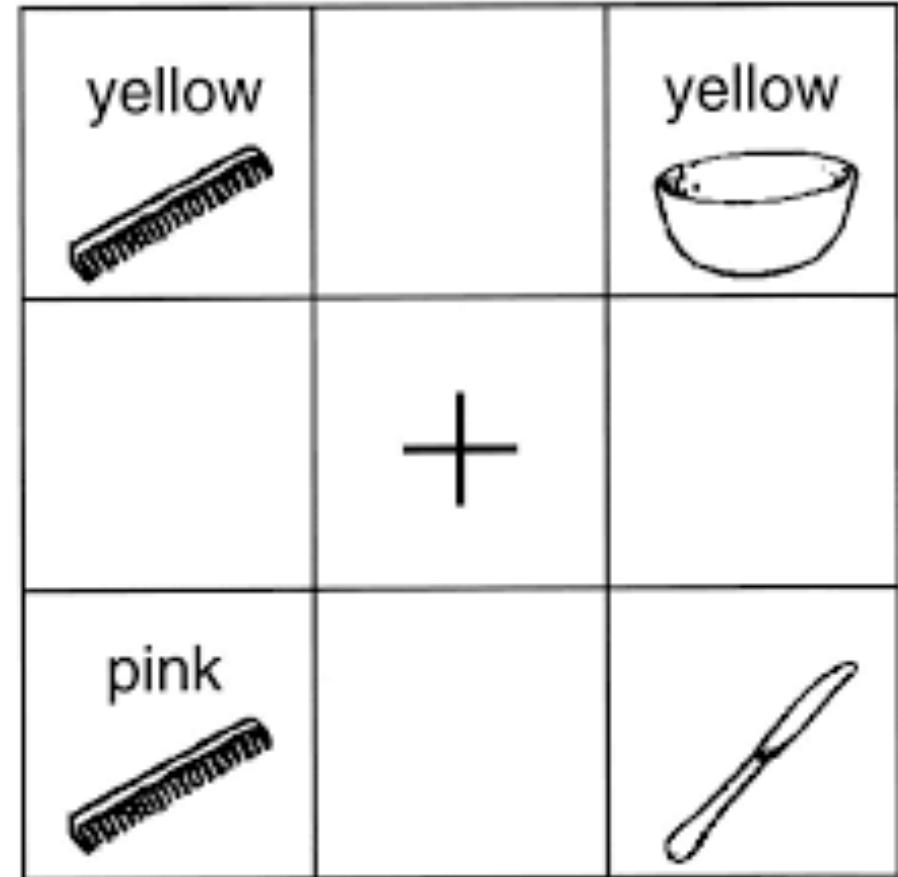


Incremental Pragmatics

Incremental pragmatics is a well-motivated mechanism of human language processing.

Sedivy, et al. (1999):

- Target: “Touch the yellow bowl.”
- Before the word “bowl” is uttered, participants look more toward the comb instead of the bowl





Incremental RSA (Cohn-Gordon, et al.)

Cohn-Gordon, Goodman, & Potts (2018): Pragmatically Informative Image Captioning with Character-Level Inference

Cohn-Gordon, Goodman, & Potts (2019): An Incremental Iterated Response Model of Pragmatics



Pragmatic Image Captioning

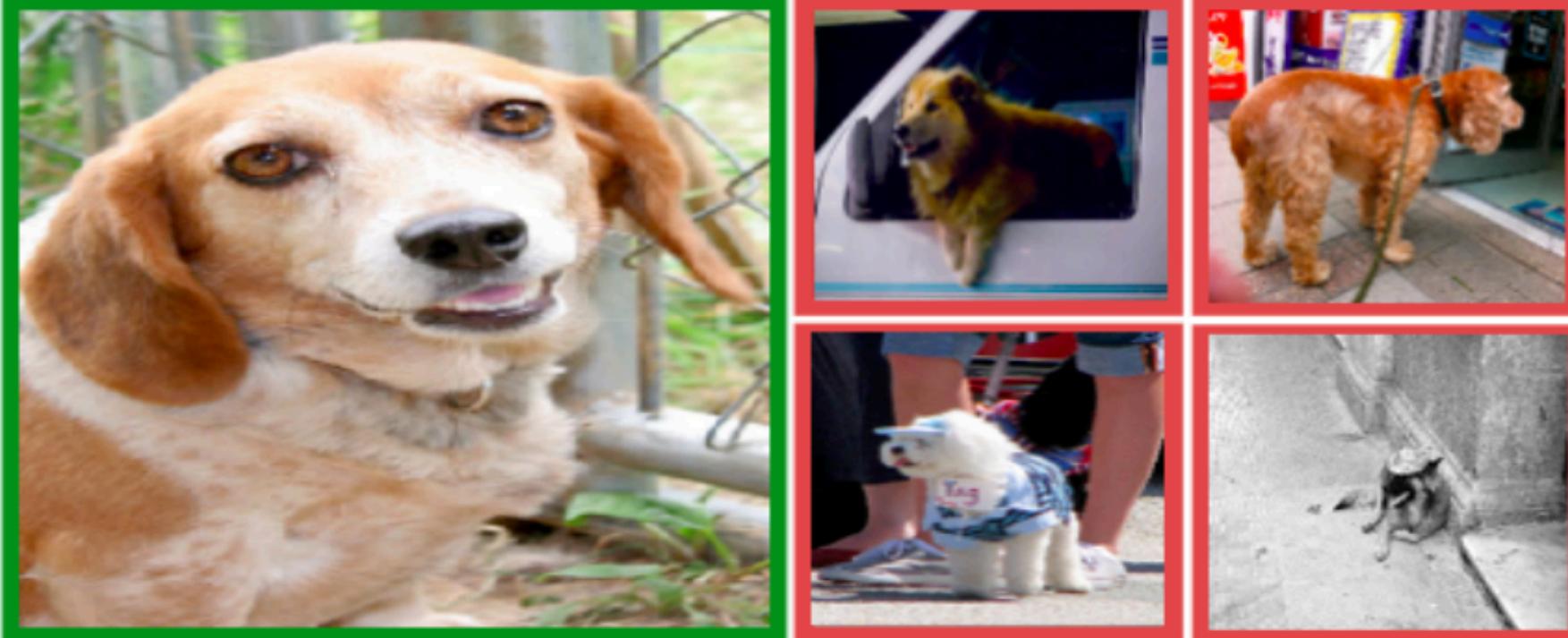
Task: given multiple images, one of which is the target, write a caption to distinguish the target image from the others

Approach:

- Instead of sampling utterances, normalize over all possible characters and distractor images
- Use beam search decoding to generate optimal captions



Pragmatic Image Captioning



S_0 caption: the dog is brown
 S_1 caption: the head of a dog



Pragmatic Image Captioning



S_0 caption: a double decker bus

S_1 caption: a red double decker bus



Issues with the RSA Model

Some issues with the Frank & Goodman (2012) model:

- ~~Requires explicit lexicon for semantic evaluation~~
- ~~Requires normalization over small set of alternative utterances and alternative meanings~~
- ~~Doesn't account for real-world pragmatic phenomena like over-informative referring expressions, anticipatory implicatures, etc.~~
- No model of topic relevance



Issues with the RSA Model

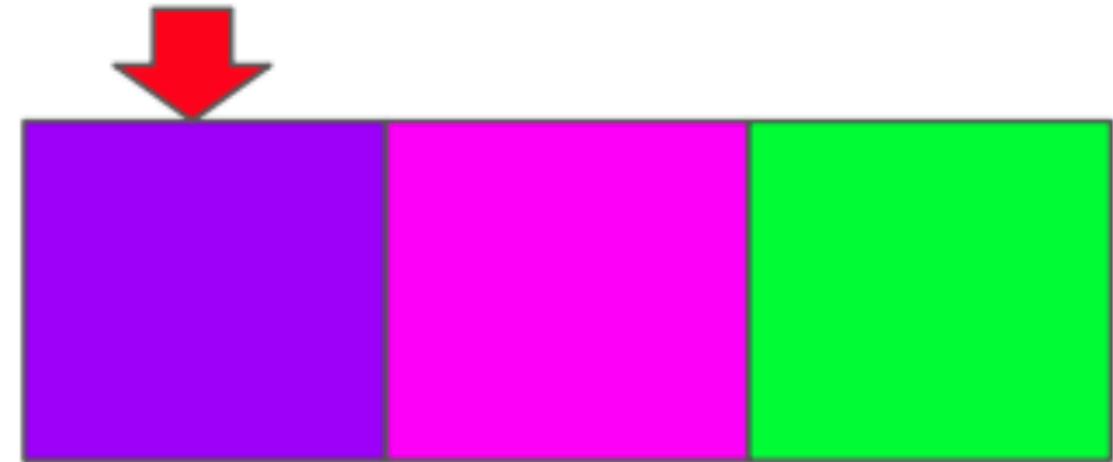
Some issues with the Frank & Goodman (2012) model:

- ~~Requires explicit lexicon for semantic evaluation~~
- ~~Requires normalization over small set of alternative utterances and alternative meanings~~
- ~~Doesn't account for real-world pragmatic phenomena like over-informative referring expressions, anticipatory implicatures, etc.~~
- No model of topic relevance (no general solution yet)



RSA for NLG Evaluation (Newman, et al.)

Motivation: n-gram overlap
evaluation metrics like BLEU and
ROUGE don't capture utterance
semantics or speaker intentions.



Task: Colors in Context
(Monroe, et al. 2017)

Descriptive	<i>“Dark Purple”</i>
Ambiguous	<i>“Purple or Pink”</i>
Misleading	<i>“Light Pink”</i>



Comparison of NLG Methods

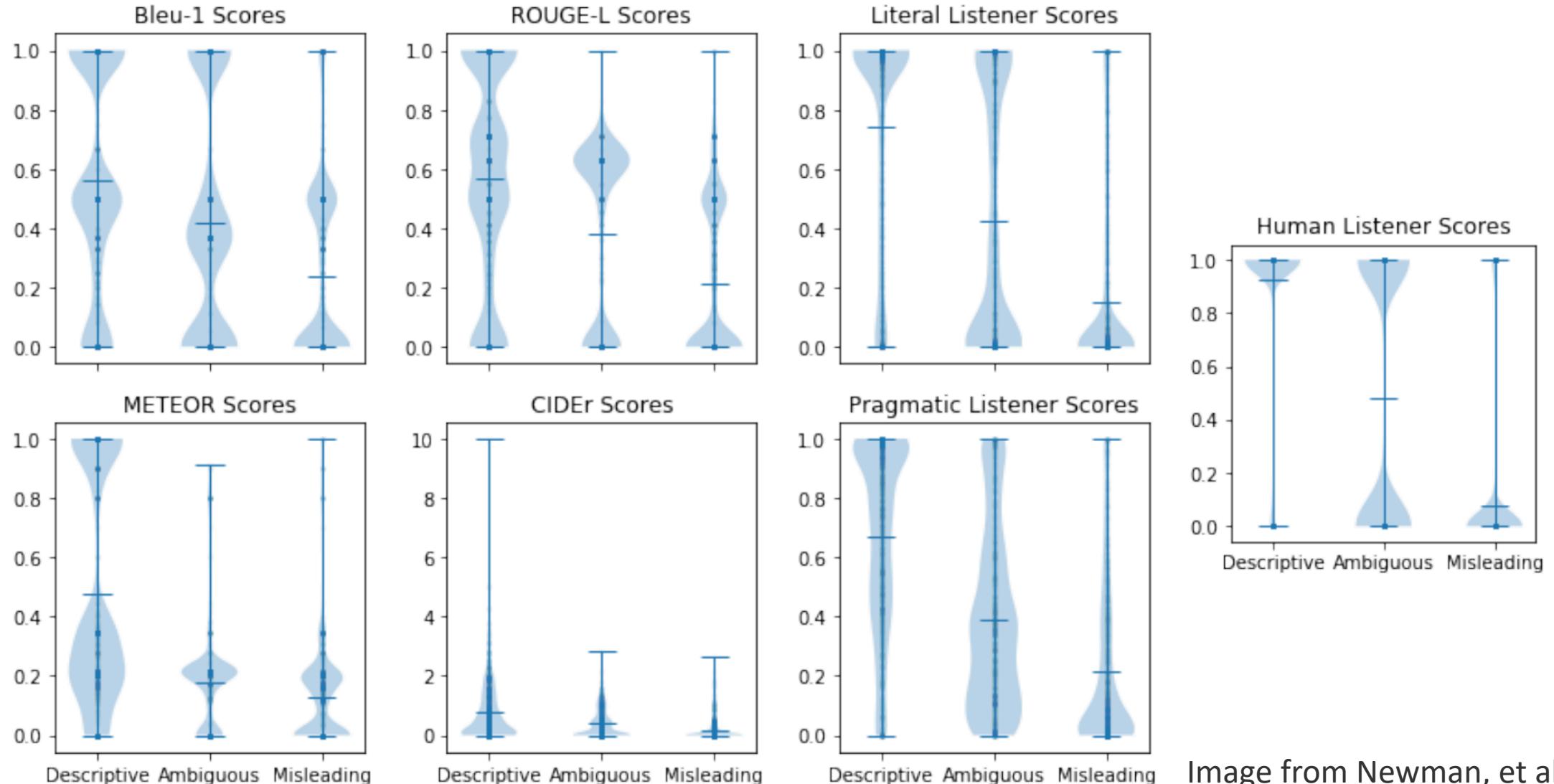


Image from Newman, et al. (2019)



Comparison of NLG Methods

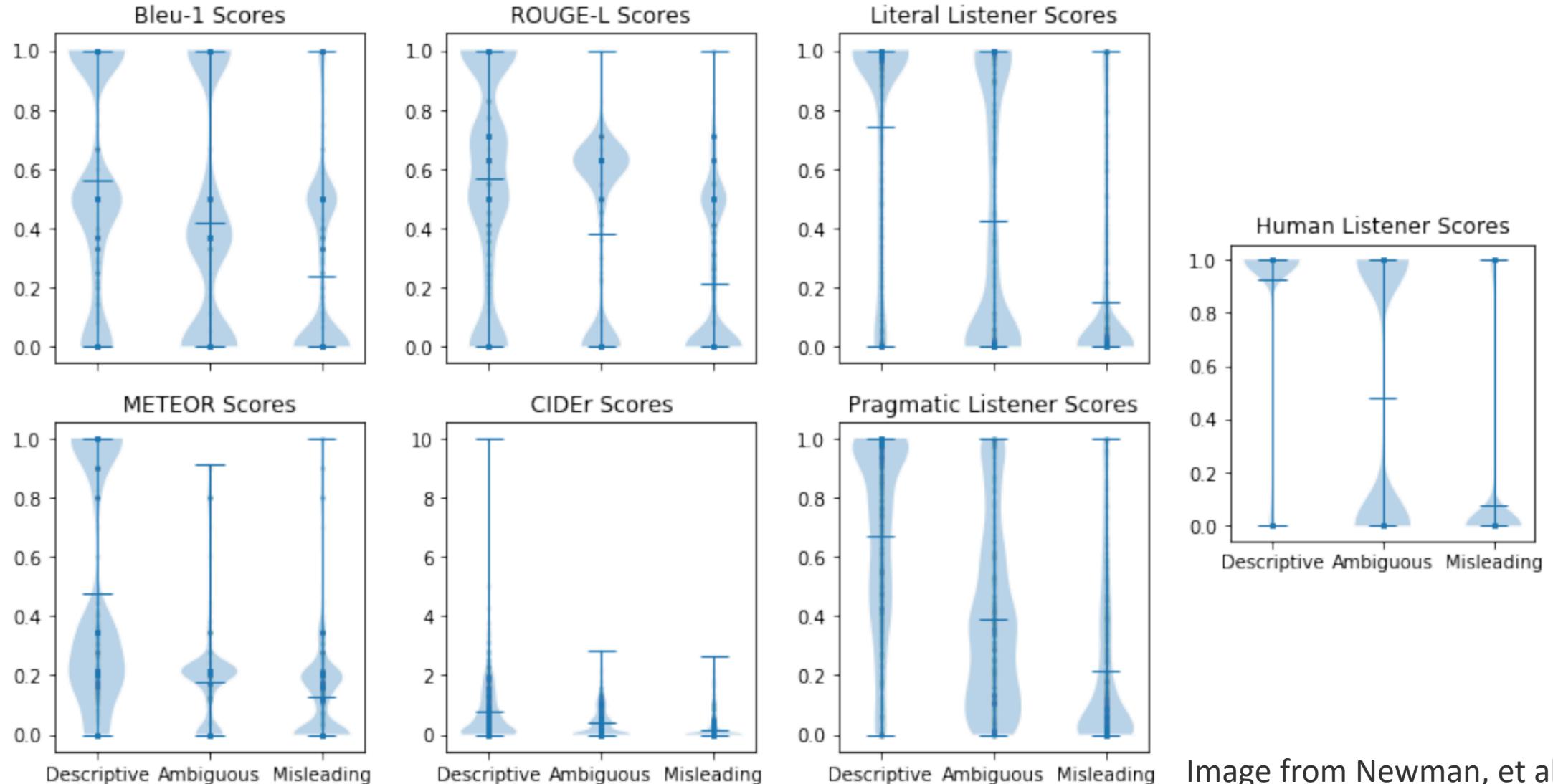


Image from Newman, et al. (2019)



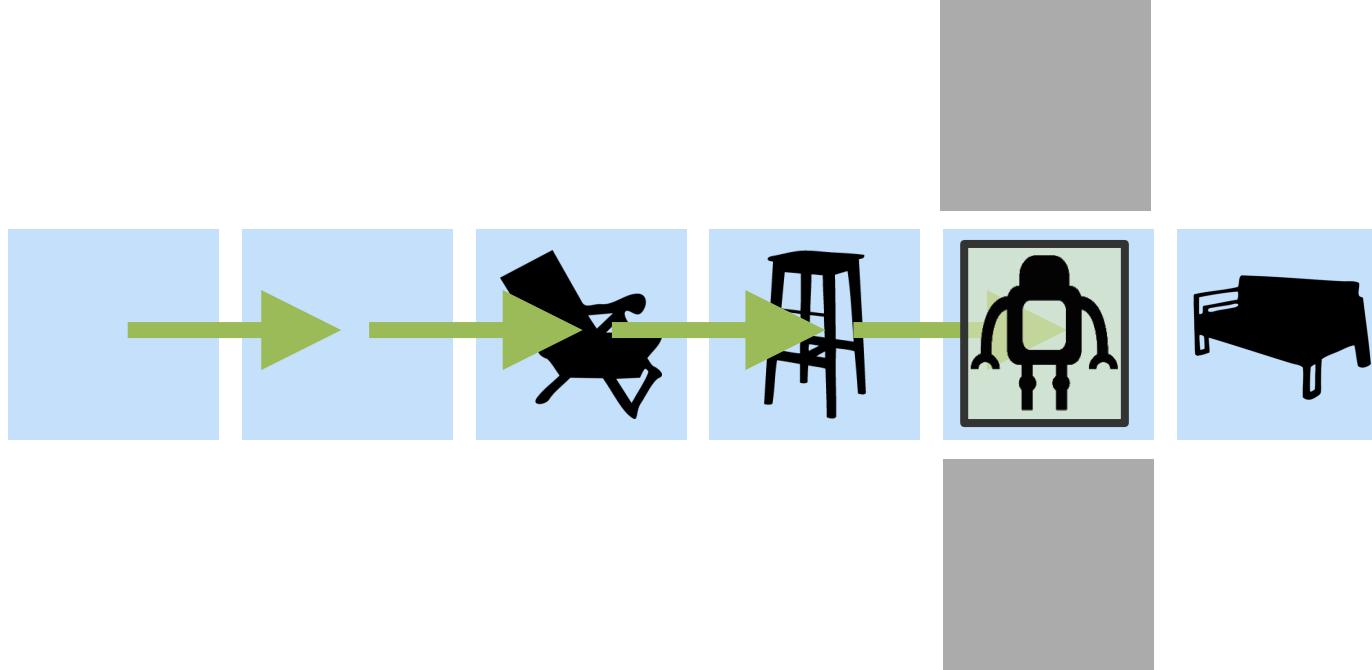
Further Directions for RSA

- RSA for machine translation (Cohn-Gordon & Goodman 2019)
- RSA for summarization (Shen, et al. 2019)
- Neural RSA without sampling (McDowell & Goodman 2019)
- RSA-type models for dialogue faithfulness (Kim, et al. 2020)
- Explaining linguistic phenomena with RSA (Bergen, et al. 2016)



Instruction Generation

Input
actions:

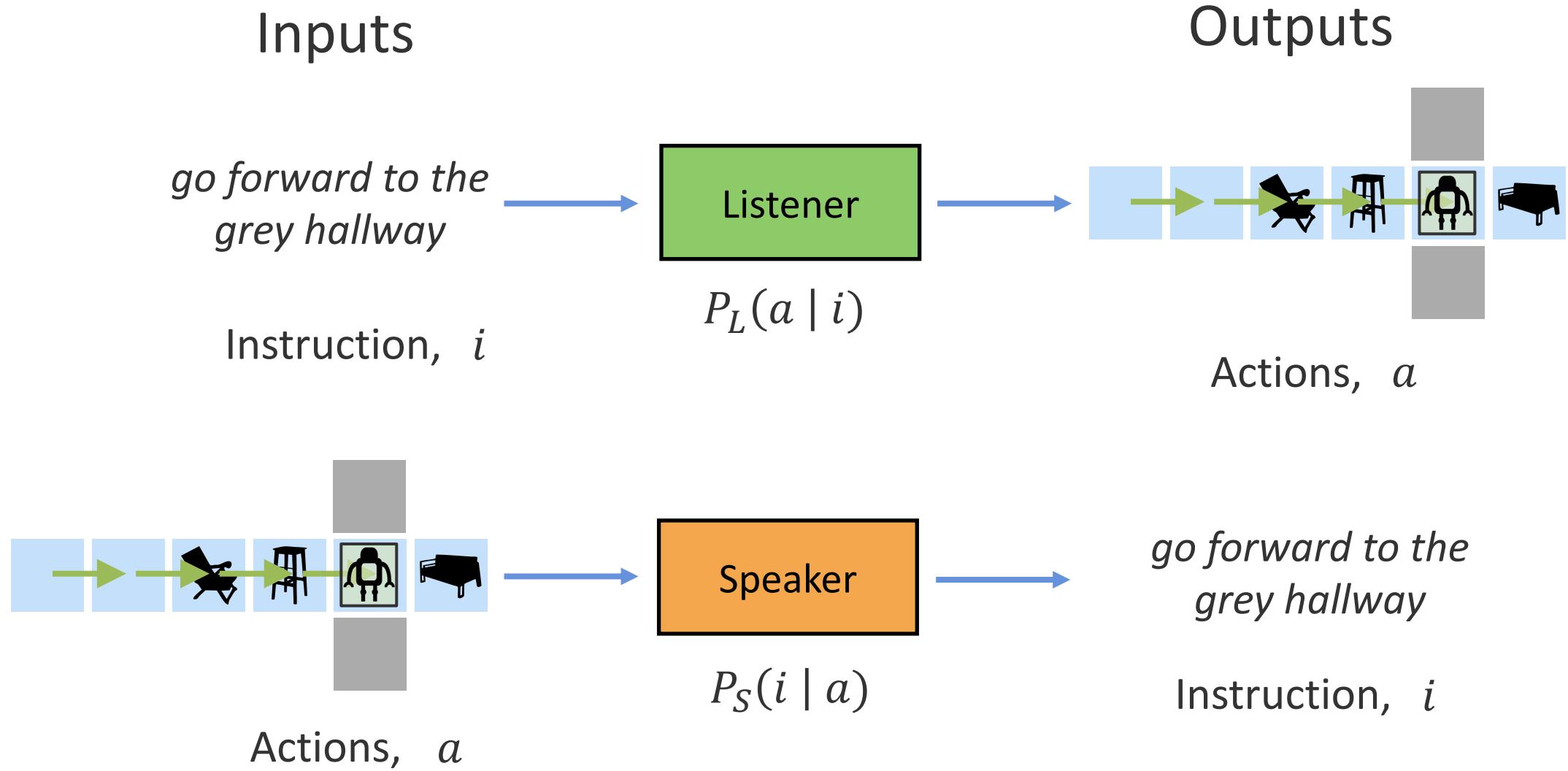


Output
Instruction:

go forward to the grey hallway



Neural Instruction Following

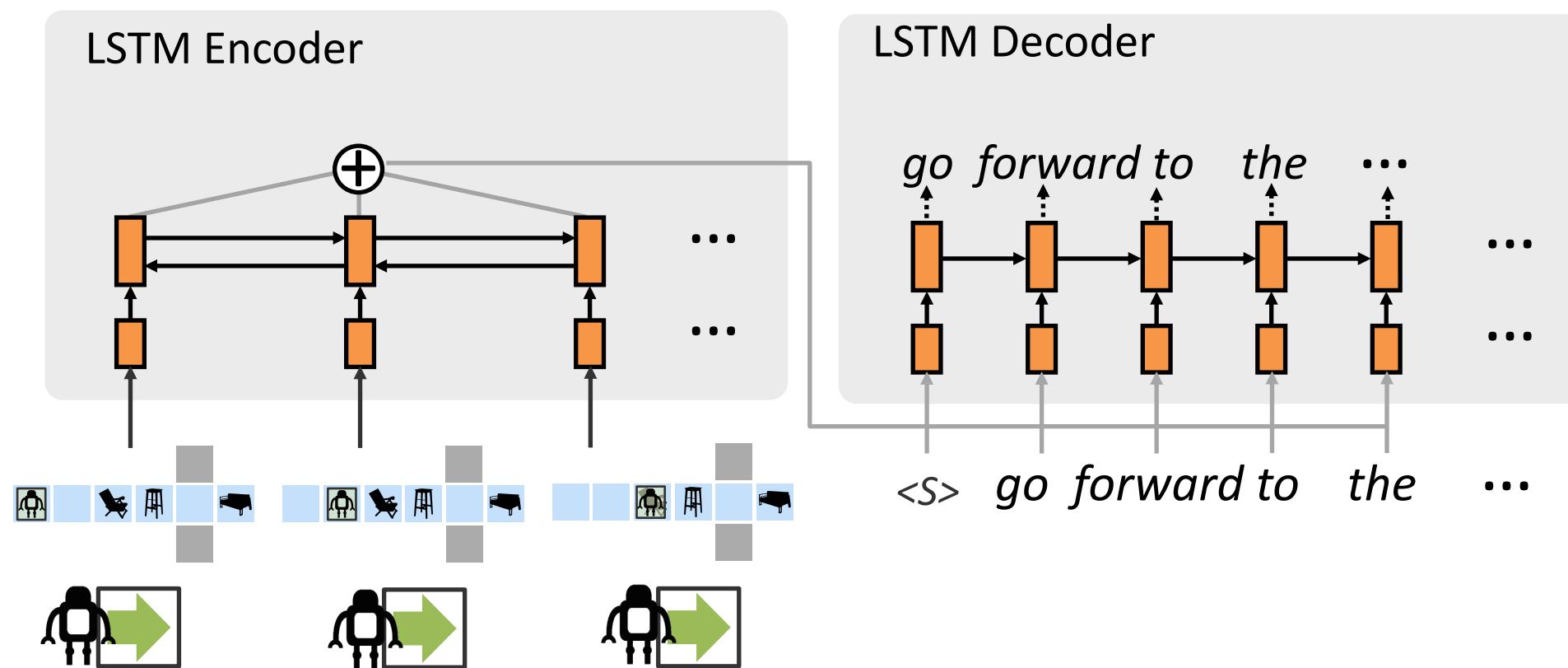




A Neural Speaker

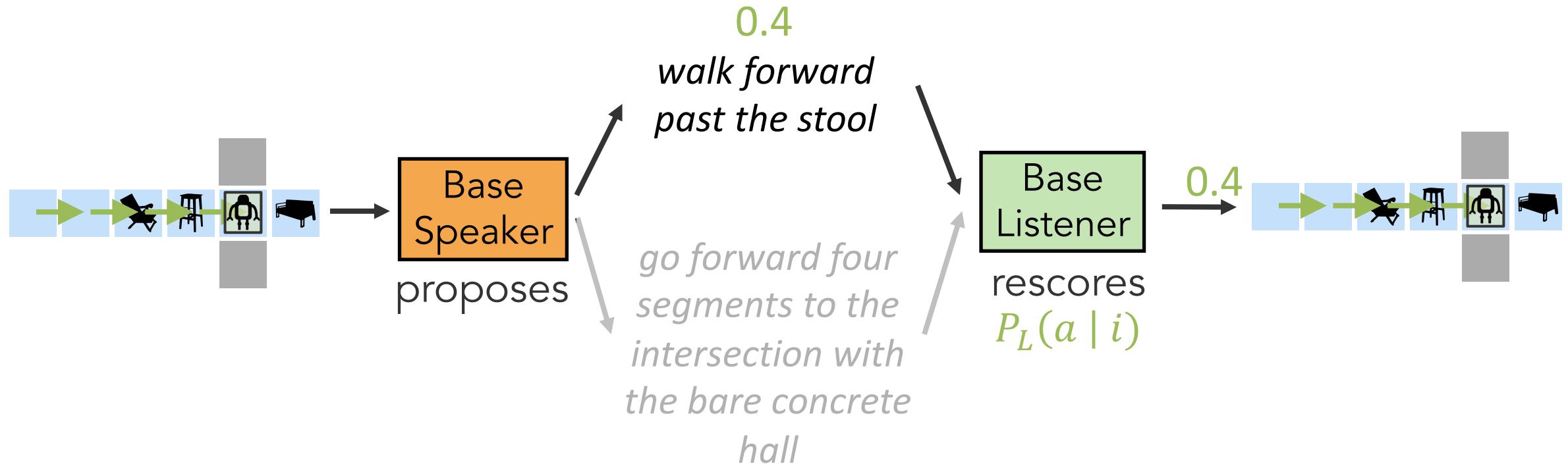
Base
Speaker

$$P_S(i \mid a) = \prod_t P_S(i_t \mid i_{1:t-1}, a)$$



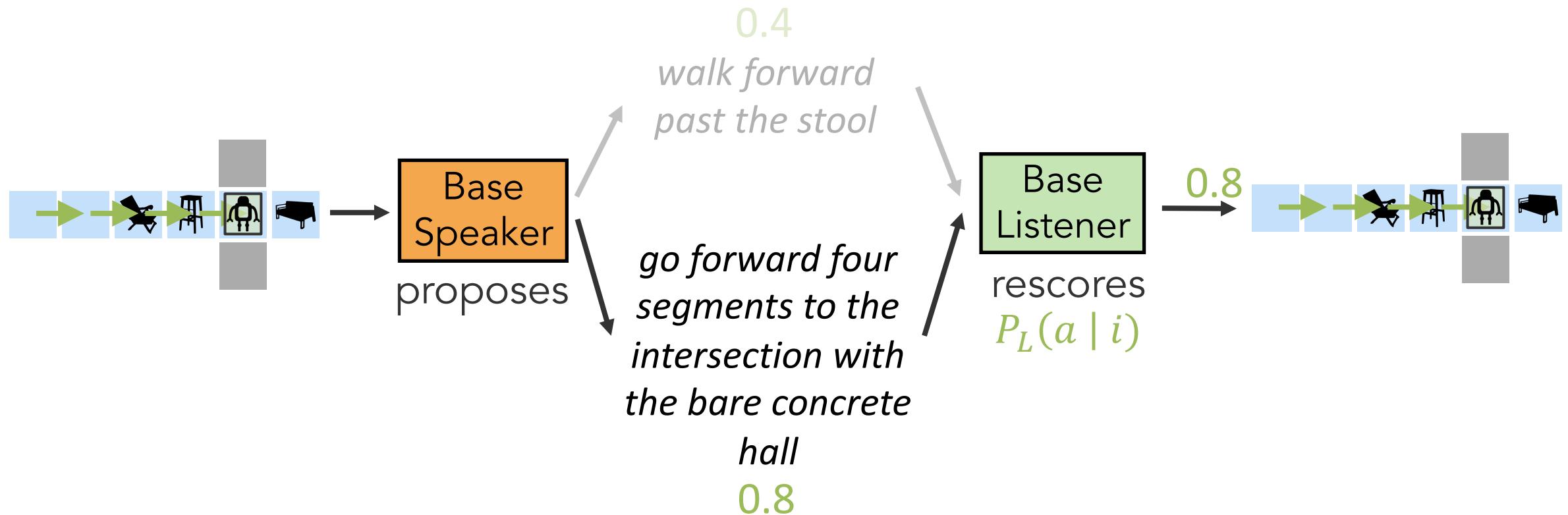


Building a Pragmatic Speaker



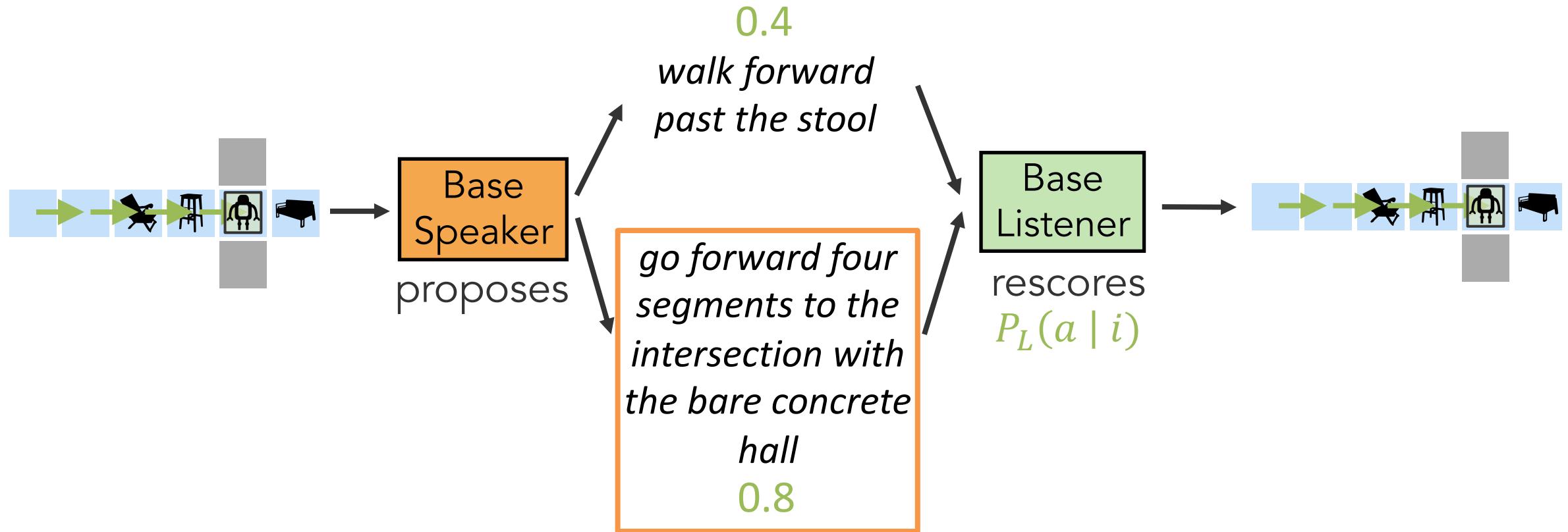


Building a Pragmatic Speaker





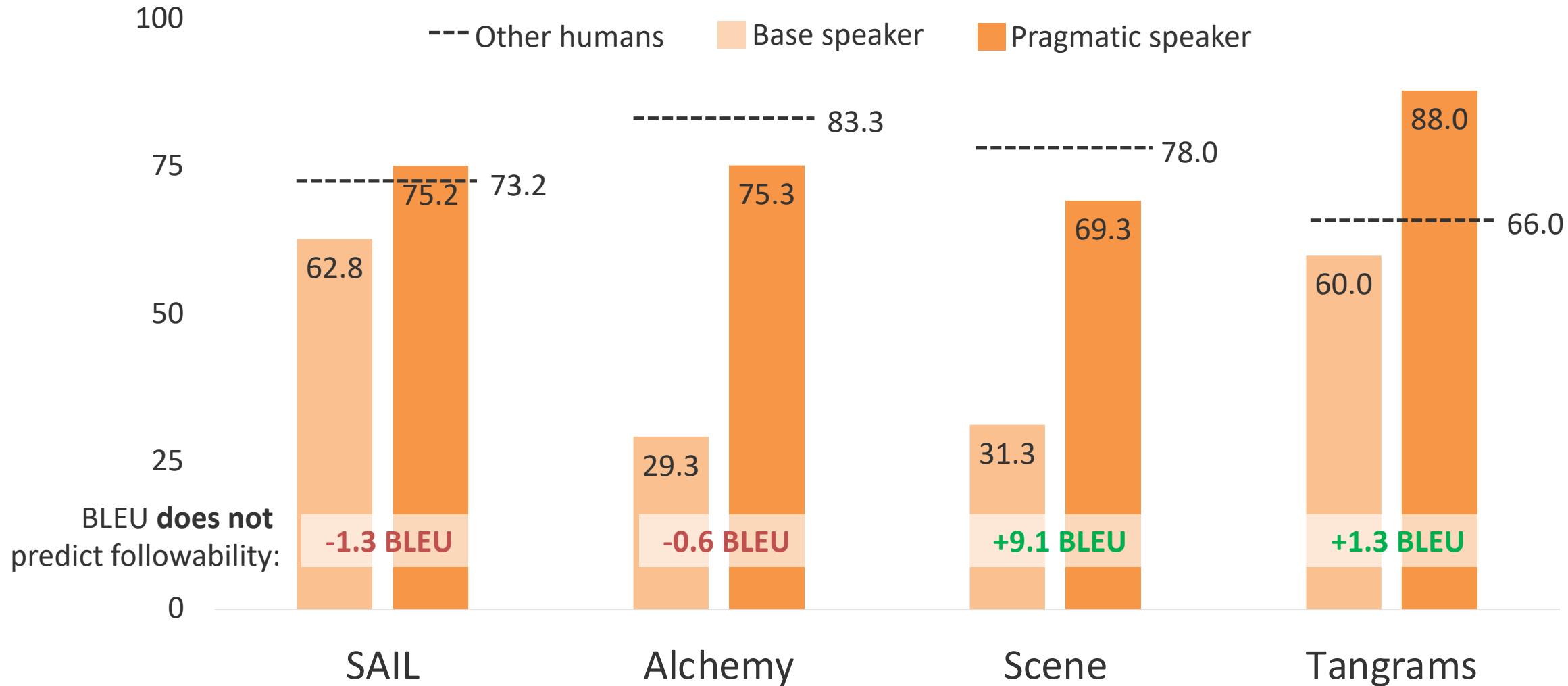
Building a Pragmatic Speaker





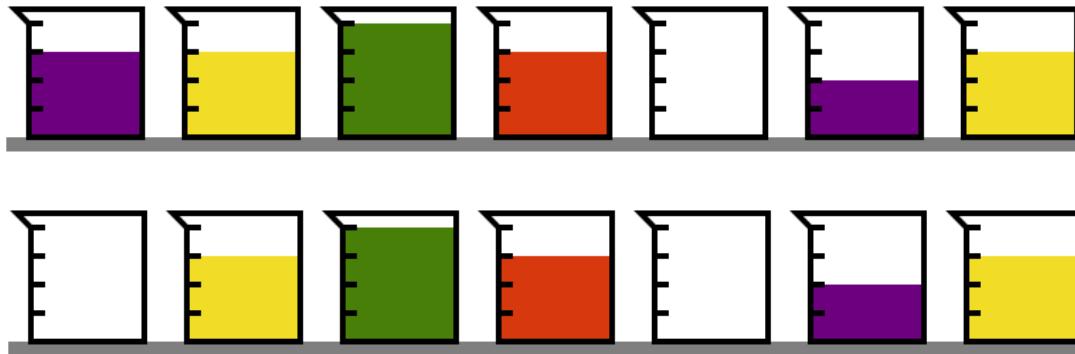
Building a Pragmatic Speaker

Human accuracy at following instructions from:





Pragmatics and Communicative Success



Base
Speaker

throw out the purple chemical

X

Pragmatic
Speaker

throw out the first purple chemical

✓

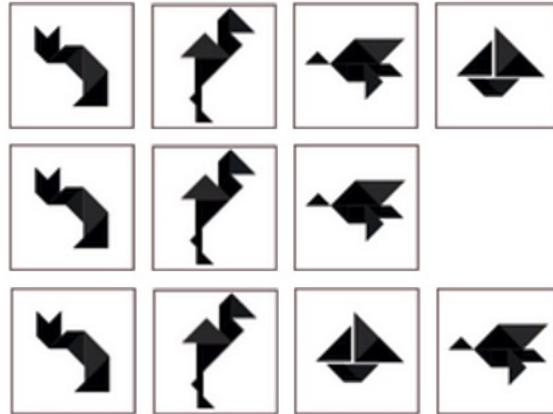
Human

*remove all the purple chemical
from the beaker on the far left*

✓



Pragmatics and Communicative Success



Base
Speaker

*remove the last figure
add it back*

X

Pragmatic
Speaker

*remove the last figure
add it back in the 3rd position*

✓

Human

*take away the last item
undo the last step*

X



Pragmatics and Communicative Success

Base speaker

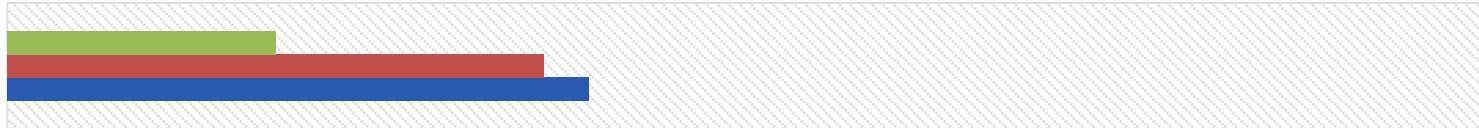
Pragmatic speaker

Human instructions

Amount of Information

Too Little

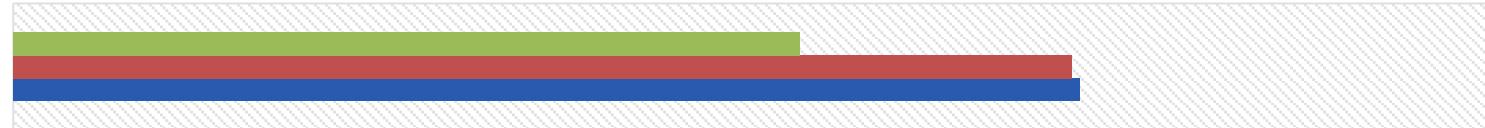
Too Much



Difficulty of the Task

Very Hard

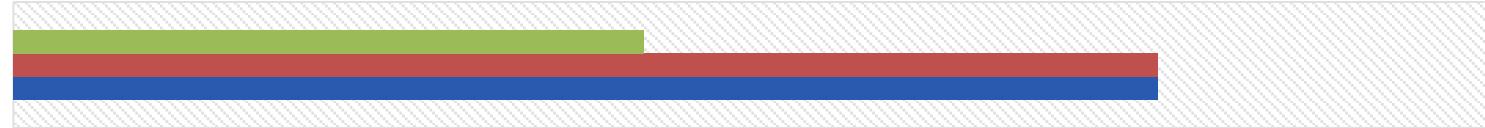
Very Easy



Confidence in Reaching End State

Not Confident

Confident



Averaged from 3 or 5 point Likert scales [Daniele et al. 2017]. Differences between base and pragmatic all statistically significant by χ^2 on counts.



Visually-Grounded Instructions



Human Description:

walk through the kitchen. go right into the living room and stop by the rug.

Base Speaker:

walk past the dining room table and chairs and wait there .

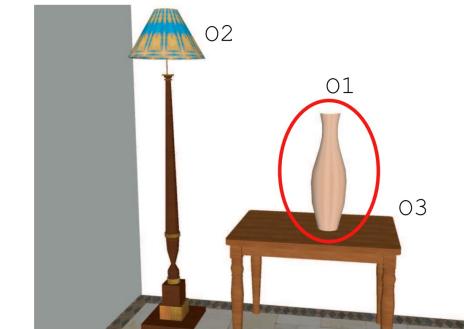
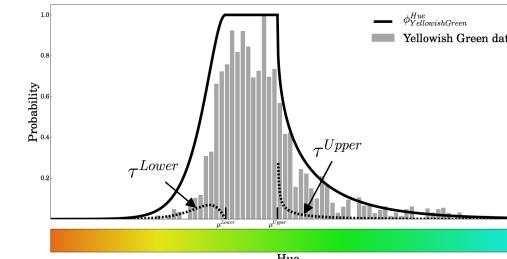
Pragmatic Speaker:

walk past the dining room table and chairs and take a right into the living room. stop once you are on the rug.



Connections to Semantic Parsing

- ▶ Each grounding framework requires mapping natural language to something concrete (distribution in color space, object, action sequence)
- ▶ Sometimes looks like semantic parsing, particularly when language \rightarrow discrete output
- ▶ Using linguistic structure to capture compositionality is often useful



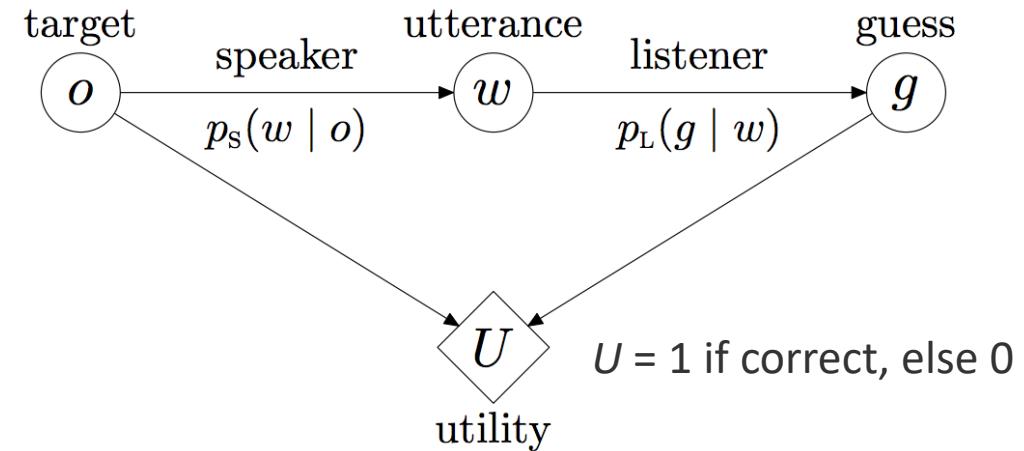
$$\frac{\frac{\text{go}}{S} \quad \frac{\text{to}}{AP/NP} \quad \frac{\text{the}}{NP/N} \quad \frac{\text{chair}}{N}}{\frac{}{NP} \frac{}{ix.chair(x)}} >$$
$$\frac{}{AP} \frac{\lambda a.to(a, ix.chair(x))}{\lambda f.\lambda a.f(a) \wedge to(a, ix.chair(x))} <$$
$$\frac{S \setminus S}{\lambda a.move(a) \wedge to(a, ix.chair(x))} <$$



Spatial Relations

- ▶ Two models: a speaker, and a listener
- ▶ We can compute expected success:

$$\text{EU}(\text{S}, \text{L}) = \sum_{o,w,g} p(o)p_s(w|o)p_L(g|w)U(o, g)$$



- ▶ Modeled after cooperative principle of Grice (1975) : listeners should assume speakers are cooperative, and vice-versa
- ▶ For a fixed listener, we can solve for the optimal speaker, and vice-versa

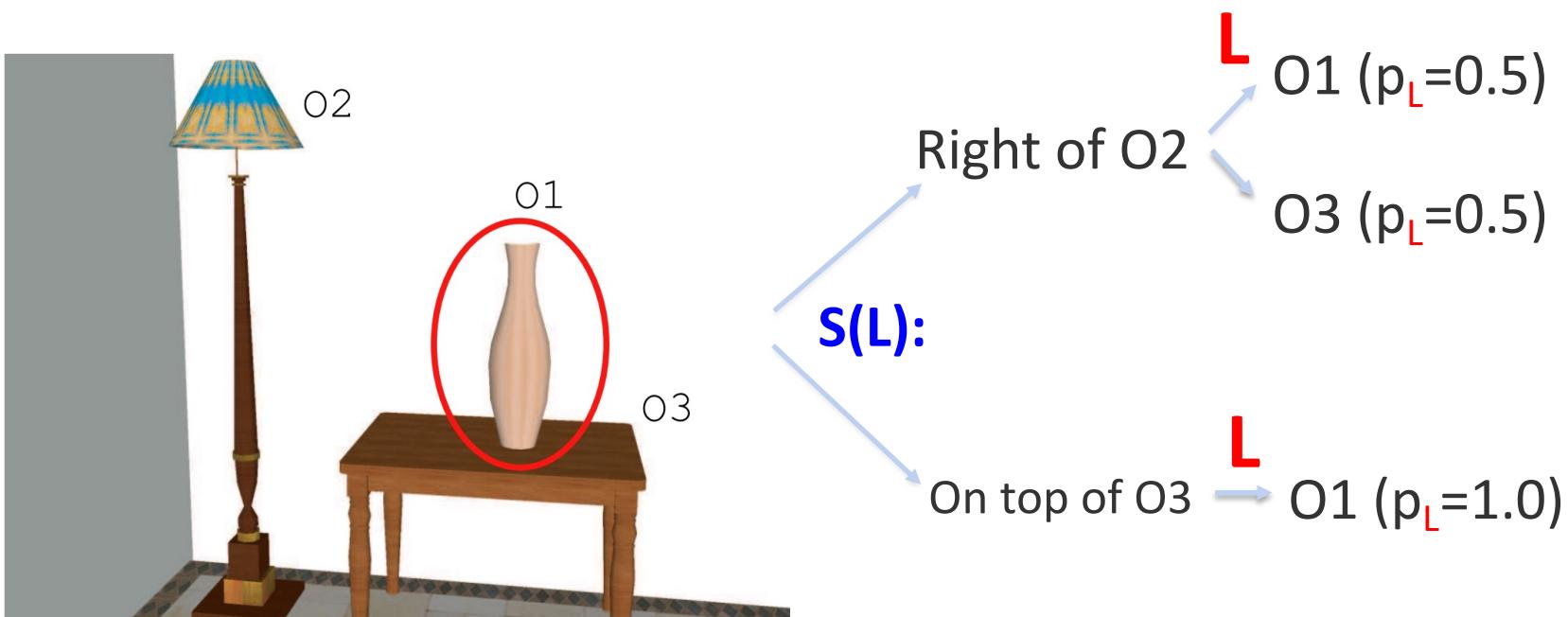


Spatial Relations

- For a fixed listener, $\textcolor{red}{L}$, and a uniform prior $p(o)$, we can solve for the optimal speaker, $\textcolor{blue}{S(L)}$:

$$\textcolor{blue}{S(L)}(o) = \operatorname{argmax}_w p_{\textcolor{red}{L}}(o|w)$$

- Visualize as a game tree:

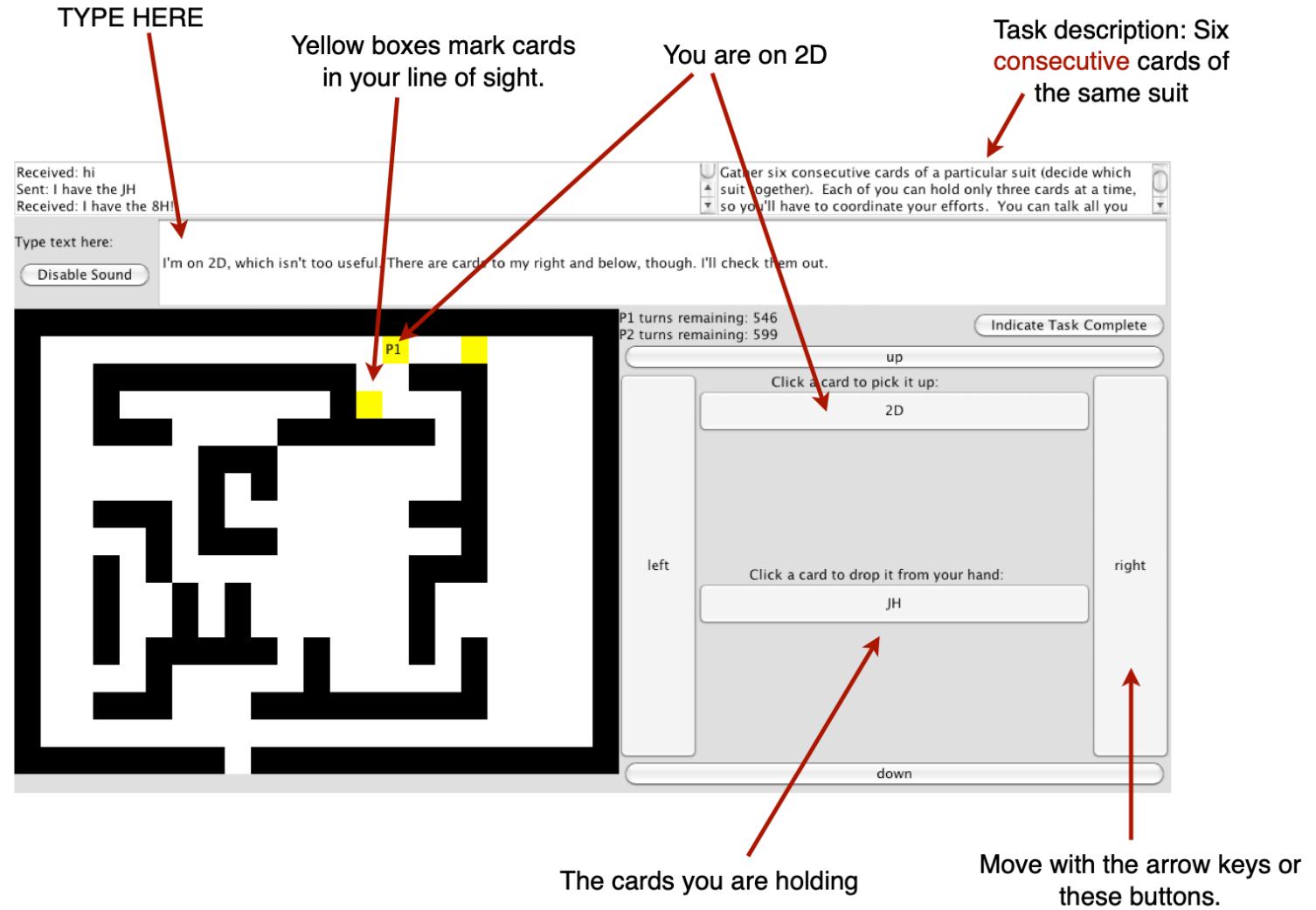




Challenge Tasks: Cards Corpus

Two players navigating a partially-observable environment must coordinate to collect a straight of cards

[Potts 2012; Vogel, et al. 2013]

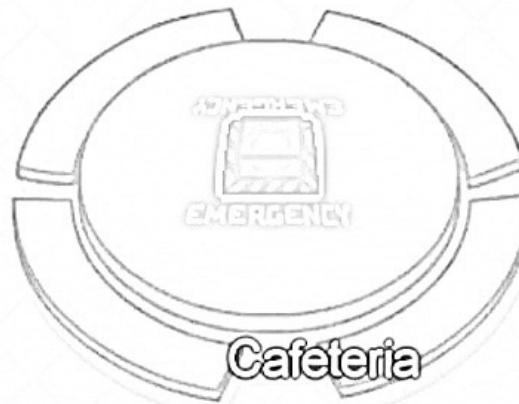
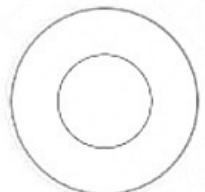
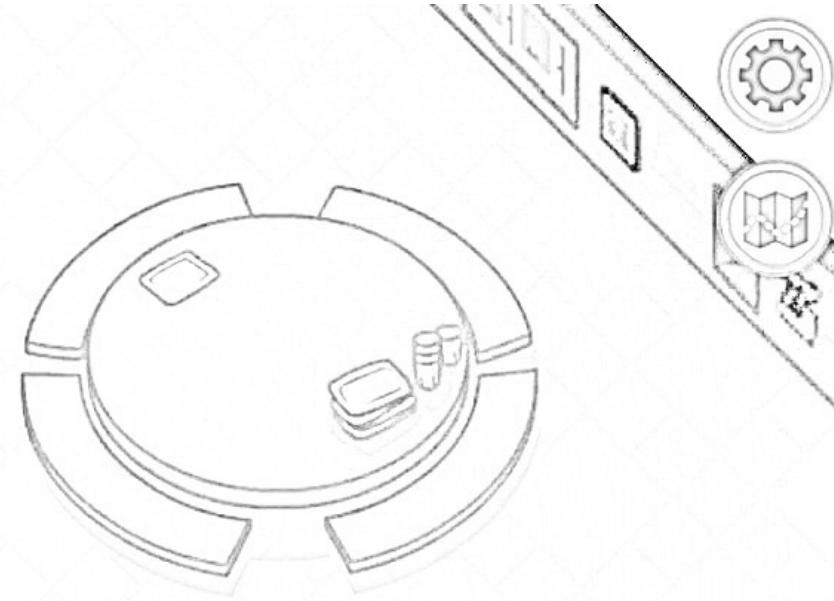




Challenge Tasks: Among Us



CREW MEETING



Cafeteria

