In a manner of speaking: an empirical investigation of Manner Implicatures *

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Keywords: Experimental pragmatics, implicature, manner

1 Introduction

Grice proposed that not only the content of what is said but also the *form* can give rise to implicatures (Grice 1975): Manner inferences derive from observing or violating the maxim 'be perspicuous'. In this study we address the questions: (i) do Manner implicatures pattern like Quantity inferences – are they similarly robust and commonly derived by hearers? and (ii) do Manner implicatures, like Quantity, exhibit varying degrees of conventionalization? In addition, we evaluate the kind of experimental paradigms that are suitable for investigating manner implicatures.

2 Context

Although the submaxims of Manner ('avoid obscurity of expression', 'avoid ambiguity', 'be brief', and 'be orderly') are diverse, for Grice the defining feature is the relation "not to what is said but, rather, to *how* what is said is to be said" (Grice 1975: 46). Some post-Gricean theorists have subsumed Manner under other principles (Horn 1984), while others have maintained it, albeit in modified form (Levinson 2000, Franke 2009). This latter approach seems justified on theoretical grounds at least, because Manner implicatures can be distinguished from Quantity and Relevance precisely because it is the linguistic form, not the content, which triggers an inference.

Levinson (2000) argues that marked forms are used by speakers as a 'shortcut' to a marked meaning (M-forms give rise to M-implicatures), whereas the unmarked I-form produces a stereotypical interpretation (I-implicature). We adopt Levinson's terminology here, because it allows us to draw a potentially useful distinction between the two forms and corresponding implicatures, while acknowledging that

© 2016 Elspeth Wilson and Napoleon Katsos. In: Fabienne Salfner and Uli Sauerland (eds.), *Pre-proceedings of 'Trends in Experimental Pragmatics'*, XPRAG.de, Berlin, Germany, pp. 170–176. All papers in this collection are unedited prepublication DRAFTs!

^{*} We thank the audience at the Experimental Semantics & Pragmatics workshop at University of Cambridge, June 2015, for their comments, and Dimitris Alikaniotis for technical advice. Elspeth Wilson is funded by an ESRC studentship.

I-implicatures are not included as prototypical implicatures in many typologies. Besides Levinson's Generalised Conversational Implicatures, there are of course Particularised Conversational Manner Implicatures, which are not tied to systematic alternations between forms expressing similar meanings, although the distinction is subject to much debate (e.g., Degen 2015) – see Table 1 for examples.

Theoretically, there are interesting parallels with Quantity: both M- and Quantity implicatures involve reasoning with reference to an alternative that was not said – either an alternative that is 'stronger' in meaning, or more lengthy. Both also include more or less conventionalised instances (traditionally, GCIs and PCIs). To date, however, there has been almost no empirical research on Manner.

	Context	M-ending	I-ending	M-implicature	I-implicature
GCI	Nick and Dan were watching	"The invaders	"The	The invaders killed	The invaders
	a history programme, but	caused the	invaders	the villagers but	killed the
	Nick fell asleep. Afterwards	villagers to	killed the	indirectly, by	villagers
	he asked, "What happened at	die."	villagers."	introducing	directly.
	the end?" Dan replied,			disease.	
PCI	Jamie got home from his	"She put a	"She gave	She gave me a cup	She gave me a
	grandmother's. His mum	teabag into a	me a cup of	of tea, only it	normal cup of
	asked, "Did she give you a	cup and poured	tea."	didn't taste like	tea.
	drink?" He answered,	over boiling		tea.	
		water."			

 Table 1
 Example of experimental items

3 Experiments

Experiments were conducted via Prolific Academic, a UK-based crowd-sourcing platform for research. Participants were British English speakers born in UK, which was important as linguistic form is sensitive to variety, possibly even at the dialectal level. Pretests established scenarios consisting of short dialogues, which were rated as equally natural with both a 'marked' ending (the M-implicated meaning) and an 'unmarked' ending (the I-implicated meaning). There were 8 items with marked forms with lengthy paraphrases (PCIs), and 8 GCIs with lexical alternatives (modals, causatives, negation of contradictories).¹

3.1 Experiment 1

3.1.1 Procedure

Participants (N = 39) in two groups were shown a series of scenarios, each of which ended with an utterance with an M-form or I-form, with its text in red. Below,

¹ For the full stimuli set, see elspethwilson.uk/research/resources/

they read the M-implicated and I-implicated meanings, and were asked to select the sentence that was most similar in meaning to the part of the scenario in red. Scenarios were presented in randomised order, and each participant saw each item in only one condition. If participants are sensitive to M-implicatures, we predicted higher selection rate of M- rather than I-implicated meanings for M-forms, and vice versa.

3.1.2 Results

The results (Fig. 1) show a significantly higher rate of selection of I-implicated meanings for I-forms (92%) than M-implicated meanings for M-forms (56%), Wilcoxon signed-rank by-item: W = 2, p < 0.01, r = -0.98. There is no difference between GCI and PCI items for either M- or I-forms (M GCI 56%, M PCI 56%, I GCI 94%, I PCI 91%), Wilcoxon signed rank: W = 11, p = 0.92, r = -.04; W = 17.5, p = 0.55, r = -.21. Numerically, the results for different types of M-form suggest different strengths of cues across subtypes (Fig. 1b), with causatives seemingly the strongest cue to a marked meaning (82%) and modals the weakest (28%). Binary choice tasks can, however, mask subtle differences in participants' responses to the stimuli; Experiment 2 uses a rating scale, which might show more sensitivity to pragmatic interpretations.



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3.2 Experiment 2

3.2.1 Procedure

In a 2×2 (form \times meaning) design, participants (N = 80) were asked to rate on a scale of 1 to 7 how similar a sentence with an I- or M- implicated meaning was to the part of the scenario in red (I- or M-form), based on Degen's (2015) paradigm for Scalar Implicatures. Four groups of participants saw each item in one condition. We predicted that ratings would be ordered: unmarked form/unmarked meaning > marked form/marked meaning > marked form/marked meaning > marked form/marked meaning. The inference to the stereotypical from the I-form is arguably closest in form and meaning to the literal meaning of the utterance, and so rated highest; the marked form introduces information not implicated by an unmarked form, so is rated the lowest.

3.2.2 Results

The results (Fig. 2a) show a significant effect of condition (by-item analysis, Friedman test $\chi^2(3) = 33.8$, p < 0.01). Planned pairwise comparisons show that the congruent and incongruent conditions (MM and MI) are not significantly different (Wilcoxon signed-rank by-item: W = 45, p = .25, r = -0.29), while II and IM are (Wilcoxon signed-rank by-item: W = 136, p < .01, r = -1.04). Planned pairwise comparison of GCI and PCI subtypes for each condition again found no significant differences (Wilcoxon signed-rank – MM: W = 26, p = 0.26; MI: W = 24, p = 0.46; II: W = 32, p = 0.055; IM: W = 18.5, p = 0.94).

3.2.3 Discussion

Experiments 1 and 2 show that M-implicatures do not seem to be as robust as, for example, the most robust Scalar Implicatures, in either a binary choice or rating paradigm: in Experiment 1, the M-implicated meaning is selected for the M-form only around half the time, and in Experiment 2, there is no significant difference between the ratings for M congruent and incongruent conditions (seeing the M form and M-implicated meaning or I-implicated meaning). In contrast, in picture-selection tasks, adults tend to be at ceiling for 'pragmatic' interpretation of SIs with 'some' and ad hoc Quantity implicatures (Katsos & Bishop 2011, Stiller et al. 2015), while in a rating task, Degen (2015) finds some utterances with 'some' whose implicated meaning 'some but not all' is consistently given a high rating towards ceiling on a 1-to-7 Likert scale.

Two mitigating explanations are conceivable: firstly, in Experiment 2, the presence of II and IM items rated at the top and bottom of the scale could leave participants with less space in the middle of the scale to distinguish MM and MI conditions. Experiment 3 was run to address this concern. Secondly, M-Implicatures could differ from, say, Scalar Implicatures in that the implicated meaning does not have such a direct relation in form or meaning to what is said (e.g., 'some' > some but not all). This could mean that participants did infer an M-implicature, but that the explicitly stated M-implicated meaning in the tasks did not match their inferences. Furthermore, the I-implicated meaning is included in the M-implicated meaning, which may mean it is chosen more often or rated more highly than the M-implicated meaning. Experiment 4 was carried out to ascertain the variety in participants' inferred meanings.



Figure 2 Experiment 2 and 3 results

3.3 Experiment 3

This was the same as Experiment 2, but with only MM and MI conditions (N = 38). A by-item analysis of the results (Fig. 2b) using Friedman's ANOVA and planned pairwise comparisons indicates that the only significant difference between MM and MI conditions in Experiments 2 and 3 was between Experiment 2 MI and Experiment 3 MM (Wilcoxon signed-rank, W = 112, p = 0.02, r = -0.58). This suggests the 2×2 design of Experiment 2 did not affect the distribution of participants' ratings.

3.4 Experiment 4

Participants (N = 41) were asked to write what they thought the speaker of the utterance in red meant. Participants saw both M- and I-forms (but only one condition per item), and, in the instructions, were given two example interpretations, one for an I-form and one for an M-form.

Results were coded as 'M-implicature' or 'no M-implicature', with 39% M-implicature responses for M-forms, and no difference between GCI and PCI types (40% and 38% respectively). Qualitatively, a wide variation in interpretations of M-forms was observed, even given the context of the short dialogues. Sometimes interpretations were even in opposite directions – see Table 2 for examples.

This suggests that one factor leading to low rates of M-implicatures in binary choice and ratings tasks, compared to I-implicatures, is that, given minimal background context in the experiment, participants arrive at varying M-implicated interpretations, which do not necessarily match the one explicitly stated. However, even with free response, M-implicated meanings constituted fewer than half of all responses to M-forms, suggesting that, at least in written mode, M-implicatures are not as robust as other inferences, such as the most robust examples of Scalar Implicature (cf.Van Tiel et al. 2014).

Item (critical utter- ance)	M inference	No M inference
"I'm not unpleased by	That the feature he has written is satisfac-	I'm pleased.
what you've done."	tory, but that it is not amazing.	
	I am quite please by what you have done.	I'm pleased with your work.
	His boss is not overly impressed but thinks	Mick's boss was happy with his fea-
	his work is acceptable.	ture.
"She put a teabag into	Jamie's grandmother makes tea so badly it	Jamie explained how his grand-
a cup and poured over	is just boiling water over a teabag.	mother made a cup of tea.
boiling water."		
	Jamie might like his tea with milk and	Jamie's Grandmother made a cup of
	sugar, neither of which his grandma has.	tea for Jamie.
	She made little effort. She couldn't be	She made me tea.
	bothered.	
"The invaders caused	At the end of the history programme some	The invaders killed the villagers.
the villagers to die."	villagers died as a result of the actions of	
	some invaders.	
	The invaders killed the villagers indirectly.	They killed them.
	They all died in the end.	

Table 2 Examples of responses in Experiment
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4 Conclusion

Speakers may not be as sensitive to Manner triggers as theories such as Levinson (2000) would suggest, although there is evidence that speakers sometimes derive inferences suggested in the literature. Some of these findings may be particularly due to the way binary choice and ratings contexts interact with Manner. Further research could investigate whether, for example, prosodic cues in speech affect the reliability of manner inferences, and whether other experimental paradigms, such as those measuring sensitivity to maxim violation, might reveal a difference between proposed GCI and PCI implicatures. Finally, as the results of Experiment 1 suggested that different lexical triggers within the GCI category may be more or less reliable cues, future research could also investigate these subtypes with a sample size and design suitable for statistical analysis, to assess whether M-implicatures constitute a homogenous class.

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