

Rethinking Pragmatics in Large Language Models: Towards Open-Ended Evaluation and Preference Tuning

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Abstract

This study addresses the challenges of assessing and enhancing social-pragmatic inference in large language models (LLMs). We first highlight the inadequacy of current accuracy-based multiple choice question answering (MCQA) formats in assessing social-pragmatic reasoning, and propose the direct evaluation of models' free-form responses as measure, which - as our results show - correlates better with human judgement. Further, we explore the enhancement of pragmatic abilities in LLMs, proposing the use of preference optimization (PO) over supervised finetuning (SFT) since there's no "gold" answer in responding to a social situation. Our results indicate that preferential tuning significantly outperforms and proves more robust than SFT across pragmatic phenomena, and offers a near-free launch to enhance models' pragmatic ability without compromising generic abilities. Lastly, we delve into LLMs' internal space and demonstrate that the substantial boost of the model's pragmatic reasoning capabilities is linked to deeper layer representation, mirroring human's high-level thinking. Our experiments span multiple pragmatic and social reasoning data sources, covering diverse phenomena, as well as a image referential game requiring multimodal theory of mind (ToM). With our refined paradigms for evaluating and enhancing pragmatic inference, this paper offers key insights for developing more socially aware language models.¹

1 Introduction

Social-pragmatic inference is a key aspect of human communication, requiring the ability to understand and respond to the implied meanings, intentions, and emotional states behind literal utterances (Horn, 1972; Grice, 1975; Green, 1998; Carston, 2004) along with shared social conventions (Goffman, 1959). This type of inference covers a range

of phenomena including implicatures, irony, humor, and metaphor, as well as high-level cognitive thinking such as theory of mind (ToM) (Premack and Woodruff, 1978), which are all essential for interpreting non-literal language and context-dependent messages. For instance, a friend's statement, "*It's chilly in here*" that might be a polite request to close a window rather than a mere observation about temperature demonstrates pragmatic inference.

The importance of social-pragmatic intelligence in human communication underscores the need for large language models (LLMs) to possess similar capabilities to interact more naturally with users. Current approaches to addressing pragmatic abilities in LLMs face two lines of limitations:

1) On the evaluation front, typical evaluation methods measure classification **accuracy** on benchmarks formatted as multiple (if not binary) choice question answering (MCQA) (Le et al., 2019; Ruis et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2023; Gandhi et al., 2023; Sravanthi et al., 2024). However, even if a model chooses the correct option label, it might still fail to respond by itself in a pragmatic way to a social scenario. For example (see Fig. 1), a model might correctly choose an appropriate answer in an MCQA setup without truly grasping the social intricacies of *changing the subject*. Furthermore, real-life social interactions rarely have a single "gold" answer, therefore judging by the accuracy of selecting the provided **fixed** response undermines the assessment of a model's true pragmatic capability in flexible generations.

2) On the pragmatic-ability-improvement front, while inference-time methods such as few-shot prompt engineering (Moghaddam and Honey, 2023; Ruis et al., 2023) and external graph-modules (Sclar et al., 2023) have been proposed to increase LLMs' pragmatic test results, little effort has been made to explicitly invoke the model's internal social pragmatic intelligence, so that it learns to generate social-pragmatically appropriate answers en-

¹Our code will be made publicly available.

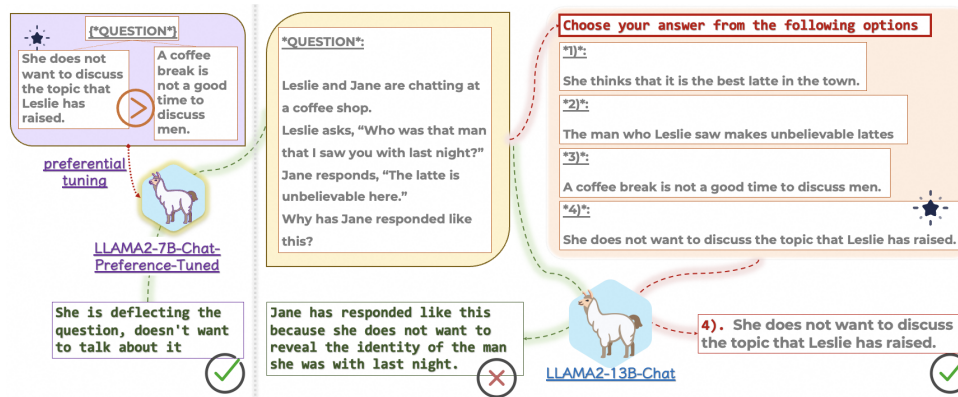


Figure 1: An example of LLMs’ outputs when queried about a social-pragmatic scenario taken from Hu et al. (2023). On the right-hand side, a LLAMA2-13B-Chat (Touvron et al., 2023) model correctly selects the gold response ID when given the question and all the candidate answers in a multiple choice question answering (MCQA) format, whereas it **fails** to grasp the true underlying pragmatic meaning of the scenario when asked to generate its own response to the question. The left-hand side is the open-ended response of a smaller LLAMA2-7B-Chat model preference-tuned on the contrast of the gold answer to other less pragmatic options. Its response is equally good and pragmatically sound as the provided “gold” answer.

082 tirely on its own.

083 In this paper, we propose paradigm shifts on both
084 fronts.

085 1) For evaluation, we argue for an open-ended
086 evaluation protocol that directly assesses a model’s
087 own response to a social scenario. We introduce
088 *length-normalized relative score* (*LNRS*) that di-
089 rectly rates the model’s free-form response in refer-
090 ence to the provided “gold” answer with GPT4²
091 (OpenAI, 2023) as judge and further debiased for
092 reducing length gameability (Dubois et al., 2024;
093 Galambosi, 2024). Supported by human evaluation,
094 our open-ended metric *LNRS* is better correlated
095 with human preferences than the MCQA accuracy.

096 2) For enhancing LLM’s pragmatic inference,
097 we regard the not-selected answer options in exist-
098 ing MCQA-formatted datasets not as incorrect, but
099 as a less pragmatically grounded answer in com-
100 parison to the “gold” response. We use **prefer-**
101 **ence optimization (PO)** objectives such as DPO
102 (Rafailov et al., 2024) to finetune an LLM so that
103 it grasps the subtle nuances of pragmatic prefer-
104 ence. We empirically demonstrate that preferen-
105 tial tuning yields a much better performance boost
106 on an LLM than typical **supervised finetuning**
107 (**SFT**) across pragmatic phenomena, and induces
108 less impact on other abilities inherited from the
109 base LLM. When transferring to the multimodal
110 setting of image referential game (Corona et al.,

²GPT4 is the sole model available performing with high robustness and human-likeness in most social pragmatic studies (Gandhi et al., 2023; Sap et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2023; Ruis et al., 2023; Kosinski, 2023)

2019; Zhu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2023) that re-
quires the captioning model to have a theory of
mind (ToM) (Premack and Woodruff, 1978), the
PO objective also results in a more capable ToM-
aware image captioner, which further illustrates the
superiority of PO over SFT for imparting models
with pragmatic abilities.

To develop a deeper understanding of how the
internal components of a transformer (Vaswani
et al., 2017)-based LLM are most responsible for
invoking social-pragmatic abilities, we further ex-
perimented with controlling different trainable lay-
ers. The results suggest that pragmatic understand-
ing is clearly associated with **deeper-down** trans-
former layers, which hints at a potential similarity
with how human pragmatic inference also relies on
higher-level cognitive processes.

Overall, the main contributions of this paper are:

- Proposing open-ended assessment of models’ free-form responses instead of MCQA classification for evaluating social-pragmatic understanding, which correlates better with human judgement;
- Proposing preference optimization (PO) over supervised finetuning (SFT) for the enhancement of LLMs’ pragmatic capacity without harming other inherited model abilities, which is effectively proved by experiments across pragmatic data sources and multimodal theory of mind (ToM);
- Providing empirical analyses of how only training deeper layers of an LLM can invoke pragmatic performance gains, which potentially mirrors human’s high-level cognitive thinking.

2 Evaluating Pragmatic Abilities

2.1 Existing Evaluation: MCQA Accuracy

Existing works mostly assess a language model’s pragmatic intelligence in the form of multiple (or even binary) choice question answering (MCQA) tasks, where for a given social scenario, a set of answer options is provided, from which the model being evaluated needs only choose one as its response (Le et al., 2019; Ruis et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2023; Gandhi et al., 2023; Sravanthi et al., 2024), and the **accuracy** of correctly selecting the annotated “gold” answer is used as the indicator of a model’s pragmatic abilities (*MCQA-Acc*). In recent studies, the way to elicit a model’s choice among the set of provided answer options can be divided into two methods:

- *Metalinguistic³ Probing*: The model is directly prompted the instruction to choose from a set of answers associated with symbolic indicators (alphabetic letters like A|B|C|D (Le et al., 2019; Sravanthi et al., 2024; Robinson and Wingate, 2023) or index digits like 1|2|3|4 (Hu et al., 2023)). The model then generates the symbolic indicator of the option it chooses.

- *Probability Probing*: The model is prompted the scenario and question text (context, \mathbf{x}). We then calculate the model’s likelihood of generating each one of the answer options \mathbf{y}_i conditioned on the input context. The option with the highest probability is deemed the answer the model chooses in the sense that it is most likely to be generated by the model. For the probability calculation, there can again be variations in the normalization technique (Brown et al., 2020; Robinson and Wingate, 2023; Holtzman et al., 2021) that lead to different formulations:

- Without normalization: $P(\mathbf{y}_i | \mathbf{x})$;

- With length normalization over j tokens in \mathbf{y}_i : $\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{\ell_i} P(y_i^j | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}^{1 \dots j-1})}{\ell_i}$;

- Normalization by unconditional answer probability⁴: $\frac{P(\mathbf{y}_i | \mathbf{x})}{P(\mathbf{y}_i | \mathbf{x}_{\text{uncond}})}$

The problems with these accuracy-based MCQA tests are multi-fold:

- 1) This task format deviates far from real-life social interactions, where there’s no fixed answer to select. Even the provided “gold” answer in

³Term adopted from Hu and Levy (2023), also known as *multiple choice prompting (MCP)* in Robinson and Wingate (2023).

⁴*domain conditional point-wise mutual information* in Holtzman et al. (2021)’s term.

these benchmarks may not be the best response to the given scenario. For instance, the preference-tuned model’s response in Fig. 1 (left-hand part) is equally sound in its social and pragmatic sense.

- 2) As also pointed out in Robinson and Wingate (2023), different models have different levels of proficiency binding an option to its symbol (*multiple choice symbol binding, MCSB*), which is an ability potentially conflated with true pragmatic intelligence, especially with the *metalinguistic probing* approach.

- 3) Being able to classify the correct answer option does not necessarily mean that a model really understands the social scenario and can respond in a socially and pragmatically grounded way on its own (see right-hand part of Fig. 1), which is the actual ability desired for more natural human-LLM interaction in real-life applications.

Therefore, we argue for a paradigm shift in evaluating machine pragmatics towards **open-ended** assessment of the model’s autonomous response, while still keeping the use of the annotated “gold” answer as reference.

2.2 Open-Ended Evaluation: Length-Normalized Relative Score

We introduce *Length-Normalized Relative Score (LNRS)* to quantitatively measure how well the model’s own response is when compared to the provided “gold” answer. Instead of providing the model with options for choice, we directly obtain the model’s own response to the pragmatic question describing a social scenario. Then we ask the most advanced GPT4 (OpenAI, 2023) to score the model’s own response in reference to the provided “gold” answer.

GPT4-Judge. We use GPT4 as judge, for it is the sole LLM available that has been most consistently shown to perform robustly at a human-matching level across various social-pragmatic studies (Gandhi et al., 2023; Sap et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2023; Ruis et al., 2023; Kosinski, 2023). Also, GPT4 has been commonly applied in numerous settings, *e.g.*, in typical instruction-following evaluation (Chiang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023; Dubois et al., 2024, 2023; Wang et al., 2023a), and even as a “teacher” to guide other LLMs in reasoning tasks (Shridhar et al., 2023; Hsieh et al., 2023). In line with prior work using GPT4-judge, we also randomly permute the order of the model’s answer and the provided “gold” answer to allevi-

ate potential position bias. Specifically, we query GPT4 twice with reversed order of the model’s and the “gold” answer. Our prompt template for querying GPT4 (gpt-4-1106-preview) to score the model’s free-form answer in reference to the provided gold answer is given in Appx.A.

After parsing each of GPT4’s responses as a pair of scores, we then compare the average scores of the model’s answer to the average scores of the gold answer. For all the questions from the test set T , we first calculate the *relative score* (RS) of the model’s response a_{model} in reference to the “gold” answer a_{gold} as $RS = \frac{\sum_{q \in T} JS(a_{model})}{\sum_{q \in T} JS(a_{gold})}$, in which JS denotes the judge’s score. This intuitively measures the degree to which the model’s answers are as good as (or even better than) the “gold” responses throughout the test set, which directly indicates if the model’s understanding – as manifested in its own free-form answer – aligns with nuanced social norms and pragmatic rules.

Length Normalization. Inspired by recent advancements in LLM evaluations such as AlpacaEval-2.0 (Dubois et al., 2024; Galambosi, 2024), we also carefully reduce the influence of length bias that may affect GPT4’s judgment (termed *length gameability* in Dubois et al. (2024)) in our pragmatic evaluation. We adopted the *logistic length normalization* technique (Galambosi, 2024; Dubois, 2024)⁵ to our open-ended pragmatic evaluation. Specifically, *length-normalized relative score* ($LNRS$) normalizes the RS by a temperature-weighted sigmoid function of the differences between the length of model’s and the “gold” response:

$$LNRS = \frac{\sum_{q \in T} JS(a_{model})}{\sum_{q \in T} JS(a_{gold})} \cdot \sigma\left(\frac{1}{\tau \cdot T} \left(\sum_{q \in T} \text{Len}(a_{gold}) - \sum_{q \in T} \text{Len}(a_{model}) \right)\right) \quad (1)$$

in which τ betokens a temperature hyperparameter, and JS and Len denotes the judge score and token length respectively.

In §4.1, we empirically demonstrate the superiority of the open-ended $LNRS$ over current

⁵The *length control* method used in AlpacaEval-2.0 (Dubois et al., 2024) cannot be transferred to our evaluation setting without prior win-rate data. So we turned to *length normalization* that has only a close performance gap to *length control*.

$MCQA-Acc$, the former of which correlates better with real user preferences in **human evaluation**.

3 Improving Pragmatic Abilities

On top of establishing an open-ended evaluation paradigm that matches real-life scenarios more closely, we also set out to investigate how the social-pragmatic inference of LLMs can be intrinsically improved. Different from previous works (§5) that are more inclined to apply external modules for better cognitive abilities (Sclar et al., 2023; Takmaz et al., 2023) or few-shot prompt engineering (Moghaddam and Honey, 2023; Ruis et al., 2023), we are concerned about aligning the model’s **intrinsic representation** towards a more social-pragmatically grounded distribution.

Let \mathbf{p}_θ be an LLM parameterized by θ . In our context, \mathbf{p}_θ takes a question q as input, which describes a pragmatics-involved social context, and a_{gold} is the annotated correct answer.

Supervised Finetuning (SFT). The straightforward approach is to apply SFT on the question q and gold answer a_{gold} conveniently provided by each MCQA-formatted data source \mathcal{D} . The objective is to minimize the negative log-likelihood loss of correctly predicting each token in the gold answer a_{gold} conditioned on the question q :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SFT}}(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}_{(q, a_{gold}) \sim \mathcal{D}} [\log \mathbf{p}_\theta(a_{gold}|q)] \quad (2)$$

Preference Optimization (PO). In social contexts, however, there is no definitive right answer. For example, in the MCQA-formatted data sources like in Fig. 1, we do not consider e.g., option 3) a wrong answer. It is just not as socially and pragmatically appropriate in common sense as option 4) in the described context. Such nuanced understanding – weighing the possible responses in terms of pragmatic soundness and social appropriateness – is exactly what we want to develop in the model.

We thus turn to the preference optimization (PO) paradigm with the simplified *direct preference optimization* (DPO) objective (Rafailov et al., 2024), which does not solely rely on maximizing the likelihood of a given answer but rather focuses on optimizing the model parameters θ to reflect a preference for more desired answers over less desired ones. Among different answer options to q , we construct pairwise triples (q, a_{gold}, a_{other}) , where given a question q , a_{gold} is the provided “gold” answer and thus the preferred response over any other

answer option a_{other} . For a data source \mathcal{D} , the PO objective can be formulated as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{DPO}}(\mathbf{p}_\theta; \mathbf{p}_{\text{ref}}) = & \\ - \mathbb{E}_{(q, a_{\text{gold}}, a_{\text{other}}) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\log \sigma \left(\beta \log \frac{\mathbf{p}_\theta(a_{\text{gold}}|q)}{\mathbf{p}_{\text{ref}}(a_{\text{gold}}|q)} \right. \right. & \\ \left. \left. - \beta \log \frac{\mathbf{p}_\theta(a_{\text{other}}|q)}{\mathbf{p}_{\text{ref}}(a_{\text{other}}|q)} \right) \right], \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

where σ is the sigmoid function, β is a hyperparameter.

4 Experiments

4.1 Pragmatic Question Answering

Setup. We experimented with four popular social and pragmatic inference data sources – *SOCIAL-IQA* (Sap et al., 2019), *PRAGMEGA* (Floyd, 2022; Hu et al., 2023), *LUDWIG* (Ruis et al., 2023), *PUB* (Sravanthi et al., 2024). They cover a wide range of pragmatic phenomena including implicature, metaphor, irony, and various social norms. Tab. 6 summarizes the dataset details. We used three versions of base LLM across different pre-training data and model sizes: PYTHIA-6.9B-Tu1u (Wang et al., 2023b), LLAMA2-7B-Chat and LLAMA2-13B-Chat (Touvron et al., 2023).⁶ Our detailed training configurations can be found in Tab. 4.

Human Evaluation. To further support our advocate for open-ended assessment of pragmatic abilities, we recruited 12 voluntary human participants from top educational institutions to judge the quality of different responses. Given a social-pragmatic context and question, the human evaluator is presented with randomly ordered four types of responses (the dataset-annotated “gold” option, the base LLM’s responses, the PO-tuned and the SFT-tuned models’ generations). Then we ask the evaluator to rank the responses in terms of their pragmatic understanding and fitness to the context scenario. Appx.B gives the detailed instructions we employed for this user study. The ranking of the four responses is transformed into scores, with the first place receiving 4 points and the last place receiving 1 point. In total, we randomly sampled

192 samples coupled with the four responses, and randomly assigned 16 data points to each evaluator for assessment.

Results. Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Tab. 1 shows the performance of LLMs finetuned with different paradigms (PO v.s. SFT) – evaluated respectively in the open-ended framework (§2.2), the MCQA format⁷ (§2.1), and user study (see above). From the results, we observe the following patterns:

1) Across almost all configurations of base models, training data, test sets as well as evaluation paradigms (MCQA/open-ended/human-eval), the PO-tuned LLMs significantly outperforms the SFT-trained counterparts, boosting the pragmatic inference over the base model by a substantial margin. There are very few exceptions such as the negligibly lower *LUDWIG_Test LNRS* score of the PYTHIA-6.9B-Tu1u DPO-tuned on *PUB* in contrast to SFT. Additionally, under the MCQA setup, the DPO-tuned LLAMA2-13B-Chat performs worse than SFT on *PRAGMEGA_Test*, which however strongly contrasts human users’ judgement (Tab. 1) that ranks the PO-version of LLAMA2-13B-Chat as having the best response quality.

2) The open-ended evaluation paradigm correlates better with human judgement than the MCQA results. Tab. 1 reveals the clear human preference for responses generated by PO-tuned models, which claims the **best** place (even better than the annotated “gold” answer) for both LLAMA2 models and second only to the “gold” answer for PYTHIA. In contrast, the SFT-ed models is even lower rated than its base LLMs, showing that SFT can even hurt pragmatic performance. These human evaluation results resonate with the *LNRS* comparisons Fig. 2, where we observe similar patterns of PO’s superiority and SFT’s potential harm on model pragmatics.

3) The PO objective enables a more robust transfer to “out-of-domain” pragmatic phenomena. We intentionally designed our test sets to consist of both “in-domain” (*i.e.*, same data source and similar phenomena with train sets, *e.g.*, *SOCIAL-IQA_Train/_Test*) and “out-of-domain” (*i.e.*, different data source and phenomena from the train sets) data. We sometimes observe even larger performance gains of PO on different data sources. For instance, when tested on *SOCIAL-IQA_Test*, LLAMA2-13B-Chat DPO-finetuned on *PUB* (impli-

⁶We only adopted already instruction-tuned chat models as baseline in order to start with a decent instruction-following ability for our models, especially because the social-pragmatic data is relatively scarce and might not be sufficient for general-purpose alignment tuning.

⁷We used the *length-normalized probability probing* variant in our implementation.

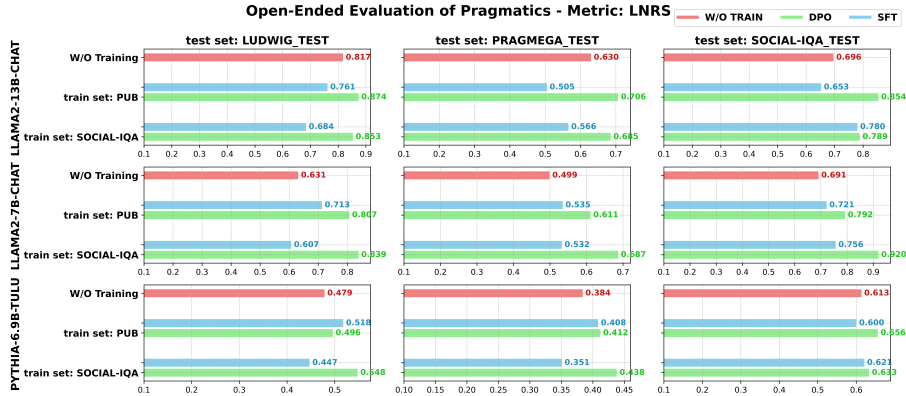


Figure 2: *LNRS* comparisons across models, data sources and training paradigms (PO v.s. SFT).

captures, presuppositions, etc.) even outperforms the version DPO-ed on the same social norm dataset.

4) The PO objective exerts little influence on other abilities inherited from the base LLMs. In Tab. 3, across almost all benchmarks including professional examination (Hendrycks et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2023; Clark et al., 2018), math (Cobbe et al., 2021), reading comprehension (Mihaylov et al., 2018), the models DPO-ed on our pragmatic data always outperforms their SFT counterparts, frequently by a large margin. This strongly shows that despite being finetuned on pragmatic datasets, the preference-optimized version offers a **near-free launch** of pragmatic abilities, while even **improving** the various other abilities learnt by the base models at the same time. The SFT-tuned alternatives, however, performs far worse in terms of retaining these inherited abilities.

Models	“Gold”	Base	+SFT	+PO
LLAMA2-7B-Chat	2.34	<u>2.75</u>	2.11	2.81
LLAMA2-13B-Chat	<u>2.72</u>	2.44	2.05	2.81
PYTHIA-6.9B-Tulu	2.83	2.33	2.19	<u>2.66</u>

Table 1: Average human evaluation scores elicited from our user study ranking different responses (§4.1). Best and second results are highlighted.

4.2 Image Referential Game with ToM

In this section, we extend our method of improving models’ pragmatic inference from pure text world (§4.1) to multimodal environments with large vision-language models (LVLMs). We focused on the well-established task setting of *image referential game* (Zhu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2023; Takmaz et al., 2023), which requires a theory of mind (ToM) (Premack and Woodruff, 1978) that belongs to part of social-pragmatic capabilities.

Task Formulation. The image referential game encompasses two interlocutors – a speaker and a listener: Given an image i_{target} , the speaker generates a descriptive caption $c_{speaker}$, based on which the listener tries to choose the target image i_{target} out of a set of images containing both the one described by the speaker i_{target} and several distraction images $i_{distractor} \in I_{distractor}$. ToM is vividly present in this task, because the speaker has to be able to take the listener’s understanding into account when arranging the wording of its caption, so that the listener makes the correct choice of the target image. In line with §4.1, we improve the speaker VLM’s intrinsic ToM via the same SFT and PO objectives as in §3 and §4.1, with additional visual conditions represented as the image encodings.

Setup. We implement the base VLM-speaker as LLaVA-1.5-7B (Liu et al., 2024). For the listener, we use the discriminative OpenCLIP-ViT-B/32 (Ilharco et al., 2021) to match the target image i_{target} with the given caption from the speaker $c_{speaker}$ based on image-text similarity. Detailed finetuning configurations and are provided in Tab. 5. Our image referential game data source is the widely-adopted *COCO-CAPTION* (Lin et al., 2014) containing 5 captions for each image. We follow the Karpathy-split⁸, using *COCO-Karpathy-Train* for training and *COCO-Karpathy-Val* as the test set. To build the preferential data pairs {preferred caption, dispreferred caption} for PO, we use a pretrained CLIP (Ilharco et al., 2021) to calculate the similarity scores between an image and its corresponding five captions, among which the caption with the highest text-image similarity is

⁸<https://cs.stanford.edu/people/karpathy/deepimagesent/coco.zip>

taken as the preferred option. We then randomly sample another caption as the dispreferred one. We assess the speaker-VLM’s ToM with two metrics according to the image referential game setting:

- *CLIP-Score Win Rate*: We compare different models’ captions in terms of their similarity to the target image implemented as CLIP-Score (Hessel et al., 2021), and decide on the winner. This win rate metric indicates if a model’s output is superior in terms of its absolute fidelity to the target image.

- *Target Image Retrieval Recall*: We calculate the recall rate of the target image among all distractions, given the caption generated by the speaker. This metric directly simulates the listener’s choice among a set of distraction images.

Fig. 4 demonstrates our data curation, preferential tuning, and evaluation pipeline.

Results. Tab. 2 presents the evaluation results of the base LLaVA-1.5-7B speaker, together with the SFT and PO finetuned versions in terms of both *CLIP-Score Win Rate* and *Target Image Retrieval Recall*. For the win rate, we compare each pair among the three models. For the recall metric, we set $R@k$ with $k \in \{1, 5, 10\}$ indicating the number of retrieved candidates. The results show:

- 1) Similar to the pure-text results (§4.1), the PO-finetuned speaker also outperforms both the base VLM and the SFT-trained counterpart across metrics here in our multimodal experiment. The +PO version of LLaVA wins both the base and +SFT speaker in the absolute caption-image CLIP-score similarity and it leads to the highest retrieval success on the listener’s part, directly indicating the best image referential game success.

- 2) We also find that the SFT training could even result in a slight decrease in performance compared to the base pretrained VLM under both evaluation protocols. The +SFT speaker wins the base LLaVA-1.5-7B less than 50% of times and its resulting retrieval recall is worse than the base speaker across candidate numbers k . This further proves how forcing just one correct answer may even hurt a model’s ToM that requires flexibility in the face of dynamic social scenarios as well as the listener’s knowledge space.

4.3 Layer Depth

Human social reasoning and pragmatic predictions with ToM are integral to high-level cognitive processes (Sperber and Wilson, 1986; Bara, 2011). Inspired by this fact, in this section, we explore

the relationship between the network layers and the pragmatic reasoning abilities in a Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017)-based LLM.

Setup. Following §4.1, we conducted DPO on *SOCIAL-IQA_Train* as an example train set and took the LLAMA2-7B-Chat (Touvron et al., 2023) with 32 transformer layers as a demonstrative model. We controlled trainable layer_id⁹ combinations with a 4-layer interval: (5-32), (9-32), . . . , (29-32). Evaluation was performed across three test sets *SOCIAL-IQA_Test*, *PRAGMEGA_Test* and *LUDWIG_Test* (Tab. 6) using the open-ended assessment metric *LNRS* (§2.2).

Results. From Fig. 5, we observe an overall clear decrease in performance as the depth of trained LLM layers becomes shallower. While DPO-tuning deeper layers leads to a marked improvement in pragmatic inference compared to the non-finetuned base model LLAMA2-Chat, training shallower layers produces limited effects and can even degrade performance. This underscores the necessity of engaging deeper network layers for effective pragmatic learning. Approximately from the middle of all transformer stacks, the LLM’s ability to learn pragmatic inference degrades severely. After about the 21th layer, the finetuning yields few performance gains, as demonstrated by the almost flat lines of metric scores’ change. The best performance is achieved by training the deep-down 5- or 9-32 layers. It also seems that skipping the training of the 5-8th layer even leads to a slightly better *LNRS* score, which however does not account for a significant difference.

This contrast between the effectiveness of preferential tuning in deeper versus shallower transformer layers suggests a possible correspondence with the pattern observed in human cognitive processes. Just as high-level cognitive abilities in humans such as social-pragmatic inference rely on deep cognitive strategies, our experimental results (Fig. 5) similarly demonstrate that deeper layers in an LLM significantly enhance pragmatic performance, while shallower layers have a negligible impact.

5 Related Work

Machine Pragmatics. With theoretical underpinning in linguistics (Grice, 1975; Austin, 1962; Searle, 1975; Sperber and Wilson, 1986), pragmat-

⁹Layer_id starts from 1.

(a) CLIP-Score Win Rate				(b) Target Image Retrieval Recall		
	LLaVA-1.5-7B	(+ SFT)	(+ DPO)	R@1	R@5	R@10
LLaVA-1.5-7B	-	56.6	45.4	31.0	56.9	68.4
+ SFT	43.4	-	41.2	30.5 _{↓0.5}	56.0 _{↓0.9}	67.1 _{↓1.3}
+ PO	54.6	58.8	-	31.9 _{↑0.9}	58.0 _{↑1.1}	69.4 _{↑1.0}

Table 2: Image referential game evaluation results on *COCO-Karpathy-Val* in terms of the *CLIP-Score Win Rate* and *Target Image Retrieval Recall*. We compare three versions of the speaker: the base VLM LLaVA-1.5-7B as well as the SFT-trained (+SFT) and PO-trained (+PO) LLaVA model.

ics within the machine learning communities has recently been explored in terms of how LLMs perform in scenarios involving various pragmatic phenomena (Hu et al., 2023; Lipkin et al., 2023; Ruis et al., 2023; Qi et al., 2023; Sravanthi et al., 2024) or subtle social norms (Sap et al., 2023; Shapira et al., 2023). The theory of mind (ToM) (Premack and Woodruff, 1978) abilities have been tested in false-belief tasks (Kosinski, 2023; Ullman, 2023), story comprehension (Jones et al., 2023), and multi-turn interactive contexts (Kim et al., 2023). Additionally, Gandhi et al. (2023) proposed a framework for using an LLM itself to expand on ToM evaluation samples, whose results showed GPT4 (OpenAI, 2023) as the sole LLM matching human capabilities whereas all other LLMs struggle. To improve LLM’s ToM inference, Moghaddam and Honey (2023) employed few-shot prompting with chain-of-thought (Wei et al., 2022) and step-by-step reasoning (Kojima et al., 2022), while Sclar et al. (2023) proposed a graph module for tracking each character’s mental state. For the specific challenge of image referential game, approaches that explicitly build a simulated ToM-listener have been proposed to externally model ToM that guides the speaker’s output (Zhu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2023; Takmaz et al., 2023).

Finetuning Methods of LLMs. Pretrained LLMs undergo finetuning that typically serves to better align these models with human requests (*i.e.*, instructions) and human-like conversation. **Supervised finetuning (SFT)** – sometimes also referred to as instruction tuning – follows the language modeling loss on {human instruction, response} data to directly trains the LLMs to follow human instructions and respond like the given “gold” response. Instruction-tuned LLMs typically become “chatbots” in that they follow user inquiries and carry on with dialogues in a more natural way. For instance, the instruction-tuned InstructGPT (Ouyang et al., 2022) out-

performs GPT3 (Brown et al., 2020) in terms of conversation with users. **Preference optimization (PO)** steers LLMs towards outputs that align with human preferences. Reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) (Christiano et al., 2017; Ziegler et al., 2019) uses human feedback in the form of paired data {preferred response, dispreferred response} to train a reward model to interpret human feedback, which then guides the LLM’s outputs to align with the human preferences under a Reinforcement Learning framework. In the face of RLHF’s limitations in its implementation complexity and unstable training process, recent works (*e.g.*, DPO (Rafailov et al., 2024), SimPO (Meng et al., 2024), and *etc.*) greatly improve the training efficiency of RLHF by alleviating the requirements for a reward model or reference model.

6 Conclusion

This paper addresses two lines of challenges with regard to the social-pragmatic abilities in LLMs. We first advocate for shifting from MCQA to open-ended assessment that directly measures the soundness of the model’s own answer to a social scenario. Then we propose to enhance the LLM’s intrinsic pragmatic abilities via preference optimization (PO) over supervised finetuning (SFT), where a model learns to capture the subtle nuances between preferred and dispreferred social interactions. Our experiments on multiple pragmatic data sources coupled with human evaluation, and the image referential game, effectively demonstrate both the advantages of our free-form evaluation protocol and the superiority of PO over SFT in pragmatic scenarios. We also reveal the impact of trainable layer depth on the model’s pragmatic performance gains, which potentially mirrors human’s high-level social thinking.

658 Limitations

659 Under our proposed paradigm of open-ended eval-
660 uation, this paper employed GPT4 (OpenAI, 2023)
661 as judge to score the models’ generation, which,
662 though effective, is based on API that allows lim-
663 ited control over the judge’s assessment. Future
664 work should look into more transparent and con-
665 trollable methodologies for quantifying the quality
666 of free-form outputs.

667 The benefits of preference optimization (PO) for
668 improving machine pragmatics is both intuitively
669 motivated by our insight of the non-existence of a
670 “gold” answer and empirically proved by our exper-
671 iments across modalities. Nevertheless, the exact
672 numeric mechanism underlying the pronounced im-
673 pact of PO on social-pragmatic inference remains
674 to be explored.

675 Furthermore, as demonstrated by our layer-
676 control studies (§4.3), LLMs’ social-pragmatic
677 abilities are linked to deeper representation, which
678 possibly resonates with how human pragmatic rea-
679 soning is also governed by high-level cognitive pro-
680 cesses. This potential synergy between machines’
681 deep understanding and humans’ high-level cogni-
682 tion should inspire future work on bridging human
683 cognitive science with language modeling.

684 Ethics Statement

685 In this project, all data and pretrained models are
686 publicly available. They are collected and pro-
687 cessed in adherence to the respective data, check-
688 points, and API usage policy. We do recognize
689 that our finetuned models may generate unsafe con-
690 tents, and we advise all users of careful verification
691 before putting our work in real-world applications.

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996 A GPT4-Judge Prompt Templates

997 Here’s our prompt template for querying GPT4
998 (gpt-4-1106-preview) to score the model’s free-
999 form answer in relation to the provided “gold” an-
1000 swer (§2.2). We query GPT4 twice with reversed
1001 order of the model’s and the “gold” answer:

Template for GPT4-judge

[Scenario]:
{QUESTION}

[Model’s Answer]:
{ANSWER_MODEL}

[Gold Answer for Reference]:
{ANSWER_GOLD}

[System]:

We request your evaluation of the AI model’s answer in relation to the provided scenario and the gold answer. Assess the responses based on the following criteria:

1. Social Understanding: How well does the model’s answer grasp the social dynamics or pragmatic nuances of the scenario?
2. Appropriateness: Is the model’s answer appropriate and contextually fitting for the scenario?
3. Insightfulness: Does the answer demonstrate a deep understanding of the underlying intentions, implicature, deceit, irony, sarcasm, humor, metaphor, etc.?
4. Completeness: How comprehensive is the model’s response in capturing the essential elements of the scenario?

Please first output a single line containing only two numeric values representing scores for the model’s answer and the gold answer respectively, on a scale of 1 to 10, where a higher score indicates better performance. The two score values should be separated by a space. The gold answer is for reference only and should not strictly limit the evaluation.

In the next line, provide a comprehensive explanation of your evaluation, discussing each of the criteria mentioned. This explanation should avoid any potential bias and ensure that the judgment is solely based on the response’s merits in the context of the scenario and the gold answer for reference.

B Human Evaluation Instruction

Instructions for Human Evaluators

We request your ranking evaluation of different answers to the provided scenarios and questions. Please assess the answers based on the following criteria:

1. Overall Appropriateness: Is the answer suitable and contextually fitting for the scenario?
2. Social Understanding: How well does the answer grasp the social dynamics or pragmatic nuances of the scenario?
3. Conversational Insightfulness: Does the answer demonstrate a deep understanding of the underlying intentions, implicature, deceit, irony, sarcasm, humor, metaphor, etc.?

Rank the answers based on their qualities. Place the best answer first, the second-best second, and so on.

Do NOT let the length of the answers bias your judgment. A longer answer may better capture the scenario, or it may be unnecessarily verbose.

Disregard minor format variations such as ending with or without a period, extra quotation marks, or differences in upper/lower cases.

Feel free to include any additional comments at the end of the questionnaire.

Any data you submitted remains anonymous and will be used for research purposes only.

C Implementation Details

Tab. 4 is our detailed finetuning hyperparameters for pragmatic question answering task (§4.1):

Tab. 5 is our detailed finetuning hyperparameters for image referential game (§4.2). Note that since we are concerned with how the VLM “speaks” (*i.e.*, how it arranges the caption wording), we do not finetune the VLM’s image-encoder module, which then provides a robust and stable embedding space of images throughout our experiments. Since we are concerned with how the VLM “speaks” (*i.e.*, how it arranges the caption wording), we do not

finetune the VLM’s image-encoder module, which then provides a robust and stable embedding space of images throughout our image referential game experiments.

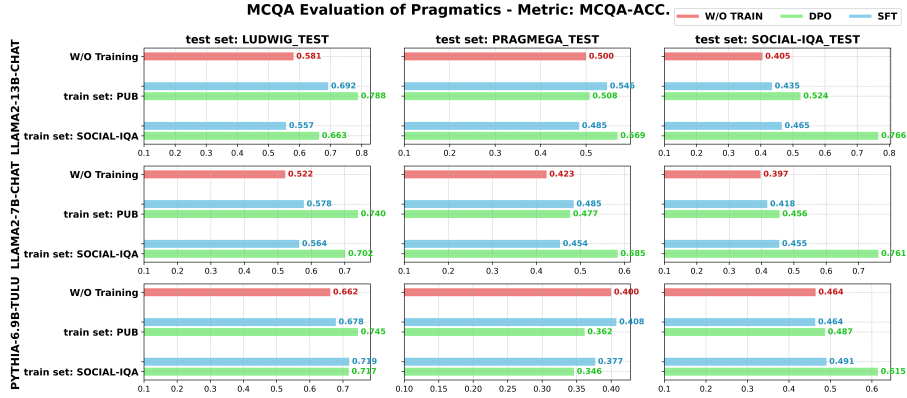


Figure 3: *MCQA-ACC*. comparisons across models, data sources and training paradigms (PO v.s. SFT).

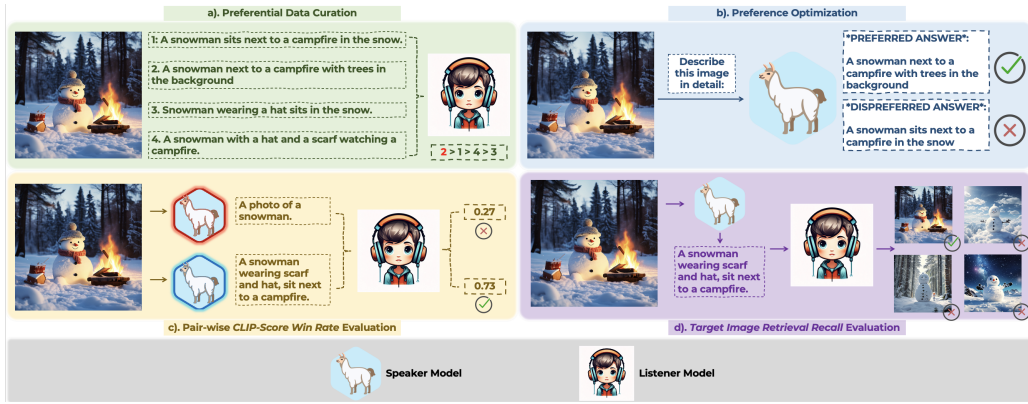


Figure 4: Illustrations of our image referential game experiment with the preferential tuning objective DPO (Rafailov et al., 2024): **a)** Data curation of paired preferential captions; **b)** DPO-finetuning a base speaker VLM; **c)** Evaluating different output captions in terms of *CLIP-Score Win Rate*; **d)** Evaluating caption’s *Target Image Retrieval Recall*.

Model	Finetuning		MMLU 5-shot	ARC-E 5-shot	ARC-C 25-shot	AGIEval 0-shot	GSM8K 8-shot	OpenBookQA 0-shot
	Dataset	Method						
LLAMA2-7B-Chat	-	-	47.4	80.9	53.2	37.0	23.2	43.8
	<i>SOCIQL-IQA</i>	PO	47.5	83.0	58.4	37.3	23.4	46.6
	<i>SOCIQL-IQA</i>	SFT	48.1	81.1	52.6	36.7	20.2	44.6
	<i>PUB</i>	PO	48.1	81.2	55.3	37.8	24.3	44.2
	<i>PUB</i>	SFT	47.2	80.8	51.9	36.7	23.0	42.6
LLAMA2-13B-Chat	-	-	53.6	83.5	59.7	39.0	35.4	44.0
	<i>SOCIQL-IQA</i>	PO	54.0	85.3	62.8	39.2	35.7	46.4
	<i>SOCIQL-IQA</i>	SFT	53.4	84.2	58.8	38.7	33.2	45.4
	<i>PUB</i>	PO	54.4	84.8	61.6	39.5	35.9	44.8
	<i>PUB</i>	SFT	53.9	83.0	58.1	38.5	32.7	44.2
PYTHIA-6.9B-Tulu	-	-	34.0	67.9	39.7	31.9	11.7	38.4
	<i>SOCIQL-IQA</i>	PO	34.6	70.3	43.0	33.0	11.5	40.6
	<i>SOCIQL-IQA</i>	SFT	33.3	67.8	38.9	32.5	10.8	36.8
	<i>PUB</i>	PO	35.2	68.9	40.2	32.7	11.4	41.0
	<i>PUB</i>	SFT	33.9	67.5	39.2	32.2	9.9	36.0

Table 3: Various benchmark performances of the base LLMs along with their versions PO- and SFT-finetuned on pragmatic datasets. The **best** metric scores are marked.

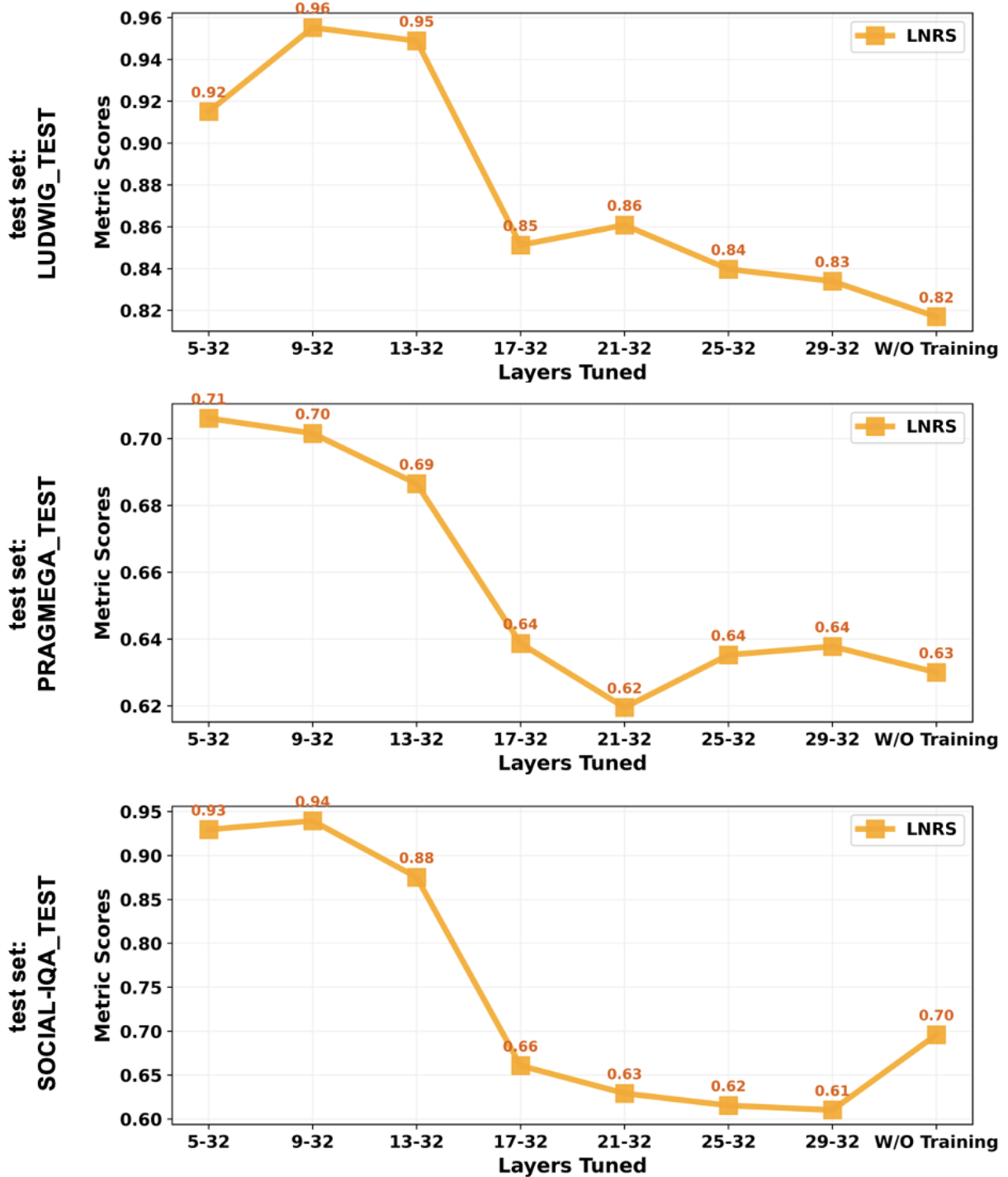


Figure 5: Effects of trainable LLAMA2-7B transformer layer depth on the outcome PO-tuned pragmatic performance.

Method	Parameter	Value
SFT, DPO	batch size	64
SFT, DPO	learning rate	$5.0e - 07$
SFT, DPO	max gradient norm	10.0
SFT, DPO	optimizer	RMSprop (Hinton, 2014)
SFT, DPO	warmup iterations	150
SFT, DPO	training epochs	1
SFT, DPO	max sequence length	512
SFT, DPO	max prompt length	256
SFT, DPO	label smoothing	0
DPO	DPO beta	0.1

Table 4: Pragmatic question answering base LLMs’ finetuning hyperparameters.

Method	Parameter	Value
SFT, DPO	LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) r	128
SFT, DPO	LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) alpha	256
SFT, DPO	batch size	16
SFT, DPO	learning rate	$1.0e - 07$
SFT, DPO	optimizer	AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2017)
SFT, DPO	learning rate schedule	Cosine
SFT, DPO	weight decay	0
SFT, DPO	warmup ratio	0.03
SFT, DPO	training epochs	1
SFT, DPO	max sequence length	2048
DPO	DPO beta	0.1

Table 5: Hyperparameters for finetuning the base speaker VLM LLaVA in the image referential game.

Data Source	Phenomena	#Train	#Test
SocialIQA ^a	various social norms	33,410	2,224
PragMega ^b	deceits, indirect speech, irony, maxims, metaphor, humor	0	130
LUDWIG ^c	implicature	0	718
PUB ^d	implicature, presupposition, reference, deixis	18,627	0

Table 6: Details of the data sources for experimenting with our evaluation and tuning methods. If #Train is 0, it means that we do not use this data source for training – because of the data’s scarcity.

^a<https://allenai.org/data/socialiqa>. We keep the original train/dev/test splitting.

^bThis is an ongoing project at https://osf.io/6abgk/?view_only=42d448e3d0b14ecf8b87908b3a618672. We used the data provided by <https://github.com/jennhu/lm-pragmatics> and discarded the binary classification “Coherence” task.

^c<https://huggingface.co/datasets/UCL-DARK/ludwig>.

^d<https://huggingface.co/datasets/cfilt/PUB>. We combined the original train/dev as our training split. We also discarded the task instances made easier with hints. The testing questions rely too much on the MCQA selection format, so we choose not to use its test set.