On the impediment of logical reasoning by non-logical inferential methods

Andreas Haida, Luka Crnič & Yosef Grodzinsky

ELSC & LLCC, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem grodzinskylab.com

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Drawing inferences

- Assume that sentence (A) is true. Does it follow logically that
 (I) is true as well?
 - (A) All of the Ms are Ks
 - (I) Some of the Ms are Ks

- $\checkmark\,$ in 73% of all trials
- Now, assume that sentence (I) is true. Can you logically infer that (O) is true, too?
 - (I) Some of the Ms are Ks
 - (O) Some of the Ms are not Ks

 \checkmark in 94% of all trials

- Finally, is the following inference logically valid?
 - (A) All of the Ms are Ks

 \pmb{X} in 98% of all trials

- (O) Some of the Ms are not Ks
- The numbers show the results of Newstead and Griggs (1983).

Logical validity vs. perceived validity

This is how the observed behavior matches with logical behavior:

Inference	% accept expected in Aristotelian logic	% accept observed	% error
(A) to (I)	100	73	27
(I) to (O)	0	94	94
(A) to (O)	0	2	2

- What causes the two 'big' error rates?
 - Subjects compute scalar inferences (SIs).
- Why are the error rates not (close to) 100%?
 - There are different populations:

Some reasoners compute SIs, some don't.

- ▶ Why different error rates (27 vs. 94%)?
 - Again, there are different populations:
 Some reasoners compute SIs for premises only.

SIs of existential sentences

- (I) sentences are systematically ambiguous:
 - (I) Some of the Ms are Ks
 - (I_w) There are Ms that are Ks
 - (I_s) Only some of the Ms are Ks

(weak interpretation) (strong interpretation)

- (I_s) is derived from (I_w) by a SI:
 (I_s) ≡ (I_w) ∧ ¬All of the Ms are Ks
- The same holds for (O) sentences:
 - (0) Some of the Ms are not Ks (O_w) There are Ms that are not Ks
 - $(O_{\rm w})$ only some of the Ms are not Ks

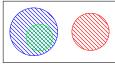
 $\equiv (|_{s})$

 $(\mathsf{O}_s) \equiv (\mathsf{O}_w) \, \land \, \neg \textit{All of the Ms are not Ks}$

 To test our hypothesis that there are different groups of reasoners with respect to SI computation, we're investigating syllogistic reasoning.

Syllogisms

- Syllogisms are arguments of the form
- Here's an example of a valid syllogism:
 - (E) No Italians are miners
 - (A) All bikers are Italians
 - (E) No bikers are miners
- New sentence type: (E) sentences; hence, 4 types overall
- Each syllogism has three terms in the premises. There are 4 possible arrangements of these three terms. The term arrangement in the conclusion is fixed:
- 4 sentence types for each of the 3 lines, and 4 arrangements:
 4³ × 4 = 256 syllogisms



Premise₁ Premise₂

Conclusion



How ambiguity impedes syllogistic reasoning performance

- Only 24 of the 256 syllogisms are valid in Aristotelian logic.
- Previous studies observed error rates of up to > 80% in performing syllogistic reasoning.
- These studies suggest that the linguistic ambiguity of existential sentences, i.e. of (I) and (O) sentences, impedes the reasoning performance.
- Importantly, the ambiguity of existential sentences can affect the (in)validity of a syllogism differently.
- This has been observed before (Rips 1994), but we're investigating this systematically.

Syllogism classes (granularity level I)

We can identify $\underline{6 \text{ classes}}$, which we characterize in terms of how they are affected by SI computation.

There are <u>2 invariant classes</u>:

- $[-v \stackrel{\text{SI}}{\sim} -v]$: Invalid syllogisms that are unaffected by SI computation
 - Invalid syllogisms without existential premises
 - Syllogisms that are invalid on all readings of their existential premises
- ► $[+v \xrightarrow{SI} +v]$: Valid syllogisms that are unaffected by SI computation
 - Valid syllogisms with an (A) or (E) conclusion

Syllogism classes (granularity level I)

There are <u>4 variant classes</u>:

 [-v → +v]: Invalid syllogisms that are validated by SI computation
 Invalid syllogisms with an existential premise (a necessary but not sufficient condition)

- $[+v \stackrel{\text{SI}}{\sim} -v]$: Valid syllogisms that are invalidated by SI computation - Valid syllogisms with an existential conclusion
- ▶ $[-v \xrightarrow{SI} \pm v]$: Invalid syllogisms that are validated by the SI of a premise but only if the SI of the conclusion is not computed
 - Invalid syllogisms with an existential premise and an existential conclusion
- ► $[+v \stackrel{SI}{\rightarrow} \pm v]$: Valid syllogisms that are invalidated by the SI of the conclusion but only if the SI of a premise is not computed
 - Valid syllogisms with an existential premise and an existential conclusion

An example: how to identify class $\left[-v \stackrel{s_{I}}{\sim} +v\right]$

- (A) and (E) conclusions can be only be validated by (A) and (E) premises.
- Thus, class [-v → +v] can only contain syllogisms with (I) or (O) conclusions.
- However, the SI of the (I) or (O) conclusion must also be validated by the premises and their SIs, or else we end up in class [-v → ±v].
- This means we need to find a pair of valid syllogisms that differ only in that one contains (I) sentences in places where the other contains (O) sentences.
- Luckily, Aristotelian logic gives us such a pair (but only one such pair): IA3I and OA3O.
- This means that class [-v → +v] has the following two members (and only these two members): IA3O and OA3I.
- Eventually, we wrote a theorem prover for Aristotelian logic to free us from such brain gymnastics.

Testing syllogistic reasoning performance

- We conducted an experiment with 120 participants over AMT.
- We restricted attention to 5 of the 6 classes.
- Each participant: 100 binary acceptability judgments for 20 tokens of each of 5 syllogism classes determined by the occurrence of existential sentences in premises and conclusion.
- Here are the mean acceptance rates of each class:

Class	% acc.	
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow -v\right]$	19.0	1
$\left[-V \rightsquigarrow \pm V\right]$	56.4	1
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow +v\right]$	64.6	?
$[+v \rightsquigarrow -v]$	60.7	
$\left[+V \rightsquigarrow +V\right]$	76.3	

Some of these results are easily interpretable: e.g., syllogisms in [+v ^{SI}→ +v] are accepted more often than those in [-v ^{SI}→ -v].
 But what to make of the observation that e.g. syllogisms in [-v ^{SI}→ +v] are accepted more often than those in [-v ^{SI}→ ±v]?

Hypothesis and prediction

• There here are three groups of reasoners:

Logicians		Validators	Strength-	
	Logiciano	Vandators	eners	
Premise	weak (There are)	strong (Only some)	strong	validates an invalid argument
Conclu- sion	weak	weak	strong	invalidates a valid argument

• We expect to observe three different behavioral patterns:

Syllogism class	Logicians	Validators	Strengtheners	
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow -v\right]$	X	X	X	invariant
$\left[-V \rightsquigarrow \pm V\right]$	X	\checkmark	×	
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow +v\right]$	×	\checkmark	1	affected by
$[+v \rightsquigarrow -v]$	✓	✓	×	ambiguity
$\left[+V \rightsquigarrow \pm V\right]$	1	✓	×)
$\left[+v \rightsquigarrow +v\right]$	1	1	✓	invariant

Results

Now let's take another look at the mean acceptance rates:

Class	L	V	S	% acc.	
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow -v\right]$	X	X	X	19.0	11
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow \pm v\right]$	X	1	X	56.4	
$\left[-V \rightsquigarrow +V\right]$	X	1	1	64.6	J _
$[+v \rightsquigarrow -v]$	✓	1	X	60.7	│ _┐ │J┘
$\left[+V \rightsquigarrow +V\right]$	1	1	1	76.3	

- Green links highlight the observations that we correctly predict.
 E.g., the acceptance rate of [-v → +v] is higher than that of [-v → ±v] because of the population of strengtheners.
- However, there's also a red link, where we fail: Because of the logicians, we expect syllogisms in $[-v \stackrel{SI}{\rightarrow} \pm v]$ to be accepted less often than syllogisms in $[+v \stackrel{SI}{\rightarrow} -v]$; however, the difference doesn't reach significance.

Towards a more fine-grained classification

No significant difference between $\left[-v \stackrel{s_{I}}{\rightsquigarrow} \pm v\right]$ and $\left[+v \stackrel{s_{I}}{\rightsquigarrow} -v\right]$

▶ Reason: there's a lot of variation accross the syllogisms in $[+v \stackrel{s_{I}}{\sim} -v]$.

For example:

- AI3I, IA4I: accepted ~ 80% of all times
- ▶ AE4O, EA2O: only accepted ~ 50% of all times
- Where does this variation come from?
 - AI3I, IA4I: the SI of the conclusion invalidates the syllogism.
 - AE4O, EA2O: the SI is inconsistent with the premises.
- Hypothesis: Inconsistency leads to better recognition of invalidity.
- To test this hypothesis, our classification needs to take inconsistency into account.

A more fine-grained classification

Taking inconsistency into account leads to the following subclassifications:

• Subclass $[+v \stackrel{s_{I}}{\rightsquigarrow} -c]$ of $[+v \stackrel{s_{I}}{\rightsquigarrow} -v]$

Class	% acc. our data	% acc. Rips (1994)
$\left[+V \rightsquigarrow -V\right]$	71.3%	65%
$\left[+V \rightsquigarrow -C\right]$	51.9%	57%

- Subclass $\left[-v \stackrel{\text{si}}{\sim} -c\right]$ of $\left[-v \stackrel{\text{si}}{\sim} -v\right]$
- Subclass [-c] of [-v ^{SI}→ -v]: Syllogisms that are formed from sets of inconsistent sentences (counterparts of valid syllogisms, where the valid conclusion is replaced by the contradictory sentence).

Class	% acc. Rips (1994)
$\left[-V \rightsquigarrow -V\right]$	10.3%
$\left[-V \rightsquigarrow -C\right]$	1.5%
[-c]	1%

Do the means reflect subpopulations?

- We expect that taking (SI induced) inconsistency into account will give us all the predicted differences between means.
- Let's assume that we'll indeed get the following result:

Class	L	V	S	% acc.	
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow -v\right]$	X	X	X	m_1	1 1
$\left[-V \rightsquigarrow \pm V\right]$	X	1	X	<i>m</i> ₂	1 1
$\left[-v \rightsquigarrow +v\right]$	X	1	1	<i>m</i> 3	¹ 1
$[+v \rightsquigarrow -v]$	✓	1	X	m_4	
$[+v \rightsquigarrow +v]$	1	1	1	<i>m</i> 5]]

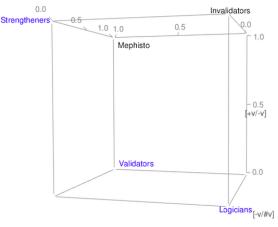
- How can we show that the means reflect homogeneous behavior within different groups and not heterogeneous behaviour of all subjects?
- Recall that every subject judged (will judge) 20 instances of each of the 5 syllogisms classes.
- This means that for every subject we have a rich behavioral profile so that we can detect (in)consistent behavior.

Do the means reflect subpopulations?

- To identify subpopulations, we used a density-based clustering algorithm: DBSCAN.
- We'll show you what DBSCAN gives us for the data of our AMT experiment.
- One thing you'll see is that the data is very noisy.
- In the AMT experiment, the reaction times show that most subjects started to give very quick responses after a while.
- To prevent this, we'll conduct our next experiment in the lab.
- However, even through the noise we can see that one of our hypothesized groups seems not to exist.

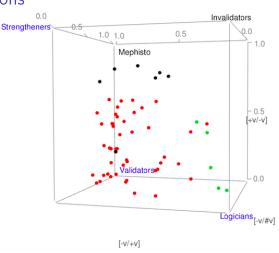
Identifying groups of reasoners

- The behavior towards the 2 invariant classes gives a measure of a subject's logical abilities.
- The behavior towards the 3 variant classes is represented by the deviance from the subject's logical abilities.



The results: two populations

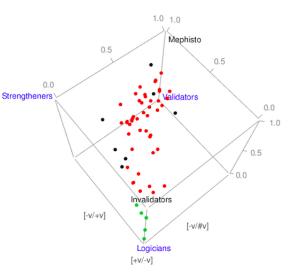
- We eliminated subjects with > 12.5% error rate in the invariant classes (half of all subjects).
- Two density clusters: red and green; outliers are black
- Members of the green cluster are in the neighborhood of the logicians' corner.



- A large group of members of the red cluster is in the neighborhood of the validators' corner.
- The strengtheners' corner is not populated.

The results: no systematic strengthening of conclusions

- Left of the diagonal: subjects that strengthen conclusions sometimes
- But: no systematic strengthening of conclusions; i.e. no strengtheners
- No evidence for other populations



Conclusions

What we did:

- (i) We developed a quantitative method to study tendencies across syllogism types.
- (ii) We showed evidence for the existence of groups of reasoners.
- (iii) We identified a supra-sentential context in which some subjects systematically do <u>not</u> compute SIs.

Overall, we observe behavior which is grounded in logical reasoning and natural language interpretation.

We found initial evidence for two groups of reasoners:

- subjects who consistently employ Aristotelian logic and don't compute SIs (logicians)
- subjects who consistently employ Aristotelian logic and maximize derivable inferences by computing SIs for premises but not for conclusions (validators).

Appendix: How to explain the behavior of validators?

In 27% of all (A) to (I) trials, (I) is interpreted as (I_s) . In 94% of all (I) to (O) trials, (I) is interpreted as (I_s) .

- We saw evidence that there are validators.
- Let's assume that the difference above is due to this group of reasoners: they don't compute the SI of the (I) conclusion.
- How can we explain this behavior?
- We'll discuss a linguistically interesting hypothesis, and why it cannot be maintained for syllogistic reasoning.

Appendix: A hypothesis regarding the behavior of validators

- SIs serve to eliminate speaker ignorance inferences (Fox 2007).
- Validators take the premise(s) and conclusion of an argument as utterances of one and the same speaker.
- Here is how the first assumption leads to (I) to (O) inferences:
 - (I_w) Some Ms are Ks

'All Ms are Ks' is a relevant alternative and not settled by $(I_{\it w})$ \sim The speaker is ignorant about 'All Ms are Ks' (by quantity)

(SI) \neg All Ms are Ks (from (I_w) to eliminate the ignorance inf.)

 (O_s) Some Ms are not Ks

(by (I_w) and (SI))

- ▶ Together, the two assumptions inhibit (A) to (I) inferences:
 - (A) All Ms are Ks

Appendix: A hypothesis regarding the behavior of validators

 Unfortunately, this account is not supported by the syllogism data that we have:

Class	% acc. our data	% acc. Rips (1994)
$\left[+v \rightsquigarrow -v\right]$	71.3%	65%
$\left[+V \rightsquigarrow -C\right]$	51.9%	57%

- Being a member of $[+v \rightsquigarrow -c]$ means that the premises entail the contradiction of the SI of the conclusion.
- Thus, the premises settle the stronger alternative to the conclusion.
- Given our assumptions, this means that there is no motivation for validators to compute the SI in the first place.
- Thus, our assumptions lead us to expect that syllogisms in
 [+v → -c] are accepted more often than syllogisms in
 [+v → -v], contrary to fact.