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**Multimodal (Im)politeness:**  
**The Verbal, Prosodic and Non-Verbal Realization of Disagreement in**  
**German and New Zealand English**

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## **Abstract**

The present study takes a multimodal approach to speech act analysis. It investigates the disagreeing behaviour of Germans and New Zealanders exhibited during televised panel discussions on a verbal, prosodic, and non-verbal level. More specifically, the present study aims to uncover whether there are differences in the use of prosodic and non-verbal cues between the two groups and if potential differences influence how polite a disagreement is perceived to be. The investigation showed that, on a verbal level, Germans have a preference for more concise disagreements, with a more direct and explicit disagreeing style, producing a large number of strengthening devices, while New Zealanders produce more indirect disagreements, containing a large number of softening devices. Prosodically, the Germans differ from the New Zealanders by using audibly loud and fast speech significantly more frequently, while the two groups' use of mean pitch, pitch range and intensity range differs little. On a non-verbal level, Germans produce significantly more non-verbal cues during disagreements than their New Zealand counterparts. The main difference between the two groups, however, lies in how their disagreeing behaviour differs from their non-verbal behaviour in neutral speech. While Germans use significantly fewer non-verbal cues in neutral speech than in disagreements and also use a much more limited range of non-verbal cues, the New Zealanders' non-verbal behaviour in disagreements differs little from their behaviour in neutral speech. In order to test the effect of these differences on the perceived level of politeness, two questionnaires were developed; one prosodic questionnaire testing the effects of loud and fast speech in disagreements on the perceived level of politeness and one non-verbal questionnaire testing the effect of a large number of non-verbal cues on the perceived level of politeness. The results show that fast and loud speech has a negative effect on politeness, as perceived by New Zealanders. A large number of non-verbal cues only appear to have a negative effect on the level of politeness, as perceived by New Zealanders, when disagreements exhibit a high level of involvement and emotion. Overall, it appears that German disagreeing behaviour is likely to be perceived negatively by New Zealanders.

Für Mama und Papa

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## **Introduction**

Our world is becoming more and more globalized. Cross-cultural encounters have become a daily reality for many of us. Overseas work experience has come to be seen as an asset (if not a necessity) to employers. With a growing travel industry and infrastructures improving, the world is becoming more and more accessible. With the number of cross-cultural encounters on the rise, the demand for cross-cultural communication skills is also growing rapidly.

Efficient and successful communication with members of different cultures is indispensable for international business, international politics and any other form of international encounter. Sensitive and sensible communication across cultures is, however, not an easy task. Most people who have attempted to communicate with people from other cultures will have experienced problems and difficulties somewhere along the line. Miscommunication is almost inevitable and forms an integral part of cross-cultural encounters. This has caught the interest of many linguists, causing them to devote their research to the study of cross-cultural communication.

In the past, much attention has been given to discovering the typical speech behaviour in a variety of cultures with regard to specific acts of speech, such as complaints, refusals or compliments. Differences between cultures have been uncovered and contributed immensely to our understanding of culturally influenced behaviour and speech activity. The value of exploring culturally different speech patterns lies in the invaluable contribution these studies make to a world-wide better human understanding. Much of our understanding of one another's actions lies in how well we understand each other's speech and how appropriately we interpret the intentions that underlie the words that were spoken. The study of speech is indispensable if we want to arrive at a smoother, more successful outcome of cross-cultural communication. However, the study of the words spoken and their pragmatic meaning alone is not sufficient to uncover communication behaviour. This became clear to me when asked to assess several radio broadcast interview excerpts for interrater reliability checks solely on the basis of written material. It was not only difficult to identify disagreements in general, but it was nearly impossible to identify the more indirect disagreements. This experience accentuated the importance of prosodic and non-verbal cues to convey meaning to me and raised my interest in the interplay of verbal and non-verbal means. Sadly, what we know about prosodic features and non-verbal cues in connection with speech acts is very limited. While politeness is a much-studied phenomenon in connection with speech acts, the effect of

prosody and non-verbal activity on politeness remains practically unresearched to date. Communication, however, does not occur independent of prosodic and non-verbal cues. The study of communication should, therefore, not be carried out independent of prosodic and non-verbal activity either.

The present research project devotes its focus to the study of prosodic and non-verbal behaviour in connection with the speech act 'disagreement'. As this is a speech act with a rather large potential to cause offence, it is particularly crucial to apply an appropriate degree of force and politeness to it. What is considered to be an appropriate degree of force and politeness is, in part, dependent on the cultural perception of what is appropriate. This research project aims to uncover differences in communication behaviour in German culture and New Zealand culture. To this end, the present study investigates a number of disagreements in both cultures and aims to explore their verbal disagreement strategies, including verbal modification devices used to alter the force of the disagreement strategies, as well as the use of prosodic and non-verbal strategies. This study will compare the use of these strategies and features in the German and New Zealand cultures and hopes to shed light on both differences and similarities in the use of strategies and the frequency with which they occur.

The present research project is organized as follows:

In Chapter 1, I will review the literature of previous research projects on cross-cultural communication/miscommunication, in order to establish why interactions with members of different cultures poses problems, what these problems are and how they affect interlocutors. This chapter will also address why the speech act of disagreement was chosen as a basis for the comparison of the two cultures and why politeness plays such a crucial role in cross-cultural interactions, particularly in connection with face-threatening speech acts such as disagreements. Finally, this chapter will address why the present study includes the investigation of prosodic and non-verbal features, how they contribute to disagreements and politeness, how the study of these features benefits listeners and learners of a foreign language and why these features are important to the success of cross-cultural interactions.

In Chapter 2, methodological issues will be addressed. This chapter will discuss in detail what research questions were addressed in the present project, what data was used in order to try to answer these questions and the reasons for using this particular type of data. The chapter will also address the process of identifying disagreements and coding them on various levels and

describe the framework that was applied for the comparison of German and New Zealand cultures. The subsequent section of the methodology chapter addresses each of the three communication channels investigated; the verbal channel, including the features and modification devices that were investigated, the prosodic channel, including the tools that were used, the features that were analysed, and the problems and limitations the researcher faced, and the non-verbal channel, including the features that were analysed, and the problems that arose during the analysing process. Lastly, the chapter describes the questionnaire that was used in order to verify the findings of the analysis and addresses the problems that were encountered and how they were solved.

Chapter 3 reports the findings of the verbal result section and discusses their potential implications. In the verbal result section three main issues are addressed. Firstly, the use of disagreement strategies is assessed, including pre-disagreement strategies, core-disagreement strategies and post-disagreement strategies. Both their use and distribution are investigated and differences as well as similarities in the use of these strategies in both cultures are identified. Secondly, cultural preferences for certain types of strategies are explored, with a focus on the preference for explicit vs. implicit strategies. Thirdly, the use of internal modification devices is assessed. Ten categories of softening devices and ten categories of strengthening devices are investigated and their use, frequency and distribution are discussed. In the verbal discussion section, the findings of the result section will be discussed and possible implications of the findings are proposed. Where findings differed from expected results, qualitative analyses were carried out and assessed, and these are discussed.

Chapter 4 reports the findings from the prosody analysis and discusses their implications. Three primary issues are addressed in this section. The first part attempts to answer the following questions: Is there a correlation between disagreements and the prosodic features of mean pitch, pitch range, mean intensity, intensity range and speech rate, and if so, how consistent is this correlation? In the second part, the speakers are analysed for their individual tendencies to incorporate these prosodic features into their disagreements. A comparison between German speakers' trends and New Zealand speakers' trends is carried out and assessed for similarities and differences in prosodic disagreeing behaviour. In the third part, the question of audibility will be addressed. There may well be differences in preferences for using certain prosodic features in connection with disagreements, but more important is the question of whether these preferences are audible, and therefore meaningful to the receiver of a message. To this end, the two cultural groups are assessed for the number of disagreements

that differ inaudibly from their neutral speech and those that differ audibly from their neutral speech. The findings are then discussed and evaluated for their potential implications.

Chapter 5 reports the results of the non-verbal analysis and discusses potential implications of the use of non-verbal cues in speech. Non-verbal findings are reported in two main sections. In the first section, the non-verbal cues that were observed in the disagreement instances are reported, while in the second section the non-verbal cues that were observed in neutral speech are reported. Both sections look at the overall frequency of non-verbal cues as well as the frequency of use of the four categories under observation, namely gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze and head movement. The use of non-verbal cues in disagreements is compared to the use of non-verbal cues in neutral speech, not only to explore potential patterns of non-verbal behaviour connected with disagreements, but also to investigate potential differences in non-verbal activity between the Germans and the New Zealand speakers. The non-verbal discussion section points to differences and similarities between these two cultural groups and proposes potential explanations for their respective behaviour.

Chapter 6 reports the results of the questionnaires and discusses the findings. The questionnaires are conducted as a form of data validation process and test the findings from the prosody chapter and from the non-verbal chapter. More specifically, two separate questionnaires were conducted. Each of them was presented to participants in three different conditions, a word-only condition, followed by a word + prosody condition or a word + non-verbal condition, followed by a third condition that exposed participants to all three channels of communication. The prosody questionnaire was conducted in order to test the effects of loudness and rapid speech on the participants' perception of politeness. The non-verbal questionnaire was issued in order to test the effect of a large number of non-verbal cues and specific types of non-verbal cues on the perception of politeness of the participants. The effect of these prosodic and non-verbal features are explored in the subsequent discussion section and the findings of both questionnaires are then compared and potential implications are proposed.

In Chapter 7, the most important findings and their possible implications are reviewed and revisited, including the use of disagreement strategies, the production of modification devices, the correlation of various prosodic features with disagreements, the audibility of prosodic changes in speech as well as the number and type of non-verbal cues and their implications on

the perception of politeness. The findings are reviewed for general trends, tendencies, preferences and disagreement patterns and the implications of these are discussed.

## **Chapter 1**

# **The Importance of Multimodality to Politeness, Disagreements, and Cross-Cultural Communication: A Literature Overview**

## **1 Cross-Cultural Communication**

‘The trauma of cross-cultural communication’ (Tannen, 1984: 152). With this statement, Tannen (1984) sums up what appears to be inherent to cross-cultural communication: its potential to go wrong. Avoidance or resolution of misunderstanding is a major factor for success in international business or international politics (Hinnenkamp, 2003). In this rapid development of our world into a global melting pot, an awareness of the role of culture in global issues of communication is essential (Meier, forthcoming). To arrive at a better understanding and more successful communication, it is crucial to increase our focus on cross-cultural communication research. The aim of the present research is to gain a better insight into cross-cultural communication between German and New Zealand cultures.

### **1.1 Definition**

Cross-cultural communication occurs when two or more persons belonging to at least two different cultures interact (Auer & Kern, 2001).

### **1.2 Cross-Cultural Communication and Cross-Cultural Competence**

Cross-cultural encounters are as old as humanity itself, states Hofstede (2001). The processes that happen in cross-cultural encounters, he claims, still follow the same basic principle: comparison, prejudice and stereotypes. Since culture cannot be dissociated from its bearer (Mey, 2004), culture is always present, so long as a language user is present (Meier, 2003). The presence of culture often happens outside a person’s awareness, as a person does not engage in cross-cultural communication, but his/her actions are culturally performed (Rehbein, 2001). They are culturally performed in the sense that culture informs linguistic choices, expectations and interpretations (Meier, forthcoming). According to Ronowicz (1995), it is not until a person moves to a different region or country that they realize they have submitted to a certain set of norms and have trouble interpreting other people’s actions and reactions. Participants will realize that their usual interpretation scheme no longer

functions sufficiently (Günthner, 1994) which leads to a feeling of disorientation, frustration and helplessness and can lead to a build up of negative stereotypes of the host culture (Ronowicz, 1995; Hofstede, 2001). Since the organisation of concepts varies across cultures (Lantolf, 1999), interlocutors need to understand and acknowledge the differences which exist in each others cultures, for cross-cultural communication to be successful. If a person wants to be able to communicate successfully with members of other cultures he/she needs to possess the 'ability [...] to behave adequately and in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures' (Meyer, 1991: 137, quoted in Meier, 2003). This is called cross-cultural competence. Cross-cultural competence includes competence in verbal, prosodic and non-verbal differences (Topalova, 1999; Hurley, 1992).

According to Mey (2004: 45), 'we are now better equipped, and more critically disposed, to deal with one of the greatest endeavours of the humanities: cross-cultural and interlanguage understanding, as a prerequisite for world-wide human understanding at all levels'. While it is certainly true that the field of cross-cultural communication has progressed and advanced, we are still far from a world-wide human understanding. At present, 'intercultural communication [still] seems to be characterized by misunderstandings' (Rehbein, 2001: 173) and misunderstanding and their prevention or resolution have become the 'raison d'être' of cross-cultural communication (Hinnenkamp, 2003: 58). Consequently, the focus of this part of the literature review will address the lack of cross-cultural understanding and the reasons that lie behind miscommunication.

### **1.3 Miscommunication**

Miscommunication arises either through a breakdown in communication or when the meaning of an utterance is interpreted by the listener in a way that was not intended by the speaker, i.e. apparent understanding that is misguided. In other words, miscommunication is the product of a difference either between what was said and what was meant or between what was meant and what was understood (Blum-Kulka & Weizmann, 2003; Wilson, 2004). According to Johnston (1985: 325), 'the interpretation of [a] message is essentially constructed by the perceiver; hence message sent is not necessarily message received'. Misunderstandings are by no means always obvious and only some of them get resolved. Hinnenkamp (2001) distinguishes three degrees of misunderstanding: overt misunderstanding, covert misunderstanding and latent misunderstanding. He describes overt misunderstanding as misunderstanding that is immediately recognized and subsequently repaired. Covert

misunderstanding occurs when recognition is gradual and either gets repaired, continues or comes to a halt eventually. Latent misunderstanding occurs when no obvious misunderstanding occurs, but a participant has the feeling he/she has been misunderstood, and the issue remains unresolved. Holmes (2003) states that such latent miscommunication might go unnoticed, but can nonetheless have an impact on ingroup relations on a less conscious level. Miscommunication can happen among people from the same social and cultural background, even if the interactants know each other well. However, interaction becomes more difficult and the opportunity for miscommunication multiplies when interactants come from different backgrounds, in particular, if they come from different cultural backgrounds. Hence, what causes problems to intracultural communication, generally causes more severe problems to intercultural communication (Günthner & Luckmann, 2001).

#### **1.4 Reasons for Miscommunication**

‘There are many different levels at which people can miscommunicate’ (Holmes, 2003: 173). Both communication failure and misguided understanding will be discussed in more detail below and under Section 1.4.2.2. House (2000: 146) lists the following causes for miscommunication:

- a) inadequate perception
- b) inappropriate comprehension
- c) insufficient relevant knowledge
- d) uncooperativeness
- e) production difficulties

##### **1.4.1 Inadequate Perception**

House (2000) defines inadequate perception as a hearer based type of misunderstanding. This type of misunderstanding lies in the fact that the hearer did not listen to and/or hear the message properly. This is, arguably, the least severe kind of misunderstanding, because, at least the hearer is mostly aware of his/her failure to understand the message. Inadequate perception can be easily repaired through a request for repetition/clarification. In situations where the hearer is unaware of his/her misperception, then it should, in most cases, soon become clear to the sender of the message that the hearer’s reaction is incoherent and the

misunderstanding should also be easily resolved. In most cases, this form of misunderstanding falls under Hinnenkamp's (2001) category of overt misunderstanding.

#### 1.4.2 Inappropriate Comprehension

According to House (2000), this type of misunderstanding can be located at various linguistic levels. This form of misunderstanding is much more difficult to resolve, in particular, when a foreign language learner is involved, who lacks the language proficiency to express him/herself properly.

##### 1.4.2.1 Language Proficiency

Failure of cross-cultural communication between a native speaker and a learner is frequently attributable to the language learner's lack of competence of the linguistic structure (Hackman, 1977). This kind of proficiency includes knowledge of syntax, semantics, vocabulary, the correct use of tenses, conditionals, etc. A lack of language proficiency hinders both the production and the understanding of a message. The problem, as Hofstede (2001) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) see it, is that a learner has to adopt someone else's frame of reference. If one fails to do so, Hofstede (2001) claims, one misses a lot of the subtleties of the culture and is forced to remain a relative outsider. Fortunately, native speakers of a language typically make allowances for non-native speakers and try to repair and make sense of flawed messages. Nevertheless, according to Hackman (1977), listeners have a threshold for repairing the deviant signals they receive and if that threshold is overstepped, the message will be misinterpreted. Acquiring implicature is particularly difficult, as the speed of acquisition of implicature interpretation skills is very slow (Bouton, 1999). Implicature, therefore, poses a particularly big obstacle to cross-cultural communication. Consequently, it is not surprising that Kasper (1997) found non-native speakers to prefer literal over non-literal interpretation, simply because many of them have not reached a proficiency level that enables them to uncover implicature. The issue of implicature will be discussed in more detail under pragmalinguistic failure based misunderstanding (see this chapter, Section 1.4.2.2).

#### 1.4.2.2 Pragmalinguistic Failure

A second type of miscommunication that Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983, 1995) identify is called pragmalinguistic failure, which is the inability to understand or encode appropriately the illocutionary force of an utterance, or as Thomas (1983: 99) puts it ‘pragmalinguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by S [...] is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language’. This type of misunderstanding has its roots in the ambiguity of a message, where utterances are indirect and ambivalent and therefore require the receiver of a message to infer meaning that is not explicitly stated. This form of misunderstanding is not tied to learners to the same extent as language proficiency is. While it may lead to misinterpretation in communication with members of the same culture, it is most definitely a major cause for misinterpretation in cross-cultural communication (House, 2003), in particular when one culture is a so-called ‘high context culture’ and the other a so-called ‘low context culture’. An example of a high context culture is the Japanese culture, where conversational meaning is merely implied and interpretation is derived from contextual factors rather than from the words that are spoken. An example of a low context culture is the German culture, where conversational meaning is explicitly stated and contextual factors are less relevant for the interpretation of an utterance. Bardovi-Harlig and Salsbury (2004), in their study of non-native speaker disagreements in English, found that Japanese have a tendency to package their disagreements into a question format, which leads to confusion and misinterpretation by the American receivers of the message. This is a clear example of conversationally implied meaning that is not correctly interpreted by the receiver. According to Bouton (1999), in order for implicature to work, the literal meaning has to be understood, the roles and expectations of participants in the conversation needs to be clear, the situation and nature of the conversation needs to be clear, and the world around them as it relates to the occasion must be understood. However, in cross-cultural communication, he states, interactants tend to see roles, the context, or the world in general, differently, which makes successful communication difficult.

#### 1.4.3 Insufficient Relevant Knowledge

Shared knowledge is a minimal condition for any communication (Günthner & Luckmann, 2001). The reason for miscommunication is, therefore, not necessarily a difference in norms and mannerisms, but rather unawareness of those differences (Meier, 2001). Most members of a culture hold an ‘ethnocentric’ view of the world, i.e. they assume that their own cultural

norms are universally applicable and what is right in one's own culture is correct behaviour everywhere, that people feel, think and act the same everywhere (Maletzke, 1996; Hofstede, 2001; Günthner & Luckmann, 2001). Consequently, members of different cultures, when interacting, expect each other to behave the same way as they themselves do (Auer & Kern, 2001). Since both interactional partners assume knowledge is shared, both listener and speaker are under the impression that they speak the same language (Hackman, 1977). However, different cultures have different communication conventions and differing expectations (House, 2000; Günthner, 1994). This leads people to 'derive different messages from the same utterance in the same context', according to Bouton (1999: 49). This type of miscommunication is called 'sociopragmatic failure', i.e. an unfamiliarity with the norms of another culture, according to Hurley (1992). According to Thomas (1983: 99), pragmalinguistic failure is a linguistic problem, while socio-pragmatic failure 'stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour'.

A further form of the same type of misunderstanding lies in people who are aware of cultural differences, but treat their interactants based on stereotypes rather than on personal experience (Günthner & Luckmann, 2001). Particularly where a message is ambiguous, ascribed personality traits are activated and used for the interpretation of a message (Johnston, 1985). If a person from a different culture knows about the German culture, for example, that they are stereotypically known to be 'blunt, direct and impolite' (Lüger, 1999: 141), he/she may try to accommodate the German by using a blunt, direct and impolite speech style regardless of the social and contextual situation. According to Günthner and Luckmann (2001), Chinese are taught that Germans are direct and prefer directness in others, but do not learn in what situations to apply this and how. While such behaviour might be appropriate in many situations in a German context, it can lead to misunderstanding where such behaviour is not appropriate for the situational context. The problem, however, does not merely lie in interactants trying to imitate another person's speech style based on stereotypes; our perception of speakers from different cultures is also guided by stereotypes we hold about them. According to Gumperz (2001: 37), perception is partly a matter of 'a priori extra-textual knowledge', i.e. stereotypes and attitudes condition our perception. Such expectations can lead to the failure of speech acts (Hackman, 1977), because interactants rely on ready-made plans, schemata and scripts to predict upcoming moves and stop paying attention to interactants' real input (House, 2003). House (2000) identifies emotional reactions as an obstacle to successful cross-cultural communication, as it is responsible for the deterioration of rapport and for developing a negative attitude towards the interlocutor. Emotions override

our cognitive awareness and thereby hinder us from recognizing real differences in cultural norms (House, 2003). Instead, in cross-cultural communication, interlocutors need to establish, rather than pre-suppose, common ground (Aston, 1993).

#### 1.4.4 Uncooperativeness

According to House (2000), uncooperativeness is a hearer based form of miscommunication, where a hearer may have understood perfectly well what the speaker intended to communicate, but decides to be deliberately 'awkward' and difficult. Sadly, there is little hope to resolve such kind of miscommunication, because, if there is a lack of speaker/listener cooperation, interaction is indeed doomed to fail (Rehbein, 2001).

#### 1.4.5 Production Difficulties

A further form of miscommunication lies in production difficulties, which House (2000) defines as a failure to produce a response that is appropriate for the contextual and situational context. A hearer may have understood a message sufficiently well and may be cooperatively-minded, she states, but incapable of assembling a response that could be reasonably expected at that particular stage of the discourse. This type of miscommunication is also essentially, though by no means exclusively, tied to learners and is based on pragmatic failure. A lack of pragmatic knowledge has been much discussed in research on second language acquisition and poses severe problems to learners. The acquisition of relevant pragmatic knowledge, i.e. the knowledge of when it is appropriate to say what to whom in a particular culture, is much more problematic to cross-cultural communication than the acquisition of language proficiency. Pragmatic knowledge is the knowledge of the culture-specific rules applied to the language structure (Hackman, 1977). Hackman (1977) laments that language instruction typically provides a learner with reasonable mastery of segmental production of syntax and semantics, but not with the rules for applying them. In other words, learners acquire the language in a cultural vacuum. Once they get confronted with the culture, in which the language is spoken, they are bound to fail, since they do not understand the rules applicable in that culture. While native speakers make allowances for communication failure based on a lack of proficiency, the consequences resulting from communication failure based on a lack of pragmatic knowledge are much more severe. The difference between proficiency problems and pragmatic difficulties is that 'if you get the present perfect and the simple past wrong you lose marks, if you get the culture wrong you may lose face, money or even your life' (Gibson,

1994: 127). While linguistic accuracy is important in a second language, functional abilities are even more important, as Gibson's (1994) statement demonstrates. In other words, it is essential to learn to understand and create language that is appropriate to the situation (Judd, 1999). Foreign language instruction mostly lacks instruction in cross-cultural communication (Ronowicz, 1995). Hence, cross-cultural *miscommunication* is often caused by learners transferring the sociocultural norms and conventions of their mother tongue on to the target language (Takahashi, 1996; Wigglesworth & Yates, 2004). 'The trouble with pragmatic failure is that it lies deep – too deep, often enough, for it to be accurately diagnosed for what it is' (Reynolds, 1995: 5). Pragmatic failure is often interpreted as ill-will or bad manners (Reynolds, 1995), with the result that language learners will be labelled 'insensitive, rude or inept' (Judd, 1999: 152).

Clearly then, there is no point teaching a learner idiomatic language knowledge without teaching them when and how to use it (Topalova, 1999). Judd (1999), therefore, pleads that the instruction of pragmatic knowledge is necessary. It is particularly important to raise a learner's cognitive awareness, both Judd (1999) and Wigglesworth and Yates (2004) argue, since differences often get ignored or go unnoticed. 'The recognition that one carries a particular mental software because of the way one was brought up, and that others who grew up in different environments carry different mental software for equally good reasons', is where it all starts (Hofstede, 2001: 427). According to Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), once we are aware of our own mental models and can respect and understand those of others, it becomes possible to reconcile differences. Hence, knowing about a problem is the first step towards solving it. Even though culture cannot be acquired as easily as language, it is feasible to some degree (Lantolf, 1999), and it can be taught, even though some people will learn culture more easily than others, depending on their personality traits and their attitudes (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Hofstede, 2001).

### **1.5 Is it Possible to Overcome Miscommunication?**

In order to overcome misunderstanding that is based on a lack of knowledge, rather than ill-will, it is necessary to improve awareness and instruction. More contrastive research is necessary to help correct or eliminate false images and stereotypes (Topalova, 1999). With enough research conducted in cross-cultural communication and interlanguage pragmatics, one might hope that eventually we will arrive at a 'polycentric' viewpoint, which Hofstede (2001: 424) defines as 'the recognition that different kinds of people should be measured by

different standards, and learn to understand the foreigner's behaviour according to the foreigner's standards'. More tolerance and improved education would be desirable. A first step in that direction is continued research in cross-cultural pragmatics. While the study of cross-cultural pragmatics is complex 'the prize for understanding it is to lessen the real damage that can be done through pragmatic misunderstanding' (Reynolds, 1995: 15). The present research aims at providing a small contribution to a better understanding of pragmatic differences between the German and the New Zealand cultures and to provide a basis for more successful communication between these cultures.

## **2 Disagreement**

The literature review on cross-cultural communication has demonstrated that communication with an interlocutor from a different cultural background is prone to misunderstanding and miscommunication. Learners of a foreign language struggle to acquire language proficiency in their target language and they struggle even more to acquire the relevant pragmatic knowledge about how to apply those language structures in a culturally appropriate way. This knowledge is particularly difficult to acquire, firstly, because learners often lack the awareness that there are differing pragmatic norms and secondly, because pragmatic knowledge is often excluded from language instruction, and its importance is grossly underestimated. One area where pragmatic knowledge is literally indispensable is the area of potentially face-threatening speech acts, i.e. situations that have a great potential to cause offence to an interlocutor. One such face-threatening speech act is disagreement. In order to arrive at a more successful outcome of cross-cultural communication, it is essential to conduct more cross-cultural communication research, particularly of speech acts that require a sensitive approach, such as disagreements.

### **2.1 Definition**

A large number of different definitions of disagreement have been provided by a number of researchers, in varying degrees of detail. Several of them define disagreement as oppositional position (Clayman, 2002; Herrero Moreno, 2002a; 2002b; Kakava, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Salsbury, 2004) and several of them add that a disagreement is always a response to a prior position (Kakava, 1995; Gardner, 2000), a reactive act, never an initiating one (Herrero Moreno 2002a; 2002b). Other researchers define disagreement as 'social, intellectual, verbal activity serving to justify or refute an opinion' (van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1992: 584) or

as actively defending one's opinions or attacking another's position (Edstrom, 2004). Some more detailed definitions are provided by Rees-Miller (2000: 1098) who defines disagreement as an act where 'a speaker S disagrees when he/she considers untrue some proposition P uttered [...] by an addressee A and reacts with an utterance the propositional content or implicature of which is *not* P'. Another detailed definition comes from Sornig (1977: 369), who regards disagreements as 'any utterance that comments upon a pre-text by questioning part of its semantic or pragmatic information, correcting or negating it'. The most detailed definition, however, is proposed by Pearson (1984: 4-6). Since Pearson's (1984) disagreement definition relies on Conversation Analysis terminology, I will provide a brief description of the concept of adjacency pairs. In sum, Conversation Analysis claims that speech events are carried out in adjacency pair sequences, such as a question-answer adjacency pair. Such adjacency pairs consist of a first pair part (FPP), e.g. a question, and of a second pair part (SPP), e.g. an answer. These FPPs are assumed to invite a particular SPP, which is called the preferred next move. If the SPP does not conform to the expected or invited next move, then it is called a dispreferred next move, e.g. if a question is not followed by an answer, but by another question.

The function agreement/disagreement occurs as an optional second pair part of an adjacency pair. As such, agreement/disagreement is a response move to an initiation move made by a prior speaker. [...] in order for agreement/disagreement to follow as a second pair part [...] the first speaker must assign some kind of personal judgment to the referent. [...] Agreement/disagreement cannot follow an utterance in which the speaker only reports some factual knowledge or information. [...] Disagreement occurs when the speaker assigns a different or a qualified assessment to the referent.

While Pearson (1984) provides an excellent definition of what constitutes a disagreement, I disagree with her claim that a disagreement has to follow a personal judgment. 'Factual' information can be misrepresented and a person may well have heard of the same 'fact' from a different source with slightly different details/numbers, etc. Hence, I believe that factual information can be disagreed with and no personal judgment is necessary. In fact, Bardovi-Harlig and Salsbury (2004) report that disagreements in their data did follow as a second pair part to factual information.

Most disagreement definitions reviewed above define disagreement as a rather explicit opposition to a prior utterance. Both Pearson (1984) and Sornig (1977), however, make a very important point in that they propose that a disagreement does not necessarily have to explicitly oppose a prior utterance. They propose that disagreement can be of a more subtle nature, simply questioning or qualifying a prior utterance. Van Eemeren et al. (2002) also

claim that it is not necessary for a party to adopt an opposing standpoint to a prior turn in order for a disagreement to occur. Rather, it is sufficient for a party to express doubt or uncertainty. To express disagreement, it can even be sufficient to quietly withhold approval (Edstrom, 2004), as silence can serve as a form of opposition (Kakava, 2002). According to Pomerantz (1984), the absence of a forthcoming agreement is interpretable as an as-yet-unstated disagreement.

While these disagreement definitions differ in how implicit or explicit a disagreement has to be in order to be a disagreement, they all agree that a disagreement needs to contain some kind of doubt, uncertainty, opposition or qualification to a prior statement and that a disagreement has to occur as a second pair part to an initiation move. In the present study, disagreement shall, therefore, be defined as an utterance that qualifies, questions or opposes a prior utterance.

## **2.2 Disagreement Markers**

Having clarified what constitutes a disagreement, let us now address the question how speakers signal to their interlocutor(s) that a disagreement is being uttered or is about to be uttered. There are a multitude of different means that a speaker has at his/her disposition to mark an utterance as disagreement. These include a variety of lexical markers and prosodic markers, as well as non-verbal markers.

### **2.2.1 Verbal Disagreement Markers**

According to Craig and Sanusi (2000), prefacing is a sign that an upcoming contribution will be problematic. Small words can serve to initiate the taking up of disagreement, states Berrier (1997). Those markers are placed at the beginning of an intervention, she claims, in order not to be too abrupt, not too hurtful to the interlocutor. This is particularly true for what she calls 'le faux accord' (p. 17), the 'false agreement', which is called 'initial agreement' in the present study, as well as for markers that introduce both agreement and doubt, such as 'well yeah', 'though' or 'I suppose so'. 'Well', in particular, has been found to be strongly linked to disagreement instances (Bolinger, 1989; Gardner, 2000; Holtgraves, 1992; Kuo, 1994; Streeck & Knapp, 1992). It has the function of marking acceptance of a dialogue situation, but with a qualification, according to Carlson (1984: 94, quoted in Bolinger, 1989). Bolinger (1989: 325) calls it a 'grudging agreement' which is to be seen as disagreement, he states.

Probably even more characteristic than ‘well’ is the disagreement marker ‘but’, which signals a contrastive statement or challenge and is most frequently associated with disagreements (Kuo, 1994; Locher, 2004; Mori, 1999; Rama Martínez, 1993; Scott, 2002; Clayman, 1992).

Further verbal disagreement markers include attention seeking devices, such as ‘see’, ‘look’, and ‘sorry’ (Goodwin et al., 2002; Lüger, 1999), mitigation devices and justifications (Blum-Kulka et al., 2002), as well as verbal delay strategies, such as request for clarification, partial repeats, turn prefaces, and other repair initiations (Gardner, 2000; Greatbach, 1992; Kakava, 2002).

### 2.2.2 Prosodic Disagreement Markers

While there is an abundance of verbal disagreement strategies, disagreement markers do not have to be verbalized. They can also be signalled through prosodic cues.

One prosodic cue available to signal disagreement is rhythm. Rhythmic coordination and integration of turns is a sign of common ground and agreement, according to Auer et al. (1999). Disfluency, breaking the rhythm, a lack of rhythmic integration and a rhythmically delayed second assessment, on the other hand, are a sign of an upcoming disagreement (Craig & Sanusi, 2000; Auer et al., 1999; Günthner, 1994).

Changes in pitch, loudness and/or tempo are considered further signs that indicate that a disagreement is being uttered or about to be uttered, with disagreements being associated with heightened pitch (Brazil, 1997), heightened intensity levels, (Goodwin, Goodwin & Yeager-Dror, 2002), and contrastive speech rate (Uhmann, 1992; Christmann & Günthner, 1996).

### 2.2.3 Non-Verbal Disagreement Markers

Beside verbal and prosodic markers, disagreement can also be signalled through non-verbal cues, such as posture, gesture, facial expression and head-movement. According to Streeck and Knapp (1992: 17), ‘facial expressions [...] serve as metacommunicative comments upon concurrent, upcoming, or completed utterances’. As such, a disagreement can be a speaker’s reaction to seeing someone frown (van Eemeren et al., 2002). Non-verbal disagreement markers, however, do not necessarily have to be signalled through facial expressions. Further non-verbal disagreement markers include a straightening of the head, leaning the head

towards another person, a folding of the arms, and a crossing of the legs above the knee, i.e. taking on a 'tight' position (Bull, 1987).

A slightly different stance is taken by Kangasharju (2002) and Kotthoff (1991), who regard non-verbal devices more as markers of alliance with other speakers. While disalliance can be expressed through non-verbal devices such as headshakes (Kangasharju, 2002), joining into laughter of one participant suggests a common view on an issue and expresses alliance with another person, thereby undermining the opposition. Hence, alliance can be a way of subtly expressing disagreement with the opposition as well (Kotthoff, 1991).

A variety of verbal, prosodic and non-verbal disagreement markers have been identified and it has been argued that they occur to mark disagreement as a dispreferred second pair part. The following section will discuss the preference-status of disagreement in more detail.

### **2.3 Is Disagreement Really Dispreferred?**

Disagreement, as stated in the disagreement definition (see this chapter, Section 2.1), is defined as a second pair part to an initiation move. The reason why disagreement is typically marked by verbal and/or prosodic and/or non-verbal markers is due to its status as an 'uninvited' or 'dispreferred' second pair part. A dispreferred action is defined by Pomerantz (1984: 63) as follows: 'an initial assessment [...] may be so structured that it invites one next action over its alternative. A next action that is oriented to as invited will be called a preferred next action, its alternative, a dispreferred next action'. Disagreement, she claims, is a dispreferred next action, unless it is produced subsequent to self-deprecation. A number of researchers share her view. According to Gardner (2000), we mostly aim for agreement and conflict avoidance in interaction, even when we disagree, because disagreement is a delicate matter. Disagreements are face threatening (Lüger, 1999), because they 'challenge the fundamental tendency in talk to cooperate and align' (Gardner, 2000: 32), because, as an oppositional move, they establish an adversarial position and involve some measure of hostility (Vuchinich, 1984). As people do not wish to threaten their social bonds, conflict – or rather the avoidance thereof – is dictated by the need for solidarity maintenance or building (Georgakopoulou, 2001). Disagreements are therefore often phrased to look like agreement or are at least weakened, Gardner (2000) claims. For the same reason, they are often prefaced by partial agreements (Levinson, 1983; Kotthoff, 1991; Lüger, 1999; Mori, 1999; Pomerantz, 1984).

Holtgraves (1992) identified three typical conversational strategies that show the preferred status of agreement: seek agreement (by choosing a safe topic, or by agreeing), avoid disagreement (by producing token agreement, mitigation or expressing distaste) and seek common ground (by markers such as 'you know'). These conversational strategies clearly show an orientation to agreement and cooperation in conversation. Due to their nature as preferred answer, agreements are typically shorter, more direct and more immediate than disagreements, (Gardner, 2000; Myers, 1998). The opposite is the case for disagreements. As dispreferred second pair parts they are typically longer, less direct, and delayed. As Holtgraves (1992) states, disagreements are marked as dispreferred by being syntactically complex, they are often implicit and frequently prefaced with hesitation prefaced, requests for clarification and/or weak agreement with the preceding turn. Hesitation or delay are found particularly frequently in connection with disagreements (Pomerantz, 1984) and serve as an indicator of potential problem situations (Cavalcanti, 1987). According to Jackson and Jacobs (1992) and Makri-Tsilipakou (1991), when the preferred second pair part is withheld, there must be substantive reason why the other will not supply the preferred response. In addition to delay, disagreement also tends to be modified through softening devices (Rees-Miller, 2000; Ronowicz, 1995, Bardovi-Harlig & Salsbury, 2004), indirection or prior concession (Kuo, 1994). Disagreements embody dispreferred actions. Therefore, speakers seem to feel the need to justify their decision to produce a disagreement. Hence, disagreements are often followed by accounts, apologies or compliments (Ford et al., 2004; Kuo, 1994).

These studies all portray disagreement as the dispreferred option, unless it follows an instance of self-deprecation. The sheer number of disagreement markers and cues to signal dispreference for disagreement seems to confirm this view. There is, however, plenty of evidence suggesting that disagreement is by no means dispreferred in nearly all circumstances, as research has led us to believe previously.

Among the factors that determine whether disagreement is the preferred or dispreferred option, Blum-Kulka et al. (2002) mention genre and culture. Both, they claim, are important influences on the degree to which disagreements are conversationally favoured and displayed blatantly, or mitigated and 'crushed aside' (p. 1574). In their study on Jewish traditions of dispute, they found a 'long folk history of Jewish argumentativeness' (p. 1572) and strong preference, not only for disagreement over agreement, but also for disagreement that is unmitigated, unprefaced and lacks any form of dispreference markers. Jewish culture, they explain, orients to exposing disagreement while other cultures minimize disagreement. Jewish

culture, however, is by no means the only culture in which disagreement is not dispreferred. Other cultures that appear to have a preference for a direct, confrontational disagreeing style are Turkish culture (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kamişlı, 2001; Kamişlı & Doğançay-Aktuna, 1996), Venezuelan culture (Edstrom, 2004), African American culture (Goodwin, 1990), Polish culture (Ronowicz, 1995), Austrian culture (Gruber, 1993), German culture (House, 1986; Günthner, 1994; Günthner & Luckmann, 2001), Spanish culture (Fant, 1992), and Greek culture (Kakava, 2002). While such an argumentative, direct style has typically been associated with impoliteness, Blum-Kulka et al. (2002) argue that it is culturally determined whether such a style is appropriate or inappropriate and they call the disagreement style of Jews a ‘culturally acceptable confrontational style’ (p. 1587). Whether a confrontational style is acceptable in a culture depends on how great an emphasis a culture places on the expression of surface-level agreement and on the maintenance of harmony (Bond et al., 2000). The reason why some cultures do expose disagreement, is due to the fact that disagreement is not seen as a harmony-destroying contribution to a conversation, but as a welcome social event that builds social bonds. According to Kakava (2002), Schiffrin (1984), Boxer and Pickering (1995) and Lee and Peck (1995), in some cultures, under certain circumstances, disagreements have a sociable nature. These cultures typically have a high involvement style (Kotthoff, 1991; Kakava, 1994; Edstrom, 2004; Fant, 1992), where it is more face-threatening not to be able to defend one’s own position than to do so (Kotthoff, 1991).

Genre was mentioned as a further factor in determining how appropriate disagreements are in a certain context. For the genre of interviews and talk shows, adversarial talk has been found to be an inherent feature (Blum-Kulka et al., 2002; Gardner, 2000; Greatbach, 1992; Yaeger-Dror, 2002). Since genres guide expectations of what will be said (Günthner & Luckmann, 2001), adversarial talk will be expected in interview and talk show situations. According to Clayman (1992), interviewers typically make provocative statements to open a discussion in order to elicit disagreement and they intervene to avoid closure and thereby encourage disagreement (Myers, 1998), because they want to achieve a controversial, lively and entertaining discussion (Greatbach, 1992), and impoliteness has an entertainment value (Bousfield, forthcoming). In fact, interviewees are there to debate and argue for their conflicting positions, claims Greatbach (1992). Hence, disagreements are both welcome and expected. They are, therefore, rarely qualified and not usually prefaced by agreement. Instead they are produced promptly, straightforward and unvarnished, according to Greatbach (1992). He further states that in disputes, disagreements are typically pursued, rather than resolved and disputes are frequently intensified. Instead, it is agreement that is avoided in interviews,

because agreeing with critical questions gives a negative impression, according to Birkner and Kern (2000). The same appears to apply to talk-show discourse on political topics. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (2002) these kinds of shows are interested in triggering confrontational talk per se in order to entertain viewers. A further reason why disagreements are abundant in talk-shows is due to the fact that many of them involve politicians whom Gruber (1993: 10) calls 'Streitprofis' ('professional arguers'), because they are experienced in presenting and defending opposing standpoints publicly.

The preference for disagreement in conflict talk is not restricted to the genre of interviews and talk-shows alone, but applies to conflict talk in general. Within an argumentative framework, disagreement is not dispreferred. According to Bilmes (1993) and Kakava (2002) preference organization does not seem to operate in conflict talk. Auer et al. (1999) state that rhythmical delay is a sign for upcoming disagreement and shows its dispreferred status. Within an argumentative framework, however, the expectation is that assessments will be disagreed with (Vuchinich, 1984), and disagreements, therefore, tend to be immediate and unmitigated (Blum-Kulka et al., 2002; Goodwin, 1983). In this type of framework, delay is a sign of weakness and can be threatening to one's own face (Kotthoff, 1991), while immediate disagreement is seen as self-defence (Auer et al., 1999). A strong counter reaction is a form of self-repair, it allows the interlocutor to state his point of view (Birkner & Kern, 2000), and it is an important means for expressing one's autonomy and freedom (Debyser, 1980). The reason why disagreement does not show the typical signs of dispreferred markers is that, within an argumentative framework, 'the overriding aim is not affiliation and cooperation but disaffiliation and conflict' (Auer et al., 1999: 78).

A further factor to consider is that of status and authority. According to Debyser (1980), disagreeing is strongly linked to status and authority. Those at the top end of the scale may disagree frequently, while those at the bottom end are not expected to disagree with people of higher status. Status, however, not only restricts and regulates the frequency of disagreement, but also their force. Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıllı (2001) and Kuo (1994) found that downward disagreements (disagreements from a person of high status and authority to a person of lower status and authority) can be very direct, while upward disagreements (disagreements from a person of lower status directed to a person of higher status) are much more polite. The freedom to disagree in a direct manner is based, in part, on the fact that a person of higher authority does not have to fear retribution for his/her actions (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıllı, 2001). How appropriate disagreement is, seems also to be based on a

person's profession. In their study on disagreements between professors and students, Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (2001) state that professors not only use direct and straightforward disagreements because they are in a position of power, but also because it is expected of them, in their role as a teacher, to correct students and to disagree with them if they are wrong. Kuo (1994) states the same about her findings on radio talk show counselling, where the psychologist disagreed in a direct manner, not only because he holds a higher status position, but because it is his duty to give advice and it is in the caller's interest to receive it. Rees-Miller (2000) refers to this as an institutionalized right to disagree.

It appears that age is also a factor in the question of preference for agreement or disagreement. Attitudes towards disagreement can change with age, claims Kakava (2002). Several studies by Goodwin (1983), Goodwin and Goodwin (1987), and Goodwin et al. (2002) confirm this claim. Children, they state, do not organise their disagreements in terms of careful attention to forms of politeness. Instead, children show a preference for disagreement by omitting dispreference markers for disagreement, by producing disagreement without delay, and by highlighting rather than downtoning their opposition. Goodwin and Goodwin (1987), therefore, criticise the approach to argumentation which states that disagreement is something to be resolved. According to Hartup (1978: 138, cited in Goodwin and Goodwin, 1987), argumentation should be seen as something to be actively pursued for its own sake.

These accounts have demonstrated that disagreements are not necessarily always dispreferred. Rather the dispreferred status of disagreements depends upon the culture, genre, and framework in which a disagreement takes place and upon the age and status of the people disagreeing with one another. These studies have also shown that the genre analysed in this study aims at eliciting disagreement and that it is culture-dependent whether disagreement is preferred or dispreferred. Naturally, this leads to the question: What is the preference and disagreeing style of the two cultures investigated in the present study?

#### **2.4 German vs. New Zealand Disagreeing Style**

It has been indicated earlier that Germans have a preference for a direct and confrontational disagreement style, while Gardner (2000), based on Australian data, shows a dispreference for disagreement, that might also be expected to be encountered in their New Zealand neighbours. Let us now look in more detail at what the orientation to disagreement is in these cultures.

#### 2.4.1 German Disagreeing Style

German speech behaviour, in face threatening speech acts, has been described as direct and explicit (House, 1986; House 2003) and Germans have been found to attack and contradict one another frequently (Kotthoff, 1989). This confrontational behaviour has been attributed to the fact that, in a German context, assertiveness and conflict management count as elements of team work and are seen as positive attributes (Birkner & Kern, 2000). An argumentative style and willingness to engage in debate is appreciated and a welcome social event (Günthner, 1994), and a heated exchange with high involvement is considered enjoyable (Kotthoff, 1991).

Kotthoff (1993), in her work on disagreement between students and professors in a German university, shows that this speech event invites dissent-turn sequences and that open disagreement is expected and participants show reluctance to make concessions. The Germans' orientation towards a confrontational, explicit disagreeing style also becomes apparent in Günthner's (1994) comparison of German and Chinese disagreeing styles. This preference for disagreement is not so much evident because the Germans were seen as 'rather direct', 'a bit rude', 'impolite', 'too aggressive' and 'very willing to discuss' by the Chinese, but more so because the lack of engagement in the discussion by the Chinese was interpreted by the Germans as 'not very interesting', 'holding back', 'they rarely have an opinion on something', 'you don't really know where you stand with them'. These assessments show that a lack of engagement in discussion and an orientation to agreement are interpreted negatively by the Germans, who appear to reject the Chinese style as being ambiguous and almost boring.

#### 2.4.2 New Zealand Disagreeing Style

Since little data is available on New Zealand disagreeing behaviour, I will briefly review the disagreeing style of other English speaking cultures. While there may be differences to what degree an orientation to directness and implicitness are exhibited, there appear to be few differences with regard to British English, American English, Australian English and New Zealand English disagreeing styles overall. Hence, the following accounts on disagreement styles of other varieties of English are considered relevant.

According to House (2000), the British English speech style is defined by indirectness and implicitness. The same appears to apply to American English speakers. According to Kotthoff

(1991), it is typical for American English speakers to avoid disagreement, while consensus is strongly emphasized. When disagreements are produced, they tend to be indirect and concessions are frequent, she states. Ronowicz (1995) and Gardner (2000) make the exact same statement about Australian English speakers, claiming that they typically avoid confrontation, being pushy or opinionated. While they do give their opinions readily, they do it in a way that is not too authoritarian, impolite, imposing or hurtful. To this end, they produce a large number of softening devices or modals prior to stating an opinion. I would argue that opinions are often expressed in the form of conditionals or questions rather than statements.

New Zealand English speakers show similar tendencies. Holmes and Marra (2004) found only a few occurrences of disagreements in their Language in the Workplace project and even the rare instances of direct confrontation were mitigated, despite the fact that the disagreements were being produced by leaders in positions of power and authority. The New Zealanders' trend for disagreement avoidance, indirection and mitigation is in line with earlier studies that came to the conclusion that New Zealanders show a pronounced preference for mitigated disagreement over bald disagreement (Holmes, 1995), and that, compared to Germans, New Zealanders are generally more polite, less direct and less explicit in their disagreements (Stadler, 2002).

It seems safe to conclude that Germans show an orientation to explicit disagreement while New Zealanders show an orientation to implicit disagreement. This leaves us to address the question of what exactly constitutes an explicit or an implicit disagreement.

## **2.5 The Question of Explicitness**

The question of whether or not a disagreement is to be considered explicit or implicit is even less straightforward than the question of whether a disagreement is preferred or dispreferred. Among researchers there is little accord as to what implicitness means, just as there is disagreement as to whether explicitness or implicitness is the marked form. While linguistic theory tends to regard explicitness as the ideal case and therefore as the unmarked, 'normal' form of an utterance, perspective theory has come to conclude that implicitness (in the sense of conventional indirectness) is the basic, thus unmarked form. Linell (2002) and Graumann (2002) believe that a speaker only uses explicit utterances if he/she feels motivated or challenged to make their perspective explicit. A slightly different angle on this question is

added by Grundy's (2000) approach to implicitness, which regards explicitness and conventional indirectness as natural meaning, i.e. what is actually being said/entailed by the speaker, and implicitness as non-natural meaning of an utterance, i.e. what is not actually being said, but merely conversationally implicated.

However, it appears to be widely agreed that implicitness is strongly connected to contextual factors. This is to say implicit utterances are understood to be 'vague' and 'ambiguous' (Held, 1992), 'not easily observable by another person' (English & English, 1958: 254, quoted in Graumann, 2002) or 'inaccessible to our immediate awareness' (Wegner & Vallacher, 1977: 16, quoted in Graumann, 2002). Implicatures can be said to be the intended meaning of what is meant but not said by a speaker (Marmaridou, 2000; Mey, 2001). Implicit utterances, consequently, require the addressee to infer and recover the intended meaning from the social, situational and linguistic context (van Eemeren et al., 2002; Linell, 2002; Graumann, 2002). Implicitness is, therefore, usually seen in terms of information that must be added to the linguistically explicitly expressed information in order for a piece of discourse to become complete and coherent, according to Steiner (2005). In the absence of verbal indicators, prosodic and non-verbal context may provide sufficient clues (Grootendorst, 1992, van Eemeren et al., 2002).

While all of the approaches discussed above regard context as the main indication for the explicitness and implicitness distinction, Vorderwülbecke's (1986) notion of the degree of autonomy of an utterance provides the best definition. He concludes that the higher the degree of autonomy of an utterance from the surrounding contextual information, the more explicit it is.

There are, however, other approaches to implicitness that need to be considered. Some of these are based on structural/syntactic indications for argumentation. Márquez Reiter (2002), who looks at traditional linguistic structures, regards indirectness as a question of whether structure and function have an indirect relationship, that is to say when the format (i.e. the structure) of an utterance does not conform with its function, or as Wennerstrom (2001) expresses it, cases in which grammar suggests one speech act and intonation another, are indirect. According to Bond et al. (2000), Heritage (2002) and Georgakopoulou (2001), the use of questions instead of statements is a form of indirectness. Hence if the format (question) does not conform with the function (disagreement) of an utterance, the utterance is indirect.

The second approach, based on a Conversation Analytical perspective on structure, stems from Gruber (1998), who claims that structural features can indicate dispute to the addressee. He discusses three structural features that indicate disagreement. Firstly, he mentions the change of preference organization, where disagreements are no longer prefaced by dispreferred discourse markers. Secondly, he mentions a change of preference organization with regard to turn organization. Typically, speakers take over the floor at TRPs (transition relevance points). When speaker changes no longer occur at TRPs but at what he calls 'disagreement relevance points' (DRPs), the speaker exhibits a preference for disagreement. Thirdly, he mentions formal cohesive devices, namely the recurrence of words or phrases. According to Kotthoff (1993), repetition strengthens cohesive ties between two utterances and expresses emphasized disagreement, thereby rendering a disagreement more explicit.

A last, but no less interesting, approach is that of Haverkate (1994), who regards speech acts as explicit if they make a direct reference to a previous turn.

In line with Gruber's (1998) and Haverkate's (1994) approaches, Steiner (2005) also mentions the importance of cohesion in relation to explicitness. The cohesive devices that are most relevant to this project are 'reference', 'lexical cohesion', and 'conjunction'. While these aspects of explicitness are already included in the present rating scheme for explicitness, Steiner (2005) proposes a further very interesting concept to rate explicitness, namely the link between explicitness and informational density. He assesses explicitness, among other aspects, on the basis of the proportion of content words, the average number of words per clause, the degree of specificity of lexical items, or the number of grammatical units per discourse segment. While the present study does not assess the level of explicitness in as much detail as Steiner (2005) proposes, the degree of informational density was taken into account as a form of internal modification device. A high level of informational density was included under the strengthening category 'minimal verbosity', while a low level of informational density was included under the softening category of 'verbosity'. Informational density in the present study was mainly based on the number of words used to express a disagreement.

Since all of these theories hold some truth and possess potentially useful coding properties, I propose a combination of the above mentioned concepts for the evaluation of the present disagreement data. This approach, therefore, defines disagreement to be explicit or implicit according to how many of the following properties they contain:

- a) autonomy, i.e. how much interpretational work does the addressee have to do;
- b) syntax-function correlation, i.e. how explicit is the structure of a disagreement;
- c) structural indication markers for argumentation, i.e. is the disagreement delayed, does it occur at a TRP, is there a recurrence of key words or phrases, is it prefaced by disagreement markers;
- d) reference, i.e. does the disagreement refer to something explicitly mentioned in a prior utterance or to something that has been implied?

(Refer to Chapter 2, Section 5.3 and to Appendix 2 for details).

Regardless of whether a disagreement is explicit or implicit, it remains a potentially face-threatening speech act, more so to some cultures than to others, but, nonetheless, a difficult act to accomplish in cross-cultural communication. As a speech act that requires a sensitive delivery, particularly in cross-cultural encounters, a number of means can be used to downtone the force of a disagreement, and thereby soften its face-threatening potential. The use of such downtoning is typically associated with politeness. However, just as a culture's perception of disagreement differs, cultures differ in their perception of what polite behaviour is. Politeness is a hugely complicated matter and a major cause for cross-cultural miscommunication. The following section will examine the question of politeness in detail.

### **3 Politeness**

Politeness is an issue that has received much attention in linguistics research in the past three decades and rightly so, because politeness plays a major role in everyday interaction.

According to House (2005), politeness is a basic socio-psychological guideline for human behaviour, thereby informing an integral part of all human interaction. According to Sifianou (1992), the word 'polite' derives from the Latin word 'polire', meaning 'to smooth'.

Politeness is therefore referred to as the 'oil that keeps the social machine running smoothly' (Wildner-Bassett, 1994: 4; Stevenson, 1997: 130). It is so to speak a 'social lubricant' (Sell, 1991: 211).

Politeness research finds its roots in Goffman's (1955) notion of face, face work and redress of face-threatening acts. Goffman's (1955) research has influenced many researchers and has since been developed into elaborate politeness concepts. Today, politeness is mainly associated with four linguistic approaches: the social norm view, the conversational maxim

view, the face-saving view and the conversational contract view. These approaches have been inseparable from names like Brown and Levinson (1987), who are associated with the face-saving approach; Leech (1983), Lakoff (1973), and Grice (1975), who are associated with the conversational maxim approach; and Fraser (1975) and Fraser and Nolen (1981), who are associated with the conversational contract approach. These approaches have since been repeated, researched, rewritten, redefined, revised and revisited in innumerable subsequent studies and most of all comprehensively discussed and summed up by a multitude of researchers (such as Fraser, 1990; Barron, 2003; Watts, 1992; Held, 1992; Werkhofer, 1992; Fukushima, 2000; to name but a few). The present study will, therefore, address the basic concepts of these approaches only briefly.

### **3.1 Approaches to Politeness**

#### **3.1.1 The Social Norm Approach**

The social norm view, as Fraser (1990) states, represents a historical understanding of politeness. Politeness was established as a codified system of norms in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> century (Zakharine, 2002). Such early systems of politeness included a wide variety of behaviour, including the choice of appropriate lexemes, socially acceptable topics, and the appropriate relationship between talk and silence and between speaking and listening (Watts, 1992), as well as non-verbal behaviour, such as poses and posture (Zakharine, 2002). The social norm view is based on the assumption that each and every society has a certain set of rules, both implicit and explicit, of what is considered appropriate behaviour in a certain context. These rules prescribe a certain normative behaviour and constitute a fixed politeness scheme to which members of the society in question are expected to adhere to. Abiding by those rules and norms equals ‘good manners’ and ‘etiquette’, which Barron (2003) describes as proper social conduct and tactful consideration of others. Action that is congruent with these social norms is considered polite, action that is not is regarded as impolite (Fukushima, 2000).

#### **3.1.2 The Conversational Maxim Approach**

The conversational maxim approach is associated with the names of Grice (1975), Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) and consists of three slightly different stances that all describe principles that one needs to follow in conversation in order to be a considerate, polite and cooperative interactional partner.

Grice's (1975) conversational maxims are known as the Cooperative Principle. This principle is based on the idea that – in order to be a cooperative interactional partner – one's utterance should take into account four rules: quality (your contribution should be true), quantity (make your contribution neither longer nor shorter than is necessary to achieve understanding), relation (your contribution should be relevant to the current interactional context) and manner (don't be ambiguous).

Rather than aiming at accounting for cooperativeness in interaction, Lakoff (1973) derived a set of maxims on conversational politeness, known as the Politeness Principle, which prescribes speakers to be – at all times in a conversation – a) clear and b) polite.

Leech (1983) constructed a more fine-tuned scale known as Interpersonal Maxims that Fraser (1990: 225) has adapted into a comprehensive list. The gist of this list being:

- tact maxim (minimize hearer cost; maximize hearer benefit)
- generosity maxim (minimize own benefit; maximize hearer benefit)
- approbation maxim (minimize hearer dis-praise; maximize hearer praise)
- modesty maxim (minimize self-praise; maximize self-dis-praise)
- agreement maxim (minimize disagreement; maximize agreement)
- sympathy maxim (minimize antipathy; maximize sympathy).

These maxims closely relate to Grice's (1975) and Lakoff's (1973) principles in so far as they all advise to be considerate and attentive to the interactional partner's needs.

### 3.1.3 The Face-Saving Approach

As noted above, the first researcher to label the notion of 'face' was Goffman (1955). According to him, 'face' is the 'positive social value a person effectively claims for himself' (Goffman, 1967: 5). A considerate interactional partner is expected to go to great lengths in order to avoid violating another person's feelings and face. 'To study face-saving', Goffman (1967: 12) claims, 'is to study the traffic rules of social interaction'. The face saving view has since been elaborated by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). They extended Goffman's (1967) findings by dividing face into two distinct varieties. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) each individual has both a positive face and a negative face. The positive face is the wish to be liked and accepted; the negative face is the wish that one's 'actions be unimpeded' (p. 62). In other words, every person has the wish to be appreciated and to be autonomous. Those wishes are termed 'face wants' or 'face needs'. Any action that does not

attend to face needs and poses a possible offence is called a face-threatening act (henceforth FTA). It is assumed that there are speech acts that categorically pose a threat to the addressee's face, so called negative speech-acts, such as refusals, criticism or disagreement. Potentially face-threatening speech acts require for the speaker to employ means of saving the addressee's face. 'Face saving' is achieved by ameliorating the threat of an utterance by softening or downtoning it. There is a range of options that result in the softening of an utterance, including softening strategies (e.g. apologies), softening devices (e.g. hedges) and indirection (not necessarily always as we shall see later, but at least in some instances). The degree to which an utterance requires mitigation or softening, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), depends on three social factors, namely the status and power of an interlocutor, the degree of imposition an utterance poses to the receiver and the social distance between interactants.

#### 3.1.4 The Conversational Contract Approach

The fourth approach is the conversational contract approach, which is associated with Fraser (1975) and Fraser and Nolen (1981). This view of politeness assumes that upon entering a conversation, the interactional partners enter a contract in which they establish certain rights and obligations towards each other. According to Fraser (1990) those rights and obligations are also dependent on demographic and social aspects, as Brown and Levinson (1987) have established. In addition, they also place emphasis on the situational context in which the interaction takes place. This conversational contract, due to potential change in external, contextual circumstances, is open to renegotiation, if required. Politeness, in this view, is seen as acting within the constraints of the contract. Being polite, Fraser (1990) claims, is not a question of making the hearer 'feel good' or not causing the hearer to 'feel bad', but rather to get on with the purpose of the interaction within the terms and conditions established in the conversational contract.

### **3.2 Problems with Politeness Approaches**

While all of these approaches contain valuable insights and meaningful assumptions, none are entirely unproblematic.

### 3.2.1 The Social Norm Approach

Even though the social norm approach in itself cannot solely account for all aspects of politeness in conversation, it is by no means outdated. Much of the idea of ‘good manners’ and ‘etiquette’ still applies to date and is still imposed on us by our cultures and societies. Social norms still play a major role in our motivation to choose certain politeness strategies over others. However, social norms are not the sole regulators of polite behaviour. The social norm view by itself is, therefore, too restricted.

### 3.2.2 The Conversational Maxim Approach

The conversational maxim approach is even more problematic than the social norm view. Grice’s (1975) approach to conversation and how to achieve a cooperative style is only applicable in situations where people indeed wish to be polite and cooperative. However, cooperativeness is by no means at all times our primary goal in interaction (Rama Martínez, 1993). It may be that someone’s goal is to advance their own interests (Georgakopoulou & Patrona, 2000), and therefore to place less emphasis on remaining polite. Other studies have shown that arguments can have a very social nature, in other words arguments are welcome and reinforce social bonds in some cultures and societies (Schiffrin, 1984; Lee & Peck, 1995). When interactants engage in a sociable debate, politeness plays only a marginal role. Interviews, in a study on politeness in disagreement, have shown that people enjoy ‘a good heated debate’ (Stadler, 2002: 110), or approve of speaking one’s mind, because ‘that’s what friends are for anyway’ (Georgakopoulou, 2001: 1897). For the same reason, neither Lakoff’s (1973) Politeness Principles nor Leech’s (1983) Interpersonal Maxims can account for the current view of politeness. That is to say, their Principles and Maxims apply only in situations in which politeness is the focal point, but these approaches do not apply in all situations.

The fact that people have different motivations (and politeness and cooperativeness do not always rank among the top priorities) is not the sole problem with this approach. As Lakoff (1973) points out herself, those principles can stand in conflict with one another. Politeness, for example, has often been associated with indirectness (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Ervin-Tripp et. al., 1984; Held, 1992; Leech, 1983). Research on indirectness, however, has found that indirectness can mean disguising an utterance (Goffman, 1971: 156) or a disagreement, sometimes beyond the recognizable (House, 1986) and this clearly compromises the clarity of an utterance. Furthermore, some societies value clarity over politeness while other societies

value politeness over clarity, and which one of these is regarded the more important criterion in a society is strongly culture bound (Barron, 2002; Stadler, 2002).

A further problem with this approach is that politeness is not defined in the same way across cultures. While the typical stance for politeness in Anglo-Saxon cultures is 1) be friendly and 2) don't impose (Lakoff, 1973), García (1999: 391) states about Venezuelans that they 'belong to a positive politeness culture where the preferred rules of rapport are: 1) be friendly; and 2) impose, in that order'. Hence, imposing can be seen as face threatening in one culture, but as desirable in another. Politeness and Cooperative Principles, as established in English language research, are not globally applicable.

### 3.2.3 The Face-Saving Approach

The face saving view is a highly valuable contribution to politeness research. Not much of Brown and Levinson's (1987) pioneering work is outdated and the notion of 'face' has received an enormous amount of attention since. Nevertheless, this approach has been heavily criticized for claiming universality for 'face' and politeness (Meier, 1995a; 1995b; 1997; 2004; Hirschon, 2001). The criticism is, in part, raised by members and/or researchers of collectivist countries, who maintain that the 'universality' of politeness and face as defined by Brown and Levinson (1987) is only applicable to individualistic Western cultures and therefore far from globally applicable (Matsumoto, 1989; Gu, 1990). Face does seem to apply to collectivist cultures, but with a stronger orientation to the 'face' of a group rather than our Western notion of 'face' that is strongly concerned with individualistic face needs. Criticism of the concept of universality, however, is also raised with regard to a number of other phenomena, such as the interpretation of pragmatic particles (Holmes, 1995), the degree of directness (Kakava, 1995), or the linear relationship of politeness and indirectness (Meier, 1995b; 1997). I agree with researchers such as Sifianou (1992), Escandell-Vidal (1998), or Maletzke (1996) who claim universality for the concept of politeness and for certain abstract features such as 'status', 'distance' or 'face', but agree that other aspects of politeness are strongly culture-bound. A particularly valuable approach to universal and culture-specific levels of politeness can be found in House's (2005) politeness model, in which she distinguishes four different levels of politeness: A bio-social and a philosophical level, both of which represent universal levels of politeness and a cultural and a linguistic level, both of which represent culture-specific levels of politeness. In order to illustrate such a combined approach, I list a number of potentially universal and non-universal issues in relation to

politeness. While the list below is by no means complete, it gives an indication as to how politeness could be approached as a concept that is both, universal and culture-sensitive.

The following universal features of politeness may be attributed to what House (2005) calls the bio-social and philosophical levels:

- The general notion of politeness itself
- The concept of applying various degrees of force to an utterance
- The existence of norms and principles in every society that govern the appropriateness of politeness
- The existence of linguistic devices to modify the illocutionary force of utterances
- The dependency of appropriateness of an utterance on demographic aspects (gender, age, status,...)
- The dependency of appropriateness of an utterance on the situational context
- The avoidance of taboos, i.e. the inappropriateness of certain lexical terms, topics, etc.

The following non-universal features of politeness may be attributed to what House (2005) calls the cultural and linguistic levels:

- What the norms and principles are that determine how appropriate an utterance is
- What the linguistic modification devices are, in what frequency they are applied and when they are applied
- How the demographic aspects are rated on a hierarchy scale of importance to the society
- What a society considers to be taboo

Universality, however, is by no means the only problem with this approach. As previously mentioned in connection with the Cooperative and Politeness Principles, the face-saving approach also assumes that politeness is the primary goal that drives every conversation. This, however, is not always the intention of an interaction. While Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987) acknowledge that face-needs may be disregarded when urgency or efficiency are the dominant factors in a certain context, they nevertheless disregard the possibility that politeness is not always intended even when urgency and efficiency do not play a major role. As Locher and Watts (2005) state, Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) theory of face-work does not account for situations in which face-threat mitigation is not a priority, e.g. aggressive, abusive and rude behaviour. They propose the term relational work which does not presuppose that harmony and cooperation are the focal point of interaction.

A further criticism raised by Locher (2004) and by Locher and Watts (2005) is that Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) framework only distinguishes between polite and impolite behaviour, but does not leave room for unmarked/non-polite behaviour and for the appropriate/politic dimension, which Locher and Watts (2005) consider crucial.

#### 3.2.4 The Conversational Contract Approach

The conversational contract approach is not entirely unproblematic either, although one needs to give credit to this view of politeness for acknowledging the importance of the situational context. In a way, one could say that this approach is similar to the social norm approach, except that it regards norms and rules not as imposed by society, but as created by the individual interactants. In this respect, the contract view is a bit restricted. While it acknowledges social and situational circumstances, it attributes too great a role to the individual and too small a role to cultural, societal and demographic influences on a conversation. Duncan (1962) makes a fair point when he claims that if we had to create and fix meaning every time we speak, society could not exist. It would be entirely uneconomical and far too great an effort to negotiate rules each time we speak.

In addition, this view sees interaction as a task and a conversational contract as vehicle for getting on with an interactional aim. Not all interaction however, is task based and much of an interaction may just be a kind of 'friendly banter' with no interactional goal in mind – unless one considers the maintenance of social relationships through banter an interactional goal. ( I do not consider the maintenance of social relationships through banter an interactional goal, as people rarely enter into a conversation with friends, setting out to achieve the maintenance of social relationships by means of interaction. Consequently, I regard the maintenance of social relationships to be an interactional outcome, rather than a pre-meditated goal).

#### 3.2.5 A Mixed Approach

The approaches to politeness reviewed above, unfortunately, portray politeness as belonging solely to one or the other of those concepts. As could be seen in the discussion of the four main approaches to politeness, there are a range of possible explanations to account for politeness and each of them contains some truth. I reject adhering to one single approach, as she considers them too restrictive by themselves. Politeness is as much a social norm as it is a cooperative principle; it is as much universal as it is culture-bound and it lies as much in the

mouth of the speaker as it lies in the ear of the hearer. Politeness has a highly complex nature and exists along a scale of degrees of culture- context- and participant-bound degrees of appropriateness. I, therefore, take Spencer-Oatey's (2002) and Watts's (1989) stance, that these approaches should not be seen as mutually exclusive, but rather as complementary. Each of those views adds another dimension to the entire picture and together they form a valuable base for politeness research to date.

Eelen (2001) has also criticized these approaches, in part for their inability to adequately account for impoliteness, for ignoring the hearer's active position and for a world devoid of human individuality and creativity. House (2003), Eelen (2001), Locher (2004) and Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (2001) have identified a number of influences on our politeness behaviour that serve as a basis for the subsequent politeness model. House (2003) identifies contextual assessment, socio-pragmatic norms, underlying cultural norms and values, and culturally divergent concepts of politeness as influences on our perception and interpretation of politeness. Eelen (2001) claims that 'communicative success depends on the right amount and kind of politeness applied at the right time to the right speech act, as determined by social norms that stipulate what is appropriate for a specific interactional situation'. Locher (2004: 91) states that politeness cannot be investigated without looking in detail at 'the context, the speakers, the situation, and the evoked norms'. Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (2001: 96) also identify a number of factors such as 'power due to social status, contextual factors, as well as factors like age, gender, socioeconomic status, geographical location etc. [that] interact to determine people's norms of effective and appropriate communication'.

The following model attempts to present a politeness approach that allows for an integration of the variables identified by House (2003), Eelen (2001) and Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (2001).

### **3.3 Politeness Model**

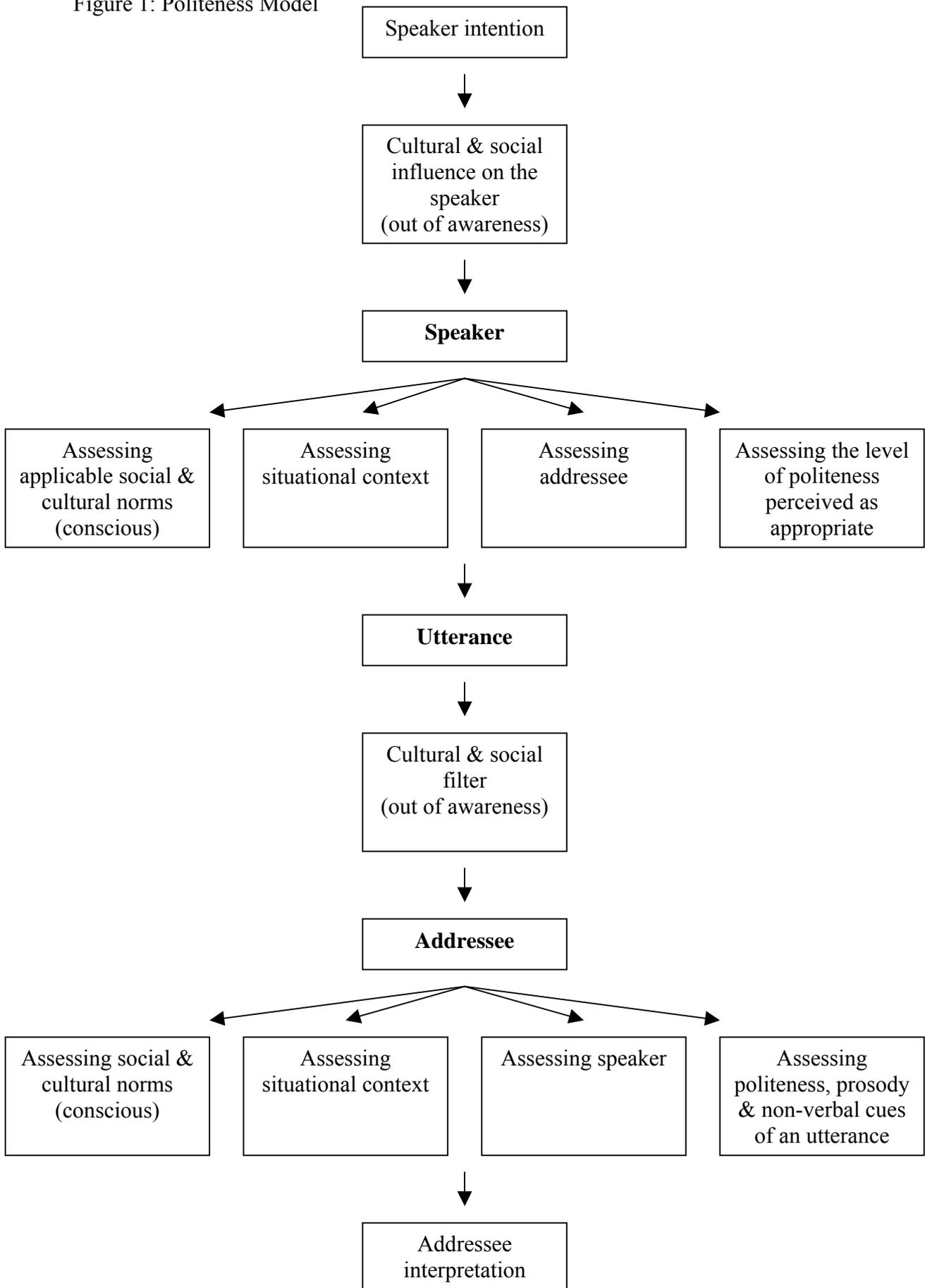
Before politeness finds its way from the intention of the speaker to the interpretation of the addressee, it runs through a multitude of cultural, social and situational filters. Since an intended meaning does not necessarily achieve the intended effect (Blum-Kulka and Weizmann, 2003; Weigand, 1999; Tzanne, 2000), it needs to be adjusted to the social, situational, contextual and cultural factors that surround a conversation. Sell (1991: 211)

compares politeness to a 'velvet glove to hide an iron fist'. Consistent with this metaphor, just like a glove needs to be tailored to have the perfect fit for a fist, politeness needs to be tailored to fit the situation, culture and individual at which it is directed. In particular, where communication involves interactional partners from different cultural backgrounds, the right measure and degree of politeness are essential. In order to demonstrate the complexity of interaction in general and politeness in particular, a model was established to demonstrate the factors that influence both the sender and the receiver of an utterance. How successful an utterance and its intrinsic level of politeness is depends on how appropriately these factors are assessed by the participants of the interaction.

### 3.3.1 From Speaker to Hearer Model

This model presents 13 different factors that determine whether an utterance, as intended by the speaker, is indeed interpreted by the addressee the way it was intended. In other words, a number of different factors contribute to whether an utterance is appropriate and communication is successful.

Figure 1: Politeness Model



It is necessary, at this stage, to clarify that it is not the intention of the present model to convey the impression that the speaker consciously reflects on social, cultural, contextual, demographic and appropriateness factors before producing an utterance. There may be situations where a speaker is strongly aware of one particular factor, such as the addressee's ethnicity and a speaker may, therefore, deliberately try to avoid certain topics, for example. However, for the most part, this process and assessment happens automatically. The present model wishes to distinguish unconscious and conscious stages from each other, because the former are well and truly out of our awareness, while the latter may happen automatically, but a speaker would be able to, at least in part, recall and account for his/her choices, when asked to reflect on his/her utterance. It might be more appropriate to talk about a 'semi-conscious' process instead.

It is also not the intention of the present model to imply that the process pictured in the politeness model occurs in successive steps and it is not my intention to imply that these steps occur in the order in which the various stages are presented. Rather, all of these factors occur at the same time. The politeness model merely tries to represent the complexity of the process, of which politeness is a part, in visual form.

### 3.3.1.1 Culture and Social Norms

The first step to take into consideration is culture. While members of a culture have a tendency to believe that culture is a conscious process and that they are fully aware of their own culture, cross-cultural communication research contests this. Instead, cross-cultural communication research compares culture to an ice-berg (Hall, 1969; 1976), only 10% of which is visible to the eye. Hall (1959) observed that culture hides more than it reveals, hence the comparison to an ice-berg. According to Hall (1959), we are aware of merely 10% of our culture. The remaining 90%, that is hidden from our awareness, is so deeply engrained in us that we tend to perceive this 90% of our culture as a norm. This perception of one's own culture as norm is called 'ethnocentrism' (Günthner & Luckmann, 2001; Maletzke, 1996). Our ethnocentrism leads us to assume that what is right in one's own culture is correct behaviour everywhere (Günthner & Luckmann, 2001). This assumption is dangerous, because, according to Günthner and Luckmann (2001), communication is difficult or impossible if participants do not have knowledge of asymmetries in knowledge. In other words a lack of awareness of cultural differences is a major factor in miscommunication (Meier, 2001; 2003). Or as Ichheiser (1949: 37) so aptly put it: 'if people who do not understand each other at least understand that they do not understand each other then they

understand each other better than when, not understanding each other, they do not even understand that they do not understand each other’.

In fact, according to Day (1994: 332), culture influences us to such a degree that he even calls people ‘cultural automata’, whose actions ‘are made accountable for in terms of unmotivated and unconscious processes’. Due to the fact that culture lies to such a large extent outside of our awareness, in this politeness model, culture was placed prior to the speaker who makes (semi-) conscious decisions. Rather than us turning to culture as a resource which we consult in order to check for appropriateness and acceptability of an utterance, culture influences us in a way we are largely unaware of. People do not necessarily engage in cross-cultural communication, but – as Rehbein (2001: 189) puts it – their actions are ‘culturally performed’. I believe that the hidden nature does not apply to culture alone, but to some extent also to social norms, which is why social norms are included in Step 1.

#### 3.3.1.2 Speaker

The next step of the politeness model is the speaker. The individual participants are, arguably, the major components in the interaction, because, without them, the interaction would not take place. However, in addition to making an interaction happen, they also bring into the communication their own expectations, views and their individuality. A speaker may have a very polite, cooperative speech style, while another speaker may be confrontational or even aggressive. There is not a single culture, society, family or group of any kind, where interactants all apply the exact same degrees of politeness in a given situation. There can be considerable intracultural variation, such as the influence of personal factors on speech act realization (Cohen, 1996) and individual variation of native speakers (Ellis, 1994).

#### 3.3.1.3 Assessing Social Norms

Before actually producing a speech act, the speaker determines what is considered an appropriate degree of politeness according to the set of norms applicable to his/her own society. According to Werkhofer (1992: 156), politeness is a ‘symbolic medium that [...] represents social standards of how to behave or of what kind of conduct is considered ‘just and right’’. The speaker then has the choice to either comply with those rules or to purposefully violate them. According to Escandell-Vidal (1998), it is politeness to conform to those rules, consequently, it is impoliteness not to conform to them. As noted above, a small

percentage of our cultural understanding lies within our conscious awareness, hence culture is included in this step, just like social norms are included in the cultural step.

#### 3.3.1.4 Assessing Situation

The speaker further evaluates the situation in which the conversation is taking place and determines what is appropriate with regard to the given context. Utterances and actions are context-shaped, claim Drew and Heritage (1992). Context is, therefore, an important factor and determines, to a large extent, how appropriate an utterance is. A change in setting implies different conditions and different terms of appropriateness. What is appropriate and polite in Situation A can be impolite in Situation B (Raible, 1987), because there is nothing intrinsically polite about any linguistic form (Holmes, 1995). Personal role and identity relationships may also alter with a change in context. An interaction with a colleague during a business meeting may differ considerably from how one talks to the same colleague in a sociable setting outside of the work-context, because the interactants' roles and identities alter (Orletti, 2001; Raible, 1987; Duncan, 1962). Since this assessment is based on a personal and subjective perception, the impression that the speaker has does not necessarily reflect reality, let alone conform to the impression the addressee has.

#### 3.3.1.5 Assessing Addressee

The speaker also assesses his/her interactional partner. This assessment may include a multitude of external factors, such as ethnicity, social distance, age, gender or status and is based on the speaker's personal perception of his/her interactional partner. This subjective judgment may be far from correct, but, nevertheless, determines our speech behaviour. In addition to assessing these demographic aspects of the addressee, it, of course, also matters how well we know the interactional partner, how close we are to them socially and what our personal attitudes are towards the addressee. Accordingly, 'which kind of conduct is considered appropriate is relative to the ego's position in his/her relationship to alter' (Werkhofer, 1992: 191).

### 3.3.1.6 Assessing Politeness

When all of these cultural, individual, social and contextual factors have been assessed, evaluated and processed, the speaker will make the choice of what he/she believes to be an appropriate degree of politeness.

### 3.3.1.7 Utterance

The speaker produces an utterance, with its accompanying prosodic and non-verbal cues, that he/she believes to be appropriate based on an assessment of the factors discussed above.

Politeness has to be seen as a combination of verbal, vocal and kinetic choices, according to a number of studies (Austin, 1990; Arndt & Janney, 1985; 1991) and prosodic and non-verbal cues are, therefore, included in this step.

### 3.3.1.8 Culture and Social Norms

The remaining stages concern the addressee's assessment of the same factors that were assessed by the speaker prior to producing the utterance. Cultural and social filters that he/she is unaware of act on the addressee and influence his/her perception of an utterance. Language behaviour is culturally conditioned and differing values and beliefs can affect expectations regarding what is appropriate (Meier, 2003; forthcoming; Obilade, 1984). According to García (2002), Lüger (1999), Meier (1995a; 1999), Sifianou (1992) and Knapp-Potthoff (1992) every culture has a different set of politeness strategies that it prefers and every culture attributes varying degrees of importance to different aspects (Spencer-Oatey, 2005).

One such aspect is the amount of verbal feedback. Cultural groups vary widely in the amount of verbal feedback they consider appropriate or polite (Holmes, 2003). According to Holmes (2003), Finns use backchannels (verbal feedback) infrequently and interruptions are generally unacceptable. She states that Pakeha (New Zealanders of European descent) perceive a lack of backchanneling as a lack of interest. Indicating interest in another's topic is a way of expressing politeness and a lack of backchanneling may thus be perceived as rude.

Another aspect is the claim to the floor. Fant (1992) claims that Swedes have an unspoken rule that 'no more than one speaker at a time' (p. 138) is supposed to hold the floor. He compares the Swedish speaking style to the speaking style of Spaniards, of which he claims that 'no less than one speaker at a time' (p. 139) is supposed to hold the floor. This results in

the Spaniards being perceived as aggressive and pushy by the Swedes and the Swedes being perceived as inhibited by the Spaniards.

What is considered to be face-threatening is also culturally conditioned (Kamışlı & Doğançay-Aktuna, 1996). If the addressee comes from the same cultural background as the speaker, there is a greater likeliness for the chosen level of politeness to be interpreted in line with the speaker's intention. However, a culture's typical speech style can be an affront to members of a culture with a differing speech style, without any intention to offend, and misinterpretation or communication breakdown may be the result (Kamışlı & Doğançay-Aktuna, 1996).

#### 3.3.1.9 Addressee

This part of the process concerns the addressee himself/herself. The addressee's individual personality, attitudes, and expectations determine, to some degree how he/she will perceive an utterance. Just as a speaker has an individual speaking style, that may range from downright rude to over-the-top polite, an addressee has an individual way to interpret messages. How personally an individual takes a message, whether they see disagreement as precursor to an argument and how easily they feel offended by a disagreement are all factors that have an influence on the outcome of an interaction (Stadler, 2002). One could say that the addressee brings his/her individual 'pain-threshold' to a conversation. One addressee may be very likely to feel personally attacked by an utterance that was intended to be polite by a speaker, while another addressee may not feel offended by an utterance that was intended to be impolite by the speaker. How successful a communication is, depends on how well the speaker and addressee know each other and/or how accurately they assess each other.

#### 3.3.1.10 Assessing Social Norms

Conversational norms differ between countries and cultures (Berrier, 1997). The addressee will, therefore, measure the suitability of the utterance against the set of rules of his/her own society. How appropriate the utterance is assessed to be and how polite it is perceived to be depends, in part, on how similar the addressee's set of norms is to the speaker's set of norms. The more similar these social norms, rules and regulations are, the more likely the utterance is to convey its communicative intention successfully. The more these norms and rules differ, the more ground there is for misinterpretation of the speaker's intention. According to House

(2003: 49) most misunderstandings in cross-cultural interactions do not stem from ‘mishearing, mispronouncing or misusing [of] lexico-grammatical rules’, but from a ‘failure to interpret alter’s [...] communicative conventions’. Márquez Reiter (1997), Boxer and Pickering (1995) and Sifianou (1992) also state that grammatical errors are apparent, but speakers make allowances for them, while sociopragmatic errors, i.e. errors deriving from the inability to judge culture-specific conventions correctly, are the kind of errors that cause the most problems. They claim that, in particular, when a speaker appears grammatically competent, but commits a sociopragmatic error, his/her actions will be attributed to his/her presumed impolite/unfriendly personality, rather than his/her lack of pragmatic competence. Unfortunately, ‘societal sharedness of the politeness system is taken for granted’ (Eelen, 2001: 135), and where social norms are not shared, miscommunication is the likely outcome.

#### 3.3.1.11 Assessing Situation

The addressee also assesses the situational context. According to Austin (1990), the context in which an utterance occurs determines whether it is interpreted as polite or impolite. As mentioned previously, what the addressee perceives as appropriate with regard to the situational context may differ drastically from how the speaker assesses the situational context. This is particularly true where the addressee is expected to recover implicature, which relies heavily on the context and shared experience of the participants (Austin, 1990). Needless to say, recovering implicit utterances is particularly difficult where cultural and social context differ. This means that the situational context is as vulnerable to misinterpretation as differing social norms can be. However, if the situational context is assessed similarly by both interactants, then there is a high likelihood for speaker intentions to be transmitted with greater success.

#### 3.3.1.12 Assessing Speaker

Furthermore, the addressee also assesses the speaker based on the same demographic components mentioned in connection with the assessment of the addressee. The addressee draws conclusions about the perceived age, gender, ethnicity and social distance and his/her interpretation of an utterance will depend, in part, on how he/she assessed the speaker. However, demographic aspects are not the only aspects for which a speaker is judged. The hearer’s assumptions about the speaker’s values, opinions and intentions also contribute to how the speaker is assessed (Austin, 1990). If speaker and addressee assess each other and

how they relate to each other quite differently, a misjudgement of the conversation will be the result.

### 3.3.1.13 Assessing Politeness

The speaker chose what he/she believed to be the appropriate degree of politeness which he/she then packaged in a verbal, prosodic and non-verbal message. The addressee will interpret this politeness, and determine if it conforms to his/her perception of what is appropriate. The meaning intended and the meaning received in interaction are not necessarily the same (Andersen, 1988). According to Eelen (2001: 109) it is this stage that is decisive as to how polite an utterance is: '(im)politeness occurs not so much when the speaker produces behaviour but rather when the hearer evaluates that behaviour'. House (2003) states that such misinterpretation is based on the fact that addressees tend to interpret a speaker's behaviour too hastily and are rather fixed and inflexible in their inferences. She, therefore, states that 'participants in discourse might be well advised to start from the assumption that misunderstandings will occur despite increased knowledge [...], simply because meaning is never laid out clean and neat but must be inferred, with inferences tending to be quick automatic and fixed, when they really need to be careful, considerate and 'revisable'' (p. 52).

### 3.3.2 Implications of the Model

The politeness model shows that speaker and addressee have to manage a complex process in conversation. A large number of factors need to be taken into consideration in order for conversation to run smoothly (assuming for now, that interaction free from friction is in fact desired). Speakers need to make politeness choices that suit their perception of culture, social and situational context and interactional partner spontaneously. Addressees need to interpret politeness and its appropriateness for the cultural, social and situational context spontaneously. As previously mentioned, there is no guarantee that speaker-intention and hearer-interpretation are the same and do not end up in miscommunication (House, Kasper & Ross, 2003). Considering the number of factors that influence us, it seems rather surprising that we manage to communicate our intentions successfully most of the time. However, as Andersen (1988: 40) put it: 'perfect mutual understanding is a dream that is seldom fulfilled, but a rough approximation carries most of us through our daily dealings with others'. The politeness model presented in this study aims at demonstrating the complexity of politeness and the enormous potential for miscommunication which communication entails. The reason

why politeness plays such a major role in the analysis of miscommunication is due to the fact that it is one of the basic social guidelines for human interaction (House, 2003; House, 2005).

Hence, the purpose of this model is to raise awareness of how difficult it is for cross-cultural communication to succeed and how many potential pitfalls there are for miscommunication. The present study does not aim to investigate in detail every one of the factors outlined in the politeness model. Rather, it focuses on the politeness that is expressed verbally, prosodically and non-verbally, with the main focus on investigating cultural differences. However, during the analysis, great store was set on bearing contextual, social, situational and individual factors in mind. This study attempts to include all of these factors in the analysis and evaluation of the present data.

### **3.4 Impoliteness – The Dark Side of Politeness**

It has been mentioned repeatedly that cooperation and smooth social interaction are not always achieved in conversation. This is partly due to the fact that inappropriate language use can give an addressee the impression that the speaker is rude (Fairclough, 1992; Omaggio, 1986). However, this failure to communicate smoothly is not necessarily because politeness has failed (Beebe & Waring, 2005), but often because impoliteness was intended (Culpeper et al., 2003; Mey, 2001), as it is not always the speaker's intention to cooperate (Austin, 1990). The wish not to cooperate may be based on cultural preferences, solidarity or power relations.

Cultural preferences are expressed in a culture's general (dis)like for agreement. According to Mey (2001), there are entire cultures that are geared towards verbal confrontations, such as the Jewish culture, while other cultures are extremely averse to conflicts and do indeed try to avoid disagreement, such as Finns. Ronowicz (1995) states the same about Australian and Polish cultures, the former trying to avoid confrontation, while the latter prefer to express their opinion and seek disagreement.

With regard to solidarity, Austin (1990) claims that sometimes solidarity is so strong that interlocutors tolerate face attacks. Close social relationships, therefore, make a lack of politeness more permissible (Raible, 1987). As Culpeper (1996: 352) puts it: 'the more intimate a relationship [is], the less necessary is politeness'.

For a person in power, on the other hand, the freedom to be impolite is based on his/her superior position (Culpeper, 1996), which gives him/her the authority to be humiliating and

coercive to subordinates without having to fear any consequences (Austin, 1990). Bousfield (forthcoming) found this to be true in military training where politeness is neither expected nor appropriate, thereby confirming Blum-Kulka et al.'s (2002) finding that politeness in conflict situations is not necessarily appreciated in every culture. Military training, however, seems to be merely one context where politeness is not expected. Other settings where conflictive talk is the norm include courtrooms and radio talk shows (Culpeper, 1996; Culpeper et al., 2003), the former also involving power inequality.

These researchers have demonstrated that politeness is not always appreciated, expected or desired. A recent approach to (im)politeness is to regard impolite behaviour as 'just as significant in defining relationships as appropriate/politic or polite behaviour' (Locher & Watts, 2005). Hence, in opposition to what researcher's such as Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983) and Grice (1975) have done with their Principles and Maxims for polite interaction, Culpeper (1996) has established a set of impoliteness strategies. Under positive impoliteness strategies he lists:

- a) Ignore other
- b) Exclude other
- c) Disassociate from other
- d) Be disinterested
- e) Be unsympathetic
- f) Use inappropriate identity markers
- g) Use obscure, secretive language
- h) Seek disagreements
- i) Make other feel uncomfortable
- j) Use taboo words
- k) Call other names

His list of negative impoliteness strategies include:

- a) Frighten other
- b) Condescend
- c) Scorn
- d) Ridicule
- e) Invade other's space
- f) Put other's indebtedness on record

g) Hinder linguistically (interrupt, deny turn)

However, an interactant does not have to go so far as to be outright offensive and rude to an addressee to be impolite, but may do so merely by withholding politeness, where it is expected (Culpeper et al., 2003). According to Locher and Watts (2005), the same applies to overly polite behaviour, which they claim is also being evaluated negatively and considered inappropriate. While these forms of impoliteness are, arguably, a more polite and less aggressive form of impoliteness, they nevertheless pose a threat to the addressee's face.

The question of whether indirectness is indeed linked with a more polite behaviour shall be addressed in the subsequent section.

### **3.5 Indirectness and Politeness**

Indirectness is a form of face-redress (Lüger, 1999) and because of this, indirectness has traditionally been associated with politeness (Lakoff, 1990; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Werlen, 1983). The politeness of indirectness lies in a number of factors, such as that indirectness lowers the obligations for both interactional partners, encourages hearer's willingness to accept, produces conflict-free agreement, offers flexibility to adjust, retract or adapt to the communicative developments, and is a face-maintaining technique (Held, 1992). Leech (1977) claims that tact (or politeness) equals strategic conflict avoidance and that 'the more tactful a directive is, the more indirect and circumlocutionary it is' (p.19, quoted in House & Kasper, 1981). While Holtgraves (1992: 224-225) agrees with Leech (1977) overall, stating that indirect speech is 'off-record politeness' that is used in connection with threatening acts and 'performed in such a way that more than one interpretation of the remark is possible', he, nevertheless remarks that politeness is the reason that disagreements are often performed 'in a less than optimally efficient manner'.

Various other recent studies have found that politeness is only associated with certain types of indirectness, because indirectness can entail a lack of clarity. For this reason, conventional indirectness seems to be preferred, since it combines conveying an utterance without appearing coercive with ensuring that the utterance will have the right interpretation and impact (Márquez Reiter, 2002). Contrary to Leech's (1977) claims, unconventional indirectness is not associated with politeness. Mild hints are only interpretable through the context (House, 1986). House (1986) found that not only mild hints, but hints in general were

unwelcome and perceived as impolite by both Germans and British English speakers. She attributed the fact that hints are perceived as impolite to two possible factors: 1) hints demand a lot of interpreting on the hearer's part, and 2) hints come across as ironic and are thus far from polite. Weizman's (1989) study confirms House's (1986) findings. Non-conventional indirectness, she claims, is perceived as less polite than conventional indirectness. Both German and British English speakers perceived hints as less polite than hedged performatives and even performatives. Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (2001), in their study on Turkish speakers, also discovered a dislike for the ambiguity of indirectness. Falkenberg (1989) criticizes the claim that indirectness is preferred, pointing out that conventional indirectness is so standardized that one can hardly call it indirect any more. Hence, one could say that it seems that people prefer directness over ambiguity while still preserving the façade of politeness on the surface.

One exception where indirectness does not have a strong association with ambiguity is in close social relationships. If a speaker uses indirect strategies, it can be a sign of a close and relaxed relationship, which allows interactants to make reliable inferences about each other's intended meanings (Holmes & Stubbe, 2003).

Meier (1995b, 1997) also rejects the linear association of politeness with indirectness, although for different reasons. She argues for a relative approach to politeness. What is considered direct or indirect depends very much to what groups are being compared. Americans have been characterized as more direct than Japanese. However, they become less direct when compared to Greeks, Poles, Venezuelans, Argentinians or Persians, Meier (1995b) claims. Australians seem indirect compared to Germans, while the direct Germans become indirect when compared to the even more direct Greeks, she states. According to Meier (1997) languages differ in directness and the relationship between directness and politeness. She claims that 'direct' does not mean 'rude' and that particular cultures value directness. Meier (1999) advises that politeness research needs to be careful in the use of labels such as 'polite' and 'direct' and that a linear association of politeness with indirectness needs to be avoided. Several other researchers also stress the culture-sensitive nature of directness. According to Sifianou (1992) and Culpeper et al. (2003), the politeness of indirectness depends on the culture and instead of mitigating the illocutionary force of a speech-act, indirectness can increase impoliteness. Lachenicht (1980) also lists indirectness as aggravating language, which includes ambiguous insults, insinuations, hints and irony.

What is more, indirectness in cross-cultural communication poses an obstacle, as the acquisition of implicature interpretation skills is a very slow process (Bouton, 1999). Billmyer and Varghese's (2000) study confirms this. Native speakers were found to use less direct request strategies, but more conventionally indirect ones than non-native speakers. Non-native speakers will not only encounter problems producing indirect speech acts, but will also have difficulty interpreting them.

Hence, indirectness cannot be associated with politeness; instead, unconventional indirectness can be unwelcome and increase the level of difficulty for non-native speakers to communicate successfully.

### 3.6 German vs. New Zealand Politeness

It has been mentioned previously that culture determines to a considerable extent how successful cross-cultural communication will be. Hence, it is time to turn to the question: How different are the two cultures investigated in this research project?

#### 3.6.1 German Politeness

'Im Deutschen lügt man wenn man höflich ist' ('One lies if one is polite in German') says Goethe's character Baccalaureus (Baccalaureus in Faust by J.W. von Goethe). This statement summarizes the stereotype attached to Germans of being 'brusques, directs, impolis' ('blunt, direct, impolite'), according to Lüger (1999: 141).

Looking at House's (2003: 49) model of politeness issues in the German and Anglo-Saxon culture, one also gets the impression that it would probably be more appropriate to talk about German impoliteness, rather than German politeness.

Figure 2: German Culture vs. Anglo-Saxon Culture

German culture		Anglo-Saxon culture
Directness	↔	Indirectness
Orientation towards Self	↔	Orientation towards Other
Orientation towards Content	↔	Orientation towards Addressees
Explicitness	↔	Implicitness
Ad-Hoc Formulation	↔	Verbal Routines

Research confirms the impression that Germans seem impolite. House (1986) found that Germans use upgraders to reinforce an already aggressive utterance. It appears that in face-threatening situations, the British are more prone to avoid aggravating action, while the Germans seem to exhibit a rather defensive behaviour. Kotthoff (1989: 113, quoted in House, 2003) confirms House's (1986) findings, claiming that Germans were found to 'attack one another more directly and likewise contradict one another more frequently'. A number of other studies have also found Germans to show a preference for directness. According to Knoblauch (1991), Günthner (1993), and Günthner and Luckmann (2001), in German argumentation, direct disagreement seems to be preferred. A subsequent study by House (2003: 49) arrived at the same conclusion, stating that Germans interact in a 'more direct, more explicit, more self-referenced and more content-oriented' way. With regard to mitigation devices, Germans were again found to employ a more direct style. House and Kasper's (1981) study shows that English speakers use downgraders 1.5 times as frequently as the German speakers do, while the Germans use more upgraders than the English speakers. Germans, they state, 'show a stronger tendency to intensify the force of their speech acts in actual or potential conflict situations' (p. 182). All of these findings seem to reinforce the stereotype that Germans are direct and impolite. But what about New Zealand culture?

### 3.6.2 New Zealand Politeness

According to Holmes (1995), New Zealanders are similar to the British with regard to (im)polite behaviour, including interrupting behaviour, backchanneling and a preference for agreement and cooperation (at least in women's speech). Her studies also show that both New Zealand men and women show a greater preference for modified disagreements over unmitigated disagreement, although women show a much more pronounced trend than men.

The findings of various researchers point to the conclusion that New Zealanders are a rather polite and cooperative people, while the Germans are a direct and confrontational people. A comparison of New Zealanders and Germans makes the latter seem awfully rude.

However, it is not that simple, Germans may be less polite when compared to the more polite Anglo-Saxon culture, but may be very polite when compared to another culture, as Meier (1995b; 1997) pointed out. According to House (1986), Germans and British English speakers simply differ in their perceptions of the strength of an utterance and in that the two cultural systems are organized differently (House & Kasper, 1981). Because of that, Germans do not

perceive more direct statements as impolite and do not refrain from using very direct strategies, while the British do (House, 1986; House & Kasper, 1981). Not only do they differ in their perception of directness and appropriateness, according to House (1986), Germans and Anglo-Saxon cultures also have different ways of reacting to face-threatening situations. While the British use more humour, the Germans use more verbal abuse, attack and aggression. Moreover, the two cultures appear to have different ways of expressing politeness. According to Thielmann (2003), addressing someone with the formal address form 'Sie' is in itself a form of politeness that gives the other person enough space, with the result that everything else can be quite frank. English politeness, on the other hand, relies on different space-giving devices such as register and indirectness, he claims.

Overall, one can say that there are differences in the perception of politeness and appropriateness in German and New Zealand cultures that are based on different values and different systems.

## **4 Prosody**

Thus far, it has been demonstrated that cross-cultural communication is prone to failure, based on different concepts of whether a particular speech act is welcome or unwelcome and based on differing concepts of politeness. It has been suggested several times that differences in the use of prosodic and non-verbal cues may be a further factor complicating successful communication and mutual understanding. Before turning to explore the reasons why prosodic and non-verbal cues are crucial to mutual understanding and why it is important to incorporate prosody and non-verbal aspects of interaction into pragmatics research, let us first turn to a definition of what prosody is.

### **4.1 Definition**

According to Couper-Kuhlen (1986), the term prosody originated in Greece, referring to tone or melodic accent, but has since undergone an extension of meaning. To date it incorporates four aspects: pitch, loudness, duration, and voice quality. In the present study, voice quality will not be analysed in detail due to the fact no consistent and reliable measurement techniques are available to assess voice quality. The other three components are presented in a three-dimensional model of prosody proposed by Couper-Kuhlen (1986: 7), including the three audible aspects of prosody. They are: 1) an articulatory dimension, equalling the speaker

perspective; 2) an auditory dimension, equalling the hearer dimension; and 3) an acoustic dimension, which reflects speech as an acoustic signal that is being transmitted from the speaker to the hearer.

Figure 3: Prosody

Articulatory		Acoustic		Auditory
Vibrations of vocal folds	—	fundamental frequency (f0)	—	pitch
Physical effort	—	amplitude (intensity)	—	loudness
Timing of articulatory movements	—	time	—	duration

A clear distinction has to be made between prosodic effects and non-linguistic auditory aspects of speech, such as a cough or a sneeze, as well as paralinguistic auditory effects, such as whispering or giggling. In contrast to those temporary modifications of speech, prosodic effects are continuously present in speech (Couper-Kuhlen, 1986). The focus of the present study is these permanently present features of speech, called prosodic features.

#### 4.2 Why Include Prosodic Features in a Pragmatics Research Project?

‘All speech is said with prosody’, but sadly ‘how something is said rather than what is said is an intrinsic, but often neglected, dimension of what speakers say and hearers hear’ (Wichmann, 2004: 1525).

As Wichmann’s (2004) quote demonstrates, speech and prosodic effects are inseparable. Nevertheless, prosody has not received much attention in pragmatics research to date. As Swerts and Hirschberg (1998) aptly put it: ‘while considerable research has been done in the past in prosody and conversation, work which combines the two has been lamentably scarce’ (229). Those researchers who have investigated prosodic effects, such as Auer et al. (1999: 4), plead for the inclusion of prosodic cues (more specifically in this case, rhythm) by putting forth the following comparison: ‘although a description of human walking would hardly be imaginable without a rhythmic component, the description of human language apparently is, as the non-treatment of this subject [...] implies’. However, it is not only rhythm that has been ignored in pragmatics research.

Not only should prosody be included in pragmatics research, a field of ‘phonological pragmatics’ (Auer et al., 1999: 28) should be established and instead of regarding language structure and usage as separate entities, they should be considered to be complementary. Auer et al. (1999) are not alone in their quest for including prosody in pragmatics research. Ford and Couper-Kuhlen (2004) also plead for a co-study of Conversation Analysis with prosody, since that is how language operates in real use. Swerts and Hirschberg (1998) agree, claiming that the study of prosody is critical to our understanding of how people converse. In line with this, Wennerstrom (2001) argues that prosody belongs in the discussion of speech act theory. Likewise, Culpeper et al. (2003) urge us to integrate prosodic and contextual cues not only into pragmatics research, but more specifically into politeness research in order to arrive at a richer understanding of speech behaviour.

### **4.3 Functions of Prosodic Cues**

Their inseparable nature from speech implies that prosodic cues carry important information. The following section will discuss in greater detail the functions and information content which prosodic cues carry, thus further demonstrating the need to include prosodic information in a pragmatics research project. Before addressing the specific benefits that prosodic cues hold to a research project of culture specific disagreeing behaviour, I will address the benefits of prosodic cues to the understanding of speech in general.

#### **4.3.1 Semantic Content of Prosodic Cues**

Prosodic cues, as noted above, are continuously present in speech (Brazil, 1997), and in fact ‘it is not normal to make utterances without them’ (Couper-Kuhlen, 1986: 3). They typically co-occur with verbal utterances and non-verbal cues (Bolinger, 1989; Auer, 1996) and it is not coincidental that they do. Prosody gives us vital cues and information about an interaction that help us process what is being said and more importantly indicate how what is said is being meant.

Christman and Günthner (1996) observed that prosodic marking coincides with semantically important places, and that prosodic cues and words reinforce one another. This co-occurrence is due to the fact that prosodic choices are systematically related to meaning (Couper-Kuhlen & Selting, 1996). Prominent words, according to Brazil (1997) realize sense selections; if a

speaker chooses to stress one syllable over another, one can assume that this selection is meaningful.

Prosodic cues can provide an indication of the salience and relevance of the conversational content. More specifically, prosodic cues stress the importance of the information content of an utterance. This is achieved through tonic prominence, which creates information foci (Couper-Kuhlen & Selting, 1996). In other words, prosodic strategies can signal the novelty factor of an utterance to the listener. Not unlike the start of a new sentence, the start of a new topic is also phonetically indicated through an extra high pitch reset and increase in loudness (Wichmann, 2000), calling for an increase in hearer attention. Auer et al. (1999) further mention density and speech rate as a means of creating informational salience and relevance, i.e. central idea units can be distinguished from less important parts of speech through the tempo in which they are uttered (Uhmann, 1992). There is a strong correlation, according to Auer et al. (1999), between tempo and relevance. According to them, slow passages are central components. Side-sequences, on the other hand, are uttered more quickly than the surrounding context, which signals lower informational salience (Uhmann, 1992).

However, prosodic cues are not only meaningful and important to the speech content, but also to the organization and management of interaction.

#### 4.3.2 Conversational Organization

Prosody plays an important part in managing conversation, since prosodic cues are effective means of highlighting different aspects of dialogue structure, such as turn-taking, topic structure, and information status (Swerts & Hirschberg, 1998). Prosodic cues, Auer (1996) claims, help to smooth interaction in that they indicate turn-units and transition relevant places. This is not only achieved syntactically, he affirms, but also through use of prosodic and non-verbal cues that typically co-occur. The prosodic marking of the beginning of a new sentence is typically indicated through a pitch reset – a shift up in pitch at the start of a new sentence – and an increase in loudness (Wichmann, 2000). On the other hand, final falling intonation and low terminals indicate the end of a turn or topic, while non-low terminals signal that there is more to come (Wichmann, 2004; Brown et al., 1980; Bolinger, 1989; Szczepek Reed, 2004)). Hence, through prosody, speakers are able to show their willingness or unwillingness to give up the floor. With regard to disagreements, Ford et al. (2004) found

that speakers signal through prosody, particularly speed, whether a turn is to be continued after an initial 'no'.

Structuring a conversation through prosodic means is, however, not confined to the sentence level. Similar to signalling the start of a new sentence through pitch reset, a new topic is also introduced through pitch reset. Not only is the pitch higher in comparison to the immediately surrounding context, but also in relation to the speaker's overall pitch range (Couper-Kuhlen, 2004). In particular, where there is a lack of structuring through lexical means, sudden surges in loudness and pitch are found in their stead, according to Couper-Kuhlen (2004).

Smooth interactions are, however, not only achieved through turn-allocation, but also because prosodic cues help maintain thematic cohesion (Gumperz, 1977). As 'conversational glue', prosodic cues are to a considerable degree responsible for conversational flow.

#### 4.3.3 Emotion Content

The functions of prosodic cues do not stop at the lexical, structural or content level; they also provide vital information about the emotional state of the speaker. While some studies distinguish between the emotional and the cognitive component of attitudes, as Mozziconacci and Hermes (2000: 1) put it: 'For conciseness' sake, the term 'emotion' will be used in the present [study] as short for both notions of emotion and of attitude'.

Bolinger (1989) distinguishes between two different intonational qualities, the one being unmarked or neutral, and the other being emotion-laden. This emotion-laden intonation quality exhibits affective states such as anger and enthusiasm (Christman & Günthner, 1996) – to name but a few – in the speaker's voice. By showing emotional qualities through intonation a speaker can convey his/her attitude; in other words, prosodic cues indicate how a speaker feels about what he/she says. This attitudinal function, according to Crystal (1995) is one of the most important functions of intonation. Bolinger (1986) even claims that the emotional function of prosodic marking outweighs its importance in the role of grammatical signal.

According to Bolinger (1978), both pitch range and pitch height are clearly tied to emotional states. Negative sentences, he claims, typically display lowered pitch. Perrin et al. (2003) arrived at the same conclusion, stating that statements are more likely to be interpreted negatively when uttered with low register. Heightened pitch on the other hand shows increase

in excitement (Bolinger, 1983). The level of involvement and arousal can also be expressed through further prosodic cues. According to Kehrein (2003), the faster the speech, the more excited the speaker will be perceived to be, while the reverse is the case for slow speech. Fast speech is equated with arousal, excitement, anger and engagement, he claims. Chafe (2002) arrived at the same conclusion, stating that strong acceleration of a speaker's utterance signals high emotional involvement.

One particular emotion that holds potential relevance to the speech act of disagreement is that of anger. According to Vuchinich (1984), oppositional moves such as disagreements establish an adversarial position and involve some measure of hostility, and consequently a transfer of negative affect. Paeschke and Sendlmeier's (2000) findings brought to light the fact that expressions of the emotion of anger were significantly higher in pitch than those of any of the other emotions they observed (these include fear, boredom, sadness and neutral speech). In their study of the acoustic characteristics of emotions, Pereira and Watson (1998) also found that the expressions of anger displayed an increase in fundamental frequency mean and range and an increase in mean intensity.

The studies cited above have demonstrated that it is an undisputed fact that intonation plays an important role in the expression of emotions and attitudes. Hence, according to Couper-Kuhlen (1986), it is not a question of 'whether intonation expresses a speaker's inner states or not but rather how much' of it is revealed by intonation (p. 173).

Prosodic cues are a 'dead give-away' of a speaker's emotional and attitudinal stance; as such, they fulfil an important role in allowing the addressee to interpret a speaker's message successfully. In order to be able to correctly interpret the speaker's intention, however, emotional information alone is insufficient. A listener also requires contextual information, and prosodic cues are one of the ways in which a speaker can provide contextual cues.

#### 4.3.4 Prosodic Cues as Contextualization Cues

Prosodic cues have the function of providing contextual embedding indispensable for constructing meaning. According to Auer et al. (1999), contextualization is 'the process by which conversationalists enable each other to bridge the gap between what is meant and what is said' (p. 27).

The reason why prosodic cues are so indispensable to the study of conversation is that they serve as so-called ‘contextualization cues’, a term established by Gumperz (1992). The importance of context to the study of language has not only been well-established by a multitude of researchers (Holmes, 1995; Holmes et al., 1999; Auer et al., 1999; Gumperz, 2001; Spencer-Oatey, 2002; Mey, 2001) but is the focal point of pragmatic research in itself. Prosodic marking is by no means the only form of contextualization cue, rather prosodic marking is used in addition to other contextualization cues. Prosodic cues, however, are a particularly important form of contextualization cue, as prosody overrides all other cues, according to Selting (1996). By changing voice quality, or intonation contour, or by employing a variety of alternative prosodic cues, speakers mark utterances which are not to be understood in their literal meaning. Wagner and Firth (1997: 325) call this marking ‘flagging’. Prosodic flagging has the potential to turn a statement into an ironic or sarcastic remark, for example. How successful these cues are, depends, however, on the participant’s awareness of their meaningfulness (Gumperz, 1982).

The participants’ awareness and orientation to prosodic cues will be discussed in the following section.

#### **4.4 Participant Orientation**

Even more important than the finding that prosody has the potential to fulfil a multitude of functions, is the finding that participants do indeed orient to both the absence and presence of prosodic marking (Selting, 1996). Selting and Couper-Kuhlen (1996: 1) even argue that the tone of voice and other non-linguistic features ‘are often more significant cues to the real message than the words themselves’. O’Sullivan et al. (1985) confirm this by stating that their findings show evidence that how something sounds is more important than what is said. Likewise, Rosenthal et al. (1974) confirm that sometimes tone of voice and other non-verbal signals form a clearer part of the message than the words that are uttered. The function of prosodic cues is particularly important where word information is not perfect (Stolcke et al., 2000), because they play a major role in giving meaning to an utterance (Linell, 2002). Prosodic features thereby enable a listener to eliminate the potential ambiguity of a statement (Stolcke et al., 2000). Besides, it would seem highly unlikely that a speaker would bother providing cues for syntactic structure, content structure, and a multitude of other areas if there was no orientation by the recipient of a message towards those cues. It also seems unlikely that listeners would ignore this wealth of information.

Successful communication is the result of a joint effort though. Hence it is the responsibility of a speaker to communicate his/her message clearly as much as it is the listener's responsibility to interpret the message successfully. There is evidence in support of a mutual effort of both parties. According to Quené (2004: 149), speakers do make an effort to communicate their message clearly in that they adjust phonetic properties of their speech to ensure an optimal balance between economy of articulatory energy and perceptual clarity for the listener, because 'after all, speakers speak in order to be understood'.

However, as stated above, it is not solely the speaker's responsibility to communicate successfully. A listener needs to be able to do inferential work, otherwise a speaker will not be able to exploit the inferential power of a communicative strategy (Wagner & Firth, 1997). It is therefore important to assess whether listeners are indeed able to correctly assess messages based on prosodic information.

While there is disagreement about the extent to which listeners are able to interpret prosodic messages, with regards to emotions, a number of studies show that listeners were able to interpret speaker intentions correctly. According to Ratner (2000) emotions are not always interpreted correctly because there may be cultural differences in the conceptualisation of emotions. He conducted studies on the Fore people of New Guinea and Americans, showing that there is only modest agreement on the recognition of emotions, when asked to identify emotions as displayed by the other culture. However, other studies have found a high recognition rate. According to Kehrein (2003), certain emotional states (particularly base emotions) have been interpreted consistently by various subjects, and no errors were made. The same finding is reported by Pereira and Watson (1998), whose study also showed that emotions (including hot and cold anger, happiness and sadness) were normally identified correctly by listeners. Further studies on emotion recognition report recognition accuracies of 66% in a cross-cultural investigation of five emotions in nine languages on three continents (Scherer, 2000), of 75% for negative shaded emotion (Devillers, Vasilescu & Mathon, 2003), of ~77% for negative emotions in speech signals (Lee, Narayanam & Pieraccini, 2002), and in excess of 90% for the recognition of hot anger versus neutrality (Yacoub, Simske, Lin & Burns, 2003). The findings, therefore, point to the conclusion that listeners are indeed capable of consistently and reliably interpreting prosodic messages successfully, both within the same culture and across cultures. However, there seem to be degrees of cultural differences in emotion recognition. While the Fore people of New Guinea and Americans may be located far apart on the cultural similarity spectrum, cultures like the German and English cultures may

be more similar and may have a more similar conceptualisation of emotions, thereby facilitating the recognition of emotions. Nevertheless, the evidence points to the conclusion that listeners can do inferential work on the basis of prosodic cues.

Prosodic cues are responsible to a large degree, not only for communicating emotions and attitudes, but also for the impressions a hearer gains from listening to a speaker.

#### 4.4.1 Impression Formation

According to Bolinger (1989), hearers form impressions on the basis of intonation and other prosodic cues – though mostly unconsciously – even when listening to a language they don't understand. Studies by Zellner Keller (2004; 2005) have shown that there is a relationship between a speaker's prosodic style and how the speaker's personality profile was perceived by a listener. Prosody can be employed strategically for this reason. Women's speech has a number of characteristic prosodic features, Bolinger (1989) claims, such as higher pitch, more frequent final rise and more overall pitch variation. Speakers can deliberately adopt different registers and depending on what impression they want to portray to the listener, a woman could enhance the feminine quality in her voice, or opt to sound more authoritative by suppressing typical female intonational characteristics (Bolinger, 1989). The finding that prosodic cues are an important factor in the impressions we form of a speaker, regardless of our proficiency in a language, are particularly relevant and important to cross-cultural communication.

#### 4.4.2 Cross-Cultural Communication

As noted above, listeners form impressions about a speaker even when they do not understand the language content, i.e. they may form impressions based solely on the basis of prosodic cues. Falsely applied intonation patterns in a different language may lead to malformed impressions or even misunderstanding. Or as Forster (1924: 262, quoted in Hinnenkamp, 2001) put it: 'a pause in the wrong place, an intonation misunderstood and a whole conversation went awry'. This provides us with an indication that cross-cultural communication may even be more sensitive to prosodic cues than intracultural communication appears to be. According to Stolcke et al. (2000), prosody becomes particularly important where a verbal message is not perfect. Hence it is possible that, due to a lack in language proficiency, non-native speakers may be required to rely more on alternative

communicative sources (such as prosody and non-verbal communication) to convey a message or understand an utterance. Needless to say, if the prosodic cues are flawed in addition to the verbal message being imperfect, the potential for miscommunication increases.

Due to such a great potential for miscommunication, language should never be studied in a decontextualized form, but should always be seen in the context of the situation and the embeddedness of a particular praxis in its culture (Auer et al., 1999). What might be acceptable in one culture may not be in another and prosodic cues function no differently to verbal messages in their potential for misunderstanding. Each culture has a set of norms about what expressions and strategies are considered appropriate, including prosodic strategies such as pitch and loudness (Hurley, 1992). According to Bolinger (1989), it is standard practice in America to raise one's voice in anger, to emphasize a point, to conclude a meeting, or to speak at a distance. The same prosodic cue in Chinese culture is interpreted as a loss of self-control. While prosodic means, such as intonation, and speech rate are universal signs of demarcation or of marking divisions, the proportions and frequencies at which they are employed differ (Bolinger, 1989).

These studies demonstrate the need to raise awareness of prosodic properties in communication across cultures and while they at least constitute a step in the right direction, there clearly is a need for more extensive research in this field. More specifically, according to Wennerstrom (2001), there is a need for more research on prosody of languages other than English, in order to gain insight into cross-cultural communication.

#### 4.4.4 Acquisition of Prosodic Knowledge

As noted above, listeners orient to prosodic cues in speech and a misplacement/misuse of prosodic cues can lead to failure in communication, particularly where cross-cultural communication is involved. Hackman (1977) complains that in second language (L2) teaching, reasonable knowledge of syntax and semantics is acquired, but not enough prosodic knowledge, nor the rules of application thereof. The problem, she says, is that speaker and listener have the impression they speak the same language. In reality, however, second language learners speak a non-native language based on their own prosodic rules (Gårding, 1974). Miscommunication and misunderstanding are the result. An utterance can strike the listener in ways not intended by the speaker if the sentence prosody is different to what the listener is used to, according to Hackman (1977). Consequently, a question can seem

aggressive, a statement can come across as irritated, and irony can be contextually inappropriate in the listener's cultural context, she claims. Prosody is crucial to the communicative competence of L2 learners and consciousness raising activities for learners whose native language does not contain the same prosodic properties is, therefore, recommended (Wennerstrom, 2001). Hurley (1992) agrees, stating that teaching L2 learners skills including prosody and non-verbal communication can help a learner to communicate more effectively. Prosodic and non-verbal cues are what distinguish artificial from natural language and the acquisition of these skills is what helps the learner make the transition from language texts and classroom to communicating with native speakers, he claims. The problem, as he sees it, is that neither of these skills is explained easily in grammar books. Presumably, this is why they have been largely ignored in L2 teaching to date.

The sections on cross-cultural communication and the acquisition of prosodic knowledge have demonstrated both that there are language-specific differences and that such differences can lead to miscommunication. It is, therefore, time to address the language-specific prosodic patterns of the two languages investigated in this research project.

#### **4.5 German vs. English Registers of Prosody**

Prosody has both universal as well as language-specific functions (Wennerstrom, 2001). The universal functions include the conveying of emotion, the signalling of different genres of speech, a rhythmic manifestation (Wennerstrom, 2001), and prosodic emphasizing (Bolinger, 1978). As there are also language specific functions, the question needs to be addressed, which prosodic features were found to be characteristic for the German language and the English language.

German is similar to English in all important respects (Fuchs, 1984; Gibbon, 1998). As far as intonation is concerned, these similarities include the languages' rhythmic make-up (Auer et al., 1999). Additionally, they share favoured positions for stress (Bolinger, 1978), they are highly similar in intonation (Bolinger, 1989), and in both languages, stress clash could provide extra emphasis, if a speaker expresses a strong opinion (Wennerstrom, 2001).

This is not to say, however, that they do not differ at all. Minor differences have been found, distinguishing the two languages prosodically. One such difference is found in word-stress. While overall stress patterns are similar, English stress patterns are slightly less consistent than German stress patterns (Hirst, 1998; Gibbon, 1998). A further slight difference is the

level of intensity with which a certain prosodic feature is used. While monotony and excitement are both expressed through pitch height in German and English, the range of pitch modulation in German is much lower than in English with the result that speaker intention or attitude may be misjudged (Gibbon, 1998). The functional load intonation carries in these languages also differs, according to Bolinger (1989). He explains this by stating that just because a language has prosodic means available for conveying something does not mean that speakers indeed make use of those means. One language may prefer to fall back on intonation while another might prefer alternative means of conveying information. The overall functional load of prosody in German is lower than in English (Gibbon, 1998). Focalisation in German is primarily achieved through word order, while in English it is primarily achieved through prosody, according to Gibbon (1998). The same applies to the use of modal particles. In German, modal particles such as 'ja', 'doch', 'mal', 'eben', can replace rise-fall intonation in English (Schubiger, 1980). With regards to speech rate, further differences have been found distinguishing German from English. Goldman-Eisler (1961: 171, cited in Uhmman, 1992) claims that English speakers speak at a rate of between 4.4-5.9 syllables per second (s/s) with an average of 4.95 s/s. Meinhold (1972: 496, cited in Uhmman, 1992); on the other hand, investigated speakers of German and found for them to speak at a speech rate of between 5.2s/s-5.6s/s in most of the genres of speech he investigated.

In conclusion, it can be said that, while the prosodic register of the two languages differs in part (with regards to their application and consistency), they 'have fundamentally quite similar prosodic systems' (Gibbon, 1998: 94).

However, all of the above mentioned characteristics are based on British English, which has been studied in great detail. Studies on prosodic characteristics of New Zealand English are much more scarce. Many of the characteristics outlined for British English are expected to apply to New Zealand English as well. However, varieties of English do have specific features characteristic for that particular variety of English and indeed, phonetic cues help to determine the variety of English spoken (Vermillion, 2003). One prosodic characteristic that has been found to be typical of New Zealand English is the high-rising terminal (HRT) (Allan, 1990). The HRT is a common phenomenon in New Zealand English - not merely for questions, but also for declaratives (Vermillion, 2003). In German, a final rise in conjunction with questions has a rather different status. The HRT in German is marked and signals politeness and interest, while a final fall is unmarked (Pheby, 1981; Selting, 1996). Arguably,

this phenomenon could lead to New Zealanders being interpreted as very polite by Germans and it could lead to Germans being perceived as rather impolite by New Zealanders. It is, however, questionable if the findings on the HRT bear relevance to the current study on disagreement behaviour. Firstly, Pheby's (1981) findings on German speech behaviour apply to questions and only a few disagreements are uttered in question format. Secondly, Allan (1990) found that the HRT is mostly found in conjunction with narrative, but rarely in connection with opinions, the latter being the typical format of a disagreeing act. Thirdly, another finding of Allan's (1990) that speaks against the relevance of the HRT to disagreements is that rising tone opens the floor for further discussion, while falling tone concludes matters. According to Brazil (1997), questions with a proclaiming tone (fall) signal 'I know what it is, confirm that I'm right', whereas a referring tone (fall-rise) in question projects a context in which the response has to be negotiated. Arguably, in disagreements, speakers do not wish to leave room for their opinions to be further discussed and questioned. Hence, it is expected that the HRT does not play an important role as marker of cross-cultural differences in disagreements.

The discussion of prosody, thus far, has concentrated on clarifying what prosody is, what functions prosodic features carry, and their general relevance to the organisation and understanding of speech. The remaining section on prosody will portray the relevance prosodic cues hold to the present study.

#### **4.6 The Relevance of Prosody to the Present Study**

Both disagreements and politeness form the basis for this research project, and as such they deserve to be addressed in detail.

##### **4.6.1 The Relevance of Prosody to Disagreement**

According to Swerts and Hirschberg (1998) prosodic cues can signal what type of speech act is occurring. This is achieved through the use of a particular clustering of prosodic signalling cues, which systematically distinguish different activity types (Selting, 1996). The speech act disagreement is no exception to this rule and according to Yeager-Dror (2002), it is widely recognized that prosodic variation serves as cue for agreement or a lack thereof. Prosodic cues that can signal disagreement include rhythm, emphatic speech, interruption, an increase in intensity and speech rate as well as a change in fundamental frequency.

According to Auer et al. (1999), rhythm can be an indicator of agreement or disagreement. Interactional rhythm does not happen by chance, they state; it has to be achieved through a joint effort of the interlocutors. Maintaining a common rhythm is essential in affiliating, according to Müller (1996). Likewise, Auer et al. (1999) claim that, while rhythmic coordination displays mutual endeavour, rhythmic delay can be an indication of reluctance to agree. A lack of rhythmic integration thus signals disagreement (Wennerstrom, 2001; Selting, 1996; Vuchinich, 1984). This, however, is only the case in a non-argumentative context, according to Auer et al. (1999), who state that rhythmic delay in argumentative discourse is a sign of weakness and, particularly where defence of one's face is in play, disagreements are usually rhythmically integrated and immediate. Two conclusions can be drawn from these findings on rhythm. Firstly, where the discourse is non-argumentative, disagreements should be signalled through delay. Secondly, where discourse has an argumentative nature, disagreement should be rhythmically integrated.

It is not, however, solely rhythm that can mark a disagreement. Intonation is a further indicator of disagreement. Brazil (1997) mentions final rise and fall as disagreement relevant markers. A falling tone signals the speaker's certainty that he/she is right in his/her statement and leaves no room for negotiation, while a fall-rise intonation achieves the opposite. Paeschke and Sendlmeier (2000) came to the same conclusion, stating that a decline to the lower border of a speaker's range signals certainty, conviction and a statement of undoubted facts. Both types of uses of sentence-final intonation are meaningful and relevant for disagreements, as both an unwillingness to leave room for negotiation as well as a wish to place emphasis on one's disagreement are expected to be frequent attributes of disagreements.

Disagreement-related aspects of speech also include emphasis. Disagreements can come in the form of a reproach. Reproach is marked through high pitch and can be marked through high intensity. Emphasis, which has previously been noted in connection with some uses of rising intonation, can also be achieved through dense accentuation (Christmann & Günthner, 1996), duration, and height in fundamental frequency (Rietveld & Vermillion, 2003), as well as loudness (Goodwin, Goodwin & Yeager-Dror, 2002; Selting, 1994). Strong emphasis is perceived as energetic and angry and as such, is highly relevant to the interpretation of politeness in disagreements. Strong emphasis can be achieved through a pause immediately prior to the onset of emphatic style. This kind of pause, which Mukherje (2000) calls anticipation pause, signals that the subsequent content contains a high information value (Swerts, 1998) and sets the stage for an emphatic climax (Kjellmer, 2003; Selting, 1994).

With relation to emphatic speech, it is important to address the issue of emotional involvement. Since negative statements are often emotionally coloured (Schubiger, 1980), emotional involvement plays a crucial role in disagreements. As noted previously, prosodic cues can signal emotions per se, but also to what extent a person shows involvement, and how strongly a person feels about their statement and opinion. Čmejrková (2004), in her study on political debates, distinguishes between low involvement style (neutral speech) and high involvement style (affect laden speech). While low involvement style is characterized as content-centred, high involvement style is characterized as emotive ego-centred speech style. As opinionated statements, disagreements are prone to high emotional involvement, hence an emotive speech style. In order to be able to provide an accurate account of emotive communication, 'equal attention [needs to be paid] to verbal, non-verbal, vocal and kinetic aspects of vehicles of communication' (Čmejrková, 2004: 36).

The affect-laden speech act of indignation, for example, shows ample prosodic marking. Christmann and Günthner (1996) claim that indignation is prosodically marked through a variety of cues. The techniques they mention for signalling moral indignation include rhythmic speech, dense accentuation, fast speech, rise-fall/fall-rise intonation (sing-song), heightened intensity and change of pitch (either very high or emphatically low). Such prosodic markings are found at semantically important places and intensify each other (Christmann & Günthner, 1996).

A further characteristic typically associated with disagreements is a high frequency of turn-competitive and turn-interruptive sequences. Turn competitive episodes are also prosodically marked (Ng et al., 1993). Prosodic features associated with successful interruption are rapid speech rate, high vocal amplitude (Roger, 1989) and heightened pitch (French & Local, 1983).

These prosodic markings characteristic of disagreements have the potential to offend an interlocutor and threaten the addressee's face. It is therefore important to look at the second key feature of this study, namely how to counteract potential offence through the use of politeness strategies and modification devices.

#### 4.6.2 The Relevance of Prosody to Politeness

Ambady et al. (1996) discovered, in their research on linguistic and non-linguistic ways of expressing politeness in different cultures, that non-linguistic channels (prosodic and non-verbal channels) communicate politeness independent of linguistic channels. Hence, they need to be taken into account in addition to the verbal channel when conducting politeness research. Prosody is of particular relevance to politeness research for various reasons. Firstly, prosodic cues can express different levels of directness. The level of directness has been proven to be directly related to the perception of politeness (Lakoff, 1990; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Werlen, 1983). Hurley (1992) attributes the potential to communicate different levels of indirectness, and therefore the potential to express alternative ways of realizing different levels of politeness, to prosodic and non-verbal channels. Wennerstrom (2001) also argues that prosody can convey politeness in the sense of indirectness.

Secondly, what seems to be particularly important to a study of disagreements is the fact that prosodic cues can convey the opposite effect from the verbal message. Hence, what appears to be a polite statement in verbal form can be reversed by prosodic cues into an impolite statement. According to Hillison and Lyons (1982), the tone of voice indicates a great deal about the point being made. A negative intonation, they state, gives opposite meaning to a positive statement.

These findings demonstrate that looking at the verbal level of communication alone, ignores the fact that (im)politeness can be (and indeed is) altered through prosodic and non-verbal means. How modification can be achieved through the use of prosodic cues shall be discussed in the following section.

#### 4.6.3 Prosody as Modification Devices

The previous section demonstrated that prosody plays a role in politeness research in general, but a more specific notion is the importance of prosody in signalling the illocutionary force of a disagreement. According to Couper-Kuhlen (1986), this can be achieved by tone of voice, stress and intonation. Turning to the German motto: 'Der Ton macht die Musik' ('the tone determines the music'), Raible (1987) explains that everything one says can be uttered in a manner that comes across as friendly and positive, or as unfriendly and aggressive through the use of prosodic features, such as tone of voice and intonation. Particularly where grammar and intonation are at odds, intonation typically carries the illocutionary force of a speech act

(Wennerstrom, 2001). Culpeper et al. (2003: 1576) argue along the same lines. They sum up the role of prosodic cues as modification devices by stating that ‘it is sometimes the prosody that makes an utterance impolite – giving truth to the common view that the offence lay in how something was said rather than what was said’.

More specifically Culpeper et al. (2003) found, in their study on linguistic rudeness, that impoliteness can be expressed prosodically and, therefore, prosodic devices can serve as strengthening devices. Likewise, Hurley (1992) states that prosodic as well as non-verbal cues serve as softening and strengthening devices and therefore play an important role in politeness research.

The strengthening of an utterance can be achieved in various ways; one such way is through an increase in loudness which can be seen as an invasion of our auditory space, while a markedly low fall intensifies the sense of finality, thereby also serving as a form of strengthening device, according to Culpeper et al. (2003). Another way to strengthen a statement, mentioned by Culpeper et al. (2003), is through high pitch. Linell (2002) mentions prominence as a further form of prosodic reinforcement, as does Wennerstrom (2001), explaining that exaggerated prosody can signal disaffiliation in a harsh and challenging way.

On the other hand, prosody can also convey politeness through indirectness. While exaggerated prosody can signal disaffiliation, it can also signal emotional affiliation in a positive way and can thereby modify a disagreement (Wennerstrom, 2001). Mitigation can also be achieved through pitch. Wennerstrom (2001) claims that a final rise can be used to soften the input of a disagreement. She attributes the same properties to rhythm. According to her, a regular rhythm can serve to camouflage the effect of face-threatening material. Another form of mitigation is mentioned by Kaufmann (2002), who found that face threatening instances were prosodically de-emphasized in order to mitigate an utterance, in particular to mitigate disagreement. With regards to the softening function of prosodic cues, Wennerstrom (2001) claims that we rely on prosody as a mitigation strategy and where prosody is absent, the result can be that communication appears to be less friendly and polite. ‘Email discourse can sound aggressive or angry’, she states, ‘[because] it lacks the usual mitigating factors – body language and prosody- that we rely on to soften our speech acts in face to face discourse’ (p. 160).

In this section it has been demonstrated that prosodic cues form an integral part of face-to-face communication. They help us to structure and organize our conversations, both with

regard to topic, content and cohesion and with regard to turn-allocation and turn-taking. Prosodic cues, however, also give us vital cues about how to interpret a speaker's utterance, because they provide us with contextual as well as emotional and attitudinal cues. Hence, prosodic cues play a major role in interaction, and since prosodic cues are by no means universal, they have the potential to pose problems in cross-cultural discourse and are consequently problematic for learners of a foreign language. In general terms, prosodic cues are a key element for successful communication, where they are applied and interpreted correctly. They are a key element for unsuccessful communication where applied incorrectly.

With regard to this research project, prosodic cues are particularly important for two reasons. Firstly, prosodic cues help to signal that a disagreement is produced. Secondly, they help to modify the illocutionary force of a disagreement, both by intensifying and by downtoning a statement.

## **5 Non-verbal Communication**

The previous section addressed the benefits of prosodic cues to pragmatics research in general, and to the present research, disagreements, and politeness in particular. Let us now turn our attention to the question how non-verbal cues can benefit interactants and why they play an important role in communicating disagreement and politeness.

### **5.1 Definition**

Jones and LeBaron (2002) note that the terms 'verbal' and 'non-verbal' are outdated and no longer useful, mainly based on Kendon's (1972: 443) argument that one should not separate out the verbal from the non-verbal part of communication, since there is only one unified type of communication, which comprises of both those aspects. They also mention Streeck and Knapp's (1992: 5) objection to the term 'non-verbal', calling it 'misleading and obsolete'. They, nevertheless, agree with my viewpoint, namely that the term 'non-verbal' is the most recognizable to the reader and therefore practical in its use. For the present study, the term 'non-verbal' further provides a necessary distinction between the verbal, prosodic and non-verbal aspects of communication. It is important to note, however, that in the context of this study, the term 'non-verbal' will only be used in the sense of 'non-vocal' and does not include prosodic aspects, as is sometimes the case.

## **5.2 How to Do Things Without Words**

In ‘how to do things with words’ Austin (1962) maintains that, by producing an utterance, a speaker performs an action. While there is no doubt that speakers perform actions verbally, as the word speech act itself suggests, interlocutors can perform actions non-verbally, that may speak just as loud as words. With regard to the present data, Tankard et al. (1977) state that studies of television bias that leave out non-verbal elements neglect a major dimension of communication. The following section will address how relevant non-verbal actions are to speech and the benefits of investigating them.

## **5.3 The Correlation of Speech with Non-verbal Cues**

### **5.3.1 The Autonomy of Non-Verbal Behaviour**

Unlike verbal utterances, prosodic and non-verbal cues are not autonomous. While contextual information is important to correctly understand the meaning of words (de Ruiter, 2000), verbal utterances, nevertheless, also contain meaning when de-contextualized. This, however, hardly applies to prosodic and non-verbal communication. Prosodic cues have to co-occur with speech, and they can only acquire meaning through the verbal context. To a lesser extent, this is true for non-verbal means of communication as well. Sign and context are to be seen as inseparable, claim McNeill and Duncan (2000). In fact, most gestures are hardly interpretable without speech (de Ruiter, 2000). The two systems are inextricably intertwined, both temporally and semantically, and together form a unified communication system (Nobe, 2000; Butcher & Goldin-Meadow, 2000; Alibali et al., 1997; McNeill, 1992). Trying to understand speech only through non-verbal means would be like trying to understand a written text by seeing just the adverbs, says Bavelas (1994). Only a few forms of gesture, posture, facial expression and head and body movement can stand on their own and ‘speak for themselves’. This applies mostly to emblems, a type of gesture that is culturally determined (Ekman & Friesen, 1981; McNeill, 1998), speech-act-like (McNeill, 1998) and – in contrast to most other non-verbal cues – has a non-arbitrary, motivated meaning (Kendon, 1995), and is used both consciously and deliberately (Krauss et al., 1996; Ekman & Friesen, 1981). Hence, emblems do not require speech to be present in order to convey meaning. Emblems, however, are a notable exception. Most other non-verbal cues can be independent, but are mostly concomitant. Nevertheless ‘expressive non-verbal signals [can] substitute for words’ (Holmes, 2003: 177).

### 5.3.2 Synchronization

It has been established above that gestures typically co-occur with speech. However, it needs to be mentioned that they are not necessarily entirely temporally linked to the speech part they accompany. The issue of the synchrony of gesture and speech has, in fact, been a major point in the debate about whether non-verbal cues are used in a meaningful or in a redundant way.

Gestures can occur before, with and without a word (Bavelas, 1994) and are rarely entirely synchronous in timing with the speech they accompany (Morrel-Samuels & Krauss, 1992; Nobe, 2000). While this finding may imply that non-verbal cues are random rather than functional, several researchers reject such inferences. It is unrealistic, claim Mayberry and Jaques (2000), to expect gestures to be completely simultaneous with speech. They are, however, 'highly correlated', they claim (p. 201) and show a tight temporal linkage with the specific linguistic segment to which they link in meaning (McNeill, 1998; Krauss et al., 1996). A study by Argyle et al. (1981) found evidence in their study on gaze that shifts of gaze are systematically coordinated with the timing of speech. In accordance with Mayberry and Jaques (2000), de Ruiter (2000) also acknowledges that synchrony is hard to define, especially since non-verbal signals may correlate with an entire phrase rather than with one particular word. Despite not being entirely synchronous, it has nevertheless been described as characteristic of adult speech that gestures occur in relative synchrony and semantic coherence with speech (Butcher & Goldin-Meadow, 2000). It might be more appropriate to talk about non-verbal signals as being 'co-temporal' rather than as synchronous, suggest Butcher and Goldin-Meadow (2000: 237).

However, the finding that non-verbal cues occur co-temporally with speech is not the only point in favour of regarding non-verbal behaviour as meaningfully related to speech. It appears that non-verbal cues are not only co-temporal with speech, but also with prosodic cues. Hadar (1992) and Streeck and Knapp (1992) claim that body movements also tend to be synchronous with prosodic effects. Movements were found to vary parallel to intonation and rhythm and are timed in relation to stress and emphasis. This temporal correlation between non-verbal cues and both speech and prosodic cues further suggests a strong integration of non-verbal signals with verbal utterances.

### 5.3.3 Speech Integration

A further argument supporting the theory that non-verbal cues do not randomly accompany speech, lies in the finding that non-verbal cues are semantically and pragmatically co-expressive with speech, i.e. they are combined with meaningful and related speech (Goldin-Meadow et al., 1996; Butcher & Goldin-Meadow, 2000; Mayberry & Jaques, 2000; McNeill, 2000; Schneller, 1992), and as such, are co-expressive and non-redundant (McNeill, 1998). It needs to be acknowledged at this point that evidence has been found supporting both claims, that gestures are communicatively intended (de Ruiter, 2000) and that they are ineffective (Krauss et al., 1991; 1995). In several studies and experimental designs, Krauss et al. (1991; 1995; 1996) have found that the semantic content of non-verbal cues is minimal. They, consequently, expressed doubts concerning the usefulness of non-verbal cues to the decoder on a semantic level. They, however, admit to having found a limited amount of semantic meaning. If de Ruiter (2000), Goldin-Meadow et al. (1996) and Bavelas (1994) are correct in stating that non-verbal cues are hardly interpretable without speech, then it is highly likely that the limited amount of semantic meaning that Krauss et al. (1991; 1995) discovered in their studies is based on their research designs, most of which present participants with non-verbal cues separated out from speech. Their findings, therefore, do not necessarily imply that non-verbal cues do not add to the semantic content when observed together with speech. Frick-Horbury and Guttentag (1998) confirm this assumption by stating that gestures display information that is supplementary to the speech content, but does not replace it. According to Levelt (1989), speech and gesture are interdependent at a semantic planning state, but independent at execution. In other words, observing the semantic meaning of gesture by itself means observing only half the message. There is substantial literature that observed that non-verbal cues enhance the semantic and pragmatic content by illustrating talk, depicting aspects of topical context, delivering information, clarifying messages, and making speech more economical (Bavelas, 1994; Hadar, 1992; Alibali et al., 1997). In fact, Frick-Horbury and Guttentag (1998) even list the communication of semantic content as a primary function of gesture.

Gesture and speech have been claimed to form a single unified communication system and deliver a coherent message to the listener (Alibali et al., 1997; McNeill, 1992; Streeck & Knapp 1992). Both of these modalities can and should be seen as a holistic entity (Jones & LeBaron, 2002). McNeill (1998: 19) says that ‘when we observe speech and gesture together we see the integration of two contrasting semiotic systems organized around an underlying

central idea unit that they both express, but by manifesting different systems'. Interactants do not separate them out, neither in speaking nor in decoding. Instead, the interpretation of gesture in speech is an integrated and natural process of communication, according to McNeill (1992). The linkage between gesture and speech is so strong that it withstands DAF (delayed auditory feedback) conditions (McNeill, 1998). While under this condition speech is grossly disrupted, the speech-gesture synchrony remains intact. As part of this holistic system, non-verbal signals provide important additional information for the addressee that will help him/her to understand the meaning of an utterance more quickly and easily. In fact, non-verbal cues have the potential to add to a verbal message so much that some linguistic statements only make sense when accompanied by gesture, especially where deictics are involved (Köchlin, 1992).

Overall, the qualities and the potential of non-verbal cues reviewed above have shown gestures to only acquire meaning through the surrounding (verbal) context and that they are not even synchronous with speech. Hence, the question arises whether an investigation of non-verbal cues will be beneficial to this research project. The answer is clearly: yes, we do benefit from non-verbal cues in communication. The preceding discussion has demonstrated that while non-verbal cues are typically not autonomous, they are, nevertheless, co-temporal and meaningfully related to the speech they accompany and carry valuable semantic and pragmatic information. The question that poses itself, however, is: Who exactly benefits from non-verbal communication and how is it relevant to an investigation of cross-cultural communication and disagreement?

#### **5.4 The Benefits of Non-Verbal Cues**

A logical assumption would be to expect non-verbal cues to be present for the benefit of the listener. It becomes clear, however, that non-verbal cues are not restricted to the sole benefit of the listener when we consider that people produce non-verbal signals even when speaking on the phone, i.e. in absence of a visible addressee. This phenomenon leads to the conclusion that some non-verbal cues must be produced for the benefit of the speaker. In fact, the phenomenon of gesturing while speaking on the telephone raises the question of whether non-verbal signals are intended for the listener at all. Köchlin (1992) explains the speaker's use of gestures in absence of an addressee by stating that it is natural to produce gestures to communicate. McNeill (2000) even goes a step further and calls gesturing compulsory. In fact, non-verbal cues are so deeply engrained in our communication that we produce them

regardless of whether or not there is an audience to see them (de Ruiter, 2000). Goldin-Meadow's (2000) findings explain the compulsory use of non-verbal cues. According to her, there is growing evidence that gesturing contributes to the thinking process itself and thereby reduces the cognitive effort.

While these findings have explained the speaker's motivation for the use of non-verbal cues, the question remains whether non-verbal cues are intended for a listener. Krauss et al. (1995) found evidence that supports the claim that non-verbal cues are produced for the benefit of the listener. According to them, speakers gesture only half as often over the phone/intercom as they do in face-to-face communication. They suggest that the fact that speakers produce more non-verbal cues when a communicational partner is visible confirms the proposition that gestures are used with an intent to communicate. Streeck (1994) and Alibali et al. (1997) confirm that non-verbal cues are indeed produced with a communicative intent, but they claim that listeners either lack the awareness that they are present (Alibali et al., 1997) or only make their understanding of gestures known when there is motivation to do so, for example during word-search, when gestures are the focal means of communication (Streeck, 1994).

While these findings demonstrate that non-verbal cues are intended to be seen, the question remains of whether or not listeners actually orient to what has been expressed non-verbally. There is evidence in support of listener orientation to non-verbal cues. Listeners automatically process the truth and content of an utterance by comparing the words to the accompanying gestures, although they are not necessarily aware of non-verbal signals on a conscious level, claims Janney (1999). Speakers orient to gesture to such an extent, he elaborates, that gestural speech tends to override words.

These findings have proven that non-verbal cues are beneficiary to both speakers and listeners. The ways in which they benefit encoders and decoders of a message will be elaborated below.

#### 5.4.1 Speaker Benefits

The function and importance of non-verbal cues extends to the prominent role they play in speech production. Researchers have found them to be indispensable. It has been reported in several studies (Graham & Heywood, 1975; Rauscher et al., 1996; Kita, 2000) that the elimination of gestures has a detrimental effect on communication. An elimination of gestures has a marked effect on speech performance, including fluency (Hadar, 1992; Rauscher et al,

1996), articulation skill, an increase in the total speech time spent pausing (Graham & Heywood, 1975) and even changes the speech content, especially in activity and movement related talk (Rimé et al., 1984).

The negative effect that withholding gestures has on speech production and the negative effect that a halt in speech production has on gesturing are demonstrated by the finding reported below. Ekman and Friesen (1981) found that regulators, which are used to manage turns and give the speaker non-verbal feedback, are on the periphery of awareness, but when withheld, speakers become quite disturbed and interaction eventually breaks down. De Ruiter (2000) found that when speech was interrupted for self-repair due to an error detection by the speaker, the gesture was interrupted as well. Mayberry and Jaques's (2000) study on the correlation of gesture and speech in stutterers concluded that gesturing in stutterers showed an even more marked reduction than their speech did. They further found that gestures co-occurred with fluent, but not with disfluent speech. Clearly, they claim, gesture production is linked to fluent speech, as they found 'striking evidence that gesture production [...] must be integrated with speech production at a deep, neuromotor planning level prior to message execution' (Mayberry & Jaques, 2000: 199).

However, it is not only speech production and gesture production that have detrimental effects on each other when one of them fails. The inability to correctly interpret gestures also leads to interpersonal communication deficiencies, learning problems and a failure to function in society. According to Cook (1977), patients referred for the inability to get on with others were found to have unusual gaze patterns. Rosenfeld et al. (1981) confirm that non-verbal cues can be held accountable for unsociable behaviour and also for learning problems.

So far we have only concentrated on the negative effects of the (mis)use of non-verbal cues on speech. However, the benefits for the speaker do not stop there. It has been proven not only that a lack of non-verbal signals (or a misuse thereof) leads to a decrease of various aspects of speech, but that the inclusion of gesture increases various aspects of speech production. To come back to the notion of learning, Alibali et al. (1997) and Bucciarelli et al. (2003) found that developing knowledge is often expressed in gesture before it is expressed in speech. The importance of learning was also demonstrated by Goldin-Meadow (2000), who found that the use of gestures improves the learning process, and results in her co-publications found that a child's gestures can be used to predict that child's performance in a learning task (Garber et al., 1998; Alibali et al., 1997). In part this is due to the fact that gesturing has been

found to facilitate lexical access (Frick-Horbury & Guttentag, 1998; Krauss et al., 1996; 2000) as well as the entire speaking process, in so far as gestures can compensate for a lack of communicative efficiency of the verbal message (de Ruiter, 2000). With respect to lexical access, they not only help in facilitating the word-search process, they are also important means of holding the speaker's claim to floor (Ekman, 1979; Nobe, 2000; Beattie, 1981), signalling to the listener that he/she is not prepared to give up their speaking turn. Kendon (1994) states that gestures form an integral part of a speaker's communicative effort. They are means of emphasizing speech (Critchley, 1975; Ekman, 1979; Poyatos, 1992), of making speech clearer, more fluent and more economical (Hadar, 1992), and of enhancing the quality of an expression by making it precise, more complete, vivid and attractive (Kendon, 2000; de Ruiter, 2000) and thereby help to keep the listener's attention.

However, not only the non-verbal cues produced by the speakers themselves are beneficial to the speaker. Non-verbal cues are also highly efficient and relevant to a speaker when produced as non-verbal back-channels by a listener. Ekman and Friesen (1981) call them regulators and mention that they can tell a speaker to continue, repeat, elaborate, hurry up, become more interesting, less salacious or give up their turn. In fact, listeners can even signal whether they are willing to communicate with the speaker at all. Looking at the speaker, a listener indicates their openness to receive and send messages; by deliberately avoiding eye-contact they signal that they are not interested in the conversation at all (Wiemann & Wiemann, 1975). Eye-contact is a powerful communicator for signalling positive feelings and attitudes towards the speaker, while a lack of eye-contact indicates negatives feelings (Mehrabian, 1971; Mehrabian, 1972).

There is ample evidence that speakers benefit greatly from non-verbal activity, but how are those findings relevant to the current study? The real relevance lies in the non-verbal feedback a speaker receives from their listener(s). A speaker can orient to cues that their listeners provide during their ongoing speaking turn. A listener may signal an upcoming disagreement and that they are in dis-accord with the speaker's opinion. This feedback provides an opportunity for the speaker to alter and adjust their utterances accordingly, should they wish to maintain harmony and avoid offence to their listeners' face, or to pursue - if not reinforce - their statement if they wish to strengthen their point, even if it could cause disagreement and lead to an argument.

## 5.4.2 Listener Benefits

The findings presented under point 5.4 in this chapter demonstrated both that non-verbal cues are produced for the listener and that listeners do orient to them. The following section will show ways in which listeners can benefit from non-verbal cues.

The importance of being able to decode non-verbal signals becomes clear when we direct our attention to the enormous information content they carry. They may serve as contextualization cues (Wilson, 2004), as indicators of a speaker's commitment to what he/she says (Swerts, 2005; Swerts & Krahmer, 2005), as an indicator of interpersonal relationships (Kendon, 2000), and they significantly contribute to the semantic and pragmatic understanding of an utterance (Kendon, 1994; 2000).

### 5.4.2.1 Interpersonal Relationships

Like prosodic cues, nonverbal cues convey information about the emotional state of a speaker, about the speech itself, about a speaker's attitude, about individual differences and interpersonal relationships (Kendon, 2000). The importance for interpersonal relationships of listener understanding of non-verbal cues was first demonstrated by Rosenthal et al. (1974), who found that people who achieve high scores in the Profile of Nonverbal Sensitivity Test function better socially and intellectually. Rosenfeld et al. (1981) came to the same conclusion. On a similar note Ickes and Simpson (1997, cited in Sternglanz & DePaulo, 2004) found that interpersonal understanding of emotions is good for relationships. Of particular importance to disagreement behaviour are Noller and Ruzzene's (1991, cited in Sternglanz and DePaulo, 2004) findings. They discovered that happier couples have more accurate understanding of their partners' negative thoughts and feelings during periods of conflict.

### 5.4.2.2 Speaker Commitment

With regards to speaker commitment, Swerts (2005) and Swerts and Krahmer (2005) found that non-verbal cues can indicate to the listener how confident and committed the speaker is to what he/she is saying, not only through the types of non-verbal cues used, but also due to the fact that with a decrease in the level of certainty, the amount of non-verbal cues increases. In order to assess the level of a speaker's certainty correctly, Swerts (2005) has found that a visual-only condition proved more important than a sound-only condition.

#### 5.4.2.3 Speaker's Truthfulness

Non-verbal cues have been found to help evaluate the truth content of a message (Janney, 1999). Prosodic and non-verbal signals can both support and contradict the verbal message (Poyatos, 1992; Müller, 2003; Rehbein, 2001). A speaker might try to deliberately simulate 'indifference', but nonetheless convey 'anger' to the decoder, because what is encoded as 'indifference' may not be decoded as such, says Müller (2003). When there is inconsistency among components, the implicit (i.e. non-verbal) cues dominate the verbal cues in determining the total impact (Rosenfeld et al., 1981; Mehrabian, 1972). This is the reason why verbal deceit can be detected through non-verbal cues (O'Sullivan et al., 1985). Non-verbal cues can, therefore, be a 'give-away' for the real emotion.

#### 5.4.2.4 Speakers' Attitudes and Emotions

Both the intensity and nature of an emotion are conveyed by body acts (Ekman & Friesen, 1981). Non-verbal cues thus offer an alternative system to speech, giving a more reliable indication of people's true feelings (Hillison & Lyons, 1982; Streeck, 1994; Boucher & Ekman, 1975) and are 'more trustworthy than speech' (Bull, 1987: 3). This is because they give a listener access to un verbalized mental processes (Garber et al., 1998). Mehrabian (1971: 44) concluded that 'a person's nonverbal behaviour has more bearing than his words on communicating feelings and attitudes'. He bases this statement on an equation his prior research had established in order to evaluate the degree to which the various modalities contribute to communicating feelings and attitudes (Mehrabian & Ferris, 1967; Mehrabian & Wiener, 1967). In his research he devised the following equation:

total feeling = 7% verbal feeling + 38% vocal feeling + 55% facial feeling.

Swerts and Kraemer (2004) and Burns and Beier (1973) also came to the conclusion that visual cues are dominant in influencing observers' responses during audiovisual presentations.

It is not even necessary for the encoder or decoder to be aware of the significance of non-verbal cues for communication. Listeners can recognize that someone is angry without being able to specify the cues that are responsible for this impression (Bull, 1987). Sapir (1949: 556, quoted in Krauss et al., 1995) compares gesture to an unmanifested code that no one is aware of but everyone understands. While these findings suggest that non-verbal cues occur

unconsciously, this is not necessarily the case. Affect displays may occur with or without deliberate intention to communicate (Ekman & Friesen, 1981), they can be controlled or uncontrolled, truthful or false (Ekman & Friesen, 1975).

These findings have left little doubt that non-verbal cues have the potential to form an invaluable source of information about an interlocutor and his/her truthfulness, commitment, and emotional and attitudinal stance to the listener. Being able to decode a speaker's emotions and inner state hence enables a listener to judge the degree of politeness of an utterance more reliably and look beyond the possibly polite words that conceal underlying anger and vice versa. A listener clearly benefits from being able to interpret non-verbal cues and it is unquestionable that reading emotions and attitudes correctly is relevant to decoding anger and negative attitudes and to judging disagreements. However, there are also benefits specific to cross-cultural communication and politeness that will be discussed in more detail below.

### **5.5 The Relevance of Non-Verbal Cues to Cross-Cultural Communication**

Beyond being trustworthy detectors for emotional information, non-verbal cues are also good indicators of cultural identities (Köchlin, 1992), because 'beyond a very early state, there is no motion in the body which is not influenced by culture' (von Raffler-Engel, 1980: 30). Consequently, the importance of non-verbal cues extends to the field of cross-cultural communication.

Firstly, such cues can add to the understanding between interactants of different cultures, where non-verbal cues are shared. Movements carry information and interactants from different backgrounds can use them to interpret aspects such as mood, attitude and salience of an utterance (Hadar, 1992). According to Hadar (1992) and Schneller (1992), gestures, like politeness, are culturally determined to various degrees. Just like politeness, however, they appear universal or at least pancultural in some respects, such as timing movements in relation to speech and communicative effects of speech. As a matter of fact, research supports the theory of universality, by stating that some facial expressions are universally intelligible (Wierzbicka, 2000; Ekman, 1973; Ekman, 1975). Although Wierzbicka (2000) disagrees with Ekman's labels of emotions, she nevertheless describes the same emotions that Ekman (1975) calls 'primary emotions', namely fear, sadness, disgust, anger and happiness, which he found to be expressed and interpreted in the same way in 13 literate cultures (including England and Germany) and in two pre-literate cultures. The finding that expressions like anger are

expressed and interpreted in the same way in English and German cultures is particularly relevant to this study. Ekman (1973), however, warns that while the emotion is expressed in the same way, what triggers those emotions and the rules for displaying them are culture-dependent. Which brings us to the second point, namely what happens when non-verbal cues are not shared.

Where non-verbal cues differ, they can lead to irritations and misunderstanding (Gumperz & Roberts, 1987). Non-verbal cues may be interpreted as non-understood if they are not part of the decoder's own 'gestuary' (de Ruiter, 2000: 293). However, they will be interpreted according to the decoder's own cultural meaning if it does exist, which might differ drastically from the speaker's intention (Schneller, 1992). Jakobson (1972) provides an example for this, stating that Bulgarians use a headshake to signal 'yes', which in most other Western cultures would be interpreted as 'no', and Ekman (1975) claims that Tibetans stick out their tongue as a friendly greeting, which in Western cultures would likely be interpreted as a sign of rudeness. It is not hard to imagine that these kinds of differences in non-verbal behaviour can cause problems in cross-cultural communication. According to Ekman and Friesen (1981: 91) 'people are likely to attribute regulator differences to rudeness or unmannerliness, rather than to a regulator system different from their own'. It is likely that this behaviour does not apply to regulators alone. However, Ekman (1975) also mentions that it is not only the non-verbal cues and the display rules that may differ across cultures. Different cultures, he says, also permit different levels of intensity of emotion to be expressed. According to Ekman (1975: 35) 'a person could get confused, and sometimes killed, by doing the wrong thing in the wrong place'. Gestures can, for this reason, be fruitful ground for cross-cultural miscommunication.

It has become clear from these findings that, in order to understand each other, people from different cultures need to be aware of similarities and differences in their use of non-verbal communication. Knowing about similarities in their use of non-verbal cues could help members from different cultures in facilitating communication with each other. Knowing about differences in their use of non-verbal cues on the other hand, could help them in avoiding misjudging and misinterpreting each others actions.

## 5.6 The Relevance of Non-Verbal Cues to Politeness

In the section on cross-cultural communication, it became apparent that non-verbal cues can influence an observer's perception of how polite a speaker is, as differences in non-verbal behaviour are likely to be considered to be a sign of rudeness rather than an indication for a difference in display rules. Ambady et al.'s (1996) findings suggest that cross-cultural miscommunication might be heavily based on miscommunication of politeness. Sifianou (1992) concludes, on the basis of her research on politeness in Greek culture, that politeness realisations differ on both the verbal and non-verbal levels. Arndt and Janney (1985) and Doğançay-Aktuna and Kanişlı (2001), have come to the same conclusion, having discovered that there is a significant relationship between non-verbal activity and politeness. These findings lead to the inference that non-verbal activity is responsible, to some degree, for communicating the level of politeness of an utterance. Sifianou (1992) provides an example, stating that in Greek culture, avoiding direct eye contact can lead to inferences of distrust and dishonesty, hence it shows a lack of politeness. In contrast, initiating and/or holding direct eye-contact is universally typically a sign of aggression (Exline, 1972; Ekman & Friesen, 1975), hence will likely be regarded as impolite.

Little research on politeness theory has been carried out that has focused on non-verbal means of politeness. While Sifianou (1992) repeatedly mentions non-verbal cues in connection with politeness, her focus, nevertheless, remains on verbal means of communicating politeness. One comprehensive study that indeed concentrates on non-verbal politeness has yielded interesting insights (Ambady et al., 1996). In their study, Ambady et al. (1996) found that, in indirect strategies, politeness is mostly conveyed non-verbally. Non-linguistic behaviour, they claim, can be 'extremely subtle and is often used to communicate thoughts and feelings that cannot be communicated verbally' (p. 998). Another study (Hurley, 1992), that addresses second language learning issues, concentrates on the need to include pragmatic, prosodic and non-verbal communication skills in language teaching. Hurley (1992) claims that prosodic and non-verbal support strategies can be used to either soften or strengthen an utterance. According to him, this application of prosodic and non-verbal effects resembles the use of different degrees of indirectness to signal the degree of politeness in realizing speech acts. This finding makes the study of non-verbal cues particularly relevant to the present research.

## **5.7 Parallels in Modalities**

The temporal parallels that have been mentioned earlier in this section are not the only correlates between non-verbal signals and prosodic cues. Both the naturalness of the co-occurrence of prosodic and non-verbal cues with speech as well as the orientation both these modalities provide to the emotional state and attitudes of a speaker have been discussed in previous sections. In addition, as has been mentioned in connection with prosody, impressions about a speaker are not formed solely on the basis of what is being said, but also on how it is being said and what the speaker is doing while speaking. Impressions are formed through both verbal and non-verbal modalities (Kerkes, 2003). Moreover, it has also been shown that gestures are more likely to occur in conjunction with energy peaks and with unexpected information (de Ruiter, 2000; Levy & McNeill, 1992). Topic shifts are high in ‘communicative dynamism’ (Levy & Fowler, 2000: 225), as is speech when a speaker feels their turn is threatened. According to Nobe (2000), an increase in energy levels is accompanied by an increase in the use of prosodic cues as well as an increase in gestures. Such energy peaks can be said to be expressed on three levels which Poyatos (1992: 41) calls the ‘triple reality of speech’: Nonverbal, articulatory and lexical.

## **5.8 Why Include Non-Verbal Means of Communication in Pragmatic Research?**

Overall there is overwhelming evidence in support of the hypothesis that non-verbal signals are strongly integrated in speech and offer innumerable benefits to both the sender and the receiver of a message.

Many researchers, both those who actively research prosody and non-verbal communication and those who do not include them in their own research, explicitly state that they welcome and encourage the inclusion of prosody and non-verbal communication in future research (Hirschon, 2001; Gelyukens & Kraft, 2003; Holmes, 2003; Kraus et al., 2000; Streeck, 1994) and point to their importance for the interpretation of the meaning of an utterance. ‘Human communication’, claims Schneller (1992: 214), ‘depends no less on non-verbal languages than on verbal ones’. Krauss et al. (2000) consider it unquestionable that non-verbal cues function as communicative devices, although the magnitude of their contribution to communication is largely unresearched, they claim.

In communication involving many disagreements – which are largely based on personal opinions – a high degree of emotion is involved. Speaker attitudes, impression formation, and

maintaining politeness while managing a face-threatening speech act all play a crucial role in instances of disagreement. Prosodic and non-verbal cues provide vital information about those aspects that language itself does not convey.

In this section it has been shown that non-verbal cues have many important functions that are relevant to this study. A speaker benefits from non-verbal feedback that he/she receives from the listener. The observer benefits from gaining reliable information about a speaker's attitudes, emotions, commitment and truthfulness. All of these aspects are crucial with regards to interpreting politeness and regulating and managing disagreement. Non-verbal cues may help in understanding interactants from different cultures where they are shared and may hinder communication where they differ. In order to be able to successfully communicate with each other it is important for Germans and New Zealanders to learn more about each others speaking behaviour, not only verbally, but also non-verbally. These aspects of communication form the focal part of this study and since prosodic and non-verbal communication have been shown to form inseparable elements of expressing politeness, they too are considered indispensable and inseparable from this study.

## Chapter 2

### Multimodal Disagreeing Behaviour: Methodological Issues

The previous chapter has demonstrated that culture is deeply engrained in people and that few people are aware of culture-based differences in their speech behaviour, because essentially ‘that which we know best is that of which we are least conscious’ (Bateson, 1967: 114, quoted in Hofstede, 2001). In this lack of awareness lies an immense potential for misunderstanding in cross-cultural encounters. Germans and New Zealanders have been found to differ considerably with regard to their disagreeing behaviour and conceptions of what is polite and appropriate behaviour. Successful communication between these two cultures depends, in part, on how much interlocutors know about each other’s cultural values, norms and conventions. Regrettably, little is known about how these two cultures differ on a prosodic and non-verbal level in their speech act behaviour. The findings reported in the literature review section leave little doubt that prosodic and non-verbal cues are indispensable means for conveying and interpreting politeness, particularly in cross-cultural communication. It is, therefore, time to address the issue of how prosodic and non-verbal behaviours differ in these two cultures and what interlocutors need to know about one another’s conventions in order to enable them to communicate with each other successfully. The goal of the present study is to shed light on one single type of speech act, which is particularly vulnerable to face-threat and face-saving, namely disagreement. The following research will aim at identifying differences in the disagreeing behaviour of German and New Zealand English speakers in three communication channels: The verbal, the prosodic and the non-verbal channel. To this end, the following questions will be addressed.

#### 1 Research Questions

- 1) Which lexical, prosodic and non-verbal strategies are used in disagreements?
- 2) In what way does the use of those strategies differ in German and New Zealand disagreeing behaviour?
- 3) How much do prosodic and non-verbal devices contribute to the perception of politeness?

## 2 Data

There are essentially two types of data used to collect speech act samples; one is authentic, naturally occurring spoken data, the other is elicited spoken or written data. Authentic, naturally occurring data can be collected in more or less regulated environments, either by simply recording a number of people interacting, or by using more restricted data, either by setting specific tasks or topics for interlocutors or by using radio or television data. Each of these types of data has benefits and limitations, such as poor recording quality, background noise, regulated topics, the need for an unreasonable amount of data to be obtained for a sufficient speech act sample (Kasper, 2000), etc. The more prevalent method for eliciting speech act data is through the use of data collection instruments. Typical data collection instruments include written discourse completion tests (DCTs), spoken roleplay tasks, written multiple choice questionnaire tasks, and written or recorded diaries. Naturally, these data collection methods all have advantages and limitations as well. The advantages include the fact that the researcher targets the speech act he/she wishes to observe and obtains that data without having to collect and transcribe vast amounts of discourse to gather those samples (Kasper, 1999; Cohen, 1998). Hence, these data collection methods surpass the use of natural occurring speech in the ease of use (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). The major disadvantages of data collection instruments are that the data they trigger is not natural (Mey, 2004; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000), that they favour advanced learners (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999), that they allow time for reflection and planning that a speaker in naturally occurring discourse does not have (Bardovi-Harlig & Salsbury, 2004; Hinkel, 1997), that they lack contextual embedding (Kasper, 2004; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000), that they occur over one single turn, rather than over a succession of turns as in natural discourse (Bardovi-Harlig & Salsbury, 2004), and that they merely presume social consequences, but lack actual social consequences (Kasper, 2000). This study relies on televised panel discussions for its data. It was concluded that the advantages of the use of televised panel discussion data outweigh the limitations of the use of such data. Televised panel discussion data was used for the following reasons:

- a) Authentic spoken data
- b) Genre elicits disagreement
- c) Contains audio data
- d) Contains visual data
- e) Comparability
- f) Accessibility

## **2.1 Authentic Spoken Data**

While elicited data facilitates data collection, it is unnatural to some degree and therefore not entirely authentic. If we wish to gain insight into a culture's speech behaviour, however, it is essential that we observe language as it occurs and as interlocutors in cross-cultural encounters will face it. Natural occurring data offers many advantages (Kasper, 1999) and some researchers, therefore, urge the study of natural speech in spontaneous settings (Beebe & Waring, 2005). While it is arguable that the genre of panel discussions is not entirely natural, it is nevertheless spontaneous, unscripted and authentic discourse.

## **2.2 Genre Elicits Disagreement**

Kasper (1999; 2000) raises the criticism that, when using natural occurring data, unreasonable amounts of data may need to be collected in order to gain a sufficient number of speech act samples. In order to counteract this problem, I decided to use televised panel discussions, because they offer the advantage that they elicit a large number of disagreements. Adversarial talk has been found to be an inherent feature of this genre (Blum-Kulka, et al., 2002; Gardner, 2000; Greatbach, 1992; Yaeger-Dror, 2002) and it is in the genre's very nature to encourage and pursue disagreement (Myers, 1998; Greatbach, 1992).

## **2.3 Contains Audio Data**

While several data collection instruments, such as DCTs, elicit written data, televised panel discussions have the advantage that they contain audio data as well. Needless to say, audio data is a pre-requisite for the study of prosodic features.

## **2.4 Contains Visual Data**

Data collection instruments rarely, if ever, contain visual data. Just as audio data is a pre-requisite for the study of prosodic features, visual data is indispensable for the study of non-verbal features, which is a further advantage that the use of televised panel discussion data has to offer.

## **2.5 Comparability**

It is important that comparable samples are used when cross-cultural comparisons are made (Gudykunst, 2000). If natural occurring data is collected in social settings in two different cultures, the framework and setting may differ entirely and may thus hinder comparability. The use of data stemming from a specific type of genre offers the advantage that the setting is that of a studio in each case and that the framework is that of interview/debate. Panel discussions are very similar in both cultures investigated, thereby ensuring comparability of the data.

## **2.6 Accessibility**

A further, though minor, reason for the use of televised panel discussion data is that it is easy to collect and obtain, that no ethics consent is required and that it is easily accessible.

## **3 Data Transcription**

After collecting a number of televised panel discussions, the data was transcribed in a number of steps outlined below, adhering to the set of transcription conventions also outlined below.

### **3.1 Transcription Process**

In order to secure correct and appropriate capturing of the data and in order to avoid – or at the very least minimize – mistakes, L2 errors, misspelling or improper reflection of the contents, the data was transcribed in five steps.

- 1) Firstly, a broad transcription was conducted by the researcher, concentrating on words and content only.
- 2) Secondly, a narrow, auditory transcription followed the lexical transcript, aiming at capturing prosodic features, including changes in pitch, pauses, volume, stress, duration and tempo.
- 3) Thirdly, the researcher checked the correctness of both above mentioned steps.
- 4) In a fourth step, data underwent a reliability check, in which a native speaker of the language revised the transcripts for correctness of content and appropriateness of transcription.
- 5) In a final step the researcher herself checked and revised the transcripts once more.

However, I found the auditory transcription to be too impressionistic, so I opted for a systematic, reliable coding for prosodic properties by using PRAAT measurements instead.

### 3.2 Transcription Conventions

(.)	short pause
(0.3)	longer pause with specified duration in seconds
<u>underlined</u>	stressed word
CAPITAL LETTERS	increased loudness
°word°	decreased loudness
<word>	increased tempo
>word<	decreased tempo
/word\ -	pitch change, sing-song intonation
;	level terminal pitch
?	moderate terminal rise in pitch
,	strong terminal rise in pitch
.	moderate terminal fall in pitch
{word {word	strong terminal fall in pitch
:	non phrase-final pitch reset
=	prolonged vowel
[word]	latching, no phrase final pause
(word)	overlapping speech
(????)	not clearly audible, but likely lexeme
	inaudible speech

### 4 Framework: Qualitative or Quantitative Analysis?

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches have advantages and disadvantages. The advantage of a qualitative analysis is that it allows for an indepth insight into context specific, situation specific, and speaker specific language choices. Its disadvantage is that this approach is restricted to specific detailed samples, but does not allow for the observation of general trends and statistically viable generalizations. The quantitative approach, on the other hand, allows for statistical analysis and the observation of trends, but disregards contextual, situational and idiosyncratic factors. I, therefore, decided in favour of a combined approach of

qualitative and quantitative analyses. This combined approach allows the strength of these approaches to be combined, thereby eliminating their flaws.

A quantitative approach spans the entire data analysis and forms the basis of comparison in this study. However, under two kinds of circumstances, a qualitative analysis was conducted for reasons specified below.

Researchers have pointed to the dangers of assuming a one-to-one equivalence of a certain concept in different cultures (Gudykunst, 2000), as well as the meaning of modification devices in different cultures (House, 1979; 1984). While the data was evaluated by a quantitative approach, specific care was taken to consider contextual factors and to attribute each single modification device to the most suitable category. To this end, a conversation analytic approach was taken in determining which category a modification device was attributed to.

A further reason to rely on a qualitative analysis were circumstances where a) a quantitative analysis did not yield the results that were expected (based on previous research findings) or b) where various potential explanations were possible or likely. In the first case, the qualitative analysis was conducted in order to arrive at an explanation for why results differ from the results that were expected. In the second case, it was hoped that a qualitative analysis might eliminate some possible interpretations and shed light on which interpretations seemed more likely.

## **5 Verbal Data**

On a verbal level, the data was coded for three separate features. Firstly, it was coded for disagreement strategies, secondly, it was coded for the explicitness of core disagreement strategies, and thirdly, it was coded for verbal modification devices.

### **5.1 Identifying Disagreement**

Disagreements were identified by me in accordance with the disagreement definition provided in Chapter 1, Section 2.1. Every single disagreement instance of the New Zealand data was discussed with the author's supervisor and the researcher subsequently re-evaluated the entire data. An interrater reliability check was then conducted on approximately 20% of the New Zealand data, on the basis of written data and audio data. The interrater reliability check was

conducted by a non-linguist in order to avoid a pre-formed concept of what constitutes a disagreement and, instead, the rater was asked to adopt the definition I provided. There was agreement on 22 disagreements out of the 30 disagreements identified by the researcher. Out of those eight disagreements the rater failed to identify as disagreements, four were implicit disagreement strategies and one was a hint. Because these strategies are very indirect, they are much more difficult to interpret as disagreements and it was expected that they would cause problems to a rater. I carefully considered the implications of the interrater reliability check results and reviewed and re-evaluated the entire data set once more. In doing so, particular attention was paid to implicit disagreements and hints. The entire data set was discussed with my supervisor and I only included disagreements in the data that both my supervisor and myself identified as such. It would have been desirable to conduct a further interrater reliability check after the re-evaluation of the data set, but practical considerations, such as time and financial constraints prevented such measures. See Appendix 1 for details.

## **5.2 Disagreement Strategies**

The various strategies found in the present disagreement data were attributed to one of the following three categories: Pre-disagreement strategies occurring before the actual disagreement event, core-disagreement strategies that contain the disagreeing message, and post-disagreement strategies occurring after the core-disagreement event.

### **5.2.1 Pre-Disagreement Strategies**

According to Craig and Sanusi (2000), speakers can – prior to a disagreement – display a sense that an upcoming contribution will be problematic. This can be achieved through initial delay (Gardner, 2000; Kakava, 2002) or through prefacing (Holtgraves, 1992). Due to the fact that prefaces can serve as disagreement indicators, they are not included in the assessment of core-disagreement strategies, but are assessed separately, as disagreement initiating entities. A pre-disagreement is defined as a disagreement initiation that may get completed in the same turn, that gets completed in a subsequent turn, or that does not get completed.

### 5.2.1.1 Disagreement Introduction

A disagreement introduction occurs when a disagreement is introduced by an explicit or implicit disagreement marker that signals a forthcoming disagreement to the hearer, regardless of whether or not the actual disagreement is being produced subsequently.

#### 5.2.1.1.1 Explicit Disagreement Introduction

Explicit disagreement introduction is characterized by explicitly opposing a prior statement and clearly indicating that the subsequent turn is in disagreement with the prior utterance (Kuo, 1994; Locher, 2004). The most frequent explicit disagreement introduction markers are ‘but’ in English and ‘aber’ in German.

#### 5.2.1.1.2 Implicit Disagreement Introduction

Implicit disagreement introduction does not explicitly signal opposition to a prior statement; instead, it expresses agreement, while at the same time expressing doubt, questioning or qualifying a prior utterance. They mark the acceptance of a dialogue situation, but with a qualification (Carlson, 1984). The most frequent implicit disagreement introduction marker is ‘well’ in English and ‘nun’ or ‘schon’ in German.

#### 5.2.1.2 Initial Agreement

While this is not necessarily always the case, in interaction we mostly aim for agreement, even when we disagree (Gardner, 2000). We, therefore, often phrase disagreement to look like agreement or preface disagreement with token agreements (Pomerantz, 1984; Kotthoff, 1991). Initial agreement can therefore serve as an indicator for an upcoming disagreement. An initial agreement occurs when a disagreement is introduced by an initial agreement or by an agreement token prior to the core-disagreement. The most common initial agreement instance is ‘yes, (but...)’ in English and ‘ja, (aber...)’ in German.

#### 5.2.1.3 Pre-Disagreement Justification

If speakers show an orientation to agreement, they can feel compelled to justify their decision to disagree (Ford et al., 2004; Kuo, 1994). A justification, according to van Eemeren et al. (2002) is a strong indication that disagreement is anticipated. A pre-disagreement justification

occurs when a speaker finds it necessary to defend a standpoint and therefore provides an account of why it is necessary for him/her to disagree, before producing the core-disagreement.

#### 5.2.1.4 Forewarn

Turn-gaining exclamations, such as ‘wait a minute’ (Gruber, 1998) and attention-seeking devices, such as ‘look’ or ‘listen’, indicate to an interlocutor that the present speaker wishes to put forth his/her opinion on the topic under discussion. In the present data, such devices have been frequently found in connection with disagreements and are, therefore, also included in the category of pre-disagreement strategies.

### 5.2.2 Core Disagreement Strategies

Core disagreement strategies contain the actual disagreement message. A disagreement can be more or less direct and forceful; hence, five disagreement strategies were identified at varying levels of explicitness, ranging from the most explicit strategy ‘performatives’ to the extremely implicit disagreement strategy ‘qualified agreement’. Both the most explicit and the most implicit disagreement strategies are easy to identify and further analysis was not required to determine their level of explicitness. However, the level of explicitness for the remaining three strategies is less straightforward. A further level of analysis was, therefore, developed to code these strategies for their level of explicitness, (refer to this chapter, Section 5.3 and Appendix 2 for details).

#### 5.2.2.1 Performative Disagreement

This strategy occurs when a disagreement is being produced through a performative act, i.e. when the words perform the actual disagreement (e.g. I don’t agree, I disagree). In the present study, however, this category also includes disagreements that are extremely direct, but not performative as such, e.g. ‘no’ or ‘you’re wrong’. Thus far in politeness research, this type of disagreement has been labelled bald-on-record. Bald-on-record strategies, however, are associated with a lack of mitigation devices. In this study the term performative disagreement will be favoured, since there is indication in the present data that this type of disagreements is frequently mitigated.

### 5.2.2.2 Explicit Disagreement

An explicit disagreement occurs when a disagreement is uttered in a way that clearly communicates to a hearer that a disagreement act is being produced. This may be due to the fact that a) the disagreeing turn clearly shows a differing position and/or b) the disagreeing turn has a clear link to a previous turn and/or c) no interpretative work on the addressee's part is required and/or d) there are structural disagreement indicators. It may or may not be mitigated or reinforced. Example: A: it's /relevant\ though? B: *it wasn't relevant and it and it isn't relevant today*. (Disagreements are indicated in *italics*).

### 5.2.2.3 Implicit Disagreement

An implicit disagreement occurs when a) the literal meaning does not clearly convey a disagreement and/or b) a certain amount of interpretative work is required, however, it is a conventionally indirect speech act and as such an addressee of the same cultural background will be expected to recognize it as a disagreement and/or c) no clear link to a prior turn is apparent and/or d) it may be necessary to consult the prosodic and/or non-verbal context to determine whether or not an utterance was meant to be a disagreement and/or e) there is little or no structural disagreement indication. It may or may not be mitigated or reinforced. In the following example B suggests that there is evidence for Muldoon's womanizing: A: when they say that he was a womaniser. (1.0) I don't know that? B: *I have NOT got; I have not got [the po]laroids. I would like the Polaroid but I have not got .*

### 5.2.2.4 Hint

A hint occurs when a disagreement is so implicit that it may not necessarily be recognizable as such and may not be treated as a disagreement by the addressee. A lot of interpretative work is required on the part of the addressee. Indirect disagreement realizations differ from implicit ones in so far as they are unconventionally indirect and even an addressee of the same cultural background cannot be expected to be able to always recognize the utterance as a disagreement. If a hint is so implicit that the intention is not clear from the verbal context alone, then it may become necessary to take the broader, non-verbal context into account (van Eemeren et al., 2002). In the following example the interviewer's disagreement suggests that the Christian Heritage Party Leader is hypocritical, as priests have been known to engage in sodomy: Christian Heritage Party Leader: <yes, but it [sodomy] was talked about in a in a

negative way?=That we shouldn't do it?> Interviewer: *I just /wonder\*- *Can you tell me how many of your congregation, or how many of you that people in the party; -*

#### 5.2.2.5 Qualified Agreement

A qualified agreement – or ‘minimal reformulation’, as Gruber (1998: 490) calls this form of disagreement – occurs when the format of the disagreement is such that the second pair part comes in form of an agreement, but is qualified in a way that it nevertheless expresses a different opinion to the first pair part (e.g. A: It was a /golden\ age? B: *It was in a way*-). It can be regarded as a partial agreement. ‘Grudging agreement or partial agreement’, however, ‘behaves like disagreement’ (Bolinger, 1989: 325). Qualified agreements are therefore considered to be disagreements.

#### 5.2.3 Post-Disagreement Strategies

Post-disagreements are strategies that occur subsequent to the core-disagreement. While they are far less frequent than pre-, or core-disagreement strategies, they nevertheless should not be disregarded and also fulfil an important function as external modification strategies.

##### 5.2.3.1 Concession

As a – presumably – dispreferred second pair part, disagreement can be marked through concessions (Kuo, 1994). A concession occurs when a disagreement statement is being conceded or abandoned altogether within the same speaking turn and the speaker agrees or partially agrees with the turn he/she initially disagreed with. (A: We all knew that Muldoon drank; B: when people say that he was a- drunkard? That's rubbish, he:- uh [(.) *he DRANK, so did most politicians*]).

##### 5.2.3.2 Post-Disagreement Justification

A post-disagreement justification occurs when a speaker feels the need to defend a proposition (van Eemeren et al., 2002). In contrast to pre-disagreement justifications, post-disagreement justifications are produced subsequent to a disagreement.

### 5.3 Coding for the Degree of Explicitness

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Section 2.5, the degree of explicitness of three of the core disagreement strategies is not clear-cut and therefore requires a system to codify their explicitness reliably and consistently. In accordance with the elaborate discussion on the question of when a disagreement is to be considered explicit or not, the degree of explicitness is determined by the number of the following properties a disagreement contains: a) autonomy, i.e. how much interpretative work does the addressee have to do, b) syntax-function correlation, i.e. how explicit is the structure of a disagreement, c) structural indication markers for argumentation, and d) reference, i.e. does the disagreement refer to something explicitly mentioned in a prior utterance or to something that has merely been implied. The following coding system was applied to the core-disagreement acts (see Appendix 2 for the explicitness coding form):

Autonomy	Very autonomous	1
	In between	2
	Not very autonomous	3
Syntax-Function Correlation	Does correlate	1
	Unclear	2
	Does not correlate	3
Structural Indication	Four indicators	1
	Three indicators	2
	Two indicators	3
	One indicator	4
	Zero indication	5
Reference to Prior Turn	Does make reference	1
	Unclear	2
	Does not make reference	3

The score for these four types of explicitness markers was added and the level of explicitness was determined based on the score the disagreement act achieved. A disagreement was

termed explicit if it achieved a value of 7 or less. A disagreement was termed implicit if it achieved a value between 8 and 10. A disagreement was termed a hint if it achieved a value of 11 or above. See Appendix 2 for examples of disagreements that have been coded for their level of explicitness.

An interrater reliability check was conducted for the rating of the degree of explicitness. 15% of the data (both German and New Zealand data) were given to an independent rater for interrater reliability checks. There was agreement on 166 out of 232 ratings. The reason why ratings were not more consistent is to a large extent due to the fact that there was rarely agreement in the rating category 'reference to prior turn'. More specifically, the independent rater mostly ticked the option 'does not make reference to a prior turn' where I had rated 'does make reference to a prior turn'. The difference could be attributed to the possibility that the independent rater only looked at the immediately preceding context, while I took the context of the entire preceding transcript into account. A further potential factor is that I am more familiar with the transcript and may detect links with previous utterances more readily. Nevertheless, the results of the interrater reliability check were considered carefully and the entire ratings were reviewed and reassessed.

#### **5.4 Internal Modification Devices**

While pre-, and post-disagreement strategies can be regarded as external modification devices, internal modification devices occur during the core-disagreement. Their purpose is to either downtone the force of a disagreement, or to reinforce the strength of a disagreement. When these devices are used to downtone, they are called mitigation devices, downtoners or softening devices. When used to reinforce, they are called upgraders or strengthening devices. Modification devices were coded according to function, i.e. they were identified according to their meaning in the context in which they occurred. Consequently, the same word or device, such as 'address form' can be softening in one instance and strengthening in another. Their function was identified on the basis of contextual information, addressee reaction, and prosodic information.

##### **5.4.1 Softening Devices**

A softened disagreement occurs when the strength of a disagreement is softened by the use of mitigation devices. The softening devices examined in the present study include:

- 1) Tag Question
- 2) Impersonalization
- 3) Politeness Marker
- 4) Hesitation Marker/Pause
- 5) Address Form
- 6) Hedge
- 7) Gambit
- 8) Disarmer
- 9) Modal Verb
- 10) Verbosity

Examples for softening devices are indicated in *italics>*.

#### 5.4.1.1 Tag Question

Holmes (1995) distinguishes four different types of tag questions, two of which are directly relevant as mitigation devices, namely facilitative tags, which serve a positive politeness function, and softening tags, which serve as negative politeness devices. Since tag questions were extremely rare in the present data set, no differentiation was made between the two types of tag questions. Instead, they are both included under the same category. Example: [but Merepeka wa]sn't there a time when you didn't agree with the Maori party? you're not looking for a list position [*are you?*].

#### 5.4.1.2 Impersonalization

Impersonal forms serve as softening devices (Rees-Miller, 2000). By using impersonalization as a mitigation strategy, the speaker avoids either committing to a statement him/herself or referring to an interlocutor directly. Impersonalization can be achieved through the use of lexical devices, such as 'one' or 'people' or through passive and impersonal sentence structure. Impersonalization is a way of avoiding direct attack, thereby also functioning as a downgrader (House & Kasper, 1981). Example: They are *{safe if {u::sed ac{co:rding to the label instructions.*

#### 5.4.1.3 Politeness Marker

The politeness marker 'please' can be used as a downtoner (House, 1989a). Although it is much more frequently found in connection with requests than with disagreements, politeness markers are, nevertheless, used as softening devices in connection with disagreements some of the time. Example: [wh]at's your evidence for that *please*?

#### 5.4.1.4 Hesitation Marker/Pause

Hesitation devices function as a softening strategy (House & Kasper 1981; Kwon, 2004). According to Holmes (1995: 75), pauses and hesitation markers such as 'uhm' or 'er' can 'express a speaker's reluctance to impose' and are thereby a form of politeness (Berrier, 1997). Example: [well – uh] well, I don't accept that it's a sexual orientation.

#### 5.4.1.5 Address Form

Polite forms of address can also serve as a form of mitigation (Ng & Bradac, 1993). Forms of address, such as 'sir' or a personal name in connection with an initial agreement or a concession can fulfil a softening function. Example: [no no] no no no- Look- I think that both (0.4) both *Merepeka* and *Deborah* are right here.

#### 5.4.1.6 Hedge

Hedges are a further form of softening devices. They are either lexical items, such as 'perhaps' or pragmatic particles, such as 'sort of' or 'I think' (Holmes, 1995: 75). These devices reduce the strength of an utterance, but their function as softening devices depends on the context of an utterance. Example: ok *I think* that some uh some New Zealanders MIGHT have a /problem\ with funding Pacific Islander themes;=

#### 5.4.1.7 Gambit

While gambits do not forward the conversational outcome and are a form of 'keeping talking without saying anything' they nevertheless function as hearer supportive devices (Edmondson & House, 1981: 69). They are signals that the speaker feels uncomfortable about what he/she is about to say and are often found in connection with disagreements as a form of softening strategy (Edmondson & House, 1981). Typical gambits include 'you know' and 'I mean'.

Example: So *you know* he wasn't just b j the greatness of his HEART.

#### 5.4.1.8 Disarmer

The disarmer functions as a form of 'anticipation of a possible offence' (Edmondson & House, 1981). In the present study a disarmer is a booster that intensifies a positive statement prior to a disagreement, typically in connection with an initial agreement, e.g. 'you're *absolutely* right about that, but...'. Although Edmondson and House (1981) describe a disarmer as an apologetic move, rather than as an agreement booster prior to an imposition, the term disarmer was nevertheless considered the most suitable, because an agreement booster also fulfils the function of 'disarming' the interlocutor prior to an imposition.

Example: We::ll- (0.8) uh (1.0) a lot of the people who work in the area were certainly saying what you said. But...

#### 5.4.1.9 Modal Verb

Holmes (1995) further mentions modal verbs, such as 'could' or 'would' as a form of downgrading strategy. They are yet another form of redress (Lüger, 1999) that are aimed at reducing the imposition of an utterance (Werlen, 1983) and play an important role in mitigation (Salsbury & Bardovi-Harlig, 2000). Example: ok I think that some uh some New Zealanders MIGHT have a /problem\ with funding Pacific Islander themes;=

#### 5.4.1.10 Verbosity

Under the category of softening devices, 'verbosity' stands for longwinded disagreements, for a form of 'beating around the bush'. While Edmondson and House (1981) discuss verbosity or 'waffling', as they call it, in connection with second language learners, the key point they mention may apply to verbosity regardless of whether it is used by native speakers or learners of a language. The reason they give for 'waffling' is an overuse of external modification devices, which are supportive moves that serve to minimize the imposition. Such external modification devices include providing a lot of information, extensive explanations and personal reasons, according to Edmondson and House (1981). The length of an utterance can also signal its (dis)preferred status, with lengthy utterances signalling that a disagreement is dispreferred (Myers, 1998). 'Waffling' can, therefore, be regarded as a form of softening strategy. Example: =well; part two is still to come. but you see <the interesting thing- the point that you made> that this hasn't come up befo:re. [But] {we all knew about these things,

{we've all known this for twenty years? {We all knew that Muldoon drank; {we all knew that he womanized, [we we we all {we ALL KNEW WE ALL KNEW]that he was power hungry.  
=But n this never appeared in the me:dia.

#### 5.4.2 Strengthening Devices

A strengthened disagreement occurs when a disagreement is reinforced through the use of strengthening devices. The strengthening devices examined in the present study include:

- 1) Tag question
- 2) Personalization
- 3) Alerter
- 4) Aggressive Interrogative/Exclamation
- 5) Address Form
- 6) Booster
- 7) Repetition
- 8) Swear word
- 9) Modal Verb
- 10) Minimal Verbosity

Examples for strengthening devices are indicated in *italics*.

##### 5.4.2.1 Tag Question

As noted above, Holmes (1995) mentions four different types of tag questions. One type of those tag questions is called 'challenging tags' and as its name suggests, this kind of tag has a confrontational nature and is, therefore, included under the category of strengthening devices.

Example: <(but) they (haven't) got there *right*?

##### 5.4.2.2 Personalization

An impersonal structure can have a softening function. The opposite is the case when an utterance is personalized, in which case it takes on the form of a personal attack, since it poses a challenge to a position taken by the addressee (Kakava, 1994). Example: and can I also just throw something back at you Hone.= because...

#### 5.4.2.3 Alerter

Alerters fulfil the function of ‘alerting’ the interlocutor to a disagreement. This category only differs from forewarns in so far as it is an internal modification device while forewarns are generally external modification devices. There are, however, instances where exclamations such as ‘see’ are as much a forewarn as they are an alerter. While these categories are not identical, there is some degree of overlap between these two categories and it is important to bear this in mind when considering the findings for the category ‘alerter’. Example: Aw, *look* we can’t afford the levels of research that-uh would be necessary for us to be able to give an unqualified uh label to what’s going on.

#### 5.4.2.4 Aggressive Interrogative/Exclamation

Aggressive interrogatives have been identified as strengthening devices through their potential to directly involve the interlocutor (House & Kasper, 1981). If one takes a defensive stance, wh-questions are not information-seeking, rather they are treated by both speaker and recipient as challenges (Koshik, 2003). Aggressive exclamations have a similarly challenging nature and are, therefore, included in the same category. Example in response to the claim that the funding for elite universities will be available: Example: [*woher solln die kommen*] [*woher- ja was*] [*heisst Prioritaeten setzten. woher solln die kommen.* (Where are they supposed to come from? Well what do you mean set priorities? Where are they supposed to come from?).

#### 5.4.2.5 Address Form

While address forms can have a softening nature (Ng & Bradac, 1993), in a challenging, provoking context they achieve the exact opposite effect and serve as intensifying devices. Example: and can I also just throw something back at you *Hone*. = because...

#### 5.4.2.6 Booster

Boosters increase the force of an utterance (Holmes, 1995), but like hedges – and many other modification devices – their function as emphatic devices depends on the context in which they occur. A booster in a confrontational context, such as a disagreement, intensifies its force and increases the face-threat of an utterance. In a positive context, such as a concession,

however, they achieve the opposite effect and decrease the face-threat of an utterance. Example: I think we are *entirely* missing the point, if we look *just* at {prompt {deaths.

#### 5.4.2.7 Repetition

Repetition serves as device to increase the force of the repeated speech act (Holmes, 1984: 355), and expresses emphasized disagreement (Kotthoff, 1993). The repetition of a speaker's own words and/or phrases serves as a form of emphasizing a point and thereby functions as strengthening device (Locher, 2004). Example: *They are {safe if {u::sed ac{co:rding to the label instructions. And if (0.3) these products are used (0.8) according to instructions? They are safe.*

#### 5.4.2.8 Swear Word

Swear words are 'strongly marked for their negative social attitude' and are therefore included under the category strengthening devices (House & Kasper, 1981: 170). Example: ah that's *a load of crap* quite frankly.

#### 5.4.2.9 Modal Verb

Just like modal verbs such as 'could' have the potential to soften the force of an utterance, modal verbs can have a strengthening function. Such modal verbs include 'must', 'need to', 'can't' or 'have to'. Example: =But we have to come back to the fact- (.) you CANNOT talk in isolation <as Roger says and then went o:n to talking about>; uhm issues in isolation.

#### 5.4.2.10 Minimal Verbosity

While 'verbosity' in connection with softening devices is another word for 'waffling', in connection with strengthening devices it is to be understood as short, straightforward reply, or, in fact, as a lack of 'verbosity'. According to Scott (2002), less intense disagreements tend to be lengthier than more intense disagreements. While 'waffling' is associated with the softening of the impact of an utterance, a shortness of words is associated with directness and therefore with the strengthening of the force of an utterance. Example: *that's a fact?*

See Appendix 1 for details on the coding of softening and strengthening devices. Softening devices are marked in light grey, whereas strengthening devices are indicated in dark grey colour. The numbers relate to the numbers identified in Chapter 2, Sections 5.4.1 and 5.4.2.

## **6 Prosody Data**

This section addresses the tools used for the analysis of prosodic features, it identifies the features analysed, as well as problems and limitations that the analysis of prosodic features posed.

### **6.1 Measurement Tools**

For the analysis of the data, the computer speech analysis programme PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 1996) was used. Data was digitized and PRAAT was applied to the spoken data. Calculations for all features were carried out on PRAAT. While an auditory-based transcription was conducted for illustrative purposes (in various examples that I provided throughout the study), the results I present in this research project are based on the acoustic analysis conducted on PRAAT only.

### **6.2 Features Analysed**

In order to analyze the prosodic characteristics of disagreements, speech excerpts from the transcripts were analysed for every individual speaker. In accordance with Paeschke and Sendlmeier's (2000) proposal to use the F0 value of neutral speech as a base, the data was assessed for a speaker's neutral speech to form the base of comparison to the speaker's disagreements. Consequently, the speech excerpts that were analyzed included one lengthy neutral utterance of between 15-30 seconds duration, on the one hand, and all the disagreement utterances of up to 10 seconds duration produced by the speaker, on the other hand. Disagreement phrases that were analyzed were selected as semantic (i.e. meaningful) units.

The choice for selecting the features discussed below for the analysis of prosodic characteristics of disagreements is their potential relevance to disagreements. These features have been chosen for analysis because they were identified in connection with disagreements or disagreement related speech features, such as overlap, the emotion of anger, and high involvement style. The prosodic features that were analysed include fundamental frequency

(pitch) mean, fundamental frequency range, intensity (loudness) mean, intensity range, and speech rate (tempo). Fundamental frequency was assessed in Hertz (Hz), intensity was measured in decibel (db), and speech rate was measured in syllables per second (s/s).

Both pitch mean and intensity mean values were established using PRAAT. Pitch range and intensity range were established by subtracting pitch/intensity minima from pitch/intensity maxima. The difference between the two values represents the speaker's range. Both maxima and minima were established using the PRAAT speech analysis programme. Since PRAAT does not assess speech rate, the value for tempo was established by manually counting the number of syllables and then dividing that number by the overall speaking time of the excerpt analysed. The precise speaking time was also assessed using PRAAT.

While voice quality is a further highly relevant feature, it was not included in the present research project, because no systematic, reliable method for identifying properties of voice quality exists to date.

### **6.3 Limitations**

Due to the nature of the data, there are several limitations to the prosodic analysis. One such limitation is the question of whether the two cultures analysed are equally homogenous or if New Zealand, with its significantly smaller population, is more homogenous than the speakers in the German data. A further limitation is that the 'neutral' speech excerpts may not be entirely neutral. A third limiting factor is that the disagreement excerpts that promise the most interesting results, those containing overlap, could not be included in the analysis.

#### **6.3.1 Homogeneity**

Both Germany and New Zealand are multicultural societies with large ethnic minority groups. Nevertheless, the population of New Zealand English speakers could be argued to be a more homogenous group as a young nation with merely 4 million inhabitants. More variation and differences could be expected in a sample of German speakers from a much older nation with a much larger population (82 million inhabitants). With regard to prosody, however, a study of Gibbon (1998) states that, overall, prosodic intonation patterns were the same across a large number of places including Berlin, Hamburg, Hanover, Cologne, Frankfurt, Stuttgart, Munich, Leipzig and the Austrian German variety of Vienna as well as the Swiss German

variety of Zurich. Differences that do exist are confined to details, he claims. It may thus be assumed that comparability of the two groups is assured with regard to prosody.

### 6.3.2 Neutrality

It needs to be taken into account that the non-disagreement excerpts that served as a base for comparison were chosen for being 'neutral'. However, due to the nature of panel discussions, more or less all of the utterances are produced to state a point and discuss the topic at hand. Hence, the 'neutral' stances available might be more similar to disagreements than a truly neutral stance from every day conversation would be. However, due to availability, the 'neutral' utterances observed were taken from the same panel discussion data. Although it is questionable whether one can ever obtain an entirely 'neutral' utterance, the term 'neutral' is henceforth used to mean 'not emotionally marked'. The use of emotionally unmarked speech as a 'neutral' base value is in line with prior research (Kehrein, 2003; Pereira & Watson, 1998).

### 6.3.3 Overlap

Despite the findings of French and Local (1986) that turn-competitive overlap contains increased pitch, intensity and tempo (a feature frequently found in connection with disagreements), disagreements containing overlapping speech were not included in the analysis. However, disagreements containing minimal, non-interfering overlap were included. Here 'minimal' means punctual overlap such as 'mhm', and non-interfering means that they must not be noticeably higher or lower pitched than the speaker under observation, nor must they be noticeably louder or quieter. It is an unfortunate restriction to have to exclude overlapping speech from the data analysis. However, the data I chose to use does not allow the inclusion of overlapping speech, since it would not have been possible to attribute prosodic features to a single speaker. As differences in speech prosody can only sensibly be compared to the same speaker's neutral speech, the attribution of a particular stretch of speech to a particular speaker is crucial. The inability to attribute overlapping speech to a particular speaker, unfortunately means that such data could not be taken into consideration.

## 6.4 Problems

In the process of analysing prosodic features, I faced several problems that I attempted to solve to the best of my abilities.

### 6.4.1 Problem: Hertz vs. ERB

Hermes and van Gestel (1991) argue that the equivalent rectangular bandwidth (ERB) rate scale is derived from the frequency sensitivity of the auditory system and therefore reflects human hearing better than frequency measurements of the fundamental frequency scale. Hence, Hermes and van Gestel (1991) argue that ERB is the preferable representation of frequency, rather than Hertz.

### 6.4.2 Problem Solving: Hertz vs. ERB

Despite Hermes and van Gestel's (1991) criticism, most researchers continue to use the fundamental frequency scale to represent their findings, including Gussenhoven (2004), who acknowledges their criticism, but decides to continue representing his findings in Hertz. While I also decided to represent her findings in Hertz, I, however, attempted to counteract the failure to represent auditory perception using the ERB scale by taking auditory perception into account in a different way. Part of my findings, therefore, represent audible pitch differences (see this chapter, Section 1.3.2).

### 6.4.3 Problem: Pitch Tracking Errors

In the past, pitch tracking devices have been found to produce errors (Gussenhoven, 2004), mostly through including periodic background noises or by producing doubling errors or halving errors, Gussenhoven (2004) claims.

### 6.4.4 Problem Solving: Pitch Tracking Errors

In order to minimize the impact of errors produced by pitch tracking devices, two different measures of error avoidance were taken. Firstly, pitch maxima and minima were carefully assessed and only where pitch peaks and minima were audible, and errors could be excluded, were they assessed as maxima and minima respectively. Secondly, where pitch tracking

device errors were frequent and interfering with overall measurements of pitch, the particular excerpt was excluded from the analysis.

#### 6.4.5 Problem: Pauses

Pauses influence the measurement of mean pitch, mean intensity as well as the evaluation of pitch minimum, intensity minimum and speech rate.

#### 6.4.6 Problem Solving: Pauses

Disagreements that contained several shorter or lengthy pauses were, therefore, excluded from the analysis, in order to avoid distorted results. Care was also taken to avoid including values for pitch and intensity minima occurring during short audible pauses.

## 7 Non-Verbal Data

In this section the analysis of the non-verbal data is addressed, including the transcription process, the categories and subcategories, as well as problems that arose and how those problems were addressed.

### 7.1 Transcription Process

The HIAT (Halbinterpretative Arbeitstranskriptionen = half-interpretative work transcriptions) system, as devised by Ehlich and Rehbein (1976; 1979), was adapted and applied to this research project. The HIAT system proposes using temporally parallel horizontal tracks – based on the concept of musical compositions for several voices – each of which represents a certain strand of behaviour. While the original HIAT only accounted for simultaneous and overlapping speech and prosodic information, a later extended HIAT system devised and discussed by Ehlich and Rehbein (1981) and Schramm (2001) included tracks for the representation of non-verbal activity. This process allows a transcription to capture non-verbal behaviour that occurs on various different non-verbal channels in such a way that temporal succession and simultaneousness can be represented and read precisely, as can be seen in the example below:

[well (???) no not] that not that? and it's not about poles.

Gesture:

I-lifts hands-I I-beat--I

Body Movement: I-----moves body forward-----I

Facial Expression: I-----smiles-----I

Head Movement: I-----head-shake-----I

Schramm (2001) proposes the use of three tracks, one for text and prosody and two for various non-verbal interactions and their duration. This system was considered too restricting. Hence five tracks were used for the representation of disagreements, one for text, including prosodic cues, and four for various different categories of non-verbal communication. (As mentioned earlier, the auditory prosodic transcription was conducted for illustrative purposes only and as such it was considered sufficient to present verbal and prosodic data in a single track).

## 7.2 Categories of Non-Verbal Cues

Ekman and Friesen (1975: 17) claim that people gather information from at least four sources in the visual channel. These four sources include:

- 1) The skeletal muscle movements of the arms, hands, legs, and feet
- 2) The total body posture
- 3) The face
- 4) The tilts of the head

Their system was adapted to suit the present study and the following four strands of non-verbal behavioural channels were investigated:

- 1) Gesture
- 2) Body Movement
- 3) Facial Expression/Gaze
- 4) Head Movement

### 7.2.1 Gesture

The category 'gesture' was used to represent Ekman and Friesen's (1975) arm and hand movements. The reason leg and foot movements were omitted from the category originally proposed by Ekman and Friesen (1975) is based on the type of data used in the present study,

in which the camera rarely captures the interactants from the waist down. Despite the fact that Critchley (1975) and McNeill (1992) define gesture as accompaniment to audible and articulate utterances and non-speech accompanying forms as pantomime, the term ‘gesture’ in the present context includes all forms of arm and hand movements, regardless of whether they occur during articulate, audible speech, during pauses, or in the absence of speech.

### 7.2.2 Body Movement

The category ‘body movement’ includes movements that involve movement other than hand-, arm-, head-, or facial movements, involving the entire torso or body.

### 7.2.3 Facial Expression/Gaze

The category ‘facial expression’ includes every expression registered on the face as well as gaze. This category is particularly broad since no distinction is being made between the three different facial areas that Boucher and Ekman (1975) and Ekman and Friesen (1975) distinguish – namely brows/forehead, eyes/eyelids and cheeks/mouth – nor is gaze categorized separately. These are, however, at least in part distinguished by subcategories (see this chapter, Section 7.3).

### 7.2.4 Head Movement

The category ‘head movement’ is also an extended category of the one proposed by Ekman and Friesen (1975), including all movements of the head. Tilting of the head is, again, just one of the subcategories that emerged.

## 7.3 Subcategories of Non-Verbal Cues

While the main categories – gesture, body movement, facial expression, and head movement – were all derived in a so-called ‘top-down’ approach, all subcategories emerged from a so-called ‘bottom-up’ approach, as suggested by Ambady et al. (1996), based on their findings of non-verbal politeness research. In other words, the data was investigated and a number of subcategories were established in accordance with the non-verbal cues that were encountered in the data. In contrast, the ‘top-down’ approach used for the main categories first creates ‘artificial’ categories into which the non-verbal cues are then fitted.

With regard to which type of subcategories to use, Wierzbicka (2000: 157) raised the question of whether it was more useful to employ scientific categories such as ‘the upper lid is raised exposing the sclera (white) above the iris’ or naïve categories such as ‘wide open eyes’. She concluded that if one decides to focus on behaviour which is noticeable and meaningful to ‘ordinary people’, then ‘naïve’ categories are preferable. In accordance with Wierzbicka’s proposal, it was decided to use ‘naïve’ subcategories. The subcategories that emerged from the data are listed below. Most of the subcategories are self-explanatory, hence will not be elaborated further in the methodology chapter. One subcategory that needs to be accounted for is the subcategory ‘other’. In this subcategory all hand/arm movements are included that were single occurrences which were difficult to define or for which no subcategory was created, despite multiple occurrences, since it does not have an equivalent in the other culture, i.e. gestures that are not pancultural. All categories were classified in the most concise and descriptive way possible. All of the categories were classified based on form not function. Categories such as ‘defensive gesture’ – which appear to be based on function rather than form – were named in a way that would be the most meaningful to the reader, hence terms such as ‘defensive gesture’ were preferred over ‘repeatedly flicking open palms, that face away from the body, outwards in a beat-like manner’. Further categories that are seemingly based on function include: ‘Pointing accusingly’, ‘defensive gesture’, ‘dismissive gesture’, and ‘angry expression’.

### 7.3.1 Subcategories of Gesture

The category ‘gesture’ comprises of the following subcategories:

- a) Beat
- b) Pointing to interlocutor
- c) Pointing to self
- d) Pointing accusingly
- e) Depicting speech content
- f) Holding the prior gesture
- g) Hand(s) open or apart
- h) Hand(s) folded or together
- i) Lifting hand(s)/holding hand(s) up
- j) Shifting hand(s) to the side
- k) Waving hand(s)

- l) Circular hand movement
- m) Defensive gesture (see Figure 23 as an example of a defensive gesture)
- n) Dismissive gesture
- o) Other

### 7.3.2 Subcategories of Body Movement

The following subcategories are included under the category 'body movement'.

- a) Moving back and forth
- b) Moving side to side
- c) Shrug
- d) Straightening up in seat
- e) Shifting in seat
- f) Turning to someone
- g) Beat with upper body

### 7.3.3 Subcategories of Facial Expression/Gaze

The category 'facial expressions/gaze' consists of the subcategories listed below.

- a) Averted gaze
- b) Shifting gaze
- c) Raised eyebrows
- d) Frown
- e) Smile
- f) Looking back and forth
- g) Looking at interlocutor
- h) Looking up
- i) Squinting
- j) Closed eyes
- k) Blinking
- l) Winking
- m) Wrinkling one's nose
- n) Moving corner of mouth up
- o) Angry expression

### 7.3.4 Subcategories of Head Movement

The category 'head movements' includes the subcategories listed below.

- a) Nod
- b) Nod to interlocutor
- c) Turning head back and forth
- d) Turning to interlocutor
- e) Turning away from interlocutor
- f) Shifting head
- g) Waving head
- h) Bending head forward
- i) Throwing head back
- j) Raising head
- k) Headshake
- l) Tilted head

### 7.4 Extra-Verbal vs. Co-Verbal Non-Verbal Cues

According to Streeck and Knapp (1992), non-verbal activity does not merely occur together with speech, it can and does occur prior to and subsequent to verbal utterances, but more importantly, non-verbal activity that does not co-occur with speech has a considerable influence on the conversation in progress. They serve as 'metacommunicative comments' upon concurrent, upcoming, or completed utterances' (Streeck and Knapp, 1992: 17). By 'making faces', Streeck and Knapp (1992) claim, listeners comment on current speech and thereby become actively involved in its future progression. Because of this ability of non-verbal cues to influence ongoing speech or signal (dis)approval prior or subsequent to a speaking turn, not only non-verbal cues co-occurring with speech were investigated, rather pre- as well as post-disagreement cues were also explored. Non-verbal pre-disagreement and post-disagreement, however, does not coincide with verbal pre-disagreement and post-disagreement strategies. Rather, they occur prior to or subsequent to any words spoken. Results are therefore reported under the 'extra-verbal' nonverbal section, while non-verbal cues occurring during audible speech occurred co-verbally and are reported under the 'word-accompanying' non-verbal cues section.

## **7.5 Disagreement vs. Non-Disagreement**

While a direct comparison of German and New Zealand non-verbal behaviour was conducted and was expected to yield interesting and valuable insights into non-verbal disagreeing behaviour, it was considered crucial not only to look at non-verbal cues produced in disagreements, but rather how this non-verbal behaviour differs from non-verbal behaviour found in neutral speech. To this end, an analysis of neutral speech was conducted on both frequency and distribution of non-verbal activity and then compared to the above reported results on disagreement utterances; ‘frequency’ referring to the number of instances of non-verbal cues of a certain subcategory, and ‘distribution’ referring to how many of the subcategories found in disagreements are also represented in neutral speech.

The same neutral stances of speech were analysed as in the prosody section. This offered two invaluable advantages. Firstly, being the same data, it makes it more easily comparable to findings in the prosody section and therefore renders these findings more relevant. Secondly, it includes utterances from all the speakers investigated and thereby ensures that a general picture is being presented, rather than individual speaker habits.

## **7.6 Problems**

The analysis of non-verbal cues posed several problems, including technical problems, based on camera angle and scope, problems of speech-non-verbal cue synchrony, and problems concerning idiosyncratic behaviour of interactants.

### **7.6.1 Problem: Technical Problems**

Working with videotaped panel discussion data undeniably brings with it certain limitations. As noted by Jones and LeBaron (2002), camera angles and camera scope are constraints imposed by technology that limit the researchers access to non-verbal behaviours. At times only facial features are captured by a particular camera angle, prohibiting access to manual gestures and body movement, at times only the back of a speaker is captured, prohibiting access to most nonverbal behaviours, and at times the camera does not capture a speaker at all.

### 7.6.2 Problem Solving: Technical Problems

The researcher attempted to counteract these technical limitations by reporting when speakers were only partially or not at all captured on camera. Results were assessed only in relation to words spoken by a speaker when he/she was captured on camera. Undoubtedly, despite all efforts to the contrary, a number of nonverbal cues will have been lost due to such restraints. This restriction is a potentially significant weakness of this study, in particular in connection with non-verbal pre-disagreements. It is assumed that technological restraints of that kind would have affected the data to an equal extent in both data sets, thus still ensuring comparability.

### 7.6.3 Problem: Synchrony

Throughout the data, it is not always entirely clear what word a non-verbal cue starts or ends with, as non-verbal cues are not entirely synchronous with speech (Mayberry & Jaques, 2000). While such incidents were rare, on several occasions only a part of a word was accompanied by non-verbal cues, as depicted in the following example where the visual feature ‘averted gaze’, which accompanies the utterance, ends on the first, stressed syllable of the word ‘focus’, rather than continuing to the end of the word.

But the party needs to focus....

Gesture:

Body Movement:

Facial Expression: I-----averted gaze-----I

Head Movement:

### 7.6.4 Problem Solving: Synchrony

It was attempted to represent onset and termination of a cue with its lexical affiliate as accurately as possible. However, the precise onset is not always clearly visible. Hence, minor shortcomings in accuracy may have been the result.

### 7.6.5 Problem: Idiosyncrasy

A further problematic aspect of observing non-verbal cues is that these are to a certain degree idiosyncratic (Ekman and Friesen, 1981). Generalizations, therefore, have to be read with this aspect in mind.

### 7.6.6 Problem Solving: Idiosyncrasy

To counteract this problem, it is indicated in the result and/or discussion section where it is believed that the results of a certain subcategory are affected by idiosyncratic behaviour and where results, therefore, reflect a single person's habits rather than reflecting a general trend. I believe, however, that non-verbal behaviour is no more idiosyncratic than verbal behaviour. Since verbal behaviour has been studied and cross-cultural comparisons have been conducted, idiosyncratic issues should be no more restricting to the research of non-verbal behaviour than they have been to research on verbal behaviour.

## 8 Questionnaire

This section deals with creating and conducting the questionnaires, with the issue of why it was necessary to conduct the questionnaires, ethical considerations in connection with administering the questionnaires, purpose and design of the questionnaires, and the problems that arose during the construction of the questionnaire and how those problems were addressed.

### 8.1 Emic vs. Etic Approach

The data evaluation of this present research project in the verbal, prosodic and non-verbal sections is subjected to an etic observation. An etic standpoint is the observer's, i.e. the – more or less – objective outsider's perspective (Pike, 1990; House & Kasper, 1981; Gudykunst, 2000). While this method of data analysis can propose valuable explanations and assessments of the data and enable the discovery of patterns unavailable through 'emic' descriptions (Reiss, 1990), it lacks interpretations from an 'emic' standpoint, that is to say from an 'inside' observer's perspective (Gudykunst, 2000). An 'emic' approach is the study of behaviour relative to context and function within a system of cultural meaning (House & Kasper, 1981; Pike, 1990). By taking on an emic standpoint, one gains the advantage of gaining a perception of appropriateness by the members of a society themselves, instead of having appropriateness judged through scientific observation (Harris, 1990). In order to arrive at an emic interpretation of the findings of this research project, a questionnaire was designed in order to subject native members of the New Zealand culture to the research findings and gain an evaluation of how those findings are interpreted in a native speaker data validation process.

## **8.2 Ethical Considerations**

Participants were approached by the researcher and asked to complete an anonymous questionnaire on a voluntary basis. Prior to conducting the questionnaire, participants were informed through a participant information sheet, in which I explained the research background, the motives for conducting the questionnaire and the data collection procedure (see Appendix 3). As the questionnaire was anonymous, I did not obtain any revealing information and completing the questionnaire was considered a form of providing consent for participation. In order to ensure that the data collection posed no violation to human ethics to the participants, I applied for ethics consent to the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee. Approval was granted on 22.03.2006.

## **8.3 Purpose of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was designed to either validate or refute the findings of the prosody and the non-verbal data analysis. Germans were found to differ from New Zealanders in terms of their stronger tendency to produce disagreements of higher intensity and faster speech rate and a larger number of non-verbal cues. The questionnaire was designed to address the following two questions: 1) Do increased intensity and speech rate have an impact on the perception of politeness? 2) Does the number of non-verbal cues have an impact on the perception of politeness?

## **8.4 Questionnaire Design**

Two questionnaires were designed in order to explore whether the differences found in the Germans' and New Zealanders' prosodic and non-verbal behaviour have any effect on the perception of how polite their disagreeing behaviour is. One questionnaire addresses prosodic issues, the other questionnaire non-verbal issues. Despite the just mentioned split in two different questionnaires, both questionnaires were presented for rating in three steps: a) word-only condition, consisting of a written questionnaire, b) word + prosody condition for the prosody questionnaire, where the questionnaire was administered in both a written and a audio version, and word + non-verbal condition for the non-verbal questionnaire, where the questionnaire was administered in both a written and a visual version, and c) word + prosody + non-verbal condition, where participants were exposed to a written, audio and visual version. The primary focus remains, however, on the primary aspect of the two questionnaires.

Each scenario was presented by providing the general content of the panel discussion as well as the specific context preceding the disagreement, followed by the actual disagreement instance. The basis for the assessment of the degree of politeness was to circle the respective number on a 10-point rating scale, with 10 representing the least polite behaviour and 1 representing the most polite behaviour. A 10-point scale was employed rather than the standard 5-point scale due to the fact that participants in a previous project (Stadler, 2002), in which a 5-point scale had been used, remarked on the fact that they would have preferred a more fine-tuned scale for rating. See Appendices 4-9 for details.

## **8.5 Problems**

This section deals with general problems that spanned the application of both questionnaires.

### **8.5.1 Problem: Single Questionnaire**

It was not possible to conduct a single questionnaire testing for both, prosodic and non-verbal cues, as it was impossible to find prosodically marked, suitable scenarios that were also fully captured on camera and contained the required number of non-verbal cues. The main reason for devising two separate questionnaires was the fact that the questionnaire was only rated by New Zealand English speakers with little or no knowledge of German, hence scenarios had to be taken from the New Zealand data set (with the exception of two scenarios taken from the German data set. They were chosen in order to be able to include a defensive gesture and a scenario that was non-verbally marked, but prosodically unmarked, since such disagreement scenarios did not occur in the New Zealand data set). This limitation increased the difficulty of finding suitable scenarios, because high intensity and speech rate and a large amount of non-verbal cues were phenomena observed in the German data and not many disagreements in the New Zealand data contain these criteria.

### **8.5.2 Problem Solving: Single Questionnaire**

Due to the restrictions the data collection of the questionnaire imposed, it was necessary to develop two separate questionnaires, each with a different primary aim. While some scenarios could be used in both questionnaires, several disagreement scenarios differ.

### 8.5.3 Problem: Idiosyncrasy

A further limiting factor was the fact that disagreements could not be taken from the same person, in order to avoid participants judging individual speaker habits rather than general trends. It may also be possible that participants may be biased towards a particular speaker and their rating could be affected by their attitudes toward that person.

### 8.5.4 Problem Solving: Idiosyncrasy

In order to avoid the influence of idiosyncratic habits and potential bias I tried to avoid using disagreements from the same person more than once per questionnaire, even though their disagreements may have been the most suitable scenarios in several different instances.

### 8.5.5 Problem: Influence of Order

The order in which the scenarios in the three conditions of the questionnaires are presented can have an influence on ratings. Firstly, if the order is the same in all three conditions, participants are more likely to recall the rating they assigned to the previous conditions, which is considered problematic, as participants should, ideally, have no memory of the ratings previously assigned to a disagreement. Secondly, if all scenarios of a particular category, for example all neutral scenarios, are clustered together, the ratings of the participants may also be influenced.

### 8.5.6 Problem Solving: Influence of Order

In order to counteract the influence the order of the scenarios may have on the participants' ratings, care was taken to avoid presenting the same scenario in the same order in all three conditions of the questionnaire and care was taken not to present scenarios of the same category adjacent to each other, for example not to present a neutral scenario next to a neutral scenario. However, an exception was made for the two scenarios taken from the German data set, both of which were presented at the end of both the word-only condition questionnaire and the word + non-verbal condition questionnaire. It was assumed that the German scenarios could influence the scenarios taken from the New Zealand data. It was, therefore, considered preferable to put these scenarios last in the questionnaires.

## 8.6 Prosody Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to answer the following question: Are increased intensity and speech rate perceived as impolite? To answer the question, eight disagreements were selected for use in the questionnaire, two neutral disagreements, two disagreements with increased intensity, two disagreements with increased speech rate and two disagreements with both increased intensity and increased speech rate.

Neutral disagreements were selected on the basis that both the intensity and speech rate ratings of the disagreement had to be similar to the intensity and speech rate measured in the speaker's neutral speech excerpt. Disagreements used to evaluate loudness-only were selected on the basis that tempo measurements of the disagreement were similar to tempo measured in the speaker's neutral speech excerpt, while the intensity of the disagreement had to be higher than the intensity measured in the speaker's neutral speech. The exact opposite was the case for the basis of selection of tempo-only evaluation disagreements. Disagreements used to evaluate loudness and tempo together were selected on the basis that disagreements had to be higher in both the intensity and tempo measurements than intensity and tempo measurements of the same speaker's neutral speech.

### 8.6.1 Problems

One problem that arose in connection with the prosody questionnaire, was the issue of the interrelatedness of the prosodic features that were investigated in the prosody questionnaire.

#### 8.6.1.1 Problem: Inter-Feature Influence

Undoubtedly, it would be ideal to be able to select scenarios where one feature is entirely neutral while the other is audibly different. Such ideal scenarios could not always be found in the data set, hence several scenarios were selected that were not only considerably higher in tempo measurement, but also slightly higher in intensity or that were considerably higher in intensity, but also slightly higher in tempo. This default is based on the fact that these features are to some degree interrelated (Worrall, 2004; Brazil, 1997) and it is more natural that both features would be affected, rather than a single one. In other words, if there is an increase in intensity than it is likely that speech rate is also increased.

### 8.6.1.2 Problem Solving: Inter-Feature Influence

I chose scenarios that were as close as possible to the speaker's neutral speech for one feature, yet clearly marked for the other feature. Scenarios were selected on the basis of two criteria: The primary basis for selection was based on the measurements obtained from the PRAAT computer speech analysis. A secondary basis was my auditory perception. According to Wennerstrom (2001), a combined approach, i.e. the use of computer technology and auditory perception, is the preferable method.

## 8.7 Non-Verbal Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to answer the following question: Is the use of a large number of non-verbal cues perceived as impolite? To answer this question, nine disagreements were selected, three neutral disagreements that are neither prosodically marked nor contain many non-verbal cues, three disagreements that contained a large number of non-verbal cues and were prosodically marked and three disagreements that contained a large number of non-verbal cues and were prosodically unmarked.

The three neutral disagreements were selected on the basis that, prosodically, they were similar to the speaker's neutral speech range and contained few non-verbal cues.

Disagreement scenarios testing the effect of a large number of non-verbal cues on the observer's perception of politeness were chosen on the basis that they contained more non-verbal cues per number of words spoken than neutral speech did. A secondary criterion for selection was prosodic considerations. Three disagreements were selected that contained a large number of non-verbal cues and that were also prosodically marked, i.e. louder and or faster. Three disagreements were chosen that contained a large number of non-verbal cues and that were prosodically unmarked, i.e. similar to the speaker's neutral speech range.

Since it was assumed in the non-verbal discussion section that accusatory, defensive and dismissive gestures may have a confrontational nature, an attempt was made to include one of each type of gesture in the questionnaire.

### 8.7.1 Problems

Similar to the prosody questionnaire, the construction of the non-verbal questionnaire also posed several problems specific to the nature of this particular questionnaire, which included the lack of certain types of gestures in the data from which the scenarios were taken.

#### 8.7.1.1 Problem: Dismissive Gesture

No suitable disagreement containing a dismissive gesture could be found that was also prosodically suited.

#### 8.7.1.2 Problem Solving: Dismissive Gesture

Unfortunately, no dismissive gesture was included in the questionnaire and their effect on the perception of politeness could not be tested.

#### 8.7.1.3 Problem: New Zealand Data

As mentioned previously, the questionnaire was only presented to New Zealand participants. The questionnaire tests phenomena that were predominantly, if not solely, found in the German data and no suitable scenarios could be found in the New Zealand data in two instances.

#### 8.7.1.4 Problem Solving: New Zealand Data

Due to problems finding scenarios that were suitable both non-verbally and prosodically, two scenarios had to be taken from the German data. However, since the main focus of this questionnaire was the assessment of non-verbal cues, which does not necessarily require auditory comprehension, these scenarios were translated for verbal ratings and were presented in the word-only condition and the word + non-verbal condition, but were excluded from the word + non-verbal + prosody condition.

## **8.8 Participants**

Each questionnaire was completed by eleven participants. Participants came from a number of occupational backgrounds and a range of different age groups. With the exception of two

female participants, all other participants were male. The study, being mainly conducted in New Zealand, relied on New Zealand participants only. Considering that the questionnaires were aimed at testing whether the Germans' disagreeing behaviour was responded to in a negative way by interactants who are not German and who are not acquainted with German speech behaviour, it was considered more important to conduct the questionnaires with New Zealand participants than with both New Zealand and German participants.

### **8.9 Conducting the Questionnaire**

All three conditions of the questionnaire were administered in one single session, due to time constraints of participants. The order in which the scenarios were presented differed for each condition.

## Chapter 3

### The Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Results & Discussion

#### 1 The Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Results

This section discusses the verbal component of disagreements. As the core of the study, the disagreements that were identified have been coded on various levels. Firstly, they were split into pre-, core and post-disagreement strategies which were categorized according to the guidelines outlined in Chapter 2, Section 5.2. Secondly, the core disagreements were coded for their level of explicitness – also in accordance with the coding scheme discussed in the Methodology Chapter (Section 5.3). Thirdly, the disagreements were analysed for internal modification devices that occurred in conjunction with them. The results of the use of disagreement strategies as well as the use of verbal modification devices are outlined in the following section.

##### 1.1 Disagreement Strategies

Disagreements were structured into their various components, that is, into the different disagreement strategies. Pre-disagreement strategies include implicit and explicit disagreement introduction, forewarn, pre-disagreement justification, initial agreement, objection and pre-disagreement. Core disagreement strategies comprise performative disagreement, implicit and explicit disagreement, hint and qualified agreement. Post-disagreement strategies include post-disagreement justification and concession.

Table 1: Disagreement Strategies

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Pre-Disagreement Strategies	88	28.0	165	40.3
Core Disagreement Strategies	193	61.2	212	51.9
Post-Disagreement Strategies	34	10.8	32	7.8
Total	315	100	409	100

The most noticeable difference between the two groups is the number of strategies they produced in total. A chi square goodness of fit test reveals that the New Zealanders produce

significantly more strategies in total than the Germans do,  $\chi^2(1) = 12.204$ ,  $p < .001$ . A substantial difference can also be seen in the distribution of the different types of strategies used. A chi square test of homogeneity reveals that there is a significant difference in the use of disagreement strategies by Germans and New Zealanders  $\chi^2(2) = 12.391$ ,  $p = .002$ . The Germans appear to have a more marked preference for core disagreement strategies and a less pronounced liking for disagreement prefaces than the New Zealanders. The Germans, however, do appear to have a slightly greater preference to 'back down' after a disagreement, while the New Zealanders appear to prefer to prepare interlocutors for what is to come.

### 1.1.1 Pre-Disagreement Strategies

Table 2: Pre-Disagreement Strategies

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Implicit Dis. Introduction	12	3.8	37	9.0
Explicit Dis. Introduction	32	10.2	41	10.0
Forewarn	15	4.8	39	9.5
Pre-Disagreement Justification	8	2.5	18	4.4
Initial Agreement	21	6.7	28	6.9
Other	0	0	2	0.5
Total	88	28	165	40.3

The most remarkable difference with regard to pre-disagreement strategies is the overall frequency with which they are used by the two groups. While Pre-disagreement strategies account for only 28.0% in the German data, they make up 40.3% of the New Zealand data. A chi square goodness of fit test reveals that the New Zealanders use significantly more pre-disagreement strategies than the Germans  $\chi^2(1) = 23.435$ ,  $p < .001$ . Among the pre-disagreement strategies, two stand out for the difference in use, namely implicit disagreement introduction and forewarn. Chi square goodness of fit tests reveal that New Zealanders use both significantly more implicit disagreement introductions  $\chi^2(1) = 12.755$ ,  $p < .001$ , and significantly more forewarns than the Germans  $\chi^2(1) = 10.667$ ,  $p = .001$ , although the overall distribution of use of pre-disagreement strategies does not show a significant difference. A chi square test of homogeneity was conducted on the distribution of frequencies (excluding the category 'Other') and does not show significant differences ( $\chi^2(4) = 7.65$ ,  $p = .105$ ) overall.

### 1.1.2 Core Disagreement Strategies

Table 3: Core Disagreement Strategies

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Performative Disagreement	18	5.7	31	7.6
Explicit Disagreement	93	29.5	77	18.8
Implicit Disagreement	65	20.6	83	20.3
Hint	16	5.1	15	3.7
Qualified Agreement	1	0.3	6	1.5
Total	193	61.2	212	51.9

It is clear from these findings that both groups produce more core disagreement strategies (or head-acts, as they are also known) than pre- or post-disagreement strategies. Nevertheless, it is remarkable that Germans appear to do so more than their New Zealand counterparts. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions reveals that the Germans produce significantly more core disagreement strategies than the New Zealanders  $t_{\infty} = 2.52, p = .01$ . A further interesting point to note is the difference between the frequency of use of head-act strategies as opposed to pre-disagreement strategies. Germans use head acts more frequently than pre-disagreement strategies by a factor of 2.2 (i.e. for every 10 pre-disagreement strategies they produce, they are likely to produce 22 core disagreements) while New Zealanders do so by a factor of merely 1.3. There is however, also a significant difference in the distribution of the core strategies in use. A chi square test of homogeneity reveals that there is a significant difference in the distribution of the use of core disagreement strategies  $\chi^2(4) = 9.878, p = .04$ . Of particular interest is the use of implicit and explicit disagreement strategies. While the New Zealanders use a similar number of explicit and implicit disagreements, the Germans produce considerably more explicit than implicit disagreement strategies. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions reveals that the Germans produce significantly more explicit disagreements than the New Zealanders  $t_{\infty} = 2.52, p = .01$ .

### 1.1.3 Post-Disagreement Strategies

Table 4: Post-Disagreement Strategies

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Post-Disagreement Justification	28	8.9	22	5.4
Concession	6	1.9	10	2.4
Total	34	10.8	32	7.8

Post-disagreement strategies are by far the least frequently used category of strategies and at roughly 10% of the entire strategies in use, they seem to be the least important category.

While a chi square test of homogeneity reveals that there are no significant differences in the frequency of distribution of post-disagreement strategies ( $\chi^2(1) = 1.661, p = .197$ ), there is one very interesting finding, namely that Germans have a slightly greater preference to ‘back down’ after a disagreement has occurred, while New Zealanders seem to prefer to take the force out of a disagreement before they produce it. This can be seen particularly well in the comparison between pre-disagreement justifications and post-disagreement justifications. German informants use post-disagreement justifications more frequently than pre-disagreement justifications by a factor of 3.5, i.e. for every 10 pre-disagreement justifications they produce, they produce 35 post-disagreement justifications. New Zealand informants on the other hand produce post-disagreement justifications only slightly more frequently than pre-disagreement justification.

## 1.2 Internal Modification Devices

Internal modification devices are verbal strategies used to downtone or upgrade the strength of a speech act. In this section, the frequency with which they are used and the preferences for certain types of modification devices will be investigated.

Table 5: Internal Modification Devices

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Softening Devices	228	33.3	569	54.2
Strengthening Devices	456	66.7	481	45.8
Total	684	100	1050	100

A look at the amount of modification devices produced shows a notable difference in the number of softening and strengthening devices used. A chi square test of homogeneity reveals that there is a highly significant difference in the distribution of internal modification device strategies  $\chi^2(1) = 72.545$ ,  $p < .001$ , while a chi square goodness of fit test reveals that the New Zealanders produce significantly more modification devices than the Germans in total  $\chi^2(1) = 77.253$ ,  $p < .001$ . However, even more interesting is the comparison between the proportions of modification devices produced by the two groups. Independent samples t-tests comparing proportions reveal that the New Zealanders use both significantly more softening devices than the Germans  $t_{\infty} = -8.82$ ,  $p < .001$  and significantly fewer strengthening devices than the Germans  $t_{\infty} = 8.82$ ,  $p < .001$ . A further interesting and important finding stems from a comparison between the number of softening devices compared to the number of strengthening devices the two cultural groups produce. Independent samples t-tests reveal that the Germans produce significantly more strengthening than softening devices  $t_{\infty} = -13.11$ ,  $p < .001$ , while the New Zealanders produce significantly more softening than strengthening devices  $t_{\infty} = 3.86$ ,  $p < .001$ .

However, as House (1984) suggests, the total number of tokens produced is relatively meaningless by itself. Rather, the number of tokens has to be seen in relation to another measurable category. The possibilities House (1984) proposes are as follows:

- 1) length of interaction in real time,
- 2) number of words,
- 3) number of sentences,
- 4) number of turns-at-talk,
- 5) number of moves,
- 6) number of propositional acts

Since House (1984) notes in connection with these categories that not a single one of them is unproblematic, it seemed best to investigate several of these categories. Hence, I decided in favour of using categories 2, 5 and 6. The tables below show the total number of tokens produced and their frequency distribution relative to a) the number of words, b) the number of disagreements, and c) the number of disagreement strategies.

### 1.2.1 Internal Modification Devices Per Number of Words

Table 6: Number of Words

	German Data	New Zealand Data
<i>n</i>	3026	6329

Table 7: Softening Devices Per Number of Words

Strategy	German Data		New Zealand Data	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **
Tag Question	1	<b>0.033*</b>	2	0.032
Impersonalization	16	0.529	55	<b>0.869</b>
Politeness Marker	2	<b>0.066</b>	3	0.047
Hesitation Marker/Pause	79	2.611	255	<b>4.029</b>
Address Form	2	0.066	8	<b>0.126</b>
Hedge	42	1.388	100	<b>1.580</b>
Gambit	48	<b>1.586</b>	70	1.106
Disarmer	12	<b>0.397</b>	8	0.126
Modal Verb	14	0.463	32	<b>0.506</b>
Verbosity	12	0.397	36	<b>0.569</b>
Total	228		569	

\* bold print represents the group with the highest value in the respective category

\*\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{w}\right) \times 100$ , where *n* = Number of Tokens & *w* = Number of Words

Table 8: Strengthening Devices Per Number of Words

Strategy	German Data		New Zealand Data	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **
Tag Question	3	<b>0.099*</b>	1	0.016
Personalization	35	<b>1.157</b>	43	0.679
Alerter	16	<b>0.985</b>	21	0.332
Aggressive Interrogative/ Exclamation	29	<b>0.958</b>	28	0.442
Address Form	12	<b>0.397</b>	11	2.690
Booster	170	<b>5.618</b>	197	3.113
Repetition	51	<b>1.685</b>	78	1.232
Swear Word	1	0.033	5	<b>0.079</b>
Modal Verb	21	<b>0.694</b>	21	0.332
Minimal Verbosity	118	<b>3.900</b>	76	1.201
Total	456		481	

\* bold print represents the group with the highest value in the respective category

\*\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{w}\right) \times 100$ , where *n* = Number of Tokens & *w* = Number of Words

### 1.2.2 Internal Modification Devices Per Number of Disagreements

Table 9: Number of Disagreements

	German Data	New Zealand Data
<i>n</i>	157	157

Table 10: Softening Devices Per Number of Disagreements

Strategy	German Data		New Zealand Data	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **
Tag Question	1	0.64	2	<b>1.27*</b>
Impersonalization	16	10.19	55	<b>35.03</b>
Politeness Marker	2	1.27	3	<b>1.91</b>
Hesitation Marker/Pause	79	50.32	255	<b>162.42</b>
Address Form	2	1.27	8	<b>5.1</b>
Hedge	42	26.75	100	<b>63.69</b>
Gambit	48	30.57	70	<b>44.59</b>
Disarmer	12	<b>7.64</b>	8	5.1
Modal Verb	14	8.92	32	<b>20.38</b>
Verbosity	12	7.64	36	<b>22.92</b>
Total	228		569	

\* bold print represents the group with the highest value in the respective category

\*\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \times 100$ , where n = Number of Tokens & d = Number of Disagreements

Table 11: Strengthening Devices Per Number of Disagreements

Strategy	German Data		New Zealand Data	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **
Tag Question	3	<b>1.91*</b>	1	0.64
Personalization	35	22.29	43	<b>27.39</b>
Alerter	16	10.19	21	13.38
Aggressive Interrogative/ Exclamation	29	<b>18.47</b>	28	17.83
Address Form	12	<b>7.64</b>	11	7.01
Booster	170	108.28	197	<b>125.48</b>
Repetition	51	32.48	78	<b>49.68</b>
Swear Word	1	0.64	5	<b>3.19</b>
Modal Verb	21	13.38	21	13.38
Minimal Verbosity	118	<b>75.16</b>	76	48.41
Total	456		481	

\* bold print represents the group with the highest value in the respective category

\*\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \times 100$ , where n = Number of Tokens & d = Number of Disagreements

### 1.2.3 Internal Modification Devices Per Number of Disagreement Strategies

Table 12: Number of Disagreement Strategies

	German Data	New Zealand Data
<i>n</i>	315	409

Table 13: Softening Devices Per Number of Disagreement Strategies

Strategy	German Data		New Zealand Data	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **
Tag Question	1	0.32	2	<b>0.49*</b>
Impersonalization	16	5.08	55	<b>13.45</b>
Politeness Marker	2	0.63	3	<b>0.73</b>
Hesitation Marker/Pause	79	25.08	255	<b>62.35</b>
Address Form	2	0.63	8	<b>1.96</b>
Hedge	42	13.33	100	<b>24.45</b>
Gambit	48	15.24	70	<b>17.11</b>
Disarmer	12	<b>3.81</b>	8	1.96
Modal Verb	14	4.44	32	<b>7.82</b>
Verbosity	12	3.81	36	<b>8.8</b>
Total	228		569	

\* bold print represents the group with the highest value in the respective category

\*\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{s}\right) \times 100$ , where *n* = Number of Tokens & *s* = Number of Strategies

Table 14: Strengthening Devices Per Number of Disagreement Strategies

Strategy	German Data		New Zealand Data	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> **
Tag Question	3	<b>0.95*</b>	1	0.24
Personalization	35	<b>11.11</b>	43	10.51
Alerter	16	5.08	21	<b>5.13</b>
Aggressive Interrogative/ Exclamation	29	<b>9.21</b>	28	6.85
Address Form	12	<b>3.81</b>	11	2.69
Booster	170	<b>53.97</b>	197	48.17
Repetition	51	16.19	78	<b>19.07</b>
Swear Word	1	0.32	5	<b>1.22</b>
Modal Verb	21	<b>6.66</b>	21	5.13
Minimal Verbosity	118	<b>37.46</b>	76	18.58
Total	456		481	

\* bold print represents the group with the highest value in the respective category

\*\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{s}\right) \times 100$ , where n = Number of Tokens & s = Number of Strategies

As the tables demonstrate, the results differ according to whether the number of internal modification tokens are investigated per number of words, per number of disagreements or per number of disagreement strategies. If previous findings (Stadler, 2002) were to be considered as a measure for the expected outcome, then the strengthening devices are most appropriately reflected if investigated per number of words produced, while the softening devices would be most accurately reflected by the number of modification devices used per disagreement. Previous findings, however, can hardly serve as an indicator for choosing to rely on the number of disagreements per number of words, per number of disagreements or per number of disagreement strategies. I believe that the number of internal modification devices per number of disagreements is the least suitable category for a comparison, since it completely disregards the fact that New Zealanders produced more than twice as many words in order to express the same number of disagreements as the German data set contains. Likewise, the number of internal modification devices per number of words disregards the fact that an equal number of disagreements is produced. Both views appear to present a distorted picture of the use of internal modification devices. Hence, it is believed that the number of modification device tokens produced per disagreement strategies gives the most reliable picture, since the larger number of strategies takes into account that New Zealanders produce more talk in order to express the same number of disagreements. Therefore, all

results reported in connection with modification devices shall be based on this latter category henceforth.

The results show that New Zealanders produce more downgraders in almost all of the categories, except disarmers, where Germans produce more tokens relative to the amount of disagreement strategies. Independent samples t-tests comparing proportions were carried out on each softening device category and reveal that the New Zealanders use significantly more impersonalization devices  $t_{\infty} = -4.00$ ,  $p < .001$ , hesitation marker/pause devices  $t_{\infty} = -10.89$ ,  $p < .001$ , hedge devices  $t_{\infty} = -3.89$ ,  $p < .001$ , modal verb devices  $t_{\infty} = -1.92$ ,  $p = .05$ , and verbosity devices  $t_{\infty} = -2.82$ ,  $p = .004$ . The reverse is true for the results of the upgrading devices. The results show that in all but three categories, Germans produce more strengthening devices than New Zealanders. The latter only produce more tokens in the categories of swear words, repetition, and alerter. Independent samples t-tests comparing proportions were carried out on each strengthening device category and reveal that the Germans produce significantly more minimal verbosity devices  $t_{\infty} = 5.65$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Overall, the findings show that Germans not only produce more upgraders, but also that they produce less downgraders. In other words Germans not only reinforce the strength of their disagreements more, but they also make less of an effort to soften them. This finding is in accordance with various previous studies that have found Germans to be more direct and less polite, in the production of speech acts in various situations and under various conditions, than other cultures, particularly Anglo-Saxon cultures (House, 1979; House & Kasper, 1981; Kotthoff, 1989; Reuter, Schroeder & Tiittula, 1989; Stolt, 1988.)

## **2 The Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Discussion**

It seems that the findings on the verbal disagreeing behaviour of the two cultural groups could almost be summarized by the following statement by Zeidenitz and Barkow (2005: 25):

You may on occasion be pulled up short by German bluntness and directness. [...] While the British will engage in a form of agile verbal sparring, [the Germans] will unhesitatingly express their disagreement in terms of your being wrong. Not, 'I don't think you're right about that', but 'that is false'. [...] The Germans say what they mean and mean what they say.

The results, however, are a little more complicated than this, so let us now turn to the discussion of the findings on German and New Zealand verbal disagreeing behaviour.

## 2.1 Disagreement Strategies

### 2.1.1 Pre-Disagreement Strategies

As has been demonstrated in the result section, Germans and New Zealanders differ significantly in their use of disagreement strategies, in particular with regard to the number of pre-disagreements they produce, but also with regard to the number of implicit disagreement introductions and forewarns.

How can this difference be accounted for? The New Zealanders' significantly greater use of pre-disagreement strategies is most likely linked to their preference for softening devices. Disagreement markers serve the production of indirect disagreements (Georgakopoulou, 2001), because pre-sequences imply arguments, thereby preventing them from happening (Jackson & Jacobs, 1992). The reason why pre-disagreements prevent disagreements from happening, according to Koshik (2003), is that they give the addressee the opportunity to back down from a disagreement and thereby prevent it from occurring. According to Berrier (1997), Lüger (1999) and Kamyşlı and Doğançay-Aktuna (1996), strategies such as initial agreement or hesitation serve as politeness devices and are used as a form of redress. Omitting prefaces and thereby producing disagreement directly, on the other hand, serves as a form of strengthening disagreement (Goodwin, 1983; Greatbach, 1992). The reason for pre-disagreement to occur, according to Goodwin (1983: 666) is based on the character of disagreements as 'actions to be deferred prior to actual expressions of disagreement'. If disagreement is regarded and/or treated as something to be accounted for by a certain culture, it shows the culture's orientation towards agreement (Mori, 1999). These findings would imply that the frequent use of pre-disagreement strategies signals the dispreferred status that disagreements seem to hold in the New Zealand culture, while the less frequent occurrence of pre-disagreements in the German data may signal that disagreements are more acceptable and less disliked in the German culture. A further factor suggesting that the greater use of pre-disagreements indicate the dispreferred status that New Zealanders appear to attribute to disagreements, is the finding that justifications make the termination of a disagreement significantly more likely (Eisenberg and Garvey, 1981: 166, cited in Goodwin & Goodwin, 1987). New Zealanders produce considerably more pre-disagreement justifications, possibly indicating their wish to terminate a disagreement or at least to mitigate it.

The most prominent finding, with regard to the specific types of pre-disagreement strategies used, is the preference for explicit disagreement introductions by both groups, which they use

at approximately the same frequency. What springs to mind as an explanation for the Germans' preference for explicit disagreement introductions is the fact that they generally demonstrate a preference for explicit strategies, not only in the preparatory strategy range, but even more so among the head-act strategies. Since the findings for the explicit introduction strategy in the New Zealand data is not in accordance with the findings for head-act strategies, it is a bit more challenging to account for this finding. Possibly New Zealanders opt for explicit introduction strategies in order to clearly signpost an upcoming disagreement, so they do not have to produce as strong a disagreement subsequently, as the hearer will already be alerted to the fact that a contradicting or qualified opinion will follow. Pre-disagreements, states Koshik (2003: 62), 'are designed to provide an opportunity for a backdown, which would eliminate the necessity for a full disagreement'. It is important to remember at this point though that the preference for explicit pre-disagreement strategies is relatively small for New Zealanders. Implicit disagreement introductions and forewarns are used nearly as frequently.

The main point of interest, however, lies in the overall frequency of use of pre-disagreement strategies. While pre-disagreement strategies account for merely 28.0% of the German data, they make up 40.3% of the New Zealand data. These findings all imply that New Zealanders may feel the wish/need to signal an upcoming disagreement more strongly than their German counterparts. This preference can be interpreted as a preference to warn people of the upcoming negative, dispreferred and face-threatening speech act of disagreement. In sum, it appears that New Zealanders prefer to prepare their interlocutors for an upcoming disagreement while Germans appear to prefer to address the matter at hand more directly without as much signposting for what the hearer should expect.

### 2.1.2 Core Disagreement Strategies

The results demonstrated that head-acts, the disagreements themselves that is, form the main part of the disagreement strategies analysed. While this is true for both groups, the Germans produced a total of 61.2% core disagreements whereas New Zealanders produced 51.9%. For both Germans and New Zealand informants, however, explicit and implicit disagreements together form the major part of the five different categories of disagreements, with Germans showing a preference for the explicit type and New Zealanders favouring the implicit kind.

The implications for some of these findings are reasonably clear and straightforward. It has been demonstrated in many previous studies (House, 1996; 2000; House & Kasper, 1981; Stevenson, 1997; Žegarac & Pennington, 2000; Stadler, 2002) that Germans have a preference to communicate their intentions explicitly. In comparison to the more direct Germans, New Zealanders have been found to be a more polite and rather indirect people (Stadler, 2002). While it is true that politeness is a culture-dependent concept and what is 'polite' or 'impolite' behaviour differs in every culture, nevertheless, there is evidence that suggests that Germans and New Zealanders have a very similar perception of what they consider polite behaviour. Participants of both cultures considered New Zealanders to be more polite than Germans (Stadler, 2002). Where they seem to differ is where they draw the line between what is impolite and what is – in Locher and Watt's (2005) terms – non-polite (or neutral/unmarked) behaviour. While New Zealanders appear to consider direct, strong disagreements to be impolite, Germans show more tolerance for such behaviour and consequently regard it as more acceptable. 'Acceptable', however, is not to be confused with 'polite'. Just because something is acceptable in a society does not necessarily imply that it is 'polite', hence it is important to bear in mind the distinction between impolite, non-polite and polite behaviour in this discussion. The findings reported here appear to confirm previous findings of Germans exhibiting a preference for direct disagreement, and hold true for the strategies of explicit and implicit disagreements as well as for qualified agreements. What is surprising about the findings is the fact that New Zealand informants produced more performative disagreements and less hints than the Germans, hence, quite the opposite to what previous studies have discovered. Because of these rather surprising results the data was inspected more closely with regard to hints and performative disagreements.

As Kasper (1998: 359) states, features such as laughter and prosodic shifts can 'index emotional involvement and attitudinal stances such as irony or sarcasm'. This kind of information, she claims, can be highly revealing for the interpretation of the protocol. Taking such features into account, the findings, indeed, appear in a very different light. Hints were not simply looked at from the perspective of the level of verbal indirectness, rather, they were investigated for contextual factors, intonation with which they were uttered or whether or not they were considered aggressive by the interactants (based on their responses to the hints). Three categories were established, these being:

- a) challenging hints
- b) sarcastic/ironic hints
- c) ‘genuine’ hints (i.e. hints that fulfil their function of being a very indirect strategy and indeed being interpreted and responded to as such)

A hint was considered genuine if it conformed to the definition of a hint in Section 5.2.2.4 of Chapter 2, i.e. if the hint is unconventionally indirect and requires a large amount of interpretative work by the hearer. Example: The interviewer suggests that Muldoon served New Zealanders well as a Prime Minister, to which M replies ‘Well, I still think that he uhm he still appealed to a certain sector in society’. A hint was considered sarcastic or ironic if it was produced in the form of a genuine hint, but was pronounced with an ironic or sarcastic tone of voice and/or was used to ridicule the statement of a prior speaker. Example: R suggests that people who live on welfare benefits need more independence, to which P replies in a sarcastic/mocking tone of voice ‘Well what’s Roger talking about - vouchers?’. A hint was considered challenging if it was produced in the form of a genuine hint, but with an aggressive, challenging tone of voice and/or was not indirect despite being disguised as an indirect strategy, such as a question. Example: The interviewer asks ‘What is your evidence for that please?’ in a challenging tone of voice, seemingly knowing what evidence the addressee used as a basis for his statements, for as soon as the addressee mentions ‘Christchurch’ the interviewer interrupts with the disagreement ‘no, no, the evidence in Christchurch doesn’t say that at all’. Whether the tone of voice was identified as genuine, sarcastic/ironic, or challenging was based on impressionistic coding as well as on the reaction of the addressee of the hint (i.e. while genuine hints did not provoke defensive or aggressive reactions, sarcastic/ironic and challenging hints did).

Table 15: Hints

	<u>German</u> <i>n</i>	<u>New Zealand</u> <i>n</i>
Challenging (non-genuine)	10	3
Sarcastic/Ironic (non-genuine)	5	3
Genuine	1	9
Total	16	15

This table shows that for Germans, 15 out of a total of 16 hints were of an aggressive nature, even though the words uttered were very indirect. New Zealanders, on the other hand, only produced 6 aggressive hints, whereas the majority of hints was of the genuinely indirect kind. A Fisher's Exact Test was carried out comparing genuine hints with non-genuine hints and reveals that there is a significant difference in the distribution of the way genuine and non-genuine hints are used by the Germans and by the New Zealanders ( $p = .002$ ). Mehrabian (1972) claims, on the basis of his research findings, that when different channels (i.e. he distinguishes verbal, vocal and non-verbal channels) communicate inconsistent messages, the vocal (which in this research is called 'prosodic') and non-verbal channels override the verbal message. This is to say, when the words communicate an implicit statement with a positive attitude, but the prosodic and/or non-verbal channels communicate a subtle negative attitude, the prosody and non-verbal cues will override the implicit statement. In other words, sarcasm dominates over hints in determining the total impact of the message. Sarcasm not only dominates the impact of the message; it also aggravates a disagreement considerably. Firstly, sarcasm or irony indicate high affect, which – as we shall see in the questionnaire discussion (Chapter 6, Section 2) – appears to have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. Secondly, irony can be face-threatening and therefore also serves to aggravate the impact of a verbal message (Locher, 2004).

In accordance with these findings it becomes clear that results have to be considered with care, as the kind of hints produced by Germans are hardly comparable to the type of hints produced by New Zealanders. More importantly though, it proves one of the main points this dissertation is aiming to demonstrate, namely that it is crucial to take prosodic information into account and to undertake qualitative analyses.

As far as performative disagreements are concerned, little has been found to distinguish the two groups. However, while all of the performative disagreements produced by Germans are uttered in a serious manner, three out of a total of 31 of the New Zealanders' performatives are uttered in a jocular or a rather casual manner. According to Holmes (2000) and Holmes and Stubbe (2003), humour serves as a politeness device and can be employed as a softening strategy. While this possible explanation only accounts for a fraction of the performative disagreements produced by the New Zealanders, one further possible reason for the greater preference for this strategy by New Zealanders might have to do with the formality of the setting. A previous study (Stadler, 2002) has shown that a more formal context, especially when it involves status and power, leads Germans to be less direct and more polite than usual,

while changing little about the typically casual but polite style of interactions of New Zealanders. This is to say, the potential implication of New Zealand informants' greater use of performatives may be that they perceive the televised panel discussion setting and their interactants in a more casual manner and the setting as more familiar, which would allow for more directness (Schiffrin, 1984; Lee & Peck, 1995).

Another possible reason for the New Zealanders' greater use of performative strategies may lie in the fact that they use more mitigation in their disagreements, hence allowing for their disagreement strategies to be more explicit. Kwon (2004: 350), in her study on refusals on Korean speakers and American English speakers concluded that 'Korean speakers used more direct formulas than did American English speakers. However, since Korean speakers also mitigated the refusals more than American English speakers with other formulas such as [...] hesitations [...], the tone of their refusals seemed softer than those of American English speakers'. Applied to the context of the present study, this would imply that New Zealanders would be able to choose more explicit strategies, but still be perceived as less offensive, based on their greater use of softening strategies.

A third possible explanation is linked to Sornig's (1977) finding that ritualized forms contain more performative elements in order to reduce its liability for misinterpretation, which he describes as one of the most essential criteria of ritualization. Considering that speakers of English have been found to make greater use of ritualized formula, while speakers of German have been found to 'improvise' more (House, 1986; House, 2005), it is possible that the New Zealanders use a more formulaic disagreement style, which would allow for more performative disagreements.

### 2.1.3 Post-Disagreement Strategies

Results show that the Germans use slightly more post-disagreement justifications, but slightly fewer concessions than the New Zealanders do. The finding of the most interest, however, is that the Germans show a far greater liking for post-disagreement justifications than for pre-disagreement justifications, while New Zealand informants seemed to use a similar number of both strategies. Both groups produced more justifications than concessions.

House (1989b: 309) mentions justification as a 'common reaction to the need to apologize', which fulfils the function of 'pointing to the source of offence, which consists of external factors over which the speaker has no control'. A speaker thereby deflects responsibility for

his/her utterance. The underlying implication that offers itself, and thereby reinforces previous inferences, is the New Zealanders' preference to prepare their interlocutors for the upcoming disagreement, whereas Germans prefer to produce a disagreement without warning and appear to prefer to justify it subsequently. The Germans' need to justify their actions has been noted in previous research as a 'key-issue' of German texts across different genres (Thielmann, 2003: 156). Justifications being a typical feature of German speech, it is not surprising then that the Germans produced slightly more justifications in total (11.4%) than the New Zealanders (9.8%). Nevertheless, at a total of only 10.8% and 7.8% for Germans and New Zealanders respectively, post-disagreement strategies appear to be of only marginal importance.

## 2.2 Internal Modification Devices

On the basis of previous research findings (Edmondson et al., 1984; Stadler, 2002), it was to be expected that Germans would use more strengthening devices. The findings of this study are in line with previous findings. The Germans were indeed found to use more strengthening devices while New Zealanders use more softening devices. More specifically, New Zealanders appear to use more downgraders in all categories, except disarmers. Germans, on the other hand employ more upgraders in all categories except swear words, repetition and alerter. Overall, the outcome was to be expected and appears to confirm the stereotype that Germans are rather direct. However, there is a need to look at this issue more closely.

In part, the German brevity of words might be related to the fact that the Germans' disagreements were either turn-competitive or interrupted more frequently than the New Zealanders' disagreements. According to Rama Martínez (1993), time constraints might influence the number of politeness techniques used. Hence, the Germans' failure to incorporate more softening devices could, in part, be related to the fact that they had less time to produce them.

Table 16: Turn-Interruptive/Turn-Competitive Disagreements

	<u>German</u> <i>n</i>	<u>New Zealand</u> <i>n</i>
Turn-Interruptive/ Competitive	126	98

A larger number of turn-competitive and interruptive disagreements, however, also has other implications. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (2002), turn-taking and interruption show a participant's high involvement, which is a central feature in an argumentative framework, they state. According to McLachlan (1991) frequent interruptions are linked to a disagreement's more competitive behaviour. While it may not seem to be a very important discovery at this point in the thesis, the relevance of the more frequent interruptive style (and therefore higher involvement and stronger competitiveness) will become clear in the questionnaire (Chapter 6, Section 2).

### 2.2.1 Softening Devices

The Germans 'lack polite cushioning phrases, seeing them as a waste of language' (Zeidenitz & Barkow, 2005: 28). The findings in this section certainly appear to confirm this statement. The results on softening devices show that New Zealanders produce more softening devices than the Germans in every single category, with the exception of disarmers.

It seems counter-intuitive that the Germans produce more disarmers than the New Zealanders, when in every other category, the New Zealanders produce more softening devices. Although the number of disarmers used by either one of the two groups is relatively small, a qualitative analysis was conducted and revealed the following results: While their more frequent use of disarmers undoubtedly serves to soften the disagreements, in the German data they seem to set the stage for the use of more explicit disagreements in connection with disarmers. According to Bolinger (1989), pre-disagreements, which typically serve to soften an upcoming disagreement, can be used as preparatory devices for subsequent attacks. Epistemic 'well', he claims, makes it easier to attack another's position. It is possible that the same applies to disarmers. Seven out of the twelve disarmers produced by the Germans occur in combination with explicit disagreements. In the New Zealand data, only one disarmer token is produced in connection with an explicit disagreement, while the remaining seven disarmers occur in connection with less explicit strategies. Consequently, one possible implication of the greater use of disarmers by the Germans is to 'legitimize' stronger disagreements. A further difference that may account for the greater use of disarmers lies in the indication that the Germans seem to prefer to express disarming moves through lexical items (i.e. disarmers), whereas the New Zealanders appear to prefer to describe/circumscribe the disarming moves they produced. While less lexical disarming items are found in the New Zealand data, they produce a number of phrases that fulfil a similar function, but are mostly found as external

modification devices (i.e. initial agreement), such as ‘both Merepeka and Deborah are right here [...], but...’, ‘I’m with you on that one, but...’, ‘and I agree with Hone on this point’. These phrases are not disarmers, but fulfil a similar function. It is possible that New Zealanders simply express the same stance, but present it in a different format.

The overall greater use of softening devices by the New Zealanders leads to the conclusion that they might feel more need to account for their disagreements, i.e. mark disagreements as dispreferred, and signal this through a greater use of softeners.

### 2.2.2 Strengthening Devices

While the Germans produce more strengthening devices in most categories, they produce fewer tokens in the categories ‘alerter’, ‘repetition’ and ‘swear word’.

The more frequent use of alerters appears to be linked to the New Zealanders’ greater preference to warn an interlocutor of an upcoming disagreement. The New Zealand data contains approximately twice as many forewarns as the German data and alerters and forewarn strategies overlap to some degree. While these two strategies are not identical, they are very similar in many respects. Parallel to disarmers, which have a close link to some of the initial agreement strategies, alerters are closely linked to forewarns. While alerters are internal modification devices, forewarns are external modification devices. However, the difference in the use of alerters in the German and the New Zealand data is so minute (a difference of a value of 0.05) that there is hardly any need to account for it.

The fact that New Zealanders also produced more repetition may also be connected to the finding that Germans got interrupted more frequently and there was simply no chance to repeat a point. However, Delattre (1970) proposes a much more likely explanation. He states that implicature goes well with reduplication, because it prepares for it and expresses a gentle warning. Perrin et al. (2003), came to the same conclusion, stating that repetition can serve as an implicit way of disqualifying a previous statement. Considering that New Zealanders have demonstrated a greater preference for implicature than Germans, both in this research project and in past research (Stadler, 2002), it might explain their greater liking for repetition. Delattre’s (1970) research findings seems to suggest that repetition is a less strong form of strengthening a disagreement and could, therefore, be favoured by New Zealanders over other, stronger forms of reinforcement.

The more frequent use of swear words by New Zealanders seems also rather surprising but may possibly be explained by a different perception of the formality of the setting. While Germans appear to set great store by formal forms of address and last name basis, combined with a preference to acknowledge titles and status, New Zealanders seem to prefer a more casual conversational style, addressing interlocutors on a first name basis, rarely acknowledging titles verbally and generally treating interlocutors more like status-equals. Although Peeters' (2004: 80) findings report behavioural norms of Australians, some of his implications appear to apply to their neighbours across the Tasman Sea as well and that is their 'love of mowing down tall poppies, i.e. their egalitarianism – a characteristic also documented by Walkinshaw (2004) about New Zealanders – which discourages members of their communities from standing out and receiving different treatment to other members of their communities. In particular when it comes to communicating in supposedly more public and more official settings, there seems to be a more familiar and relaxed manner of communicating, even towards authority figures than in a German context. The panel discussion setting, which may be regarded as a more familiar setting may allow for expressions like 'that's a load of crap quite frankly' or 'oh rubbish' more than the presumably more formal perception of the context that German might have (Stadler, 2002). Wigglesworth and Yates's (2004) findings also reflect Australian rather than New Zealand behaviour, but gives a further indication as to why the New Zealanders might use swear words more often. They state that 'as a country of relatively recent white settlement, speakers of Australian English appear to favour a very informal, apparently egalitarian and yet non-impositive style of mitigation' (p. 4). In other words, while trying to remain polite and not to impose, New Zealanders may use a very informal and egalitarian communicative style that may allow for colloquialisms such as swear words.

Overall, the greater use of strengthening devices by the Germans may be attributed to the fact that disagreements are not dispreferred in their culture (Knoblauch, 1991; Günthner, 1993; Kotthoff, 1993), and that they, consequently, do not feel as great a need to account for their disagreements. However, one further explanation also seems likely. According to Rees-Miller (2000), the severity of disagreement is linked to how personal an interlocutor considers a disagreement to be. The more personally threatened an interlocutor feels, the more severe the disagreement, she claims. Previous research has found that Germans are indeed more prone to feel personally offended by a disagreement (Stadler, 2002). Their more frequent use of strengthening devices combined with their less frequent use of softening devices could be a

reaction to feeling more personally offended and threatened by a disagreement. This interpretation is in line with the fact that German interlocutors use significantly less impersonalization devices, but more personalization devices and more aggravating address forms. In other words, it seems that Germans get more personal in their disagreements and, consequently, their addressees feel more personally threatened and feel a greater need to defend themselves. Overlapping speech is also associated with personal attack (Scott, 2002) and since more frequent overlap has been found in the Germans' disagreeing behaviour, it appears that turn-competitive and turn-interruptive speech is a further indicator of a more personal style of the Germans.

### **3 The Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Summary**

The data was investigated for two main verbal categories. Firstly, the data was explored for the use of disagreement strategies, including pre-disagreements, core disagreements, and post-disagreements. Secondly, the data was investigated for verbal modification devices, including both softening and strengthening devices.

The main findings of the use of disagreement strategies is that New Zealanders demonstrate a strong liking for pre-disagreement strategies, which most likely serve to signal to an interlocutor that the subsequent contribution will be problematic. It is possible that the greater use of pre-disagreements signals that in the New Zealand culture disagreements have a dispreferred status. The greater preference for Germans to produce un-prefaced core disagreements could signal the opposite, namely that, in the German culture, disagreements have a less dispreferred status and are, consequently, more acceptable.

With regard to the use of modification devices, two findings stand out. Firstly, the New Zealanders use significantly more softening and significantly fewer strengthening devices than the Germans. Secondly, the New Zealanders use significantly more softening than strengthening devices, while the reverse is the case for the Germans. These findings point once more to the conclusion that disagreements are less acceptable in the New Zealand culture than in the German culture and therefore need a greater degree of mitigation, whereas the German culture is more accepting of direct or strong disagreements.

Where softening and strengthening devices were not used as expected, the findings suggest that there may be an alternate use of external and internal modification devices. While one

cultural group may opt to express a certain modification strategy through the use of lexical items, i.e. internal modification devices, another culture may prefer to express the same modification strategy through the use of external modification devices, such as pre-disagreement strategies. In other cases the reason for the unanticipated results may lie in a different perception of situational context, setting and interpersonal relations, with Germans tending to display more formal behaviour and New Zealanders exhibiting a more casual conversational style.

## **Chapter 4**

### **The Prosodic Properties of Disagreement: Results & Discussion**

#### **1 The Prosodic Properties of Disagreement: Results**

In an attempt to unveil the prosodic properties of disagreements, two main points have been investigated. Firstly, the study aims at shedding light on the overall correlation of certain prosodic features with disagreements. The prosodic features investigated include pitch mean, pitch range, intensity mean, intensity range and speech rate. Secondly, the study examines cross-cultural variation of the use of these prosodic features in disagreements.

##### **1.1 The Correlation of Prosodic Features with Disagreements**

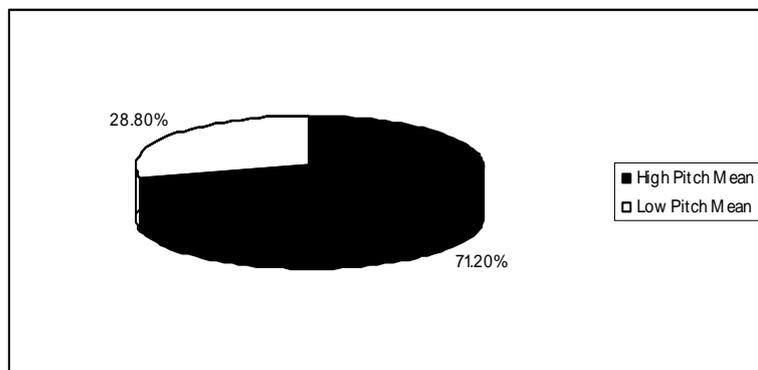
The first of the two main issues that has been investigated is the correlation of prosodic features with disagreements. In order to explore which of the prosodic features correlate with disagreements and how consistently they correlate, the prosodic characteristics of disagreements were observed and were then compared to the prosodic properties observed in neutral speech. The disagreements are classified into two categories. The first category comprises all disagreements that are higher in pitch mean, wider in pitch range, higher in mean intensity, wider in intensity range, and higher in speech rate. The second comprises those that were lower in pitch mean, narrower in pitch range, lower in mean intensity, narrower in intensity range, and lower in speech rate than neutral speech.

A total of 222 disagreements were investigated; 93 of them produced by German speakers and 129 of them produced by New Zealand speakers. The reasons for not including all of the 314 disagreements investigated in this study are explained in Chapter 2 (Sections 6.3 and 6.4). The percentages reported in the pie charts that follow refer to the proportion of disagreements correlating with a certain prosodic feature and reflect the total number of disagreements from both groups analysed in the context of this chapter. The neutral speech that the disagreements were compared to comprised lengthy excerpts from each of the 13 German speakers as well as from each of the 20 New Zealand speakers investigated.

### 1.1.1 Pitch Mean in Disagreements

The mean pitch value of each disagreement was calculated using PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 1996) and then compared to neutral speech.

Figure 4: Pitch Mean in Disagreements

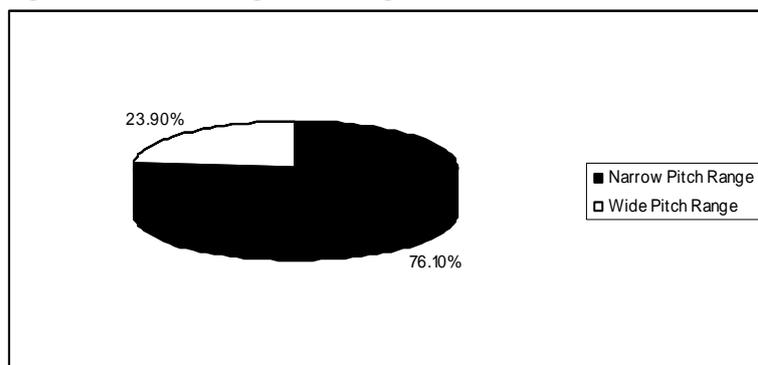


The analysis of the mean pitch shows that 71.2% of the 222 disagreements that were analysed are higher in mean pitch than non-disagreements. 28.8% of the disagreements are lower in mean pitch. A chi square goodness of fit test was conducted and revealed that there is a highly significant correlation of heightened mean pitch and disagreements  $\chi^2(1) = 39.802$ ,  $p < .001$ .

### 1.1.2 Pitch Range in Disagreements

The pitch range was assessed by calculating the difference between the maximum pitch and the minimum pitch of a disagreement.

Figure 5: Pitch Range in Disagreements

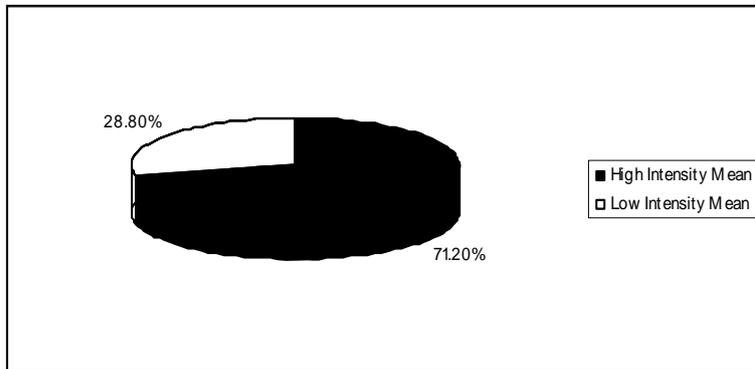


The results for the analysis of the pitch range reveal that in 76.1% of all disagreements the pitch range is narrower than in neutral speech. A chi square goodness of fit test was conducted, which showed that there is a highly significant correlation between disagreements and a narrow pitch range  $\chi^2(1) = 60.613$ ,  $p < .001$ .

### 1.1.3 Intensity Mean in Disagreements

The intensity mean in disagreements was calculated using PRAAT and then compared to neutral speech.

Figure 6: Intensity Mean in Disagreements

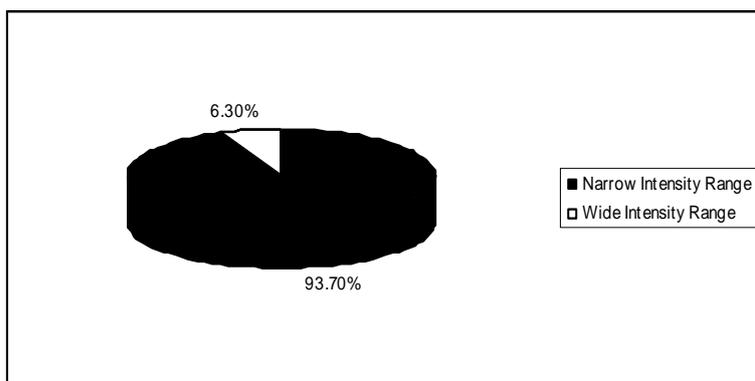


The results reveal that 71.2% of all disagreements are spoken with heightened intensity. A chi square goodness of fit test reveals a highly significant correlation between heightened mean intensity and disagreements  $\chi^2(1) = 39.802, p < .001$ .

### 1.1.4 Intensity Range in Disagreements

The intensity range was calculated by investigating the difference between maximum intensity and minimum intensity of a disagreement.

Figure 7: Intensity Range in Disagreements

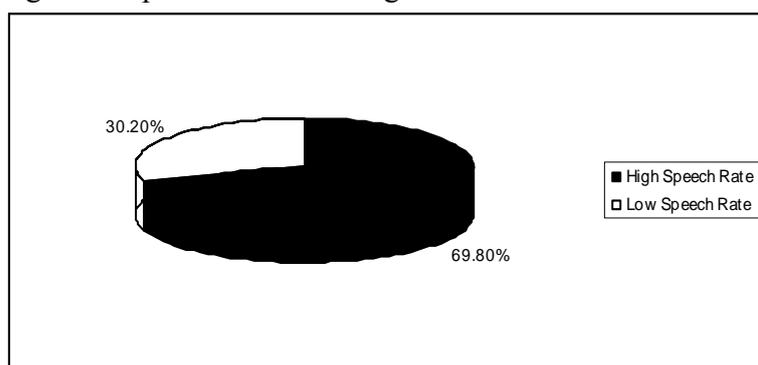


The investigation showed that 93.7% of all disagreements have a narrower intensity range than neutral speech. A chi square goodness of fit test was conducted, which revealed that there is a highly significant correlation between disagreements and a narrow intensity range  $\chi^2(1) = 169.532, p < .001$ .

### 1.1.5 Speech Rate in Disagreements

The speech rate was assessed by dividing the number of syllables per unit of time. The time unit in use in the present study is seconds. Hence, results are assessed as syllables per second (s/s).

Figure 9: Speech Rate in Disagreements



The results show that 69.8% of all disagreements are spoken at a heightened speech rate, relative to the speech rate in neutral speech. A chi square goodness of fit test reveals a highly significant correlation of heightened speech rate with disagreements  $\chi^2(1) = 34.883, p < .001$ .

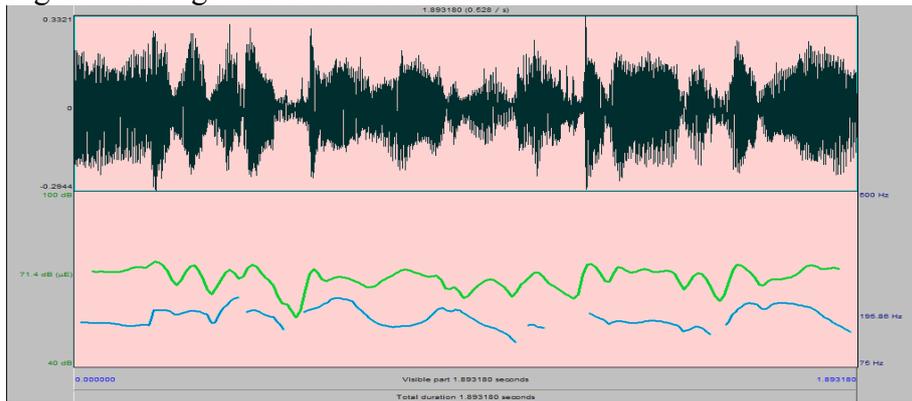
Overall, the investigation of a potential correlation of various prosodic features with disagreements shows that disagreements positively correlate with: High pitch mean, narrow pitch range, high intensity mean, narrow intensity range and fast tempo. The findings further show that disagreements correlate consistently and significantly with the above mentioned features. The difference between the typical prosodic features exhibited in disagreements and typical features exhibited in neutral speech is visualized in the contour plots below. Both contour plots are taken from the same speaker, the first one featuring a disagreement, the second one taken from a neutral speech excerpt.

### 1.2 Contour Plots

The contour plots pictured below show pitch and intensity range, while the time domain waveform shows speech density. The exact measurements for mean pitch and mean intensity are specified in the text below.

### 1.2.1 Disagreement Contour Plots

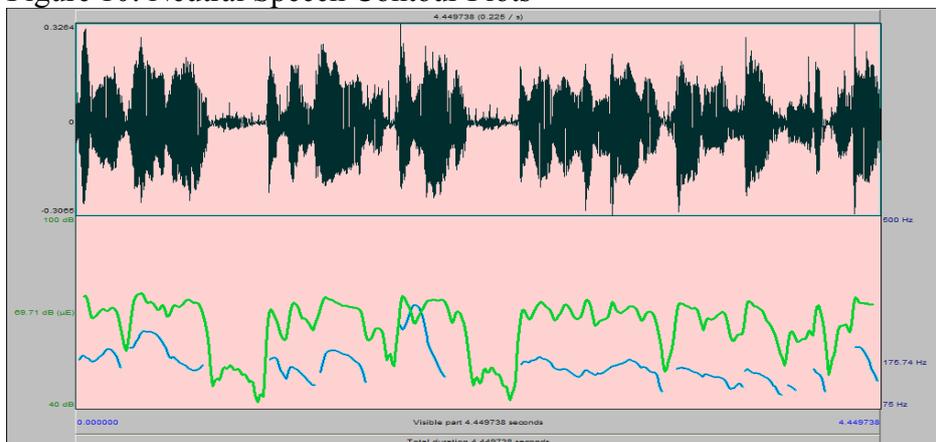
Figure 9: Disagreement Contour Plots



The contour plots clearly show that the range for both pitch (lower blue line) and intensity (upper green line) is very narrow. Nevertheless, the mean pitch (195.86 Hz) and intensity level (71.4 db) are higher than those for neutral speech. It is also visible in the time domain waveform that the speech is more ‘dense’, i.e. the speech rate is considerably faster (8.51 s/s) than in neutral speech.

### 1.2.2 Neutral Speech Contour Plots

Figure 10: Neutral Speech Contour Plots



The contour plots for neutral speech show a very much wider intensity range (upper green line) as well as a wider pitch range (lower blue line), featuring considerably higher peaks and lower minima. The overall pitch and intensity levels, however, are lower – at 175.74 Hz and 69.71 db – than in disagreements. It is also clearly apparent in the time domain waveform that the speech ‘density’ is lower, i.e. the speech rate is slower (5.44 s/s) than in disagreements.

As the above investigation demonstrates, disagreements correlate with a number of prosodic features. The questions that arise from these findings are: a) Are there differences in the use of these features by Germans and New Zealanders? and b) Does one of these two cultural groups employ disagreement relevant prosodic cues more frequently in their disagreements than the other group?

### **1.3 Cross-Cultural Variation in the Use of Prosodic Features in Disagreements**

In order to explore potential similarities and differences in the use of various prosodic features between New Zealand and German speakers, two kinds of analyses were conducted, one comparing a speaker's disagreements to the same speaker's neutral speech, the other investigating whether the differences in mean pitch, mean intensity and speech rate are actually audible to the addressee. A total of 13 German speakers was observed, 11 of whom are male and 2 of whom are female. The number of New Zealand speakers, whose speech was analysed, was 20 in total, consisting of 14 males and 6 females. Due to the low number of speakers that were analysed, no statistical analyses were conducted in Section 1.3.1.

#### **1.3.1 Speaker Analysis**

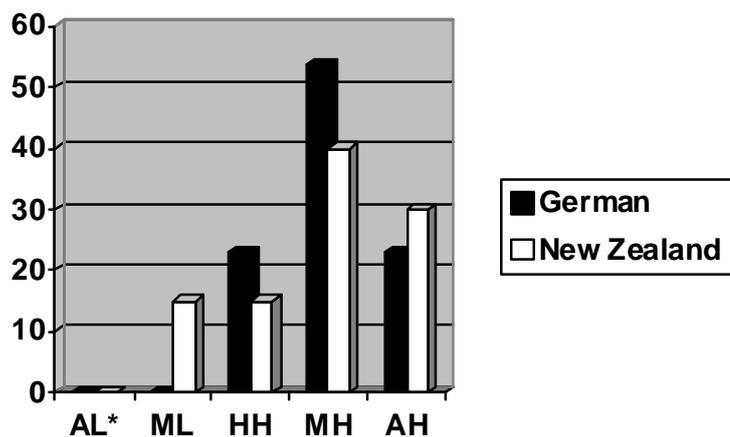
For the analysis of the speakers' disagreeing behaviour, all of an individual speaker's disagreements were analysed and compared to a lengthy stretch of the same speaker's neutral speech. For pitch, the results were assessed as 'all lower' (AL) if all of the speaker's disagreements were lower in pitch than his/her neutral speech, the results were assessed as 'mostly lower' (ML) if most, but not all of the speaker's disagreements were lower in pitch than his/her neutral speech. Results were assessed as 'half-half' (HH) if precisely half of the speaker's disagreements were lower in pitch than his/her neutral speech and half of the speaker's disagreements were higher in pitch than the speaker's neutral speech. Results were assessed as 'mostly higher' (MH) if most, but not all of a speaker's disagreements were higher in pitch than his/her neutral speech and they were assessed as 'all high' (AH) if all of the speaker's disagreements were higher in pitch than his/her neutral speech. For both pitch range and intensity range the results were assessed as 'all narrower' (AN), 'mostly narrower' (MN), 'half-half' (HH), 'mostly wider' (MW) and 'all wider' (AW) in pitch/intensity range than the speaker's neutral speech. For mean intensity the results were assessed as 'all softer' (AS), 'mostly softer' (MS), 'half-half' (HH), 'mostly louder' (ML) or 'all louder' (AL). Lastly, the results for speech rate were assessed as 'all slower' (AS), 'mostly slower' (MS),

‘half-half’ (HH), ‘mostly faster’ (MF) or ‘all faster’ (AF). The numbers on the y-axis of the subsequent figures represent the percentage of speakers.

### 1.3.1.1 Pitch Mean

The columns represent the percentage of speakers.

Figure 11: Pitch Mean in Speaker Analysis

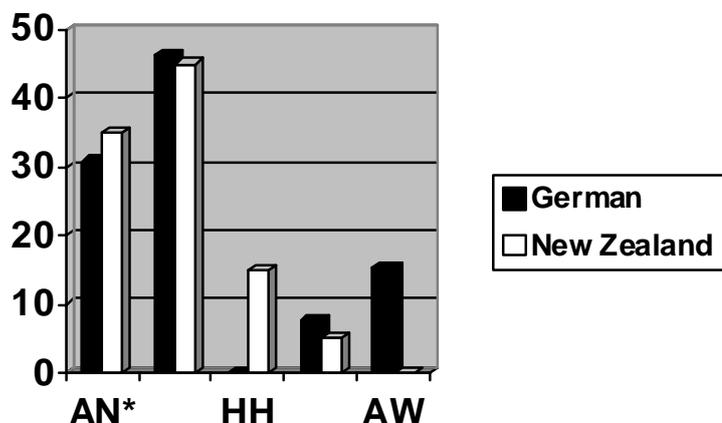


\*AL=all lower, ML=mostly lower, HH=half/half, MH=mostly higher, AH=all higher

The results for pitch mean show that all speakers have a tendency to disagree at a higher mean pitch. While New Zealand speakers show a slightly less clear trend than speakers of German, their results still cluster around the ‘mostly higher’ to ‘all higher’ column. 77% of the German speakers mostly or always disagree with a raised pitch level, while the New Zealanders do so 70% of the time.

### 1.3.1.2 Pitch Range

Figure 12: Pitch Range in Speaker Analysis

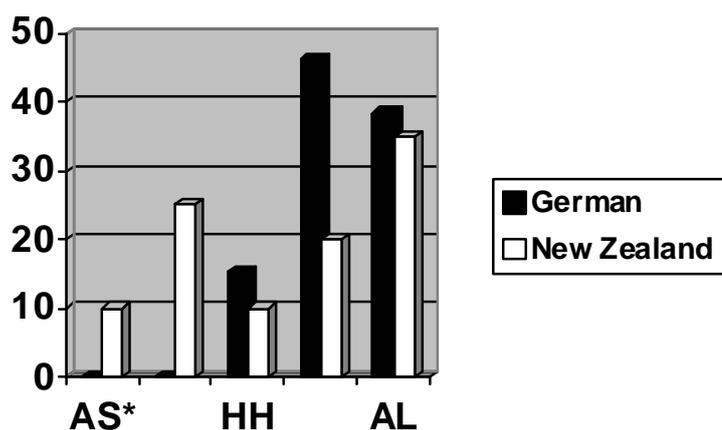


\*AN=all narrower, MN=mostly narrower, HH=half/half, MW=mostly wider, AW=all wider

While the results for pitch range are not quite identical for the Germans and the New Zealanders, there is a clear trend towards the use of a narrower pitch range for both groups in disagreements. 77% of the German speakers produce disagreements at a narrowed pitch range, the New Zealanders do so slightly more consistently at 80%.

### 1.3.1.3 Intensity Mean

Figure 13: Intensity Mean in Speaker Analysis



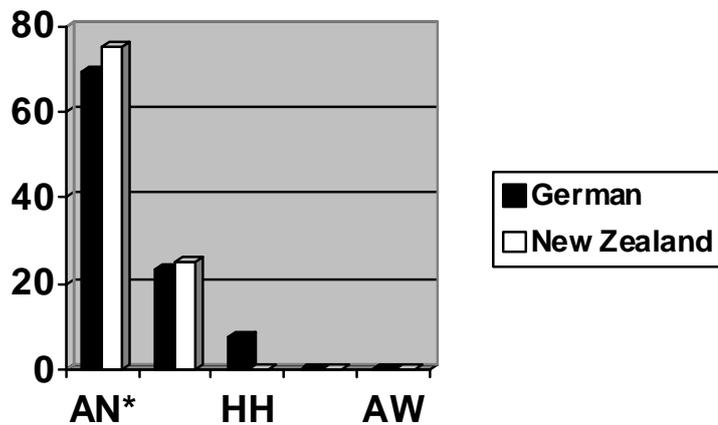
\*AS=all softer, MS=mostly softer, HH=half/half, ML=mostly louder, AL=all louder

While the results for pitch mean and pitch range show similar behaviour for the two cultural groups, the results for intensity mean show a pronounced difference. While German speakers show a clear trend to disagree at a higher volume, New Zealand speakers do not show a

pronounced trend. 85% of the German speakers mostly or always disagree at a heightened intensity rate. The results for New Zealand speakers spread across the entire range of possibilities and no clustering is apparent. Only 55% of the New Zealanders disagree mostly or always at a higher intensity rate. A rather large percentage of New Zealanders (35%) always or mostly disagree at a lower intensity rate.

#### 1.3.1.4 Intensity Range

Figure 14: Intensity Range in Speaker Analysis

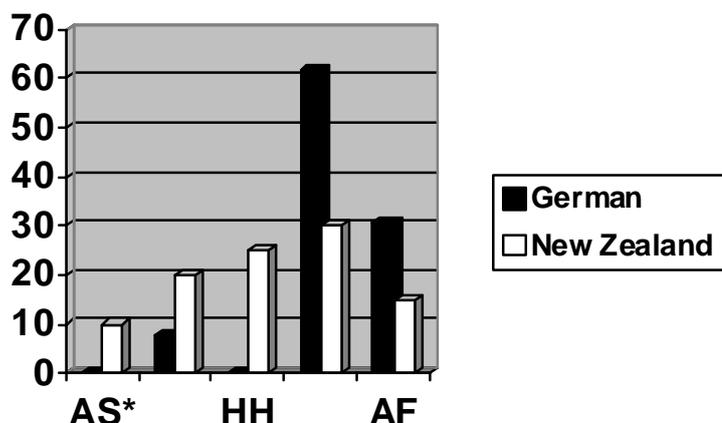


\*AN=all narrower, MN=mostly narrower, HH=half/half, MW=mostly wider, AW=all wider

Despite the mixed results and cultural differences on intensity mean, the results for intensity range could hardly be more similar. 92% of the German speakers mostly or always disagree with a narrower intensity range, while 100% of the New Zealanders disagree mostly or always at a narrower intensity range.

### 1.3.1.5 Speech Rate

Figure 15: Speech Rate in Speaker Analysis



\*AS=all slower, MS=mostly slower, HH=half/half, MF=mostly faster, AF=all faster

The results for speech rate show a clear cultural difference. While German speakers show a pronounced trend to speak faster in disagreements than in neutral speech, New Zealand speakers do not show any trend. 92% of the German speakers always or mostly disagree faster. Results for New Zealand speakers cover the entire range of possible options and no clear clustering is apparent. Only 45% of the New Zealanders disagree mostly or always at a faster speech rate, while 30% always or mostly disagree at a slower speech rate.

### 1.3.2 Audibly Perceivable Difference Analysis

As mentioned previously, speakers were not only compared in terms of their disagreements and neutral speech, but they were also compared to other speakers. Comparing speakers to each other, however, is not unproblematic. The panel discussions can be recorded at different intensity levels and this compromises comparability. A comparison of pitch levels is even more problematic. Mean pitch levels of females are not comparable with mean pitch levels of males and even same-gender comparisons are not unproblematic. According to Couper-Kuhlen (1996), pitch values are meaningless unless they are put in relation to a speaker's individual voice range. Therefore, a representation of the results had to be established that represents findings in a meaningful way, while still enabling a comparison. To this end, I relied on findings for the 'Difference Limen' (DL) or the 'Just Noticeable Difference' (JND) that was established in previous research for auditory perception. The DL and the JND refer to the minimal changes in pitch, intensity, or tempo necessary for a listener to be able to notice such changes. Incorporating an analysis of auditory perception provides not only a

second angle on the results reported in the individual speaker section (this chapter, Section 1.3.1), but also provides a meaningful perspective on how disagreements will be heard and perceived by a listener.

The results are represented in the following way: For each speaker, the total number of disagreements he/she produced is identified and then divided into either one of four categories. Category one consists of those disagreements that are inaudibly lower in pitch, softer in intensity, and slower in tempo. Category two consists of those disagreement that are audibly lower in pitch, softer in intensity, and slower in tempo. Category three consists of the disagreements that are inaudibly higher in pitch, louder in intensity, and faster in tempo and category four consists of all disagreements that are audibly higher in pitch, louder in intensity, and faster in tempo. The assessment of audibility was conducted in reference to a speaker's neutral speech. For details see the relevant sections on audible discrimination below. The overall percentages of disagreements that were audibly lower pitched, softer, and slower or higher pitched, louder, and faster are then compared between the two cultures for statistically significant differences.

Pitch range and intensity range were not compared. Comparing ranges is not only more problematic, but to the best of my knowledge no JNDs are established for pitch and intensity ranges. Hence, comparability of audible differences seems not to be possible.

#### 1.3.2.1 Pitch Mean

Various studies unanimously quote a JND of merely 0.3-0.5% difference as perceivable (Clark & Yallop, 1995; Flanagan, 1972; Hollander, 1994; Hass, 2003; Worrall, 2004). However, these studies are either based on synthesized sounds or musical instrument sounds, both set in ideal laboratory conditions. The difference limen of 0.3-0.5% is based on sounds of about 2000 Hz. According to these studies, our ability to distinguish frequencies is better at higher frequencies than at lower frequencies. In other words, while the difference limen for pitch ranges of around 2000Hz lies around 0.5%, at low frequencies, modulations of 2-5 Hz are detectable (Hollander, 1994). That is to say, the difference limen for frequencies of around 100 Hz lies around 3% (Worrall, 2004; Hass, 2003). Since the perception of differences in fundamental frequencies in speech is not as good as the perception of differences of synthesized sounds, it is necessary to consider findings on audible perception. Clark and Yallop (1995) and Flanagan (1972) locate the JND for audible perception of speech at around

5%. Conditions in televised panel discussions are, however, far from ideal and background noise needs to be taken into account. I, therefore, decided to set the JND a little higher than the JND of 5% quoted as discernable for speech. Instead, a JND of 7% is used as the reference point for audible discrimination of sounds under the less ideal conditions of speech studied in the present research project.

Consequently, disagreements that are more than 7% lower in pitch than the speaker's neutral speech are assessed as audibly lower pitched and disagreements that are more than 7% higher in mean pitch than the speaker's neutral speech are assessed as audibly higher pitched.

Table 17: Audibly Perceivable Pitch Mean, German Speakers

Speaker	Inaudibly Lower	Audibly Lower	Inaudibly Higher	Audibly Higher	Total
GF1*	3	0	1	2	6
GF2	2	0	4	4	10
GM1	0	2	2	2	6
GM2	0	1	2	2	5
GM3	3	1	1	4	9
GM4	1	2	1	3	7
GM5	0	0	2	4	6
GM6	0	1	0	8	9
GM7	1	0	1	1	3
GM8	1	2	1	10	14
GM9	0	2	0	5	7
GM10	0	0	3	2	5
GM11	0	0	0	6	6
Total	11 (12%)	11 (12%)	18 (19%)	53 (57%)	93 (100%)

\* GF=German Female, GM=German Male

The findings for German speakers show that there is a much greater tendency for disagreements to be heightened in mean pitch. While 76% of the disagreements were higher pitched than neutral speech, only 24% were lower pitched. The German data shows a preference to produce audibly discernable pitch changes. 69% of all of the disagreements differed audibly from neutral speech. 12% out of these are audibly lower pitched and 57% out of these are audibly higher pitched.

Table 18: Audibly Perceivable Pitch Mean, New Zealand Speakers

Speaker	Inaudibly Lower	Audibly Lower	Inaudibly Higher	Audibly Higher	Total
NZF1*	1	0	2	5	8
NZF2	3	0	2	6	11
NZF3	3	2	2	2	9
NZF4	0	0	1	0	1
NZF5	3	2	1	1	7
NZF6	6	0	0	6	12
NZM1	1	0	0	6	7
NZM2	0	1	1	3	5
NZM3	1	6	2	0	9
NZM4	0	0	1	10	11
NZM5	0	0	1	1	2
NZM6	2	3	0	1	6
NZM7	0	0	0	2	2
NZM8	1	1	1	4	7
NZM9	1	1	2	4	8
NZM10	0	1	2	0	3
NZM 11	1	2	1	2	6
NZM12	0	0	0	7	7
NZM13	1	2	1	2	6
NZM14	0	3	3	2	8
Total	18 (14%)	24 (19%)	23 (17%)	64 (50%)	129 (100%)

\* NZF=New Zealand Female, NZM=New Zealand Male

The results for the New Zealand data shows a preference to disagree at a higher mean pitch. At 67%, the majority of disagreements are higher pitched, while 33% of the disagreements are lower in pitch. New Zealand speakers show a preference for audible differences in pitch change. 69% of all disagreements differed audibly from neutral speech. 19% of all disagreements are audibly lower pitched than neutral speech, 50% are audibly higher pitched than neutral speech.

There appear to be differences between German and New Zealand disagreements with regards to mean pitch. The Germans have a more pronounced preference for higher pitched disagreements (76%) than the New Zealanders (67%) and they also show a more pronounced preference for audibly higher pitched disagreements (57%) than the New Zealanders (50%). The New Zealanders, on the other hand, produce slightly more audibly lower pitched disagreements (19%) than the Germans (12%). A chi square test of homogeneity was conducted comparing the distribution of the total numbers of inaudibly lower pitched disagreements, audibly lower pitched disagreements, inaudibly higher pitched disagreements

and audibly higher pitched disagreements. The test reveals that there are no significant differences in the distribution in the German and the New Zealand data,  $\chi^2(3) = 2.387$ ,  $p = .496$ .

### 1.3.2.2 Intensity Mean

As noted above, results are assessed in accordance with findings on the JND in previous studies. The minimum discernable changes for mean intensity differ depending on the listening condition (face-to-face interaction or laboratory setting in ideal conditions), the type of sound one listens to (music, spoken speech) and interrelated prosodic features (fundamental frequency and duration). Some studies identify an absolute threshold of hearing of just 0.25 db (Toole & Olive, 1988). Flanagan (1972) identifies the difference limen for intensity to be about 0.4 db, while Sanfilipo (2005: 4) identifies the limit of discernment to be situated between 0.75-1 db, based on 'long-standing personal experience'. His findings are based on discernable changes in real music, not laboratory settings. Ladefoged (1982) claims that 1 db is a little more than the smallest noticeable change in loudness. Since Sanfilipo (2005) and Ladefoged (1982) both agree that a difference is discernable at just under 1 db, I set the boundary for the JND at 0.95 db for this study.

Disagreements that were more than 0.95 db softer or more than 0.95 db louder than a speaker's neutral speech, were identified as audible.

Table 19: Audibly Perceivable Intensity Mean, German Speakers

Speaker	Inaudibly Lower	Audibly Lower	Inaudibly Louder	Audibly Louder	Total
GF1*	0	1	0	5	6
GF2	0	0	2	8	10
GM1	0	0	0	6	6
GM2	0	1	1	3	5
GM3	0	4	0	5	9
GM4	1	1	0	5	7
GM5	1	0	0	5	6
GM6	0	1	2	6	9
GM7	0	0	3	0	3
GM8	2	1	2	9	14
GM9	2	1	1	3	7
GM10	0	0	4	1	5
GM11	0	0	1	5	6
Total	6 (6%)	10 (11%)	18 (19%)	59 (64%)	93 (100%)

\* GF=German Female, GM=German Male

The results for the German speakers demonstrate clearly that by far the majority of disagreements are spoken louder than the speaker's neutral speech. A total of 83% of the disagreements were louder, while only 17% of the disagreements were spoken more softly than neutral speech. The German data also shows a strong tendency to produce both softer and louder disagreements at an audibly perceivable level. Out of all the disagreements produced, 75% differed audibly from neutral speech. 11% out of those were audibly softer and 64% out of those were audibly louder.

Table 20: Audibly Perceivable Intensity Mean, New Zealand Speakers

Speaker	Inaudibly Lower	Audibly Lower	Inaudibly Louder	Audibly Louder	Total
NZF1*	0	0	2	6	8
NZF2	3	0	6	2	11
NZF3	6	2	1	0	9
NZF4	1	0	0	0	1
NZF5	1	5	1	0	7
NZF6	2	0	2	2	6
NZM1	0	0	1	6	7
NZM2	3	0	1	1	5
NZM3	1	0	6	2	9
NZM4	0	0	0	11	11
NZM5	0	0	1	1	2
NZM6	2	3	1	0	6
NZM7	0	0	0	2	2
NZM8	1	2	1	3	7
NZM9	1	0	2	5	8
NZM10	1	2	0	0	3
NZM 11	2	2	1	1	6
NZM12	0	0	2	5	7
NZM13	0	0	0	6	6
NZM14	4	3	1	0	8
Total	27 (21%)	19 (15%)	29 (23%)	53 (41%)	129 (100%)

\* NZF=New Zealand Female, NZM=New Zealand Male

The results for New Zealand speakers show a preference to disagree louder. A total of 64% of the disagreements were spoken louder than neutral speech. However, at 36%, a considerable number of disagreements are spoken more softly than neutral speech. The number of disagreements that are spoken audibly softer and louder is moderate. Overall, 56% of all disagreements differed audibly from neutral speech. 15% out of those were spoken audibly softer, 41% were spoken audibly louder.

A clear difference is apparent when comparing German to New Zealand speech behaviour. Proportionally, precisely twice as many of the disagreements in the New Zealand data (36%) are spoken more softly than in the German data (18%) and, consequently, considerably fewer disagreements in the New Zealand data are spoken louder than in the German data. However, the Germans also exhibit a much clearer preference to disagree at an audibly perceivable level than the New Zealanders. A chi square test of homogeneity was conducted and reveals a significant difference in the distribution of inaudibly and audibly discernible differences in intensity between the Germans and the New Zealanders  $\chi^2(3) = 12.541$ ,  $p = .005$ . More

specifically, it is important to establish whether there are significant differences in the use of audibly different disagreements between the two groups. To this end independent samples t-tests comparing proportions were conducted, revealing that the Germans produce significantly more audibly louder disagreements than the New Zealanders do  $t_{\infty} = 3.32, p < .001$ .

### 1.3.2.3 Speech Rate

Quené (2004) reports his findings on the JND for speech rate as an increase/decrease in tempo in relation to a speaker's base tempo. He reports that, for musical tempo, the difference limen lies at approximately 6-8% to the base tempo. For speech the JND he reports lies at around 15% difference for increase in tempo and at around 17% for a decrease in tempo. However, he also conducted a pairwise comparison, which shows that the JND is more in accordance with the findings for musical tempo, at around 10%. Eefting and Rietveld (1989) even report a JND of a change of only 4.43% of the speech tempo from the standard, based on their findings on a paired comparison task. Since the speech analysed in this study is taken from face-to-face interaction, I adhered to the limens of 15% for acceleration and 17% for deceleration proposed by Quené (2004). The speaker's neutral speech was considered to be the base tempo and the speech rate of disagreements was assessed relative to the speaker's neutral speech.

Disagreements that were at least 15% faster in tempo than the base tempo are assessed as audibly faster. Disagreements that were at least 17% slower in tempo than the base tempo are assessed as audibly slower.

Table 21: Audibly Perceivable Speech Rate, German Speakers

Speaker	Inaudibly Slower	Audibly Slower	Inaudibly Faster	Audibly Faster	Total
GF1*	1	0	2	3	6
GF2	0	0	1	9	10
GM1	1	0	0	5	6
GM2	0	0	2	3	5
GM3	0	1	0	8	9
GM4	1	0	2	4	7
GM5	1	0	2	3	6
GM6	4	4	1	0	9
GM7	1	0	1	1	3
GM8	1	1	4	8	14
GM9	0	2	0	5	7
GM10	0	0	0	5	5
GM11	0	0	1	5	6
Total	10 (11%)	8 (9%)	16 (17%)	59 (63%)	93 (100%)

\* GF=German Female, GM=German Male

The numbers for speech rate are almost identical to those for intensity mean. There is a clear tendency to disagree at a faster speech rate in the German data. 81% of all disagreements are spoken more quickly than neutral speech, while only 19% of all disagreements are spoken at a slower speech rate. The percentage of audible differences to neutral speech is ever so slightly lower at 72%. Nevertheless, there is still a clear tendency to disagree at an audible level. The percentage for audibly louder disagreements is precisely the same as the percentage for intensity mean (63%). However, the percentage for audibly slower disagreements is slightly lower (9%).

Table 22: Audibly Perceivable Speech Rate, New Zealand Speakers

Speaker	Inaudibly Slower	Audibly Slower	Inaudibly Faster	Audibly Faster	Total
NZF1*	1	0	0	7	8
NZF2	3	2	4	2	11
NZF3	3	3	1	2	9
NZF4	1	0	0	0	1
NZF5	1	2	2	2	7
NZF6	1	3	1	1	6
NZM1	1	1	0	5	7
NZM2	1	0	3	1	5
NZM3	4	1	2	2	9
NZM4	0	0	0	11	11
NZM5	2	0	0	0	2
NZM6	0	0	3	3	6
NZM7	0	1	0	1	2
NZM8	3	3	1	0	7
NZM9	2	0	3	3	8
NZM10	1	0	1	1	3
NZM 11	0	0	2	4	6
NZM12	0	2	3	2	7
NZM13	2	0	0	4	6
NZM14	1	5	0	2	8
Total	27 (21%)	23 (18%)	26 (20%)	53 (41%)	129 (100%)

\* NZF=New Zealand Female, NZM=New Zealand Male

The results for speech rate in the New Zealand data is also nearly identical to the findings for mean intensity. The number of disagreements spoken more quickly is slightly lower at 61%, while the number of disagreements spoken more slowly than neutral speech is slightly higher at 39%. Overall, the number of disagreements that differ audibly from neutral speech is very slightly higher than in the findings for the intensity mean at 59%, 41% of which are spoken audibly more quickly, while 18% are spoken audibly more slowly.

Parallel to the findings for mean intensity, the findings for speech rate also show that the German speakers appear to prefer to disagree at a faster rate of speech more consistently, with 81% of their disagreements being uttered faster than neutral speech. The New Zealanders disagree at a faster rate only 61% of the time. The number of disagreements spoken more slowly than neutral speech in the New Zealand data is, again, twice as high (39%) as the number of disagreements in the German data (19%). The number of disagreements spoken audibly more slowly is also twice as high in the New Zealand data as in the German data. The number of audibly faster disagreements is considerably higher in the German data than in the

New Zealand data. A chi square test of homogeneity was conducted comparing the distribution of inaudibly and audibly discernable differences in speech rate and the results reveal a significant difference in the distribution in the German and the New Zealand data  $\chi^2(3) = 12.256, p = .006$ . Once again, it is important to establish if these significant differences in distribution can be attributed to differences in the use of audibly different disagreements. Two independent samples t-tests reveal that the Germans use both significantly less audibly slower disagreements  $t_{\infty} = -2.00, p < .001$  and significantly more audibly faster disagreements  $t_{\infty} = 3.32, p < .001$ .

## **2 The Prosodic Properties of Disagreement: Discussion**

The result section reported the findings of three main areas of investigation. Firstly, the overall correlation of mean pitch, pitch range, mean intensity, intensity range and speech rate with disagreements is reported. Secondly, how these features are used by individual speakers is assessed. Thirdly, the data is investigated for audible differences. In the following section, these findings are discussed and potential implications are explored.

### **2.1 The Correlation of Prosodic Features with Disagreements**

The results show that there is a highly significant and consistent correlation of various prosodic features with disagreements. 71.2% of all disagreements correlate with higher than normal mean pitch and higher than normal mean intensity. A narrow pitch range correlates with disagreements 76.1% of the time and a narrow intensity range correlates with disagreements 93.7% of the time. A higher than normal speech rate was found for 69.8% of all disagreements.

#### **2.1.1 Pitch Mean in Disagreements**

There are several studies that provide explanations for the correlation of heightened pitch with disagreements or disagreement related features, thereby verifying the relevance of the findings of the present study. According to Brazil (1997), mid key in pitch is found in connection with assertion, while denying that something is the case is signalled through high key. Disagreement, he claims, is expressed through heightened pitch. Couper-Kuhlen (1986) also states that contrastive information, which stands in opposition to a previous statement, is expressed with high pitch, as does Wennerstrom (2001), who claims that new information and

information that contrasts with a prior statement is signalled through high pitch. These findings, however, are not the only ones relevant to disagreement instances. An increase in mean pitch has also been observed for turn-competitive speech (French & Local, 1986), as well as for some emotional states. Pereira and Watson (1998) observed an increase in pitch in displays of hot anger, in their study on the prosodic features of emotions and Pereira (2000) found a similar increase for arousal (i.e. the display of affect). Turn-competitive speech has been excluded from the present study, because the speech would no longer be attributable to an individual speaker. However, it is possible that the aroused state might remain after a speaker has gained the turn and might affect subsequent speech. This would be observable in the present study. The emotion of hot anger certainly plays a role in some of the disagreements, particularly in those that also contain other signals for anger such as what Ekman (1975: 36) refers to as the 'anger face'. The reason why anger is considered relevant to disagreements lies in Vuchinich's (1984) explanation that oppositional moves establish an adversarial position and involve some measure of hostility. Although hostility does not necessarily involve anger, the two features are most certainly linked to some degree. Further indications confirming the assumption that high pitch is associated with disagreements can be found in the studies conducted by Rietveld and Vermillion (2003), Christmann and Günthner (1996) and French and Local (1986). In Chapter 1, Section 4.6.1. (the prosody literature review), it was noted that characteristics typically associated with disagreements included emphatic speech, affect-laden speech, frequent interruptions and reproach type disagreements. All of these characteristics are associated with changes in pitch. With regard to emphasis, Rietveld and Vermillion (2003) claim that the fundamental frequency height serves as indication of emphatic speech. According to them emphatic speech is attributed to a high F0 value. Affect-laden speech is expressed through changes in pitch, either extremely high or emphatically low (Christmann & Günthner, 1996). Concerning turn-interruptive speech, French and Local (1986) also mention pitch as an indicator. They came to the conclusion that heightened pitch is characteristic of interruptive and turn-competitive speech. In connection with reproach, Günthner (1996) found that an increase in pitch is characteristic. Hence, the high correlation of heightened pitch mean with disagreements may, in part, be related to the frequent occurrence of turn-competitive speech and a high emotional involvement and display of affect.

The reason why heightened pitch does not correlate with more than 71.2% of the disagreements could be put down to the fact that not all disagreements are turn-interruptive/turn-competitive and not all disagreements evoke a high emotional involvement.

This is especially true for qualified agreements and other less explicit strategies. However, even for high emotional involvement, one needs to distinguish between hot anger and cold anger, since only hot anger corresponds to a pitch mean that is higher than neutrality, according to Pereira and Watson (1998). They found that cold anger is expressed with a mean pitch similar to neutrality. Lower pitches show that a speaker is 'in control' (Bolinger, 1989), which is presumably why 'cold anger' features neutral pitch. It can be assumed that speakers do not lose control and get emotionally involved in every single disagreement instance. Consequently, only a portion of the disagreements show a correlation with heightened pitch mean. A further possible explanation for why the correlation of high pitch with disagreements is not greater may lie in the fact that speakers have five prosodic features at their disposal to mark an utterance as a disagreement and do not always use all five markers. Some disagreements contain as few as two prosodic markers (see Table 28). Overall, however, the data does suggest a relevant relationship between disagreements and heightened pitch.

### 2.1.2 Pitch Range in Disagreements

Disagreements have been found to correlate with a narrowed pitch range 76.1% of the time. A wider pitch range is not merely associated with anger, but with a variety of features that are relevant for disagreements. According to Wichmann (2000: 53), 'greater degrees of intensity, emotional involvement or 'commitment' are associated with greater exploitation of pitch range'. It is, therefore, rather astonishing that the pitch range for disagreements is consistently narrower for both groups. The reason for the narrowed pitch range is rather obscure. Pereira and Watson (1998) found that both hot and cold anger featured a wider F0 range than neutrality. While anger is an emotion that certainly does not play a role in all disagreements, it does apply to some of them. Hence, a wider pitch range would have been expected for disagreements. However, it might be possible that the differences found for pitch range are related to the type of data used. While the present data consists of natural occurring speech, Pereira and Watson's (1998) findings are based on speech enacted by one male and one female actor. It is not clear whether the type of data used can influence the observed pitch range, however, it remains a possibility.

A potential explanation for the narrower pitch range may be put down to the correlation with heightened speech rate. A faster tempo might not allow a speaker enough time for extensive changes in pitch at short pauses between words or phrases as a slower speech rate might. This

is, however, mere speculation and no previous studies were found that address the relationship of heightened speech rate and narrowed pitch range.

### 2.1.3 Intensity Mean in Disagreements

The results show that 71.2% of all disagreements correlate with a heightened intensity mean.

French and Local (1986) found that turn-competitive speech correlates with an increase in loudness. The person who interrupts an ongoing turn, they claim, tends to markedly raise pitch and increase loudness. Many of the disagreements that occurred in the present data are interrupting ongoing speech or are competing in its entirety with ongoing speech. While overlapping speech was eliminated from prosodic analysis in the present study, it is, nevertheless, possible that a speaker's intensity level remains raised, even after the termination of overlapping, turn-competitive speech. This could be one possible factor contributing to the correlation of high mean intensity with disagreements.

Further factors that play a more or less prominent role in disagreements, for which heightened intensity levels have been identified, include emphatic speech (Selting, 1994; Goodwin, Goodwin & Yaeger-Dror, 2002), affect-laden speech (Christmann & Günthner, 1996) and angry speech (Pereira & Watson, 1998). These disagreement-characteristic factors could also have contributed to the high correlation of high mean intensity with disagreements.

The most relevant explanation for this correlation, however, probably lies in the strengthening properties of heightened intensity. Culpeper et al. (2003) claim that increased loudness equals an invasion of our auditory space and thereby intensifies the verbal utterance it accompanies. Kaufmann (2002) also states that de-emphasizing of face-threatening items (i.e. by lowering pitch and intensity levels to a neutral level) serves as face-saving technique in disagreements. If the de-emphasizing of negative items through the use of neutral intensity levels is regarded as a politeness technique, then the lack of de-emphasizing by using heightened pitch and intensity might be regarded as a lack of politeness. In other words, high mean intensity in disagreements can serve as a strengthening device. This property of high intensity levels is assumed to account to a large extent for the highly significant correlation of high intensity with disagreements, in particular, because high intensity is more characteristic in the disagreements of Germans, who were also found to use significantly more verbal strengthening devices in their disagreements (see Chapter 3, Section 1.2).

#### 2.1.4 Intensity Range in Disagreements

The narrowed intensity range is as puzzling a phenomenon as the narrowed pitch range. Pereira and Watson (1998) found that results for intensity range and pitch parallel those for fundamental frequency, in other words, they found a wider intensity range for the emotions of hot and cold anger. At 93.7%, the findings for a narrowed intensity range show a particularly high correlation with disagreements. This finding may be connected to the heightened speech rate. It was suggested above that fast speech could restrict the speaker's ability to go up or down in pitch at the end of a word or phrase because there is less time to do so. The same may apply to intensity range. However, this explanation remains speculation.

#### 2.1.5 Speech Rate in Disagreements

The correlation of increased speech rate with disagreements is the least consistent of the prosodic features investigated. One possible reason that can be offered to explain the lower correlation is that speakers might use speech rate to express emphasis. Emphatic speech has been found to coincide with a decrease in pace (French & Local, 1986; Uhmman, 1992) and an increase in accentuated syllables (Uhmman, 1992). It is possible (and according to the present data highly likely) that some disagreements are uttered emphatically and are therefore uttered particularly slowly.

A further possible explanation could relate to the overall number of prosodic features employed. Speakers may use some of the prosodic features that have been found to correlate with disagreements in a single disagreement instance, but not all of them at the same time. Thus, a speaker might produce a disagreement that is, for example, neutral in mean pitch and in pitch range, but prosodically marked for mean intensity, intensity range and speech rate. If we assume that a listener can identify the prosodic markings associated with disagreements and interpret them correctly, then using only some of the prosodic marking available – rather than all of them – would seem to be either an economical or a polite way for speakers to disagree. In fact, a study by Boucher and Ekman (1975) on the signalling of emotion through three parts of the face, including eye/eye-lids, forehead/eye-brows, and cheeks/mouth, shows that different emotions are expressed primarily, if not solely, in one particular facial area. Observers are able to identify emotions if the emotion is shown in only one or two areas of the face, depending on the emotion that is displayed. It is not necessary to employ all communicative means available to express a certain emotion. Most emotions can be identified from the most relevant facial area for the emotion, they state. It is possible that the same

applies to prosodic features. It may be enough to use three or four, but not all five of the prosodic features that are associated with disagreements in order to convey an oppositional stance. An analysis was conducted in order to determine the number of prosodic markers that are most frequently used in disagreements.

Table 23: Number of Prosodic Markers

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
5/5 prosodic markers	32	34.5	35	27
4/5 prosodic markers	33	35.5	38	29.5
3/5 prosodic markers	25	27	38	29.5
2/5 prosodic markers	3	3	18	14
1/5 prosodic markers	0	0	0	0
0/5 prosodic markers	0	0	0	0
Total	93	100	129	100

The results show that disagreements are indeed not always marked with all five available prosodic markers that were identified in this study. A combination of 3-5 prosodic markers seems to be preferred, with Germans exhibiting a slightly greater preference to use 4-5 markers, while the New Zealanders appear to have a slightly greater preference for using 3-4 prosodic markers. Hardly any disagreements in the German data are marked for only two prosodic features. In the New Zealand data, quite a substantial percentage of disagreements (14%) contain only two disagreement markers. None of the disagreements contain less than two types of prosodic marking. Hence, a minimum of 2 out of 5 prosodic markers appear to be necessary to mark an utterance as disagreement, but it does not appear to be necessary to use all 5 prosodic markers. Overall, it can be concluded that an alternating use of prosodic features is responsible for a lower correlation of some prosodic features with disagreements.

## 2.2 Cross-Cultural Variation in the Use of Prosodic Features in Disagreements

### 2.2.1 Speaker Analysis

An analysis of the 13 German speakers and the 20 New Zealand speakers show both differences and similarities in the way the prosodic features pitch mean, pitch range, intensity mean, intensity range and speech rate are employed in disagreements. With regard to pitch

mean, pitch range and intensity range, the findings are fairly similar. With regard to mean intensity and speech rate, however, they differ considerably.

#### 2.2.1.1 Pitch Mean

The findings on mean pitch show that the majority of speakers either use raised pitch in all of their disagreements or at least in most of their disagreements. More specifically, 77% of the German speakers and 70% of the New Zealand speakers disagree with raised pitch mostly or all of the time.

Heightened pitch has been found to be characteristic of disagreement speech acts. Furthermore, high pitch has been identified as a means of strengthening disagreements and as a means of expressing impoliteness (Culpeper et al., 2003). While the German speakers do use high pitch slightly more frequently, the results show that both groups use high pitch very frequently in connection with disagreements as a form of strengthening device. This finding is slightly surprising; it counteracts Kaufmann's (2002) findings on British English that assert that speakers de-emphasize negations prosodically in order to mitigate face-threat. De-emphasizing refers to a use of mid key (neutral level) of both pitch and intensity mean. This finding could account for the slightly larger number of high pitched disagreements in the German data, since Germans have been found to mitigate disagreements less than New Zealanders (see Chapter 3, Section 1.2). Although New Zealanders have been found to exhibit similar speech behaviour to British English speakers in several respects (see Chapter 1, Sections 2.4.2. and 3.6.2.), they don't seem to use prosodic de-emphasizing to the same extent the British English speakers in Kaufmann's (2002) study do. A further possible explanation for why the New Zealand data does not exhibit this prosodic feature as frequently as expected might lie in the type of data and genre used. While Kaufmann's (2002) findings are based on the London-Lund corpus, the present study relies on televised panel discussion data.

#### 2.2.1.2 Pitch Range

Much the same can be said for pitch range. While there is some deviation from the general trend, the majority of both groups unanimously cluster around the narrower columns and the predominantly narrower columns. In fact, 77% of the Germans and 80% of the New Zealanders speak with a narrowed pitch range in disagreement instances mostly or all of the time. This finding is rather astonishing. Disagreements are, at least to some degree, related to

emphatic speech (Rietveld & Vermillion, 2003), anger (Pereira & Watson, 1998), high emotional involvement (Christmann & Günthner, 1996) and turn-competitive speech (French & Local, 1986). All of these features have been found to be realized, in part, through higher than normal pitch mean or emphatically low pitch mean which cues a wide pitch range. The results for anger show not only that the F0 value is higher, but also that the F0 range is wider than in neutral speech (Pereira & Watson, 1998). A wide pitch range is also identified in connection with 'authoritative' behaviour and 'strong' feelings (Couper-Kuhlen, 1986). It could therefore be expected that the pitch range in disagreements would also be considerably wider. However, the opposite was found for the present data.

One potential explanation could be that prosodic features influence each other and that this influence may have an effect on pitch range contrary to what would have been expected. According to Worrall (2004), the degree of sensitivity of the primary pitch mechanism to frequency changes depends on the frequency, intensity and duration of the tone in question. In other words, pitch, loudness and tempo are interrelated and to some degree interdependent. Hence, a change in one of these prosodic features may affect other prosodic features. Brazil (1997) claims that it is improbable for humans to make systematic variations in one physical parameter without affecting others. He concludes that a change in pitch is often accompanied by changes in loudness as a result. In this study, for the majority of all disagreements, the speech rate was faster in disagreements than in neutral speech. Therefore, it could be the case that a speaker is not capable of producing as much variation in pitch (i.e. of going up and down in pitch) in fast speech as in slower speech, which may have resulted in a narrower pitch range. This interpretation is, however, speculation.

### 2.2.1.3 Intensity Mean

The findings for intensity mean are far less consistent cross-linguistically. A considerable difference has been observed between German and New Zealand speakers. While 85% of the German speakers' disagreements exhibit higher intensity levels, only 55% of the New Zealand speakers' disagreements were consistently louder.

Heightened intensity levels were found in connection with emphatic speech (Selting, 1994; Goodwin, Goodwin & Yaeger-Dror, 2002), affect-laden speech (Christmann & Günthner, 1996), angry speech (Pereira & Watson, 1998) and turn-competitive speech (Roger, 1989). As mentioned previously, these speech styles have been found to frequently correlate with

disagreements. It can therefore be said, that heightened intensity is characteristic of disagreements to some degree. What is puzzling though, is Pereira and Watson's (1998) finding, that the results for intensity in the emotion anger paralleled those for fundamental frequency. Emotions play an important role in disagreements, in particular the emotion anger. It would, therefore, have been expected in the present study, that findings on intensity mean and pitch mean might also be similar. This, however, is not the case. While the German speakers employ heightened pitch only slightly more frequently than the New Zealand speakers, the difference between the two groups with regard to intensity is much more pronounced.

One possible explanation might lie in the New Zealand speakers' preference to prosodically mark their disagreement with only one of these two prosodic strategies available and to use heightened pitch only, but not heightened intensity. In order to find out if this hypothesis holds any truth, a qualitative analysis was conducted on New Zealand speakers to determine if pitch mean and intensity mean were used in a compensatory manner.

#### 2.2.1.3.1 Intensity Mean and Pitch Mean as Compensatory Strategies?

An analysis of an alternating use of prosodic features has already brought to light the fact that in most disagreements only 3-4 prosodic features are used to mark disagreements. The following analysis will investigate whether these prosodic features are employed in such a way that they compensate for each other, i.e. a disagreement is either high pitched, but not loud, or loud, but not high pitched, or in a way that they reinforce each other, i.e. a disagreement is either marked for both high intensity and high mean pitch or it is not marked for either of the two prosodic features.

Table 24: Intensity Mean and Pitch Mean as Compensatory Strategies

	<i>n</i>	%
Compensatory Use	38	29.5
Reinforcing Use	91	70.5
Total	129	100

This analysis shows that mean intensity and mean pitch are predominantly used in such a way that they reinforce each other, i.e. both pitch and intensity mean are higher than they are in

neutral speech. Only 29.5% of the disagreements analysed in the New Zealand data set were used in a compensatory manner, i.e. either pitch or intensity mean is high, but not both. Hence, mean pitch and mean intensity are not used in a compensatory manner by New Zealanders. This proposed explanation was not found to hold any truth.

Another possible explanation might lie in the New Zealanders choice not to employ high intensity as a disagreeing strategy as much as the Germans do because of politeness reasons. Undoubtedly, emphatic, emotional, angry, interruptive and turn-competitive speech has a rather challenging, confrontational nature. New Zealanders might prefer to refrain from strengthening a disagreement with additional prosodic means and instead opt to mark disagreements with the minimal amount of marking necessary for an observer to identify an utterance as a disagreement. Kaufmann's (2002) findings provide evidence that British English speakers prefer to de-emphasize negatives in connection with disagreements for politeness reasons. In other words, they speak with mid key pitch and intensity mean as a form of mitigation. While this does not apply to the results for pitch in the present study, it could explain why New Zealand English speakers are more inclined to speak at neutral intensity levels when they disagree. While this proposed explanation is somewhat speculative, it is in line with findings on verbal results, which show that New Zealanders have a greater preference for softening a disagreement and a dispreference for strengthening a disagreement. However, it is important to bear in mind that a speaker's general disagreeing tendencies do not necessarily apply to every single one of a speaker's disagreements. Individual disagreements may well exhibit compensatory use of pitch and intensity mean, even when the speaker's general usage does not follow this pattern.

#### 2.2.1.4 Intensity Range

The findings for intensity range could hardly be more unanimous. Both the Germans and the New Zealanders use a more narrow intensity range in disagreements than in neutral speech. The New Zealand speakers do so slightly more consistently than the German speakers. While 100% of the former disagree with a narrowed intensity range mostly or all of the time, the 92% of the latter do the same.

This finding is no less astonishing than the finding that the fundamental frequency range is narrower in disagreements than in neutral speech. A wider range would have been expected for intensity range as well as for pitch range, at least in disagreements that exhibit a sense of

anger, with regard to Pereira and Watson's (1998) findings. However, the reverse is the case, the intensity range of disagreements is narrowed, and very consistently so for both groups.

The reason for this may also be connected to the fact that intensity, fundamental frequency and speech rate are interrelated, Brazil (1997). There might be some connection between a narrowed intensity range and a narrowed pitch range. As previously suggested, the faster speech rate may also account to some degree for the narrower intensity range. The connection between fast speech and narrowed pitch and intensity range, however, appears very unlikely if one takes into consideration that the Germans exhibit fast speech much more consistently than the New Zealanders do, but the New Zealanders are the ones who use a narrowed pitch and intensity range more consistently. If fast speech does not allow enough time for more change and variation in pitch and loudness, then the German speakers would have to exhibit a narrower range, as they speak fast more often than the New Zealanders. It is more likely that a narrowed pitch range and a narrowed intensity range are in some way related. There is however, to the best of my knowledge, no literature on what is a characteristic pitch and intensity range for disagreements or how they relate to each other. The suggested explanation, therefore, remains speculation.

#### 2.2.1.5 Speech Rate

While the findings on pitch mean, pitch range and intensity range are quite consistent in the two groups, the findings for speech rate show a clear difference, more so than for intensity mean. While 92% of the Germans exhibit a clear trend to disagree at a faster than normal speech, the New Zealanders do not show a consistent trend. Only 45% of the New Zealand speakers disagree mostly or always at a faster tempo.

As mentioned above, speech that is high in affect and speech that is interruptive or turn-competitive is characteristic for disagreements. Fast speech has been found to correlate with these features (Christmann & Günthner, 1996; Roger, 1989). Emphatic speech, which is also associated with disagreements, however, has been associated with slow speech, rather than with fast speech. This could explain to some extent why the New Zealanders did not disagree with heightened speech rate as consistently as the German speakers did. New Zealanders might prefer to emphasize their disagreements through a slower speech rate. The German data, on the other hand, contains more overlapping and interruptive speech (see Table 21 for details). Interruptive speech leads to an acceleration of the speech tempo (Roger, 1989).

Hence, the German speakers may feel compelled to utter their disagreements faster if they feel their claim to the floor is threatened. However, this explanation is somewhat problematic. While it is true that the German data contains more turn-competitive and interruptive speech, the prosodic analysis excluded turn-competitive and interruptive sections of disagreements for reasons outlined in Chapter 2 (Sections 6.3 and 6.4 for details). An alternative explanation is that New Zealanders could use intensity mean and speech rate as compensatory strategies.

#### 2.2.1.5.1 Intensity Mean and Speech Rate as Compensatory Strategies?

The data shows that New Zealanders use loud and fast speech less consistently than the German speakers. Hence, it would be possible that New Zealanders chose to use either loud or fast speech in their disagreements, but not both. In order to find out if they might have used intensity mean and speech rate as compensatory strategies, further analysis was conducted.

Table 25: Intensity Mean and Speech Rate as Compensatory Strategies

	<i>n</i>	%
Compensatory Use	51	39.5
Reinforcing Use	78	60.5
Total	129	100

Mean intensity and speech rate are employed as compensatory strategies more frequently than intensity mean and pitch mean. Since 39.5% of all disagreements are used in a compensatory manner, it is likely that the compensatory use of these strategies may have influenced the less consistent use of loud and fast speech in disagreements to some degree. However, the majority of all disagreements in the New Zealand data are nevertheless used in a manner in which they reinforce each other.

#### 2.2.1.5.2 Gender Differences?

Due to the fact that intensity and tempo were not found to be compensatory strategies in the majority of cases, gender was considered as a potential factor responsible for the lack of unity on the results for intensity mean and tempo for the New Zealand speakers. Women are said to be the more polite and cooperative gender (Holmes, 1990; Beeching, 2002; García, 2002). They have been found to compliment more frequently (Holmes, 1995: 123), to use more

politeness strategies (Holmes, 1995), and to use more mitigation (Holmes, 1995: 87), and their speech style has been referred to as a ‘subordinate’, ‘power-less’ or ‘weak’ speech style (Holmes, 1995: 19; Ng & Bradac, 1993). It is possible that women might be responsible for the less consistent use of loud and fast disagreeing style in the New Zealand data. All of the prosodic features were therefore investigated for possible gender differences for both German and New Zealand speakers.

Table 26: Gender Differences, Pitch Mean

Group/ Gender	All Low	Mostly Low	Half/Half	Mostly High	All High
GF*			1	1	
GM			2	6	3
NZF		1	1	2	2
NZM		2	2	6	4

\*GF=German female, GM=German male, NZF=New Zealand female, NZM=New Zealand male

There seem to be no apparent differences in the way German females and German males prefer to use mean pitch in disagreements, except for a slightly stronger tendency among German males towards using heightened pitch in disagreements. No trend is visible for New Zealand females and males.

Table 27: Gender Differences, Pitch Range

Group/ Gender	All Narrow	Mostly Narrow	Half/Half	Mostly Wide	All Wide
GF*		2			
GM	4	4		1	2
NZF	2	3	1		
NZM	5	6	3		

\*GF=German female, GM=German male, NZF=New Zealand female, NZM=New Zealand male

No gender-related trends are apparent for either group.

Table 28: Gender Differences, Intensity Mean

Group/ Gender	All Soft	Mostly Soft	Half/Half	Mostly Loud	All Loud
GF*				1	1
GM			2	5	4
NZF	1	2		2	1
NZM	1	3	2	2	6

\*GF=German female, GM=German male, NZF=New Zealand female, NZM=New Zealand male

Again, no gender-based differences in the way intensity mean is employed are apparent.

Table 29: Gender Differences, Intensity Range

Group/ Gender	All Narrow	Mostly Narrow	Half/Half	Mostly Wide	All Wide
GF*	2				
GM	7	3	1		
NZF	3	3			
NZM	12	2			

\*GF=German female, GM=German male, NZF=New Zealand female, NZM=New Zealand male

There seem not to be apparent differences in the production of intensity range in disagreements between male and female speakers.

Table 30: Gender Differences, Speech Rate

Group/ Gender	All Slow	Mostly Slow	Half/Half	Mostly Fast	All Fast
GF*				1	1
GM		1		7	3
NZF	1	2	2	1	
NZM	1	2	3	5	3

\*GF=German female, GM=German male, NZF=New Zealand female, NZM=New Zealand male

There appear to be no gender-based differences between Germans, however, there does seem to be slight trend for New Zealand females to tend towards a slower speech rate in disagreements, while the results for New Zealand males are slightly more right-skewed.

The results for gender show no trend and no differences in the use of prosodic features. There is a slight tendency for New Zealand female speakers to speak at a slower speech rate, but the trend is not particularly clear. My hypothesis that gender differences might be held accountable for the differences found for German and New Zealand disagreements was not supported. Gender differences appear to play no role in the use of the prosodic features investigated.

### 2.2.1.5.3 Differences between Maori and Pakeha?

In investigating cultural differences, it was thought crucial to evaluate the data for potential differences between Maori (indigenous New Zealand population) and Pakeha speakers (New Zealanders of European descent), which might explain the difference in use of prosodic features. The data was, therefore, investigated for potential differences between Maori and Pakeha speakers. Out of the 20 New Zealand speakers, 17 are Pakeha and 3 are Maori.

Table 31: Ethnic Differences, Pitch Mean

Group	All Low	Mostly Low	Half/Half	Mostly High	All High
Pakeha		2	2	8	5
Maori		1	1		1

Both ethnic groups cover nearly the entire range of options. No clustering is apparent, hence variation in pitch mean can not be explained in terms of ethnic differences.

Table 32: Ethnic Differences, Pitch Range

Group	All Narrow	Mostly Narrow	Half/Half	Mostly Wide	All Wide
Pakeha	6	8	3		
Maori	1	1	1		

Again, no clustering is visible and the Maori speakers cover just as wide a range as the Pakeha speakers. No ethnic differences are visible.

Table 33: Ethnic Differences, Intensity Mean

Group	All Soft	Mostly Soft	Half/Half	Mostly Loud	All Loud
Pakeha	2	4	2	3	6
Maori		1		1	1

The results for mean intensity show as little clustering as pitch mean and pitch range did. No ethnic differences seem apparent.

Table 34: Ethnic Differences, Intensity Range

Group	All Narrow	Mostly Narrow	Half/Half	Mostly Wide	All Wide
Pakeha	12	5			
Maori	3				

Intensity range is the sole prosodic feature where a consistent clustering of Maori speakers is visible. However, since all the Pakeha speakers also show a clear clustering around the all narrow and the mostly narrow columns, this clustering does not appear to be an ethnic trend, but more a general trend that can be observed among the New Zealand interactants.

Table 35: Ethnic Differences, Speech Rate

Group	All Slow	Mostly Slow	Half/Half	Mostly Fast	All Fast
Pakeha	2	3	4	6	2
Maori		1	1		1

There appear to be no ethnic differences in speech rate between Maori and Pakeha interactants and no clustering is apparent.

The findings show that there is no consistent difference in the way Maori and Pakeha speakers use prosodic features in disagreements. Neither of these two cultural groups show notable trends or preferences. My hypothesis that there might be trends based on ethnic group membership was falsified. No differences were found comparing Maori and Pakeha speakers.

Overall, it can be concluded that German speakers show the same pattern in the use of prosodic strategies as New Zealand speakers for pitch mean, pitch range and intensity range, but differ on intensity mean and speech rate results. However, none of these findings appeared to be related to a compensatory use of mean intensity and tempo by the New Zealanders, nor were gender or ethnicity responsible for the differences found between the German and the New Zealand speakers.

Neither of the factors thought to be a possible explanation for the differing use of speech rate by German and New Zealand speakers offered an explanation. Hence, other possibilities were investigated. One more potential explanation is the possible correlation between heightened pitch and heightened speech rate. According to Kohler (1986: 134, quoted in Uhmann, 1992) a higher F0 level cues faster speech. Considering that the Germans produced slightly more disagreements that were heightened in pitch than the New Zealanders did, it might be possible that the German's greater use of fast tempo in disagreements is connected to their use of fundamental frequency.

#### 2.2.1.5.4 Pitch Mean and Speech Rate as Compensatory Strategies?

Again, the question poses itself, whether New Zealanders might have used speech rate in a compensatory manner with other prosodic features. A qualitative analysis of intensity mean and speech rate has demonstrated that these two features are not used in a compensatory manner. However, a further qualitative analysis was carried out investigating the correspondence of speech rate with pitch mean.

Table 36: Pitch Mean and Speech Rate as Compensatory Strategies

	<i>n</i>	%
Compensatory Use	53	41.1
Reinforcing Use	78	58.9
Total	129	100

While 41.1% of all disagreements are used in a compensatory manner, i.e. either heightened pitch or heightened speech rate are used, but not both, the majority of all disagreements are nevertheless used in a reinforcing manner. It appears likely that a compensatory strategy use may have had some influence on the less consistent use of high mean pitch and fast speech

rate in the New Zealand disagreement data, but it does not by itself account for the significant differences found between the Germans' and New Zealanders' mean pitch and speech rate in disagreements.

Instead, I suggest that New Zealanders might refrain from fast speech for reasons of politeness. As outlined earlier, fast speech is associated with an aggressive speech style. In fact, Kehrein (2003) found that high speech rate leads to a person being perceived as angry and aroused. New Zealand speakers might reject such a confrontational prosodic behaviour and instead choose to opt for slower speech that is perceived as relaxed and calm (Kehrein, 2003). This interpretation would be consistent with findings reported in the verbal result section.

## 2.2.2 Audibly Perceivable Difference Analysis

The previous section focused on speakers and compared an individual speaker's disagreements to his/her neutral speech. The following section focuses on differences, and compares speakers of two cultures to each other, based on audibly perceivable differences.

### 2.2.2.1 Pitch Mean

The results for mean pitch show that most of the German disagreements are higher pitched (76%), the majority of which are audibly higher pitched (57%). The New Zealanders also show a trend for higher pitched disagreements (67%), although less pronounced. They also show a less pronounced trend towards disagreements that are audibly higher pitched (50%). The German speakers not only have an overall greater tendency to disagree at a higher pitch, reflected in their total numbers, but they also show a greater tendency for audibly higher pitched disagreements in total.

The proposed explanation is the same as the explanation offered in the speaker analysis section (this chapter, Section 2.2.1.1). It is assumed that New Zealand speakers refrain from using a higher percentage of audibly higher pitched disagreements for reasons of politeness. High pitch has been found to be a means of strengthening disagreements (Culpeper et al., 2003) and 'aggravated' action (Kakava, 2002), while use of neutral pitch has been found to be a form of mitigating disagreements (Kaufmann, 2002). Consequently the lower number of audibly high pitched disagreements in the New Zealand data is assumed to be a form of mitigation and, hence, a politeness strategy.

### 2.2.2.2 Intensity Mean

Results show that a very large percentage (83%) of disagreements in the German data are spoken louder than neutral speech. Only 17% were spoken more slowly. The New Zealand data shows that a much lower percentage of disagreements were spoken louder (64%), while twice as many disagreements were spoken more softly than in the German data (36%). More importantly, however, the German speakers produced a much larger number of disagreements that were audibly perceivable at an overall percentage of 75%, while the New Zealanders produced only 56% of disagreements that differed audibly from neutral speech.

This finding is consistent with findings in the speaker analysis section, namely that the German data shows a greater preference not only to produce disagreements that are louder, but that they are more prepared to show confrontational behaviour in their disagreements. The greater willingness to disagree audibly more loudly suggests that the Germans might employ prosodic strengthening strategies in order to intensify their disagreements. The New Zealanders' reluctance to disagree loudly and, moreover, their reluctance to do so audibly, on the other hand, seems to be in line with the findings that New Zealand speakers soften disagreements more and strengthen them less than the Germans (Chapter 3, Section 1.2). Their lack of audibly loud disagreements could be interpreted as a way to avoid confrontation and seek a harmonious conversational style.

A number of possible explanations have been investigated. Some of these explanations have been refuted due to qualitative analyses that eliminated several of the proposed accounts for culture-specific differences on mean intensity. The explanation that is considered the most likely to account for the smaller number of loud disagreements in the New Zealand data is 'politeness'. Kaufmann (2002) found that, in order to mitigate face-threatening disagreements, speakers not only used neutral pitch, but also neutral intensity levels. It is assumed that the lower percentage of loud disagreements in the New Zealand data is based on the motivation to be polite.

### 2.2.2.3 Speech Rate

Results for speech rate are almost identical to those for intensity mean. The German data contains a considerably larger number of disagreements that are faster (81%) than the New Zealand data (61%). Likewise, the percentage of disagreements that are audibly different from neutral speech is considerably higher in the German data (72%) than in the New Zealand data

(59%). This is particularly true for disagreements that are audibly faster. The German speakers produce 63% audibly faster disagreements, while the New Zealand speakers produce merely 41% audibly faster disagreements.

The proposed explanation parallels those for individual speaker assessments under Section 2.2.1.5 A number of potential explanations was eliminated. Politeness considerations were considered to be the most likely explanation to account for the lack of fast disagreements by the New Zealanders. According to Kehrein (2003), fast speech cues anger and arousal, while slow speech is interpreted as relaxed and calm. It is assumed that New Zealanders may wish to be associated with a relaxed and calm conversational style.

While politeness is considered to be the most likely explanation for the New Zealanders' less confrontational disagreeing style, a secondary explanation that is considered a likely influence on the cultural differences on pitch mean, intensity mean and speech rate is the interrelatedness of these features. Pitch, loudness, and tempo are connected to each other (Brazil, 1997). The fact that Germans produce disagreements that are not only more consistently higher pitched, but also more consistently louder and faster is attributed in part to their interrelation. It seems likely that high pitch, high intensity and high speech rate relate to each other and influence one another. The connection between these three prosodic features is therefore considered a secondary explanation for the Germans' overall more confrontational disagreeing style.

### **3 The Prosodic Properties of Disagreement: Summary**

The prosodic data was assessed for three main criteria: The correlation of pitch mean, pitch range, intensity mean, intensity range and speech rate with disagreement, individual speaker's patterns of employing these prosodic features in their disagreements, and the degree to which the changes in pitch, loudness and tempo are audibly perceivable.

With regard to the correlation of the various prosodic features with disagreements, the investigation showed that there is a significant correlation of heightened pitch mean, narrowed pitch range, heightened intensity mean, narrowed intensity range and heightened speech rate with disagreements. This finding demonstrates that utterances can be marked as disagreements through the use of the five prosodic features mentioned above.

The speaker analysis brought to light the fact that Germans and New Zealanders exhibit a very similar use of pitch range and intensity range. Results for pitch mean are also similar, although Germans use high pitch slightly more consistently. There are, however, marked differences in the use of mean intensity and speech rate, with the Germans using heightened intensity and fast tempo considerably more consistently than the New Zealanders. As high pitch, high intensity and fast speech have been associated with a more confrontational and less polite speech style, it is assumed that the New Zealanders may not use these features as consistently in disagreements as their German counterparts for reasons of politeness and possibly to show a dispreference for disagreements.

The investigation of audibly perceivable differences of pitch, intensity and tempo in disagreements reveals that the Germans not only have a slightly more pronounced preference for higher pitched disagreements, but also a significantly greater preference for loud and fast disagreements than the New Zealanders. For all three of those prosodic features, the Germans exhibit a greater preference for audibly discernable differences, especially for audibly higher pitched disagreements, for audibly louder disagreements and for audibly faster disagreements. This finding points to the conclusion that the Germans prefer to emphasize their disagreements, while the New Zealanders prefer not to do so. Their less pronounced tendency to produce audibly discernable differences may be based on a wish to exhibit politeness and minimize the imposition of their disagreements. The Germans' display of emphasizing disagreements may lead to a perception that they are confrontational and emotionally more involved.

## Chapter 5

# The Non-Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Results & Discussion

### 1 The Non-Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Results

The following chapter will reveal the results of an analysis of non-verbal cues. These will be reported in three different sections. One section one section reports findings of non-verbal cues that occurred extra-verbally, another section reports findings of non-verbal cues that co-occurred with speech. Finally, in the third section, non-verbal cues were investigated that occurred in neutral speech and results were compared to the findings of non-verbal cues found in disagreement instances.

#### 1.1 Extra-Verbal Non-Verbal Cues

Extra-verbal non-verbal cues occur outside of spoken disagreements. They are called non-verbal pre-disagreements and non-verbal post-disagreements. They differ from verbal pre- and post-disagreements in that they occur either prior to a verbal pre-disagreement or after a verbal post-disagreement.

##### 1.1.1 Pre-Disagreement

Table 37: Non-Verbal Pre-Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Pre-Disagreements CC*	71	100	74	100
Pre-Disagreements CC*, containing non-verbal cues	31	43.7	23	31.1

\* CC = captured on camera

Out of a total of 157 disagreements, there are only 71 instances, where a speaker was captured on camera before he/she commenced the verbal disagreement in the German data. Out of those 71 pre-disagreements, 31 contain non-verbal cues, which equals 43.7%. In the New Zealand data 74 pre-disagreements were captured on camera, out of which 23 contain non-

verbal cues, equalling 31.1%. It appears that the German informants produce non-verbal cues more frequently prior to a disagreement than the New Zealanders do.

### 1.1.2 Post-Disagreement

Table 38: Non-Verbal Post-Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Post-Disagreements CC*	109	100	123	100
Post-Disagreements CC*, containing non-verbal cues	37	33.9	40	32.5

\* CC = captured on camera

Subsequent to a verbal disagreement, the number of non-verbal post-disagreements captured on camera is 109 in the German data and 123 in the New Zealand data. Out of the 109 German post-disagreements, 37 contain non-verbal activity, equalling 33.9%. Out of the 123 post-disagreements captured on camera in the New Zealand data 40 contain non-verbal activity, equalling 32.5%. As can be seen the percentage of post-disagreements containing non-verbal cues is similar for both groups.

Overall, the Germans show a greater preference for non-verbal activity prior to disagreements over post-disagreements, whereas New Zealanders use a similar number of non-verbal pre-disagreements and non-verbal post-disagreements.

## 1.2 Word Accompanying Non-Verbal Cues

### 1.2.1 Core Disagreement

Results reported in this section reflect non-verbal cues that co-occurred with spoken disagreements. Four main categories were investigated. These comprise gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze and head movement. A subset of subcategories was analysed for each of the four main categories.

Table 39: Number of Words Captured on Camera in Disagreements

	German Data	New Zealand Data
<i>n</i>	2165	5308

In the German data, a total of 2165 words are captured on camera while in the New Zealand data a total of 5308 words are captured on camera. Possible reasons for the enormous difference in the number of words captured on camera may lie in the fact that a) a greater amount of televised panel discussion data needed to be viewed for the New Zealand data in order to collect the same number of disagreements, b) there were more interruptions in the German data, hence it may have proved more difficult to capture the current speaker, since speaker turns are short and changes in turn are frequent and unexpected, c) German filmmakers may have a greater preference for showing addressee reactions to the speaker's output, rather than showing the speaker at all times.

In this section only words produced during disagreements that were actually captured on camera are taken into account. Since non-verbal activity may span more than a single word two separate counts are conducted, one that assesses how many of the words are accompanied by gestures and a second count on the total number of gestures produced.

Table 40: Number of Words Accompanied by Non-Verbal Cues in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Co-Verbal Non-Verbal Cues	1433	66.2	3224	60.7

Out of the 2165 words that were captured on camera, 1433 words in the German data are accompanied by non-verbal cues, equalling 66.2%. In the New Zealand data 3224 out of 5308 words co-occur with non-verbal action, equalling 60.7%. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions was carried out and reveals that the Germans accompany significantly more of their speech in disagreements with non-verbal activity than the New Zealanders do  $t_{\infty} = 4.48, p < .001$ .

Table 41: Number of Non-Verbal Tokens in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> *	<i>n</i>	<i>v</i> *
Tokens	637	29.42	1166	21.97

\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{w}\right) \times 100$ , where *n* = Number of Tokens & *w* = Number of Words

Captured on Camera

Looking at the total number of gestures occurring in the present disagreement data, a similar picture emerges. In the German data 637 non-verbal cues were produced during the 2165 words spoken that were captured on camera. This accounts for a value of 29.42. A total of 1166 non-verbal cues were produced in the New Zealand data, which equals a value of 21.97, relative to the number of words captured on camera. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions reveals that the Germans produce significantly more non-verbal cues than the New Zealanders do  $t_{\infty} = -4.40, p < .001$ .

Overall, the findings show that the Germans produce a significantly larger number of non-verbal cues and that significantly more of their talk is accompanied by non-verbal action.

### 1.3 Non-Verbal Cues in Disagreements

The following section takes a closer look at the different types of non-verbal cues that occur in the present data.

Four different kinds of non-verbal cues are taken into account. These include gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze and head movement.

Table 42: Types of Non-Verbal Cues in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Gesture	236	37.1	488	41.9
Body Movement	27	4.2	28	2.4
Facial Expression/Gaze	166	26.1	322	27.6
Head Movement	208	32.6	328	28.1
Total	637	100	1166	100

The findings show that the distribution of the number of occurrences of non-verbal cues in the four main categories is relatively similar. It is interesting to note that both groups produced more gestures than head-movement, more head-movement than facial expression/gaze and more facial expression/gaze than body-movement. Hence, they share preferences for the same main categories.

The following section will take a closer look at the four main categories and their respective subcategories. Due to the fact that most subcategories contain only small numbers of tokens produced, no statistical tests were conducted.

### 1.3.1 Gesture in Disagreements

The category of gesture includes all hand and arm movements occurring in disagreement accompanying speech.

Table 43: Types of Gesture in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Beat	145	61.4	322	66.0
Pointing to Interlocutor	4	1.7	20	4.1
Pointing to Self	3	1.3	5	1.0
Pointing Accusingly	7	3.0	1	0.2
Depicting Speech Content	4	1.7	15	3.1
Holding Prior Gesture	3	1.3	3	0.6
Hand(s) Open/Apart	6	2.5	25	5.1
Hand(s) Folded/Together	7	3.0	16	3.3
Lifting Hand(s)/ Holding Hand(s) up	13	5.5	17	3.5
Shifting Hand(s) to Side	5	2.1	21	4.3
Waving Hand(s)	7	3.0	7	1.4
Circular Hand Movement	7	3.0	9	1.9
Defensive Gesture	4	1.7	2	0.4
Dismissive Gesture	4	1.7	0	0
Other	17	7.1	25	5.1
Total	236	100	488	100

The most outstanding finding for the category ‘gesture’ is the number of beat tokens, which are manual gestures used to place emphasis on a word. Beats outnumber not only any of the other subcategories, but they even outnumber the sum of all remaining subcategories in both

groups. Clearly, beats are the most important subcategory of disagreement-accompanying gestures. They account for 61.4% of the German data and for 66.0% of the New Zealand data. Hence, New Zealanders produce slightly more beats than Germans do.

While it appears that the subcategory ‘pointing to the interlocutor’ deserves notice, it is necessary to clarify that in this subcategory more than half of the tokens occurring in the New Zealand data were produced by one single speaker (the interviewer) as a way of assigning turns. These results represent idiosyncratic tendencies, hence they are not representative of the entire group and shall consequently be ignored.

Two further points, however, do deserve mentioning. Firstly, it is remarkable that ‘pointing at an interlocutor in an accusatory manner’ occurs only once in the entire New Zealand data and therefore accounts for a mere 0.2% of all gestures. However, seven instances of this type of gesture are present in the German data, representing 3.0% of the data. Secondly, defensive gestures occur only twice in the New Zealand data, equalling 0.4% of the data, while they make up 1.7% of the German data. The same percentage is made up by dismissive gestures in the German data, which is a type of gesture not found at all in the New Zealand data. At such negligibly small percentages, one would think that they do not merit mentioning. However, since all appear to be rather confrontational gestures, they have the potential to contribute to the perception that Germans are more aggressive in their disagreeing behaviour than New Zealanders. The fact that Germans produce considerably more of these tokens therefore presents a relevant finding. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions reveals that the Germans produce significantly more of these presumably confrontational types of gestures than the New Zealanders do  $t_{\infty} = 3.56, p < .001$ .

### 1.3.2 Body-Movement in Disagreements

The category of ‘body movement’ represents all movements of the body, excluding hand-, arm-, head-, and facial movements.

Table 44: Types of Body Movement in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Moving Back and Forth	15	55.6	16	57.1
Moving Side to Side	0	0	4	14.3
Shrug	2	7.4	4	14.3
Straightening Up	2	7.4	3	10.7
Shifting in Seat	3	11.1	1	3.6
Turning to Interlocutor	4	14.8	0	0
Beat with Upper Body	1	3.7	0	0
Total	27	100	28	100

At 4.2% and 2.4% of the entire German and of the entire New Zealand data respectively, the category of body movement is only of mild interest. The only point worth mentioning in connection with body movement is that the distribution is fairly uneven. Two of the subcategories are found in the German data only ('turning to someone', 'beat with upper body') while another subcategory is found in the New Zealand data only ('moving side to side'). Again, one subcategory dominates the picture, which is the subcategory 'moving back and forth'.

An interesting occurrence is that of the 'beat with upper body'. This non-verbal activity comes across as rather aggressive and as very emphatic. However, as it occurs only once in the entire data set, it is also merely of mild interest.

### 1.3.3 Facial Expression/Gaze in Disagreements

The category of 'facial expression/gaze' represents all movement and expressions of the face, including eyes and gaze.

Table 45: Types of Facial Expression/Gaze in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Averted Gaze	51	30.7	172	53.4
Shifting Gaze	23	13.9	50	15.5
Raised Eyebrows	19	11.5	48	14.9
Frown	8	4.8	0	0
Smile	7	4.2	17	5.3
Looking Back and Forth	19	11.5	4	1.3
Looking at Interlocutor	25	15.0	12	3.7
Looking Up	6	3.6	5	1.6
Squinting	3	1.8	4	1.3
Closed Eyes	2	1.2	2	0.6
Blinking	2	1.2	2	0.6
Winking	0	0	1	0.3
Wrinkle One's Nose	0	0	2	0.6
Moving Corner of Mouth Up	0	0	2	0.6
Angry Expression	1	0.6	1	0.3
Total	166	100	322	100

In the category 'facial expression/gaze' it is noteworthy that most of the subcategories that were observed relate to the eyes. The few categories that do not involve the eyes are not used at great frequencies.

With regard to non-verbal cues relating to the eyes, 'averted gaze' is clearly the most interesting of all the subcategories. The interest in this subcategory manifests itself in two ways. Firstly, it is the most frequently used facial expression feature for both groups. Secondly, New Zealanders use 'averted gaze' considerably more frequently (53.4%) than the Germans do (30.7%). On top of that, Germans direct their gaze at their interlocutor more frequently at 15.0% than New Zealanders do at 3.7%. Independent samples t-tests comparing proportions reveal that the New Zealanders avert their gaze significantly more frequently during disagreements  $t_{\infty} = -5.00$ ,  $p < .001$  and also direct their gaze to an interlocutor significantly less frequently during disagreements than their German counterparts  $t_{\infty} = 3.81$ ,  $p < .001$ . With regard to gaze the subcategory 'looking back and forth' also stands out for being used at significantly differing frequencies by the German and New Zealand interactants, with German interactants producing such cues significantly more frequently than their New Zealand counterparts  $t_{\infty} = 3.99$ ,  $p < .001$ .

A further noteworthy feature is the fact that while Germans frown several times in the data, New Zealanders do not produce a frown at all. On the other hand New Zealanders raise their eyebrows slightly more frequently than the Germans.

Another feature worth mentioning is the fact that New Zealanders smile slightly more frequently at 5.3% than Germans do at 4.2%. The reason this category stands out is not because smiles have positive connotations (Mehrabian, 1971), and thus have the potential for softening properties, but because most smiles are produced by one single speaker in the New Zealand data and therefore the above reported findings represent an idiosyncratic tendency rather than a general trend representative of the entire group.

#### 1.3.4 Head-Movement in Disagreements

The category ‘head-movement’ includes all movements and tilts of the head.

Table 46: Types of Head Movement in Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Nod	131	63.0	170	51.8
Nod to Interlocutor	4	1.9	1	0.3
Turning Head Back/Forth	9	4.3	13	4.0
Turning Head to Interlocutor	8	3.9	5	1.5
Turning Head Away	1	0.5	0	0
Shifting Head	10	4.8	34	10.4
Waving Head	4	1.9	0	0
Bending Head Forward	5	2.4	7	2.1
Throwing Head Back	1	0.5	6	1.8
Raising Head	0	0	8	2.5
Head Shake	27	12.9	63	19.2
Tilted Head	8	3.9	21	6.4
Total	208	100	328	100

In this last category, as in all previous ones, the most outstanding feature is that one subcategory predominates. In the case of head-movement, it is the subcategory ‘nod’ that occurs by far the most frequently in both German and New Zealand disagreements. Germans, however, appear to have a greater preference for the production of this feature (63.0%) than New Zealanders do (51.8%).

Two other subcategories deserve some attention. The first of these is the subcategory of ‘turning to interlocutor’. While not many tokens of this subcategory are produced overall in the data set, it is interesting that German informants use this cue more often than New Zealand informants do. At 3.9%, Germans produce this kind of token more than twice as often as New Zealanders do, at 1.5%. What is interesting about this finding is that it behaves parallel to the facial expression subcategory ‘turning ones gaze to the interlocutor’. These two features are by no means identical and rarely co-occur. Therefore it can be assumed that a culture-dependent behavioural pattern is depicted in this finding, showing that German informants have a greater tendency to face their interlocutors when disagreeing with them. In combination with the finding that New Zealanders avert their gaze more frequently, it appears that New Zealanders have a greater tendency to avoid facing the addressees of their disagreements. Secondly, it is of particular interest to note that New Zealanders shake their heads considerably more often during their disagreements than the Germans do. At 19.21%, New Zealanders produce ‘headshakes’ more frequently by a factor of 1.5.

#### 1.4 Disagreements vs. Neutral Speech

While a comparison of German and New Zealand non-verbal behaviour yielded interesting results, even more valuable insights may be gained from an analysis of neutral speech. Therefore, non-verbal behaviour exhibited in neutral speech is investigated and then compared to the findings of disagreement-accompanying non-verbal cues.

Table 47: Number of Words Captured on Camera in Neutral Speech

	German Data	New Zealand Data
<i>n</i>	671	1166

Table 48: Number of Words Accompanied by Non-Verbal Cues in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Co-Verbal Non-Verbal Cues	276	41.1	756	64.8

There are considerable differences in the way Germans and New Zealanders employ non-verbal cues in neutral speech. In the German data, only 41.1% of the words are accompanied by non-verbal cues, while in the New Zealand data the percentage amounts to 64.8%. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions was carried out and reveals that Germans produce a significantly lower amount of talk that co-occurs with non-verbal cues than the New Zealanders  $t_{\infty} = -10.79, p < .001$ .

Table 49: Number of Non-Verbal Tokens in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	$n$	$v^*$	$n$	$v^*$
Tokens	99	14.75	1166	22.30

\* Calculated using  $V = \left(\frac{n}{w}\right) \times 100$ , where  $n$  = Number of Tokens &  $w$  = Number of Words

Captured on Camera

Germans also produce far less non-verbal cues than the New Zealanders do. At a value of only 14.75 of tokens per number of words captured on camera in the German data, New Zealanders produce more tokens by a factor of 1.5. An independent samples t-test comparing proportions was conducted and reveals that the Germans produce significantly fewer non-verbal cues during neutral speech than their New Zealand counterparts  $t_{\infty} = -4.40, p < .001$ .

New Zealanders show a preference for using more non-verbal cue tokens in neutral speech and for producing more speech that is accompanied by non-verbal activity. What is most interesting about this finding, however, is not the direct comparison between Germans and New Zealanders. The most intriguing finding is the comparison to the way in which non-verbal activity is used in disagreement instances. Both with regard to the percentage of words accompanied by non-verbal cues and the number of tokens relative to the number of words captured on camera, the New Zealanders exhibit more non-verbal activity during neutral speech than they do during their disagreements. Germans, on the other hand, accompanied 66.2% of their words with non-verbal cues in their disagreements and achieved a value of 29.42 for the number of non-verbal tokens per number of words captured on camera. This means that Germans show considerably more non-verbal activity in their disagreements than in their non-disagreements. Independent samples t-test comparing proportions reveal that the Germans accompany significantly more talk with non-verbal cues in disagreements than in

neutral speech  $t_{\infty} = 12.48, p < .001$ , while the opposite is true for New Zealanders, who accompany significantly more talk with non-verbal cues in neutral speech than in disagreements  $t_{\infty} = -2.72, p = .006$ . However, independent samples t-tests comparing proportions do not reveal a significant difference in the number of tokens the New Zealanders produce during disagreements and during neutral speech, but reveal that the Germans produce significantly more tokens during disagreements than during neutral speech  $t_{\infty} = 9.23, p < .001$ .

Overall, this investigation not only demonstrates that Germans use more non-verbal activity in their disagreements than New Zealanders, but also that New Zealanders use more non-verbal activity in their neutral speech than Germans. While the numbers show little difference in the New Zealanders' use of non-verbal activity during neutral speech and during their disagreeing speech, the Germans show a significant difference.

### 1.5 Non-Verbal Cues in Neutral Speech

The same four main categories used to investigate non-verbal cues in disagreements are used to investigate non-verbal cues in neutral speech.

Table 50: Types of Non-Verbal Cues in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	$\bar{n}$	%	$\bar{n}$	%
Gesture	35	35.4	112	43.1
Body Movement	2	2.0	4	1.5
Facial Expression/Gaze	37	37.4	74	28.5
Head Movement	25	25.2	70	26.9
Total	99	100	260	100

The distribution of use of the category 'gesture' in neutral speech is very similar to the distribution in disagreements in both data sets.

At 2.0% and 1.5% in the German and New Zealand data respectively, the number of body movement cues produced is even more negligible in neutral speech than in disagreement instances (4.2% and 2.4% in the German and New Zealand data respectively).

The main difference of use lies in the remaining two categories. With regard to facial expression/gaze the numbers in the New Zealand data remain almost the same in neutral speech (28.5%) as in disagreements (27.6%). In the German data, however, a considerably greater use can be observed in neutral speech (37.4%) than during disagreement instances (26.1%). On the other hand, a considerably lower use of head movements can be observed in the Germans' neutral speech (25.2% compared to 32.6% in disagreements). The use of head movement in the New Zealand data remains nearly identical, with a slightly smaller use in neutral speech (26.9%) than in disagreements (28.1%).

Overall, the New Zealanders show hardly any difference in the frequency distribution of the four main categories, while the Germans show a similar use for gestures and body movement, but a considerable change in the categories facial expression/gaze and head movement.

### 1.5.1 Gesture in Neutral Speech

To a large degree, the investigation of the subcategories of gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze and head movement serves to reveal whether the same subcategories that are found in disagreements are also used in neutral speech.

Table 51: Types of Gestures in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Beat	28	80.0	89	79.3
Pointing to Interlocutor			3	2.7
Pointing to Self	1	2.9	1	0.9
Pointing Accusingly				
Depicting Speech Content			2	1.8
Holding Prior Gesture			3	2.7
Hand(s) Open/Apart	1	2.9	1	0.9
Hand(s) Folded/Together			4	3.6
Lifting Hand(s)/	1	2.9	2	1.8
Holding Hand(s) up				
Shifting Hand(s) to Side			2	1.8
Waving Hand(s)			1	0.9
Circular Hand Movement				
Defensive Gesture				
Dismissive Gesture	1	2.9		
Other	3	8.5	4	3.6
Total	35	100	112	100

Looking at gestures occurring in neutral speech, it becomes evident that beat tokens are even more prevalent in neutral speech than they are in disagreements. While in the disagreement data beat tokens accounted for 61.4% and 66.0% in the German and the New Zealand disagreement data respectively, they account for 80.0% and 79.3% in the Germans' and the New Zealanders' neutral speech respectively. Beat tokens make up a remarkably similar percentage in both the German and the New Zealand data.

The findings that beat tokens are used at a higher frequency in neutral speech than in disagreements contradicts the assumption that beats might be employed deliberately in disagreements to emphasize the points the interlocutors are trying to make. While there are instances of beat tokens that appear to be used deliberately and consciously as emphatic tokens, overall they do not appear to be used as a form of strengthening device.

Two more findings are of interest in this data. Firstly, the distribution of gestures shows that the New Zealand data covers the entire range of gestures that also occur in their disagreements, except 'circular hand movement'. The German data, however, shows a much more limited range of gestural activity. Only six out of a total of 15 categories appear in neutral speech.

Secondly, the confrontational categories 'point at the interlocutor in an accusatory manner' and 'defensive gesture' are missing entirely from the data set. These appear to be associated with disagreements only. This finding suggests that there may be a correlation of 'defensive gestures' and 'pointing accusingly' with disagreements.

#### 1.5.2 Body Movement in Neutral Speech

At a total use of merely 2.0% in the German and 1.5% in the New Zealand data, the category 'body movement' lacks importance.

Table 52: Types of Body Movement in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Moving Back and Forth	1	50	1	25
Moving Side to Side				
Shrug			1	25
Straightening Up			1	25
Shifting in Seat			1	25
Turning to Interlocutor	1	50		
Beat with Upper Body				
Total	2	100	4	100

The only noteworthy finding is that the range of subcategories used in neutral speech is much more limited than the range of subcategories that is in use in disagreements. The range of subcategories is much more limited in the German than in the New Zealand data.

### 1.5.3 Facial Expression/Gaze in Neutral Speech

While the category ‘facial expression/gaze’ forms a larger part of the Germans’ neutral speech than of their disagreements, the range of subcategories is much more limited.

Table 53: Types of Facial Expression/Gaze in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Averted Gaze	16	43.3	42	56.8
Shifting Gaze	6	16.2	4	5.4
Raised Eyebrows	4	10.8	17	23.0
Frown				
Smile			2	2.7
Looking Back and Forth	2	5.4	2	2.7
Looking at Interlocutor	9	24.3	2	2.7
Looking Up			3	4.1
Squinting			1	1.3
Closed Eyes			1	1.3
Blinking				
Winking				
Wrinkle One’s Nose				
Moving Corner of Mouth Up				
Angry Expression				
Total	37	100	74	100

The results show that New Zealanders use a wider range of subcategories of ‘facial expression/gaze’ in neutral speech than Germans, producing tokens under 9 subcategories out of 14 they used in disagreements. The Germans, on the other hand, use a range of merely 5 out of 12 subcategories they used in disagreements.

‘Averted gaze’ is the most frequently used subcategory in neutral speech as in disagreement speech in this category. What is interesting is the fact that, while New Zealanders use averted gaze at a similar frequency in both disagreements and neutral speech, Germans use ‘averted gaze’ considerably more frequently in neutral speech than they do in disagreements.

What is also noteworthy is the finding that the subcategory ‘looking at interlocutor’ in the German data is used more in neutral speech (24.3%) than in disagreements (15.0%), but is used less in neutral speech in the New Zealand data (2.7%) than in the New Zealand disagreement data (3.7%).

Furthermore, the investigation shows that the categories ‘frown’, ‘angry expression’, ‘blinking’, ‘winking’, ‘wrinkle one’s nose’, and ‘moving corner of mouth up’ are missing entirely from the data. This could suggest that these categories are, at least to a certain degree, connected to disagreements. It is doubtful that this would apply to the latter four categories, but it might be true for ‘angry expression’ and for ‘frown’.

#### 1.5.4 Head Movement in Neutral Speech

Like the results of the other categories already revealed, the range of subcategories found in head-movements is more limited than the subcategories employed in disagreements.

Table 54: Types of Head Movement in Neutral Speech

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Nod	15	60	44	62.8
Nod to Interlocutor				
Turning Head Back/Forth	1	4	3	4.3
Turning Head to Interlocutor				
Turning Head Away				
Shifting Head	1	4	7	10.0
Waving Head				
Bending Head Forward				
Throwing Head Back			3	4.3
Raising Head				
Head Shake	7	28	11	15.7
Tilted Head	1	4	2	2.9
Total	25	100	70	100

The range of subcategories found in neutral speech is much more limited than the range of subcategories found in disagreements. Although the difference is less pronounced than in other categories, the Germans again produce a more limited range, using 5 out of 11 subcategories used in disagreements, than the New Zealanders, who use 6 out of 10 subcategories used in disagreements.

The frequency of use of the main category ‘nod’ is very similar for the Germans, being slightly lower in neutral speech (60.0%) than in disagreements (63.0%). The reverse is true for New Zealanders, for whom the category ‘nod’ is considerably more frequent in neutral speech (63.0%) than in disagreements (51.8%).

Overall, it can be concluded that the New Zealanders show little difference in their production of non-verbal cues in neutral speech and disagreements. The Germans, on the other hand, show highly significant differences in their production of non-verbal cues. Not only do they produce significantly more non-verbal cues in disagreements than in neutral speech, but they also make use of a considerably wider range of subcategories in disagreements than in neutral speech.

## **2 The Non-Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Discussion**

### **2.1 Extra-Verbal Non-Verbal Cues**

#### **2.1.1 Pre-Disagreement**

While the finding that Germans produce more non-verbal activity prior to disagreements is interesting in itself, it becomes even more meaningful when seen in relation to verbal pre-disagreements. Going back to the findings of the lexical section it becomes obvious that a reverse trend can be noticed for non-verbal behaviour. New Zealanders demonstrate a considerably greater preference to preface a disagreement verbally, and indeed 40.3% of their entire disagreement strategies are made up of pre-disagreements. Germans, on the other hand, use merely 28.0% lexical pre-disagreement strategies. This is almost precisely the reverse of their usage of non-verbal pre-disagreements. Non-verbally, Germans preface 43.7% of their disagreements, while New Zealanders do so 31.1% of the time.

It has been argued that New Zealanders produce more verbal pre-disagreement strategies because they like to warn their interlocutors of an upcoming disagreement and avoid sudden confrontation. Does the fact that Germans produce more non-verbal pre-disagreements falsify this inference? The inference that New Zealanders have a greater preference to warn their interlocutors of an upcoming disagreement need not necessarily be discarded. The findings should be seen as complementary, not as contradictory. New Zealanders still prefer to warn their interlocutors verbally, while Germans prefer to ‘plunge’ straight into a disagreement. While it is true that the Germans do indeed produce more non-verbal pre-disagreements, it is unclear if non-verbal pre-disagreements have the same status as verbal pre-disagreements. To the best of my knowledge, no research has been conducted on this topic to date. The question that arises is: Are non-verbal pre-disagreements used in a similar way to verbal pre-disagreements or are they used differently?

Let us assume they do have the same status; in this case Germans would compensate for their lack of verbal warning that a disagreement will come up, by signalling this non-verbally. In fact, there is evidence in the present data that non-verbal activity is used to signal upcoming opposing remarks. One of the interviewers comments that he wanted to assign the next turn to Josef Joffe, but that he could already see that somebody else would like to comment: ‘Dann Josef Joffe, aber da hinten kommt schon Widerstand’ (i.e. ‘then Josef Joffe, but back there I already see resistance’). Unfortunately the non-verbal cues at this point of the discussion are not captured on camera and no disagreement follows, as another speaker has been assigned

the turn. Nevertheless, this is clear evidence that opposition to a prior statement can be signalled non-verbally and is indeed interpreted as such.

However, there is evidence suggesting that non-verbal and verbal pre-disagreements do not always share the same status. Disagreement markers, such as 'well', 'but' or 'look' are conventionalized and formulaic in nature and are, therefore, relatively neutral. While non-verbal pre-disagreements behave in the same way as verbal pre-disagreement in several instances, they can be used quite differently. Non-verbal behaviour such as looking to the ceiling, rolling one's eyes, shaking one's head, a self-sufficient superior little smile on one's face or a cynical expression serve more as strengthening devices than as formulaic disagreement indicators. Shaking one's head, for example, can be used to signal alliances, (Kangasharju, 2002). Hence, by showing alliance with one person, one can show dis-alliance with another and therefore signal disagreement. Streeck and Knapp (1992) attribute a potential to indicate inappropriateness of an utterance to facial expressions, in other words facial expressions can signal disagreement. This kind of non-verbal behaviour serves to discredit the current speaker and ridicule his statement. To discredit another person makes that person look stupid, unreliable, biased or unworthy to the listener and is a form of personal attack (van Eemeren et al., 2002). García (2002) makes a similar claim for ridiculing an interlocutor, which has an aggravating function. According to Culpeper et al. (2003), to show an addressee that he is not approved of is aggravating action, reinforcing impoliteness. Mehrabian (1971) found that avoiding eye contact and looking away from the interlocutor is a way of showing dislike and disapproval for a person. Hence, non-verbal cues, such as looking to the ceiling, can be aggravating and impolite. However, these are not the only aggravating non-verbal cues that can be employed to discredit the present speaker. Raised eyebrows and a slight smile have been found to be interpreted as bias (Tankard, 1977). Leaning backward and turning away has also been found to convey negative attitude (Mehrabian, 1972). Mehrabian (1972) also notes that very relaxed body postures also convey a more disrespectful feeling.

As the pre-disagreement instance described above demonstrates, non-verbal pre-disagreement behaviour has the potential to have a strengthening effect on disagreements. In order to investigate the extent to which this applies in the present non-verbal pre-disagreement instances, the data has been investigated for the strengthening properties found in pre-disagreements.

Table 55: Non-Verbal Strengthening Devices in Pre-Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Strengthening	15	48.4	5	21.7
Non-Strengthening	16	51.6	18	78.3

This finding shows that only 16 out of the 31 pre-disagreements produced by the Germans are used as a form of non-verbal disagreement marker while 18 out of the 23 pre-disagreements produced by the New Zealanders are used in this fashion, suggesting that New Zealanders prefer to use non-verbal pre-disagreement as disagreement markers, while the Germans use non-verbal pre-disagreements to discredit their interlocutors in half the instances. A statistical analysis was conducted in order to test how many of the non-verbal pre-disagreements were used in the form of a disagreement marker and how many of them were used in order to strengthen a disagreement. A Fisher's Exact Test reveals that there is a significant difference in the distribution of strengthening and non-strengthening pre-disagreements between the two groups ( $p = .05$ ).

What this investigation brings to light is that non-verbal pre-disagreement cues can serve as reinforcement of the upcoming statement rather than as merely as disagreement markers. Strengthening an upcoming disagreement through pre-disagreements is achieved, in part, through emphasis (e.g. a strong nod or an emphatic beat token), by discrediting a prior speaker through cynical facial expressions or by ridiculing a speaker through cynical expressions or smiling in a condescending manner. Similar to findings on hints in the lexical section, the findings of this analysis demonstrate that Germans make use of this type of non-verbal activity significantly more often than New Zealanders do. While the Germans used this type of pre-disagreement strategy nearly half the time, New Zealanders did so for less than a quarter of their non-verbal pre-disagreement data.

This finding shows that Germans have a preference for cynical and sarcastic expressions, as well as for strengthening non-verbal pre-disagreements, which might lead to Germans being perceived as more direct and less polite than New Zealanders.

### 2.1.2 Post-Disagreement

Germans produce non-verbal activity 33.9% of the time subsequent to disagreements, while New Zealanders do so 32.5% of the time. Hardly any difference can be seen when comparing the post-disagreement behaviour of the two groups. Germans use ever so slightly more post-disagreement non-verbal activity. What is interesting, however, is the comparison of verbal post-disagreement activity to non-verbal post-disagreement activity. Germans produce far more pre- than post-disagreement strategies, both verbally and non-verbally. New Zealanders, on the other hand, produced far more pre- than post- disagreement strategies verbally, while non-verbally they produced slightly more post- than pre-disagreement strategies.

Parallel to pre-disagreement non-verbal activity, an investigation was conducted to find out if non-verbal post-disagreement activity is employed to strengthen a disagreement or is merely used as a means of closure. Closure is often exhibited by means of leaning back in the seat, by folding one's hands or by bringing one hand up to the face to rest one's chin on. These post-disagreement cues occur where a disagreement is finished. Where a disagreement is interrupted mid-turn, 'closure' is exhibited by holding the prior non-verbal cue – usually a beat or raised eyebrows. However, the data contains evidence that non-verbal cues subsequent to a disagreement are also used as a strengthening device. Non-verbal post-disagreement strengthening devices are identical to the types of non-verbal strengthening devices used in pre-disagreements.

Table 56: Non-Verbal Strengthening Devices in Post-Disagreements

Group	German		New Zealand	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Strengthening	13	35.1	1	2.5
Non-Strengthening	24	64.9	39	97.5

Parallel to pre-disagreement cues, it can be seen that New Zealanders do not appear to make use of post-disagreement cues as a reinforcement strategy very frequently. The German data on the other hand shows that in 13 out of 37 of all post-disagreement instances, post-disagreement strategies are used to strengthen a prior disagreement. The New Zealand data, however, contains only 1 out of 40 post-disagreement instances with a strengthening function. A Fisher's Exact Test reveals that there is a significant difference in the distribution of strengthening and non-strengthening post-disagreements between the two groups ( $p < .001$ ).

Hence, it can be assumed that this finding indicates a more direct and a more confrontational way of disagreeing by the Germans.

## **2.2 Word-Accompanying Non-Verbal Cues**

### **2.2.1 Core Disagreement**

Critchley (1975: 2) found that the extent to which non-verbal activity accompanies speech varies widely, depending, in part, upon racial factors. Fant (1992) confirms that cultural differences between Spaniards and Swedes can not only be found in verbal, but also in non-verbal communication, such as posture, gaze and distance. The results in the present data do indeed show cultural differences. In the German data, a significantly greater percentage of words is accompanied by non-verbal activity (66.1%) than in the New Zealand data (60.7%). In addition, relative to the amount of words captured on camera, Germans also produce more non-verbal cue tokens (29.42) than the New Zealanders (21.97). On the basis of the findings from the non-verbal pre-, and post-disagreement data, the following question poses itself: Are there any difference in the use of non-verbal cues as strengthening devices?

Ekman (1975: 35) states that ‘we could use a Berlitz book for gestures’. I agree that we could indeed do with a classification system, not only for gestures, but for all non-verbal cues. However, no reliable notational system for describing gestures exists (Krauss et al., 1996). The possibility of conducting an analysis on non-verbal cues serving as strengthening devices, or as softening devices was considered. This idea was eventually abandoned for the reason that no available system exists to make such distinctions (to the best knowledge of the researcher). To invent a system that operationalizes such non-verbal distinctions was considered impractical and exceeds the scope of this research, although it would be desirable if such a system was to be created in the future. Whether it is possible to establish such a system is unknown, since one kind of beat can be rather different from another; there are beats that seem to be used unconsciously and seem to merely accompany words, whereas others appear to depict the speech content and yet others are clearly used deliberately in a very emphatic fashion to reinforce a statement. However, where to draw the line between those kinds of beats (just to name one category) and how to operationalize a system that is capable of making these kinds of distinctions reliably and consistently is a different question altogether. In this study the researcher refrains from investigating all 1,803 non-verbal cue tokens.

Despite being unable to investigate the strengthening or softening properties of the non-verbal activity produced, it can be said that Germans are significantly more active on a non-verbal level in their disagreements than New Zealanders are. While this interpretation is not scientifically founded to date (to the best of my knowledge), it is assumed that the larger amount of non-verbal activity contributes to the stereotype attached to Germans of being direct, confrontational and not overly polite. This potential interpretation shall be tested by administering the Questionnaire (Chapter 6).

## **2.3 Non-Verbal Cues in Disagreements**

Taking a closer look at the distribution of the four kinds of non-verbal cues distinguished in this research project – namely gestures, body movement, facial expression and head movement – it becomes clear that there is little difference in the preference for certain strategies. These findings being quite unanimous, they do not leave much need for interpretation. However, what kinds of tokens are preferred among these four strategies does differ to some extent. Thus, the following section will take a closer look at the four main categories and their respective subcategories.

### **2.3.1 Gesture in Disagreements**

The majority of gestures found in the disagreement data are beat gestures. The frequency at which they occur is fairly similar at 61.4% in the German and 66.0% in the New Zealand data. However, it has been found that several types of gestures observed in the German data, that appear to be of a rather confrontational manner, are hardly found in the New Zealand data.

As the usage of the main subcategory among gestures is reasonably similar, there is little need to elaborate on it. Nevertheless, it may be useful to refer back to what has been discussed earlier in this section, namely that non-verbal tokens of the same category can be quite different in their intensity. While beat tokens or batons occur together with emphasized words (Ekman, 1979), the kind of emphasis placed on a word might differ in scope. It may well be that despite using slightly fewer beat tokens, the beats produced by Germans could be more emphatic and aggravating to the speech content than beats produced by New Zealanders. Scott (2002) argues that affective involvement in personal attack disagreements is often expressed through dramatic gestures. As Germans have been found to ‘care more’ (Stadler,

2002: 97) and show a greater willingness to engage in disagreement (Kotthoff, 1989; Žegarac & Pennington, 2000), i.e. show greater affective involvement, they might also use more dramatic gestures. Regrettably, this will have to remain mere speculation based on subjective impressions from the data, due to the lack of an operationalized system as discussed in Section 2.2.1 in this chapter.

Several noteworthy points can be made in connection with other sub-categories of gestures. The relatively similar percentage of beats might suggest that Germans and New Zealanders have similar preferences for gestures. This, however, is not at all true for any of the remaining subcategories of gestures, none of which were used at similar frequencies. The percentages are very small though and only few of them appear to be of importance to disagreements. Three of the subcategories, however, could be of an aggravating nature and are therefore believed to be directly linked to disagreements; these being a) 'pointing at the interlocutor in an accusatory manner', b) 'defensive gesture', and c) 'dismissive gesture'. Critchley (1975) lists the meanings of hand gestures, among which the following functions are included: to discharge, threaten, deny, doubt, accuse, despise, humble, mock, complain, forbid. These properties apply to a large extent to the above mentioned upgrading gestures. A further reason why pointing accusingly is considered to be very confrontational is based on the fact that it is considered downright rude to point at a person in both of the cultures investigated in this study. Moreover, Goodwin et al. (2002) found that girls point their fingers accusingly in games when disagreeing with someone who violated the rules of the game, which gives an indication that this gesture does indeed have an aggravating function and is linked to disagreement. Dismissive gestures, too, have been found to contain confrontational properties as they have a sarcastic undertone and mainly serve to discredit a previous statement.

While none of these three categories occur very frequently, they, nevertheless, together account for 6.4% of the German data, but for only 0.6% of the New Zealand data. Again, it appears that the type and frequency of use of non-verbal cues may fuel the stereotype attached to Germans. As mentioned earlier, this speculation will be put to the test by the questionnaire, which contains both a defensive gesture and an instance of 'pointing at the interlocutor in an accusatory manner'.

### 2.3.2 Body Movement in Disagreements

It was already mentioned in the result section that each of the four non-verbal strategies have one main category accounting for the majority of tokens. The strategy of body movement is no exception. 'Moving back and forth in one's seat' is the main category accounting for 55.6% of body movements in the German and for 57.1% in the New Zealand data.

If there is one thing worth mentioning in connection with body movements, it is that the distribution parallels the distribution of gestures. While the main subcategory is used at a similar frequency by both groups, no other category shows similar frequencies.

It was already mentioned in the result section that the occurrence of a 'beat with upper body' was perceived as quite aggressive, but having occurred only once, it hardly needs to be accounted for.

### 2.3.3 Facial Expression/Gaze in Disagreements

Unlike the previous two categories, the main subcategory of 'facial expressions', namely 'averted gaze' is not used at a similar frequency by Germans and New Zealanders. At 30.7%, the use of 'averted gaze' is considerably less prominent in the Germans data than it is in the New Zealand data (53.4%). What is interesting about the main subcategory 'averted gaze' is that, in connection with disagreements, it comes across as a feature of expressing uncertainty (Swerts, 2005; Swerts & Krahmer, 2005) or as a means of downtoning a disagreement by not confronting the interlocutor with an open affronting stare (Ekman & Friesen, 1975). Stares are associated with the invasion of one's privacy or with an effort to humiliate and subdue (Exline, 1972), both of which threaten an interlocutor's face. While stares have been found to be an act of aggression, averting one's gaze could be assumed to have the opposite effect. Indeed, Mehrabian (1972) and Cook (1977) found that eye-contact is less when someone is embarrassed and the gaze is averted when someone shows a submissive attitude or when an interlocutor feels threatened. Averted gaze is also a sign of nervousness and lack of confidence (Cook, 1977; Cook & Smith, 1975) or of uncertainty (Swerts & Krahmer, 2005). These findings indicate that 'averted gaze' can be regarded as a softening strategy. As a means of softening disagreements, it is therefore of particular interest that the New Zealanders avert their gaze considerably more frequently than Germans do. In addition, Germans fix their gaze on an interlocutor considerably more frequently (15.0%) than the New Zealanders (3.7%). Direct eye-contact is a confrontational act. According to Ekman and Friesen (1975),

tensed lids and a penetrating stare signal anger. Or to put it in the words of a novelist: 'for, of course, with all animals, including us, to stare is an aggressive act' (Martel, 2003: 211).

Two possible explanations offer themselves. Firstly, higher frequency of direct eye contact combined with the lower frequency of 'averted gaze' possibly indicates that facial expressions are a further means for Germans to be more direct and more aggressive, not only verbally, but also non-verbally. Secondly, as indicated above, it is believed that averted gaze can have a softening function. The higher frequency of occurrences of 'averted gaze' in the New Zealand data may be a sign of politeness, through avoiding open confrontational stares, which have been found to be an act of aggression. In connection with her *Politeness Principles*, Lakoff (1973) argued that one has to be at all times a) clear and b) polite. It is, however, not always possible to be both. In a previous research project (Stadler, 2002), I argued that a possible reason for Germans to be more direct and less polite is because German society values clarity over politeness and a straightforward way of expressing one's opinion is considered to be a form of honesty, rather than impoliteness. Beattie (1981) found in his research on gaze that listeners thought speakers were more likely to mean what they said if they looked at them. In fact, he states that people who looked 80% or more of the time in a conversation were perceived as friendly, mature and sincere. Sifianou (1992) found that avoiding direct eye-contact with the interlocutor is considered a sign of distrust and leads to inferences of dishonesty in Greece. Consequently, Germans might look more openly at their interlocutors because it communicates sincerity, while New Zealanders avoid doing so for reasons of politeness. In other words, Germans may not make direct eye contact as a sign of aggression, but as a sign of honesty. Caution is advised with this implication though, because what is considered a friendly or 'sincere' amount of looking in normal conversation might not be interpreted as such in disagreements, since the amount of gaze that is considered favourably depends on the topic of talk (Cook, 1977).

Only two further categories are worth mentioning in connection with disagreements, namely 'raised eyebrows' and 'frown'. New Zealanders raise their eyebrows a little more frequently, which could be considered to be a strengthening strategy, since Ekman (1979) and Streeck and Knapp (1992) mention that raised eyebrows can serve to place emphasis on speech. Often, however, raising one's eyebrows is also just a means of showing a receipt of news. Ekman (1979) mentions this function for raised eyebrows, namely that they can indicate a question or word search. A related function of raised eyebrows is wanting to see more, in the sense of trying to hear what the interlocutor is saying (Wierzbicka, 2000). Swerts and

Krahmer (2005) mention that raised eyebrows can function as the equivalent to question-like rising intonation and hence signal uncertainty.

Frowning has been found to have the same function as raised eyebrows in some instances in the data, where it indicates questioning/receipt of news rather than a strengthening function, probably because the person is trying to concentrate on what the interlocutor says, an action that triggers a drawing together of the brows (Wierzbicka, 2000). However, frowning can also make the interlocutor feel uncomfortable (Hillison & Lyons, 1982). Frowning can also be interpreted as encountering something difficult or displeasing, in other words ‘goal-discrepancies’ (Wierzbicka, 2000: 170), which seems to be a highly relevant interpretation in the context of disagreements. In accordance with this vast array of possible interpretations it becomes clear that no inferences can be made without an operationalized system that has the capacity to distinguish between these different meanings of raised eyebrows and frowns consistently and reliably.

A further feature warranting attention is the subcategory ‘smile’. Despite the fact that most smiles found in the New Zealand data are of an idiosyncratic nature and therefore no general assumptions can be made, the use of ‘smiles’ has some interesting and relevant implications. Rosenfeld (1966) found approval-seeking subjects to produce significantly more smiles than approval-avoiding subjects. As New Zealanders were found to be driven by conflict-avoidance (see Chapter 1, Section 2.4.2), one could assume that they are more prone to approval-seeking, which would explain their more frequent use of ‘smile’ tokens. Disagreements in a German context, however, were found to be more acceptable and therefore one could assume that their drive for approval-seeking is lower, hence the lower frequency of ‘smile’ tokens. New Zealanders have also been found to soften disagreements more than Germans (Stadler, 2002). Smiling can be interpreted as a redefinition of the threatening force of an utterance (Schiffrin, 1984). In accordance with Schiffrin’s (1984) finding, smiling can be regarded as softening device and therefore offers a further explanation for the New Zealander’s greater frequency of smiles. However, smiling does not always have a softening function. According to Vorderwülbecke (1986), politeness forms can have the opposite effect, when exaggerated or when expressed with irony or sarcasm. This also applies to smiles. The present data contains instances where smiles are rather ironic or sarcastic and therefore not intended to soften a disagreement at all. Rather, some of the smile instances evoked defensive or aggressive reactions, which indicates that they were interpreted as strengthening devices. Smiles can also be used to signal affiliation with a party, thereby

signalling dis-affiliation with another party (Kangasharju, 2002; Kotthoff, 1991), in which case smiles would also take on a strengthening function. Critchley (1975) confirms that smiles can have thousands of different meanings, including insincerity, which he claims is expressed in an incomplete smile in which all movement is limited to the mouth. In contrast, he describes an honest, sincere smile as broad and the eyes being reduced to chinks with wrinkles surrounding them. This kind of differentiation is definitely a move in the right direction, but not sufficient to categorize and distinguish smiles reliably. Again, a comprehensive non-verbal coding system would be desirable. Since there is none to date, no qualitative analysis on the use of smiles as softening or strengthening devices was conducted.

#### 2.3.4 Head Movement in Disagreements

In this category it is interesting to find that New Zealanders use less 'nod' tokens in their disagreements (51.8%) than Germans do (63.0%), but that they instead shake their heads more often (19.2%) than the Germans do (12.9%).

This finding may seem surprising in connection with the overall trend that Germans appear more confrontational non-verbally and head-shakes seem to be contradicting a prior statement, and therefore reinforce a disagreement, while nods would seem to be used more during initial agreements and for receipt of news. However, neither seems to be the case. Nods and head-shakes – in the majority of the instances in the present data – are used in a very similar fashion, namely as alternative to beats. Nods and head-shakes are both typically used to place emphasis on a certain word. In this respect, they can both have a strengthening function. While New Zealanders have a greater preference to use headshakes in this way and Germans show a greater preference for nods, if added up they both seem to use these emphatic tokens at a fairly similar frequency (75.9% in the German data and 71.0% in the New Zealand data), indeed much like their use of actual beat gestures.

A further noteworthy factor is the greater use of 'turning the head to the interlocutor' by the Germans. This finding is in line with the Germans' lower use of 'averted gaze' and the greater use of 'looking at interlocutor' in the facial expression/gaze category and with their greater use of 'turning to interlocutor' in the category 'body movement'. Consequently, this finding reinforces the inference that the Germans either have a stronger tendency for a more direct and aggressive disagreement style or that facing an interlocutor possibly shows their orientation to what they might consider a display of sincerity and honesty.

## **2.4 Neutral Speech**

With regard to the number of non-verbal cues produced, the most interesting and relevant finding yet is that a significantly larger part of the Germans' disagreements co-occur with non-verbal activity (66.19%) than the New Zealanders' (60.74%) and that they produce significantly more non-verbal tokens per number of words (29.42) than the New Zealanders do (21.97). Yet, the reverse is the case for neutral speech where Germans produce significantly less non-verbal activity co-occurring with speech (41.13%) than New Zealanders (64.94%) and significantly fewer tokens per words (14.75) than the New Zealanders (22.30).

New Zealanders show hardly any difference with regard to the number of non-verbal tokens produced in neutral speech and disagreements. Supposedly, listeners would not be affected by/react to New Zealanders' non-verbal activity during disagreements differently than they would during neutral speech. Maybe their disagreements are therefore not perceived as very strong or indeed this adds to the perception that New Zealanders are very polite. The fact that Germans used considerably more non-verbal cues during disagreements than during neutral speech might affect the way speakers are perceived by their interlocutors. Levy and Fowler (2000) found that unexpected and unpredictable information, i.e. information with a novelty factor, is high in 'communicative dynamism' (p. 225) and that people react to non-verbal energy peaks. It is, therefore, possible that people also resort to non-verbal energy peaks when agitated and emotionally aroused. If this was the case, then observers could be expected to react to the greater use of non-verbal cues during disagreement in the German data, possibly by interpreting the higher amount of non-verbal activity as aggressive and confrontational. It is, however, also possible that the greater amount of gesture production during disagreements is based on the fact that there is a high instance of turn-interruption, a condition that can lead a speaker to increase the rate of non-verbal cue production (Nobe, 2000). Regardless of which of these two potential inferences is true, differences in non-verbal activity have been found to lead to irritation (Gumperz & Roberts, 1987). It can therefore be expected that observers, be it consciously or unconsciously, react to the difference in non-verbal activity that Germans exhibit in disagreements as opposed to their neutral speech.

## **2.5 Non-Verbal Cues in Neutral Speech**

It has been found that the distribution of use of the various strategies in neutral and disagreeing speech differs only a little in the New Zealand data. A large difference was found

in the German data, where gestures and body movement are used at a similar ratio in neutral speech as in disagreements, but where facial expression are found only 26.06% in disagreements, but 37.38% in neutral speech. Head movements, on the other hand, occur far more frequently in disagreements (32.65%) than in neutral speech (25.25%).

It was suggested in Section 2.4. of this chapter that the similarity in frequency of use of non-verbal cues in neutral speech and disagreements might give observers the impression that New Zealanders are rather polite in their disagreeing behaviour. In contrast to that, Germans might be perceived as more confrontational in disagreements, because they alter their non-verbal behaviour more noticeably. It is unlikely that this perception is of a conscious nature. According to Fant (1995: 201), ‘it should be remembered that the signals and interpretations that take place at the dialogue level are normally unconscious for the participants’. However, just because something happens outside our awareness, does not mean it is meaningless or does not affect us. It has been proven (Argyle et al., 1981; Mehrabian, 1972; Cook & Smith, 1975; Hadar, 1992; Kerkes, 2003; Kendon, 2000) that non-verbal activity has a considerable effect on our perceptions and attitudes toward a person, despite the fact that it might escape our awareness.

### 2.5.1 Gesture in Neutral Speech

The following section observes whether the same number of subcategories is found in neutral speech that was observed in disagreements.

Table 57: Subcategories of Gesture in Neutral Speech vs. Disagreement

	German <i>n</i>	New Zealand <i>n</i>
Disagreement	15	14
Neutral Speech	6	11

This observation shows again that the non-verbal behaviour of New Zealanders in neutral speech is more similar to their disagreeing behaviour than the Germans’ behaviour is to the German disagreeing behaviour. New Zealanders use a far greater range of subcategories in the category ‘gesture’ than the Germans do, using 11 out of the 14 subcategories that were found in their disagreements. In the German data only 6 out of the 15 subcategories found in disagreement also occur in neutral speech.

The results also show that more beat tokens are produced in neutral speech than in disagreements, which can be interpreted such that the majority of beat tokens are not used in a strengthening manner in disagreements, but are a phenomenon of naturally occurring emphasis on words that are also verbally marked.

The fact that the subcategories ‘pointing at an interlocutor in an accusatory manner’ and ‘defensive gesture’ are missing entirely in neutral speech indicates that they may be associated with disagreements. If this can be assumed to be the case, it would lead to the interpretation that Germans are more confrontational in their disagreements, due to their greater use of these strategies.

### 2.5.2 Body Movement in Neutral Speech

Table 58: Subcategories of Body Movement in Neutral Speech vs. Disagreement

	<u>German</u> <i>n</i>	<u>New Zealand</u> <i>n</i>
Disagreement	6	5
Neutral Speech	2	4

The occurrence of body movement tokens is far too small in neutral speech to come to any useful conclusions. However, it is noteworthy that the Germans used a narrower range of strategies, while the New Zealanders’ range is more similar to the one found in their disagreements.

### 2.5.3 Facial Expression/Gaze in Neutral Speech

Table 59: Subcategories of Facial Expression/Gaze in Neutral Speech vs. Disagreement

	<u>German</u> <i>n</i>	<u>New Zealand</u> <i>n</i>
Disagreement	12	14
Neutral Speech	5	9

The most noteworthy feature for this strategy is also the fact that New Zealanders use a more similar range of subcategories in neutral speech and in disagreements, while the Germans’ range is much more narrow in neutral speech than in disagreements.

A further outstanding feature is the fact that the category ‘averted gaze’ is used slightly more frequently in neutral speech (56.8%) than in disagreements (53.4%) by New Zealanders, but is used considerably more frequently in neutral speech (43.3%) than in disagreements (30.7%) by Germans. As previously established, averting one’s gaze can potentially be regarded as a means of softening device and the lack of use of this strategy in disagreements by Germans could be interpreted as a more confrontational disagreeing style.

Among the categories missing from the register of facial expressions in neutral speech, ‘frown’ is the one that stands out. ‘Frown’ never occurs in the New Zealand data at all, while eight instances of it are found in the German disagreement data. Its apparent correlation with disagreement might suggest a characteristic of strengthening properties attached to ‘frowning’. Considering that it is only used by Germans, it might well be another criterion for Germans to appear more confrontational.

The finding that more instances of ‘looking at interlocutor’ occurred in neutral than in disagreement speech in the German data, but occurred less in neutral than in disagreement speech in the New Zealand data supports the theory that it might be a sign of honesty to look openly at a person in German society. However, it does not support the inference that it might be used as a confrontational strategy in disagreements – at least in a German context.

#### 2.5.4 Head Movement in Neutral Speech

Table 60: Subcategories of Head Movement in Neutral Speech vs. Disagreement

	German <i>n</i>	New Zealand <i>n</i>
Disagreement	11	10
Neutral Speech	5	6

The fact that, in connection with head movements, both Germans and New Zealanders used a much more narrow range of sub-categories than in disagreements is rather surprising. While the difference in range between neutral speech and disagreement speech is greater for the Germans than for the New Zealanders, the difference between the two groups is far less pronounced than for the other categories. In addition, the Germans’ range is only slightly narrower than the New Zealanders’ range is. A Fisher’s Exact Tests comparing the number of

subcategories observed in disagreements and in neutral speech did not show significant differences.

In disagreements New Zealanders produce more 'headshakes' but less 'nods' than the Germans. In neutral speech, however, New Zealanders produce more 'nods' and fewer 'headshake' tokens than the Germans. The reversed frequency of 'headshakes' and 'nods' for Germans and New Zealanders is also an interesting phenomenon and suggests differing preferential patterns. Since it was suggested that 'nods' and 'headshakes' fulfil a similar function in disagreements, the added percentage was compared rather than the individual percentages. This revealed a similar outcome in the New Zealand and the German data in disagreements. A different finding can be observed in neutral speech where Germans produce considerably more tokens of these sub-categories than New Zealanders. A greater difference can also be observed in the fact that New Zealanders produce only a moderately larger number of tokens in neutral speech than in disagreements whereas, in the German data, the difference is larger. This finding once again suggests that Germans stray farther from their neutral speech behaviour when disagreeing, while New Zealanders show similar behaviour.

Overall, it can be said that the New Zealand informants show a fairly similar non-verbal behavioural pattern in neutral speech in their disagreements. Several severe changes in non-verbal behavioural pattern have been observed for the Germans, on the other hand, who generally tend to display considerably less non-verbal activity and a much more narrow range of subcategories in neutral speech. In addition the proportions of use of facial expressions/gaze and head movement differ notably. It is suggested that the similarity of non-verbal behaviour by New Zealanders leads to them being regarded as more polite (or at least as impartial and neutral) in disagreements. The Germans' largely altered non-verbal behaviour, on the other hand, might lead to the perception that they are more confrontational in their disagreeing behaviour. Whether this possible interpretation is indeed justified shall be tested by use of the questionnaire.

### **3 The Non-Verbal Properties of Disagreement: Summary**

The non-verbal data was assessed for two main criteria, the overall frequency of use of non-verbal cues, and the use and distribution of the four main categories of non-verbal cues (gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze, head movement) and their respective

subcategories. These findings were then compared to the groups' non-verbal behaviour observed in neutral speech.

With regard to the overall frequency of occurrence of non-verbal cues, two findings stand out. Firstly, the Germans produce significantly more non-verbal cues in disagreements than the New Zealanders do. Secondly, the Germans use significantly fewer non-verbal cues than the New Zealanders do in neutral speech and they also use significantly fewer non-verbal cues than they themselves do in disagreements, while the New Zealanders use slightly more non-verbal cues in neutral speech than in disagreements. These findings suggest that the New Zealanders, with their similar use of non-verbal cues in neutral speech and disagreements, may be perceived as rather neutral in disagreements. The Germans' markedly greater use of non-verbal cues in disagreements than in neutral speech, makes them seem more agitated, aroused and emotional and may consequently lead to perceptions of a more confrontational disagreeing style.

The frequency and distribution of the use of gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze and head movement differs little between the two groups in disagreements. The New Zealanders show little difference in the frequency and distribution of these cues in their neutral speech, compared to their disagreements, while the Germans' use of non-verbal cues in neutral speech does differ from their use in disagreements. This finding points to the same conclusion, namely that the New Zealanders' largely unaltered style makes their disagreements seem very similar to neutral speech and may therefore lead to the inference that their disagreements are rather neutral and rather inoffensive. The Germans' different frequency and distribution makes them appear agitated in their disagreements, which may lead to negative inferences.

The number and range of subcategories used in disagreements and in neutral speech also show differences between the two cultural groups investigated. The Germans have a tendency to use a slightly wider range of subcategories in their disagreements than the New Zealanders. However, in neutral speech, the Germans use a markedly reduced range of subcategories, while the New Zealanders' range of subcategories in neutral speech is only slightly narrower than the range they use in disagreements. These findings, once again, lead to the conclusion that the New Zealanders' largely unchanged behaviour might make them appear more neutral, while the Germans' markedly different non-verbal behaviour in disagreements could be interpreted as confrontational, since it shows more involvement and arousal.

An additional finding lies in the discovery that the Germans use more non-verbal cues to express a cynical or sarcastic stance than the New Zealanders. Sarcasm is a strategy employed to discredit an interlocutor and is regarded as a personal attack strategy, with the consequence that Germans could be considered more aggressive.

## Chapter 6

### Questionnaire Results & Discussion

#### 1 Questionnaire Results

##### 1.1 Hypothesis

Germans are stereotypically regarded by non-Germans as not very polite and indeed this was partially confirmed in earlier research (Stadler, 2002). Participants suggested, on the basis of the judgment task in the above mentioned project, that it was in part the way in which a disagreement had been uttered and/or the accompanying non-verbal cues that led them to perceive a disagreement as rather impolite. In this dissertation, Germans were found to differ prosodically in two ways: a) they tend to disagree loudly more frequently and b) they tend to disagree quickly more frequently than the New Zealanders. Non-verbally, they were found to produce more non-verbal cues than the New Zealanders. If Germans are not perceived as being very polite, partially due to prosodic and non-verbal features, then it would follow that the higher intensity and tempo and the greater amount of non-verbal cues are, in part, responsible for this perception.

Indeed, Mehrabian (1972) has found that when various channels consistently communicate the same attitude, then the intensity of the attitude inferred from the total message is enhanced. Janney (1999) goes a step further and argues that ‘gestural speech’, as he calls it, even tends to override ‘verbal speech’. In other words, in this study, disagreements should be expected to be rated more strongly in the words + prosody or in the words + non-verbal condition than in the words-only condition. Ratings from the words + prosody + non-verbal condition should be even stronger. Consequently, it is expected that results from the questionnaires will yield the results described in the following section.

##### 1.1.1 Expected Findings for the Prosody Questionnaire

Neutral scenarios will be rated as neutral, polite or very polite on the basis of the word-only condition. Ratings are expected to remain unaltered or scenarios rated as more polite in the word + prosody condition. Scenarios in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition are expected to be rated the same as or more polite than in the word + prosody condition.

All other scenarios are expected to yield any rating along the 10-point scale in the word-only condition, but are expected to be rated the same as or less polite than in the word + prosody condition.

The word + prosody + non-verbal condition should yield a rating that is the same as or less polite than the rating in the word + prosody condition, when there are a large number of non-verbal cues and a rating that is the same as or more polite than in the word + prosody condition, when there are a small number of non-verbal cues.

### 1.1.2 Expected Findings for the Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Neutral scenarios will be rated as neutral, polite or very polite on the basis of the word-only condition. Ratings are expected to remain unaltered or are rated as more polite in the word + non-verbal condition. Scenarios in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition are expected to be rated the same as or more polite than in the word + non-verbal condition.

All other scenarios are expected to yield any rating along the 10-point scale in the word-only condition, but are expected to be rated the same as or less polite than in the word + non-verbal condition.

The word + non-verbal + prosody condition should yield a rating that is the same as or more polite than in the word + non-verbal condition, when the disagreement is prosodically unmarked and a rating that is the same as or less polite than the rating in the word + non-verbal condition, when the disagreement is prosodically marked.

### 1.1.3 Rating the Questionnaire

Eleven participants in total rated the questionnaires. They were exposed to a written version, followed by a written and audio version (prosody questionnaire) or by a written and visual version (non-verbal questionnaire), followed by a written, audio and visual version. Ratings were conducted on a 10-point scale, with participants circling the respective number on the rating scale, where 10 = 'impolite', 8 = 'not very polite', 5 = 'neutral', 3 = 'polite', and 1 = 'very polite'. The total = (number of ratings x 10) + (number of ratings x 9) + (number of ratings x 8) + (number of ratings x 7) + (number of ratings x 6) + (number of ratings x 5) + (number of ratings x 4) + (number of ratings x 3) + (number of ratings x 2) + (number of ratings x 1). The total number of the ratings, reflects the level of politeness determined by the

participants, where 110 = ‘impolite’, 88 = ‘not very polite’, 55 = ‘neutral’, 33 = ‘polite’, and 11 = ‘very polite’.

Statistical analyses were not conducted on the questionnaire results due to the small number of participants, which does not allow for reliable and conclusive statistical results.

## 1.2 Prosody Questionnaire

### 1.2.1 Neutral Scenarios

The hypothesis for neutral scenarios is that they will be rated as ‘neutral’ in the word-only condition and as ‘neutral’ or more ‘polite’ in both other conditions.

#### 1.2.1.1 Scenario A: Neutral

Scenario A corresponds to Scenario 1 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4), to Scenario 6 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5) and to Scenario 5 in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 6).

Table 61: Scenario A, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only		1*	4	5			1				80
W+P		1	1	6		2	1				73
W+P+NV				3	2	1	4	1			57

\* reflects the number of participants who attributed that particular value to the scenario and condition

The results for Scenario A show that the disagreement is not rated as ‘neutral’ in the word-only condition, but that it is rated as more ‘polite’ in the word + prosody condition than in the word-only condition and that it is indeed rated as ‘neutral’ in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition. Apart from the initially lower rating, the distribution of ratings for Scenario A is as expected.

### 1.2.1.2 Scenario B: Neutral

Scenario B corresponds to Scenario 6 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4), to Scenario 2 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5) and to Scenario 2 in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 6).

Table 62: Scenario B, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only						2	2	6	1		38
W+P						2	4	3	2		39
W+P+NV						2	2	5	2		37

The ratings in Scenario B range from ‘neutral’ ratings to ‘polite’ ratings. Overall, the disagreement is rated as ‘polite’ and the ratings in all three conditions vary little. The distribution of ratings for Scenario B is as expected.

It appears that neutral scenarios do not necessarily yield a ‘neutral’ rating in the word-only condition, but that they are subsequently rated as ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’ and that the ratings in the word + prosody and the word + prosody + non-verbal condition either remain the same as in the word-only condition or are rated more favourably.

### 1.2.2 Scenarios with Increased Loudness

It is expected that disagreements with increased loudness have any potential rating in the word-only condition, but are rated as less ‘polite’ in the word + prosody condition.

#### 1.2.2.1 Scenario C: Increased Loudness

Scenario C corresponds to Scenario 4 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4) and to Scenario 4 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5).

Table 63: Scenario C, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Words-only				1	3	3	2	2			54
W+P		1	2	4	2	2					75

The ratings in Scenario C clearly demonstrate that the disagreement is rated as less ‘polite’ when participants are exposed to the prosodic feature of increased intensity levels. An increase in loudness is rated as less ‘polite’. The distribution of ratings for Scenario C are in accordance with expectations.

#### 1.2.2.2 Scenario D: Increased Loudness

Scenario D corresponds to Scenario 8 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4) and to Scenario 3 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5).

Table 64: Scenario D, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only	1	1	1	3	3	2					76
W+P	2		4	3	2						85

The ratings for Scenario D show that the word + prosody condition influences participants towards a more negative rating of the level of politeness. Increased loudness in the word + prosody condition is rated as less ‘polite’ than in the word-only condition. The distribution of ratings for this disagreement is as expected.

An increase in loudness seems to have a negative effect on the ratings for the degree of politeness of a disagreement.

#### 1.2.3 Scenarios with Increased Tempo

It is expected that ratings in the word-only condition yield any potential rating on the scale, but that the ratings will be less ‘polite’ in the word + prosody condition and still less ‘polite’ in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition.

### 1.2.3.1 Scenario E: Increased Tempo

Scenario E corresponds to Scenario 3 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4) and to Scenario 1 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5).

Table 65: Scenario E, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only						5	3	1	2		44
W+P		1			1	2	3	3	1		48

Scenario E is rated as ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’ in the word-only condition. In the word + prosody condition the majority of the ratings are in the ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’ range, with only one respondent selecting ‘impolite’. The total score suggests that increased tempo has at most a very slightly negative effect on the perception of politeness in disagreements, and for many speakers may have no effect at all. The distribution of ratings for Scenario E is not entirely as expected.

### 1.2.3.2 Scenario F: Increased Tempo

Scenario F corresponds to Scenario 5 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4), to Scenario 5 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5) and to Scenario 3 in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 6).

Table 66: Scenario F, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only				1		2	2	5	1		42
W+P					5	2	1	3			53
W+P+NV						6	4				46*

\* one person did not rate the word + prosody + non-verbal condition

The politeness rating for Scenario F overall suggests that it is considered by most participants to be rather ‘polite’ in the word-only condition. Ratings in the word + prosody condition yield a ‘neutral’ score. This suggests that an increase in tempo has a somewhat negative effect on the perception of politeness in disagreements. As the disagreement contained a large number of non-verbal cues, it was expected to yield a less ‘polite’ rating in the third condition than in

the second condition. However, since one person failed to rate the third condition, it can only be assumed that there is little difference between conditions two and three, both of which appear to be considered slightly less ‘polite’ than condition one. The distribution of ratings for Scenario F is as expected in the word + prosody condition, but not in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition.

An increase in tempo does appear to have a slightly negative effect on the level of politeness in the word + prosody condition, although not a very pronounced difference. A large number of non-verbal cues do not appear to have any effect on the ratings for the degree of politeness.

#### 1.2.4 Scenarios with Increased Loudness & Increased Tempo

It is expected that scenarios that contain an increase in loudness as well as an increase in tempo are rated notably less ‘polite’ in the word + prosody condition than in the word-only condition.

##### 1.2.4.1 Scenario G: Increased Loudness & Increased Tempo

Scenario G corresponds to Scenario 2 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4), to Scenario 7 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5) and to Scenario 1 in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 6).

Table 67: Scenario G, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only			3			5	2	1			60
W+P		3	5	2	1						87
W+P+NV	1	2	2	4	1	1					83

In condition one, Scenario G receives a relatively ‘neutral’ rating overall. The rating in the word + prosody condition is clearly less ‘polite’ than in the word-only condition and suggests that an increase in both loudness and tempo has a negative effect on the perception of politeness in this disagreement. The ratings in the third condition are slightly more ‘polite’ than in the second condition. As this disagreement contains a large number of non-verbal cues it was expected that the ratings in the third condition would be less ‘polite’ than in the second condition. This, however, is not the case. In Scenario G the distribution of ratings is as

expected in the word + prosody condition, but it does not behave as expected in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition.

#### 1.2.4.2 Scenario H: Increased Loudness & Increased Tempo

Scenario H corresponds to Scenario 7 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 4), to Scenario 8 in the word + prosody condition (see Appendix 5) and to Scenario 4 in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 6).

Table 68: Scenario H, Prosody Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only		3	3	3	1		1				82
W+P	1	2	2	2	3	1					81
W+P+NV	2	1	2	4		1		1			81

Although it was expected that condition two would yield a less ‘polite’ rating than the words-only condition, the ratings in the word + prosody condition differ little from the ratings in the word-only condition. Although this disagreement does not contain a very large number of non-verbal cues, it contains one non-verbal cue that was considered to be rather confrontational, namely ‘pointing accusingly at the interlocutor’. Despite this fact, the ratings in the third condition differ little from both other conditions.

While a combination of increased loudness and increased tempo appears to have a pronounced effect on one of the scenarios, it does not have much effect on the ratings of the other scenario. Although there are several potential explanations for why scenario H did not show the expected results, the findings for a combined condition of increased loudness and tempo are inconclusive. The number and kind of non-verbal cues does not seem to have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. Rather, it appears to have a slightly positive effect on the perception of politeness.

Overall it can be concluded that it appears that increased loudness and tempo have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. The absence of non-verbal cues appears to have a positive effect on the ratings of politeness, but the presence of a large number of non-verbal cues does not appear to have a negative effect on how polite a disagreement is perceived to be.

### 1.3 Non-Verbal Questionnaire

#### 1.3.1 Neutral Scenarios

Neutral scenarios are expected to be rated as ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’ in the first condition and to be subsequently rated the same or more ‘polite’ than in the previous conditions.

##### 1.3.1.1 Scenario A: Neutral

Scenario A corresponds to Scenario 2 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7), to Scenario 2 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8) and to Scenario 1 in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition (see Appendix 9).

Table 69: Scenario A, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only				1	2	4	2		1	1	50
W+NV					1	6		3		1	46
W+NV+P						1	4	2	3	1	34

Scenario A shows that there is a clear trend from a ‘neutral’ rating towards a ‘polite’ rating, with a steady positive increase in the perception of politeness in conditions two and three. The distribution of ratings for this disagreement is as expected.

##### 1.3.1.2 Scenario B: Neutral

Scenario B corresponds to Scenario 5 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7) and to Scenario 5 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8).

Table 70: Scenario B, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Words-only				3	3		3	2			57
W+NV				2	1	4	1	2			50*

\* one person did not rate the word + non-verbal condition

Scenario B shows that there is little difference between the two conditions, both of which are rated as ‘neutral’. The distribution of ratings for this disagreement is also according to expectations.

### 1.3.1.3 Scenario C: Neutral

Scenario C corresponds to Scenario 7 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7), to Scenario 6 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8) and to Scenario 4 in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition (see Appendix 9).

Table 71: Scenario C, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only					1	5	1	3	1		46
W+NV				1	1	2		5	2		42
W+NV+P					2	1	1	5	1	1	39

There is little difference in the ratings for this disagreement. Condition two is slightly more right skewed than condition one and condition three remains largely unaltered. Overall, the distribution of ratings for Scenario C is as expected.

The results for the neutral scenarios are according to expectations, as ratings range from ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’, and prosody and the absence of a large number of non-verbal cues has a slightly positive effect on the perception of politeness of the disagreements.

### 1.3.2 Non-Verbally Marked & Prosodically Unmarked Scenarios

It is expected that scenarios in this category will be rated as less ‘polite’ in the word + non-verbal condition than in the words-only condition, but as more ‘polite’ in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition than in the word + non-verbal condition.

#### 1.3.2.1 Scenario D: Non-verbally marked, prosodically unmarked

Scenario D corresponds to Scenario 4 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7), to Scenario 3 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8) and to Scenario 6 in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition (see Appendix 9).

Table 72: Scenario D, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only					3	5	2	1			54
W+NV	2	2	3	3	1						89
W+NV+P	1	2	1	4	2		1				80

The findings for Scenario D are exactly as expected. Ratings in the word-only condition are relatively ‘neutral’, while the large number of non-verbal cues has a clearly negative effect on the ratings of politeness. The total score goes from ‘neutral’ down to ‘not polite’. Since the disagreement is prosodically unmarked, it was expected that the third condition would not influence the ratings or would influence the perception of politeness positively. The latter is the case; the lack of prosodic marking influences participants towards a slightly more positive rating of the level of politeness.

#### 1.3.2.2 Scenario E: Non-verbally marked, prosodically unmarked

Scenario E corresponds to Scenario 8 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7) and to Scenario 8 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8).

Table 73: Scenario E, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only					5	5		1			58
W+NV		1		2	2	2	1	2	1		57

While this disagreement is rated almost unanimously as ‘neutral’ in the word-only condition, opinions on the word + non-verbal condition are diverse, covering nearly the entire range of options. While the total remains nearly unaltered, it appears that the non-verbal cues in this disagreement influence three participants negatively, but four participants still perceive the disagreement as ‘neutral’, while three participants tend towards a more positive rating. Ratings on Scenario E are inconclusive.

### 1.3.2.3 Scenario F: Non-verbally marked, prosodically unmarked

Scenario F corresponds to Scenario 9 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7) and to Scenario 9 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8).

Table 74: Scenario F, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only		1	2	4	2	1	1				74
W+NV				1	1	4	3	2			51

While this short, straightforward disagreement has a rather negative effect on participants' perception of the level of politeness in the word-only condition, the defensive gesture, which was considered to be a rather confrontational type of gesture, does not have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. Rather, the ratings for the word + non-verbal condition show a tendency toward a more 'polite' rating. Ratings for Scenario F are not as expected.

While the ratings for Scenario D are exactly as expected, this is not the case for the remaining two disagreements in this category. No conclusions can be drawn from these ratings.

### 1.3.3 Non-Verbally Marked & Prosodically Marked Scenarios

It is expected that scenarios under this category will be rated as less 'polite' in the word + non-verbal condition than in the word-only condition and that they will be rated as less 'polite' in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition than in the word + non-verbal condition.

#### 1.3.3.1 Scenario G: Non-verbally marked, prosodically marked (increased tempo)

Scenario G corresponds to Scenario 1 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7), to Scenario 7 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8) and to Scenario 2 in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition (see Appendix 9).

Table 75: Scenario G, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only			1		1	6	1	2			54
W+NV	1		1	3	3	1	2				70
W+NV+P		1	1	3	4	2					72

Scenario G yields a ‘neutral’ rating in the word-only condition, and an increasingly negative rating in the subsequent two conditions. Ratings for this disagreement are as expected.

### 1.3.3.2 Scenario H: Non-verbally marked, prosodically marked (increased loudness & tempo)

Scenario H corresponds to Scenario 3 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7), to Scenario 1 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8) and to Scenario 3 in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition (see Appendix 9).

Table 76: Scenario H, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only		1	3	2	4	1					76
W+NV			3	1	3	3	1				68
W+NV+P	1	2	3	3	2						85

This short and direct disagreement yields a rather negative rating in the word-only condition, but is rated slightly more positively in the word + non-verbal condition. The rating for condition two is not as expected. The rating in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition, however, yields the least ‘polite’ rating and is therefore consistent with expectations.

### 1.3.3.3 Scenario I: Non-verbally marked, prosodically marked (increased loudness & tempo)

Scenario I corresponds to Scenario 6 in the word-only condition (see Appendix 7), to Scenario 4 in the word + non-verbal condition (see Appendix 8) and to Scenario 5 in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition (see Appendix 9).

Table 77: Scenario I, Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Condition	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Total
Word-only			2		4	3	2				63
W+NV	3		3	2	2			1			83
W+NV+P	3	3	1	2		1					93

Scenario I receives a continuously more negative rating with exposure to visual and audio features and therefore ratings are exactly as expected.

The three disagreements in the category ‘verbally marked and prosodically marked’ are rated almost entirely as expected, with the large number of non-verbal cues having a negative effect on the perception of politeness in two of the disagreements and the prosodic marking increasing the negative effect on the perception of politeness in all three disagreements.

Overall it can be concluded that the absence of a large number of non-verbal cues has a positive effect on the perception of politeness of a disagreement. The presence of a large number of non-verbal cues, however, does not always have a negative effect on the perception of politeness, as was predicted. It appears that the absence of prosodic marking has a positive effect on the perception of politeness of a disagreement, while those disagreements that were prosodically marked for increased intensity and/or speech rate influenced participants towards a negative perception of the degree of politeness of a disagreement.

## 2 Questionnaire Discussion

The effects of verbal modification, be it softening or strengthening devices, has been explored and discussed in numerous studies. Their use, as well as their effect on people’s perception of politeness, has been proven not only for New Zealanders (Holmes, 1995), but also for speakers of German (House, 1986; House & Kasper, 1981) and for New Zealanders in relation to Germans (Stadler, 2002). The effects of prosodic and non-verbal cues on an observer’s perception of politeness are much more obscure and to the best of my knowledge, little data is available to date discussing the effects of fast and loud disagreements and the effects of a large number of non-verbal cues in disagreements.

## 2.1 Prosody Questionnaire

The prosody questionnaire was conducted in order to determine if an increase in intensity and an increase in speech rate have a negative effect on how polite a disagreement is perceived to be. To this end two disagreements that were prosodically neutral were used as control scenarios, while the remaining six disagreements were tested for the effect of prosodic marking. Two scenarios were marked for heightened intensity only, two scenarios were marked for heightened speech rate only and two disagreements were marked for both heightened intensity and heightened speech rate.

### 2.1.1 Neutral Scenarios

The ratings for the neutral scenarios were expected to be ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’, with either unchanged ratings in the subsequent two conditions or more ‘polite’ ratings in the word + prosody and the word + prosody + non-verbal conditions.

The neutral scenarios were rated according to expectations, with Scenario A being rated as ‘not very polite’ in the words-only condition, as relatively ‘neutral’ in the word + prosody condition, and as ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’ in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition. Scenario B was rated as ‘polite’ in all three conditions, with little changes in the ratings.

These results suggest that a disagreement that is neither prosodically, nor non-verbally marked, is not necessarily perceived as ‘neutral’ or ‘polite’ if an addressee were to be exposed to the words alone. However, if prosodic and non-verbal information are present, the disagreement is rated as ‘neutral’ or ‘polite’. The absence of prosodic marking seems to either have no effect at all or a positive effect on how polite a disagreement is perceived to be. The absence of a large number of non-verbal cues also seems to either have no effect or a positive effect on how polite a disagreement is perceived to be.

### 2.1.2 Scenarios with Increased Loudness

Ratings for scenarios that are marked for an increase in loudness were expected to be rated as less ‘polite’ in the word + prosody condition than in the word-only condition.

The ratings for both scenarios were as expected. Both disagreements were perceived as less 'polite' when participants were exposed to prosodic features than when participants were exposed the verbal disagreements alone.

These findings suggest that an increase in intensity appears to have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. Disagreements that were noticeably louder were perceived as less 'polite'.

### 2.1.3 Scenarios with Increased Tempo

Ratings for scenarios that are marked for an increase in tempo were expected to be rated as less 'polite' in the word + prosody condition than in the word-only condition.

While there is a slight trend for Scenario E to be perceived as less 'polite' in the word + prosody condition, and while there is a trend for the ratings to be more left skewed in Scenario F, the difference is not very pronounced. It appears that disagreements with an increased speech rate are rated as slightly less 'polite'. The large number of non-verbal cues in Scenario F does not appear to have a negative effect on the perception of politeness.

These findings suggest that an increase in tempo has a slightly negative effect on the perception of politeness and disagreements that were spoken quickly were rated as less 'polite'. A large number of non-verbal cues were, however, not perceived negatively.

### 2.1.4 Scenarios with Increased Loudness & Increased Tempo

According to Mehrabian (1972), when attitude communication is consistent (i.e. when the same attitude is conveyed on all channels), the intensity of the attitude inferred from the total message is enhanced. Therefore, it was expected that a combination of an increase in loudness and an increase in tempo would have a greater effect on the perception of politeness. In other words, it was expected that disagreements that were spoken both louder and faster would be rated as markedly less 'polite' in the word + prosody condition than in the word-only condition.

Scenario G was rated as markedly less 'polite' in the word + prosody condition than in the word-only condition and therefore supports the hypothesis. Ratings for Scenario H, however, do not show a difference in the perception of politeness. While the ratings are slightly more

left skewed, the total remains nearly unaltered. Hence, Scenario H does not support the hypothesis. The number of non-verbal cues did not show a negative effect on the perception of politeness in either one of the two scenarios. However, while the total suggests that there is an ever so slightly positive effect in the word + prosody + non-verbal condition, it appears that some participants were affected negatively by the large number of non-verbal cues, while the non-verbal cues appeared to have a positive effect on other participants. This applies to the ratings in both scenarios.

These findings suggest that in Scenario G, a combination of increased intensity and increased speech rate clearly has a negative effect on how polite the disagreement is perceived to be. This raises the question as to why the same combination of prosodic features does not have the same effect in Scenario H. Several possible reasons may account for the fact that the ratings for this disagreement were not as expected. Firstly, the disagreement is very short and straightforward, and it is presumably for this reason that Scenario G was rated rather negatively by participants, as it was considered rather 'impolite' in the word-only condition by most participants. It might be possible that the direct and straightforward manner in which the disagreement was produced had a greater effect on participants than the prosodic and non-verbal cues it contained. Secondly, although the prosodic analysis of the PRAAT computer analysis programme shows that the disagreement is louder than the same speaker's neutral speech, the overall recording of this particular television broadcast appears considerably lower in intensity in comparison to the other programmes. Hence, although the speaker speaks considerably more loudly in the disagreement than she does during neutral speech, in comparison to the other disagreements that the participants rated, this disagreement may not have appeared loud to the participants. Thirdly, the disagreement contained what was considered to be a rather confrontational gesture. However, immediately after the gesture, the camera switches to the addressee of the disagreement, hence, despite the fact that the disagreement was shown to participants twice, it is possible that participants missed the accusatory gesture and may consequently have had a more positive impression of the disagreement than if they had not missed the gesture. This, however, is speculation and there is no clear indication that participants did miss the gesture.

It appears that there could be various explanations as to why the ratings of Scenario H did not conform to expectations. There is, however, no decisive evidence supporting these potential explanations and findings on the effect of a combination of heightened intensity and heightened speech rate are inconclusive.

Overall it appears that there is a trend for increased intensity and increased speech rate to have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. Disagreements that were spoken louder and/or faster were mostly rated as less ‘polite’ when participants were exposed to prosodic information than when they were exposed to the verbal information alone. While a lack of non-verbal cues appears to have a slightly positive effect on the perception of politeness, the presence of a large number of non-verbal cues does not seem to have a negative effect on how polite the participants perceived a disagreement to be.

## **2.2 Non-Verbal Questionnaire**

The non-verbal questionnaire was conducted in order to investigate whether a large number of non-verbal cues have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. To this end, the questionnaire contained three neutral disagreements that did not contain a large number of non-verbal cues, as control scenarios, and six disagreements that contained a large number of non-verbal cues. Of these six disagreements, three were prosodically unmarked and three were prosodically marked for increased loudness and/or increased tempo.

### **2.2.1 Neutral Scenarios**

The ratings for the neutral scenarios were expected to range from ‘neutral’ to ‘polite’, with either unchanged ratings in the subsequent two conditions or more ‘polite’ ratings in the word + non-verbal and the word + non-verbal + prosody conditions.

The results for Scenario A were exactly as expected, with the total equalling a ‘neutral’ rating and the subsequent two conditions shifting towards a ‘polite’ rating overall. The ratings in Scenario B remain fairly similar in the word-only and the word + non-verbal condition, both of which exhibit a ‘neutral’ rating. The ratings for Scenario C also remain largely unaltered, exhibiting an ever so slight shift toward a more positive rating of the degree of politeness of the disagreement.

The results point towards the implication that neutral scenarios are rated as ‘neutral’ and that the lack of prosodic marking and the lack of a large number of non-verbal cues lead to a more positive perception of the degree of politeness of a disagreement.

### 2.2.2 Non-Verbally Marked & Prosodically Unmarked Scenarios

Scenarios that are non-verbally marked, but prosodically unmarked are expected to be rated as less 'polite' in the word + non-verbal condition than in the word-only condition. Since disagreements in this category are prosodically unmarked, it is expected that the rating in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition lean towards a more 'polite' perception than the ratings in the word + non-verbal condition.

The results for Scenario D were precisely as expected, with the rating in the second condition being markedly less 'polite' than in the word-only condition and ratings in the third condition showing a more 'polite' perception than in the second condition. Results for Scenarios E and F, however, were not according to expectations. Scenario E shows an unanimously 'neutral' rating in the word-only condition, but does not show much clustering in the second condition, where it appears that the large number of non-verbal cues had a negative effect on some participants, an unchanged effect on several other participant, and a positive effect on the remaining participants. Ratings for Scenario F were not in line with expected results either. The rating in condition one was rather negative, but the rating in the word + non-verbal condition was more positive than the rating in the previous condition, where it was expected that the amount of non-verbal cues would have a negative effect on the perception of politeness.

The findings for Scenario D suggest that a large number of non-verbal cues affect the ratings for politeness negatively and that the lack of prosodic marking has a positive effect on the perception of politeness. This, however, raises the question why the ratings in the remaining two scenarios do not confirm the findings for Scenario D. One possible reason for the lack of conformity may lie in the fact that Scenarios E and F are taken from the German data set. A larger number of non-verbal cues was a feature that was observed mainly from the German speakers. The reason for testing the effect of a large number of non-verbal cues on the perception of politeness is to test if the greater number of non-verbal cues in the German data leads to Germans being perceived as less 'polite'. It is, therefore, surprising that the large number of non-verbal cues in the disagreement taken from the New Zealand data has a negative effect on the perception of politeness, but the two scenarios taken from the German data set do not have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. With regard to Scenario E, however, it needs to be pointed out that the non-verbal cues in the words + non-verbal condition did have a negative effect on some of the participants. The diverging ratings for Scenario F may be explained by the comment that one of the participants made after the data

collection, stating that he did not consider the non-verbal cues in that scenario ‘impolite’ because the person disagreeing looks ‘in control’. Although scenario F contains a defensive gesture, which I considered confrontational, it appears that the way gestures are displayed is more important than the type of gesture used. This may have affected the rating of both Scenarios E and F. While there is no clear indication for the truth content of this interpretation, I assume that the lack of a display of emotions and the lack of a high involvement style could have affected the ratings of these two disagreements. According to Bolinger (1989), lower pitches do show that a speaker is ‘in control’. Although participants were not exposed to the speaker’s prosody, the scenarios were chosen for being prosodically ‘neutral’. It would seem logical that, if a disagreement lacks emotional involvement on one channel, it may lack emotional involvement on other channels as well (though not necessarily). Participants may react to a lack of display of affect, regardless of the number of non-verbal cues a scenario contains. If this was the case, then it appears that the level of involvement and the degree to which emotions are displayed overrides the effect a large number of non-verbal cues may have on the perception of politeness.

### 2.2.3 Non-Verbally Marked & Prosodically Marked Scenarios

This type of scenario was expected to be rated as more ‘polite’ in the word-only condition than in the word + non-verbal condition and to be rated least ‘polite’ in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition.

Scenarios G and I produce results exactly as expected, with less ‘polite’ ratings in condition two than in condition one and even less ‘polite’ ratings in condition three. Scenario H produces expected results in the word + non-verbal + prosody condition, but not in the word + non-verbal condition, where it was rated more ‘polite’ than in the word-only condition and therefore behaves opposite to expectations. Why does Scenario H not conform to expectations? Scenario H in the Non-Verbal Questionnaire is identical with Scenario H in the Prosody Questionnaire. It was suggested that the camera switching to the addressee straight after the accusatory gesture may have led to participants not having seen the gesture properly. The fact that Scenario H produced expected results otherwise in the Non-Verbal Questionnaire, and that the large number of non-verbal cues appears to have a negative effect on both other scenarios under this category, seem to support the assumption that participants may have been unaware of the gesture. In both questionnaires, Scenario H is the only scenario

in its respective category that does not give expected results. This appears to imply that the scenario was not suitable for rating due to its technical constraints.

Overall, the results of the non-verbally marked and prosodically marked scenario category point to the conclusion that a large number of non-verbal cues has a negative effect on the perception of politeness and that disagreements that are prosodically marked for heightened intensity and/or speech rate also have a negative effect on the perception of politeness.

### **3 Implications of the Prosody and the Non-Verbal Questionnaire**

The neutral scenarios were included in order to obtain a control scenario sample. All of the neutral scenarios show that disagreements that were not prosodically marked and did not contain a large number of non-verbal cues were rated the same or more 'polite' in the second and third condition, regardless of whether participants were exposed to the prosodic or the non-verbal cues first. It can, therefore, be concluded that a lack of prosodic and non-verbal marking has either no effect on the perception of politeness on a disagreement or increases the degree of politeness that was associated with the disagreement in question.

The non-verbal condition was included in order to test the impact of a large number of non-verbal cues on the politeness rating of a disagreement. The number of non-verbal cues did contribute to the perception of politeness. The absence of a large number of non-verbal cues had a substantial positive effect on two out of five disagreements and had a slightly positive effect on the remaining three disagreements. The presence of a large number of non-verbal cues had a negative effect on three out of six disagreements, but did not have a negative effect on one of the disagreements, and it had a positive effect on the remaining two disagreements, if participants were exposed to non-verbal features before being exposed to prosodic features. However, if participants were exposed to prosodic features before being exposed to non-verbal cues, the presence of a large number of non-verbal cues did not have a marked effect on any of the disagreements. It had no effect on one of the three disagreements and it had a slightly positive effect on the remaining two disagreements. While the absence of a large number of non-verbal cues appears to have a positive effect on how polite a disagreement is perceived to be, the presence of a large number of non-verbal cues only appears to have a negative effect on disagreements that exhibit what could be labelled 'high involvement' and the display of emotions and affect. The presence of a large number of non-verbal cues does

not seem to have a notable effect under other circumstances. It also appears that prosodic information overrides non-verbal information.

The prosody condition was included in order to test the effect of loudness and tempo on the perception of politeness of a disagreement. The presence or absence of prosodic cues did contribute to the perception of politeness. The absence of prosodic cues positively affects four out of five disagreements and probably does not have much effect on the remaining disagreement (this disagreement was not rated for prosodic cues by one of the participants). The presence of increased intensity levels had a negative effect on two out of two disagreements. The presence of increased tempo levels had a slightly negative effect on the rating for politeness for three out of three scenarios. The presence of both increased intensity and increased speech rate had a negative effect on the perception of politeness for two out of four scenarios. The remaining two scenarios, however, consist of the exact same disagreement, once presented in the Prosody Questionnaire and once presented in the Non-Verbal Questionnaire. Overall it may be tentatively concluded that the absence of prosodic marking associated with disagreements has a positive effect on the perception of politeness, while the presence of both increased intensity and increased speech rate have a negative effect on the perception of politeness. It was suggested in connection with the non-verbal questionnaire findings that the level of involvement and the degree to which emotions and affect are displayed influence the degree of perceived politeness. Possibly this applies to the prosody questionnaire as well. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (2002), high involvement is a central feature of argumentative speech and is in part displayed through prosody. Kakava's (1994) findings on Greeks are in line with Blum-Kulka et al.'s (2002) findings that high involvement style is conveyed in part through expressive prosody and is a typical feature of the direct disagreeing style of the Greeks. The degree to which heightened intensity and fast speech affect the ratings of politeness may be linked to the degree of involvement and display of emotions. Because emotions such as anger are linked to an increase in intensity (Pereira & Watson, 1998), it can be expected that heightened intensity and emotionality go hand in hand to a certain degree. Hence, the negative effect of high intensity and high speech rate on the perception of politeness could in part be due to a stronger level of involvement and a greater display of affect and emotion.

I would like to point out once more that the number of participants who rated the questionnaire is very small and the findings are to be seen as an indication of certain tendencies rather than as incontrovertible facts. One also needs to bear in mind that different

people have different perceptions on and attitudes toward politeness, which, no doubt, have an effect on the way they rated the disagreement scenarios. One participant commented that the way he perceives a disagreement depends mainly on the verbal softening and strengthening devices it contains; another participant commented that his perception of politeness depends mostly on how personal or impersonal a disagreement is; and several participants commented that they feel more prone to evaluate a disagreement more positively if they personally agree with the content of its message. According to Moser and Kalton (1971) people have differing levels of involvement on certain issues and while some participants may feel strongly about issues of politeness, others may be rather indifferent to this issue. This is a further factor that may explain the differences in ratings exhibited by the participants in some of the scenarios.

## Chapter 7

### Conclusion

#### 1 Research Questions Revisited

This research project set out to research, discuss and answer three questions. Let us now revisit these questions.

1) Which lexical, prosodic and non-verbal strategies are used in disagreements?

The most frequently used lexical strategies in disagreements include a number of pre-disagreement strategies, of which the most notable ones are implicit and explicit disagreement introduction, as well as forewarns and initial agreement. Among the core disagreement strategies, the most frequently used include implicit and explicit disagreements, and the only frequently used post-disagreement strategy is post-disagreement justification. The section ‘verbal modification devices’ includes two separate categories, softening devices and strengthening devices. The four most frequently used softening devices in disagreements are impersonalization, hesitation marker/pause, hedge, and gambit (hearer-supportive devices, which are low in semantic content). The four most frequently used strengthening devices include personalization, booster, repetition, and minimal verbosity.

Five different features were analysed in the prosody chapter and a significant correlation with disagreements was observed for heightened pitch mean, narrowed pitch range, heightened intensity mean, narrowed intensity range, and heightened speech rate.

The question of which non-verbal strategies are used in disagreements is not easy to answer. Some non-verbal cues appear to be used in disagreements only (although not necessarily with great frequency), including ‘defensive gesture’, ‘pointing accusingly at interlocutor’, ‘frown’, and ‘angry expression’. Other, more frequently used cues, on the other hand, appear just as frequently in neutral speech and are therefore hardly indicative of disagreement. The main finding seems to lie in the number and range of subcategories of non-verbal cues used in disagreements as compared to the number and range of non-verbal cues used in neutral speech. Hence, while only few non-verbal cues appear to correlate with disagreements, their use with regard to frequency and range of non-verbal cues is what seems to mark a speech act as a disagreement.

2) In what way does the use of those strategies differ in German and New Zealand disagreeing behaviour?

The most significant differences in the verbal section are the New Zealanders' significantly greater use of pre-disagreement strategies, their preference for implicit strategies, as well as their greater use of softening devices, combined with their less frequent use of strengthening devices.

Prosodically, the most pronounced differences lie in the Germans' more frequent use of heightened intensity levels and heightened speech rate.

Non-verbally, the difference between the two groups lies less in the preference for a certain strategy, but more in the fact that the Germans use significantly more non-verbal cues and a wider range of strategies in disagreements than in neutral speech, whereas the New Zealanders' non-verbal disagreeing behaviour differs little from the non-verbal behaviour they exhibit in neutral speech.

3) How much do prosodic and non-verbal devices contribute to the perception of politeness?

While the degree to which prosodic and non-verbal cues contribute to the perception of politeness of a disagreement is hard to determine, there is a clear indication that they do influence how polite a disagreement is perceived to be.

Prosodically, it appears that loudness and fast speech have a negative impact on the perception of politeness, while the lack of prosodic marking has a slightly positive impact.

Non-verbally, it appears that a large number of non-verbal cues only has a negative effect on the perception of politeness under certain circumstances, probably relating to the degree of involvement and emotionality shown by the speaker. However, the absence of a large number of non-verbal cues seems to have a slightly positive effect on the perception of politeness.

Overall, prosodic and non-verbal cues do influence the perception of politeness and are important tools, not only in displaying politeness – or a lack thereof – but also in interpreting the degree of politeness.

Let us now turn to the implications the differences reviewed above entail.

## 2 Verbal Disagreeing Behaviour

Three main preferences appear to dominate the New Zealanders' and the Germans' speech behaviour, which can be illustrated in the following diagram.

German	New Zealand
Preference for Disagreement	Preference for Agreement
Preference for Explicitness	Preference for Implicitness
Preference for Strengthening	Preference for Softening

These preferences and dispreferences are expressed in multiple ways.

### 2.1 Preference for Disagreement vs. Agreement

From the German data set, it becomes clear that the speakers in this sample do not show a dispreference for disagreement. The comparably infrequent use of disagreement prefaces, combined with a significantly greater use of core disagreement strategies and of explicit disagreements, as well as a significantly greater use of strengthening devices is an indicator that disagreement is quite acceptable in the German culture.

The preference for agreement, as opposed to disagreement, by the New Zealanders is apparent in three ways. Firstly, the New Zealanders produce a significantly greater number of strategies in total, indicating that they prefer to 'beat around the bush', which is a distinct signal for dispreference (Gardner, 2000; Holtgraves, 1992). Secondly, the dispreference for disagreement in the New Zealand data is supported by the fact that nearly half of all strategies the New Zealanders produced are support strategies, while only 51.9% of all strategies are actual core disagreements, which also indicates the dispreferred status of disagreements, since preparatory strategies can serve as mitigation devices (Lüger, 1999; Pomerantz, 1984). Thirdly, the New Zealanders produce a significantly greater number of softening devices than the Germans. In particular, they produce a significantly greater number of hesitation markers and pauses, both of which are also a sign that there is a preference for agreement in the New Zealand culture (Gardner, 2000; Holtgraves, 1992).

## **2.2 Preference for Explicitness vs. Implicitness**

The preference for explicitness in the German disagreeing behaviour is evident in the fact that they use significantly fewer strategies overall, significantly fewer support strategies, but a significantly greater number of core strategies than the New Zealanders. In other words, the German's disagreements are more concise and more 'to the point'. The German's liking for explicitness (cf. House, 2003) is also apparent in the finding that New Zealanders use a greater number of implicit disagreement introductions, while the Germans use a slightly greater number of explicit disagreement introductions than the New Zealanders. The German interactants also produced a significantly greater number of explicit disagreements than the New Zealanders, and even their lexico-grammatically (i.e. structurally) implicit strategies, disguised as hints, turned out to be sarcastic or challenging for the most part, which means that the implicit strategy 'hint' is, mostly, what Steiner (2005) would call 'explicitated' into an explicit strategy.

The New Zealanders' preference for implicitness can also be found in a multitude of verbal actions. The overall greater production of disagreement strategies shows a lack of conciseness and implies a dislike for directness. The fact that the New Zealanders produce a significantly greater number of pre-disagreement strategies than the Germans underlines this inference. Due to their preparatory nature, pre-disagreements serve as a warning device for an upcoming disagreement and the use of preparatory strategies may help to avoid producing the core-disagreement act, because the opposition may back down before a disagreement becomes necessary (Koshik, 2003). The New Zealanders' presumed preference for implicitness is also visible in the fact that New Zealanders produce significantly fewer explicit disagreements than the Germans and they also produce fewer explicit disagreements than implicit disagreements, while the reverse is the case in the German data. A further indicator for the New Zealanders' preference for implicitness lies in the finding that the majority of the hints found in the New Zealand data were genuinely indirect strategies, while most of the hints in the German data were of a sarcastic or challenging nature.

Although it appears clear from these findings that Germans show a tendency to disagree in a more explicit manner, while the New Zealanders prefer a more implicit approach to disagreements, there are two findings that appear to counteract these implications: 1) The New Zealanders produce a greater number of explicit than implicit disagreement introduction strategies; 2) The New Zealanders produce a greater number of performative strategies than

the Germans. How do these findings fit into the general picture of preferences for implicitness and explicitness?

The New Zealanders' greater use of explicit than implicit disagreement introductions may be explained by the fact that pre-disagreements seem to serve – in part – as a device to avoid upcoming disagreement (Koshik, 2003), as well as serving as a device to warn the interlocutor of an upcoming disagreement. It appears that the more explicit the warning is, the less need there is for the actual disagreement to be explicit. Hence, the New Zealanders possibly use a greater number of explicit disagreement introduction strategies in order to avoid having to be explicit in their disagreements.

The fact that New Zealanders produced a greater number of performative strategies than the Germans can be explained in terms of three different factors that could have influenced this choice. Firstly, the New Zealanders may have regarded the situational setting as less formal and consequently they may have used a more casual style of interacting than the Germans, which would have allowed for a greater degree of directness. Secondly, the New Zealanders use significantly more mitigation devices than the Germans, and mitigation allows for the use of more direct strategies without making a disagreement appear more direct (Kwon, 2004). Thirdly, performatives are mostly ritualized forms of disagreement and due to their ritualized nature, a greater degree of explicitness appears to be permissible (Sornig, 1977). Hence, the New Zealanders' greater use of performatives may be explained by surrounding factors of speech behaviour and a New Zealand speech style, that make the use of performatives permissible without making New Zealanders appear very direct and explicit.

### **2.3 Preference for Strengthening vs. Softening**

The preferences for softening over strengthening strategies and vice versa also manifests itself in several different aspects of speech behaviour. The following discussion refers to internal modification devices, except where specified otherwise.

The Germans' preference for strengthening devices over softening devices is not only apparent in the fact that they produce a significantly greater number of them than the New Zealanders, but also in the fact that the Germans produce significantly fewer pre-disagreement (i.e. external modification) strategies than the New Zealanders, which can also serve as softening devices.

Likewise, the New Zealanders' preference for softening strategies is not only apparent in the significantly greater use of softening devices, but also in their significantly greater use of preparatory (external mitigation) strategies, which have the same effect.

However, if the preference for softening strategies in the New Zealand data is so overwhelming, why then is it that the Germans produce a greater number of disarmers than the New Zealanders? Why are the New Zealanders producing a greater number of alerters, repetition and swear words, if they dislike strengthening devices in disagreements?

It appears that the Germans only use a greater number of disarmers because they produce disarming moves by use of lexical items, whereas the New Zealanders appear to use more circumscriptory disarming moves, consisting of phrases or entire sentences rather than of lexical items. While lexical disarmers are internal modification devices, phrasal disarmers are external modification devices. What is more, the New Zealanders seem to use disarmers mostly in connection with implicit disagreements, hence they are used as softening devices. The Germans, on the other hand, appear to use disarmers mostly to legitimize strong subsequent disagreements. Hence, while, on the surface, it appears that the Germans produce more instances of the softening strategy 'disarmer', on closer inspection, it seems that the same softening strategy is expressed in a different format by the two groups (i.e. lexical device vs. external modification device) and/or for different motives (i.e. stage-setting for strong subsequent disagreements vs. softening device).

Future research would be necessary that takes into account that mitigation might be achieved through the use of internal modification devices in one culture, but through the use of external modification devices in another culture, rather than concentrating on lexical modification devices alone. It would also be necessary to pay attention to the motives for the use of a certain strategy. While, on the surface, mitigation devices may seem comparable, they may not be if one takes into consideration the potential motives on which the use of strategies is based.

The New Zealanders' greater use of the strengthening devices 'alerter', 'repetition', and 'swear word' may underlie a similar principle. The use of alerters appears to go hand in hand with the New Zealanders' greater use of forewarns and further preparatory (external) strategies. Repetition can be an implicit way of strengthening a disagreement (Delattre, 1970; Perrin et al., 2003) and therefore fits in with the New Zealanders' general preference for

implicitness. The more frequent use of swear words could be tied to judging the context as informal and therefore applying an informal, casual style of interaction.

Again, it seems that the motives for using similar strategies may be rather different. Further research addressing this issue would be both desirable and necessary in order to arrive at a more informed and conclusive insight into modification behaviour.

### **3 Prosodic Disagreeing Behaviour**

The prosodic disagreeing behaviour of Germans and New Zealanders is dominated by two major characteristics.

German

New Zealand

Preference for Clarity

Preference for Politeness

Preference for Strengthening

Preference for Softening

#### **3.1 Preference for Clarity vs. Politeness**

The Germans' preference for clarity becomes apparent when looking at the features that were found to correlate with disagreements. While there are hardly any differences between the two groups with regard to pitch range and intensity range, the Germans show a slightly more pronounced preference for higher pitched disagreements and they show a pronounced preference for loud and fast disagreements when compared to the New Zealanders' disagreeing behaviour. The trend towards clarity is also noticeable in the Germans' preference for audibly discernable differences. While there are no significant differences in the use of audibly discernable pitch mean, the Germans were found to produce a significantly greater number of audibly loud disagreements as well as a significantly greater number of audibly fast disagreements than the New Zealanders. A further finding supporting the assumption that Germans seek clarity is the discovery that the Germans tend to use a greater number of prosodic markers than necessary and also a greater number of prosodic markers than the New Zealanders. While 2 out of the 5 prosodic markers investigated appear to be sufficient to mark a disagreement as a disagreement, the Germans predominantly use 4-5 markers. All of these findings seem to point to the conclusion that the Germans try to strive to clearly communicate their intent to disagree and to do so directly and in an unmistakable manner.

The New Zealanders, on the other hand, show a preference for politeness over clarity. The fact that they refrain from using fast and loud disagreements as frequently as the Germans (both characteristics have been found to be perceived as impolite in connection with disagreements – see Chapter 6) can be put down to a desire to be polite. It appears to be for the same reason that New Zealanders also choose to disagree at audibly discernable differences significantly less frequently than the Germans, since a lack of audible differences can be regarded as a form of politeness (Kaufmann, 2002). The drive for polite behaviour is also visible in the fact that the New Zealanders do not use as great a number of prosodic markers as the Germans. While the latter prefer to use 4-5 out of the 5 prosodic markers investigated, the former predominantly use 3-4 prosodic markers. Not to signpost disagreements as clearly and audibly as the Germans may serve as an indicator of the New Zealanders' orientation to polite disagreeing behaviour.

### **3.2 Preference for Strengthening vs. Softening**

The same factors that cue the Germans' orientation to clarity are also the factors that show their preference for strengthening their disagreements. Fast and loud speech can serve as impoliteness markers and as prosodic strengthening devices (as Chapter 6 has shown) and therefore reinforce a disagreement. The fact that the Germans use these prosodic features also at audibly discernable levels more frequently further reinforces their disagreements. In particular, audibly loud speech can serve as a form of prosodic strengthening. The Germans using more prosodic markers than would appear to be necessary seems to be a further contributing factor to the severity and strength of a disagreement.

The New Zealanders' preference for softening disagreements is, again, apparent through the same features that point to their preference for politeness over clarity. The less frequent use of fast and loud speech in disagreements as well as the less frequent use of audibly perceivable differences shows their liking for neutrality and for taking the force out of what seems to be a dispreferred speech act in the New Zealand culture. In particular, the slightly more frequent use of mid key pitch, which serves as a form of mitigation (Kaufmann, 2002), shows an orientation to softening disagreements, since mid key pitch is neutral, and thereby avoids unnecessary challenges. In contrast, the use of high pitch, which is used more frequently by the Germans, is a strengthening device (Culpeper et al., 2003) and is aggravating (Kaufmann, 2002). The trend not to use all 5 prosodic markings investigated as frequently as the Germans

also shows an avoidance of additional strengthening. Overall, the New Zealanders appear to have a preference for mitigating disagreement.

#### **4 Non-Verbal Disagreeing Behaviour**

The non-verbal behaviour of the Germans and the New Zealanders can be put down to two main tendencies that appear to underlie their non-verbal behaviour.

German	New Zealand
Preference for Changed N-V Behaviour	Preference for Unchanged N-V Behaviour
Preference for Strengthening	Preference for Softening

##### **4.1 Preference for Changed vs. Unchanged Non-Verbal Behaviour**

The Germans show a distinct trend of changing their disagreeing behaviour relative to their behaviour in neutral speech. This tendency is reflected in a number of behavioural aspects, the most prominent one being the fact that the Germans produce a significantly greater number of non-verbal cues in disagreements than in neutral speech. However, there are also major differences in the distribution of frequency with which gestures, body movement, facial expression/gaze, and head movement are used. While these four categories of non-verbal cues are used at a similar percentage by the Germans and the New Zealanders in disagreements, the Germans use these categories at different frequencies in neutral speech, i.e. they change their behaviour in disagreements. A further feature characteristic for the Germans' presumable preference to alter their non-verbal behaviour in disagreements is the far greater range of subcategories they use in disagreements. While the New Zealanders seem to use a similar range of the subcategories found in the categories gesture, body movement, facial expression/gaze, and head movement, in neutral speech, the Germans' range is greatly restricted.

The New Zealanders' preference for unchanged behaviour is apparent in the fact that they show very similar non-verbal behaviour in all respects, i.e. their non-verbal disagreeing style differs little from their non-verbal neutral speech. They use a similar number of non-verbal cues in disagreements as they do in neutral speech, and the frequency with which they use gestures, body movement, facial expression/gaze, and head movement is also largely the same in disagreements and neutral speech. The same applies to the range of subcategories they use;

while the Germans' range of subcategories is rather small in neutral speech, but greatly expanded in disagreements, the New Zealanders' range of subcategories is rather similar in disagreements and neutral speech. While the New Zealanders do use a slightly more limited range of subcategories in neutral speech, the difference is not as prominent as in the Germans' neutral speech behaviour.

#### **4.2 Preference for Strengthening vs. Softening**

Similar to the Germans' and the New Zealanders' verbal and prosodic speech behaviour, they show a preference for strengthening and softening strategies respectively on a non-verbal level as well.

The Germans' primary form of non-verbal strengthening strategy is their altered non-verbal behaviour in disagreements, since differences in the use of non-verbal cues can lead to irritation (Gumperz & Roberts, 1987) and can, therefore, reinforce a disagreement. However, their orientation to strengthening disagreements can also be found in the types of non-verbal cues they use. The Germans tend to use a greater number of confrontational and challenging types of gestures and they also employ facial expressions and gaze that can have a strengthening function, such as directly looking at an interlocutor (which they do significantly more frequently than the New Zealanders) or frowning and raising their eyebrows more frequently. All of these types of non-verbal cues have been associated with a strengthening function (Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Exline, 1972; Streeck & Knapp, 1992). In addition, the Germans also produce considerably more non-verbal pre-disagreement and post-disagreement strategies that serve as strengthening devices, such as discrediting a speaker, rolling one's eyes or cynical and sarcastic smiles.

The New Zealanders' preference for softening disagreements is primarily visible in the fact that their non-verbal disagreeing behaviour remains largely unaltered from their non-verbal behaviour in neutral speech. Considering that a difference in use of non-verbal cues can lead to irritation (Gumperz & Roberts, 1987), it can be assumed that unchanged behaviour prevents irritation and thus shows the New Zealanders' orientation to softening disagreements and to agreement over disagreement. This orientation can also be observed in the fact that they refrain from non-verbal pre-disagreements and post-disagreements that strengthen a disagreement, such as discrediting strategies, as well as in their lack of use of challenging strategies. In addition, the New Zealanders produce more strategies that may be regarded as

softening devices, such as ‘averting one’s gaze’ or smiling more, both of which can be regarded as mitigation devices (Swerts & Kraemer, 2005; Mehrabian, 1972; Cook, 1977; Schiffrin, 1984).

## **5 German vs. New Zealand Disagreeing Behaviour in a Nutshell**

Throughout, the Germans and the New Zealanders show distinct preferences for the following speech behaviour.

German	New Zealand
Preference for Disagreement	Preference for Agreement
Preference for Explicitness	Preference for Implicitness
Preference for Strengthening	Preference for Softening
Preference for Clarity/Honesty	Preference for Politeness
Preference for Changed N-V Behaviour	Preference for Unchanged N-V Behaviour

The main difference between the two cultural groups is the preference for disagreement and the high regard for clarity and honesty in the German culture, as exhibited by the speakers in the present sample, and the preference for agreement and the high regard for politeness in the New Zealand culture. The Germans’ orientation to disagreement and clarity/honesty automatically entails the orientation to explicitness, strengthening and changed non-verbal behaviour, for if disagreement is accepted, or even desired, in a culture, then – naturally – a more direct, explicit and reinforced way of ‘doing disagreement’ is accepted and allowed. Likewise, the New Zealanders’ orientation to agreement and politeness entails that a less explicit approach to disagreeing is required and that more concern for another person’s face is expected and necessary by way of mitigating disagreement and refraining from using altered non-verbal behaviour that may lead to irritation.

## **6 Implications of the Questionnaires**

The questionnaires were conducted in order to investigate the effect of heightened intensity and heightened speech rate on the participants’ perception of politeness of a disagreement and in order to test the effect of a large number of non-verbal cues and the effect of certain types of non-verbal cues on the participants’ perception of politeness of a disagreement.

The analysis of the prosody questionnaire brought to light that it seems likely that loud and fast speech in disagreements have a negative effect on the perceived level of politeness. This effect was assumed to lie, partly, in the level of involvement and the display of emotions and affect. This finding probably implies that the Germans, who display loud and fast speech in disagreements more frequently than the New Zealanders, are perceived as less polite, not only due to their verbal behaviour, but also based on their prosodic speech behaviour. However, it is necessary to point to the fact once more that the questionnaire findings reflect a New Zealand perception of politeness only. It would be desirable to conduct a study on German perceptions of politeness in the future.

The non-verbal questionnaire showed that the absence of a large number of non-verbal cues has a slightly positive effect on the perceived level of politeness. The presence of a large number of non-verbal cues, however, only has a negative effect on the perceived level of politeness under specific circumstances. It appears that the level of involvement and display of affect and emotion that is expressed through non-verbal behaviour has a negative effect, while the types and number of non-verbal cues seems irrelevant if the speaker of a disagreement seems 'in control' and unemotional. This implies that, whether the larger number of non-verbal cues in the German data has a negative effect on how polite the disagreements are perceived to be, depends on whether the Germans also display involvement and emotion more frequently non-verbally.

Overall, the questionnaires lead to the conclusion that the greater frequency of loud and fast speech in disagreements makes Germans appear less polite to New Zealanders, but that the larger amount of non-verbal cues does not have the same effect on the perceived level of politeness, unless they also involve emotional display.

What do these findings show us? Most of all, the findings clearly demonstrate that participants do indeed orient to prosodic cues, and to non-verbal cues under specific circumstances, although perhaps to a lesser degree. Both the absence and the presence of the prosodic and non-verbal features, which this study has found to be associated with disagreements, have an effect on how polite a disagreement is perceived as being. The importance of prosodic and non-verbal cues should not be underestimated in politeness research and future studies would be well advised to consider prosodic and non-verbal cues in their analyses if they do not wish to neglect these vital channels of communication. While this study could not clarify the role that non-verbal cues play in the perception of politeness in

disagreements to a satisfying degree, it was able to uncover a clear tendency for heightened loudness and heightened tempo to have a negative effect on the perception of politeness in disagreements by New Zealanders. This finding leads to the conclusion that it is likely for Germans, who exhibit these features in their disagreements more frequently than the New Zealanders did, to be perceived by New Zealanders as less polite than New Zealanders. These prosodic features add to the already less polite impression that the verbal disagreeing act imprints on the Germans and further fuels the stereotype that Germans are not very polite.

## **7 Does this Mean Germans are Rude?**

It is no secret that Germans have a reputation for being impolite. However, is German impoliteness just a stereotype and prejudice or –as House (2005) provocatively rightly asks – are politeness and Germany mutually exclusive terms? House (2005) provides the answer to her own question: Yes, there is such a thing as politeness in Germany, but being polite in German is different from being polite in English. According to Goddard (2000: 81; quoted in Peeters, 2004), ‘in some parts of the world [...] it is quite normal for conversations to be loud, full of animation, and bristling with disagreement, while, in others, people prefer to avoid contention, to speak in even, well-considered phrases, and to guard against exposure of their inner selves’. In other words: what is appropriate and considered normal in German society might not be so in New Zealand society, because different cultures define harmony differently and terms such as ‘rude’ or ‘polite’ therefore have to be used carefully (Meier, 1999). One such example where the term ‘polite’ has to be used with care is provided by Zeidenitz and Barkow (2005: 10-11), in their humorous, but insightful reflection on German national characteristics called the ‘Xenophobe’s Guide to the Germans’, in which they explore the Germans’ approach to honesty and politeness in the following way: ‘[The Germans] like to be respected for their devotion to truth and honesty. They are surprised that this is sometimes taken as tactlessness, or worse. Surely the truth is more important than pretending to like your ghastly shirt [...]? Foreigners just cannot seem to appreciate this’. While ‘honest’ almost equals ‘polite’ in a German context, in New Zealand society politeness and honesty do not necessarily go hand in hand. I believe it is reasonably safe to claim that most New Zealanders would show little appreciation for this form of honesty and would, arguably, be a little less devoted to truth and honesty, when someone else’s face-needs are under threat. As this example demonstrates, politeness is not necessarily valued to the same degree in two different cultures and other values, such as clarity and honesty, might override the appreciation for politeness.

Hence, this study cannot be taken to mean that Germans are rude. What this study does suggest, however, is that there are cultural differences that are not only based on words, but on actions and prosodic cues, and these differences can lead to misjudgement and misinterpretation when seen and heard through the eyes and ears of a member of a different cultural group. The relation of German and New Zealand English disagreeing behaviour can be summed up by what Sifianou (1992: 97) states about Greeks: '[they] are no less polite than the English, but polite in a different way due to a different conception of what polite verbal and non-verbal behaviour is, a conception which largely derives from different cultural norms and values'. The Germans' more confrontational style is appropriate under the circumstances - and in that particular genre - in a German context and the New Zealanders' less confrontational style is expected and appropriate in their own cultural context. This study also suggests that some cultures, like the German culture, appear to be more accepting of direct and unmitigated disagreeing behaviour, while other cultures, such as the New Zealand culture, appear to dislike disagreements and, therefore, try to signal their dispreferred status through various modification strategies. However, this study does imply that if Germans and New Zealanders disagree with one another, it is highly likely that the less straightforward New Zealanders will perceive Germans as aggressive, pushy and rude, while the more direct Germans may perceive New Zealanders as polite, but possibly as weak or uninteresting, because they do not defend their standpoint as vigorously as would be expected in German culture. These implications are suggested by findings in previous research, comparing consensus-seeking and confrontational cultures, which shows that interactions between members of indirect cultures with members of cultures that prefer an explicit style entails the above mentioned perceptions about each other's speech behaviour (Häggkvist & Fant, 2000; Fant, 1992; Günthner, 1994; Ronowicz, 1995).

In order for people to overcome cultural differences in communicative - and more specifically in argumentative - style, a greater awareness and a better understanding of each other's cultural norms is required. To this end, the present study should be seen as the beginning of a broader understanding of cultural communication differences that is not restricted to words alone, but incorporates a more inclusive view of how differently we interact. It would be desirable if future research in the area of pragmatics and speech acts incorporated an analysis of prosodic and non-verbal behaviour in their research focus. Research that disregards these aspects of communication may miss information that could be crucial to a better mutual understanding, a more informed perception of another person's actions and smoother communication with members of different cultures.

# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Coded Disagreements and Coded Modification Devices

### Express Report – Interview with Rev. Graham Capill

Horizon Pacific Television – 27-05-1996

D1		
pre dis. justification	ok I think6 that <u>some6</u> uh4 <u>some6</u> New Zealanders <u>MIGHT9</u> have a /problem\ with funding Pacific Islander themes;=	
pre dis. justification	I think6 that <u>some6</u> New Zealanders <u>might9</u> have a problem with funding (.)4 for <u>example</u> <u>CHRISTIAN</u> programmes, <u>particularly6</u> Christian programmes that <u>hold</u> <u>views7</u> ; (.)4 uhm4 (.)4 <u>negative</u> <u>views</u> about different (.)4 people <u>in</u> society, <u>LIKE</u> homosexuals for example.	
implicit dis. introduction	So	
pre dis. justification	(.)4 I mean7 I know that there is a <u>fair6</u> chunk of the broadcasting fee that goes into Christian broadcasting each year; and nobody's <u>ever6</u> asked /me\ if I wanted to pay that <u>either6</u> . =	
implicit dis.	I think6 that is something that <u>actually6</u> <u>happens</u> [°in democracy; °]	10
D2		
explicit dis. introduction	[ but	
explicit dis.	I think6 th the] the fees that's going into uh4 broadcasting uh4 of <u>CHRISTIAN</u> programmes isn't for <u>news</u> items; we don't have a <u>news</u> (.)4 programme that's dedicated to saying, [look] we've got a <u>great6</u> Evangelist coming over from the United <u>STATES</u> this week. [we would9 say we don't have any programme where that happens? You see7?	10
D3		
pre-dis.	[I	
implicit dis. introduction	WELL	
performative dis.	[I'D9 /YEAH\ I I'd9 beg to differ?	10
D4		
implicit dis.	Fay who works on the radio; (.)4 <u>regularly6</u> promotes different Christian [activities	10

D5 explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[but <b>there's] nothing</b> 7 on <u>television</u> , that's what we're <u>talking</u> about. <b>There's nothing</b> there (.)4 [that uh4 for us to] be able to say that-
explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	and <b>even /though</b> 6 10% of the <u>chu</u> population goes to the <u>/church</u> regularly? And half the population says on their census form that they're <u>/Christian</u> . 10
D6 initial agreement explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	ok (.)4 <u>but</u> (.)4 <b>surely</b> 6 it's up to <b>you2</b> to approach New Zealand on air for funding for <b>your2</b> /Christian\ programmes, so that <b>you2</b> can promote Christian themes;=
D7 forewarn performative dis.  post dis. justification	And in fact7- (.)4 we (.)4 New Zealand on air? =And I would9 disagree that the majority of New Zealanders are <u>/opposed</u> to us? =Because they've <b>obviously</b> 6 (.)4 taken <u>account</u> of (.)4 who is <u>for</u> and [who is /against\==AND THEY HAVE <u>DECIDED</u> to grant us some6 public <u>fun</u> [ding] 10
D8 implicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[oh (they will be)] 10
D9 implicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[well — <b>they [ARE7, THEY ARE</b> opposed] 10
D10 implicit dis.	[and <b>you2</b> are the <u>MAIN6 PEOPLE</u> ] that are <b>Actually</b> 6 comp complaining about [it] 10

D11	implicit dis. introduction	[ah]
	performative dis.	no <u>no</u> <u>no</u> 7
	performative dis.	I think6 I think6 you2're <u>wrong</u> there.
	implicit dis.	I think6 that- uh4 <u>even</u> 6 on the recent debate on homosexual <u>marriages</u> ; (. )4 uh4 there was a <u>clear</u> 6 (. )4 <u>majority</u> of people that said: no we don't believe that this is <u>right</u> ?
	concession	<u>Even though</u> 6 that there were certain <u>injustices</u> – perhaps6 on property rights that were occurring for de facto relationship(. )4s ? (1.0)4
	implicit dis. introduction	/SO\;
	implicit dis.	[I <u>THINK</u> 6 there is <u>still</u> 6 a problem] 10
D12	forewarn	[ <u>well</u> 7 – uh4]
	implicit dis. introduction	<u>well</u> 7/
	explicit dis.	I don't accept that it's a sexual orientation.
	concession	I accept that uh4 that we <u>all</u> 6 have tendencies; and I would9 say <u>sin</u> – tendencies to <u>sin</u> in certain <u>ways</u> ? You2 sometimes6 have somebody who's a <u>bit</u> 6 light with the <u>fingers</u> ; uh4 (. )4 they uh4 the tendency to there ah4 to (. )4 <u>thieving</u> . You2 have somebody who has a problem with / <u>lying</u> \; And I would9 say that some of us have problems with / <u>sexuality</u> \-
	implicit dis.	And what we would9 <u>simply</u> 6 say <u>is</u> ? It's not helping those <u>people</u> by promoting that as a sexual orientation that you2 can't do anything / <u>about</u> \ -
	explicit dis.	<u>We believe</u> 6 you2 <u>can</u> ? 10
D13	implicit dis.	hm7 (...) well, I think6 it <u>is</u> .
	post dis. justification	In in so <u>far</u> as uh4 that it's not / <u>natural</u> \. And that's why I go back to <u>biology</u> . I'm <u>not</u> -uh4 <u>simply</u> 6 saying that this is because of my <u>religion</u> – <u>just</u> 6 the biology says that we're / <u>different</u> \ and and that we're made to <u>comple</u> [ment each other (. )4
D14	explicit dis.	[I DON'T I DON'T]
	explicit dis.	[I] <u>just</u> 6 have a problem with the <u>unnatural</u> thing,
	post dis. justification	because I <u>just</u> 6 think6 if if <u>sodomy</u> was talked about in the <u>Bible</u> then it's been happening for a <u>hell of</u> 6 a <u>long /time</u> \ – 'h'hh 10
D15	explicit dis. introduction	[ <u>but</u> 7]
	initial agreement	< <u>yes</u> ,
	explicit dis. introduction	<u>but</u>
	explicit dis.	it was talked about2 in a in a negative <u>way</u> ?=That we shouldn't <u>do it</u> ?> (. )4 10

D16

hint

[{I just6} /wonder\6}7- Can {you}2 tell me how many of {your}2 congregation, or how many of {you}2 that people in the party; 4

forewarn

<you see7

pre dis. justification

SOMEBODY CAME UP TO ME IN THE STREET THE OTHER DAY.=SHE SHOOK MY HAND.=HAVEN'T MET HER BEFORE.>She said: my husband and I watch your show; we love your show. Isn't it **terrible6** these religious bigots.=There's nothing that heterosexuals do in bed7- (.)4 THAT that isn't what homosexuals do in bed. You know7? (.)4 and {I just6 wonder6}- if **you2** are gonna go amongst you:r2 congregation or you:r2 your2 support, and say: how many of **you2** are committing sodomy; that's it; you're out?

hint

10

D17

performative dis.

No

implicit dis.

I think6 that (.)4 uh4 what we have said is (.)4 with regard to homosexuality is °I mean7 that's what we're talking about. ° is that we (.)4 will (.)4 outlaw the promotion of it. (.)4

pre dis. justification

**We believe67** that it's not a a healthy lifestyle? **We believe6** that it is connected with sexually transmitted deceases? And that it's not good for the next generation-

implicit dis. introduction

so

explicit dis.

we would9 outlu outlaw the promotion of it.

concession

But we wouldn't9 want to see it go back to the uh4 criminal act.

10

## Eye to Eye – Can the Maori Party Succeed?

TVOne – 29-05-2004

D1

forewarn  
performative dis.  
post dis. justification

Oh7 see7  
I disagree with that;  
C h ause uhm4; I and I have nothing7 nothing against  
[?Maori???????????????????????????????? OH7 I KNOW?????sitting  
on the ri:ght ??]

D2

explicit dis.

[{you2're not meant to disagree with that}4 Deborah5? people  
are being ??????????]  
10

D3

explicit dis. introduction  
forewarn  
implicit dis.

[but  
Merepeka5  
{wa]sn't there a time when you2 didn't agree with the Maori  
party}4? you're not looking for a list position [are you1?]

D4

implicit dis. introduction  
initial agreement

[w 'h ell  
ha I ha:ve to9 say;] twelve months7 probably6 Even6 twelve  
months ago. <as little as twelve months ago> I wouldn't even6  
hve looked (.)4 at a Maori party.

explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.

but  
there have been some6 things re:cently:.

D5

implicit dis. introduction  
performative dis.  
explicit dis.

[well (???)  
no not ]that7 not that?  
and it's not about poles2.  
10

D6

initial agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.

yea:h  
but, (0.6)4  
you know7, that was the least6 of my objections? That was  
simply6 a (0.2)4 a comment? that I happened6 to make when I  
was talking to the researcher.

D7

performative dis.  
implicit dis.

no:  
it's got nothing6 to do with my view? Of why the Maori Party  
won't work  
10

- D8  
performative dis.  
forewarn  
implicit dis. [NA:7 NA NA NA NA:]  
look3  
we've got Tareana Turea? A woman of- uhm4 [principle uh4 w  
we have we have we have (?????????) examples?] [who who  
who] has (0.2)4 who has proven by his acts; (0.3)4 that he is the  
leader (0.4)4 of Maori. and (Whata Wineatu) is probably6 one  
of a::: (0.8)4 [leading i in intellectual for the Maori society.]  
10
- D9  
explicit dis. [ {they're all6 over}7 {they're all6} ] [ {they're all6 over} sixty  
Hone.]  
10
- D10  
implicit dis. [(kind is that is that ?????? all that we end the  
a::d )][for a minute here, and can I just6]
- D11  
implicit dis. introduction [well] well  
performative dis. no.  
10
- D12  
forewarn and can I also6 just6 throw something back at you2 Hone5.=  
pre dis. justification Because; <you2 say that you2 want this to be about unity,  
explicit dis. introduction but  
implicit dis. you2're the guy that go it's great6 that the politicians got the  
bash.> [at Waitangi you2 don't think (???)]
- D13  
explicit dis. [that's not unity to /me\].  
10
- D14  
explicit dis. [yeh you2 did say] that Hone5?  
10
- D15  
performative dis. [(??) no7-  
explicit dis. I I went out there7, ho ha I went] out there? and  
actually7 Maori people were united about that?  
10
- D16  
implicit dis. [that sounds like rationalization to me]  
10

- D17  
performative dis.  
performative dis.
- [no7 no/Deb Deborah5, no na it ?]  
no no/Deborah5 you got a point?  
10
- D18  
explicit dis.
- that's a fact  
10
- D19  
objection  
performative dis.  
pre dis. justification  
implicit dis.
- [Well (I'm sorry4) I'm not here7 I'm not] he  
No.  
she's vicsys7. {she's seen as a victim}2. you2 see her as a  
victim.  
That's To me that's the kind of [(unwell) that she's brought  
upon herself.)]
- D20  
forewarn  
hint
- uhh4- look mate3.  
uhh4 <Maori are just6 like anybody  
else.=We've all6 got our differences. You7're from a different  
Iwi to me. You live in the city I live up home.> At the end of  
the day though I think6 that- (0.3)4 what the party has. The  
Maori party has. That others don't have; is a Maori interest at  
heart, (They are) things they can just6 build on7 that, build on  
the /unity\? rather than o:n-uh4 the differences then (0.2)4 they  
have the opportunity, to take Maori out of the wilderness, that  
they've been in for the last 150 years?  
10
- D21  
implicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.
- ['h'hhh wo(???????) WELL  
{IT'S KIND OF6 HARD} coming from a hater and a wrecker}4  
10
- D22  
explicit dis. introduction  
performative dis.  
explicit dis.
- [but- ha ha ha ha ha < but anyway.>]  
no  
I'd like to make that what I think6 is quite6 an important  
distinction here. because I think6, PARTIES like the green  
party right7? they they actually7 have a ground swell of people  
who uhm4 uh4 >{share {some6 {common {views< in terms of  
whether they're conservative or liberal; or so on. Whereas I  
think6 the Maori spectrum in that long6 list that you gave  
before with all6 those different factions. Uhm4 there isn't any6  
common ground? in terms of being liberal or  
conservative?=And so; the pa:rty in order to have a:ny6 kind of  
chances succeeding has to go from right from the centre.  
10

- D23  
implicit dis. [who's a hater and a wrecker4;]  
10
- D24  
implicit dis. The common ground7 Willy; is securing a place for Maori, in the future, of this country. And that is the common ground. [And it can arti ] they can articulate it.
- D25  
implicit dis. —  
[(????????we respect her7. I respect her;)]  
10
- D26  
forewarn  
implicit dis. — —  
[look37 look3 look3 ] [Willy (??)  
now now now it's simple.] as the hikoi  
proved? and you2 had a:ll6 of those people on that list. [the conservatives? the maoris? the urbans? 'h'hhh=the (?????) the whole lot7.] the whole lot of them were all6 on the hikoi. because the (kaupapa)7 was the [uniting] (kaupapa).  
10
- D27  
explicit dis. the the urbans are Maoris  
10
- D28  
implicit dis. introduction well  
forewarn (what do you) say to that Garth; [George  
hint I mean7 we can't get on;  
forewarn look3-  
implicit dis. [people hated each other.]  
10
- D29  
implicit dis. introduction [well, (???)  
implicit dis. what's about {what's this} about these factions have to (grow up);4? I mean7 they're all6 entitled to their views? and the whole6 history of Maori has been of Iwi having their different views? They've a::lways6 and a::ll6 been trying to look after the best interest of the Maori? and they uh4 and they differ in how to go about [it. And they still do,]  
10
- D30  
implicit dis. [well well I mean7 if that's the political reality, that's the only thing to say?]  
10

D31  
performative dis.

[no7  
(no????????????no????????no????????????  
????????????)] \_\_\_\_

implicit dis.

{they always6}7 {they always6} it has been said; that Maori  
(.)4 cannot get themselves [tog- cannot work in unison.] now  
what I'm saying to them. If they /believe\ that this is worth  
doing? then they will have to9 put aside, the things that have  
divided us? and say no this is work, [actually7 coming together  
on.]  
10

D32  
forewarn  
pre dis. justification

**Look3**  
wasn't it interesting when uhm4 Turea said; Tareana Turea said  
that she would9 be happy to actually7 maybe6 work with  
Nastional. and that's, what I was saying about how if there's  
any6 chance this party will succeed and I have very6 lll very6  
little hope that that would9 /happen\?

implicit dis.

Uhm4 they would9 have to9 actually6 occupy that that we're  
all6 middle ground. (1.0)4 [I don't even6] think6 they know  
what the middle groundyou know7 what things they have in  
common. e=  
10

D33  
implicit dis.

[I {I don't think6}7 {I don't think6} {I don't think6} it'll ev]  
{I don't think6}/it'll ever get that far. Fo for a start {I don't  
think6} a Maori party will ever6 capture all the Maori seats?  
[a::nd] in the meantime? Tareana Turea? I believe6's done the  
wrong thing?

D34  
initial agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.

yeah I I have.  
But  
I think6 that at the end of the day the Maori party (.)4 has to9  
identify who is going to serve the Maori interest. And work  
with them  
10

D35  
explicit dis.

[<(I think6 that's ) patronizing7.>] It is patronizing to say that  
there is a single6 thing as (about) Maori interest. (.)4 [And the  
Maori I know a::ll6 I give them w-)]

D36  
explicit dis.

[I think6 the hikoi proved that there a::re  
common] (.)4 Maori interests7 though. There are common  
Maori [interests.]  
10

- D37  
explicit dis.  
post dis. justification
- [On ce::rtain6 specific issues.  
and I'll have some6 sympathy] fo:r for the fact that uh4 o of the  
property rights issue, which you know7 is the business round  
tables? with you on that one, that they they are taking away of  
your property rights, and the constitutional 'h'hh implications  
of that?
- explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.
- but equally6  
I don't know that there is a Maori [(???) and in in fact7 maybe6  
the answer is that we a:ll6 become a little bit6 (Maori)]  
10
- D38  
implicit dis. introduction  
explicit dis.
- [(well  
I m no7] I don't no (??) {not in this life time}4?)  
10
- D39  
performative dis.  
forewarn  
hint
- no7 no no  
think about it,  
[(if) they did really well? <they coul9 that's a possibility isn't  
[it1  
10
- D40  
initial agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.
- [<(would9 be)] possible i i of course6 it's a  
possibility.=Anything's possible.>  
But  
the party needs to9 focus on what {has to9 be done}2 right now.  
And look to see- Who are the people that might9 be interested.  
or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean7 you2  
approach the setup of this party like you2 would9 with any6  
new business [sta:rting.]  
10
- D41  
forewarn  
explicit dis.
- [Will look3 quite6] frankly7,  
I must9 /say:\; that the people who have mentioned Mrs.  
Harawera; They believe she will be the kiss of death to the  
Maori [party.]  
10
- D42  
explicit dis.  
hint
- [yes7? Yes? and that is what's being said2.]  
and we need to9 have the courage7? The Maori party? when it  
gets in into [gear; it needs to9 have the ] courage? to say if that  
is gonna be the issue, and it is gonna put people off, how do we  
address [this.]

<p>D43 implicit dis. introduction forewarn explicit dis.</p>	<p>[wɪ7 wɪ wɪ wait3 we're not] sure if it's gonna put people off? 10</p>
<p>D44 qualified agreement  post dis. justification  implicit dis.</p>	<p>well it it <u>it delivers to low income families</u>7. (1.2)4 and <u>because it delivers to low income families</u> it <u>naturally</u>6 delivers to a <u>lot</u>6 of <u>Maori</u>. And because there is a <u>large</u>6 proportion I <u>understand</u>6 of Maori folk who are low <u>income</u>. And this is <u>food</u> on the table, It's <u>clothes</u> on the kids' back, it's <u>petrol</u> in the car, These are the <u>important things</u>. uh4 a:s for (.)4 wha I think6 <u>what-</u> (1.0)4 people are <u>missing</u> in this <u>/budget\</u>, is that there is nothing <u>specifically</u>6 Maori. closing the gaps are <u>still</u>6 <u>hurting</u>. 10</p>
<p>D45 explicit dis. forewarn explicit dis.</p>	<p>uh7 that's a <u>load of crap</u>8 <u>quite</u>6 frankly7. Willy I mean7, political commentators today have gone out of their <u>/way\</u>, (.)4 to note that Malc Michael Collin has <u>/deliberately</u>6]? ignored anything <u>for Maori</u>. He's talked about <u>this family that</u> family, and the other thing <u>too</u> Willy is that they <u>all</u>6 would've go <u>/along\</u> to their little sits (or wings) office and knock on the <u>door</u>; and make <u>application</u>; and <u>all</u>6 they're gonna <u>do</u> is employ (0.1)4 <u>more</u> people to turn <u>these Maori</u> [people (away)?] 10</p>
<p>D46 explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.</p>	<p>[but {<u>what do you</u>2] <u>have to</u>9 say <u>Maori for</u>}4. 10</p>
<p>D47 implicit dis. introduction implicit dis. implicit dis.  post dis. justification</p>	<p>well I think6 uhm4 I think6 <u>credit</u> where <u>credit's credit</u> is <u>due</u>. and {<u>this</u> {is {a: (0.2)4 <u>/budget\</u>, that <u>actually</u>7 <u>will</u> uplift, some6 of our <u>people</u>. &lt;And they will be <u>out</u> there in <u>large</u>6 <u>numbers</u>. and <u>what-</u> there have been <u>many</u>6 families [(in this <u>country</u>.&gt;)]</p>
<p>D48 performative dis. post dis. justification</p>	<p>yes I <u>do</u>. &lt;there been <u>many</u>6 families in this country over qu a <u>number</u> of year.rs. that have been in <u>survival</u> mode.&gt; <u>Merely</u>6 [<u>hanging on</u>.] And so if <u>this</u> budget is aimed at them it has <u>scored</u> a point with me as far as <u>I'm</u> concerned.=</p>

- D49  
initial agreement  
implicit dis. °yes° isn't it uh4 what's significant about the Budget and I agree with Hone5 on this point; That the whole6 political (rhetoric)'s changed.  
10
- D50  
performative dis.  
explicit dis. [no (???)  
you2 need to9 give credit where credit's due.]  
10
- D51  
initial agreement  
qualified agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
forewarn  
hint Ye:s  
at some stage down the track?  
But bu  
And really7 quite6 frankly7  
{what's wrong with actually7 addressing those social issues}4.  
10
- D52  
performative dis.  
explicit dis. [oh7 (rubbish8).  
{all6 he's done}7 ha ha excuse me3] mate5? Uhm4 {all6 all6 he's done} is actually7 just6 keep on patting up the welfare state?  
10
- D53  
explicit dis. —  
[Fo:ward7 Fo:ward is investing] in your People7. When you2 indress. when you2 address the social issues; you2 are {starting to {invest in your people. (Well) people contribute7 to society. They contribute to the growth of the economy. [and] then the whole6 of New /Zealand\ {grows {through {tha:t.
- D54  
qualified agreement  
not necess[arily6?]  
10
- D55  
performative dis.  
forewarn  
explicit dis. [no7 no] no no no-  
Look3-  
I think6 that both (0.4)4 both Merepeka5 and Deborah5 are right here. Merepeka5 because it's important that we invest in our people as part of our future. and the Maori party {has to9 be {seen to be {doing that, But I take- uh4 Deborah's5 point that in fact7 we've gotta break away, from that (welfare) [men]tality? so that Maori are growing themselves and [not] /simply6\? are being part of the trickle down benefit effect. [that sort of this just6 keeps us. that sort of thing keeps us dependent forever.]  
10

D56 implicit dis.	[ahh7 I don't I don't see these (budgets) are <u>doing</u> tha.t] 10
D57 implicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	[<well <u>how</u> do] they <u>do</u> that4 10
D58 explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	<(but) they (haven't) got <u>there</u> <u>right</u> 1? we just got (???? Hone) on.> 10
D59 implicit dis. explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	they've got <u>some</u> 6 of the people there? but there are a [ <u>whole</u> 6 group of] people out there who have <u>never</u> been involved. but they <u>care</u> about <u>where</u> ; they <u>care</u> about securing a future for their <u>families</u> .
D60 implicit dis. introduction initial agreement (partial) explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	well it will be <u>difficult</u> ? but the <u>size</u> of the problem; should <u>never</u> 6 deter you; from having a <u>go</u> . 10
D61 explicit dis.	°we'll7 <u>we'll</u> <u>we'll</u> ° [try to <u>prevent</u> that.] 10
D62 initial agreement hint	I think6 she's uh4 got <u>tremendous</u> 6 Mana at the <u>moment</u> ? I think6 the political system now that she's left the <u>hort</u> of /power\? are gonna <u>grind</u> her down <u>just</u> 6 and she's gonna be <u>ignored</u> 2 <u>just</u> 6 like Matt Rata

## The Ralston Group – Sir Robert Muldoon

TVThree – 13-04-1994

- D1  
implicit dis. [ha ha ha ha it's /relevant\ though6?]  
10
- D2  
implicit dis. introduction [awhhh7-] —  
initial agreement Yeah: they didn't7. They didn't have the guts t  
to bring it up before, ———  
explicit dis. cause it wasn't relevant7 and it and it isn't relevant today  
10
- D3  
implicit dis. introduction =well;  
initial agreement part two is still to come.  
explicit dis. introduction but  
forewarn you see7  
pre dis. justification <the interesting thing- the point that you made> that this hasn't  
come up befo:re.  
explicit dis. introduction [But]  
explicit dis. {we all6 knew about these things, {we've all6 known this for  
twenty years? {{We all6 knew}7 that Muldoon drank; {we  
all6 knew} that he womanized, [ we we {we all6} {{we ALL6  
KNEW} {WE ALL6 KNEW} ]that he was power hungry.  
concession =But n this never6 appeared in the me:dia  
10
- D4  
implicit dis. — — —  
[WE WE WE7 the journalists and politicians (for Example)4]  
10
- D5  
implicit dis. introduction well,  
performative dis. you2're not quite6 right actually7 Brian,  
explicit dis. I l lot6 of this w was in fact7 revealed in 1978 in a book written  
by Spiro Zavos called the 'real Muldoon'.  
post dis. justification I know that cause I helped him research the damn8 thing.
- D6  
forewarn say there w w when he was a womanizer. (1.0)4  
implicit dis. I don't know that? (1.0)4 that w strikes [me that]
- D7  
implicit dis. [I have NOT] got7; I have not got [the \_\_\_\_\_  
po]laroids7. [I would like the Polaroid but I have not got]  
10

<p>D8 initial agreement explicit dis. introduction forewarn implicit dis.</p>	<p>[yeah7 ok but] I &lt;(???)&gt; tell you what I <u>do</u> /know7\ I <u>do know</u> that he was <u>actually</u>6 devoted to his to his to his <u>family</u> and h his <u>wi</u>:fe, a and was <u>NO</u> doubt about that?</p>
<p>D9 explicit dis.  concession explicit dis. introduction post dis. justification</p>	<p>the other thing is when people say that he was a- <u>drunkard</u>? That's <u>rubbish</u>8, he:- uh4 (.)4 [he <u>DRANK</u>, but <u>look</u>3 <u>so did</u> ] <u>so did</u> [<u>mo:st</u> uh4 yah4]</p>
<p>D10 implicit dis. introduction implicit dis.</p>	<p>=ah7, well actually7 drink a <u>LOT</u>6 <u>less</u> today than they did (.)4 did <u>then</u>. 10</p>
<p>D11 forewarn pre dis. justification   implicit dis.</p>	<p><u>SEE BRIAN</u>3 I MEAN7 I I knew the family at the <u>ti:me</u> <u>too</u>. I I I went to one of his sons' <u>weddings</u>? And uh4 w <u>his son</u>'s <u>wedding</u>. <u>Gavin</u>'s wedding. And uh4 I mean7- from <u>MY</u> experience; from what the <u>few</u>6 times I saw Muldoon with his family. =&lt;He was a ma:n of his times; a <u>stau:nch</u>6 authoritarian within the family&gt;; with a <u>little</u>6 <u>wife</u> and the kids- and <u>but</u>, you know7 he <u>did</u> there is <u>no</u> question he loved them very8 <u>deeply</u>. 10</p>
<p>D12 explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.</p>	<p>But in hi in his day {<u>people had jobs</u>7? } {<u>People had state homes</u>? [They could9 go to]</p>

D13		
initial agreement		[uhm4: yeah7]
impl dis intro		well
hint		I <u>still</u> 6 think6 that he: (.)4 uhm4 (.)4 he <u>still</u> 6 appealed to a certain sector of society.
pre dis. justification		I mean7; (.)4 he uh4 i it was <u>mainly</u> 6 uhm4 { <u>ma:le</u> { <u>whi:te</u> { <u>lo:wer</u> uh4 {middle class. A:nd there are a <u>lot</u> 6 of people ‘hh [Marsden point didn’t come out haha <u>Ray</u> HEY: there’s a classic bit of] bit of male bonding there [and ] macho bonding. I mean7 I <u>bet</u> 6 they <u>really</u> 6 appealed to each other, but that <u>a:lso</u> was uh4 an exercise of in (.)4 political expediency from /Muldoon\. That was in a time when uhm4 Maori activists were going- <u>A:ctivists</u> were going off to Cuba and uhm4 (.)4 you know7 he was a bit6 worried about the them the gang’s being coopted.
implicit dis.		So you know7 he wasn’t <u>just</u> 6 b j the greatness of his <u>HEART</u> . That that whole thing. there was a there was a relationship there that he cultivated for for to keep them away °from him.° 10
D14		
forewarn		[ <u>hey</u> 3
implicit dis.		<u>tell that to Ray Harris</u> 4
forewarn		sorry3
explicit dis. introduction		but
forewarn		uh4 <u>hang on</u> 3
implicit dis.		Ray <u>Harris</u> ’ { <u>black</u> power] 10
D15		
explicit dis.		[ <u>YOU2’D9 LOOSE YOUR JO:B</u> ] if you stood up to him. 10
D16		
implicit dis. introduction		well,
implicit dis.		<u>we:</u> (.)4 that DIDN’T MATTER with with Marlene <u>Waring</u> ?
post dis. justification		You know7 we were <u>quite</u> 6 happy to publish stories about Marlene Waring being a a <u>lesbian</u> or about-uh4 <u>Keith</u> what’s-his-name b being drunk walking up and down uh4 <u>Cuba street</u> .
D17		
initial agreement		Ok, <u>true</u> . <u>Dreadful</u> 6 period for democracy.
explicit dis. introduction		But
pre dis. justification		h <u>still</u> 6 in Warwick in those days; { <u>we had</u> 7 single digit inflation; { <u>we had</u> <u>hi</u> uh4 you know7 <u>HI:GH</u> employment levels- {a / <u>minimum</u> \} of people people uh4 (.)4 people had <u>HOMES</u> to live in [cheap] state : housing rentals.
implicit dis.		It was a / <u>golden</u> \6 <u>age</u> ? [And] <u>he</u> gave it to us.

D18 qualified agreement concession	[it wa] It was in a <u>way</u> <sup>6</sup> - and and <u>some</u> <sup>6</sup> of these things have <u>actually</u> <sup>8</sup> worked out quite <sup>8</sup> <u>well</u> . 10
D19 implicit dis. introduction forewarn explicit dis.	[oh <sup>7</sup> now <u>hang on</u> <sup>3</sup> social policy issues yeah the]re's a difference partial concession but on [economic ] 10
D20 initial agreement explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[ec ] economic there's no difference. But I I would <sup>9</sup> say what your description of his economic policy is, I mean <sup>7</sup> <u>you</u> <sup>2</sup> 're <u>just</u> <sup>6</sup> putting on (.) <sup>4</sup> the rose-tinted <u>glasses</u> and people <u>do</u> that.
post dis. justification	Because in in <u>FACT</u> <sup>7</sup> unemployment started to rise when he <u>was</u> the the minister. Inflation <u>rose</u> and he <u>remember</u> <sup>3</sup> he put on the wage and price for [freeze], the interest rates were increasing- so he put put a control on that? He was putting controls in everything. In the <u>end</u> we ended up like a Polish (.) <sup>4</sup> shipyard, And and the press has been the economy was <u>so</u> <sup>6</sup> <u>great</u> that they were gonna <u>explode</u> ? And the <u>debt</u> level? That (1.0) <sup>4</sup> /ma:'n? borrowed <u>mo:re</u> money when he was minister of /finan\ce? Than <u>all</u> <sup>6</sup> previous finance ministers in New Zealand's history? and he left us that as his at his legacy? 10

## Rubber Gloves or Green Fingers

TVOne – 26-08-1997

D1

implicit dis.

You2 say- in the documentary that the world ho health organization. Says that there a::re uh4 twenty thousand people each year; who die from (0.7)4 {pesticide {poisoning? And two million people, are poisoned with pesticides.

D2

forewarn  
explicit dis.

You see7,  
<there's nothing at all6 equivocal about that. =If the world> hea:lth organization, is talking about twenty thousand people; every yea:r? throughout the world dy:ing as a result of pesticide poisoning. That's (.)4 a very67 ve:ry6 serious issue?

D3

implicit dis.

I think6 there ar there are two points he:re. One is (.)4 pesticides have to9 be used (.)4 as (.)4 <are stated on the labels.> They are safe when used2 properly.

pre dis. justification

The other issue (.)4 is whenever you2 see an example of complain fo:r (1.0)4 a misuse of pesticide or for (0.8)4 a health effect, you2 have to9 examine it carefully. You2 have to9 distinguish between the initial claim? Which I would9 call the myth often? A:nd the reality. And you2- it takes ti:me to investigate these claims.

hint

And in nearly6 every case, around the world, when You2 investigate, you2 {find an {exa:mple of misuse, or something like that, and there are many67 many6 examples in the literature.

10

D4

explicit dis.

I think6 we are entirely6 missing the point, if we look just6 at {prompt {deaths.

pre dis. justification

You know7, {you2 get}7 sprayed and {you2 get} sick the next day and {you2're} dead in a week, that's only6 the tip of an iceberg.

implicit dis.

What science has been uncovering recently is much6 lo:nger7 te:rm (.)4 effects at much6 lower doses.

post dis. justification

We've got- (.)4 not =<we haven't got a human being on the planet,> now; that hasn't got a cocktail, of man-made chemicals that DIdn't exIST to- fifty yea:rs ago. More than a hundred of them. In everybody's body.

10

- D5  
implicit dis. [b bo Bob from (Dell)] points out? In (.)<sup>4</sup> that documentary. That today's chemicals are sa:fer? they are not as toxic? You<sup>2</sup> get bigger ba:ngs? For uh<sup>4</sup> fewer applications? Or for applying less? And they leave less residue.
- D6  
explicit dis. you<sup>2</sup> have to<sup>9</sup> examine that in the light of the: <very<sup>6</sup> much<sup>6</sup> greater> USE of chemicals; than what we had in the past?  
post dis. justification So that {there may<sup>9</sup> be less being used}<sup>2</sup> per apple, but there's more being used world-/wi:\de?  
implicit dis. {AND (.)<sup>4</sup> who measures safe}<sup>4</sup>?
- D7  
pre dis. justification a and you<sup>2</sup> then got to<sup>9</sup> pull a::ll<sup>6</sup> of that evidence on one side and say- but look? what have we've done (.)<sup>4</sup> in the last thirty or forty yea:rs in terms (.)<sup>4</sup> of being able to /u:se\. Weedicides, and pesticides? To produce more food; to keep mo:re and mo:re people, from dying of hunger.  
explicit dis. introduction But  
implicit dis. reality is? If we hadn't had access to chemicals? Since the last world war particularly<sup>6</sup>? Uh<sup>4</sup> (.)<sup>4</sup> a si:zeable<sup>6</sup> chunk? of the world's population would<sup>9</sup> have died of starvation.  
10
- D8  
performative dis. No. I'm not /say\ing,  
explicit dis. I said- I'm saying that there is another a:rgument; that says- there's a whole lot<sup>67</sup> of good being done? For a whole lot<sup>6</sup> of people. (1.3)<sup>4</sup> through u:sing? Chemicals intelligently, wisely, safely and well.  
10
- D9  
implicit dis. [there] are also a lot<sup>6</sup> of products, that can be dr grown<sup>2</sup> at just<sup>6</sup> as great a yield? Without? chemicals? W once they're on to a proper established organic farming basis?  
10
- D10  
forewarn  
explicit dis. See<sup>7</sup>  
it's not just<sup>6</sup> the difference between using chemicals and not using chemicals. It's the difference between two different systems of agriculture. {Whe:re- {the:- {organic one uses a whole lot<sup>6</sup> of other things instead of chemicals.

D11 initial agreement explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	Yeah, [but {how can] they do an objective jo:b}4}7. {How can it do an ob objective job-=when (.)4 it's <u>selling</u> the <u>stuff</u> ? (0.2)4 for <u>profit</u> }4? (0.8)4 I mean7 { <u>shouldn't</u> 9 we be <u>out</u> there doing our own <u>dispassionate</u> research}4? 10
D12 implicit dis. introduction forewarn explicit dis.	Aw7, <u>look</u> 3 [we can't <u>afford</u> the levels of <u>research</u> that-uh4 would9 be necessary for us to be able to give an unqualified uh4 <u>label</u> to what's going on. 10
D13 explicit dis.  post dis. justification  forewarn hint  post dis. justification  explicit dis.	The <u>real</u> 6 point is that the industry <u>itself</u> can't afford to do the tests. Because (1.3)4 uh4 you2 can only <u>test</u> (0.8)4 uh4 chemicals in isolation. Uh4 <u>you</u> 2 mention the EPA? (0.2)4 and America. Uh4 the EPA? (0.3)4 are <u>no:w</u> (.)4 examining a <u>whole</u> 6 (.)4 <u>ra:ft</u> of pesticides. That have already been certified2 for <u>use</u> ? And (?) examining those certifications? Because the <u>evidence</u> is (.)4 <u>increasingly</u> 6 <u>bad</u> ? The <u>levels</u> that have been <u>set</u> ? are are <u>not</u> realistic. <u>They are not safe</u> 7? Uhm4- and (.)4 <u>the mo:re we learn</u> 7 about them; <u>the more we learn</u> , that they <u>are</u> (.)4 {not { <u>safe</u> ? 10
D14 hint	We apply the:se <u>things</u> . We <u>throw</u> these chemicals round; in <u>hu:ge</u> 6 quantities in this country. If we <u>do</u> that? {Should9 we <u>not</u> be in a position, o:f being able to <u>say</u> ? <u>Ei:ther</u> that they are <u>save</u> ? (1.0)4 <or that they are or that they are <u>not save</u> ?=in <u>which case</u> > (0.8)4 we don't <u>u:se</u> em}4.
D15 implicit dis.  implicit dis.  concession	<del>{They are {safe}7 {if {u::sed2 ac{co:rding to the label instructions}7. And <u>if</u> (0.3)4 these products are {used2 (0.8)4 <u>according to</u> <u>instructions</u>? {They are safe}. [°(but that) the <u>problem</u>°]</del>
D16 explicit dis.	I don't <u>accept</u> , that the chemicals that have traveled <u>thou:sands</u> 6 of miles from where they were /u::sed? And got into the tissues of <u>other</u> <u>organisms</u> ? Are <u>there</u> <u>only</u> 6 because somebody didn't <u>u:se</u> them properly?

D17  
explicit dis.  
post dis. justification

oh7 I think6 **that's a nonsense**8.  
I mean7 the: en-(.)4 resource management act  
**Specifically**6 (.)4 established; to allow communities to regulate,  
(.)4 activities in the community where tho:se (.)4 activities had  
adverse effects? And we've s- actually7 seen the resource  
management act app/lie::\d2? (0.8)4 in **many**6 areas in New  
Zealand- (0.5)4 to the benefit (.)4 of the local community- with  
rega:rd to such things as spray drift; and a **whole host**6 of other  
activities? And I think6 what we're getting? is a **whole lot**6  
better outcomes today. I can remember when farmers? SP-d uh  
mixed their spray by **hand**7? Just6 dipping their **hand**? (.)4  
mixing it. Wl I can remember when- you2 went out and sprayed  
any time- whenever you2::; <whenever the weather condition  
were right?>=We don't do that any mo::re? Because the  
resource management a::ct? And the public at **large** uh4-say, we  
want things better? Resource management act gives us the  
ability to con{fine {those {who (0.5)4 uh4- using those  
substances, removing the adverse effects, <and giving the  
community (.)4 a **hi:gh**6 regard=a **high**6 level of safety.>

10

D18  
pre dis. justification

uhh4- whe where I **I believe**6 about see7 the first,  
MAF? (0.5)4 supported prosecution. (0.8)4 of uhm4- a:- in a  
spray drift case. And that's after twenty years. (1.2)4 of- (1.2)4  
uh4 **OVerspray of**7 by standards? **overspray of** neighbours?  
(0.8)4 uhm4 not to mention **all the**6 other ways that spray can  
can can affect us? as in for example (.)4 uh4 residues in food?  
I've {**never**6 seen? it suggested}2 that someone who supplies  
(0.3)4 FOod with pesticide residues should9 be prosecuted.  
The the **simple**6 re/ali\ty, is? (0.7)4  
That (.)4 this MAF action is (.)4 a **very**6 solitary action.  
Uhm4- if it was pa:rt of a general mo:vement; uhm4 I would9  
support what Owen was saying?  
And I hope to God it is?  
But  
at the moment, there's no evidence that it [is.]

forewarn  
implicit dis.  
implicit dis.  
concession  
explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.

10

D19  
forewarn

<I just6 wanted to respond> to:: uhm4 what Tim was saying? And that is the MAF prosecution. It's been brought under the old (0.2)4 pesticide regulations2. Uhm4- today, responsibility (.)4 for spray drift and Agcarm n in no, way6, supports (.)4 s spray drift that has an adverse effect on environment. But spray drift is controlled2, under the resource management act; as Owen has said.

explicit dis.

The: (.)4 problem. As I see it. Is one of enforcement. And the enforcement is clearly6 the responsibility of the regional councils. Now; that is not clear in the programme.

10

D20  
initial agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
forewarn  
explicit dis.

Yes,  
but  
Tim5,  
what I'm saying i:s. If you2're prepared to conCE::de, tht New Zealand's had a dream run since the war. As a result of u:sing; pesticides and other agricchemicals. BA:N them. And what you2're doing? is you2're undermining the New Zealand economy?

D21  
initial agreement  
explicit dis.  
post dis. justification

It's it's it's true that (.)4 chemicals. <agricchemicals.=Generally6 have given us a dream<sub>2</sub> run<sub>2</sub>> (0.5)4 uh4- since the war. Uhm4. Several6 things have changed though. One is that-uh4 (.)4 we are seeing uh4 pests (0.2)4 both-uh4 insects and plants develop-uh4 (.)4 ways of dealing with pesticides?=So the pesticides we have /no:\w? Are less and less effective. And there are no new ones in the wings?

D22  
qualified agreement

well it's only6 been a {dream, {run, in terms of (tonnages) exported to (.)4 uh4 to willing and receptive ma:rkets.

10

- D23  
implicit dis.  
post dis. justification
- We live in a different world now.  
Th the markets are- far6 more (0.2)4 uh4 critical of our product? Uh4 as- of any product. They are very6 critical of stuff that's got chemicals in them. The markets don't WANT chemical product? They want organics in terms of the: uh4 the premium market is organic?
- explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.
- But  
what I am saying is that the: (0.7)4 uh4 efficiency of a chemical. (.)4 regime in fa:rmng. Is (.)4 now such that we have to change.
- post dis. justification
- Th uhm4 the chemicals are less effective. Uh4 even6 (Monsanto's (.)4 CEO) recognizes that they have to go in a different direction. Uhm4 and (.)4 w whe what our film shows? °Basically6°. The ma:rket is there for organics? We're gonna have to9 go down that road, anyway6. Let's7 do it no:w, {let's not wait, {there's no point, (.)4 [for being slow.]  
10
- D24  
implicit dis. introduction  
explicit dis.
- Well,  
obviously6 it depends on what image i exactly6 what image it is, we're portraying.  
10
- D25  
qualified agreement
- <it's not so much6> becoming ris resistant, it's that new opportunities are opening up for >hi:gh6 quality? (0.3)4 well presented (.)4 organic produce<.  
10
- D26  
initial agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
forewarn  
explicit dis.
- [yeah7,  
but]  
(.)4 hang on3 Owen5,  
you2 know that they a:re {becoming resistant}7. And they ACTUALLY6 {became resistant} quite6 some ti:me ago.  
10
- D27  
implicit dis.
- =<drop in the bucket4.>=  
10
- D28  
initial agreement  
implicit dis.
- {YES  
because there's {it's only just6}7 sta:rtng}4? {It's just6} the beginning}4.  
10

<p>D29 forewarn initial agreement  implicit dis.</p>	<p>[look3] w I <u>don't</u> think6 there's any dispute about the fact that it's <u>possible</u> to <u>fa:rm</u> <u>successfully</u>, without <u>u:sing</u> <u>agrichemicals</u>. I wonder6 though whether we can <u>meet</u> the <u>dema::nds</u> of this <u>eno:rmous6</u> market for <u>food</u>. As a <u>ma:jo</u>r <u>exporter</u>. Without <u>chemicals</u>.</p>
<p>D30 performative dis. hint explicit dis. explicit dis.</p>	<p>[no:;] what <u>you2</u> what <u>you2 really6</u> gotta a- I think6 <u>you2</u>'re asking the wrong question, with <u>respect6?</u> I think6 the <u>real6</u> question is- <u>ca:n</u> we support, the <u>organic</u> market.</p>
<p>D31 explicit dis.</p>	<p>oh7 <u>absolutely6</u>- I <u>am?</u> 10</p>
<p>D32 forewarn implicit dis. introduction explicit dis.</p>	<p>{<u>you2 are</u>}4? Well, then I think6 my question was <u>absolutely6</u> <u>appropriate?</u> 10</p>
<p>D33 explicit dis.</p>	<p>[<u>in the mar7</u> <u>in the ma</u>] <u>in the market place</u> there <u>are</u> no degrees. <u>The market place</u> looks at- <u>organics</u> [<u>or non organics.</u>] 10</p>
<p>D34 explicit dis.</p>	<p>[<u>{you2 people}7</u> <u>don't</u>] <u>{you2 people}</u> can't always6 agree [<u>on</u>] <u>what's organic7</u> [<u>and</u>] <u>what's not organic</u> 10</p>
<p>D35 performative dis.</p>	<p>[<u>no7</u>] [<u>no</u>] [<u>no</u>] [(????)] 10</p>
<p>D36 explicit dis.</p>	<p>[it doesn't matter [<u>I mean7</u> <u>Biogrow certifies</u>]] it yeah and <u>that's</u> recognized internationally? 10</p>
<p>D37 implicit dis.</p>	<p>[(?????) we do have <u>standards.</u>] <u>We have7</u> <u>Demeter</u>, <u>we have</u> <u>Bio-grow</u> and they are <u>recognized internationally.</u> 10</p>

## Time bomb

TVOne – 06-08-1997

D1

implicit dis.

I think<sup>6</sup> the the country's /economy\ (.)<sup>4</sup> is in crisis?

10

D2

initial agreement

implicit dis.

I d {I believe<sup>6</sup> that we}<sup>7</sup> do have a time bomb out there.

and {I (.)<sup>4</sup> believe<sup>6</sup> that}- if we don't address- (.)<sup>4</sup> the issue.

Then by 2010 we could<sup>9</sup> ha::ve a: problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984.

implicit dis.

and I think<sup>6</sup> the problem i::s a: social welfare system, that has changed over the years.

D3

explicit dis. introduction

explicit dis.

=but [bu]t

Roger<sup>5</sup>, a lot<sup>6</sup> of the people who were working at the sharp end.

And were talking in the programme last night weren't saying that at a::ll<sup>6</sup>.

They were saying ~~that~~ the problem<sup>7</sup> is not the welfare system?

The problem is to do with the economy.

D4

implicit dis. introduction

implicit dis. introduction

initial agreement

[(well?????) w]

We::ll- (0.8)<sup>4</sup>

uh<sup>4</sup> (1.0)<sup>4</sup> a lot<sup>8</sup> of the people who work in the area were certainly<sup>8</sup> saying what you said.

explicit dis. introduction

implicit dis.

but

a lot<sup>6</sup> of the people who I would<sup>9</sup> say who were /alived\<sup>2</sup> (.)<sup>4</sup>

{o:n} {(hard)} {benefits and what have you; Actually<sup>6</sup> wanted to wo::rk?

post dis. justification

And and there was one Maori leader in particular-<sup>6</sup> who pointed out, that the social welfare system had lead to dependency; and that's the worst<sup>6</sup> thing you<sup>2</sup> can do to another human BEing in my view.

10

D5

implicit dis. introduction

performative dis.

explicit dis.

well

/no\;

You<sup>2</sup> have to<sup>9</sup> have a welfare system. =

10

D6

implicit dis.

We've uh<sup>4</sup>- in fact<sup>6</sup> uh<sup>4</sup>- created a large<sup>6</sup> number of jobs in recent years.

10

D7 implicit dis.	and it's not about jobs2. 10
D8 hint	{[wh]at's your2 evidence for that please3}4? 10
D9 performative dis. explicit dis.	[no] no the evidence in Christchurch doesn't say that <u>at all</u> 6.=As you2 <u>well</u> 6 know. 10
D10 implicit dis. introduction forewarn explicit dis.  concession explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[well; <u>wait a minute</u> 3 I I I think6 the social] welfare I- { <u>LET me just</u> 6 go <u>o:n</u> }4. I think6 there is evidence whether you2 call it three four or /fi:\ve, But <u>qui:te</u> 6 <u>clearly</u> 6 there /i::s\, (.)4 <u>dependency</u> amongst uh4 uh4 u4 uh4 <u>dysfunctional</u> families.
D11 initial agreement  explicit dis.	<u>NO ONE</u> 7 <u>NO ONE DE</u> <u>NO ONE</u> [ <u>DENIES</u> ; <u>NO ONE</u> <u>DENIES</u> THAT <u>SOME</u> 6 FAMILIES] ARE dysfunctional. my point /i::s\- that if you2 say that it's <u>five</u> percent. When the evidence may9 be that it's 3% or /le:ss\; [wh]at you2're /do:ing\ is you2're <u>inflating</u> the figures, [in order to create a se]nse of crisis.
D12 implicit dis. introduction performative dis. explicit dis. performative dis. explicit dis. post dis. justification	[well] [ {no I <u>DON'T THINK</u> 6 I AM}7] {no I <u>don't</u> think6 I <u>am</u> }. Because <u>that</u> { <u>sa:me</u> {study { <u>showed</u> that somewhere6 around 30-40% if they we:ren't (.)4 dysfunctional families were at <u>risk</u> ? And <u>that</u> is a <u>hu::ge</u> 6 problem for this country, and <u>that</u> number is <u>gro:wing</u> .

<p>D13 initial agreement  explicit dis. introduction pre dis. justification</p>	<p>[w w] we we <u>don't</u> even<sup>8</sup> need to toss around figures. Of <u>cou::rse</u><sup>8</sup> it is. We h we <u>do::</u> have a a <u>growing underclass</u>- But /<u>agai::n</u>\- Roger<sup>5</sup> said about he doesn't want to dwell on his (<u>part</u>) of it?=Which I think<sup>6</sup> is (.)<sup>4</sup> a <u>fairly</u><sup>6</sup> selective memory=when Roger<sup>5</sup> came in as Minister of Finance, there was- (.)<sup>4</sup> what=<sup>6</sup>Sixty five thousand unemployed,=<sup>6</sup>When he left there was a hundred and <u>fifty</u> thousand unemployed,'h'hh=So I think<sup>6</sup> you<sup>2</sup> <u>have to</u><sup>9</sup> take a {fair {(cop) {<u>there</u>.</p>
<p>explicit dis. introduction pre dis. justification</p>	<p>But as soo:n as we <u>look like</u> getting unemployment <u>DO:WN</u> in New Zealand? <u>WA:CK?</u> {Don <u>Brash</u> in, {interest rates <u>up?</u> And it {goe:s, {o:n, {agai:n? We have this <u>perpetuating</u><sup>6</sup> [cycle of <u>failure</u>.</p>
<p>explicit dis.</p>	<p>= 'h'hh and IT'S <u>NOT</u> social welfare's point. (.)<sup>4</sup> Problem.] 10</p>
<p>D14 forwarn explicit dis.</p>	<p>[<u>look3- frankly</u><sup>7</sup>] I didn't come in here to argue about the economic po:licies? [if you<sup>2</sup> <u>WA</u>]nna do that that's <u>fi::ne</u>.</p>
<p>explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.</p>	<p>but the <u>truth</u> is; that we have <u>lower</u> unemployment in this country than <u>virtually</u><sup>6</sup> any other country in the developed world.</p>
<p>D15 forewarn implicit dis.</p>	<p>You see<sup>7</sup>- <u>I don't belie:ve</u><sup>6</sup> the government (.)<sup>4</sup> can <u>deli:ver</u> (1.5)<sup>4</sup> htthese &gt;a:s a:&lt; pro<u>VI</u>der. 10</p>
<p>D16 performative dis.</p>	<p>[ {<u>there</u><sup>7</sup> } [no there 's <u>NO</u> there's ] [NOT]<sup>4</sup> dat] 10</p>
<p>D17 performative dis.</p>	<p>[ {<u>yes there is</u>}<sup>4</sup> . ] 10</p>
<p>D18 implicit dis. introduction hint</p>	<p>well {<u>what's Roger</u><sup>5</sup> talking about. <u>VOU::chers</u>}<sup>4</sup>? 10</p>
<p>D19 explicit dis.</p>	<p>You<sup>2</sup> &gt;<u>ca:n't</u><sup>9</sup> <u>talk</u> about <u>a:ll</u><sup>6</sup> the other /<u>thin</u>\gs?&lt; unemployed people; the social welfare system; you know<sup>7</sup>- <u>gro:wing</u> poverty in New <u>Zealand</u>. If you<sup>2</sup> <u>DON'T</u> take into account 'h'h economic policy.</p>

D20  
initial agreement  
explicit dis. introduction  
explicit dis.

=ok. point made2.

But

he's also saying, that we can do far6 better than we are doing at the moment (. )4 >in {terms of the {way we7\em {power< people; and the way we deliver welfare; and the way we deliver support.

D21  
implicit dis. introduction  
initial agreement

well,

YES. Because I think6 we have (get) around the edge=our social security system or social welfare, as it's pre2 as they prefer to call it; is ( )4 a series of {a:d7 hoc {a:dd o:ns; that {a:dd to the indignity- that increase the: 'h'hh uh4 understanding of people of what they're entitled to; a:nd it's not an {adequate {benefit. For example. 40% <of beneficiaries= this was declared in the Todd-review on superannuation a couple of days ago.> 40% of beneficiaries, {don't have7 a phone, {don't have a car, {don't have a washing machine. So a:ll6 this stick /busi\ness, of making it at a lower level; has increased the number of people on benefits and increased the /POverty\. And uh4 we obviously8 agree with that in the Alliance that you2 could9 improve the delivery in fact7 and still6 having 50 plus kinds of benefits. <That's how many we have>, 50 or so ca uh4 u4 in the category ( )4 of benefits,=different ki:nds- bits here- [bits there- ] {It's a joke}4. uh4 we have; (0.7)4 a SHORT term benefit and a long term benefit; and it is long-term obviously for those people who will never6 be able to work, ( )4 sa:dly through ( )4 'h'hh illness? And uhm4 short-term for those people who are /tempo\rarily out of the workforce;=but at a level that {keeps their dignity up, so they can go and look for another /jo\b?

explicit dis. introduction  
explicit dis.

=But

we have to9 come back to the fact- ( )4 you2 CANNOT9 talk in isolation <as Roger5 says and then went o:n to talking about>; uhm4 issues in isolation

explicit dis.

=you2 can't9 talk about- ( )4 /social\ welfare without talking about our economic policy that wants unemployed people.

10

## Presseclub – Kein Kurs. Nirgends. Die Berliner Politik ohne Konzept.

Erstes Deutsches Fernsehen – 18-01-2004

- D1  
implicit dis. introduction also  
explicit dis. wenn der wenn der Joerges **so6** pessimistisch is? dann bin ich  
jetz mal7 (.)4 partiell6 optimistisch.=  
concession [nicht fuer dieses Ja:hr.]
- D2  
forewarn =Ich wuerde9 aber gern jetzt **einfach6** mal7 sportl aus  
<sportlichen Gruenden=sie suchen ja8 ein Contra zu Herrn  
Joerges? > Sagen  
explicit dis. dass ICH (0.1)4 **so6** schlechte Erwartungen an dieses Jahr nicht  
habe?
- D3  
implicit dis. introduction [(also ??????????)  
explicit dis. die][10 Euro sind nicht der Punkt.]  
**10**
- D4  
implicit dis. [Das schadet ihm **nur6**.])  
**10**
- D5  
forewarn ach7 **wissen sie3::**,  
explicit dis. aehm4; ah4 is **ja6** auch nich jeder der etwas sozial ungerecht  
findet was grad aktuell passiert **gleich6** teil einer  
Beharrungskultur.
- D6  
implicit dis. Ich glaube6 aber dass diese (. )4 Debatten=Da **muessen9** wir  
**eben6** selber **sehr6** aufpassen weil wir Teil der Debatten sind als  
Medien, **so6** weit weg von den Menschen sind dass sie sie nich  
mehr nachvollziehen;
- D7/T50  
initial agreement [ja7::.  
explicit dis. das sagen sie schon] lange.
- D8  
initial agreement d ja7  
implicit dis. d da der Wert steigt,  
initial agreement sie sagen das in hoher Prozentzahl schon lange,  
explicit dis. introduction aber  
explicit dis. so hoch war er **noch nie6** seit (0.1)4 der Bundestagswahl 2002.  
post dis. justification Das heisst er steigt {**obwohl wir den Reformprozess im**  
**vergangenen Jahr hatten**}? {Obwo:hls den  
Vermittlungsausschuss gab2}.

D9 hint	[{oh7 oh oh oh oh oh}4] 10
D10 forewarn explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.  post dis. justification implicit dis.	[was heisst hier <u>genug</u> 4?] ja7 aber) <u>offensichtlich</u> 6 geraten dadurch einige <u>doch</u> 6 in <u>grosse</u> 6 <u>Schwierigkeiten</u> [weil] (1.0)4 aeh4 aeh4 [ <u>vor allen Dingen</u> 7 <u>vor allen Dingen</u> die sozial] <u>Schwachen</u> kommen da <u>sehr</u> 6 in die <u>Klemme</u> ;
D11 explicit dis. implicit dis.	[wegen der <u>handwerklichen</u> Schwierigkeiten. und <u>andererseits</u> is es <u>nich</u> -] genug
D12 explicit dis.  concession	[und und die (FDP)] hat sich dann (0.1)4 in die <u>Buesche</u> geschlagen, als sie <u>I:hre</u> ({Lobby {is <Lobbyarbeit fuer die <u>Apotheke</u> erledigt hatte)= <u>{Ein besonders</u> 6 ( <u>feines</u> ) <u>Verfahren</u> }4-> =Aber <u>gut</u> .
D13 explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.  hint	[aber <u>sie</u> 2 haben wohl17 <u>offensichtlich</u> 6] aeh4 Sympathie gehabt fuer mehr <u>Selbstbeteiligung</u> . [ <u>{Soll denn}</u> <u>noch</u> 6 mehr <u>Selbstbeteiligung</u> <u>Kommen</u> }4.
D14 performative dis. implicit dis.	<u>absolut</u> 6 Ich <u>ne:hme</u> an6 dass auf auf s die Dauer kein Weg daran [ <u>vorbeigeht</u> ]; 10
D15 hint post dis. justification	<u>{noch</u> 6 mehr <u>Selbstbeteiligung</u> is das <u>nich sozial schrecklich</u> }4, Das <u>Problem</u> des deutschen Wohlfahrtstaates is ja7 dass er nicht <u>{die</u> <u>{Armen</u> <u>{alimentiert</u> ; sondern er al alimentiert die <u>grosse</u> <u>breite</u> [ <u>Mittelschicht</u> .] (.)4
D16 explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	aber es kommt auf die aeh4 <u>Betroffenen</u> an. 10

<p>D17 initial agreement explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.</p>	<p>[ja es kommt auf] die <u>Betroffenen</u> an. Aber <u>nich</u> fuer <u>alle</u>. 10</p>
<p>D18 pre dis. justification  explicit dis.</p>	<p>Ich glaube<sup>6</sup> Herr Joffe das ist <u>genau</u><sup>6</sup> das Thema was den Streit (ueberruht?) ahh<sup>4</sup> den wir in diesem Jahr auch glaub ich<sup>6</sup> publizistisch <u>fuehren</u> sollten<sup>9</sup>? Aeh<sup>4</sup> wir <u>stehen</u> hier vor <u>grundlegenderen</u> Weichenstellungen als <u>nur</u><sup>6</sup> vor der Frage 10 Euro oder wieviel<sup>6</sup> fuer irgendwelche Praxisgebuehren? Ist der Staat nur fuer <u>die</u> da die <u>gar</u><sup>6</sup> nicht mehr anders koennen? oder is er fuer <u>alle</u>, da<sup>7</sup>? <u>Ich</u> bin der Meinung dass er fuer <u>alle</u> da is? 10</p>
<p>D19 hint</p>	<p>[und machen wir das <u>mit</u><sup>4</sup>?] 10</p>
<p>D20 implicit dis.</p>	<p>[ja<sup>7</sup> was heisst <u>machen</u> wir das machen wir das] <u>mit</u><sup>4</sup>, 10</p>
<p>D21 implicit dis.</p>	<p>[(???) zu <u>Morddrohungen</u> kommt<sup>2</sup> [is das <u>schon</u><sup>6</sup>, ????????)]] 10</p>
<p>D22 initial agreement pre dis. justification explicit dis.</p>	<p><u>ja</u> ja<sup>7</sup> <u>ja</u> ja das kriegen wir ab und zu<sup>6</sup> als Journalisten <u>auch</u> mal. das darf man<sup>2</sup> nich so <u>ganz</u> so<sup>6</sup> <u>Ernst</u> nehmen. 10</p>
<p>D23 initial agreement  explicit dis.</p>	<p>ich find<sup>6</sup> den n <u>ganz</u><sup>6</sup> wichtigen Punkt hat eingeworfen der Herr Meng<sup>5</sup>? in der <u>Frage</u> aehm<sup>4</sup> um was geht es ueberhaupt. und das ham sie <u>sehr</u><sup>8</sup>, find ich <u>sehr</u><sup>8</sup> <u>passend</u> und <u>sehr</u><sup>8</sup> richtig <u>beschrieben</u>. Ich glaube<sup>6</sup> <u>nur</u><sup>6</sup> nicht dass wir die <u>Wahl</u> haben. zwischen einem ah<sup>4</sup> sozusagen eher<sup>6</sup> <u>Staatsgetriebenen</u>, und oder eher<sup>6</sup> <u>Freiheitsgetriebenen</u> aeh<sup>4</sup> <u>individuelleren</u> und (.)<sup>4</sup> <u>Modell</u>. 10</p>
<p>D24 performative dis. implicit dis.</p>	<p>[<u>nein</u><sup>7</sup> <u>nein</u> <u>nein</u>.] [es kommt ein <u>Druck</u><sup>2</sup> von <u>aussen</u>? den wir nicht <u>beeinflussen</u> koennen.] 10</p>

D25	explicit dis. explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	[ah4 i is <u>egal</u> ? aber {es <u>hilft</u> <u>doch6</u> <u>aber6</u> <u>nichts</u> }47. es <u>hilft</u> ] <u>nichts</u> wenn ich sage ja du hast mehr <u>Last</u> ?
	post dis. justification	und <u>deshalb</u> deshalb faellst du <u>zurueck</u> ,=weil den Staat den <u>sie</u> gern <u>ha:ben</u> , <u>wollen</u> ? den <u>muss9</u> man2 <u>noch6</u> <u>bezahlen</u> koennen.
D26	performative dis. explicit dis.	[( <u>nein7nein</u> ) wir reden] vom <u>hollaendischen</u> <u>Weg7</u> ; wir reden vom [ <u>daeni[schen</u> <u>Weg</u> ; (????????????????)] 10
D27	explicit dis.	[ <u>wenn</u> ich die am <u>Tisch</u> habe,] klagen mir die <u>auch</u> ; 10
D28	explicit dis.	[und da ( <u>duerfen</u> ) wir <u>nicht</u> <u>hinterher7</u> . da <u>duerfen</u> wir <u>nicht</u> <u>hinterher</u> .] 10
D29	explicit dis.	<ja7 da <u>seh:n</u> <u>sie2</u> <u>aber6</u> [das <u>das</u> der richtige <u>Weg</u> is.>] 10
D30	explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[( <u>aber7</u> <u>aber</u> Herr Reitz) es is <u>doch6</u> <u>schon6</u> <u>so</u> ]; dass <u>Estland</u> im (0.9)4 in <u>dem</u> Fall <u>einfach6</u> den <u>Vorteil</u> <wenn ich <u>mal7</u> so sagen darf> einer <u>StundeNull</u> Gesellschaft hat.=den wir nicht <u>ha:ben</u> .
	post dis. justification	Also man2 <u>muss9</u> (. )4 zur <u>Kenntnis</u> nehmen dass unser System 50 Jahre <u>gewachsen</u> is, mit <u>all6</u> seinenn 'h'hh <u>Vorzue:gen</u> und <u>Vorteilen</u> , die <u>jeder</u> <u>so6</u> davon <u>hat</u> ? und dass es <u>natuerlich6</u> <u>verdamm8</u> <u>schwierich</u> is [(davon runterzukommen,) 10
D31	explicit dis.	wenn ich seit 10 Jahren rauche und hab- <u>muss9</u> ich <u>doch6</u> auch bei der Stunde <u>Null</u> anfangen und sagen ich <u>muss9</u> [aufhoern zu <u>rauchen</u> .] 10
D32	explicit dis. introduction explicit dis. post dis. justification	ja7 ma ja7 aber [sie fangen <u>leider6</u> <u>nich</u> mehr] mit ner Stunde <u>Null</u> . [(sondern sie ??? mit ihrer Lunge so wie sie <u>is</u> .)] 10

- D33  
explicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis. ja7 aber  
ich **muss9** **trotzdem6** [(????????????????)]  
10
- D34  
explicit dis. [(??) (???????) das tun wir **schon6**.]  
10
- D35  
implicit dis. introduction  
explicit dis. naja7  
da hab ich n bisschen6 Zweifel.  
10
- D36  
implicit dis. [nicht mehr lange.]  
10
- D37  
implicit dis. Die Politik denkt da **ganz6** anders?  
10
- D38  
performative dis.  
post dis. justification **doch6**?  
Wenn ich Strukturreform wenn ich zum Beispiel beschlie.sse?  
wir machen **hoch6**transparente Berufungsverfahren. kost das  
kein Geld? Ausser mehr Porto vielleicht6.
- D39  
initial agreement  
explicit dis. [ich bin bei Ihnen7. ich bin bei Ihnen bei dem; bei der These-  
aeh4] dass es diese Reformen **endlich6** ge:ben **muss9**? und dass  
post dis. justification wir (0.5)4 meines Erachtens die richtige Diskussion jetzt fuehren  
koennen; **wenigstens6**.  
Ich bezweifle nur6 ob wa nicht auch Geld brauchen.  
denn so wie im Moment die finanzielle Ausstattung is, koennen  
sie all das (.)4 **dreimal6** machen diese Nichtkostenden  
Reformen- es wird nicht anspringen, weils Ihnen **einfach6** nicht  
reicht an [Geld.]  
10
- D40  
explicit dis. [**muessten9**. der Kanzler fuehrt se nich.]  
10

D41	initial agreement explicit dis. introduction explicit dis. pre dis. justification explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	muessten <sup>9</sup> sowieso <sup>6</sup> aber auch koennen. der Kanzler macht Symbolik <sup>7</sup> . aber wenn er die Symbolik so <sup>6</sup> , macht? kann man <sup>2</sup> sie fuehren. 10
D42	performative dis. implicit dis. performative dis. implicit dis.	ne <sup>7</sup> ne im Durchschnitt <sup>7</sup> na im Durchschnitt [ <u>&lt;wir reden im Durchschnitt. wir reden im Durchschnitt.&gt;</u> ] 10
D43	implicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	[Also Ideen] wird er ja <sup>6</sup> wohl <sup>6</sup> noch <sup>6</sup> in die Welt setzten duerfen. Nicht <sup>1</sup> ; 10
D44	explicit dis.	{ich hab ueberhaupt <sup>6</sup> nichts dagegen} <sup>7</sup> . {ich hab ueberhaupt <sup>6</sup> nichts dagegen}. 10
D45	implicit dis.	(Merkl) hatn Kurs. 10
D46	implicit dis.	[na <sup>6</sup> in der Steuerfrage hat sie sich aber] jetzt wirklich <sup>6</sup> doch <sup>6</sup> sehr <sup>6</sup> [also erstaunlich <sup>6</sup> (sensibel so <sup>6</sup> zusammengenommen.)] 10
D47	implicit dis. introduction implicit dis.  post dis. justification  concession	['h'hh also ich ich ICH ICH GLAUBE <sup>6</sup> ] DASS BEIDE GROSSEN PARTEIEN DABEI SIND sich so oder sich aufgestellt haben; mit der (0.1) <sup>4</sup> Absicht <sup>7</sup> . mit der je::weiligen Absicht. vor dem Wahljahr <2006 keine grossen Dinge mehr anzufassen? Sondern sie fuer die dazwischenliegenden Jahre jeweils Luftballongs? Aufzublasen.> unterschiedlicher [Farbe <sup>7</sup> , unterschiedlicher Groesse?] jetzt zugespitzt formuliert. 10



D58	explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[aber <u>auch</u> aus es gibt (?????????) das das Verhaelt <u>Verhaeltnis</u> zwischen beiden is nich in <u>ORDNUNG</u> . 10
D59	explicit dis.  post dis. justification	[so wie das Verhaeltnis zwischen Helmut <u>Kohl</u> und] aeh4 aeh4 Richard von Weizaecker war <u>au:ch</u> nicht das engste; und trotzdem hat ihn Kohl <u>vorgeschlagen?</u> und er hat damit ah4 <u>offensichtlich6</u> <u>richtich</u> [(?????????) ]
D60	explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[aber er hat <u>auch</u> <u>lange6</u> gezoe:gert, da <u>damals?</u> 10
D61	implicit dis.	[er hats auch <u>schwer6</u> <u>bereut</u> manchmal6.] 10
D62	initial agreement explicit dis. introduction explicit dis. implicit dis.	[(er hats auch manchmal6) <u>schwer8</u> ] <u>bereut?</u> aber das is <u>gar6</u> nich die <u>Frage?</u> [Bundespraesident(enwahl) <u>is</u> kein Kontest, <u>is</u> kein Kontest] der Besten. 10
D63	hint	[auch nicht (der <u>Schoensten?</u> )] 10
D64	implicit dis.	<u>auch</u> nich Schoensten. 10
D65	implicit dis.	ah4 ich glaube6 wer <u>genauer</u> hinkuckt, ah4 <u>sie::ht</u> Kurse; auf verschiedne <u>Richtungen</u> <u>in</u> der aktuellen Politik?

## Sabine Christiansen – Neues Deutschland. Eliten statt Nieten?

Erstes Deutsches Fernsehen – 11-01-2004

- D1  
performative dis.  
explicit dis.
- ‘h’hh Nei::n?  
wir haben von Hochleistungs und von Spitzenuniversitaeten  
gesprochen, Die brauch ma {neben {anderm auch.  
10
- D2  
initial agreement  
performative dis.  
explicit dis.  
post dis. justification
- =ja.=  
nein7nein.  
das mit der Elite; da stehn wa auch dazu. Das ist ueberhaupt6  
kein Problem fuer mich.=  
Das heisst nachm <Woerterbuch das sind> die BESTEN7.  
(0.7)4 {Die:: {da:: sind. Nicht die Reichsten7? nicht die  
Schoensten; sondern die Besten.
- D3  
hint
- haett9 ma so auch reinschreiben koennen ne1?  
10
- D4  
explicit dis. introduction  
explicit dis.
- ja7 obgleich  
so6 ne Spitzenuniversitaeten ist ja6 auch n schoener Begriff.  
10
- D5  
implicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.
- /Ou::h\7  
sie ahnen gar6 nicht was die Gesundheitsreform da6 noch so6  
alles6 liefern koennte9;  
10

<p>D6 implicit dis. introduction implicit dis. pre dis. justification</p>	<p>thm7 ha ja7 also man2 wu::ndert sich; <b>nicht1?</b> Das ham wir <b>ja6</b> nun7 <b>schon6</b> vor 5 oder 10 Jahren gesacht. Es is <b>ja6</b> nichts <u>neues</u> an dem was Herr (0.1)4 Muentefering <u>gesacht</u> hat. ‘h’hh ah4 <u>Neu</u> ist- dass die &lt;Bundesregierung <b>offensichtlich6</b> entschieden&gt; hat- aeh4 die noetigen- (.)4 Sozialreformen, wie sie im letzten Jahr <u>begonnen</u> hat? in diesem Jahr nich weiter zu <u>fuehren</u>? weil wir 14 <u>Wahlen</u> haben? Denn wir haben <b>ja nun6</b> kei:n- (0.1)4 reformiertesss? zukunftsfestes GeSUNDHEITSystem. Sie hams grade erw<u>aehnt</u>? Die Rente <u>iss</u>-aeh4 wir <u>auch</u> nich reformie:rt. sondern man2 hat einma:l die (0.3)4 Zahlung- de die <u>Erhoehung</u> der Rente ausgesetzt. Also das ist das <u>erste</u> was mich daran <u>stoe:rt</u>? dass man2 <b>einfach6</b> erst mal6 n <u>Thema</u> nimmt um von den <u>andern</u> Dingen abzulenken?= <b>Das zweite7?</b> ‘h’hhhhhhh und das ham sie <u>seh:r8</u> gut <u>gesa:cht</u>? (denn da ist)? <b>das zweite</b> ist-aeh4 aeh4- ich wuerde9 <u>auch</u> die Politik <u>danach</u> beurteilen was sie <u>tut</u>, und nicht (0.7)4 wa- nach dem was sie <u>sacht</u>. ‘h’hh 10</p>
<p>implicit dis.</p>	
<p>implicit dis.</p>	
<p>D7 explicit dis. post dis. justification</p>	<p>ach7 das stoert mich <u>eigentlich6</u> we:niger6 weil- (0.3)4 aeh4 so ne Debatte wird <b>ja6</b> nicht dadurch gefuehrt, dass sich-aeh4 ein <u>Bundeskanzler</u> oder ein SPD <u>Fraktionsvorsitzender</u>, (.)4 aeh4 vor die <u>Kamera</u> stellt- und einmal <b>ganz6</b> laut ruft <u>Eliteuniversitaet</u>? Und dann ist das Thema ploetzlich-aeh4 {<u>geloest</u>, und {<u>da::</u> und so6?</p>
<p>D8 explicit dis.</p>	<p><b>na6</b> {<u>da is es dadurch schon6</u>}7. <u>geloest</u> noch nich, {<u>aber da is es dann</u>}. 10</p>
<p>D9 explicit dis. introduction forwarn explicit dis.</p>	<p><u>na6</u> ja7 ja {<u>warten si3</u>}7 {<u>warten sie3</u>} {<u>warten sie mal6 ab3</u>}; {<u>das dauert</u>}7 also; [wenn] (0.2)4 jetzt nichts <u>konkretes</u>, <u>geschieht</u>; {<u>dauert das</u>} noch 14 Tage, dann [(wird) das Thema wieder (<u>weg</u>).] 10</p>
<p>D10 explicit dis.</p>	<p>[Es <u>wird</u> aber was (geschehn)] <b>Ja6::</b> {<u>wartn se2 ab</u>}3 Herr <u>Ruetgers5</u>. (??) 10</p>

D11	
forwarn	Schaun sie3-
pre dis. justification	ah4 was <u>mich</u> (.)4 <u>aergert</u> bei der <u>ganzen</u> 6 Sache is, so wie das (.)4 da <u>angepackt</u> wordn is.
explicit dis.	Ich kritisier <u>ueberhaupt</u> 6 nich; <°wie <u>kaem</u> 9 ich dazu> der selber mal° (0.4)4 Verantwortung fuer dieses Thema <u>getragen</u> ? Ah4 dass darueber <u>diskutiert</u> wird. dass was <u>passieren</u> <u>muss</u> 9 is <u>auch</u> 6 <u>voellig</u> 6 klar. Wir sind in den letzten Ja:hren in manchen <u>Berei:chen</u> , <u>international</u> abgehaengt worden. Das <u>stimmt</u> . Darueber nachzudenken, (0.8)4 ah4 {was {wir <u>tun</u> <u>muessen</u> 9, is <u>unglaublich</u> 6 wichtig?= <u>Aber</u> { <u>das loest ue::berhaupt</u> 6 <u>nicht</u> }7\das Problem der <u>Arbeitslosigkeit</u> . { <u>das loest ueberhaupt</u> 6 <u>nicht</u> } das Problem der sozialen Sicherungssysteme?
post dis. justification	10
D12	
explicit dis.	[Frau <u>Christiansen</u> ; sie krie:gen diese diese Spitze] { <u>nur</u> 6 { <u>hin</u> wenn [Sie entweder <u>mehr</u> und <u>besser</u> ausgebildete <u>Schulabsolventen</u> haben?]} 10
D13	
explicit dis.	<u>zufaellich</u>
initial agreement	ja::-
explicit dis. introduction	[aber
post dis. justification	ich bin wieder (im-)] 10
D14	
implicit dis.	[{ <u>was heisst zufaellig</u> }4.]
explicit dis.	<n <u>Unternehmer</u> macht sowas nicht <u>zufaellig</u>
post dis. justification	[ein <u>Unternehmer</u> <u>muss</u> 9 au n <u>bisschen</u> 6 <u>kalkulieren</u> ?]> 10
D15	
performative dis.	[ <u>do::ch</u> .
explicit dis.	in dem Fall scho:n.
post dis. justification	ich hab mi:ch] ich hab mich bei 15 (0.4)4 Institutionen weltweit beworben; und hab hier am Marx-Plack Institut was <u>gekricht</u> , Das gefiel mir <u>gut</u> 6. 10

<p>D16 implicit dis.  post dis. justification</p>	<p>[&lt;ich ich (<u>wuerds</u>) mal7 differenzieren;&gt;] ich <u>wuerds</u> mal7 <u>differenzieren</u> n bisschen6; wenn sie michh (.)4 ne Minute6 <u>dranlassn</u> mach ich des mal7. Ich hab versucht zu <u>verstehen</u>? {<u>ob</u> (.)4 <u>ueberhaupt</u>6 <u>verstanden</u> wird}2 in der Debatte? {<u>wo</u>{<u>fuer</u> {was <u>gut</u> is. Die Breitenbildung hat ja: (0.1)4 <u>durchaus</u>6 andre Zielsetzungen als die <u>Eliteuni</u>. Is <u>ja</u>6 <u>einfach</u>6 so. 10</p>
<p>D17 implicit dis.</p>	<p>[<u>klu:::ge</u> Koe]pfe ham wir <u>genu:g</u>? 10</p>
<p>D18 implicit dis.  post dis. justification</p>	<p>Es <u>fehlt</u> ne Ingredienz? Naemlich die Leute mit der <u>Kohle</u>. {<u>Die</u> <u>Reichen</u>}7. {<u>die mit den Studiengebuehren</u>}. {<u>Die: andre</u> <u>Haelfte</u>}. [um die wir uns] hier <u>so</u>6 <u>beschweren</u>? dass aeh4 dass dass Studiengebuehren <u>so</u>6 gefaehrlich waeren9. Das sind <u>die</u>? die die zweite Komponente ausmachen. <u>Kapital?</u> <u>und</u> Ideen und Technologie. Ohne <u>das</u> komm se nich weiter. [also <u>TEURE</u> Unis. <u>Weil?</u> (0.5)4 in <u>A::sien?</u> was nix <u>kost</u>, is nix <u>wert</u>.] 10</p>
<p>D19 explicit dis. introduction initial agreement explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.</p>	<p>[aber thm7 hm7] das is <u>richtig</u>. <u>Aber-</u> der der {<u>zunae:chst is ja</u>7 mal7 <u>der Geist da</u>}7. {<u>zunaechst sind</u> <u>die Leute da</u>} die <u>kluge</u> Frage stellen. 10</p>
<p>D20 explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.</p>	<p>&lt;naja7 aber <u>irgendwo</u>6 <u>muss</u>9 man2 natuerlich auch bei <u>Geld</u> anfangen;= 10</p>
<p>D21 explicit dis.</p>	<p>[wir <u>wollten</u> die Steuerreform. <u>Die</u>2 ham die alte Steuerreform <u>auf</u>(geraeumt).] 10</p>
<p>D22 hint</p>	<p>[{<u>ChhhhhhhhhhhhhHerr Muentefering</u>5}4.] 10</p>
<p>D23 explicit dis.</p>	<p>[nich nur <u>Geld</u>.] 10</p>

- D24  
forewarn  
explicit dis. [aehm7 also] {entschuldigen sie2 mal}4.  
die Tatsache dass wir so viel Arbeitslose ham in Deutschland  
fuehrt ja nicht dazu dass wir sagen, wir wir machen keine neuen  
Unternehmen mehr.  
post dis. justification =Grade wenn das so is, wie das is.=muss9 man2 doch6 fragen-  
woher kommt das? und was muss9 man machen. damit das?  
DAUERHAFT, BESSER is; bei uns im Land. Damit wir  
ZUKunftsfaehig sind.=auch im Vergleich zu [andern] Laendern.  
10
- D25  
implicit dis. introduction [ach 7  
explicit dis. das werden sie2 nicht] schaffen.  
post dis. justification [sie2 muessen9 sie2 jedes Jahr 7 Prozent ab 2005 ZUlegen Herr  
Muentefering5.]  
10
- D26  
forewarn [° {passen sie2 auf}3}7 {passen}3 {passen sie2}3 {passen  
sie2}3 {passen sie2}3 {passen sie2 auf}3°] was ich ihnen2  
sage.  
implicit dis. 2/3 davon die Wirtschaft? (1.2)4 [ein Drittel, 'h'hh] (1.3)4 der  
Staat.  
10
- D27  
performative dis. [<Herr Muentefering5 das stimmt doch6 alles6 nicht. das is  
doch6.>]  
10
- D28  
forewarn [Ja7 nu 6 {wartn sie2 ma ab}3.]  
hint was in den Neunziger Jahren da6 passiert is.  
implicit dis. WIR liegen bei 2,49%. und wir werden die 3% erreichen in  
Deutschland.  
10
- D29  
implicit dis. [{woher solln die kommen}4}7]  
hint [woher4-  
explicit dis. ja7 {was} [heisst Prioritaeten setzten}4. {woher solln die  
kommen}4. {aus }[der Erbschaftssteuer}4}7- {aus den  
Goldreserven}4, {woher solln [die kommen}4.]  
10
- D30  
implicit dis. dann sagen [wa was die Wirtschaft fuer ne (Auflage hat.)]  
10

D31	explicit dis. introduction explicit dis. implicit dis. introduction concession	aber [es] geht <b>doch6</b> <u>nicht</u> nur um <u>Geld</u> . <b>Frau Christiansen5</b> . Also;; [ <u>natuerlich8</u> {is <u>Geld</u> eine <u>grosse8</u> ] aeh4 Frage? 10
D32	hint	°{ <b>wolln</b> ma [ <u>wettn</u> ]4?}° 10
D33	initial agreement implicit dis.	naja7 gut das-[(????????????????????????????????????)] eine eine Kiste <u>Culiba</u> (1.0)4 [‘h’hh <u>einverstanden-</u> <u>machen</u> wir das.] 10
D34	explicit dis.	[{ <b>sacht</b> <b>doch6</b> ( <u>keener</u> )4???}] 10
D35	explicit dis. implicit dis.	[(° <u>will</u> ich <b>doch6</b> <u>ueberhaupt6</u> nicht; was <u>SOLL</u> das es <b>denn6</b> eigentlich ????????)] 10
D36	implicit dis. post dis. justification post dis. justification	[(???) einen <b>grossen6</b> <u>Fehler</u> gemacht.] [er hat das naemlich <u>nicht-zu Ende</u> ] <b>gedacht7</b> . <b>zu Ende gedacht</b> <u>hei:sst</u> es? und das war <u>das</u> wo ich vorhin drauf <u>hingewiesen</u> hab. Die <u>Universitaeten</u> (0.6)4 <b>mue:ssen9</b> (.)4 das <u>Recht</u> haben <u>die</u> Mittel. ich <u>komm</u> [gleich noch] zu den Studiengebuehren. die sie <u>einwerben</u> ; auch <b>tatsaechlich6</b> auch selber <u>verwenden</u> zu koennen.
D37	implicit dis.	[(ist ne Voraussetzung?)] 10
D38	explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[aber das <u>ham</u> <b>ja6</b> eigentlich6 die <u>Eliteuniversitaeten</u> im Ausland Herr (???)].] 10
D39	explicit dis.	[ja7 das is <b>doch6</b> die <u>Voraussetzung</u> .] 10

- D40  
explicit dis. [(?) wa schon laengst<sup>6</sup> drueber weg Herr Trittin<sup>5</sup>.]  
10
- D41  
explicit dis. Herr Trittin<sup>5</sup> {das hab ich doch<sup>6</sup> schon; [(????)}<sup>7</sup> {das hab ich doch<sup>6</sup> schon} gesacht- dass wir Studiengebuehrenmodelle] brauchen die sozial vertraeglich sind.=  
10
- D42  
forewarn  
implicit dis. =entschuldigen sie<sup>3</sup>  
ich hab nur<sup>6</sup> [von] der Wirklichkeit<sup>7</sup> geredet.=und  
[Wirklichkeit ist die:?] dass zur Zeit die Ausgaben der Laender?  
ich w will das gar<sup>8</sup> nicht moralisch bewerten. die {Ausgaben der {Laender fuer die {Hochschulen? DRASTISCH<sup>6</sup> zurueckgehn?
- D43  
explicit dis. introduction im uebrigen  
explicit dis. [Wirklichkeit ist.]  
10
- D44  
explicit dis. [(Herr Trit<sup>5</sup>) [die andere Wirklichkeit is [dass-]]]  
10
- D45  
implicit dis. introduction [(Herr)(Trit) nun<sup>7</sup> erst einmal<sup>6</sup> [jetz]]  
explicit dis. [natuerlich<sup>6</sup> auch<sup>6</sup> (1.2)<sup>4</sup> aehm<sup>4</sup> das so<sup>6</sup> nicht ganz<sup>6</sup> richtig,  
post dis. justification weil auch Frau Bulman erst mal<sup>6</sup>] bei den Etatkuerzungen im vergangenen Jahr kraeftig<sup>6</sup> dabei war.
- D46  
initial agreement [eben<sup>6</sup> Frau Christiansen. wir wolln dabei bleiben.]  
pre dis. justification (gegenueber) Herrn Ruetgers hat diese Bundesregierung? die {Ausgaben fuer {Wissenschaft und {Hochschule um {31, {9% gesteigert. Das koennen se nich in Abrede stellen; und wenn se damit sa:gen wir haben damit ein {tiefes {Tal was Herr Ruetgers angerichtet hat, mal<sup>7</sup> zwar zugeschuettet, und au der Zuwachs koennte<sup>9</sup> groesser sein;  
initial agreement is richtich;  
explicit dis. introduction aber  
explicit dis. wenn wir den Zuwachs haetten<sup>9</sup> groesser machen koennen? dann haette<sup>9</sup> Herr Ruetgers nich so viel abreissen [muessen<sup>9</sup>. (???????)]  
10

D47	initial agreement explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	[wir sind] ihnen <sup>5</sup> ja <sup>7</sup> auch unendlich <sup>8</sup> <u>dankbar</u> dafuer.]] aber jetzt [kann ma <sup>2</sup> doch <sup>6</sup> <u>weiterkucken</u> ] oder <sup>1</sup> ? 10
D48	pre dis. justification  explicit dis.	{also. {ich hatte mir {eigentlich <sup>6</sup> {vorgenommen; Herr Trittin <sup>5</sup> . aeh <sup>4</sup> hierher <u>nich</u> zu kommen und dann jetzt aeh <sup>4</sup> (0.2) <sup>4</sup> ueber irgendwelche Probleme aus den Neunziger Ja:hren zu diskutieren. {Was meinen se <sup>2</sup> } <sup>3</sup> [was <u>das</u> den Studierenden; (so <sup>6</sup> vorbeigeht). {ich koennte <sup>9</sup> ihnen <sup>2</sup> } <sup>7</sup> ; {koennte <sup>9</sup> } ihnen <sup>2</sup> } jetz- aeh <sup>4</sup> (0.9) <sup>4</sup> <u>das</u> was sie <sup>2</sup> gesacht haben widerlegen. 10
D49	explicit dis.	[ja <sup>7</sup> <u>selbstverstaendlich</u> <sup>6</sup> ] kann ich's <u>widerlegen</u> . 10
D50	implicit dis.	bin ich nich so <sup>6</sup> sicher 10
D51	initial agreement explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	<u>ja</u> :: aber jetzt [(brauchen se nich da brauchen se nich) 3.5 Milliarden <u>einmalig</u> ] 10
D52	explicit dis.	[{ <u>ueberhaupt</u> <sup>6</sup> nich} <sup>7</sup> ? <u>ich hab {ueberhaupt<sup>6</sup> keine Probleme}</u> (Herr Trittin)] darf ich das mal <sup>6</sup> /(bitte <sup>3</sup> ????) ich habe hier { <u>ueberhaupt</u> <sup>6</sup> kein Problem} <sup>7</sup> ] 10
D53	explicit dis.	[{ <u>das is aber</u> <sup>6</sup> } <sup>7</sup> nicht das <u>Thema</u> ] Herr Ruetgers <sup>5</sup> .[({ <u>das is</u> <u>aber</u> <sup>6</sup> })] 10
D54	implicit dis.	[({ <u>Mei::n Gott</u> <sup>4</sup> .)] 10
D55	initial agreement initial agreement explicit dis.	[ <u>genau</u> <sup>7</sup> °°richtich°° <das <u>machen</u> wir ja <sup>6</sup> .>] 10

D56	explicit dis. introduction implicit dis. explicit dis. introduction implicit dis.	[{ <u>aber</u> <u>nicht</u> }7 die F { <u>aber</u> <u>nicht</u> } die <u>Forschung</u> .] 10
D57	performative dis. explicit dis.	[[ne er redet von <u>Bildung</u> ; er redet nicht von] <u>Forschung</u> .] 10
D58	implicit dis.	[[((?????ich hab nicht????????????)) ]ich rede von] <u>HBFG</u> <u>Hochschulbau</u> (.) <u>Foerdergesetz</u> . 10
D59	forewarn explicit dis.	[{ <u>tsch tsch</u> ] <u>uldigung mann</u> }4; <u>sie</u> 2 unterstellen <u>immer</u> 6 <u>Dinge die</u> [ <u>doch</u> 6 (???) <u>ueberhaupt</u> 6 nicht.] 10
D60	performative dis. explicit dis. post dis. justification	[<ne ich unterstell <u>gar</u> 6 nichts das war ne Frage> jetzt.] 10
D61	performative dis. implicit dis.	[ <u>nei</u> .n. <u>wir</u> haben, wir haben auf] 10
D62	implicit dis. explicit dis. post dis. justification	[{ <u>wir stellen uns nich</u> vor}7- { <u>wir</u> } <u>stelln uns doch</u> 6 <u>nich vor</u> }, wir <u>wolln doch</u> 6 <u>ueberhaupt</u> 6 <u>nich</u> irgendwo die Hausnummer <u>eins</u> irgendwo da <u>draufpappen</u> und <u>sagen</u> ihr <u>seids</u> jetzt? sondern es wird aus dem <u>Wettbewerb</u> der Universitaeten heraus { <u>sich</u> } { <u>dieses</u> } { <u>entwickeln</u> }. 10
D63	forewarn implicit dis.	{ <u>ich sage ihnen</u> 2}3 wir <u>werden</u> ? (.)4 eine <u>Debatte</u> haben:? 10
D64	performative dis. explicit dis. explicit dis. introduction	[ne <u>jetzt</u> geh ich ich g geh jetzt erst mal] auf Herrn <u>Ruetgers</u> los. aber [(ich????)] 10

D65 implicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[(jeu7) da ] <u>muss9</u> ma2 aber nicht so <u>weit6</u> zurueck gehn. [ha ha ha ha ha] 10
D66 initial agreement implicit dis.	[ja7:: ich] wollte [(halt7 noch des ??????)] 10
D67 implicit dis.	[nach <u>vorne</u> Herr Olek.] 10
D68 implicit dis. concession	[ <u>nach vorne7</u> <u>nach vorne</u> Herr Olek. (und <u>immer6</u> ????????) (gut7)] 10
D69 explicit dis.	[(?????????????????????) Es geht <u>auf jeden Fall6</u> nach vorne und <u>nich nach hinten.</u> ] 10
D70 implicit dis.	[{ha was hat <u>das</u> denn alles6] noch mit der <u>Chancengleichheit</u> <u>zu tun Herr Henkel</u> }4? [das is <u>alles6</u> <u>nur6</u> noch ( <u>Vitamin B.</u> )] 10
D71 explicit dis.	<u>hat es nicht7.</u> hat es nicht 10
D72 qualified agreement	[ <u>nich viel6</u> ] ich glaub6 auch nich dass <u>die</u> aeh4 10
D73 explicit dis.	[( <u>will</u> ich)] <u>auch6</u> <u>gar6</u> nich. 10
D74 forewarn explicit dis. introduction explicit dis.	[ja7 <u>sie2</u> { <u>wolln</u> ] das <u>vielleicht6</u> }7 <u>nicht.</u> aber <u>andre</u> { <u>wollen das</u> [ <u>vielleicht6</u> ].] 10

- D75  
implicit dis.  
hint  
aeh7 es kann ja6 jeder rein?  
{hab ich gesagt dass [dass die da}4 ]  
10
- D76  
implicit dis.  
[wir muessen9] [dafuer sorgen dass wir] (0.4)4  
Chancengleichheit haben?  
10
- D77  
forewarn  
implicit dis. introduction  
implicit dis.  
also  
wenn wir jetzt mal7 ueber Innovation reden. das is ja6  
interessant was {ih:nen2 dann ~~immer6~~ einfaellt}7.  
Das erste is sie {faellt ihnen2 ein} Atomtechnologie.  
[(????ganz6 einfache ganz6 einfache Frage.)
- D78  
explicit dis.  
[(das is dem Kanzler auch eingefallen als er China war.)  
10
- D79  
implicit dis.  
[[{weil sie2 dafuer gesorgt haben}7]-{weil sie2 dafuer  
gesorgt haben} dass sie] [abgeschrieben werde.]  
10
- D80  
explicit dis.  
[(????????weltweit7)] weil es offensichtlich6 WELTWEIT  
keinen MARKT fuer diese Technologie gibt [die wenigstens6  
die] KOSTEN fuer diese Technolgie reinbringt.  
10
- D81  
explicit dis.  
[das sieht wohl6 anders aus,]  
10
- D82  
explicit dis.  
[(das wissen wir eh6 schon die wollen doch6 Gueter Transport  
transportiern.)]  
10
- D83  
forewarn  
explicit dis.  
{ich sage ihnen2}3  
was {sie {hier {uns als {Spitzentechnologie verkaufen. is seit  
20 Jahren nicht verkaeuflich.  
10

- D84  
implicit dis. [es is was anderes als Windtechnik? Windraeder, und Kuhne?  
da stimm] ich zu.  
10
- D85  
hint [ {sie2 ham ja6} 7 {sie2 SCHEINEN ja6} {sie2 scheinen ja6}  
GROSSE6 PROBLEME haben] ZUZUHOERN.  
implicit dis. an einem Punkt sind wir inzwischen Spitze.(??) mit Japan.  
(????????)
- D86  
explicit dis. also die deutsche Automobilindustrie is nun6 is ja nun6]  
[wirklich6 funktional die beste6 in der Welt? ich meine7 Herr  
Trittin5?]  
10
- D87  
pre-dis. [(?????????????) klassischen Bereich? in einem klassischen  
Bereich]  
forewarn er wird immer6 nervoes wenn wa die  
Innovationsfeindlichkeit der deutschen Industrie7,  
implicit dis. [Die deutsche Industrie] is in bestimmten Bereichen, grade in  
ihren Staerkebereichen ins Hintertreffen geraten?  
post dis. justification weil sie bequem geworden is.
- D88  
implicit dis. [ {noch6 mehr Buerokratie}4. Jawoll4.  
explicit dis. das is][ihre2 (Innovation.)]  
10
- D89  
explicit dis. [dann lassen sie2 doch6 die] Konsumenten entscheiden. (????)  
10
- D90  
explicit dis. TUN wir ja6 grade.  
10
- D91  
explicit dis. das tun sie2 eben6 nich.  
10
- D92  
implicit dis. [(das is der Forschung eigen)]  
10

D93

initial agreement

performative dis.

explicit dis.

post dis. justification

[ja \_ \_ \_  
nein7 nein nein nein?]

sie2 wissen genau was ich meine?

Wir koennen (.) das sage ich hier? politisch nich vorge:be:n,  
was geforscht und was nicht geforscht werden soll2.

## Appendix 2: Explicitness Coding Form

<b>Previous utterance</b>	How can they do an objective job. How can it do an objective job-when (.) it's <u>selling</u> the <u>stuff</u> ? (0.2) for <u>profit</u> ? (0.8) I mean <u>shouldn't</u> we be <u>out</u> there doing our own <u>dispassionate research</u> ?		
<b>Disagreement</b>	<i>Aw, look we can't afford the levels of <u>research</u> that-uh would be necessary for us to be able to give an unqualified uh <u>label</u> to what's going on.</i>		
			Value
Autonomy	Very autonomous		1
	In between	✓	<b>2</b>
	Not very autonomous		3
Syntax-function correlation	Does correlate	✓	<b>1</b>
	Unclear		2
	Does not correlate		3
Structural indicators	Change of preference organization		#4 = 1
	DRP instead of TRP		#3 = 2
	Cohesive devices: Recurrence of words	✓	#2 = <b>3</b>
	Cohesive devices: Discourse markers	✓	#1 = 4
	None		#0 = 5
Reference	Does make reference	✓	<b>1</b>
	Unclear		2
	Does not make reference		3
Total	7		
Type of Disagreement	Explicit		

<b>Previous utterance</b>	The <u>FACT IS</u> that we <u>do</u> have a problem. and we have a particularly <u>severe</u> problem- amongst around about <u>5%</u> of families. We have <u>5%</u> of families in this country who are <u>essentially</u> dysfunctional.		
<b>Disagreement</b>	<i>What's your evidence for that please?</i>		
			Value
Autonomy	Very autonomous		1
	In between		2
	Not very autonomous	✓	<b>3</b>
Syntax-function correlation	Does correlate		1
	Unclear		2
	Does not correlate	✓	<b>3</b>
Structural indicators	Change of preference organization	✓	#4 = 1
	DRP instead of TRP		#3 = 2
	Cohesive devices: Recurrence of words		#2 = 3
	Cohesive devices: Discourse markers		#1 = <b>4</b>
	None		#0 = 5
Reference	Does make reference		1
	Unclear	✓	<b>2</b>
	Does not make reference		3
Total	12		
Type of Disagreement	Hint		

## Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet

### Participant Information Sheet

Project Title: Politeness in Disagreements

Researcher: Stefanie Stadler

My name is Stefanie Stadler, I am enrolled in a PhD degree at the department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics and am conducting research in cross-cultural communication. In my doctoral thesis I intend to explore politeness in German and New Zealand disagreements. Past research has shown that communicating with interactional partners of a different cultural background can be problematic and may lead to misunderstanding. With this research I hope to identify culture specific patterns of interaction and possible differences in order to help facilitate cross-cultural interactions. To this end, I need to conduct a questionnaire and I would like to invite you to participate in my project. The results of this research will be reported in my thesis and possibly in one or more journal articles.

If you agree to participate in this study I would ask you to complete a questionnaire. This will take approximately one hour of your time. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the project without giving reasons until seven weekdays after the questionnaire was completed. As remuneration for your efforts, I will provide refreshments during the completion of the questionnaire.

The data will be analyzed for language patterns only. Any opinions or information obtained from you will be treated with strict confidentiality. As the questionnaire is anonymous, the thesis or any reports based on it will not contain identifying information. Your data will be accessible to me and my supervisors only. After completion of the thesis, the data will be stored securely for a duration of six years. The data will be destroyed thereafter by shredding and then disposing of the questionnaire.

If you would like to take part please complete the questionnaire and return it to me. Thank you very much for your time and help in making this study possible.

If you wish to obtain a summary of my findings upon completion of my doctoral research, please indicate this by ticking 'yes' and providing your email address below:

I wish to obtain a summary of the findings: Yes  No

Email Address: \_\_\_\_\_

If you have any questions or wish to know more about my research please contact me or my supervisor at the following address:

Researcher:

Stefanie Stadler  
Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics  
The University of Auckland  
PB 90219  
Auckland  
New Zealand  
Phone: +64 0210724006  
Email: [salexas@gmx.de](mailto:salexas@gmx.de)

My principal supervisor is:

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns, please contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants and Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Ethics and Biological Safety Administration, Secretariat, RM 001 Alfred Nathan House, 24 Princess Street, Auckland. Phone: +64 09 373 7599 ext. 87830

**Approved by The University of Auckland Human Participants and Ethics Committee on 08/03/2006 for a period of 2 months, from 27/03/2006 Reference 2006/Q/005**

## Appendix 4: Prosody Questionnaire Word-Only Condition

Questionnaire: Prosody

Rate the following disagreements for their perceived level of politeness, using the 10-point scale provided. Circle the respective number.

### Scenario 1

Context: The discussion evolves around Sir Robert Muldoon and whether he was a good prime minister. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that everybody knew about Muldoon's womanizing and alcoholism, but that nobody had the guts to reveal this information while Muldoon was still alive.

Disagreement: Well, you're not quite right actually Brian, I I lot of this w was in fact revealed in 1978 in a book written by Spiro Zavos called 'The real Muldoon'. I know that cause I helped him research the damn thing.

<u>Impolite</u>		Not very polite		Neutral		Polite		Very polite	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

### Scenario 2

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there are common Maori interests.

Disagreement: On certain specific issues. And I'll have some sympathy for the fact that uh o of the property rights issue which, you know, is the business round tables. With you on that one, that they they are taking away of your property rights and the constitutional implications of that. But equally I don't know that there is a Maori (???) and in fact maybe the answer is that we all become a little bit Maori.

<u>Impolite</u>		Not very polite		Neutral		Polite		Very polite	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 3

Context: The discussion evolves around organic versus conventional farming and their respective environmental and economic benefits. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there is very little concrete evidence that chemicals are dangerous.

Disagreement: You see, there's nothing at all equivocal about that. If the word health organization is talking about twenty thousand people every year throughout the world dying as a result of pesticide poisoning, that's a very very serious issue.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 4

Context: The discussion evolves around Sir Robert Muldoon and whether he was a good prime minister. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claimed that the media was too scared to stand up to Muldoon.

Disagreement: You'd loose your job if you stood up to him.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 5

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it could happen that it is a possibility that Tareana Turea could become deputy Prime Minister.

Disagreement: Would be possible i i or course it's a possibility. Anything's possible. But the party needs to focus on what has to be done right now and look to see: who are the people that might be interested or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean you approach the setup of this party like you would with any new business starting.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 6

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue of social welfare, if there is a crisis and if this crisis is based on the welfare system or the country's economy. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it is the country's economy that is responsible for the crisis.

Disagreement: I d I believe that we do have a time bomb out there. And I believe that if we don't address the issue the by 2010 we could have a problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984. And I think the problem is a social welfare system that has changed over the years.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 7

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that all New Zealanders are opposed to public funding being used to support gay and lesbian television programmes.

Disagreement: And you are the main people that are actually comp complaining about it

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 8

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that existing Maori Parties have a common ground.

Disagreement: I think that's patronizing. It is patronizing to say that there is a single thing as (about) Maori interest.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

## Appendix 5: Prosody Questionnaire Word + Prosody Condition

Questionnaire: Prosody

Rate the following disagreements for their perceived level of politeness, using the 10-point scale provided. Circle the respective number.

### Scenario 1

Context: The discussion evolves around organic versus conventional farming and their respective environmental and economic benefits. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there is very little concrete evidence that chemicals are dangerous.

Disagreement: You see, there's nothing at all equivocal about that. If the word health organization is talking about twenty thousand people every year throughout the world dying as a result of pesticide poisoning, that's a very very serious issue.

<u>Impolite</u>		<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

### Scenario 2

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue of social welfare, if there is a crisis and if this crisis is based on the welfare system or the country's economy. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it is the country's economy that is responsible for the crisis.

Disagreement: I d I believe that we do have a time bomb out there. And I believe that if we don't address the issue the by 2010 we could have a problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984. And I think the problem is a social welfare system that has changed over the years.

<u>Impolite</u>		<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 3

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that existing Maori Parties have a common ground.

Disagreement: I think that's patronizing. It is patronizing to say that there is a single thing as (about) Maori interest.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 4

Context: The discussion evolves around Sir Robert Muldoon and whether he was a good prime minister. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claimed that the media was too scared to stand up to Muldoon.

Disagreement: You'd loose your job if you stood up to him.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 5

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it could happen that it is a possibility that Tareana Turea could become deputy Prime Minister.

Disagreement: Would be possible i i or course it's a possibility. Anything's possible. But the party needs to focus on what has to be done right now and look to see: who are the people that might be interested or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean you approach the setup of this party like you would with any new business starting.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 6

Context: The discussion evolves around Sir Robert Muldoon and whether he was a good prime minister. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that everybody knew about Muldoon's womanizing and alcoholism, but that nobody had the guts to reveal this information while Muldoon was still alive.

Disagreement: Well, you're not quite right actually Brian, I know a lot of this was in fact revealed in 1978 in a book written by Spiro Zavos called 'The real Muldoon'. I know that cause I helped him research the damn thing.

Impolite      Not very polite      Neutral      Polite      Very polite

10    9    8    7    6    5    4    3    2    1

Scenario 7

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there are common Maori interests.

Disagreement: On certain specific issues. And I'll have some sympathy for the fact that uh o of the property rights issue which, you know, is the business round tables. With you on that one, that they they are taking away of your property rights and the constitutional implications of that. But equally I don't know that there is a Maori (???) and in fact maybe the answer is that we all become a little bit Maori.

Impolite      Not very polite      Neutral      Polite      Very polite

10    9    8    7    6    5    4    3    2    1

Scenario 8

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that all New Zealanders are opposed to public funding being used to support gay and lesbian television programmes.

Disagreement: And you are the main people that are actually comp complaining about it

Impolite      Not very polite      Neutral      Polite      Very polite

10    9    8    7    6    5    4    3    2    1

## Appendix 6: Prosody Questionnaire Word + Prosody + Non-Verbal Condition

Questionnaire: Prosody

Rate the following disagreements for their perceived level of politeness, using the 10-point scale provided. Circle the respective number.

Scenario 1									
Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there are common Maori interests.									
Disagreement: On certain specific issues. And I'll have some sympathy for the fact that uh o of the property rights issue which, you know, is the business round tables. With you on that one, that they they are taking away of your property rights and the constitutional implications of that. But equally I don't know that there is a Maori (???) and in fact maybe the answer is that we all become a little bit Maori.									
<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 2									
Context: The discussion evolves around the issue of social welfare, if there is a crisis and if this crisis is based on the welfare system or the country's economy. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it is the country's economy that is responsible for the crisis.									
Disagreement: I d I believe that we do have a time bomb out there. And I believe that if we don't address the issue the by 2010 we could have a problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984. And I think the problem is a social welfare system that has changed over the years.									
<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 3

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it could happen that it is a possibility that Tareana Turea could become deputy Prime Minister.

Disagreement: Would be possible i i or course it's a possibility. Anything's possible. But the party needs to focus on what has to be done right now and look to see: who are the people that might be interested or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean you approach the setup of this party like you would with any new business starting.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 4

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that all New Zealanders are opposed to public funding being used to support gay and lesbian television programmes.

Disagreement: And you are the main people that are actually comp complaining about it

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 5

Context: The discussion evolves around Sir Robert Muldoon and whether he was a good prime minister. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that everybody knew about Muldoon's womanizing and alcoholism, but that nobody had the guts to reveal this information while Muldoon was still alive.

Disagreement: Well, you're not quite right actually Brian, I l lot of this w was in fact revealed in 1978 in a book written by Spiro Zavos called 'The real Muldoon'. I know that cause I helped him research the damn thing.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

## Appendix 7: Non-Verbal Questionnaire Word-Only Condition

### Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Rate the following disagreements for their perceived level of politeness, using the 10-point scale provided. Circle the respective number.

Scenario 1									
Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it could happen that it is a possibility that Tareana Turea could become deputy Prime Minister.									
Disagreement: Would be possible i i or course it's a possibility. Anything's possible. But the party needs to focus on what has to be done right now and look to see: who are the people that might be interested or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean you approach the setup of this party like you would with any new business starting.									
<u>Impolite</u>	Not very polite		Neutral		Polite		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 2									
Context: The discussion evolves around the issue of social welfare, if there is a crisis and if this crisis is based on the welfare system or the country's economy. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it is the country's economy that is responsible for the crisis.									
Disagreement: I d I believe that we do have a time bomb out there. And I believe that if we don't address the issue by 2010 we could have a problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984. And I think the problem is a social welfare system that has changed over the years.									
<u>Impolite</u>	Not very polite		Neutral		Polite		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 3

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that all New Zealanders are opposed to public funding being used to support gay and lesbian television programmes.

Disagreement: And you are the main people that are actually comp complaining about it.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 4

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that expresses doubt that Mrs. Harawera will be the kiss of death to the Maori Party.

Disagreement: Yes. Yes. And that is what's being said. And we need to have the courage. The Maori Party when it gets into gear it needs to have the courage to say if that is gonna be the issue and it is gonna put people off, how do we address this.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 5

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that the Christian Heritage Party does not use public funding for news items.

Disagreement: Ok. But surely it's up to you to approach New Zealand on air for funding for your Christian programmes, so that you can promote Christian themes.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 6

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there are common Maori interests.

Disagreement: On certain specific issues. And I'll have some sympathy for the fact that uh o of the property rights issue which, you know, is the business round tables. With you on that one, that they they are taking away of your property rights and the constitutional implications of that. But equally I don't know that there is a Maori (???) and in fact maybe the answer is that we all become a little bit Maori.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 7

Context: The discussion evolves around organic versus conventional farming and their respective environmental and economic benefits. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that today's chemicals are safer, less toxic, that you have to apply less and that they leave less residue.

Disagreement: You have to examine that in the light of the very much greater use of chemicals than what we had in the past. So that there may be less being used per apple, but there's more being used world-wide. And who measures safe?

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

### Scenario 8

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue that none of Germany's Parties have any direction in their politics and that they bring up many issues, but do not resolve any of them. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that no reforms will happen that year (2004).

Disagreement: Counter coun counter counter no no counter-hypothesis. Counter-hypothesis. But I expect it, if it comes, this year, because the important elections for Schroeder are those in North Rhine-Westphalia, in autumn the communal elections, next spring the parliamentary elections. If he wants to do something via people he has to do it this year.

Gegen gen gegen gegen ne ne Gegenthese. Gegenthese. Aber ich erwarte sie, wenn sie kommt, dieses Jahr, weil die entscheidenden Wahlen für Schröder sind die in Norrheinwestfahlen. Im Herbst die Kommunalwahl, im nächsten Frühjahr die Landtagswahlen. Wenn er über Personen was machen will muss ers dieses Jahr machen.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

### Scenario 9

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue that none of Germany's Parties have any direction in their politics and that they bring up many issues, but do not resolve any of them. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that the German government spends even more than 10,000 Euros on some students.

Disagreement: no no on average. No on average. We're talking on average. We're talking on average.

Ne ne im Durchschnitt. Na im Durchschnitt. Wir reden im Durchschnitt. Wir reden im Durchschnitt.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

## Appendix 8: Non-Verbal Questionnaire Word + Non-Verbal Condition

### Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Rate the following disagreements for their perceived level of politeness, using the 10-point scale provided. Circle the respective number.

#### Scenario 1

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that all New Zealanders are opposed to public funding being used to support gay and lesbian television programmes.

Disagreement: And you are the main people that are actually comp complaining about it.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

#### Scenario 2

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue of social welfare, if there is a crisis and if this crisis is based on the welfare system or the country's economy. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it is the country's economy that is responsible for the crisis.

Disagreement: I d I believe that we do have a time bomb out there. And I believe that if we don't address the issue by 2010 we could have a problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984. And I think the problem is a social welfare system that has changed over the years.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 3

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that expresses doubt that Mrs. Harawera will be the kiss of death to the Maori Party.

Disagreement: Yes. Yes. And that is what's being said. And we need to have the courage. The Maori Party when it gets into gear it needs to have the courage to say if that is gonna be the issue and it is gonna put people off, how do we address this.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 4

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there are common Maori interests.

Disagreement: On certain specific issues. And I'll have some sympathy for the fact that uh o of the property rights issue which, you know, is the business round tables. With you on that one, that they they are taking away of your property rights and the constitutional implications of that. But equally I don't know that there is a Maori (???) and in fact maybe the answer is that we all become a little bit Maori.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 5

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that the Christian Heritage Party does not use public funding for news items.

Disagreement: Ok. But surely it's up to you to approach New Zealand on air for funding for your Christian programmes, so that you can promote Christian themes.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 6

Context: The discussion evolves around organic versus conventional farming and their respective environmental and economic benefits. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that today's chemicals are safer, less toxic, that you have to apply less and that they leave less residue.

Disagreement: You have to examine that in the light of the very much greater use of chemicals than what we had in the past. So that there may be less being used per apple, but there's more being used world-wide. And who measures safe?

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

### Scenario 7

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it could happen that it is a possibility that Tareana Turea could become deputy Prime Minister.

Disagreement: Would be possible i i or course it's a possibility. Anything's possible. But the party needs to focus on what has to be done right now and look to see: who are the people that might be interested or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean you approach the setup of this party like you would with any new business starting.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

### Scenario 8

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue that none of Germany's Parties have any direction in their politics and that they bring up many issues, but do not resolve any of them. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that no reforms will happen that year (2004).

Disagreement: Counter coun counter counter no no counter-hypothesis. Counter-hypothesis. But I expect it, if it comes, this year, because the important elections for Schroeder are those in North Rhine-Westphalia, in autumn the communal elections, next spring the parliamentary elections. If he wants to do something via people he has to do it this year.

Gegen gen gegen gegen ne ne Gegenthese. Gegenthese. Aber ich erwarte sie, wenn sie kommt, dieses Jahr, weil die entscheidenden Wahlen für Schröder sind die in Norrheinwestfahlen. Im Herbst die Kommunalwahl, im nächsten Frühjahr die Landtagswahlen. Wenn er über Personen was machen will muss ers dieses Jahr machen.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 9

Context: The discussion evolves around the issue that none of Germany's Parties have any direction in their politics and that they bring up many issues, but do not resolve any of them. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that the German government spends even more than 10,000 Euros on some students.

Disagreement: no no on average. No on average. We're talking on average. We're talking on average.

Ne ne im Durchschnitt. Na im Durchschnitt. Wir reden im Durchschnitt. Wir reden im Durchschnitt.

<u>Impolite</u>		<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

## Appendix 9: Non-Verbal Questionnaire Word + Non-Verbal + Prosody Condition

### Non-Verbal Questionnaire

Rate the following disagreements for their perceived level of politeness, using the 10-point scale provided. Circle the respective number.

Scenario 1									
Context: The discussion evolves around the issue of social welfare, if there is a crisis and if this crisis is based on the welfare system or the country's economy. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it is the country's economy that is responsible for the crisis.									
Disagreement: I d I believe that we do have a time bomb out there. And I believe that if we don't address the issue by 2010 we could have a problem in the social policy area greater than the economic problem we had in 1984. And I think the problem is a social welfare system that has changed over the years.									
<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 2									
Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that claims that it could happen that it is a possibility that Tareana Turea could become deputy Prime Minister.									
Disagreement: Would be possible i i or course it's a possibility. Anything's possible. But the party needs to focus on what has to be done right now and look to see: who are the people that might be interested or will be interested in swinging in behind them. I mean you approach the setup of this party like you would with any new business starting.									
<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>			<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 3

Context: The discussion evolves around the Christian Heritage Party's opposition against gays and lesbians. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that all New Zealanders are opposed to public funding being used to support gay and lesbian television programmes.

Disagreement: And you are the main people that are actually comp complaining about it.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 4

Context: The discussion evolves around organic versus conventional farming and their respective environmental and economic benefits. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that today's chemicals are safer, less toxic, that you have to apply less and that they leave less residue.

Disagreement: You have to examine that in the light of the very much greater use of chemicals than what we had in the past. So that there may be less being used per apple, but there's more being used world-wide. And who measures safe?

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 5

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous one that claims that there are common Maori interests.

Disagreement: On certain specific issues. And I'll have some sympathy for the fact that uh o of the property rights issue which, you know, is the business round tables. With you on that one, that they they are taking away of your property rights and the constitutional implications of that. But equally I don't know that there is a Maori (???) and in fact maybe the answer is that we all become a little bit Maori.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scenario 6

Context: The discussion evolves around whether there is a chance for a Maori Party to succeed. The following statement disagrees with a previous statement that expresses doubt that Mrs. Harawera will be the kiss of death to the Maori Party.

Disagreement: Yes. Yes. And that is what's being said. And we need to have the courage. The Maori Party when it gets into gear it needs to have the courage to say if that is gonna be the issue and it is gonna put people off, how do we address this.

<u>Impolite</u>	<u>Not very polite</u>		<u>Neutral</u>		<u>Polite</u>		<u>Very polite</u>		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

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