

- Social Representations and Language: remarks on theory, method and research

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- Some criticisms about the dominant (Social) Psychology: About the subject-matter of social psychology
- Meta-theoretical turns: on the three scientific views in social psychology
- Theoretical turns: the search for the context
- Linguistic turns: the search for beyond the sentence
- The pragmatic use of language
 - The analysis of pragmatic regulations in inter-group relations: The linguistic category model

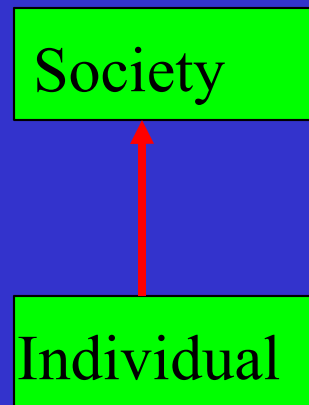
- 1.- Mainstream Social Psychology: some criticisms
 - Social Psychology with all its surprising theoretical production and applied actuation has provided during half of the XX century, has a problem of perspective.
 - From its very origin, social psychology has been forced to a kind of “circularity vertigo” underlying individual vs social point of views (Wundt: physiological psychology with experimental method vs language in the Wölkerpsychologie with comparative method; Naturwissenschaft vs Geisteswissenschaft; or the human genoma project vs the linguistic turn).

• Levels of theorizing	Individual	Intermediate	Collective
• Theorist	Individual	Intermediate	Collective
• Wundt	Physiological Psychology		Wölkerpsychologie
• Durkheim	Individual Representation		Collective Representations
• Le Bon	The individual		The Crowd
• Freud	Clinical Studies	Ego, Id and Superego	Critique of Culture
• Saussure		Parole	Langue
• Mead	Mind	Self	Society
• McDougall	Instincts		Group Mind
• F. Allport	Behaviour of Individuals		Institutional behaviour
•			Public Opinion

- Historiography: critical analysis posited several thesis:
 - 1) Americanisation of social sciences (Manicas 1987)
 - 2) Individualisation of the social as a counterpart of the desocialisation of the individual (Graumann 1986)
 - 3) The positivist repudiation of Wundt (Danziger 1979)
 - 4) The rupture between the past of social psychology and the present of experimental (social) psychology (Farr 1996).
- The different tours during the last century have made possible to take a new perspective to analyse its object
 - 1) Meta-theoretical tours
 - 2) Theoretical tours: the search for the social context
 - 3) Linguistic tours: the search for beyond the sentence

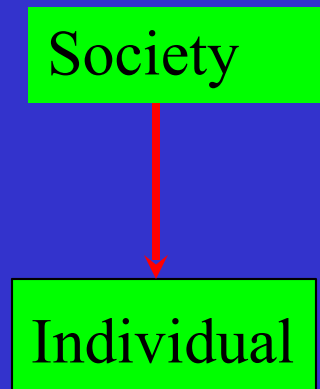
- The subject matter of Social Psychology: *social or individual?*
 - Methodological individualism: the doctrine that facts about societies and social phenomena, are to be explained solely in terms of facts about individuals.
 - According to Popper (1962) “all social phenomena and especially the functioning of social institutions, should be understood as resulting from the decisions etc of humans individuals ... we should never be satisfied by explanations in terms of so-called “collectivities”.

- So, one view of the subject matter of social sciences would be that of Weber, according to which social objects are seen as the result of (or as constituted by) *intentional or meaningful* human behaviour. In this sense, social events are to be explained by deducing them from the principles governing the behaviour of the “participating” individuals and descriptions of their situation.



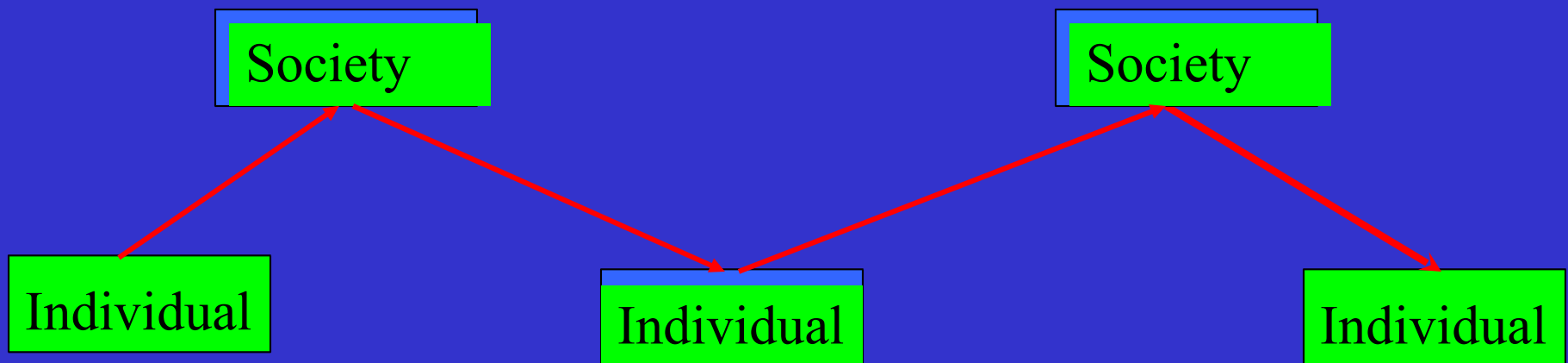
- The Weberian Stereotype of voluntarism

- A second reductionist view of social phenomena would be the collectivist conception. For Durkheim, social objects are seen as possessing a life of their own, external to and coercing the individual (Conscience collective, collective representations, etc)



- The Durkheimian Stereotype of collectivism

- A third view trying to cope with the social phenomena would be that of Berger et al (1983): Society forms the individuals who create society; society, in other words, produces individuals, who produce society, in a continuous dialectic
- The dialectical conception of “Illicit identification”

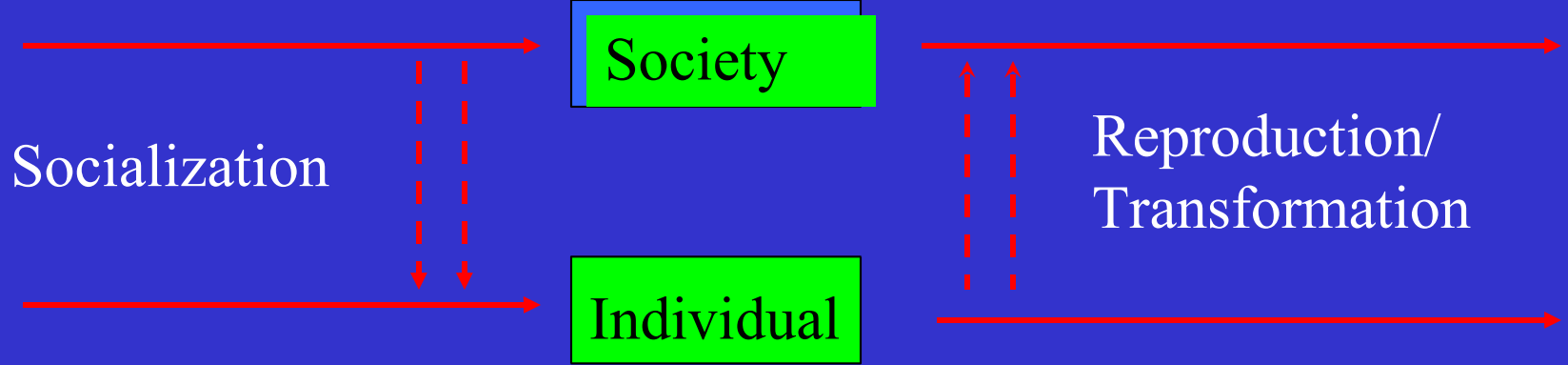


- According to this model “social structure is not characterizable as a thing able to stand on its own, apart from the human activity that produced it”, ... But once created, “it is encountered by the individual both as an alien facticity and ... as a coercitive instrumentality”
- Thus, while agreeing with Durkheim (1964) that “the system of signs I use to express my thoughts, the system of currency I employ to pay my debts, the instruments of credit I utilize in my commercial relations Function independently of my use of them”. So the model regards such systems, instruments and practices as objectivations that are alienated.
- Society, thus, is an objectivation or externalization of human beings, and human beings are the internalization in consciousness of society.

- This model however is misleading.
 - On the one hand, the model encourages a voluntaristic idealism with respect to our understanding of social structure and, on the other
 - A mechanistic determinism with respect to our understanding of people.
- Thus, agents do not *create* society, but *reproduce or transform* it.
- *Saying, making and doing* can not be performed without language, by applying themselves to materials or save in a given context: Speech requires language; making materials, action conditions, agency resources, activity rules!.

- A dual character for society and praxis is required:
 - Society is both the ever-present *condition* (material cause) and the continually reproduced *outcome* of human agency
 - Praxis is both work, that is, conscious *production*, and (normally unconscious) *reproduction*.
- Distinction between the genesis of human actions (reasons, intentions and plans of people: *acting*) and the structures governing the reproduction and transformation of social activities (causes: *doing*)
- People, in their conscious activity, for the most part unconsciously reproduce (and occasionally transform) the structures governing their substantive activities of production: People don't marry to reproduce the nuclear family, neither work to sustain the capitalist economy, nor speak to maintain their language!!.

- The problem of how people reproduce any particular society belongs to a linking science of “socio-psychology” (Bhaskar 1998)
- We do not suppose that the reason why garbage is collected is necessarily the garbage collector’s reason for collecting it ... and we can allow that speech is governed by rules of grammar without supposing either that these rules exist independently of usage (reification) or that they determine what we say. The rules of grammar, like natural structures, impose *limits* on speech acts, but they do not *determine* our performances



- The relational model of Society-Person connection (Bhaskar 1998)
- People do not create society, preexists them and is a necessary condition for their activity. It is an ensemble of structures, practices and conventions which individuals reproduce or transform, but which would not exist unless they did so. Society not exist independently of human activity (error of reification) . But is is not the product of it (error of voluntarism). Through socialization people acquire habits, skills etc necessary for reproduction and the latter is an accomplishment, even unconsciously achieved

- On the Weberian view there are actions but not conditions;
- on the Durkheimian view there are conditions but not actions;
- on the Illicit identification view there is no distinction between the two.
- The transformation relational model can sustain a genuine concept of change, and hence of history. The illicit identification model appears to involve continuous recreation, with genuine novelty: a kind of mystery. On the Weberian view change reduces to contrast, and on the Durkheimian it can only be explained by advection of exogenous variables.

- Mainstream Social Psychology: *The Standard View of Science*
 - 1) The source of knowledge is empirical, scientific propositions are founded on “data”. The test of the truth of propositions is “correspondence” between theory and data. Hypotheses are to be tested against the “facts”.
 - 2) Theories are understood to be interpreted calculi or hypothetic-deductive systems. Theories are hypothetical constructs which gain their meaning implicitly through their systemic relations to other terms in the theory or explicitly by being connected to observations (through “operational definitions”, “correspondence rules” or a “dictionary”).

- 3) Due to the dependence of the theory on empirical data, research is a-theoretical and seeks to test only hypotheses related to variables that can be closely tied to observations.
- 4) A Humean conception of causality and of lawfulness is taken for granted. Causal relations are regular contingent relations between events. Explanation is subsumption under a general law (Hempel 1963) and its objective is prediction.
- In sum, the subject of this view is the abstract individual (or the modern one), detached from other individuals (But see Kuhn, Lakatos, Laudan)

- *Hermeneutic view of postmodernism:*
 - 1) Posits one “epistemological impossibility”, i.e. denies any approach to reality that assumes the interdependency of mental and inter-subjective communication processes of individuals. Reality is more a consequence or result of the scientific activity than the cause (Latour & Woolgar 1988).
 - 2) There are no procedural rules to comply with. Refuse qualitative and quantitative methods because they require the actor to assume “agency” (Touraine, 1988): the introspection will be the base and the “Against method” of Feyerabend will be oriented to the marginal, the oddity, (Rosenau, 1993).

- 3) Research is not a-theoretical, but value-laden, loaded with norms, meanings and emotions, part of the theoretical production. However, the ethic issues have to be not treated as normative decisions by the moral person: they are only linguistic categories and constructs: if the reality is a linguistic convection, meaning and knowledge have to be only relative.
- 4) Causality and prediction are uninteresting because the assumed requirements of temporal priority and independence from the external reality are doubtful (Edelman 1988): The world is “inter-textual” and for this reason all we analyse is related with the rest (Latour 1988).
- To some extent this radical vision of the scientific activity can be taken as the cartesian counterpart of the empiricist positivism. Neo-marxist, Feminist and Humanist criticisms have questioned the basic postulates of this vision: The subject has disappeared; refuses the subject-object dichotomy: reality is a mere linguistic convention.

- *The New Vision of Science* (Bhaskar, Secord):
 - The subject-object separation is not assumed, because of the constructive capacity of the person. Men in their social activity perform a double function: a) they must not only make social products but b) make the conditions of their making, i.e. reproduce the structures governing their substantive activities of production.
 - Institutions are constructed by human agency, but at the same time, humans are constrained by them (Giddens 1984)
 - This new vision makes possible the new integration of “subjectivist” and objectivist” approaches in social theory: Social structures (e.g. language) are reproduced and transformed by action, but they preexist for individuals (Secord 1986)

- Society is not the unconditioned creation of human agency (voluntarism), but it does not exist independently of it (reification). And individual action neither completely determines (individualism) nor is determined by (determinism) social forms. Unintended consequences, unacknowledged conditions and tacit skills ... limit the actor's understanding of the social world while unacknowledged (unconscious) motivations limits one's understanding of oneself (Bhaskar 1982).
- Causal explanation is not understood as direct relations among data, but as theoretical mechanisms relating observations (Secord 1986)
- “Reasons” can also be “causes”, being necessary causal and functional explanations (Outhwithe 1987) as well as research directed to the creation of new hypothesis more than directed to test hypotheses (McGuire 1973; 1983).

- The assumption of the new vision of science can help social psychology to take consciousness of its role.
- The social sciences focus on the structures produced by human agency, studying how these relate to each other and to enduring practices (e.a. economists in abstract economic aspects of behaviour, etc).
- Social psychological science focuses on individual in their interactions with one another and with social institutions and on how this activity relates to the larger social structures (Manicas & Secord 1983).

- While the focus of social psychology usually has been on looking inward at cognitive processes, it has to go outward at situations and social structures.
- This social dimension of social psychology, culturally and historically available was put clearly by Mead: “social psychology presupposes an approach to experience from the standpoint of the individual, but undertakes to determine in particular that which belongs to this experience because the individual itself belong to a social structure” (1934, 1).
- Recently new theories have appeared in Social Psychology underlying the basis of the NVS of constructivism, mediating and dynamic nature as the Theory of Social Representations. (Moscovici 1984).

- 2.- Language and Social Psychology
 - Social Psychology towards language: the search for the social context
 - The new paradigm in Linguistics: the search for the language in action
- 3.- Pragmatic use of language:
 - The analysis of pragmatic regulations in inter-group relations: Linguistic Category Model

- 2.- Language and Social Psychology
 - History of the relationships between Language and Social Psychology can be a fickle and misleading observer. The view it will take of the relationship between language and social psychology, will depend on just when that view is being taken (students of linguistics 25 years ago: structural and generative linguistic paradigms vs students of (social) psychology: psychological (cognitive) processes; and nowadays reciprocal interchanges: language in action).
 - the interest in social psychology and language presents a rather unusual history (Semin & Fiedler 1992). Its origins can be located in the middle of the XXth century, to the then emerging concentration of the relationship between *Wölkerpsychologie and language*, even a journal with both labels (*Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft*) was founded in 1860.

- At that time, the critique stated that an elementaristic psychology was decontextualised from its social and distinctly cultural frame.
- The problem of contextualising social psychology in the late sixties and early seventies (Israel & Tajfel 1972) resembles in some of its features this earlier debate.
- In contrast, interest in the social psychological implications of language can be traced back over a number of decades; it was only recently that a tradition of the "social psychology of language" emerged (Giles & Coupland 1991)
- This is somewhat surprising because much of our behaviour involves communication and is manifested in language use.

- What is more surprising in this context is that within this emerging tradition the interplay of language and social cognition has occupied a minor role to date, and it is only very recently that interest in this field has begun to grow (Van Dijk 1990; Semin et al 1985; 1992).
- Except some clear contributions (Heider 1958) it has been forgotten that knowledge about the world and social reality are generated, articulated and communicated through language
- Why language has been neglected in social psychology and related areas?. There are large pockets of research that are concerned with language -though not identified as such- (person perception, attitude change and persuasion, attribution, categorisation, stereotypes and so on).

- Language and communication have played a prominent role in the history of social psychology, but the essentially discursive nature of language use has been mostly reduced to a more or less intuitive study of decontextualized "messages".
- In fact, this field was omitted from the original *Handbook of social psychology* (Lindzey 1952), and appeared in the second edition (Lindzey & Aronson, 1968), -written by an author who would not call himself a social psychologist- but it has not been until the fourth edition (Krauss & Chiu 1998) that the language use has been focused.
- There were several main directions from which encouragement for its development came

- 1.1.- Social Psychology towards language: the search for the social context
 - 1) First, in Symbolic Interactionism, it can be found one of the “lost link” between social psychological processes and pragmatics. On the one hand the philosophical pragmatism produced a theoretical setting to the first elaborations of linguistics pragmatics: Levinson (1983): Mead; Morris, Goffman
 - 2) The *Syntactic Structures* of Chomsky (1957) gave a strong impetus both to linguistics and psychology. Not surprisingly it quickly emerged that there was more to development than an innate Language Acquisition Device; there needed to be a Language Acquisition Support System (Bruner 1981) mediated by the activities of other human beings. It is dangerous to study *langue* without *parole* as it is to study *parole* without *langue*. The study of *language* requires attention to the dialectic between the two

- 3) Sociological perspectives provided other points of departure. Bernstein (1961) proposed the operation of two social class-related codes of language use. This was invoked by others as a "deficit" position. And Labov (1966) studied similarities and differences between social classes led to comparable studies on ethnic groups,
- 4) Lambert (1967) initiated the study of Matched Guise Technique. With Labov's work this source provided a point of departure for studies of accent convergence and divergence and these in turn gave birth to Speech Accommodation Theory (Giles, Taylor & Bourhis 1973).
- 5) Finally, the 80s have given birth to more constructivist approaches like Social Psychology of Discourse (Potter and Wetherell 1987; Robinson 1985) or Social Representations (Moscovici 1984) where the language has been considered as an integral part of the social psychological study

- 1.2 New paradigm of linguistics: the search for the language in action .
 - This tiredness is perceived in linguistics by the eighties when sociolinguists, linguistic critics and teachers of foreign languages, among others, verified the communicative limitations of linguistic generativism and formal grammars, as well as of relational grammar, cognitive grammar and so on, which gave their back, to a certain extent, to the data obtained by the research of language as *communicative linguistic behaviour*.
 - Those grammars lacked in their analysis what Leont'eva (1974) called «the presence of the other», they have had in excess a formalist conception of the language as an idealised *system*, in detriment of communication

- According to the linguist Wallace Chafe (1974) linguistics developed from the sixties was wrong because language was considered as abstract formal structures instead of analyzing it functionally, instead of taking into account what occurs in communication.
- Chomsky, claimed several times his indifference towards any project which aim was the communicative aspect of the language, because according to him this project didn't offer any interest to a better understanding of the linguistic competence of native speakers of a language.
- According to Chomsky (1975) the intrinsic alient of the language as research object is based on the fact that its structural properties are, mainly, innate and there are neither concepts like «communicative function» nor «intention of speakers».

- Chomsky thinks that a communicative model :
 - couldn't explain the structural functioning of the linguistic rules of the language, because they are innate to a mind,
 - and with such a model we couldn't understand the formal properties of the structure of language (the structural dependence of the transformational rules, the transformational or phonologic cycles, etc), the structure of the universal grammar of language, and less the structures of particular grammars.
 - The tiredness we have said above has given, however, a fruit: the materialisation of two latent concerns of the modern linguistics, that until then hadn't been displayed in an opened way:

- a) the enlargement or extension of linguistic research beyond what until then had been its unity of analysis, that means, beyond the sentence, going into the *to go beyond the sentence* or to transcend the sentence level (Tyler, 1978); and
- b) the analysis of language in action, that means, the linguistics that neither Saussure nor Chomsky had wanted to cope with, the linguistics of speech or the linguistics of *parole* of Saussure and the linguistics of acting or *performance* of Chomsky
- For example the structural analysis of Saussure, even he didn't use that term, fostered three problems to the study of language

- To him, language is a system that has to be studied by itself, is composed by discrete unities as “signs”, and is self-referential. In this sense, the sign doesn’t link one thing with it’s name, but one concept –let say meaning- with a form –let say significant- which has acoustic or graphic form.
- What are related in the sign is not one thing –one referent- with it’s name, but one concept with a given form. This relation, however is arbitrary for him. There is not any necessary link between the meaning –the concept- and what is expressed –the significant-. So, the referent is out of the analysis of language.
- From here three dichotomies are developed:
- First, the dichotomy between significant and meaning. The sign is dichotomised: significant vs meaning

- Second, the dichotomy between language and speech. The speech is determined by the language, by a code; speech is not more than a concretion and particular expression of the language
- Third, the dichotomy between diachrony and synchrony. Language is like a chess play where the most important thing is the position the pieces have, and where historical processes has nothing to do with their use.
- In sum, the conjunction of the two concerns have given rise to the beginning of a new research paradigm: the *textual or discursive pragmatics*

- Morris 1946: The symbolic animal. Semiotics, “process through which everything functions as a sign: a *sign*, a *designatum* and a *user* or interpreter, and among them a **triadic** relation is developed, called *sintactics*, *semantics* and *pragmatics*.

Sign

(Sintactics)

Designatum

(Semantics)

User

(Pragmatics)

$$L = L_{sin} + L_{sem} + L_{prag}$$

- Pragmatics copes with dynamic relations because it studies the use of language, i.e. the relationship between the linguistic signs and their users, inside the context in which they are used (relations of interpretation).
- syntactics deals with the several connections that signs maintain among themselves and the connections that inside the signs themselves are established (relations of implication)
- and semantics analyzes the links of the signs with the world to which they refer, that means, with the objects to which they are applied (relations of designation).

- Anyway, the fact that pragmatics deals with the most dynamic aspect, that is the interpretation, doesn't mean to get rid of of the two other branches, sintactics and semantics, because it is practically impossible to interpret one message if one doesn't know both, the relations than the signs have among themselves, and the relations that the signs maintain with the world to which they refer.

- Characteristics of the pragmatic paradigm

- The name of this new paradigm is that of «textual/discourse pragmatics»; it is pragmatics in the sense that Morris gave to it, that means, in the sense of the use of language, the relation between the sign and the users, and it is textual, because the text or the discourse is the basic unity of analysis (Estructuralism and Generativism)
- Language is basically a tool of *communication*, while in the before paradigms it was a system. It's focus is on both communication process and communication functions.

- What is interesting of language is its *use*, and in this sense the examination of the functions goes beyond the examination of the forms. (Presence of the other, Leont'eva)
- While the before paradigms concerned the *underlying* or the *structural attributes*, the paradigm of pragmatics focus its attention on the *processes* that take place in communication.
- the *context* is a main category of pragmatics in front of the absence of it in the above paradigm. Linguistic elements (verbal and non verbal)
extralinguistic (objective and subjective)

- *Interdisciplinarity* is other of the characteristics of this paradigm. While the before paradigm was an close universe, pragmatics takes into account the contribution of other disciplines related to linguistics and language in general like psychology, social psychology, sociology, computer science, semiotics, cybernetics, etc
- Along with «Text» and «discourse» -interactive effort- there is a third concept essential to this new paradigm: *context* .
- On the one hand, context has been determined by two kind of variables: linguistics and extralinguistics.

- The linguistic variables consist of verbal (utterances that are expressed) and non-verbal (gestures, modulations of voice, etc) variables.
- The extralinguistic variables consist of "objective" (the world where the utterance is expressed with people that intervenes, events, time, etc) and "subjective" (the world of concepts, relationships, expectations, beliefs, ideologies, etc) variables.
- On the other hand, propositionally context can be considered as an ensemble of the following variables: situation, cotext and pragmatic presupposition

- a) *situation*. The situation, is the physical immediate ambiance, is the spatial and temporal localization of one utterance, formed by a series of descriptive indexes as space, time, identity of speakers, every relevant object, which condition the first interpretative expectations (Lamb's leg and ox's tongue).
- b) *cotext*, is the textual frame in which the sentence or sentences of one utterance are indexed. This cotext refers to a «contexture», a law of language, according to which every linguistic unity is, in turn, a frame of reference for other unity of inferior range, which in turn, is contained in another frame of superior range

– c) *pragmatic presupposition*, consists of ideas, value priorities, expectations, cultural patterns shared by the speakers. This third variable is the real or fiction world, so-called "discursive universe" to which every statement is referred for example in «Alice's adventures in wonderland» of L. Carroll, or in «1984» of G. Orwell.

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– This variable creates a solidarity link among the speakers because warrant the interplay and the knowledge on what is the discourse about. This third bloke has given rise to one rich pragmatic investigation linked to a process of comprehension inside the communicative competence: the studies on "relevance"

- In order to interpret any utterance we always activate those contextual blokes. If we read "The sun rises in the East" in a newspaper, this statement may have literal or propositional meaning, it could mean the opposite of "the sun sets in the West", but after applying the contextual blokes one could understand that "west" refers to the countries of West Europe applying in turn other meanings (implications) to the statement adding several connotations like "joy" "wealth" and so on .
- one american and one spanish in a campus:
 - A: We really should get together for lunch.
 - B: Yes, fine. Are you free tomorrow?
 - A: No, tomorrow is awful. I'll call you, okay?
 - B: Okay (puzzled and slightly offended).

- Wittgenstein: Tractatus (1918) and Philosophical Investigations (1964). The meaning as “use”: the meaning of a word can not be derived from the properties of it but from it’s use. The meaning of a word, thus, will be it’s use-in-language
- Austin 1958
- Relationship between descriptive and non descriptive utterances. “To say vs to do”. I.e. “the cat is in the kitchen”
 - Constatative Act (criterion of truth) (relation between components)
 - Performative Act (criterion of felicity) (all the sentence)

- An illocutionary speech act to be carried out it is necessary to perform what Austin call «conditions of felicity» of the speech act:
- a) conventional norms have to be followed, which in turn produce conventional effects.
- b) circumstances and people have to be appropriated to the conventional norms;
- c) norms have to be applied fully and properly, and
- d) people have to think, feel and do what conventional norms have established.

– Austin 1962 How to do things with words. The use of language is worked: Speech Acts. Question: ¿what mean to say something?. Answer: three actions:

- *locutionary act* consist of emitting an utterance formed by grammatically acceptable sentences which refer to a discourse universe. Linguistics of system of *langue* studies the syntactic (fatic act), phonologic (phonetic act) semantics (retic act) aspects of a sentence
- *Illocutionary act*: a locutionary act aimed at reaching a goal (With this I + performative): promise (I promise you to...), order (Give me this book!), advise (better if you go to ...), (direct), greet, congratulate (indirect)

- *Perlocutory Acts*: indicate the effects caused on the sentiments, thinking and actions of the hearer. Persuade, suggest (I suggest you to open the door), prevent (take care of the dogs),
- Some utterances can be interpreted as direct or indirect speech acts.
- For example if we say to any person of superior rank «¿Can I speak to you.?» and he answer us «Try it», we may deduce that he has interpreted the sentence as an direct speech act; anyway it is more probable to interpret the sentence as an indirect act in the sense of petition and in this case we should have said «¿May I ...?», more aproximative and polite than the direct «¿Can I...?»

- In every speech act the emitting person of an utterance wants to produce a communicative effect in the interlocutor or recipient, the «illocutionary effect», which is different from the «perlocutionary effect».
- From the communicative point of view, what is important here is the illocutionary effect, what the receptor have to catch. For example, if I say to a female colleague Come to have a drink, the illocutionary effect that she have to catch is that of «invitation», and if I say to a friend Don't touch it, you may burn out, the illocutionary effect is that of “warning”

- J. Searle 1969: Speech Acts (besides the 2 before)
 - To state words that do Expressive Acts
 - Attribute to words Propositional Acts
- Searle (1976) Classification of Speech Acts
 - 1) *Representative* (or assertive) acts are those used by the speaker to expose that what he declares is *true* (assure, explain, describe, etc.):
"I assure you (that) ..."
 - 2) *Directive* acts are those used by the speaker to try the receptor doing something: order, asking, beg, imploring, give instructions, etc ,
Close the door, please!. What time is it?

- 3) *Commissive* acts express the *commitment* by the part of the speaker that he will do or execute something in the future (promise, guarantee, threaten, bet, etc.): "I promise you I'll go" (with a performative verb); "I'll go in the afternoon" (without any explicit performative verb).
- 4) *Expressive* (thank, congratulate, apologize, welcome, sorry, etc..) acts are used to express the psychological state about what the speaker *feels* or *thinks* according to the propositional content: "I am sorry to communicate you that ...", "I am very glad of informing you ..." I apologize for stealing the unicorn to your father!

- 5) *Declarative* acts are used in civil and religious *formulae* through which a new condition or state is acquired "I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth" or "I do" in weddings, etc.
- In order to get their goals, the speakers have to perform 4 *contextual concrete conditions*
- 1) Propositional content: characteristics of the meaning (i.e, petitions use reference to the future while apologies to the past)
- 2) Preparatory conditions: to specify the contextual necessary traits to an speech act to be carried out (the ability of the hearer for directive acts or to be offended in apologies)

- 2) Preparatory conditions: to specify the contextual necessary traits to an speech act to be carried out (the ability of the hearer for directive acts or to be offended in apologies)
- 3) conditions of sincerity: specify The desire by the part of the speaker that the recipient realize a certain act (in petitions) or believe that the offense was carried out and recognized as such by the hearer (in apologies)
- 4) Essential condition: The convention by which the utterance must be considered to be a) an attempt to listener do something (petitions) or b) a compromise to remedy a social imbalance (apologies)

– grize: The logic of conversation

- Conversational inference is a form of judgment under uncertainty: “I went to the opera last night”
- Conversational Implicature: grize (1975) argued that to understand a speaker’s full meaning, the listener must both, a) understand the meaning of the sentence itself (“what is said”) and b) what it conveys in a given context (“what is implicated”).
Ex. The door is open!.
- Conversational inference shares important properties with inductive inference (Levinson, 1983): a) it is ampliative (the conclusion contains more information than the premises) and b) is defeasible (can be cancelled by the addition of new information)

- The Cooperative Principle and its maxims seem to correspond to important psychological dimensions, and the tensions between them produce important logical and linguistic consequences.
 - It is the process by which the speaker saying X, wants to convey a concrete communicative intention and reaches its goal when this intention is recognized by the hearer, thus transforming it into *common knowledge*.
- Grice: Maxims of conversation
- Cooperation Principle: Make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, with the required sentence, with an immediate common goal and by the accepted purpose or direction in which you are engaged

- Maxim of Quantity: make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange (informativeness maxim): 1) with the required information; 2) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required. Men are men!
- Maxim of Quality: Try to make your contribution one that you believe to be true, specifically: 1) Do not say what you believe to be false 2) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence (maxim of sincerity). This is a good friend!
- Maxim of relation: be pertinent or relevant (relevance). A: Smith doesn't seem to have a girlfriend these days. b: He's been paying a lot of visits to New York lately
- Maxim of Manner: Avoid obscurity, and ambiguity, be brief and be orderly (maxim of good manners)

– Characteristics of conversational Logic of grize

<i>Assumption Maxim</i>	<i>Characteristics of interaction</i>	<i>Characteristics of speaker</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cooperativeness•	Observes 4 maxims	Intentional Helpful
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Quality•••	True Value Probability	Sincerity Honesty Reliability Competence
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Quantity•	Informativeness	Mutual knowledge Group membership
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Relation•	Goal relevance	Interactional goals
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Manner••	Clarity	Knowledge of language Equal or higher status

– Social Representations and Language.

- Recent interchanges between linguistics (the search for “beyond the sentence”) and social psychology (the search for the “social context”) have offered to Social Representations Theory a privileged “perspective” to analyze the relationship between thought and language use in a pragmatic way.
- Inside the study of Social Representations, language is of prime importance (Moscovici 1984, Rommetveit 1984): Language provides the means by which we communicate, and create social representations on the one hand, and on the other, the means by which we think, we structure our understandings about the world (See also Wagner 1998).

- Moreover, Language is also of prime importance in the construction of both, the personal and the social dimension of the identity (Van Dijk 1998).
- Social Representations is a category and a process.
- It is an analytic category which identifies images of the world as empirical phenomena and a process which makes the world intelligible. Social Representations, as a category, as a created view of social reality is constructed by language and imbued with meaning (1984, 17), and those images are formed “in the course of communication and co-operation” between individuals (p. 13).

- Thus, social representations constitute both, the ground on which people understand their world and gives the shifting, intersubjective world physical reality.
- In the same vein, according to Moscovici (1984) processes of SR constitute basically, a system of classification and denotation, of allotting categories and name; it is a system of “concepts, statements and explanations, originating in daily life in the course of inter-individual communications”(1981, 181)that makes “something unfamiliar, or unfamiliarity itself, familiar”

- Language is a main tool to social representations as both, analytic category and process. The process of social representations is twofold: to “*anchor*” strange ideas (to set them in a familiar context) and to “*objectify* them” (to turn something abstract into something almost concrete) (Moscovici 1984, p. 29)
- Language Use is of main importance to the *process of anchoring*: the sub-processes of classification and naming do not take place in the minds of individuals, they are not creations of individuals in isolation.

- Rather, they take place in a public activity in which individuals and groups create representations in the course of conversations about and interactions with the relevant objects or events. Thus, unfamiliar phenomena become established within our social representations and enter into our social real
- In the *process of objectification* social sharing is also of main importance.
- Throughout this process abstract concepts, are transformed into and replaced by concrete images.

- Once naturalisation from a concept to an image has taken place, the image is indistinguishable from reality, becoming a part of our symbolic reality. It acquires an physical, independent existence which is perceived as being of the world and acquires efficacy, being something which can cause effects.
- In short, this process is evidenced in the transformations of language: the concept is transformed into an object. Verbs, adverbs and adjectives, which refer to relationships or processes, are frequently transformed into nouns. These nouns not merely represent things, they also create them, investing them not only with meaning or significance but also with all the force of physical reality

- Social sharing or social verification as a converter of the subjective into objective .
 - One of the modern precursor of this social verification tradition was the theory of social comparison (Festinger 1950, 1954). According to it 1) social comparison processes are initiated when external reality is ambiguous and difficult to grasp; 2) a dualism between physical and social realities exists; and 3) physical reality takes precedence over social reality.
 - Pragmatic tradition and social representations theory however, assumes no distinction between those “physical” and “social” realities. For example Dewey wrote (1958) “The qualities of organic action..... with language they are discriminated and identified. They are then “objectified”. This “objectification” is not a miraculous ejection from the organism or soul into external things. The qualities were never “in” the organism; they always were qualities of interactions”.

- The very aetiology of the words “subjective” and “objective” reflects that whereas “subjective” refers to solipsistic experience known only to the individual mind, “objective” refers to “things” or “realities” that are known to exist independently of the individual and can be observed by others (Oxford English Dictionary 1971)
- There are two classic examples on research. In the Sherif’s autokinetic experiments (1936) follow-up studies demonstrated that the “objective reality” created by groups survives across generations of subjects, indicating that once the “reality” is achieved, it can be maintained with stability long after the originators of the norm have gone (Jacobs et al 1961).
- Moreover Sperling (1946) found that 60 % of subjects “alone” didn’t exhibit convergence: have achieved shared reality with the experimenter. The remaining 40 % of subjects “alone”, however, did exhibit the effect, probably because they didn’t believed the experimenter and shared with students (Hardin & Higgins 1996).

- The second experiment the theory of minority influence (Moscovici 1976). *Majority* influence is characterised by *compliance* more than conversion because the individual does not ruminate on the controversial reality, presumably, because the group opinion is perceived to represent current consensus.
- Perceiving relatively little power to influence the majority, the individual “is tempted to make concessions, being impelled by the need to reach a consensus, even if consensus is actually unjustified (Moscovici 1985, 394). *Minority* influence in contrast, is characterised by *conversion* because members of the majority ruminate on how the minority members could possibly believe what they claim to believe.
- This produces a kind of “validation process” in which the minority responses are examined with respect to the reality in question “before seeking to negotiate an agreement and reestablishing a consensus” (pp. 394).

- Hardin & Higgins (1996) in relation to the genesis of the “shared reality” posit that it is established through both,
- *social transmission* -non controversial and describes the fact that much of our knowledge is based not upon our direct experience but through social communication- and more important to us,
- *social construction* -which, as in the experiment of Sherif, needs social validation or social sharing-.
- It is in the interface of this social and personal experiences that the social sharing performs a role of social validation to the intergroup relations

– The Pragmatic dimension of social representations

- Moscovici (1994); “something “ was beyond the text when he asserted that “the whole communicative value of the phrase is not condensed in the meaning alone” (1994b, 163).
- the study of social representations had an important limitation: “throughout the studies on the way representations are shaped and diffused in ordinary communication I have privileged questions of meaning” (p. 164).
- This limitation came from two places. First, from privileging questions of form or mental architecture.
- Second, the interaction between psychological content and linguistic content, specially in the notion of anchoring, was guided by the analogy between thought and language.

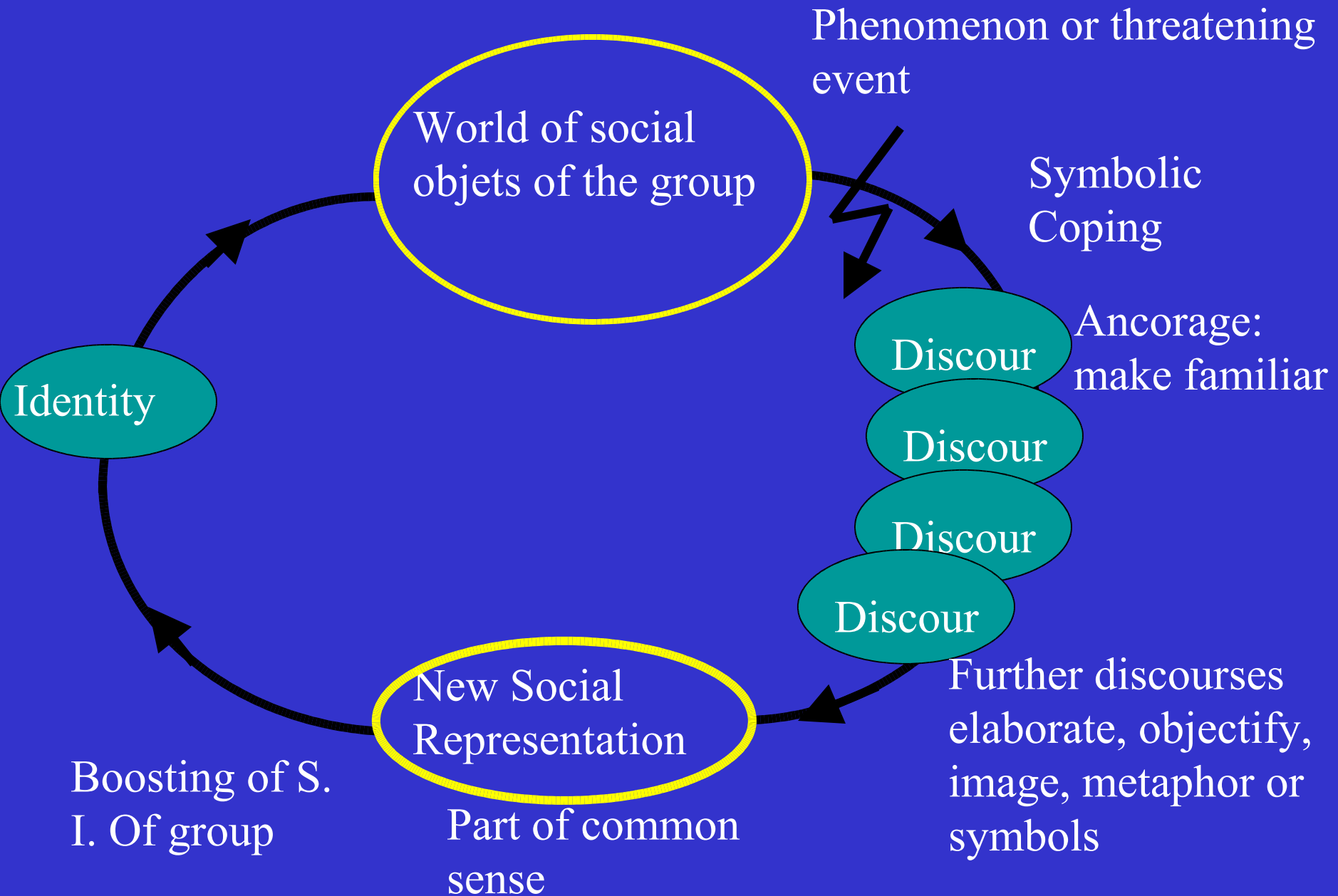
- In words of Moscovici “A closer examination of our past ideas and recent evolutions leads me to think that the time has come to reconsider some options. Yes, the time has come to loosen the link with semantic communication, which is too exclusive, and take more interest in pragmatic communication. I am not saying that the former must be given up in favour of the latter, which would be meaningless, but simply that, since representations are fashioned and shared at these two levels of content, one would do well to take both into account” (p. 165).
- Several attempts have recently come into the arena of linking the relation between language use and social representations (Van Dijk 1998; Harre 1998; Grize 1989).

– Collective Symbolic Coping

- While coping refers to behaviour of individuals to face stressful events
- Collective coping consists of 1) an individual and collective side; 2) is thought to work preintentionally and without effort; 3) suggests symbolic solutions to any taxing demands and 4) it is thought to be dynamic and allows ideas to change in continuous re-evaluation (Lazarus & Folkman; Wagner 2002)
- Collective coping is triggered by the media, which construe and communicate “some thing” as novel and as challenging an established way of life.
- People qua individuals as well as qua members of groups apprise the challenge that the novel item or event poses to their private lives as well as to the functioning of their communities

- While collective material coping is launched by scientific experts, bureaucrats and regulators, collective symbolic coping is the developing by lay people of and understanding, of the object.
- In sum, CSC is the activity of a collectivity which attempts to maintain the integrity of its worldview by making sense of any new phenomenon. Stages:
 - A) must be communicated as being relevant and challenging (Awareness)
 - B) images and metaphors emerge in media and conversations to render it intelligible (Divergence)
 - C) the various interpretations tend to converge towards few essential attributes (Convergence)
 - D) Interpretations consolidate in a kind of “normalisation”

– Sociogenesis (Wagner 1999)



- Something similar has been proposed from the area of the study of public sphere , according to which the public is not a fixed entity but a dynamic one with changes in size and composition through it's development. For example (Foote & Hart 1953)
- 1) Phase of Problem: one situation is defined as problematic
- 2) Phase of proposal: several proposals of action are formulated to cope with the problem
- 3) Phase of policy: the merits and weakness of the alternatives (public discussion)
- 4) Phase of Program: one approved proposal is executed
- 5) Phase of evaluation: periodically the policies are reevaluated especially by minorities

– Linguistic Category Model

- Semin (1997) proposes to consider the language in a pragmatic way: as a tool and tool use.
 - Language is a tool (like a hammer) that has a number of *properties* (it has a handle, a peen, a hard solid head, etc,) and an number of *affordances* (things one can do with it: nail, head of somebody, etc).
 - While a linguistic tool are *determinate and finite* (the “structure” -in the sense of Giddens (1976)- syntactical and semantic) the affordances of a tool -or the tool use- are *indeterminate* (the structure generates the totality of speech act, the spoken language).
 - The properties of the tools can only manifested in *pragmatic contexts* that means “in the hands” of skilled or “capable” tool users.

- Verbs are thus used as tools in the service of constructing a speech act in a communicative context.
- In such a message construction process, verbs, as well as other devices, are employed as tools in the pursuit of realising particular communicative goals or intentions. Thus the goals that a group has are given expression in the form of an utterance or a symbolic communication.
- This symbolic communication consists in the strategic composition of each sentence by emphasizing specific affordances of the tools to come to the fore, by the use of other distinct linguistic devices .

- LCM: Level, Category and Characteristics
- I. Descriptive Action Verbs: . Descriptive Action Verbs: Refer to one particular activity and to at least one physically invariant feature of the action. Objective description of a specific and observable behavior with clear beginning and end; usually do not have positive or negative connotations. I.e : Kiss, Talk, Stare Speak, shout
- II. Interpretive Action Verbs: Describe a general class of behaviours but refer to a defined action with a beginning and end. Provides an interpretation beyond the mere description; have positive or negative semantic connotations. I.e: help, imitate, cheat, hurt

- III. State Verbs: Refer to enduring mental or emotional states (emotional, affective, mental, etc) that have no clear definition of beginning and end; do not readily take the progressive form; not freely used in imperatives . I.e admire, hate, envy
- IV. Adjectives: Describe highly abstract person dispositions; no object reference or situation reference; they are highly interpretive and detached from specific behaviours. i.e. honest, impulsive, aggressive, nice

• Taxonomy of LCM

- Linguistic

• Category	DAV	IAV	SV	ADJ
• i.e.	Push/Shout	Help/hurt	Hate/Admire	Honest/Hostile
•	call	Insult	Accuse/	
• Defining	Mere Descrip.	Interpretation	Subjective	Abstracts from
• features	Physically	Evaluative tone	states detached	actions and
•	invariant feat	context-depend	from single act.	object persons
• Semantic	Low subject	Medium subject	Medium subject	High subject
• Implications	informativeness	Informativeness	Informativeness	Informativeness
•	Stability!	Stability!	Stability --	Stability _i
•	¡Situation Depen	¡Situation depend	!Situation depen	!Situation depen
•	¡Control	¡Control	!Control	!Control
•	Verificabil _i	Verificab _i	Verificabi!	Verificabilidad!

• Attribution	Mostly external	Internal	External	Internal
• effects	Specific	Specific	Specific	Global
•	Fitting contextual	Intentional	Reaction to	Dispositional
•	affordances	control	external	
•			stimulation trait	

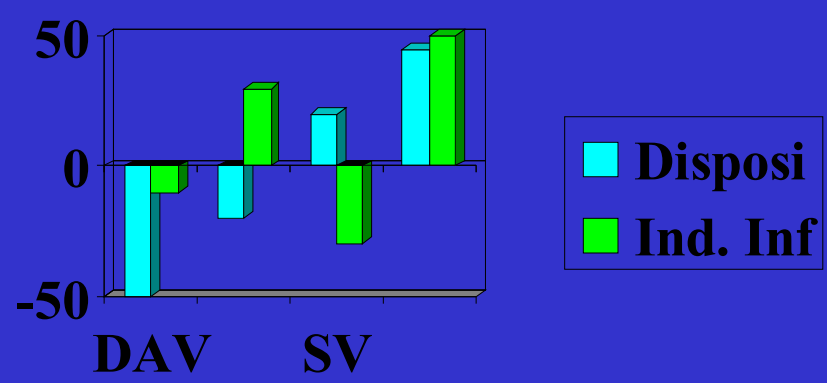
• Cognitive Characteristics of Linguistic Categories

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|------|------|
| • Duration | Low | High |
| • Stability | Low | High |
| • Probability of repetition | Low | High |
| • Situational information | High | Low |
| • Information about the subject | Low | High |
| • Possibility of disagreement | Low | High |
| • Verificability | High | Low |
| • Possibility of imagining | High | Low |
| • | | |

	Concrete		Abstract	
DAV		IAV	SV	Adj

- Inferences of Linguistic Categories: dispositionality and causality

	Disposition.	Inductiv inf.
• Duration	X	
• Stability	X	
• Probability of repetition	X	
• Situational information		-X
• Information about the subject		X
• Causality		X
• Possibility of disagreement	X	
• Verificability	X	



-

Linguistic Intergroup/Expectancy Bias

- 1.- structural characteristics used in behavioural description
- 2.- Level of abstraction of verbs.
- 3.- Implication of the concrete vs abstract use of verbs (cognitive inferences).

- LCM

	Desirable behaviour	Undesirable behaviour
In-group	X is good-natured <hr/> Abstract Language	X “only” touched Y <hr/> Concrete Language
Out-group	X helped Y <hr/> Concrete Language	X is aggressive <hr/> Abstract Language

- Explanations
- Motivational theory (TIS; Tajfel, Tajfel & Turner 1979) Positive distinctiveness: dimensions of comparison. Thus positive ingroup behaviours and negative outgroup behaviours are described in an abstract way and negative behaviours of ingroup and positive behaviours of outgroups are described in a more concrete way
- Cognitive theory (differential of expectations; Rothbart y Park 1986) information congruent with expectations (+ of ingroup and – of out) are described in a more abstract way while incongruent are described in a more concrete.

2. Research: Socio-Political contexts

Context: Gesto por la Paz and Euskalherria Askatu

Methodology: choose the sentence defining the drawing

Design: Desirability (positive vs negative) x membership of the actor (ingroup vs outgroup) x level of political conflict (high conflict vs medium conflict). The first repeated measures the second intersubjet

Results: similar to the first study. But the effect of the ingroup was significant.

Valencia, J. F. & Gil de Montes, L. (1997). La utilización del lenguaje en situaciones de conflicto político. El sesgo lingüístico intergrupar en relaciones entre grupos y en los Mass Media. *Psicología Política*, 14, 7-24.

membership of the protagonist	Level of behavioural desirability			
	Desirable		Undesirable	
	High	Low	High	Low
In-group	level of	level of	level of	level of
M	P.C. 3,22	P.C. 2,52	P.C. 1,73	P.C. 1,75
N	(24)	(65)	(24)	(65)
Out-group				
M				2,48
N	1,92	2,06	3,28	(65)
	(24)	(65)	(24)	

4. Mass Media and Socio-Political context

Context: Several newspapers analyse the death of some politicians: Muguruza, Mujica, Ordoñez (aggressors: GAL vs ETA).

Methodology: editorials of newspapers the day after the events.

Design: membership of newspaper (nationalist vs no nationalist) x subject of the sentence (aggressor vs victim) x case of politicians (Mujica and Ordoñez – no nationalists - vs Muguruza -nationalist-).

Results: nationalist newspapers made more abstract the aggressor of the nationalist politician (Muguruza; GAL), and no nationalist newspapers made more abstract the aggressor of no nationalist politicians (Mugica and Ordoñez; ETA). The effect was with the aggressor and there was not effect with the victim.

Valencia, J. F. & Gil de Montes, L. (1997). La utilización del lenguaje en situaciones de conflicto político. El sesgo lingüístico intergrupar en relaciones entre grupos y en los Mass Media. *Psicología Política*, 14, 7-24.

Results:

Objet	Press	Case and Level of Abstraction			
		Politician No Nation	Politician Nationali	Politician No Nation	Politician Nationali
Aggresor	Nationalist	Conc/Abstr 59% 41%	Conc/Abs 66% 34%		
	No Nationali	28% 72%	96% 4%		
Victim	Nationalist	51% 49%	79% 20%		
	No Nationali	52% 48%	76% 23%		

4.1. Mass Media and Socio-Political context

Context: Several newspapers analysed during the Truce of ETA

Methodology: editorials of newspapers the day after the events.

Design: membership of newspaper (nationalist vs no nationalist) x subject of the sentence (ETA, Spanish Gov, Basque Nationalists, Truce) x valence of sentence (Positive, negative) abstractness of verbs (abstract vs concrete).

Results:

		<i>Described Actors</i>							
		ETA		Spanish		Basque Nationalists		Truce	
		<i>Level of abstractness of categories</i>							
<i>Type of Press</i>	<i>Valence of categorie</i>	Konk	Abs	Konk	Abs	Konk	Abs	Konk	Abs
Basque Press	Negative Categories	0	50	8	52	5	25	5	75
	Positive Categories	9	41	5	25	3	47	5	45
Spanish Press	Negative Categories	45	55	59	41	54	46	1	79
	Positive Categories	90	10	60	40	82	18	1	39

5. Judicial contexts and language use

Context: Protocols of legal proceedings - Abbreviated Procedures- for lesions were analysed: declarations by the part of accusation and defendant.

Methodology: sentences of the abbreviated procedures for lesions were analysed.

Design: Defendant's part and prosecution's part (Accused vs victim) by the reference of the subject of the sentence (accused vs victim), by the abstractness of the predicate (Concrete vs Abstract verbs) design.

Valencia, J. F. et al (2003). Language Use in Judicial Contexts: One study on the defendants' and the victims' language in trials. *Encuentros en Psicología*, 1(2), 325-328.

Tabla 3.1 Level of abstraction as a function of the character of the speaker and the subject of the sentence

Speaker	Descripción del	Level of Abstraction	
		% Concret	% Abstr
Accused part	Accused	89 %	11
	Victim	82 %	18
Victim part	Accused	83 %	17
	Victim	94 %	6

($X^2(3) = 335,55, p < .00$)

Taula 4 Level of abstraction as a function of the character of the speaker and the prosecution versus defense attorney's questions .

		Level of Abstraction	
Speaker	Answers concerning to the	%	%
	Prosecution	Concrete 75 %	Abstrac 25 %
Accused	Defense attorney	90 %	10 %
	Prosecution	91 %	9 %
Victim	Defense attorney	86 %	14 %
	Prosecution	90 %	10 %

5.2. Judicial contexts and language use

Context: Protocols of legal proceedings - Abbreviated Procedures- for lesions were analysed: declarations by the part of accusation and defendant.

Methodology: Subjects were asked to take the perspective of the accused or against the accused (adversarial strategy) in an alleged case of offence of lesions and the descriptions of the event produced were analysed by means of the Linguistic Category Model (Semin & Fiedler 1989).

Design: The coded statements were condensed into a design of 2 sentence subject (Defendant vs Victim), x 2 perspective of the speaker (In favour of the Defendant vs against), x 3 valence of the statement (positive, neutral, negative) x 4 abstractness of the sentence (Concrete vs Abstract verbs) .

Hypothesis .

	ACCUSATION	DEFENCE
Intentionality of behaviour (IAV, SV).	<p>Responsibility and voluntary control of deliberate negative actions (IAV).</p> <p>No intentional positive answers elicited by external emotional powers or uncontrollable (SV).</p>	<p>Responsibility and voluntary control of deliberate positive actions (IAV).</p> <p>No intentional negative answers elicited by external emotional powers or uncontrollable (SV).</p>
Dispositionality of behaviour (level of abstraction)	<p>Global and stable negative behaviour distinguishing the subject from the others (ADJ).</p> <p>Concrete positive behaviours linked to situational demands (DAV).</p>	<p>Global and stable positive behaviour distinguishing the subject from the others (ADJ).</p> <p>Concrete negative behaviours linked to situational demands (DAV).</p>

Results

– log-lineal: Interaction of fourth level ($X^2= 23,38$; $p<0,001$).

Tabla 2. Interaccion nivel lingüístico, sujeto de referencia, valencia y perspectiva del declarante

Sujeto de Referencia: Acusado

Categoría	VAD	VAI	VE	ADJ
Perspectiva del declarante: en contra del Acusado				
NE	29,00 (42,69)	35,00 (51,47)	3,00 (4,41)	1,00 (1,47)
N	51,00 (76,12)	9,00 (13,43)	1,00 (1,49)	6,00 (8,96)
POS	,00 (,00)	1,00 (100,0)	,00 (,00)	,00 (,00)
Perspectiva del declarante: a favor del Acusado				
NE	42,00 (45,69)	38,00 (41,30)	9,00 (9,78)	3,00 (3,26)
N	104,00 (62,28)	50,00 (29,94)	9,00 (5,39)	4,00 (2,40)
POS	,00 (,00)	13,00 (86,67)	,00 (,00)	2,00 (13,33)

Sujeto de Referencia: Victima

Categoría	VAD	VAI	VE	ADJ
Perspectiva del declarante: en contra del Acusado				
NE	2,00 (50,00)	,00 (,00)	2,00 (50,00)	,00 (,00)
N	37,00 (56,06)	20,00 (30,30)	8,00 (12,12)	1,00 (1,52)
POS	,00 (,00)	6,00 (75,00)	1,00 (12,50)	1,00 (12,50)
Perspectiva del declarante: a favor del Acusado				
NE	22,00 (20,56)	70,00 (65,42)	7,00 (6,54)	8,00 (7,48)
N	85,00 (63,43)	33,00 (24,63)	2,00 (1,49)	14,00 (10,45)
POS	,00 (,00)	2,00 (66,67)	1,00 (33,33)	,00 (,00)

• Results:

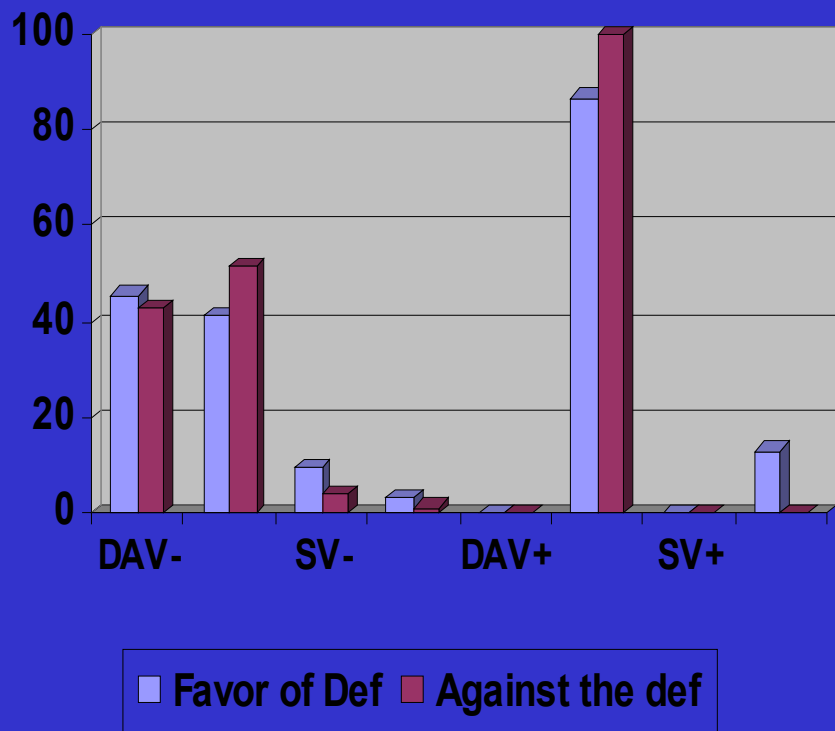


Figure 1: Positive and negative descriptions of the Defendant in function of the speaker's perspective

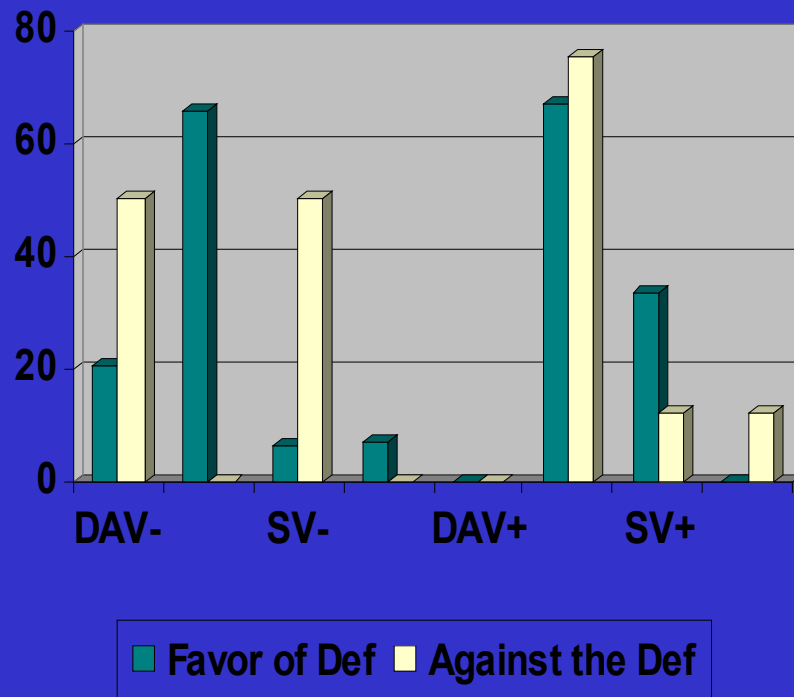


Figure 2: Positive and negative descriptions of the Victim in function of the speaker's perspective

Results

-log-lineal: Interaction of fourth level ($X^2= 42,38$; $p<0,001$).

Tabla 0.- Interaccion nivel lingüístico, sujeto de referencia valencia y perspectiva del declarante

Sujeto de Referencia: Acusado

Categoría	VAD	VAI	VE	ADJ
Perspectiva del Declarante a favor del Acusado				
Neg	20,00 (40,82)	16,00 (32,65)	10,00 (20,41)	3,00 (6,12)
Neu	235,00 (76,80)	34,00 (11,11)	31,00 (10,13)	6,00 (1,96)
Pos	,00 (,00)	10,00 (66,67)	4,00 (26,67)	1,00 (6,67)
Perspectiva del Declarante a favor de la Victima				
Neg	30,00 (30,00)	56,00 (56,00)	6,00 (6,00)	8,00 (8,00)
Neu	105,00 (85,37)	13,00 (10,57)	1,00 (,81)	4,00 (3,25)
Pos	,00 (,00)	,00 (,00)	,00 (,00)	,00 (,00)

Sujeto de Referencia: Victima

Categoría	VAD	VAI	VE	ADJ
Perspectiva del Declarante a favor del Acusado				
Neg	10,00 (16,39)	47,00 (77,05)	2,00 (3,28)	2,00 (3,28)
Neu	74,00 (86,05)	10,00 (11,83)	1,00 (1,16)	1,00 (1,16)
Pos	,00 (,00)	,00 (,00)	1,00 (50,00)	1,00 (50,00)
Perspectiva del Declarante a favor de la Victima				
Neg	5,00 (11,11)	23,00 (51,11)	17,00 (37,78)	,00 (,00)
Neu	303,00 (70,63)	74,00 (17,25)	39,00 (9,89)	13,00 (3,08)
Pos	,00 (,00)	17,00 (80,95)	4,00 (19,05)	,00 (,00)

- **Results:** Results of the two studies showed that
 - a subtle language expressing more dispositionality and causality appeared when describing the adversarial's events.
 - Moreover, in the second study where the adversarial context is made more real, the logic of dispositionality and causality are more polarized.
 - Finally, the pertinence of the Theory of Social Representations to explain the different normative pragmatic logics that guide the positioning of the parts is assumed. By means of the interface between the normative pragmatic logics and individual positioning of the declarants it will be possible to explain this pragmatic use of language so consistent in trials .

3. Studies: language use and communication constraints.

Context: Experimental work on the relationship between aims of the language, interdependence relationship and balance of the behaviour (Trivial Pursuit)

Methodology: Subjects were asked to describe their partner/opponent behaviour. A 2 communication (present vs absent) x 2 task-interdependence (cooperation vs competition) x 2 behavioural valence (positive vs negative) design was used.

Results:

Table: Abstraction level as a function of task-interdependence, behavioural valence and communication conditions

Communication purpose		Present		Absent	
Interdependence		Cooperation	Competition	Cooperation	Competition
Valence of Partner's behaviour	Positive	2,39	2,25	2,52	2,68
	Negative	2,21	2,60	2,41	2,46

Results: The anova within present purpose condition for task x valence of behaviour was significant and no significant within the absent purpose condition. In a purpose condition negative behaviours were described more abstractly in the competition condition than the cooperation condition. Moreover, in the competition condition positive behavior were described more concretely than negative behaviours.

Semin, G.; Gil de Montes, L. & Valencia J. (2003). Communication constraints on the linguistic intergroup bias. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 39, 142-148.

3.1.1. Studies: language use and communication pattern in interdependent relationships.

Context: Experimental work on the relationship between aims of the language, interdependence relationship and balance of the behaviour (Trivial Pursuit). Here only the present condition was used in a similar design, but the relationship of the addressee with the target was positive.

Methodology: Subjects were asked to describe their target's behaviour. A 2 task-interdependence (cooperation vs competition) x 2 behavioural valence of target's behavior (positive vs negative) design was used.

3.1.1 Results

Table 4.1: Mean of proportions of linguistic abstraction in function of the task interdependence and valence of target's behaviour.

Interdependence		Cooperation	Competition
Behaviour of the referent	Positive	2.21	2.02
	Negative	1.92	2.40

3.1.2. Studies: language use and communication pattern in interdependent relationships.

Context: Experimental work on the relationship between aims of the language, interdependence relationship and balance of the behaviour (Trivial Pursuit). Here only the present condition was used in a similar design but the relationship of the addressee with the target was negative

Methodology: Subjects were asked to describe their partner/opponent behaviour. A 2 task-interdependence (cooperation vs competition) x 2 behavioural valence of target's behaviour (positive vs negative) design was used.

3.1.1 Results

Table 4.2: Mean of proportions of linguistic abstraction in function of the task interdependence and valence of target's behaviour.

Interdependence		Cooperation	Competition
Behaviour of the referent	Positive	1.90	2.48
	Negative	2.47	2.32

Social representations are the organising principles of symbolic relations between individuals and groups. Common frames of reference needed by individuals and groups to their relationships, generated through systems of communication (Doise et al 1993; 2001).

The cognitive operations that traditionally have been worked under “social cognition” are guided by different social regulations (Moscovici, 1986; 1993); “by the normative regulations that control, verify and rule” such cognitive operations

Something similar we can say about the pragmatic use of language. The use of concrete vs abstract language is directed by “those kind of pragmatic regulations” aimed at detaching the actors from the context (or fixing the actor to the context) in order to foster inferences to the “hearer/addressee” of the communication.

"Einstein once said: "My pencil is cleverer than I." What he meant, of course, was that he could, by using his pencil, get results that he had not foreseen. Quite right: this is precisely the reason why we improve pencils and use them. If we could not get further with a pencil than without it, we should not use it.

The same of course holds for language. Paraphrasing Popper (1969) language is nothing but a glorified pencil: a larger and better and more powerful and, most important, incredibly complex pencil." (Karl R. Popper, Knowledge and the Body-Mind Problem, (1969), 1994).