

1 The effect of linking assumptions and number of response options on inferred scalar  
2 implicature rate

3 Masoud Jasbi<sup>1</sup>, Brandon Waldon<sup>1</sup>, & Judith Degen<sup>1</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup> Stanford University

5 Author Note

6 Add complete departmental affiliations for each author here. Each new line herein  
7 must be indented, like this line. Enter author note here.

8 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Masoud Jasbi, Postal  
9 address. E-mail: [my@email.com](mailto:my@email.com)

## Abstract

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12       *Keywords:* scalar implicature; methodology; linking assumption; experimental  
13 pragmatics; truth-value judgment task

14       Word count: X

The effect of linking assumptions and number of response options on inferred scalar implicature rate

## Introduction

The past 15 years have seen the rise and development of a bustling and exciting new field at the intersection of linguistics, psychology, and philosophy: *experimental pragmatics* (Bott & Noveck, 2004; Breheny, Katsos, & Williams, 2006; Degen & Tanenhaus, 2015; Geurts & Pouscoulous, 2009; Grodner, Klein, Carbary, & Tanenhaus, 2010; Huang & Snedeker, 2009; I. A. Noveck & Reboul, 2008) **XXX ADD MORE**. Experimental pragmatics is devoted to experimentally testing theories of how language is used in context. How do listeners draw inferences about the – often underspecified – linguistic signal they receive from speakers? How do speakers choose between the many utterance alternatives they have at their disposal?

The most prominently studied phenomenon in experimental pragmatics is undoubtedly *scalar implicature*. Scalar implicatures arise in virtue of a speaker producing the weaker of two ordered scalemates (hornXXX; ???, ???; Grice, 1975). Examples are provided in (1) and (2).

1.

- *Utterance*: Some of her pets are cats.
- *Implicature*: Some, but not all, of her pets are cats.
- *Scale*:

2.

- *Utterance*: She owns a cat or a dog.
- *Implicature*: She owns a cat or a dog, but not both.
- *Scale*:

A listener, upon observing the utterances in (1a) and (2a), typically infers that the speaker intended to convey the meanings in (1b) and (2b), respectively. Since Grice (1975),

the agreed-upon abstract rationalization the listener could give for their inference goes something like this: the speaker could have made a more informative statement by producing the stronger alternative (e.g., *All of her pets are cats.*). If the stronger alternative is true, they should have produced it to comply with the Cooperative Principle. They chose not to. I believe the speaker knows whether the stronger alternative is true. Hence, it must not be true.

Because the basic reconstruction of the inference is much more easily characterized for scalar implicatures than for other implicatures, scalar implicatures have served as a test bed for many questions in experimental pragmatics, including, but not limited to:

1. Are scalar inferences default inferences, in the sense that they arise unless blocked by (marked) contexts (Degen, 2015; Horn, 1984; Levinson, 2000)?
2. Are scalar inferences default inferences, in the sense that they are computed automatically in online processing and only cancelled by context in a second effortful step if required by context) [Bott and Noveck (2004);Breheny et al. (2006);Degen and Tanenhaus (2016);Grodner et al. (2010);Huang and Snedeker (2009);Politzer-Ahles and Fiorentino (2013);Tomlinson2013]?
3. What are the (linguistic and extra-linguistic) factors that affect whether a scalar implicature is derived [Zondervan (2010);Degen and Tanenhaus (2015); Degen and Tanenhaus (2016); Degen (2015); (???); Bergen and Grodner (2012); Breheny et al. (2006); Breheny, Ferguson, and Katsos (2013);(???);De Neys and Schaeken (2007);Bonnefon, Feeney, and Villejoubert (2009);Chemla2011;Potts2015]?
4. How much diversity is there across implicature types, and within scalar implicatures across scale types, in whether or not an implicature is computed (Doran, Ward, Larson, McNabb, & Baker, 2012; Tiel, Miltenburg, Zevakhina, & Geurts, 2014)?
5. At what age do children acquire the ability to compute implicatures (Barner, Brooks,

& Bale, 2011; Katsos & Bishop, 2011; Frank; Musolino, 2004; Noveck, 2001; Papafragou & Tantalou, 2004)?

In addressing all of these questions, it has been crucial to obtain estimates of **implicature rates**. For 1., implicature rates from experimental tasks can be taken to inform whether scalar implicatures should be considered default inferences. For 2., processing measures on responses that indicate implicatures can be compared to processing measures on responses that indicate literal interpretations. For 3., contextual effects can be examined by comparing implicature rates across contexts. For 4., implicature rates can be compared across scales (or across implicature types). For 5., implicature rates can be compared across age groups.

A standard measure that has stood proxy for implicature rate across many studies is the proportion of “pragmatic” judgments in truth-value judgment paradigms [Bott and Noveck (2004);Noveck (2001);Noveck and Posada (2003);Chemla and Spector (2011);Geurts and Pouscoulous (2009);Degen and Tanenhaus (2015);De Neys and Schaeken (2007);Degen2014]. In these kinds of tasks, participants are provided a set of facts, either presented visually or via their own knowledge of the world. They are then asked to judge whether a sentence intended to describe those facts is true or false (or alternatively, whether it is right or wrong, or they are asked whether they agree or disagree with the sentence). The crucial condition for assessing implicature rates in these kinds of studies typically consists of a case where the facts are such that the stronger alternative is true and the utterance is underinformative. For instance, (???) asked participants to judge sentences like “Some elephants are mammals”, when world knowledge dictates that all elephants are mammals. Similarly, Degen and Tanenhaus (2015) asked participants to judge sentences like “You got some of the gumballs” in situations where the visual evidence indicated that the participant received all the gumballs from a gumball machine. In these kinds of scenarios, the story goes, if a participant responds “FALSE”, that indicates that they computed a scalar implicature, eg to the effect of “Not all elephants are mammals” or “You didn’t get all

of the gumballs”. If instead a participant responds “TRUE”, that is taken to indicate that they interpreted the utterance literally as ‘Some, and possibly all, elephants are mammals’ or “You god some, and possibly all, of the gumballs”.

People who have discussed issues with the TVJP: (???); Geurts and Pouscoulous (2009); (???); Katsos and Bishop (2011)

- (???) for investigations of scalar adjectives,

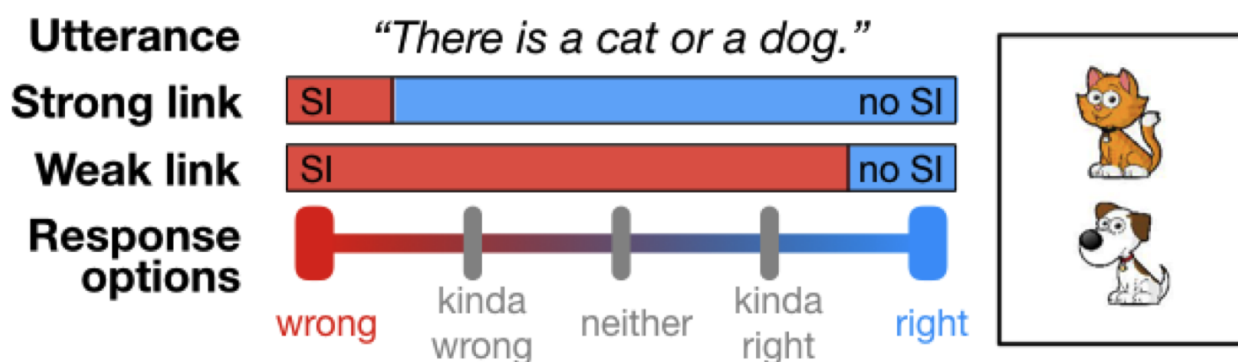


Figure 1. Strong and weak link from response options to researcher inference about scalar implicature rate, exemplified for the disjunctive utterance when the conjunction is true.

- In a truth-value judgment task, how do we know whether an interpretation is literal or the result of an implicature computation?

Explain the setup \* the speaker produces weaker alternative from the scale \* the facts are such that the stronger alternative is true

Traditional Linking Hypotheses: \* If an implicature is calculated, the participant chooses a Non-True/Non-Right response \* If an implicature is calculated, the participant chooses the Wrong/False response \* If an implicature is calculated, the participant chooses the lower end of the scale (2: wrong/False, 3: wrong, 4: wrong/kinda-wrong, 5: wrong/kinda-wrong)

Questions: \* Do these linking hypotheses give us different measures of implicature computation? \* If they do differ, which one is most stable?

Alternative Linking Hypothesis: \* RSA: Response behavior across conditions (utterance-card combinations) and dependent measures can be predicted by a linking hypothesis that assumes that participants are behaving like soft-optimal RSA speakers and provide a particular response (eg TRUE) to an utterance  $u$  if the RSA speaker probability of  $u$  (given the card) is within a particular probability interval (eg, within the interval  $[\theta, 1]$ ).

- Differences between traditional approaches and RSA: 1. The traditional linking hypotheses are based on a binary implicature/literal theory of pragmatic reasoning but RSA gives a continuous measure of pragmatic reasoning and allows for better predicting response behavior with multiple options.

## Background

- discussing the ways people in the past have measured the “implicature rate”.
- it seems like the literature takes the  $n(\text{not-True})/n(\text{Total})$  as the proportion of responses caused by implicature calculation
- BUT, I remember that Jesse Snedeker said it’s NOT  $n(\text{not-True})/n(\text{Total})$  but it is  $n(\text{False})/n(\text{Total})$
- However, this is probably not a consensus in the field because Katsos & Bishop consider the mid-point response “big” on the scale small-big-huge (strawberry) to be the result of implicature calculation
- what is the most common measure of “implicature rate” in the literature? Binary True/False: Noveck 2001, Chemla & Spector 2011, Ternary: Katsos & Bishop 2011

## Methods

### Participants

200 participants were recruited using Amazon Mechanical Turk (binary=50, ternary53, quaternary=43, quinary=54). No participant was excluded from the final analysis.

### Procedure

The study was administered online and through Amazon Mechanical Turk. Participants were introduced to a set of cards with pictures of one or two animals (Figure 2). They were told that a blindfolded fictional character called Bob is going to guess what animals are on the card. In each trial, participants saw a card as well as a sentence representing Bob's guess. For example they saw a card with a cat on it and read the sentence "there is a cat on the card." The study ended after 24 trials. At the end participants were asked about their

You can access and view the online study here.

### Design and Materials

The design had two main manipulations: the type of card and the type of guess. There were two types of cards. Cards with only one animal on them and cards with two animals. Animals were chosen from the following set: cat, dog, and elephant. There were three types of guesses: simple (e.g. *There is a cat*), conjunctive (e.g. *There is a cat and a dog*), and disjunctive (e.g. *There is a cat or a dog*).

In each trial, the animal labels used in the guess and the animal images on the card may have no overlap (e.g. Image: dog, Guess: *There is a cat or an elephant*), a partial overlap (e.g. Image: Cat, Guess: *There is a cat or an elephant*), or a total overlap (e.g. Image: cat and elephant, Guess: *There is a cat or an elephant*). Crossing the number of animals on the card, the type of guess, and the overlap between the guess and the card results in 12 different possible trial types. We chose 8 trial types (Figure 3), balancing the



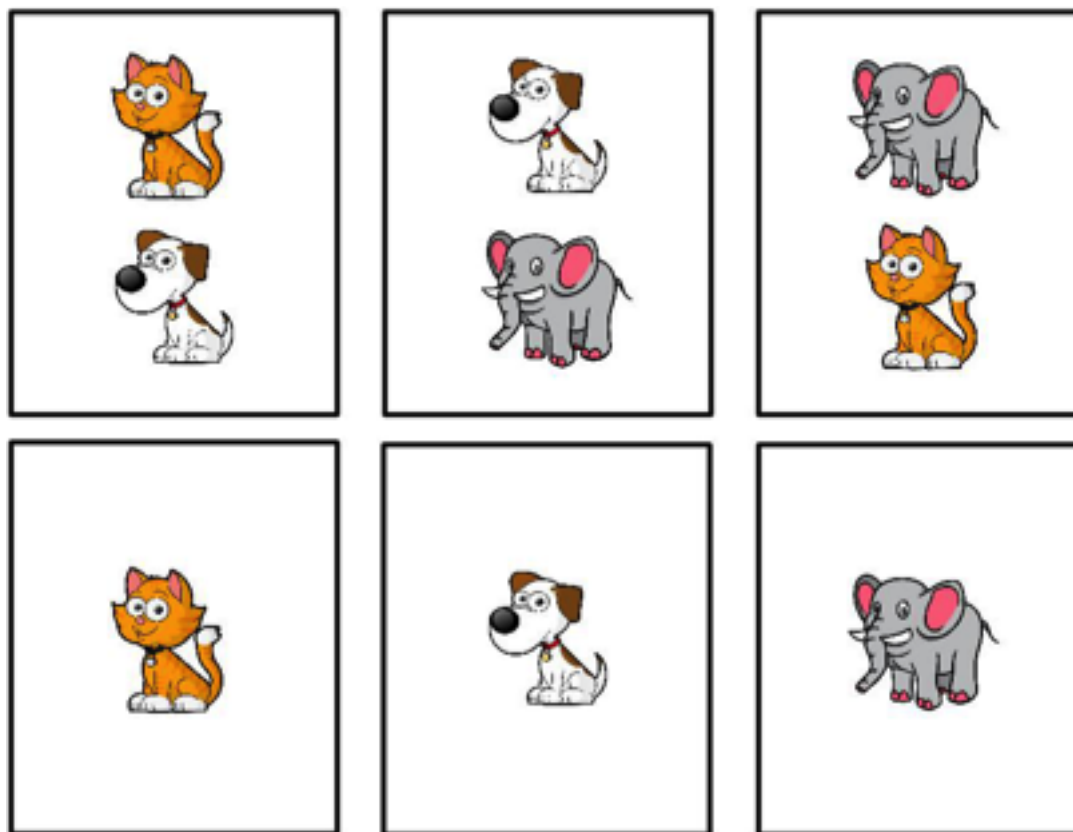


Figure 2. Cards used in the connective guessing game.

number of one-animal vs. two-animal cards, simple vs. connective guesses, and expected true vs. false trials.

The study used five different types of measurements. 1. two-options (true vs. false) 2. two-options (wrong vs. right) 3. three-options (wrong, neither, right) 4. four-options (wrong, kinda wrong, kinda right, right) 5. five-options (wrong, kinda wrong, neither, kinda right, right).

## Pre-registered Analysis

We are primarily concerned with the “rate of implicatures” in an experimental study. Two trial types are predicted to include pragmatic implicatures. First, trials where there are two animals on the card but the fictional character guesses using the connective *or*; for example “cat or dog” when the card has both a cat and a dog on it. We call such trials

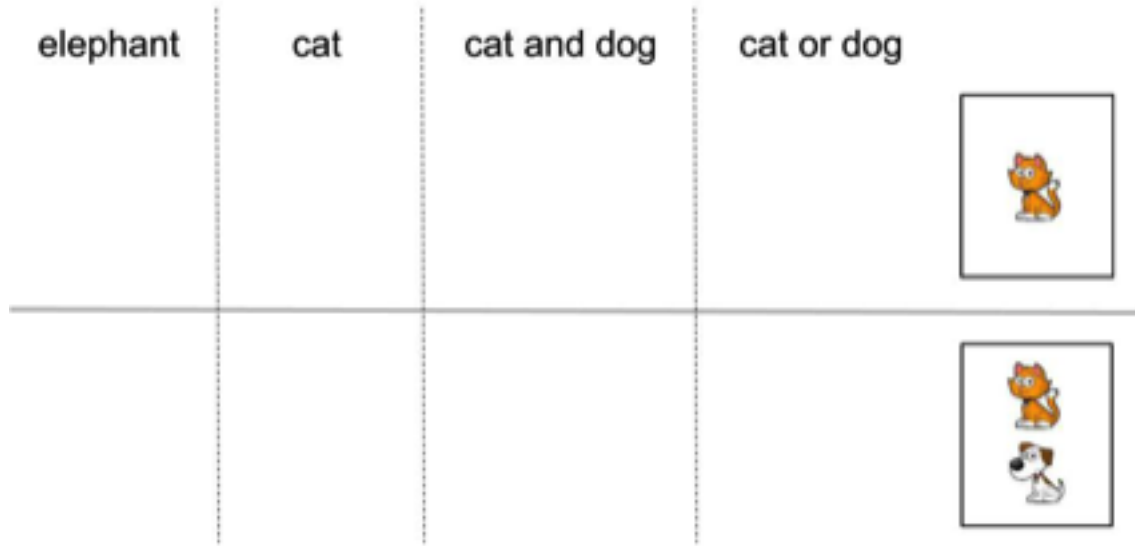


Figure 3. Trial types represented by example cards and guesses.

“scalar” trials. Second, trials where there are two animals on the card but the character guesses only one; for example “cat” when the card has a cat and a dog on it. We call such trials “exhaustive”. In our assessment of implicature rate we focus on these two types of trials.

We define “implicature rate” in two ways:

This study set out to test two hypotheses. First, that the proportion of pragmatic vs. literal responses in a truth values judgement task changes based on the number of response options available to the participants. We test this hypothesis formally using a binomial mixed effects model with the fixed effect of response type and the random intercept for participants as well as random intercept and slope for

A second hypothesis was that the definition of what responses count as participants computing an implicature may affect the estimated rate of implicature in the experimental task.

## Results

- make sure to break down based on whether participants had logical training or not.

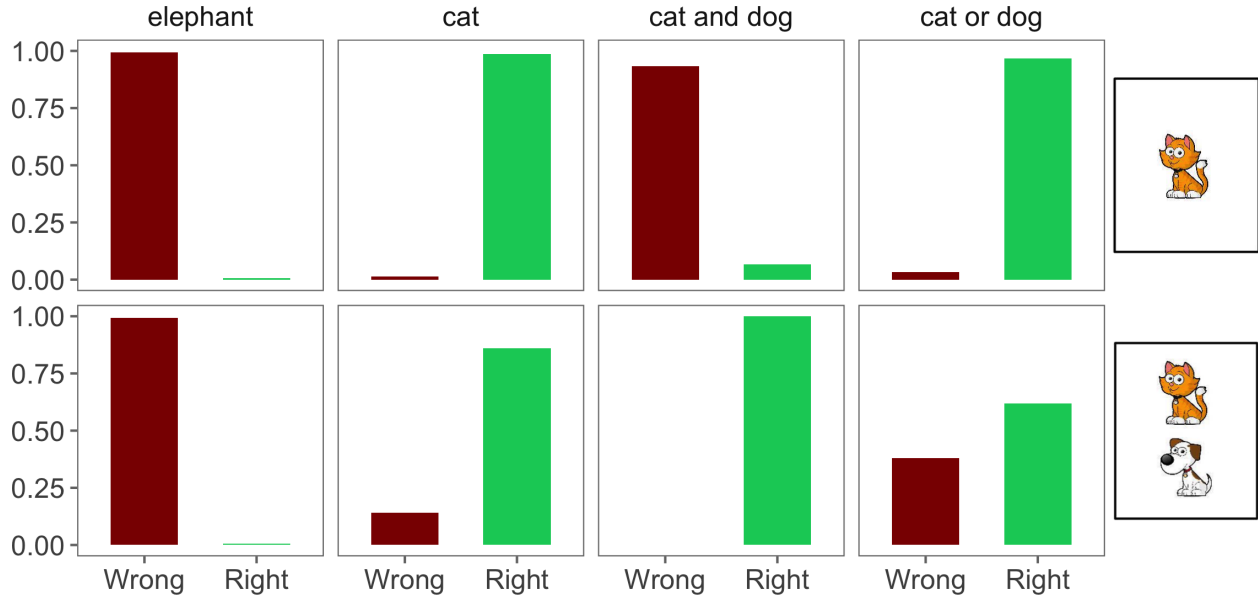


Figure 4. Adults' two-alternative forced choice judgments in the connective guessing game.

### Analysis

```

181
182 ## Warning in (function (fn, par, lower = rep.int(-Inf, n), upper =
183 ## rep.int(Inf, : failure to converge in 10000 evaluations

184 ## Warning in checkConv(attr(opt, "derivs"), opt$par, ctrl = control
185 ## $checkConv, : Model failed to converge with max|grad| = 0.524298 (tol =
186 ## 0.001, component 1)

187 ## Generalized linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood (Laplace
188 ## Approximation) [glmerMod]
189 ## Family: binomial ( logit )
190 ## Formula: implicature ~ definition * response_type + trial_type + (1 +
191 ## response_type | card) + (1 | participant)
192 ## Data: implicature_rate
193 ##
194 ##      AIC      BIC   logLik deviance df.resid
195 ##  1783.4   1899.0   -871.7   1743.4     2380

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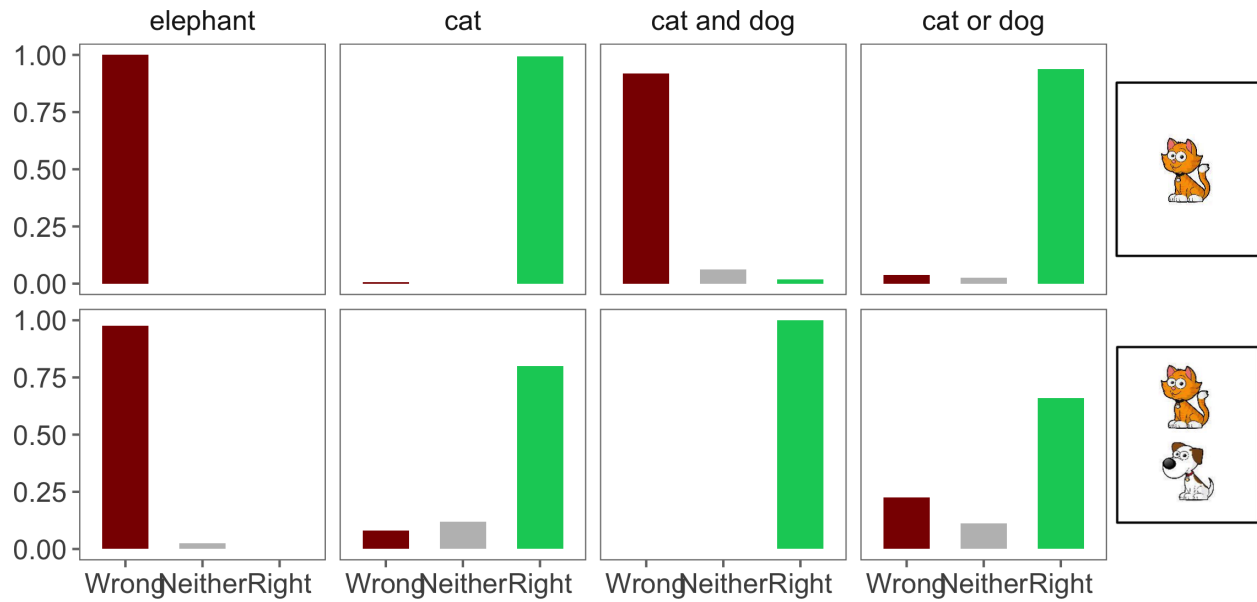


Figure 5. Adults' three-alternative forced choice judgments in the connective guessing game.

```

196 ##
197 ## Scaled residuals:
198 ##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
199 ## -7.8815 -0.2261 -0.1198  0.2334 10.0887
200 ##
201 ## Random effects:
202 ##   Groups      Name                Variance Std.Dev.  Corr
203 ## participant (Intercept)          5.224316  2.28568
204 ## card         (Intercept)          0.008402  0.09166
205 ##              response_typequaternary 0.084138  0.29007  -1.00
206 ##              response_typequinary    0.003720  0.06099  -0.79  0.81
207 ##              response_typedternary    0.044946  0.21201   0.90 -0.89 -0.67
208 ## Number of obs: 2400, groups:  participant, 200; card, 3
209 ##
210 ## Fixed effects:
211 ##
212 ##              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

```

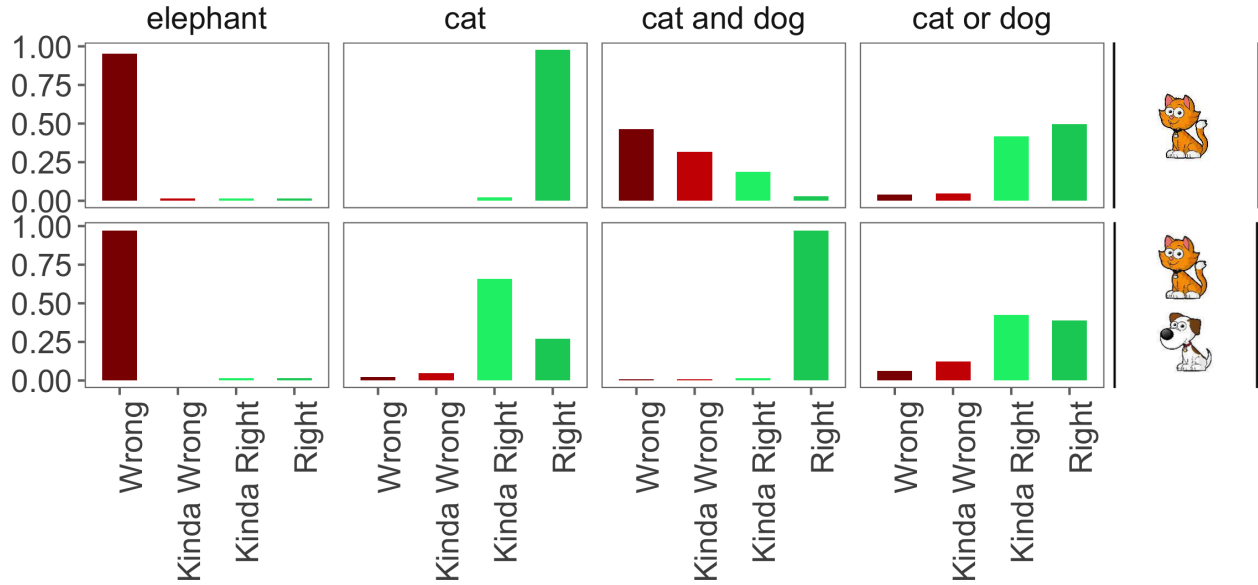


Figure 6. Adults' three-alternative forced choice judgments in the connective guessing game.

212	## (Intercept)	-2.64555	0.43138	-6.133	8.63e-10
213	## definitionlow	-0.02508	0.24943	-0.101	0.920
214	## response_typequaternary	3.47868	0.61328	5.672	1.41e-08
215	## response_typequinary	3.44163	0.55426	6.209	5.32e-10
216	## response_typedternary	0.29732	0.56967	0.522	0.602
217	## trial_typescalar	0.85657	0.13861	6.180	6.41e-10
218	## definitionlow:response_typequaternary	-6.08294	0.61009	-9.970	< 2e-16
219	## definitionlow:response_typequinary	-5.71913	0.50693	-11.282	< 2e-16
220	## definitionlow:response_typedternary	-1.21490	0.36931	-3.290	0.001
221	##				
222	## (Intercept)	***			
223	## definitionlow				
224	## response_typequaternary	***			
225	## response_typequinary	***			
226	## response_typedternary				
227	## trial_typescalar	***			

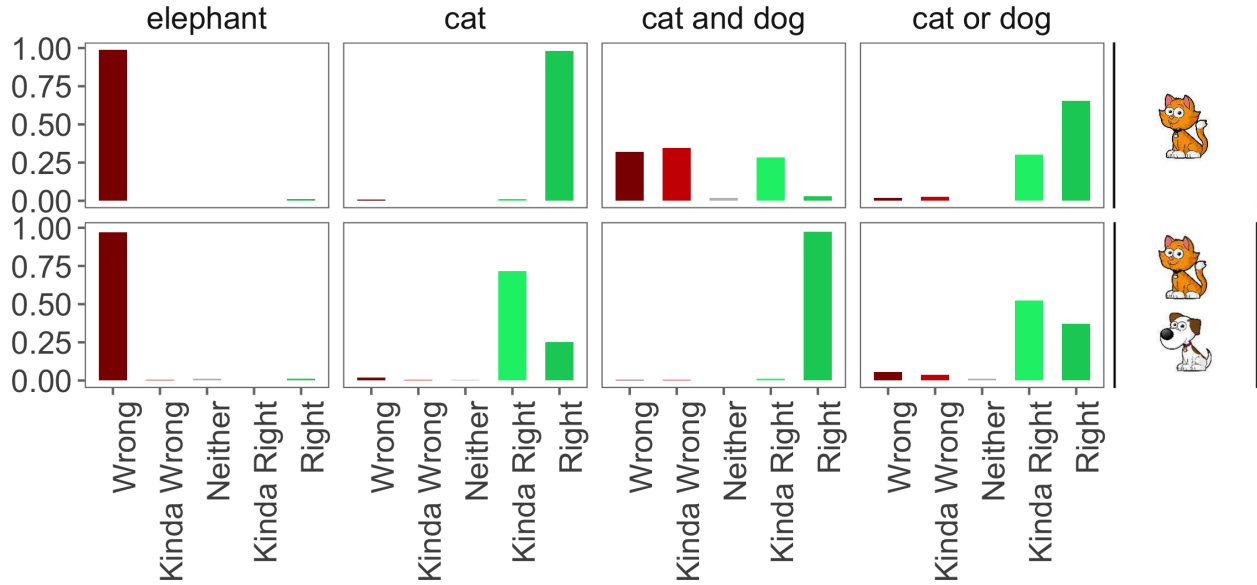


Figure 7. Adults' three-alternative forced choice judgments in the connective guessing game.

```

228 ## definitionlow:response_typequaternary ***
229 ## definitionlow:response_typequinary ***
230 ## definitionlow:response_typeternary **
231 ## ---
232 ## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
233 ##
234 ## Correlation of Fixed Effects:
235 ##
236 ##      (Intr) dfntnlw rspns_ttypqt rspns_ttypqn rspns_ttyptr
237 ## definitionlw -0.287
238 ## rspns_ttypqt -0.724  0.202
239 ## rspns_ttypqn -0.760  0.224  0.554
240 ## rspns_ttyptr -0.643  0.218  0.418  0.510
241 ## trl_ttypsclr -0.218 -0.001  0.060  0.065  0.007
242 ## dfntnlw:rspns_ttypqt 0.214 -0.408 -0.330 -0.167 -0.101
243 ## dfntnlw:rspns_ttypqn 0.217 -0.492 -0.156 -0.309 -0.116
244 ## dfntnlw:rspns_ttyptr 0.220 -0.675 -0.155 -0.170 -0.280

```



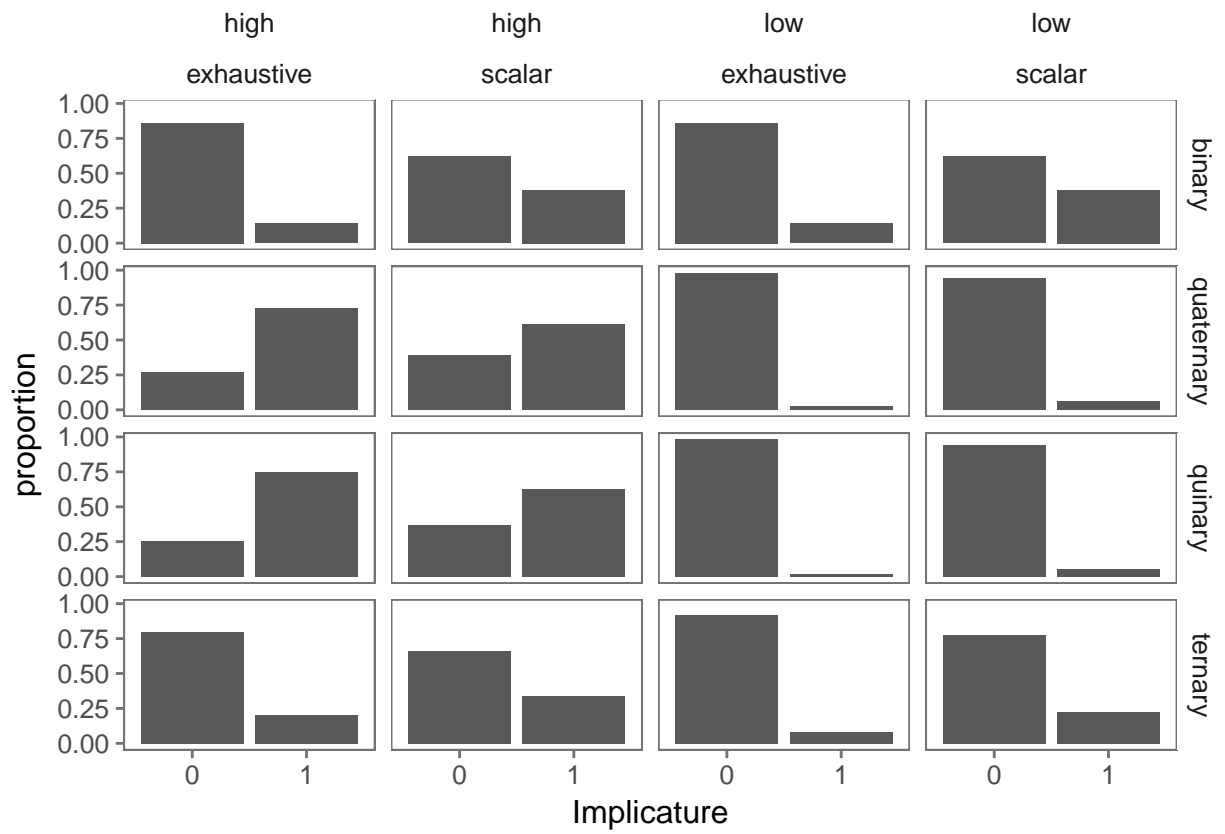


Figure 9

256

Modeling

257

Discussion



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331 Universiteit Utrecht, Amsterdam.