

**Contextual and Cultural Differences in Speaker-Audience
Interaction in Korean Political Oratory**

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Abstract

This study investigates speaker-audience interaction in political oratory. The aims of this study are (1) to investigate the contextual and cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory, (2) to contribute methodological innovations in the analysis of political discourse, and (3) to emphasise the practical implications of the study for real life.

By combining qualitative and quantitative methods, speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour and audience's behaviour (forms of response and collective behaviour) are analysed in three speech contexts of Korean presidential election 2012: acceptance speeches to the nomination as political parties' candidates for presidential election, presidential election campaign speeches, and presidential inauguration speeches.

It is presented that: (1) there are close relationships between orator-audience interaction and speech contexts beyond the cultural dimensions; (2) invitation to respond is shaped by multiple layers of resources (verbal devices and nonverbal factors); (3) grammatical order is an important factor in the cultural differences in terms of the projectability of turn completion in orator-audience interaction; (4) the production of orator-audience interaction occurs by mutual respect of each other's turn and mutual collaboration to achieve their shared goals; (5) audience behaviour has evolved through the political time periods.

It is argued that political speech context (i.e., the purpose of oratory, speaker-audience status, political culture and system), language, and nonverbal factors are important variables in studying speaker-audience interaction. Based on the findings, practical implications in social and political behaviour are presented.

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Declaration of Originality

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References. Based on some of the work within this thesis, the following chapters have been submitted for publication and presented at conferences.

- Chapters Three and Seven:
Audience responses and the context of political speeches. *Journal of Social and Political Psychology* (Accepted).
- Chapters Three and Seven:
Audience response and speech context in Korea. *International Political Science Association Conference* (September 2015).
- Chapter Four and Five:
Generating collective audience responses in orator-audience interaction: Culture or Context? Rhetoric or Delivery? *British Psychological Society Conference* (September 2016).
- Overall Methodology:
Cross-cultural rhetoric. *Research/ing in Asia: concepts, values and practice Conference* (April 2015).

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study investigates speaker-audience interaction in political oratory: how a political speaker generates collective audience responses, how large audience members respond to the speaker, and how turn-taking occurs between the speaker and members of a large audience. The broad aims of this study are: (1) to examine speech contextual and cultural differences in speaker-audience interactions in political oratory; (2) to contribute methodological innovation in analysing political oratory; and (3) to emphasise the practical implications of the study in real life. The aims will be achieved by developing analytic techniques which are applied to the analysis of political oratory in the Republic of Korea (South Korea, hereafter Korea) in three contexts: (1) acceptance speeches to nomination as political parties' candidates for presidential elections; (2) presidential election campaign speeches; and (3) presidential inauguration speeches.

The microanalyses of audience behaviour, speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour, and systematic interaction between the speaker and audience members will be demonstrated. By presenting the qualitative and quantitative results of the analysis dimensions, speech contextual and cultural similarities and differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory will be discussed. Then, it will be argued that political speech context (i.e., the purpose of oratory, speaker-audience status, political culture and system), language, and nonverbal factors are important variables in studying speaker-audience interaction. Based on the findings, practical implications (i.e., the relationship between audience response rates and electoral success, the relationship between audience behaviour and political periods, and effective political speech-making techniques) in political communication and political and social behaviour will be presented. The findings, methodological

innovations, and implications will contribute not only to the research area but also to political performance.

1.2 The problem

Social interaction and language use has been studied in a variety of interactional contexts using Conversation Analysis (CA), such as doctor-patient interaction in medical situations (e.g., Heath, 1982, 1986, 1989; Heritage & Sefi, 1992; Maynard, 1992; Maynard & Heritage, 2005; Toerien, Shaw, & Reuber, 2013; Peräkylä, 1995), caller-server interaction in emergency call centres (e.g., Zimmerman, 1992, 1998), attorney-witness interaction in courtroom (e.g., Atkinson, 1979; Atkinson & Drew, 1979; Drew, 1984, 1992), teacher-pupil interaction in classrooms (e.g., Cuff & Hustler, 1982; McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979), interviewer- interviewee interaction in television news interviews (e.g., Clayman, 1992a; Greatbatch, 1985, 1992; Heritage, 1985), and speaker-audience interaction in political oratory (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

In pragmatics and discourse analysis, politeness and rituals have been studied in different languages and interactional contexts (e.g., Kádár & Haugh, 2013; Kádár, 2013, Kádár & Mills, 2011; Kádár & Ran, 2015). Especially in metapragmatics, which is defined as “the study of *awareness* on the part of ordinary or *lay observers* about the ways in which they use language to interact and communicate with others” (Kádár & Haugh 2013, p.181), politeness has been studied beyond the language use through observing politeness as a social practice.

However, systematic study of speaker-audience interaction in political oratory has not been conducted sufficiently in terms of how orator-audience interaction differs from the other social interaction, cross-cultural differences in the interaction, and the impact of the interaction in social actions. A substantial body of research on political oratory has been directed towards investigating the content of the speeches, whereas speaker-audience interaction in political oratory has attracted

relatively little in the way of detailed analytical attention and its importance in political communication and social interaction is underdeveloped.

Speaker-audience interaction in political oratory is a characteristic interaction context. It has four features distinguishing it from the other interactional settings. First, interaction in political oratory occurs between one speaker and many listeners, while other interactions generally occur between two interlocutors, except the classroom interaction. In everyday conversation turn-taking occurs between participants and “turns are allocated equally between participants”, hence, “in principle at least, participants in conversation generally share equal right of speakership” (Drew, 1991, p. 21). Due to the equal rights of the speakership, the interaction is regarded as “free-flowing conversational interaction” (Psathas, 1995, p. 36). In political oratory, the role of the orator is to speak, and the role of the audiences is to listen. Due to the speaker-listener role, the audience’s turn is limited compared to the context of everyday conversations. The restricted interaction is described as “characteristically asymmetrical” interaction in talk (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 47).

Second, while the interlocutors in the other interactional settings generally respond to each other verbally, the audience members in oratory respond to what the speaker says with non-verbal and paralinguistic based responses, such as applause, cheers, laughter, booing (Clayman, 1992, 1993), and heckling (McIlvenny, 1996a, 1996b). In responding to the speaker, it is important for the audience members to coordinate each other and respond collectively at appropriate points of the speaker’s messages. The collective audience responses play an important role in the oratorical setting because the audience responses provide feedback to the speaker and influence what and how the speaker delivers his or her speech. They are not only barometers of attention and agreement to the speeches (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; Stewart, 2015), but also assessments of the speaker’s popularity (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Bull & Miskinis, 2015; West, 1984).

Thirdly, political oratory is a public discourse. It is delivered to local audience members who interact with a speaker in an oratory venue and also distant audience members (e.g., television viewers, radio listeners, journalists, and broadcasters) because it is often reported in the mass media. On the other hand, everyday conversation, doctor-patient, teacher-pupil, and attorney-witness interactions target the local interlocutors within the contexts. The political news interview is also a public discourse; however, the interaction between politician and interviewer is intentionally produced for broadcasting and targeted to television viewers and radio listeners.

Televised political oratory is a good opportunity for politicians to build their image, present their leadership and charisma, and gain a good reputation from the public. For example, a speaker who has skills in generating collective audience applause effectively by using appropriate rhetorical devices and delivery is regarded as a charismatic speaker (Atkinson, 1984a) in political oratory. Politicians are well aware of the importance of audience response because both positive and negative responses from an audience increase the chance of the speech being broadcast in the media and for good or bad publicity to follow (Atkinson 1984a; Bull & Feldman 2011). Politicians construct their political identities through political discourses. For example, Tony Blair successfully built a political and personal identity as “a normal person”, “a new kind of politician”, characterised by “freshness and a sense of change”, and “confidence and self-assurance”, by using characteristic verbal and nonverbal communication and a particular rhetorical style in the political discourses during the Labour Party leadership speeches and when he became Prime Minister (Fairclough, 2000, pp. 96-98).

Furthermore, the political discourse context is one where politicians can show their performance skills and communication abilities. For example, Blair was interrupted and heckled twice by anti-war and pro-hunting protests in the course of his speech to the Labour Party Conference in 2004. He managed the first interruption by responding “That’s fine sir, you can make your protest, just thank goodness we live in a democracy” (Tony Blair, Labour Party Conference, 2004). Audience members

immediately applauded him. When his speech was interrupted again, he waited without any response until the protesters were arrested by security officers, then he questioned the audience members with a smiley face “Well, excuse me, but if there is any more of you, do you mind standing up now?” His humorous statement produced a burst of applause and laughter from the audience members. These incidents could damage the speaker’s face, however, the speaker and audience members managed them by the speaker’s communication skills and the audience members’ group activities. The event shows that the possible damage on the speaker’s face can be managed by speaker-audience interaction and co-operation in the partisan speech context.

However, in a non-partisan context, politicians are more exposed to risk, such as losing face but also their political party’s face, damaging their image and leadership, and gaining a bad reputation through their speeches. For example, Tony Blair’s speech (June 7, 2000) to the British Women’s Institute, which is a non-political organisation, was slow handclapped and heckled because his speech was too political. As a result, he was criticised and received a bad reputation in the newspapers (Bull & Feldman, 2011). Hence, it can be suggested that the political oratory is a context where (1) face management is highly important, (2) participants consider not only local listeners and but also distant viewers or listeners when they interact, and (3) audience response can be a tool in face management but can also be face damaging for political orators.

In summary, speaker-audience interaction in political oratory can be distinguished from other interactional contexts because of its specific characteristics, such as big audiences, group activities, forms of response, public discourse, leadership, and face management.

As addressed, speaker-audience interaction is a characteristically asymmetrical form of interaction in political oratory due to a speaker and large audience interaction and particular kinds of response forms. In order to make a smooth interaction (i.e. turn-taking) between the speaker and audience members, it is

important for the speaker to generate collective audience responses at appropriate points. The questions, then, are: how do members of a large audience act collectively towards the speaker? What influences the members of a large audience to applaud the speaker collectively? What sort of tools does the speaker use in evoking group behaviour at appropriate points? Does the speaker intentionally invite audience members to applaud, or do the audience members respond to the speaker spontaneously? How does turn-taking in speaker-audience interaction occur?

Previous studies (Atkinson, 1984a; Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000; Bull & Wells, 2002; Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986) show fundamental answers to those questions such that rhetorically formatted messages and turn completion signal an invitation to respond in British political oratory, whereas, pragmatic messages signal an invitation to respond in Japanese political oratory. However, much work is left to investigate whether there are speech contextual differences in speaker-audience interaction, whether the function of collective audience responses are universal in all political speech contexts, to what extent nonverbal factors play a role in the interaction, whether there are cultural differences in the use of nonverbal features in the interaction, whether different grammatical ordering affects the use of verbal behaviour between the cultures, why it is important to study orator-audience interaction in political and social actions, and how the research findings might contribute to the understanding of real life. This study is a journey to seek the questions by reviewing previous studies, conducting a series of analyses through an inductive approach, and forming an understanding of the limitations of the previous studies. Through this, it aims to develop theories, present systematic and microanalysis, and discuss contextual and cultural differences in the orator-audience interaction.

1.3 Overview of Methodology

Scholars have examined speaker-audience interaction in three cultures: British, American, and Japanese. Previous studies claim that there are close relationships

between cultural dimensions and speaker-audience interaction (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Bull & Miskinis, 2015) and between the use of verbal behaviours and the generation of collective audience responses (Atkinson, 1984a, 1984b; Bull & Wells, 2002; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; Bull & Miskinis, 2015). In order to evaluate and develop the theory, speeches were selected from three different political speech contexts in Korea: (1) acceptance speeches to the nomination as political parties' candidates for presidential election, (2) presidential election campaign speeches, and (3) presidential inauguration speeches in the Korean presidential election of 2012.

1.3.1 Data

A total of 21 Korean political speeches from three different contexts were analysed: (1) four nomination acceptance speeches from the 18th Korean presidential election of 2012, (2) ten speeches during the presidential election campaign of 2012, and (3) seven presidential inauguration speeches from 1981 to 2012. The speeches lasted a total of 7 hours 17 minutes. Durations are summarized in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Speeches and duration

	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Speeches	4	10	7
Duration (minutes)	74:04	163:14	193:22
Mean (minutes)	18:31	17:00	27:66

A total of nine candidates including five independent candidates who were unaffiliated with any of the existing political parties registered for the 18th presidential election. The five independent candidates delivered their candidacy declarations, however, the independent candidates' speeches were not included in the study in order to examine the data in equal conditions, such as amount of audience, platform speeches, indoor venues, partisan context, representing parties, and launching election campaign with a large party meeting prior to the beginning of official election campaign. The four acceptance speeches were all delivered in

these conditions. The four acceptance speeches lasted a total of 74:04 minutes (with a mean of 18:31 minutes).

Three speeches (Park GH, Moon JI, and Sim SJ) were delivered immediately after the results of the primary race on the last day of the primary election. One speaker (Lee JH, United Progress Party) delivered the speech next day of the last day of the in-party race. Therefore, the atmosphere of the conventions that announced their candidates and delivered acceptance speeches to the party members and media was slightly different between the three parties (i.e., Saenuri, Democratic United, and Progressive Justice) and the United Progressive Party. It seemed that audience members in the United Progressive Party convention were well organised and united for supporting their candidate, Lee JH. As the party's primary race closed and announced their candidate before the day of the convention, the party, the speaker, and audience members may have prepared well the convention.

Of the four nominated candidates, two candidates of the progressive parties, Sim SJ and Lee JH, withdrew their candidature for the major progressive party's candidate, Moon JI, during the official campaign period in order to take power away from the conservative ruling party. In Korean political election, it often happens that the progressive opposition parties are united and select only one candidate among the progressive parties in order to win elections against the conservative ruling party. Therefore, the two resigned candidates' campaign speeches were excluded.

Hence, the analyses of campaign speeches were based on the other two candidates: Park GH who gave a total of 82 speeches, and Moon who gave a total of 79 speeches during the official campaign period. As it was observed that the speakers repeated their speeches in various cities and the major contents were similar, ten speeches were selected for analysis: five speeches of Park GH and five speeches of Moon JI. In order to select speeches in a similar condition of content and context, dates, cities, and the average number of audience members were also considered. For examples, first two speeches and last two speeches from each speaker were delivered first day and last of the official election campaign, respectively. Second

two speeches were delivered to the cities where the two candidates were elected as members of parliament in the districts, thus, the cities were strong support regions for each candidate. The ten speeches were delivered in outdoor venues, on special stages for the campaign speeches in public squares. The ten speeches were delivered in outdoor venues and lasted a total of 163:14 minutes (mean 17:00 minutes).

In the inaugural speeches of the first to eleventh presidents of Korea, audience responses did not occur except for applause prior to and at the end of the speeches.¹ Thus, only the remaining seven speeches (from the twelfth president to the present day) were selected to investigate whether there were differences in the speaker-audience interaction over the time. The twelfth inaugural speech was delivered at an indoor venue, the other six at outdoor locations, on special stages for the inaugural ceremonies in front of the National Assembly building. The seven inaugural speeches occupied a total of 193:22 minutes (with a mean of 27:66 minutes).

1.3.1.1 List of speeches

Each candidate's party affiliation, the date and duration of each speech are shown in parentheses (Note: Candidates names are given in the Korean order, i.e., family name first).

Acceptance speeches (2012)

1. Park Geun-hye: Saenuri Party, the party in power, August 20, 15:12 minutes
2. Moon Jae-in: Democratic United Party, September 16, 24:45 minutes
3. Lee Jeong-hee: United Progressive Party, October 21, 18:56 minutes
4. Sim Sang-jeong: Progressive Justice Party, October 21, 15:11 minutes

¹ It is noted that audios (or videos) of the third and the eighth inaugural speech were not archived in the Presidential History Museum. Due to this limitation, it cannot be confirmed whether there was an absence of audience response in the two speeches.

Election campaign speeches (2012)

Park Geun-hye (Saenuri Party: the conservative ruling party)

1. November 27, Daejeon, 11:17 minutes
2. November 30, Busan, 16:51 minutes
3. December 08, Seoul, 21:06 minutes
4. December 15, Seoul, 25:01 minutes
5. December 18, Seoul, 11:09 minutes

Moon Jae-in (Democratic United Party: the major progressive opposition)

6. November 27, Seoul, 19:57 minutes
7. November 30, Daegu, 17:13 minutes
8. December 08, Seoul, 16:24 minutes
9. December 15, Seoul, 10:07 minutes
10. December 18, Seoul, 14:09 minutes

Presidential Inauguration speeches (from 1981 to 2012)

1. Chun Doo-whan 12th president (March 03, 1981, 27:16 minutes)
2. Roh Tae-woo 13th president (February 25, 1988, 25:30 minutes)
3. Kim Yong-sam 14th president (February 25, 1993, 31:10 minutes)
4. Kim Dae-jung 15th president (February 25, 1998, 32:40 minutes)
5. Roh Moo-hyen 16th president (February 25, 2003, 21:28 minutes)
6. Lee Myung-bak 17th president (February 25, 2008, 36:29 minutes)
7. Park Geun-hye 18th president (February 25, 2013, 20:10 minutes)

1.3.1.2 Background to the Korean presidential election speeches 2012

Speech context is one of the most important issues in this study. As this research is based on a series of analyses of various dimensions conducted in three speech contexts, the various stages of each speech context are explained in this section, in order to aid our understanding of the three speech genres in Korean political speeches. Generally, the presidential election speeches have five stages: (1) official declaration of candidacy for presidential election, (2) a speech to nomination

contest during in-party race, (3) an acceptance speech by the winner of the in-party race, (4) an election campaign speech, and (5) a presidential inauguration speech.

In the first speech context, politicians deliver speeches to announce their candidacy for president to their supporters. The purpose of the speech is to announce their decision to seek their political party nomination for president and to convey their vision and reasons to run for president.

The second and third contexts are based on the nomination contest in which there is the announcement of a winner of the primary election in each political party. The purpose of the second speech is to win the in-party race. The in-party nomination contest for presidential election 2012 was held over for several weeks at each party. The nomination contest consists of two major parts: a series of joint speeches and votes. Political parties run a series of primary elections in each region in order for their electors to vote for the race. In the joint speeches during the local races, candidates deliver their speeches to the electors at political conventions.

The joint speeches during the in-party race differ from other oratorical settings due to audience members and seating arrangement in groups within a venue. Although audience members are generally members of a political party, each audience member may support a candidate. Thus, audience members as a whole are divided along each candidate. Each audience group is committed to one candidate. During the speeches, audience responses occur according to each group. In Korean presidential election 2012, four political parties nominated their candidates for the presidential election. Three of the four parties (two major parties and one third party) run the nomination contest. One of the four parties did not have in-party races because there was only one candidate registered for the race. Hence, the party conducted for or against votes instead of a series of primary elections.

The official results of the primary elections are announced on the final contest day. After each party nominates a candidate, winners of the nomination contest deliver their acceptance speech (the third context) as presidential candidates to their party

members at the presidential nomination conventions. The purpose of the speech is to accept the nomination, to show appreciation for the nomination, to convey their vision and pledges for policies, to ask the party members solidarity to win the presidential election, and to declare the launch of the presidential campaign.

In the fourth context, the candidates representing each party deliver their campaign speeches to voters in various cities during the election campaign tour. The official election campaign of the 18th presidential election (November 27, 2012) lasted for 22 days. The purpose of the speeches is to win the presidential election. The campaign speech events are organised by each party and run by a master commandant (or commandants). The events generally contain (1) performances of election campaign songs by the event teams or supporting songs by singers, (2) supporting speeches by the candidates' political colleagues, and (3) main speeches by the candidates. The events normally take place at outdoor locations such as public squares, rail station squares, streets, markets, and university campuses. The candidates deliver their speeches on special stages built for big events or stages built on campaigning cars for small events.

Although the election campaign speeches target the wider electorate, it is usually the case that the supporters and the decided voters attend the campaign speech events. The undecided voters may attend the events; however, the supporters of opponents hardly attend the events. The function of these political meetings is to unite the decided voters, to persuade the undecided voters, to help them evaluate the speaker's and the opponent's competence and capacity as a president, to praise own party, to condemn the opponent party or governments, and to convey pledges. As the speeches are delivered in various cities and to the citizens, the candidates present not only overall pledges for policies but also detailed pledges for the region policies.

In the fifth context, the winner of the presidential election delivers his or her presidential inauguration speech to invited nations, domestic politicians, and international politicians. The inauguration ceremony takes place in either indoor or

outdoor location. There are generally celebration events before and after the speeches. The purposes of the speech are to convey appreciation, the speaker's political philosophy, the identity of the government, directions of running the government, vision, general policies for each field, and a pledge for doing his or her best in running the government and for the nation and country.

This study investigates the speeches of third, fourth, and fifth contexts: acceptance speeches, campaign speeches, and inauguration speeches. As explained above, the three speech contexts are distinguished due to the purpose of the speeches and audience members.

1.3.2 Mixed methods

This study applies qualitative and quantitative assessments. This section provides a brief overview of CA, combining CA with quantitative methods. Then, it presents the mixed methods approach as a solution to investigate contextual and cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction.

1.3.2.1 Conversation Analysis

CA is a core methodology for analysing social interaction. It provides microanalytic tools to investigate language and social interaction. It has characteristic methodological tools: the detailed examination of tape or video recordings, transcriptions from the recordings, and presentation of both verbal and prosodic features using transcript notations. Using the tools, it studies the social organization of conversation and social interaction (Drew, 2005), and "how social action is brought about through the close organisation of talk" (Antaki, 2011, P. 1). Notably, it provides a "clear view of the way in which one action is fitted to another as conversationalists engage in the step-by-step creation of organisation" (Lee, 1987, p. 21). Pioneering CA studies were conducted on everyday conversation between peers in everyday contexts such as face to face conversation and telephone conversation. Everyday conversation is a basic form of talk-in-interaction (Drew,

2005) and all forms of social organization for talk-in-interaction are managed through conversation between social members (Schegloff, 1996a). It is “a kind of benchmark against which other more formal or ‘institutional’ types of interaction are recognized and experienced. Explicit within this perspective is the view that other ‘institutional’ forms of interaction will show systematic variations and restrictions on activities and their design relative to ordinary conversation” (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 19).

“Institutional interaction” refers to talk-in-interaction that is “the principal means through which lay persons pursue various practical goals and the central medium through which the daily working activities of many professionals and organizational representatives are conducted” (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 3). So far, substantial empirical CA studies have been conducted in institutional talk which is task-focused conversation in occupational worlds, professions, and organizational environments such as call to 911 emergency, doctor-patient interaction, courtroom trials, and mass communication (Heritage & Clayman, 2010).

CA is concerned with studying how turns between peers occur and are organised. Hence, a fundamental sequence of investigation in CA studies is a set of two-utterance sequences termed “adjacency pairs” such as greeting-greeting, question-answer, invitation-acceptance (or refusal), and request-grant (or rejection) (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). They are sequences of two utterances that are “adjacent, produced by different speakers, ordered as a first part and a second part, and typed so that a first part requires a particular second part (or range of second parts)” (Heritage, 1984, p. 246). For example, in the below case from the opening of a telephone conversation between two friends: lines 1 and 2 are first adjacency pairs of greeting-greeting “Hello” (first part) – “Good morning” (second part); lines 3 and 4 are second adjacency pairs of question-answer (“Hi, how are ya - Not too bad. How are you?”). Then, in line 5, Deb’s response “I’m fine” to Dick indicates that Deb has understood that (1) Dick’s turn has completed, (2) Dick has requested a response using a wh-question, and (3) the function of this question in the context (typical opening question) (Sidnell, 2010, p. 12).

- 1 Deb: Hello (hh)?
- 2 Dick: Good morning=
- 3 Deb: =Hi:, how are ya.
- 4 Dick: Not too bad. How are you?
- 5 Deb: I'm fi::ne.

This is a simple production of sequence turns in ordinary conversation which is:

given the recognisable production of a first pair part, on its first completion its speaker should stop and a next speaker should start and produce a second pair part from the pair type the first pair part is recognisably a member of (Shegloff & Sacks, 1973, p. 296).

From this typical conversation, we can see patterns in the way we communicate with each other in social interactions. CA studies are concerned with identifying the interaction patterns (Drew, 2005). There are four fundamental concepts in investigating the patterns, structures, and practices of ordinary conversation: turn-taking, turn design, social action, and sequence organization (Drew, 2005). Turn-taking is the most fundamental form of organization in interaction and one speaker takes a turn and then next speaker takes his or her turn. The speakers design their turns by considering the selection of an action and the detail of verbal construction. They also construct their turns to perform social actions such as invitations, questions, requests, rejections, agreements, complaints, and acceptances.

Institutional CA studies also investigate the four concepts and additional two dimensions: lexical choice and interactional asymmetry (Heritage & Clayman, 2010). In institutional interaction, the speakers talk to each other in a way that accomplishes institutional tasks within particular environments, using their selection of lexical choice or specific term such as "police officer" instead "cop" in ordinary conversation (Sacks, 1979). However, institutional interaction occurs in task-focused interaction and which are asymmetrical, particularly between unequal lay-professional speakers, such as doctor-patient, teacher-student, and interviewer-interviewee. Hence, turn-taking is managed differently in each institutional context. The asymmetrical turn-taking procedures can be grouped into three forms: (1) "action pre-allocation which involves the restriction of one party to asking questions and the other to responding to them"- for example in courtroom, news

interviews, and classroom contexts; (2) “mediated turn-allocation procedures characteristic of business and other forms of chaired meetings” – for example in meeting context; and (3) “systems that involve a combination of both processes” – for example in mediation and counselling contexts (Heritage & Clayman, 2010, pp. 37-38).

Speaker-audience interaction in political oratory is also a form of institutional talk, it is goal-focused, and it occurs in an asymmetrical interaction setting. However, in political orator-audience interaction, there may be a different turn-taking system, - based on difference in turn design, and sequence organization - from other institutional interaction settings due to characteristically asymmetrical interaction: interaction between a speaker and many listeners, speaker’s and listener’s roles, restricted audience turn potential, and the forms of responses (e.g., applause, laughter, or cheering). “Most special turn-taking systems in contemporary industrial societies exploit question-answer exchanges to form particular turn-taking systems” (Heritage & Clayman, 2010, p. 39). However, the question-answer systems in ordinary conversation and other institutional interaction are not general turn-taking systems in oratorical settings.

Moreover, in political oratory, it is important for the orator to make the audience members respond to him or her collectively at appropriate points. One solution for the production of the orator’s skill is “projection” (Streeck, 1995) which assists the audience members to anticipate their turn-taking in advance (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Thus, in order to generate a collective audience response successfully, it is required for the orator to present clear turn design, signals, and projectability in inviting audience responses so that the members of a large audience respond to the orator collectively at an appropriate point.

In addition, while two-utterance sequences of adjacency pairs are displayed often and rapidly in ordinary conversation and other institutional interaction, there are asymmetrical lengths of turns between orator-audience turns. When the orator seeks audience responses to his or her political messages, the messages is generally

designed through a series of stages or message units, such as: an issue introduction, background information on it, the orator’s own position on it, an emphasised final sentence, and a completion point with a recognizable invitation to respond to the point. Targeting the final sentence, the orator shapes expectations of audience members through the series of message units (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). For example, in the Extract 1.1 below, the speaker builds a lengthy set of message units: a disclaimer about the benefits of a policy (lines 1-4), reassertion on his view (line 5), and final completion unit of the positive justification about the policy (line 6). Across the series of message units, the audience members anticipate the completion message unit and the speaker’s intention to generate a response to his view on the policy. As the adjacency pairs are not constructed with questions and answers, it is necessary for the audience to find the implicit invitation to respond by listening carefully to the lengthy first pair of the speaker’s turn.

[Extract 1.1: Leader’s address, David Steel]

1	Steel:	We don’t pretend that incomes policy is an ideal instrument
2		of economic management against inflation.
3		It isn’t.
4		It involves difficult and frustrating negotiation.
5		But its justification is not that it’s agreeable.
6		It is that incomes policy is far superior to unemployment and
7		recession.
8	Audience:	Applause

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 113)

While giving attention to the speaker’s verbal message, it is equally important for the audience to decode the speaker’s nonverbal behaviour, such as facial expression, gaze, and gesture, in delivering the message because the speaker’s nonverbal behaviour also give a clue to the speaker’s intention in invitation to response (Bull & Wells, 2002). By listening to the speech and observing the speaker, “audience members must determine not only that they will applaud but also when they will applaud” (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 112). Thus, it is necessary for individual audience members to cooperate with each other in order to generate a collective response to the speaker.

How do they coordinate collective actions? According to Clayman (1993), there are two ways in which audience members coordinate their group activities: independent decision-making and mutual monitoring (pp. 111-112). The former is a way in which each audience member makes a decision independently whether to applaud or not. The latter is a way which each audience member's decision is guided by other audience members, for example, if someone begins to applaud, other people may join in.

Clayman further suggests that applause that occurs through independent decision making normally start with a burst that immediately reaches to maximum intensity as many audience members start to applaud together. On the other hand, applause initiated by mutual monitoring normally begins with a staggered onset because the applause is started by a part of the audience, and others join later. The Extract 1.2 below shows the adjacency pairs of an interaction from a party political conference in the UK. The speaker attacks the opponent party leader (Thatcher) using a pun and ironic contrast between lines 1-2 and 4-5. The audience members respond to the speaker with laughter immediately after the completion point of the speaker's message (lines 6-7). Then they applaud him for 6.8 seconds (line 8). Thus, it can be understood that (1) laughter occurs in responding to the pun through independent decision making, and then they display their agreement to the message with applause. Thus (2) the function of the two response forms in this adjacency pair is different. First, a collective action of laughter is done in reaction to the pun, and then a second collective action, applause, occurs to show their agreement with the speaker's view. The interaction also shows that the audience members know the background information of the pun in the context.

[Extract 1.2: Liberals, Leader's address, David Steel]

1	Steel:	Our Prime Minister (0.7) is a woman who has first (.)
2		turned her ba:ck on those who elected her,
3		(0.7)
4		and then had the nerve to claim that the people
5		are behind her.
6		(0.3)
7	Audience:	Laughter [.

8 Audience: [Applause (6.8 seconds)]
 (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, pp. 124-126)

In the USA presidential debates context, audience members display disaffiliative responses (e.g., booing, derisive laughter, and hissing) in which audience members express their disapproval of what the orator says (Clayman, 1992b, 1993). In the Extract 1.3 below, the speaker proposes that Bush’s qualifications are better than those of Dukakis and Bentsen combined. The audience members who agree with the speaker start a staggered applause (line 4), however, when the applause becomes a collective action, the other audience members who are against with the message start booing (line 5). Consequently, applause and booing continue and then die down (lines 6-7). The interaction shows that audience responses in debating oratory context, where not only the speakers but also audience members are divided into two sides, occur differently from the partisan context demonstrated the above.

[Extract 1.3: Bentsen-Quayle debate, 5 Oct 1988]

1 DQ: ...and if qualifications alo:ne (.) .h are going to be: the issue
 2 in this campaign. (1.0) George Bush has more qualifications
 3 than Michael Dukakis and Lloyd Bentsen combined.
 (0.6)
 4 AUD: x x x-xxXX[XXXXXXXXXX=
 5 AUD: [b-b-b-b
 6 AUD: =XXXX[XXx-x-x h x h x x x (8.5)
 7 AUD: [bbbbbbBBBBBBBBBBBB[BBBBBbbb-b-b (2.9)

(Clayman, 1993, P. 115)

As demonstrated, adjacency pairs reveal valuable information on the interaction: (1) how and why audience members responded, (2) how and why a speaker invited an audience response, and (3) the function of audience response in political speech context. Therefore, by identifying such adjacency pairs and carrying out inductive analysis based on the adjacency pairs, the research questions and overall orator-audience interaction systems can be answered and studied.

Although CA provides valuable tools for investigating social interactions, it is also criticised for studying patterns of sequential organisation and turn-taking in the interaction but without taking account of content and context. For examples, Lee (1987) has claimed that CA is “content free”, Psathas (1995) has pointed out that CA’s turn-taking system is “context free” and “independent of the contents or topics talked about” (pp. 35-36). Billig (1999, p. 548) has argued that CA deploys its own technical terms that “are not terms which are linked to specific pieces of data, but terms which enable the pointing and the linkages to be made....and is used in order to analyse that data”.

The other problematic issue of CA is “disattention to frequency”, and that “CA has not in general been interested in issues concerning the frequency or distribution of interactional practices” (Heritage, 1999, p.70). Since the first pioneer CA studies, CA papers typically provide qualitative evidence without much in the way of quantitative evidence. Therefore, CA researchers present “informal quantification” using terms like *massively*, *recurrently*, *overwhelmingly*, *regularly*, *ordinarily*, and *commonly* (Schegloff, 1993, p.118; Heritage, 1999). However, CA researchers have discussed quantification in CA studies and its advantages (e.g., Schegloff, 1993; Heritage, 1999; Stivers, 2015). They have also shown that quantitative evidence is essential to establishing interactional practices (e.g., silence in conversation, Jefferson, 1989; rhetorical devices and audience reactions in political speeches, Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; intonation, syntax, and pragmatics in conversation, Ford & Thompson, 1996). Recently, CA researchers have developed distinctive analytic styles in their working (Heritage, 1999). For example, using quantitative assessments, they studied doctor-patient interaction and reported practical outcomes which can contribute to effective communication skills in a medical context (e.g., Heritage et al., 2007; Robinson & Heritage, 2006). These examples of CA combining with quantitative analysis show possibilities that shift fundamental CA to “applied” analysis (Heritage, 1999).

1.3.2.2 Combining CA and quantitative assessments

In quantitative assessments, for example in content analysis, coding is normally conducted. Content analysis is a research technique that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences and replicable analysis from the text (Krippendorff, 1980; Weber, 1990). "Research using qualitative content analysis focuses on the characteristics of language as communication with attention to the content or contextual meaning of the text" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1277). Traditionally, it has been applied to texts (written or transcribed); however, it is applicable to many study areas such as visual images, characterizations, nonverbal behaviours, sound events, or any other message type (Neuendorf, 2002).

There are seven steps in the analytical process of quantitative analysis: (1) generating the research questions, (2) selecting data, (3) defining the categories, (4) outlining the coding process and the coder training, (5) implementing the coding process, (6) determining reliability of the coding, (7) analysing the results of the coding process (Kaid, 1989).

In selecting data, message units and sampling are considered. Units are "breaking up a 'communication' into bits" (Carney, 1971, p. 52); hence they "can be words, characters, themes, time periods, interactions" (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 71). "A *unit* is an identifiable message or message component, (a) which serves as the basis for identifying the population and drawing a sample, (b) on which variables are measured, or (c) which serves as the basis for reporting analyses" (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 71).

The coding process is crucial to the success of a quantitative analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The fundamental coding process is to classify large sets of textual data into small categories (Weber, 1990). The categories are patterns or themes presented in the large data set. Thus, although analysis based on content analysis (quantitative analysis) and CA (qualitative analysis) are different; both methods seek to identify patterns in the use of language and communication.

However, in quantitative analysis, objectivity and reliability are key standards for good analysis. Reliability refers to “the extent to which a measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials” (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 112). And therefore, it is the percentage of agreement on the results of coding among two or more coders that is important. As the goal of the quantitative analysis is to identify objective patterns and themes in messages, reliability is important. Moreover, without reliability, the results of coding can be considered invalid (Neuendorf, 2002). In CA, it applies descriptive approach and does not measure reliability. Hence, it does not follow through on its positivistic claims. However, CA and content analysis claim to find objective features and to identify features that would consistently be seen.

In CA, researchers claim that “any sort of formal coding risks a massive reduction and flattening of complex human behaviour to simplistic codes” (Stivers, 2015, p.1) because “non-CA-grounded coding” (Stivers, 2015, p.1), for example in content analysis, is generally a top-down process where categories are created prior to unit-by-unit analysis. However, Schegloff (1993) has suggested that it is necessary to consider if a context is qualified for quantitative treatment in interaction. In different interactional contexts, for example in different forms of talk like interview and courtroom proceedings, there are different sequential organizations, speech-exchange systems, and turn-taking systems from ordinary conversation. As explained earlier, in such interactional contexts, there are different question-answer formats from ordinary conversation, hence, conducting quantitative analysis in the context may be reasonable. Speaker-audience interaction in political oratory is different from other interactions in terms of speaker and audience’s roles, turn-taking formats, response forms, and speech preparation prior to the interaction. Thus, orator-audience interaction arguably has simpler turn-taking formats than ordinary conversation, and accordingly, this interactional context is well qualified for quantitative assessment.

Stivers (2015, p.3) argues that “CA methods provide a solid foundation on which to develop an interactionally grounded formal coding approach” and discusses ways

that do not risk reduction of complex interaction and that maintain CA principles as follows. In CA, researchers identify interactional practices and provide an analysis of their function and description which is a characterization of interactional practices. Characterization generally provides subtypes of the interactional practices. Characterization of interactional practices constitutes criteria which can be formal coding, and the subtypes of the interaction practices can be informal coding. Hence, characterization of the interactional practices in CA can be used as a foundation for building coding schemes. Consequently, it is argued that using both a top-down non-CA-grounded coding and a CA-grounded coding, (1) research questions that are impossible with CA methods alone can be answered, and (2) the relationship between interactional behaviours and other variables such as sociodemographic variables (e.g., age, gender, nationality, language, culture), variables conducted by surveys (e.g., attitudes, perception, beliefs), or outcomes (e.g., in medicine, in court, in education) can be studied.

As stated, the broad aims of this study are (1) to examine speech contextual and cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory, (2) to contribute methodological innovation to analysing political discourse, and (3) to emphasise the practical implications of the study for real life. To meet the first aim, not only speaker-audience turn-taking systems but also speech context, speech content, cultural dimensions, and nonverbal behaviour are studied. Therefore, it is impossible to examine those analysis dimensions with qualitative methods alone. Moreover, presenting the results of a qualitative analysis alone is insufficient when considering contextual and cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction. It is necessary, therefore, to present characteristic patterns of each context and culture when comparing speech contexts and cultures. In order to generate characteristic patterns in each context and culture, it is valuable to conduct not only qualitative analysis but also quantitative analysis.

In addition to the broad aims, one of sub-aim of this study is to explore orator's nonverbal behaviour, especially the functions of nonverbal factors in generating collective audience responses. There is increasing interest in embodiment in the

study of social interaction (Nevile, 2015). CA researchers agree that transcription is a key analytic tool but it is impossible to transcribe every detail; moreover, researchers draw a wide range of transcription symbols because there are no commonly shared conventions for transcribing the embodied turn (Nevile, 2015). Previous studies in political oratory examined the embodiment (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage and Greatbatch, 1986; Sato 2014; Streeck, 2008), however, there has been a relatively little systematic study of the embodiment. The aim of this study is to explore nonverbal behaviour including the embodiment, presenting transcriptions of nonverbal behaviour as precise as possible and results using qualitative and quantitative assessments.

Hence, in this study, orator-audience interaction will be identified, coded, categorised using both a top-down non-CA-grounded coding and a CA-grounded coding. These will then be measured by qualitative and quantitative assessments. Accordingly, it is noted that although CA informs this empirical study, the empirical analysis of qualitative data is not themselves conversation analytic. However, both coding techniques and qualitative and quantitative assessments will allow this study to answer the various research questions. Through the creation of systematic coding systems and qualitative and quantitative assessments, this study will contribute methodological innovation to analysing orator-audience interaction.

1.4 A brief account of Korean politics and democratization

This section provides a brief account of the history of South Korean politics. The Japanese defeat in World War II in 1945 brought to the end of 35 years of Japanese colonial rule in Korea. Then, Korea was divided the 38th parallel north in accordance with a United Nations arrangement: the south and the north were administered by the United States and the Soviet Union, respectively. The United States and the Soviet Union were unable to agree on the implementation of Joint Trusteeship over Korea. The international Cold-War rivalry resulted in the establishment of two separate governments in the south and north in 1948.

The contemporary political structure of South Korea is that of a presidential representative democratic republic. The government is comprised of three independent powers: The Executive, the Legislature, and the Judiciary. The President is the head of the Executive, and of the state. Although the political system of Korea takes the form of a presidential system, there is also the parliamentary government. The president is elected by the people directly (popular vote) for a single term of five years. The president appoints the prime minister with approval of the National Assembly. The National Assembly has 300 members, elected by the people for a four-year term. Since the South Korean government was formally established in 1948, the constitution has undergone five major revisions. The history of South Korean politics is conventionally numbered from the First Republic to the contemporary Sixth Republic: First Republic (1948-1960), Second Republic (1960-1961), Military rule (1961-1963), Third Republic (1963-1972), Fourth Republic (1972-1979), Fifth Republic (1979-1987), and Sixth Republic (1987-present). The summary of each Republic is as follows (Doosan Encyclopaedia, 2016; The Academy of Korean Studies, 2005; Kim, 2000; Yang, 1999; Nahm, 1996).

The First Republic 1948-1960: The new government of the Republic of Korea was established with Rhee Syng-man as the first president. The First Republic was characterised as restrictive democracy or quasi-competitive authoritarianism. The main policy of the First Republic was anti-communism and the unification of Korea. In 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea. Armistice negotiations of the Korean War made in 1953. After the armistice, South Korea experienced political turmoil under years of autocratic leadership of Rhee Syng-man. Rhee enforced constitutional amendments to take power continuously. In 1960, Rhee's administration was ended by student revolt, which is called the 4.19 Revolution that protested against rigged elections and dictatorship.

The Second Republic 1960-1961: After the 4.19 Revolution, the opposition during the First Republic (the Democratic Party) gained power, and the Second Republic was established. The Second Republic had the first liberal democratic system. Notably, this was also the first and the only time that the South Korea had a

parliamentary cabinet system instead of a presidential system. Yun Bo-seon was elected as a president who had a ceremonial role as the head of the state, and Chang Myon was elected as the prime minister who had actual political power in the National Assembly. The Republic tried economic development and social reform using democratic ways but failed to satisfy the people's demands during this period of political and social change. Both the progressives and the conservatives were not satisfied with the Republic. The government was attacked by both left and right wings and ended by the 5.16 military coup.

The Military rule 1961-1963: Park Chung-hee who led the 5.16 military coup organised the supreme council for reconstruction of the nation and rule for two years. Park and the leading force of the coup dissolved the National Assembly and military officers replaced the civilian officers. Park and the leading forces of the coup pledged not to run the next elections, but Park became the presidential candidate of Democratic-Republican Party and won the presidential election of 1963.

The Third Republic 1963-1972: The Third Republic was begun by Park's administration, presenting the five-year economic development plan. The priority of the Republic was the growth of a self-reliant economy and modernisation. Under the "Development Fist, Distribution Later" slogan, the Republic supported industrialisation and political autonomy, and the economy grew rapidly. However, democratic order and political autonomy were restricted. Due to the success of economic development, Park's administration gained the support that could maintain power in a democratic system. Park was re-elected in the election of 1967. The presidency was constitutionally limited to two terms, therefore, he forced a constitutional amendment through the National Assembly to allow him to run a third term. Although demonstrations against the constitutional amendments broke out, Park was re-elected in the election of 1971. However, in the election of 1971, the opposition leader Kim Dae-jung presented an alternative plan to Park's economic development plan and gained large support from the people. Moreover, the opposition party gained 89 seats which could prevent further constitutional

amendments. After the election, protests and demonstrations broke out. Park declared a state of national emergency after the election of 1971, and the Yushin regime, which means “rejuvenation”, instituted martial law in 1972, dissolving the National Assembly and political parties. The Yushin system was a repressive and authoritarian system which was generated for Park’s dictatorship and his scheme to stay in power permanently.

The Fourth Republic 1972-1979: The Fourth Republic started with the Yushin regime. Park was re-elected through an indirect election of the National Council for Unification. Under the Yushin regime, the term of the presidency was extended to six years without restrictions on reappointment, and Park exerted control over parliament. Under the Yushin regime, the Korean Central Intelligence Agency (KCIA), the Presidential Security Service, and Security Command searched public opinion and monitored and controlled the people. Despite this repressive control, protests and demonstrations continued for the abolition of the Yushin system. Park was re-elected to another term by indirect election in 1978. However, the opposition gained more votes than the ruling party due to public opposition to Park’s power. Anti-government demonstrations occurred nationwide in 1979, and Park was assassinated by the director of the KCIA. This brought the 18-years Parks’ dictatorship to an end.

The Fifth Republic 1979-1987: Although Park’s Yushin system had collapsed, a new military coup led by Chun Doo-whan usurped power in 1979. Chun and the new military force violently cracked down on the 5.18 Gwangju Democratization Movement against the military coup and martial law. Under the martial law, Chun and the new military force passed a new constitution, and Chun was elected by indirect election. Despite economic growth and the government efforts for cultural development, the opposition won more votes than the ruling party in the 1985 National Assembly elections. This showed clearly that the people wanted a political change. In June 1987, a million students and citizens participated in anti-government protests requesting direct elections. The ruling party’s presidential nominee Roh Tae-woo announced the holding of direct presidential elections and

restoration of civil rights in June 1987, the June Democracy Movement led to the return of direct presidential elections in South Korea.

The Sixth Republic 1987-present: Although there was a strong public opinion for political power change, Roh Tae-woo was elected as the 13th president by direct election. The failure of the opposition two leaders, Kim Dae-jung and Kim Young-sam, to agree on a unified candidacy brought about Roh's electoral victory. However, in the 1992 election, Kim Young-sam was elected president, and his government was the nation's first civilian government in 30 years, pledged to build "New Korea". He purged the military elite and established civilian control of the military. However, there was a severe financial crisis, and the government approached the International Monetary Fund to overcome the crisis in 1997. Kim Dae-jung, the opposition leader, was inaugurated as President in 1998. This was the first time an opposition candidate had won the presidential election. With Kim's leadership, cooperation from the industrial sector, and the citizen's gold-collecting campaign, South Korea could get out of the crisis. Notably, Kim pursued the "Sunshine Policy" to reconcile with North Korea.

In 2002, Roh Moo-hyun was elected to the presidency with support from the younger generation. Roh's government was named as "participation government", and succeeded in overcoming regionalism, a deep-rooted problem in past South Korean elections. Roh's government also pursued "Peace and Prosperity Policy" toward North Korea. In 2008, Lee Myung-bak was inaugurated as President. The main goal of Lee's government was to revive economy based on "a small government and a big market". The government pursued creative pragmatism, economic growth, resource diplomacy, and pro-worker policies. In 2013, Park Geun-hye was inaugurated. She is the current president and the first woman to hold the office, serving the 18th presidential term in South Korea. Park's government proposed a vision for people's happiness and a new era of hope with four strategies: economic development, people's happiness, cultural enrichment, and establishing the foundation for peaceful unification. However, she has been involved in a political scandal regarding the level of access to the presidency by an aide who did

not have an official position in her government. The citizens have held massive candlelight protests and demonstrations, demanding that Park step down. This has led to her impeachment.

So far, the history of South Korean politics has been described briefly. It shows that there is a close relationship between democratization and citizen's protests in South Korean politics. Each important political change was initiated and achieved by the citizens and civic groups' protests. Firstly, the 4.19 Revolution by the students in 1960 resulted in the resignation of the corrupt Rhee, and the collapse of his government. Secondly, the June Democracy Movement in 1987 brought about the return of direct presidential elections and the transition from an authoritarian military regime to a parliamentary democracy. Thirdly, through the citizens' protests, the country returned to full democracy. Fourthly, the National Assembly impeached Roh, the 16th president, on charges of breach of an election, regardless of public opinion. However, the citizens held anti-impeachment candlelight protests, and Roh was reinstated. In the parliamentary elections, the ruling party was returned with a parliamentary majority, so that the president could continue his presidency with the support from the citizens. Conversely, the citizens requested Park's impeachment with candlelight protests in 2006. In this case, the protests demanded that the National Assembly impeached Park, and Park was impeached. There have also been changes in the citizens' behaviour in protests over time. From 1960 to 1990, there were violent protests. In the 2000s, there were candlelight protests. In 2016, the citizens held the biggest demonstrations in their country's history with non-violent and peaceful candlelight protests concert performances. Thus, it shows that there have been social and cultural changes in the citizens' collective behaviour in protests for political reform over recent Korean political history.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis begins with a literature review (Chapter 2). This chapter explores approaches to speaker-audience interaction, verbal and nonverbal components in generating collective audience responses, and cultural differences in the interaction

by reviewing previous studies. The chapter provides an explanation of each component involved in inviting collective audience responses. In doing so, the relationships between each variable and audience behaviour, as well as cultural differences in inviting collective audience responses, will be reviewed.

The analytic chapters are comprised of five analyses: (1) audience behaviour, (2) speaker's verbal behaviour, (3) speaker's nonverbal behaviour, (4) detailed interaction dimensions, and (5) the practical implications of the findings. There are specific research questions in each chapter. Based on these questions, extracts from the data will be presented. In the first two analytic chapters, only translation and orthographic transcripts of speeches will be displayed. In the subsequent chapters, the speaker's nonverbal behaviour and speaker-audience interaction will be presented together with Romanised² Korean language to enable connections to be made between movement and vocalisation. Based on the analytic conventions introduced by Jefferson (1984a) and Atkinson (1984a), various new analytic conventions will be developed and displayed in the extracts.

The focus of Chapter 3 is speech context and audience behaviour. It provides an explanation of each speech context and draws out an analysis of audience behaviour in responding to the speaker by demonstrating detailed analysis of audience behaviour according to the three speech contexts together with quantitative results. Forms of response, characteristic audience behaviour, and systematic coding procedure will be presented. Then, (1) the function of audience responses in each speech context, (2) the contextual and cultural differences in the functioning of audience response, and (3) audience behaviour will be discussed.

Chapter 4 presents an analysis of speaker's verbal devices used in inviting audience responses, focusing on the speaker's turn. This chapter reveals the verbal techniques used to invite a collective audience response. The implicit and explicit rhetorical devices and speech content will be shown in terms of the three speech

² Romanization of Korean is a system for representing the Korean language using the Latin script.

contexts. Then, the contextual and cultural differences in the use of verbal devices will be discussed.

Chapter 5 shows an analysis of the speaker's nonverbal behaviour in inviting audience response. This chapter demonstrates each nonverbal factor in generating collective audience response: gaze, hand gestures, body movements, facial expressions, loudness, pauses, extension of vowel sounds, intonation, and emphasis. Detailed analysis of the speaker's nonverbal behaviour and quantitative results will be presented. The chapter proposes that the completion unit is important in signalling an invitation to respond in Korean language context.

By integrating the three analysis chapters, Chapter 6 draws detailed speaker-audience interaction and examines the question whether *verbal devices* play an important role in generating audience responses like in English political oratory, or whether *non-verbal factors* play a predominant role in Korean political oratory. The question will be answered by looking at (1) the relationship between rhetorical devices and the use of nonverbal factors, (2) characteristic grammatical ordering differences between English and Korean, and (3) particular interactional dimensions (burst/staggered response and synchrony/asynchrony response).

Chapter 7 presents further analysis and discussion. This chapter pays particular attention to the implications of the findings and application of analytic techniques in analysing political audiences, political leader's performance skills, the relationship between audience responses and electoral success, and the relationship between audience response and political periods. Then direction for future research will be suggested.

Finally, Chapter 8 provides the conclusions of the study. It summarises the findings and arguments, discusses contributions to the research field and the methodological innovations of the thesis, which could be applied to related political discourses and other public speech contexts.

Chapter 2

Literature Review: Resources in Generating Audience Responses

2.1 Introduction

Scholars (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Bull & Miskinis, 2015; Feldman & Bull, 2012) found that there were cultural differences in inviting collective audience responses. In British and American political oratory, speakers invited audience responses using rhetorical devices (i.e., *contrast, a three-part list, puzzle-solution, headline-punchline, pursuit, position taking, and combination*), whereas, in Japanese oratory, speakers invited audience responses explicitly using other verbal devices (i.e., *greeting/salutations, expressing appreciation, request agreement/asking for confirmation, jokes/humorous expressions, asking for support, and description of campaign activities*). Together with the verbal devices, it was also found that: (1) speech delivery plays a substantial role in signalling the invitation to respond (Bull & Wells, 2002) and reinforcing the use of rhetorical devices; and (2) there were characteristic speech content which was effective in the generation of responses (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). The previous studies provided valuable resources (verbal and nonverbal features) in studying the speaker-audience interaction in political oratory.

This chapter explores the potential resources that affect speaker-audience interaction, in relation to the generation of collective audience responses, audience behaviour, and cultural differences, by reviewing the existing studies. This will inform a foundation for understanding the speaker-audience interaction in political oratory, based on (1) how a political speaker invites collective audience responses, (2) how audience members respond to the speaker, and (3) how turn-taking occurs between a speaker and members of a large audience. In section 2.2, the chapter defines and explores the principle persuasive factors in oratory, based on rhetorical and persuasion modes. In section 2.3, it reviews the literature on speaker's verbal and nonverbal tools (i.e., rhetorical devices, speech delivery, and speech content),

focusing on how the speaker generates collective audience responses using the tools in political oratory. In section 2.4, the chapter moves on to aspects of turn-taking behaviour, such as invited and uninvited responses and synchrony between the speech and audience responses. Then, in section 2.5, it reviews cultural differences in audience behaviour and the use of verbal devices in generating audience responses. By exploring those dimensions in speaker-audience interaction in the previous studies, the chapter will detail further questions in relation to the interaction.

2.2 Rhetoric and Modes of Persuasion in Political Oratory

Rhetorical devices are a crucial factor in the previous studies of speaker-audience interaction in political oratory. Studies of rhetoric and persuasion derive from a long tradition of rhetoric theory. Aristotle (384-322 BC) defined rhetoric as “the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever” (Aristotle, 1926, p. 15). According to the Oxford Dictionary of English (2016), rhetoric is defined as “the art of using language effectively so as to persuade or influence others”. In contemporary times, rhetoric is “widely and favourably used” (Fleming, 1998, p. 169),

...contemporary ‘rhetoric’ typically denotes a type of dimension of human activity, that is, a first-order phenomenon present in the cultural environment and roughly coextensive with such words as ‘language’, ‘communication’, and ‘persuasion’ (Fleming, 1998, p. 169).

Billig (1996) discusses the value of rhetoric within dialogue and interaction from a social psychological view. This thesis, therefore, uses the description of rhetoric as effective techniques of persuasion in social interaction.

Aristotle (384-322BC, 1991) classified three modes of persuasion: ethos, pathos, and logos. Ethos refers to ethical appeal and it is a mean of persuasion through the character of the speaker. In order to persuade the listener, the speaker has to establish his or her credibility in their talk. The components of ethos are virtue, image, “personality”, and “stance” (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005, p. 16). Virtue is a

classical component of ethos addressed by Aristotle. Personality refers to “a range of qualities” of a speaker, such as morality, benevolence, and shrewdness. Stance refers to “a sense of the persuader’s position or viewpoint about what’s being discussed” (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005, pp. 16-17). Image is “a modern version of ethos”, such as “personal image (speech, dress, life-style), corporate identity (company logo, house-style, ethos), and political charisma (voice, language, grooming, appearance)” (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005, p. 30).

Public (or personal) image is important in persuasion. Persuaders who have built a good public image, such as celebrities, sports stars, and politicians, are distinctive in society due to the public’s level of recognition of them (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005). In the personal domain, individuals are also recognising the importance of their image in social interaction, such as those between teacher and pupil, doctor and patient, and manager and staff member (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005). In talk, there are also “power relations in the interplay between participants’ locally constructed discursive identities and their institutional status” (Thornborrow, 2002, p. 1). Power is determined by the participants’ institutional role and their socioeconomic status, gender, or ethnic identity (Fairclough, 1992; van Dijk, 1993). Therefore, it seems that the public’s level of recognition of popular people and power within society is closely related to persuasion. For example, at a party political conference, audience members may display their sincere attention to a speech delivered by the leader of the party because the leader is the most senior politician within the party. In this situation, the leader’s status which is related to ethos plays as a means of persuasion. Hence, in addition to the components of ethos described, this thesis suggests that the social position of a speaker in an organisation or society is also a component of ethos.

Pathos refers to the emotional appeal of a person and is a means of persuasion through the listener’s emotions (Aristotle, 1991). Cockcroft and Cockcroft (2005) demonstrate two types of emotions: universal and contingent. Universal emotions are common and general emotions, such as joy, sorrow, anger, fear, and disgust. Contingent emotions are socially conditioned emotions, such as pride, pity,

benevolence, and guilt. For example, in the Earl of Spencer's 1997 funeral oration for his sister princess of Diana, sympathy was a persuasive resource that tied the speaker to the audience (Walzer, Secor, & Gross, 1999). Although it was a funeral speech, he received applause from not only the guests in the funeral service venue but also the thousands of people listening to the funeral service in Hyde Park and in the streets. In political speeches, patriotism, party loyalty, and inspiration to achieve political goals and visions, are contingent emotions in persuasion. For example, Winston Churchill showed his wartime leadership using words. He used metaphors and dysphemism, inspired patriotism, and made the people believe something during the Second World War (Fernandez, 2013).

Logos refers to logical appeal and is a means of persuasion through reasoning, argument, and style of verbal expression (Aristotle, 1991). In other words, it stands for persuasive sequence and process of thinking, arguments, and language. Thus, logos involves (1) "systematic and coherent methods of thinking through a topic", (2) "selecting and organising the most effective arguments" (e.g., inductive and deductive structuring), (3) persuasive language, (4) rhetorical reasoning, (5) persuasive ordering, e.g., "introduction-statement of facts-determination of point at issue-enumeration and summary of points-proof of the case-conclusion", and (6) persuasive style, e.g., lexical choice, sound patterning, rhetorical figures (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005, pp. 83-136).

The rhetorical figures (rhetorical devices) refer to the expression of language and include two modes: figurative language (or tropes) and schematic language (Aristotle, 1991). Tropes turn meaning into words through indirect expression. Examples of tropes are metaphor, imagery, simile, personification, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005). While tropes involve semantic expression, schemes involve the structure of syntax order, such as antithesis (or contrast), parallelism, and alliteration (or repetition) (Cockcroft & Cockcroft, 2005; McQuarrie & Mick, 1996).

The role of the two types of rhetorical figures in persuasion, charismatic leadership, and generating audience response has been investigated in political speeches.

Charteris-Black (2005, p. 13) states:

Metaphor is an important characteristic of persuasive discourse because it mediates between conscious and unconscious means of persuasion – between cognition and emotion – to create a moral perspective on life (or ethos).

According to empirical studies of Charteris-Black (2005), successful political leaders use metaphor as an effective means of persuasion in conveying their speeches. Importantly, he pointed out that it was more persuasive when the metaphor is used in combination with other domains such as metaphors or other rhetorical devices (e.g., contrast, repetition, question and answer, and rhythm) than when it is used independently. He argued further that “persuasion is a multi-layered discourse function that is the outcome of a complex interaction between intention, linguistic choice, and context” (p. 30). He claims that metaphor in political oratory is vital for a politician, not only to obtain and maintain political power, but also to convince others of his or her thoughts, beliefs, and values.

Imagery refers to “content that elicits sensory experiences such as mental images in listeners” and it evokes listener’s strong emotional reactions and high level of attention when it is used in conveying a speaker’s vision (Naidoo & Lord, 2008, p. 283).

The use of metaphor and imagery were also explored in relation to how they affect ratings of charisma. It was reported that: (1) charismatic political leaders use nearly twice as many metaphors than non-charismatic ones (Mio, Riggio, Levin, & Reese, 2005); (2) political leaders who employ more image-based words (e.g., sweat, dream, and journey) than concept-based words (e.g., work, idea, and endeavour) were rated higher in charisma (Emrich, Brower, Feldman, Garland, 2001); and (3) high imagery speech was rated as more charismatic than low imagery speech in listeners’ perceptions (Naidoo & Lord, 2008).

Schemes were investigated in Chief Executive Officers' (CEO) speeches (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997) and it was found that rhetorical devices were employed in presenting the CEO's attitudes and strategies towards international business sectors. It was also found that schematic devices play an important role in generating audience applause in political speeches (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

As described, the field of rhetoric is wide. In this study, schemes which involve the structure of syntactic order will be investigated. Thus, rhetorical devices in this study refer to schematic language in generating collective audience responses in political oratory. The relationship between rhetorical schemes and speaker-audience interaction, the kinds of schemes, and the way they are used in producing of audience applause in political oratory are described in the next section.

2.3 The Components of Producing Collective Audience Responses

In the previous section, three persuasion modes in political oratory were reviewed. In this section, more detailed resources in relation to the generation of audience responses will be explored. The components of generating affiliative audience responses were studied in British political speeches (Atkinson, 1984a, 1984b; Grady & Potter, 1985; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). The studies suggest that a limited range of rhetorical devices are key factors in inviting affiliative audience applause. Atkinson (1984a), who is a pioneer researcher in this field of the study, examined how "affiliative applause" occurs from a large number of audience members in public speeches. According to his investigation, collective audience applause does not occur randomly but occurs as a response to a speaker's rhetorical strategies. For example, in the context of an awards ceremony, an announcer usually gives the audience members a few words about a winner in order to make the audience members guess the winner prior to announcing the name of the winner, and then the announcer calls the name. In so doing, the audience members are given time to anticipate not only the name of the winner but also a group activity, which is affiliative applause, before the naming. In the example below (Extract 2.1), the

announcer produces a pause (lines 5 and 7) prior to announcing the name of the winner. So, the audience members are readied and start to applaud before the announcer finishes. Consequently, the audience applause (line 12), accompanied by whistle (line 11), shows their enthusiasm and also that the winner is very popular.

[Extract 2.1: British Academy of Film and Television Arts award ceremony, 1980]

01 Compere: Here to read the nominations is a man (0.7) who seems to
 02 lead another life on video, a life (0.3) so bizarre and way out
 03 that if he didn't exist (0.4) we wouldn't know how to invent
 04 him.
 05 (0.4)
 06 Ladies and Gentleman,
 07 (0.2)
 08 Mister Kenneth
 09 (.)
 10 Everett.
 11 Audience: [(whistle)|----- (9.0) -----|
 12 Audience: [x-xx-x

(Atkinson, 1984a, p. 52)

Like the example described above, in relation to the production of collective audience applause, it is important for a speaker to give the audience a clear projectability of when they should respond to the message (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). In order to co-ordinate normatively appropriate turn transition, the audience members have to anticipate in advance a precise completion point (Atkinson, 1984a). In political oratory, the audience's predictions of where the speaker may possibly complete his or her turn assist a large audience to coordinate with each other and generate a collective response to the speaker.

There are five key factors that provide for projectability: syntax (Duncan, 1972, 1974; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), pragmatic resources such as "projecting more talk", "offering a continuer, display of interest, or claim of understanding" (Ford & Thompson, 1996, p. 150), (3) pauses (Maynard, 1989), prosody (Couper-Kuhlen & Selting, 1996; Duncan, 1972, 1974; Ogden, 2004; Reed, 2004; Schegloff, 1998), gaze (Goodwin, 1981; Rossano, 2012; Kendon, 1967), and gesture (Duncan,

1972, 1974; Kendon, 1995; Mondada, 2007; Sikveland & Ogden, 2012; Streek & Hartge, 1992).

In political oratory, rhetorical devices, which are related to syntactical format, play a role in the projectability of the speaker's completion point in British and American political oratory. Atkinson (1984a) identified two rhetorical devices (*contrast* and *three-part list*), together with naming, as crucially effective rhetorical formats in evoking collective audience applause and also important tools for signalling the point where the audience response is expected. Employing Conversation Analysis, his study showed a novel idea about how affiliative audience applause occurred in public speeches, and also how political speakers elicit group activities. However, the study was conducted through qualitative investigation, based on selected extracts from political party conferences and general election speeches from 1979 to 1983. For this reason, there was a potential limitation that the study focused on selected examples which supported the main argument of the study but were not representative of political speech as a whole (Bull, 2006).

Further studies in testing Atkinson's claims were conducted based on selected samples of news programmes. Grady and Potter (1985) examined the adequacy of Atkinson's theory by analysing the rhetorical devices in two political speeches from the British general election campaign of 1983. They reported that their analysis of the speeches supported the findings of Atkinson that the two rhetorical devices were often associated with collective applause.

In order to evaluate Atkinson's findings and address the weakness of the qualitative study, Heritage and Greatbatch (1986) analysed in depth the relationship between rhetorical devices and affiliative audience applause in 476 speeches to British political party conferences in 1981, conducting both qualitative and quantitative investigations. They measured all the incidents of applause in their data. Based on the results of their inductive examinations, they introduced a further five rhetorical devices: *puzzle-solution*; *headline-punchline*; *combination*; *position taking*; and

pursuits and reported that the seven rhetorical devices (including contrasts and three-part lists) were associated with more than two-thirds of all applause incidents.

Among the seven devices, the contrast device elicited the most applause occurrences, accounting for nearly 25% of the incidents of collective applause. The second and third most commonly applauded devices were combinations (combination of two or more devices) and three-part lists, associated with the production of applause on 9.6% and 6.5% of instances, respectively. When each device in the combinations was considered, the contrast and three-part list accounted for the most and second most commonly applauded rhetorical devices with 33.2% and 12.6% of instances, respectively. Consequently, their results supported Atkinson's claims statistically.

On the other hand, there were cultural differences in the use of verbal devices. Bull and Feldman (2011) and Feldman and Bull (2012) conducted comparable studies on Japanese political speeches. Based on the previous studies in British political speeches, they examined the speaker-audience interaction in 36 and 38 Japanese political speeches, respectively, during the Japanese general election of 2005 and 2009. The studies introduced, in addition to the seven rhetorical devices, a further six categories in inviting a collective audience response: *greeting/salutations*, *expressing appreciation*, *request agreement/asking for confirmation*, *jokes/humorous expressions*, *asking for support*, and *description of campaign activities*. They termed the traditional seven rhetorical devices and *description of campaign activities* category 'implicit invitations' and the remaining five categories 'explicit invitations'. The implicit invitations refer to inviting audience response using the rhetorical devices and the explicit invitations refer to inviting audience responses openly. For example, in the use of explicit invitations, speakers invite audience responses using explicit requests for support and agreement, or ritual exchanges/jokes.

Among the categories, ritual research has a long tradition in the examination of speaker/performer-audience rituals in social interaction. Rituals are presented in

daily conversation. They are valuable resources in studying social interaction, and we create or maintain interpersonal relationships in diverse ways through ritual acts (Kadar, 2013). In daily conversation, (1) rituals play a significantly more important relational role than making ceremonies, (2) rituality in language use is an important part of both Western and Eastern societies, (3) and rituals represent a social conventional phenomenon across cultures (Kadar, 2013). Kadar (2013) examined ritual as a relational action constructed in social interaction through existed ritual pattern across interactional contexts and cultures. He demonstrated that every ritual behaviour has a relational function, and “ritual practices are understood differently in situated contexts” (p.3). He argued that ritual is “a key form to reinforce and/or create moral order(s) in both relational and interactional senses” (Kadar, 2017, p.4).

Speech delivery factors (both vocal and non-vocal factors) also play a role in generating applause. Atkinson proposed that delivery factors stimulated the effectiveness of the rhetorical devices in generating audience applause. Moreover, if effective delivery was not displayed in the use of the rhetorical devices, it was often the cases that the audience failed to applaud the message.

It was confirmed by the two subsequent studies that delivery played an important role in reinforcing the use of rhetorical devices and evoking applause. Grady and Potter (1985) pointed out that one of the reasons why a speaker generated more applause incidents than another speaker was related to vocal cues, such as pauses, in the use of the rhetorical formats. They assessed appropriate and non-appropriate pauses in the messages constructed with the rhetorical devices in the two speakers' (Thatcher and Foot) speeches and suggested that the speaker (Thatcher) who produced more applause incidents used more appropriated pauses, while the other speaker (Foot) who generated fewer applause incidents paused inappropriately. They proposed that the speaker who used more non-appropriate pauses presented the rhetorical formats ineffectively in terms of stress and intonation. Heritage and Greatbatch (1986) also evaluated the role of speech delivery in generating applause. They proposed that the rhetorical devices

accompanied by appropriate vocal and non-vocal factors increased the likelihood of them being applauded, whereas, messages conveyed without appropriate vocal and non-vocal factors often failed in eliciting applause. Interestingly, they reported that the messages containing three-part lists were more influenced by the delivery factors than the messages contained contrasts. However, the two evaluations on the delivery factors were based on random extracts of their data.

The analysis of the speech delivery dimension was conducted based on British political speeches, and this has not been studied in other cultures. Therefore, it is uncertain: (1) whether there are cultural differences in the use of nonverbal factors in generating audience responses; (2) whether speech delivery plays a more important role in generating audience responses in other cultures.

Together with the rhetorical devices and delivery, speech content was also involved in the generation of audience applause. The previous studies reported that audience applause occurs in response to a narrow range of speech contents (e.g., in-group praise and condemning the opponent party). In the following sections, each rhetorical device, nonverbal factor, and speech content will be reviewed further with examples.

2.3.1 Rhetorical devices

2.3.1.1 Contrast

The contrast, or antithesis, is a well-known rhetorical device that was utilised by ancient Greek and Roman orators. According to Atkinson's findings, it is the most commonly used device by political speakers to emphasise their messages and indicates a completion point to evoke collective audience applause. It is used for making a contrast between two items such as words or ideas and constructed with contrastive pairs: the first part (a) and the second part (b) (Atkinson, 1984a). Well-known contrast examples in political speeches can be found in Thatcher's and Kennedy's speeches: "You turn if you want to (a). The lady's not for turning (b)" (Margaret Thatcher, Conservative Party conference, 1980); "Ask not what your country can do for you (a). Ask what you can do for your country (b)" (John F.

Kennedy, Inaugural address as US president, 1961). As seen in the quotations, there is the sequential juxtaposition of ideas in the first part with an opposite idea in the second part. Due to the format of the contrastive pairs, political messages containing contrasts are generally emphasised twice in *a positive and a negative form* (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

There are four features in the use of contrast. First, there are five typical patterns in the use of contrasts: (1) contradiction – *not this but that*, “The house we hope to build is not for my generation but for yours” (Ronald Reagan); (2) comparison – *more this than that*, “Better to remain silent and be thought a fool than to speak out and remove all doubt” (Abraham Lincoln); (3) opposites – *black and white*, “The inherent vice of capitalism is the unequal sharing of blessings, the inherent virtue of socialism is the equal sharing of miseries” (Winston Churchill); (4) phrase reversal - “The optimist sees opportunity in every danger, the pessimist sees danger in every opportunity” (Winston Churchill); and (5) repetition (balance and anticipation) - “I don’t want to be the Labour leader who won three successive elections. I want to be the first Labour leader to win three successive elections” (Tony Blair) (Atkinson, 2005, 2008a, pp. 88-92).

Second, political speakers have a tendency to display the negative part in the first pair part position and the positive part in the second pair part in order to produce affiliative approval from the audiences to the positive part at the completion point (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

The third feature of contrasts is “the similarities in length, content, and grammatical structure of the two parts” (Atkinson, 1984a, p. 74). The two famous quotations from Thatcher and Kennedy presented above are examples of contrasts that are rhythmically balanced and constructed with similarities of length, content, grammatical structure, and repetition. If a contrast is constructed with the similarities in length, content, and grammatical structure and is rhythmically balanced, audiences tend to applaud in advance of its completion point (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). However, this feature is not essential because even contrasts

that lack this feature are also effective enough in generating applause. In these cases, audience members have a tendency to applaud precisely at the completion point of a message rather than prior to or near the completion (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

Due to the characteristic structures of the two contrasted parts, when audience members recognise that the first part is being presented, they can then easily anticipate that there is the second part of the contrast and a completion point of the contrast in a message (Atkinson, 1984a). Extracts³ 2.2 and 2.3 below show a distinction between grammatically and rhythmically well-balanced one and absence of the construction one, respectively.

As shown in the Extract 2.2, although two negative pairs are presented in the first (line 4) and second (line 6) parts, the lexical choice of “too much” and “too little” indicates the contrast. It is also appropriately formatted in terms of the similarities of length, content, grammatical structure, and repetition (“too...is spent on the munitions of...”). Due to the features, when the speaker delivers the second part, the audience members recognise that this is the second part of a contrast and anticipate a completion point. Accordingly, the audience members began to applaud the statement in advance of the actual completion point (line 7) in overlap with the talk.

[Extract 2.2: Spoken by Alf Morris]

1	Morris:	Governments will argue: (0.8) that <u>resources</u>
2		are not <u>available</u> : (0.4) to <u>help</u> <u>disabled</u> <u>people</u> .
3		(1.3)
4	(a)	The <u>fact</u> is that <u>too</u> much is <u>spent</u> on the munitions of <u>war</u> ::,
5		(0.6)
6	(b)	And <u>too</u> <u>little</u> is <u>spent</u> [(0.2) on the munitions of <u>peace</u> .
7	Audience:	[Applause (9.2 seconds)]

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 123)

³ It is noted that there are slight modifications in displaying the examples from the original extracts (i.e., “a” and “b” indicate first and second parts, respectively; Applause is presented simply as “applause”).

On the other hand, in Extract 2.3 below, two contrast parts (lines 3 and 5) are contrasted in terms of the content and lexical choice of “different” and “same” and also “but”. However, they are not constructed as effectively as in Extract 2.2 in terms of grammatical structure and repetition. As the use of contrast is not precise in signalling the contrast, audience members do not begin to applaud in advance of the completion point but at the end of the completion point. However, the contrast is perfectly effective for the audience members to applaud the statement.

[Extract 2.3: Spoken by Margaret Thatcher]

- 1 Thatcher: Our country is weathering stormy waters.
2 (0.8).
3 (a) We may have different ideas on how best to navigate them.
4 (0.5)
5 (b) But we sa:il the same ocean, (0.2) and in the same ship.
6 Audience: Applause (7.0 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 124)

Fourthly, speakers use nonverbal cues such as intonation shifts, pauses, and hand gestures when they present the device (Atkinson, 1984a). For example, speakers usually use rising intonation on emphasised words in the first part to indicate that there are more items to come in the second part, and pausing between the first part and second part, then falling intonation on contrasts or emphasised words in the second part in order to indicate the completion point. Similarly, speakers mark out the first part of the contrast and second part with hand gestures or head movements.

For example, in Extract 2.4 below, the speaker states “two conservative parties” (line 2), and then provides them using two contrasted parts (lines 4-8). As the first part begins with “One is” (line 4), the audience members predict that the second part will follow. Moreover, the speaker uses raising intonation on “years” (line 5) in the first part and a short pause (line 6) between the two parts (a and b), then delivers the second part (lines 7 and 8) using falling intonation at “policies”, “of”, and “go” to indicate a completion point of the contrast. Consequently, the audience

members begin to respond to the completed word “go” (line 8), and then collective applause follows immediately.

[Extract 2.4: Spoken by David Steel]

01 Steel: The truth is beginning to dawn on our people that there are
02 ↑two conservative parties ↓in this ↓election
03 (0.6)
04 (a) { One is offering the continuation of the policies we’ve had for
05 { the last five ↑years
06 (0.2)
07 (b) { and the other is offering a re↓turn to the ↓policies ↓of forty
08 { years a [↓go
09 Audience: [Heh h[eh heh
10 Audience: [Applause

(Atkinson, 1984a, p. 74)

2.3.1.2 Lists

Atkinson (1984a) identified the three-part list as an important rhetorical device in generating affiliative audience applause. He claimed that the most commonly used type of list in speeches or conversations contains three items such as three words, three phrases, or three sentences. He demonstrated two reasons why the device is frequently used and effective in speeches. One reason is that “listing similar items can work to strengthen, underline, or amplify almost any kind of message” (Atkinson, 1984, p. 60). The other reason is that both listener and speaker tend to regard the lists comprising three items as complete, while the lists comprising two items seem inadequate or incomplete. Jefferson (1991) supported Atkinson’s argument that lists contain three items tend to be regarded as complete. According to Jefferson’s empirical study into conversational communication, the three-part lists occur frequently in conversation, and the completion of the three items indicates that speakers have finished their turn and that listeners can take their turn without the feeling of it being an interruption. Thus, Jefferson asserts that the third item in a three-part list works as a signal in particular interaction work such as topic-shifts and offence avoidance.

In political speeches, Atkinson argued that the third item plays an important role in emphasising the messages and indicating completion points of the messages so that political speakers generate collective audience applause. Charteris-Black (2005) also supported Atkinson's claim about the role of the third item in a three-part list, explaining that "the function of the third part is to reinforce the meaning of the first two parts by repetition and to indicate completion" (p. 6). The use of three-part lists can be seen in Abraham Lincoln's famous phrase "Government of the people, by the people, for the people" and Tony Blair's speech "Ask me my three main priorities for government, and I tell you: education, education, education" (1 October, Labour Party Conference speech, 1996). In these examples, Lincoln displays three items which are (1) "of the people", (2) "by the people", and (3) "for the people" repeating "the people" on each occasion. Similarly, Blair displays three items by repeating "education" three times. The items were repeated three times so as to emphasise their message. In addition to emphasising the listed items, the third item in the list is regarded as the completion of a message. Thus, audience members are able to project the completion point and when to respond to the message. As Blair's message indicates a clear completion point in the use of the three-part list, the message generated collective audience applause. In political speeches, displaying three different (or similar) items in a three-part list occur more often than repeating an item three times (Atkinson, 1984a).

The three-part list is normally constructed noun phrases or adjectives (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Extract 2.5 presents one form of triplets of noun phrases (lines 3-7): (1) "no shield", (2) "no refuge", and (3) "no answer". The three items are well displayed using repetition, rhythm, and balance of "no", and generate affiliative applause at the completion point of the third item (line 8). As seen, the third item (3) is presented with "and" (line 7) to indicate it is the last item (Atkinson, 1984a).⁴

⁴ However, the audience can project a completion point in the absence of "and" (Atkinson, 1984a).

[Extract 2.5: Spoken by Margaret Thatcher]

1 Thatcher: At a ti:me of growing dan↓ger (0.7) for all: who cherish and
2 believe in ↓freedom (0.8) t̄his party of the soft centre is
3 (1) no shiel:d
4 (0.2)
5 (2) no refu:ge
6 (.)
7 (3) and no answer.
8 Audience: Applause (8.2 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 126)

The other feature in the use of lists is the use of nonverbal behaviour. Similar to the use of contrast, Atkinson (1984a) reported that the paralinguistic aspects of the three-part list were considerably similar to those of contrasts. Speakers present the first and second items with rising intonation in order to indicate that there are more items to come, and the third item with falling intonation to indicate the completion point. They also use similar pause duration between each item. In addition to the vocal factors, speakers employ other nonverbal behaviours such as loudness, gestural activity, and rhythmic emphasis in constructing the three-part list. The next two examples illustrate the use of nonverbal behaviours. In Extract 2.6, the speaker uses rising intonation in the first item “purpose” (line 2), and pausing (lines 3 and 5) after the first and second item (line 4), then falling intonation in the third item “resolve” (line 6). The applause (line 8) immediately follows the third item.

[Extract 2.6: Margaret Thatcher, Conservative Party conference, 1980]

1 Thatcher: This week has demonstrated (0.4) that we are a party united
2 (1) in ↑purpose
3 (0.4)
4 (2) strategy
5 (0.2)
6 (3) and re↓sollve.
7 Audience: [Hear [hear
8 Audience: [Applause (8.0 seconds)

(Atkinson, 1984, p. 61)

In Extract 2.7, although the speaker does not pause between items, the general patterns of intonation for the items displayed: raising intonation for the first item “ideologically” (line 2) and second item “politically” (line 3), and falling intonation for the third item “morally” (line 4) is seen.

[Extract 2.7: Margaret Thatcher, Conservative Party conference, 1980]

1	Thatcher:	Soviet Marxism is	
2	(1)	ideol <u>↑</u> ogically	
3	(2)	pol <u>↑</u> itically	
4	(3)	and <u>mor</u> ally <u>bank</u> rupt	
5	Audience:		[Applause (9.0 seconds)]

(Atkinson, 1984a, p. 63)

It was also observed that political speakers used hand gestures in delivering each item of the three-part list, and the gesture activity in the use of three-part list and contrast occurs similarly (Atkinson, 1984a). For example, speakers mark out a distinction between first/ second items and the third item with differentiated gesture activities. These nonverbal behaviours function to distinguish the three items (or two contrasted parts). Therefore, political speakers use both verbal rhetorical devices and nonverbal cues in order to signal completion and receive approval (e.g. affiliative applause) from audience members.

2.3.1.3 Puzzle-solution

The puzzle-solution strategy consists of two parts: establishing a puzzle (or problem) and offering a solution (or answer). In the use of this device, a speaker first states a puzzle or problem to an audience and then provides a solution or answer to the puzzle. According to Heritage and Greatbatch (1986), there are two functions of the use of the device. One is that the puzzle part invites the audiences to anticipate or wonder about its solution and also holds the audience members’ attention to the solution. The other function is that the solution works as a signal in indicating a completion point, hence, the audience, hearing a puzzle-solution progress, project that the device will be completed at a certain point, and they respond to it at the completion point.

In order to enhance the functions of the device, political speakers usually deliver the solution part of a simple, active, and declarative sentence (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Two examples of the puzzle(P)-solution(S) format are presented below. In Extract 2.8, following the introduction of a topic and further information on the topic of unemployment and young people (lines 1-4), the speaker establishes a puzzle (line 6, “So why do they do without?”) and pauses for 1 second (line 7), then offers a solution (line 8, “Because...”). The audience members respond, “hear hear” (line 9) after “the minimum wage” which is produced at an early stage of the solution as the device is clearly displayed using a pause (line 7) between the puzzle and the solution. Then affiliative applause is produced near the completion point (line 12).

[Extract 2.8: Spoken by Joan Hall]

01 Hall: Unemployment Mister Chairman (0.6) immediately brings to
 02 mi::nd (0.2) young people. (1.6)
 03 What they want (0.4) are real jobs. (1.2) Many a business
 04 would like an apprentice.
 05 (0.7)
 06 (P) So why do they do without?
 07 (1.0)
 08 (S) Because the minimum wage: [(0.4) laid down by
 09 Audience: [(hear hear)
 10 Hall: wages councils and joint negotiating agreements are more
 11 than they can aff [or:d
 12 Audience: [Applause (9.2 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, pp. 127-128)

Similarly, in Extract 2.9, the speaker discusses the Health Service using a pun and a puzzle-solution. After stating a solution to the problems of the Health Service (lines 1-2, “The Private Finance Initiative, PFI”), the speaker states a puzzle “a different kind of PFI” (line 3) as a solution to the problem and provides a solution to the puzzle “Patients First Instead” (line 4), which is followed by audience applause (line 5).

[Extract 2.9: Spoken by Paddy Ashdown, Liberal Democrat Party Conference
September 24, 1996]

1 Ashdown: And here's another Conservative solution to the problems of
2 the Health Service. The Private Finance Initiative – PFI.
3 (P) But what the NHS really needs is a different kind of PFI
4 (S) Patients First Instead
5 Audience: Applause

(Bull, 2006, p. 565)

2.3.1.4 Headline-punchline

The structure of a headline-punchline is similar to the puzzle-solution demonstrated above. According to Heritage and Greatbatch (1986), in the use of the device, a speaker proposes to make a declaration, pledge, or announcement in the headline and then proceeds to make it in the punchline. In order to propose to make a statement, a speaker employs phrases such as “I’ll tell you what makes it worthwhile...”, “And I’ll say why...”, “And I repeat the promise that I made at the election that...”, “And our number one priority is...”, or “And I can announce to you that...” (Bull, 2006, p. 565). The punchline is normally short and simple in order to complete the speaker’s message and to aid the audience in anticipating the completion of the message (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Thus, the functions of the device are also similar to the puzzle-solution: listening attentively to the solution part and projecting the completion point and the production of an affiliative audience response. Two examples of the headline (HL)-punchline (PL) device are demonstrated below. In Extract 2.10, the speaker states the importance of passing a motion to help the Alliance with the Social Democrats (lines 1-3), displays a headline “I’ll tell you why” (line 5) in order to emphasise the reason of the importance, and then provides the reason in the punchline (lines 7-8) “It removes the last excuse for your idealistic radicals to join the Labour Party”.

[Extract 2.10: Spoken by Michael Meadowcroft]

1 Meadowcroft: The other point about that as we:ll and this is very
2 very important I think, (0.3) is that passing this motion
3 (.) can help the Alliance with the Social Democrats,
4 (.)
5 (HL) and I'll tell you why:.
6 (.)
7 (PL) { It remo:ves the last excuse for your idealistic
8 { radicals to join the Labour Party.
9 Audience: Applause (8.0 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 129)

In Extract 2.11 below, the speaker states a headline “My ambition” (line 1), then displays a punchline (lines 2-3) to the headline that his ambition is “to be the first Prime Minister...”

[Extract 2.11: Tony Blair, Labour Party Conference, September 2000]

1 Blair: (HL) My ambition:
2 (PL) { I want to be the first Prime Minister in forty years to stand up
3 { and say, Britain is back at full employment again.
4 Audience: Applause

(Wells, 2007 p. 49)

2.3.1.5 Combination

Combination refers to a combined rhetorical device. The device contains more than one rhetorical format. So, for example, the rhetorical devices described above may be combined with one another (e.g. a contrast and a three-part list are combined in a message). The combined device is likely to further emphasise a political message and to anticipate a clear completion point (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Moreover, the combination of two types of rhetorical device is a highly effective way of producing applause from the audience (Atkinson, 1984a). According to the empirical study of Heritage and Greatbatch (1986), combination occurred as follows: (1) 91% of combinations consisted of a contrast with another device; (2) the most common format of combination links a contrast with a three-part list; (3) and the second most combined format is a puzzle-solution in combination with a contrast.

Two examples of combinations are presented below. Extract 2.12 illustrates a contrast combined with a three-part list in the second part of the contrast. The speaker discusses a duty of politicians. He displays the first part of a contrast (line 4, “to lead others to face reality”), then the second part of the contrast (lines 6-10 “Not a duty to...”) consisting of a three-part list (“compromising pap”, “pie in the sky”, and “false hopes”) (lines 7-10). This is followed by applause in line 11.

[Extract 2.12: Norman Tebbit, Conservative party]

01	Tebbit:		And I have a duty (.) a duty that falls upon all
02			responsible politic <u>↓</u> ians
03			(.)
04		(a)	to lead others to f:fi- to <u>f</u> ace reality.
05			(0.4)
06			<u>N</u> ot a duty to feed the people a <u>d</u> iet of
07		(b) {	(1) compromising <u>p</u> ap
08			(0.2)
09			(2) pie in the sky:
10		(3)	and <u>f</u> alse <u>h</u> opes.
11	Audience:		Applause (10.7 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, pp. 129-130)

In Extract 2.13 below, a combination consisting of a puzzle-solution with a contrast is presented. In this example, the contrast forms the solution part of a puzzle-solution. The speaker condemns the opposition comparing the two political leaders (Thatcher and Heath). He displays a puzzle (lines 1-3) that they both have great vision but different visions, then provides a solution consisting of a contrast: first part (line 5, “a vision that one day Britain will be great again”) and second part (line 7, “a vision that one day Ted Heath will be great again”).

[Extract 2.13: Robert Jones, Conservative party]

- 1 Jones: You know Mister Chairman er Margaret Thatcher and
2 (P) Ted Heath (0.4) both have great vision.
3 (0.7)
4 (S) The difference i:s that Margaret Thatcher (0.2) has
5 (a) a vision that one day Britain will be great aga:in,
6 (0.4)
7 (b) and Ted Heath has a vision (0.2) that one day Ted
8 Heath will be great again. =
9 Audience: = Applause (19.4 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, pp. 130-131)

2.3.1.6 Position-taking

According to Heritage and Greatbatch (1986), position-taking refers to a speaker's evaluation of a political issue or affair; it was the most effective single rhetorical device in their data. The device involves a two-stage process: pre-position-taking and position taking. The speaker describes a state of affairs in the pre-position-taking stage and then makes his or her evaluation on it with praise or condemnation in the position-taking stage. As shown in Extract 2.14, the speaker first describes a state of affair (lines 1-3) about child adoption prior to the position-taking (PT) and then takes his evaluative stance in a position-taking stage (line 4) which is against the current system. This is followed by applause in line 5.

[Extract 2.14: John Major, Conservative Party Conference, October 11, 1996]

- 1 Major: I still hear too many stories of politically correct
2 absurdities that prevent children being adopted by
3 loving couples who would give them a good home.
4 (PT) If that is happening we should stop it.
5 Audience: Applause

(Bull, 2006, pp. 565-566)

While the above example demonstrates a simple case of a position-taking device, in a complex case, the description of a state of affairs in the pre-position-taking stage is emphasised through the use of the rhetorical devices illustrated above. In Extract 2.15, the speaker uses a three-part list (lines 5-15) in conjunction with three contrasts (lines 5 and 7, 9 and 11, and 13 and 15) repeating "that others" at the pre-

position-taking stage, and then states her stance on the issue (line 17, “What a contemptible policy for Britain”). The rhetorically formatted pre-position-taking stage makes the audience more attentive to the message and also enhances the position-taking message (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Thus, the audience response occurs collectively at the completion of the position-taking and lasts for 8 seconds.

[Extract 2.15: Margaret Thatcher, Conservative party]

01	Thatcher:	For the unspoken <u>assumption</u> (0.2) behind <u>policies</u> of
02		with <u>draw</u> :al from the community (0.6) and unil <u>ateral</u>
03		disarmament is
04		(0.8)
05		that <u>others</u> : will continue to bear <u>their</u> burden:s
06	(1) {	(0.3)
07	(b)	and pick up <u>our</u> :s as ↓we:ll:
08		(0.4)
09		that <u>others</u> would continue to <u>accept</u> <u>our</u> products
10	(2) {	(0.4)
11	(b)	even though we refuse to accept ↓ their::s
12		(0.4)
13		that <u>others</u> would <u>ensure</u> the defence of <u>Europe</u>
14	(3) {	(0.5)
15	(b)	and provide a sh <u>ield</u> behind which <u>we</u> could shel:ter.
16		(0.6)
17	(PT)	What a <cont <u>emptible</u> > policy for <u>Britain</u> . =
18	Audience:	= [hear hear
19	Audience:	= [Applause (8.0 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 132)

A specific character of the position-taking is that the device is “uniquely fitted for the packaging of criticisms” (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 133), whereas, it also has a “pursuit-like character” when it is used in positive message (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 133). In delivering criticisms (Extract 2.15), although both a speaker and audience members may share disapproval during the pre-position-taking on a state of affairs, the audience’s response is inhibited during the pre-position-taking because the audience members tend to wait for the speaker’s position-taking sentence. Then the response is finally released by conveying the

speaker's position-taking, which is usually a single active declarative sentence (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

On the other hand, in presenting praise or good news, unlike the aspect of the negative message, the audience response cannot be inhibited during the pre-position-taking stage because they tend to respond to the praise or good news immediately. Hence, the positive message is not effective in generating a collective response in the completion point of the position-taking (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). For example, in Extract 2.16 below, the speaker delivers his view on the Syrian refugee crisis. The message is formatted with pre-position-taking (lines 1-16) and position-taking (line 17). He praises his own country (the UK) in that they helped the refugees more than other countries apart from the USA (lines 1-8), using a headline-punchline (lines 4 and 5) and a contrast (lines 5-8) at the pre-position-taking. As he praises the country, the audience members applaud the message (line 10). However, his intention is not to generate a response at this stage because he continues with the next sentence ("And we've been able to do that", line 9) without a substantial pause and speeds up the beginning. As a result, applause occurs at the beginning of the sentence, and the speaker yields his turn to the audience members. When the applause dies down, he resumes the sentence, repeating the beginning (line 12). Then he condemns other countries that they didn't keep their promise, using a contrast (lines 16 and 17), and takes his position on this issue (line 19 "if Britain can keep her promises, so should you", using a headline-punchline (lines 18 and 19).

[Extract 2.16: David Cameron, Conservative conference, 2015]⁵

01	Cameron:	...The best thing Britain can do is help neighbouring
02		countries,
03		the Syrian people and the refugees in the camps ...
04	(HL)	And as we do this, let's remember something else:
05	(PL) (a)	we haven't only just started caring about Syrians.
06		{ We've been helping them over the past <four years>, giving <u>more</u> in aid to that area than <u>any</u> other country on earth apart from the United States of America. (.)
07	(b)	
08		

⁵ This extract is not from a published resource but the author's own analysis.

09 >And we've been able to [do that<
 10 Audience: [applause xxxXXXXXXXXXXXXX
 11 Audience: XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXxxx
 12 Cameron: we've been able to do
 13 that↓ because this party made a promise↑ and kept
 14 a promise↓ (.) to spend >nought point seven percent
 15 of our national income< (.)on aid.
 16 (a) Now other countries made that promise,
 17 (b) But they didn't keep it.
 18 (HL) And I say to them
 19 (PL) (PT) if Britain can keep her promises, <so should you>.=
 20 Audience: applause

2.3.1.7 Pursuits

Pursuit refers to the pursuit of an audience response and is identified as “a particular structural configuration of speaker activities” (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 136). If a message is poorly constructed or a message is delivered with ineffective nonverbal cues, audience members may fail to respond to the completion point of the messages (Atkinson 1984a). In this case, speakers may actively pursue applause by indicating the invitation to applaud again (Atkinson 1984a). In so doing, the messages are re-emphasised and there are further opportunities to produce responses to the messages (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Common ways of doing pursuit are to (1) re-complete the point, (2) summarise the message, and (3) “shift footing from speaking on their own behalf to speaking on behalf of a collectivity” (Atkinson 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 134). In Extract 2.17 below, the message is formatted with a contrast (lines 1-7), however, the audience members fail to respond at the completion point of the contrast. Thus, the speaker refers back to and summarises the point, “That is entirely unacceptable” (line 9), employing effective nonverbal cues: a loud voice for the first word “that”, and falling intonation near the re-completion point. Consequently, a verbal response (“hear hear”) begins immediately (line 10) and then affiliative applause occurs (line 11) in the overlap.

[Extract 2.17: Edward Heath, UK general election, 1979]

01	Heath:	(a)	{ ...it is right that the government should <u>con</u> sider these
02			{ matters and take them into account.
03			(1.0)
04		(b)	{ What is <u>entirely unaccept</u> ↓able (0.8) is the view that
05			{ <u>parliament</u> never can (0.6) and never should (0.6)
06			{ <u>approve</u> any legisl↓ation (0.8) unless first of <u>all</u> the
07			{ trade unions them↓ selves (.) approve ↓of it.
08			(0.5)
09		(Pursuit)	THAT is en↓tirely unac↓ceptable
10	Audience:		Hear [hear
11	Audience:		[Applause (8.0 seconds)

(Atkinson, 1984a, p. 78)

Similarly, in Extract 2.18 below, although the message is formatted with a three-part list (lines 3-4); a response is not produced at the completion point of the device. Hence, the speaker pursues audience response by stating “And no one in this government is” and shifting the footing from speaking on his own behalf (“I am not willing to”, line 1) to speaking on behalf of their group (“no one in this government”, line 6).

[Extract 2.18: Norman Tebbit]

1	Tebbit:		I am not willing to throw away the <u>pro</u> spects of lasting
2			re↓covery (.) in an <u>org</u> y of <u>self</u>
3		(1) (2)	<u>indul</u> gence, false sentiment <u>al</u> ity and self
4		(3)	justification.
5			(.)
6		(Pursuit)	And no <u>o</u> ne in this [government is.
7	Audience:		[Applause (11.6 seconds)

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, pp. 134-135)

In Extract 2.19 below, the message is formatted with a headline-punchline and a pursuit. The applause occurs prior to the pursuit (“That’s not our responsibility”, lines 6 and 8) near the completion point and in overlap with the pursuit. In this case, it is considered that the audience applauds the headline-punchline rather than the pursuit.

[Extract 2.19: Arthur Scargill]

1 Scargill: We have to recognise (0.6) against that background
2 (HL) (0.4) that this party (0.2) has to declare its policy.
3 (0.8)
4 NO MORE must we go into power (0.4) on the
5 (PL) proviso (0.3) that we try to make ↑WORKERS pay for
6 the crisis of capital [ism (.) THAT'S NOT OUR
7 Audience: [Applause (7.5 seconds)]
8 Scargill: RESPONSIBILITY.

(Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 129)

Heritage and Greatbatch (1986) state that pursuit is less effective in evoking a response than the other rhetorical devices discussed thus far because a pursuit lacks the preliminary element of the other devices. As the other devices are composed of items, parts, or stages, the audience recognises the early stage of the device and anticipates the completion point and hence are able to prepare to respond. On the other hand, in the case of pursuits, there is no specific construction such as the preliminary elements and the device is normally displayed in a single phase. However, pursuit plays a certain role in re-emphasising and supporting a message which was either formatted or delivered ineffectively (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Consequently, the pursuit device is an effective means for evoking applause when the audience is reluctant to applaud (Atkinson, 1984a), as in the cases of the examples 2.17 and 2.18. According to Heritage and Greatbatch's study, the purpose of using a pursuit is not only limited to recovering a response when the audience failed to respond to a message but also plays a role in enhancing the importance of the messages. Notably, political speakers employ the pursuit device frequently in making their political points, regardless of whether the audience members have begun to applaud or not.

2.3.1.8 Naming

Although "naming" was not investigated in Heritage and Greatbatch's (1986) study, Atkinson (1984a) identified "naming" as an effective device in generating audience applause in specific messages, such as introductions and commendations. In the use of "naming", a speaker invites audience applause to a person who has been

introduced by name, shown appreciation or praised. The common way of accomplishing naming is similar to the use of *position-taking* which is comprised of two stages: pre-position-taking and position-taking. The speaker first says a few words about the person, which can be regarded as a preliminary element or stage and then names him or her. In terms of nonverbal behaviour in the use of naming, speakers normally use a pause between the preliminary stage and the naming. Hence, in the preliminary stage, audience members are given time to recognise the person and understand that they are expected to applaud the name and to anticipate the completion point in advance. In the following examples, the speakers introduce and praise the person prior to naming them (Extract 2.20, lines 1-4; Extract 2.21, lines 1-3), pause for 0.2 seconds (Extract 2.20, line 5; Extract 2.21, line 4), and then finally announce the name (Extract 2.20, line 6; Extract 2.21, line 5). By so doing, applause commences near the completion of the naming.

[Extract 2.20: Conservative Party conference, 1978]

1	Chair:	Now it's my pleasure to (.) <u>in</u> vite Mister Michael
2		Heseltine the Member of Parliament for Henley (0.2)
3		Shadow Minister of the Environment to reply to the
4		<u>debate</u> .
5		(0.2)
6		<u>Mist</u> [er Heseltine
7	Audience:	[Applause (9.0 seconds)]

(Atkinson, 1984a, p. 49)

[Extract 2.21: Margaret Thatcher, Conservative Party conference, 1980]

1	Thatcher:	I am however (0.2) very fortunate (0.4) in having (0.6)
2		a <u>mar</u> vellous deputy (0.4) who's wonderful (.)
3	(1) (2) (3)	in all places (0.2) at all times (0.2) in all things.
4		(0.2)
5	(Naming)	Willie White [law
6	Audience:	[Applause (8.0 seconds)]

(Atkinson, 1984a, p. 50)

In addition, in Extract 2.21, the preliminary stage contains a three-part list “in all places, at all times, in all things” (line 3), which is well formatted and performed in terms of repetition, rhyme, and pausing.

While Atkinson’s investigation into the naming device was limited to positive messages about a person, Bull and Wells (2002, p. 237) identified “negative naming” as a variant on the naming that Atkinson identified. In negative naming, speakers invite audience response to “the abuse or ridicule of a named person, typically a politician of an opposing political party” (Bull & Wells, 2002, p. 237). However, to date, this aspect of the use of the negative naming has not been studied in detail. For example, it has not been investigated whether the aspects of the interaction between speaker and audience are similar to or different from the positive naming, and what forms of response occur in delivering the negative naming.

2.3.2 Other verbal devices

2.3.2.1 Greetings/salutations

Greetings/salutations generally occur at the opening of a speech as a ritual exchange. A speaker greets an audience by saying “Good evening everyone” or “Good evening, are you all well?” The audience typically reacts with a verbal response to the greeting, such as “Good evening” or “Yes, we are fine”. Then, the speaker introduces him or herself and asks the audience to support him or her explicitly. For example, “As I was just introduced, I am Shimizu Koichiro and in this election for the Lower House I will take part in the campaign serving as the head of the campaign office in the Kyoto third constituency. I would like to ask for your support” (Spoken by Shimizu Koichiro; Bull & Feldman, 2011, p. 166). The audience always applauds these kinds of utterances.

2.3.2.2 Expressing appreciation

After the greeting stage, the speaker expresses his or her thanks to the audience for attending the election campaign meeting. For example, “Today was a hot day. I am really thankful to so many of you for joining me here and staying until such a late

hour” (Spoken by Ishimura Kazuko; Bull & Feldman, 2011, p. 167). The audience responds with applause to this kind of utterance rather than producing a verbal response.

2.3.2.3 Request agreement/asking for confirmation

Request agreement/asking for confirmation are statements in which the speaker requests audience agreement or confirmation explicitly in responding to what the speaker has just said, by saying for example “Don’t you think so?” “Wouldn’t you agree with me?” or “Don’t you think this is the truth?” The audience always responds to the request either with applause or with verbal responses such as “Yes, it is true,” “Natural,” or “This is correct.” For example, “And the thing we are striving for, it is not destruction. We will show that there are security and stability for our lives at the end of these reforms. It’s our job as politicians, isn’t it?” (Spoken by Kitagami Keiro; Bull & Feldman, 2011, p. 167).

2.3.2.4 Jokes/humorous expressions

Jokes and humorous expressions are used to invite audience laughter. In the following example, the speaker invites audience laughter in response to his humorous expression about his appearance. “...of course I’m not saying that the younger the better, but my opponent is taller than me and a little bit more handsome. But, we are not choosing here a film actor, and I don’t want you to choose only the most photogenic. To do my best, I also came here wearing platform shoes, but I don’t think it’s enough to outdo my opponent” (Spoken by Shimizu Koichiro; Bull & Feldman, 2011, p. 167).

2.3.2.5 Asking for support

In the use of asking for support, the speaker explicitly seeks the audiences’ support by saying “Please, stay with me until the end of the election campaign. Dear all, I sincerely thank you for your support” (Spoken by Hara Toshifumi; Bull & Feldman, 2011, p. 168). “From my heart I ask for your help. I will try hard until the end of the campaign. Please assist me” (Spoken by Ishimura Kazuko; Feldman & Bull, 2012, p.

385). The audience normally reacts with a verbal response such as “Do it”, “Go for it”, “Do your best”, “Give it your best”, or “You can do it”.

2.3.2.6 Description of campaign activities

In the use of the description of campaign activities, the speaker addresses episodes or activities that the speaker has experienced during the campaign, such as his or her travels, people he or she met, or talks with voters and supporters. The audience typically responds to the utterance category either with applause or verbal encouragement.

In Japanese speeches, the verbal categories above (excluding *description of campaign activities*) were associated with more than two-thirds (over 70% in both studies) of the total incidents of collective response. The traditional seven rhetorical (see section 2.3.1) devices were also employed in Japanese speeches, but in contrast to the finding that the devices made up more than two-thirds of all applause incidents in British speeches; they accounted for a minority of response incidents in Japanese speeches (less than 20%). Among the 13 devices, Jokes and humorous expressions and Asking for support categories accounted for the most and the second most proportion respectively of the total response incidents in both studies.

When the traditional seven rhetorical devices are considered, the *position-taking* device was used more frequently than the other six rhetorical devices, accounting for 11.7% (Bull & Feldman, 2011) and 6.7% (Feldman & Bull, 2012) of all response incidents in each study. Notably, *contrasts* and *lists* made up a very small proportion of the total response events: *contrasts* 3.4% and 1.1%; *lists* 0.8% and 0.3% in each study, respectively. In contrast to these results, in the British data, the two devices accounted for the highest and the third highest proportion of the total applauded messages with 24.6% and 6.5%, respectively. If the incidents of the two devices in *combination* were taken into account, the two devices accounted for 33.2% and 12.6% of cases, respectively. Thus, they were associated with almost half of the applause incidents. A further distinctive feature of Japanese speeches was

the absence of negative naming identified by Bull and Wells (2002). In Japanese political culture, if a speaker invites audience affiliation by ridiculing another politician in a public speech, there is a risk that the speaker's face is damaged much more than the politician ridiculed by the speaker. Thus, there are different speaker behaviours in the use of verbal devices in generating audience responses in the two cultures.

2.3.3 Speech delivery

Speech Delivery refers to a speaker's performance, how the speaker conveys his or her verbal messages. Thus, while the rhetorical devices involve the speaker's verbal strategies, delivery involves the speaker's nonverbal skills. "Nonverbal communication refers to communication effected by means other than words" (Knapp & Hall, 1997, P. 5). The means of nonverbal communication are categorised into vocal and non-vocal cues. The vocal cues refer to prosodic features, such as pitch, intonation, loudness, speed, and pause. The non-vocal cues refer to kinesics (body language), such as eye gaze, hand gesture, facial expression, head movement, and stance. From the listeners' viewpoint, a speaker's nonverbal communication can be understood through two means: hearing and visual channels. In other words, the speaker's nonverbal communication affects the listeners' hearing and visual channels.

The functions of nonverbal behaviour in communication are identified as: (1) expressing emotion, (2) delivering interpersonal attitudes (e.g., like/dislike, dominance/submission), (3) displaying one's personality to others, (4) and accompanying speech for the purposes of managing turn taking, feedback, attention, etc. (Knapp & Hall, 1997). Based on these four functions, this section discusses the detailed functions and features of the nonverbal factors.

2.3.3.1 Vocal features

The voice reveals a speaker's social and personal identity and offers communicative means for the speakers to convey their emotional state and attitudes (Pittman, 1994; Laver, 1994). Moreover, vocal cues play certain roles in persuasion and turn-

taking in interaction. First, voice conveys a speaker's emotion. Voice quality (e.g., harsh, tense, modal, breathy, whispery, creaky, and lax-creaky voices) shows a speaker's attitude, mood, and emotion (Gobl & Chasaide, 2003). The emotional tone of voice enhances linguistic processing of emotional words in the perception of spoken words (Nygaard & Queen, 2008). Listeners are able to recognise not only a speaker's emotional state from vocal cues (Scherer, 1995), but also different types of smiles (Duchenne smile – natural or genuine smile, Non-Duchenne smile – felt smile, Suppressed smile – smile controls) in the speaker's speech without visual cues (Drahota, Costall, & Reddy, 2008).

Second, the voice provides an appreciation of a speaker's personality and social, physical, and psychological characteristics (Laver, 1991). The social characteristics refer to the individual's regional affiliation, social status, educational status, occupation, and social role. Physical characteristics mean the individual's age, sex, physique, and state of health. Psychological characteristics involve the individual's personality and affective status. Listeners perceive the personal characteristics of a speaker according to the speaker's voice: male personalities were perceived in terms of physical and emotional power, whereas female personalities were perceived in terms of social characteristics (Addinton, 1968). Women are able to judge men's characteristics by their voice and they correctly estimate speakers' age and weight, but not height (Bruckert, Liénard, Lacroix, Kreutzer, & Leboucher, 2006). Knapp and Hall (1997, p. 407) stated that "salespeople, radio and television announcer, receptionist, lawyers, and many others try to emulate low vocal tones, which they perceive as being more sophisticated, appealing, sexy, or masculine than higher-pitch voices". In terms of voice and gender, it is suggested that (1) both men and women with masculine voices (i.e. lowered pitch) are perceived as more competent than feminine voices (i.e. raised pitch), and (2) feminine voices are perceived as warmer than masculine voices. Interestingly, it is found that men preferred women's voice with a raised pitch, while women preferred men's voices with lowered pitches, and that both male and female listeners perceived men's or women's voices with lowered pitch as to be more dominant than raised pitch (Jones, Feinberg, DeBruine, Little, & Vukovic, 2010).

Third, voice enhances the speaker's intentions in persuasive situations. The following prosodic cues increase the persuasiveness of communication: more speech volume, a higher speech rate, and less halting speech (Mehrabian & Williams, 1969); fluency, length of pause, more pitch variation, louder voice, and faster speech (Burgoon, Birk, & Pfau, 1990). For example, a voice with faster than normal syllable speed and lower pitch produced more positive consumer responses towards broadcast advertising (Chattopadhyay, Dahl, Ritchie, & Shahin, (2002). Fourth, prosodic cues such as rhythm, timing, pitch, loudness, intonation, and voice quality play roles in delivering meaning and regulating turn-taking in talk (Cruttenden, 1997). For examples, (1) an expanded pitch span may signal a change of topic (Hirschberg, 2002); (2) pitch can indicate agreement and disagreement (Ogden, 2006); (3) vocal emphasis can modify the meaning of a message (Knapp and Hall, 1997); and (4) intonation is an effective tool in indicating key-words and the completion of a statement, and also in conveying a speaker's emotions such as sympathy, compassion, scorn, sarcasm, and innuendo (Horner, 1970).

Knapp and Hall (1999) summarised four turn-regulating behaviours in managing interactions between participants: turn yielding, turn requesting, turn maintaining, and turn denying. Turn yielding means indicating that an interlocutor is finished and the other interlocutor can take his or her turn to talk (e.g., raising pitch when requiring or asking, drop pitch when answering or finishing a declarative statement, and pausing). Turn requesting means signals that an interlocutor wants to have his or her turn (e.g., normally paralanguage such as 'Ah', 'Er', and 'Uh-huh'). To maintaining a turn means to signal that an interlocutor wants to continue with his or her turn (e.g., increasing volume and rate). Turn denying means indicating that an interlocutor does not want to take his or her turn.

Scholars provide valuable evidence about the relationship between prosodic cues and turn-taking behaviours. A high pitch peak prior to the turn-final element can assist listeners to anticipate that the turn completion will occur at the next syntactic completion unit (Schegloff, 1996b). However, prosodic cues do not work alone in providing turn completion but co-occur with syntactic and pragmatic completions

(Schegloff, 1998). Moreover, turn-taking occurs frequently at points where syntactic, prosodic (final fall or final rise), and pragmatic cues are combined (Ford & Thompson, 1996).

In addition, in public speeches, pausing makes a significant difference to the meaning, feeling, and emphasis of a message point. Also, pausing frequently helps audiences to follow the message more easily because they are able to perceive the message in shorter units of time (Atkinson, 2008). For example, good political speakers such as Churchill, Thatcher, Reagan, Clinton, and Blair paused, on average, every five words when they delivered their speeches (Atkinson, 2008). In political interviews, pitch at turn-final is an important signal in turn-taking between interviewer and interviewee. For example, Margaret Thatcher was interrupted more often than other politicians during TV interviews because she used sharply falling pitch which misled interviewers into judging that she had completed her turn (Beattie, Cutler, & Pearson, 1982).

In summary, a speaker's vocal cues in social interaction provide listeners access to the speakers' emotions, personality, attractiveness, characters, and accomplishes turn-regulating behaviours. Vocal cues offer listeners not only important information about a speaker, but also the speaker's intentions in social interaction.

2.3.3.2 Non-vocal features

Non-vocal features include gaze, gesture, facial expression, and body movement. There are four functions of eye gazing in social interaction: regulating responses, monitoring feedback, reflecting cognitive activity, and expressing emotions (Kendon, 1967). In political speeches with members of a large audience, eye gazing is also significant for a speaker, not only to monitor the audience members' feedback on his or her political messages but also to engage with them. Furthermore, it is an important skill for the speaker to make everyone in the audiences feel included, looking equally at each side of the audience (Atkinson, 2008).

The function of body movement and gestures in social interaction regulates the exchange of the speaker's role, supports language, acts as a device of emphasis, and marks the semantic segmentation of a speaker's discourse (Laver, 1991). Knapp and Hall (1997) summarised two primary types of gestures in social interaction: speech-independent. and speech-related gestures. Speech-independent gestures, known as emblems (Ekman, 1976), are nonverbal activities that have a direct verbal translation. For examples, thumbs-up gesture generally means "good" or "positive", and when a forefinger is put in front of the lips, it signifies "be quiet" in western cultures. There are four common types of gesture that accompany speech: referent-related gestures, speaker's relationship to the referent gestures, punctuation gestures, and interactive gestures.

(1) Referent-related, (2) speaker's relationship to the referent, and (3) punctuation gestures refer to illustrators which are movements that "are directly tied to speech, serving to illustrate what is being said verbally" (Ekman & Friesen, 1969, p. 63). They involve the verbal content of the speaker's utterance. Referent-related gestures are movements depicting concrete referents or abstract ideas. The speaker's relationship to the referent gestures are movements showing the speaker's orientations toward his or her own message. Punctuation gestures are movements which emphasise the important verbal content of the message. These gestures are frequently accompanied by vocal stress when they are used for emphasising a particular word or phrase. For example, pounding a hand or pointing a forefinger in delivering a word or phrase acts as a tool for visually emphasising a word or phrase. Interactive gestures refer to regulators and are movements which help the flow of conversation between speakers. For example, a speaker uses a pointing gesture towards his or her dialogue partner in order to give a turn-taking cue. Bavelas (1994) detailed four functions of the interactive gestures as delivering information by the speaker to the addressee, citing a previous contribution for the dialogue partner, seeking to request a specific response from the dialogue partner, and referring to issues around with the speaking turns.

In British political oratory, appropriately co-ordinated movements of the arms, hands, head, or body are important factors in communicating with large audiences and generating applause (Atkinson, 1984a). In American political speeches, Streeck (2008, p. 161) observed that the candidates “*share* a gestural code consisting of a fairly small number of different forms” in Democratic Party primary debates during a presidential campaign. He identified four of the most frequently displayed hand gestures in the speeches: slice, pointing, ring, and power grip. A *slice* is “a rapid downward movement of a flat, open hand held in vertical orientation, with the palm facing to the side... Other gestures include a similar movement pattern but differ by hand shape...A *pointing* hand shape formed with an extended index finger...the *ring*...a configuration in which the tip of the index-finger and thumb touch one another...The *power grip*...the four digits are curled as in a fist, but the thumb touches the outside of the index finger” (pp. 161-166).

2.3.4 Content

Audience members also consider the content of the speeches in deciding whether they respond or not to the messages. Although it is confirmed that the rhetorical formats stimulate the likelihood that the messages are applauded, it is also suggested that audience members respond to the content of messages (Atkinson, 1984; Grady & Potter, 1985; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Applause is a tool for audience members to express their agreement with a speaker’s messages. Hence, the audience members’ agreement with a message is one of the necessary conditions for the production of applause (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). As the audience members express their agreement with a group activity, the applaudable messages in a group are closely related to the identity of the group (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Stewart, 2015).

According to Atkinson’s (1984a) observation, 95% of audience responses occur in responding to four types of messages: (1) positive evaluation of “us”, (2) negative evaluation of “them”, (3) combined positive and negative evaluation, and (4) standardised introduction, commendation. Similarly, Heritage and Greatbatch

(1986) categorise the applauded messages, regardless of the rhetorical devices, into seven types of messages: (1) external attacks, (2) approve own party, (3) 1 and 2 combined, (4) internal attacks, (5) advocacy, (6) 4 and 5 combined, (7) commendation, and (8) other. The external attack (negative evaluation of “them”) is a message type which delivers criticism or condemns policies, memberships, or behaviours of the opposite political party. On the other hand, approval of one’s own party (positive evaluation of “us”) is a message type which delivers positive evaluations or praises the politics, leadership, or achievements of the speaker’s party. The internal attack is a message type which criticises or condemns persons or factions within the speaker’s own party. The advocacy type is a message which advocates particular policies or issues. The commendation (or introduction) is a message type which introduces, praises, or appreciates persons.

According to Heritage and Greatbatch’s (1986) investigation, these seven message types accounted over 81% of total incidence of the applause regardless of the rhetorical device used. Among the message types, internal attacks and external attacks categories made up 27.0% and 19.6% of all the applause events, respectively. However, when considering the applauded messages that are constructed with the rhetorical devices, the five message types (external attacks, approve own party, internal attacks, advocacy, and commendation) made up over two-thirds of all applauded messages. Among the five message types, approval of one’s own party and external attacks were the most applauded message types.

Heritage and Greatbatch also suggested that the message types constructed with rhetorical device are more likely to be applauded than with the absence of the rhetorical devices. In addition, audience members in political meetings had a tendency to respond to negative attacks (both external and internal attacks) rather than positive message types (own party approval and advocacy).

2.4 Aspects of Turn-taking in Oratory

Having discussed the components of generating audience applause, Atkinson and Heritage and Greatbatch’s studies have provided important insights into the ways

political speakers invite audience applause and how collective audience applause occurs. However, Bull and his colleagues (Bull, 2000; Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000; Bull & Wells, 2002) evaluated the two studies by conducting further investigation and suggested that there were further important features to be considered in order to understand the various aspects of the speaker-audience interaction in details.

Bull (2006) summarised further features as (1) applause in the absence of rhetorical devices, (2) applaudable message types, (3) isolated applause, (4) synchronised/non-synchronised applause, and (5) invited/uninvited applause. He categorised the features in three dimensions: rhetoricality, synchrony, and invitationality. Rhetoricality refers to aspects of the use of rhetorical devices in generating audience response. Rhetoricality played a central role in producing audience applause in Atkinson's theory. Synchrony is features of synchronised/non-synchronised audience response with a speaker's message. Synchronised applause and non-synchronised applause refers to match and mismatch, respectively, to the speaker's message. Invitationality is a dimension that defines whether applause is invited or uninvited by the speaker. The interaction dimensions are explained further below.

2.4.1 Rhetoricality

Bull and his colleagues claimed that Atkinson and Heritage and Greatbatch underestimated the role of content and delivery, and overestimated the role of rhetorical devices in speaker-audience interaction in political speeches. First, According to Bull (2000), affiliative applause occurs not only in rhetorically constructed messages but also in the absence of rhetorical devices. He examined three political party leaders' speeches to British political party conferences in 1996. In the speeches, 15 incidents of collective applause occurred, however, none of the applauded messages was constructed with the seven rhetorical devices identified by Atkinson, Heritage and Greatbatch. In terms of speech content in Bull's study, there was also a different result from Atkinson, Heritage and Greatbatch studies. The content of all the 15 applauded messages was about the statement of policy.

In Atkinson, Heritage and Greatbatch's studies, rhetorical devices were key factors in inviting audience applause, together with a narrow range of message types. It was shown that two-thirds (67.6%) of the affiliative applause incidents were associated with the seven rhetorical devices, while a third of applause occurred in the absence of the devices (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). However, Bull's study shows that (1) applause also occurs in the absence of the rhetorical devices identified by Atkinson, Heritage and Greatbatch and (2) applaudable message types vary in terms of political contexts.

2.4.2 Synchrony

The other important feature is synchrony between applause occurrence and a speaker's completion point of messages. Atkinson proposed that collective applause to the rhetorically formatted messages is typically synchronised with the completion point of the messages. He further observed that in most cases, applause occurred either near the completion point or within a second after the completion point. In addition, a burst of applause typically reached the maximum volume within the first second and then died away after five seconds.

Similarly, Heritage and Greatbatch (1986) reported that most of the applause in their data began within 0.3 seconds of the completion point and remained for eight seconds. They suggested further that if the applause was not initiated within 0.5 seconds, there was less chance that applause would occur. However, Bull's (2000) data analysis, showed that 40% of the applause incidents occurred either near or at the completion point of the message, and 60% of the applause incidents showed a lack of synchrony (20% were interrupted by the audience; 40% occurred at an earlier stage of the possible completion point and took longer than one second to reach full intensity). It should be noted that all the applause incidents of the study occurred in the absence of rhetorical devices.

Bull and Noordhuizen (2000) examined synchronisation in more detail. They investigated six speeches delivered to British political party conferences in 1996 and 1997 and reported that 61% of the applause incidents were fully matched and

nearly 40% of the applause incidents were mismatched with the speeches (audience mismatches and speaker mismatches accounted for 29.2% and 12.9%, respectively, of applause incidents). Applause to messages containing rhetorical devices was more likely to be synchronised than unsynchronised with the completion point of the message. However, there were individual differences in the performance of the synchrony. While over 80% of responses to a speaker's speech was synchronised with the speaker's speeches, only 33.3% and 50.9% of responses were synchronised in other speakers' speeches. Hence, the results show that there may be individual differences in the techniques of the generation of responses.

Bull and Noordhuizen (2000) suggested four ways in which mismatches may occur: (1) isolated applause, (2) delayed applause, (3) audience interrupts the speaker, and (4) the speaker interrupts audience. The first three categories are audience mismatches, while the fourth category is a speaker mismatch. Isolated applause refers to claps from one or two people, thus, this form is distinguished from collective applause which is a response from the whole or a substantial section of audience members (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). This form may occur either when a speaker has failed to elicit collective applause or a response is initiated by the audience. Isolated applause generally occurs for four reasons: (1) audience misread a speaker's rhetorical cues, (2) the speaker employs rhetorical devices but fails to evoke collective applause due to lack of delivery skills, (3) the speaker uses rhetorical devices but overshoots the completion point, thus, the audience loses an opportunity to respond, and (4) the absence of rhetorical devices (Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000).

In the following example, the speaker uses a puzzle-solution but the audience misreads the solution part, hence, laughter and isolated clapping occur in the puzzle part (line 6) (It is noted that {mis} indicates mismatch). The speaker pauses for 2 seconds (line 7) prior to the solution part (line 8) in order to indicate the completion point clearly. After the solution part, collective applause with laughter occurs.

[Extract 2.22: William Hague, Conservative Party Conference, October 1997]

1 Hague: (P) And what about the minimum wage? Wasn't it John
2 Prescott who said that of course a minimum wage
3 destroys jobs, any silly fool knows that he said
4 Well, now Margaret Beckett is planning to introduce
5 one
6 Audience: {mis} laughter -x-
7 (2.0)
8 Hague: (S) Apparently not every silly fool knows that.
9 Audience: applause and laughter

(Bull and Noordhuizen, 2000, p. 285)

The second form of mismatch, which involves delayed applause, occurs when there is an extended gap between the speaker's completion point and the point at which the audience begins to applaud. There are five possible reasons for the occurrence of audience interruption: a misreading of cues, poorly constructed rhetorical devices, failure of rhetorical devices, speaker overshooting the completion point, and absence of rhetorical devices (Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000). Delayed applause normally occurs in messages where poorly constructed rhetorical devices are used or there is the absence of a rhetorical device. Audience and speaker interruptions refer to overlaps between the speaker's utterance and the audience's applause. The audience may interrupt the speaker's utterance by applauding, and the speaker may interrupt the audience's applause by delivering the next message before the applause to the present message dies down. Audience interruption may also occur due to enthusiasm to the speech and speaker (Atkinson, 1984a).

Extract 2.23 shows a case of speaker overshoots completion point. In the example, the speaker employs a three-part list (lines 1-3) but continues the next sentence (line 3, "Now people") without giving a chance for the audience to applaud, whereas, the audience recognises the completion point of the device and applauds the statement. The speaker resumes the next sentence again after the interrupting applause dies down.

[Extract 2.23: Tony Blair, Labour Party Conference, September 1997]

1 Blair: (1) Teacher training will be reformed
2 (2) Head teachers will have a proper qualification
3 (3) And poor teachers will go [Now people
4 Audience: {mis} [applause
5 Blair: And I'll say why. People say my job is pressurised. So is
6 teaching.

(Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000, p. 290)

In the case of speaker mismatch, a speaker interrupts audience applause either successfully or unsuccessfully. If the speaker interrupts applause and is able to continue his message, it is regarded as a successful interruption. On the other hand, if the speaker interrupts the applause but fails to resume his message, it is regarded as an unsuccessful interruption. In Extract 2.24, the speaker interrupts in the middle of the audience applause (line 4, "So"), however, he fails to continue the sentence and resumes his talk when the applause dies down.

[Extract 2.24: Paddy Ashdown, Liberal Democrats Party Conference, September 1997]

1 Ashdown: Where we should cooperate we will do so wholeheartedly
2 Where we must oppose we will do so unflinchingly
3 Audience: applause xxxXX
4 Ashdown: [So [So here's my
5 prayer for the Parliament ahead here's my prayer for the next
6 4 or 5 years.

(Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000, p. 291)

One of the specific features of the speaker's interruption is that the speaker may strategically interrupt the applause to manage the applause. For example, Atkinson (1984a) pointed out that speakers refuse the audience applause by continuing their speech rather than waiting for the applause to die down. When the speakers finished their turn, finally allowing the audience to respond to them. As the audience response was suppressed and then allowed, a burst of applause occurred. Atkinson viewed such behaviour as a feature of charismatic oratory.

2.4.3 Invitatoriality

Bull (2000) proposed two modes of applause generation: invited applause and uninvited applause. Collective applause occurs not only in response to the invitation from a speaker but also with the absence of an invitation from the speaker. In the former case, the speaker indicates when and where applause is appropriate by using a rhetorical device. This process is termed invited applause. However, the audience applauds directly for speech content when rhetorical devices are absent. This process is termed uninvited applause. While invited applause is orchestrated by the speaker, uninvited applause is orchestrated by the audience, because applause is generated spontaneously by the audience.

Bull and Wells (2002) investigated the invited/uninvited, rhetorical/non-rhetorical, and synchrony/asynchrony dimensions based on 15 speeches delivered to British political party conferences between 1996 and 2000. In identifying invited or uninvited applause, the use of rhetorical devices and speech delivery factors were considered. However, in deciding whether applause was invited or uninvited, the delivery factors played a crucial role. For example, although an applauded message was constructed with rhetorical devices, the occurrence was judged as uninvited applause if the speaker was visibly intended to continue to the next sentence by displaying a hand gesture, another breath to continue next sentence, or starting the next sentence without sufficient pause.

According to the study, invited applauds through rhetorically formatted messages were significantly more likely to be synchronous than asynchronous between the audience's applause and speaker's message. The invited, rhetorical, and synchronous form of applause was by far the most frequently occurring form, accounting for nearly two-thirds (64.7%) of all applause events. More than one-third of applause was mismatched. However, nearly 20% of invited applause through rhetorical devices was asynchronous. Interruptive applause was by far the most frequently occurring form in the mismatched applause incidents (87.5%) and delayed applause accounted for 12.5% of all mismatch incidents. It is suggested

that the interruptive applause is possibly a way the audiences show their enthusiasm to the speeches, while delayed applause shows that the audiences are either less enthusiastic about the speaker's messages or the messages are delivered with the lack of a clear signal inviting applause. In contrast, applause invitations through rhetorical devices and appropriate delivery factors always generated affiliative applause. Uninvited applause incidents (13.8% of all applause events) were typically asynchronous, notably, uninvited applause occurred more in the rhetorically constructed messages than in their absence. However, uninvited applause in the absence of rhetorical devices was rare, accounting for only 3.2% of all applause events. The study shows that delivery plays a much more important role in speaker-audience interaction than Atkinson and Heritage and Greatbatch proposed.

2.5 Summary

The review in this chapter has provided an overall introduction to the speaker-audience interactions in political oratory. Studies have shown that there are: (1) verbal and non-verbal tools used to generate audience responses; (2) distinguishing features of turn-taking behaviour between speaker and audience (synchrony/asynchrony); (3) cultural differences in audience behaviour (forms of response and collective action) and in the use of verbal devices in inviting audience responses (British and American speakers invited audience responses using implicit rhetorical devices, while Japanese speakers invited responses using explicit verbal devices). It has also shown that there are limited studies exploring the use of non-verbal factors in the generation of responses. This shows that there is room for investigating speaker's nonverbal behaviour in inviting audience responses in other cultures.

The question becomes why there are different audience behaviours and different speaker behaviours in the use of verbal devices between the cultures? How do speakers use nonverbal features in the generation of responses in other cultures? Are the implicit and explicit verbal devices identified in the previous studies crucial

in other cultures regardless of speech context? Do the differences in speaker-audience interaction in oratory reflect social-cultural actions of the cultures? Do audience responses affect social and political actions? In the next chapters, through a series of investigations in speaker-audience interaction in three different speech contexts, those questions will be addressed. Firstly, audience turn will be explored in order to identify audience responses (forms of response and collective behaviour). Secondly, based on the audience responses, speaker's turn will be explored to identify the speaker's verbal and nonverbal features in generating the responses. Thirdly, based on the results of the audience and speaker's turns, detailed interaction dimensions and cultural differences in the function of rhetorical devices will be discussed, Then, further analysis on the relationship between the speaker-audience interaction and social and political dimensions will be studied.

Chapter 3

Audience's Turn: Audience Response

3.1 Introduction

This chapter draws on empirical data analysis to present the relationship between audience response and speech context in Korean political speeches. The focus of this chapter is on forms of audience response and audience behaviour in three particular speech contexts: (1) acceptance speeches to nomination as political parties' candidates for presidential election, (2) presidential election campaign speeches, and (3) presidential inauguration speeches.

The purpose of this study is to investigate speech contextual and cultural differences in audience responses to political leaders in political oratory. In so doing, I explore (1) the relationship between audience responses and in-group leadership, and (2) the function of audience responses according to the speech contexts. Previous studies showed that cultural dimensions (individualist and collectivistic cultures) are related to audience behaviour in responding to political oratory. However, I argue that speech context is an important variable to be considered in the analysis of audience responses to political speeches.

This study begins by exploring characteristic features of audience turn in political oratory. By examining cultural differences in audience behaviour on previous studies and discussing the three speech contexts, specific research questions related to the audience response are presented. In the second section, analytic procedure and coding systems on audience responses are demonstrated. In the third section, characteristic audience behaviours in terms of the three speech contexts are reported. In the fourth section, (1) the importance of speech context in speaker-audience interaction and (2) contextual and cultural differences in the function of audience responses are discussed. In the final section, this study ends by summarising the study and emphasising the systematic micro-analysis on audience behaviour in political oratory.

3.1.1 Studies of audience turn in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory

In Chapter 1, it is discussed that (1) speaker-audience interaction in political oratory is a characteristic interaction context, (2) there are four features distinguishing it from the other social interactional context, and (3) collective audience responses play a vital role in the oratorical setting.

To date, audience responses in political oratory have been studied in three cultures: British, Japanese, and American. Studies of speaker-audience interaction in British political speeches have been focussed essentially on applause (e.g., Atkinson, 1984a, 1984b; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; Bull, 2000; Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000; Bull & Wells, 2002). In British political speeches, both collective and isolated applause occurred.

In studies of Japanese political speeches (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012) based on two general election campaigns (2005 and 2009), the scholars identified six forms of audience response have been identified: applause, laughter, cheering, applause followed by cheering, applause and cheering, and verbal responses. Of these six forms, the applause was the predominant form of collective audience response in Japanese political speeches. Notably, there was no isolated applause. Thus, Japanese audience members responded to the speeches collectively at every single turn.

A study of American speeches in the 2012 presidential election campaigns (Bull & Miskinis, 2015) reported three important findings. First, like British political speeches, both collective and isolated responses occurred during the speeches. Second, there was a greater diversity in the forms of audience response in the American speeches than those for the British and Japanese, with chanting, booing, cheering, applause, and laughter. Third, American speakers invited booing as both affiliative and disaffiliative responses to their speeches. Consequently, audience members displayed not only collective affiliative responses but also collective disaffiliative responses to the speeches. Bull and Miskinis (2015) evaluated the

cultural differences in audience response to these political speeches in the context of Hofstede's (2010) distinction between individualist and collectivistic cultures.

An individualistic society is defined as a culture in which "the ties between individuals are loose; everyone is expected to look after him or herself and his or her immediate family" (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p.92). Individualists focus on individual goals, initiatives, and achievements, and also emphasise an "I" identity. Hence, the individualistic society is a vertical culture in which (1) freedom is important and equality is not valued, (2) individual opinion is regarded as a characteristic of an honest person, and (3) committing crimes make individuals feel guilt and loss of self-respect rather than shame and loss of face.

A collectivistic society is defined as one in which "people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p.92). Collectivists require that individuals fit into their group, emphasising a "We" identity. They focus on the goals, needs, and views of the in-group. The collectivistic society is a horizontal culture in which (1) individual freedom is not valued but equality is, (2) harmony of the in-group is more important than individual opinion, and (3) people have a strong sense of losing face and maintaining face not only for the individual but also for the group. Therefore, the value is placed on cooperation with in-group members. According to the Hofstede ratings on the cultural dimension, Japan (collectivist) and the USA (individualist) are regarded as polar opposites: individualism scores – USA 91, UK 89, and Japan 46. The UK is categorised as an individualistic culture but not as stridently individualistic as the USA.

Given the cultural similarities and differences between the cultures, Bull and Miskinis (2015) pointed out that individualistic cultures (USA and UK) allow audience members more freedom of action in response to the political speeches than a collectivistic culture (Japan). As a consequence, there is a diversity of forms of response (both affiliative and disaffiliative), and collective and isolated responses

in American speeches, while there are only affiliative responses and collective responses in Japanese speeches.

Moreover, there was a significant positive correlation between affiliative response rate and electoral success. Obama who generated a higher affiliative response rate than his opponent (Romney) received a higher percentage of the votes than Romney. In contrast, there was no relationship between response rate and electoral success in Japanese speeches (Feldman & Bull, 2012). Hence, while audience responses are indicators of speaker's popularity and electoral popularity amongst audience members in an individualistic society (USA), they do not play such roles in a collectivist society (Japan) but might be seen as indicators of conformity to social norms. Thus, they argued that the cultural differences in response to the political speeches can be understood in terms of individualism and collectivism.

However, there are limitations in comparing the characteristic features in audience responses between the three cultures: (1) other cultural dimensions and (2) different speech contexts between the three data sets.

(1) Similar to the individualistic and collectivistic dimension, there are other binary cultural dimensions studied by other researchers in understanding communicative variation. Hall (1976) introduced high- and low-context communication between cultures. He claimed that in high-context cultures, such as in Korea, China, and Japan, people do not need in-depth background information in communication because they are more homogeneous than in the UK and the USA, whereas people in low-context cultures, such as UK and USA, people require in-depth background information. Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988) reported that collectivistic cultures prefer indirect communication, while individualistic cultures prefer direct communication. Boldt (1978) and Ting-Toomey (1999) traced different interaction styles between tight and loose social structures. In tight social structures, such as Korea and Japan, people emphasize societal norms and rules, while people in loose social structures, such as the USA and Australia, tend to have freedom from the

societal norms and rules. Ohashi et al. (2013) also examined Japanese and UK narratives in paranormal experiences. While Japanese speakers offered more economical descriptions of experience and then drew a close, the UK speakers provided a more extended description of experience and then reported a range of related topics prior to a close. Overall, the studies of the distinct cultural dimensions show that there are differences in communication styles and behaviours between far Eastern and Western cultures.

(2) Studies of British speeches (e.g., Atkinson, 1984a, 1984b; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; Bull, 2000; Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000; Bull & Wells, 2002) are based on speeches to party political conferences, whereas the studies of Japanese speeches (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012) are based on general election campaign speeches. Hence, the two speech contexts can be distinguished in terms of the functions of the political meetings and the audience members. British speeches were delivered to the speakers' political party members at their party conferences, for the purpose of discussing complicated political issues, policies, and events. The Japanese speeches were delivered to the speakers' supporters, for the purpose of expressing appreciation to them and giving them the opportunity to express their support for the speaker. As the speeches in the two contexts were both delivered to in-groups (party members and supporters), affiliative responses were expected.

The study of American speeches (Bull & Miskinis, 2015) is based on presidential election campaign speeches. Although both Japanese and American speeches are election campaign speeches, there are differences between the two speech contexts. As described above, the Japanese speeches were delivered only to the supporters of the speaker in expressing appreciation at a kind of community social event rather than seeking to win the support of uncommitted voters. In contrast, the American speeches were delivered at informal public meetings without a pre-selected audience in swing states where no specific candidate or party has overall support. Moreover, there are different levels of importance for the political meetings between the two contexts. The Japanese context is a general election

campaign for electing MPs for the general election, whereas the American context is a presidential election campaign which is a much bigger political event in which the speeches were delivered by candidates who might become the future leaders of the nation. Thus, the two speech contexts differ in election campaign atmosphere, levels of enthusiasm of the audience members, and relative speaker's status.

For these reasons, although the previous studies show notable differences between the three cultures, it is uncertain whether these distinguishing features can be understood in terms of cultural differences or political contexts. Therefore, it seems that the previous studies did not give sufficient consideration to the communicative context as a variable in studying speaker-audience interaction in political oratory. The aim of this study is to address this issue.

In order to investigate whether there are distinguishing features in audience response according to the different contexts of political speeches within one culture, this study is based on analyses of Korean political speeches in three different speech contexts: (1) presidential election candidature nomination acceptance speeches in 2012, (2) presidential election campaign speeches in 2012, and (3) presidential inauguration speeches (from the twelfth to the present presidents). In the introduction chapter, the speech contexts of the presidential election were explained. The three speech contexts may be distinguished according to the purpose of the speeches and the nature of the audience.

The context of acceptance speeches is complex. The speeches are delivered to party members at the presidential nomination conventions after in-party competitions (nomination contests) and before the main competition (the official presidential election campaign). Thus, the function of the political meeting is to nominate a candidate for the presidential election and launch the election campaign. The purpose of the speech is to accept the nomination, to show appreciation for it, to convey the speaker's visions and pledges for policies, to ask the party members for solidarity to win the presidential election and to swear to do

their best to win the election. Due to these reasons, the context is (1) formal but less formal than presidential inauguration speeches, (2) both post-competition and pre-competition, and (3) different in atmosphere from the annual political party conferences.

The context of election campaign speeches is informal and highly competitive. The nominated candidates representing each party deliver their campaign speeches to voters in various cities during the election campaign tour. The purpose of the speeches is to win the presidential election. The function of these political meetings is to rally decided voters, to persuade undecided voters, to help them evaluate the speaker's and the opponent's competence and capacity to be a president, to praise one's own party, to condemn the opponent's party or the government, and to convey pledges.

The context of presidential inauguration speeches differs from the other two contexts. Although the inaugural speech is a political speech, it is also a ceremonial speech for the inauguration of the national president. Thus, the context of inaugural speeches is more formal than that of acceptance speeches. The purpose of the speech is clearly distinguishable from the other two contexts. It is to (1) convey a president's vision, directions in managing his/her government, and general policies for each political sphere, (2) pledge to do his/her best in running the government for the nation and country, and (3) ask cooperation for making a hopeful new era.

So far, I have distinguished the three speech contexts according to the explicit speech context: the purpose of the speeches, the function of the political meetings, audience members, atmosphere, formality, competition/non-competition, and venues. Implicit speech context to consider is leadership. The speakers in this study were all political leaders. "Leadership is about...power and influence to set agenda, define identity, and mobilize people to achieve collective goals" (Hogg, 2001, p. 188). "Group members conform to, and thus are influenced by, the prototype...More prototypical members tend to identify more strongly and thus

display more pronounced group behaviours; they will be more normative, show greater ingroup loyalty and ethnocentrism, and generally behave in a more group serving manner” (Hogg, 2001, p. 189). Their behaviour is based on perceived prototypicality of their leaders (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; Hogg, 2001). A political party is an important form of social identity in its own right (Green et al., 2004). Social identity is defined as “the individuals’ self-concept which derives from their knowledge of their membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (Tajfel, 1982, p. 2). Hence, it is closely related to in-group conceptualization and behaviour.

Acceptance speeches were delivered to the members of their political party as leaders of their groups. There were strong in-group leadership and partisan identity due to the party members’ collective goal, winning the presidential election. However, in campaign speeches, the speakers have yet to win power; their position is to ask audiences for their support and for their votes. Although the audiences are generally supporters of the speakers, they are not in-group party members. Thus, the speakers vocalize their political endorsements to individual identities. Inauguration speeches were delivered to the nation as a whole as leaders of their country. The group identity and collective goals are broader than in acceptance speeches of political parties. Thus, speaker-audience (or leader-follower) status and leadership vary in terms of the three speech contexts. In other words, as identified in chapter 2 that speaker’s status is one of ethos components, the levels of speaker’s ethos are different in terms of the three speech contexts.

The acceptance speeches are comparable to the British data because the speeches were delivered to the speakers’ political party conventions and indoor venues. The campaign speeches are comparable to the Japanese and American data because the speeches were delivered to the speakers’ supporters and citizens during election campaigns. In terms of culture, Japan and Korea are regarded as collectivist societies (Hofstede et al., 2010), high context cultures (Hall, 1976), and tight social structure (Boldt, 1978; Ting-Toomey, 1999), whereas the USA as an individualist society, low context culture, and loose social structure is a polar opposite of Korea.

The analysis of audience response in the three different political contexts in Korean speeches presented in this paper may give an opportunity to study whether (1) audience responses occur similarly in a collectivist culture regardless of speech context, and whether (2) the absence of isolated response in Japanese speeches is a characteristic feature of collectivist cultures in general. Overall, this study focusses on audience behaviour in the three political speech contexts on three dimensions: forms of response, collective and isolated responses, and response rate (the frequency of collective responses in each speech context). It should be noted that all response forms and incidents identified in this study were displays of affiliation.

3.1.2 Research questions

- Do Korean audience members respond to political speakers only with collective responses like Japanese audience members due to both nations being categorised as collectivistic cultures?
- How frequently do audience members respond collectively to the speakers in each of the three speech contexts?
- What forms of audience response occur in Korean political speeches? Are there characteristic forms of audience responses according to the three speech contexts?
- How similar and different are the proportions of each form of collective audience response according to the three speech contexts?
- In campaign speeches, how similar and different are the predominant forms of collective audience response compared with Japanese campaign speeches?

3.2 Method

3.2.1 Data

Table 3.1 shows a summary of data (see p. 25 for the list of speeches).

Table 3.1

Speeches and duration by three contexts

	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Speeches	4	10	7
Duration (minutes)	74:04	163:14	193:22
Mean (minutes)	18:31	17:00	27:66

3.2.2 Procedure

Videos and full transcripts of the speeches were collected from websites such as the Presidential History Museum website, political party websites, broadcast archives, online newspapers, and YouTube. The collected videos were compared with other videos on different websites in order to check whether the obtained videos recorded the full duration of the speeches and whether there had been any editing. It was confirmed that the full duration of each speech was recorded and that there had been no editing. Each speech was transcribed verbatim into a word processing package and checked against the video data for accuracy.

The analysis was conducted in terms of two dimensions: forms of response (e.g., applause, cheers, or chanting) and collective/isolated responses. Each audience response was identified and marked on the transcript according to the two dimensions, which were then collated into one coding system sheet for statistical analysis. The criteria of the coding system are presented below in terms of the two dimensions, together with some illustrative examples.

3.2.3 The criteria for the coding system

Feldman and Bull (2012) identified two types of affiliative audience response: unitary and composite. Unitary refers to one form of response, such as applause, cheers, laughter, chanting, and verbal responses. Composite refers to a combined response in which two forms of response co-occur within one audience turn, such as applause and laughter, applause and cheers, and applause followed by cheering,

Applause, cheers, and laughter were coded as simply applause, cheers, and laughter, respectively. In the case of verbal responses, each verbal response was identified and transcribed (e.g., “Yes”, “No”, “That’s right”, “President”, “By voting”, and so on). Where two of these response forms co-occurred, these composites were coded as a combined response using “+”. For example, a co-occurrence of applause and cheers was coded as “applause + cheers”.

It is noted that one of the forms in a composite response may occur earlier than the other. For example, in “applause + cheers”, the cheering may occur first, followed immediately by applause which overlaps with the cheering, the whole incident lasting for eight seconds until it dies down. As applause generally begins within 0.3 seconds of a speaker’s completion point and physical initiation of clapping takes approximately 0.2 seconds (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986), it is possible that cheering is easier to initiate, hence precedes the collective applause. However, cheering may also occur after applause, and if the two forms overlap for an extended period, they are also coded as a composite.

Chanting is coded as chanting. In the Korean context, it is often accompanied by hand movements (e.g., power grip, displaying printed material, or rhythmic clapping). Korean names are usually a compound of three syllables, for example, in extract 3.1 (lines 6-7), audience members respond to the speaker with chanting. When they chant a name of a speaker, Moon Jae-In, they make a clap (X) at “Moon” and no clap (-) at “Jae” then a clap (X) at “In”. The chanting and claps last rhythmically for 5.5 seconds.

[Extract 3.1: Moon Ji, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|--|
| 1 | Moon: | I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity. |
| 2 | | I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. |
| 3 | | I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change. |
| 4 | | (0.2) |
| 5 | Audience: | applause + cheers ((5.9 seconds)) → chanting ((5.5 seconds)) |
| 6 | | <i>Moon-Jae-In Moon-Jae-In Moon-Jae-In Moon-Jae-In</i> |
| 7 | | X - X X - X X - X X - X |

Note. Single parentheses indicate the duration of pause; double parentheses indicate the duration of audience response or transcriber's descriptions of events. Transcriptions in this chapter are presented focusing on audience turn only. More detailed transcriptions on speaker's turn will be displayed in chapters 5 and 6.

In coding a chant, the content was transcribed in italics, together with a translation in parentheses. It should be noted that the audience can also shout the speaker's name without chanting. In chanting, the audience repeats the speaker's name with rhythm and claps, whereas, in verbal responses, the audience simply shouts the name once without rhythm and claps. In order to distinguish between verbal responses and chanting, the rhythmical claps for chanting were presented by "X". Verbal responses do not have this additional annotation.

The above extract was a typical example in which the audience chanted collectively. In some incidents, chanting occurred (1) without the rhythmical claps, but with the characteristic three syllables rhythm, (2) in cooperation between an MC (Master of Ceremonies) and the audience, or (3) in cooperation with the audience divided into two groups.

In addition to unitary and composite responses, it is a necessity to introduce a third category: sequential responses. It was observed that audience members displayed one form of response (either unitary or composite) then extended their turn by shifting to another form of response. For example, they might begin with "applause + cheers" (first form) then move on to chanting (second form).

Where two or more of the forms of audience response occurred one after another within one turn, the sequence is represented by the symbol "→". For example, in

extract 3.1 above, audience members responded immediately after the speaker's completion point (line 4, within 0.2 seconds) with "applause + cheers" (line 5) for 5.9 seconds, and then moved on to chanting ("applause + cheers → chanting"); the chanting lasted for a further 5.5 seconds. Extract 3.2 below illustrates a more complex audience turn, involving a sequence of three forms of responses: applause + cheers→chanting→applause. After the speaker's greeting (lines 1-3), the audience responds with "applause + cheers" overlapping with the speaker's next greeting sentence "I greet you with a bow" (line 4), and then moves on to chanting (lines 5-6). They chant the speaker's name six times with rhythmical clapping and then continue their turn by transferring the chanting to applause (line 6). The whole audience turn lasts for 22.4 seconds.

[Extract 3.2: Lee JH, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1 Lee: Beloved party members, respected nation everyone
 2 I'm Lee Jeong-hee, a candidate of United Progressive Party
 3 for presidential election.
 4 [I greet you with a bow.]
 5 Audience: [applause + cheers ((8.0 seconds))]→chanting ((11.3 seconds))
 6 Lee-Jeong-Hee ((six times))→applause ((3.1 seconds))
 7 X - X

Note. [] indicates overlaps between audience response and a speaker's utterance.

In sequential responses, incidents in which transition from one form of response to another form of response occurred only through an isolated response were coded according to the predominant collective responses. For example, in audience turn (line 4) of extract 3.3 below, "applause + cheers" occur collectively within 0.3 seconds of the completion point of the speaker's message (line 3), then only two or three audience members moved to chanting while the majority of audience members completed their turn with "applause + cheers". This incident was coded as "applause + cheers" not as "applause + cheers → chanting". Although this incident was coded as a collective response to statistical analysis, isolated forms of response in the sequential response were also identified and marked using "(i)" for further analysis.

[Extract 3.3: Park GH, campaign speech 3, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|---|
| 1 | Park: | Most of all, I will take the restoration of the middle class |
| 2 | | as my first priority. |
| 3 | | (0.3) |
| 4 | Audience: | applause + cheers ((3.3 seconds))→(i)chanting ((2.7 seconds)) |
| 5 | | Park-Geun-Hye ((two times)) |

This particular incident is referred to as a heterogeneous response. Heterogeneous responses were considered to occur as follows: (1) a majority of audience members display one form of response while one or two audience members display an alternative form of response (either unitary or composite); (2) the collective response is followed by isolated response (e.g., collective applause followed by isolated cheers) in sequence. There were 58 incidents of heterogeneous responses: no incidents in acceptance speeches, 9 incidents in inauguration speeches, 49 incidents in campaign speeches.

All response incidents were then categorized in terms of the 3 dimensions as described above (unitary, composite, and sequential). As a result of this procedure, all response incidents were categorised into 12 forms: 5 unitary (applause, laughter, cheers, chanting, and verbal responses), 2 composite (cheers + verbal and applause + cheers), and 5 sequential responses (cheers → chanting, applause + cheers → chanting, applause + cheers → various, applause + cheers → chanting → various, and verbal response → various). It is noted that (1) categorising sequential responses was conducted by focusing on the first action, and (2) “various” means that there were various further responses after the first or second response. The 12 forms are listed below together with brief descriptions (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2
Forms of response

12 Forms	Descriptions
1. Applause	Single form
2. Laughter	Single form
3. Cheers	Single form
4. Chanting	Single form
5. Cheers → chanting	Cheers moved to chanting
6. Cheers + verbal	Cheers & verbal response co-occurred
7. Applause + cheers	Applause & cheers co-occurred
8. Applause + cheers → Chanting	Applause & cheers co-occurred then moved to chanting
9. Applause + cheers →various	Applause & cheers & other forms co-occurred or moved to other forms (1) Applause + cheers + chanting → verbal (2) Applause + cheers + whistle → chanting (3) Applause + cheers → verbal unclear
10. Applause + cheers →chanting → various	Applause & cheers co-occurred then moved to chanting and moved further to other forms (1) Applause + cheers → chanting → verbal (2) Applause + cheers → chanting → applause (3) Applause + cheers → chanting → applause + cheers
11. Verbal response	Response with 'Yes', 'No' or other (1) 'Yes' or 'No' (2) Verbal other (e.g., name of speaker, party, or government; positive or negative response - 'that's right', 'that's not right'; campaign slogans)
12. Verbal → various	Verbal occurred then moved to other forms (1) Yes-No → applause + cheers (2) Yes-No → chanting (3) Yes-No → cheers (4) Yes-No → applause + cheers (5) Yes-No → applause + cheers → chanting (6) Yes-No → applause → chanting (7) Yes-No → applause (8) Yes-No → verbal other (9) Yes-No + verbal other → applause (10) Yes-No + verbal other → cheers (11) Verbal other → chanting (12) Verbal unclear → applause + cheers → verbal other (13) Verbal other → applause (14) Verbal other → applause (15) Verbal other → chanting (16) Verbal other → applause → chanting (17) Verbal unclear → applause + cheers → chanting

The five unitary responses are 1-4 and 11. All verbal responses were categorised as category number 11 and were subdivided into two forms: (1) response with either Yes or No; (2) response with one of the other words listed in the table. The two composite responses are numbered 6 and 7. The five sequential responses were numbered 5, 8, 9, 10, and 12. All of them were initiated by either “applause + cheers” or “verbal response”, with the exception only of “cheers → chanting” (category number 5).

3.2.4 Reliability

A random sample (N=100) of audience response incidents (10% of the total sample, N=964, from 21 speeches) were coded by an independent rater, a native speaker of Korean. There were high levels of agreements between the main coder and the independent coder for the audience response forms: 12 response forms, 94% ($k = .907$, $p < .001$, Cohen, 1960); collective and isolate responses, 98%, ($k = .920$, $p < .001$, Cohen, 1960).

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Forms of audience response in three speech contexts

Initially, five basic forms of response were identified: applause, laughter, cheers, chanting, and verbal responses. Audience responses were displayed with (1) one of the basic forms (unitary responses), (2) combined forms of the basic forms (composite responses), or (3) transferring one form to another form (sequential responses). Table 3.3 shows the relative proportions of collective audience responses for the 12 categories according to the three speech contexts.

Table 3.3

Forms of audience response by three speech contexts

	% (N)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
1. Applause	6.88 (11)	0.18 (1)	57.95 (102)
2. Laughter	0.00 (0)	0.18 (1)	0.00 (0)
3. Cheers	1.25 (2)	5.11 (29)	0.00 (0)
4. Chanting	0.00 (0)	1.06 (6)	0.00 (0)
5. Cheers → chanting	0.00 (0)	0.35 (2)	0.00 (0)
6. Cheers + verbal	0.00 (0)	0.71 (4)	0.00 (0)
7. Applause + cheers	80.63 (129)	20.63 (117)	42.05 (74)
8. Applause + cheers → chanting	5.00 (8)	22.05 (125)	0.00 (0)
9. Applause + cheers → various	0.00 (0)	1.06 (6)	0.00 (0)
10. Applause + cheers → chanting → various	2.50 (4)	0.88 (5)	0.00 (0)
11. Verbal response	2.50 (4)	37.39 (212)	0.00 (0)
12. Verbal response → various	1.25 (2)	10.41 (59)	0.00 (0)
Total	100.00 (160)	100.00 (567)	100.00 (176)

The results showed that there were three distinguishing features for each of the three speech contexts. First, acceptance and campaign speeches showed a greater diversity of response forms than inauguration speeches, where only two forms of response occurred (applause and applause + cheers). In acceptance speeches, seven forms of response occurred (applause, cheers, applause + cheers, applause + cheers → chanting, applause + cheers → chanting → various, verbal response, and verbal response → various). In campaign speeches, twelve forms of response occurred (applause; laughter; cheers; chanting; cheers → chanting; cheers + verbal; applause + cheers; applause + cheers → chanting; applause + cheers → various; applause + cheers → chanting → various; verbal response; and verbal response → various). Thus, we can order the degree of diversity of response form in the following way: inauguration (2 forms) < acceptance (7 forms) < campaign (12 forms).

Further analyses of each of the 12 response forms were conducted, using Kruskal Wallis H Test and Mann Whitney U Test). These non-parametric tests were utilised

because the data were not normally distributed and there were unequal Ns between each of the 3 conditions (4 acceptance speeches, 7 inaugural speeches, and 10 campaign speeches). Because a large number of tests were carried out (multiple comparisons), only results significant at the .01 level were accepted.

The results of the Kruskal Wallis H Tests for the 12 response forms are shown in Table 3.4. There were no statistically significant differences between the 3 contexts for the 5 infrequent response forms: laughter; applause +cheers → chanting → various; cheers → chanting; cheers + verbal; applause + cheers → various. Significant differences were found for the remaining 7 response forms, which were further analysed, using Mann Whitney U Tests to perform pairwise comparisons. Because a large number of these tests were carried out ($N = 21$), only results significant at the .01 level were accepted.

These results of the Kruskal Wallis H Tests for the 12 response forms are shown in Table 3.5. There were four results significant at the .01 level: applause + cheers → chanting; verbal → various; verbal response; and applause. Pairwise comparisons using Mann Whitney U Tests were then carried out for these four response forms, the results of which are shown in Table 3.6. Three response forms occurred with significantly greater frequency in campaign than in inauguration speeches: applause + cheers → chanting ($U = 3.5, p < .002$); verbal → various ($U = 0, p < .001$); verbal response ($U = 0, p < .001$). In contrast, applause occurred with significantly greater frequency in inauguration than in campaign and acceptance speeches ($U = 0, p < .001; U = 0, p < .008$).

Table 3.4

Significant tests between three speech contexts

	H (<i>df</i> = 2)	<i>p</i>
Laughter	1.100	.577
Applause + cheers → chanting → various	1.808	.405
Cheers → chanting	2.310	.315
Cheers + verbal	2.310	.315
Applause + cheers → various	5.105	.078
Chanting	6.723	.035
Cheers	7.429	.024
Applause + cheers	7.818	.020
Applause + cheers → chanting	11.841	.003
Verbal → various	14.637	.001
Verbal response	15.875	.001
Applause	16.872	.001

Note. *N* = 21.

Table 3.5

Significant tests between two speech contexts

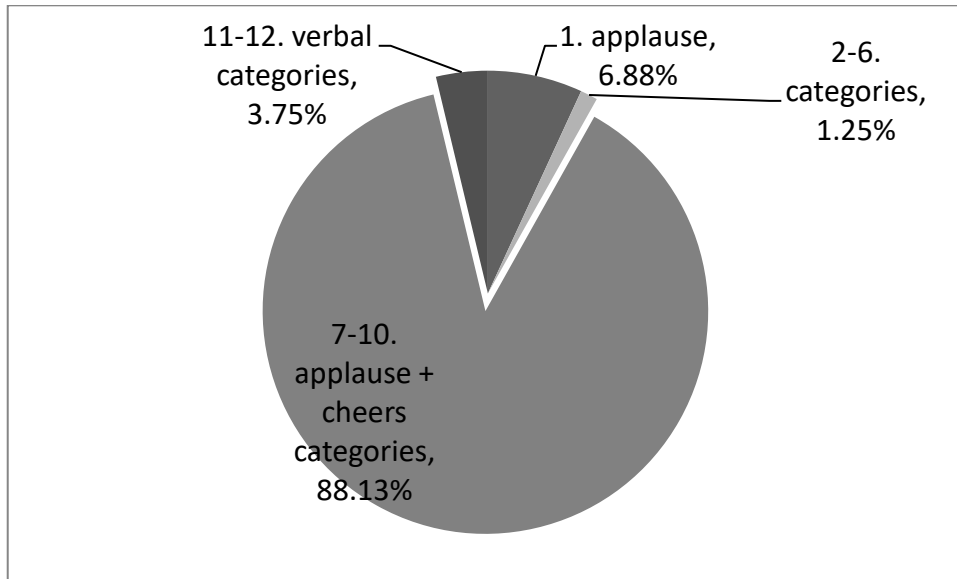
	Inauguration		Inauguration		Acceptance	
	Acceptance ^a		Campaign ^b		Campaign ^c	
	U	<i>p</i>	U	<i>p</i>	U	<i>p</i>
1. Applause	0	.008	0	.001	6.5	.017
8. Applause + cheers → chanting	3.5	.012	3.5	.002	10.5	.179
11. Verbal response	7	.049	0	.001	2.0	.011
12. Verbal → various	10.5	.186	0	.001	4.5	.028

Note. ^a*N* = 11, ^b*N* = 17, ^c*N* = 14.

The second distinguishing feature was that the predominant form of collective audience response differed for each context: applause + cheers (80.63%) in acceptance speeches; verbal responses (37.39%) in campaign speeches; applause (57.95%) in inauguration speeches. If various forms of response are grouped together (Figure 3.1, Figure 3.2, & Figure 3.3 below), the applause + cheers group (7-10) accounted for 88.13% of the total collective response incidents in acceptance speeches.

Figure 3.1

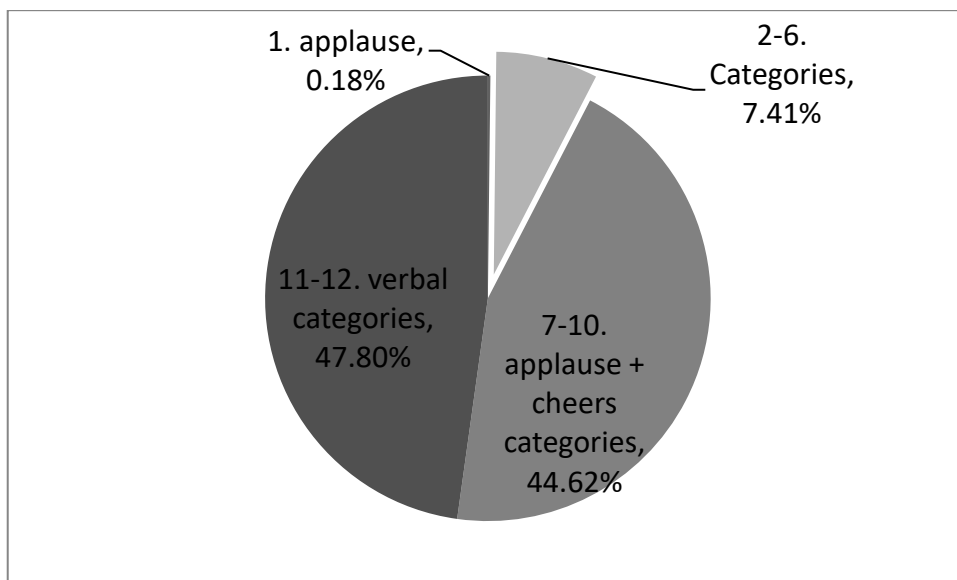
Collective audience responses in acceptance speeches



The verbal group (11-12, 47.80%) and applause + cheers group (7-10, 44.62%) accounted for 92.42% of the total collective response incidents in campaign speeches.

Figure 3.2

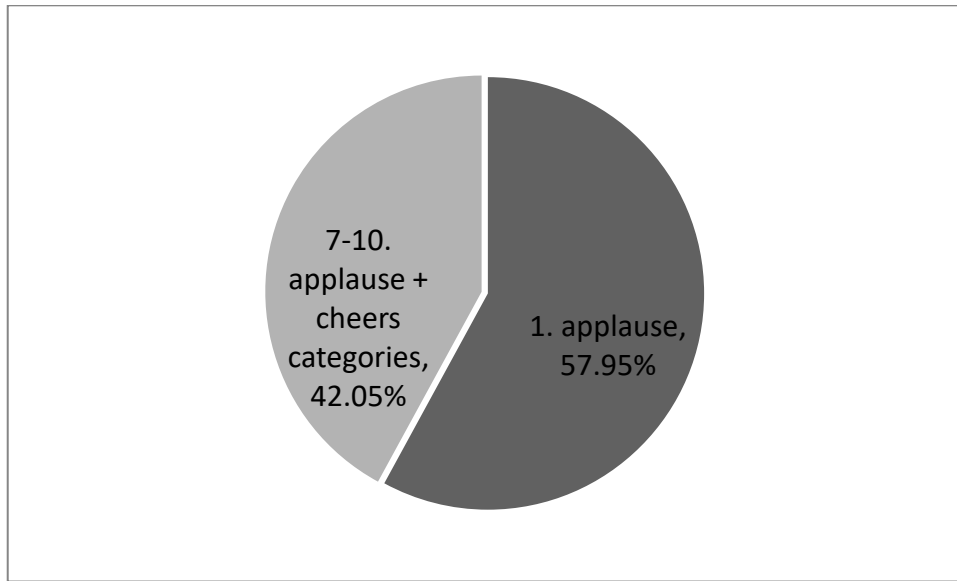
Collective audience responses in campaign speeches



Applause (57.95%) and applause + cheers (42.05%) accounted for 100% of collective audience response incidents in inauguration speeches.

Figure 3.3

Collective audience responses in inauguration speeches



Third, collective audience behaviours in extending a turn are also displayed differently according to the speech contexts. Table 3.6 shows the 12 forms grouped into non-sequential responses (seven forms; 1-4, 6, 7, and 11) and sequential responses (five forms; 5, 8, 9, 10, and 12).

Table 3.6

Non-sequential and sequential response by the three speech contexts

Response type	% (N)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Non-sequential	91.25 (146)	65.26 (370)	100.00 (176)
Sequential	8.75 (14)	34.74 (197)	0.00 (0)
Total	100.00 (160)	100.00 (567)	100.00 (176)

Note. $H(2) = 14.805$, $p < .001$.

From this table, it can be seen that sequential responses did not occur in the inauguration speeches, audience members completing all of their turns within the first action. On the other hand, in campaign speeches, over one-third of the audience responses were sequential. The audience members extended 34.74% of their turns, by moving the first response form to the second and third response forms. Hence, we can order the frequency of turn extension (sequential response) behaviour in the following way: inauguration (0%) < acceptance (8.75%) < campaign

(34.74%). It shows that there are significantly different sequential and non-sequential response behaviours between inauguration and acceptance contexts ($U = 3.5, p < .012$), and inauguration and campaign contexts ($U = 0, p < .001$), while there were no significant differences between acceptance and campaign contexts.

3.3.2 Collective and Isolated Responses

As shown in Table 3.7 below, Korean audiences responded to the speeches more collectively (95.24% in the acceptance context; 91.75% in the campaign context; 98.88% in the inauguration context) than with isolated responses. Isolated responses also occurred in all three contexts. However, these incidents accounted for small proportions of the total response events. Among the three contexts, campaign speeches received the highest proportion of isolated responses (8.25%) while acceptance and inauguration speeches received 4.8% and 1.1% of isolated responses, respectively. We can, therefore, order the frequency of isolated response in the following way: inauguration (1.12%) < acceptance (4.76%) < campaign (8.25%). It shows that there are significantly different collective and isolated response behaviours between inauguration and campaign contexts ($U = 4.5, p < .002$), while there were no significant differences between the other two paired contexts. All collective and isolated responses occurred at the end of statements in acceptance and inauguration speeches, whereas in campaign speeches, there were 13 incidents of audience interruption (responses occurred in the middle of the statements).

Table 3.7

Collective and Isolated response by the three speech contexts

	% (N)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Collective response	95.24 (160)	91.75 (567)	98.88 (176)
Isolated response	4.76 (8)	8.25 (51)	1.12 (2)
Total	100.00 (168)	100.00 (618)	100.00 (178)

Note. $H(2) = 10.090, N = 21, p < .006$.

3.3.3 Response Rate

Table 3.8 shows overall collective audience response rates per minute of speech according to the three contexts. The table indicates that audience members responded to campaign speeches more frequently than the other two speech contexts. When calculated as a rate per minute, campaign speeches received an average of 3.6 collective responses, while acceptance and inauguration speeches received 2.1 per minute and 0.9 per minute collective responses, respectively. Hence, we can order the response rate in the following way: inauguration (0.9) < acceptance (2.1) < campaign (3.6). It shows that response rates were significantly higher in campaign context compared to inauguration context ($U = 0, p < .001$), while there were no significant differences between acceptance and campaign contexts.

Table 3.8

Collective audience response rate by the three speech contexts

	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Response rate for collective responses (per minute)	2.1	3.6	0.9

Note. $H(2) = 13.871, N = 21, p < .001$.

3.4 Discussion

3.4.1 Characteristic features of audience responses in each context

Table 3.9 shows a summary of the results and the three contexts.

Table 3.9

Summary of the results and three contexts

	Inauguration	Acceptance	Campaign
Function	presidential inauguration ceremony	nomination of a candidate, launching campaign	meeting with voters
Purpose	addressing speaker's intentions as a leader	acceptance appreciation solidarity	winning election
Audience	invited nation	party members	voters
Speaker	president	candidature	candidature
Stage	post-competition	pre-competition	competition
Formality	high formal >	formal >	informal
Predominant response form	applause	applause + cheers	verbal
Collective	98.90% >	95.20% >	91.70%
Isolated	1.10% <	4.80% <	8.30%
Non-sequential	100% >	91.20% >	65.30%
Sequential	0% <	8.80% <	34.70%
Numbers of response form	2 <	7 <	12
Chanting rate	0 <	0.2 <	1
Response rate	0.9 <	2.1 <	3.6

From the results, it can be seen that inauguration speeches and election campaign speeches are significantly different genres of political oratory. There were distinctive audience behaviours for each context, in particular with regard to their relative degree of formality, competitiveness, and in-group leadership. First, there is a characteristic predominant form of response for each context: applause in formal and ceremonial context of inauguration speeches; applause + cheers in partisan in-group context of acceptance speeches, and verbal responses in informal and competitive context of election campaign speeches.

Second, the more formal the speech context (inauguration > acceptance > campaign), the fewer types of audience response, the fewer isolated responses, the fewer sequential response incidents, and the fewer audience responses. In inauguration speeches, only two response forms occurred: applause and applause +

cheers. Conversely, in the more informal and competitive context of election campaign speeches, there were a much greater diversity of response forms, more frequent audience responses, and more frequent isolated responses. Furthermore, both collective and isolated responses were more likely to be interruptive of speaker statements in campaign speeches than in acceptance speeches, where audience members were more likely to respond collectively at the end of speakers' messages. Thereby, in that in-group, partisan context, audience members arguably displayed clear collective action in support of their leaders.

Third, chanting and sequential responses are particularly characteristic of audience behaviour in Korean political speeches, but only in acceptance and campaign speeches. Incidents of chanting were more frequent in campaign speeches (1.0 response per minute) than in acceptance speeches (0.2 responses per minute), hence there is a clear association of chanting with more informal and competitive settings, thereby supporting political leaders and issues, and affirming the audience's group identity.

Notably, all the incidents of chanting occurred as the second or third actions in a sequential response (apart from six incidents of unitary chanting in campaign speeches). As illustrated in the Extracts 3.1 and 3.2 in the Method section above, audience members responded initially with "applause + cheers" in their first action, then extended their turns with chanting as the second action. Arguably, audience members displayed their approval of or agreement with the speakers' messages in their first action. When the messages are popular and audience members approve or agree strongly, they extended their turn with chanting in the second action. Thereby, they can support and encourage the speakers, and display their enthusiastic support.

Acceptance and campaign speeches are characterized by much more active participation from the audience, especially in campaign speeches, where they respond with various verbal responses to support the speaker, to agree or disagree with political issues, and to attack the opponent. They then extend their turn by

shifting to another form of response. However, in the inauguration context, sequential responses and chanting did not occur.

Why did sequential responses and chanting occur in acceptance and campaign speeches (competitive contexts), but not in inauguration speeches (uncompetitive and ceremonial context)? As nomination conventions are generally reported through the media, nominating candidates and their acceptance speeches are announced and delivered not only in the convention hall but also to distant audience members. Moreover, during an election campaign, the media report the speech events every day. Thus, collective audience behaviours, the group-presentation, are important factors in showing the popularity of speakers to distant audience members through the media. Such collective audience behaviours are crucial tools in supporting and encouraging the candidates and in presenting solidarity of the supporters in the competitive context. Hence, it can be suggested that (1) the collective audience responses are a crucial part of the speeches in acceptance and campaign speeches, and (2) the speeches are generated by cooperation between a speaker and the audience members to reach their shared goal.

3.4.2 Cultural Differences and Speech Context

Table 3.10 presents a summary of the cultural dimension and audience responses according to the four countries: USA, UK, Japan, and Korea. It is noted that the Korean section is presented based on the election campaign context in order to compare with American and Japanese election campaign contexts.

Table 3.10

Summary of cultural dimensions and audience response by countries

	USA	UK	Japan	Korea
Cultural dimension	Individualism	Individualism	collectivism	collectivism
Individualism score	91*	89*	46*	18*
Response behaviour	collective & isolated affiliative & disaffiliative	collective & isolated affiliative	collective affiliative	collective & isolated affiliative
Predominant response form	cheering	**	applause	verbal response
Response rate	2.4	**	0.5	3.6
Response & electoral success	relation	**	no relation	no relation
Speaker	presidential candidates	party leaders and MPs	parliamentary candidates	presidential candidates
Audience Location Purpose	open outdoor to appeal the voters	members indoor to discuss Political Issues	supporters indoor to express appreciation	open outdoor to appeal the voters
Stage	presidential election campaign	party political conference	general election campaign	presidential election campaign

Note. *The scores are based on the research of Hofstede et al. (2010, pp. 95-97). ** indicates limitations in the previous study.

As presented in the table, Korea and the USA might be seen as even more polar opposites than Japan and the USA. However, unlike the results from studies of Japanese campaign speeches, isolated responses did occur in Korean speeches: 1.12% in inauguration, 4.76% in acceptance, and 8.25% in campaign contexts. In British political party conferences, 16.8%⁶ (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986) and 4.8% (Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000) of applause incidents were isolated. In American

⁶ This percentage was not presented in the original paper; the author calculated from the available data (p. 118).

election speeches, isolated responses occurred throughout (Bull & Miskinis, 2015). Thus, group activities in Korean speeches were more collective than in British and American speeches, and less collective than in Japanese speeches.

The Japanese audience responded with various forms of response to the speeches such as laughter, cheering, verbal response, applause, applause followed by cheering, applause co-occurring with cheering, and applause co-occurring with laughter. In American speeches, further response forms were identified: chanting and booing. In British speeches, although the audiences reacted with laughter, cheer, and “hear” to the speakers’ messages, only applause has been studied. Hence, there is a limitation in comparing audience behaviour in British speeches.

The predominant audience response form is different for each country. In the USA, it was cheering (66.95%, a mean of the two speakers, in 2012 presidential election campaign speeches), whereas, in Japan, it was applause (58.66%) in 2005, and applause (39.72%) and laughter (38.89%) in 2009 general election campaign speeches. In Korea, it varied according to the three speech contexts: verbal response categories (47.80%) was the predominant form in election campaign speeches.

Although only affiliative responses occurred in Korean election speeches, there was a greater diversity of collective audience response forms and behaviours than in American election speeches. Furthermore, Korean audience members responded to campaign speeches more frequently than American audience members: 3.6 responses (per minute) in Korean speeches, 2.4 responses in American speeches (Bull & Miskinis, 2015), and 0.5 responses⁷ in Japanese speeches (Feldman & Bull, 2012).

There are notable speech contextual differences between the Japanese and Korean election campaign speeches: the purpose of the political meetings, election events, venues, audience members, and speakers. In addition, the Japanese speakers

⁷ This response rate was not presented in the original paper; the author calculated from the available data (p. 389).

received an average 0.5 responses per minute, whereas, Korean speakers received an average 3.6 responses per minute. Thus, audience response in Korean speeches occurred seven times more frequently than in Japanese speeches. These mean that speaker-audience interaction in Korean speeches occurred more actively and enthusiastically than in Japanese speeches due to the specific political events of Korean data. Hence, it is suggested that the function of the audience responses in the Korean election campaign speeches is not conformity to social norms but to show speaker's popularity, support the speaker, and achieve a collective goal (winning the election) in the informal and competitive political event.

However, in an inauguration speech context which is high formal and ceremonial political event: 99% of audience responses were collective behaviour; only two response forms occurred (applause and applause + cheers); chanting and sequential response did not occur; response rate was less than that of campaign speeches (0.9 in inauguration < 2.1 in acceptance < 3.6 in campaign). Thus, it is possible that the function of audience response is conformity to social norms. Accordingly, it appears that characteristic audience behaviour displays according to the speech contexts regardless the cultural dimensions (collectivism and individualism) in Korean political oratory.

3.5 Summary and Conclusion

This study has demonstrated micro-analysis on audience behaviour to political oratory and a number of distinctive features in audience responses for each of three speech contexts and cultures. (1) Audience response behaviour was different in terms of the three speech contexts, in particular with regard to their relative degree of formality, competitiveness, and in-group leadership. (2) The function of audience response is different in terms of in-group partisan leadership, competitive, and formal contexts. (3) Speech contexts are closely related to audience behaviour beyond collectivistic and individualistic cultural dimensions. As each context shows characteristic audience responses, I propose that political speech context is an important factor in studying audience behaviour which possibly overrides cultural

dimensions. From this perspective, the results of previous studies on cultural differences in political oratory are limited by their focus on only one speech context, hence their findings are incomplete.

In the next chapter, the speaker's turn is explored. Based on the results in this chapter, the next chapter gives attention to speaker's verbal behaviour in generating the characteristic audience responses identified in this chapter in each of the three speech contexts.

Chapter 4

Speaker's Turn: Verbal Behaviour

4.1 Introduction

Focusing on the audience's turn, the study in chapter three has demonstrated that there are distinguishing features in responses to the speeches according to the three different speech contexts: (1) presidential candidacy nomination acceptance speeches, (2) presidential election campaign speeches, and (3) presidential inauguration speeches. In the formal, uncompetitive, and ceremonial context (inauguration speeches), only two response forms occurred. On the other hand, in the informal and competition context (election campaign speeches), there was a great diversity of response forms. Although isolated and heterogeneous responses do occur in Korean political speeches, audience members coordinate with each other well in presenting their collective responses in the three speech contexts. The question becomes "how were such collective audience behaviours coordinated in the audience's turn?" What verbal factors did speakers employ in order to generate the collective audience responses and the various forms of response, in their turn? Are there characteristic features in the speaker's verbal skills according to the three speech contexts and the four cultures (British, American, Japanese, and Korean)?

Accordingly, based on the results on the audience's turn in the previous chapter, this chapter draws on data analysis to present the speaker's verbal devices used in the generation of collective audience response and various response forms. In so doing, this chapter is focussed on the relationship between the speaker's verbal devices and collective audience responses. Therefore, the focus of this chapter is on verbal resources, both the style (rhetorical devices) and the content (message types), of the speeches in the three speech contexts.

This chapter begins with a description and account of the limitations on verbal devices, used in previous studies. Then, specific research questions, related to the

relationship between verbal devices and collective audience responses, are presented. In section 2, the analytic procedures are reported. Then qualitative and quantitative assessments of the use of verbal devices are presented in sections 3 and 4. In section 3, qualitative assessments of each verbal device are presented. In section 4, contextual differences in the use of the verbal devices are investigated by presenting the results of quantitative assessments. In section 5, cultural differences in the use of the verbal devices are discussed by comparing the results of the four cultures. Section 5 provides a summary and conclusion of this chapter.

4.1.1 Research on rhetoricality and collective audience responses

As addressed in the previous chapters, there are fundamental differences in turn-taking behaviours in social interactions between ordinary conversation and political oratory. In ordinary conversation, turn-taking occurs naturally between interlocutors, whereas, in political oratory, the role of audience members is generally as listeners and their turns are limited. Although their turns are limited, it has been reported in the previous chapter that audience members are not passive listeners but active participants in making the speeches successful according to the purposes of the speeches. However, it appears that audience responses are generally initiated by speaker's turn yielding, in other words, by the speaker's "invitation to respond" (Atkinson, 1984a).

In signalling turn yielding between interlocutors in conversation, two verbal turn-yielding cues have been identified: syntax (Duncan, 1972; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) and pragmatic resources (Ford & Thompson, 1996). Using turn-yielding cues, an interlocutor signals turn yielding to the listener, and then turn-taking occurs.

In political oratory, the speaker also signals turn yielding in order for the audience members to take their turn with collective behaviours, such as applause, cheering, and chanting. Emphasising messages and providing a clear completion point of the message plays an important role in inviting audience responses in political speeches

(Atkinson, 1984a). Thus, in this context, it is important for the speaker to present a clear projectable turn-yielding cue and completion point of his or her turn so that the large audience can take their turn collectively at an appropriate point in the speaker's behaviour.

As demonstrated in the literature review chapter, political speakers employ a limited range of verbal devices frequently in the generation of responses and there are cultural differences in the use of verbal devices: *contrast, three-part list, puzzle-solution, headline-punchline, combination, position taking, and pursuits* in British and American speeches; *greeting/salutations, expressing appreciation, request agreement/asking for confirmation, jokes/humorous expressions, and asking for support* in Japanese speeches. Through the verbal devices, the members of a large audience recognise the speaker's invitation to respond to the speaker's message.

In British political party conference speeches (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986) and in American presidential election speeches (Bull & Miskinis, 2015), the former seven rhetorical devices were associated with two-thirds of all collective audience response incidents. In Japanese speeches, the latter five explicit verbal categories accounted for over 70% of collective audience response incidents. Therefore, British and American political speakers have a tendency to invite audience responses implicitly, employing the traditional rhetorical devices. On the other hand, Japanese political speakers have a tendency to invite audience responses explicitly, using the five verbal categories to which audience members are generally expected to respond (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012).

Bull and Miskinis (2015) suggested that the notable differences in the use of verbal devices between the western cultures and the eastern culture can be understood in terms of Hofstede's (2001, 2010) cultural dimension: individualism and collectivism. In individualist societies (the UK and the USA), a speaker invites audience responses by employing implicit rhetorical devices. In so doing, the speaker gives audience members greater freedom of action whether or not to respond to a speaker. On the other hand, in the collectivistic society (Japan), inviting audience responses

explicitly provides audience members clear guidance as to what is expected so that they can respond to the speaker collectively.

Asch (1951) proposed that most people have a basic fear of social isolation and prefer to display social actions that are perceived to be in agreement with others. Correspondingly, in speaker-audience interaction, audience members prefer to display their response collectively to a speaker and seek to avoid displaying isolated responses (Atkinson, 1984b; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Based on these social psychological behaviours, collective applause normally lasts for around eight seconds, while isolated clapping rarely lasts for more than two seconds (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Taking this into account, it seems that the social psychological behaviours may be considered more important in a collectivistic society than an individualistic society. Hence, the suggestion of Bull and Miskinis (2015) can be understood as follows: a speaker displays a clear signal in inviting audience responses in the collectivistic society so that audience members can reduce the fear of isolation and display their collective action to the speaker.

The studies contribute to our understanding of (1) the relationship between verbal devices and the generation of collective audience responses, and (2) cultural differences in inviting audience responses. However, there are limitations in comparing the cultural differences in the speaker-audience interaction between the three cultures.

First, as discussed in the previous chapter, although the three sets of data are political speeches, the purpose and context of the speeches were different. For example, in the British data (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986), four types of message accounted for 76.1% of the total incidents of collective audience applause: (1) external attacks on the opponent's party, (2) expressing approval of own party, (3) internal attacks on the own party, and (4) advocacy of particular policy positions. In the Japanese data (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012), five types of message accounted for 71.2% of the total incidents of collective audience response: (1) greeting/salutations between a speaker and audience members, (2) expressing

appreciation to the audience members, (3) request agreement/asking for confirmation, (4) jokes/humorous expressions, and (5) the speaker's asking for support from the audience members. The distinguishing message types between the two studies show that the functions of the two political meetings were different. From the message types, it can be presumed that the purpose of the British political party conferences was to evaluate political parties (own or opponent's) and advocate political policies; while the purpose of the Japanese election campaign events was to express appreciation and ask for support for the election. Therefore, it is uncertain whether the differences in the use of verbal devices between the Western and Eastern cultures are due to the different cultural dimensions, or the different speech contexts.

The second limitation is the different views on verbal devices and categorising the verbal devices, between the studies. The studies on British speeches were focused on the "verbal design" of messages (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 115), which are rhetorical schemes that are related to syntax. The schemes (rhetorical devices) consist of two parts or stages of a message. Hence, the audience members anticipate the second part/stage and completion point of a message. In the British speech context, the verbal design or format of messages was highly effective in signalling invitations to respond and completion points.

In the studies on Japanese speeches (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012), the verbal devices introduced are related to the semantics (*description of campaign activities*), the trope (*jokes/humorous*), and dialogic messages (*greeting/salutations, expressing appreciation, request agreement/asking for confirmation, asking for support*) rather than the verbal design. The devices (except the *description of campaign activities*) are related to discourse, pragmatics, and dialogic formats which generally expected responses. Moreover, it seems that greeting/salutations, request agreement/asking for confirmation, and asking for support categories can be syntactically and pragmatically formatted such as interrogative formats or requesting formats (e.g., "Good evening. Are you all well?" "Wouldn't you agree with me?" or "Please do assist me"). Consequently, the speaker-audience

interaction can be formatted as question and answer pair interaction. Taking this into account, it seems that the studies did not give sufficient consideration to those verbal designs or formats, and categorised the response incidents according to the message types. It is noted that the devices identified in Japanese speeches are termed *dialogic devices* in this study.

In the British speeches (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986), commendations, jokes, and particular contents (the semantics) accounted for one-third of the response incidents. The result indicates that (1) one-third of the response incidents were associated with the speech content, and (2) rhetorically unformatted assertions also generated audience responses (Heritage & Clayman, 2010).

Although there are limitations to comparing the cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction, the studies show an important issue in turn-yielding cues in political oratory. In British and American speeches, the verbal formats played an important role in speaker's turn-yielding and audience's turn-taking. Through the verbally formatted rhetorical devices, (1) a speaker invited the audience response, and (2) the audience anticipated the speaker's turn yielding and the completion point of a message. On the other hand, in Japanese speeches, it seems that *dialogic formats* (semantics and pragmatics) play such roles.

In the previous chapter, it was found that audience response behaviour is different in terms of the speech context. Hence, it is questionable (1) whether the Korean speakers also used the dialogic devices more frequently than the rhetorical devices regardless of the speech context in Korea, which is categorised as a collectivistic society like Japan, and (2) whether there are relationships between the use of verbal devices and audience response behaviour.

Thus far, the cultural differences in the use of verbal devices in inviting collective audience responses, the importance of the speech context, and limitations of the previous studies are addressed. Taken together, in order to investigate the issues indicated above, this study investigates three dimensions: verbal devices,

implicit/explicit categories to response, and speech content in terms of the three speech contexts. Specific research questions are presented below.

4.1.2 Research questions

- To what extent, do Korean political speakers employ rhetorical devices, dialogic devices, and speech content in generating audience responses? Are there characteristic verbal devices in Korean political oratory?
- Are there contextual differences in the use of verbal devices in terms of the three different speech contexts? If so, to what extent is the use of verbal devices different in terms of the three speech contexts?
- Do Korean political speakers employ the dialogic devices more frequently than the seven rhetorical devices?

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Data

The same data in the previous chapter were analysed.

4.2.2 Analytic procedure

Based on the coding of audience responses in the previous chapter, content analysis was conducted in two dimensions: the rhetoricality (rhetorical devices/dialogic devices) and speech content. Before performing the main analysis on the data, a pilot study was conducted on the acceptance speeches in order to find out whether it is necessary to introduce new devices to the verbal categories. Following the pilot study, it was necessary to include one additional verbal device, *naming* (Atkinson, 1984a), to the list of the rhetorical devices. This additional device will be explained further together with examples in the criteria section.

Based on the transcriptions of the speakers' verbal devices, qualitative and quantitative assessments were conducted.

1. Each sentence which received an audience response was examined and coded in terms of 14 devices: the seven traditional rhetorical devices (*contrast, three-part list, puzzle-solution, headline-punchline, combination, position taking, and pursuit*), and an additional device (*naming*), and the five dialogic devices (*greeting/salutations, expressing appreciation, request agreement/asking for confirmation, jokes/humorous expressions, and asking for support*), *complex*, and *Other*.
2. It was necessary to introduce the *complex* category because, as with the *Combinations* seen in the traditional rhetorical devices, there were incidents where the dialogic devices were combined with the rhetorical devices.
3. Each sentence which received an audience response not using either the rhetorical devices or the dialogic devices was categorised into the *Other* category which is a content category. It is also noted that the *Description of campaign activities* category was categorised into the *Other* category in this study in order to clarify (1) the rhetorical device category as verbal design or verbal format group and (2) the *Other* category as a content category. As discussed in the introduction section, the seven traditional rhetorical devices and naming device are constructed with verbal formats. However, the *Description of campaign activities* is a semantic rhetorical device rather than a verbally formatted rhetorical device. In addition, this device appeared only in the election campaign context in this study due to the unique content. For these reasons, the category was evaluated as a semantic verbal category (message type).
4. Then, the message type of each sentence in the *Other* category was identified and categorised into message types.
5. The verbal devices were classified into implicit and explicit invitations. In order to refine the codes and categories, coding the verbal devices and categorising the message types were conducted through many cycles of coding and recoding.

6. All dimensions were coded on one coding system sheet.
7. Then, quantitative assessments were conducted to examine contextual and cultural differences.
8. The results were also compared with the results of the audience responses presented in the previous chapter in order to investigate the relationship between the use of verbal devices and audience response behaviour. The criteria of the coding system, the characteristic features in the use of the verbal devices, and qualitative assessments are presented in the next section.

4.3 The Use of Verbal Devices in Speaker's Turn

4.3.1 Speaker's 14 verbal devices

This section presents qualitative assessments in the use of verbal resources and explains the coding criteria for the quantitative assessments. Following the criteria of Atkinson (1984a) and Heritage and Greatbatch (1986) shown in chapter 2, the seven traditional rhetorical devices (*contrast, three-part list, puzzle-solution, headline-punchline, combination, position taking, and pursuits*) were identified and coded (see p. 51 for the general criteria and examples of the verbal devices). In coding the naming device, based on criteria of Atkinson (1984a) and Bull and Wells (2002), additional criteria were produced.

Following the criteria of Bull and Feldman (2011) and Feldman and Bull (2012), five dialogic devices (*greeting/salutations, expressing appreciation, request agreement/asking for confirmation, jokes/humorous expressions, and asking for support*) were identified and coded.

4.3.1.1 Contrast

To be coded as a contrast, a sentence should contain either contrasted two parts or two sentences should be contrasted. Some sentences contained the contrasted meanings implicitly, however, only explicit contrasts were coded. This criterion was

applied in coding all the verbal devices in order to code the devices in line with the audience member's point of view. Coders conducted coding through many cycles of coding, consequently, they recognised the devices in detail, whereas, audience members in a speech context have only one chance to recognise the devices. As audience members decide whether to respond to the sentence or not during the delivery of a speech in a venue, if a responded to the sentence was constructed implicitly, audience members may not have been able to recognise the verbal devices. Accordingly, it is possible that they responded to the sentence due to other factors than the verbal devices.

In Extract 4.1 below, the speaker uses a contrast in a short sentence (lines 1 and 2): "Now, we must end the era of strife" and – contrast part (a); "open an era of companionship" – contrast part (b). The audience members respond to the speaker with applause. The applause lasts for 6.0 seconds.

[Extract 4.1: Lee MB, sentence 86, inauguration speech, 2008]

1	Lee:	(a)	Now, we must end the era of strife and (1.1)
2		(b)	open an era of companionship.
3			(1.3)
4	Audience:		applause ((6.0 seconds))

In Extract 4.2 below, the speaker criticises the former leadership of the government and shares his feeling with the audience members, employing a contrast (lines 2-3): "the leadership positions committed wrongdoing" – contrast part (a); "but the people are bearing the brunt of the suffering" – contrast part (b). The audience members then respond to him with applause. Also, an isolated verbal response "That's right" occurs (line 5).

[Extract 4.2: Kim DJ, sentence 28, inauguration speech, 1998]

1	Kim:		I can't help but feel limitless pain and anger like you when
2		(a)	I think that the leadership positions committed wrongdoing
3		(b)	but the people are bearing the brunt of the suffering
4			(0.7)
5	Audience:		applause + (i) verbal ((<i>That's right</i> , 4.9 seconds))

4.3.1.2 List

Many sentences contained more than three items. Regardless of the number of items, if a responded to statement displayed a list of items, this statement was coded as a list. In Extract 4.3 below, the speaker delivers his election campaign theme which is comprised of a three-part list (line 2): “regime change” – list item (1), “political change” – list item (2), and “era change” – list item (3). The audience members respond to the speaker within 0.2 seconds with applause + cheers (line 4).

[Extract 4.3: Moon Ji, sentence 226, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	I will certainly achieve
2	(1)(2)(3)	regime change, political change, era change.
3		(0.2)
4	Audience:	applause + cheers ((5.3 seconds))

While the three-part list above displays the three items in a short sentence, Extract 4.4 below shows a three-part list which is comprised of three sentences. The speaker delivers his leadership styles in the first item (line 1, “I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity” and second item (line 2, “I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity), then in the third item (line 3) he states “I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change”. The audience members respond to him with applause + cheers for 5.9 seconds and then chant his name for 5.5 seconds.

[Extract 4.4: Moon Ji, sentence 52-53, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	(1)	I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity.
2		(2)	I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. (0.7)
3		(3)	I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change.
4			(0.2)
5	Audience:		applause + cheers ((5.9 seconds))→chanting ((5.5 seconds))
6			<i>Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in</i>
7			X - X X - X X - X X - X

4.3.1.3 Puzzle-solution

In many cases, interrogative sentences were used for puzzle parts. If a speaker used an interrogative question and gives a solution by answering the question, it was coded as a puzzle-solution. For example, in Extract 4.5 below, the speaker delivers an economic advantage of unification of North and South Korea using a puzzle-solution. He delivers a puzzle part (line 1, “The inter-Korean economic union will lead our Republic of Korea to the 30-80”) making the audience member wondering about “30-80”. Then he provides a solution to the puzzle (lines 3-4, “income per people 30,000 dollars” and “populations 80,000,000”). The audience members respond to the solution with applause + cheers.

[Extract 4.5: Moon Ji, sentence 186-187, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	P	The inter-Korean economic union will lead our Republic of
2			Korea to the 30-80 eras. (1.2)
3		S	These mean the national income per people 30,000 dollars,
4			populations 80,000,000.
5			(0.4)
6	Audience:		applause + cheer ((5.2 seconds))

4.3.1.4 Headline-punchline

In incidents where the speakers inform the audience that they were going to declare, promise, present, or tell issues in a headline part and delivered the issues in a punchline part, these were coded as headline-punchlines. For example, in Extract 4.6, the speaker attacks the ruling party. She displays a question (line 1, “What do we have to do for political changes?) and a headline (line 2, “I will tell you exactly”) which informs the audience that she is going to answer the question, and then she presents the answer in a punchline part (line 3, “We have to purge the Saenuri party). The audience response (lines 4-10) indicates that the message is very popular. The audience members respond to the speaker at the completion point of the punchline with applause + cheers, move on to chanting the speaker’s name, and then end their turn with more applause. The response lasts for a total of 18.5 seconds.

[Extract 4.6: Lee JH, sentence 85-87, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01	Lee:	P	What do we have to do for political changes? (1.0)
02		H	I will tell you exactly.
03		Pch	We have to purge the Saenuri party
04	Audience:		= applause + cheers ((5.0 seconds)) →
05			→ chanting ((12.6 seconds))
06			<i>Lee jounng hee Lee jounng hee Lee jounng hee Lee jounng hee</i>
07			X - X X - X X - X X - X
08			<i>Lee jounng hee Lee jounng hee Lee jounng hee</i>
09			X - X X - X X - X
10			→ applause ((1.1 seconds))

4.3.1.5 Position-taking

In position-taking, speakers took up a position (e.g., against or for) to certain issues. As described in the literature review chapter, there were two stages in the position-taking in British political speeches: pre-position-taking and position-taking. In Korean political speeches, one more stage was observed in the use of the device. After the position-taking, the speakers often presented their further actions for the issues, such as assertions, policies, plans, pledges, and tasks. In this study, this stage is named as *post-position-taking*. In some cases, the speakers presented the post-position-taking without conveying the position-taking. In summary, there were three types of position-taking: (1) pre-position-taking → position-taking, (2) pre-position-taking → position-taking → post-position-taking, and (3) pre-position-taking → post-position-taking. Both position-taking and post-position-taking were coded as position-taking.

For example, the speaker in Extract 4.7 below has addressed that there are economic issues, polarization, and a capitalistic crisis in the world, and Korea is also not free from these crises. Prior to the extract, he has pointed out problems during the economic development in Korea: corrupt power and privilege, self-righteousness and self-centeredness, and conflict and hostility. He has emphasized that it is necessary to address the problems in this era. Then, in the extract, he states “The leadership of no communication and self-righteousness is legacy from bygone era” (line 1), and takes his position on the issue (line 3, “One who

understands history with authoritarianism can't open a new era") which is a criticism of the ruling party's candidate. After the position-taking, he provides a further position-taking which is a solution to the problem (line 5, "Shared-growth and cooperation are the spirit of the age in this era"). Then, at the post-position-taking stage, he displays his leadership styles which are comprised of a three-part list (lines 7-9). As he compares his leadership style to the opposition candidate and to the solution of the issue, this is regarded as a post-position-taking.

[Extract 4.7: Moon Ji, sentence 48-53, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01	Moon:		The leadership of no communication and self-righteousness is
02			legacy from bygone era. (0.9)
03		PT	One who understands history with authoritarianism can't
04			open a new era. (1.1)
05		PT	Shared-growth and cooperation are the spirits of the age in
06			this era. (0.8)
07	Post-PT	(1)	I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity.
08		(2)	I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. (0.7)
09		(3)	I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change.
10			(0.2)
11	Audience:		applause + cheers ((5.9 seconds))→chanting ((5.5 seconds))
12			Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in
13			X - X X - X X - X X - X

4.3.1.6 Pursuit

Where a speaker re-completed or re-summarized a previous point, to either pursue an audience response or emphasise a point, this incident was coded as a pursuit. In Extract 4.8, the speaker displays a puzzle (line 2, "there are five doors to the new era in front of us"), then provides a solution which is comprised of five list items (lines 3-7). The audience members respond to the solutions with applause + cheers (line 9). However, as he resumes the next sentence (position taking) without turn-yielding to the audience members, the response of the audience overlaps with the whole sentence (line 10, "We have to open these five doors"). Hence, he re-completes his position taking by stating "We have to go to the new Korea" (line 12). Consequently, the audience responds again to the issue (line 13). Notably, the pursuit was used less frequently than other verbal devices.

[Extract 4.8: Moon Ji, sentence 99-106, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01	Moon:	Respected nation, everyone
02	P	there are five doors to the new era in front of us. (1.2)
03	S (1)	These are a door to employment revolution (1.3)
04	(2)	a door to a welfare country (1.1)
05	(3)	a door to economic democratization (1.4)
06	(4)	a door to new politics (1.4)
07	(5)	and a door to peaceful coexistence.
08		(0.7)
09	Audience:	[applause + cheers ((5.2 seconds))
10	Moon: PT	[We have to open these five doors]
11		(0.2)
12	Pursuit	We have to go to the new Korea.
13		= applause + cheers ((4.6 seconds))

4.3.1.7 Naming

Following the criteria of Atkinson (1984a), Bull and Well (2002), and the qualitative analysis in this study, four types of naming were identified: *positive naming*, *negative naming*, *self-naming*, and *audience-naming*.

In naming, a speaker invites audience members to applaud a person by calling the person's name or praising the person (Atkinson, 1984a). In this case, naming is used positively. Hence, this study identifies this case as *positive naming*. In the case of *negative naming* (Bull & Well, 2002), a speaker invites an audience to abuse or ridicule a person by calling the person's name or attacking the person. To be coded as a positive naming or a negative naming, a responded to sentence contains a person's name (e.g., a speaker's, former/present presidents', or candidates' names), a political party's name (e.g., a speaker's own party's, opposition parties', or former/present government's names), or a country's name (e.g., South Korea or North Korea) for appreciation, commendation, or condemnation. An incident where the names were presented clearly for these purposes was coded as a positive or a negative naming.

In addition to the two types of naming identified in the previous studies, two more types of naming were identified in Korean political speeches: *self-naming* and

audience-naming. While the positive naming and the negative naming are used to call a person's name from members of a speaker's party or opposite parties, the self-naming is used to call the speaker's own name in order to emphasise a message or to show his or her strong will. For example, "I, Moon Jae-in, will lead the way" (Moon Jae-in, acceptance speech). As shown in Extracts 4.4, 4.7 above and 4.9 below, the speaker calls her name after 'I' to emphasise the message (line 1). The audience responds to the utterance with applause + cheers (line 4). When a speaker displayed his or her own name in a responded to the sentence, it was coded as a self-naming (s-N).

[Extract 4.9: Park, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Park:	s-N	I:: Park Geun-hye↓ (0.5) will not tolerate any action that
2			damages our sovereignty or threatens our safety.
3			(0.3)
4	Audience:		applause + cheers ((6.6 seconds))

In *audience-naming*, a speaker begins a topic or a sentence by saying "audiences" or ends the topic or the sentence by saying "audiences" which is *Yeo-reo-bun* in Korean: *Yeo-reo* means "many" and *bun* is an honorific count word for people. The term is a second person plural and honorific pronoun. In the Korean language, the term *Yeoreobun* refers to what in English have been termed audiences such as Ladies and Gentlemen, boys and girls, all of you, everybody, or everyone (Note: The term will be presented as "everyone" in translated extracts in this paper). The term is used to address a group of people officially and politely in public speeches. Thus, referring to *yeoreobun* is not regarded as a naming but as a reference with no name is displayed; in this study, it is termed *audience-naming*.

It is noted that the Korean language makes extensive use of speech levels and honorifics in its grammar in terms of the relationship between a speaker and a listener. In English, when a noun is used in a sentence, it is displayed whether the noun is singular or plural, whereas, in Korean, whether the noun is singular or plural is not clearly presented and a singular noun is usually used. Therefore, the second person plural pronoun, *Yeoreobun*, is used solely, or together, with a singular noun

(e.g., lady and gentleman *yeoreobun*, citizen *yeoreobun*, nation *yeoreobun*, or student *yeoreobun*).

The term was used in two ways in Korean political speeches. One was displayed at the beginning of a topic or a sentence when a speaker intended to attract the audience's attention before the beginning of the topic or the sentence (e.g., everyone, loved nation everyone, respected nation everyone, or member of party everyone). For example, in Extract 4.10 below, the speaker calls "everyone" (N-a, line 1) at the beginning of the message using a puzzle (P, line 1) - solution (S, lines 2-3) device. Then, she addresses "fellow everyone" again at the beginning of the last sentence in requesting a response (R, line 4, "would you be able to do this?"). Consequently, the audience members respond with "Yes" collectively, and then they applaud the speaker (line 5).

[Extract 4.10: Lee JH, sentence 40 - 44, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Lee: N-a	P	Everyone, what is a way to fulfil the two tasks? (0.6)
2		S1	Only one way, devotion. (0.4)
3		S2	Only one way, solidarity. (0.3)
4		R	Fellow everyone, would you be able to do this?
5	Audience:		=YES ((1.5 seconds)) →applause ((4.9 seconds))

The other way was to present the device at the end of a topic or a sentence when a speaker emphasised a message. Interestingly, in this case, the term was used solely without combining with other pronouns, for examples, "United Progressive Party and I will achieve, *everyone!*" (Lee JH, acceptance speech), "I will be a president of Republic of Korea who will restore the justice of perspiration, *everyone!*" (Sim SJ, acceptance speech). It was observed that audience responses occurred immediately after the audience naming. Thus, an audience-naming (*yeoreobun*: everyone) at the end of a sentence was used to indicate a completion point and to invite a response. However, there were incidents in which audience responses occurred in overlap with the audience-naming in a message which was rhetorically well formatted because the audience-naming at the end of the sentence creates an additional

completion point. For example, in Extract 4.11 below, the speaker uses two combinations of a puzzle (lines 1-3) and a three-part list (L, lines 1-3), and a headline-punchline (H-Pch, lines 4-5) and a solution (S, line 5), and then addresses “everyone” at the end of the punchline (line 5). Applause + cheers occurs immediately after “labour” and the response overlaps with the audience-naming (line 6).

[Extract 4.11: Sim SJ, sentence 12-15, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | | |
|---|----------|-------|--|
| 1 | Sim: | P,L1 | What has made our society like this extreme society? |
| 2 | | P,L2 | Why our democracy has become like this weak, |
| 3 | | P,L3 | why our politics has become like this target of distrust? |
| 4 | | H | Progressive Justice Party will answer to these. |
| 5 | N-a | Pch,S | The justice of this era is truly sweat, it is labour, [everyone. |
| 6 | Audience | | [applause + cheers ((6.4 seconds)) |

In some incidents, two or more types of combined naming were presented in a sentence. Extract 4.12 shows a sample of using self-naming, *Sim Sang-jeong* (s-N, line 1), and audience-naming (a-N), *everyone* (line 2).

[Extract 4.12: Sim SJ, sentence 40, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----|--|
| 1 | Sim: | s-N | I, Sim Sang-jeong, will certainly achieve a progressive transfer |
| 2 | | N-a | of political power, everyone. |
| 3 | Audience: | | =applause + cheers ((8.3 seconds)) |

In summary, where a responded to sentence contained one of the four forms of naming, it was coded as a naming. Also, each of the types of naming was indicated for further analysis.

4.3.1.8 Combination

A combination can be two or more devices combined together (Atkinson, 1984a; Bull & Feldman, 2011; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). An incident where the devices illustrated above were combined with one another was coded as a combination: i.e. in extracts 4.7, 4.8, 4.10, and 4.11 above.

4.3.1.9 Greeting/Salutations

A greeting was generally displayed at the opening of a speech. Speakers greeted audience members using an audience-naming such as “respected nation everyone”, “party member everyone”, and “citizen everyone”. Then audience members greeted the speaker with applause or applause + cheers. In Extract 4.13 below, the speaker begins her acceptance speech by stating that she is “a candidate of United Progressive Party for presidential election” (line 2) and greets the audience members with a bow (line 4). The audience members greet the speaker with applause + cheers, then move on to chanting the speaker’s name, and end their turn with applause (lines 5-7).

[Extract 4.13: Lee JH, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|--|
| 1 | Lee: | Beloved party members, respected nation everyone |
| 2 | | I’m Lee Jeong-hee, a candidate of United Progressive Party |
| 3 | | for presidential election. |
| 4 | | [I greet you with a bow.] |
| 5 | Audience: | [applause + cheers ((8.0 seconds))→chanting ((11.3 seconds)) |
| 6 | | Lee-Jeong-Hee ((six times))→applause ((3.1 seconds)) |
| 7 | | X - X |

4.3.1.10 Expressing appreciation

After the greeting, speakers normally expressed appreciation to audience members: for voting for the speakers, a warm and enthusiastic greeting, and for attending the political meetings. During speeches, the speakers also expressed their appreciation for the audience’s support. In Extract 4.14 below, the speaker expresses her appreciation to the citizens for gathering (line 1-2). The audience members respond to her with applause + cheers. Then a few audience members start to chant her name but the chanting ends quickly because the other audience members do not join in.

[Extract 4.14: Park, campaign speech 3, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|--|
| 1 | Park: | I really thank you, Seoul citizen everyone, for your attending |
| 2 | | and gathering large numbers though it is a very cold day. |
| 3 | | (0.2) |
| 4 | Audience: | applause + cheers → (i) chanting ((4.7 seconds)) |

An additional appreciation, “thank you”, in the course of the audience response to the last sentence of each speech was not coded as an appreciation because it was not for generating a response but for closing the speech. It is also noted that where a speaker said, “thank you” in the course of a long duration of audience response, it was not coded as an appreciation. In this instance, it was observed that the speaker displayed “thank you” to suppress the response because the duration of response was unusually long due to the audience’s enthusiasm for a message. After the speaker repeated “thank you”, in order to display his intention to resume his next message, the response died down. Hence, it played a role in the speaker claiming the turn, so that the speaker could deliver his/her next sentence. For example, in Extract 4.15, the speaker requests a response for selecting “the government for the working class” (line 1) and “the government which respects the people” (line 2). The audience members respond to the speaker with “Yes” then extend their turn with chanting the speaker’s name (lines 5-7). The chanting lasts for 25.7 seconds which is a rather lengthy response and shows a strong affiliation with the speaker. When the chanting dies down, the speaker expresses his appreciation for the enthusiastic response onset (line 8) and then resumes with his next message (line 9).

[Extract 4.15: Moon Ji, sentence 24-26, election campaign speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	The government for the working class (1.2)
2		the government which respects the people (0.7)
3	N-a	everyone (0.5) could you choose such government?
4		(0.2)
5	Audience:	YES ((1.8 seconds))→ chanting ((25.7 seconds))
6		<i>Moon-Jae-In</i> ((14 times))
7		X - X
8	Moon:	=Thank you (0.4) thank you (1.2)
9		I have pledged...

In Extract 4.16, the speaker states that “the victory in the presidential election is ours” (line 1). The audience members respond to him with applause + cheers and then move to chanting (lines 3-5). As the chanting lasts for a long time, the speaker interrupts by saying “Thank you” after 8 times of chanting the speaker’s name (line

6). By the speaker's claiming the turn, the audience members end their turn, and the speaker resumes his speech (line 7).

[Extract 4.16: Moon Ji, sentence 10-12, election campaign speech, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	The victory in the presidential election (0.3) is ours
2		(0.2)
3	Audience:	applause + cheers ((5.2 seconds)) → chanting ((18.1 seconds))
4		<i>Moon-Jae-In</i> ((8 times)) [<i>Moon-Jae-In</i>
5		X - X X - X
6	Moon:	[Thank you (0.9)
7		I made a speech yesterday...

4.3.1.11 Request agreement/Asking for confirmation

In requesting agreement/asking for confirmation, it was found that the speakers invited audience responses by employing four types of question: (1) a yes-no question, (2) a declarative question, (3) wh-questions, and (4) alternative questions. Thus, question-response between speaker and audience was a typical format in this category.

The first type was a yes-no question (polar question). There were two sub-types in this question type. One was a type which was identified in Japanese speeches. Korean political speakers also requested agreement or asked for confirmation explicitly using similar types of expressions like Japanese speakers, such as "Do you agree with me?" "Is this right?" "Don't you know this?" and "Isn't that so?" In this type, assertive statements or descriptions of issues were usually preceded by these questions. Audience members usually responded with applause + cheer, "Yes-No", or other verbal responses like Japanese audiences, such as "Yes, it is correct", "Yes, it is right", and "It can't be". For example, in Extract 4.17, the speaker delivers four lists (L1-L4) of statements to emphasise the importance of the election and to compare the two political sides (conservative and progressive) using a contrast (C) in each sentence prior to an asking agreement: lines 1-2, "past power and future power"; lines 3-4, "old politics and new politics", "an ordinary candidate and an aristocratic candidate"; lines 5-8, "a president who reigns over and a modest

president”, “doesn’t communicate and communicate”; lines 9-11, “cheating/privilege and fairness/justice”. The speaker then requests an agreement (R) using audience-naming and a yes-no question (line 12, “Everyone, do you agree with me?”). The audience members respond to him with a verbal response “Yes” then continue their turn with applause (line 13). In this case, pre-stages (lines 1-11) are displayed before the request for agreement and the question plays a role like a confirmation.

[Extract 4.17: Moon Ji, sentence 27-31, campaign speech 1, Presidential election 2012]

01	Moon:	C,L1	This presidential election is a fierce match between past
02			power and future power.
03		C,L2	It’s a battle between old politics and new politics, also
04			between an ordinary candidate and an aristocratic candidate.
05		C,L3	Who will we choose between a president who reigns over the
06			nation and doesn’t communicate with the nation and a
07			modest president who communicate and accompany with
08			the nation.
09		C,L4	It is an election that we choose a society where cheating and
10			privilege dominate or people first society where fairness and
11			justice dominate.
12		N-a,R	Everyone, do you agree with me?
13			(0.2)
14	Audience:		YES ((1.4 seconds))→applause ((1.9 seconds))

The other type was a general yes-no question. As shown in Extract 4.18 below, the speaker delivers seven yes-no questions (lines 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12) and the audience members respond to the questions with verbal responses “Yes” or “No”. There were incidents in which the audience responded with other words like “There has not” (line 3), however, yes-no responses (lines 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13) frequently occurred in the data.

[Extract 4.18: Moon Ji, sentence 111 - 117, campaign speech 1, Presidential election 2012]

- 01 Moon: Has there been a good thing during the five years of
02 Lee Myung-bak's government? (0.3)
03 Audience: *THERE HAS NOT =*
04 Moon: Has economy got better? (0.2)
05 Audience: *NO =*
06 Moon: Has democracy developed? (0.1)
07 Audience: *NO =*
08 Moon: Has peace established? (0.1)
09 Audience: *NO =*
10 Moon: Has security strengthened? (0.1)
11 Audience: *NO =*
12 Moon: Has morality got better? (0.1)
13 Audience: *NO =*
14 Moon: There isn't any good one? (0.1)
15 Audience: *that's right (i) =*
16 Moon: Everything has been ruined? (0.2)
17 Audience: *YES =*
18 Moon: Everything has become worse? (0.2)
19 Audience: *YES*

The second type was a declarative question. In the Extract 4.18 above (lines 14 and 18), the speaker invites audience verbal responses using declarative questions with rising intonation. An isolated response (i), "That's right" (line 15), occurs, however, a collective response, yes-no, was a predominant answer to the question type in the data.

It appears that the second type is similar to "call-response" format which is defined as "the verbal and non-verbal interaction between speaker and listener in which each of the speaker's statements (or "calls") is punctuated by expressions ("responses") from listeners (Daniel & Smitherman, 1976, p.29). The call-response format was displayed during Martin Luther King's speech, "I have a dream" (Keith & Whittenberger-Keith, 1988). In the speech, the audience responded to King with various verbal expressions such as "yeah, yes, alright, ah Lord, amen, I like it, talk about it, yes it is". The responses were viewed as back-channels (e.g., "mmn-hmn") in conversation because the audience responded to King during the King's turn, not at the end of his turn. Hence, the second type of interaction in this study is different

from the call-response format due to the question format of the speaker's turn and the turn-taking format between the speaker and the audience.

The third type was a wh-question. In this question, it was expected that audience members respond to the question with (1) a speaker's name to praise or support the speaker, (2) the opposing candidate's name to attack or condemn him or her, and (3) the government's name or president's name either to praise or attack. For example, in Extract 4.19, the speaker uses a wh-question (line 1, "Who will be able to do this reform properly?") in order for the audience to respond with his name (line 3, "Moon Jae-in"). After the verbal response, audience members extend their turn with chanting his name with rhythmical claps (lines 4-5). On the other hand, in Extract 4.20, the speaker uses two wh-questions in order to attack the opposition party (lines 1-2) and to praise own party (lines 4-5). The audience responds to the questions with the name of the opposition party (line 4) to attack and the name of the supporting party (line 8) to praise.

[Extract 4.19: Moon JI, sentence 43, campaign speech 1, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	R	Who will be able to do this reform properly?
2			(0.3)
3	Audience:		Moon Jae-in ((1.7 seconds)) → chanting ((6.7 seconds))
4			<i>Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in [Moon-Jae-in</i>
5			X - X X - X X - X X - X
6	Moon:		[Yes thank you

[Extract 4.20: Moon JI, sentence 58 and 65, campaign speech 1, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	R	Who withdrew the revised minimum wage laws for raising
2			labourer's minimum wages?
3			(0.3)
4	Audience:		<i>Saenuri Party</i>
5	Moon:	R	Who overcome the IMF crisis and recovered our economic
6			growth?
7			(0.3)
8	Audience:		<i>Democratic United Party</i>

The fourth type was an alternative (disjunctive) question. In this question, a speaker provides two alternatives, either to attack the opponent candidate/party or to praise the speaker him or herself/his or her own party and then the audience responds to the question with one of the alternatives. In Extract 4.21, the speaker evaluates the two groups (own group and the opposite group) by comparing the two groups (lines 1-3). After the evaluation, the speaker requests the audience members' agreement through displaying one of the alternatives, "A government for the rich or a government for the ordinary" (lines 4-5) and "The power or the nation" (line 10). The audience members agree to the speaker's evaluation by responding with one of the alternatives which is the speaker's preferred answer (lines 7 and 12).

[Extract 4.21: Moon Ji, sentence 20-24, campaign speech 4, Presidential election 2012]

01	Moon:	A government that cares about the profit of the plutocracy,
02		the large corporations, and the capital first or a government
03		that cares the middle class and the <u>working</u> class first?
04	R	Everyone, (0.4) a government for the rich
05		or a government for the ordinary?
06		(0.2)
07	Audience:	<i>A GOVERNMENT FOR THE ORDINARY</i>
08	Moon:	There is another thing. A government that rules the nation or
09		a government that serves the nation?
10	R	Which is higher, the power or the nation?
11		(0.3)
12	Audience:	<i>THE NATION</i>

Far from the four types of questions, the modeless question ('echo question', Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, & Crystal, 1985) was also observed; but it occurred infrequently. In this question, a speaker re-questions audience members presenting short phrases or words. For example, in Extract 4.22, the speaker questions the audience members to encourage them to vote for and support him (line 1, "How much percent of the vote will you make?"). The audience members respond with "100%" (line 2), and then the speaker attempts to confirm the verbal response using a yes-no question (line 3, "Could you make one hundred percent?"). Consequently, the audience members respond with "Yes" in combination with an unclear verbal element (line 4). The speaker attempts to reconfirm the audience

members' verbal response using an echo question, "100%?" (line 5). The audience members agree to the echo question; responding with "Yes", then move to cheering (line 6).

[Extract 4.22: Moon Ji, sentence 73-75, campaign speech 5, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|---|
| 1 | Moon: | How much percent of the vote will you make? |
| 2 | Audience: | = <i>One hundred percent</i> |
| 3 | Moon: | Could you make one hundred percent? |
| 4 | Audience: | = <i>YES</i> → verbal unclear |
| 5 | Moon: R | One hundred percent? |
| 6 | Audience: | = <i>YES</i> → cheering |

4.3.1.12 Jokes/Humorous expressions

Jokes or Humorous expressions were not common in any speech context. Although there were few incidents of jokes, they were delivered in combination with other verbal devices (requesting agreements and puzzle-solution). Consequently, audience members responded to the combined devices with verbal responses but not laughter. The results of the previous chapter show that there was one incidence of laughter in campaign speeches but the laughter occurred in response to a message attacking an opponent candidate.

4.3.1.13 Asking for support

This category was introduced into the study of Japanese general election campaign speeches; it was used when speakers *asked for support* for them to win the election. However, this study examines three different speech contexts (especially, presidential election and inauguration). Accordingly, this category was used in asking not only for support for the speakers, their parties, and the country, but also in asking for cooperation in achieving various goals, such as winning the election, changing the regime, making a new era, and building a better society and country. Therefore, where a speaker asked for support or cooperation in fulfilling individual and collective goals, this sentence was coded as an asking for support instance.

In the use of asking for support category, there were four features in Korean political speeches. First, while Japanese speakers asked for support quite directly (e.g., “Please support me,” or “Please assist me”), Korean speakers asked for support in an indirect way. For examples, the speakers did not ask for votes or support for them directly but they (1) asked for solidarity for the election and future (e.g., “Please be united!” or “Please work together!”), (2) encouraged audience members to vote for a new era, Republic of Korea, and regime change (e.g., “Could you make new politics by voting?” or “Please vote for regime change”), or (3) requested cooperation with them for the country (e.g., “Could you walk together with me to the way for a new era?” or “Please participate in making a new Republic of Korea”). Second, together with the “Please” format, interrogative sentences with “Could you/Would you” formats were frequently used in this category. Third, there were instances in which the speakers asked for audience actions in relation to the opponents or themselves. For examples, (1) the speakers attacked the opposing candidate or party through asking for an audience action to stop the opposite party taking power or (2) they asked the audience to shout the election slogans together. Fourth, in asking for cooperation, a *Cheong-you* sentence (propositive sentence, see p. 176) was used (e.g., “With such wisdom and strength, *let us* again overcome the challenge facing us today” “*Let us* make future generations remember us as proud ancestors just as today we remember our forefathers”). This is a form of sentence which asks for collective action with a specific verb ending in Korean. The sentence functions as a “Please, let us” sentence in English. In Extract 4.23, the speaker asks co-operation for a new history of peace, prosperity, and take-off (line 1-2). The audience members respond to him at the completion point of the sentence with applause + cheers (line 3).

[Extract 4.23: Noh MH, sentence 135, inauguration speech, 2003]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|--|
| 1 | Noh: | Let’s all join together this great march to make a new history |
| 2 | | of peace, prosperity, and take-off. |
| 3 | Audience: | =applause + cheers ((for 8.0 seconds)) |

4.3.1.14 Complex category

If the rhetorical devices and the dialogic devices co-occurred in a responded to message, the instance was coded as a complex instance. For example, in the Extract 4.23 above, the sentence consisted of a three-part list (“peace, prosperity, and take-off” and an asking for support. In Extract 4.24 below, the speaker uses a rhetorical device (a headline-punchline, lines 1-2) and a dialogic device (i.e. an asking for support, line 2). An asking for support is displayed as a punchline (line 2). Hence, it was coded as a complex instance.

[Extract 4.24: Moon JI, sentence 19-20, campaign speech1, Presidential election 2012]

1	Moon:	H	I'll ask you a favour. (0.6)
2		Pch, Ask-s	Please team up together.
3			(0.3)
4	Audience:		applause + cheers ((3.8 seconds))

4.3.2 Message type

The content of each responded to sentence in the *Other* category was coded in terms of message types. As noted in the earlier discussion, the purpose of the speeches is different according to the three speech contexts. For this reason, various message types were categorised including message types identified in British political conference speeches (e.g., external attacks, approve own party, and commendations) (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Categories were combined into broader concepts. The message types are listed below together with definitions, explanations, and examples. In the examples, although the speakers do not employ the 14 verbal devices, audience members respond to the speakers.

4.3.3.1 Policy

While a vision is an idealised goal in a longer-term future, a policy is a realistic and detailed task for a certain policy area in the immediate future. In acceptance and campaign speeches, these are referenced in relation to the speaker's pledges on policies. In presidential inauguration speeches, the speakers delivered their

speeches as presidents. They presented policy directions or policies for each area. Therefore, if the speakers (1) pledged, advocated, or suggested policies (both general policies and specific policies for regions) in acceptance and campaign speeches and (2) presented directions and principles for managing the government in inauguration speeches, the instance was coded as a policy. To be coded as a policy, a passage should contain contents, such as promoting a new policy, changing or supporting an existed policy, illustrating the policy in detail, or explaining reasons to enforce the policy. Extract 4.25 and 4.26 show examples of North Korea policy and National health insurance policy, respectively.

[Extract 4.25: Moon JI, sentence 190-191, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|---|
| 1 | Moon: | If I am elected as president (0.9) I will send a special envoy to |
| 2 | | North Korea to invite officials from the North to |
| 3 | | the inauguration. |
| 4 | | (0.3) |
| 5 | Audience: | applause + cheers ((7.8 seconds)) |
| 6 | Moon: | During my first year in office as president (0.5) I will hold |
| 7 | | a summit with North Korea. = |
| 8 | Audience: | applause + cheers ((4.9 seconds)) |

[Extract 4.26: Park GH, sentence 76, campaign speech³, Presidential election 2012]

- | | | |
|---|-----------|---|
| 1 | Park: | I (0.4) will make Health Insurance cover 100% for four severe |
| 2 | | illnesses like cancer. = |
| 3 | Audience: | applause + cheers ((6.2 seconds)) |

4.3.3.2 Oath

After addressing issues such as visions, policies, problems, and missions, the speakers often reconfirmed firmly that they intended to achieve the related outcomes. For example, the speakers promised to do their best as a leader, to achieve their stated missions, and to make every effort for their parties, the people, and the country. The speakers also emphasised their willingness to enforce policies using emphasis words, such as declarations, promises, and oaths combined with words such as “firmly”, “definitely”, or “certainly”. These sentences were all coded as oaths. Extract 4.27 shows an example of the oath.

[Extract 4.27: Kim DJ, sentence 76, Presidential inauguration 1998]

- 1 Kim: I give all the glory and the blessing to the people, (1.0) and I
- 2 firmly pledge to you that I put all my heart and soul into
- 3 serving the nation.
- 4 (.)
- 5 Audience: applause + cheers ((5.2 seconds))

4.3.3.3 Identity/Values/Beliefs

Regardless of the three speech contexts, speakers defined their past/present/future identities and their parties' identities, illustrated an idealised leader that they aimed to be, and described idealised governments that they wanted to make when they were in power. If speakers: (1) displayed their/party's/government's identities; (2) presented idealised president/presidential leadership/governments; or (3) expressed their value, beliefs, political philosophy, governing philosophy, moral standards, and that they would avoid the use of power for personal benefits; these sentences were categorised as identity. Extracts 4.28, 4.29, and 4.30 show examples of the identity of a candidate, identity of government, and political philosophy, respectively.

[Extract 4.28: Moon JI, sentence 23-24, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- 1 Moon: I am the proud candidate of the Democratic United Party.
- 2 (0.9)
- 3 Audience: [applause + cheering ((3.2 seconds))]
- 4 Moon: [I will always remember this fact.] =
- 5 Audience: applause + cheers ((6.5 seconds))

[Extract 4.29: Kim DJ, sentence 8, Presidential inauguration 1998]

- 1 Kim: I declare in front of the 45 million people that this
- 2 government is a true people's government that has been
- 3 built on the power of the people.
- 4 (.)
- 5 Audience: applause + cheers ((5.7 seconds))

[Extract 4.30: Moon JI, sentence 87, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01 Moon: If I become a president, (0.2) fairness and justice (0.9)
02 will be a root of governing.
03 (0.6)
04 Audience: [applause + cheers ((2.5 seconds))]
05 Moon: [The opportunity (0.2) will be equal.] =
06 Audience: [applause + cheers ((4.5 seconds))] =
07 Moon: [The process (0.2) will be fair.]
08 (0.7)
09 The result (0.3) will be righteous.
10 applause + cheers ((3.8 seconds))

4.3.3.4 Problem and Mission

If the speakers (1) indicated political, national, and social problems or crises, suggested collective missions, and (2) asserted reasons to achieve the missions for national prosperity and vision, these passages were coded as problem and mission. While the policy category is about issues which a government will enforce in the near future, the problem and mission category is about collective issues which indicate a problem and crises from the past or that is being faced in the present. However, if a problem was stated as an attack on opponents, this instance was coded as an external attack. Extract 4.31 shows an example of an indication of a problem and suggestion of a mission.

[Extract 4.31: Roh MH, sentence 15-16, Presidential inauguration 2003]

1 Roh: Especially, the international community's anxiety is high due
2 to the North Korean nuclear crisis. At time like this, we have
3 to secure peace and maintain it very solidly and strongly.
4 (0.6)
5 Audience: applause ((8.8 seconds))

4.3.3.5 Vision

A vision refers to an "idealised somewhat utopian image of the future", "a longer-term specified or unspecified future" (Shamir, 1995, p. 28), or an "idealized goal that the leader wants the organization to achieve in the future" (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, p. 640). If a message contained a speaker's idealised goals and idealised

collective goals, it was categorised as vision. Extract 4.32 shows an example of vision on Northeast Asia.

[Extract 4.32: Roh MH, sentence 47, Presidential inauguration 2003]

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| 1 Roh: | It is my long cherished vision that the order of peace and |
| 2 | harmony, like EU now, build in Northeast Asia. |
| 3 | (1.1) |
| 4 Audience: | applause + cheers ((6.7 seconds)) |

4.3.3.6 External attacks

Where the speakers criticised opposition candidates, parties, presidents (both present and former), or other external collectives (e.g., police, large corporate executives, North Korea) regarding their policies, record, performance, membership, leadership, morality, and so forth, these messages were coded as external attacks. It is noted that when there was negative campaigning, the speakers delivered messages in defence of the negativity. After this defence, they generally attacked the opponent again. In these cases, the defence messages were also coded as external attacks. Extract 4.33 shows an example of external attack (the opponent candidate attacks the president and government).

[Extract 4.33: Moon JI, sentence 69-71, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| 1 Moon: | There are endless corruptions of the president's close |
| 2 | associates. (1.1) There are relations between the political |
| 3 | establishment, political prosecution, and conglomerates. |
| 4 | (0.7) This privilege cartel acts high-handedly. |
| 5 | (0.4) |
| 6 Audience: | applause + cheers ((4.6 seconds)) |

4.3.3.7 Propose to opponents

There were incidents where the speakers demand or urged their opponents (candidates, parties, and North Korea) to accept their proposals/policies or stop the opponent's policies or campaign activities. These messages were coded as propose to opponents. Extract 4.34 shows an example of this category (the candidate proposes to other candidates).

[Extract 4.34: Sim SJ, sentence 70, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- 1 Sim: Based on the people's desire to restore new Republic of
2 Korea, I suggest a national meeting for a big change
3 in politics.
4 (0.6)
6 Audience: applause ((6.9 seconds))

4.3.3.8 Speech atmosphere

If the speaker addressed the atmosphere of the speech context or the sense of audience's attitudes, it was coded as a speech atmosphere. Extract 4.35 shows an example of this category. The speaker addresses the enthusiastic audience members.

[Extract 4.35: Park GH, sentence 66, campaign speech4, Presidential election 2012]

- 1 Park: Now, I'm cheered up a lot by those of you who respond to
2 me with a louder voice than I who is making a speech. =
3 Audience: applause + cheers → chanting ((11.3 seconds))

4.3.3.9 In-group praise

Where the speakers commented or praised particular individuals and collectives (including speaker themselves, the Korean people, South Korea, and other friendly countries), members, activities, policies, leadership in the speakers' own parties, these passages were coded as in-group praise. If a speaker was a member of a party in power, praising other internal individuals and collectives such as the police, administration, ministers, and government employees, this was also categorised as in-group praise. Extract 4.36 shows an example of in-group praise. The speaker praises her policy.

[Extract 4.36: Park GH, sentence 67, campaign speech4, Presidential election 2012]

- 1 Park: University newsletters in Seoul region have conducted blind
2 voting on policies, without letting the students know each
3 candidate's name, and my tuition fee policy has ranked
4 the first. =
3 Audience: applause + cheers → chanting ((7.8 seconds))

4.3.3.10 Victory assurance

If the speakers promised or assured the audience of a victory in the election, it was coded as a victory assurance. Extract 4.37 and 4.38 show examples of victory assurance.

[Extract 4.37: Moon JI, sentence 10, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| 1 Moon: | I promise you that I will surely win the presidential election |
| 2 | this December. |
| 3 | (.) |
| 4 Audience: | applause + cheers ((4.8 seconds)) |

[Extract 4.38: Park GH, sentence 9, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| 1 Park: | I will certainly win the presidential election and make the |
| 2 | Republic of Korea where there are full of dreams and hopes. |
| 3 | (0.3) |
| 4 Audience: | applause + cheers ((9.0 seconds)) |

4.3.3.11 Encouragement

If the speakers encouraged party members, the voters, the nation, or the people, it was coded as encouragement. Example 4.39 shows an example of encouragement. The speaker encourages the young generation for the future.

[Extract 4.39: Kim YS, sentence 119-121, Presidential inauguration 1993]

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| 1 Kim: | Particularly, all of young people in this country, let's dream |
| 2 | for the world and look forward the future...the future is |
| 3 | yours, (0.7) and the new Korea is (0.4) your world. |
| 3 | (0.4) |
| 4 Audience: | applause ((5.7 seconds)) |

4.3.3.12 Acceptance

If the speakers addressed acceptance of the nominations, it was coded as an acceptance. Extract 4.40 shows an example of acceptance.

[Extract 4.40: Moon JI, sentence 7-8, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

- 1 Moon: Now, I am given the tremendous responsibility to lead to
- 2 accomplish your earnest wish. (0.7) I humbly accept the
- 3 presidential candidateship for the Democratic United Party
- 4 with storing sense of vocation.
- 5 (.)
- 6 Audience: applause + cheers ((10.6 seconds))

4.3.3.13 Social justice

If the speakers mentioned social justice, it was coded as social justice. Extract 4.41 shows an example of Social justice.

[Extract 4.41: Moon JI, sentence 50, campaign speech5, Presidential election 2012]

- 1 Moon: It is certain that the truth wins and the justice wins.
- 2 (.)
- 3 Audience: cheers ((2.4 seconds))

4.3.3.14 Declare new era

If the speakers declared a new era, it was coded as declare new era. Extract 4.42 shows an example of declaring new era.

[Extract 4.42: Lee MB, sentence 29, Presidential inauguration 2008]

- 1 Moon: Now, I am going to find and open the way to the future with
- 2 confident together with you.
- 3 (0.8)
- 3 Audience: applause + cheers ((7.2 seconds))

4.3.3.15 Campaign episode

If the speaker mentions details of their campaigning activities, it was coded as a campaign episode. Extract 4.43 shows an example of Campaign episode. The speaker addresses his schedule for next campaign speeches in other cities. The audience members respond him verbally.

[Extract 4.43: Moon Ji, sentence 82-83, campaign speech5, Presidential election 2012]

1 Moon:	Now, I am going to other cities for the campaign. I will visit
2	Cheonan, Daejeon, Daegu, and Busan, and also visit small
3	cities until the last minute of the election campaign. =
3 Audience:	verbal (“let’s go together”, “please take care yourself”,
4	2.4 seconds))

4.3.4 Reliability

A random sample (N=100) of verbal devices that were responded to (10% of the total sample, 100 sentences, from 21 speeches) were coded by an independent rater, a native speaker of Korean. There was a high level of agreement (84%) between the main coder and the independent coder for the verbal devices ($k = .801$, $p < .001$ Cohen, 1960).

4.4 Contextual Differences in the Use of Verbal Devices

In the previous section, qualitative assessments are demonstrated in the use of each verbal devices and message type. In this section, speech contextual differences in the use of the verbal resources are examined by presenting the results of coding on the verbal devices in terms of the three speech contexts. The four resulting dimensions are (1) the relative proportions of the 14 verbal devices, (2) rhetorical devices/dialogic devices/content, (3) implicit/explicit invitations, and (4) the relationship between the verbal categories and forms of audience response.

4.4.1 The use of verbal devices in the three speech contexts

Table 4.1 shows the relative proportions of collective audience responses for each of the 15 verbal categories in terms of the three speech contexts: rhetorical devices (1-8), dialogic devices (9-13), complex (14), and other (15). The *complex* category is a combination of the rhetorical devices and dialogic devices. The *other* category is a content category which is not included any of the 14 categories.

The traditional seven rhetorical devices were used in the three Korean speech contexts. They accounted for a certain percentage in each context, as follows:

inauguration (31.8%) > acceptance (31.1%) > campaign (12.7%). When only rhetorical devices were considered in each context, lists in inauguration (13.1%), combination in acceptance (12.5%), and naming in campaign speeches (4.6%), were, by far, the most frequently used devices. When only dialogic devices were considered, appreciation in acceptance (4.4%), request agreement in campaign (16.9%), and asking for support/cooperation in inauguration speeches (11.9%), were, by far, the most frequently employed devices in each context. However, when all of the 14 devices were considered, the complex category was, by far, the most frequently displayed device in both acceptance (19.4%) and campaign speeches (35.6%), while lists (13.1%) were, by far, the most frequently used device in inauguration speeches. Notably, when all of the 15 categories (including content category) were considered, the *other* category (the content) accounted for the highest proportion of audience response in both acceptance (38.1%) and inauguration speeches (43.2%), while the complex category (35.6%) accounted for the highest proportion of responses in campaign speeches. Thus, the Korean audiences responded to speech content more than to any of the rhetorical devices and dialogic devices in acceptance and inauguration speeches.

Table 4.1 Verbal devices by three contexts

	N (%)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
1. Contrast	2.5 (4)	4.1 (23)	7.4 (13)
2. List	5.6 (9)	2.8 (16)	13.1 (23)
3. Puzzle-solution	3.8 (6)	1.8 (10)	1.1 (2)
4. Head-punch	0.0 (0)	0.2 (1)	0.0 (0)
5. Position	5.6 (9)	1.4 (8)	1.7 (3)
6. Pursuit	1.3 (2)	0.0 (0)	0.6 (1)
7. Naming	5.6 (9)	4.6 (26)	4.0 (7)
8. Combination	12.5 (20)	2.5 (14)	8.0 (14)
9. Greeting	0.0 (0)	0.4 (2)	0.0 (0)
10. Appreciation	4.4 (7)	2.6 (15)	2.3 (4)
11. Request agreement	0.6 (1)	16.9 (96)	0.0 (0)
12. Jokes & humours	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)
13. Asking for support, cooperation	0.6 (1)	4.8 (27)	11.9 (21)
14. Complex	19.4 (31)	35.6 (202)	6.8 (12)
15. Other (content)	38.1 (61)	22.4 (127)	43.2 (76)

1. Policy	17.5 (28)	10.4 (59)	11.4 (20)
2. Oath	8.1 (13)	3.2 (18)	10.8 (19)
3. Identity	5.6 (9)	1.9 (11)	5.7 (10)
4. Problem/mission	2.5 (4)	0.9 (5)	8.0 (14)
5. Vision	1.9 (3)	1.8 (10)	3.4 (6)
6. Ex-attack	0.6 (1)	0.9 (5)	0.0 (0)
7. Propose to opponents	0.6 (1)	0.4 (2)	1.1 (2)
8. Speech atmosphere	0.0 (0)	1.2 (7)	0.0 (0)
9. Ingroup-praise	0.0 (0)	0.5 (3)	0.0 (0)
10. Victory assurance	0.0 (0)	0.5 (3)	0.0 (0)
11. Encouragement	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	1.7 (3)
12. Acceptance	1.3 (2)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)
13. Social justice	0.0 (0)	0.4 (2)	0.0 (0)
14. Declare new era	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	1.1 (2)
15. Campaign episode	0.0 (0)	0.4 (2)	0.0 (0)
Total	100.0 (160)	100.0 (567)	100.0 (176)

4.4.2 Speech content: message types in the *other* category

As presented in Table 4.1 above, 15 message types were identified in the *other* category. These included miscellaneous sentences that received audience responses but did not contain any of the verbal devices listed above. This category was subcategorised in terms of the message type in order to study (1) whether the audience responded to the content of the speeches and not to the verbal devices; and (2) what types of messages the audience responded according to the three speech contexts. Out of the 15 message types, 6 types (1-7) were presented in all three contexts: policy, oath, identity, problem/mission, vision, and propose to opponents. The remaining types (8-15) were displayed according to the contexts: acceptance – only in acceptance speeches; speech atmosphere, in-praise, victory assurance, social justice, campaign episode – only in election campaign speeches; encouragement, declare new era – only in inauguration speeches; ex-attack – only in acceptance and election campaign speeches. Thus, it is clear that while certain message types (1-7) were presented regardless of the speech context, certain message types (8-15) were displayed in terms of the speech contexts.

First, out of the 15 message types in the category, *Policy* accounted for the highest proportion of responded to statements in all the three contexts, with 17.5% (acceptance), 11.4% (inauguration), and 10.4% (campaign). Second, the most popular message type in all three contexts was oath, accounting for 10.8% (inauguration), 8.1% (acceptance), and 3.2% (campaign) in each context. Therefore, this suggests that audience members responded to speakers more frequently when (1) the speakers pledged and proposed their policies in acceptance speeches rather than the other two contexts, and (2) the speakers delivered their oaths, pointed out problems and missions, presented their visions, in inauguration speeches rather than the other two contexts. The results show that (1) policy and oath were popular message types in all the three contexts, and (2) the speakers delivered different message types in generating audience responses according to the purpose of the speeches and the function of the political meeting.

4.4.3 Rhetorical devices/Dialogic devices/Content

A further investigation was conducted on all the instances of the complex category. It was found that although each instance contained both rhetorical and dialogic devices. It was dialogic devices which played a clear role in evoking responses because of the pragmatic and dialogic features in the interaction. For example, in Extract 4.44, a complex instance combining a self-naming (s-N, line 2) and a request agreement (R, line 3) is displayed. Using the rhetorical (self-naming) device, the speaker emphasises his capabilities in relation to economic democratisation and delivering a welfare state. Also, employing the dialogic device (request agreement, line 3 “do you agree with me?”), he asks audience members to agree with his capabilities. Although both devices are used, audience members, in fact, respond to the request agreement with “Yes” (line 5). Hence, the dialogic device (request agreement) plays a crucial role in eliciting the response, rather than the self-naming device.

[Extract 4.44: Moon Ji, sentence 59 campaign speech1, sentences 61-63 campaign speech2 Presidential election 2012]

01	Moon:		The economic democratisation and a welfare state
02		s-N	I am self-confident that I, Moon Jae-in, can do these
03		R	properly, do you agree with me?
04			(0.2)
05	Audience:		YES →applause →chanting ((10.1 seconds))
06			<i>Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in</i>
07			X - X X - X X - X
08	Moon:	(1), n-N	Park Guen-hye doesn't consider the working class.
09		(2)	She doesn't know the working class.
10		(3)	She has never had troubles which the working class
11		R	worries about in her lifetime, has she?
12			(0.2)
13	Audience:		NO

In lines 8-11, three devices are sequentially combined. The speaker names an opposition candidate (negative naming, line 8), presents three statements to criticise the opposition candidate (a three-part list, lines 8-11), and requests audience agreement (request agreement, line 11, “has she?”). Thereby, the message is constructed with two rhetorical devices (a negative naming and a three-part list) and a dialogic device (request agreement). However, the tag question “Has she?” (line 11) results in the audience response “No” (line 13).

Considering the role of dialogic devices in the complex category, the 14 verbal categories were reorganised into rhetorical devices, dialogic devices, and content. Table 4.2 presents the three categories according to the three speech contexts.

Table 4.2 Three categories by three speech contexts

	N (%)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Rhetorical devices ^a	36.9 (59)	17.3 (98)	35.8 (63)
Dialogic devices ^b	25.0 (40)	60.3 (342)	21.0 (37)
Content ^c	38.1 (61)	22.4 (127)	43.2 (76)
Totals	100.0 (160)	100.0 (567)	100.0 (176)

^aH (2) = 15.751, *p* < .001. ^bH (2) = 15.459, *p* < .001. ^cH (2) = 10.882, *p* < .004.

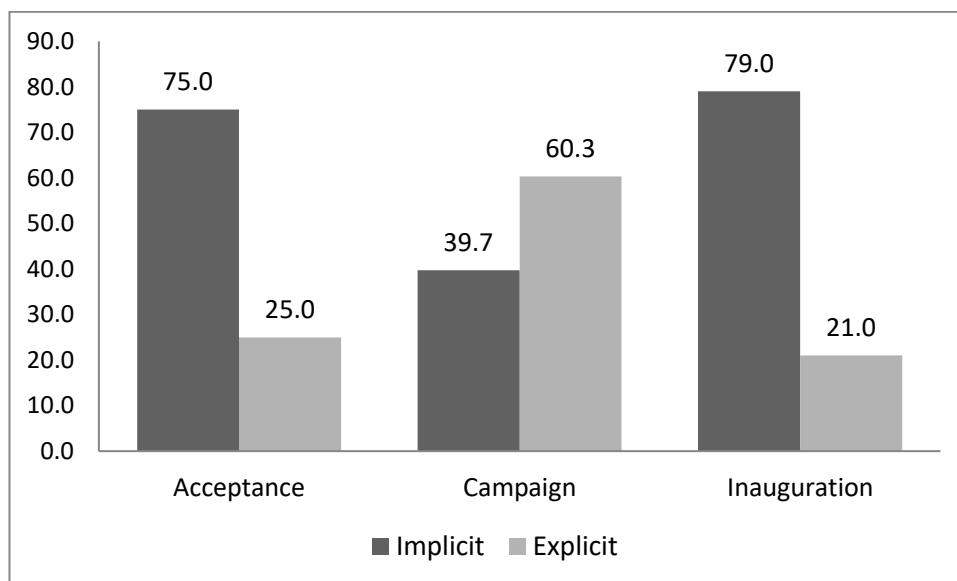
The table presents the rhetorical and dialogic devices that were associated with collective audience responses in each context, in the following order: inauguration (56.8%) < acceptance (61.9%) < campaign (77.6%). Conversely, we can order the proportion of content in each context in the following way: inauguration (43.2%) > acceptance (38.1%) > campaign (22.4%). Accordingly, the table indicates that the rhetorical and dialogical devices were used more frequently than the content in evoking a collective audience response in the three contexts. However, it also shows that the content itself was also substantially used in inauguration and acceptance speeches.

Table 4.2 also shows that the use of the verbal devices is significantly different in terms of the three speech contexts: rhetorical devices, $p < .001$; dialogic devices, $p < .001$; content, $p < .004$. As shown, while dialogic devices were, by far, the most frequently used devices in generating audience responses in election campaign speeches (60.3%), content was the most frequently used in acceptance speeches (38.1%) and inauguration speeches (43.2%). Hence, the campaign speech context is distinctive from the other two contexts in the use of verbal resources. When the use of rhetorical devices and dialogic devices was compared, the speakers used the dialogic devices more frequently in election campaign speeches (60.3%) than in the other two speech contexts (25.0 % in acceptance and 21.0% in inauguration); while they used rhetorical devices more frequently in acceptance (36.9%) and inauguration (35.8%) speeches than in election campaign speeches (17.3%). Consequently, the results indicate that there is a relationship between the formality and competitiveness of speech contexts and the use of verbal resources, in generating audience responses. As addressed in the previous chapter, the inauguration speech context is a formal and ceremonial speech context, whereas, the campaign speech is an informal and competitive speech context. Hence, it is fair to suggest that in the informal and competitive context (election campaign), the speakers had a tendency to use dialogic devices to generate audience responses, whereas, in the formal or ceremonial speech contexts (acceptance and inauguration), they had a tendency to use content and rhetorical devices in the interaction.

4.4.4 Implicit and explicit invitations

To assess the relative proportion of implicit and explicit invitations, Table 4.2 was reorganised as follows: implicit – rhetorical devices and content; explicit – dialogic devices. Just as *Description of campaign episode* device is categorised into implicit invitation in the two studies of Japanese speeches (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012), the content is regarded as semantic rhetoric and categorised into implicit invitation together with the rhetorical devices. The dialogic devices are categorised as explicit invitations. As shown in Figure 4.1 below, it is clear that while the speakers used the implicit category more frequently in acceptance (75%) and inauguration (79%) speeches than in campaign speeches (39.7%), they used the explicit category more frequently in campaign speeches (60.3%) than in the other two contexts (25% in acceptance, 21% in inauguration).

Figure 4.1 The use of implicit and explicit categories in three contexts

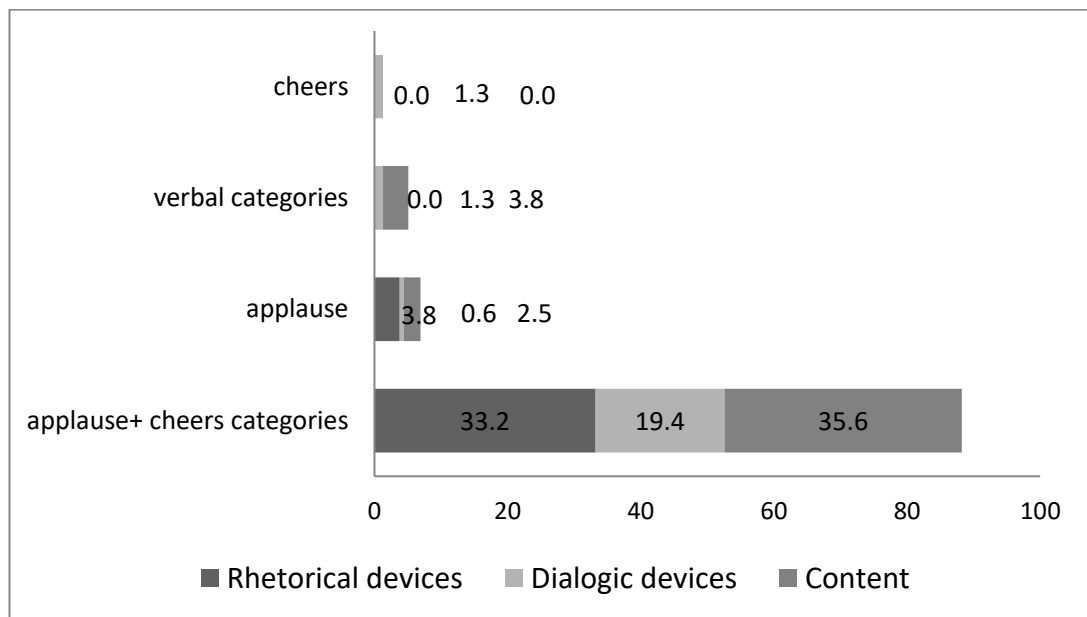


4.4.5 The relationship between the verbal devices and response forms

Integrating the results on the use of verbal devices in this chapter and audience responses in the previous chapter, Figures 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 show the relationships between the use of verbal devices and response forms. Figure 4.2 shows that

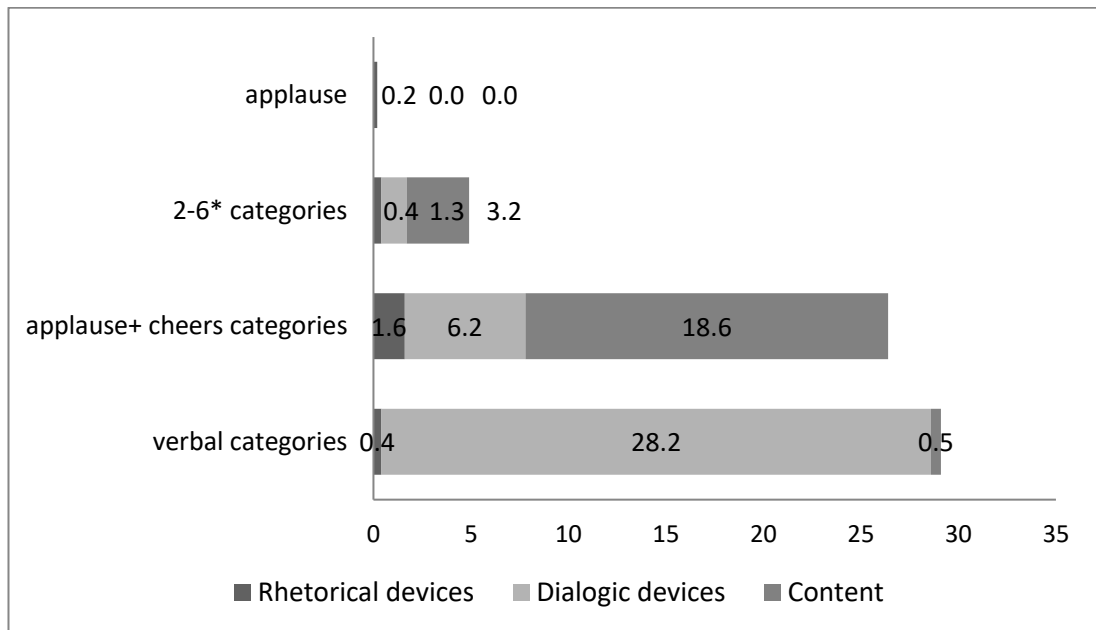
rhetorical devices (33.2%), dialogic devices (19.4), and content (35.6%) accounted for 88% of audience responses (applause + cheers categories) in acceptance speeches.

Figure 4.2 Verbal devices and response forms in acceptance speeches



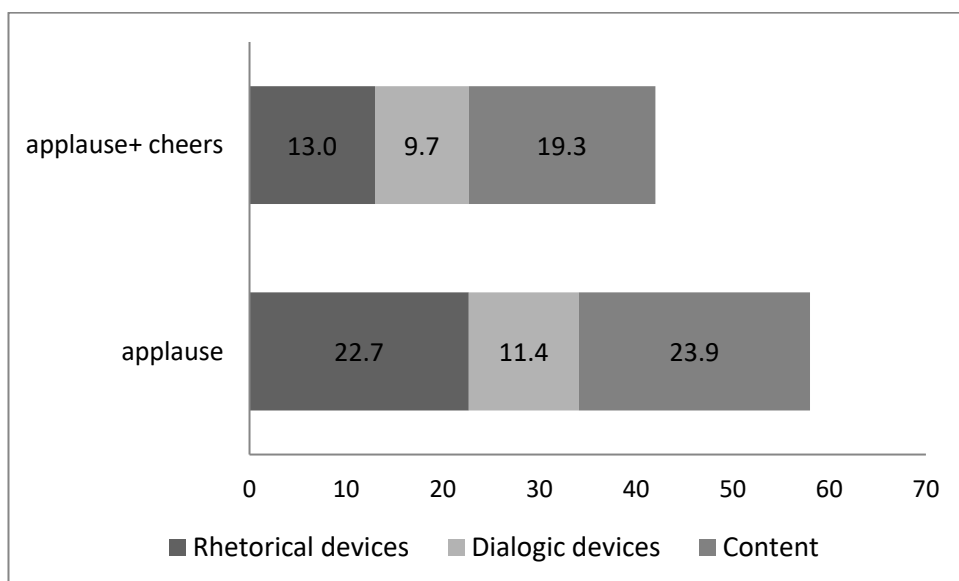
In campaign speeches (Figure 4.3), rhetorical devices accounted only 1.6% of applause + cheers and 0.4% of verbal responses, dialogic devices accounted 6.2% of applause + cheers and 28.2% of verbal responses, and content accounted for 18.6% of applause + cheers and 0.5% of verbal responses.

Figure 4.3 Verbal devices and response forms in campaign speeches



In inauguration speeches (Figure 4.4), rhetorical devices accounted 13.0% of applause + cheers and 22.7% of applause, dialogic devices accounted 9.7% of applause + cheers and 11.4% of applause, and content accounted for 19.3% of applause + cheers and 23.9% of applause.

Figure 4.4 Verbal devices and response forms in inauguration speeches



Hence, the figures indicate that although dialogic devices used in the three contexts, (1) speakers employed distinctive strategies in the use of the dialogic devices for the generation of verbal responses in campaign speeches, and (2) audience members responded to dialogic devices with verbal responses than applause + cheers in campaign speeches, while they responded to dialogic devices with applause + cheers than verbal responses in acceptance and inauguration speeches.

The results above show that there are close relationships between the verbal techniques of the speakers and the speech contexts. Table 4.3 shows the summary of results in the use of verbal devices (9-10) and characteristic features of each context discussed in the previous chapter (1-8).

Table 4.3 Summary of the results and three contexts

	Inauguration	Acceptance	Campaign
1. Function	presidential inauguration ceremony	nomination of a candidate launching campaign	meeting with voters
2. Purpose	addressing speaker's intentions as a leader	acceptance appreciation solidarity	wining Election
3. Audience	invited nation	party members	Voters
4. Speaker	president	candidature high in the party	candidature
5. Power distance speaker-audience	very high	>	less high than the two contexts
6. Stage	post-competition	pre-competition	competition
7. Formality	high formal	formal	Informal
8. Predominant form of response	applause	applause + cheers	Verbal
9. Rhetorical devices	35.8%	36.9%	17.3%
Dialogic devices	21.0%	< 25.0%	< 60.3%
Content	43.2%	> 38.1%	> 22.4%
10. Implicit invitation	79.0%	< 75.0%	< 39.7%
Explicit invitation	21.0%	< 25.0%	< 60.3%

There were three characteristic features in the use of verbal devices in generating audience responses in Korean political oratory. First, there were contextual differences in the use of verbal devices: (1) Korean political speakers used the seven traditional rhetorical devices in their speeches; however, they used the devices less frequently in informal and competitive context of election campaign speeches, and more frequently in formal, uncompetitive, and ceremonial context of acceptance and inauguration speeches. (2) The more informal and competitive the speech context (inauguration < acceptance < campaign), the more dialogic devices were used. (3) The speech content also played an important role in generating audience responses. Interestingly, the more formal the speech context (inauguration > acceptance > campaign), the more the content was effective. (4) The Korean speakers tended to employ implicit verbal devices frequently in generating audience responses in formal and uncompetitive contexts (acceptance and inauguration speeches), and explicit devices frequently in informal and competitive contexts (campaign speeches).

The second feature is the expansion of the use of naming. As reported in the criteria section, four types of naming (positive naming, negative naming, self-naming, and audience-naming) were identified. In particular, self-naming and naming-audience were characteristic devices found in Korean speeches. The speakers emphasised their messages using self-naming at the beginning of sentences, and audience-naming at the end of sentences.

The third feature is the use of complex devices. In each context, 6.8%, 19.4%, and 35.6% (inauguration < acceptance < campaign, respectively) of responses to statements were constructed with both rhetorical devices and dialogic devices. It was observed that the rhetorical devices were generally presented in the first stage of a message for logical arguments, and then dialogic devices were displayed in the second stage of the message in order to evoke responses to the message. Thus, (1) Korean speakers facilitated audience response using layered verbal techniques of the two verbal categories, and (2) the techniques were used more in informal and competitive contexts than in formal and ceremonial context.

4.5 Cultural Differences in the Use of Verbal Devices

In this section, cultural differences in the use of verbal devices are discussed. Based on the previous studies, table 4.4 below shows a summary of the cultural differences in the use of verbal devices (7-9), cultural dimensions, and speech contexts according to the four countries (1-6): USA, UK, Japan, and Korea. It is noted that the Korean section is based on the election campaign speeches so as to compare them with American and Japanese election campaign speeches.

Table 4.4 Summary of cultural dimensions and the use of verbal devices by countries

	USA	UK	Japan	Korea
1. Cultural dimension	individualism	Individualism	collectivism	collectivism
2. Individualism score	91	89	46	18
3. Predominant response form	cheering	#	applause	verbal response
4. Speaker	presidential candidates	party leaders and MPs	parliamentary candidates	presidential candidates
5. Purpose	to appeal the voters	to discuss political issues	to express appreciation	to appeal the voters
6. Stage	presidential election campaign	party political conference	general election campaign	presidential election campaign
7. Seven rhetorical devices	66.6% ^a	67.6% ^b	22.6% ^c	12.7%
8. Frequently used devices	contrast lists	contrast lists	jokes/humours	requesting agreement
9. Rhetoric	81.7% ^a	67.6%	22.6% ^c	17.3%
Dialogic	14.6% ^a	3.2% ^d	73.7% ^c	60.3%
Content	3.6%	25.3% ^d	#	22.4%
10. Implicit	#	#	23.9% ^c	39.7%
Explicit	#	#	73.7% ^c	60.3%

The individualism scores are based on the research of Hofstede et al. (2010, pp. 95-97). # indicates limitations. ^aMean (Bull & Miskinis, p. 9, 2014). ^bHeritage & Greatbatch (1986). ^cMean of the two studies (Bull & Feldman, p.170, 2011; Feldman & Bull, p.388, 2012). ^dJoke (3.2%), content (25.3%) in Heritage & Greatbatch, p.137, 1986.

As presented in the table, there are differences in the use of verbal devices between the individualistic societies (USA and UK) and collectivistic societies (Japan and Korea). In the collectivistic societies, the seven traditional rhetorical devices accounted for two-thirds of the response instances, whereas, in the individualistic societies, the devices accounted for only 22.6% (Japan) and 12.7% (Korea, excluding naming). Conversely, dialogic devices accounted for only 14.6% (USA) and 3.2% (UK) in the individualistic societies, whereas they accounted for 73.7% (Japan) and 60.3% (Korea) in the collectivistic societies. Also, in British and American speeches, contrast was by far the most frequently used device, whereas, in Japanese and Korean, contrast accounted for a minority of response incidents but jokes/humorous expressions (in Japan) and request agreement (in Korea) were the most frequently responded to devices. Notably, the speech contexts were different between American speeches (election campaign speeches) and British speeches (party political conference speeches). However, there were similar results in the use of the traditional rhetorical devices and implicit/explicit invitations. Hence, it can be suggested that while syntactical formats (schemes) plays an important role in signalling an invitation to respond in British political party conferences and American election campaign speeches, dialogic factors play an important role in Japanese and Korean election speeches.

The previous study's point (Bull & Miskinis, 2014) that speakers generate responses using implicit devices in individualistic societies and explicit devices in collectivistic societies, are confirmed in the Korean election campaign speeches. However, as presented in the previous section, there were contextual differences in the use of verbal devices in Korean speeches. Korean speakers used their verbal techniques in terms of the purpose/function of the speeches. Moreover, (1) the speech content played a substantially important role in generating audience responses in Korean speeches. (2) The joke & humour device was used infrequently, and not used alone but combined with other devices in the Korean speeches, while the device was far the most commonly responded to device, accounting for 24.9% (Bull & Feldman, 2011) and 34.1% (Feldman & Bull, 2012) of the response incidents in Japanese speeches. (3) Negative naming was used frequently to attack opposition candidates

or groups, especially in acceptance and campaign contexts of Korean speeches, whereas, there was an absence of negative naming in Japanese speeches (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012). Thus, it can be presumed that although both speeches were election campaign speeches, the function/purpose of the speeches were different between the two speech contexts. It is clear that there is a close relationship between the use of verbal devices and the speech contexts.

Bull and Miskinis (2015) argued that a speaker invites audience responses implicitly in an individualistic culture, but explicitly in a collectivistic culture. In so doing a speaker gives a freedom to audience members to respond to the speaker in the individualistic culture, whereas in the collectivistic culture a speaker gives a clear guidance for audience members to make their responses collectively. However, taking the results in this chapter into account, it seems that there is no close relationship between implicit/explicit invitation and the cultural dimensions in Korean political oratory speech contexts.

The Korean speakers employed different strategies in the use of verbal devices in the generation of collective audience responses in term of the speech purpose and audience members. In the election campaign speeches, the function of collective audience responses is more important than the other two contexts because collective responses show the popularity of the speakers and the solidarity of the supporters. Thus, in order to generate collective responses at an appropriate time and point, the speakers display clear guidance for audience members. Through the collaboration of interaction between the speakers and audience members, they attack the opposition candidates, and display their partisan and candidate is the right party and person to rule the next government. In so doing, they show their solidarity, collective behaviour, the popularity of the candidate to the distant media audience.

4.6 Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has investigated the use of verbal devices in generating audience responses by focusing on the speaker's turn in the three speech contexts. By doing

so, this chapter has demonstrated speech contextual and cultural similarities and differences in the use of verbal devices in generating audience responses.

In summary, (1) the Korean speakers generate audience responses more explicitly in the informal and competitive context of a presidential election campaign speech than the other two contexts, whereas, they generate responses more implicitly in the formal and ceremonial context of a presidential inauguration and presidential candidacy nomination acceptance speech. (2) Notably, the speakers used rhetorical devices more frequently in acceptance and inauguration speeches than campaign speeches, while they used dialogic devices more frequently in campaign speeches than in the other two contexts. (3) Moreover, speech content was more effective in generating audience responses than rhetorical devices in all the three contexts. Overall, the results suggest that (1) there is a close relationship between the use of verbal devices and the speech context in Korean political oratory, and (2) although dialogic devices were used more frequently in campaign speeches, the characteristic audience behaviour of collectivistic culture that was found in previous studies is not confirmed in Korean political oratory.

This chapter has presented the use of verbal devices in generating audience responses. To develop the study further, speaker's nonverbal behaviour in the use of the verbal devices will be investigated in next chapter.

Chapter 5

Speaker's Turn: Nonverbal Behaviour

5.1 Introduction

In focusing on the style and content of the speeches, Chapter 4 demonstrated that Korean political speakers employ distinguishing features in the use of verbal devices according to the three political speech contexts (presidential election candidature nomination acceptance, presidential election campaign, and presidential inauguration). Importantly, substantial statements of speech content were responded to by audience members regardless of the use of rhetorical devices and dialogical devices identified in the studies of British and Japanese political speeches, respectively. However, as demonstrated by audience behaviour in Chapter 3, most of the audience responses were collective responses in the three speech contexts. The question becomes how collective audience responses occurred in response to the speech content which was not formatted rhetorically and dialogically.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the formatted rhetorical devices assist audience members to anticipate a completion point of a statement and also signal implicit invitation to respond in British political speeches (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; Bull & Wells, 2002). On the other hand, the dialogic devices played a central role in inviting audience responses explicitly in Japanese political speeches (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012). The question becomes how did Korean audience members anticipate the completion point of the statements which were not formatted with the rhetorical devices and dialogic devices? How did the speakers signal invitations to respond in the course of delivering the speeches? There may be other ways to signal invitations to responses: speech delivery. Therefore, while the use of verbal behaviour has been investigated in the previous chapter, the speakers' speech delivery behaviour in the generation of collective audience responses will be explored in this chapter.

This chapter begins with a description of nonverbal resources in signalling turn-yielding. In section 2, the analytic procedure is reported. In section 3, qualitative assessments in the use of nonverbal factors are demonstrated, and characteristic features of the use of nonverbal factors in Korean oratory are discussed. In section 4, contextual differences in the use of nonverbal factors are discussed by presenting quantitative assessments in terms of the three speech contexts. Section 5 provides a summary and conclusion of this chapter.

5.1.1 Studies of the function of nonverbal factors

The previous chapter noted that content, syntax, and pragmatic information can operate as turn-yielding cues, not only in ordinary conversation but also in political oratory. Similarly, there are four main functions of nonverbal factors in conversation: semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, and dialogic (Scherer, 1980). Hence, (1) nonverbal factors may influence the meaning of speech (semantic function); (2) they may regulate occurrence order of verbal and nonverbal factors (syntactic function); (3) they may present characteristics of the message sender (pragmatic function); and (4) they may show the nature of the relationship between the interlocutors (dialogic function) (Bull, 1986, p. 103).

Scholars identified these nonverbal factors, such as pause, prosody, and body motion, which are important resources in signalling turn-yielding in ordinary conversation (Duncan, 1972; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Couper-Kuhlen & Selting 1996) and political oratory (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986; Bull, 1986; Bull & Wells, 2002).

Studies on speaker-audience interaction in political speeches show that there are relationships between nonverbal factors and the generation of audience responses in British political speeches (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch). The previous studies demonstrated that rhetorical devices played a central role in generating collective audience responses to British political speeches. However, they also showed that (1) delivery played a substantial role in orchestrating the responses to

speakers, and (2) vocally and non-vocally “stressed” statements were more likely to be responded to than unstressed statements (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Therefore, investigating speaker’s performance factors in this chapter will contribute to our understanding of the invitation to respond and the generation of collective audience responses in Korean political oratory.

Accordingly, the aim of this chapter is to (1) investigate the use of nonverbal factors in generating collective audience responses, and (2) study speech contextual differences in the use of nonverbal factors in Korean political oratory. Specific research questions related to the speaker’s nonverbal behaviour will be presented. The questions will be investigated by: (1) analysing the speaker’s vocal (pitch, volume, speed, and pause) and non-vocal behaviours (hand gesture, head nod, body movement, facial expression, and gaze) in responded to statements, (2) demonstrating the use of nonverbal factors in signalling invitations to respond, and (3) illustrating how delivery contributes to present a speaker’s emphasis on his or her messages and intention to generate collective audience response to the messages. Research questions are presented below.

5.1.2 Research questions

- What are the characteristic features of the use of nonverbal factors in inviting collective audience responses in Korean political speeches?
- Are there contextual differences in the use of nonverbal factors in inviting audience response according to the three speech contexts?
- To what extent do the speaker’s nonverbal factors play a role in generating collective audience responses and orator-audience turn-taking in Korean political speeches?

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Data

The same data in the previous chapters were selected.⁸ Statements that were responded to collectively by audience members were analysed. However, in this analysis, response incidents where the camera angles show audience members rather than the speakers were excluded due to the limitations on observing the speaker's non-vocal behaviours (gaze, head movement, body movement, and hand gesture). Table 5.1 shows the summary of data in this study. A total 853 sentences (including utterances) and 897 collective response incidents were analysed.

Table 5.1 Summary of data

	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration	Total
Speeches	4	10	6	20
Speakers	4	2	6	12
Duration (minutes)	74:04	163:14	193:22	430:40
Total sentences	530	911	895	2336
Responded sentences	160	554 ^a	170	884
Response incidents	160	567 ^a	170	897
Analysed sentences	158	533 ^a	162	853

Note: ^aIn acceptance and inauguration speeches, all responses occurred at the end of sentences. Hence, the numbers of response incidents are same as that of responded to sentences. In campaign speeches, response incidents are bigger than sentence numbers because 13 additional response incidents occurred in the middle of sentences as audience interruptions.

5.2.2 Analytic procedure

Using the software ELAN and Praat, each speaker's nonverbal behaviour was detailed. Using CA conventions, nonverbal (vocal and non-vocal) behaviours in delivering the speeches were transcribed: pitch, speed, loudness, length of sounds

⁸ 12th presidential inauguration speech was not included in this chapter due to limitation on visual data of the speech.

(extension of vowel), intonation, pause, gaze, hand gesture, head movement, body movement, and facial expression (see Appendix A for the transcription conventions).

Kendon (1980) referred to a gesture unit as the period of time from the very beginning of a movement to the moment when the hand returns to the beginning position. He identified three phases of “preparation”, “stroke”, and “recovery” with the second phase being the identified gesture. However, in transcribing the non-vocal factors in this study, the preparation and recovery of the non-vocal cues were not annotated but only a meaningful gesture point, stroke action, was transcribed for coding systems. Where the detailed of gesture unit was necessary for understanding discussion points, the gesture unit (preparation-stroke-recovery) is displayed.

Based on the annotations and transcriptions, coding of each responded to statement was conducted in terms of (1) vocal qualities (loudness, emphasis, extension of vowel sound, and intonation) and non-vocal features (hand gesture, head nod, body movement, facial expression, and gaze), and (2) full stress, intermediate stress, and no stress. Then, quantitative analysis was conducted on the coding in each speech context. Characteristic nonverbal behaviour in inviting responses according to the three contexts was investigated. The criteria of the coding systems and the investigations are explained in the next section according to the analysis dimensions. The results of the coding will be presented together with the results of the qualitative analysis in the following sections.

In presenting extracts, as demonstrated below, five transcription lines (lines 2, 4, and 5 for verbal transcription and lines 1 and 3 for non-verbal transcription) will be displayed. Line 1 shows hand gestures, body movement, and facial expression. When two or more gestures occurred simultaneously in a word, they are annotated side by side above the word. An absence of this line indicates that the non-vocal factors did not occur in the sentence. Line 2 shows Korean Romanised, representing actual sounds, and vocal factors (loudness, pitch, vowel extension, pause, speed, emphasis, and intonation). Line 3 shows gaze and head movement. Line 4 shows a

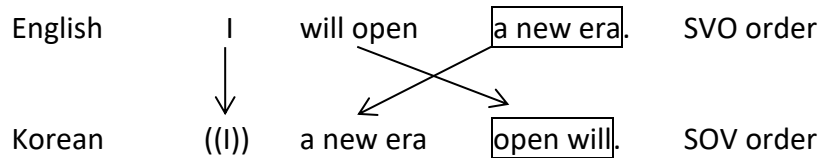
word by word English translation with a morpheme-by-morpheme gloss (see Appendix B for Abbreviations). Vocal factors are also provided in the line. Line 5 displays an idiomatic English translation considering the format of verbal devices. The double parentheses in the line show omitted words in the Korean sentence. In Korean, subjects, such as “I, You, We”, are often omitted when the subjects are clear in the talk. As there is a different word order between English (SVO language: Subject-Verb-Object) and Korean (SOV language: Subject-Object-Verb), in some cases, in particular when a sentence is rather long, the full turn of the idiomatic English translation is presented at the end of the speaker’s turn line.

1 (Hands, body, face)	r5-s	r5-s	r5-s
2 (Romanised Korean)	sae	sidae-leul (.)	yeol-gess-seub-ni-da:::
3 (Gaze, head)	≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡		<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<
4 (Word by word)	new	era- OBJ (.)	open-FUT-POL-DET-DC:::
5 (Translation)	<i>((I)) will open a new era.</i>		

In the gaze behaviour of speaker in political oratory, because audience members are almost all facing the speaker while standing (election campaign speech context) or sitting (acceptance and inauguration speech contexts), the speaker’s gaze behaviour is simpler than that of the ordinary conversational situation (Note: In inauguration speeches, the VIP seats are at the back of the speaker). Although there are detailed gaze movements, the gaze in this study is simply annotated as down, front, left, and right. The down (∨∨) direction is when the speaker gazes at his or her speech scripts on the rostrum. The front, left, and right directions are when the speaker gazes at audience members to his or her front (≡≡), left (>>), or right (<<) sides. For example, in the above example (line 3), the speaker gazes to his front (≡≡) at the audience members during the object unit “a new era”, then to the audience members to his right-hand side (<<) in the completion verb unit “will open”.

In addition, a square in the lines 2 and 4 indicate a verb unit in the sentence. Each verb unit will be indicated using a square in each sentence. Korean is a predicate-final language with the basic order of Subject-Object-Predicate and honorific language (Sohn, 1999). Hence, the predicate (either verb or adjective) unit always

comes at the end of a clause or a sentence. In the example below, an object “a new era” comes before the verb and the verb unit, “will open”, is placed at the end of the sentence.



Due to these features, the verbal unit and its placement is an important resource in Korean political oratory. Although the language is also a syntactically flexible language, as political oratory is a formal and public form of speech, a statement generally ends with a verb unit that provides basic verb, tense, polite form, and sentence type (declarative, interrogative, imperative, or propositive sentence). Thus, each sentence ender indicates one of the sentence types: DC (declarative sentence), Q (interrogative sentence regardless wh-question and yes-no question), IM (imperative sentence), and PRO (propositive sentence). Propositive sentence is *Cheong-you* sentence that is introduced in the previous chapter: a way of asking action together (“Please, let us” sentence in English). In the above example, the completion unit (verb unit) reveals a verb “open”, future tense (FUT) “will”, polite form (POL), and declarative (DC) sentence type. However, there is one exception in the completion unit. As demonstrated in the previous chapter, Korean political orators use the *audience-naming* device after the verb unit in signalling an invitation to respond. As shown below, when a speaker adds *audience-naming* “*Yeo-reo-bun* (everyone)” after the verb unit, this will not be squared in the unit in order for the reader to distinguish between the verb unit and additional *audience-naming*.

sae sidae-leul (.)	yeol-ges-sseub-ni-da:::	yeoleobun:::
new era-OBJ (.)	open-FUT-POL-DET-DC:::	everyone:::

5.3 Characteristic Features of the Use of Nonverbal Factors

5.3.1 Vocal feature

In examining the speaker's vocal feature, both aural reading and Praat were applied. Qualitative assessments were conducted by listening to the speeches many times, and then they are coded. The objective acoustic measures on the Praat, such as the sound wave, visual pitch, and visual intensity, assisted in coding the vocal features. However, decoding the speaker's vocal factors in relying on the mind of the coder was also valuable because the coder could conduct the coding as if being an audience of the speeches. For example, although the visual-acoustic measures on the Praat show high pitch and high intensity, this unit is experienced as loud for the coder because there is a limitation in examining pitch by human ear when the sound is accompanied with high intensity.

In general, women have higher pitched voices than men. The acoustic measures in this study also showed that the women speakers delivered their speeches with higher pitch compared to the men speakers. In this study, there are three female speakers and one male speaker in acceptance speeches, and one female and five male speakers in inauguration speeches. Hence, due to the gender differences in the vocal aspects and the different composition of male and female speakers, when the high intensity was accompanied by a high pitch in delivering a completion unit, these vocal factors were not coded separately but instead coded as loud. However, when a speaker emphasised a word or syllable, particularly with a high pitch or high intensity, while the surrounding words or syllables were not emphasised vocally, this was coded as an emphasis. When the speaker delivered the end of words or phrases with rhythmic shifts using high pitch and low pitch, this was coded as rhythmic a shift.

Overall, the audience members responded to the statements that were delivered more loudly and with a higher pitch than surrounding speech passages or with vowel extension, speed slowing down, pause, rhythmic shift, emphasis, and upward

intonation. Of those vocal factors, loudness, emphasis, and upward intonation, at or near, the completion unit were characteristic ways of signalling an invitation to respond. In addition, the three vocal factors at the completion unit were often accompanied with vowel extension of the final ending utterance element.

Figures 5.1 and 5.2 below show a visualisation of the sounds of a typical completion unit of responded to and non-responded to utterances, respectively. In Figure 5.1 (responded to statement), the speaker delivers the completion unit of “I accept the nomination” in her acceptance speech. She conveys the verb unit, “accept”, with a high pitch (upper line) and high intensity (lower line), and then extends the final vowel sound. However, in Figure 5.2 (non-responded to statement), she delivers the verb unit with a lower pitch and low intensity than the Figure 5.1, and without extension of the final vowel sound.

Figure 5.1 Female completion unit: responded by audience members

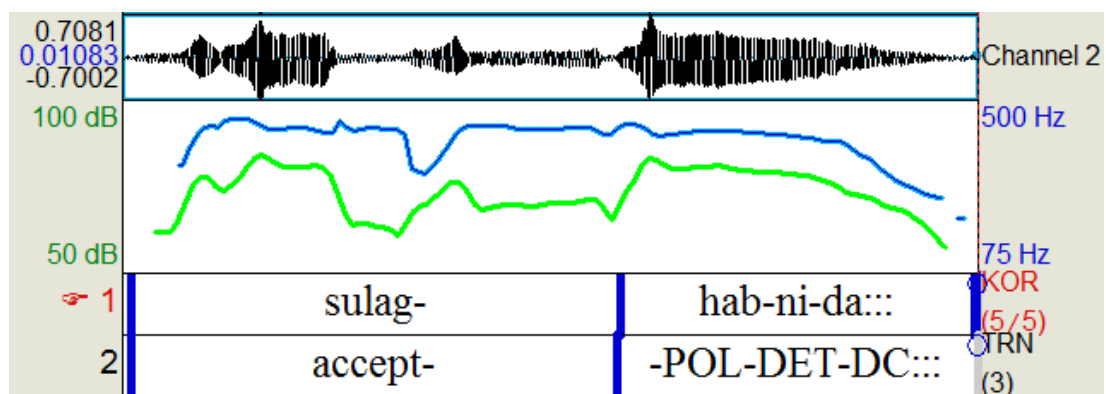
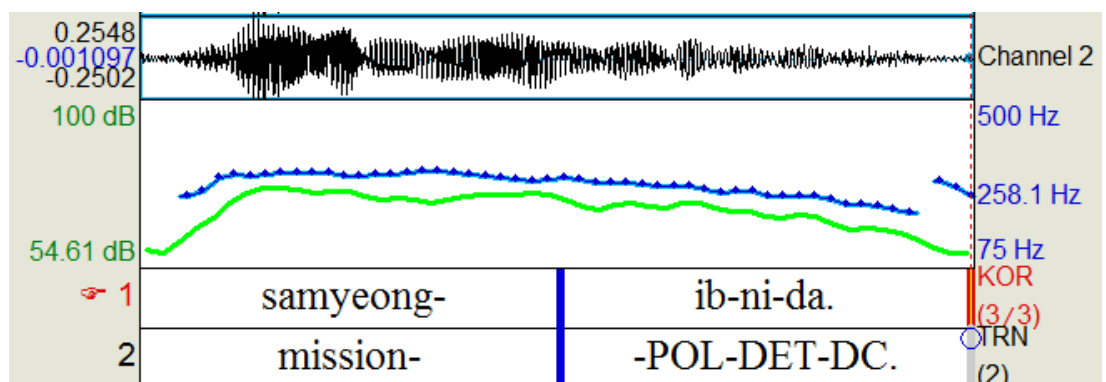


Figure 5.2 Female completion unit: non-responded by audience members



Figures 5.3 and 5.4 below show visualisation of the sounds of completion units delivered by a male speaker in his acceptance speech. As presented, the speaker delivers the units with lower pitches than the female speaker, however, he conveys the responded to completion unit, “accept” with higher pitch and intensity in Figure 5.3 than the non-responded to the unit in Figure 5.4. Although there were differences in the use of pitch levels between male and female speakers, there were similar patterns in delivering the responded to and non-responded to completion units. In next sections, the use of each vocal factor will be demonstrated with detailed extracts.

Figure 5.3 Male completion unit: responded

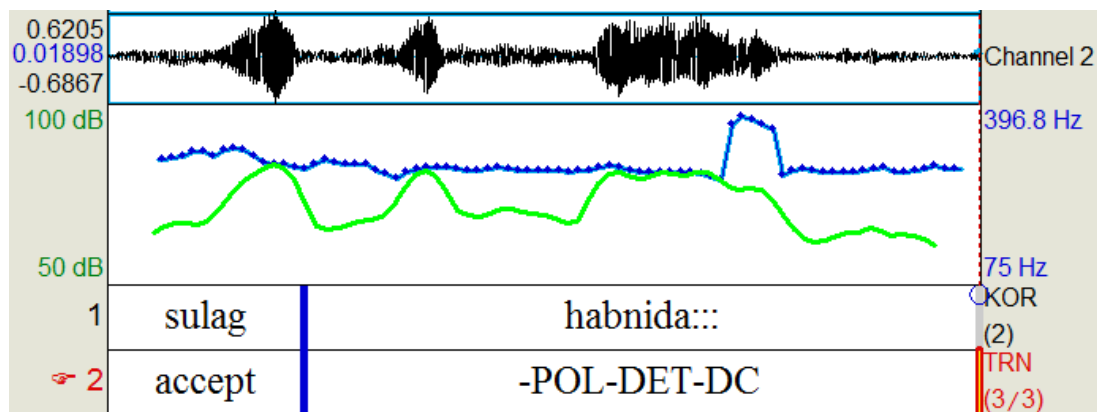
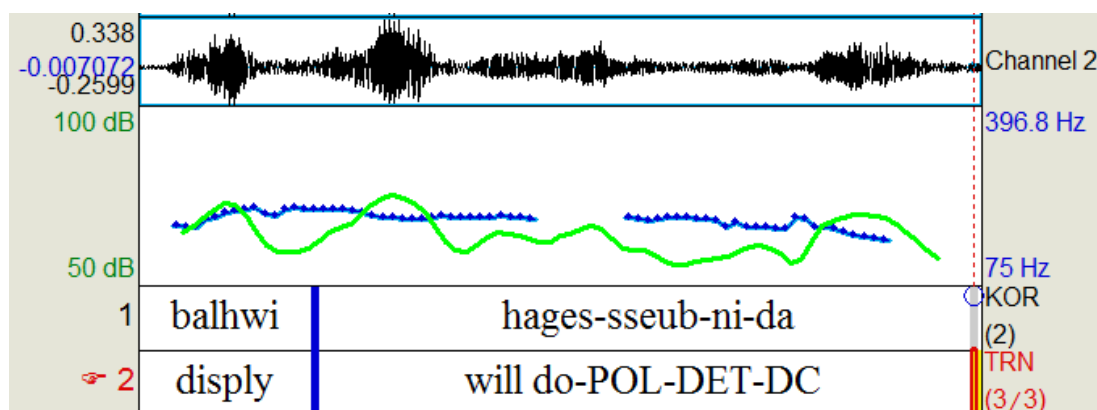


Figure 5.4 Male completion unit: non-responded



5.3.1.1 Loudness and pitch

In Extract 5.1, the speaker delivers the beginning of the statement with vowel extension at “the” (line 4) and emphasis on each word (“The first”: line 4), gazing his right side audience members (line 3), displaying a slow slicing hand gesture (line 1) at “first”. Then he pauses 1.8 seconds and delivers near and at the completion unit loudly (lines 7 and 9 in **Bold**), displaying a right-hand slicing gesture (line 6) at “eradicate” and gazing the audience members (line 8). The audience members applaud the statement within 0.7 seconds. The applause lasts for 6.1 seconds (line 12 double parenthesis).

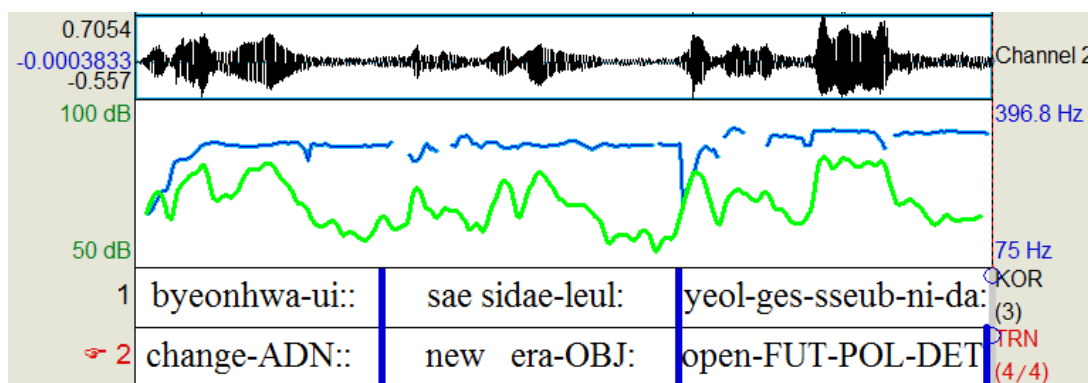
[Extract 5.1: Kim YS, sentence 48, inauguration speech, 1993]

01	~~~~~ r5-s-----	
02 Kim:	<u>geu::</u> (0.1) <u>cheosjjae-neun</u> (1.8)	
03	<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<	
04	<u>the::</u> (0.1) <u>first-NOM</u> (1.8)	
05	<i>The first is</i>	
06	~~~~~	r5-s-----
07	<u>buje:ong bupae-ui:</u>	<u>cheoggyeol-ib-ni-da.</u>
08	<<<<<<<<<<<	≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡
09	illegality corruption-AND:	<u>eradicate-POL-DET-DC.</u>
10	<i>to eradicate illegality and corruption.</i>	
11	(0.7)	
12 Audience:	applause ((6.1 seconds))	

In next Extract 5.2, the speaker utters the ending statement of his inauguration speech, asking for cooperation and using *a three-part list*: “Let’s all join together this great march to make a new history of *peace, prosperity, and take-off*”. Although the speaker does not display hand gesture, he delivers the statement using various vocal cues before the completion unit: (1) rhythmic shifts, down pitch at the end of the first item (“peace”) and up pitch at the end of the second item (“prosperity”) in the three-part list (line 3); (2) speed lowering (< >) at the three-part list (“peace, prosperity, and take-off”, line 3); (3) pauses between the first and

In addition, loudness at the completion point unit also assists the audience members to coordinate their collective response immediately after the completion point. For example, in Extract 5.3 below, the passage is comprised of three sentences (a three-part list): “I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity. I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change.” The two audience responses (lines 10 and 32) to the three statements show that there is a relationship between the speaker’s loud volume and audience responses. The speaker delivers the first sentence (lines 1-8), emphasising each word (lines 4 and 7), “communication, solidarity, and leadership,” making a head nod (line 6) at “leadership”, and gazing (lines 3 and 6) each direction of audience members before the completion unit, but without any vocal cue in the completion unit (line 5). The absence of loudness at the completion verb unit results the delay (1.2 seconds) in audience response (line 9). Consequently, the speaker continues the second sentence (line 12) and the audience’s response overlaps with the whole of the second sentence (lines 12 and 19). In the third sentence (lines 22-30), the speaker delivers the completion unit with loud voice and extension of the ending vowel (line 27, figure 5.6). The audience response occurs immediately after the completion point (in 0.2 seconds, lines 31-32). As the speaker signals the invitation clearly, delivering the completion unit loudly, the audience members not only respond to him at the appropriate point but also they display enthusiastic response behaviour of the sequential response. They respond to the third sentence with applause + cheers for 5.9 seconds and then start chanting the speaker’s name (“Moon-Jae-in”: lines 33-34).

Figure 5.6 Completion point of Extract 5.3, lines 27 and 29



5.3.1.2 Upward intonation

Upward intonation was a typical vocal cue at completion points of dialogical devices. Although an upward intonation was often accompanied with loudness and/or vowel extension, the upward intonation alone played a sufficient role in generating audience response. For example, in Extract 5.4 below, the speaker, a candidate of the Opposition party, attacks the president, uttering a question to the audience and using a *wh*-question (“who”: line7), upward intonation, and vowel extension of interrogative final ending. Figure 5.7 shows the upward intonation (falling and then rising) of the sentence ending. The audience responds to the question verbally (“Lee Myung-bag”, the name of the president: line 11). Then the speaker confirms the answer by requesting an agreement with upward intonation (line 13). The audience members agree with the speaker by shouting “Yes” immediately after the completion point (lines 17-18).

Figure 5.8. Flat intonation at completion point: Extract 5.5, lines 4 and 6

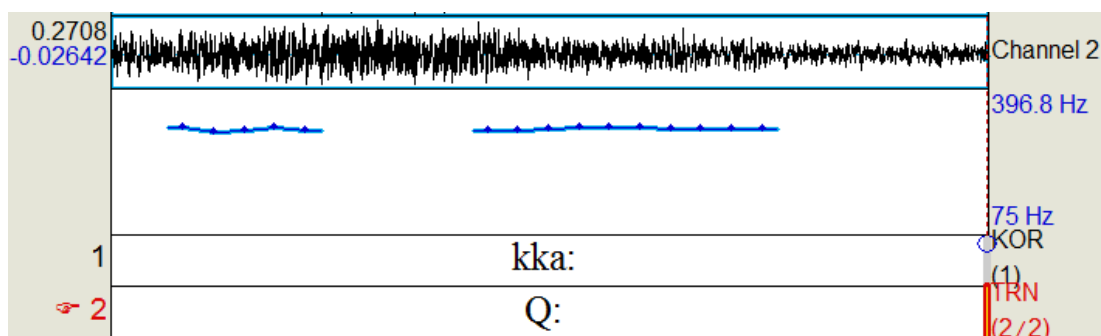
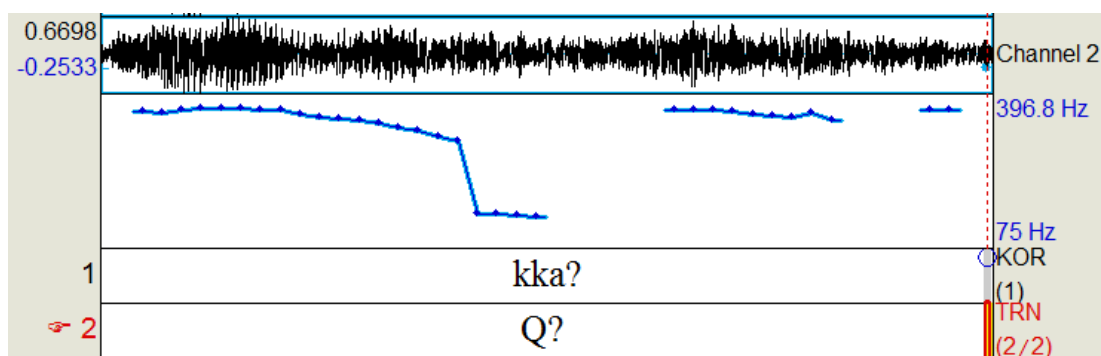


Figure 5.9. Upward intonation at completion point: Extract 5.5, lines 16 and 18



5.3.1.3 Emphasis: Partial loudness

While some vocal cues were easily identified, emphasis, which is one of the vocal conventions in CA, was difficult to define phonetically. In the loudness section demonstrated above, the speakers delivered a verb unit or a phrase loudly using high intensity and pitch. However, it was also observed that the speakers often stressed in particular words or syllables only in the verb unit or phrase, using high intensity and pitch. In order to distinguish the two vocal patterns, the stressing of particular words or syllables by speakers was coded as emphasis. For examples, the two completion units below were responded to: “will accomplish” and “have to expel”. In the Figure 5.10, the speaker emphasis at the beginning of the completion unit and future tense (“hages”, will), then intensity and pitch fall down at the final syllables (“sseub-ni-da”: POL-DET-DC). As the speaker uses partial loudness in the unit, it was coded as emphasis. On the other hand, in the figure 5.11, the speaker

delivers the entire completion unit loudly, maintaining intensity and pitch between 77.9 - 76.0 dB and 271 - 219 Hz. While loudness and upward intonation were typically used near, and at, the completion unit, emphasis was used both in the completion unit and important words throughout the utterances.

Figure 5.10 Emphasis on particular word and syllable in a completion unit

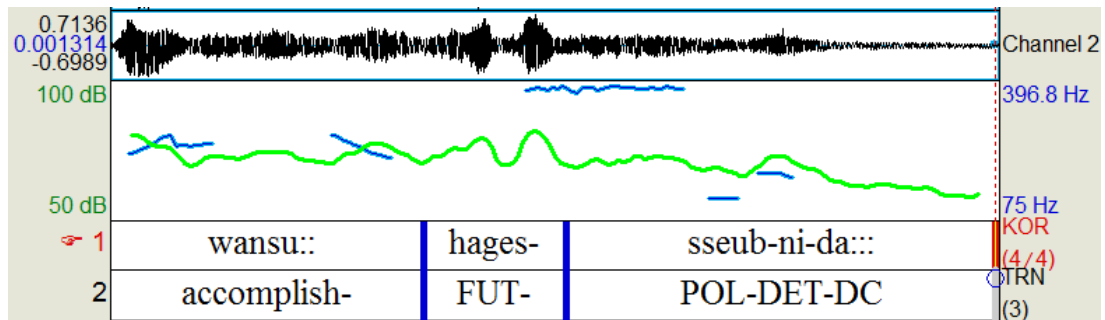
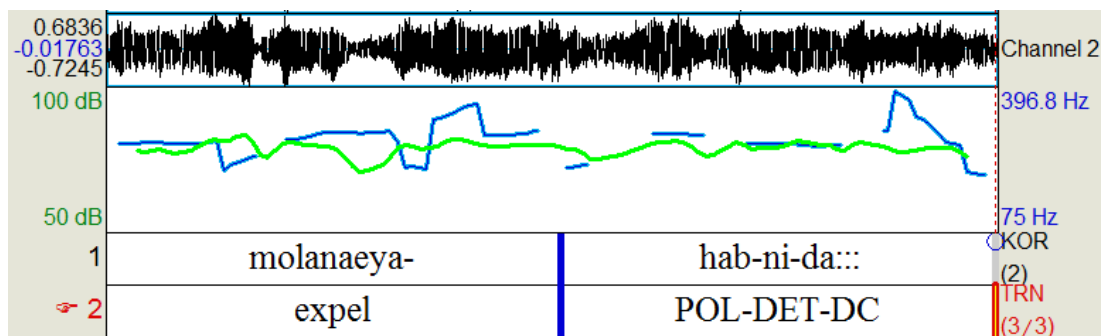


Figure 5.11 Loudness the entire completion unit



5.3.1.4 Vowel extension: long length of vowel sound

Interestingly, vowel extension was one of the vocal tools in stressing words and inviting responses. As showed in the above sections, vowel extension is often accompanied with loudness or upward intonation at the end of a completion point. Figure 5.12 and 5.13 show that long length of the final vowels sounds in completion units. As shown, although there are different levels of intensity and pitch, both female and male speakers extend the final vowel sounds around 0.5 seconds at the completion points. The figures also indicate that vowel extension at the completion point showed flat intonation and then dies down with falling intonation.

Figure 5.12 Extension of final vowel sound: female speaker

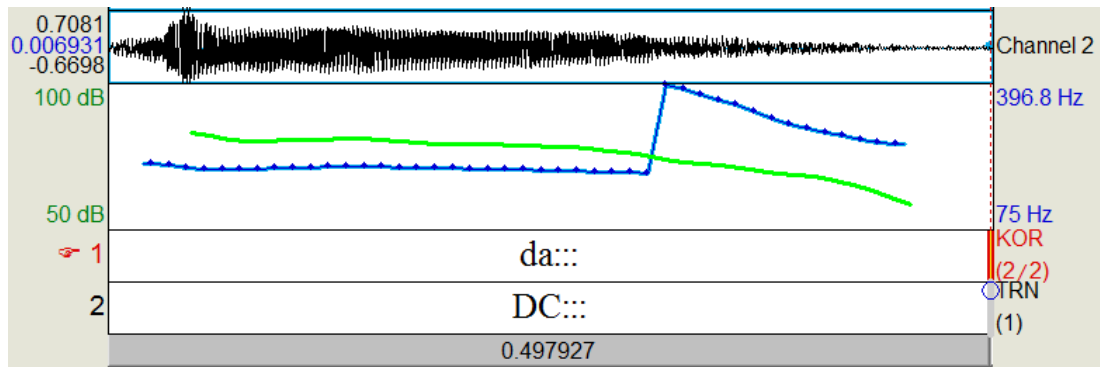
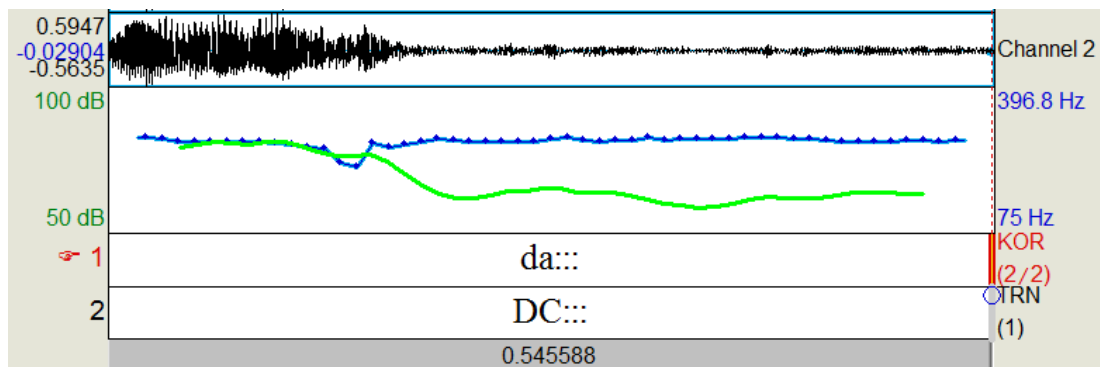


Figure 5.13 Extension of final vowel sound: male speaker



When the completion unit is accompanied with loudness or upward intonation, the unit provided for a clearer signal of an invitation to respond than using single vocal factor. Moreover, the vowel extension alone also played a role in emphasising words. Using vowel extensions, the speakers often delivered their statements more slowly than surrounding statements. For example, in the extract 5.6 below, the speaker delivers “I”, lengthening the vowel sound, then states his name with extension of vowel sound and upward pitch (lines 1 and 3). After pausing 0.4 seconds (line 3), he conveys the object unit, “a new era of change”, extending the vowel sounds (lines 6 and 8). Then he delivers the verb unit (line 11), extending the final vowel sound, “da”. Using extension of vowel sounds, he slows down in delivering the statement and generates a collective audience response immediately after the completion point.

[Extract 5.6: Moon Ji, sentence 53, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01 Moon: jeo:: Moon Jaeini:↑ (0.4)
 02 <<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<
 03 l:: -HUM Moon Jae-in-NOM:↑ (0.4)
 04 l, Moon Jae-in,

 05 r-o----- r-o ≈≈≈≈~
 06 byeonhwa-ui:: (.) sae sidae-leul: (.)
 07 <<<<<<<<<<< ≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡
 08 change-ADN:: (.) new era-OBJ: (.)
 09 a new era of change

 10 r-p ≈≈≈≈≈≈≈≈≈≈
 11 yeol-ges-sseub-ni-da:::
 12 <<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<
 13 open-FUT-POL-DET-DC:::
 14 will open.

 15 (0.2)

 16 Audience: applause + cheers ((5.9 seconds)) → chanting ((5.5 seconds))
 17 Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in
 18 X - X X - X X - X X - X

5.3.1.5 Pause

Pauses also played a role in emphasising the importance of content, in particular, in delivering three-parts lists and words before a completion unit. In the extract 5.7 below, the speaker delivers the statement using pauses. In the three-part list, “peace, prosperity, and take-off (line 3), he pauses for 0.7 and 0.6 seconds after first and second items, respectively. Then he pauses for 0.6 and 0.7 seconds at the end of each phrase (lines 4 and 7). In line 10, he pauses at each word, “all” and “together”, and then delivers the completion unit, extending each vowel sound of the word and the final vowel. Employing the frequent pauses, he slows down the delivering of the statement, especially in lines 1 and 10. Although the speaker does not display a gesture, he generates a collective audience response immediately at the completion point. Hence, it appears that the vocal factors alone are effective in signalling the invitation to respond.

and *movement patterns* of the arm and hand as they perform the stroke” (Streeck, 2008, p. 159).

As the focus of this investigation is the generation of collective audience responses, hand gestures are broadly classified into self-oriented and audience-oriented gestures. In self-oriented hand gestures, the speakers produced their gestures in the front and centre of their body without raising their hands and arms high. These gestures were often obscured by the rostrum with a slogan hanging over it and only half of the gestures were visible. In these gestures, the speakers used their hands in describing or helping the flow of the speeches naturally without the purpose of generating audience responses. On the other hand, in audience-oriented gestures, the speakers used hand gestures to emphasise their messages, displaying completion points of their messages, and inviting audience responses. In these cases, the speakers intentionally raised their hands and arms high so that large numbers of audience members could see their gestures.

In the three speech contexts of Korean political speeches, approximately nine hand shapes and eight movement patterns were observed in the statements that were responded to by audience members collectively. It is noted that it is possible that other hand shapes and movements occurred in the course of the speeches. However, as the focus of this study is the generation of collective audience responses, only the hand gestures in responded to statements were investigated in this study. Figure 5.14 below shows one-handed handshapes⁹: grip, spread 5, lift 5, lift 1, bent 1, and bent 5 (Note: the numbers indicate the numbers of lifted fingers). Figure 5.15 below shows two-handed handshapes: fold and steeple palm.

⁹ The images for hand shapes are from Friedman (1977). The names are modified based on McNeill’s hand shapes (1992, p. 87).

Figure 5.14 Handshapes used for one-handed gestures

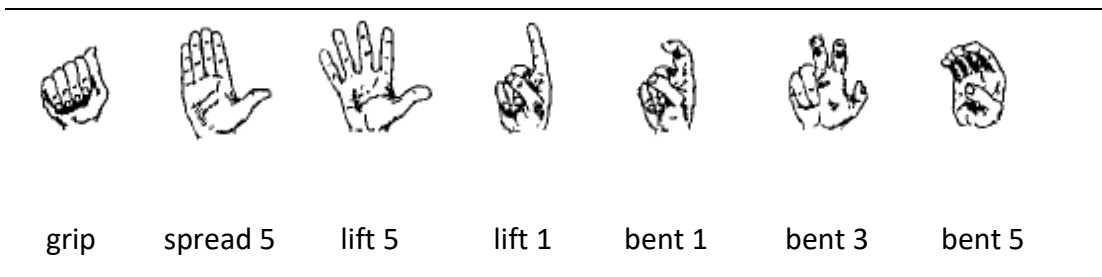
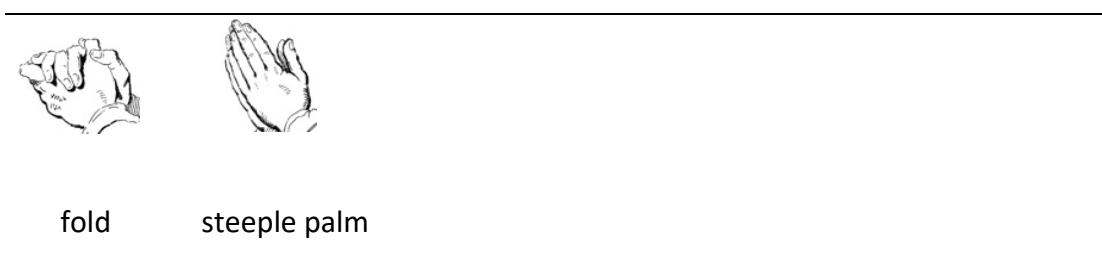


Figure 5.15 Handshapes used for two-handed gestures (Austin, 1966)



Based on the nine hand shapes, six movement patterns were observed: pointing, slice (Streeck, 2008), power grip (Streeck, 2008), open palm (Kendon, 2004), back palm (Kendon, 2004), and steeple palm (Perkins et al.). Pointing is a pointing gesture with *lift1*, *bent1*, or *spread5* hand shapes (Figure 5.16, photo 1, *lift 1* in the upper position; photo 2, *bent1* in front centre position).

Figure 5.16 Hand gestures: Pointing



Photo 1: Pointing in the upper



Photo 2: Pointing in the centre front

Slicing is a chopping gesture of a flat hand (*spread 5*, *lift 5*, or *bent 5*) with the palm facing to the side and vertical movement in front centre position or forward-back movement (Figure 5.17, photo 1 and 2).

Figure 5.17 Hand gestures: Slice in the upper



Photo 1: Slice with *spread 5*

Photo 2: Slice with *lift 5*

Power gripping (also known as the raised fist or the clenched fist) is a gesture that a fist grips the air (the air punch, Figure 5.18). This gesture was often accompanied with vertical movement when it occurred in front of the speaker's body (photo 1) and with forward-back movement when it occurred in the upper position (photos 2 and 3).

Figure 5.18 Power grip gesture



Photo 1: in the front

Photo 2: in the upper

Photo 2: in the upper

Open palm is an extension of either two hands or one hand in a flat with the fingers pointing to the side or downwards (Figure 5.19, photo 1, 2, and 3).

Figure 5.19 Open palm



Photo 1

Photo 2

Photo 3

Palm back is a gesture that the hands are brought towards the front of the speaker's body with the palms facing towards the chest downwards (Figure 5.20, photos 1 and 2).

Figure 5.20. Back palm



Photo 1, two hands back palm



Photo 2, one hand back palm

Steeple palm is a gesture that palms face each other with the finger-tips touching as the hands are placed out in front pointing down, front, or up (Figure 5.21).

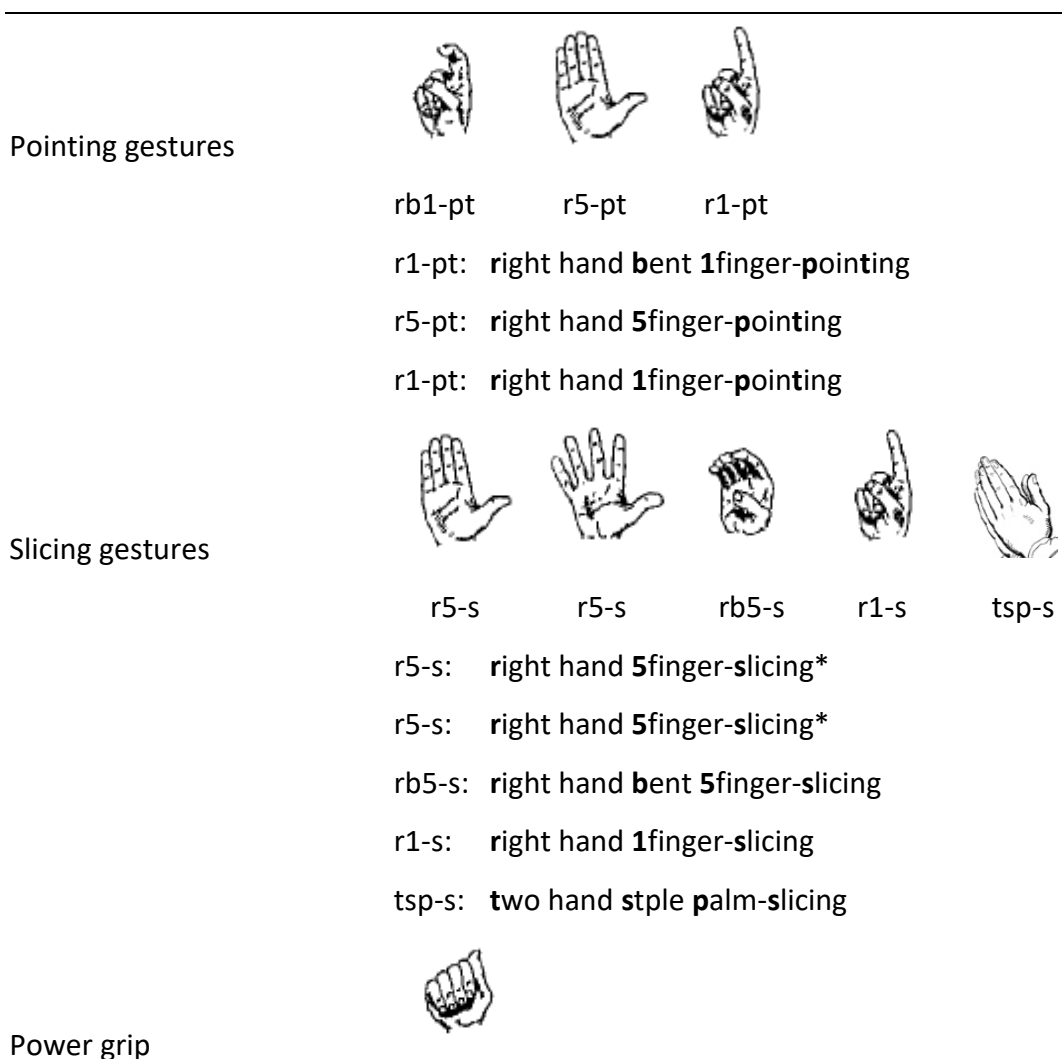
Figure 5.21. Steeple palm








Photo 1: Steeple to up

Figure 5.22 shows transcription conventions of the six-movement patterns, accompanied hand shapes, and additional hand gestures: (1) pointing gestures with *bent 1*, *spread 5*, and *lift 1*; (2) slicing gestures with *spread 5*, *lift 5*, and *bent 5*; (3) power grip with *grip*; (4) open palm with *spread 5* and *lift 5*; (5) back palm using *lift 5* and *bent 5*; (6) steeple palm with *spread 5* or *lift 5*; (7) numbering gesture with fingers; (8) folding gesture. For examples, pointing with right hand 5 finger spread is signified with r5-pt, slicing with right hand finger spread is signified with r5-s, power grip with right hand is signified with r-p, open palm with two hands is signified with t-o, back palm with two hands is signified with t-bp, numbering one gesture is signified with r1-n, steeple palm with two hands is signified with tsp, folding gesture with two hands is signified with tf.

Figure 5.22 Hand gesture and shapes



	r-p
	r-p: right hand- power grip
Open palm	
	r-o r-o
	r-o: right hand- open palm*
	r-o: right hand- open palm*
	t-o: two hand- open palm
Back palm	
	r-bp rb-bp
	r-bp: right hand- back palm
	rb-bp: right hand bent-back palm
	t-bp: two hand- back palm
	tb-bp: two hand bent-back palm
Numbering gestures	
	r1-n
	r1-n: right hand 1 finger- numbering
Steeple palm	
	tsp
	tsp: two hand steeple palm
Fold	
	tf
	tf: two hand fold

* Spread 5 and list 5 are signified as 5 regardless the shapes.

Extract 5.9 below shows the use of hand gesture in inviting audience responses. Prior to the sentence, the speaker has stated a puzzle: “We have to take action on three current challenges.” In the extract, using slice hand gesture (Figure 5.23), he provides a solution to one of the three challenges: “The first is to eradicate illegality and corruption.” Line 1 shows a gesture unit (preparation-stroke-recovery) of a slice for “The first”. He produces a preparation (~~~) movement at “the”, a slow stroke (r5-s) movement at “first”, and then pauses 1.8 seconds keeping (---) the gesture in place (lines 1-5). Line 6 shows a second slice gesture unit. He produces a preparation movement at “illegality corruption”, making a slow slicing movement at the completion of the verb unit as he utters “cheoggyeolibnida (eradicate)”, and then withdraws (.-.-.) his hand at the completion point (lines 6-10).

[Extract 5.9: Kim YS, sentence 48, inauguration speech, 1993]

01		~~~~~ r5-s-----	
02	Kim:	<u>geu::</u> (0.1) <u>cheosjiae-neun</u> (1.8)	
03		<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<	
04		<u>the::</u> (0.1) <u>first-NOM</u> (1.8)	
05		<i>The first</i>	
06		~~~~~	r5-s-----.-.-.-
07		<u>buje:ong bupae-ui:</u>	<u>cheoggyeol-ib-ni-da.</u>
08		<<<<<<<<<<<	==
09		illegality corruption-AND:	<u>eradicate-POL-DET-DC.</u>
10		<i>is to eradicate illegality and corruption.</i>	
11		(0.7)	
12	Audience:	applause ((6.1 seconds))	

Figure 5.23 A stroke of a slicing hand gesture

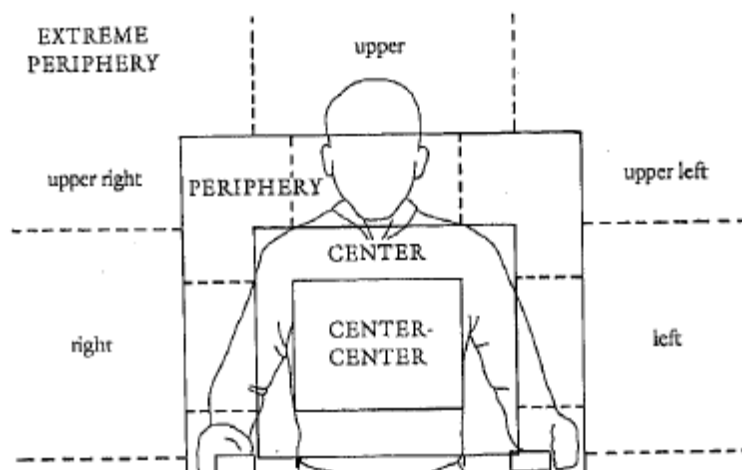


It was found that there were three characteristic features in the use of hand gestures in generating audience responses: *gesture space* (McNeill, 1992), movement pattern, and individual differences.

Gesture space

There was different *gesture space* usage in displaying hand gestures between the speaker's intention to generate responses (or emphasis on a statement) and without such intentions: audience-oriented hand gesture and speaker-oriented hand gesture. As the speakers deliver their speeches at the rostrum, their body movements were limited. They display their gestures within the gesture spaces¹⁰ presented in Figure 5.24 below.

Figure 5.24 Gesture spaces of a speaker



The rostrum is generally designed to show their election campaign slogans (in acceptance and campaign speeches) or the government logos (in inauguration speeches), thus, the lower centre space is generally invisible to audience members. When they used gestures without intention to the generation of response but for additional description of the speech, the speakers displayed their hand gestures in the centre, right centre, or left centre (Figure 5.25 below, speaker-oriented gestures). Thus, the gestures were either invisible to audience members or insufficient to signal an invitation to respond.

¹⁰ The gesture space figure is from McNeill 1992 (p. 89).

Figure 5.25 Speaker-oriented gestures



Photo 1

Photo 2

Photo 3

When they intentionally used hand gestures to generate audience responses, they displayed their hand gestures upper the centre, upper right, upper left, or upper (Figure 5.26 below, audience-oriented gestures).

Figure 5.26 Audience-oriented gestures



For example, in Extract 5.10 below, the speaker delivers two statements: “I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change.” In the first statement (lines 1-9), he does not intend to invite audience response. Hence, he displays right-hand slice gesture three times at “sympathy” and “solidarity” in the centre (line 1) in the beginning of the sentence, and “show” in the low centre (line 5) in the completion unit. The third gesture in the completion unit is invisible to audience members (invisible gesture is signified as *italic, r5-s*); moreover, he withdraws the third gesture in the middle of the completion unit. However, in the second statement (lines 11-19), his hand gesture signals clear invitation to respond. In this statement, he does not display his hand gesture at the beginning of the sentence but near the completion point (line 15). He displays right-hand open-palm gesture at “change” and “new era” in the centre, and then right-

hand power grip in the upper right with shaking it in the air and keeping it to the completion point. Thus, by changing hand gesture from open-palm to power grip, and from in the centre to the upper right, he presents a clear invitation to respond. The clear hand gesture plays in generating an enthusiastic audience response: applause + cheers for 5.9 seconds and chanting for 5.5 seconds (line 21).

Movement pattern

As there was a further characteristic movement pattern in the use of the slice and power grip gestures. The speakers displayed a rapid vertical movement or forward and back movement of the hands near, or at, the completion unit, and then they extended their arm towards the audience members or ended with shaking movements (e.g., shaking power grip or pointing gesture powerfully in the air) at the completion point. Consequently, the characteristic gestures always generated collective audience responses.

They also presented rhythmic movements at the completion unit. Occasionally, when audience members chanted the speaker's name with rhythmic claps, the speaker also showed rhythmic power grip gestures for the chanting. In Extract 5.11, the speaker invites audience response, displaying a power grip gesture near the completion unit, and then holding the gesture until the completion point (line 4). The audience members respond to the speaker immediately after the completion point with applause + cheers (line 11), then they chant the speaker's name with rhythmic claps (lines 12-13 and 15-16). The speaker responds to the chanting, displaying power grip gestures from the second incidence of the chanting of her name (line 14). The speaker's power grip movements occur rhythmically and synchronously with the claps of audience members. When the audience members clap at "Lee", and "hee", the speaker makes a power grip forward at "Lee", back at "Joung", and forward again at "hee" for each clap. The rhythmic interaction between the speaker and audience members lasts until the speaker withdraws the gesture. The audience members chant the name one more time, and then their turn is finally ended with applause + cheers (line 18). Therefore, it could be argued that the speaker projects and indicates the end of the simultaneous activities through withdrawing her gesture. This arguably indicates her intention to take the next turn at talk.

[Extract 5.11: Lee JH, sentence 53, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01 Lee: uli hamkke (.) minjung-ui simjang-e: (.)

02 <<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<

03 we together people-GEN heart-ADV

04 r-p-----

05 bul-eul butib-sida yeoleobun::

06 ≡≡≡≡≡>>><<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<

07 fire-OBJ stoke-PRO everybody::

08 *Let’s together stoke the fire in the heart of the people,*

09 *everyone.*

10 (0.2)

11 Audience: applause + cheers ((4.7)) → chanting ((12.1))

12 *Lee Joung hee* [*Lee Joung hee* *Lee Joung hee* *Lee Joung*

13 X - X X - X X - X X - X

14 Lee: r-p r-p r-p r-p r-p r-p

15 Audience: *Lee Joung hee* *Lee Joung hee*] *Lee Joung hee*

16 X - X X - X] X - X

17 Lee: r-p r-p r-p r-p]-.-.-

18 Audience: → applause + cheers ((3.0))

In Extract 5.12, the speaker uses a pointing gesture (line 4, “r1-pt”) and slicing gesture (“r5-s”) three times (line 8), emphasising each word and keeping the same tempo from near the completion unit. The speaker continues the last slicing gesture in the completion unit, then withdraws it at the additional word “everyone” which is an *audience-naming* device. The audience members respond to the speaker at the completion point of the *audience-naming* (line 14).

more speaker-oriented gestures in her than audience-oriented gestures, while she used self-oriented gestures frequently in her acceptance speech.

Table 5.2 Individual features in the use of hand gestures

	Gender	Side	Gesture	Speaker oriented, Audience oriented	Frequency ^a
Acceptance					
Moon JI	Male	Progressive	Power grip Slice	Both	56.4%
Lee JH	Female	Progressive	Power grip Pointing	Audience oriented	57.7%
Sim SJ	Female	Progressive	Slice Slice	Audience oriented	68.4%
Park GH	Female	Conservative	Open-palm	Speaker oriented	5.4%
Inauguration					
Noh TW	Male	Conservative	*** Slice	***	0.0%
Kim YS	Male	Conservative ^b	Power grip Open-palm Slice	Audience oriented	92.6%
Kim DJ	Male	Progressive	Open-palm	Both	6.0%
Noh MH	Male	Progressive	***	Both	8.7%
Lee MB	Male	Conservative	Pointing Slice	Audience oriented	2.6%
Park GH	Female	Conservative	Open-palm	Both	53.1%

Note: Campaign speeches were not included in the table (total two speakers in the data). However, the two speakers' gesture behaviour in their acceptance and inauguration speeches was analysed. ^aFrequency shows hand gesture incidents of each speaker as a percentage of total responded statements for that speaker. ^bThe speaker was progressive side originally and moved to the conservative side. *** Limitation due to no gesture occurrence.

The table also indicates that the speakers used gesture shapes and movements regardless their gender and the two speech contexts included. Slice and power grip gestures looked more large and obvious gestures, however, these gestures were used regardless of the gender of the speaker. Notably, in inauguration speeches, Kim YS displayed clear audience oriented hand gestures in the 93% of responded to statements, while the other male speakers (Noh TW, Kim DJ, Noh MH, and Lee MB)

crisis that hit the country in the final year of the former president's term. Due to this financial crisis situation, the speaker criticises the former government and political and economic leaders. Then, in Extract 5.15 below, he shares his emotional feeling with the audience members. In lines 7 and 8, he displays a sad facial expression accompanied with trembling voice. Due to this sad emotion, the speaker pauses 1 second (line 8), then continues his speech. In near, and at the completion unit, he emphasises three words using head nods. He produces small head movements at "you" and "stop" (lines 15 and 16), then a clear head nod at "isn't" at the beginning of the completion unit. Although characteristic vocal cues and hand gestures are not produced and also his intention to generate an audience response is not showed, the audience members responded to the statement.

5.3.2.4 Head movement

In terms of head movements, bows, nods, and head shakes were displayed. Of those movements, downward nodding movement of the head was a typical movement in emphasising messages. Head nods were closely related to gaze direction. In speeches where the speakers do not use Teleprompters but scripts on the rostrums, head nods were often accompanied by the speaker looking at the script. In some incidents of this behaviour, it was not clear whether the downward head movements were head nods in emphasising words or a means to check the messages on the script. These ambiguous head nod incidents were not coded as head nods but gaze to the script.

5.3.2.5 Gaze

Gaze behaviour of the speakers was closely related to the use of Teleprompters or scripts on the rostrums. When the speaker used Teleprompters (or autocues), gazing to the scripts on the rostrums is not observed. In those cases where Teleprompters were used, the gaze pattern of movement to the right and left was clear because the Teleprompters generally were placed to the speaker's right and left sides (Figure 5.27).

Figure 5.27 The position of teleprompters



In acceptance speeches, two speakers used Teleprompters and the other two speakers did not use them. In campaign speeches, the speakers generally did not use Teleprompters except for two speeches, whereas in inauguration speeches, the speakers generally used Teleprompters except for one speech (the 1980s speech).

Hence, there were substantial differences in the gaze behaviour between the speakers who used Teleprompters and who did not use them, and also between campaign speeches and inauguration speeches. However, it was observed that audience members responded to the speakers regardless of the gaze direction in the three speech contexts.

In Extract 5.17 below, the speaker criticises the president and government, delivering five interrogative sentences: “Has there been a good thing during the five years of Lee Myung-bak’s government? Has economy got better? Has democracy developed? Has peace established? Has security strengthened?” In the extract, the speaker gazes down to his script on the rostrum at all completion units of the sentences in order to prepare the next statement (lines 7, 15, 22, 29, and 35). In lines 7 and 15, he gazes down at the completions units and completion points (lines 8 and 16). In lines 13, 20, and 27, he displays hand gestures at the beginning of each completion unit and withdraws them quickly. After the gestures, he gazes down in the completion units (lines 15, 22, and 29). However, audience members respond to each statement immediately after the completion points with verbal responses, “NO”, because the speaker explicitly invites verbal responses using an interrogative sentence and upward intonation. This type of gaze behaviour and audience response was often observed in campaign speeches where the speakers generally delivered their speeches without Teleprompters.

[Extract 5.17: Moon Ji, sentence 111 - 117, campaign speech 1, Presidential election 2012]

01 lb3

02 Moon: imyeongbag-jeongbu 5 nyeon dongan (1.1)

03 √<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<< √√√√√√√√√√√

04 NAME.gervenment 5 year during

05 lb3

06 jalhan il-i iss-seub-ni-kka? (0.3)

07 ≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡ ≡≡≡√√√√√√√√√√√

08 good thing-NOM has-POL-DET-Q?

09 *Has there been a good thing during the five years of*

10 *Lee Myung-bak's government?*

11 (0.3)

12 Audience: *THERE HAS NOT =*

13 r5-s

14 Moon: =gyeongje-ga joha-jyeos-sseub-ni-kka::? (0.2)

15 ≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡ ≡≡≡√√√√√√√√√√√

16 economy-NOM better-has-POL-DET-Q::?

17 *Has economy got better?*

18 (0.2)

19 Audience: *NO =*

20 l5-o

21 Moon: =minjuju-ui baljeon-haes-sseub-ni-kka? (.)

22 ≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡ >>> √√√√√√√√√√√√√√√√

23 democracy-NOM develop-PRES-POL-DET-Q?

24 *Has democracy developed?*

25 (.)

26 Audience: *NO =*

27 l1-o

28 Moon: =pyeonghwa-ga: (0.2) guchug-dwaes-sseub-ni-kka? (0.1)

29 <<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<< √√√√√√√√√√√√√√√√

30 peace-NOM establish-PRES-POL-DET-Q?

31 *Has peace established?*

32 (.)

33 Audience: *NO =*

34 =anbo-ga ganghwa-dwaes-sseub-ni-kka?

35 ≡@≡≡≡≡≡≡≡ ≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷
 36 security-NOM strengthen-PRES-POL-DET-Q?
 37 *Has security strengthened?*
 38 (.)

39 Audience: NO

While the above example shows the speaker gazes down at the completion unit only (lines 7, 15, 22, 29, and 35), Extract 5.18 below shows that the speaker gazes down not only at the completion unit but also throughout the statement. Prior to the extract, the speaker has suggested an action for all progressive parties and citizens to make a political decision together for a change of regime, and then proposes a public meeting in the extract: “For this, I propose to hold National Congress for great political changes, which is a provisional name, based on the will of the citizens who wish the new Republic of Korea”. As shown, she spends more time gazing down to her script than to the audience members throughout the sentences and the completion unit (lines 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17). However, the audience members respond to the proposal with applause (line 21).

[Extract 5.18: Sim SJ, sentence 70, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

1 Sim: >i-leul wihae< jeoneun↑ (0.7) > saeloun
 2 ≷≷≷≷≷≡≡≡≡≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷
 3 this- for I-HUM (0.7) new

 4 daehanmingug-eul yeomwon-ha-neun <
 5 ≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷ ≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷≷
 6 Republic of Korea-OBJ wish-do-ATTA

 7 gun gugmindeul-ui: (0.4) <tteus-e: (0.9) gibanhaeseo ↓ (0.7)
 8 ≡≡≷≷
 9 cit citizens- (0.7) wish- (0.9) based on (0.7)

 10 gaching: (0.5) jeongchi dae: jeonhwan-eul wihan (0.3)
 11 ≷≷
 12 provisional name (0.5) politics great-change- OBJ for (0.3)

 13 <gugminhoeui-leul (0.7) gaechoe-hal-geos-eul ↑ (0.4)
 14 ≷≷
 15 National Congress--OBJ (0.7) hold-do-FUL-

16 Jean (.) -hab-ni-da.>
 17 VVVVVV@VVVVVV
 18 propose (.) -POL-DET-DC.

19 *For this, I propose to hold National Congress for great*
political changes, which is a provisional name, based on the
will of the citizens who wish the new Republic of Korea.
 20 (0.6)

21 Audience: applause ((6.9 seconds))

As presented in chapter three, audience members were enthusiastic to respond to the speakers, particularly in campaign speeches; thus, even when the speakers looked at the speech script at completion points of their messages, the audience members responded to the speakers regardless of the gaze behaviour. Also, gaze may be less visible than hand gestures in the political oratory context due to the distance between the speakers and audience members, the large audience numbers, and the nature of the lighting at outdoor venues. Thus, the examples above indicate that gaze is not a crucial factor in generating collective audience response in Korean political oratory.

5.4 Contextual Difference in the Use of Nonverbal Factors

5.4.1 Vocal patterns and Coding results

In the above section, the use of vocal factors near, and at, the completion unit in the invitation to respond has been demonstrated. It is showed that the speakers stress the completion unit using the vocal feature. In order to investigate whether there are different vocal patterns between near the completion unit and at the completion unit in generating responses, the vocal stress was coded in two ways: near the completion unit and at the completion unit. Table 5.3 below shows vocally stressed and unstressed near the completion unit. As shown, the speakers stressed over 70% of the total near completion units, using vocal factors in the three speech contexts: 86.7% in acceptance, 71.5 in campaign, and 77.8% in inauguration speeches.

Table 5.3 Vocally stressed and unstressed near the completion unit by three contexts

	% (N)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Stressed	86.7 (137)	71.5 (391)	77.8 (126)
Unstressed	13.3 (21)	28.5 (156)	22.2 (36)
Total	100.0 (158)	100.0 (547)	100.0 (162)

The speakers delivered utterances near the completion unit, using (1) loudness, (2) loudness with extension of vowel sounds, (3) emphasis, (4) emphasis with extension of vowel sounds, (5) extension of vowel sounds, (6) rhythmic shift, (7) speeding up and down, and (8) using pauses. While each speaker had their own ways of using rhythmic shift, speed, and pauses, they shared similar patterns in using (1) loudness, (2) loudness with extension of vowel sounds, (3) emphasis, (4) emphasis with extension of vowel sounds, (5) extension of vowel sounds. Of these five vocal patterns, emphasis and extension of vowel sounds were more frequently used than the other vocal patterns in each speech context (Table 5.4 below). Table 5.4 shows incidents of the five vocal patterns near the completion unit. As the speakers used one or two patterns in a unit, there was a limitation in generating quantitative results in the vocal patterns. However, the table shows that emphasis and extension of vowel sounds were used more frequently than other vocal patterns in the three speech contexts.

Table 5.4 The incidents of vocal cues and patterns near the completion unit

	Loudness	Loudness + extension	Emphasis	Emphasis + extension	Extension
Acceptance	26	7	64	17	53
Campaign	41	26	153	16	129
Inauguration	22	13	66	17	70

On the other hand, quantitative results were clear in the completion unit because there was only one verb in each completion unit (verbal unit). There were nine

vocal patterns shared by the speakers: (1) loudness, (2) loudness with extension of vowel sounds, (3) upward intonation, (4) upward intonation with loudness, (5) upward intonation with extension of vowel sounds, (6) upward intonation with loudness and extension of vowel sounds, (7) emphasis, (8) emphasis with extension of vowel sounds, (9) extension of vowel sounds. Each vocal cue in the completion unit was coded in terms of the nine vocal patterns.

Table 5.5 shows the quantitative results of the stressed and unstressed utterance elements and the use of nine vocal patterns according to the three speech contexts. Overall, the speakers stressed 89.6 % (in campaign speeches) and 87.3% (in acceptance speeches) of their total completion units with the vocal patterns, whereas, in inauguration speeches, the use of vocal cues was less compared to the two speech contexts, accounting for 61.1% of the incidents.

Table 5.5 Vocally stressed and unstressed utterance elements in the completion unit by three speech contexts

	Transcript convention	% (N)		
		Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
1. Loudness	Vocal	8.2 (13)	3.1 (17)	6.8 (11)
2. Loudness + extension	Vocal:::	30.4 (48)	21.8 (119)	13.6 (22)
3. Upward intonation	Vocal?	0.6 (1)	7.1 (39)	0.0 (0)
4. Upward intonation + loudness	Vocal?	1.3 (2)	1.5 (8)	0.0 (0)
5. Upward intonation + extension	Vocal:::?	1.3 (2)	8.2 (45)	0.6 (1)
6. Upward intonation + loudness + extension	Vocal:::?	1.9 (3)	31.3 (171)	0.0 (0)
7. Emphasis	<u>Vocal</u>	33.5 (53)	6.6 (36)	31.5 (51)
8. Emphasis + extension	<u>Vocal:::</u>	7.0 (11)	4.9 (27)	4.9 (8)
9. Extension	Vocal:::	3.2 (5)	5.1 (28)	3.7 (6)
Stressed		87.3 (125)	89.6 (490)	61.1 (99)
Unstressed		12.7 (20)	10.4 (57)	38.9 (63)
Total		100.0 (158)	100.0 (547)	100.0 (162)

In acceptance speeches, the speakers delivered two thirds (63.9%) of the total completion units with two vocal patterns: (1) emphasis and (2) loudness + extension. In campaign speeches, the speakers delivered over half (53.1%) of the total completion units with two vocal patterns: (1) upward intonation + extension and (2) loudness + extension. In inauguration speeches, the speakers delivered below half (45.1%) of the total completion units with two vocal patterns: (1) emphasis and (2) loudness + extension.

The table presents clearly that the speakers invited audience responses by stressing the verb unit with loudness + extension vocal pattern frequently regardless of the speech context. Importantly, the speakers invited audience responses by stressing the verb unit with emphasis vocal pattern frequently in acceptance (33.5 %) and inauguration (31.5%), and infrequently (6.6%) in campaign speeches. In contrast to this, the speakers invited audience responses using upward intonation + loudness + extension frequently in campaign speeches (31.3%) and infrequently in acceptance (1.3%) and inauguration speeches (0%). Hence, the table indicates that there are differences in the use of the vocal patterns in terms of the speech contexts.

When the nine vocal patterns in the verb unit are grouped into two groups (loudness and other vocal cues), loudness was used most frequently in campaign speeches accounting 58%, and then 42% in acceptance speeches, 20% in inauguration speeches (Figures 5.28, 5.29, and 5.30). We can, therefore, order the different speech contexts in the following way: campaign 58% > acceptance 42% > inauguration 20%.

Figure 5.28 Loudness in campaign speeches

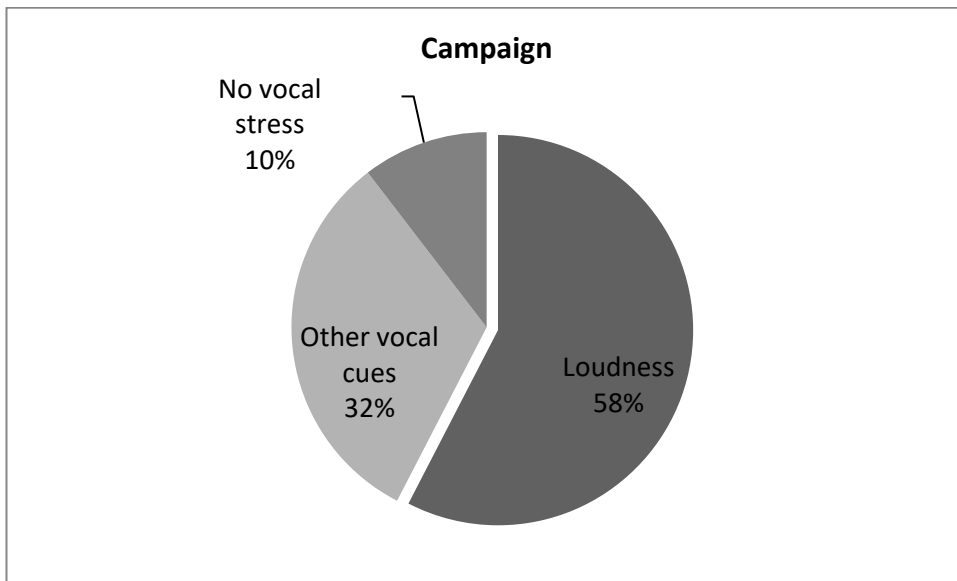


Figure 5.29 Loudness in acceptance speeches

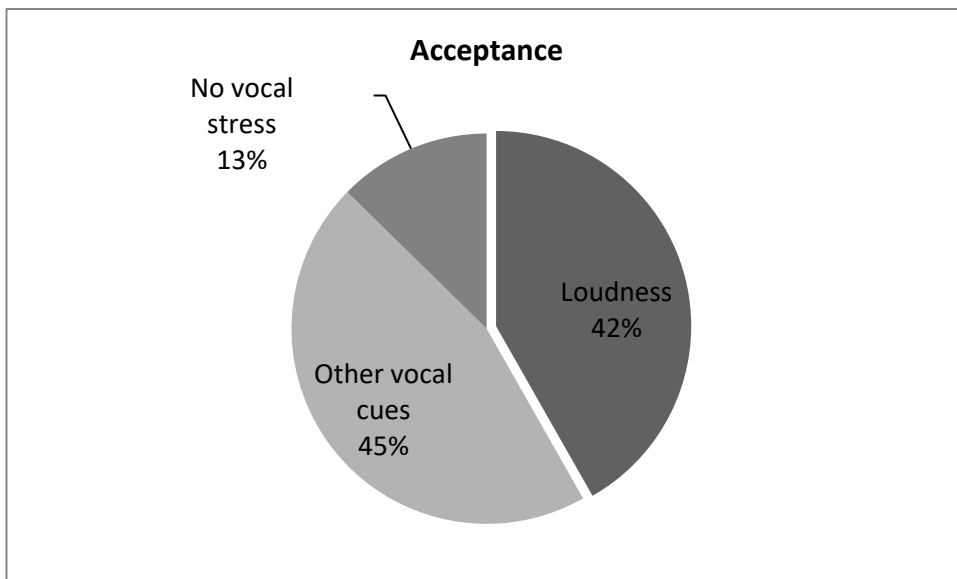
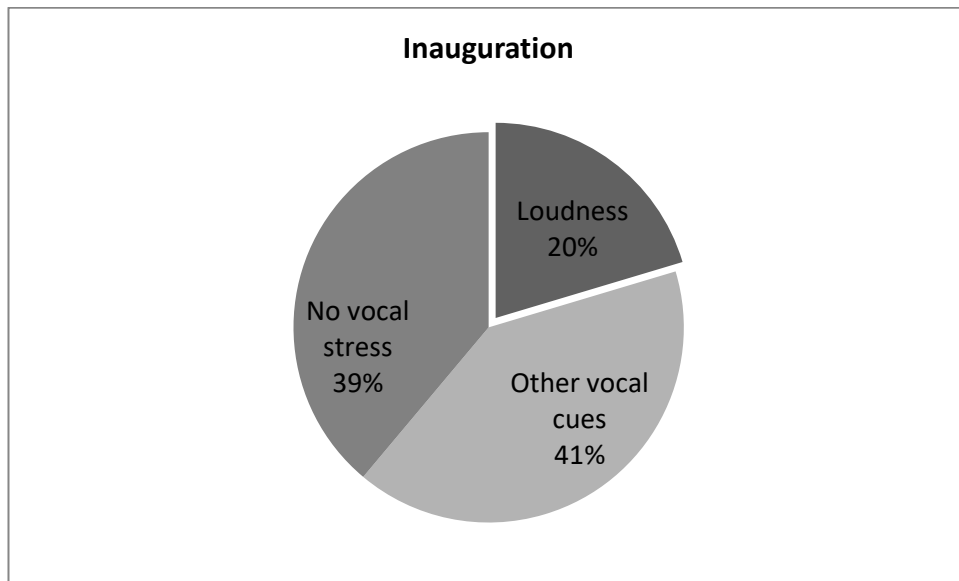


Figure 5.30 Loudness in inauguration speeches



When the nine vocal patterns in the verb unit are grouped into three completion intonations (falling intonation, rising intonation, and flat-falling intonation), the rising intonation was used most frequently in campaign speeches accounting for 48% of the incidents. In contrast to this, in acceptance and inauguration speeches, rising intonation was used infrequently accounting for only 5% and 1%, respectively (Figures 5.31, 5.32, and 5.33). We can therefore order the different speech contexts in the following way: campaign 48% > acceptance 5% > inauguration 1%.

Figure 5.31 Intonation in campaign speeches

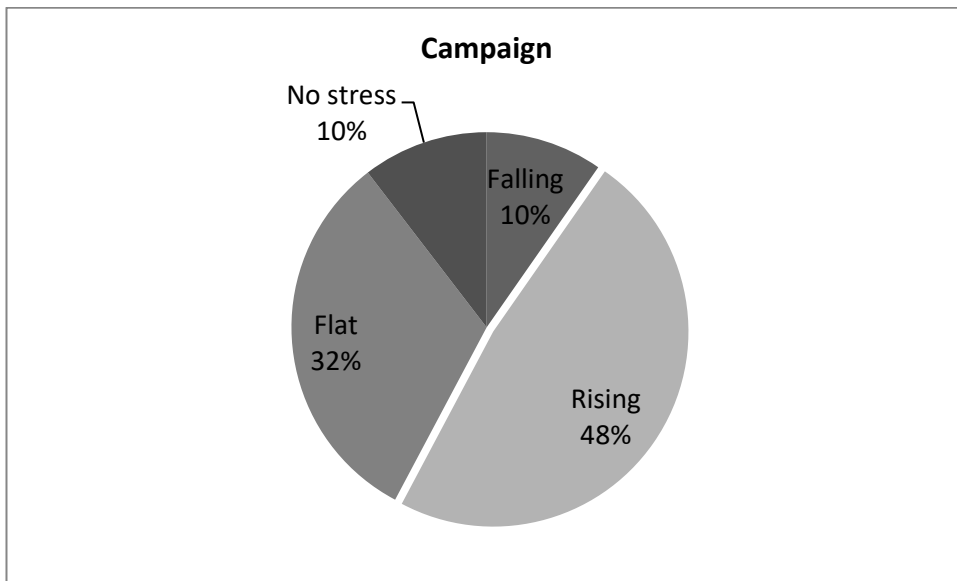


Figure 6.32 Intonation in acceptance speeches

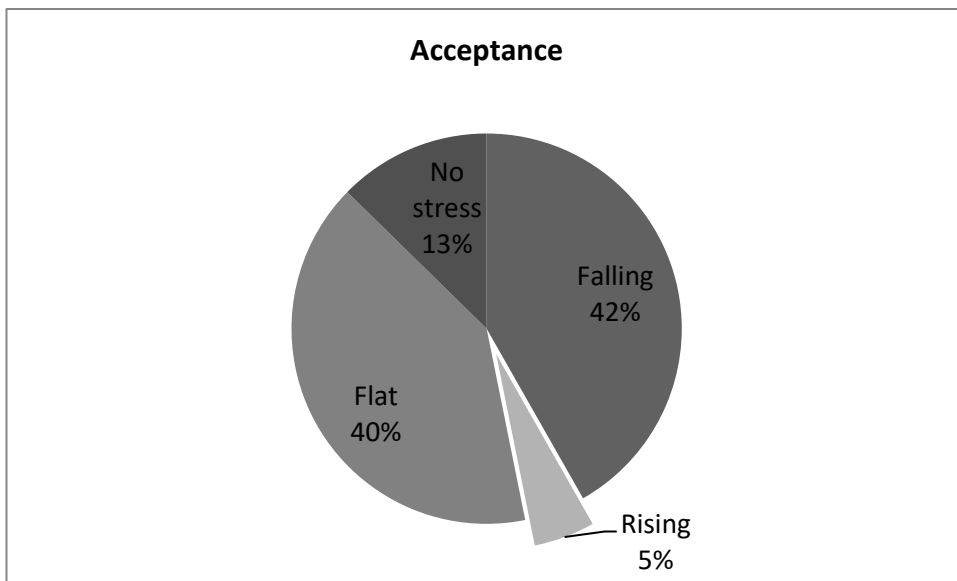
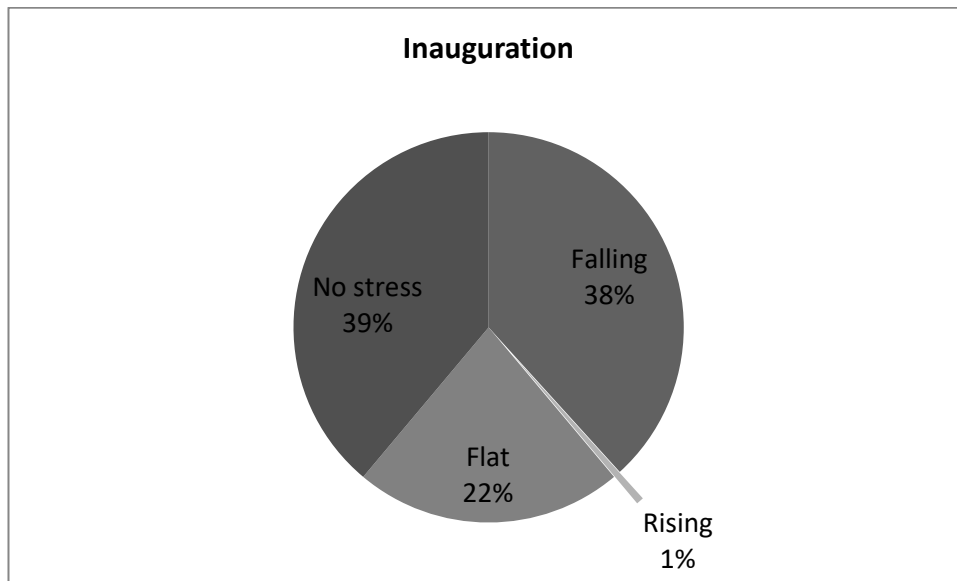


Figure 6.33 Intonation in inauguration speeches



Therefore, the results indicate that although loudness and upward intonation are characteristic vocal behaviour in inviting collective audience response in Korean political oratory, the speakers display distinguishing vocal behaviour in terms of the speech contexts. In inviting audience responses, they deliver the completion units less loudly with falling and flat intonation in formal and ceremonial contexts of acceptance and inauguration speeches. On the other hand, in the competitive and informal context of election campaign speeches, they delivered the completion units more loudly with rising intonation. However, it is common that the use of intonation is closely related with verbal sentence types. As presented in the previous chapter, the speakers use more interrogative sentences (dialogic devices) in the campaign speech context than the other two contexts. Hence, the speakers generally use rising intonation in the question formatted completion units.

The results also show that the use of loudness and flat-falling intonation was closely related to the speech context. In informal and competitive speech contexts (campaign speeches), the speakers use loudness more frequently and falling intonation less frequently than in formal and ceremonial speech contexts (acceptance and inauguration speeches). We can, therefore, order the different speech context in the following way:

loudness campaign 58% > acceptance 42% > inauguration 20%
 falling intonation ↘ campaign 10% < acceptance 13% < inauguration 38%
 rising intonation ↗ campaign 48% > acceptance 5% > inauguration 1%.

Moreover, it is notable that there was an absence of vocal stress in 39% of the total completion units in inauguration speeches. Thus, it can be said that the speakers do not display greater vocal stress in inauguration speeches; however, audience members responded collectively in the absence of the vocal factors.

Table 5.6 below presents a summary of the results. Overall, speakers used emphasis and extension vocal patterns frequently near the completion unit in the three contexts. However, in the completion unit, there were differences in the frequency of the patterns according to the contexts: (1) loudness, extension, and emphasis in acceptance speeches; (2) loudness and extension in campaign speeches; and (3) emphasis and no stress in inauguration speeches. At completion points, they frequently displayed falling intonation and flat intonation in acceptance speeches, rising intonation in campaign speeches, and falling intonation in inauguration speeches.

Table 5.6 Characteristic vocal features near and in completion unit

	Near completion unit	In completion unit	At completion point
Acceptance	<u>emphasis</u>	loudness	falling intonation ↘
	extension:::	extension:::	flat intonation →
Campaign	<u>emphasis</u>	loudness	
	extension:::	extension:::	rising intonation ↗
Inauguration	<u>emphasis</u>	<u>emphasis</u>	falling intonation ↘
	extension:::	no stress	

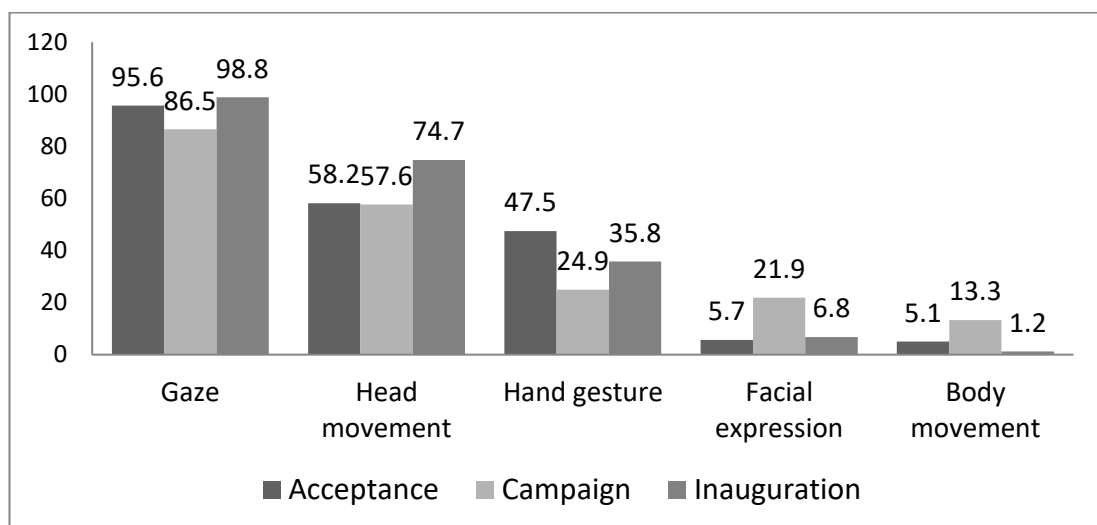
5.4.2 Non-vocal patterns and Coding results

Each of the non-vocal factors near, and at, the completion units in the responded to statements was coded to investigate gesture patterns and characteristic features in

(excluding gaze), head nods occurred most frequently. Hand gestures were a second most frequent factor. Then smiles and body movements were the next frequent factors, respectively. The ordering of the factors can be represented as head movement > hand gesture > smile > body movement.

In gaze behaviour, as discussed in the previous section, there was a close relationship between gaze and the use of Teleprompters. The speakers delivered gaze to audience members nearly 99% of near, or at, the completion units, in inauguration speeches, 95.6% in acceptance speeches, and 86.5% in campaign speeches. All incidents that the speakers did look at the audience members were associated with the looking at the scripts either in reading them or in checking next sentences.

Figure 5.33 The quantitative results of non-vocal behaviour

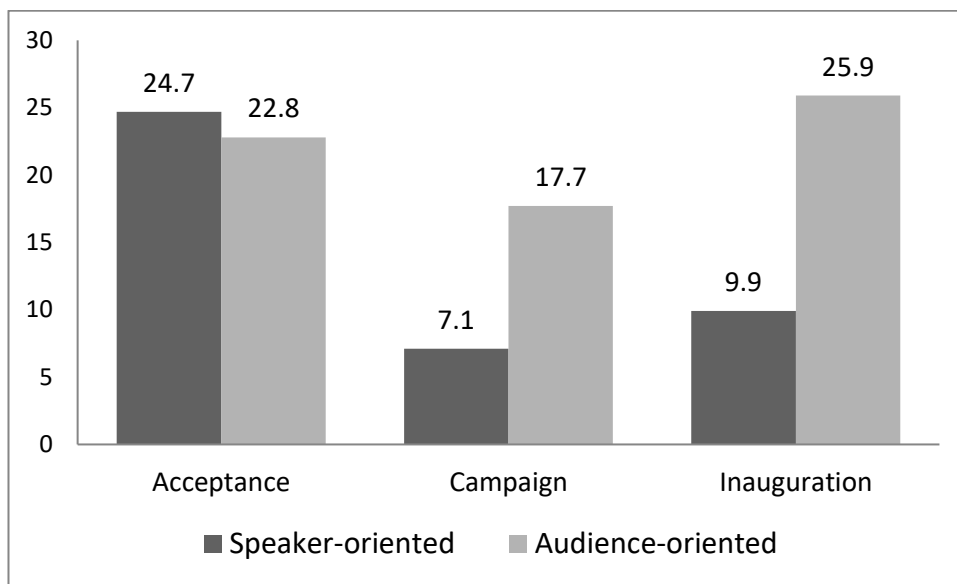


The speakers used head nods more frequently in inauguration speeches than the other two speeches. Head nods were displayed 58.2% in acceptance speeches, 57.6% in campaign speeches, and 74.7% in inauguration, near, or at, the completion units in responded to statements. The speaker used upper body movement infrequently compared to the other factors but more frequently in campaign speeches than the other two speeches. This can be summarised as 5.1% in acceptance, 13.3% in campaign, and 1.2% in inauguration.

In the case of facial expressions (smiles and sadness), while they did not occur frequently compared to hand gestures and head nods, audience members always responded to the speakers when the speakers delivered them near, or at, the end of completion units of their messages. Thus, it appeared that the audience members have a strong reaction to the speakers' facial expressions in speaker-audience interaction. In summary, (1) smile occurred 9 incidents in acceptance, 210 incidents in campaign, and 9 incidents in inauguration (Figure 5.38), and (2) sad expression occurred only 2 incidents in inauguration but not in the other two speech contexts. The speakers displayed smiles in over 5.7% (acceptance speeches) and 6.8% (inauguration speeches) of near or at the completion units of the responded to statements, whereas in campaign speeches they displayed smiles more frequently at 21.9%.

The speakers used hand gestures more frequently in acceptance speeches than the other two speech context. Hand gestures were presented in 47.5% of acceptance speeches, 24.9% of campaign speeches, and 35.8% of inauguration speeches of near or at the completion units in responded to statements. While the results above show the frequency of hand gestures regardless of speaker-oriented gestures or audience-oriented gestures, there were notable differences in the use of the two hand gesture categories. Figure 5.34 below shows the results of the coding. The speakers displayed a similar frequency of speaker-oriented gestures (24.7%) and audience-oriented gestures (22.8%) in acceptance speeches. However, in campaign speeches and inauguration speeches, they displayed audience-oriented hand gestures more frequently than speaker-oriented hand gestures: 7.1% speaker-oriented and 17.7% audience-oriented in campaign speeches, 9.9% speaker-oriented and 25.9% audience-oriented.

Figure 5.34 The quantitative results of speaker-oriented and audience-oriented



The question becomes why the pattern of hand gestures in acceptance speeches is different from campaign and inauguration speeches. It was observed that there were individual differences in nonverbal behaviour in emphasising their statements and inviting audience responses though there was also shared behaviour. Of those non-vocal factors, hand gestures were closely related to individual habits and experience in political oratory. In particular, one of the speakers in acceptance speeches displayed speaker-oriented hand gesture notably often than the other speakers. This was the reason that the pattern of hand gestures in acceptance speeches was different from the other two speech contexts (this issue will be discussed further in Chapter 7).

The quantitative results on non-vocal patterns show that while there were clear differences in the use of vocal factors in generating audience responses between campaign speeches and inauguration speeches, there were no clearly distinguishing features in the non-vocal patterns between the three speech contexts. However, (1) gaze behaviour and head movement were closely related to the use of Teleprompters, (2) speakers used smile and body movement more frequently in campaign speeches than other contexts, (3) there were notable individual differences in the use of hand gesture.

5.5 Full Stress/Intermediate Stress/No Stress

In the above sections, characteristic nonverbal features and contextual differences in the use of nonverbal factors are discussed. In this section, the results of the overall nonverbal factors are discussed by presenting nonverbal stress levels: Full stress/intermediate stress/no stress. The speakers' non-verbal behaviour near, or at, the completion units in the responded to statements were categorised into full stress, intermediate stress, and no stress. Based on the coding in the above section, each of the responded to statement was coded in terms of the three categories.

In the work of British speeches (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986, p. 143), coding of stress was conducted as follows: (1) the presence of two or more nonverbal factors was coded as "full stress", (2) the presence of one nonverbal factor was coded as "intermediate stress", and (3) the statement was coded as "no stress" in the absence of any nonverbal factors. Hence, the coding was conducted without distinguishing between vocal factors and non-vocal factors. However, non-vocal cues such as head nods, hand gestures, and body movements are closely related to vocal stress (Bull, 1986; Bull & Connelly, 1985). For example, hand gestures are generally accompanied by intonation. Moreover, gaze behaviour, as demonstrated in the above section, is closely related to the use of Teleprompters in political oratory. Hence, in this study, more rigorous criteria were applied in coding the stress than the study of the British speeches. The nonverbal factors were categorised into (1) gaze, (2) gesture (hand gestures, head nods, facial expressions, and body movements), and (3) vocal factor (speed, pause, rhythmic shift, and vocal patterns identified in the vocal feature section - loudness, loudness + extension, upward intonation, upward intonation + extension, upward intonation + loudness + extension, emphasis, emphasis + extension, and extension). Focusing on the completion unit and near the unit, the presence of all the three categories was coded as "full stress", whereas the presence of only one category was coded as "intermediate".

For example, in Extract 5.20, the speaker delivers near and at the completion unit of the statement, using all the three nonverbal categories: (1) emphasising each word with slicing and power grip hand gestures (line 5), (2) gazing his right and front sides of the audience members (line 7), and (3) using pauses between each word, loud voice, and extension of vowel at the final ending (line 6). The audience responded to the statement within 0.2 seconds of the completion point with applause + cheers and then chanting (line 11). As the statement is accompanied by vocal cues, hand gesture, and gaze, it is coded as full stress.

[Extract 5.20: Moon JI, sentence 53, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01	Moon:	jeo::	Moon Jaein-i:↑ (0.4)	
02		<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<		
03		l:: -HUM	Name-NOM:↑ (0.4)	
04		<i>l, Moon Jae-in,</i>		
05		r5-s	r5-s	r5-s
06		<u>byeonhwauj::</u> (.) sae	sideae-leul (.)	r-p ≈≈≈≈≈≈≈≈
07		<<<<<<<<<<≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡		<u>yeolges-sseub-nida:::</u>
08		change-GEN:: (.) new	era-OBJ (.)	<u>open-FUT-POL-DC:::</u>
09		<i>will open a new era of change.</i>		
10		(0.2)		
11	Audience:	applause + cheers ((5.9 seconds)) → chanting ((5.5 seconds))		
12		<i>Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in Moon-Jae-in</i>		
13		X	- X X	- X X
				- X X - X 11.4

On the other hand, in Extract 5.21, the speaker delivers the statement with a right-hand slicing gestures, vocal emphasis, a pause, and gazing towards to the audience members in the early stage of the statement (lines 4-7). However, he does not use vocal cues but only gaze and head nods at and near the completion unit of the statement (lines 11-13). Hence, this statement is coded as intermediate stress.

[Extract 5.21: Kim DJ, sentence 92, inauguration speech, 1998]

01	Kim:	gugmin yeoleobun-ui gidae-e (0.3)
02		<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<<
03		nation your-ADN expectations-ADV
04		rh-s rh-s rh-s
05		<u>ba::ndeusi</u> (0.3) bueunghae <u>nae-gess-da-neun</u> geos-eul (0.9)
06		≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡
07		definitely with satisfy-FUT-DC-ATTR that-OBJ
08		jeoneun (.) <u>jasin-eul</u> gaji-go (0.4)
09		≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡
10		I -SUB-HUM (.) <u>confidence</u> -OBJ have-and (0.4)
11		i jalieseo malsseum-deu-lin-eun ba-ib-ni-da.
12		≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡@≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡@≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡
13		this place-ADV state-HON-POL-ATTR thing-POL-DET-DC.
14		<i>I state it here with confidence that I will definitely satisfy your</i>
15		<i>expectations.</i>
16		(0.2)
17	Audience:	applause ((5.1 seconds))

Table 5.7 shows the results of full/intermediate/no stress coding on responded to statements according to the three speech contexts. It clearly demonstrates that performance factors are essential in the generation of the collective audience responses regardless the speech contexts. Except for one statement in an acceptance speech, all responded to statements were delivered with either full stress or intermediate stress in the three speech contexts. In the three contexts, 90% (acceptance), 73% (campaign), and 78% (inauguration) of responded to statements were delivered with full stress: gaze, gesture, and vocal factor. Intermediate stress accounted for 9.5% of acceptance speeches, 26.7% of campaign speeches, and 22.2% of inauguration speeches.

Table 5.7 Full/intermediate/no stress in responded to statements by three speech contexts

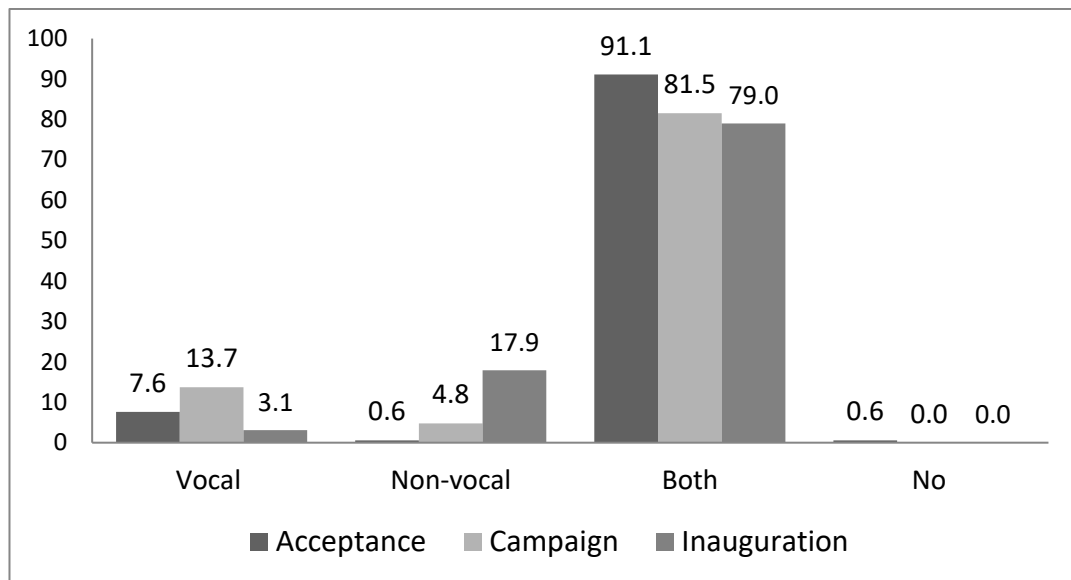
	% (N)		
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration
Full	89.9 (142)	73.3 (401)	77.8 (126)
Intermediate	9.5 (15)	26.7 (146)	22.2 (36)
No	0.6 (1)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)
Total	100.0 (158)	100.0 (547)	100.0 (162)

However, as discussed in the above section, gaze behaviour was closely related to the use of Teleprompters. It appears that gaze behaviour substantially influences the results. In inauguration speeches, except for one speaker, all speakers used Teleprompters. Due to this, except for the one speech, gaze was consistently coded in the non-verbal coding systems in analysing inauguration speeches. On the other hand, in campaign speeches, the speakers delivered most of their speeches without Teleprompters except for two speeches (one of each speech from the speakers), whereas, in acceptance speeches, two speakers used Teleprompters. This may be one of the reasons why the percentage of full stress in inauguration speeches is higher than in campaign speeches although it was observed that vocal cues and hand gestures were more frequently and clearly used in campaign speeches than in inauguration speeches. Hence, in order to examine the use of vocal and non-vocal cues in each context under the even condition, an additional analysis of stress was conducted, excluding gaze behaviour. In this coding, nonverbal behaviour was coded in terms of (1) vocal stress, (2) non-vocal stress, (hand gestures, body movements, head nods, and facial expressions), (3) both vocal and non-vocal stress and (4) no stress.

Figure 5.35 shows the results of these coding. As presented, the speakers used both vocal and non-vocal factors more frequently in acceptance (91.1%) and campaign (81.5%) speech contexts than in inauguration (79.0%) speech context. Interestingly, the speakers used more vocal factors than non-vocal factors in acceptance and

campaign speeches, whereas, in inauguration speeches, they used more non-vocal factors than vocal factors.

Figure 5.35 Vocal and non-vocal behaviour by three speech contexts



It was also observed that vocal behaviour was more effective and crucial than non-vocal behaviour because not all incidents of hand gesture in the upper position generated audience response. Without appropriate vocal factors, the hand gesture did not play a role in generating responses. For example, in Extract 5.22, the speaker delivers two statements: “In this presidential election, our Progressive Justice Party’s first mission is to change the basis of Republic of Korea” (lines 1-20) and “Sim Sang-jeong will be a president who sets the justice of the sweat rightly, everyone” (lines 22-35). In the first statement, she displays a descriptive gesture at “first”, lifting her right index finger, and then holding the gesture until “mission” (lines 7 and 10). Then she transferred the gesture to a pointing gesture during “basic” and holds it until the completion point (lines 11 and 14). However, it seems that she does not intend to invite a response at this point but at next completion point. She delivers the next statement (lines 22-33) with loudness and with an extension of vowel sound, displaying a pointing gesture on each phase rhythmically, and then holding the gesture until the completion point of verb unit. Then she adds “everyone” with loudness and an extension of final vowel sound, while withdrawing

the gesture. Audience response starts at the completion point of the verb unit with applause + cheers (line 36), and overlaps with the additional completion word, “everyone”. Hence, it appears that the hand gesture assisted the action of inviting audience response, but vocal factors played a crucial role in signalling a speaker’s intention to invite a response. It is also possible that while the hand shape has a less specific function in the generation of collective audience responses, the position of the gesture is closely related to the speaker’s intention to generate an audience response and signalling an invitation to respond in Korean political oratory.

[Extract5.22: Sim SJ, sentence 30-31, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01	Sim:	ibeon <u>daeseon</u> -eseo:	(0.7)
02		∨∨∨∨≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡	
03		this president election-P	(0.7)
04		uli jinbo-jeongui-dang-ui	
05		≡∨ ∨∨∨∨<<<<<<<<<<<	
06		our Progressive Justice Party-Gen	
07		~~~~~ r1-n-----	
08		<u>cheos</u> beonjjae immu-neun	(0.7)
09		∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨	
10		first mission- NOM	(0.7)
11		~~~~~ r1-pt -----	
12		daehanmingug-ui:	(0.2) <u>geunbon</u> -eul
13		≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨	
14		Republic of Korea-Gen	(0.2) basic- OBJ
15		-----	
16		bakku-neun <u>geos-ib-ni-da:</u>	
17		∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨∨ ∨∨∨∨∨∨≡≡≡	
18		change-ATTR <u>thing-POL-DET-DC:</u>	
19		In this president election, our Progressive Justice Party’s first	
20		mission is to change the basis of Republic of Korea.	
21		(0.6)	
22		~~~~~r1-pt	r1-pt r1-pt
23		simsangjeong-i: ↑	(0.4) ttam-ui jeongui-leul
24		≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡≡	
25		Sim sang jeong-NOM	(0.4) sweat-ADV justice-OBJ

acceptance and campaign speeches, the speakers used vocal factors more frequently than inauguration speeches, whereas, in the highly formal and ceremonial context of inauguration speeches, they used non-vocal factors more frequently than the other two speech contexts.

There is a limitation in studying cultural differences in the use of each non-verbal factor in the generation of collective audience responses due to the low number of studies in this study area. However, there are three points of similarity and difference in the use of nonverbal factors between Korean, British, and American political oratory. First, in terms of gaze behaviour, it was one of the crucial factors in inviting audience responses in British political speeches (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). In many cases, if a speaker failed to use eye contact with audience members due to reading their messages on their scripts, the number of responses was also reduced. However, in the Korean context, the gaze behaviour was not crucial in inviting responses. Korean audience members responded to the speakers even when they failed to use eye contact with them.

Second, in British speeches, over half and a quarter of rhetorically formatted messages were responded when they were accompanied by full stress and intermediate stress, respectively. Thus, nonverbal factors influenced substantially in the generation of responses. In Korean speeches, except one incidence, all responded messages were accompanied by full stress or intermediate stress. Hence, it is clear that nonverbal factors impinge more importantly on the generation of responses in Korean speeches than in British speeches.

Third, as Streeck (2008, p. 161) observed, candidates Democratic Party primary debate during the presidential campaign in the USA “share a gestural code consisting of a fairly small number of different forms”. He identified four of the most frequently displayed hand gestures in American political speeches: slice, pointing, ring, and power grip. Except for the ring gesture, the three other gestures (slice, pointing, and power grip) displayed in American political speeches were observed in Korean political oratory. However, it is uncertain whether the hand

gestures in the American political speeches play a role in inviting audience responses because the focus of the study was not speaker-audience interaction but a study of the gesture behaviour in delivering political speeches.

This chapter has demonstrated the detailed work in political speech delivery. The results show that delivery plays an important role in signalling an invitation to respond in Korean political oratory. However, it is not entirely clear whether there is a relationship between rhetorical devices and the use of nonverbal factors in generating collective audience responses in Korean political oratory. Hence, in the next chapter, this relationship will be investigated: (1) the relationship between three verbal categories (rhetorical devices, dialogical devices, and content) and the use of nonverbal factors, (2) systematic and detailed interaction between the speakers and audience members. In so doing, the thesis will ask whether rhetorical devices play as important a role in Korean political oratory as they do in British and American political oratory and whether speech delivery plays a more important role than rhetorical devices.

Chapter 6

Interaction: Invitation to Respond by Rhetorical devices or Nonverbal Factors?

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapters, audience behaviour and speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviours have been explored. In Chapter 4 (speaker's verbal behaviour), it was shown that Korean speakers used rhetorical devices and content more frequently than dialogic devices in acceptance and inauguration speeches, while they used dialogic devices more frequently than the two verbal categories in campaign speeches.

In Japanese speeches, over 70% of audience responses were associated with dialogic devices (greeting, appreciation, request agreement, joke or humour, and asking for support or cooperation) (Bull & Feldman, 2011; Feldman & Bull, 2012). Although the speech delivery dimensions were not investigated in the Japanese speeches, it is understandable that Japanese audience members responded to the dialogic devices because they are natural interaction formats (i.e., question-answer, greeting-greeting, request-accept or reject, and appreciation-acknowledgement) which generally expect responses in social interaction.

However, in the Korean speeches, over 70% of the audience responses are associated with implicit verbal categories (rhetorical devices and content) in acceptance (75%) and inauguration (79%) speeches. In the previous chapter, it was shown that: (1) the use of nonverbal factors in verb units (completion units) is crucial in generating audience responses; (2) there are characteristic nonverbal patterns in the completion units; and (3) the speakers deliver over 70% of the responded to statements (90% in acceptance, 73% in campaign, and 78% in inauguration) with full stress. As defined in the previous chapter, full stress is the presence of all three nonverbal categories (i.e., gaze, gesture, and vocal factors) near or at the completion points when generating responses.

The results showed that speech delivery is an important component in generating audience responses in Korean political speeches. Consequently, it is uncertain whether the rhetorical devices, in fact, played a role in inviting responses or not, and to what extent the rhetorical devices, content, and speech delivery assisted in the generation of audience responses in Korean political speeches. This chapter examines this question: whether the traditional rhetorical devices play a role in signalling an invitation to respond or whether delivery is a more crucial component than the rhetorical devices in generating collective audience responses in Korean political oratory.

The question will be examined through four analysis dimensions: invited and uninvited responses, synchronous and asynchronous responses, burst and staggered responses, and the relationship between the use of verbal devices and speech delivery. Through the analysis dimensions, three argument points are studied: (1) the functions of rhetorical devices in generating collective audience responses in Korean oratory, (2) turn-taking systems, and (3) the relationship between the function of rhetorical devices and grammatical ordering.

The results and analysis dimensions will be demonstrated by integrating the detailed interaction systems and the results from the previous chapters. Based on the results and previous studies, the cultural differences in speaker-audience turn-taking systems and the function of rhetorical devices will be discussed. Then it will be argued that: (1) speech delivery is a crucial resource for generating collective audience responses in Korean political oratory; (2) speech content, lexical choice, and turn design also play substantial roles in the interaction; and (3) there is a relationship between the effectiveness of rhetorical devices and grammatical ordering between English and Korean languages - English is a SVO language (Subject-Verb-Object grammatical order), Korean and Japanese are SOV languages with honorifics (Subject-Object-Verb grammatical order).

6.1.1 Background on the relationship between rhetorical devices and speech delivery

Studies of British political speeches show that appropriate nonverbal factors reinforce rhetorical formats and increase the chance of rhetorical devices receiving a response (Atkinson, 1984a; Bull & Wells, 2002; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). For example, in the use of a three-part list, a speaker uses raising intonation for the first and second items, and falling intonation for the third item, marks out first/second items and third item with differentiated hand gestures, or the speaker uses hand gestures to mark out each item of the list (see Chapter 2 for examples). In the use of a contrast, a speaker illustrates one part of the contrast with one hand, the other part of the contrast with the other hand (Bull, 1986). Notably, the influence of nonverbal factors on audience responses was higher on the lists than contrasts (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986).

Bull and Wells (2002) viewed the function of delivery as not only emphasising statements but also indicating a speaker's intention to generate responses. They divided audience responses into invited and uninvited responses. Invited responses occur in rhetorically formatted statements and invitations by the speaker, whereas uninvited responses occur in the absence of both the rhetorical formats and the speaker's invitation. They suggested that rhetorical devices are insufficient in the evaluation of the speaker's intention to issue the invitation to respond but speech delivery plays a crucial role in evaluating it. Moreover, audience members always responded to the speakers when speakers invited audience responses using rhetorical devices accompanied by nonverbal factors. Thus, they argued that speech delivery plays a more important role in generating audience responses than proposed by Atkinson (1984a) and Heritage and Greatbatch (1986). It is noted that Heritage and Greatbatch also found that speech delivery played a substantial role in generating audience responses. They observed that the speaker was definitely seeking a response when they used nonverbal cues. However, their focus was primarily on rhetorical devices rather than speech delivery in their studies.

Synchrony and asynchrony are identified by whether an audience response occurs at an appropriate point of a message without delay and without interrupting the speaker (Bull & Wells, 2002). Audience members can coordinate their collective actions by independent decision-making or mutual monitoring (Clayman, 1993). Independent decision-making, in which individual audience members respond to the speaker independently of one another, typically generates a burst response. It occurs collectively and immediately after the speaker's completion point and then quickly builds to maximum intensity. On the other hand, mutual monitoring, in which few audience members initiate a response and others join to the response, results in a staggered response (Clayman, 1993).

Detailed analysis of speaker-audience turn-taking in British speeches showed that most applause is generally initiated within 0.3 seconds of the completion point of the speaker's statement (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Applause also was hardly delayed more than a second after a completion point of a rhetorically formatted statement (Atkinson, 1984a). Thus, speech and audience response were highly synchronised; moreover, rhetorically well-formatted statements generated a burst of responses rather than staggered responses (Atkinson, 1984a). However, further studies showed that only a mean of 61% (Bull & Noordhuizen, 2000) and 66% (Bull & Wells, 2002) of applause incidents were fully synchronised with speech. Notably, the staggered responses typically occurred in responding to non-rhetorically formatted statements (Bull, 2000).

Overall, the previous studies of British political speeches show that: (1) there are close relationships between the use of rhetorical devices and nonverbal factors; (2) nonverbal factors reinforce the rhetorical format and also display a speaker's intention to generate an audience response; (3) although a speech is rhetorically well structured, generating collective audience responses can succeed when a speaker employs effective nonverbal techniques; (4) the rhetorical devices alone may be insufficient in evaluating whether or not a speaker seeks a response; (5) synchronous/asynchronous and burst/staggered responses are related to the use of rhetorical devices. The studies also show that the relationship between rhetorical

devices and speech delivery in generating audience responses can be studied through the three analysis dimensions: invited/uninvited responses, synchronous/asynchronous responses, and burst/staggered.

As presented in the previous chapters, there were contextual and cultural differences in audience responses and the use of rhetorical categories. The relationship between the use of rhetorical devices and nonverbal factors in generating audience responses has been studied in British political party conference speeches but not in other political speech contexts and other cultures. Therefore, it is uncertain whether there are cultural differences in the relationships. Are there cultural differences in delivering the rhetorical devices? The main function of rhetorical devices in British speeches is anticipation of an invitation to respond and anticipation of a completion point of a speaker's turn. Does the function of the devices play the same roles in Korean political speeches? What results in synchronous and asynchronous responses in Korean political speeches? What results in burst and staggered responses in Korean political speeches? The aim of this chapter is to investigate these questions by conducting a detailed analysis of the interaction dimensions addressed above.

Investigating the relationship between the nonverbal factors and verbal devices in delivering the speeches will contribute to the examination of the major questions of this chapter and speak to the cultural differences in the effectiveness of verbal and nonverbal factors in speaker-audience turn taking systems. It also aims to demonstrate systematic interaction procedures, by integrating the results from the previous chapters. Focusing on the generation of responses, their production and their coordination with the speech will be examined. In addition, the inductive analysis of the burst and staggered responses may give us further opportunity to study how Korean political leaders use practical techniques to generate bursts of collective audience responses.

6.1.2 Research questions

- Do traditional rhetorical devices play an important role in Korean political speeches? Is the function of rhetorical devices in Korean speeches the same as in English political speeches?
- To what extent do verbal devices and speech delivery play a role in generating collective audience responses in Korean political speeches?
- What leads to synchronous and asynchronous responses in Korean political speeches?
- What leads to burst and staggered responses in Korean political speeches?

6.2 Analytic Procedure

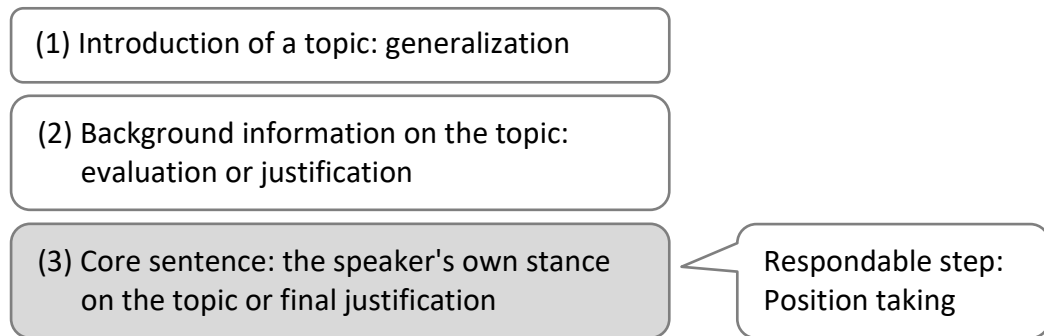
(1) Based on annotations and coding of the speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviours from the previous chapters and watching the videos, each response was coded in terms of invited/uninvited response. (2) Based on the detailed analysis of interaction between speaker and audience, each response occurrence was coded in terms of synchrony or asynchrony. (3) Then each synchronous response was coded as a burst or staggered response. (4) Qualitative and quantitative assessments of each analysis dimension were conducted. (5) In analysing the relationship between verbal devices and speech delivery, each responded to statement was examined by annotating the use of nonverbal factors in each part or item of rhetorical device and content. In so doing, a speaker's emphasis and intention to deliver verbal devices, content, and lexical choice were examined. (6) In order to compare the cultural differences in similar speech contexts between British and Korean data sets, acceptance speeches were analysed in depth. It is noted that responses which were not available in observing the speaker's non-vocal behaviours (gaze and gestures) due to the camera angle (which was to audience members) were excluded. Thus, the total number of response incidents is smaller than the analyses in Chapters 3 and 4. The results of qualitative and quantitative assessments are presented and discussed in the next sections.

6.3 Invited and Uninvited Responses

In assessing invited and uninvited responses, five factors are considered: verbal devices, speech delivery, content, message structure, and a speaker's intention to continue or not to continue next sentence. (1) Verbal devices include both rhetorical devices and dialogic devices: contrasts, three parts lists, puzzle-solutions, headline-punchlines, combinations, position-takings, pursuits, and namings; greeting/salutations, expressing appreciation, request agreement/asking for confirmation, jokes/humour, and asking for support. (2) Speech delivery is assessed by the speaker's nonverbal behaviour in emphasising his or her messages and signalling invitation to respond. (3) The speaker's intention to generate responses is assessed by observing the speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour in delivering each message, and also the distance between a completion point of a sentence and the beginning of a next sentence. If the speaker pauses with his or her mouth closed, expecting an audience response and not resuming the next sentence, this is judged as invited. On the other hand, if the speaker visibly takes in another breath or opens his or her mouth to continue the next sentence or continues gesturing, it is judged that the speaker does not intend to generate a response but to continue to the next sentence. Thus, the response, in this case, would not be judged as invited. (4) Speech content and its structure are assessed by whether a sentence is a responsible step in a topic or not. The speech content includes message types identified in chapter 4: policy, oath, identity/values/beliefs, problem and mission, vision, external attacks, in-group praise, proposal to opponents, speech atmosphere, victory assurance, encouragement, acceptance, social justice, declare new era, and campaign episode. The responsible step is assessed by examining the structure of a topic. Heritage and Greatbatch (1986) suggest that political messages in a party conference are constructed through a series of steps and shaping into a core sentence. For example, in Diagram 6.1 below, a message consists of three steps. In step 1, a speaker introduces a topic. In step 2, the speaker provides background information on the topic and an evaluation of an issue. Then in step 3, the speaker delivers a core message which is the speaker's stance on the topic. The core message is the responsible step by audience members, where the speaker reveals

his or her intention to generate an audience response so that the core message is supported or agreed on by the audience members. The structure which is identified in the British data is also identified in the Korean data.

Diagram 6.1 Structure of a message in British speeches



However, as the speech context is different between the British data and Korean data, other structures are also found. The Korean speakers delivered their pledges in the three speech contexts. As shown in Diagram 6.2 below, they often displayed a main pledge in the opening step which is an introduction step of a topic in the British data, then delivered sub pledges or a description of the pledge (Diagram 6.2). In this structure, audience members responded to the opening step when the pledge was popular. The speakers also added his or her willingness to achieve the pledge after the description (Diagram 6.3). In this structure, responses occurred both to the opening pledge (step 1) and the willingness to achieve the pledge (step 3).

Diagram 6.2 Message structure 1

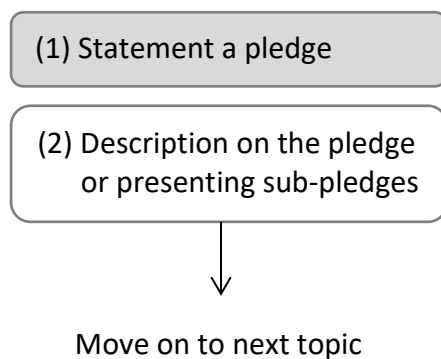
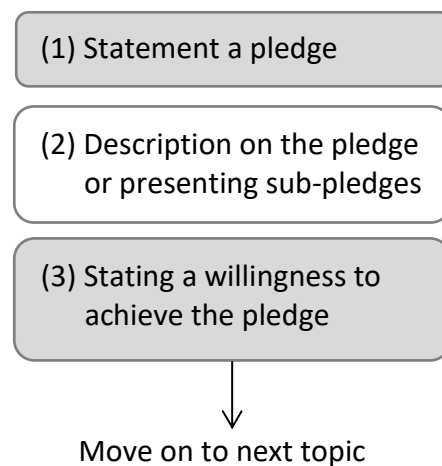


Diagram 6.3 Message structure 2



The other structure (Diagram 6.4) was that the speakers (1) introduced a topic in the first step, and (2) built an evaluation or justification stage through a series of question-answer formats at the second step, interacting with audience members in order to receive agreement from the audience members on the speaker's evaluation of their opponents, and then they (3) delivered a core message at the third step. In this case, multiple responses occurred in the second step and the speaker also invited a response at the core message step. Thus, this structure shows that speaker-audience turn-taking is organised by collaboration between the speaker and audience members in step 2 toward the core message. This structure was identified particularly in campaign speeches.

Diagram 6.4 Message structure 3

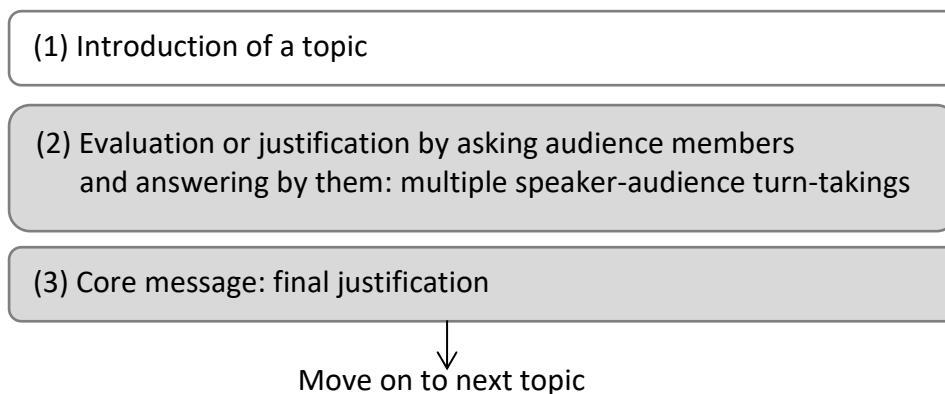
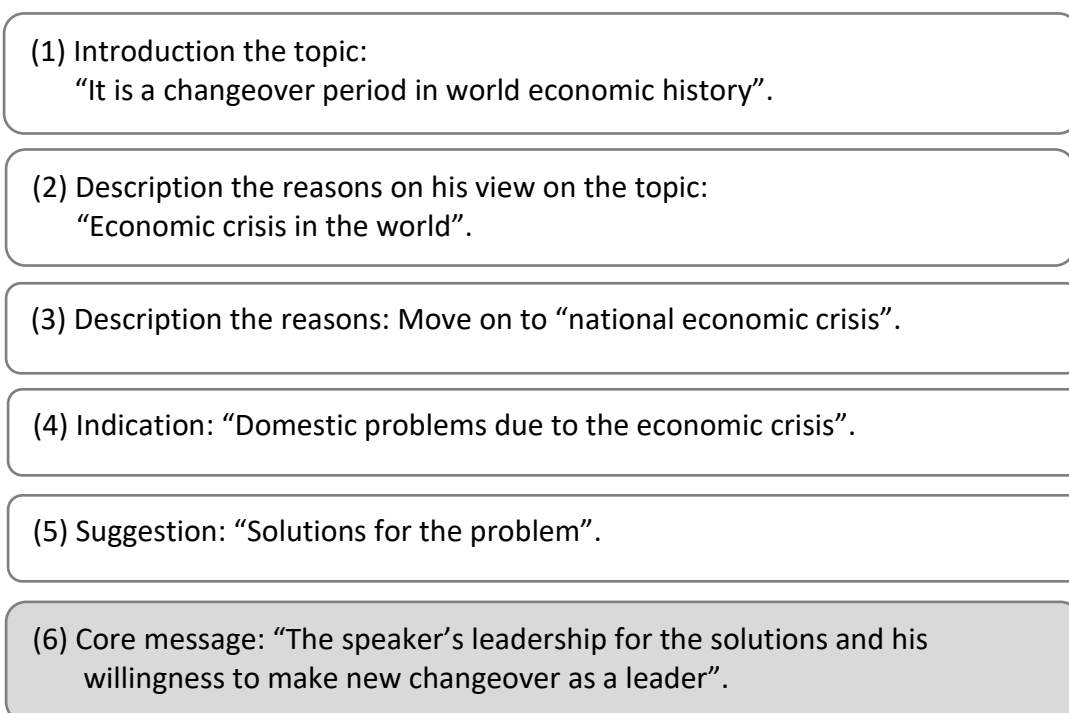


Diagram 6.5 below shows a topic consisting of six steps. The following Extract 6.1 shows examples of invited and uninvited responses. The extract is a core message of a topic. Prior to the core message, the speaker has delivered the five steps (1-5) of the topic (Diagram 6.5). The core message (6, in grey, Extract 6.1 below) consists of three sentences and is formatted with a three-part list (three statements), repetition, and naming: "I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity. I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change."

Diagram 6.5 A topic consisted six steps



In the Extract 6.1 (the step 6, core message) below, due to the speaker’s nonverbal factors in the completion units of the three sentences, it is clear that the speaker’s intention is to generate a response at the completion point of the third sentence. The speaker delivers the first sentence (lines 1-8), emphasising each word (lines 2 and 5), “communication, solidarity, and leadership,” using hand gestures (line 1), a head nod (line 6), and gazing (lines 3 and 6) in each direction of the audience members to his right (<<), front (==), and left (>>) sides before the completion unit, but he does not produce characteristic vocal cues and gestures in the completion unit (lines 5 and 7). The speaker pauses for 1.2 seconds (line 9) at the end of the first sentence but his nonverbal behaviours in the completion unit indicate that he is not intending to generate a response. Although he does not invite a response, audience response occurs to the first sentence (line 10). Due to the absence of characteristic nonverbal signalling of invitation in the completion unit, the response is delayed for 1.2 seconds. The delayed response also results in the overlapping of the response and the whole next sentence of the speaker (lines

12-18) for 4.8 seconds until the response dies down. As the response is not invited by the speaker but initiated by the audience members, it is coded as uninvited.

In this case, it can be presumed that: (1) the audience members judge the first sentence as a core message because, at that step, they do not know that the core message consists of three sentences, hence, the audience members may respond to the speech content; or (2) due to the speaker pauses, the audience members judge that he is completed his message and seeking a response.

In the third sentence (lines 21-29), the speaker is intending to generate a response. Thus, he emphasises the sentence, stating his name using upward pitch (line 23), the next words “change” (line 28) using a right hand open palm gesture (line 25) and extension of the vowel sound, and then delivers the completion unit with a power grip hand gesture, loud voice, and vowel extension at the completion point (lines 25-26). As he shows a clear intention to generate a response using both verbal and nonverbal factors, the audience response occurs immediately after the completion point (in 0.2 seconds, lines 30-31). The response is coded as invited.

In coding invited and uninvited responses, the use of a three-part list was insufficient to code it as the speaker’s intention to generate responses (this issue will be discussed further in section 6.5). In particular, a three-part list, which is formatted with three sentences, may not play an effective role in generating collective audience responses without appropriate nonverbal factors, because there is not an indication that the first sentence is a part of a three-part list. Thus, the audience members do not recognise that a list is in progress in the first sentence.

In Extract 6.2 below, a three-part list (line 1: “peace, prosperity, take-off”) is displayed at the beginning of the core message. Although the speaker delivers the three items using rhythmic shifts and a pause between items, it is not clear whether he invites a response or not at the three-part list. However, asking for cooperation in the end of the sentence (lines 10 and 12: “let’s all join together”) and vocal factors (loudness, pause, extension, and speed down) indicate clearly that he is seeking a response. Hence, the response is coded as invited.

Overall, in coding invited and uninvited responses, (1) rhetorical devices were insufficient in the evaluation of the speaker's intention to issue an invitation to respond but delivery plays a crucial role in evaluating it. Moreover, (2) audience members responded to the statements regardless of the use of rhetorical devices when speakers invited audience responses using nonverbal factors. (3) In the case of dialogic devices, as they are generally formatted as question-answer, the devices were sufficient in the evaluation of the speaker's intention. (4) A speaker's intention to continue or not to continue to the next sentence played an important role in evaluating whether a response was invited or uninvited.

Table 6.2 below presents the relationship between invitationality and speaker's intention to continue to the next sentence or their expectations of a response. The speaker's behaviour was categorised as resulting in either invited responses or uninvited responses regardless of the speech context: for examples, (1) seen when they continued to next sentence without waiting for a response, (2) produced a sufficient pause after completion, or (3) showed their expectation of a response in other way. The results indicate clearly that the Korean speakers pause prior to delivering the next sentence when they intended to generate responses. In 99.4% of the invited responses, they paused at the completion point of their statements, to show they expected responses. On the other hand, in nearly two-thirds of uninvited responses (65.5%), they continued to deliver the next message without a sufficient pause or by waiting for a response.

Table 6.2 Invitationality and speaker's behaviour

	% (N)		
	Continued	Paused	Total
Invited	0.6 (4)	99.4 (692)	100.0 (696)
Uninvited	65.5 (57)	34.5 (30)	100.0 (87)

In the relationship between the use of nonverbal factors and invitationality (Table 6.3), the speakers invited most of the responses using full stress (81.5%). Notably, in uninvited responses, the speakers also used full stress substantially (62.1%). This

interaction shows that Korean audience members regard the speaker's nonverbal factors as important resources when determining whether to respond to the speaker. They responded to the uninvited statements where the speaker delivered the statements with full stress.

Table 6.3 Invitability and nonverbal stress

	% (N)			Total
	Full	Intermediate	No	
Invited	81.5 (567)	18.5 (129)	0.0 (0)	100.0 (696)
Uninvited	62.1 (54)	37.9 (33)	0.0 (0)	100.0 (87)

Table 6.4, below, shows the relationship between invitability and verbal categories in acceptance speeches. According to the results in Chapter 4, rhetorical devices (36.9%) and content (38.1%) accounted for a similar proportion of total responses to statements in acceptance speeches. Hence, in order to examine whether rhetorical devices were used more in invited responses than uninvited responses, the acceptance speeches were analysed. As shown, there was no substantial difference between the two verbal categories. 25.3% responses were invited by the speakers using rhetorical devices. 26.6% of responses were also invited by the speaker without using rhetorical devices and dialogic devices but speech content.

Table 6.4 Invitability and verbal categories in acceptance speeches

	% (n)			Total
	Rhetoric	Dialogic	Content	
Invited	25.3 (40)	17.1 (27)	26.6 (42)	69.0 (109)
Uninvited	5.7 (9)	3.8 (6)	5.1 (8)	14.6 (23)
Ambiguous	5.7 (9)	3.8 (6)	7.0 (11)	16.5 (26)
Total	36.7 (58)	24.7 (39)	38.6 (61)	100.0 (158)

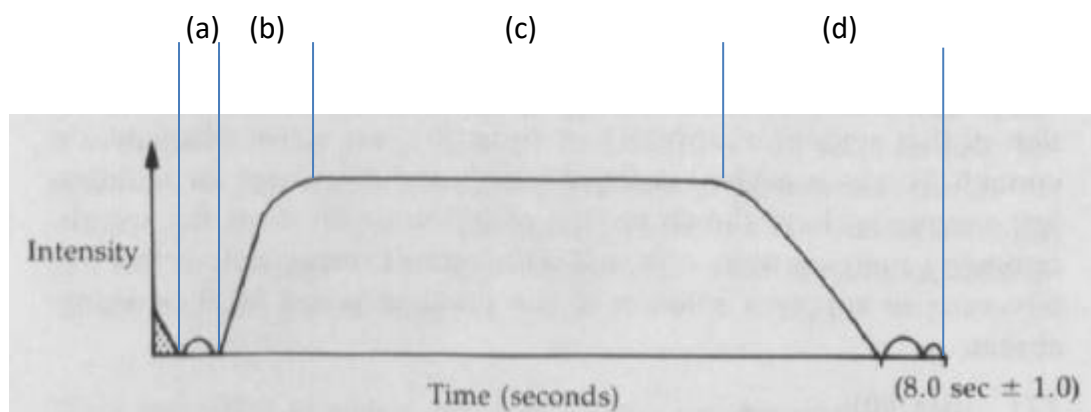
The coding process and results show that not only nonverbal factors but also a speaker's intention to continue to the next sentence or to pause for an audience

response were important resources in judging invitationality. Particularly, the Table 6.3 above shows that audience members treat the nonverbal factors as important resources in decoding the speaker's intention. Audience members responded to substantial instances of uninvited statements due to the use of full stress. Moreover, Table 6.4 above shows that Korean speakers do not have a tendency to use more rhetorical devices than other verbal resources (dialogic devices and speech content) in inviting audience responses.

6.4 Synchrony and Asynchrony

This section draws detailed turn-taking behaviour between speaker and audience by investigating the synchrony and asynchrony dimension. Figure 6.1 (Atkinson, 1985b, p. 373) shows applause intensity and duration in British data. (a) - (d) indicate units of applause. (a) Most of the applause instances were initiated within 0.3 seconds of the completion point of a statement (Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). In the case of a burst of applause, (b) it typically reached maximum intensity quickly after the initiation, (c) it kept the maximum intensity, or slightly declined, for five seconds, (d) then, it declined and died away (Atkinson, 1985b). The duration of the applause lasted for seven, eight, or nine seconds.

Figure 6.1 Applause intensity and duration



However, as demonstrated in Chapter 3, there are various response forms in the Korean data. Table 6.5 below shows average duration of each response form

regardless of speech contexts. As defined in Chapter 3, non-sequential responses refer to a response with either unitary response form or composite response form, while sequential responses refer to a response that audience members display one form of response then extended their turn by shifting to another form of response (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.2). Overall, the duration of non-sequential responses (1.5 – 7.4 seconds) was shorter than sequential responses (9.6 – 13.6 seconds). It was observed that the sound pattern of applause (Figure 6.1, initiated →reached maximum intensity → maintained → declined → died away) in the British data was found in applause and applause + cheers. However, the duration of responses was shorter than the results in the British data: applause was 5.7 seconds on average and applause + cheers was 6.6 seconds. Verbal responses showed the shortest duration because most of the verbal responses were “Yes” or “No”. Except for verbal responses, all of the forms showed the basic sound pattern though duration and initiation time varied in terms of the particular form.

Table 6.5 Average response duration by response form

Form		Duration (second)
Non-sequential	Chanting	7.4
	Applause + cheers	6.6
	Applause	5.7
	Cheers + verbal	2.7
	Cheers	2.3
	Laughter	1.5
	Verbal response	1.5
Sequential	Applause + cheers → chanting → various	13.6
	Applause + cheers → chanting	13.4
	Cheers → chanting	10.9
	Applause + cheers → various	10.1
	Verbal response → various	9.6

In sequential responses, the basic sound pattern appeared in the first response form, and then the response form was transferred to the next response form in the declining level of the first response form and before dying away. Hence, “applause + cheers → chanting → various” sequential response, which consists of three response forms, showed the longest duration. In the case of chanting, it was

initiated by a few people and reached the maximum intensity when other audience members joined in the chanting. In the case of chanting in the sequential response, it generally occurred in the second action. Consequently, the initiation was normally overlapped with the first response form, and then reached the maximum intensity. As chanting occurred when audience members were enthusiastic about the speaker and statements, it finally died away when the speaker resumed the next sentence.

Based on Atkinson's figure (Atkinson, 1985b) of four levels of applause production (a-d), and Bull and Wells' criteria (2002), each audience response was coded as synchronous or asynchronous. A response was coded as asynchronous:

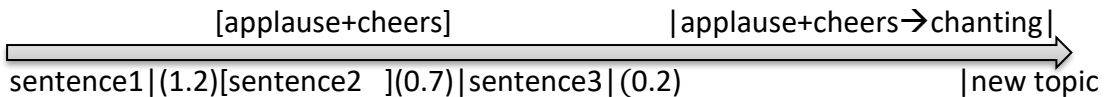
- (1) If it occurred at a point which was not the completion point of the speaker's statement. This was also coded as *audience interruption*.
- (2) If it was delayed (at least 1 second) after the completion point of the speaker's statement.
- (3) If the audience members started to respond at a completion point, but the speaker continued to the next statement without yielding the turn. This occurred at level b in Figure 6.1.
- (4) If the audience members started to respond at a completion point and reached maximum intensity, but the speaker resumed the next statement at the level c before declining to level d. This was also coded as *speaker interruption*.
- (5) If the response was isolated (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.2).

In addition, if the speaker resumed the next sentence during intensity decline (level d), the speaker and audience turns were overlapped. However, this was not coded as asynchronous and speaker interruption because the speaker took his or her turn when the response was dying away.

As explained in the section above (Extract 6.1), the speaker receives two responses: an uninvited response to the first sentence in a three-part list (line 10) and an invited response to the third sentence (line 31). Figure 6.2 below shows the turn-taking production of the extract.

Figure 6.2 Turn-taking productions in Extract 6.1

Audience turn



Speaker's turn

In the Extract 6.1, the first response (applause + cheers) to the first sentence is initiated after 1.2 seconds. Thus, it is delayed and coded as an asynchronous response. When the response is initiated, the speaker also continues to sentence 2. As a result, the audience response and the speaker's sentence 2 overlap. As the speaker is continuing to the next sentence without turn yielding, the response does not last for long and dies down in 4.8 seconds which is a short duration compared to other applause + cheers incidents. Finally, in sentence 3, the speaker invites a response with clear nonverbal signals and the audience members respond to him immediately after the completion point of the sentence. As the response occurs after 0.2 seconds, it is coded as a synchronous response. The response lasts for 11.4 seconds. When the response dies down (level d), the speaker starts a new topic by naming the audience.

Table 6.6 shows the audience turn-taking behaviour according to the three speech contexts. In the three contexts, 93.7% (acceptance), 97.3% (campaign), and 80.2% (inauguration) of audience responses occurred within 1 second of the speakers' completion points. In acceptance and inauguration speeches respectively, 6.3% and 19.8% of responses were delayed. In campaign speeches, there was an absence of delayed responses, but audience members interrupted the speakers on 15 occasions (2.7%), while there was an absence of audience interruptions in acceptance and inauguration speeches. Thus, an average of 90.4% of audience

responses was synchronous and only 9.6% of responses were asynchronous with the speakers' statements in collective audience responses in the data.

Table 6.6 Audience turn-taking behaviour in collective response

	% (N)			Mean
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration	
No delayed	93.7 (148)	97.3 (532)	80.2 (130)	90.4
Delayed	6.3 (10)	0.0 (0)	19.8 (32)	8.7
Interrupted	0.0 (0)	2.7 (15)	0.0 (0)	0.9
Total	100.0 (158)	100.0 (547)	100.0 (162)	100.0

When isolated responses (presented in Chapter 3) were included in the asynchronous response, an average of 85.8% of audience responses was synchronous and 14.2% of responses were asynchronous to the statements of the speakers in the data (table 6.7 below).

Table 6.7 Overall audience turn-taking behaviour including isolated responses

	% (n)			Mean
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration	
Synchronous	89.2 (148)	89.0 (532)	79.3 (130)	85.8
Asynchronous	10.8 (18)	11.0 (66)	20.7 (34)	14.2
Total	100.0 (166)	100.0 (598)	100.0 (164)	100.0

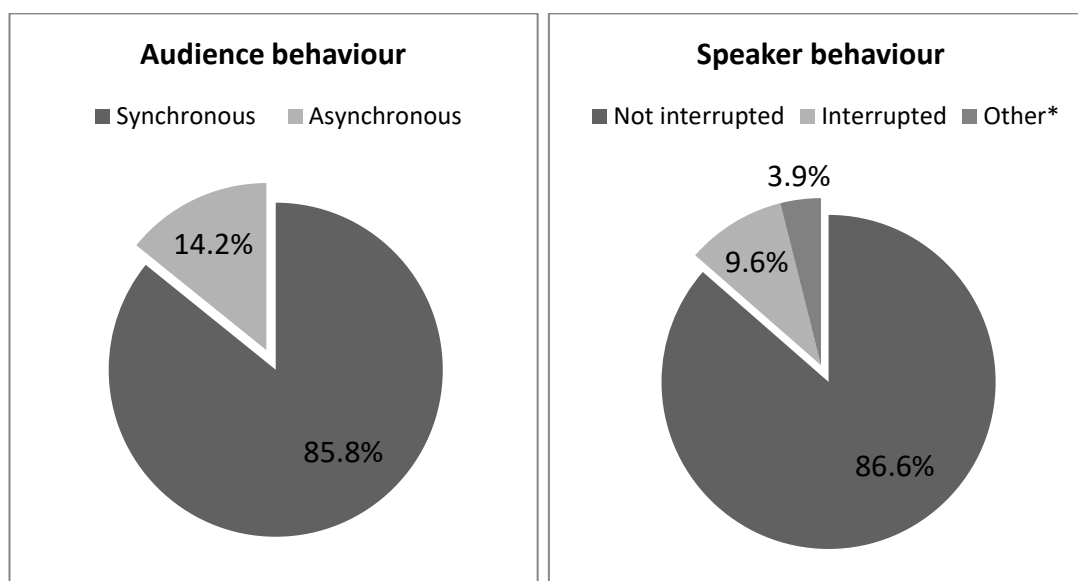
On the other hand, in speaker turn-taking behaviour, as shown in Table 6.8 below, the speakers generally resume their next sentences at the decline and dying down level (Mean 34.8%) and at, or after, the completion of responses (Mean 51.8%). On average, 86.6% of speaker's turns occurred at those points. There were incidents when the speakers interrupted the audience turns, however, these incidents accounted for only 9.6% of the data.

Table 6.8 Speaker turn-taking behaviour

	% (N)			
	Acceptance	Campaign	Inauguration	Mean
At decline level	46.8 (74)	21.9 (122)	35.8 (59)	34.8
At or after completion	35.4 (56)	69.5 (388)	50.3 (83)	51.8
Interrupted	13.9 (22)	3.2 (18)	11.5 (19)	9.6
Other	3.8 (6)	5.4 (30)	2.4 (4)	3.9
Total	100.0 (158)	100.0 (588)	100.0 (165)	100.0

Uninvited Incidents, where the speakers did not invite responses and resumed the next sentences, but where responses occurred, were not coded as speaker interruption but as *Other*. These responses were typically delayed. Consequently, the turns overlapped. As shown in Figure 6.3 below, 85.8% and 86.6% of audience and speaker turn-taking occurred systematically without interruption and delay in the data.

Figure 6.3 Comparison of turn-taking behaviour between speaker and audience



In summary, (1) an average of 90.4% of collective audience responses occurred without delay and interrupting the speakers in the Korean speeches, (2) an average of 85.8% of audience responses (including isolated responses) were synchronised with the speeches, and (3) an average of 86.2% of speaker-audience turn-taking occurred systematically and smoothly. Overall, the results indicate that speaker-audience interaction occurs by mutual respect and monitoring between the speaker

and audience members. Once speakers recognised an initiation of audience response, they accepted the response and waited until it declined or died away before resuming their speeches. There were incidents when speaker-audience turns overlapped due to the delay of an audience response. In these cases, the audience members ended their turn quickly.

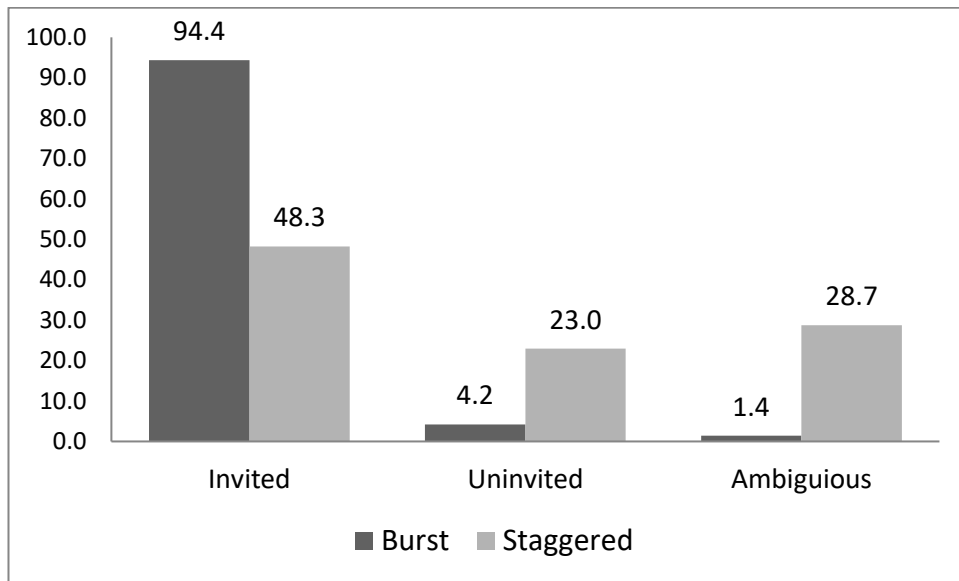
6.5 Burst and Staggered Responses

In investigating the relationship between burst/staggered responses and speaker's verbal/nonverbal behaviours, acceptance speeches were selected. As the speeches were delivered at indoor venues, the speech context provided better conditions for observing and evaluating burst and staggered responses than the other two contexts (outdoor venues). It is noted that the analysis of this dimension was conducted on synchronised responses. Each synchronised response was coded as either a burst response or a staggered response:

1. *Burst response* – (1) a response by independent decision-making, (2) occurs immediately at, or after, a completion point without delay of more than 0.3 seconds, (3) builds to maximum intensity quickly.
2. *Staggered response* – (1) a response by mutual monitoring between audience members, (2) a few audience members initiate a response and others join in the response, (3) occurs within 1 second and builds to maximum intensity slowly.

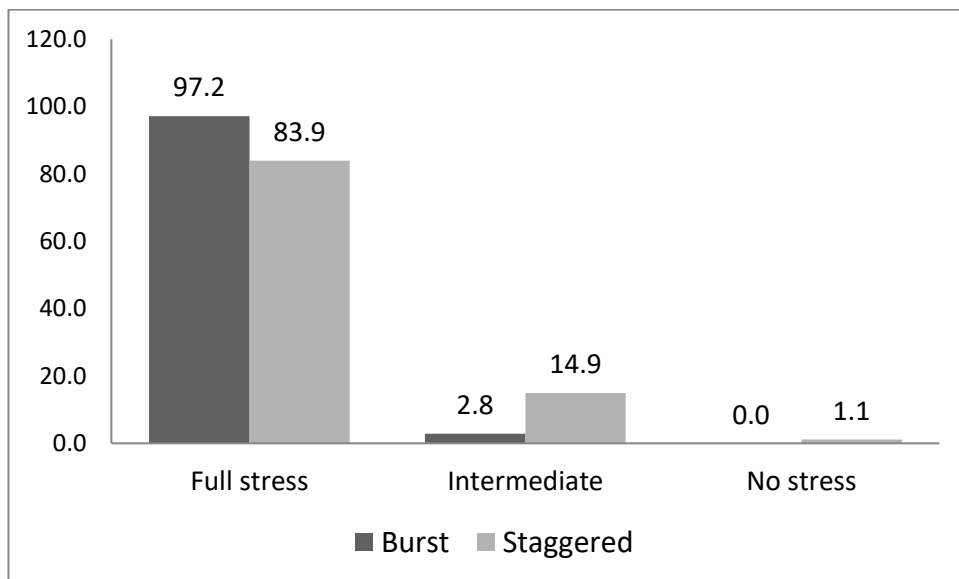
In the acceptance speeches, 44.9% ($n=71$) were burst responses and 55.1% ($n=87$) were staggered responses. Based on the results in the sections above, the relationships between the analysis dimensions were investigated. As shown in Figure 6.4, 94.4% of the burst responses and 48.3% of staggered responses were associated with invited responses. Hence, it is fairly clear that most of the burst responses occurred when the speakers invited audience responses. Notably, 23.0% of the staggered responses were uninvited, and 28.7% of them were ambiguous in terms of them being invited or uninvited.

Figure 6.4 Relationship between burst/staggered and invited/uninvited



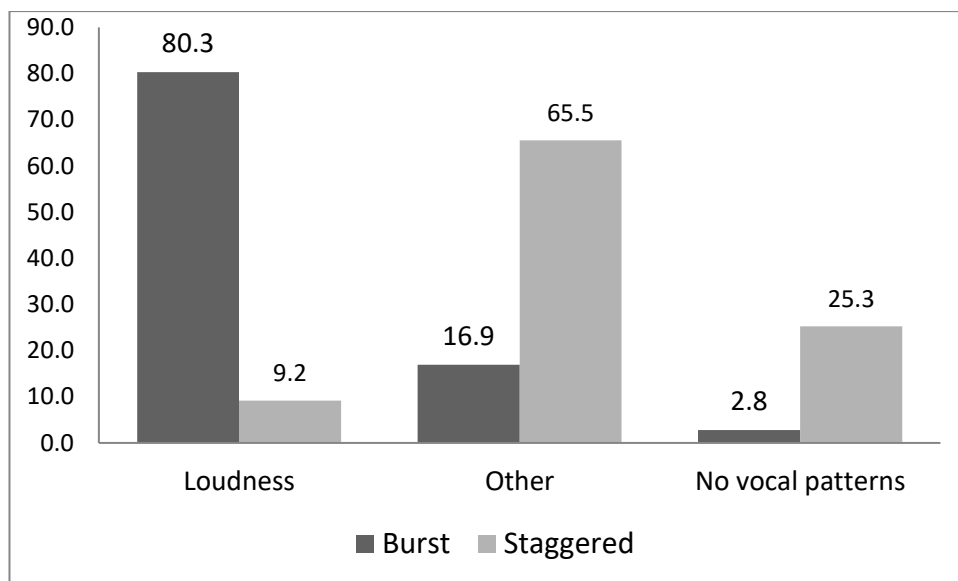
In the relationship between burst/staggered responses and vocal stress, 97.2% of burst responses and 83.9% of staggered responses were associated with full stress. Thus, most of the responses were associated with full stress regardless of whether they were burst or staggered.

Figure 6.5 Relationship between burst/staggered and stress



However, there were substantial differences in the use of vocal features and hand gesture between burst responses and staggered responses (Figure 6.6). (1) 80.3% of burst responses were associated with loudness (i.e., loudness, loudness + extension, loudness + upward intonation, and loudness + upward intonation + extension). Conversely, in staggered responses, only 9.2% of responses were associated with loudness, and 65.5% of responses were associated with other vocal features (i.e., extension, emphasis, emphasis + extension, upward intonation, and upward intonation + extension), and 25.3% of responses occurred in the absence of characteristic vocal patterns. (2) In the use of hand gestures, audience-oriented hand gestures in the upper space of a speaker were highly effective in generating burst responses. 32 out of 33 incidents of hand gestures were associated with the burst responses. (3) In addition, all smile incidents ($n=8$) resulted in burst responses.

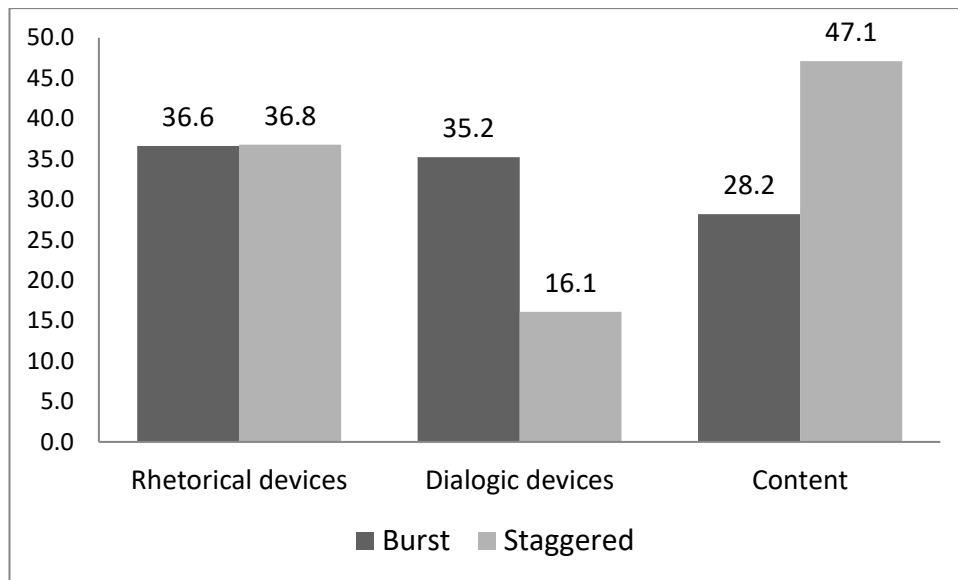
Figure 6.6 Relationship between burst/staggered and loudness



In the use of rhetorical devices, there were no substantial differences. As shown in Figure 6.7 below, rhetorical devices accounted for similar proportions in the two categories: 36.6% of burst responses and 36.8% of staggered responses. In terms of dialogic devices and speech content, burst responses (35.2%) occurred relative to the dialogic devices more frequently than staggered responses (16.1%), while staggered responses (47.1%) occurred more frequently to speech content than

burst responses (28.2%). Thus, the results indicate that the Korean audience members responded with bursts of responses to the dialogic devices more frequently than with staggered responses, whereas they responded with staggered responses to speech content more frequently than with burst responses.

Figure 6.7 Relationship between burst/staggered and verbal categories



In summary, the results show that burst responses occurred more frequently when the speakers invited responses using full stress, especially loudness and audience-oriented hand gesture, however, there was no difference between the use of traditional rhetorical devices and burst/staggered responses. Therefore, it can be suggested that delivery is a more prominent resource than the rhetorical devices and speech content in generating a burst of responses, and (2) there is no relationship between the frequency of burst/staggered responses and the use of rhetorical devices in the Korean data.

6.6 Cultural Differences in Interaction and Function of Rhetorical Devices

The results were compared with those from previous studies in British political speeches. As the British data were based on party political conferences, the Korean acceptance speeches were selected. Both Korean and British speech contexts are

in-group partisan contexts. Table 6.9 below shows comparisons between the two datasets. There are differences in speaker-audience interaction between the two countries. Invited responses occurred more frequently in the UK context than in Korea. British speakers used rhetorical devices more frequently than Korean speakers in the invited response: 84.2% in the UK and 25.2% in Korea. The Korean speakers used dialogic devices and speech content more frequently than rhetorical devices in the invited responses. However, audience responses were more likely to be synchronous in Korea (89.2%) than in the UK (66.1%).

Table 6.9 Speaker-audience interaction between UK and Korea

	%	
	UK*	Korea
Invited	86.2	69.0
Synchronous	66.1	89.2
Rhetoric**	84.2	25.3
Non-rhetoric**	1.9	43.7

* The results of UK are from Bull and Wells (2002). ** Rhetoric is rhetorical devices category; non-rhetoric is dialogic devices and content category. The use of rhetoric and non-rhetoric is based on the invited responses.

Table 6.10 below shows asynchronous responses between the UK and Korea. There were no substantial differences in frequency of delayed responses (7.5% in the UK and 6.3% in Korea) and isolated responses (4.7% in the UK and 4.8% in Korea) between the two countries. However, in interruption behaviour, the audience members in the UK interrupted the speakers (17.8% of responses), whereas, Korean audience members did not interrupt the speakers.

Table 6.10 Audience turn-taking behaviour between UK and Korea

	%	
	UK*	Korea
Delayed	7.5	6.3
Isolated	4.7	4.8
Audience interruption	17.8	0.0

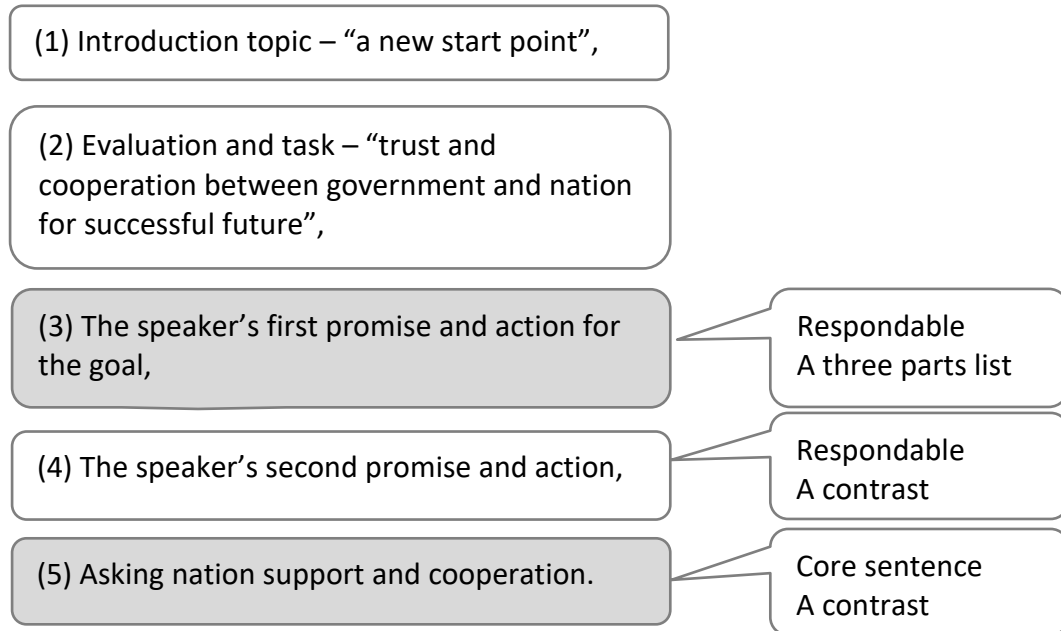
* The results of UK are from Bull and Noordhuizen (2000).

The comparisons in the two tables show that the rhetorical devices are important factors in generating collective and synchronous audience responses in British political oratory, however, in Korean political oratory, the impact of the rhetorical devices is not crucial. Despite the results, synchronous responses occurred more frequently in Korean speeches than in British speeches.

In British speeches, the rhetorical devices play a role in projectability because they assist audience members to anticipate the completion point of a message (Atkinson, 1984a; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). Consequently, they also assist audience members in coordinating their collective response to a speaker. The Korean speakers used the rhetorical devices in 36% (acceptance) and 35% (inauguration) of responded to statements regardless of whether they were invited or uninvited responses. However, the results in the sections above show that rhetorical devices are not crucial components in inviting collective and burst of responses in Korean political oratory. Also, many sentences that contained rhetorical formats were unlikely to be met with responses in this investigation through some of the unresponded to statements were verbally well structured. Then, what is the function of the rhetorical devices in Korean speeches? Why do the rhetorical devices not play a crucial role in Korean speeches? In order to examine these questions, sentences which were (1) formatted with rhetorical devices, (2) responsible in terms of content and structure, (3) but were not responded to were investigated.

A message topic of Extract 6.4 below consists of five sentences: Diagram 6.6

Diagram 6.6 Message structure 4



Two response incidents occur in the message: sentences (3) and (5) in grey colour. A three part-list is used in the sentence (3). A contrast is used in each sentence of (4) and (5). Although sentence (5) is a core sentence in the topic, sentences (3) and (4) are also responsible due to the content.

[Extract 6.4: Park GH, sentence 81-83, inauguration speech, 2013]

01	Park:	We stand on a starting point of a new era where nation and 2
02	(1)	people walk in union and where the nation's development
03		and the people's happiness jointly form a virtuous cycle.
04	(2)	For success of our journey, we should walk forward in
05		partnership through mutual trust and confidence between
06		the government and the people.
07	(3)	Jeo-neun (0.3) <u>kkaekkeus</u> -ha-go: (0.3)
08	list 1	>>>>>>>>>>@>>>>>>>>≡≡≡
09		I-HUM-NOM (0.3) <u>clean</u> -do-CONJ (0.3)
10		r5-s

distrust” (contrast part A, lines 29-31) and “elevate trust” (contrast part B, lines 32-35). She delivers the contrast and completion unit without characteristic vocal patterns. Thus, although the sentence is formatted with a contrast, her vocal behaviour shows that she is not intending to invite a response at this sentence. Consequently, the audience members do not respond to the sentence.

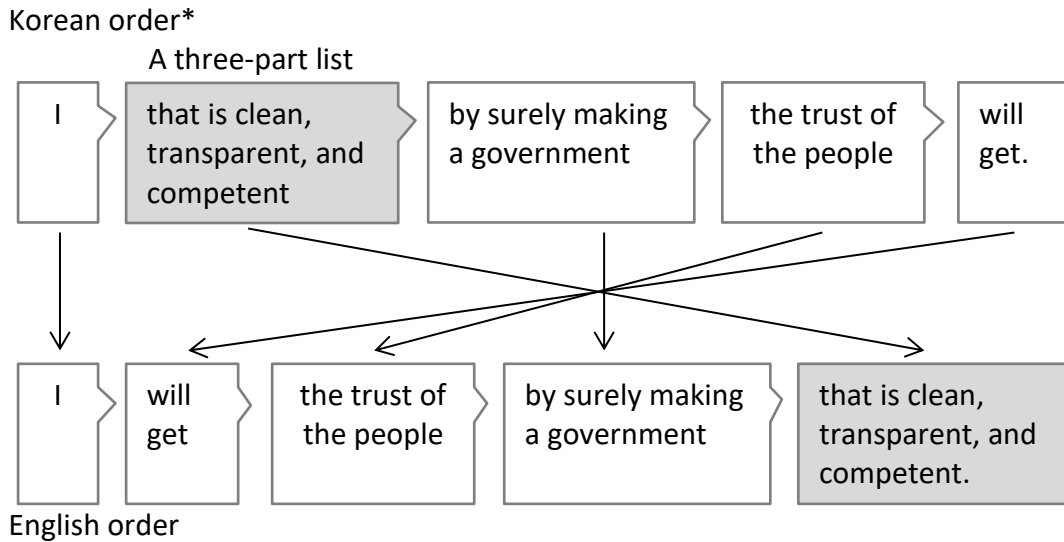
The core sentence 5 is structured with a contrast and a dialogic device (asking for support). She delivers the contrast part A and B, “not only for individual interests but for the common interests,” using a headshake at “not” in the part A and both hands open palm in the part B (lines 42-45). She also uses both hands in a back-palm gesture (line 42) in part A but it is invisible to the audience members because she displays the speaker-oriented gesture at the lower centre of her upper body. In the completion unit (lines 50-52), she delivers “ask” (*butag*, a humble word in asking) more slowly than the surrounding words with a slow and deep nod that looks like a bow (line 51). Although she does not display characteristic vocal patterns, the dialogic device and polite head movement play a clear role in inviting the applause (line 57).

The extract also shows the position of the three-part list and contrast in Korean sentences. Unlike in English speeches, the rhetorical devices are not placed at the end of the sentences due to a different grammatical order from English. Korean is a SOV (Subject-Object-Verb) language; hence, the verb comes at the end of a sentence. Except when the three-part list consists of three verbs (Subject-Verb-Verb-Verb), they cannot be placed at the end.

By the providing a translation, the effectiveness of the rhetorical devices between English and Korean can be compared. If a speaker in an English speaking context is to deliver the content of the sentences, the speaker may place the devices at the end of the sentences. In so doing, the devices play the function that the audience members can project the possible completion unit or point. As shown below (Diagram 6.7), while the three-part list (in grey) can be placed in the completion unit in English, it is placed after the subject “I” in Korean. Thus, the device does not

play the same function in Korean speeches. Also, the function is not necessary for Korean speeches because the verb indicates the completion of the sentence.

Diagram 6.7 Sentence 3, the position of a three parts list, Korean into English



* Sentence order in Korean is presented by the grammatical cluster.

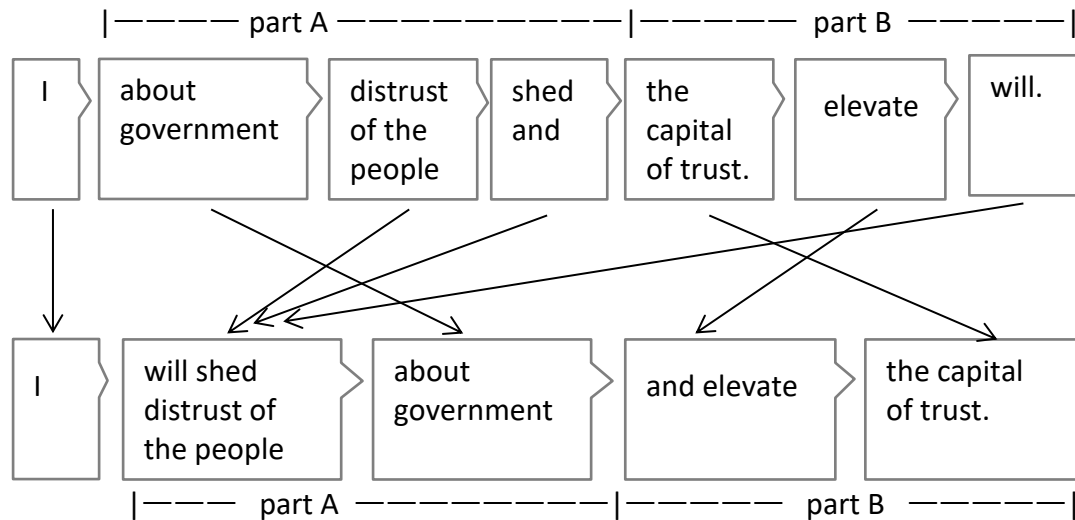
When the three-part list consists of three verb units in a Subject + Verb sentence order, they can be placed at the end of the sentence in Korean; however, there was no instance of this case in the data. When a three-part list consists of three sentences, there is no difference in the relationship between the grammatical order and the function of rhetorical devices between English and Korean: e.g. “I will show a leadership of communication and solidarity. I will show a leadership of sympathy and solidarity. I, Moon Jae-in, will open a new era of change.” In this case, each sentence is an item of the three-part list. However, as demonstrated in Extract 6.1 in the previous section, the use of nonverbal factors played a core role in inviting and generating effective audience response. Thus, it appears that Korean speakers do not employ a three-part list deliberately in order to invite audience responses or indicate a completion point, instead they use dialogic devices and nonverbal factors in inviting responses.

In the position of contrast, there are two verbs (“shed” and “elevate”) in the sentence 4 (Diagram 6.8). As the contrast is a semantic contrast of the two verbs,

the audience members may anticipate that part B is following “shed and” in the contrast part A. In this case, projectability may work in Korean sentences.

Diagram 6.8 The position of a contrast, Korean into English (sentence 4)

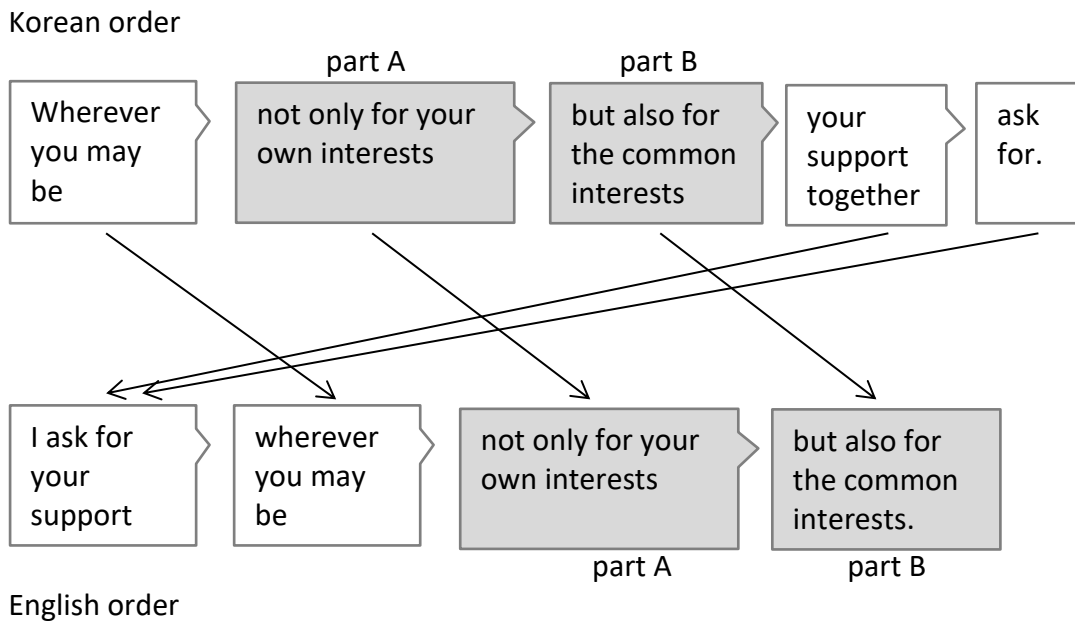
Korean order



English order

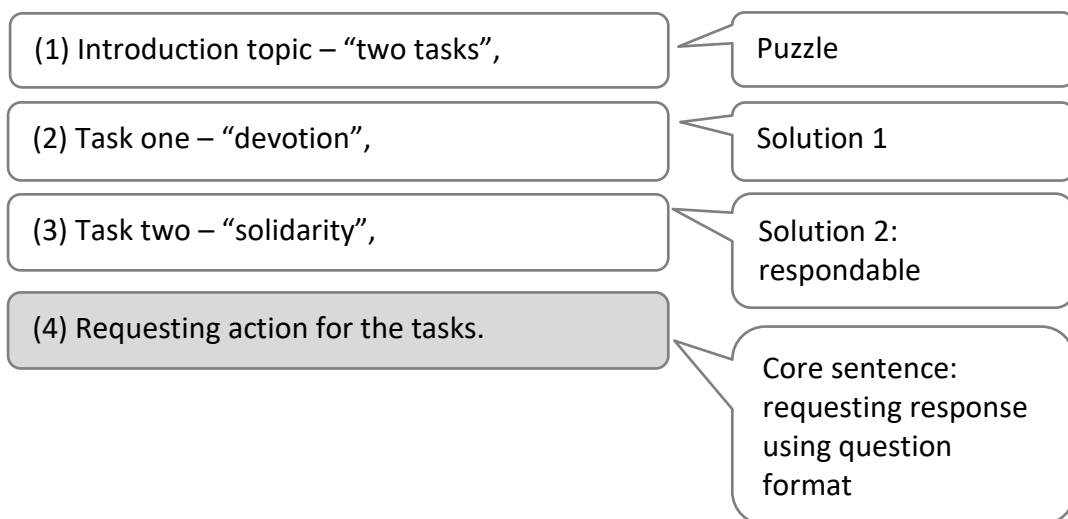
However, in a typical contrast which is formatted with “not only but also” and a verb, the contrast is placed in the middle of the sentence and the verb unit comes at the end. In sentence 5 (Diagram 6.9), although the contrast (in grey) part A assists in the anticipation of part B due to the typical contrast format (i.e., not only but also), it does not indicate a possible completion point. Moreover, the core unit “ask for your support” comes at the end of the sentence and the verb unit “ask for” indicates a completion. On the other hand, in English, the request displayed at the beginning of the sentence, and the contrast part B placed in the completion unit. Hence, the contrast part B works as a completion.

Diagram 6.9 The position of a contrast, Korean into English (sentence 5)



In the use of headline-punchline and puzzle-solution, as they are formatted with two paired sentences, the issue of grammatical order is not relevant in assessing the function of rhetorical devices between the two languages. However, nonverbal factors also played a core role in inviting and generating audience responses in the rhetorical devices. For example, the message topic of Extract 6.5 below consists of four sentences (Diagram 6.9).

Diagram 6.9 Message structure 5



Similarly, the importance of nonverbal factors shows in the use of headline-punchlines. In the extracts below, using a headline-punchline, the speaker (progressive side) condemns two candidates from two other progressive parties. Prior to the extracts, the speaker has spoken to the importance of regime change (from the conservative side to progressive side) and provided justification of the issue. In the extracts below, the speaker condemns the two candidates who have not presented clear action plans to achieve the regime change at this presidential election. The first headline-punchline does not receive a response but the second one does. As presented, there are differences in the use of nonverbal factors between the un-responded punchline and the responded to punchline. While the speaker delivers the punchline (lines 5-13) in Extract 6.6 without characteristic nonverbal behaviour and gazing down to the script, she delivers the punchline (lines 6-13) in Extract 6.7 gazing at the audience members and with a vocal emphasis, a pointing gesture, and rising intonation. Thus, the two extracts show that the speaker signals to the audience members when to respond to her. In the first punchline, she does not intend to generate a response; hence she did not employ the characteristic vocal patterns. However, in the second punchline, she intends to produce a response, thus she invites a response displaying characteristic vocal and non-vocal factors.

[Extract 6.6: Sim SJ, sentence 43-46, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01 Sim: *headline* *I am questioning to Moon Jae-in candidate.*

02 *Moon Jae-in candidate addressed*

03 *regime change, politics change, and era change.*

04 *I understand your will on the regime change.*

05 *punchline* geuleona: (0.7) jeongchigyoche (0.6) sidaegyocheneun (0.4)

06 *but (0.7) politics change (0.6) era change-TOP (0.4)*

07 *but (0.7) politics change (0.6) era change-TOP (0.4)*

08 *but (0.7) politics change (0.6) era change-TOP (0.4)*

09 **eotteohge** (0.4) ilugessdaneun >°geosib-ni-kka°.<

10 *how (0.4) achieve* >°FUL-POL-DET-Q°.<

11 *how (0.4) achieve* >°FUL-POL-DET-Q°.<

12 *But how are you going to achieve the politics change and era*

13 *change?*

14 (2.1)

15 You have advocated...

[Extract 6.7: Sim SJ, sentence 53-56, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01 Sim: *headline* *I am questioning to Ahn Cheol-soo candidate.*

02 *Ahn Cheol-soo candidate addressed that you are the right*

03 *people for the politics reform. The nation's expectation on*

04 *you was high. However, our nation has not heard your plan*

05 *and action for this but only the ambiguous dialogues.*

06 *punchline* eotteon daeangwa: silcheon (.) gyehoeg-eul (.)

07 what alternative-and action plan-ACC

08 what alternative-and action plan-ACC

09 what alternative-and action plan-ACC

10 r1-pt ≈≈≈≈ r1-pt ≈≈≈≈

11 gajgo (.) gyesib-ni-kka?

12 what alternative-and action plan-ACC

13 have (.) POL-DET-Q?

14 *What alternative and action plan do you have?*

15 (0.5)

16 Audience: applause + cheers ((7.2 seconds))

In the use of position-taking, as discussed in Chapter 4, post-position-taking was often undertaken. As the pledges of the speakers are important issues in the three speech contexts, the speakers generally displayed their pledges and plans after their position (e.g., against or for in a topic). In the following extract, the speaker states his position to the current government and displays his action for the position-taking. Prior to the extract, he has condemned the president and government on various issues and then stated that the country's democratic history is standing at the point whether they move forward or backwards. In the extract, he delivers his position on the issue using a position-taking, which consists of a three-part list (three sentences). Although an audience response (line 24) occurs in relation to the third position-taking sentence (lines 10-22), the speaker's intention is to generate a response at the post-position-taking (lines 25-29). He shows his intention to continue to the next core sentence by delivering the sentence without turn-yielding to the audience response. The audience members judge the speaker to be inviting a response at the third position-taking sentence due to the production of a power grip hand gesture and inclusion of vocal factors (loudness and extension) during the completion unit. However, he displays nonverbal factors more clearly in the post-position-taking than in the third position-taking. He displays a head nod at "I", a power grip hand gesture at his name "Moon Jae-in" (line 25) and continues the hand gestures during the completion unit. Also, he delivers the full sentence with characteristic vocal patterns: extension at "I", emphasis at his name "Moon Jae-in", and loudness and extension during the completion unit while gazing at the audience members.

In the case of pursuits, there were only three incidents in the data. Hence, it is confirmed that: (1) pursuit is not a common device in Korean political oratory; and (2) Korean speakers have a tendency to move on to the next sentence rather than pursuing a response when they fail to generate a response.

On the other hand, in the use of naming, self-naming and audience-naming, which was introduced in this study, played a role in emphasising statements and producing an invitation to respond. Self-naming was used in 45 sentences in the data. 35 (77.8%) out of the 45 sentences received collective responses, 7 (15.6%) sentences were not responded to, and 3 (6.7%) sentences received isolated responses. The 7 sentences which were not responded to were un-respondable steps. For example, one of the incidents was used in an introduction to a topic step: "Fellow everyone, there are many things that I, Moon Jae-in, have, but Park Guen-hye candidate doesn't have." Then the speaker delivered five differences between the two candidates point by point: working classes, democracy and human rights, historical awareness, morality, and communication. Hence, except when it was used in a un-respondable step in message structures, most of the incidents received collective responses.

In audience-naming, when it is displayed at the beginning of sentences or during an introduction to a topic step, it was not effective in generating audience responses. However, when it was displayed at the completion points, all incidents ($n=45$) received a response. The use of audience-naming acted not only as a signal of an invitation to respond but also as an additional completion point. In the extract below, the speaker delivers a core message using both self-naming (line 1) and audience-naming (line 9). Prior to the sentence, the speaker has delivered topics on welfare, economic democratisation, and regime change. Although the completion unit, accompanied by right-hand slicing gesture, loudness, and extension vocal factors, signals an invitation to respond and acts as a completion point, the speaker adds "Everyone" at the end of the verbal unit. As the naming device and nonverbal factors show a clear invitation to respond and also the self-naming indicates a strong will of the speaker, a burst of audience response (line 14) occurs at the

[Extract 6.9: Sim SJ, sentence 31, acceptance speech, Presidential election 2012]

01 Sim: r1-pt≈≈≈r1-pt≈≈≈≈≈r1-pt≈≈r1-pt≈≈≈≈r1-pt≈≈≈≈≈

02 s-N simsangjeong-i: ↑ (0.4) ttam-ui jeongui-leul **balo seuneun**

03 ≡≡≡

04 Sim Sangjeong-TOP (0.4) sweat of justice-ACC right set-

05 r1-pt≈≈≈≈≈≈≈≈ r1-pt≈≈≈≈≈-.....

06 **daetonglyeong-i** **doe-gess-seub-ni-da::** [yeoleobun:::

07 ≡≡≡

08 present-NOM **become-FUT-POL-DET-DC::** [everyone:::::

09 *Sim Sang-jeong will become a president who sets the justice*

10 *of labour rightly.*

11 Audience: [applause + cheers ((9.6 seconds))]

The investigation of the rhetorical devices shows that language and message structure are important resources in speaker-audience interaction and the function of rhetorical devices in generating collective audience responses between the two countries. As explained, English and Korean are polar opposites in terms of grammatical order: SVO and SOV. In English sentences, verb, tense, and positive or negative expressions come during the early stages of a sentence. For example, “a beginning like ‘I don’t think’ can project, in certain sequential environments, ‘disagreement’ as a turn type for its turn...turn-beginnings are important because they are an important place for turn projection (Schegloff, 1987, p. 71).” Hence, this assists audience members in projecting the speaker’s action or view on a political issue during the early stages of a sentence in English (SVO), whereas in SOV language, the projectability is delayed because the verb comes at the end of a sentence (Hayashi, 2006; Tanaka, 2000). In Korean, the important resource of the verb unit comes at the end of a sentence. Thus, sentence ending units are important resources in interaction.

In terms of interrogative sentences in English, the audience members can project the sentence earlier because question formats come at the beginning of the sentence regardless of question type: wh-questions (e.g., what is, which is, who do

you think..., when is, how is) and yes-no questions (e.g., do you, can you, have you, are you).

In Korean, there is no movement of syntax in interrogative sentences (i.e., “do you think...?” in English, “you think...?” in Korean). Except for wh-questions, which generally come at the beginning of a sentence, all sentence types (including yes-no questions) display these features at the end of the sentence: e.g. Subject + Object + Verb-tense-sentence type. In the data, declarative, interrogative, imperative, and hortative sentence (*Choeng-you* sentence, see Chapter 4, section 5.2.2 and 4.3.1.13) types are used. In particular, responses are expected to interrogative and hortative sentences in interaction. In yes-no questions, question markers (*kka* in formal speech or *yo* in informal speech) come at the end of the verb completion unit. Thus, the question markers and intonation at the markers are important resources for audience members to respond to the sentence. Therefore, the audience members need to listen to the end of the sentence carefully so that they can respond to the interrogative sentence and hortative sentence. In other words, the completion unit is important in Korean. There is a saying in Korean that says, “In Korean, you need to listen until the end of the sentence.”

Due to the grammatical order, English provides for projectability in the speaker’s actions and sentence types at an early stage of a sentence (Fox, Hayashi, & Jaspersen, 1996) but does not have a fixed completion unit. In contrast to this, the projectability is delayed in Korean, but Korean provides a clear completion unit of a sentence. As a result, there was hardly any audience interruption or even overlapping of the speaker’s completion unit. Due to the different grammatical orders, there are different TCUs (Turn Constructional Units) systems in English and Korean speeches. In English speeches, “the basic shapes that TCUs take are sentences or clauses more generally, phrases, and lexical items” (Schegloff, 2007, p.3). In Korean, TCUs can be shaped by those units in ordinary conversation. However, in formal public speeches, like political oratory, TCUs are generally sentences and a completion unit is a verb unit as demonstrated throughout this thesis.

In an example below, the speaker displays an “if” clause which consists of a three-part list (line 5) at the end of the sentence. Audience response “yeah” (line 3) occurs before the “if” clause because the audience members presume it is a completion point and they do not know the “if” clause is following. The response does not last long as the speaker continues his turn and displays the “if” clause. Then collective “cheers” (line 6) occur at the end of the second item of the three-part list in the “if” clause.

Example: Obama 2008 (Sato, 2014, p. 68)¹¹

- | | | |
|---|-----------|--|
| 1 | Obama: | Hope is that thing inside us that insists. (0.7) despite <u>all</u> : |
| 2 | | evidence to the contrary. = [(0.8) [that |
| 3 | Audience: | [yeah : : [: |
| 4 | Obama: | <u>so</u> omething <u>better</u> <u>awa</u> its us if we have the courage, |
| 5 | | to reach for it. and the work for it. [and to fight for it. |
| 6 | Audience: | [cheers |

However, if the message is displayed in Korean, it is presented as follows: “If we have the courage to reach for it, and the work for it, and to fight for it /1/ that something better awaits us /2/ despite all evidence to the contrary /3/ hope is that the inside us that insists. /4/” Grammatically, 1-3 units are not possible completion units. Also, the verb “is” in unit 4 comes at the end of the unit. Without displaying the verb, the sentence is not completed. Thus, while there are possible completion units in the English message, there is only one possible completion unit in the Korean message. Although inversion is possible, it is not normal in political oratory because the speech is written and prepared prior to delivery. Due to the grammatical order of SOV language, speakers produce utterances “bit by bit” and listeners tend to “wait and see” in a SOV language interaction (Fox, Hayashi, & Jaspersen, 1996). In English oratory, due to the lack of a clear completion unit in English grammar, it seems that the speakers employ rhetorical devices, particularly three-part lists and contrasts, in order to signal a completion unit and deliberately place them at the end of the sentences. However, in Korean speeches, each

¹¹ The transcription is modified: ‘h’ sounds are not displayed.

sentence provides a clear completion unit. Unlike everyday conversation, a speaker in oratory has a lengthy turn which consists of sentences as demonstrated in the previous section. In signalling his or her turn completion and invitation to respond, the speaker emphasises the verb completion unit using a lexical choice (e.g., audience-naming, surely, certainly, definitely) and through nonverbal factors. Thus, it can be suggested that (1) Korean speakers employ the traditional rhetorical devices for the overall structure of a topic but not for projectability or to signal possible completion points, and (2) the syntactic presentation of Korean language provides a clear completion unit in speaker-audience interaction in Korean political oratory.

Accordingly, it is also suggested that, (1) syntactic processing is a crucial resource in studying cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory, and (2) recognition of a completed unit in the speaker's turn critically depends upon lexical choice prior to a completion unit, and nonverbal cues in the completion unit, in a SOV language.

6.7 Summary and Conclusion

Based on the results from the previous chapters, this chapter has investigated detailed interaction dimensions: invited/uninvited responses, synchronous/asynchronous responses, and burst/staggered. Then, it has examined the differences in the interaction and between the functions of rhetorical devices in the UK and Korea.

In summary, in distinguishing between invited and uninvited responses, nonverbal factors and the speaker's intention were crucial. Moreover, the use of rhetorical devices did not play a prominent role in judging the speaker's intention to invite a response. In the turn-taking behaviour of speaker-audience, the Korean audience members hardly ever interrupted the speakers and responded to the speakers mostly without delay. Thus, most of the audience responses were synchronised with the speech. The speakers generally took their next turn when the audience

responses declined in intensity or at (or after) the completion of the responses. In terms of burst and staggered responses, burst responses occurred frequently when the speakers invited responses using full stress. However, the role of rhetorical devices in generating the burst responses was not clear.

In cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction, although the UK speakers invited responses using rhetorical devices more frequently than the Korean speakers, synchronous responses occurred more frequently in Korean speeches than in UK speeches. A notable difference was that the British audiences interrupted their speakers (17.8% of the total responses), but the Korean audiences did not interrupt their speakers in the partisan context.

The use of traditional rhetorical devices in Korean political oratory shows that (1) syntactically related rhetorical devices (i.e., a three-part list and contrast) do not play a role in anticipating a completion point of a sentence; (2) rhetorical devices which consist of sentences (i.e., headline-punchline and puzzle-solution) play a role in projecting that the second part of sentence is following, however, without appropriate nonverbal resources they do not play as prominent a role as in English speeches; (3) the projection of turn completion in Korean speeches is clear due to the grammatical completion unit; (4) Korean speakers do not use rhetorical devices deliberately for the purpose of producing an invitation to respond or signalling a completion point. However, they use self-naming after a subject and audience-naming at a completion point for this purpose.

In this study, more rigorous criteria are applied to assess the use of nonverbal factors than in the studies of British political speeches. Therefore, it is fair to suggest that (1) speech delivery is crucial in generating collective audience responses; (2) rhetorical devices do not play a predominant role in inviting responses in Korean political oratory; (3) language structuring, in particular, grammatical order, is an important variable in studying cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory. In conclusion, studying how politicians convey their messages to audience members when inviting responses

involves language and speech contexts. The addition of speech context and language to the analysis should further our understanding of how speaker-audience interaction occurs in terms of the context and language.

Chapter 7

Audience Responses and Social and Political Actions

7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters have investigated (1) how political orators generate collective audience responses, (2) how members of a large audience are coordinated with each other and respond to the orators in the three speech contexts of Korean political oratory, and (3) speech contextual and cultural differences in the orator-audience interaction, by providing microanalysis of the interactions. It has been demonstrated that the audience responses are an important part of political oratory and there are systematic turn-taking systems in orator-audience interaction. Then, what is the value of microanalyses of the orator-audience interaction? Why are the results and systematic analyses important in social and political behaviour? Do the audience responses have a political influence on electoral success? Can we learn speech-making skills from the findings and analytic systems? The aim of this chapter is to demonstrate the implications and applications of the findings and systematic analysis to the real world. In so doing, the social and political importance of this research will be emphasised.

In providing practical implications, four dimensions were considered: (1) the relationship between audience responses and electoral success, (2) the evolution of audience behaviour through political periods, (3) how to make successful interactions between an orator and members of a large audience, and (4) the cultural differences in persuasive elements. The dimensions will be investigated through applying and creating impact from the findings and systematic analysis. Further implications will be also suggested.

7.2 The Relationship between Audience Responses and Electoral Success

The results on audience behaviour in Chapter 3 show that audience members in election campaign speeches responded to speakers more frequently with various response forms than in the other two speech contexts: affiliative and collective responses rate per minute were 3.6 in campaign speeches, 2.1 in acceptance speeches, and 0.9 in inauguration speeches. The ultimate purpose of the election campaign speeches is to win the election. Therefore, the question may be posed whether there is a relationship between the affiliative audience response rate and electoral success. How significant are these audience responses to electoral success?

In the study of Japanese speeches (Feldman & Bull, 2012), there was no relationship between affiliative response rate and election success. In contrast, in the study of American speeches by Bull and Miskinis (2015), there was a significant positive correlation between affiliative response rate and electoral success. The study was based on the election campaign speeches delivered by two candidates (Barack Obama and Mitt Romney) nominated by the Democrat and Republican parties for the 2012 American presidential election. The speeches were delivered in swing states where no single candidate or party has overwhelming support. The study showed that Obama, who generated a higher affiliative response rate than his opponent (Romney), received a higher percentage of the votes than Romney. Hence, scholars suggest that while audience responses are indicators of a speaker's popularity and electoral popularity amongst audience members in an individualistic society (USA), they do not play such roles in a collectivist society (Japan), but might instead be seen as indicators of conformity to social norms.

In order to examine whether there is a relationship between response rate and electoral success in Korea, which is regarded as a more individualistic society than Japan (Hofstede et al., 2010), a further analysis was conducted on the campaign speeches. In the preceding chapters, it has found that there is a close relationship between audience behaviour and speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviours. The

audience members responded to the speaker more frequently when the speaker invited responses using dialogic devices and characteristic nonverbal factors at completion units. Accordingly, it is possible that a speaker who used dialogic devices and characteristic non-verbal factors more frequently received more responses than a speaker who employed the factors less frequently. Hence, based on the coding of the audience responses in campaign speeches, the collective response rate was examined in terms of the two candidates (Park GH, Saenuri Party; Moon JI, Democratic United Party), and then the two speakers' verbal and nonverbal behaviours were compared.

Figure 7.1 shows audience response rates in each candidate's speeches according to the date (first day to last day of the election campaign). As presented, Moon generated more collective audience responses (average 4.3 responses per minute) than Park (average 2.8 responses per minute) at all speech events. However, Park won the election: the election results were Park 51.6% and Moon 48.0% in 2012.

Figure 7.1 Response rate by date in campaign speeches

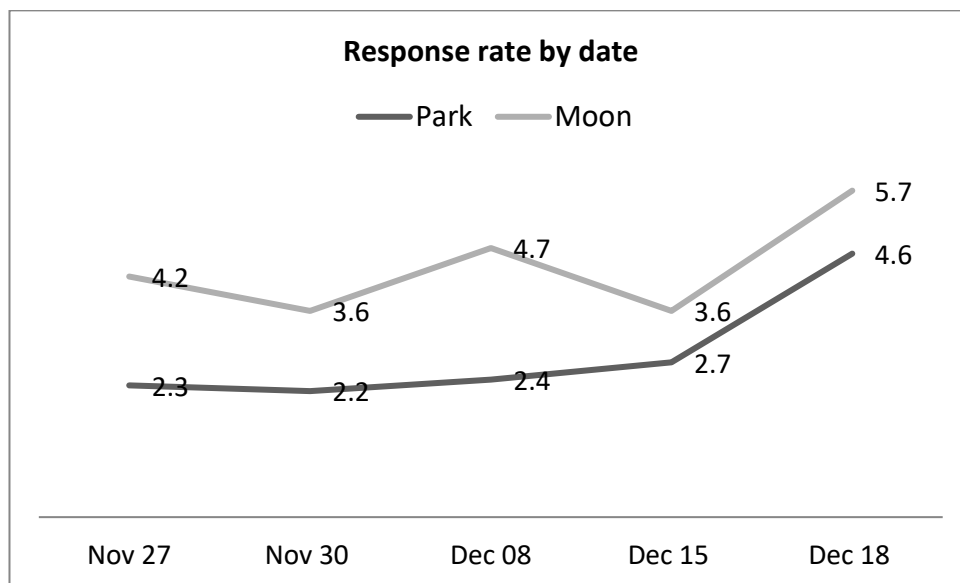


Table 7.1 below shows response rates and percentage of votes received in each region according to the two speakers. Although Moon generated more collective audience responses than Park in each region, he received fewer votes than Park in

all regions except in Seoul. The results indicate that there was no relationship between audience response rate and electoral success in the Korean presidential election of 2012, like the Japanese context but unlike the American context.

Table 7.1 Response rate and electoral success

Region	Rate per minute (percentage of votes received)	
	Park GH	Moon JI
Daejeon	2.3 (50.0)	4.2 (49.7)
Busan	2.2 (59.8)	5.7 (39.9)
Daegu*	2.3 (80.1)	3.6 (19.5)
Jeju*	1.9 (50.5)	4.7 (49.0)
Seoul**	3.2 (48.2)	4.7 (51.4)

*Additional speeches (see Appendix C). ** Mean of 08, 15, 18 December in Seoul.

Interestingly, Figure 7.1 above shows that response rates reached their highest on the last day of the campaign at 4.6 (Park) and 5.7 (Moon). This indicates that the more heated the battle, the higher the audience response rate. In order to investigate the response rates in detail, more speeches were selected and the generated response rates analysed. Figures 7.2 and 7.3 below show more detailed response rates during the campaign in terms of the speakers. As shown, response rates to Moon's speeches were between 3.6 and 5.1 per minute from the first day to the day before the last day of the campaign, and then reached a peak of 5.7 on the last day. On the other hand, response rates to Park's speeches were between 1.4 and 2.7, which were much lower than that of Moon, from the first day to the day before the last day of the campaign. On the last day of the campaign, she delivered two speeches and there is a notable difference between the response rates of the speeches. While the response rate to the first speech was 2.7, which was the same rate as the previous the day, the response rate to the last speech soared and reached a peak of 4.7. Hence, the figures indicate that the audience members showed more enthusiastic and united behaviour during the last speech of the campaign.

Figure 7.2 Response rates by dates in Moon JI's speeches

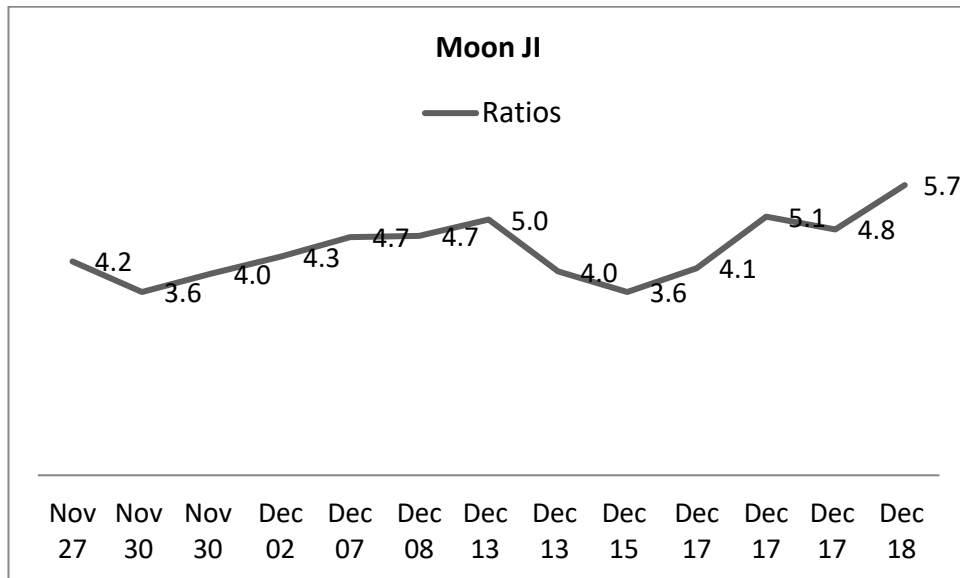
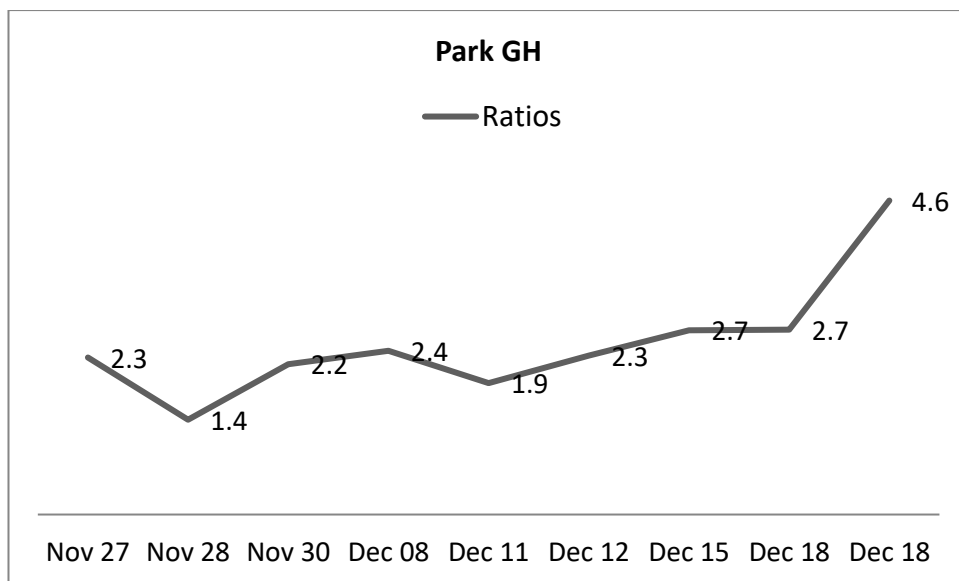
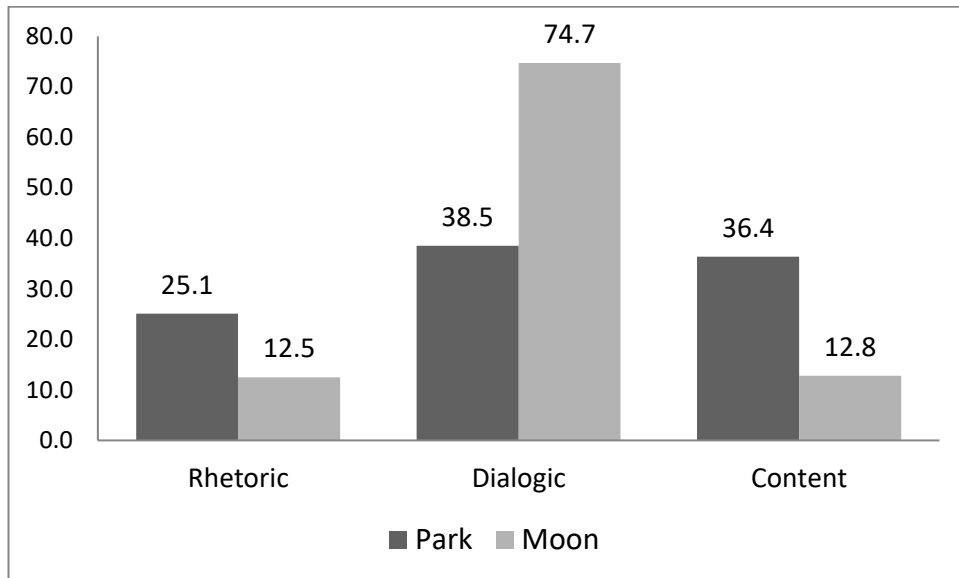


Figure 7.3 Response rates by dates in Park GH's speeches



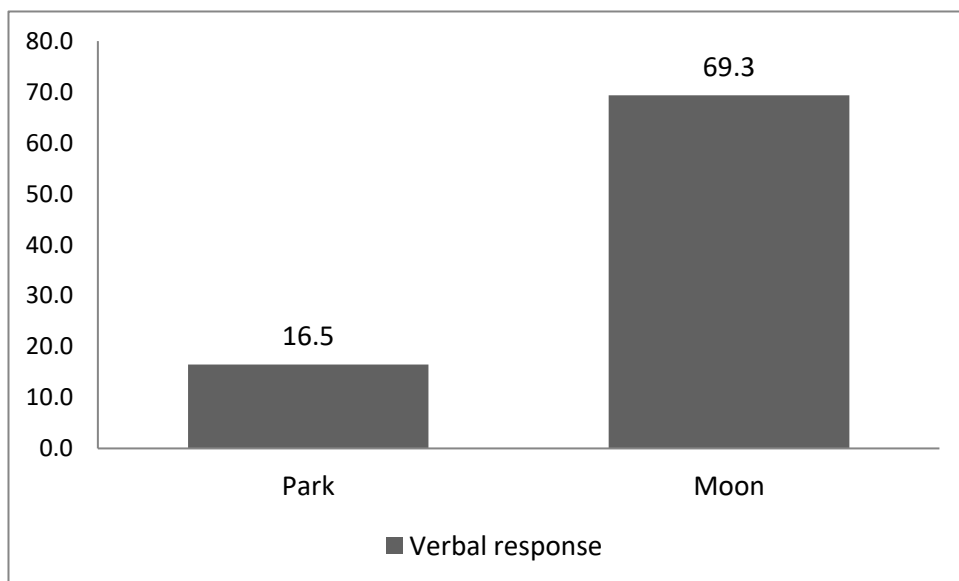
In terms of the speaker's verbal behaviour, there were also notable differences between the two speakers. As presented in Figure 7.4 below, Moon used dialogic devices (74.7%) more frequently than rhetorical devices (12.5%) and content (12.8%) in the responded to statements, whereas, in Park's verbal behaviour, there were no substantial differences in the use of the three verbal categories: 38.5% of dialogic devices, 25.1% of rhetorical devices, and 36.4% of content. Hence, Moon used dialogic devices nearly two times as frequently as Park.

Figure 7.4 The use of verbal devices by the speakers in campaign speeches



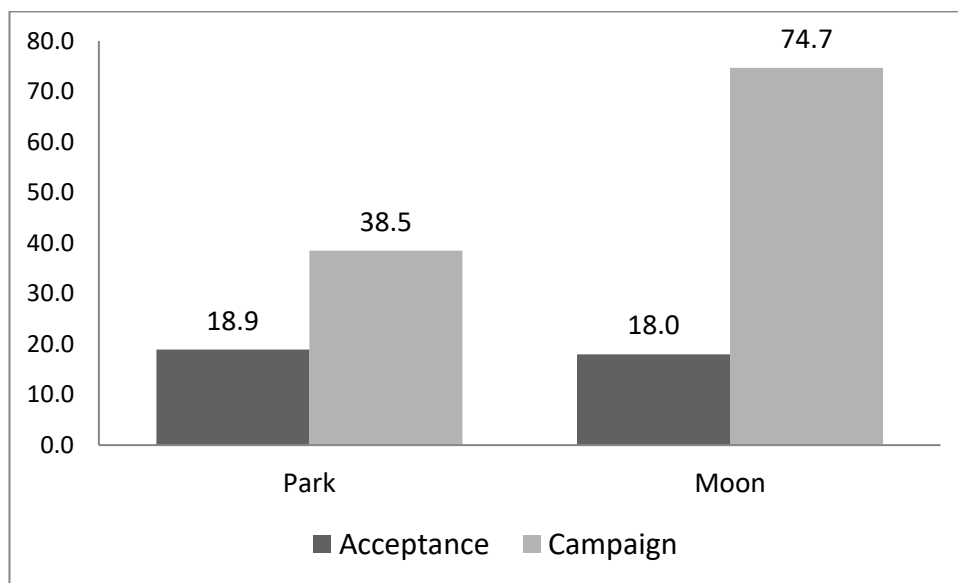
Due to the differences in the use of the verbal devices, audience behaviour to the speakers was also different. As shown in Figure 7.5 below, 69.3% of the audience responses to Moon's speeches were verbal responses (including verbal sequential responses), while only 16.5% of responses were verbal responses to Park's speeches. Thus, Moon generated verbal responses four times as often as Park. The results of the verbal responses also indicate that Moon employed the question-answer format in the interaction much more frequently than Park.

Figure 7.5 Frequency of verbal responses in campaign speeches



When the two speakers' verbal behaviour in acceptance speeches and campaign speeches were compared, the speakers used dialogic devices more frequently in campaign speeches than in acceptance speeches (Figure 7.6 below). However, Moon used dialogic devices four times more frequently in his campaign speeches than his acceptance speeches, while Park used them two times more frequently in her campaign speeches than her acceptance speeches.

Figure 7.6 The use of dialogic devices by speakers



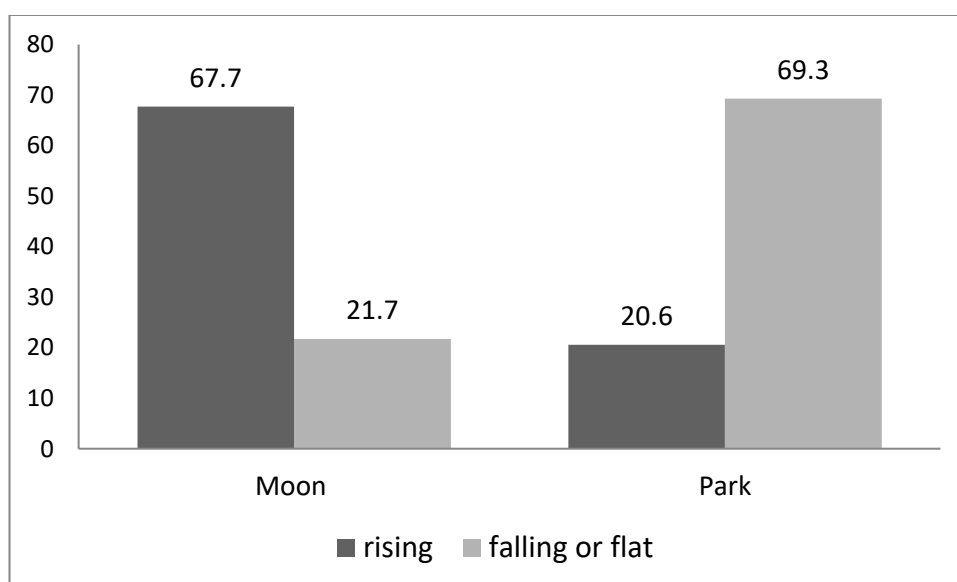
Consequently, there were also differences in the use of nonverbal factors in sentence completion units between the two speakers (Table 7.2 below). Both speakers used characteristic vocal stress in 89.3% (Moon) and 89.9% (Park) of the completion units. However, Moon, who employed dialogic devices frequently in inviting audience responses, used rising intonation (3-6) more frequently than Park, whereas, Park used loudness (1-2) and emphasis (7-9) more frequently than Moon.

Table 7.2 Characteristic vocal features in completion units by speakers

	Transcript convention	% (N)	
		Moon JI	Park GH
1. Loudness	Vocal	1.9 (6)	4.8 (11)
2. Loudness + extension	Vocal:::	8.8 (28)	39.9 (91)
3. Upward intonation	Vocal?	9.4 (30)	3.9 (9)
4. Upward intonation + loudness	Vocal?	2.5 (8)	0.0 (0)
5. Upward intonation + extension	Vocal:::?	11.6 (37)	3.5 (8)
6. Upward intonation + loudness + extension	Vocal:::?	44.2 (141)	13.2 (30)
7. Emphasis	<u>Vocal</u>	4.1 (13)	10.1 (23)
8. Emphasis + extension	<u>Vocal:::</u>	1.3 (4)	10.1 (23)
9. Extension	Vocal:::	5.6 (18)	4.4 (10)
Stressed		89.3 (285)	89.9 (205)
Unstressed		10.7 (34)	10.1 (23)
Total		100.0 (319)	100.0 (228)

When the vocal patterns are grouped in terms of intonation (Figure 7.7 below), Moon displayed rising intonation in 67.7% of completion units, while Park displayed falling or flat intonation in 69.3% of completion units.

Figure 7.7 Intonation in completion units by speakers



In summary, the results of the comparisons of speaker-audience behaviour show that Moon, who employed dialogic devices, question-answer format, and rising

intonation more frequently, generated higher response rates than his opponent, Park. Hence, it is fair to suggest that there is a close relationship between response rate and speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour, but no relationship between response rate and electoral success in Korean presidential election campaign speeches.

In the study of American speeches, there was a highly positive correlation in the use of verbal categories between the two speakers (Obama and Romney). Both speakers used rhetorical devices frequently (Obama 82%; Romney 81.4%), whereas, they employed dialogic devices substantially less (Obama 14.4%; Romney 14.8%). Notably, request agreement and asking for confirmation, which are generally question-answer formats, were not used in their speeches. Although there were no substantial differences in the use of verbal devices between the two speakers, Obama generated more affiliative responses than Romney in four swing states (Wisconsin, Florida, Ohio, and Iowa), while Romney generated more affiliative responses than Obama in only one swing state (North Carolina). However, as the speakers' nonverbal behaviour in delivering the speeches was not investigated in the study, there is a limitation to comparing the two speakers' techniques in generating audience responses.

Why are there differences in the relationship between responses rate and electoral success between the USA and Korea? Bull and Miskinis (2015) suggest that the difference can be understood in terms of cultural dimensions (individualism and collectivism). In a collectivistic society (Japan), as dialogic devices are used predominantly, affiliative audience responses to the verbal devices represents conformity to social norms. Hence, response rates are not related to electoral popularity in the collectivistic society. Whereas, in an individualistic society (the USA), response rates can be understood as a genuine expression of popularity. This view may be applied to the results of the Korean speeches because the use of dialogic devices was high by the speaker who received a high response rate.

However, there are also other viewpoints. There are different presidential election voting systems between the USA (electoral vote system) and Korea (popular vote system). In the USA, it is the Electoral College that votes in the presidential election, and whoever wins a state takes all the Electoral College votes for that state. Therefore, it is critical to winning each state, especially, the swing states. Due to the system, the composition of the audience members in the swing states may be different from the other states where a single candidate or party has overwhelming support. As the rallies in the USA are open meetings, both affiliative and disaffiliative responses occurred; hence the affiliative response rate may be significant.

In Korea, as it is a popular vote system, the total number of votes received is critical. Thus, the size of the audience at each campaign event is important. During the election campaign, it is an important issue for the media to report the number of people attending the events, how enthusiastic the collective audience responses are to the speakers, and atmosphere of the events. They are measurements of the popularity of the speakers in the media and they may influence the media audiences. This may be a possible reason why supporters attend the events and opponents hardly ever attend the events in Korean political culture. Therefore, the different election systems and campaign cultures may affect the composition of the audience in the speech events between the USA and Korea. Moreover, this can be a crucial reason why only affiliative responses occurred in Korean speeches, while there were both affiliative and disaffiliative responses in American speeches delivered in the swing states.

Like the USA, there are also regions that support one party more strongly in Korea. Moon JI (DUP, Progressive) was supported by the southwest provinces, while Park GH (SP, Conservative) was supported by the southeast provinces. However, regardless of the region, Moon received a higher response rate in each region than Park who won the election. This can be also understood by group identities. The Korean presidential election of 2012 was regarded not only as a battle between the progressive (Moon) and the conservative (Park) parties but also between the

younger generation and the older generation. Moon was supported more by the progressive younger generation (20's, 30's, and 40's) than the conservative older generation (50's and over 60's): the results of exit polls showed clearly that Moon and Park received a higher percentage of votes from the younger generation and the older generation, respectively. It was also observed that the composition of the audiences differed in the speech events of the two sides: younger generation audience members in Moon's speeches and older generation audience members in Park's speeches. However, the older generation participated more in voting than the younger generation. As a result, Park won the election. Notably, coding results in this study showed that audience members in Moon's speeches displayed more isolated responses (Moon 8.7%, $n=32$; Park 7.6%, $n=19$) and interruptive responses (Moon 20.7%, $n=15$; Park 0.4%, $n=1$) than audience members in Park's speeches. Thus, it can be suggested that there were different audience inclinations and behaviours in the group polarization between the younger generation (progressive) and the older generation (conservative) in responding to the speakers. Arguably, the younger and progressive audiences are more individualistic and free in reacting to the political leaders than the old and conservative audiences, while the older and conservative audiences displayed more collective behaviour.

Moreover, as discussed in Chapter three, there are notable speech contextual differences between Japanese and Korean election campaign speeches: the purpose of the political meetings, election events, venues, audience members, and speakers. Therefore, it is suggested that although the relationship between speech rate and electoral success differs between the USA and Korea, this may be not understood by the cultural dimensions solely but in terms of the political culture, election system, and group polarization (partisans and generation identities).

Although this analysis shows that there is no relationship between response rate and electoral success in Korean election campaign speeches, it shows that (1) there is a close relationship between speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour and response rate, (2) there are different audience behaviours in terms of partisanship

and also generations, and (3) there is a relationship between the election systems and audience behaviour.

7.3 Evolution of audience behaviour in presidential inauguration speeches

While the speaker-audience interaction in election campaign speeches and acceptance speeches show the social and political actions in 2012, inauguration speeches in this thesis show the interaction from the first presidential inauguration speech to the present day (1948 to 2013). Although inauguration speeches differ from the other contexts, they are valuable data in studying the relationship between speaker-audience interaction and social and political changes over time. Investigating inauguration speeches during the wide time range may give us further opportunity to study (1) whether there is a relationship between political time periods and audience behaviour towards political leaders and speeches, and how the speaker-audience interaction was shaped over time in the society.

In chapter three, it was demonstrated that only two audience response forms (applause; applause + cheers) appeared in inauguration speeches, while there were seven response forms (applause; cheers; applause + cheers; applause + cheers → chanting; applause + cheers → chanting → various; verbal response; and verbal response → various) in acceptance speeches and 12 response forms (including the seven response forms and also laughter; chanting; cheers → chanting; cheers + verbal; applause + cheers → various) in campaign speeches.

Table 7.3 and Figure 7.8 below show the forms of collective audience response and incidents for the seven inauguration speeches from 1981 to 2013. As reported in the Methods section, audience responses did not occur in the inauguration speeches of the first to the eleventh presidents. Audience responses occurred from the twelfth inauguration speech; however, only six and nine incidents of collective applause occurred in the twelfth and thirteenth inaugurations, respectively. In the fourteenth inauguration, incidents of applause were greater than in the previous

two inaugurations; however, applause was the only form of response. From the fifteenth to the present inauguration speech, applause + cheers appeared as well as applause. Interestingly, in the seventeenth and eighteenth inauguration, applause + cheers occurred more frequently than applause.

Table 7.3 Forms of response by time periods in inauguration speeches

	% (N)		
	Applause	Applause + cheers	Total
12 th inauguration 1981	3.4 (6)	0.0 (0)	3.4 (6)
13 th inauguration 1988	5.1 (9)	0.0 (0)	5.1 (9)
14 th inauguration 1993	14.8 (26)	0.0 (0)	14.8 (26)
15 th inauguration 1998	11.9 (21)	11.9 (21)	23.9 (42)
16 th inauguration 2003	7.4 (13)	5.7 (10)	13.1 (23)
17 th inauguration 2008	8.8 (14)	13.6 (24)	21.6 (38)
18 th inauguration 2013	7.4 (13)	10.8 (19)	18.2 (32)
Total	58.0 (102)	42.0 (74)	100.0 (176)

Figure 7.8 Response forms and incidents in inauguration speeches

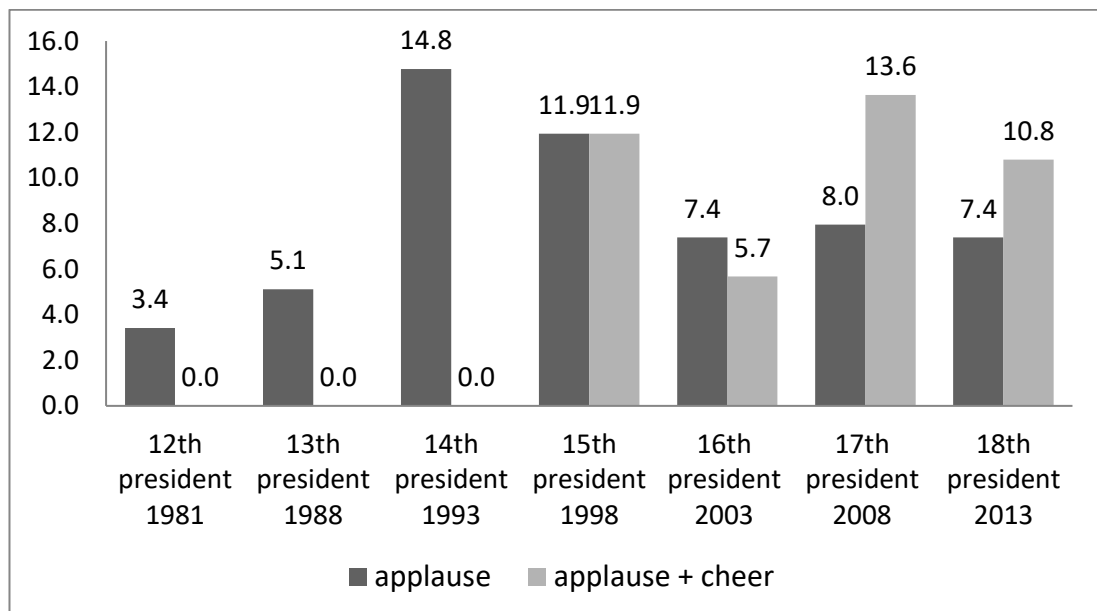
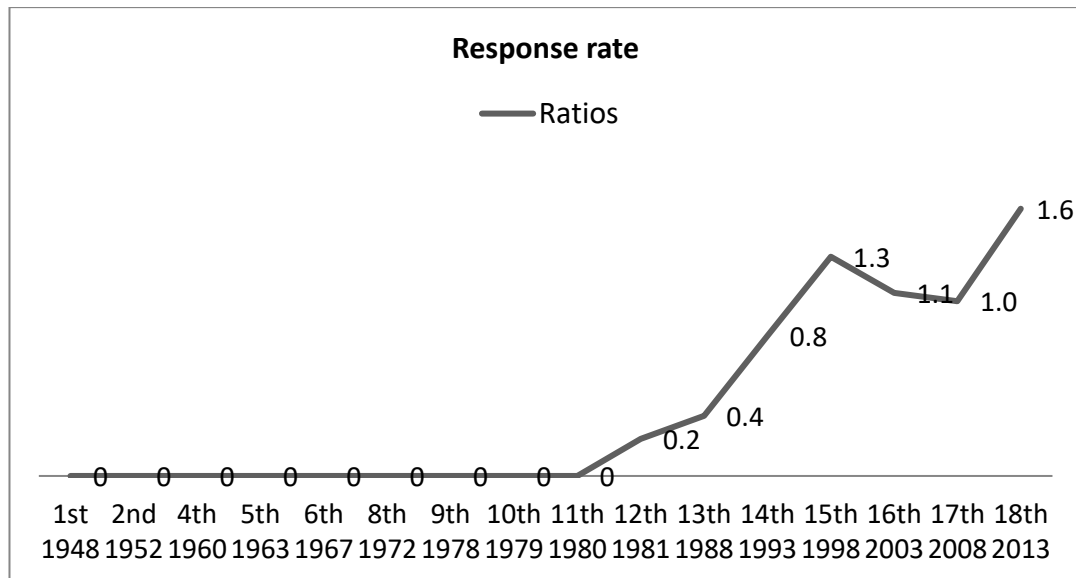


Figure 7.9 below shows response rate by the time period in inauguration speeches. The figure indicates that the responses occurred from the 1980s, that the response rate soared in the 1990s, and then reached a peak in 2013 (the 18th inauguration speech). A t-test between the two time periods (the 1st to 11th inauguration - no

responses; the 12th to 18th – responses) showed that there were significant differences between the two time periods ($t = 5.6401$, $df = 14$, $p < .0001$). A linear regression showed that there was a strong correlation between the response rates and time periods from the 12th to the 18th ($r = .90$, $p = .006$).

Figure 7.9 Response rate by time periods in inauguration speeches



The results on the response forms and rates indicate that there are notable differences over the time period in audience turn-taking in inauguration speeches. The time period of presidential inaugurations can be divided into four audience behaviour periods. (1) The first period is from the first to the eleventh inaugurations (1948-1980). In this period, there was an absence of audience response. This means that audience members did not take a turn during the speeches, they only applauded prior to and at the end of the speeches. It shows a characteristic feature of speaker-audience interaction, broadly social action and social norms, during this period. The speaker-audience interaction during the time shows that the speeches were one-way communication, and the audience members played only a listener role, without producing reactions to the speakers. (2) The second period is from the twelfth to the thirteenth inaugurations (1981-1988). In this period, the audiences responded to the speakers with applause during the speeches, however, the incidents of applause were infrequent. (3) In the

third period (the fourteenth inauguration, 1993) there was a notable increase in incidents of collective applause. (4) The fourth period is from the fifteenth to the eighteenth inaugurations (1998-2013). From the fifteenth inauguration speech, audiences displayed a distinctive form of collective response: applause + cheers. The audience members participated in the speeches displaying not only applause but also applause + cheers, which is a less formal response form than applause.

The question arises as to why there are different audience behaviours over time. In order to approach the question, two aspects will be discussed: (1) the speaker's verbal and nonverbal features between time periods; and (2) social and political changes over the time period.

Table 7.4 below shows the use of verbal devices by the speakers. In the use of dialogic devices which were effective in generating audience responses in the interaction, there were no substantial differences between the speakers. Overall, the speakers did not use dialogic devices more frequently than the other two verbal categories (rhetorical and content), except the 13th president. While the 15th president generated 7.4% of the total responses using dialogic devices, for the 12th president they accounted for only 0.6% and for the rest of the presidents they accounted for between 2.3% and 2.8%. Hence, the table shows that there was no consistent trend that the presidents used dialogic devices increasingly over the time.

Table 7.4 The use of verbal devices by the speakers in inauguration speeches

	% (N)							
	12th	13th	14 th	15th	16th	17th	18th	Total
Rhetoric	2.3 (4)	0.0 (0)	6.3 (11)	9.1 (16)	5.7 (10)	6.3 (11)	6.3 (11)	35.8 (63)
Dialogic	0.6 (1)	2.3 (4)	2.8 (5)	7.4 (13)	2.3 (4)	2.8 (5)	2.8 (5)	21.0 (37)
Content	0.6 (1)	2.8 (5)	5.7 (10)	7.4 (13)	5.1 (9)	12.5 (22)	9.1 (16)	43.2 (76)
Total	3.4 (6)	5.1 (9)	14.8 (26)	23.9 (42)	13.1 (23)	21.6 (38)	18.2 (32)	100.0 (176)

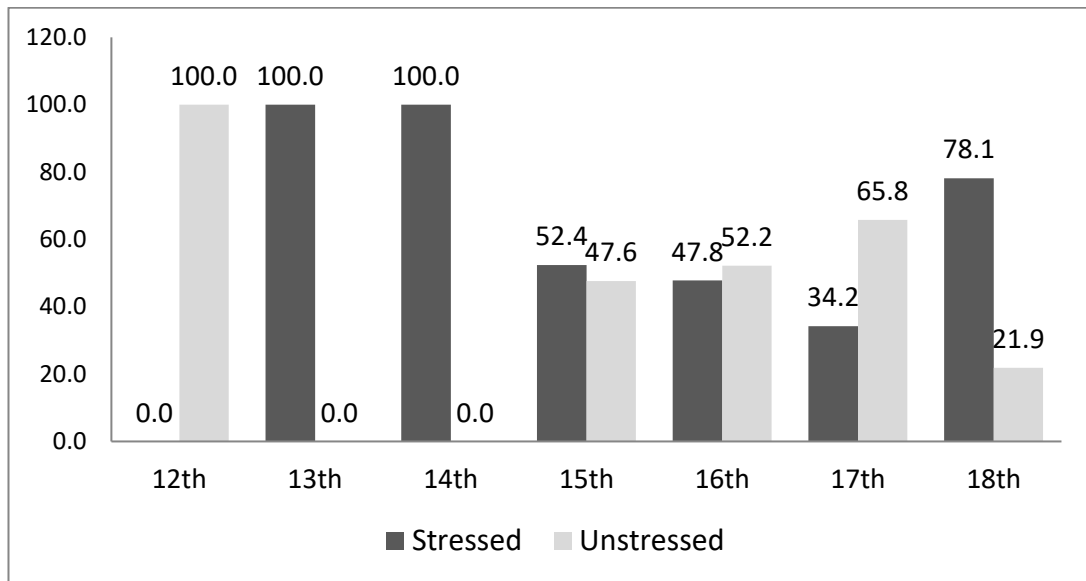
In the use of nonverbal factors in completion units (Table 7.5 below), there was an absence of three vocal patterns among the nine characteristic vocal patterns identified in chapter five: (1) upward intonation, (2) upward intonation + loudness, and (3) upward intonation + loudness + extension. Notably, there were distinctive behaviours between the speakers. The 12th president did not display the characteristic vocal patterns, the 13th president displayed emphasis only, the 14th president used loudness more frequently than emphasis, the 15th-18th presidents use emphasis more frequently than other vocal patterns.

Table, 7.5 Vocal features used by speakers in inauguration speeches

		12th	13th	14th	15th	16th	17th	18th	Total
Loudness	Vocal	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	1.7 (3)	1.7 (3)	1.1 (2)	0.0 (0)	1.7 (3)	6.3 (11)
Loudness + extension	Vocal:::	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	10.8 (19)	1.1 (2)	1.7 (3)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	13.6 (24)
Upward intonation + extension	Vocal::?	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.6 (1)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.6 (1)
Emphasis	<u>Vocal</u>	0.0 (0)	5.1 (9)	1.7 (3)	6.3 (11)	2.8 (5)	4.0 (7)	11.9 (21)	31.8 (56)
Emphasis + extension	<u>Vocal:::</u>	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.6 (1)	0.6 (1)	0.0 (0)	2.8 (5)	0.6 (1)	4.5 (8)
Extension	Vocal:::	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	2.3 (4)	0.6 (1)	0.6 (1)	0.0 (0)	3.4 (6)
Stressed		0.0 (0)	5.1 (9)	14.8 (26)	12.5 (22)	6.3 (11)	7.4 (13)	14.2 (25)	60.2 (106)
Unstressed		3.4 (6)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	11.4 (20)	6.8 (12)	14.2 (25)	4.0 (7)	39.8 (70)
Total		3.4 (6)	10.2 (9)	0.0 (26)	12.5 (42)	6.3 (23)	7.4 (38)	14.2 (32)	100.0 (176)

Figure 7.10 below shows the overall results of vocal stress. There were also distinctive behaviours in stressing completion units in terms of the speakers. The 12th president did not stress vocally, whereas the 13th and 14th presidents stressed all completion units vocally. The 15th and 16th presidents stressed around half of their total completion units (52.4% and 47.8%, respectively). The 17th president (34.2%) stressed around one-third of the total completion units, while the 18th president (78.1%) stressed more than two-thirds of the total completion units.

Figure 7.10 Vocal stressed and unstressed by the speakers



In non-vocal behaviour, there were also distinctive behaviours in terms of the speakers. The 13th president displayed hand gesture not only in the responded to statements but also throughout their speeches. The 14th president displayed clear audience-oriented hand gestures frequently, while the 15th to 18th presidents used head nods frequently. As there was a limitation in visual data of the 12th inauguration speech, the 11th inauguration speech was investigated. The speech was also delivered by the 12th president but there was an absence of audience responses. Hence, it is worth investigating whether there are differences in the use of verbal and nonverbal factors between the speeches in terms of response occurrences and the absence of responses. In the 11th inauguration speech, the speaker did not employ characteristic vocal patterns and gestures. Moreover, audience members did not respond to the typical dialogic devices (i.e., appreciation and asking for cooperation). It was observed that the speaker did not show his intention to generate audience responses throughout the speech. This behaviour was also observed in the other inauguration speeches during the absence of audience response time period (1st-10th, 1948-1980). After this time, the speakers displayed their intention to generate responses frequently using characteristic vocal and non-vocal features. Thus, it appears that the absence of response was a social

norm or speaker-audience attitudes in a very formal and ceremonial political speech context during the time in Korea.

There are also possible relationships between audience behaviour and political periods. It seems that speaker-audience interaction has evolved in Korean presidential inauguration speeches in terms of government names and identities:

1. 1st – 10th inauguration speeches (1948-1979) - first republican government was established and then followed a military dictatorship government period, the presidents used anti-communism to rule autocratically by limiting political freedom;
2. 11th - 13th inauguration speeches (1980, 1981, and 1988) - military government period and growing social actions for political changes and political liberalisation, transition period;
3. The Civilian Government (14th inauguration speech, 1993) – first civilian government period, the government name, The Civilian Government, referred to as the end of military government and the opening of a public president era;
4. The People's Government (15th inauguration speech, 1998) – the government name referred to the people have the sovereignty of the government; The Participation Government (16th inauguration speech, 2003) – the government name referred to the government runs by the people's participation; The Lee Myeong-bak Government (17th inauguration speech, 2008) – the name of the president was used for the government name; The Park Geun-hye Government - the name of the president was used for the government name;

These time ranges are also power change period (by the Opposition, from conservative to progressive 1998-2007, conversely, progressive to conservative again 2008-2013).

Notably, while the presidents from the first and thirteenth inaugurations did not employ government branding, from the fourteenth president government branding

was used. The semantic government names and identities show the changes in the government's attitude towards the people during the time range from dictatorship to democracy. The fourteenth president declared the start of a new political era by stating as "We have gathered here today to open a civilian democracy era" at the beginning of his speech. The fifteenth and sixteenth presidents employed the People's Government and the Participation Government names, respectively. The government brandings indicate that the presidents were concerned to show a people-oriented governing style. The seventeenth and eighteenth presidents employed their name in government branding.

As mentioned, there was an absence of audience responses during the first political period and also the second period of eleventh president inauguration speeches, whereas, from the second political period of twelfth and thirteenth presidential inauguration speeches, few incidents of applause occurred. In contrast to this, in the inauguration speech of the Civilian Government, the frequency of the audience responses soared. From the Participation Government, audience members responded to the president not only through applause but also applause + cheers. Therefore, as the identities of governments have been transformed, speaker-audience interaction in inauguration speech has also evolved. As the concept of a president has transformed from a ruler to a worker for the nation, the relationship between president and audience has changed from vertical to horizontal.

Moreover, after the end of the dictatorship and military government, during June 1987, the people undertook nationwide demonstrations, requesting for direct elections and democratic changes (known as the 'June Democracy Movement'). The demonstrations forced the government to impose direct elections. Thus, from the thirteenth presidential election, the direct election was imposed (it is noted that there were direct and indirect elections previously but the indirect election was imposed during the dictatorship period and military governments). Due to the return of direct election, election campaign speeches have become important political events. The role of the speaker is not only to deliver his or her speeches but also to ask for voting for him or her. Consequently, the audience's roles have

evolved from passive listeners to positive participants in the speeches, and the speaker-audience relationship has been also changed. This indicates that the speakers experienced speaker-audience interactions during the election campaign speeches and prior to the inauguration speeches. As they were elected by the people, they were grateful to the people and expressed their appreciation in the inauguration speeches.

The changes in the relationship between speaker and audience are also shown in the presidents' lexical choices in their speeches. In Korean, there are different levels of honorific language in terms of social relationships (status and age) and kinships between interlocutors. For examples, there are different polite levels in referencing "I" to the listener. "*Na*" is a non-honorific, "*Bonin*" is plain and written style, "*Jeo*" is a polite and humble way to do self-referencing towards the listener. Hence, social superiority or inferiority between the interlocutors and kinships are displayed by the language used between the interlocutors in talk. In the inauguration speeches, the presidents' self-referencing styles have changed over the time period. The presidents used "*Na*" from 1st to 12th, "*Bonin*" from 10th to 12th, and "*Jeo*" from 13th to 18th in their inauguration speeches. This transition from "*Na*" to "*Jeo*" shows the changes in the presidents' attitudes towards the people. During the beginning of democracy and dictatorship period in the country, the presidents showed a hierarchical communication style using non-honorific self-referencing, whereas, from the political transition to present day period, they showed a humble communication style using humble self-references towards to the audience members.

Thus, the audience behaviours throughout the time period show that the identities of governments, election system, the process of democratisation, and president-audience relationships influence the speaker-audience interaction in Korean presidential inauguration speeches.

7.4 Effectiveness of Interaction Management Skills

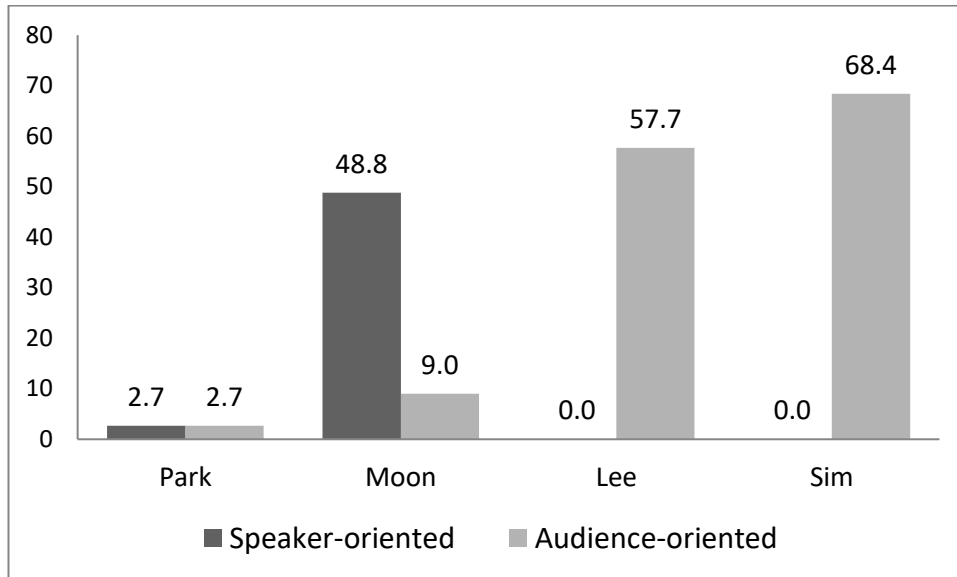
In chapter five, it has been demonstrated that (1) there are individual differences in the use of nonverbal factors, and (2) the nonverbal factors are important resources in generating audience responses effectively. In this section, the individual differences are investigated further in order to study how a political orator develops his or her interaction skills through the series of speeches. In so doing, interaction management skills in political oratory are discussed. As explained, election campaign speeches were delivered during the campaign in many cities based on similar speech content. Thus, they are valuable data in studying how a speaker improves his or her interaction skills and turn-taking strategies. The speakers investigated in this thesis were experienced orators, except Moon Ji. Hence, the speeches of the experienced speakers were delivered to the audience members throughout their political careers. This may mean that the audience members, especially in the partisan context, experienced their leaders' oratorical style. Moon was less experienced in delivering political oratory compared to his opponents. Consequently, his speeches were not presented in public until the election, and therefore audience members had less information on his oratorical style. Thus, Moon's speeches can be an appropriate resource for a case study on how an inexperienced orator acquires speaker-audience interaction skills through the series of speech events. By comparing the speaker's interaction management behaviours and the use of nonverbal factors in his speeches and between the speakers, this question will be investigated.

7.4.1 Hand gestures comparisons

In Chapter 5, it was demonstrated that audience-oriented hand gestures play an effective role in signalling an invitation to respond. Figure 7.11 below shows the use of hand gestures in acceptance speeches according to each speaker. As shown, Park used hand gestures in only 5.4% of near, or at, the completion units in the responded to statements, while the other three speakers used hand gestures with 50% of the responded to statements (Moon 57.8, Lee 57.7%, and Sim 68.4%).

Hence, Park has a tendency to use hand gestures infrequently or invisibly in acceptance speeches (It is noted that gestures invisible to the audience were not coded although they were observable to the coder).

Figure 7.11 Hand gesture in acceptance speeches



In the use of speaker-oriented and audience-oriented hand gestures, there were distinctive behaviours between the speakers. While Park showed no specific preference in the use of the two types of gestures, the other three speakers displayed clear preferences. Notably, Lee and Sim had their own patterns in their hand gesture behaviour. They used audience-oriented hand gestures only (Lee 57.7% and Sim 68.4%) and there was an absence of speaker-oriented hand gestures. In contrast to this, Moon used nearly 50% of speaker-oriented gestures and only 9% of audience-oriented gestures. While Park, Lee, and Sim had long political careers and experience in delivering political oratory as party political leaders, Moon had a freshness and less experience in political oratory than the other three speakers. In fact, it was his first experience of delivering oratory as a leader of his party though he, as a candidate, delivered speeches during the primary elections in his party prior to the acceptance speech. However, during the election campaign, his hand gesture behaviour changed notably. Although Park used hand gestures more frequently in campaign speeches than in acceptance speeches, Park used fewer hand gestures than Moon: Park 18.4% and Moon 29.5% (Figure 7.12). Moreover,

Moon used more audience-oriented gestures than speaker-oriented gestures in campaign speeches.

Figure 7.12 Hand gesture in campaign speeches

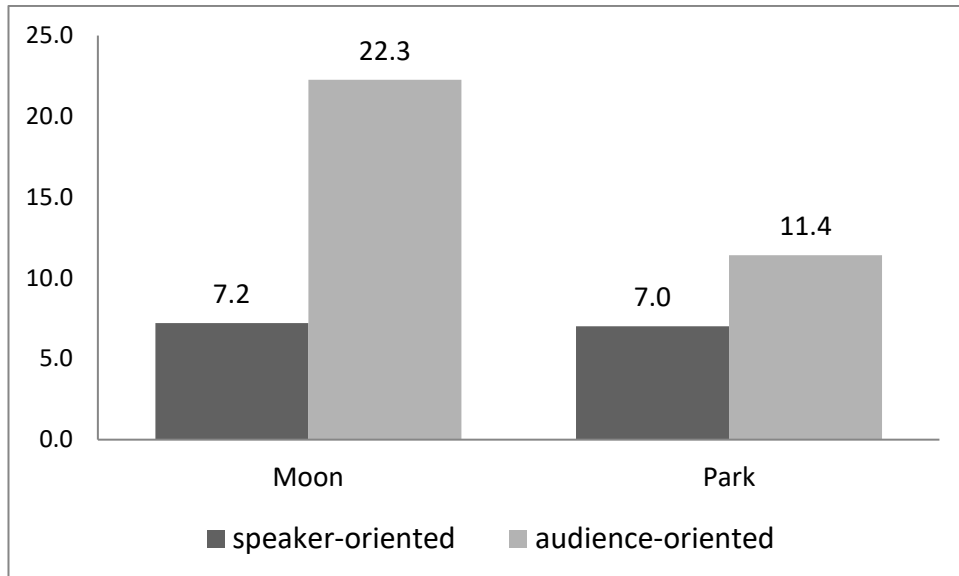
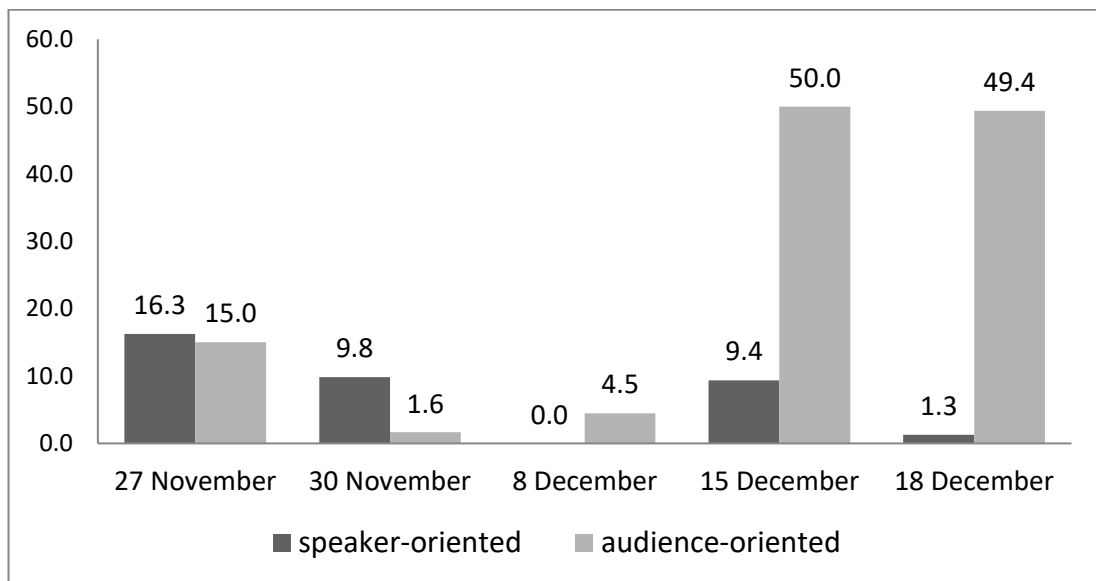


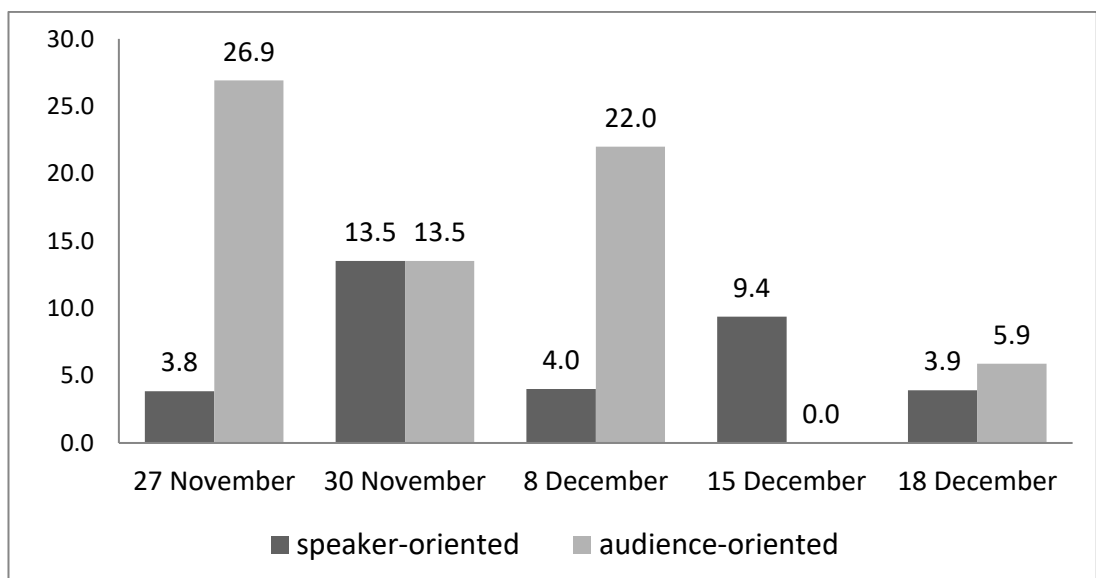
Figure 7.13 shows Moon's hand gesture behaviour according to the speech delivery dates: the first day of the campaign was on the 27th of November and the last day on the 18th of December. As presented, unlike hand gesture behaviour in acceptance speeches, he used similar incidents of the two types of hand gestures in the first speech. Although he used more speaker-oriented gestures on the 30th of November, he used more audience-oriented gestures in the speech on the 8th of December. Then, the use of audience-oriented gesture soared in his speech on the 15th of December and the 18th of December, which was the last election campaign day. The hand gesture behaviour of Moon in acceptance and campaign speeches indicates that a political leader learns his or her hand gesture techniques during the two speech contexts and acquires effective hand gesture skills in generating collective audience responses.

Figure 7.13 Hand gesture of Moon JI in campaign speeches



The hand gesture behaviour of Park, who is an experienced political speaker, shows no such changes during the election campaign (Figure 7.14). In the first day of the official election campaign, she displayed audience-oriented hand gestures (26.9%) much more frequently than speaker-oriented gestures (3.8%). She displayed the two types equally on the 30th of November at 13.5% and more audience-oriented gestures (22.0%) than speaker-oriented gestures (4.0%) on the 8th of December. However, the frequency of hand gestures declined by the last day of election campaign.

Figure 7.14 Hand gesture of Park GH in campaign speeches



7.4.2 Interaction comparisons

Table 7.6 shows burst/staggered, invited/uninvited, and speaker interruption behaviour in terms of the speakers and speech contexts based on the results demonstrated in Chapter 6. In acceptance speeches, it is shown that Moon's interaction management skills were weaker than the other speakers in all dimensions. The results indicate that the three speakers, in particular, Lee and Sim, displayed clear nonverbal signals in completion units when inviting responses.

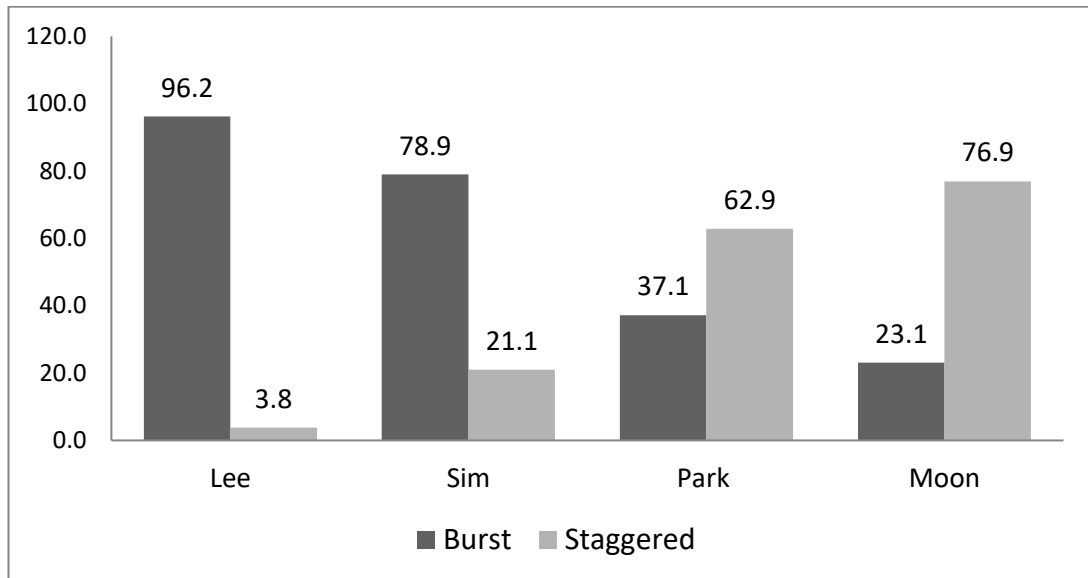
Table 7.6 Interaction comparisons by speakers and speech contexts

	Acceptance				Campaign	
	Lee	Sim	Park	Moon	Moon*	Park*
Burst	96.2	78.9	37.1	23.1	78.6	63.4
Staggered	3.8	21.1	62.9	76.9	21.4	36.6
Invited	92.3	89.5	74.3	53.8	82.4	86.2
Uninvited	7.7	0.0	5.7	24.4	10.3	5.1
Ambiguous	0.0	10.5	20.0	21.8	7.3	8.7
Speaker interruption	3.8	5.3	0.0	25.6	3.0	3.5

* The results are an average of the campaign speeches the speakers delivered.

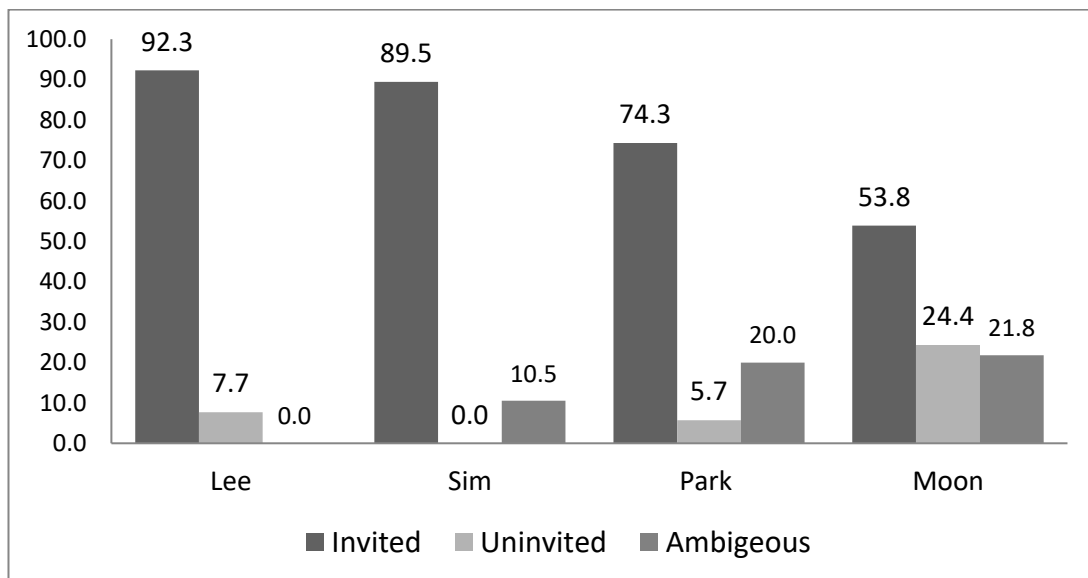
In burst and staggered responses (Figure 7.15 below), the three speakers generated 96.2% (Lee), 78.9% (Sim), and 37.1% (Park) of burst responses, whereas Moon generated 23.1% of burst responses, and 76.9% were staggered responses.

Figure 7.15 Burst and staggered responses in terms of speakers



In invited and uninvited responses (figure 7.6 below), the three speakers clearly displayed invitations to respond using characteristic nonverbal features in their responses to statements (Lee, 92.3%; Sim, 89.5%, and Park 74.3%), whereas Moon displayed invitations clearly in 53.8% of responses to statements.

Figure 7.16 Invited and uninvited responses in terms of speakers

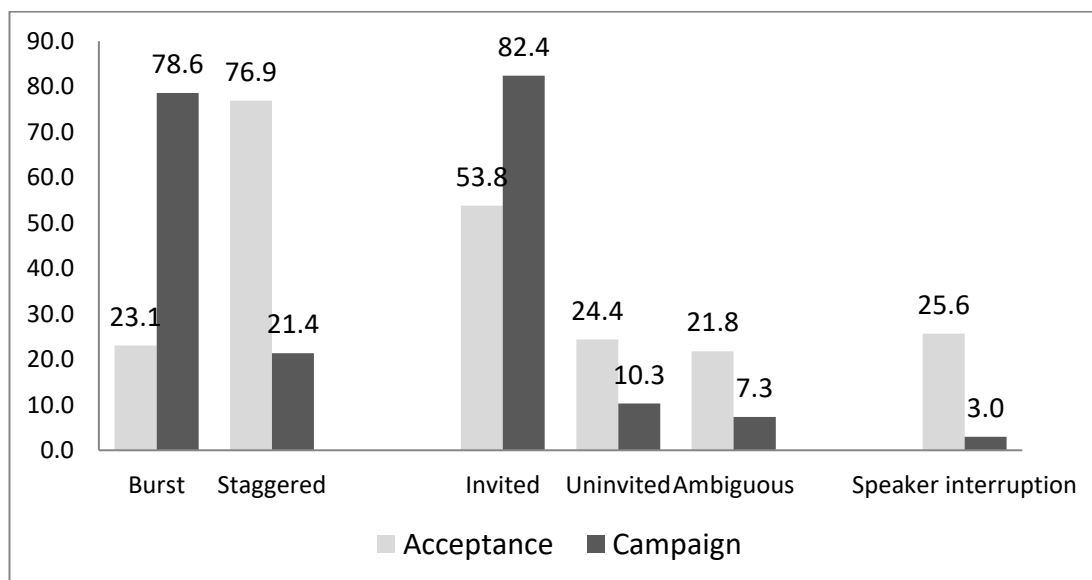


Speaker interruption occurs when the speaker resumes the next sentence before the intensity of the audience response has declined. This behaviour makes the duration of responses end earlier or overlap with the speaker's next sentence. In

speaker interruption behaviour, the three speakers interrupted the audience’s turn in only 3.8% (Lee), 5.3% (Sim), and 0.0% (Park) of audience responses. Park did not interrupt the audience responses. These results indicate that the three speakers waited until the responses died away, and then resumed their next sentences. As results, turn-taking occurred effectively in their speeches. Notably, Moon interrupted 25.6% of the audience responses. Hence, it was often observed that the audience responses did not last long or overlapped with the speaker’s turn in acceptance speeches.

However, his interaction management skills were substantially improved in campaign speeches. Figure 7.17 shows a comparison between acceptance and campaign speeches. In campaign speeches, he generated burst responses three times (78.6%) as many as in acceptance speeches, invited responses displaying clear signals on 82.4% of the responded to sentences, and interrupted the audience turn on only a few instances (3.0%). In addition, as reported, he used audience-oriented hand gestures more clearly and frequently than speaker-oriented hand gestures and used more dialogic devices with upward intonations in campaign speeches.

Figure 7.17 Comparisons of interaction management in Moon’s speeches



From the results and qualitative analysis presented in the previous chapters, it can be learned that: (1) an inexperienced orator improves his interaction management

skills through a series of speech events; (2) if a speaker intends to generate a burst of audience response, it is an essential skill for the speaker to present a clear signal using nonverbal factors at completion units in inviting the responses in the Korean context; (3) in order to make turn-taking more effective between the speaker and audience members, it is an important skill for the speaker to acquire when and how to take his or her turn from the audience turn; (4) a good orator uses verbal and nonverbal factors effectively in inviting responses, preventing the audience's interruption at a pre-step of a core sentence, signalling clearly the invitation to respond to the core sentence ending (e.g., Extracts 6.5 and 6.6 in Chapter 6).

7.5 Summary and Discussion

In this chapter, the implications of the studies are demonstrated. (1) In the relationship between audience response rates and electoral success, there was no relationship in Korean presidential election 2012. However, further investigation provides valuable insights into the relationship between collective group behaviour and voting systems. (2) It is proposed that audience responses are evolving in relation to political time periods, identities of governments, and the relationship between speaker and audience. Thus, not only speech context but also political systems are important variables in studying political orator-audience interaction. (3) In managing speaker-audience interactions effectively, essential techniques for the orator to acquire are how to invite audience responses and when to take a turn back (or take the next turn) during the audience's turn. The comparisons of the speakers' skills in generating responses and turn-taking management provided us with an understanding of how experienced orators invite bursts of responses and take their turn, and how a less experienced orator improved his interaction skills over the speech events.

The studies and implications of this thesis have been presented based on speaker-audience interaction in local speech venues and same language speakers between the speaker and audience members. There are three possible future studies beyond the speech context and the culture. First, during election campaigns, there are also

televised speeches in a broadcast studio targeting the distance viewers. The speech and interaction context is different from the speech contexts investigated in this study. The speech context is not to generate immediate audience responses but the responses will appear after the speeches in social networks, online websites, or news. The response forms are different from the collective audience responses. We might ask then, how should the speakers design their speech structure? What verbal and nonverbal factors should they use in delivering their speeches to achieve their goals in the broadcast studio speech context? How do we analyse the speech impacts?

Second, in the international speech context, political leaders deliver their speeches to audience members who do not speak the same language. In this context, the audience members listen to the speaker's speech through interpreters. Thus, it is questionable (1) how interaction occurs in this speech context, and (2) whether the verbal and nonverbal factors play an important role in generating audience responses or whether the interpreter's translation plays a more important role than the speaker's performance.

Third, in the English speech context, rhetorical devices played a dominant role in generating audience responses. Therefore, if an English political speech is delivered to Korean audience members, do the rhetorical devices play the same functions as in the British and American speech contexts? For example, if British or American political leaders delivered their speech to Korean audience members who understood English, there was no need for an interpreter. In this context, how might the Korean audience members respond to them? Do the functions of rhetorical devices work with the Korean audience? These three future studies will contribute to our understanding of how speaker-audience interaction occurs in the different speech genres and the speaker-audience relationship of the televised speeches in a broadcast studio and international political oratory.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

This thesis was guided by three broad aims: (1) to investigate the contextual and cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory, (2) to contribute methodological innovations in the analysis of political discourse, and (3) to emphasise the practical implications of the study for real life. By conducting a series of analyses on speaker-audience interaction in three different Korean political oratorical contexts, this thesis has elaborated characteristic audience behaviours and speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour in terms of three speech contexts.

The major aims of the investigation of contextual and cultural differences were: (1) to explore how audience members respond to speakers in terms of three different speech contexts in a collectivistic society; (2) to investigate speaker's verbal devices and nonverbal factors usage when generating audience responses; (3) to examine to what extent, the verbal and nonverbal factors play a role in generating responses; (4) to study whether there are relationships between the generation of responses and the grammatical ordering of SVO and SOV languages. This concluding chapter summarises the key findings and the key contributions to the speaker-audience interaction field.

8.1 Summary of Findings and Arguments

Through an inductive approach, a series of analyses (from Chapter 3 to Chapter 7) was conducted on audience responses to speaker's verbal devices, nonverbal features, the overall structure of messages, and other detailed interactions. The results of this study show that Aristotle's three manners of persuading (i.e. ethos, logos, and pathos) are employed in the generation of audience responses regardless of context and culture: ethos - speaker's status in partisan context and popularity in political meetings; logos - rhetorical devices, dialogic devices, and

content; pathos - nonverbal factors and emotion. However, there were distinct levels in the use of the three manners in the different speech contexts and cultures.

In Chapter 3, the focus was on audience turns. Through microanalyses of audience behaviour, response forms and collective/isolated responses were investigated. It was found that:

1. There were different predominant response forms in the three speech contexts: applause in the formal and ceremonial context of inauguration speeches; applause + cheers in the partisan in-group context of acceptance speeches, and verbal responses in the informal and competitive context of election campaign speeches.
2. Audience response behaviour was different in three speech contexts, in particular with regard to their relative degree of formality and competitiveness. The more informal and competitive the speech context (inauguration < acceptance < campaign), the more forms of audience response there were, the more isolated responses there were, the more sequential response incidents there were, and the more audience responses there were.
3. Chanting and sequential responses were characteristic audience behaviours in the competitive context of the acceptance and campaign speech context of Korean political oratory.

A key argument of this thesis then is that previous studies did not give sufficient consideration to speech context; it suggested that there were relationships between audience behaviour and cultural dimensions. However, there were contextual differences in audience responses to political speakers in Korean oratory. In particular, there were characteristic audience behaviours between presidential inauguration speeches and presidential election campaign speeches. Accordingly, it was argued that speech context is an important variable in audience responses to speakers in political oratory.

In Chapters 4 and 5, focusing on the speaker's turn, the use of verbal devices and nonverbal factors in generating audience responses were examined. In Chapter 4, it was found that:

1. There were clear distinctions in the use of the verbal devices in the different contexts. In acceptance and inauguration speeches, Korean speakers used rhetorical devices more frequently than dialogic devices, whereas in campaign speeches, they used dialogic devices more frequently than the rhetorical devices.
2. Speech content played a substantial role in the generation of responses, particularly in acceptance and inauguration speeches.
3. Therefore, Korean speakers generated audience responses more explicitly in the informal and competitive context of presidential election campaign speeches than in the other two contexts, whereas, they generated responses more implicitly in the formal and ceremonial context of the presidential inauguration and presidential candidacy nomination acceptance speeches.
4. There was a relationship between the use of verbal devices and response forms. The speakers employed verbal strategies (i.e. question-answer formats) in the generation of verbal responses in election campaign speeches.

A key argument of this thesis is then that Korean speakers employed different verbal strategies in the use of the verbal devices in terms of the speech contexts in generating audience responses. Hence, the argument in the previous studies about the relationship between cultural dimensions and the use of verbal devices was not confirmed.

In Chapter 5, focusing on speaker's nonverbal behaviour, nonverbal features in generating audience responses were investigated. The chapter illustrated the use of nonverbal factors with detailed transcriptions and analysis. It was found that:

1. Nonverbal features in completion units (i.e. verbal units) were crucial in generating audience responses, regardless of the speech contexts.
2. There were characteristic vocal patterns in the completion unit in the generation of responses: loudness, loudness with extension of vowel sounds, upward intonation, upward intonation with loudness, upward intonation with extension of vowel sounds, upward intonation with loudness and extension of vowel sounds, emphasis, emphasis with extension of vowel sounds, and extension of vowel sounds.
3. In terms of non-vocal features, smiles and audience-oriented hand gestures were effective in the generation of responses. There were cultural differences in the effectiveness of gaze between British and Korean speeches. While gaze played an important role in generating responses in British speeches, the gaze was not an essential tool in Korean speeches.

A key argument in this thesis then is that (1) the use of nonverbal factors in the completion units is crucial in the generation of audience responses, regardless of the three speech contexts, and (2) there were characteristic nonverbal features in inviting audience responses in Korean speeches. However, there are small numbers of studies on nonverbal factors in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory. Thus, there was a limitation in studying cultural differences in the use of nonverbal factors.

In Chapter 6, integrating the results of speaker-audience turns, interaction dimensions were investigated. The effectiveness of verbal/nonverbal and the relationship between the function of rhetorical devices and grammatical order were explored. It was found that:

1. Korean speakers invited most of the audience responses using full stress. In particular, loudness vocal cues were effective in generating bursts of responses.
2. Most of the audience responses were synchronised with the speeches, regardless of speech contexts.

3. In terms of cultural differences, while British speakers invited audience responses using rhetorical devices frequently, Korean speakers invited responses using non-rhetorical devices frequently. However, audience responses in Korean speeches were more synchronised than in British speeches. Moreover, Korean audience members hardly interrupted the speaker's turn. Notably, nonverbal factors played a more predominant role than the traditional rhetorical devices and content, in the generation of collective responses in Korean oratory.

A key argument of this thesis then is that the function of rhetorical devices is different in English speeches and Korean speeches due to differences in grammatical ordering. While rhetorical devices play a role in projecting completion units in English speeches, they do not play such a role. The role is not necessary for Korean speeches because verbal units indicate clear completion units in Korean political oratory. Thus, grammatical ordering is an important variable in studying cultural differences in speaker-audience interaction in political oratory.

In Chapter 7, the implications of the thesis were discussed by providing further analysis of the relationship between response rates and electoral success, the relationship between audience behaviour and identities of governments, and interaction management strategies in political oratory. It was found, and argued, that:

- (1) There was no relationship between response rates and electoral success in the Korean presidential election 2012. Previous studies argued that there were relationships between response rates and electoral success in an individualistic society, while there was no relationship in collectivistic society because there were distinct functions of responses between the two cultures. However, in the chapter, it was argued that the function of audience response is different in terms of the speech contexts. There are more relationships between audience behaviour and election/political systems than between audience behaviour and cultural dimensions.

- (2) There were relationships between audience behaviour and political time periods in inauguration speeches. It was argued that the identities of governments, political period, election system, the process of democratisation, and president-audience relationships influence the speaker-audience interaction in Korean presidential inauguration speeches.
- (3) There were individual differences in managing turn-taking. Through the analysis, it was shown that an inexperienced speaker could improve his techniques of managing the interaction through a series of speech events.

8.2 Contributions to the Field

The study of social interaction has placed relatively little focus on the study of audience behaviour in political oratory. This thesis has contributed to the study of speaker-audience interaction in the political oratory field by providing theoretical, methodological, and social and political insights. In this study, by investigating three different speech contexts in a culture, it showed that: (1) there are close relationships between orator-audience interaction and speech contexts beyond the cultural dimensions; (2) invitation to respond is shaped by multiple layers of resources (verbal devices and nonverbal factors); (3) grammatical order is an important factor in the cultural differences in terms of the projectability of turn completion in orator-audience interaction; (4) audience behaviour has evolved through the different political time periods of a culture; (5) the production of orator-audience interaction occurs by mutual respect of each other's turn, mutual collaboration to achieve shared goals or purpose of the speeches. Thus, it is suggested that speech contexts, language, and political periods/systems are important variables in studying speaker-audience interaction in political oratory.

This study has demonstrated that there are message structures in speaker's turn in inviting collective audience responses (Chapter 6). Although the structures are displayed slightly different according to the three speech contexts, basic structures are Introduction topic - Description - Evaluation - Request for action and then audience responses occur. Interestingly, similar structures are also showed in the

introduction sequence of British stand-up comedy performers (Rutter, 1997, 2000). Generally, comperes introduce performers in British stand-up venues prior to main performances by interacting with audience members. The structures of the introduction are Contextualisation – Framing of response – Evaluation – Request for action – Introduction of the comedian – Audience applause. Thus, this study and Rutter's studies show that organisations of a speaker's turn are a key aspect in inviting collective audience responses in speaker-audience interaction not only in political oratory but also in the introduction sequence of stand-up comedy. In this study, nonverbal factors played a key role in a completion unit in inviting audience responses, however, rhetorical devices (i.e., contrast, list, puzzle-solution, headline-punchline, combination, position taking, pursuit) identified in British political speeches and specific techniques (i.e., re-incorporations, alliteration and assonance, intonation, adoption of voices) were key roles in British stand-up comedy.

In public lectures of management guru, speakers invited collective audience laughter using the rhetorical devices and nonverbal actions (i.e., smiling or laughing, comedic facial expressions, gestures, and prosody) (Greatbatch & Clark, 2003). In a study of audience perception of charismatic oratory in management gurus' speeches, the use of rhetorical devices does not differ between charismatic and non-charismatic speakers but the use nonverbal factors differ between them. Charismatic speakers were more anointed and dynamic in their speech delivery (Clark & Greatbatch, 2011).

This study has found that (1) speaker-audience interaction occurred effectively for both the speaker and audience's shared goals and (2) the audience members showed always affiliative responses and hardly interrupted the speaker in the three speech contexts of Korean political oratory. However, in a very distinct speaker-audience interaction, for example, speaker-audience interaction at Speakers' Corner in Hyde Park where the public can participate in a debate, audiences showed disaffiliative responses, interrupted, and heckled the speaker (McIlvenny, 1996a, 1996b). These similarities and differences between political oratory and other speaker-audience interaction contexts (stand-up comedy, public lectures of

management guru, and Speakers' Corner) indicate that there is much to explore in contextual similarities and differences in the speaker-audience interaction field.

This study has demonstrated the role of nonverbal factors including gestures and gaze in generating collective audience responses and presented detailed transcriptions of nonverbal factors (Chapter 5). Chapter 5 is a core analysis chapter in this study because projectability in inviting audience responses, the speaker's intention, and audience behaviour have fully explored when demonstrating the nonverbal behaviour of the speaker. This suggests that nonverbal factors including gestures are more important resources than previously shown. Studies on political speeches tend to focus on a verbal resource. Studies on social interaction tend to focus on verbal and vocal resources. However, by integrating verbal factors, vocal factors, gestures, and gaze, the analyses and findings in this study substantially enhance our understanding of orator-audience interaction in political speeches. In hand gestures, it was a valuable finding that (1) there are audience-oriented and speaker-oriented hand gestures in delivering speeches, (2) there is a close relationship between gesture space and the audience-oriented hand gesture, and (3) the audience-oriented hand gesture is an effective tool in inviting collective audience responses. It is hoped that presentation of nonverbal factors, especially the embodiment, in this study contribute to the study of social interaction field.

In terms of methodological contribution, the thesis has provided detailed coding systems by developing a top-down non-CA-grounded coding and CA-grounded coding schemes. Transcription, coding, and presentation of nonverbal behaviours including the embodiment were time-consuming tasks. However, they were critical tasks in this study. To analyse verbal and nonverbal behaviours, I relied on the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods through the following procedures. First, each audience response was identified and marked on the transcript according to the forms of response and audience collective/isolated behaviour. Second, based on the audience response, the speaker's messages were analysed, and the speaker's nonverbal features were transcribed and analysed. Using existing theory and coding schemes in previous studies, the initial coding

schemes (top-down non-CA-grounded coding) on verbal analysis were created, and then additional coding rules were developed for deviant cases. Coding schemes and transcription conventions were also created based on CA conventions and techniques for analysing nonverbal factors. During the analysis, the initial nonverbal coding schemes were refined and developed further. Third, based on the coding of the audience's and speaker's behaviours, the detailed interaction was investigated: based on identifying response points, interruption and overlaps, alongside the duration of responses. Thus, overall, the analysis was conducted through an inductive approach with the following ordering: audience response → speaker's verbal and nonverbal behaviour → interaction dimensions and message structure → practical implications. The quantitative analysis has enabled the study of contextual and cultural differences, while the qualitative analysis has been offered to study detailed interaction aspect and generated CA-grounded coding schemes.

The thesis has demonstrated that contrasts and lists, which are the most effective rhetorical devices in Western cultures (British and American speeches), are not effective in generating audience responses in Korean speeches. Notably, naming (self-naming and audience-naming) is an effective rhetorical device in Korean oratory. This draws our attention to the cultural differences in the effectiveness of rhetoric in Western and Eastern cultures. Rhetorical devices are derived from ancient Greek. Ancient Greek is a SVO language. Thus, it appears that rhetorical devices developed to make SVO languages more effective, and are inherent in Western political speeches. Consequently, there can be a mutual understanding of the functions of the rhetorical devices between political speakers and audience members. This can be also one of the reasons why the rhetorical devices were effective in generating audience responses in British and American speeches.

Studies of political speeches have been conducted predominantly in Western political contexts, emphasising a speaker's speech content and rhetoric. However, the systematic micro-analysis of speaker and audience behaviours in Korean political oratory shows important findings and implications for social and political behaviour. In conclusion, I propose that this detailed microanalysis of orator-

audience interaction, in a previously unresearched culture, provides novel insights into orator-audience interactions in the three different contexts of political speech-making.

Appendix A. Transcription conventions

[]	Overlaps between audience response and a speaker's utterance
=	No temporal gap between audience response and end of a speaker's utterance
X	Clap by audience
((8.0))	Duration of audience response Or transcriber's descriptions of events
(0.5)	Duration of pause in tenths of seconds or duration of gap between turn-taking
(.)	Duration of pause shorter than two-tenths of a second
::	Extension of preceding sound – the more colons the greater the extension
<u>underline</u>	Vocal stress
Bold	Loud sounds relative to the surrounding words
° quiet °	Quiet sounds relative to the surrounding words
•tears•	Trembling voice
↑	Pitch up
↓	Pitch down
.	Falling or final intonation
'	Continuing intonation
?	Rising intonation
< speed >	Slowing down
> speed <	Speeding up
≡	Eye gaze to front
<<	Eye gaze to right side of speaker
>>	Eye gaze to left side of speaker
VV	Eye gaze to down (scripts on a rostrum)
☺	Facial expression, smile
☹	Facial expression, sad

☺~~~~~	Facial expression, smile continued
☹~~~~~	Facial expression, sad continued
@	Head nod
🙅	Headshake (for negation)
#	Upper body movement
r	Right hand gesture
l	Left hand gesture
b	Both hands gesture
r-p	Right hand - Power grip
l-p	Left hand - Power grip
b-p	Both hands - Power grip
r5-s	Right hand 5finger spread - Slicing
l5-s	Left hand 5finger spread - Slicing
b5-s	Both hands 5finger spread - Slicing
r1-pt	Right hand index finger - Pointing
l1-pt	Left hand index finger – Pointing
r1-n	Right hand index finger - Numbering
r-o	Right hand - Open Palm
l-o	Left hand - Open Palm
b-o	Both hands - Open Palm
r-bp	Right hand - Back Palm
l-bp	Left hand - Back Palm
b-bp	Both hands - Back Palm
r-s~~~~	Preparing a hand gesture
r-s-----	Holding a hand gesture
r-s.-.-.-.	Withdrawing a hand gesture
r-s≈≈≈	hand gesture and hand movement continues
<i>r-s</i>	<i>Italic</i> , invisible gesture to audience
UPPER CASE	Abbreviation of morpheme gloss

Appendix B. Abbreviations for Morpheme Gloss

ACC	Accusative particle
AND	Adnominal particle
ADV	Adverbial particle
ATTR	Attributive particle
CONJ	Conjunctive particle
DC	Declarative sentence
DET	Determinative
FUT	Future tense
GEN	Genitive particle
HON	Honorific suffix
NOM	Nominative particle
OBJ	Objective particle
PL	Plural
POL	Polite
PRO	Propositive sentence
Q	Question/interrogative sentence
QUOT	Quotative
SUB	Subjective particle
TOP	Topic

List of Additional Speeches

Moon Jae-in (DUP):

November 28, Daejeon, 28:50 minutes
November 30, Daegu, 06:06 minutes
December, 02, Incheon, 15:14 minutes
December, 05, Seoul, 18:19 minutes
December 07, Jeju, 18:17 minutes
December 13, Jeonju, 16:13 minutes
December 13, Gwangju, 23:48 minutes
December 14, Busan, 23:44 minutes
December 17, Incheon, 19:42 minutes
December 17, Paju, 15:55 minutes
December 17, Guri, 17:39 minutes
December 18, Seoul, 16:25 minutes

Park Geun-hye (SP):

November 28, Cheonan, 15:12 minutes
December 11, Jeju, 13:00 minutes
December 12, Daegu, 18:45 minutes
December 18, Busan, 7:39 minutes

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