

Proof Central

Dear Author

Please use this PDF proof to check the layout of your article. If you would like any changes to be made to the layout, you can leave instructions in the online proofing interface. First, return to the online proofing interface by clicking "Edit" at the top page, then insert a Comment in the relevant location. Making your changes directly in the online proofing interface is the quickest, easiest way to correct and submit your proof.

Please note that changes made to the article in the online proofing interface will be added to the article before publication, but are not reflected in this PDF proof.

If you would prefer to submit your corrections by annotating the PDF proof, please download and submit an annotatable PDF proof by clicking the link below.

 [Annotate
PDF](#)

Author Metadata Approval Sheet

Dear author,

Please check and complete carefully the author metadata listed below by using the editable fields in the right column. Please make sure to submit your annotations and corrections in English.

Thanks for your kind cooperation, De Gruyter

Journal-Name: Folia Linguistica

Article-DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1515/flin-2021-2020>

Article-Title: 'Well, that's just great!': an empirically based analysis of non-literal and attitudinal content of ironic utterances

Bitte vervollständigen/ Please complete	Author Meta Data		Bitte ändern/To be changed
	Author 1		
	Surname	Härtl	
	First Name	Holden	
	Corresponding	yes	
	E-Mail	holden.haertl@uni-kassel.de	
	Affiliation 1	Department of English and American Studies, University of Kassel, Kassel, Germany	
	Institution 1	University of Kassel	

Bitte vervollständigen/ Please complete	Author Meta Data		Bitte ändern/To be changed
	Department 1	Department of English and American Studies	
	City 1	Kassel	
	Country 1	Germany	
	Author 2		
	Surname	Bürger	
	First Name	Tatjana	
	Corresponding	no	
✓	E-Mail		
	Affiliation 1	Department of English and American Studies, University of Kassel, Kassel, Germany	
	Institution 1	University of Kassel	
	Department 1	Department of English and American Studies	
	City 1	Kassel	



DE GRUYTER

Bitte vervollständigen/ Please complete	Author Meta Data		Bitte ändern/To be changed
	Country 1	Germany	

Checked and receipted

Date: _____

Author Query Form

Journal: folia


Article Number: folia-2021-2020

Dear Author,

Please check your proof carefully and mark all corrections at the appropriate place in the proof.

Queries and/or remarks

[Q1]	As per De Gruyter policy, no author list changes are permitted after acceptance of an article. The De Gruyter production team is instructed to enforce this policy during the production/proofing process.
[Q2]	Please confirm that the forename(s) and surname(s) have been identified correctly, and please carefully verify the spelling of all authors' names.
[Q3]	Please check the retained author-group and their link to the affiliations.
[Q4]	Please check the corresponding author's details.
[Q5]	Please check the hierarchy of the section headings.
[Q6]	As per style author initials should be full out in references, kindly check and provide the same for references "Grice, 1975".
[Q7]	Please supply the name of the city for the reference(s) "Potts, 2015".
[Q8]	Please supply the name of the publisher for the reference(s) "Smith and Hall, 2011".

 Holden Härtl* and Tatjana Bürger

‘Well, that’s just great!’: an empirically based analysis of non-literal and attitudinal content of ironic utterances

<https://doi.org/10.1515/flin-2021-2020>

Received January 8, 2021; accepted May 14, 2021; published online ■■■

Abstract: This study contributes to the ongoing debate about the informational status of attitudinal content with a focus on verbal irony. Specifically, we investigate where the different meaning components involved in ironic utterances are positioned in the dichotomy between primary and secondary content of utterances. After an analysis of the semantic and pragmatic characteristics of ironic meaning components and their linguistic expression, we show, based on experimental data, that ironic, non-literally asserted content is “less” at-issue than non-ironic, literally asserted content. Crucially, our findings also suggest that an ironic utterance’s non-literally asserted content is more at-issue than the attitudinal content expressed with an ironic utterance. No difference is observed between attitudinal content manifested as ironic criticism and content manifested as ironic praise. Our findings support the notion of at-issueness as a graded criterion and can be used to argue that verbal irony in general seems to be difficult to reject directly and treated as at-issue.

Keywords: at-issueness; attitudinal; evaluative; non-literal; verbal irony

1 Introduction

Investigations of the semantic and pragmatic characteristics of attitudinal content typically consider meanings that are literal. Research on attitudinal content that is non-literal, as is the case with metaphoric language or verbal irony, is sparse and confounded by the fact that the expression’s non-literality seems to critically supplement the main point of the utterance. Consider the following example of verbal irony.

*Corresponding author: **Holden Härtl**, Department of English and American Studies, University of Kassel, Kurt-Wolters-Str. 5, 34125 Kassel, Germany, E-mail: holden.haertl@uni-kassel.de.
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0670-9227>

Tatjana Bürger, Department of English and American Studies, University of Kassel, Kassel, Germany

 Q4 Q3

- (1) [After breaking a plate]
Well, that's just great!

The utterance in (1) articulates an assertion which denotes the opposite of the expression's literal meaning. At the same time, by saying something positive, the speaker conveys a negative attitude towards the corresponding denotatum, i.e., for example, the plate's broken state. An evaluation of this sort, which materializes as ironic criticism in the example, has been argued to be a key component of verbal irony (cf. e.g. Dews and Winner 1999; Kreuz and Glucksberg 1989; Wilson 2006). But what exactly is the informational status of the speaker attitude expressed with an ironic utterance? By 'status', we refer to the difference between at-issue content and not-at-issue content, see, among others, Potts (2015). According to Potts (2015: 169), at-issue content corresponds to Frege's (1892/1980) 'sense' and to Grice's (1975) 'what is said'. Not-at-issue content, in contrast, has been analyzed as content which does not contribute to the question under discussion directly (see e.g. Tonhauser 2012).

In the literature on attitudinal content, the evaluative content of slurs, for instance, has been characterized as not-at-issue content (see Carrus [2017]; McCready [2010] among others). This raises the question whether this also applies to attitudinal content of ironic utterances. Further, what is the informational status of content expressed non-literally in comparison with literally expressed content? Does the former contribute to the question under discussion in the same way as the latter? It appears, for example, that ironically expressed content can be dissented with less easily than non-ironic, literal content as is reflected in the difference in suitability between (2b) and (3b) below, responding respectively to an ironic utterance in (2a) and its non-ironic counterpart in (3a).

- (2) [After an ambivalent performance]
- a. A: *Well, that lead singer really delivered every note in place.*
 - b. B: *??No, that is not true – the performance was flawless!*
- (3)
- a. A: *Well, that lead singer sang totally off key.*
 - b. B: *No, that is not true – the performance was flawless!*

An explanation of this effect holds, one may argue, that a non-literally expressed assertion has a different conversational status than a literally expressed one and is, thus, more difficult to dissent with directly. Furthermore, as verbal irony always conveys an evaluation of some sort, and since an evaluation is, supposedly, more difficult to reject, it is also less prone to figure as at-issue content in a discourse.

Against this background, the current study aims at analyzing where the different meaning components involved in ironic utterances are positioned in the dichotomy between primary and secondary content, that is, the dichotomy between

at-issue and not-at-issue content. Our empirical focus is on German. Specifically, our paper seeks to answer the following questions from an experimental point of view: first, is ironic, non-literally expressed content less at-issue than literally expressed content? While we find positive evidence for the not-at-issueness of ironically uttered contents, we hypothesize that the different content types involved in ironic utterance will differ in their potentials to be treated as at-issue. Accordingly, our second question asks whether ironic, non-literally expressed content is more at-issue than the attitudinal content expressed with an ironic utterance. Last, do different ironic attitudinal contents vary with respect to their at-issueness so that ironic criticism has a lesser potential to be treated as at-issue than ironic praise?

The structure of this paper is as follows. In Section 2, the central meaning components of ironic utterances will be characterized with a focus on how these are encoded linguistically. In Section 3, we determine the semantic and pragmatic source as well as the informational status of contents involved in verbal irony based on an experimental study. Section 4 concludes our investigation.

2 Ironic meaning components and their expression

As has often been claimed in the literature, verbal irony, when compared to a direct rejection or insult, has a face-saving function, which is achieved through adding an aspect of wit in a conversational exchange (cf. e.g. Dews and Winner 1999; Giora 1995). Dews et al. (1995: 297) state that “speakers choose irony over literal language in order to [...] soften the edge of an insult, to show themselves to be in control of their emotions, and to avoid damaging their relationship with the addressee”. The communicative effect produced by an ironic utterance is rooted in the meaning characteristics verbal irony conveys in contrast to non-ironic language. In the following, we assume these characteristics to be associated with two main components, including a content expressed non-literally, on the one hand, and the speaker’s attitude to evaluate the expression’s denotation, on the other.

2.1 Two components of ironic utterances

Consider the example in (4), which, when uttered ironically, asserts that the bar in question is not buzzing with people, that is, a meaning that is an alternate to the sentence’s literal meaning.

- (4) [At a deserted late night bar]
This place is buzzing with people!

Drawing on Kaplan's (1999) distinction between descriptive and expressive content, we consider the negated version of the semantic content of (4) to represent the descriptive content of the sentence. We presume that, while the locution of (4) suggests that the bar in question is buzzing with people, the opposite meaning is intended as the assertion, thus suggesting an update of the common ground with the corresponding proposition.

The non-literalness of the meaning of the expression is a central characteristic of ironic and sarcastic language (see e.g. Sperber and Wilson 1981).¹ From a semantic viewpoint, verbal irony has been described as involving a form of (indirect) negation (cf. Giora 1995). In contrast to semantic approaches, pragmatic approaches view the notion of contextual inappropriateness of the expression as central in explaining the non-literality of ironic speech-acts (cf. Attardo 2000; Dynel 2018).

Note that under the assumption that verbal irony involves negation, non-literal, ironically asserted content is not non-truth-conditional (as opposed to expressive content, which is usually considered to be non-truth-conditional; see e.g. Potts [2007]). Ironically asserted content is only not truth-conditional in a sense that the ironic interpretation entails some negated version of the non-ironic alternate's truth-conditional content.² With this characterization in mind, we confine our analysis to ironic utterances that contain non-literally used lexical material and exclude other types of verbal irony such as ironically expressed enthusiasm as in *Oh, yay, he crashed my brand new car!*,³ where the negation operates on a locutionary level.

Another element typically found in ironic utterances is the speaker's intention to produce an evaluative comment reflecting beliefs concerning an entity's value or significance, using criteria governed by a set of cultural standards (cf. e.g. Wilson and Sperber 1992).⁴ We consider this content to represent expressive content, i.e. content that is non-truth-conditional and not at-issue (cf. Potts 2005). It has been analyzed as another utterance's echo in the literature (cf. Jorgensen et al. 1984; Wilson (2006), with the echo giving rise to some sort of mockery effect in verbal irony. Consider the following example.

1 Following Attardo et al. (2003), we do not draw a systematic distinction between irony and sarcasm in this paper.

2 This insight will be relevant for the interpretation of our experimental data, see Sections 3.3 and 4.

3 We wish to thank Kristen Syrett for her input on this type of irony.

4 For an extensive overview of the literature on this characteristic, see Dynel (2018).

- (5) [After arriving at a small Bed & Breakfast]
That is quite a “hotel” the agency chose for our honeymoon!

With this utterance, the speaker communicates that somebody, perhaps a travel agent, has used the label *hotel* for the denotatum under discussion, which, however, would better be described as *Bed & Breakfast*. At the same time, the speaker articulates a negative evaluation of the corresponding denotatum.

While the non-literality of the utterance’s meaning represents the first central characteristic of verbal irony, the evaluative ‘undertone’ is treated here as the second main feature of ironic utterances. Crucially, we presume the two features to be separable such that they, though linked to each other, can be treated as two distinct notional contents. A potential objection against such a two-component view of verbal irony holds that it is in fact the non-literal content alone that implicates an evaluative comment.⁵ Under such a view, a non-literal ironic content has the same evaluative content as its non-ironic literal alternative. While we agree that both ironically and non-ironically presented assertions may involve equivalent attitudinal contents, we assume, however, that only the former expresses an evaluation conventionally but not the latter. Hence, considering the examples in (6), we assume that only the ironic utterance in (6a) conventionally implicates the meaning ‘Pavarotti sang badly’ but not the non-ironic correspondent in (6b).

- (6) [After a performance out of tune]
 a. *Pavarotti sang every note in tune.*
 b. *Pavarotti did not sing every note in tune.*

Observe that the speaker’s evaluative attitude expressed with an ironic utterance is often negative, referred to as ironic criticism, but it can also be positive (ironic praise) (see e.g. Dews and Winner 1999; Kreuz and Link 2002). The latter type is illustrated in (7):

- (7) [Tom received an A grade]
That is such a bad grade, Tom!

When uttering (7) ironically, the speaker literally says something negative in order to express something positive. Wilson (2013) argues that ironic praise is subject to stronger use restrictions than ironic criticism, which is often considered the default in verbal irony (cf. Wilson and Sperber 1992). The standard of verbal irony to involve a negative attitudinal polarity has been explained by means of a normative bias (Kreuz and Glucksberg 1989). Due to this normative bias, which describes people’s general aspiration to fulfill social norms rather than defy them, an

5 We wish to thank Chris Cummins for pointing this out to us.

ironically praising utterance has to refer to a preceding assertion, event, situation, etc. while ironic criticism can be used without such a specific reference point. Thus, ironic praise standardly requires an echo of or allusion to some explicit previous statement, while ironic criticism does not require such an anchor point (cf. Dews and Winner 1999). Against this background, also more recent experimental research on irony detection can be interpreted, which found ironic praise, as the less prototypical type of irony, “to generate variance with surplus meaning beyond the variance generated by ironic criticism in irony detection” (Brunscht and Ruch 2017: 87).

2.2 Encoding verbal irony

Empirical investigations on how verbal irony is signaled in an utterance have a focus on suprasegmental and non-verbal features. Based on stimuli collected from sitcoms, Attardo et al. (2003), for example, concluded acoustic pitch as well as facial expression – primarily the so-called ‘blank face’ – to be used as cues to signal irony. Neitsch (2019) investigated irony in the form of rhetorical questions (e.g. *Who likes sloppiness?*) and prosodic cues such as a breathy voice quality and pitch accent that seem to be associated with signaling irony. In the visual domain as well, for Italian Sign Language, mouth patterns have been found to convey the signers’ attitude in an ironic remark (cf. Mantovan et al. 2019). It is still an open question how consistent and systematic markers of this sort are in ironic language. Results of a controlled irony-rating study conducted by Rockwell (2000) using auditory utterances indicate that only for staged irony raters were able to discriminate ironic from non-ironic utterances. Spontaneous irony could not be discriminated from non-irony based on vocal cues.

Another non-verbal means to indicate irony are (double) quotation marks. In general, quotes are a metalinguistic device used to ‘mention’ an expression, i.e. to draw the addressee’s attention to an expression’s linguistic side (see e.g. Quine 1981). Quotes around ironically used expressions like in (5) above have commonly been characterized as a form of scare quotation in the literature (cf. e.g. Meibauer 2007; Predelli 2003). Quotes have an apologetic function here and express a specific speaker modality implying a reservation with respect to the semantic appropriateness of the expression in quotes. Quotes materialize typographically as inverted commas and are often encoded as air quotes in the gestural mode. It is an open question whether the ironic use of quotes is also reflected acoustically, but evidence exists that quotes are acoustically represented in non-ironic utterances when they are used, for example, to indicate pure quotation (*“Hotel” has five letters*) (cf. Schlechtweg and Härtl 2020).

The lexical inventory used to indicate irony involves certain modifiers and particles as well as expressive lexical material. The name-mentioning modifier *so-called*, for instance, as in *The so-called “hotel” turned out to be a small Bed & Breakfast*, can adopt a distancing function and is semantically related to privative modifiers (*pretended, fake*) in such contexts. With this use of the modifier, the speaker questions the semantic appropriateness of the head-noun’s name, thus producing an ironic or sarcastic interpretation of the construction (Härtl 2018). Furthermore, ironic utterances are inclined to contain modal particles. Consider the following example from German:

- (8) *Das ist ja eine schöne Wohnung!*
 ‘That is _{PRT} a nice apartment.’

As opposed to, e.g., the German particle *wohl* (lit. ‘well’), *ja* (lit. ‘yes’) is compatible with an ironic interpretation of (8), which is more difficult to construct also in an out-of-the-blue context if the particle is not present.⁶

When used with its discursive function, *ja* marks a proposition as uncontroversial and known in the relevant discourse domain. It links the utterance’s content to some existing (implicit or explicit) pretext as a reference point in the common ground (cf. Diewald and Fischer 1998; Karagjosova 2003), and instructs the addressee to retrieve content from the common ground that is currently not under consideration (Repp 2013). As regards informational status, *ja* has been analyzed as indicating that the proposition in *ja*’s scope is not used to directly address the current question under discussion (Viesel 2015).

Ja is also found in utterances that involve a moment of surprise, that is, a speaker-oriented, not-at-issue content related to an exceeded expectation (cf. Rett 2011). Zimmermann (2011) argues that the surprise content is a secondary, i.e. not lexicalized, meaning component of *ja*, which can be entailed through particles other than *ja*, and which also depends on particular intonational contours (see e.g. Lindner [1991] as cited in Zimmermann [2011]). The latter can also be observed in (8) above, which requires an exclamation intonation for the ironic reading to arise. We interpret this intonational characteristic to reflect the speaker’s intention to simulate a surprise with the ironic utterance and, by manifesting it as an echo, give rise to a mockery effect (cf. e.g. Jorgensen et al. 1984; Wilson 2006).

We consider *ja* with a surprise interpretation to share the discourse requirement with the expressively neutral counterpart such that both refer the addressee to a proposition somehow retrievable from a shared common ground (cf. Kratzer

⁶ We ignore intonational aspects at this point as the finding applies to the written mode. In an *ad-hoc* inquiry we conducted, 10 out of 12 of our German informants agreed that a written utterance like (8) is difficult to identify as ironic if the particle *ja* is not present.

and Matthewson 2009). Based on this, the discourse function of *ja* can be argued to be the key factor why it often figures in ironic utterances in German. Verbal irony is a form of echoic language (Wilson 2006; Wilson and Sperber 1992) that makes reference to states of affairs that are expected or desired based on mutually shared knowledge (Gibbs and Colston 2007). Verbal irony can echo a previous remark explicitly (e.g. *The so-called “hotel” turned out to be a small Bed & Breakfast*) or echo an assumption about a general norm (*What lovely weather for a picnic!*). Accordingly, the use of *ja* is compatible with an ironic reading of a sentence like (8) as *ja* tells the addressee to establish a link between the expressed proposition and certain shared background knowledge about a previous remark or a norm, respectively. Observe that even when *ja* is used as an indicator that the current question under discussion is not addressed directly with an (ironic) utterance, this does not imply that a proposition in the scope of *ja* cannot be the target of negation, see Viesel (2016: 193).

Other potential modal cues often found in ironic utterances in German involve *aber* (lit. ‘but’), *wirklich* (‘really’) and the discourse particle *na*. Consider the following examples uttered ironically:

- (9) [After some bad news]
Na, das sind aber tolle Neuigkeiten.
 PRT that are PRT great news
 ‘Well, that is really great news!’
- (10) [After a dull joke]
Na, der ist ja wirklich zum Totlachen.
 PRT this is PRT really to.the dead.laugh
 ‘Well, this one is killing me!’

While *na* is an interjection used in sentence-initial position to connect thoughts, *aber* has an exclamative function and can be used to signal (simulated) surprise about a state of affair that is unexpected for the speaker (cf. Thurmair 1989: 190).⁷ *Wirklich*, when used as an epistemic adverb (Romero and Han 2004), has an affirmative function, pertaining to the simulated literalness of an ironic utterance, and puts emphasis on the endpoint of the scale in question.⁸ *Wirklich* and *aber* are attitudinally unbiased and thus sensitive to the evaluative polarity of the ironic

⁷ We wish to thank Andreas Trotzke for his input on that topic.

⁸ See Beltrama and Trotzke (2019) for a recent overview of lexical intensification. Observe that *ganz* (‘totally’) in the example in (11) below fulfills a similar function within the DP. We speculate the use of these adverbs in ironic utterances to be explained by the fact that verbal irony may be easier to detect as such with “extreme” propositions. We wish to thank Heiko Seeliger for this suggestion.

utterance. *Aber*, for example, adopts a negatively enforcing function in (9) but a positively enforcing one with ironic praise, as illustrated in (11):

- (11) [After some good news]
Na, das ist aber ein ganz schlechter Tag heute.
 PRT that is PRT a completely bad day today
 ‘Well, today really is an awful day!’

While the particles discussed above function as discourse-related and modal cues to mark verbal irony, the attitudinal content itself in an ironic utterance is encoded by means of evaluative lexical material, for example, through sentiment adjectives like *great*, *nice*, *bad*, *awful*, as exemplified in the examples above. We will come back to empirical particulars of this point in Section 3.3.

In this section, we have argued verbal irony to comprise two main contents, i.e. the expression’s non-literal meaning and the speaker’s attitude to evaluate the expression’s denotation. The latter materializes usually as ironic criticism but also as ironic praise. Cues for verbal irony involve discourse and modal particles as well as certain modifiers and expressive lexical material. We are now ready to address our main question, which aims at localizing the contents of ironic utterances in the dichotomy between primary and secondary content, i.e. between at-issue content and not-at-issue content of an utterance.

3 Irony in the spectrum between primary and secondary content

For the purpose of our analysis, by ‘source’, we refer to the difference between truth-conditional content (entailments and presuppositions),⁹ on the one hand, and non-truth-conditional content (implicated content), on the other. Truth-conditional content is asserted explicitly. In contrast, implicated content is content which is not said explicitly but results from principles of conversational inference (Grice 1975).

Furthermore, by ‘status’, we refer to the difference between at-issue content and not-at-issue content (see, among others, Gutzmann 2015; Potts 2015; Tonhauser 2012). The standard definition holds at-issue content to represent the main assertion of an utterance and to answer the (underlying) question under discussion. Therefore, at-issue content is responsive to a direct negation like *No, that is*

⁹ We speak of presuppositions as semantic presuppositions (see e.g. Potts 2015), and not as pragmatic presuppositions (see, among others, Stalnaker 1974/1999).

not true. Not-at-issue content, in contrast, is linked to secondary aspects of an utterance and does not, or only indirectly, contribute to the question under discussion. A typical instance of not-at-issue content is an appositive relative clause as in *Kim, who lives in Berlin, fascinates Joan*, whose content can only be indirectly rejected by means of a discourse-interrupting protest like *Wait a minute – Kim lives in Rome!* (cf. Fintel 2004).

3.1 Not-at-issue content as salient content

Presuppositions and implicatures are commonly taken to represent content which does not contribute to the question under discussion or does so only indirectly (cf. Potts 2005). This assumption, however, does not imply that these contents cannot be treated as salient and thus as somehow at-issue by the interlocutors in a conversation. For instance, certain presupposed contents, although they are typically meant to be backgrounded and non-controversial, can be accommodated as new information and thus gain main-point status (cf. Lewis 1979; Simons 2005).¹⁰ This is illustrated in the following example, adapted from Simons (2005: 342).

- (12) a. A: *I should ask the new guy out – he seems really nice.*
 b. B: *Yes, and his girlfriend is lovely, too!*

Technically, the at-issue content in B's utterance is the information that the new guy's girlfriend is as nice as he himself. At the same time, however, the information is expressed that the new guy has a girlfriend, and we can reason this to be the utterance's actual main point communicated to A. The example illustrates that content which is presented as presupposed can be perceived as more on the at-issue side even though it formally figures as not-at-issue content. With respect to B's reply in (12b), the latter is reflected by the fact that the information of the new guy having a girlfriend cannot be easily rejected by means of a direct negation, cf. *?No, that's not true – he is single!* Similarly, conversational implicatures resist direct negation. This is illustrated in (13), with A's response in (13c) intended to reject the (relevance-based)¹¹ implicature articulated in B's answer that it must be before 11:00 o'clock.

¹⁰ We stay agonistic with respect to the question whether 'main-point status' is an empirically primitive notion like salience or psychological prominence, which are also sometimes characterized as (conceptual) primitives, see, for example, Schmidt (1996).

¹¹ See Grice (1975).

- (13) a. A: *Can you tell me the time?*
 b. B: *Well, the postman has not come yet.*
 c. A: *??No, that is not true – it is after 11:00 o'clock.*

Under certain circumstances, however, contents that are typically perceived as not at-issue can also be rejected with a direct negation and, it follows, be treated as at-issue by the respondent.¹² An example are sentence-final appositives as in *Joan admires Kim, who lives in Berlin*, whose content can be targeted with a direct denial like *No, that is not true – Kim lives in Rome* (cf. AnderBois et al. 2015; Syrett and Koev 2015). Furthermore, a direct negation targeting not-at-issue content improves to a significant extent with the presence of a lexical tag in the denial,¹³ i.e. an anchor that can be used to determine the scope of the negative operator. The contrast between (14b) and (14c), both with the intended meaning that Kim does not live in Berlin, shows this:

- (14) a. *Kim, who lives in Berlin, fascinates Joan.*
 b. *??No, that is not true.*
 c. *No, Kim lives in Rome.*

While certain not-at-issue contents can be treated as salient to some extent in a conversational exchange, attitudinal contents contained, for instance, in racial or ethnic slurs and other evaluative expressions typically resist to be treated as at-issue. Consider (15a) and potential denials illustrated in (15b – d).

- (15) a. *There are s**** living in this building!*¹⁴
 b. *No, that is not true.*
 c. *No, that is not true – all the residents are of Asian descent!*
 d. *??No, that is not true – all the residents are admirable people!*

The denial alone, see (15b), by default, targets the descriptive content of s****, entailing that people of Latin-American descent live in the building in question, as explicated in (15c). Observe that a direct denial combined with an explanation that targets s****'s evaluative content gives rise to some markedness of the expression, see (15d). In contrast, a response addressing the evaluative content with discourse-interrupting protest, e.g. *Wait a second – all the residents are admirable people!*, is less marked. The oddity of the direct denial in (15d) can be explained by the fact

¹² It is important to understand the logic of the empirical reasoning in the following. It is always the felicity of the response, e.g. (14c), which indicates whether a content contained in the preceding utterance, e.g. (14a), can be felicitously treated as at-issue or not by the respondent.

¹³ We wish to thank Craige Roberts for pointing this out to us.

¹⁴ In this example s**** stands for an ethnic slur used in the U.S. for people from Latin-American countries.

that the use of expressive content, according to Potts (2007), is like a performative act, that is, an act that does not contribute debatable content to the common ground (cf. Carrus 2017). Below, we will draw a similar conclusion for the attitudinal content expressed with an ironic utterance.

The view pursued here implies that (not-)at-issueness is a gradual feature and therefore present to certain degrees in an utterance (Härtl and Seeliger 2019). The notion is motivated by experimental results as they are reported in Smith and Hall (2011), who found substantial heterogeneity among projective meanings with respect to their projective strengths. In assertions containing an appositive like *Kim, who lives in Berlin, a great city, has finally arrived*, graded at-issueness is reflected in supposedly graded acceptabilities for the different denial options so that *No, she hasn't* > *No, she doesn't* > *No, it isn't*. Notice that with our gradual construction of (not-)at-issueness, the treatment of contents introduced in the discourse is in focus in a backward-looking way (cf. Gutzmann and Turgay 2019). Thus, we assume different contents to have different potentials to become at-issue in a conversational exchange.

3.2 Hypothesized types of contents in ironic utterances

Our basic assumption is that the different types of contents involved in an ironic utterance, i.e. its non-literally asserted content and its attitudinal content, differ in their potentials to be treated as at-issue in a conversation. Regarding their informational status, we start from the premise that the two contents do not directly contribute to the question under discussion and so are less at-issue in comparison to literal and attitudinally neutral content. Consider (16a), uttered ironically.¹⁵

- (16) [After an ambivalent performance]
- a. A: *Well, that lead singer really delivered every note in place.*
 - b. B: *??No, that is not true – she hit every single tone!*
 - b.' B: *??No, that is not true – the performance was wonderful!*
 - c. B: *Wait a sec – she hit every single tone!*
 - c.' B: *Wait a sec – the performance was wonderful!*

The examples show that both the non-literal content as well as the (negative) evaluation are difficult to dissent with directly, see (16b & b'). Instead, their rejection takes on the form of discourse-interrupting phrases, see (16c & c'). Recall, however, the notion discussed in the previous section that certain contents, although they are typically not at-issue, can gain salience under specific

¹⁵ For the non-ironic counterpart, see the example in (3) above.

circumstances and thus sometimes be treated as more at-issue to a significant extent. The same can be expected for ironically uttered contents. Consider the hypothetical dialogue in (17), with (17a) again uttered ironically.

- (17) [In a small apartment]
- a. A: *This is a spacious place.*
 - b. B: *No, that is not true – there’s actually lots of room!*

In this exchange, B uses a direct denial to address ironically expressed content. We claim instances of this sort to express an interlocutor’s intention to treat an ironic content as at-issue and, thus, take it to contribute to the question under discussion. This view will be relevant for our experimental study, see Section 3.3, where we test the potentials of the different ironically uttered contents to be treated as at-issue in a conversation.

As concerns the source of the contents involved in ironic utterances, we assume them to function as implicatures in a conversational exchange. Consider the examples below, which show that both the non-literal content, (18b), as well as the evaluative content, (18b’), are, in general, cancellable by the speaker, indicating that the two contents represent (conversational) implicatures.

- (18) [After arriving at a small Bed & Breakfast]
- a. *That is quite a “hotel” the agency chose for our honeymoon!*
 - b. *I don’t want to say it’s not a real hotel – I just don’t like it.*
 - b.′ *I don’t want to say I don’t like it – it’s just not a real hotel.*

Note, however, that in certain contexts, the non-literal content of an ironic utterance is more difficult to cancel than its evaluative component. Reconsider (16) in this respect. Observe that the cancellation in (19c’) is noticeably less marked than the one in (19c), which is only appropriate under the assumption that Speaker A did not express the corresponding content *literally*.

- (19) [After an ambivalent performance]
- a. A: *Well, that lead singer really delivered every note in place.*
 - b. B: *Do you want to say she sang off key?*
 - c. A: *??I did not say that!*
 - b.′ B: *Do you want to say you didn’t like the performance?*
 - c.′ A: *I did not say that!*

We take the contrast between (19c) and (19c’) to indicate that the non-literal content expressed in an ironic utterance is communicatively more prominent, see (19c), than the utterance’s evaluative content, (19c’). This insight is

compatible with experimental findings from Härtl and Seeliger (2019). Based on two experimental studies on ironically used DPs containing the modifier *so-called* (e.g. *The so-called “hotel” turned out to be a small Bed & Breakfast*), the authors argue that the head nominal’s non-literalness is more at-issue than the speaker’s attitude to evaluate the head’s denotatum negatively. Based on these premises, for ironic utterances of the type under discussion, we hypothesize their non-literal content (= Content A in (20) below) to be more prone to figure as at-issue content in comparison with the utterance’s evaluative content B (Hypothesis H_{A-1}). Content C entailed in a non-ironic utterance is predicted to be more at-issue than both ironic contents A & B, see (21) (Hypothesis H_{A-2}).¹⁶

(20) *Well, that lead singer really delivered every note in place.*

Content A: ‘the lead singer sang off key’

Content B: ‘Speaker dislikes the singer’s performance’

H_{A-1} : At-issueness(A) > At-issueness(B)

(21) *Well, that lead singer sang totally off key.*

Content C: ‘the lead singer sang off key’

H_{A-2} : At-issueness(C) > (At-issueness(A) & At-issueness(B))

Our second conjecture concerns the at-issueness of the two types of evaluative content expressed with an ironic utterance. Specifically, ironic praise could be assumed to be more at-issue than ironic criticism, see Section 2.1, based on the assumption that the former is subject to stronger use restrictions than ironic criticism (Wilson 2013), and that it is also less frequent than the latter, implying a higher markedness of ironic-praise utterances (Bruntsch and Ruch 2017). As markedness in general can be assumed to give rise to higher informational salience, our second hypothesis states that a positive speaker’s evaluation expressed with an ironic utterance is more prone to figure as at-issue content than a negative speaker’s evaluation (Hypothesis H_B).

(22) H_B : At-issueness($B_{\text{ironic praise}}$) > At-issueness($B_{\text{ironic criticism}}$)

To test hypotheses $H_{A-1/2}$ and H_B , we devised a rating study, which we will now present.

¹⁶ In our study, potential evaluative content of non-ironic utterances is excluded from the investigation.

3.3 Experimental study

3.3.1 Method

3.3.1.1 Participants

Sixty two German native speakers participated in the experiment (46 female, 16 male, <20 $N = 1$, 20–30 $N = 36$, >30 $N = 25$).¹⁷ Participants were not paid.

3.3.1.2 Materials and design

To identify the informational status of the two meaning components of ironic utterances, i.e. the utterance's non-literal content and the speaker's evaluation (both positive and negative), three different ironic conditions were tested based on Hypotheses H_{A-1} and H_B . As a fourth condition, non-ironic utterances were included, which served as a baseline to be able to compare the informational status of an ironic utterance's non-literal content with the informational status of the content entailed in a non-ironic utterance (Hypothesis H_{A-2}). For this reason, four different conditions, i.e. (i) an ironic utterance's non-literal content (NLC), (ii) negative speaker evaluation (NegEval), (iii) positive speaker evaluation (PosEval), and (iv) a non-ironic utterance's entailed content (EC), were tested in the experiment. Using a within-subject design, each condition was represented by 10 experimental items. The participants thus saw a total of 40 items throughout the experiment. A separate filler was not included as it would add a semantic dimension, which we considered to overly complicate the already complex design of the study and possibly blur the participants' judgements.

The entire experiment was conducted in German. Designing the items, we followed the experimental studies conducted by Syrett and Koev (2015) as well as Härtl and Seeliger (2019). All experimental items had analogous structures and took the form of dialogues between two speakers. The dialogues were embedded in a specific situation, as illustrated in (23), which is an example of an experimental item including an ironic utterance with a non-literal meaning and thus aiming at testing the NLC condition.

¹⁷ The factor of gender does not play a role in our analysis. For a discussion of how gender may affect the use of verbal irony, see Colston and Lee (2004).

- (23) *Nadine und Matthias fahren zum Tierarzt, um die Katze von Matthias' Bruder abzuholen. Matthias' Bruder hatte sie informiert, dass seine Katze eine allergische Reaktion hatte und nun mehrere Tage Medikamente bekomme. Als die beiden das Arztzimmer betreten, sitzt die Katze aufgeweckt in ihrem Korb. Nadine stellt fest, dass die Katze gesund aussieht.*
 'Nadine and Matthias drive to the vet to fetch Matthias' brother's cat. Matthias' brother had informed them that his cat had an allergic reaction and has been getting medication for some days. As the two enter the vet's room, the cat is sitting cheerfully in her basket. Nadine notices that the cat looks healthy.'
- a. Nadine: *Wirklich eine sehr kranke Katze ...*
 'Really a very sick cat ...'
- b. Matthias: *Das stimmt nicht, sie ist schon krank.*¹⁸
 'That's not true, she is indeed sick.'
- b.' Matthias: *Moment, sie ist schon krank.*
 'One moment, she is indeed sick.'

As the example shows, all items start off with the description of a specific situation. The description is then followed by a small dialogue, starting with the critical utterance (23a), which is ironic in three out of the four conditions, i.e. NLC, NegEval, and PosEval, and non-ironic in the condition testing entailed content (EC). The last part of all items offers two utterances representing possible rejections of the critical (ironic) utterance. While (23b) is a direct rejection of the critical utterance and therefore represents an at-issue rejection, (23b') contains an indirect rejection aiming at not-at-issue content of the utterance it targets. Participants were asked to decide which rejection they perceived as more appropriate. To do this, they rated the rejections on a 5-point Likert scale, with value 1 representing the at-issue rejection on the left side of the scale and indicating a clear preference for the direct rejection, and value 5 representing the not-at-issue rejection on the right side, indicating a preference for the indirect rejection. Participants were able to rate both rejections as equally (in)appropriate by choosing the mid value. Moreover, they could rate one rejection as more appropriate than the other by using the values in between, without being forced to indicate a clear preference towards one option.

¹⁸ All uses of *schon* (lit. 'already') occurring in the rejections assisted a modal interpretation where the speaker positively confirms the assertion targeted by the rejection. All stimuli were carefully tested with respect to the consistency of the intended interpretation such that other readings of *schon*, like a temporal one, could be excluded. We wish to thank an anonymous reviewer for their input on this matter.

According to our hypotheses, we expected the participants to give all three conditions including components of ironic utterances, i.e. NLC, NegEval, and PosEval, high rankings leaning towards the right of the scale. Based on Hypothesis H_{A-1} , we anticipated the NLC conditions' results to show a stronger tendency towards the mid values than the results of the two Eval conditions. According to Hypothesis H_B , we expected the highest results on the 5-point scale in the NegEval condition. In turn, the EC conditions' results were expected to have low values, following our Hypothesis H_{A-2} .

In order to ensure the items' comparability, a total of 10 substantially different but standardized model situations were operationalized in the material. Specifically, we used similar situations for every condition's first item, second item, etc. For example, in the second item of all four conditions, there are two people dealing with a certain type of school task: In NegEval item 2, it is Felix and Monica 'chatting' about a vocabulary test; in PosEval item 2, Tom and Paulina 'talk' about a piece of homework; NLC item 2 deals with Thomas and Yvonne 'having a conversation' about a marketplace task, and in EC item 2, Tobias and Svenja 'discuss' a presentation's deadline. Accordingly, all items 1, 3, 4, etc. describe comparable situations, and we varied formulations as well as particular contents at the same time to mask the items' resemblance.

To maintain concentration and compensate for individual preferences with respect to certain linguistic expressions, a variety of discourse-interrupting phrases (*Wart mal* ('Wait'), *Sekunde*, ('Wait a second') and *Moment* ('One moment')) was used for the not-at-issue rejections, and for direct negations, *Das ist nicht wahr* ('That's not true'), *Das stimmt nicht* ('That's not correct'), *Gar nicht wahr* ('Not true at all'), and *Das ist falsch* ('That's wrong') were used for the at-issue rejections.

To signal ironic utterances, different means were utilized. As first marker, suspension points were attached to all ironic utterances.¹⁹ Further, we included lexical means that were supposed to signal irony in the items' critical utterances. We used and varied modal particles as well as evaluative lexical material and distributed both evenly across the conditions. For example, items 1 involve the particles *na*, *ja*, and *wirklich*, as the ironic utterance from the NegEval item 1 displayed below shows, see (24a).

¹⁹ The suspension points were used as a symbol of 'leaving room for interpretation', and consequently also as a stimulus to look for the alternate, non-literal meaning present in an ironic utterance, see Section 2.1 above.

- (24) *Tim und Anna kommen aus der Oper. Die beiden haben morgens noch in der Zeitung gelesen, dass die Aufführung, für die sie Karten reserviert hatten, gut sei und vor allem die Opernsänger beeindruckend wären. Tim findet aber, dass der Sopran eine sehr schlechte Performance abgeliefert hat.*
 ‘Tim and Anna leave the opera. In the morning, both of them read in the newspaper that the performance for which they had reserved tickets was good and that the opera singers in particular were impressive. However, Tim finds that the soprano has delivered a very bad performance.’
- a. Tim: *Na, das war ja wirklich eine tolle Performance ...*
 PRT that was PRT really a great performance
 ‘Well, that was a really great performance ...’
- b. Anna: *Das ist nicht wahr, ich fand sie eigentlich ganz gut.*
 ‘That’s not true, I found it quite good actually.’
- b.’ Anna: *Wart mal, ich fand sie eigentlich ganz gut.*
 ‘Wait, I found it quite good actually.’

In contrast to this, item set 10, for example, do not include *ja*. Instead, only *na* and *wirklich* are used in the ironic utterances of the items 10 as (25a) from the PosEval item illustrates.

- (25) Jannik erzählt seiner Arbeitskollegin, dass er nächste Woche auf eine Geschäftsreise muss, die von der Firma bezahlt wird. ‘Jannik tells his colleague that he has to go on a business trip next week, which will be paid for by the company.’
- a. Colleague: *Na, in einen Gratisurlaub zu*
 PRT in a free-vacation to
eine unglaubliche Zumutung.
 an incredible disgrace
fahren ist wirklich
 go is really
 ‘To go on a free vacation really is an incredible disgrace ...’
- b. Jannik: *Das ist falsch, ich halte die Reise schon für anstrengend.*
 ‘That’s wrong, I find the trip indeed stressful.’
- b.’ Jannik: *Sekunde, ich halte die Reise schon für anstrengend.*
 ‘Wait a second, I find the trip indeed stressful.’

Last, the dialogues in the item sets differed with respect to whether they contained ironic utterances or not. (26) below illustrates the non-ironic EC item 7:

- (26) *Stefan hat Marina und Laura zum Grillen eingeladen. Da die beiden Mädchen Vegetarierinnen sind, hat er ihnen versprochen, auch etwas Vegetarisches vorzubereiten. Als die beiden am Tisch auf ihr Essen warten, stellt Stefan einen Salat mit Putenstreifen vor sie.*
 ‘Stefan has invited Marina and Laura to a barbecue. Since the two girls are vegetarians, he promised them to prepare something vegetarian as well. As both are sitting at the table, waiting for their food, Stefan puts a salad with turkey breast on the table, right in front of them.’
- a. Stefan: *Hier ist der vegetarische Salat für euch.*
 ‘Here, that’s the vegetarian salad for you.’
- b. Marina: *Gar nicht wahr, das ist kein vegetarischer Salat.*
 ‘Not true at all, that’s not a vegetarian salad.’
- b.’ Marina: *Wart mal, das ist kein vegetarischer Salat.*
 ‘Wait, that’s not a vegetarian salad.’

Besides the apparent semantic distinction between items containing non-ironic and ironic utterances, lexical cues were included to signal the difference between the two Eval conditions and the NLC condition. While evaluative expressions were used in the Eval conditions, in the NLC condition, assertive expressions are involved. For instance, (23) above, illustrating NLC item 6, contains the verb *feststellen* (‘note’), entailing an objective observation. Both corresponding rejections, moreover, include the copula *sein* (‘be’) to emphasize objectivity and underline the neutral content of the item. We separated the two components of ironic utterances, i.e. a non-literal meaning and a speaker’s evaluation, as far as possible by focusing on the neutrality and objectivity connected to the non-literal meaning component on the one hand, and by emphasizing the attitudinal nature of the evaluative component on the other. For the NLC items, we varied the assertive verbs *feststellen* (‘note’), *bemerkten* (‘recognize’) and *behaupten* (‘claim’). In opposition to these, we alternated the evaluative verbs *wahrnehmen* (‘perceive’), *empfinden* (‘sense’), *finden* (‘find’), and *halten* (‘find’) in the NegEval and PosEval items, particularly with a focus on the rejections. In addition to those verbs, some evaluation items comprise supplementary expressive lexical material in the context sentences, for example, evaluative adjectives like *begeistert* (‘enthusiastic’) and *beeindruckend* (‘impressive’). Finally, we implemented the distinction between the two Eval conditions with respect to content rather than lexical material. Specifically, the speakers uttering something ironically, literally say something positive to express something negative in the NegEval items and vice versa in the PosEval items.

3.3.1.3 Procedure

Participants were asked to go through the 40 experimental items in an online questionnaire on SoSci Survey.²⁰ Items appeared in a randomized order for every participant. At the beginning of the experiment, there was a short training period with two test items. The first item was similar to a NegEval item and thus ironic, whereas the second one illustrated an example of an EC item with a non-ironic utterance. The two examples were used to norm the distinction between truth-conditional and non-truth-conditional content for the participants, suggesting to them that in the first training item, the rejection on the right side of the scale would probably be more appropriate, and that in the second training item, the rejection on the left could most likely be considered as more suitable.²¹ Prior to the two training items, we explained (in German) that the purpose of our study was to “find out how certain statements can be rejected”. Moreover, the participants were prepared that the test would contain ironic utterances and we explained that “it is not easy to understand ironic utterances since they contain a personal evaluation and often mean the opposite of what is literally said”.²² After that, the first ironic test item was presented.

3.3.2 Results

Only the questionnaires in which all items were rated were included in our statistical analysis. To normalize data a threshold was set based on pre-testing so that reading and understanding an item as well as choosing a preferred rejection would take at least 12 s. All items that were answered in under 12 s were therefore excluded from the analysis. The upper time limit was set less strictly as the experiment could not be paused, and since a short break was considered plausible with respect to the number of items and beneficial for the participants' concentration. Participants who answered too fast on more than eight items, i.e. 20 per cent of the questionnaire, were excluded from our analysis, just like participants that were not native speakers of German. All in all, 62 from the initially 89 questionnaires were included

²⁰ www.soscisurvey.de.

²¹ “In this training example, the right/left answer can probably be considered more suitable. Please click the corresponding circle now.”

²² Since verbal irony is more difficult to detect as such in the written mode, we informed participants about the occurrence of ironic utterances in the experiment to rule out that participants interpret the corresponding utterances as nonsensical. The actual objective of the study, i.e. determining the correlation between type of ironic content and type of rejection, was not revealed to the participants.

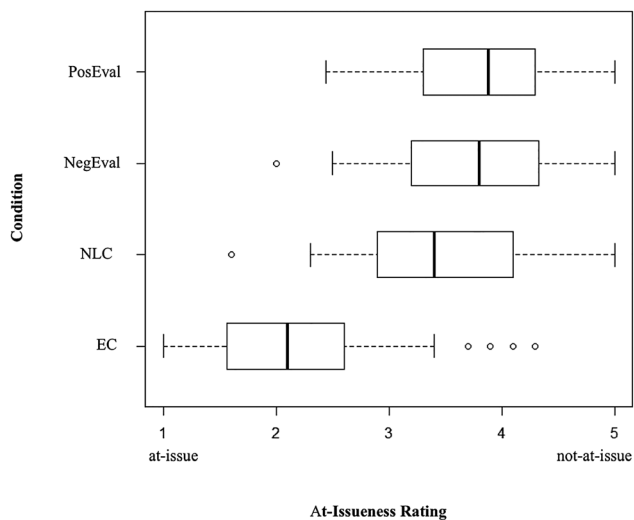


Figure 1: Median ratings across conditions.

in our statistical analysis.²³ The box plots in Figure 1 give an overview of the ratings within each condition.

As can be seen, participants showed a preference towards the direct rejections on the left side of the 5-point scale in the entailment condition, just as expected. In all three other conditions, i.e. the non-literal meaning and the two evaluation conditions, which are at the center of this examination, participants preferred the indirect rejections on the right side of the scale. Therefore, the components of ironic utterances belonging to the three central conditions can be classified as being not at-issue, whereas entailments can be allocated to at-issue contents. Table 1 summarizes the mean ratings for each condition.

Table 1: Mean ratings.

Condition	Mean rating
Positive evaluation (PosEval)	3.79
Negative evaluation (NegEval)	3.75
Non-literal content (NLC)	3.46
Entailed content (EC)	2.21

23 Answer times per item averaged across participants: Mean = 27.31 s, Median = 23 s (SD = 18.94).

The statistical analysis was conducted using the MINITAB software package. A 1×4 repeated-measures variance analysis²⁴ (General Linear Model) by subject was conducted for the dependent variable (Rating). The independent variable (Content Type) was included as a fixed (within-subject) factor. The factor Subject was treated as random. The analysis revealed a highly significant difference, $F(3, 61) = 59.68$, $p < 0.001$, for the mean ratings of the four content types. In planned *post-hoc* comparisons (Fisher LSD), a highly significant difference, $t(61) = 9.21$, $p < 0.001$, was found between ratings for entailed content (EC) and non-literal content (NLC). Crucially, the differences between the NLC ratings and both the NegEval ratings, $t(61) = -2.39$, $p = 0.017$ as well as the PosEval ratings, $t(61) = 2.11$, $p = 0.036$, were also found to be significant. The comparison of the NegEval and the PosEval ratings, in turn, showed no significant difference. To check robustness, we identified statistical outliers and tests were repeated with the outliers being excluded. No deviation from our original results was found.

3.3.3 Discussion

The experiment's results lead us to accept Hypotheses H_{A-1} and H_{A-2} . The evaluative content – be it positive or negative – of ironic utterances is less prone to figure as at-issue content in comparison with the utterance's non-literal content, which in turn figures as less at-issue than the content entailed in a non-ironic utterance. Consequently, when a speaker utters something ironically in a conversation, the hearer perceives the non-literal meaning component of their utterance as more in the foreground than the evaluative component. Thus, the speaker evaluation is the meaning component of ironic utterances that is most difficult to dissent with directly. However, this does not mean that the non-literal meaning component of ironic utterances is easy to dissent with directly. An indirect rejection is preferred here as well even though a direct denial is not as inappropriate as is the case with evaluative components. This result supports our view of (not-)at-issueness being a gradual feature. All ironic meaning components are therefore more on the not-at-issue side of the spectrum.

With respect to Hypothesis H_B , we fail to reject the null hypothesis. A positive speaker's evaluation expressed with an ironic utterance does not have a higher tendency to figure as at-issue content than a negative speaker's evaluation. Therefore, neither the use restrictions nor the lower frequency of ironic praise, implying a higher markedness, seem to affect the informational status of ironically praising utterances in comparison with ironic criticism.

²⁴ See de Winter and Dodou (2010) for a discussion on using parametric tests on data based on Likert scales.

Entailed content represents at-issue information of an utterance. How, then, can we explain that the mean rating for our EC condition is 2.21 in the results and does not reach value 1? As an explanation, the factor of politeness comes into play when statements have to be judged as (in)appropriate. As stated in Koev (2018), for example, ‘wait a minute’ rejections gain acceptability when targeting at-issue content under the assumption that that this type of response may be used as a polite way to voice disagreement. As an illustration, consider (26) above. In the example, Stefan offers a vegetarian salad to Marina and Laura. The salad, however, contains Turkey breast and should therefore not be called a ‘vegetarian’ salad. Hence, Stefan’s statement is plainly wrong and could thus be rejected in a direct way. Nevertheless, the use of an indirect rejection is plausible as well since it makes Stefan aware of his mistake in a more polite way. Since indirect rejections are often perceived as more polite than direct rejections, the participants’ preference of the former in a few individual items was thus to be expected. While the use of an at-issue rejection for not-at-issue content is not appropriate, it is possible to reject at-issue content with not-at-issue rejections since they are considered as more polite in conversations. Consequently, politeness is a factor that cannot be ignored in experiments involving ratings of the appropriateness of dissenting responses.

4 Conclusion

The central question addressed in the current paper asked how contents conveyed by an ironic utterance blend into the spectrum between at-issue and not-at-issue content. In addition, we hypothesized the different types of contents involved in ironic utterances to differ in their potentials to be treated as at-issue in a conversation. Based on experimental data, we found ironic, non-literally asserted content to be less at-issue than non-ironic, literally asserted content. Furthermore, we also found non-literally asserted content to exhibit a higher potential to be treated as at-issue than attitudinal content expressed with an ironic utterance. Last, no difference with respect to at-issueness was detected between the two types of attitudinal contents involved in ironic utterances, i.e. between ironic criticism and ironic praise.

We interpret the observed effects to be rooted in the pragmatic status of ironic contents, which figure as implicatures in a conversational exchange and are less prone, therefore, to directly contribute to the question under discussion (cf. Potts 2015). While the different ironic contents were found to generally figure as not-at-issue content, our findings also show that the attitudinal content expressed with an ironic utterance is treated as less primary than the utterance’s non-literal content.

This outcome can be explained through the fact that content expressed non-literally in an ironic utterance relates to a (negated) version of the truth-conditional content, which is asserted with the utterance's non-ironic form. We conclude that ironically asserted content is not non-truth-conditional in the strict sense but only not truth-conditional because the ironic interpretation entails the negated truth-conditional content of the non-ironic alternate. In contrast, an ironic utterance's attitudinal content is non-truth-conditional *par excellence*, which, at the same time, explains its stronger not-at-issueness observed in our data. Finally, while our findings are compatible with a graded understanding of at-issueness, we conclude that the different types of ironic attitudinal content (ironic criticism and ironic praise) are treated as not-at-issue to equal extents.

Acknowledgments: We wish to thank the two anonymous reviewers for their valuable suggestions. We are also grateful to Fabian Bross, Marcel Schlechtweg, Heiko Seeliger and Matthijs Westera for their constructive comments on the analysis. In addition, we thank Marcel Linnenkohl for his technical support.

References

- AnderBois, Scott, Adrian Brasoveanu & Robert Henderson. 2015. At-issue proposals and appositive impositions in discourse. *Journal of Semantics* 32(1). 93–138.
- Attardo, Salvatore. 2000. Irony as relevant inappropriateness. *Journal of Pragmatics* 32(6). 793–826.
- Attardo, Salvatore, Jodi Eisterhol, Jennifer Hay & Isabella Poggi. 2003. Multimodal markers of irony and sarcasm. *Humor* 16(2). 243–260.
- Beltrama, Andrea & Andreas Trotzke. 2019. Conveying emphasis for intensity. Lexical and syntactic strategies. *Language and Linguistics Compass* 13. 1–13.
- Bruntsch, Richard & Willibald Ruch. 2017. Studying irony detection beyond ironic criticism. Let's include ironic praise. *Frontiers in Psychology* 8. 75–89.
- Carrus, Simone. 2017. Slurs. At-issueness and semantic normativity. *Phenomenology & Mind* 12. 84–97.
- Colston, Herbert L. & Shyh-Yuan Lee. 2004. Gender differences in verbal irony use. *Metaphor and Symbol* 19(4). 289–306.
- De Winter, Joost & Dimitra Dodou. 2010. Five-Point Likert Items: t test versus Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon. *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation* 15. <https://scholarworks.umass.edu/pare/vol15/iss1/11/> (accessed 30 June 2021).
- Dews, Shelly, Joan Kaplan & Ellen Winner. 1995. Why not say it directly? The social functions of irony. *Discourse Processes* 19. 347–367.
- Dews, Shelly & Ellen Winner. 1999. Obligatory processing of literal and nonliteral meanings in verbal irony. *Journal of Pragmatics* 31. 1579–1599.
- Diewald, Gabriele & Kerstin Fischer. 1998. Zur diskursiven und modalen Funktion der Partikeln 'aber', 'auch', 'doch' und 'ja' in Instruktionsdialogen. *Linguistica* 38(1). 75–99.

- Dynel, Marta. 2018. *Irony, deception and humour. Seeking the truth about overt and covert untruthfulness*. (Mouton Series in Pragmatics 21). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Fintel, Kai von. 2004. Would you believe it? The king of France is back! Presuppositions and truth-value intuitions. In Marga Reimer & Anne Bezuidenhout (eds.), *Descriptions and Beyond*, 315–341. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Frege, Gottlob. 1892/1980. On sense and reference. In Peter Geach & Max Black (eds.), *Translations from the philosophical writings of Gottlob Frege*, 56–78. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Gibbs, Raymond W. & Herbert L. Colston. 2007. *Irony in language and thought. A cognitive science reader*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Giora, Rachel. 1995. On irony and negation. *Discourse Processes* 19. 239–264.
- Grice, H. P. 1975. Logic and conversation. In Peter Cole & Jerry L. Morgan (eds.), *Syntax and semantics*, vol. 3, 41–58. New York: Academic Press.
- Gutzmann, Daniel. 2015. *Use-conditional meaning. Studies in multi-dimensional semantics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gutzmann, Daniel & Katharina Turgay. 2019. Secondary content. A short introduction. In Daniel Gutzmann & Katharina Turgay (eds.), *Secondary content: The linguistics of side issues*, 1–25. Leiden: Brill.
- Härtl, Holden. 2018. Name-informing and distancing ‘sogenannt’ (‘so-called’). Name mentioning and the lexicon-pragmatics interface. *Zeitschrift für Sprachwissenschaft* 37(2). 139–169.
- Härtl, Holden & Heiko Seeliger. 2019. Is a so-called “beach” a beach? An empirically based analysis of secondary content induced by ironic name use. In Daniel Gutzmann & Katharina Turgay (eds.), *Secondary content: The linguistics of side issues*, 200–221. Leiden: Brill.
- Jorgensen, Julia, George Miller & Dan Sperber. 1984. Test of the mention theory of irony. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 113(1). 112–120.
- Kaplan, David. 1999. *The meaning of Ouch and Oops. Explorations in the theory of meaning as use*. Unpublished ms. Los Angeles: University of California.
- Karagjosova, Elena. 2003. Modal particles and the common ground. Meaning and functions of German ‘ja’, ‘doch’, ‘eben’/‘halt’ and ‘auch’. In Peter Kühnlein, Hannes Rieser & Henk Zeevat (eds.), *Perspectives on dialogue in the new millenium*, 335–349. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Koef, Todor. 2018. Notions of at-issueness. *Language and Linguistics Compass* 12(12). 1–16.
- Kratzer, Angelika & Lisa Matthewson. 2009. *Anatomy of two discourse particles*. Paper presented at SULA 5. Harvard: MIT.
- Kreuz, Roger & Sam Glucksberg. 1989. How to be sarcastic. The echoic reminder theory of verbal irony. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 118(4). 364–386.
- Kreuz, Roger & Kristen Link. 2002. Asymmetries in the use of verbal irony. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* 21. 127–143.
- Lewis, David. 1979. Scorekeeping in a language game. *Journal of Philosophical Logic* 8. 339–359.
- Lindner, Katrin. 1991. ‘Wir sind ja doch alte Bekannte’ – The use of German ‘ja’ and ‘doch’ as modal particles. In Werner Abraham (ed.), *Discourse particles. Descriptive and theoretical investigations on the logical, syntactic and pragmatic properties of discourse particles in German*, 303–328. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Mantovan, Lara, Beatrice Giustolisi & Francesca Panzeri. 2019. Signing something while meaning its opposite. The expression of irony in Italian Sign Language (LIS). *Journal of Pragmatics* 142. 47–61.
- McCready, Elin. 2010. Varieties of conventional implicature. *Semantics & Pragmatics* 3. 1–57.

- Meibauer, Jörg. 2007. Syngrapheme als pragmatische Indikatoren: Anführung und Auslassung. In Sandra Döring & Jochen Geilfuß-Wolfgang (eds.), *Von der Pragmatik zur Grammatik*, 21–37. Leipzig: Universitätsverlag.
- Neitsch, Jana. 2019. *Who Cares about Context and Attitude? Prosodic Variation in the Production and Perception of Rhetorical Questions in German*. Konstanz: University of Konstanz dissertation.
- Potts, Christopher. 2005. *The Logic of Conventional Implicatures*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Potts, Christopher. 2007. The expressive dimension. *Theoretical Linguistics* 33(2), 165–197.
- Potts, Christopher. 2015. Presupposition and implicature. In Shalom Lappin & Chris Fox (eds.), *The handbook of contemporary semantic theory*, 168–202. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Predelli, Stefano. 2003. Scare quotes and their relation to other semantic issues. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 26(1), 1–28.
- Quine, Willard Orman. 1981. *Mathematical logic*, Revised edn. Harvard: Harvard University Press.
- Repp, Sophie. 2013. Common ground management. Modal particles, illocutionary negation and VERUM. In Daniel Gutzmann & Hans-Martin Gärtner (eds.), *Beyond expressives. Explorations in use-conditional meaning*, 231–274. Leiden: Brill.
- Rett, Jessica. 2011. Exclamatives, degrees and speech acts. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 34, 411–442.
- Rockwell, Patricia. 2000. Lower, slower, louder: Vocal cues of sarcasm. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* 29(5), 483–495.
- Romero, Maribel & Chung-hye Han. 2004. On Negative Yes/No Questions. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 27(5), 609–658.
- Schlechtweg, Marcel & Holden Härtl. 2020. Do we pronounce quotation? An analysis of name-informing and non-name-informing contexts. *Language and Speech* 63(4), 769–798.
- Schmidt, Stephen R. 1996. Category typicality effects in episodic memory. Testing models of distinctiveness. *Memory & Cognition* 24, 595–607.
- Simons, Mandy. 2005. Presupposition and Relevance. In Zoltan Gendler Szabó (ed.), *Semantics versus pragmatics*, 329–355. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Smith, Allyn E. & Kathleen Hall. 2011. Projection diversity: Experimental evidence. In *Proceedings of the ESSLLI 2011 Workshop on projective meaning*. Ljubljana, Slovenia.
- Sperber, Dan & Deirdre Wilson. 1981. Irony and the use-mention distinction. In Peter Cole (ed.), *Radical Pragmatics*, 295–318. New York: Academic Press.
- Stalnaker, Robert C. 1974/1999. *Context and content. Essays on intentionality in speech and thought*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Syrett, Kristen & Todor Koev. 2015. Experimental evidence for the truth conditional contribution and shifting information status of appositives. *Journal of Semantics* 32, 525–577.
- Thurmair, Maria. 1989. *Modalpartikeln und ihre Kombinationen*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Tonhauer, Judith. 2012. Diagnosing (not-)at-issue content. In Hannah Greene (ed.), *Proceedings of Semantics of Under-represented Languages of the Americas (SULA)*, 239–254. Amherst: UMass; GLSA.
- Viesel, Yvonne. 2015. Discourse structure and syntactic embedding. The German discourse particle ‘ja’. In Thomas Brochhagen, Floris Roelofsen & Nadine Theiler (eds.), *Proceedings of the 20th Amsterdam Colloquium*. Amsterdam: ILLC.
- Viesel, Yvonne. 2016. Discourse particles “embedded”. German *ja* in adjectival phrases. In Josef Bayer & Volker Struckmeier (eds.), *Discourse particles. Formal approaches to their syntax and semantics*. (Linguistische Arbeiten 564), 173–202. Berlin: de Gruyter.

Q7

Q8

- Wilson, Deirdre. 2006. The pragmatics of verbal irony. Echo or pretence? *Lingua* 116(10). 1722–1743.
- Wilson, Deirdre. 2013. Irony comprehension. A developmental perspective. *Journal of Pragmatics* 59. 40–56.
- Wilson, Deirdre & Dan Sperber. 1992. On verbal irony. *Lingua* 87(1). 53–76.
- Zimmermann, Malte. 2011. Discourse particles. In Klaus von Heusinger, Claudia Maienborn & Paul Portner (eds.), *Semantics: An international handbook of natural language meaning*, vol. 2, 2011–2038. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.