

How do we learn about the world?

In order to learn about the world through language, we need to be able to distinguish between transparent and non-transparent language use.

Transparent language

Indented meaning corresponds directly to what has been said
Boys like football [like (boys, football)]

Non-transparent language

Intention behind an utterance does not clearly map onto the form used and the addressee must infer additional meaning.
Boys like football → *Girls don't like football*

Conversational expectations

Language use and comprehension is governed by interlocutors' expectations about how communicative interactions should proceed (Grice, 1975; Levinson, 2000).

- Be truthful
- Be relevant
- What is not said is the obvious
- Be informative
- Be brief
- What is said abnormally is not normal

When an utterance fails to meet these expectations we draw inferences.

- I ate some of the cookies* → *Not all of the cookies*
- My soup is warm* → *Not hot*
- Pass me the blue blueberry* → *There's a non-blue blueberry*
- John went to restaurant and had a meal* → *John doesn't usually eat at restaurants*
- Charlie stopped the car* → *The car was stopped in a non-standard manner*

Informativity inferences

When knowledgeable speakers produce **trivial utterances (neither blatantly underinformative nor explicitly overinformative)**, addressees are licensed to derive *informativity-based inferences*.

1. "The library walls are blue"
 - a) *The situation has changed*
 - b) *The walls used to be different*

Why utter (1)? To inform an addressee about the current state of the world? The triviality of (1) may invite the addressee to reason about why a speaker chose to produce such a trivial utterance.

What were the speaker's goals and intentions? Is there something new? Has something changed?

Speaker knowledge is a key factor in deriving inferences. Greater rates of inferencing from knowledgeable speakers (Rees, Reksnes, & Rohde, preprint; Rees & Rohde, 2023).

Children's expectations

Fewer inferences from unknowledgeable or unreliable speakers (Moty & Rhodes, 2022; Tomasello & Akhtar, 1995).

Expect informative utterances (Morrisseau, Davies, & Matthews, 2015; Bannard, Rosner, & Matthews, 2017).

Research questions

- Do children recognise additional meaning via informativity inferences?
 - "I have a belly button"
 - "Tigers have stripes"
- How do children use speaker knowledge to interpret trivial utterances?

What was the situation like several months ago? Same or different?

School (familiar)

I saw that the library walls are blue.

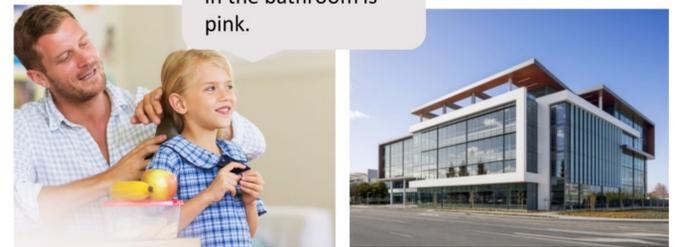


Same: Transparent
Nothing changed

Different: Non-transparent
Infer something changed

Field trip to Prime Minister's office (unfamiliar)

I saw that the soap in the bathroom is pink.



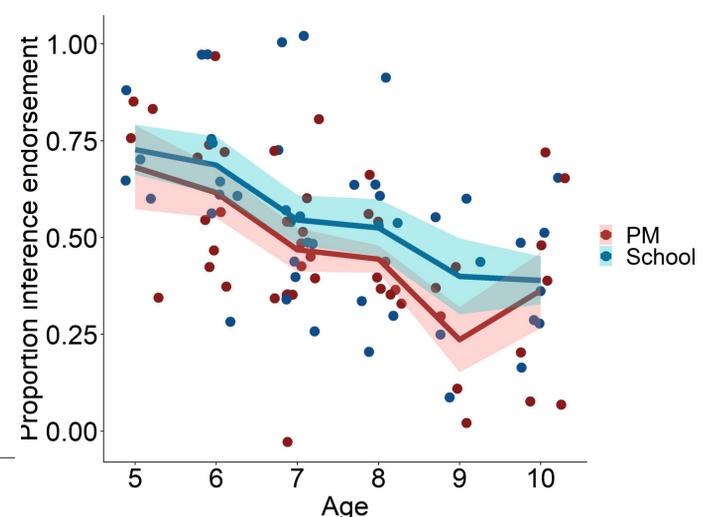
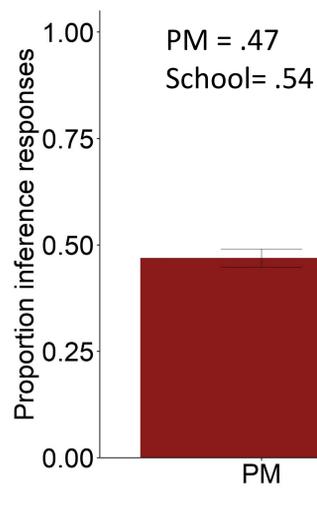
N = 47

Age	N	PM	School
5	4	.68 (.07)	.73 (.07)
6	9	.62 (.05)	.69 (.05)
7	13	.47 (.04)	.55 (.04)
8	9	.44 (.05)	.53 (.05)
9	5	.24 (.05)	.40 (.07)
10	7	.36 (.06)	.39 (.06)
Adults	15	.24 (.02)	.62 (.02)

Link to osf for findings in adults



Preliminary results



Selected References

Bannard, C., Rosner, M., & Matthews, D. (2017). *Psychological science*. Grice, H.P. (1975) *Syntax and Semantics*, Vol. 9, Academic Press, NY. Levinson, S. C. (2000). *Presumptive meanings*: MIT press. Morrisseau, T., Davies, C., & Matthews, D. (2013). *Journal of Pragmatics*, Moty, K., & Rhodes, M. (2021). *Psychological Science*, Rees, A., Reksnes, V., & Rohde, H. (preprint). Rohde, H., Futrell, R., & Lucas, C.G. (2021). *Cognition*, Sedivy, J. C. (2003). *Journal of psycholinguistic research*, Tomasello, M., & Akhtar, N. (1995) *Cognitive Development*

Children show sensitivity to informativity biases

Younger children compare with their own knowledge ("Mine is not like that")
Older children draw informativity inferences and base these on speaker's knowledge