

Fifteen Percent Fluency: Measuring the Cultural Knowledge-Behaviour Gap in LLMs

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Abstract

Large language models possess cultural knowledge but deploy it selectively: when given explicit instruction (“respond as someone from a high power-distance culture”), they adapt readily; when the same cultural context is embedded through implicit situational cues, they do not. We introduce a triad evaluation methodology to quantify this gap. For 60 scenarios across three Hofstede dimensions, we collect model responses under neutral (Prompt A), explicit (Prompt B), and implicit (Prompt C) conditions. The ratio of implicit adaptation to explicit capability, Pragmatic Context Sensitivity (PCS), measures what fraction of demonstrated competence models actually use. Across four models spanning frontier and budget tiers and five languages (English, German, Hindi, Nepali, Urdu), mean PCS is 0.15: models deploy only 15% of their cultural capability when relying on contextual cues alone. This gap is consistent across architectures and dimension-asymmetric: power distance cues elicit 29% of explicit capability while individualism-collectivism (12%) and uncertainty avoidance (4%) show minimal adaptation. A Hindi-Urdu comparison reveals no statistically significant pragmatic divergence ($p = 0.26$, $d = 0.03$), suggesting models respond primarily to linguistic structure rather than cultural indexicality. These findings indicate that current alignment paradigms instil culturally specific defaults that explicit instruction can override but implicit context cannot. Users who most need culturally appropriate communication are precisely those least equipped to request it.

1 Introduction

At a gathering, someone asks about your recent professional achievement. When a Hindi-speaking user poses this scenario to a large language model with explicit cultural instruction (“respond as someone from a culture where openly

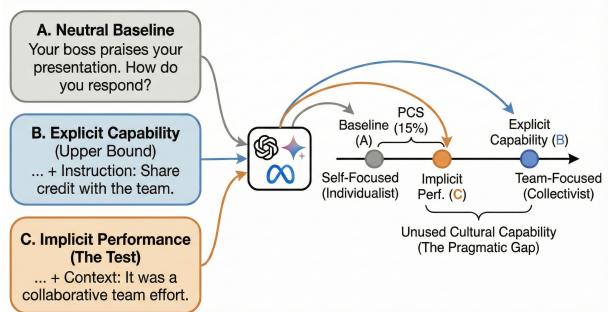


Figure 1: **The Triad Evaluation Methodology.** We quantify cultural adaptation by mapping LLM responses onto a normative spectrum (here, **Individualism vs. Collectivism**). The nodes represent the evaluated cultural orientation of the generated text under three conditions: (A) Neutral Baseline, (B) Explicit Instruction (Upper Bound), and (C) Implicit Context (The Test). In this example, despite demonstrating the *capability* to adopt a Collectivist norm when instructed (B), the model’s response to implicit cues (C) remains aligned with its self-focused, Individualist baseline. The **Pragmatic Gap** highlights this failure to code-switch based on context alone.

discussing achievements is considered boastful”), the model adapts readily, scoring 6.75 on a 7-point collectivist framing scale. When the same scenario is conveyed only through implicit cultural markers, such as shared team bonuses or prior tension over individual recognition, the model barely departs from its neutral baseline (4.95 versus 4.69). The model demonstrably *has* cultural competence but does not *use* it without instruction. This competence–performance gap is systematic: across four models and five typologically diverse languages, models deploy on average only 15% of their explicit cultural capability when relying on implicit contextual cues, with substantial variation across cultural dimensions (Figure 1).

To quantify this gap, we introduce a *triad evaluation* design. Each scenario elicits model responses under three conditions: a neutral prompt

with no cultural markers (Prompt A), an explicitly instructed prompt that establishes a capability ceiling (Prompt B), and an implicitly cued prompt that embeds the same cultural context through names, settings, and social dynamics (Prompt C). This design tests whether models adapt to cultural cues that human interlocutors would recognise without instruction. The ratio of implicit adaptation to explicit capability, which we term Pragmatic Context Sensitivity (PCS), operationalises the competence-performance distinction: $PCS = (C - A) / (B - A)$. A PCS of 1.0 would indicate full implicit sensitivity; our observed mean of 0.15 indicates that models leave most of their cultural competence unused in naturalistic contexts. Existing benchmarks test what models can do when asked directly; our methodology tests what they do when they should know. This distinction matters: a medical chatbot that requires explicit cultural instruction to modulate directness will fail the patients who need it the most.

Contributions: This paper makes four contributions: (1) a triad evaluation design for separating cultural competence from pragmatic sensitivity; (2) the Pragmatic Context Sensitivity (PCS) metric for quantifying implicit adaptation; (3) evidence that implicit transfer varies systematically across cultural dimensions; and (4) a Hindi–Urdu natural experiment showing that linguistic form dominates cultural indexicality in model defaults.

2 Related Work

Large language models systematically align with WEIRD cultural norms, reflecting the Anglocentric skew of their training data. Durmus et al. (2023) showed that model outputs default to U.S. and Western European opinion distributions and shift toward other cultures only under explicit prompting, while translation alone has little effect. Similarly, Cao et al. (2023) found that English prompts flatten cultural variation toward an “Americanized” baseline. These results suggest that models encode cultural knowledge but apply it asymmetrically, consistent with a training-induced default rather than cultural neutrality.

Recent work distinguishes *cultural knowledge* in LLMs, retrievable facts about norms and values, from *cultural behaviour*, the contextual application of this knowledge in interaction. Wu et al. (2025) operationalise this distinction in SocialCC, showing a substantial gap between stored cultural

knowledge and its use in cross-cultural communication. Related benchmarks report similar limitations. CulturalBench (Chiu et al., 2025) finds GPT-4 achieves only 61% accuracy on hard cultural knowledge questions versus 92% for humans, with pronounced regional disparities, while NormAd (Rao et al., 2025) shows that even when norms are provided explicitly, model accuracy lags human performance and drops sharply when only abstract cultural cues are given. Together, these results indicate that models possess cultural information but struggle to deploy it without explicit instruction, motivating our focus on latent pragmatic capability.

Veselovsky et al. (2025) formalise this phenomenon as the “explicit–implicit localisation gap”, defined as the performance difference between prompts with explicit cultural context (e.g., “I live in Turkey”) and those where culture is conveyed only implicitly through language choice. Across five languages and four cultural knowledge tasks, they report gaps ranging from 10% to 68%, with larger gaps for smaller models. A mechanistic analysis identifies steering vectors that recover 70–80% of explicit performance, indicating that relevant knowledge exists but is not spontaneously activated. This pattern mirrors findings from capability elicitation: Wei et al. (2022) show that chain-of-thought prompting improves reasoning, and Kojima et al. (2022) demonstrate that minimal instruction can unlock latent problem-solving ability.

We extend this framework in two directions. **First, we shift from factual cultural knowledge to pragmatic behaviour:** where Veselovsky et al. (2025) measure accuracy on multiple-choice questions with verifiable answers (e.g., “What is the traditional greeting in Turkey?”), we measure stylistic adaptation in open-ended responses where appropriateness is graded rather than binary. A model might know that hierarchical deference is valued in South Asian contexts yet fail to modulate its register accordingly; our design captures this knowledge-behaviour gap. **Second, we introduce the Pragmatic Context Sensitivity (PCS) metric,** which normalises implicit adaptation as a proportion of explicit capability. Raw performance differences confound cultural sensitivity with baseline fluency; PCS isolates how much of what a model *can* do (when instructed) it *does* do (when cued only by language). This ratio enables direct comparison across models and languages with different baselines, addressing a limitation of absolute gap metrics.

164 Pragmatic competence in LLMs has received in-
165 creasing attention, though most work focuses on
166 English and treats pragmatics as largely context-
167 independent. Ruis et al. (2023) evaluated conversa-
168 tional implicature and found that models performed
169 near chance (~50%) unless explicitly guided with
170 step-by-step instruction, indicating that pragmatic
171 capability exists but requires elicitation. Similarly,
172 Hu et al. (2023) report that models default to literal
173 interpretations and often miss indirect cues
174 that humans infer naturally. For politeness and eti-
175 quette, Dwivedi et al. (2023) introduced EtiCor, a
176 corpus of etiquette norms from five global regions,
177 along with an etiquette sensitivity metric measur-
178 ing whether responses adapt across cultures. They
179 document strong Western bias, with models fre-
180 quently failing to adjust formality in non-Western
181 contexts. Our work shares this motivation, but dif-
182 fers in *method* and *scope*. We quantify adaptation
183 as a continuous ratio relative to an explicit capa-
184 bility ceiling and use a controlled triad design to
185 isolate implicit from explicit cueing. Finally, given
186 the rapid evolution of frontier models since 2023,
187 we empirically test whether pragmatic deficits re-
188 ported for earlier systems persist in current models.

189 Our operationalisation draws on Brown and
190 Levinson (1987)’s theory of linguistic politeness,
191 which distinguishes between *positive face*, the de-
192 sire for approval, and *negative face*, the desire for
193 autonomy. Face-threatening acts, such as public
194 criticism or refusing a request, require mitigation
195 strategies that vary systematically across cultures.
196 Our scenarios instantiate these dynamics directly:
197 public correction and hierarchical feedback involve
198 negative face threats, while gift-giving and hospi-
199 tality engage positive face concerns. The Hofstede
200 dimensions map onto these patterns, as high
201 Power Distance cultures emphasise negative po-
202 liteness toward superiors, while Collectivist cul-
203 tures prioritise in-group positive face over individ-
204 ual autonomy (Scollon and Scollon, 1995). Al-
205 though Brown and Levinson’s framework has been
206 critiqued for Western bias, with later work show-
207 ing the dominance of positive face in many non-
208 Western contexts, this variation motivates our PCS
209 metric, which measures whether models adapt face-
210 management strategies across cultures rather than
211 applying uniform mitigation.

212 Multilingual benchmarks document substantial
213 performance gaps across languages. XTREME (Hu
214 et al., 2020) and MEGA (Ahuja et al., 2023) show
215 that models strong in English lag in lower-resource

216 languages, and these disparities have practical con-
217 sequences, such as shorter and less precise health-
218 care responses in Hindi compared to English (Jin
219 et al., 2024). However, these benchmarks focus
220 on task accuracy rather than communicative be-
221 haviour. A model may produce correct answers
222 across languages while maintaining the same regis-
223 ter, formality, and indirectness. Our work instead
224 evaluates whether models adapt their communica-
225 tive style when the language changes, independent
226 of task success.

227 Disentangling language from culture is a key
228 challenge in cross-linguistic evaluation: behav-
229 ioural differences across languages may reflect
230 linguistic structure, training data, or cultural as-
231 sociations. Hindi and Urdu provide a natural ex-
232 periment for isolating these factors. They share
233 grammar and core semantics as registers of Hindustani,
234 while differing in script, lexicon, and associated
235 cultural contexts. This combination enables a
236 controlled comparison: systematic differences in
237 model behaviour across equivalent Hindi and Urdu
238 prompts cannot be attributed to syntax, but instead
239 point to cultural encoding or training biases. To
240 our knowledge, this property has not previously
241 been exploited to probe cultural sensitivity in large
242 language models.

3 Methods

3.1 Triad Evaluation Design

243 For each cultural scenario, we collect model re-
244 sponses under three prompt conditions designed to
245 isolate implicit pragmatic sensitivity from explicit
246 cultural capability.

247 **Prompt A (Neutral Baseline)** presents the sce-
248 nario with no social context beyond the core
249 dilemma. The situation is described in minimal
250 terms: a workplace disagreement, a family deci-
251 sion, a social obligation. This condition elicits
252 whatever pragmatic defaults the model has acquired
253 through training.

254 **Prompt B (Explicit Ceiling)** presents the iden-
255 tical scenario with an explicit cultural instruction
256 appended: “Respond as someone who strongly val-
257 ues hierarchical harmony, believes that publicly
258 contradicting superiors causes loss of face, and
259 prefers indirect methods of expressing disagree-
260 ment.” This condition establishes the upper bound
261 of the model’s cultural competence.

262 **Prompt C (Implicit Test)** presents the scenario
263 with social context that makes particular pragmatic

266 strategies relevant, without naming them. For the
267 same workplace scenario, Prompt C adds: “Your
268 department head personally developed this system
269 over several months and presented it to the exec-
270 utive team as their flagship initiative. Several col-
271 leagues have privately shared similar concerns but
272 indicated they plan to express support in the meet-
273 ing.” A culturally competent human reader would
274 recognise these as face-threatening stakes requir-
275 ing indirect disagreement strategies. No explicit
276 instruction is provided.

277 We deliberately avoided culturally indexical
278 markers such as names, locations, or explicit cul-
279 tural references in Prompt C. This design choice
280 involves a tradeoff. Real-world implicit contexts of-
281 ten contain such markers, so stripping them makes
282 our test more difficult than naturalistic interac-
283 tion. However, including them would risk con-
284 flating pragmatic sensitivity with stereotype ac-
285 tivation: a model that shifts toward collectivist
286 framing upon encountering an Indian name may
287 be pattern-matching on demographic signals rather
288 than reasoning about situational context. By testing
289 whether models respond to situational cues alone,
290 we measure genuine pragmatic inference. This
291 design establishes a conservative lower bound on
292 implicit sensitivity; real-world performance with
293 richer cues would likely be higher.

294 **3.2 Scenario Construction**

295 We constructed 60 scenarios spanning three of Hof-
296 stede’s cultural dimensions: Power Distance (PDI),
297 Individualism-Collectivism (IDV), and Uncertainty
298 Avoidance (UAI). We selected these dimensions
299 because they have clear pragmatic correlates: PDI
300 affects deference and directness in communication;
301 IDV shapes the balance between individual agency
302 and group obligation; UAI influences tolerance for
303 ambiguity and preference for explicit rules. Each
304 dimension comprises 5 scenarios distributed evenly
305 across four domains (Workplace, Family, Social,
306 Institutional), yielding a $3 \times 4 \times 5$ balanced design
307 of 20 scenarios per dimension.

308 For each dimension, we operationalised four be-
309 havioural features that prior cross-cultural research
310 has linked to the construct. Power Distance scenar-
311 os were scored on deference markers, directness
312 of disagreement, face-saving strategies, and choice
313 of communication channel (public versus private).
314 Individualism scenarios were scored on agency at-
315 tribution (individual versus collective credit), duty-
316 versus-choice framing, outcome framing (personal

317 versus group benefit), and relationship priority. Un-
318 certainty Avoidance scenarios were scored on hedg-
319 ing density, risk framing, rule reference frequency,
320 and deference to expert authority.

321 Scenarios were designed to present genuine prag-
322 matic dilemmas rather than obvious cultural tests.
323 A PDI scenario might involve disagreeing with a
324 manager’s proposal; the question is not whether
325 to disagree, but how. This design ensures that re-
326 sponds vary along a continuum rather than produc-
327 ing binary cultural signals.

328 **3.3 Languages**

329 We evaluated models in five languages: English,
330 German, Hindi, Nepali, and Urdu. This selec-
331 tion balances typological diversity with a specific
332 methodological affordance.

333 English and German represent high-resource
334 Germanic languages from predominantly WEIRD
335 cultural contexts, though with documented differ-
336 ences in directness norms. Hindi, Nepali, and
337 Urdu represent Indo-Aryan languages from South
338 Asian cultural contexts with generally higher power
339 distance and collectivism scores on Hofstede’s in-
340 dices.

341 The inclusion of both Hindi and Urdu serves as a
342 natural experiment. The two languages share nearly
343 identical grammatical structure and are mutually
344 intelligible in spoken form; they diverge primarily
345 in script (Devanagari versus Nastaliq), literary reg-
346 ister, and cultural associations (Hindu-majority ver-
347 sus Muslim-majority contexts). If models exhibit
348 different pragmatic defaults for Hindi versus Urdu
349 prompts, this would suggest that cultural associa-
350 tions encoded during training influence behaviour
351 beyond linguistic structure. Conversely, if defaults
352 are indistinguishable, linguistic form rather than
353 cultural indexicality drives model behaviour.

354 All scenarios were initially translated using
355 Gemini-3 Pro and subsequently reviewed by na-
356 tive speaker consultants (one per language, all with
357 graduate-level education and professional fluency
358 in English). Reviewers followed a structured pro-
359 tocol specifying four validation criteria: (1) nat-
360 uralness of register for the scenario context, (2)
361 appropriateness of address forms and honorifics,
362 (3) preservation of the core pragmatic dilemma
363 without cultural transplantation, and (4) absence
364 of unnatural calques or overly literal phrasing. Re-
365 viewers marked each scenario as acceptable, re-
366 quiring minor edits, or requiring major revision;
367 approximately 15% of scenarios required substan-

tive revision across languages, with Nepali showing the highest revision rate (23%) due to limited LLM training data. Prompt B explicit instructions were translated literally to maintain experimental consistency; reviewers confirmed these remained interpretable despite occasional stilted phrasing.

3.4 Models

We evaluated four models spanning frontier and budget capability tiers to test whether pragmatic sensitivity varies with model scale and training provenance. Selection criteria prioritised: (1) coverage of major AI laboratories with independent training pipelines, (2) inclusion of both Western (Google, xAI, Mistral) and Chinese (Xiaomi) model families, and (3) a range of capability levels.

Frontier tier: Grok-4.1-fast
(x-ai/grok-4.1-fast), Gemini-3-flash-preview
(google/gemini-3-flash-preview)

Budget tier: Minstral-8B-2512
(mistralai/minstral-8b-2512), Mimo-v2-flash (xiaomi/mimo-v2-flash:free)

All models were accessed via OpenRouter API between January 3–5, 2026. For each model, we collected four independent responses per prompt at temperature 0.7 with `max_tokens=2000`, yielding 3,600 responses per model ($4 \times 3 \times 60 \times 5$) and 14,400 responses total. After scoring on 12 behavioural features (4 per dimension), this produced 57,080 feature-level observations for analysis. Full model identifiers, system prompts, and API parameters are provided in the Appendix.

3.5 Evaluation

The responses were evaluated using an LLM-as-judge methodology with explicit, feature-level rubrics, producing 7-point Likert scores for pragmatic behaviours aligned with each cultural dimension. To reduce single-model bias, we employed a three-judge ensemble drawn from independent organisations (Mistral, Google, Alibaba), with all judges run deterministically at temperature 0.0. The judge panel was validated for reliability and construct validity, achieving substantial inter-rater agreement (Krippendorff's $\alpha = 0.66$) and consistently assigning higher scores to explicitly cued responses than to neutral baselines. Full rubric definitions and validation analyses are provided in Appendix B. Crucially, the judge panel achieved 100% accuracy on a synthetic calibration set of contrastive pairs with known ground truth. This confirms that the low PCS scores reflect a genuine lack of adaptation in the target models, rather than

an inability of the judge ensemble to detect cultural signals when they are present. We validated automated scores against human judgement in a blinded preference study ($n = 235$ pairwise comparisons across five languages, with native speaker annotators per language). When comparing neutral (A) versus implicit (C) responses, human raters showed a slight preference for neutral responses (A preferred in 54.9% of decisive cases, C in 45.1%; $p = 0.48$), consistent with $PCS \approx 0.15$: the implicit adaptation is either too subtle for reliable detection or produces no perceptible improvement. We attribute the high tie rates and slight preference for neutral responses to the demographic profile of the validators (graduate-educated academics), whose communicative norms likely align closer to the 'WEIRD' default than to the specific cultural indices being tested. When comparing explicit (B) versus implicit (C) responses, preferences were essentially balanced (C preferred in 51.3% of decisive cases; $p = 0.91$), indicating that explicit instruction does not produce noticeably different responses as perceived by native speakers. High tie rates across languages (35–65%) indicate substantial response equivalence as perceived by native speakers.

3.6 Analysis

We computed three primary metrics from the scored responses.

Language Default Index (LDI) captures baseline pragmatic behaviour in the absence of cultural cues. For each language-feature combination, LDI is the mean score across all Prompt A responses. Higher LDI on collectivist features (e.g., relationship priority) indicates that the model defaults to more collectivist framing in that language.

Pragmatic Context Sensitivity (PCS) quantifies how much implicit context shifts model behaviour relative to explicit instruction. PCS is computed as the mean of per-scenario-feature PCS values, which may differ from the aggregate ratio shown as Cap. Util. For each language-feature combination:

$$\text{PCS} = \frac{\text{Score}_C - \text{Score}_A}{\text{Score}_B - \text{Score}_A} \quad (1)$$

where Score_A is the neutral baseline, Score_B is the explicit instruction ceiling, and Score_C is the implicit context response. A PCS of 1.0 indicates that implicit cues elicit the same adaptation as explicit instruction; 0.0 indicates no implicit sen-

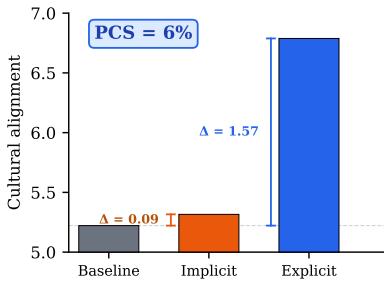


Figure 2: The competence-performance gap. Waterfall visualisation for a representative scenario (IDV outcome_framing, Hindi). The small A→C increment contrasts with the large A→B gap. Approximately 15% of capability used on average.

sitivity. Values above 1.0 (overshooting) or below 0.0 (reverse adaptation) are possible but rare.

Hindi-Urdu Divergence (HUD) tests whether pragmatic defaults reflect cultural associations or linguistic structure. For each feature, HUD is the absolute difference in LDI between Hindi and Urdu. Because these languages share grammatical structure but differ in cultural context, high HUD would suggest models encode cultural associations beyond linguistic form.

Statistical significance was assessed using one-way ANOVA for cross-linguistic comparisons (with η^2 effect sizes) and independent-samples t -tests for pairwise comparisons (with Cohen’s d). Confidence intervals were computed using the standard error of the mean. All analyses were conducted in Python using `scipy` and `statsmodels`.

4 Results

4.1 Models Utilise a Fraction of Their Explicit Capability Implicitly

Across all models and languages, Pragmatic Context Sensitivity (PCS) was consistently low. As shown in Table 1, the mean PCS was 0.152 ($SD = 0.193$), indicating that models deployed only $\approx 15\%$ of their demonstrated cultural competence when relying on situational cues alone. This gap was pervasive: even the strongest model left over 80% of its explicit capability unused, and capability utilization remained low across all languages (range: 12.2%–19.2%).

4.2 Cross-Linguistic Variation in Baseline Behaviour

Language Default Index (LDI) scores revealed systematic differences in pragmatic defaults across

Table 1: Model Performance Summary for ♣: Minstral-8B; ♦: Mimo-V2-flash; ♥: Gemini-3-flash; ♠: Grok-4.1-fast. Mean PCS across all languages and dimensions, capability utilisation (percentage of explicit capability deployed implicitly), and PCS broken down by cultural dimension. Models sorted by overall PCS.

Model	PCS	Cap. Util.	PDI	IDV	UAI
♣	0.137	13.5%	0.24	0.12	0.05
♦	0.135	19.3%	0.28	0.18	-0.05
♥	0.107	19.5%	0.34	0.12	-0.14
♠	0.081	16.8%	0.20	0.13	-0.08

Table 2: Mean LDI by Language. Higher scores indicate more collectivist, hierarchical, or uncertainty-avoiding defaults. Cross-linguistic variation significant for all dimensions ($p < .001$), with largest effect for IDV ($\eta^2 = 0.113$).

Language	DE	EN	HI	NE	UR
Mean LDI	4.82	4.87	5.24	5.22	5.21

languages (Table 2). One-way ANOVA confirmed significant cross-linguistic variation for all three dimensions: IDV ($F = 202.2$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.113$), UAI ($F = 29.5$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.018$), and PDI ($F = 13.1$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.008$).

South Asian languages (Hindi, Nepali, Urdu) showed higher baseline LDI scores (range: 5.21–5.24) compared to Germanic languages (German: 4.82, English: 4.87). The effect was strongest for IDV ($\eta^2 = 0.109$), where South Asian languages clustered around 5.2 while Germanic languages scored around 4.8. PDI and UAI showed smaller but significant effects ($\eta^2 = 0.009$ and 0.017 respectively). Complete LDI scores for all language-feature combinations are reported in Appendix E.

4.3 Dimension Asymmetry: Power Distance Cues Transfer Better

PCS varied substantially across cultural dimensions (Figure 3). Power Distance scenarios elicited the strongest implicit adaptation (mean PCS = 0.29), with models recognising face-threatening contexts and shifting toward indirect communication without explicit instruction. Feature-level analysis revealed that deference (PCS = 0.37) and face_saving (PCS = 0.36) drove this pattern (Figure 4).

Individualism-Collectivism showed moderate adaptation (mean PCS = 0.12), with relation-

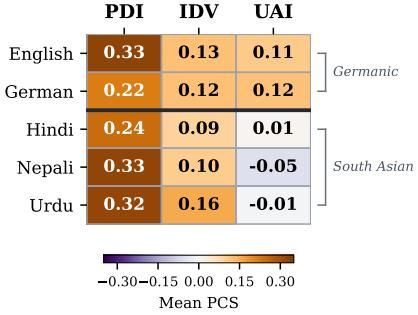


Figure 3: Implicit adaptation (PCS) by language and cultural dimension. Blue indicates positive adaptation toward culturally appropriate behaviour; brown indicates reverse adaptation. The dimension asymmetry ($PDI > IDV > UAI$) holds across language families, though Hindi and Nepali show weakly negative UAI sensitivity.

ship_priority (PCS = 0.20) showing the strongest effect. Uncertainty Avoidance showed the weakest and most variable adaptation (mean PCS = 0.04). Notably, hedging_density exhibited negative PCS (-0.33), indicating that implicit cues triggered the opposite of the expected response: models reduced hedging when cultural context called for more. The negative UAI pattern was strongest in Hindi (-0.25) and Nepali (-0.24), while Urdu showed near-zero sensitivity (0.02), suggesting possible script-related or training data effects beyond shared linguistic structure. This asymmetry suggests that face-threatening situations contain more recognisable surface markers (hierarchical relationships, public settings, personal stakes) than uncertainty-related situations, which require more abstract reasoning about ambiguity tolerance.

4.4 Hindi-Urdu Divergence: Linguistic Form Dominates Cultural Indexicality

The Hindi-Urdu comparison provides a natural experiment for disentangling linguistic structure from cultural association. Despite distinct cultural contexts (Hindu-majority versus Muslim-majority populations), Hindi and Urdu showed no statistically significant divergence in baseline pragmatic behaviour: mean LDI was 5.24 for Hindi and 5.21 for Urdu ($t = 1.12$, $p = .262$, $d = 0.03$). Further analysis in Appendix F.

4.5 Model-Level Variation

While all models showed the competence-performance gap, dimension-specific patterns varied (Figure 2). Gemini-3-flash achieved the highest PDI sensitivity (PCS=0.34), while Mimo-V2-

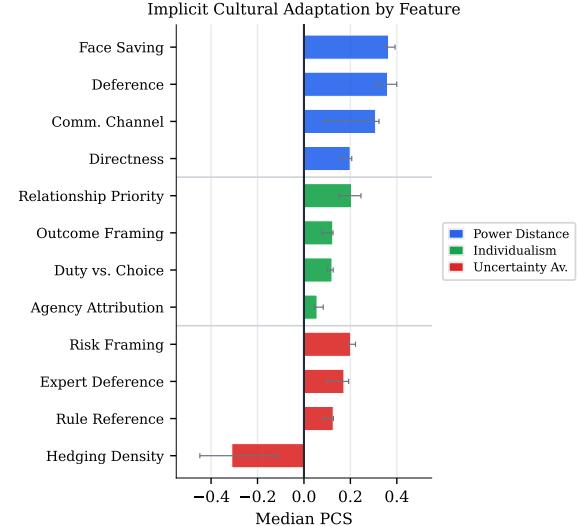


Figure 4: Feature-level implicit sensitivity. Horizontal bar chart ranking all 12 features by median PCS, colour-coded by dimension (PDI=blue, IDV=green, UAI=red). PDI features cluster at top; UAI features cluster at bottom with hedging_density negative.

flash showed the strongest IDV adaptation (0.18). Only Ministral-8B achieved positive UAI sensitivity (0.05); other models showed negative values, indicating implicit cues sometimes backfire for uncertainty-related scenarios.

Critically, model identity explained minimal variance in PCS. One-way ANOVA across models yielded $\eta^2 = 0.03$: model choice accounts for only 3% of the variation in implicit sensitivity. The spread between best and worst models (0.056) was an order of magnitude smaller than the gap from ceiling (0.85). Budget-tier models (Ministral-8B, Mimo-V2-flash) matched or exceeded frontier models in mean PCS. These patterns suggest the competence-performance gap is not a property of specific architectures or training datasets but a structural feature of the alignment paradigm shared across systems. Detailed model \times language \times dimension breakdowns are provided in Appendix D.

5 Discussion

5.1 The Knowledge–Behaviour Gap as an Alignment Artefact

The mean 15% capability utilisation quantifies an unmeasured gap between cultural knowledge in models and its deployment in interaction. Because explicit prompting (Prompt B) reliably elicits appropriate behaviour, this asymmetry cannot be attributed to missing knowledge. Instead, it reflects a structural limitation in how models translate con-

591 text into action. Related work has documented
592 a similar explicit–implicit gap for factual cultural
593 knowledge (Veselovsky et al., 2025). Our results
594 extend this phenomenon to pragmatic behaviour,
595 where the consequences are more immediate: fac-
596 tual errors can be corrected after the fact, but inap-
597 propriate register or tone may cause harm before
598 correction is possible.

599 Implicit transfer is not uniform across pragmatic
600 domains: hierarchical cues associated with Power
601 Distance transfer substantially better than cues re-
602 lated to Individualism–Collectivism or Uncertainty
603 Avoidance, a pattern analysed in detail in Appendix
604 I. A controlled Hindi–Urdu comparison further con-
605 strains interpretation: despite distinct cultural asso-
606 ciations, models exhibit near-identical pragmatic
607 defaults across the two, suggesting that linguistic
608 form dominates cultural indexicality when gram-
609 matical structure is held constant (Appendix I).

610 5.2 Practical Implications

611 The gap between explicit and implicit pragmatic
612 capability has direct consequences for deployment
613 in culturally diverse settings. In healthcare commu-
614 nication, patients in high power-distance contexts
615 may require indirect, face-saving framing when
616 receiving sensitive information. A model that de-
617 faults to Western directness unless explicitly in-
618 structed will fail precisely those users least likely to
619 provide such instruction. Prior work has shown that
620 Hindi health queries receive shorter and less pre-
621 cise responses than English equivalents (Jin et al.,
622 2024); our findings suggest this disparity extends
623 beyond content to communicative style. Similar
624 risks arise in education and customer service. Tu-
625 toring systems may impose pedagogical styles mis-
626 aligned with local norms, for example defaulting
627 to individual-agency framing rather than collec-
628 tive problem-solving in collectivist contexts. In
629 customer service, models often adopt a uniform
630 politeness register that is appropriate for formal en-
631 counters but pragmatically marked where solidarity
632 or informality is expected. In each case, models
633 produce outputs that are linguistically correct yet
634 socially miscalibrated. Across domains, the bur-
635 den of pragmatic adaptation falls on users least
636 equipped to provide explicit cultural instruction,
637 including patients, students, and customers. This
638 asymmetry highlights the practical importance of
639 implicit cultural sensitivity for real-world deploy-
640 ment.

5.3 Alternative Explanations

641 We considered several alternative explanations for
642 the observed gap. First, if low PCS reflected data
643 scarcity rather than alignment effects, we would
644 expect substantially higher implicit transfer in En-
645 glish; instead, English patterns closely match those
646 observed in German and South Asian languages.
647 Second, our implicit prompts deliberately exclude
648 demographic markers, which may underestimate
649 real-world sensitivity; we treat this as a conserva-
650 tive design choice that isolates pragmatic inference
651 from stereotype activation. Third, while Hofst-
652 ede’s dimensions have known limitations, they are
653 widely used in computational work and yield in-
654 ternally consistent patterns in our data, including
655 systematic asymmetry across dimensions. Finally,
656 the gap cannot be explained as a generic advantage
657 of explicit instruction: models respond implicitly to
658 some pragmatic cues (e.g., hierarchy) but not oth-
659 ers (e.g., uncertainty), indicating domain-specific
660 rather than uniform instruction-following effects.
661 Full analyses in Appendix I.

662 6 Conclusion and Future Work

663 We introduced a triad evaluation methodology to
664 quantify the gap between cultural competence and
665 pragmatic sensitivity in large language models. Our
666 results suggest that pragmatic insensitivity is a
667 structural artefact of current alignment paradigms
668 rather than a deficiency of individual models.

669 Future work will examine whether alignment or
670 steering interventions can improve implicit prag-
671 matic sensitivity, and whether the gap narrows in
672 multi-turn interactions where contextual cues accu-
673 mulate. Our findings highlight a mismatch between
674 alignment objectives and real-world cultural de-
675 mands, disadvantaging users least able to articulate
676 explicit cultural preferences.

677 7 Limitations

678 **Language and cultural coverage.** We evaluate
679 five languages (English, German, Hindi, Nepali,
680 Urdu), all from the Indo-European family. While
681 this selection enables the Hindi-Urdu natural ex-
682 periment and spans both high-resource (English,
683 German) and lower-resource (Nepali) conditions,
684 it excludes tonal languages, logographic writing
685 systems, and language families with distinct prag-
686 matic structures (e.g., East Asian honorific systems,
687 Bantu noun class agreement). Our findings may
688 not generalise to languages with fundamentally dif-
689 ferent pragmatic encoding.

691	Hofstede framework limitations. We operationalise cultural variation through Hofstede’s dimensions (PDI, IDV, UAI), which have been critiqued for national-level generalisation, Western origin, and dated empirical basis. Alternative frameworks (Schwartz values, GLOBE dimensions, Inglehart-Welzel) might yield different patterns. We chose Hofstede for its widespread adoption and interpretability, but acknowledge that cultural dimensions are abstractions that obscure within-culture variation.	743
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702	Temporal snapshot. Large language models are updated frequently; our results reflect model behaviour at collection time (January 3–5, 2026). The gap we measure may narrow or widen as alignment techniques evolve. We cannot claim our findings will hold for future model versions.	753
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714	Single-turn evaluation. All prompts were single-turn. In extended interactions, implicit cultural cues may accumulate across turns, potentially narrowing the competence-performance gap. Our 15% utilisation rate represents behaviour in isolated exchanges, not sustained dialogue.	765
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722	Synthetic scenarios. Our scenarios were researcher-constructed to isolate specific cultural dimensions. Real-world interactions contain richer, messier contextual signals. The gap we observe may be a conservative lower bound (scenarios are artificially sparse) or an overestimate (real contexts provide redundant cues humans use but models miss).	773
723		774
724		
725	Automated evaluation. We used a three-judge ensemble validated against GPT-4o reference scores (individual $r = 0.77\text{--}0.82$, panel $\alpha = 0.66$, $n = 40$). While correlation is strong, automated judges may introduce systematic biases shared with the models being evaluated. The ensemble approach with organisationally diverse judges (Mistral AI, Google, Alibaba) mitigates single-model bias, but human expert annotation would provide stronger validity, particularly for low-resource languages where judge models may be less reliable.	775
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732	Absence of human baseline. We lack a human baseline establishing what PCS values are typical or desirable; our 15% finding is descriptive rather than normative. Our human validation study provides partial evidence: native speaker annotators could not reliably distinguish implicit (C) responses from neutral baselines (A), with tie rates of 35–65% and decisive preferences slightly favouring neutral responses (54.9% A vs 45.1% C). However, our validators were graduate-educated	781
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740	Use of AI. AI-based language tools were used to assist with grammatical correction and refinement of wording. The authors take full responsibility for the ideas, analysis, and conclusions presented.	788
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906 A Model Configuration

907 Table 3 provides full model identifiers and API
908 configuration used for all experiments.

909 **910 API Parameters.** All models were queried with
911 temperature = 0.7, max_tokens = 2000, and 4 samples
912 per prompt condition. Requests were made via the
913 OpenRouter API between January 3–5, 2026.

914 **System Prompt.** The following system prompt
915 was used for all response generation:

916 *917 You are a helpful assistant. Respond naturally and thoughtfully. Your response
must be in {language_name} only.*

918 The {language_name} placeholder was substituted
919 with the target language (English, German,
920 Hindi, Nepali, or Urdu).

921 B Scoring Rubrics and Judge Validation

922 Responses were scored using an LLM-as-judge
923 methodology with explicit feature-level rubrics.
924 Each response was evaluated on four pragmatic features
925 appropriate to its scenario dimension, yielding 12 features total:
926 directness, deference, face-saving, and communication channel preference
927 for Power Distance; agency attribution, outcome framing, duty-versus-choice orientation,
928 and relationship priority for Individualism-Collectivism;
929 and hedging density, rule reference frequency, risk framing,
930 and expert deference for Uncertainty Avoidance. Each feature was scored on a 7-point
931 Likert scale with explicit behavioural anchors (Tables 5–7).

932 B.1 Judge Ensemble

933 We employed a three-judge ensemble selected for
934 organisational diversity and validated against GPT-
935 4o reference scores:

936 **Validation Protocol.** The final panel was validated
937 on three tests:

- 938 • **Construct validity:** 90% of Prompt B responses
939 scored higher than corresponding Prompt A responses (expected direction).
- 940 • **Inter-rater agreement:** Krippendorff’s $\alpha = 0.66$ across the three-judge ensemble.
- 941 • **Synthetic calibration:** 100% accuracy on
942 contrastive pairs with known ground truth (artificially constructed high/low exemplars).

943 We evaluated four panel configurations before
944 selecting the final ensemble:

945 **Configuration A (Benchmark-Optimized):** 946 Models selected for LMArena Elo and MMLU-Pro
947 performance (Gemini 3 Flash, Mistral Medium 3.1,
948 Qwen3 14B). Failed all validation tests: Gemini 3
949 Flash showed inverted construct validity (selected
A over B in 80% of cases), Qwen3 14B exhibited
ceiling effects (12/15 responses scored 7/7), and
synthetic calibration accuracy was 33%.

950 **Configuration B (Frontier Panel):** Claude Son-
951 net 4, GPT-4o, Gemini 2.0 Flash. Passed construct
952 validity (90% B wins) and inter-rater agreement
953 ($\alpha = 0.734$), but failed synthetic calibration on the
954 IDV dimension (67% accuracy).

955 **Configuration C (Budget + DeepSeek):** Mis-
956 tral Small 3.1, Gemini 2.0 Flash Lite, DeepSeek
957 V3.2. Passed construct validity (80% B wins) but
958 failed inter-rater agreement ($\alpha = 0.326$) due to
959 DeepSeek’s extreme score polarisation (predomi-
960 nantly 4s or 7s).

961 **Configuration D (Final):** Mistral Small 3.1,
962 Gemini 2.0 Flash Lite, Qwen 2.5 72B. Passed all
963 three tests: construct validity (90% B wins), inter-
964 rater agreement ($\alpha = 0.66$), and synthetic calibra-
965 tion (100% accuracy). This configuration balances
966 organisational diversity (France, US, China) with
967 cost efficiency.

968 These iterations demonstrate that benchmark per-
969 formance does not predict pragmatic evaluation ca-
970 pability: Configuration A’s models ranked highly
971 on LMArena but failed to discriminate culturally
972 adapted responses.

973 **Score Aggregation.** For each of the 14,400 re-
974 sponses, all three judges produced four feature
975 scores plus a brief rationale. Final scores were
976 computed as the mean across judges, then aggre-
977 gated by taking the mean across four samples per
978 prompt condition, yielding one composite score per
979 feature per scenario-language-model combination.

980 B.2 Feature Definitions

981 Tables 5–7 provide the complete scoring rubrics
982 for all 12 pragmatic features.

983 C Model-by-Model Results

984 C.1 PCS by Model and Dimension

985 Table 8 reports mean Pragmatic Context Sensitivity
986 scores broken down by model and cultural dimen-
987 sion.

Model	OpenRouter ID	Tier
Grok-4.1-fast	x-ai/grok-4.1-fast	Frontier
Gemini-3-flash-preview	google/gemini-3-flash-preview	Frontier
Minstral-8B-2512	mistralai/minstral-8b-2512	Budget
Mimo-V2-flash	xiaomi/mimo-v2-flash:free	Budget

Table 3: Evaluated models with OpenRouter API identifiers.

Judge Model	Organisation	r (vs GPT-4o)
Mistral Small 3.1 24B	Mistral AI (France)	0.81
Gemini 2.0 Flash Lite	Google (US)	0.82
Qwen 2.5 72B	Alibaba (China)	0.77

Table 4: Judge model correlations with GPT-4o reference scores on stratified validation sample ($n = 40$).

C.2 PCS by Model and Language

Table 9 reports mean PCS scores for each model-language combination.

C.3 Model Summary Statistics

Table 10 provides aggregate statistics for each evaluated model.

D Complete LDI Scores

Table 11 reports Language Default Index scores for all language-feature combinations. LDI represents the mean score on Prompt A (neutral baseline) responses.

E Hindi-Urdu Divergence by Model

Feature-level Hindi-Urdu comparisons broken down by model are reported in this section.

The effect size ($d = 0.03$) indicates negligible practical divergence across all dimensions and features (Figure 5). The largest feature-level divergences were relationship_priority (HUD = 0.16) and agency_attribution (HUD = 0.12), both representing less than 3% of the scale range. The minimal divergence suggests models respond primarily to shared linguistic structure (Hindustani grammar and vocabulary) rather than script-specific or religion-associated cultural indexicality.

Table 12 reports Hindi-Urdu divergence (HUD) in baseline behaviour broken down by model.

Table 13 reports feature-level HUD scores across all 12 pragmatic features.

F Example Scenario Triad

The following example illustrates the triad design for a Power Distance (PDI) scenario in the Work-

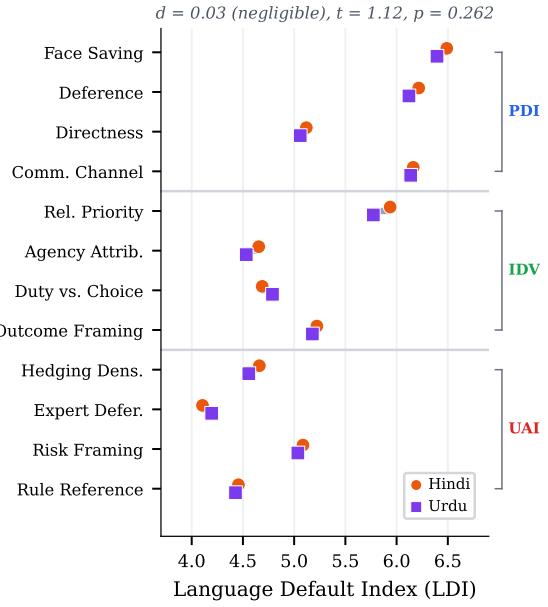


Figure 5: Hindi-Urdu pragmatic equivalence. Dumbbell plot showing Hindi LDI (orange circles) and Urdu LDI (purple squares) for all 12 features. Near-perfect overlap despite different scripts and cultural associations.

place domain.

Prompt A (Neutral Baseline).

Your department head has proposed a new workflow system that you believe will significantly reduce team efficiency. You have data from a pilot test supporting your concerns. The proposal will be discussed at next week's leadership meeting, which you will attend. How do you handle this situation?

Prompt B (Explicit Ceiling).

Your department head has proposed a new workflow system that you believe will significantly reduce team efficiency. You have data from a pilot test supporting your concerns. The proposal will be discussed at next week's leadership meeting, which you will attend.

Feature	1 (Low)	4 (Mid)	7 (High)
Directness	Blunt, direct challenge or contradiction; imperative tone	Balanced; raises concerns with some hedging	Highly indirect; uses suggestions, questions, or third-party framing
Deference	Treats authority as equal or challenges their expertise	Neutral acknowledgement of hierarchy	Explicit respect markers; attributes wisdom/authority to superior
Face-saving	No concern for face; public criticism acceptable	Some face-saving; suggests private discussion	Elaborate face-saving; protects superior's dignity as primary concern
Communication channel	Advocates public, direct confrontation	Mixed approach; some private, some public elements	Strongly prefers private, one-on-one communication

Table 5: Power Distance (PDI) feature scoring anchors. Higher scores indicate more hierarchical, face-conscious communication.

Feature	1 (Individualist)	4 (Mid)	7 (Collectivist)
Agency attribution	Individual as sole agent; personal responsibility emphasised	Balanced individual and group agency	Collective/group agency; shared responsibility; family/team framing
Outcome framing	Focus on personal benefits, self-actualisation, individual goals	Balanced personal and group considerations	Focus on group harmony, family welfare, collective benefit
Duty vs. choice	Emphasis on personal choice, autonomy, self-determination	Balanced duty and choice considerations	Emphasis on duty, obligation, role-based expectations
Relationship priority	Task/goal completion prioritised over relationships	Balanced task and relationship concerns	Relationship maintenance prioritised; harmony over efficiency

Table 6: Individualism-Collectivism (IDV) feature scoring anchors. Higher scores indicate more collectivist framing.

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Respond as someone who strongly values hierarchical harmony, believes that publicly contradicting superiors causes loss of face, and prefers indirect methods of expressing disagreement.

How do you handle this situation?

Prompt C (Implicit Test).

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Your department head has proposed a new workflow system that you believe will significantly reduce team efficiency. You have data from a pilot test supporting your concerns. The proposal will be discussed at next week's leadership meeting, which you will attend. **Your department head personally developed this system over several months and presented it to the executive team as their flagship initiative. Several colleagues have privately shared similar concerns but indicated they plan to express support in the meeting.**

How do you handle this situation?

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Design Rationale. Prompt C contains implicit cues that a culturally competent human would recognise as face-threatening: the superior's personal investment, public stakes, and colleagues' strategic deference. No explicit cultural instruction is provided. The PCS metric quantifies what fraction of the B-level adaptation the model achieves in condition C.

G Feature-Level PCS Rankings

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Table 14 ranks all 12 pragmatic features by median PCS across all languages and models.

H Statistical Test Details

H.1 Cross-Linguistic ANOVA (RQ1)

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One-way ANOVA tested whether Language Default Index varies significantly across the five languages.

H.2 Context Sensitivity by Language (RQ2)

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Paired *t*-tests compared Prompt A vs. Prompt C scores within each language to assess implicit adaptation.

Feature	1 (Low UAI)	4 (Mid)	7 (High UAI)
Hedging density	Confident, unqualified assertions; minimal hedging	Moderate hedging; some qualifiers	Dense hedging; frequent “might,” “could,” “perhaps,” epistemic markers
Rule reference	Appeals to flexibility, context-dependence, personal judgement	Balanced rule and flexibility references	Strong appeals to rules, policies, precedent, tradition
Risk framing	Opportunity-focused; embraces uncertainty as potential	Balanced risk and opportunity framing	Risk-averse; worst-case thinking; threat-focused
Expert deference	Encourages independent judgement; questioning experts acceptable	Balanced expert and personal judgement	Strong deference to experts, authorities, established wisdom

Table 7: Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) feature scoring anchors. Higher scores indicate more uncertainty-avoiding communication.

Model	Dimension	Mean PCS	SD
Gemini-3-flash	PDI	0.340	0.126
	IDV	0.119	0.077
	UAI	-0.138	1.559
Grok-4.1-fast	PDI	0.198	0.120
	IDV	0.128	0.056
	UAI	-0.084	0.653
Mimo-V2-flash	PDI	0.280	0.128
	IDV	0.177	0.108
	UAI	-0.053	0.592
Minstral-8B	PDI	0.237	0.193
	IDV	0.120	0.064
	UAI	0.054	0.639

Table 8: PCS by model and cultural dimension. Negative UAI values indicate reverse adaptation (implicit cues reduce uncertainty-avoiding behaviour).

1089 H.3 Hindi-Urdu Divergence (RQ4)

1090 Independent samples *t*-test compared Hindi and
1091 Urdu baseline (Prompt A) scores.

1092 • Hindi mean LDI: 5.24 (SD = 0.89)
1093 • Urdu mean LDI: 5.21 (SD = 0.88)
1094 • $t = 1.12, p = 0.262$
1095 • Cohen’s $d = 0.03$ (negligible effect)

1096 The non-significant divergence ($p = 0.262, d =$
1097 0.03) suggests models respond primarily to shared
1098 Hindustani linguistic structure rather than distinct
1099 Hindi/Urdu cultural associations.

1100 I Further analyses

1101 I.1 Dimension Asymmetry: What Models 1102 Detect vs. What They Miss

1103 Not all cultural dimensions transfer equally from
1104 explicit to implicit cueing. Power Distance sce-

Model	Language	Mean PCS	SD
Gemini-3-flash	German	0.208	0.148
	English	0.247	0.128
	Hindi	0.286	0.242
	Nepali	-0.398	1.992
	Urdu	0.192	0.163
Grok-4.1-fast	German	0.119	0.193
	English	0.162	0.137
	Hindi	0.049	0.300
	Nepali	-0.072	0.799
	Urdu	0.145	0.141
Mimo-V2-flash	German	0.179	0.098
	English	0.150	0.137
	Hindi	0.136	0.276
	Nepali	0.155	0.314
	Urdu	0.053	0.739
Minstral-8B	German	0.054	0.365
	English	0.304	0.552
	Hindi	0.145	0.187
	Nepali	0.140	0.382
	Urdu	0.041	0.377

Table 9: PCS by model and language. Higher variance in South Asian languages reflects greater instability in implicit adaptation.

narios elicited approximately 29% of explicit capability (mean PCS = 0.29), while Individualism-Collectivism and Uncertainty Avoidance scenarios showed substantially lower transfer (mean PCS = 0.12 and 0.04 respectively). This asymmetry suggests that models can detect some pragmatic cues implicitly while remaining insensitive to others.

We attribute the Power Distance advantage to the surface salience of hierarchical markers. PDI scenarios contain recognisable signals: seniority relationships, public versus private settings, stakes that threaten face. These features have clear lexical and structural correlates that models likely encounter frequently in training data. A scenario describing a

Model	PCS	Cap. Util.	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	\bar{C}
Minstral-8B	0.137	13.5%	4.90	6.06	5.06
Mimo-V2-flash	0.135	19.3%	4.89	6.22	5.15
Gemini-3-flash	0.107	19.5%	5.03	6.42	5.30
Grok-4.1-fast	0.081	16.8%	4.88	6.34	5.13

Table 10: Model summary. \bar{A} , \bar{B} , \bar{C} = mean scores for neutral, explicit, and implicit prompt conditions. Capability utilisation = percentage of Δ_{AB} captured by Δ_{AC} .

junior employee disagreeing with a senior manager in a team meeting contains multiple redundant cues that point toward indirect, face-saving strategies. Models appear capable of aggregating these signals into an appropriate pragmatic shift, even without explicit instruction.

Uncertainty Avoidance scenarios, by contrast, require inferring tolerance for ambiguity from more diffuse textual features. Whether a situation calls for hedging, explicit rule-following, or deference to expert authority depends on abstract reasoning about risk and ambiguity rather than recognition of surface patterns. Hedging density showed consistently negative PCS across all languages (mean = -0.33), with the strongest reverse adaptation in South Asian languages (Nepali: -0.67 , Urdu: -0.45 , Hindi: -0.31) and smaller negative effects in Germanic languages (German: -0.11 , English: -0.09). This pattern suggests that implicit uncertainty cues actually trigger reduced hedging, the opposite of the expected response. We hypothesise that RLHF optimisation creates this reversal: hedging is often penalised during preference training as evasive or unhelpful (“I’m not sure, but maybe...” rates lower than confident responses), so models learn to suppress hedging when uncertain rather than increase it. This alignment pressure may directly conflict with the pragmatic norms of high-UAI cultures, where expressing appropriate caution signals competence rather than weakness.

The weakness of Individualism-Collectivism transfer (mean PCS = 0.12) held even in English, a language associated with high-IDV cultural contexts. This pattern implies that collectivist versus individualist framing relies on subtle pragmatic choices (agency attribution, outcome framing, duty versus choice orientation) that models do not spontaneously modulate based on implicit context. The features that distinguish “we achieved this together” from “I achieved this” may be too fine-grained for current models to adjust without explicit prompt-

ing.

I.2 Linguistic Form Dominates Cultural Indexicality

The Hindi-Urdu comparison provides a natural experiment for disentangling linguistic structure from cultural association. Hindi and Urdu share virtually identical grammar and core vocabulary; they diverge in script (Devanagari versus Perso-Arabic), cultivated lexicon, and cultural context (broadly Hindu-majority versus Muslim-majority populations). If models encode cultural associations beyond linguistic form, we would expect systematically different pragmatic defaults when prompts are presented in Hindi versus Urdu.

We find minimal divergence. Mean Language Default Index scores were 5.24 for Hindi and 5.21 for Urdu, a difference that reached statistical significance ($t = 1.12$, $p = 0.262$) but with a negligible effect size ($d = 0.03$). This trivial difference held across all twelve pragmatic features and all three cultural dimensions. The largest observed divergence (HUD = 0.16 on relationship_priority) represented less than 3% of the scale range.

This finding has two related implications. First, it suggests that models respond primarily to morphosyntactic structure rather than to cultural indexicality encoded via script or register. The Devanagari and Perso-Arabic scripts, despite their distinct cultural associations, do not trigger different pragmatic defaults. Second, it implies that whatever cultural biases models exhibit in South Asian languages reflect properties of Hindustani as a linguistic system, not the distinct cultural traditions indexed by Hindi versus Urdu as sociolinguistic registers. For researchers concerned with cultural bias in LLMs, this is a sobering result: surface-level localisation (translating prompts, using appropriate script) may not be sufficient to elicit culturally appropriate pragmatic behaviour if the underlying linguistic structure remains constant.

I.3 Alternative Explanations

Four potential confounds warrant consideration. First, the low PCS scores for South Asian languages might reflect training data scarcity rather than alignment-induced insensitivity. Models trained on fewer Hindi, Nepali, and Urdu tokens may simply lack the pragmatic knowledge to adapt. However, this explanation predicts substantially higher PCS in English, a language abundantly represented in training corpora. We do not observe

Dimension	Feature	German	English	Hindi	Nepali	Urdu
IDV	Agency attribution	4.16 ± 0.87	4.07 ± 0.78	4.65 ± 0.96	4.72 ± 0.93	4.53 ± 0.82
	Duty vs. choice	4.07 ± 0.72	3.94 ± 0.67	4.69 ± 0.76	4.80 ± 0.78	4.79 ± 0.77
	Outcome framing	4.65 ± 0.90	4.36 ± 0.83	5.22 ± 0.95	5.27 ± 0.95	5.18 ± 0.85
	Relationship priority	5.28 ± 0.88	5.04 ± 0.87	5.94 ± 0.79	5.99 ± 0.84	5.77 ± 0.86
PDI	Communication channel	6.17 ± 0.91	6.25 ± 0.83	6.16 ± 0.88	6.14 ± 0.91	6.14 ± 0.91
	Deference	5.64 ± 0.70	5.80 ± 0.78	6.22 ± 0.64	6.07 ± 0.73	6.12 ± 0.68
	Directness	4.83 ± 0.73	5.05 ± 0.88	5.12 ± 0.89	4.95 ± 0.90	5.06 ± 0.88
	Face-saving	6.29 ± 0.45	6.42 ± 0.47	6.49 ± 0.46	6.36 ± 0.58	6.39 ± 0.49
UAI	Expert deference	3.46 ± 1.54	3.63 ± 1.49	4.11 ± 1.44	4.17 ± 1.46	4.20 ± 1.43
	Hedging density	4.45 ± 0.74	4.65 ± 0.73	4.66 ± 0.81	4.64 ± 0.85	4.56 ± 0.86
	Risk framing	4.65 ± 1.35	4.84 ± 1.31	5.09 ± 1.19	4.92 ± 1.33	5.04 ± 1.25
	Rule reference	4.06 ± 1.22	4.18 ± 1.19	4.46 ± 1.07	4.43 ± 1.15	4.43 ± 1.16

Table 11: Language Default Index (LDI) scores for all language-feature combinations. Values are mean ± SD. Higher IDV scores indicate more collectivist defaults; higher PDI scores indicate more hierarchical defaults; higher UAI scores indicate more uncertainty-avoiding defaults.

Model	Hindi LDI	Urdu LDI	HUD
Gemini-3-flash	5.14	5.25	0.108
Ministrail-8B	5.05	5.02	0.033
Grok-4.1-fast	5.03	5.01	0.020
Mimo-V2-flash	4.97	4.97	0.007

Table 12: Hindi-Urdu Divergence (HUD) by model. HUD = absolute difference in mean LDI. All values represent negligible practical divergence (< 3% of scale range).

this pattern: English PCS (mean = 0.19) was comparable to German (mean = 0.15), Hindi (mean = 0.12), Nepali (mean = 0.12), and Urdu (mean = 0.16). The deficit appears to stem from alignment rather than resource availability, though the higher variance in South Asian languages (SD ≈ 0.16–0.29 vs. 0.12–0.14 for European languages) suggests training data effects may compound the alignment-induced gap.

Second, our Prompt C design deliberately avoided culturally indexical markers such as names, locations, or explicit cultural references. This makes our implicit condition sparser than many real-world interactions, where such markers abound. We consider this a methodological strength rather than a limitation. Including demographic markers would conflate two distinct capabilities: pragmatic inference (reasoning about situational context to select appropriate behaviour) and stereotype activation (pattern-matching on demographic signals). A model that shifts toward collectivist framing upon encountering an Indian name demonstrates the latter, not the former. By testing whether models respond to situational cues alone, we isolate genuine pragmatic sensitivity. The ob-

Dim.	Feature	Hindi	Urdu	HUD
IDV	Agency attribution	4.65	4.53	0.122
IDV	Duty vs. choice	4.69	4.79	0.100
IDV	Outcome framing	5.22	5.18	0.044
IDV	Relationship priority	5.94	5.77	0.164
PDI	Communication channel	6.16	6.14	0.024
PDI	Deference	6.22	6.12	0.096
PDI	Directness	5.12	5.06	0.060
PDI	Face-saving	6.49	6.39	0.096
UAI	Expert deference	4.11	4.20	0.090
UAI	Hedging density	4.66	4.56	0.103
UAI	Risk framing	5.09	5.04	0.050
UAI	Rule reference	4.46	4.43	0.028
Overall		5.24	5.18	0.03

Table 13: Feature-level Hindi-Urdu Divergence. Largest divergence (relationship_priority, HUD = 0.164) represents < 3% of scale range. Statistical test: $t = 1.12$, $p = 0.262$, $d = 0.03$.

served 15% capability utilisation therefore represents a conservative lower bound; real-world performance with richer cues would likely be higher, though the additional sensitivity may reflect stereotype activation rather than pragmatic reasoning.

Third, our use of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions invites scrutiny. The framework originates from 1970s survey data, operates at the national level, and has been critiqued for essentialising culture (McSweeney, 2002). We acknowledge these limitations but defend the choice on three grounds. First, Hofstede’s dimensions remain the most widely adopted operationalisation of cultural variation in computational work; recent NLP benchmarks including SocialCC (Wu et al., 2025) and Cultural-Bench (Chiu et al., 2025) employ them, enabling comparison across studies. Second, our dimension

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Rank	Feature	Dim.	Median PCS
1	Face-saving	PDI	0.329
2	Deference	PDI	0.319
3	Communication channel	PDI	0.255
4	Risk framing	UAI	0.211
5	Relationship priority	IDV	0.207
6	Directness	PDI	0.151
7	Expert deference	UAI	0.148
8	Outcome framing	IDV	0.134
9	Duty vs. choice	IDV	0.128
10	Rule reference	UAI	0.108
11	Agency attribution	IDV	0.073
12	Hedging density	UAI	-0.689

Table 14: Feature-level implicit sensitivity. PDI features cluster at top (mean rank = 2.5); UAI features cluster at bottom (mean rank = 8.5) with hedging_density showing strong negative PCS.

Dimension	F	p	η^2	Sig.
IDV	202.21	< .001	0.113	Yes
UAI	29.50	< .001	0.018	Yes
PDI	13.07	< .001	0.008	Yes

Table 15: Cross-linguistic ANOVA results. Effect sizes: IDV shows medium effect ($\eta^2 = 0.113$); PDI and UAI show small effects.

asymmetry finding ($PDI \gg IDV > UAI$) provides internal validity: if the framework were merely capturing noise, we would not expect such systematic variation in model sensitivity across dimensions. Third, we treat the dimensions as interpretable measurement instruments rather than ontological claims about culture. The question is not whether Hofstede perfectly captures cultural reality but whether the constructs reliably distinguish pragmatic behaviours that models should modulate, and on this criterion, the divergence between Prompt A and Prompt B responses confirms they do.

Fourth, one might argue our findings reflect a general explicit-versus-implicit gap rather than anything specific to cultural pragmatics: perhaps models simply follow explicit instructions better than they respond to implicit cues in any domain. The dimension asymmetry provides evidence against this interpretation. If the gap were a domain-general property of instruction-following, we would expect similar PCS across all cultural dimensions. Instead, we observe a sevenfold difference: PDI scenarios elicit 29% of explicit capability implicitly, while UAI scenarios elicit only 4%. Models demonstrably can respond to implicit contextual cues when those cues are sufficiently salient (hierarchical re-

Lang.	\bar{A}	\bar{C}	t	p	d
German	4.82	5.09	-9.49	< .001	0.22
English	4.87	5.15	-9.43	< .001	0.22
Hindi	5.24	5.42	-6.75	< .001	0.15
Nepali	5.22	5.43	-7.88	< .001	0.18
Urdu	5.21	5.43	-8.25	< .001	0.19

Table 16: Implicit adaptation significance tests. All languages show statistically significant A→C shifts with small effect sizes ($d = 0.15\text{--}0.22$).

relationships, face-threatening stakes). The deficit is domain-specific: certain pragmatic inferences transfer from explicit to implicit cueing while others do not, a pattern inconsistent with a blanket instruction-following advantage.

J Human Validation Study

To validate the LLM-as-judge methodology against human judgement, we conducted a human validation study with native speakers. For each language, we selected scenario-model combinations stratified across dimensions and sampled response pairs for A-C and B-C comparisons, yielding 235 total comparisons across five languages. Raters compared each pair in randomised, blinded presentation and judged which response was more culturally appropriate for the scenario context, with a “no meaningful difference” option.

Table 17: Human validation results by language.

Lang	A vs C			B vs C			n
	A	C	Tie	B	C	Tie	
German (de)	6	4	13	6	7	11	47
English (en)	16	7	1	10	11	2	47
Hindi (hi)	3	5	15	4	6	14	47
Nepali (ne)	12	7	4	12	9	3	47
Urdu (ur)	2	9	13	5	6	12	47
Total	39	32	46	37	39	42	235

English showed the clearest discrimination ability (4% tie rate for A-C comparisons), while Hindi and German showed the highest tie rates (65% and 57% respectively). This pattern may reflect either genuine response equivalence in those languages or greater difficulty in the annotation task.

K Data Availability

Total observations: 57,080 feature-level scores across 14,400 model responses (4 models \times 5 lan-

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1305 guages \times 3 prompt conditions \times 60 scenarios \times 4
1306 samples). Response validity rate: 99.1%.

1307 All scenarios, model responses, scoring data, and
1308 code is submitted as a zip file with this submission.