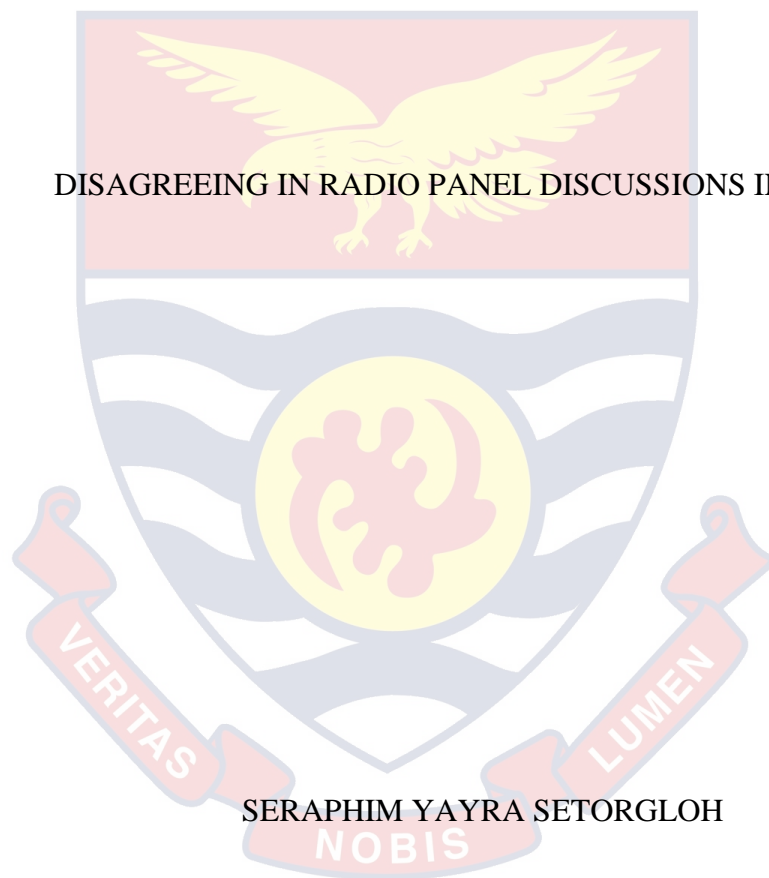UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DISAGREEING IN RADIO PANEL DISCUSSIONS IN GHANA

SERAPHIM YAYRA SETORGLOH

2021

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DISAGREEING IN RADIO PANEL DISCUSSIONS IN GHANA

BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of English of the Faculty of Arts, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in English Language

APRIL 2021

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature ……………………… Date…..................................

Name………………………………………………......................................

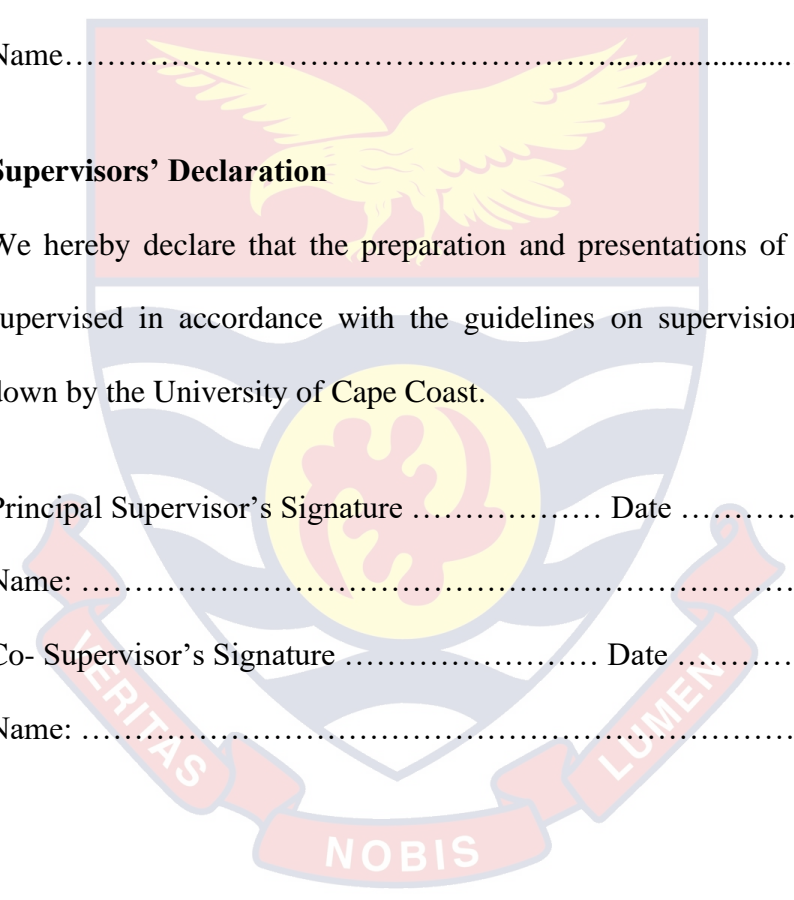**Supervisors' Declaration**

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentations of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature ……………… Date ………………..……

Name: ………………………………………………………………………

Co- Supervisor's Signature ………………… Date …………………………

Name: ………………………………………………………………………

ABSTRACT

Over the years, the media has become indispensable in every human setting. Almost every aspect of life is influenced by the media. The term was first used with the advent of newspapers and magazines. The radio is the most relied on mass media platform in Ghana and a considerable number of Ghanaians listen to the radio to obtain their political, social and economic information (Selormey, 2012). A talk show involves talk that is intentionally communicated to an audience that is absent (Scannell, 1991). As with all forms of communication, discussions on radio involve the discussants disagreeing at one point or another during the discussion. Thus, employing the qualitative approach to research, this study investigates panel discussions on two popular Ghanaian radio shows with the aim of identifying the strategies discussants employ in disagreeing and how they mitigate their disagreements. In all, 195 instances of disagreement were identified. Ten (10) strategies were used by discussants to express disagreement. These include: *the use of contradictory statements, explicitly stating disagreement, challenge, hedges, the use of no, the use of doubt or disbelief, among others.* Mitigating strategies also include *hesitation markers, partial agreement, expression of regret, questions for clarification, explanation and providing suggestion or alternatives.* The present research contributes to studies in media discourse and bridges the gap in the literature on the study of disagreement in Ghana.

KEY WORDS

Disagreement

Disagreement strategies

Discussants

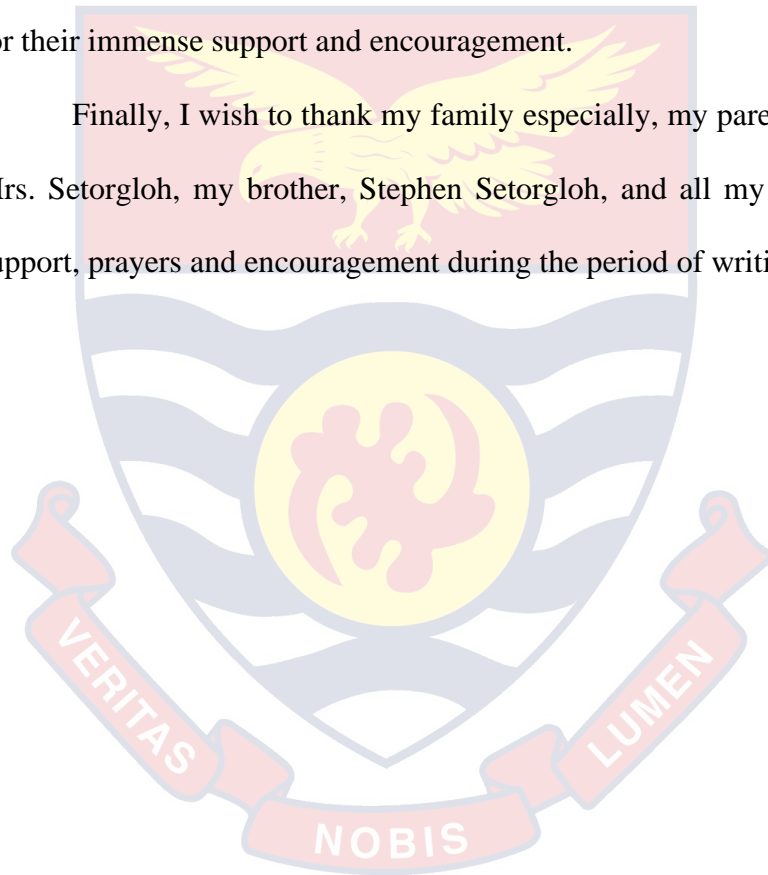Mitigation strategies

Radio talk show

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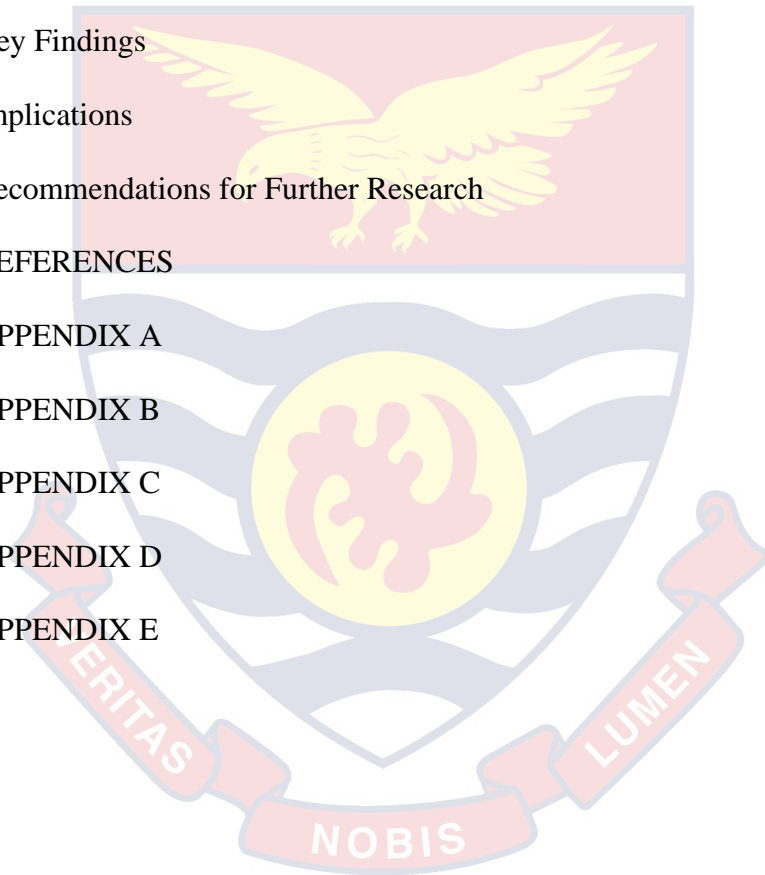
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DEDICATION

To my family

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Over the years, the media has become indispensable in every human setting as almost every aspect of life is influenced by the media. Nasir (2013, p. 407) claims that the media "has become almost as necessary as food and clothing." "The term 'media' is derived from 'medium' which means carrier or mode" (Nasir, 2013, p. 407). It was first used with the advent of newspapers and magazines. The term has, however, been broadened to cover radio, television and the internet in recent times. The media is largely used to inform, educate, entertain and model the opinion of the people.

The media in Ghana is very vibrant and plays a key role in shaping political discourse, national identity and popular culture. Until the 1992 constitution, the media, both broadcasting and print were dominated by the State. The government controlled the use of the airwaves and the government broadcast station was merely the mouthpiece of the government. In 2001 when the criminal libel law was repealed, there was a surge in the number of independent broadcast stations in the country.

According to Ghana Broadcasting Study (2005), Ghana's cultural heritage has begun to find new forms of expression in the media through the growth of private commercial and community radio broadcasting over the last ten years. At present, there are about 505 radio stations in Ghana with about 392 of them operational (www.nca.org.gh). The liberalisation of broadcasting has brought a new pluralism in the media enabling different voices to be heard and opinions to be aired (Ghana Broadcasting Study, 2005).

One key format of radio programmes is the talk show. A radio talk show involves talk that is intentionally communicated to an audience that is absent (Scannell, 1991). Talk produced on radio exists in real time: the moment of speaking and hearing is the same. In the past 20 years or so, talk radio has been a major type of mediated public forum in many countries (Lee, 2007). The simplicity and inexpensiveness of radio allows it to reach a lot of people and its interpersonal nature allows for spontaneous interaction between two or more people; hence, providing listeners with a sense of personal contact and a forum to discuss and to learn about societal issues (Rubin & Step, 2010).

One type of talk show on radio is the panel discussion show. It involves conversation on a specific subject between an interviewer (who is usually the host) and two or more interviewees (who often speak as discussants). This type of radio talk show represents a context where private individuals articulate their views or opinions on social issues within a public space. In such discussions, the members of the panel are chosen for their known views on the topic and are not expected to change their minds during the programmes. The producers of such shows often hope to provide to their audience a balanced discussion with each discussant receiving equal time and attention (Utterback, 1964).

All forms of communication as well as conversations between panel members or discussants are facilitated by the use of language. Sarfo (2007) mentions that communication is vital and virtually fundamental to our lives. As one of the most powerful means of communication, media talk is characterised by specific acts associated with a speaker's utterance. These

acts, known in the sub-discipline of pragmatics as 'speech acts', are defined by Searle (1965) as the minimal linguistic unit of human communication. One such speech act is disagreement. Disagreement is an act that is performed in response to a prior turn or utterance by a speaker and allows speakers to express their opinion concerning particular issues (Pomerantz, 1984). It is defined as a conflict of people's opinion or characters or a difference between conflicting claims or opinions. Disagreement may also be defined as the expression of a view that differs from that expressed by another speaker (Sifianou, 2012).

According to Koczogh (2012), disagreement is often perceived as a disprefferred, face-threatening act that poses a threat to an addressee's positive face and, thus, has the potential to jeopardize the social harmony between the hearer and the speaker. This is corroborated by Pearson (1985), who claims that disagreement in usual friendly interactions could sometimes damage or even break the relationship. However, Sifianou (2012) reports that disagreement is not necessarily an act that is face-threatening; rather, it can sometimes be a highly supportive act. Liu (2004) and Bavarsad and Simin (2015) contend that disagreement is an act that is unavoidable in human interaction. As such, no matter how hard people try to avoid it, they face a very complicated condition when they try to avoid the unavoidable. Disagreement, thus, seems to be an essential ingredient in daily settings and features in so many aspects of life.

It is against this background that this research seeks to study the strategies radio panel discussants in Ghana employ in disagreeing, and to

explore to what extent they mitigate such expressions of disagreement in order to facilitate a harmonious interaction on a show.

Statement of the Problem

Radio is the most relied on mass media platform in Ghana and several Ghanaians listen to the radio to get their political, social and economic information (Selormey, 2012). Consequently, it is unsurprising that radio represents a significant player in the media landscape (Coker, 2011). This is evident in the pluralisation of radio stations in Ghana and the massive listenership radio stations enjoy. Radio, and in fact the media in general, aid in the development of the modern society.

On radio, both public and private opinions are expressed more than elsewhere. As a central part of their work, hosts or producers of radio panel discussion shows often bring together (either physically in a studio or by telephone) people with opposing views on a range of controversial topics, establish and enforce ground rules for their communication, and in the process provide a form of "live" conflict analysis for their listeners (Botes & Langdon, 2006). By so doing, the people (hereafter, 'panel members' or 'panellists') are left to discuss the issues with the host only playing the role of a facilitator. In such discussions on live radio, which Lee (2007) refers to as an "electronic public space", panel members express their views, opinions, and concerns on topical issues. There is, therefore the likelihood for panel members to disagree on the various issues they discuss.

The speech act of disagreement has been studied in various contexts and from different perspectives in recent times. Baym (2010) notes that in computer-mediated discussions, the expression of disagreement is direct

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because as members of a virtual community, the people hardly know each other and are not obliged to use face-saving acts. Pomerantz (1984) also mentions that disagreements are preferred or dispreferred, depending on the context and that they are produced in several turns with hesitations and delays. To Kreutel (2007), it is the undesirable option. Despite pioneering studies on the speech act of disagreement (Kakava, 1993; Schiffirin, 1984), it has rarely received attention from researchers (Maiz-Arevalo, 2014) until recently. The growing interest of researchers in disagreement may be attributed to its complex nature and perhaps the need to depart from studying what Koczogh (2012, p. 1) terms "cooperative linguistic behaviour" to issues related to conflict talk.

Most of the studies on the speech act of disagreement have tended to focus on the production of this speech act by native speakers (Maiz-Arevalo, 2014). Other studies have contrasted the expression of disagreement in English language with other languages (Moyer, 2000; Kusevska, 2012; LoCastro, 1986). Relatively less research on disagreement has been conducted on the speech of learners and non-native speakers (Maiz-Alevaro, 2014). Likewise, Lawson (2009, p. 4) states "given the importance of learning how to express one discord effectively through the medium of the target language, there has, to date, been relative paucity of research into how non-native speakers of English express disagreement".

In Ghana, speech acts such as compliments (Anderson & Assiama-Ossom, 2010; Agyekum, 2010), refusals (Gborsong, 2016), requests (Sarfo, 2007), and apologies (Obeng, 1999) have been studied. Disagreement is one of the most commonly occurring speech acts in everyday interactions. People

essentially disagree to their opponent's view and propound their own views to justify the soundness of their argument. However, it seems little attention has been paid to disagreement in the Ghanaian context. More specifically, disagreement is face-threatening and can disrupt a social interaction if done wrongly; yet, several other studies prove otherwise.

Given this research gap, there is the need to investigate the expression of disagreement among Ghanaians. Specifically, this study explores the various strategies Ghanaians employ when expressing disagreement on two popular radio stations in Ghana. It also investigates the strategies used to mitigate the expression of disagreement.

Research Objectives

This study seeks to identify the strategies employed by panel members on radio discussion to express disagreement. Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Identify the strategies used by panel members of a radio panel discussion to express disagreement.

2. Identify whether there are any strategies to mitigate the expression of disagreement.

Research Questions

To achieve the objectives of this study, this research is guided by the following research questions:

1. What linguistic strategies do discussants of radio panel discussions in Ghana use to express disagreement?

2. How do discussants of radio panel discussions employ mitigation strategies when they express disagreement?

Significance of the Study

This research focuses on the speech act of disagreement as produced by panel members on two radio stations in Ghana. The study is beneficial for cross-cultural communication. Ghana is noted to be a hospitable country with several tourist sites. Several foreigners and tourists are attracted into the country all year round. Therefore, this study provides a useful lens for which to understand the Ghanaian speaker of English and ultimately serve as a guide to communication between them (foreigners and tourists) and the Ghanaian speaker of English.

The study furthermore adds to the growing knowledge on English in Ghana and serves as a way of studying the Ghanaian variety of English. Although the English spoken in Ghana is yet to be codified and standardized, the language is a distinctive variety and this study adds to the existing knowledge on it.

Delimitation to the Study

This study focuses on identifying the strategies radio panel members employ in disagreeing to the issues being discussed. It must be noted that the study concentrates on studying English spoken in Ghana.

Also, the study solely explores verbal interactions, not written interactions that take place in the media landscape. This study essentially focuses on discussions by panel members on controversial and topical issues on radio programmes. All other forms of verbal interactions on radio such as monologues and phone-in sessions are not included. In spoken interactions, speakers hardly get the opportunity to correct their mistakes and even when they do, it reflects a normal and natural use situation (Sarfo, 2007). Thus,

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spoken interactions provide the researcher with naturally occurring data unlike written communication that produces a near perfect text.

Furthermore, radio talk programmes are limited to the news analysis shows broadcast on the two radio stations: Joy FM and Citi FM every Saturday morning between the hours of 9am and 12pm. The shows are '*Newsfile'* and '*The Big Issue'* respectively. Both radio stations, as well as the two shows, enjoy massive listenership from across the country.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that this study focuses on talk shows that are broadcast in English language to avoid the infelicities and misinterpretations that might occur when translating shows in Akan to English. Stations which use English as their *modus operandi,* therefore, provide a means of collecting data which are spoken in English, thus, avoiding the problem mentioned above.

Organisation of the Study

The study is organised into five chapters. This introductory chapter has laid the foundation for the entire study. So far, the chapter has discussed the background to the study and espoused the problem which has necessitated the research. It also includes the objectives of the study and research questions which guide the study, significance of the study, delimitation to the study and the organisation of the study.

Chapter Two provides an overview of the depth and breadth of work that has been done in the area of disagreement by way of reviewing related literature. The concept of disagreement as a speech act is also discussed. The chapter again provides a detailed discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of the study.

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In Chapter Three, I discuss the methods and approaches employed in conducting the study. Specifically, I describe the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure and data analysis procedure that were used for this study.

Chapter Four reports the results arrived at from the study and discusses the findings in relation to the research questions outlined in Chapter One.

In Chapter Five, which is the concluding chapter, I summarize the entire study and the findings of the study. In this chapter, I also present implications of the findings and recommend areas for further studies.
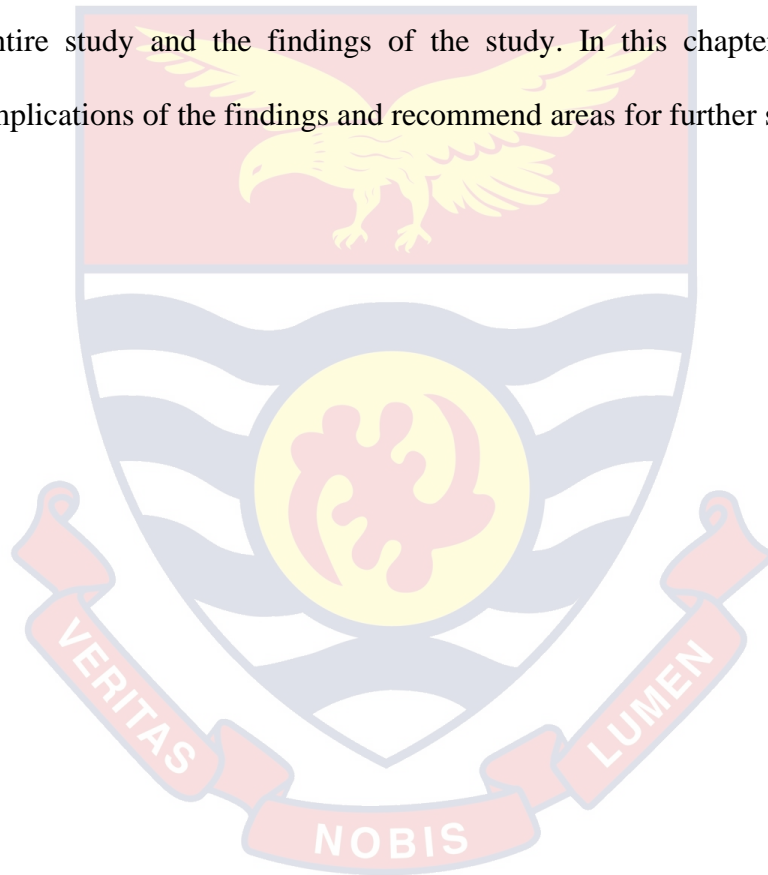
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews literature related to issues of disagreement in panel discussion shows on two radio stations in Ghana. The review is organised into three main sections. The first section entails the theoretical review whilst the second section covers the conceptual review. The third, and last section, comprises the empirical review. The theoretical review examines two main theories: the Pragma-dialectic approach to the study of argumentation as well as the politeness theory. The conceptual review discusses the concept of disagreement whilst the empirical review is presented in line with the research questions formulated for the study.

Theoretical Review

Argumentation theory

Argumentation theory serves as the theoretical foundation for this study. Argumentation theory is a theory that studies arguments as they are produced in discourse with the aim of justifying one's standpoint or refuting someone else's standpoint. The theory serves as a lens through which the findings of the study are understood. In this section, the researcher discusses argumentation theory with emphasis on the pragma-dialectic approach to argumentation which is the backbone of this study.

Argumentation is a verbal activity, most often in an ordinary language. It is defined "as a verbal, social and rational activity aimed at convincing a reasonable critic of the acceptability of a standpoint by advancing a constellation of propositions or refuting the proposition expressed in the standpoint" (Van-Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1984, p. 18). By holding

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different opinions on varying subjects and advancing those opinions in interactions, individuals can be said to be engaging in an argumentative discussion. In argumentation, people use words and sentences to argue, to state, question or to deny, to agree or to disagree among others. This brings to bear the idea of the speech act theory which pertain to the topic under consideration. For example, in discussions on radio shows, the panel members use words and sentences to argue, state, question or to deny, to agree or to disagree among one another. This justifies the use of Argumentation theory as a theoretical underpinning of this current study.

Furthermore, Eemeren, Grootendorst, Johnson, Plantin and Willard (2013) opined that argumentation is a social activity, which in principle is directed to other people and a rational activity in which people put forward their arguments, placing them within the realm of reason. Still linking it to the topic under study, it can be mentioned that discussions on radio shows are a form of social activity which in rule are directed to other people most especially the listening audience who might share the same or divergent views about the topic under review. Moving on, it has been observed that disagreements usually occur in everyday interaction and if it is not managed well degenerates into arguments. To illustrate further, Bermejo-Luque (2011) noted:

> The process of argumentation is an everyday and everywhere activity for most people: from mass media to scientific forums, from coffee breaks to political debates... The activity of arguing is closely connected to the idea of rationality, understood both as a property of our claims, beliefs, decisions, etc., and also as a human faculty. It is not only that by providing reasons we exhibit the

rationality of what we do, claim, believe, etc., but also that the very faculty of rationality is a matter of individuals' responsiveness to reasons, as opposed to mere stimuli (pp. 1, 2).

Still discussing the Argumentation theory, it can be stressed that argumentation usually pertains to a specific point of view. For instance, the speaker or writer who advances an argument defends this standpoint to a listener or a reader who doubts the acceptability of the standpoint or has a different standpoint. This case is the same when it comes to discussions on radio. A panellist will always try to put forward a strong defence or a standpoint to a listener who in one way or the other doubts the acceptability of the standpoint of the other. This is one essential characteristic of argumentation. Point of view is, thus, referred to as the expression of a positive or negative position with respect to a proposition therefore making it clear to the reader or listener exactly what a speaker or writer stands for. A positive position expresses a positive committedness to a proposition and vice versa. This means that during arguments, speakers may decide to agree partially with the previous speaker even before expressing their own opinion—whether they agree or disagree with the previous speaker or speakers—on the issue or topic under discussion.

Another essential characteristic of the theory is what is referred to as the unexpressed premises. This is often implicit in the discourse and is mostly the pivotal point of the argument. This implies that what is usually left unexpressed by the arguer is what arguments are normally based on. For instance, in "the man is a thief because he is banker", it is obvious that the unexpressed premise is that "all bankers are thieves". Therefore, more often

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than not in ordinary arguments, the unexpressed premise is what drives the argument.

Other important features or characteristics of the theory are argument scheme, argumentation structure and argumentation interpretation and reconstruction. Argumentation schemes are conventionalized ways of displaying a relation between that which is stated in the explicit premise and that which is stated in the standpoint (Van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1984). This includes the principles, procedure, standards or assumptions involved in the justification or refutation of a particular standpoint. The argumentation structure is usually determined from the argument scheme. It is done by determining the ways in which the reasons advanced in the argument hang together to support the standpoint.

This structure can either be simple or complex. Argument interpretation centres round the organisation of the argumentative discourse and the features of the discourse that ordinary language users employ to orient themselves with when interpreting arguments, and the reasoning processes that are applied in argument interpretation. After an argument has been interpreted, then it can be reconstructed. Argument reconstruction, simply put, involves identifying and isolating all the parts of the discourse that are relevant to the analyst. In principle, it means then that all other parts of the discourse that are not directly relevant to and for the purpose of the analyst are removed. Argument reconstruction is done using various approaches such as formal logic, informal logic, rhetoric and pragma-dialectics. Among these approaches, the one that seems suitable to this study is the Pragma-dialectics approach which is also known as the Amsterdam School. It also seems

appropriate for the current study because the Pragma-dialectics approach is currently the most popular approach to the study of argumentation.

The Pragma-Dialectics Approach was developed by Frans Van-Eemeren and Rob Grootendorst. This approach emphasizes the need to view argumentation as a phenomenon of everyday discourse. It focuses on standpoints and is an attempt to overcome doubt as to the acceptability or criticism of a standpoint in an argumentative discussion. The purpose of the discussion is for the parties involved in the difference of opinion to exchange their views systematically and to try to determine whether the standpoint or standpoints at issue are defensible in the light of critical doubt or objections. In this approach, all the arguments that can be made in a discussion with the aim of resolving the difference in opinion are viewed as "speech acts" that are performed within the ambit of a particular "speech event" in a context of interaction that takes place against a specific cultural-historic background. In their own words, Van-Eemeren and Grootendorst (2004) claim that their model of critical discussion is "dialectical because it is premised on two parties who try to resolve a difference of opinion by means of a methodical exchange of discussion moves. The model is pragmatic because these discussion moves are described as speech acts that are performed in a specific situation and context" (p. 22). In this study, the context is panel discussions on radio.

Pragma-dialectics isolates four methodological guidelines that need to be looked upon as principles for the analysis and evaluation of argumentative discourse or texts. They include functionalization of argument, externalization of argument, socialisation of argument and dialectification of argument.

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Functionalization of argument involves viewing the language activity or subject of investigation as a purposive activity. Externalization of argument refers to the externalization or verbalization of the subject to be investigated. This means that the analyst must only concern himself with only expressed opinions and arguments that have been verbally communicated by the parties involved. Therefore, the analyst does not need to concern himself with the thoughts, ideas or motives that underlie the expressed opinions but the opinions that are externalized in or can be externalized from the discourse. Socialisation of the argument means that the subject of investigation must be treated communicatively and intentionally. By this, the argument must be seen as a bilateral process where "the language user fulfilling the communicative role of listener is in principle entitled, if he is not yet convinced, to react to the argumentation and himself act as speaker, so that a dialogue is initiated" (Van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1984, p. 9). Dialectification of the argument involves the process of allowing both pro and contra argumentation and regarding the language activities in the argument as part of an attempt to resolve a difference of opinion in accordance with the norms of critical reasoning.

The pragma-dialectic theory of argumentation further distinguishes four stages (discussion stages of a critical discussion) that arguers go through in the process of resolving an argument during a critical discussion. They are the "confrontation" stage, "opening" stage, "argumentation" stage and the "concluding" stage. Although these stages have been identified, arguers need not necessarily go through all four stages in the process of resolving an

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argument. Also, arguers do not have to go through all the stages in the proper order in which they appear.

At the "confrontation" stage of a critical discussion, it usually becomes evident to parties involved that there is a standpoint that is not accepted because there is the presence of doubt or contradiction and thereby establishing a difference of opinion. Similarly, when it comes to panel discussions on radio, a standpoint which is not accepted due to the presence of doubt in another or other panel members view point often serves as a basis for disagreement. In the "opening" stage, the parties who share a difference in opinion try to find out how much relevant background information they share in order to be able to determine whether such knowledge is sufficient enough to conduct a fruitful discussion. Fogelin (1985) also subscribes to this belief when he asserts that there must be shared procedures for the resolution of disagreements by which he means that such discussions must take place within the context of broadly shared beliefs and preferences. Phillips (2008), on the other hand, refutes this claim by Fogelin. On his side, Phillips believes that for a fruitful argumentation process, the arguers must have shared procedural commitments and competencies with the argumentation process itself. Thus, the arguers must able to communicate their views and arguments for their standpoints effectively. In the "argumentation" stage, the arguers advance their arguments for their standpoints with the aim of refuting the arguments advanced by the other party. The "concluding" stage in a critical discussion is the point at which there is the establishment of the result of the attempt to resolve a difference of opinion.

Over all, argumentation has a role in the regulation of disagreement. People engaged in an argument or people who have a difference of opinion usually disagree about a specific subject at hand. The pragma-dialectic approach aims at resolving the difference of opinion that exists among members or parties involved in a critical discussion as in the case of panel discussions on radio stations.

That being said, argumentation theory draws on the speech act theory in the analysis of arguments because advancing arguments for or against a proposition amounts to the performance of speech acts (van Eemereen and Grootendorst, 1982).

For a person to understand what an utterance means, s/he must be able to understand what the utterance is being used for. This presupposes that the sentences or utterances, when they are made by a speaker, are always used to perform a specific function rather than it just being a mere utterance. Their meanings are not always derived from the propositional content alone. Thus, the context within which the utterance is made must also be given some consideration when determining meaning.

The speech act theory posits that a sentence or a proposition performs a particular function. Arguments however, consist of more than one sentence which may perform several functions such as correcting, claiming, justifying, explaining, refuting among others. This implies that with the uttering of each individual sentence a new specific illocutionary act is performed. However, O'Keefe (1982) notes that an argument is not a speech act but a linguistic product of that is conveyed by a speech act. To O'Keefe, an argument entails

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the communication of a claim which is linguistically explicable and one or more overtly expressed reasons which are linguistically explicable.

That being said, argumentation theory draws on the speech act theory in the analysis of arguments because advancing arguments for or against a proposition amounts to the performance of speech acts (van Eemeren and Grootendorst, 1982). The speech act theory propounded by Austin (1962) and Searle (1967) posits that every utterance performs a particular illocutionary function. Austin (1962) mentions that every utterance is used to perform three simultaneous actions—locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. The locutionary act is the act of saying something in a full normal sense. The illocutionary act, a consequence of the locutionary act, is used to perform a particular function. The effect of the locutionary act on the feelings, thoughts and action of the hearer or sometimes the speaker is known as the perlocutionary act. Austin's choice of the word 'act' has been objected to many including by Allwood (1977) who notes that the word 'act' gives the impression that he is talking about temporarily distinct activities rather than concomitant ones.

For a person to understand what an utterance means, s/he must be able to understand what the utterance is being used for. This presupposes that sentences or utterances are always used to perform a specific function. That is what Austin refers to as the illocutionary act of an utterance.

An argument, however, according to O'Keefe (1982) is not a speech act in itself but a linguistic product that is conveyed by speech acts. This alludes to the fact that an argument consists of more than one sentence which may perform several functions such as correcting, claiming, justifying,

explaining, refuting among others. This shows that with the uttering of each individual sentence a new specific illocutionary act is performed. All of these acts that are performed by the various sentences are what come together to make an argument. An argument in itself is valid in that is in relation to a particular opinion that has been previously expressed.

Based on this, the proponents of the pragma-dialectic approach to argumentation, van Eemeren and Grootendorst, make a distinction between what actions sentences make on a one to one relation (a sentence corresponding to an illocutionary act on a one to one basis) and arguments. They refer to argumentation as a complex illocutionary act because it is a speech act entity at the textual level made up of illocutionary acts each having a particular illocutionary force at the sentence level. In their own words, they note that the elementary illocutionary acts … relate to the uttering of sentences each of which individually has a particular illocutionary force and complex illocutionary acts relate to the uttering of sentences which together constitute a particular textual whole which can be allocated its own illocutionary force." (van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1982, p. 5).

This shows that at the sentence level, the uttering of each sentence indicates the performance of one illocutionary act. At the textual level the uttering of a number of sentences is similarly the performance of one illocutionary act complex: an argumentation. However, even if the argument is made up of one sentence, it will have the illocutionary force of an assertion on the sentence level and an argumentation at the textual level.

Just like Austin (1962), van Eemeren and Grootendorst outline conditions for the performance of an illocutionary act complex of

argumentation. Since a complex of speech utterances may act as a pro-argumentation or contra argumentation, they formulate conditions for both. Pro-argumentation is referred to as a defence or a justification of an opinion. On the other hand, contra-argumentation is also referred to as an attack on an opinion which is also meant to refute that opinion. For the happy performance of a pro-argumentation, the following conditions must be fulfilled;

1. A propositional content condition to establish that a number of sentences or utterances together form a constellation of expressed propositions.

2. A preparatory condition that establishes that the speaker believes that the listener does not accept the opinion in advance but will accept the expressed proposition and will accept it as a justification of the speaker's opinion.

3. Sincerity conditions that establish that the speaker believes his or her opinion as expressed and that he or she believes that the argumentation constitutes a justification of his opinion.

4. An essential condition that indicates that the uttering of a constellation of expressions counts as an attempt to convince the listener of the acceptability of his opinion.

   The conditions for the performance of a happy contra-argumentation include a propositional content condition and a preparatory condition that is just the same as listed for a pro-argumentation. The conditions also include

5. A preparatory condition that establishes that the speaker believes that the listener accepts the opinion wholly or partly and will accept the constellation of expressed propositions as a justification of the speaker's opinion.

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6. A sincerity condition that shows that the speaker does not believe the listener's opinion but believes that his constellation of expressions constitute a refutation of the opinion.

7. An essential condition that establishes that the uttering of a constellation of expressions counts as an attempt on the part of the speaker to refute the listener's opinion or to convince the listener of the unacceptability of his opinion.

The conditions listed are each a necessary condition for the performance of a happy illocutionary act complex and together they all constitute a sufficient condition. If any of the conditions is not met, then the act is deficient, what Austin and Searle refer to as unhappy.

The speech act of disagreement is an essential ingredient in argumentation. In justifying or refuting an opinion that has earlier been stated, the speaker produces a string of utterances that seek to disagree. Also, regardless of the form in which the argumentation is expressed, what is inevitably being said is 'I disagree'.

Politeness Theory

Another theory which is in line with this study is the Politeness Theory developed by Brown and Levinson (1987). The reason has been that disagreement is considered a speech act which is often face-threatening to the hearer. To minimize the face threat, politeness strategies must be employed hence the need to consider Politeness Theory in this study.

Politeness theory assumes that in conversation, there is the likelihood for the face of interlocutors to be threatened therefore attention needs to be paid to the faces of individuals in interactions. It thus offers politeness as a

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necessary component of unoffensive communication which seeks to redress the face threatening act (henceforth FTA).

This idea of face was first introduced by sociologist Erving Goffman when he wrote that face had to do with the 'positive social value' that people liked to maintain in social interactions. As social beings, individuals or humans create an image for themselves and strive to project and maintain such an image in their social interactions.

Brown and Levinson (1987) thus draw on Goffman's idea of face in their politeness theory. On page 61 of their book, *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* they define face as the "public-self image that every member wants to claim for himself" in interactions or in conversations. This face is equally shared among participants in an interaction and like an unspoken rule, every participant is aware of the face needs of the other. In other words, every individual's face is something that is emotionally invested and can be lost, maintained, or enhanced and must be constantly attended to in interaction. In support of this study, there is no doubt that discussants on a radio show also have a face. These faces are psychologically invested and can be lost or maintained at any point in conversation on our radio stations.

The concept of face has two aspects. These are positive face and negative face. Positive face refers to the desire or want of every individual to be liked, ratified, accepted, understood and admired by other members of society. Expressing the same concept in line with the study, it can be said here that participants in a discussion would want to be liked, accepted, understood and admired by other panel members, the listening public or the society as a whole. Therefore, when disagreement occurs during such an interaction, it

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threatens the positive face of the hearer if it is not done in such a way to protect the hearer's face. Negative face on the other hand is the desire of an individual to be free from any form of imposition in his or her actions and the right to make one's own decision. As seen earlier, people prefer the positive face to negative face. Nobody wants any form of act to be imposed upon him or her and definitely not the opinion of another person. Everybody wants to be liked and accepted. These two types of face must be heeded to in social interactions. Failure to do so causes some damage and destroys communication.

Brown and Levinson (1987) identify certain acts as Face-threatening in conversation. These are acts which cause some form of damage or harm to the face of either the speaker or the hearer by going contrary to the face wants or needs of either participant in the interaction. Face-threatening acts may either threaten the positive face of the speaker or the hearer or the negative face of the speaker or the hearer. Examples of acts which threaten negative face include orders and requests, contradictions or disagreement, suggestions, advice, threats, reminding, warnings, dares among others. Acts which also threaten positive face include expressions of disapproval, criticism, contempt, ridicule, accusations, insults and challenges. These examples provide evidence that similar incidents are experienced during discussions held on radio stations. Criticism, accusations and insults are common on our airwaves during such periods.

Brown and Levinson (1987) propose the politeness principles to deal with FTA so that the speaker does not end up embarrassing the hearer and in

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so doing save the hearer or addressee's face in communication. These principles or strategies are schematized in the figure below.
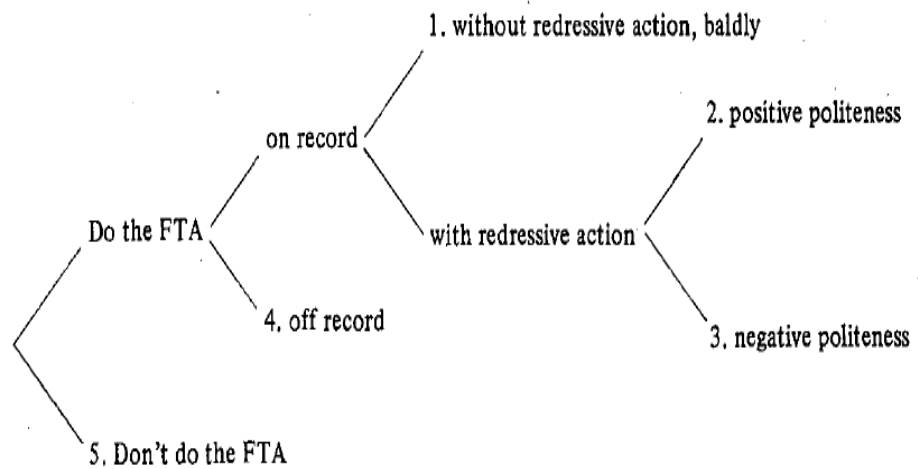
Figure 1: Politeness principles to deal with FTA

Source: Brown and Levinson (1987)

The figure indicates that four politeness principles: on record (bald-on-record), positive politeness, negative politeness and off record. An actor or participant, by performing a FTA on record indicates clearly to the participant(s) his/her communicative intentions. By so doing, the speaker performs the act in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible" (p.69) such that there is no room for redress. Bald-on-record usually makes no effort to attend to the face of the hearer.

Performing the FTA with redressive action involves performing the act in such a way that it takes into consideration the face needs of the addressee. This means that the act is done with some amount of modification that indicates to the addressee that such an act is not intended or desired. Such redressive action takes one of two forms depending on which aspect of face is being stressed (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 70).

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Positive politeness is expressed by paying attention to and satisfying the positive face wants of the addressee. By so doing, it highlights the friendliness and camaraderie between the speaker and the hearer. This can be done in so many ways including claiming common ground with the participant, attending to the hearer's needs, wants, interests or goods, seeking agreement with the hearer by choosing safe topics, through the use of humour and jokes etc. These create the belief and impression that the speaker to some extent wants the 'wants' of the addressee. Kitamura (2000) summarises the ways in which this can be done into two: by indicating similarities among participants or by expressing an appreciation of the participant's self-image.

Negative politeness, on the other hand, seeks to partially redress or mitigate the hearer's negative face want of not being imposed upon. It is essentially avoidance based and its realisations consist in the speaker reassuring the hearer that he recognizes and respects the addressee's negative face wants and will not (or will minimally) interfere with his or her freedom (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 70). This can be accomplished through the use of hedges and questions, by not coercing the hearer, apologizing among others.

Off record strategy is indirect and relies on implication. It involves the breaking of conversational norms to imply a particular course of action. This strategy is usually used by speakers to assign or attribute more than one unambiguous intention to what they say so that he/she cannot be held to have committed himself to a particular intent. It is used to recognise and respect the hearer's face by showing little or no threat to the addressee's want of respect and dignity (Sarfo, 2007). Off record strategy can be accomplished by inviting

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conversational implicature and being vague and ambiguous. Strategies here include using rhetorical questions, contradictions, giving hints and association clues, over generalizing, making incomplete statements among others.

Disagreements, as earlier stated are threats to the positive face of an individual. In doing disagreements, the speaker expresses an opinion that is most often contradictory to what the hearer has earlier said (not forgetting that disagreements are expressed in relation to a prior speech). In society, most people pay particular attention to negative politeness than they do to positive politeness. Moreover, being polite to the addressee is of bigger importance than to a third-party who is not directly involved in the communication process (Sarfo, 2011). Brown and Levinson seem to agree when they say that "negative politeness is the most elaborate and the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for FTA redress" further claiming that most of the books on etiquette are filled with negative politeness although some attention is given to positive politeness in them. Hence, some attention must be given to the face of participants, whether in a face-to-face interaction or in communication in a virtual world when disagreements are being expressed.

Conceptual Review

Concept of Disagreement

Koczogh (2013) asserts that the phenomena of conflict and disagreement have been captivating researchers for several decades. This might probably be because of the fact that disagreements are commonly occurring in speech and are complex in nature. The term "disagreement" has been defined by different scholars in different ways based on how they perceive it. Disagreement has been used in varying ways in the literature. For

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instance, Angouri and Locher (2012) approach disagreement by first acknowledging the fact that expressing disagreement is an everyday phenomenon which is expected and appreciated in some contexts than in others. This same idea is shared by Pomerantz (1984) when she refers to disagreement as preferred in some situations and dispreferred in others. Angouri and Locher (2012, p. 1551) provide an outline to enable a systematic understanding of the term disagreement which is outlined below:

1. Expressing opposing views is an everyday phenomenon;

2. Certain practices are prone to contain disagreement so that this speech act is expected rather than the exception; for example, they are in fact a sine qua non in decision making and problem-solving talk in either every day or professional contexts; other practices and contexts are less tolerant of the expression of disagreement;

3. Disagreeing cannot be seen as an a priori negative act; communities and groups of people have developed different norms over time which influence how disagreement is perceived and enacted;

4. As in all language usage, the ways in which disagreement is expressed- and not only its occurrence per se — will have an impact on relational issues (face-aggravating, face-maintaining, face-enhancing); at the same time, expectations about how disagreement is valued in a particular practice will influence what forms participants choose.

Other scholars, such as Muntigl and Turnbull (1998), also refer to disagreement as conversational arguing, and define it as involving "the conversational interactivity of making claims, disagreeing with claims, countering disagreement and the process by which such disagreements arise,

are dealt with and resolved" (p. 225). By extension, they define the term arguing as involving "the management of competing claims, the deployment of the conversational resources speakers to display disagreement." Koczogh (2013, p. 212) mentions that the term argument is formally defined as an "expansion of the speech act of disagreement and functionally as a means of managing disagreement in interaction." Thus, the term argument as used by scholars in the literature encompasses disagreement and more and is used in form and function to mean different things. Muntigl and Turnbull (1998) go on to provide a list of terms that are used to portray a similar activity in the literature; *disputing, adversative episode, conflict talk, dialogical asymmetry, verbal discord and oppositional argument.* These related concepts and the ambiguous boundaries between their definitions do not pose any problem in this study. It must, however, be noted that it is not the aim of this thesis to distinguish between all the different terms that are used in the literature to refer to disagreement.

Using a word map, Koczogh (2013) identifies that 'disagreement' is usually used to denote acts of negativity such as rivalry, animosity and hostility while argument portrays a rather neutral stance. This observation is true to some extent because many people assume that an argument is usually a process of reasoning through which a series of propositions are made in defence of a standpoint, whether the argument is resolved or not, most people often do not care. Zarefsky (2005) counters Koczogh's earlier claim when he says that arguments often have negative connotations that suggest quarrelsomeness and unpleasantness. On the other hand, disagreements are usually associated with the expression of views different from that of an

earlier speaker. Disagreements, when not managed well can degenerate into chaos. It is for this reason that it is often used to denote such acts as rivalry, animosity and hostility. This is further corroborated by Kakava (1993) (as cited in Locher (2004)) who writes, "since disagreements can lead to a form of confrontation that may develop into a dispute, disagreement can be seen as a possible generator of conflict."

Koczogh further argues that disagreement is a "situated activity whose function is to express an opinion (or belief) the propositional content or illocutionary force of which is – or is intended to be –partly or fully inconsistent with that of a prior (non-verbal) utterance" (p. 220). Also, according to Edstrom (2004, p. 1505), disagreement is the "communication of an opinion or belief contrary to the view expressed by the previous speaker which may involve actively defending one's opinion, attacking another's position or quietly withholding approval."   Similarly, Sifianou (2012) considers disagreement as an expression of a view that is different from that expressed by another speaker. Sornig (1977) also sees disagreement as a reactive speech act since its occurrence is stimulated by preceding or prior utterances. From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the expression of a view that contradicts that of a prior speaker is considered disagreement. Prior utterances however may refer to actions either by a previous speaker in the current speech situation or from earlier interactions (Locher, 2004). Sornig perhaps provides a more thorough definition of the term when she says tentatively that "any *utterance* that comments upon a pre-text by questioning part of its semantic or pragmatic information (sometimes its formal structure

as well), correcting or negating it (semantically or formally) will be called an act of disagreement or contradiction" (p. 363).

Fraser (1975) classifies disagreement as an act of asserting given that it deals with the speaker's assessment of the appropriateness of the state of affairs resulting from some prior act expressed by the proposition. Based on Leech's (1983) classifications of illocutionary functions, disagreement can be classified as a conflictive speech act whose goal sometimes conflicts with the social goal and might cause social disharmony between interlocutors.

Disagreement does not always cause social disharmony or destroy interlocutors' relationships. It sometimes builds it. Contrary to the characterisation that disagreement is face-threatening and destructive to otherwise harmonious relationships, there are some researchers who have shown that disagreement can be a sociable activity which enhances solidarity-building. Schiffrin (1984) shows, for example, that disagreement in an East European Jewish community in Philadelphia can protect their intimacy and initiate a sociable argument which she defines as "a speech activity in which a polarizing form has a ractificatory meaning" (p.331). Disagreement can also build solidarity among Greeks (Kakava, 1993), among Black teenager groups (Kochman, 1981; Labov 1972) and among White males peers engaged in "report talk" (Tannen, 1990).

Empirical Review

This section of the chapter discusses studies that are relevant to the current study. In order to present a systematic review of the relevant studies, the review was carried out to tease out the usefulness or preference or dispreference of disagreement, the various contexts and settings within which

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disagreement has been studied. This is to demonstrate how the present study is both similar to and different from previous studies.

Disagreement in Academic Context

I would like to begin this section from where I left off in the previous section. Disagreement is an act that is commonly occurring and according to Liu (2014) is also unavoidable in human interaction. As has been said earlier, disagreement occurs in all spheres of life so far as language is a means of communication. In academic discourse, disagreement occurs at all levels. One study that looks at discourse in university settings is that of Rees-Miller (2000). She studies classes, seminar and colloquia held in a University in eastern United States with the aim of identifying the linguistic markers used to strengthen or soften disagreement. She identifies three broad categories of disagreement in the data based on the presence or absence of identifiable linguistic markers of disagreement.

The three categories identified are softened disagreement, neutral disagreement and aggravated disagreement. Softened disagreement is further divided into positive and negative politeness with softeners for positive politeness including positive comments, humour, partial agreement and inclusive first-person pronouns with which speakers sought to increase solidarity with the hearer. Softeners for negative politeness include questions, prefaces, downtoners and verbs of uncertainty. Neutral disagreements were neither softened nor strengthened by the use of explicit disagreement markers. Aggravated disagreement, on the other hand, is made up of strengthened disagreement which makes use of rhetorical questions, intensifiers and

judgmental vocabulary. Rees-Miller's study is very important in the sense that it offers a fresh idea into the study of disagreement.

The taxonomy she proposes has been used by several other researchers in their study. It also goes to show that in academic discourse, disagreement is rife. This point is also buttressed by Tannen (2002) when she looks at agonism in academic discourse and notes that it is "conventionalized and prescribed", thus, making it a standard framework which creates the need to make others wrong (p. 1655). However, it is also a ritualized act which seeks to create some sort of solidarity among members of the academic community.

Another study conducted in an academic setting is Izadi (2013). He looks at Iranian dissertation defence sessions and draws out the variations in disagreement strategies that are used. In tandem with Tannen's view that has been mentioned earlier, dissertation defences are an avenue for scholars to disagree. Disagreement, thus, will be regarded as a welcome collaborative effort to reach a satisfactory consensus rather than as a conflicting, disrupting exchange (Maiz-Arevalo, 2014). As Elbow (1986) as cited in Tannen (2002, p. 1655) notes that "the mode of thinking and arguing that predominates in academic intellectual life is the "doubting game".

In the dissertations Izadi analyses, he finds that disagreements between the examiner and the candidate occurred most frequently followed by disagreement between the candidate and the examiner, (co) supervisors and examiners and finally examiners with (co) supervisors occurring the least number of times. This is to be expected because examiners have the legitimate institutional right to criticize, question, call in their mistakes and to probe candidates in later sequences (Don & Izadi, 2013). He identifies linguistic and

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paralinguistic devices used to disagree which are broadly categorised into mitigated and unmitigated disagreement.

Mitigated disagreement includes strategies such as *partial agreement, hedges, explanation, apology, caring voice, smile* among others. Unmitigated disagreement includes strategies such as *contradictory remarks, direct opposite views, lexical boosters, repetition, performatives, irony/sarcasm, reproaching gaze, aggressive voice, shaking head,* etc. Although examiners reserve the right to question and criticize, one would think they therefore use unmitigated strategies in expressing their disagreement. However, the study concludes that examiners mitigated thirty-six percent of their disagreement. In spite of that, almost an equal measure of mitigated and unmitigated disagreement strategies are used across the data.

Disagreements in the Classroom

Maiz-Arevalo (2014) pays attention to the classroom, specifically to a group of multicultural masters students who use English as a means of instruction and communication with the aim of finding out if in disagreeing, such a group of students stick to their own cultural pragmatic rules or follow native like ones. Following Rees-Miller's (2000) taxonomy of disagreement and Kreutel's (2007) taxonomy of desirable and undesirable features of disagreement, Maiz-Arevalo identifies a number of realisations of disagreement broadly categorized into strong and mitigated disagreements. The findings of the study indicate that students with a high level of proficiency use a wide range of strategies to disagree and closely employ the same strategies native speakers use to express disagreement. Students with lower linguistic proficiency on the other hand were limited in their linguistic

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strategies and had to resort to the non-native use of expressions of regret and hedges. These were often overused by such students.

Placing their study on a continuum from strong/unmitigated to mild/mitigated disagreement, Angouri and Tseliga (2010) also conduct a study among Greek students and professional academics on two online fora addressed to both groups. They focus on occurrences of impolite talk and try to find out how people deliberately do impoliteness. They found out that the use of unconventional spelling and punctuation was abound in both fora primarily as a means of expressing strong disagreement and to aggravate face-threatening acts. This is based on factors such as the co-constructed norms of both fora, the relationship between participants, the overall purpose of communication among others.

In a related study, Rohmah (2007) assessed the diverse ways in which students express disagreement in a doctoral classroom. Rohmah is of the view that disagreeing in an academic setting is vital because without doing this, others hardly see the student's contribution and his/her intellectual ability. He also shares the same view with Tannen (1998) who believes that disagreements are used to show a person's independence and as such must be encouraged. To him, although participants are encouraged to express their opinion, the act of disagreeing is a face threatening one therefore, participants need to device strategies to mitigate their disagreement to enhance collaboration. To this end, Rohmah uses Conversation Analysis (turn-taking and sequential structure of conversations) to study the strategies students use to acknowledge each other during disagreement.

As his data, he uses audio recordings of fourteen classroom conversations between seven doctorate students at a state University in East Java. His study revealed that in expressing disagreements, students acknowledged their peers using four strategies; *assuring desirability of hearer's wants, asserting commonality, promoting cooperation* and *fulfilling hearer's wants.* By attending to hearer's wants, the speaker performs either one of these sub-strategies—attending hearer's point, intensifying the speaker's interest to hearer and seeking agreement. Students accomplished the strategy of asserting commonality through jokes and by stressing common ground. By stressing common ground, students used the pronouns '*we*' and '*our*' to put them in common position and reduce the degree of disagreement between them. The use of these strategies indicate that the doctoral students pay attention to the face wants of their interlocutors. The students also promoted cooperation through the use of sub-strategies like indicating understanding of H's points, offering a solution, including both S and H in the proposed activity and giving or asking for a reason.

Another study that focuses on the expression of disagreement by students is Choyimah and Latief (2014). Prior to their study, the researchers were of the view that the pragmatic competence of an individual (especially an English as a Foreign Language speaker) is equally important as his/her linguistic competence because it ensured that learners no longer learned the language and but also know how to use it effectively. With such a claim, Choyimah and Latief tried to investigate the relationship that exists between the two competencies (linguistic and pragmatic competence) by exploring disagreeing strategies used by EFL students in university classroom

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discussions. Participants for the study were selected based on scores obtained in their Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) exam and placed in four various levels—pre-intermediate, intermediate, pre-advanced and advanced. The participants were then observed and visually recorded during their weekly classroom seminars. Two broad strategies of disagreement were identified within the framework of macro strategies used to express disagreement. Macro strategies (made up of direct and indirect strategies) of expressing disagreement include those strategies in which the force of disagreement is explicitly stated. Direct strategies of disagreeing were represented by *refusal, denial, correction,* and *strong-criticism* while the indirect strategies were realised by *mild-criticism, internally-contrasting, reminding,* and *suggestion.*

The findings of the study revealed that there was significant difference in the strategies of disagreeing at the various levels of proficiency; "advanced-level students consistently expressed disagreements indirectly, while pre-intermediate ones realized this speech act mostly in direct ways" (p. 148). Thus, the study proved that linguistic and pragmatic competencies are not autonomous of each other— a person's linguistic competence correlates his pragmatic competence. This finding in a way confirms Maiz-Arevalo's claim which has already been discussed. From the study of Choyimah and Latief (2014), it can be concluded that the major strategies used to express disagreement on a point whether directly or indirectly were: refusal, denial, correction, and strong-criticism, mild-criticism, internally-contrasting, reminding, and suggestion.

In 2015, Christoffersen also studies the strategies L2 speakers and native speakers of English employ to mitigate disagreement during their discussions in an introductory English composition class in a university. During these discussions, the students engage in peer review or editing of the works of their colleagues. At the end of the discussion, Christoffersen found that such engagements feature a lot of disagreements. Peer review discussions were meant to be a collaborative effort with the goal of improving their paper for better grades at the end of the semester. The study revealed that the students' discussions were devoid of the strong form of disagreement. Hedges were the most used strategies for mitigating disagreement among both the native speakers and L2 speakers. Other strategies that were used were token agreement, positive prefacing remarks and questions for clarification. These results provide evidence that hedges are the commonest form of strategy employed to mitigate the expression of disagreement as seen in the studies of Christoffersen (2015) and Kusevka (2015).

From the socio-pragmatic perspective, Koczogh (2012) studies disagreement as expressed by undergraduate students in a university. She specifically tries to find how disagreement is expressed and the influence gender and social distance have on the expression of disagreement. The study reveals a number of direct and indirect strategies that were used to express disagreement and various pragmatic force modifiers that were used to mitigate or aggravate the pragmatic force of the utterance. The study concludes that gender and social distance do have an impact on the strategies used to express disagreement as well as the frequency of disagreements. The findings, however, do not seem to support "the bulge theory which proposes that

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interlocutors at the extreme of the social distance continuum exhibit similar speech behaviour as opposed to the middle section" (p.10).

Though the findings of this study, as well as those reviewed earlier are relevant to the current study, one cannot tell if the same strategies are used by Ghanaians to express disagreement during panel discussions since those studies were not conducted in Ghana. It is therefore necessary to carry out this study in Ghana in order to find out if same or similar strategies are used to express disagreement. Again, the mode of data collection for some of the studies is through the use of Discourse completion tests. Some scholars have argued the need for data that is collected for studies of this nature to be naturally occurring to avoid the participants producing elicited response for the researcher.

Furthermore, Bavarsad, Eslami-Rasekh and Simin (2015) also carried out a similar study in Persia whose main thrust was to examine the strategies used by Persian students to express disagreement to people of a higher status, people who are of the same status and people of a lower status. The students were made up of 50 males and 50 females who completed a Discourse Completion Test in which there were situations that suit the Iranian context that the students had to disagree to. This was to identify whether gender and power had an influence on the way people express disagreement. Discourse completion tests have been regarded in the literature as providing elicited responses rather than naturally occurring responses. This often influences the findings that are made from the research.

Four types of disagreement were identified in relation to Muntigl and Turnbull's (1998) taxonomy. The study identifies *Irrelevancy Claim,*

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Challenges, Contradiction and *Counter Claims* as the strategies used to express disagreement. The study also identified four strategies that the students engage in to express disagreement. They include *thanking, mitigation of apology, providing reason and mitigation of God willing*. It was also realized that males tend to use the irrelevancy claim which is the most face threatening while the females tend to use challenge more. However, both genders feel comfortable using contradiction. Lastly, the study noted that both males and female students kept their distance from their interlocutors by providing reason thereby saving the face of their interlocutors.

A closer look at the outcomes of the study of Choyimah and Latief (2014) and that of Bavarsad, Eslami-Rasekh and Simin (2015) seems to portray that there is no consensus among the researchers. For instance, while the study of Choyimah and Latief (2014) identifies strategies such as refusal, denial, correction, and strong-criticism, mild-criticism, internally-contrasting, reminding, and suggestion as some of the strategies for expressing disagreement that of Bavarsad, et al. (2015) found thanking, mitigation of apology, providing reason and mitigation of God willing. The differences in the results of these studies in my opinion could be due to geographical differences as well as context of their study. This implies that more studies need to be conducted in different settings and contexts to explore more strategies that can be used in expressing disagreement hence, the need for the current study.

Also, Samar, Abaszadeh and Pourmohamadi (2013) investigate strategies of expressing disagreement among Iranian EFL students in three different settings using the taxonomy of disagreement proposed by Rees-

Miller (2000). The settings involve a difference in formality, the presence of both gender and a difference in the relationship between the participants. In the first setting, it was realised that the students used more contradictory statements than disagreements which were neither softened nor aggravated. In a setting where there was a difference in formality, the students tended to use the softened strategy that sought solidarity among them because they were classmates and knew each other. In the second setting in which there is the presence of friends and family members, negative politeness strategies were used to express disagreement.

This implies that the participants were cautious in their expressions of disagreement so they would not impose their views on others. In the third setting, aggravated disagreement was mostly used to express the speaker's disagreement and rhetorical questions were the most used linguistic markers. However, it was also realised that aside from aggravated disagreement, softened disagreement was also used in almost the same frequency as the former. Disagreements in this setting was considered a preferred turn that promotes sociability among the interactants.

Disagreement as Preferred or Dispreferred in Various Contexts

Although disagreement has been described as a disprefered act, there are several studies that have proved otherwise. In her seminal paper, Pomerantz (1984) studies agreement and disagreement as second assessments which "are produced by recipients of prior assessments in which the referents in the seconds are the same as those in the prior" (p. 59). She sees agreement as a preferred next action and disagreement as the dispreferred next action. Pomerantz identifies upgraded agreement, same agreement which involves

repetition of the prior assessment and downgraded agreement as some strategies for agreement which is preferred.

She asserts that disagreements are produced with delayed components or withheld from early positioning within turns and sequences. Some of the strategies she identifies for expressing disagreement are *hesitations, prefacing, silences and asking for clarification.* Pomerantz mentions that although agreements are necessary for establishing sociability, support and solidarity, there are instances in which sociability and support are accomplished by disagreeing therefore making disagreement a preferred option and agreement a dispreferred one. This study makes an important point and proves that sometimes disagreements are preferred to agreements.

Schiffrin's (1984) study shows that disagreement is a preferred action, is an indicator of solidarity and reinforces sociability among Jews living in Philadelphia. She found that throughout her interview sessions with participants who were neighbours, they constantly disagreed with one another yet they maintained an intimate relationship. She identifies four features that provide evidence for sociability: (1) *sustained disagreement* which shows how prolonged disagreement is before common ground is gained, (2) *fluid argumentative frames* which explains how participants each take entrenched positions defending their parallel stance(s) on an issue and how unpredictable the beginnings and endings of such disagreements seemed to be, (3) *cooperative disagreement* and (4) *positive evaluation of disagreement*. Participants seemed to disvalue open confrontation and were aware of its possible harmful consequences for a relationship.

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Another study that shows that disagreement is preferred in some instances is Tannen and Kakava's (1992) study of conversations among Greeks to uncover their negotiation of agreement and disagreement. Similar to Schiffrin's findings, Tannen and Kakava realise that the conversations were full of disagreements. They also notice that disagreement occurs as conflict in frames and is used too as an indicator of power and solidarity. They note that the friendly nature of disagreements was marked by the use of solidarity markers such as address terms, first names, diminutives of first names or figurative kinship terms and the personalization of conflict. In her later work in 2002, Kakava studies discourses among family members, friends and classmates and demonstrates that disagreement is a ritualized event and is "expected", "preferred" and "allowed" in Modern Greek discourse.

A similar study conducted by Blum-Kulka, Blondheim and Hacohen (2002) also shows that in Isreali political debates and in scholarly studies of the law, disagreements tend to be preferred. They argue that in Isreali culture, the study of the law, centering on the Talmud favoured argumentation. This gradually became a part of their culture and tradition. In both speech events, they found three features of disagreement: (1) complexity of the arguments and of the argumentation (2) swift shifts in the levels of dialogicity and (3) the preference for disagreement. The study proves the resilience of an oral tradition in an ever-changing modern technological world. It also affirms Schiffrin's study that argument, therefore disagreement is played out against the background of shared goals and cultural assumptions. Hence, it can be said here that oppositional stances can be a means of creating involvement if the opposition is ritual rather than literal (Schiffrin, 1984).

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One other study worthy of mention is Zhu (2014) who pays attention to the "strong version" of disagreement with the aim of revealing how it is not used as a strategy for avoiding face-threatening acts but for performing face-maintaining acts and relationship management. The study uses as its data, conversations in Mandarin between one hundred and twenty people. The study demonstrated that among the Mandarin, strong disagreement was used more to maintain face and build upon relationships rather than act as face threatening acts. Strong disagreements were also expressed without any delay or hesitation and were also not expressed with any preceding softeners.

In the studies looked at above, it is obvious that in the Jewish, Greek and Isreali cultures, opposition is something they value a lot as it brings them together as a people. Consequently, disagreement is not something they only prefer, it is an act which reinforces solidarity among them.

Japanese Disagreement

Walkinshaw (2007) investigates the strategies Japanese speakers of English employ to express disagreement in exchanges between a person who holds a high-power authority than themselves and a person who holds a low power authority. Data were collected from 12 Japanese speakers of English through the use of discourse completion tests, role play and weekly task sheets. The findings identified five hedged and relatively complex disagreement strategies: *token agreement, phrasing the disagreement as a question, stating it as a personal opinion, suggesting an alternative, and hinting.* Out of this, there were 28 instances of hedging in interactions between power-equal interactants and only 5 instances of hedging strategies in power-unequal interactions. In a bid to find out why such a phenomenon exists in

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among the Japanese speakers, Walkinshaw notes that it could be that in power-equal interaction the Japanese speakers were less concerned about the possibility of making a linguistic error, flouting a sociocultural norm or otherwise offending their interlocutor. Conversely, interaction with a higher-power interlocutor may have been perceived as much riskier in terms of potential face-threat.

Disagreement among Children

Furthermore, Goodwin (1983) also studies the conversations of urban black children as they conducted play activities among themselves to determine the features associated with the aggravated ways of correcting and disagreeing. She notes that the children make use of both aggravated correction and disagreement together with mitigated ones. She argues that unlike adults, children express disagreement in single turn sequence using strategies such as preface disagreement otherwise referred to in the literature as partial agreement, delay which is marked through the use of questioning repeats, partial repeats and requests for clarification. These are immediately followed by disagreement within the same turn. The study again identified that among children, the most aggravated form of disagreement was devoid of any form of explanation.

Another study that focuses on children is Maynard's (1985) study conducted among elementary school children. According to the study, children are skilled in disputing and arguing from very early ages and thus by way of conflict, produce their own small-group society and its structure. That is, when disputing and arguing, children create their own political alignments and

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produce social organization that helps reproduce authority, friendship and other interactional patterns that transcend single episodes of dispute.

Disagreement among Family Members

Another very important and influential study is Locher (2004). She studies a dinner conversation among friends and family members in Philadelphia and realises that disagreement is expressed through *the use of hedges, giving reasons be it personal or emotional, modal auxiliaries, shifting responsibility, questions, the use of but, repetition and unmitigated disagreement.* This presupposes that a lot of times throughout the conversation, the participants used a variety of means to mitigate their expressions of disagreement and that mitigated disagreement was preferred over unmitigated disagreement. She notes also that there are instances where participants used a combination of strategies to express disagreement.

Comparative Studies on Disagreement

Another work which is worth mentioning is that of Lawson (2009). Lawson in a comparative study looks at the ways in which Japanese and native speakers of English express disagreement. He uses as his data "negative responses to ten controversial statements of the deontic '...should be...' structure." These responses were given by 60 participants (30 native language speakers and 30 Japanese speakers). The results were analysed based on Kreutel's (2007) framework of desirable and undesirable features. According to Kreutel, desirable features are associated with native speakers while non-native speakers are associated with undesirable features. The desirable features identified included *token agreement, hedges, pauses, fillers, requests for*

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clarification, positive remarks, explanations and regret. On the other hand, *message abandonment, total lack of mitigation* and *the use of performatives I don't agree/ I disagree* were identified as undesirable features associated with non-native speakers. It is, however, worthy of mention that features like hedges, pauses, fillers and requests for clarification which Kreutel attributed to native speakers was widely used by the Japanese speakers as a tactic to stretch their talk, buy time and delay their response especially disagreement. This finding questions the work of Kreutel because those categories she attributed to native speakers were used more by non-native speakers than by native speakers. Likewise, the native speakers were found to use more of the features Kreutel considers undesirable and attributes to non-native speakers.

Garcia (1989) also studies speeches of Venezuelan and American females to find out if there are any differences between how they disagree and how they make requests. Participants were made to role play certain situations which were recorded and transcribed for the purposes of the study. This method of gathering data is beset with problems because although it is only the situation which they been told that they are supposed to role play, the participants may end up giving out what is expected of them in order to please the researcher. Garcia's study concluded that both groups of people used three macro strategies to disagree.

These include (1) confrontational (2) nonconfrontational and (3) impersonal strategies. Confrontations included *challenges, refusing to cooperate, order, criticism of a third party and strong denial*. Non-confrontational strategies were made up of *downtoned suggestion, giving reason and expression of willingness to cooperate*. *Impersonal accusations*

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and impersonal denial made up the micro strategies for the third category. Venezuelan women used a lot more confrontational strategies than the American women. This implies from the foregoing that the non-native speakers, thus Venezuelan women were confrontational and used a lot more direct strategies than their American counterparts who somewhat mitigated their utterances of disagreement. Edstrom in her (2002) study confirms Garcia's findings that Venezuelans seem to be confrontational when disagreeing.

Mitigated Disagreement

Holtgraves (1997) also conducted a study to examine the means by which disagreement is performed politely. He contends that to verbally disagree with someone is to directly threaten their positive face. That is to say that the speakers should try as much as possible to perform disagreements politely. Holtgraves assumes that although many of the linguistic markings of disagreements are similar to Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies, no reference is made to internal psychological states by conversational analysts who view preference organization as a feature of conversations only. For the study, Holtgraves uses experimental sessions of 32 unacquainted students enrolled in a psychology course in a University as his data source. The experimental sessions included discussions on several topics such as abortion, school prayer, mercy killing, investment in South Africa and affirmative action. At the end of the day, the study revealed three broad categories of politeness strategies; *seek agreement, avoid disagreement* and *assert common ground*. These strategies included several other sub-categories. Seeking agreement entailed sub-categories such as expressing agreement and

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repetition. Token agreement, hedge opinion and personalized opinion, expressing distaste with one's position, displace agreement and self-deprecation were the sub-categories that made up the politeness strategy of avoiding disagreement. The study, thus, brings to the fore the notion that people always strive to minimise their disagreement even in the heat of a tense exchange. This was accomplished by frequently hedging, expressing doubt and finding ways of agreeing with each other by identifying safe topics and discussing those.

One study that lends direct support to the current study is that of Kusevska (2015). In 2015, Kusevska carried out a study in Macedonia. The central objective of the study was to examine the various ways in which EFL (specifically Macedonian) learners mitigate their acts of disagreement. The study comprised of 195 acts of disagreements expressed through the administration of Discourse Completion Tests (DCT). It was discovered that Macedonian learners of English prefer to state disagreement explicitly which is rather strangely followed by an explanation. Such disagreements are marked by the use of adversative markers and imperative forms which serves as an intensifier. Macedonian speakers also used mitigating devices scarcely. The study reported no occurrences of most of the hedges (*just, sort of, kind of*), no occurrences of the linguistic means for minimisation (*a little, a bit*, etc.), except for one occurrence of *a little*, and no occurrences of epistemic verbs of hesitation and uncertainty (*seem, guess, suppose, assume*), except for one occurrence of *seem* (*don't seem important*). More prominently represented were the pragmatic marker *I think* and modal verbs.

Disagreement in the Media

Having looked at the expression and mitigation of disagreement in several contexts, I would want to look at studies that have concentrated on disagreement in the media. In an investigation to identify disagreements and its linguistic constituents, Scott (2002) uses as data four editions of television news show, *Crossfire*, broadcast on American Cable Network (CNN). The show mixes "elements of conversation with the media genres of debates, news interviews, public affairs shows, and talk shows." In all, two types of disagreements were identified; foregrounded and backgrounded disagreements which appear to exist on a continuum. Within foregrounded disagreements, three special patterns were identified. These include *collegial disagreement, personal challenge disagreement* and *personal attack disagreement*. These patterns identified within foregrounded disagreement also appear to exist on a continuum of escalating hostility. Collegial disagreements, characterised by flow and questions are vigorous, yet moderate, which feature affords speakers the opportunity to be fervent about the points they are making and yet not attack their interlocutors.

They may even inject humour in their submissions to mitigate their sense of opposition. Personal challenge disagreement was also characterised by questions (confrontational questions) and negation and flow and repetition. Repetition is used often because the competition for the floor is fierce and by repeating their words speakers attempt to grab or hold on to the floor. This pattern featured notable affective involvement with participants often accompanying their blunt language with looks of shock, narrowed eyes, and/or dramatic gestures.

Kuo (1994) studies the strategies of agreement and disagreement used by a male psychologist and a female caller in a radio phone-in programme. During the conversation, both of the participants agree and disagree on various issues. Disagreement in the data is expressed using three strategies: *pauses, discourse markers and interruption*. Kuo notes that the disagreements displayed in the conversation can be "categorised into three groups based on the locations of their turn-entries". These include *disagreements produced in clear space, disagreements initiated in overlap* and *disagreements produced through interruptions*. She also realises that the psychologist enjoys a lot of power advantage over the caller since he is the "advice-giver" whom the caller needs help from. Thus, he makes no attempt to save the face of the caller who also yields the floor to him whenever he interrupts her. She claims that this is so because the strategies used by the speakers are governed by Politeness Principle and the psychologist must appear authoritative in his diagnosis to the win the admiration of the radio audience.

Baym (2010) in *Agreements and disagreements in a Computer-Mediated discussion* also studies the strategies users employ in discussing soap operas on an online discussion thread—Usenet. The data for her study were made up of 524 messages posted on the online thread on a soap opera *All My Children*. She notes that in written communication, it is easier for people to disagree than in oral conversation therefore, the argument that the computer encourages hostile and competitive discourse. In the paper, Baym shows that in the expression of disagreement, the posters established links to the previous posts to which they agree. Subsequently, they 'create' disagreement by using explicit disagreement markers and contradictory markers for the latter. Social

aligners such as smiley faces and naming of others and elaborations were also used to indicate disagreement among the members of the online community.

Speech Acts in Ghana

Having reviewed studies on disagreement that have been conducted worldwide, I will now pay attention to some studies that have been conducted on speech acts in the Ghanaian context with the aim of establishing a gap in the literature and justifying the need for such a study.

Ghanaian Apologies

A study conducted by Obeng (1999) demonstrates the various ways in which Akans conceptualize apology and also identifies the strategies Akans employ when apologising. Like Holmes (1995), Obeng looks at apologies as acts addressed to an interactant's face needs with the remedy for an offense for which the addressor—the apologiser—takes responsibility, and thus restore equilibrium between the apologiser and the addressee (the apology recipient). Among the Akans, he notes "that apologies are motivated by the Akan concept of face" (p. 714) which demonstrates "the Akan's disapproval for disgrace as well as the premium they place on face maintenance" (p.714). In the study, Obeng points out that there are times when apologies are "rejected because they may not be backed by sincerity, performed by the right person or if it is done with the clear intention of refusing to bear the consequences of one's overt irresponsible behaviour" (p. 716). In the work, he identifies certain verbs that are associated with apology in Akan some of which include *pa kyɛw* 'remove one's hat [ie. apologize]', *srɛ* 'beg [i.e apologize]' and *koto srɛ* 'kneel down and beg [i.e apologize]'.

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Obeng also identifies two types of apologies performed in Akan namely, *complex apology* and *compound apology*. A complex apology, he says, is made up of an explicit apology and an implicit apology, a secondary one which is "a brief justification or account of the cause of offense or acceptance of blame" (p. 717). Compound apology is also made up of two or more implicit apology acts.

This study although said to be conducted among the Akans is solely limited to the Akyems as it is the dominant group from which Obeng collects the data which he uses for the study. This should render the research a case study however the researcher generalises his findings to Akans, which is made up of diverse groups.

Agyekum (2015), using political discourse analysis, studies apologies, specifically political apologies as they are rendered in the Ghanaian media. He defines political apologies as the expression of regret "for some offense of commission or omission by a political figure against the addressee and therefore acknowledge an obligatory responsibility and accountability before a general public" (pp. 59, 60). Political apologies are usually sited in the public domain; radio, TV, local media websites, Google and in local newspapers and often involve politicians and prominent figures associated with politics. The findings of his study indicate that political apologies may either be expressed explicitly or implicitly. In social interaction, apologies function to negotiate, maintain, and sustain social solidarity and ties between the participants (p. 74).

Ghanaian Refusals

Sarfo (2011) also investigates the various ways by which members of the Berekum Training College in Ghana refuse requests and how age and socio-economic status affect refusals. The study revealed that the ways of refusing are influenced by age and socio-economic status. It also showed that members of the college community used direct and, more frequently, indirect refusals to refuse requests of others. Three types of direct refusals were identified. These include (a) a definite or flat no without any form(s) of expression, (b) definite no with other forms of expression(s), and (c) negative expression(s) without the word no. Indirect refusals also include excuses/reason, request for information or clarification and suggesting alternatives. Often, direct refusals come from people who are older and of a higher status than interlocutors. Indirect refusals on the other hand occur across all ages and status.

Ghanaian Requests

In their study, Totimeh and Bosiwah (2015) investigate the various ways in which native speakers of the Akyem dialect of Akan make polite requests and how the social variables such as age, gender and socio-economic status influence requests. The study employed the ethnographical approach to qualitative research which allowed them to engage in participant observation and interviews. Its findings indicate that the Akyem-speaking Akans prefer to use the indirect means of expressing requests in which they displayed the conventional (on-record indirectness) and the non-conventional strategy (off-record indirectness). Conventional strategies of indirectness are classified as negative politeness strategies based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) study.

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The findings also conclude that the social variables such as age, gender and social status affect request making especially when referring to the elderly, males, and persons of both higher and lower statuses in society.

The speech act of requests has also been studied by Gborsong (2016) as they are used by students in the University of Cape Coast. Requests are inherently face threatening acts that flout Lakoff's principles of politeness when they are produced. Thus, in the production of such an act, one needs to take into consideration the face needs of his or her hearer. Gborsong (2016) acknowledges that there are several factors that influence requests, however, his study focused on identifying how gender influences requests in the university community. Students who were participants were required to complete a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) by making requests in different contexts. The study pays attention to the sentence types, the level of formality of the requests, the variety of English used in making the request and the politeness of the request made. It was revealed that both male and female students use declaratives, interrogatives and imperatives to make requests however, males used more imperatives than the females who used interrogatives. It also noted that the females used compound forms of sentences to make their requests while the males used simple forms. On the level of formality, Gborsong observed that both males and females take into consideration the age difference between themselves and their interlocutors when they make requests. It was also evident that the males raise the level of formality when their interlocutor is a female and drop it when the interlocutor is a male. On the other hand, the females retain the level of formality regardless of who their interlocutors are. With respect to the variety of English

used and the politeness of the request, there were marked differences that also demonstrated how gender influences the making of requests.

Ghanaian Compliments

Complimenting usually has the intention of making people feel good about themselves and in their study, Anderson and Asiama-Ossom (2010) had the aim of describing the formulae Ghanaians use in paying compliments, the topics on which they pay compliments the most and the linguistic forms respondents use to respond to compliments. They define a compliment as "favourable comments that a speaker makes to an addressee based on the speaker's admiration of a particular characteristic or possession of the addressee" (p. 127). It was identified that most of the compliments were paid based on appearance giving the impression that Ghanaians value appearance very much. Other topics on which Ghanaians give compliments are performance, ability and possession. The Subject/Verb/Complement (SVC) formula was used most in paying compliments. However, they noticed that some of the compliments which were given could be considered 'Ghanaian' because it took the form of Ghanaian indigenous expressions which could only be understood by a person who had knowledge of the language. They also reported some instances of implicit and non-formulaic compliments. In responding to compliments, they noted that respondents made use of a blend of verbal and non-verbal behaviour.

Just like Anderson and Asiama-Ossom (2010), Agyekum (2010) also investigates compliments but from the ethnopragmatic point of view using Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness. He posits that "compliment strategies avoid conflict and provide harmony among communicative

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participants and aim at politeness" (p. 15) but does not fail to add that for compliments to work there must be a degree of intimacy between the participants. The data used for this study was collected from Akan adverts, Akan football commentary, classrooms, praise poetry for chiefs, public speeches, folk songs, dance and hunting. This was done through means such as participant observation and interviews. Agyekum discussed his findings along the lines of *appearance, ability and performance, possessions* and *character and comportment* which is a slight adjustment to the categories espoused by Holmes (1998). With regard to gender and compliments, he noted that although women compliment other women more than they compliment men, the reverse was the situation in traditional Akan communities. These compliments, which served as encouragement for women to continue with their approved behaviour were based mostly on appearance and performance. He also observes that compliments in Akan are mostly explicit rather than implicit and says that the most used word class category in compliments were adjectives such as "*papa,* ["good"], fɛɛfɛ, ["beautiful"], *mono* ["new"], *kyeaoo* ["brand new"] and *sokoo* ["fresh"]" and focus markers of which include "*deɛ* ["as for, really, indeed, truly"] to isolate the quality which is the target of the compliment." Agyekum also identifies that among the Akans compliments are mostly used to create affiliation and sometimes to soften and pave way for a request to be made later on. Negatively, compliments can also be used to show sarcasm which sometimes embarrasses the complimentee. Compliments can also be used to show some element of envy on the part of the complimenter which may be face threatening to him or her.

Ghanaian Promises

Agyekum (2013) examines the semantics, pragmatics and structure of campaign promises by two (2) presidential candidate aspirants of a political party in Ghana. According to Agyekum, each campaign featured the use of promises which are classified as commissives which bind the speakers to posterior actions, events and results. The campaigns employ discourse strategies such as referential, intensifying and mitigation strategies. The presidential candidate aspirants used such strategies in order to select information that was only helpful to their course and to avoid being malicious towards their fellow party members. The study also reports the use of evidential and factive verbs to commit the speakers to the truth of the propositions expressed, intensified adverbs, emphasizing and classifying adjectives and nouns.

Thanking among the Akans in Ghana

Closely related to the above study is an ethnographic study conducted by Agyekum (2010) into how Akans express thanks. He posits that thanking in Akan involves a verbal expression and most often, a non-verbal communication which is a representation and interpretation of the intent of the psychological inner state of the speaker, plus a handshake or sometimes kneeling down on the part of the speaker to show appreciation. Agyekum outlines a number of situations and communicative events that call for the expression of thanks in Akan communities. These include (1) thanking after childbirth; (2) thanking in joyful occasion such as marriage and wedding; surviving from accidents, achievements, promotions, bequeathing of properties, (3) funeral activities, (4) thanking after arbitration, (5) ironical

thanking (indirect thanking), and (6) thanking at the shrine. He also mentions that the presence of any of the social variables of gender, rank, age, power and distance determine the category of people who will express thanks and the degree of their expressions of thanks.

Insults in Ghana

In his study, Sekyi-Baidoo (2009) investigates the use of insults to foster unity and social cohesion among students in the University of Cape Coast. The findings of this study reveal that invectives occur on the interpersonal, communal and inter-communal levels. Some of the insults identified as used in the University of Cape Coast community are common everyday insults, status invectives which is based on programmes but not subject areas and age. Others include hall invectives and curses. Insults are usually used to cause emotional and mental pain or disgrace and embarrassment however, the study concludes that invectives were cohesive and therefore accepted and even encouraged. It helped to build unity and establish the identity of people and differentiate them from others.

Speech Acts in Facebook Status Updates

In a related study, Nartey (2013) also studies 60 online messages as they are posted on Facebook by University students especially by students of the University of Cape Coast. The study concludes that students used speech acts such as directives, assertives, expressives, commissives and quotations. Directives were used the most and constituted 35% of the data while commissives were the least used, also representing 8.3% of the data. The speech acts identified in the status updates were found to have various

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pragmatic meanings such as requests, asking questions, giving advice and suggestions, making confessions, thanking, showing excitement among others.

This and the other studies that have been reviewed as speech acts in Ghana prove the relative paucity in the literature on the speech act of disagreement in the Ghanaian context compared to other speech act such as compliments (Anderson & Asiama-Ossom, 2010), requests (Sarfo, 2007; Gborsong 2016) and apologies (Obeng, 1999) thus the need for this research.

Relationship between Past Studies and Present Study

On the basis of the evidence currently available in these studies that have been reviewed, it seems that there are many strategies that can be used to express disagreement. Some disagreements can be direct or indirect, strong or aggravated or mild or neutral. Among the disagreement strategies identified were questions, denials, partial or token agreement, hedges, contradiction, correction, explanation among others. The empirical review section has also pointed out that the context within which disagreements occur as well as the gender of the participants or interlocutors is also important.

The review section has highlighted the studies that are relevant to the present study. It is evident from this section that most of the studies on disagreement have been conducted outside of Africa. This goes to show the dearth of literature on disagreement within the continent most especially, within the West African setting. This study is an attempt to bridge that gap thus, throwing more light on disagreement within the Ghanaian society to be specific. It will show if there is a marked difference in the expression of disagreement in Ghana. Therefore, the outcome of the current study will be of

immense contribution to the earlier studies by way of confirming or disputing the previous findings.

Chapter Summary

This chapter dealt with the review of literature relevant to the study. It was organized into three main sections – the theoretical, conceptual and empirical review. The theoretical review captured the Argumentation theory as well as the theory of politeness as the major theoretical premises behind the present study. The fundamental concept underpinning this study is the concept of disagreement. A review of the literature of the concept disagreement indicates that the concept of disagreement defies a single definition. Notwithstanding, disagreements are usually associated with the expression of views different from that of an earlier speaker. This seems to suggest that disagreements when not managed well can degenerate into chaos. In the empirical review, I have shown that although disagreement is dispreferred in many cultures, some cultures prefer it as it is a ritualised act and an indicator of solidarity among them. I have also demonstrated the occurrence of disagreement in various contexts and settings and how the influence of gender plays out during the expression of disagreement.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The present study is about identifying and describing the strategies used to express disagreement by discussants of radio panel discussions in Ghana. This chapter describes the methods and procedures employed in the study. This includes the research design and description of the research site. The chapter also addresses the sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure and data processing and analysis procedure.

Research Design

This study employs the qualitative research paradigm to describe the strategies used to express disagreement. This type of research locates the researcher as an observer in the world where s/he studies things in their natural setting and attempts to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning it brings to him or her (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). For this reason, qualitative research places emphasis on meaning and how people process and make sense of their experiences and the structures of the world (Berger, 1982). Thus, it can be assumed that qualitative research is quite a personal process because two researches analysing the same transcript will probably come up with different results (Dawson, 2002).

According to Priest (1996), qualitative research "uses general observations, depth, and verbal descriptions in place of numerical measures" (p. 250). It also emphasizes the thorough description of a situation. Qualitative research places greater emphasis on holistically describing in words the detail of the particular activity, event or situation being researched. Qualitative

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research however sometimes makes passing reference to the quantitative methods which primarily involve reporting findings in numerical terms.

By drawing on this type of research paradigm, the researcher was able to give a detailed account of the strategies used by panel members to express disagreement and the varied ways in which these disagreements were mitigated by their producers.

Research Site

The media, especially radio served as the site for this study. This is premised on the fact that radio is the most sought after media in Ghana (www.thebftonline.com) and most Ghanaians (70% of Ghanaians) rely on this medium to get their political, economic and social information (Selormey, 2012). Specifically, the study focused on the news analysis shows of two radio stations Citi FM and Joy FM which are based in the capital of Ghana, Accra. The researcher's choice of news analysis shows is because such shows bring together people from various backgrounds and the opinions they express mostly represent the views of most of the people in the country. The two radio shows are arguably the most competitive news analysis programmes on radio every Saturday morning. Both shows are also broadcast at the same time and for an equal amount of time. The choice of these two radio stations (Joy FM and Citi FM) is based on two reasons.

The first justification of the selection of both Joy FM and Citi FM is that both stations perhaps broadcast the best news analysis shows in the capital via the English Language. Moreover, both Joy and Citi FM are sensitive to the language needs of their respective listeners. With a growing population of the Ghanaian society placing a lot of premium on English language and education,

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both stations broadcast in English; a medium of communication that is known to play a unifying role by facilitating contact among Ghanaians of diverse linguistic backgrounds (Akurugu, 2010). Thus, both stations are listened to by educated Ghanaians.

Additionally, people across the length and breadth of the country listen to both radio stations. Citi FM has about fifteen affiliate stations across the country while Joy FM can boast of about ten affiliate stations nationwide. (See tables one and two for affiliate radio stations of Joy and Citi FM respectively). Furthermore, the Multimedia Group which owns Joy FM also owns MultiTV a "direct to home satellite television station that covers every hamlet, town and city of the country" (www.multimediaghana.com). This satellite provides people the opportunity to switch between television and radio (radio stations owned by the Multimedia group), making its radio station (Joy FM) accessible to people in various parts of the country. This, therefore, implies that both radio stations reach millions of people across the country, and not only those in Accra or the Greater Accra region.

Joy FM

Joy FM is a private and commercial radio station owned by the Multimedia Group. It is located in Kokomlemle, Accra. Established on the 1st of May, 1995 at a time when Frequency Board of the Government of Ghana gave out licenses to private companies and individuals to operate private radio stations (Ghana Broadcasting Study, 2005), Joy FM is one of the first private radio stations to be licensed in Ghana. The station operates on a 99.7 frequency modulation. A research conducted by Synovate Research Reinvented, an international research group to find out the radio stations that

people listened to most identified Joy FM as the first English broadcasting radio station with 30% of the total opinion poll (www.modernghana.com). Therefore, the station is considered by many as one of the popular radio stations in the country.

Joy FM broadcasts a wide variety of programmes targeted at middle to upper income group of listeners. The station's format consists of top quality news and talk programming interspersed with entertaining music-based programmes (www.multimediaghana.com). Others include commercial advertisements and religious programmes.

One of the popular programmes broadcast by the radio station is *Newsfile* which is currently hosted by renowned lawyer Samson Lardy Anyenini. The show airs every Saturday between 9am and 12pm with a panel of about three (3) or four (4) people. The panel are usually selected, depending on how relevant their knowledge and expertise is to the issue(s) to be discussed. This ranges from lawyers, government ministers, doctors, politicians, members of parliament, and representatives of policy think tanks, among others. However, there is often one (1) panel member who is a permanent discussant on the show. The host serves as the moderator and facilitator of the show, asking and directing the necessary questions to specific discussants, allowing for clarifications, and directing the discussions on the show. The show "allows Ghanaians to air their views on social and national issues either through text messaging or interactions on social media" (Coker, 2011, p. 68). Table 1 shows the affiliate stations which patronise Joy FM and by extension, the show

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Table 1: Affiliate stations of Joy FM

Radio stations	Location
Atl FM	Cape Coast
Lorlornyo FM	Hohoe
Luv FM	Kumasi
Space FM	Tarkwa
Radio Max	Takoradi
Radio Jubilee	Keta
Volta premier	Ho
Sky FM	Sunyani
Radio Justice	Tamale
Saboba FM	Saboba
Radio A1	Bolgatanga

Source: Joy news

Citi FM

Citi FM, the second research site, is also an English radio station which was established in 2004. Like Joy FM, Citi FM is also a private and commercial radio station located at Adabraka in Accra. The station is owned by Omni Media Limited and operates on 97.3 frequency modulation. It is noted for its listener-focused programmes and comprehensive news coverage. In the same research conducted by Synovate Research Reinvented, Citi FM was ranked the third most patronised radio station following Radio Gold, which came second. Citi FM has received a lot of awards for the content it airs on its frequency. The station has as its slogan, *relevant radio, always*.

The station combines a comprehensive and credible news function, backed by innovative listener-driven on air programmes, with vibrant audience participation. The station is also well-noted to be a listener-focused one coupled with its strong advocacy for consumer issues including road safety, sanitation, education, good health care, security and so on (citifmonline.com).

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The radio station's news analysis programme, *The Big Issue,* is currently hosted by Godfred Akoto Boateng. It broadcasts on Saturdays between 9am and 12pm. Just like *Newsfile, The Big Issue* also assembles together a three or four-member panel dependent on the issue(s) to be discussed. The constitution of the panel and the role of the host is the same as has earlier been mentioned for *Newsfile.* However, there is no permanent discussant on *The Big Issue* although there are a few discussants who appear on the show regularly. *The Big Issue*, just like Joy FM's *Newsfile* also allows Ghanaians to air their views on important social and national issues, either through interactions on social media or text messaging.

The rationale for selecting both radio stations depends on the fact that, first, they are widely listened to and have several affiliate stations throughout the country. This presupposes that people who listen to these shows on the station are not only from the Greater Accra region where the stations are based but from various parts of the country. Also, the stations have been in business for more than ten years; therefore, they provide credible sources of information and are known to most of the citizens. Table 2 shows the affiliate stations of Citi FM.

Table 2: Affiliate stations of Citi FM

Radio station	Location
Freedom FM	Sogakofe
Bridge FM	Atimpoku
Bright FM	Somanya
Dzigbordi FM	Dzodze
Holy FM	Aflao
Hope FM	Ho
Heritage FM	Hohoe
Paragon FM	Takoradi
Focus FM	Kumasi
Bugli Radio	Wa

Source: Citi Eyewitness News

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Sample and Sampling Procedure

The data collection method used in this study was purposive sampling. The aim of purposive sampling, according to Creswell (1994, p. 148), "is to purposefully select ... documents that will best answer the research question". The researcher therefore selected the sample of both shows for this research. This was carefully done by listening to the shows, determining if they included instances of disagreement before purposively selecting it as data for this study. Shows in which there was minimal expression of disagreement were thus excluded from the data. The data were made up of eight shows: four from Joy FM's *Newsfile* and four from Citi FM's *The Big Issue*.

Data Collection Procedure

Data for this study, in the form of recorded versions of each programme (Newsfile and The Big Issue) were collected from the online account of Citi FM on *Soundcloud*, an application that serves as "the world's most leading social sound platform where anyone can listen to or create sounds and share them everywhere." (soundcloud.com). The data from Joy FM, were downloaded from the YouTube page of the media house. Each station uploads the day's programme onto their various online platforms at the end of the day. Because the programmes are not staged for their listener audience, the data were naturally occurring and not experimentally elicited from the panel members themselves.

Since the shows which air live on radio are already in the public domain and the data could be easily obtained from the online platform of both stations with the use of the internet, it may be assumed that no special permission was needed to obtain access to the content produced by the two

radio stations. However, the researcher obtained an introductory letter from the department of English which she took to both stations to get their permission.

The data were collected between September, 2017 and January, 2018. Because I had to download the shows via the internet, I was faced with the difficulty of painstakingly listening to each show to determine whether there were many instances of disagreement or not that would warrant a show to be selected as data for this study or not since that was my area of interest. It therefore took me a while to be able to obtain the number of shows needed for the study.

Another problem I had to deal with during the period was the instability of network data. The audio files I collected from Citi FM's account on *Soundcloud* did not have the download option on the mobile application; hence, they needed to be downloaded, using a computer. As such, there was the need to have access to reliable data network via an Ethernet cable or a modem. It is unfortunate that such services provided in Ghana are somewhat unreliable and unstable. This resulted in the delay in the data collection process because most of the audio files which I attempted to download failed to download at the initial attempts and I had to try several times before eventually getting a file to download.

Data Processing and Analysis

The data comprised editions of both shows: 4 editions of *Newsfile* and 4 editions of *The Big Issue*. The data comprised transcriptions of all 8 shows entailing 23 hours and 19 minutes of talk. All eight shows were made up of thirty-four participants made up of six females and twenty-eight males. The

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data were transcribed, using the Jeffersonian transcription model (for details of the transcription key, refer to Appendix A). The Jeffersonian transcription model offers the researcher the opportunity to transcribe speech into ordinary writing coupled with providing details on pauses, emphasis, overlapping, intonation, latching, among others. A second opinion was sought from the researcher's colleagues and supervisors to ensure that the speech that was transcribed was reliable and valid for the purposes of the study.

For the analysis, the data were coded. Coding is the process or method that enables the researcher to organize and group similarly coded data into categories because they share some characteristics (Saldana, 2009). As such, the data were initially coded structurally to determine the directness or indirectness of the disagreement strategies employed in the speech.

> Structural coding applies a content-based or conceptual phrase representing a topic of inquiry to a segment of data that relates to a specific research question... Structural coding generally results in the identification of large segments of text on broad topics which can then form the basis for an in-depth analysis within or across topics". The similarly coded segments are then collected together for more detailed coding and analysis (MacQueen, McLellan-Lemal, Bartholow, & Milstein, 2008, pp. 124,125).

The analysis was done by reading the transcribed text and listening to the audio files several times. Direct strategies are those in which the act of disagreement is explicit. Indirect strategies on the other hand are the strategies in which the act of disagreement is implicit.

The same was done to enable the researcher to answer the second research question. The data were examined by reading the transcribed text, listening to the audio files and identifying the utterances in which the speakers were seen to be mitigating their disagreement. This was followed by axial coding. This method establishes the relationships between categories by breaking down categories into subcategories and specifying the properties and dimensions of a category (Charmaz, 2006). This process reduces the number of earlier codes that have been developed while sorting and re-labelling them into conceptual categories (Saldana, 2009). During this cycle, "the code is sharpened to achieve its best fit" (Glaser, 1978, p. 62).

Ethical Considerations

The study was faced with some ethical concerns that needed to be addressed. The participants in the research are first humans and have to be treated as such. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p. 56) corroborate this assertion when they claim that "whatever the specific nature of their work, researchers must take into account the effects of the research on participants, and act in such a way as to preserve their dignity as human beings".

Since the study concentrates on opinions expressed by panellists on radio talk show programmes, it is information which was already in the public domain prior to this research. Howbeit, it is unethical in research to use the information without approval from the participants involved. It was also almost impossible for the researcher to get in touch with the panellists whose comments were included as data for this study to get their consent and approval. To overcome this, the names of the panel members were not included anywhere in the study. They were identified only by the codes they

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were given based on which of the news analysis programmes they were on, the month and year in which the programme was aired, the speaker's gender and when they were first invited to take their turn in the discussion. For example, NF0118S03M stands for *Newsfile* (NF) which was aired in January, 2018 (0118). The speaker is the third speaker (S03) and is a male (M). By so doing, the research protected their privacy and grants them anonymity.

Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the methods and procedures employed in this study. It has stated the research design and the approach to data analysis. The study employs the qualitative research design and thus profers its analysis mainly by describing the situation under study. The data for this study were collected from Joy and Citi FM, (two radio stations) based in Accra, the capital of Ghana. The justification for choosing these two radio stations which serve as research sites has been offered in the chapter. The sample, sampling procedure and the data collection procedure have been amply discussed in detail in this chapter. Also, limitations and ethical issues have been discussed in the chapter. In the next chapter, the results of the analysis run on the data collected are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the data. Here, particular attention is paid to the various strategies used by discussants or panellists of *Newsfile* on Joy FM and *The Big Issue* on Citi FM to express disagreement to the issues discussed on these shows. The analysis of the data is done based on both the conceptual and theoretical frameworks namely, the Pragma-dialectic approach to the study of argumentation and politeness theory. This chapter is made up of two sections. The first section provides answers to the research questions asked in this study. The final part of the chapter provides a comprehensive summary of the chapter.

Strategies of Disagreement Used by Panel Members on Newsfile and the Big Issue

This section of the data analysis answers the first research question. In all of the 23 hours and 19 minutes of talk that was transcribed, a total of 195 instances of disagreement were identified. In disagreeing to opinions and issues discussed on both *Newsfile* and *The Big Issue,* the data showed that panellists used a variety of strategies. They include: *the use of contradictory statements, explicitly stating disagreement, challenge, hedges, the use of no, the use of doubt or disbelief, partial agreement, questions or request for clarification, clarification of speaker's meaning, intensify disagreement and irrelevancy claim.*

Table 3 depicts the overview of the types of strategies and their frequency distribution in the data.

Table 3: Disagreement strategies and its frequencies

Disagreement Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Contradictory statement	82	42.1
Hedge	31	15.9
Use of no	22	11.3
Challenge	14	7.2
Doubt/ disbelief	12	6.2
Partial agreement	7	3.6
Stating disagreement	6	3.1
Intensify disagreement	4	2
Providing alternative/suggestion	4	2
Irrelevancy claim	4	2
Miscellaneous	4	2
Question/request for clarification	3	1.5
Clarification of speaker's meaning	2	1.1
Total	**N=195**	**100**

As indicated in Table 3, the most frequently used strategy to express disagreement is contradictory statement, which is used 82 (42.1%) times of the strategies that were used. The least used disagreement strategy is the *question/request for clarification* and *clarification of speaker meaning*. In the following pages, I discuss the various strategies, as they appear in the data.

Contradictory Statement

A contradictory statement occurs when in disagreeing to a prior utterance, a speaker utters a negative proposition expressed by the previous claim. Contradictory statements usually occur with a particle such as *no* or *not*

(Muntigl & Turnbull, 1988). It must, however, be mentioned that *no* does not always mean disagreement. As such, in the present research only those that performed the act of disagreement were counted. Contradictory statements are also referred to in the literature as 'denials' (Choyimah & Latief, 2014). Out of the 195 disagreements that were identified in the data, 82 of them are contradictory statements. Some examples of contradictory statements found in the data include:

Example 1

BI0417HM: so it's a matter of falsehood

BI0417S01M: it's not falsehood. The the burden of establishing that fact
rested with Ayariga which he failed to…

Example 2

BI0917S02M: [certainly towards Occupy Ghana who you hate which
you hate so much

BI0917S03M: ooh no no I don't hate them at all…

Example 3

NF08(2)17S02M: [they were covet operations until a prima facie
case of probability or otherwise was established=

NF08(2)17S01M: =not true

In Example 2, the utterance of BI0917S02M overlaps the speech of the previous speaker and makes the utterance to which BI0917S03M disagrees. In expressing his disagreement, BI0917S03M uses a chain of 'no's to emphasize

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his disagreement. There were other instances throughout the data where speakers used a chain of 'no's to emphasize disagreement.

Another means of expressing disagreement is by uttering a contradictory statement prefaced by the use of intensifiers. Intensifiers are a group of adverbs that are used to indicate an increase in intensity (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973). According to them, intensifiers are divided into three semantic classes: emphasizers, amplifiers and downtoners. The intensifiers identified in the data include emphasizers and amplifiers. Both have a general heightening effect from an assumed norm. In the data, the panellists sometimes used intensifiers as a means to demonstrate strong commitment to their propositions and to sound assertive, straight-forward and confident in the opinion they were expressing. These communicative strategies are also sometimes used to express conviction and to increase the force of statements. The intensifiers identified in the data include *definitely* and *absolutely*. They were used with either *no* or *not*. Instances of this are illustrated in examples 4 and 5

Example 4

Host: =you had not begun or laid the foundation for the special ini-

               initiative as in the NDC to employ a hundred [thousand

               graduates

NF1117S03F: [definitely

               not and we wouldn't have done that Samson [let me continue

Example 5

BI0517S03M: <u>definitely no</u> if you're in government, you are more responsible

and you know the dimensions of your capacity. You know how

much the economy hold and what it can do, what it cannot do.

The third type of contradictory statement identified in the data is when

the utterance "does not bear any disagreement markers. However, in the

context in which it occurs, it contradicts a previous utterance" (Rees-Miller,

1995). I will have to mention at this point that in the data, contradictory

statements of this nature only contradicted a part of the previous utterance and

not the whole of it. Koczogh (2012) maintains that in such disagreements,

contradiction is not stated but implied, thus, demands a lot of mental

processing on the part of the listener. I wish to add here also that an

understanding of the context is also necessary to aid in the identification of

contradictory statements of this nature. Consider Examples 6, 7 and 8 as

follows:

Example 6

NF0817S01M: exactly so so this is a special case so speaker says I am

not going to allow detailed discussion and debate on

this matter which may be how we call it prejudicial to

what determination the committee would want to make

and in conformity or as a standard practice in this house

I'm referring this matter to the committee responsible

for this and on that committee minority and majority

members are on the committee and it is not as if the

committee is more or less err tilted towards one side there's an err equitable [

NF0817S02M: [it is tilted towards the majority

NF0817S01M: there's an equitable representation if it is not equal [

NF0817S02M: [it is tilted towards the majority

Example 7

NF0817S01M: let let the public you see and the discrimination against those of us who are not in Parliament as I said I [had made this comment about the speaker. It is not a near abuse. It is **abuse**. It is abuse. The speaker was abused in this step and this is one speaker that for me the few I have seen [he he exhibits that paternal nature [no speakers I have known

Example 8

NF0118S03M: … You asked whether there was a mess and my brother said there was no mess. There was a mess and the mess was what was cured at the Supreme Court. The lack of parliamentary ratification was a mess (.) and that mess had to be cured in the highest court of the land. That's what it was. (2) You granted them refugee status covertly. I can tell you on authority that the entire membership of the refugee board were not involved in that decision the board [

NF0817S01M in Example 7 disagrees with the proposition expressed by a prior speaker by raising his voice while expressing such disagreement. The increase in the pitch of his voice indicates to the hearer that the speaker is seeking to emphasize and draw attention to the point he is making.

Contradictory statements were also sometimes used together with other strategies as one. Locher confirms the possibility of a combination of strategies in her 2004 studies of disagreement. Some instances of the combination of strategies include the use of contradictory statement with a hedge, explanation or challenge. These strategies will be explained in subsequent pages.

Hedges

The second most used strategy identified in the data are hedges. Aijmer (1986, p. 6) as seen in Locher (2004), defines the function of hedges as freeing the speaker from the responsibility for the word and saves him or her the trouble of finding a 'better' word or phrase. Aijmer (1986) again states that hedges make it possible to comment on one's message while one is producing it either 'prospectively' or 'retrospectively.' Hedges are also a means to hesitate before choosing, to comment on what is on one's mind, or to abbreviate or condense information (Aijmer, 1986). Brown and Levinson (1987) also consider hedges as a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set. Consequently, it is safe to say that hedges are used to soften face threatening acts. However, Holmes (1995) mentions that hedges do not always reduce impositions and that the function of hedges must be considered in the context they appear in. It is worthy to note here that only those utterances which were used as hedges

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were counted. Some hedges identified in the data are *just*, *well*, *I think*, *I don't think*, *I'm not sure, I believe* and the modal *would.* Examples 9 and 10 are examples of hedges identified in the data:

Example 9

NF0118S02M: so you see so I think that they simply don't have the authority. I think this will be within our cultural setting. I think it should be led by our chief like the (   ) said in in the Upper East region where you find names like Kofi, Kwaku and others in the Upper East region. He exhorted them to try to give **names**- local names that is how it should be done if you want us to come back…

Example 10

NF0118S01M: well the saying that we should expect more in my view is a logical inference. Logical inference in the sense that it is a human society and that there are deviant people in society. That deviant behavior as part of every society's makeup and the ((insert panellist's name)) has said that even in advanced countries people who are reputed to be super powers and etcetera etcetera every day we hear about ail breaks and police being killed and ecetera ecetera so the inference that there will be a lot more in my view is not a statement of doom okay it's just a logical inference to say that there would always be criminal behaviour and indeed what ((insert panellist's

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name)) put out about the history of these matters from several years shows that point and therefore I want to flip the coin and look at it in a more positive front.

In Example 9, the speaker was disagreeing with John Agbeko, the Registrar of Birth and Death Registry over the move of the registry to quit registering indigenous names in the country. In his presentation, he disagrees with that move of the registrar and claims the registry simply does not have the authority to do what they intend to do. However, he downplays his disagreement by using the hedging device 'I think' several times in his speech. Hedges which were identified in the data appeared at different positions in the turns expressing disagreement.

The Use of 'no'

The use of 'no' occurred 22 times throughout the data. It usually occurred at the turn initial position. *No* was sometimes repeated in the turn, a phenomenon I refer to as a 'chain of no's'.

The difference between 'no' appearing in a contradictory statement and 'no' appearing under this category is that 'no' in contradictory statements is used as a negation marker; thus, negating a previous statement made by the prior speaker. Under this category, 'no' is sometimes used as a standalone expression and sometimes together with another strategy to express disagreement. For this reason, I decided to categorize those groups of no's that fall under the later description under the category the use of no. Examples 11, 12 and 13 illustrate the use of 'no' as a standalone expression

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Example 11

NF08(2)17S02M: that's what they're calling for

NF08(2)17S01M: but that's what they [(   )

NF08(2)17S02M: [even that is what A Plus is calling

                                             for

NF08(2)17S01M: <u>no</u>

Example 12

NF1117HM: =in the lead up to the elections unfortunately it does

                    look like the opposition then didn't really see [any good

                    in it

NF1117S03F: [<u>no no</u>]

Example 13

NF0118S02M: [so that is number one number two is it is it it is a

                    strange arrangement

NF0118S04F: <u>no</u>

       In other instances throughout the data, 'no' is used together with other

strategies such as 'no plus hedge', 'no plus explanation' and 'no plus

irrelevancy claim'. Consider Examples 14, 15 and 16 below:

Example 14

BI0417HM: there are persons who think that the minority has left the

                    Hon. Ayariga to hang and dry and like a carcass you've

                    called on the majority side to feast on him.

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BI0417S01M: No no no no no you see to allege that there was a bribery at a committee meeting of parliament is a very serious matter. It is a very very serious matter. It touches and affects every member of parliament. Never mind that the appointment committee is constituted by not more than not more than 30 persons.

Example 15

BI0717S02M: it has been redefined it's no more young people

BI0717S01M: No it's still young people but in terms of those who can create it.

Example 16

NF1117S01F: NO because Article 296 applies when you think somebody has acted arbitrary-somebody must not act arbitrarily, capriciously. If somebody hasn't given a reason what are you going to use as your argument that he's been capricious or he's been arbitrary

In Example 16, the speaker increases the pitch of his voice when producing the word 'no' which is later followed by because which marks the provision of a reason or explanation. Koczogh (2012) confirms the presence of disagreement turns which include a combination of strategies in her study of verbal disagreement among Hungarian students. Out of the 21 instances of this strategy, 10 out of them were a combination of 'no' and another strategy.

Challenge

Challenge is a strategy that displays disagreement with a prior proposition and typically has the syntactic forms of either an imperative or interrogative (Koczogh, 2012) appearing with question particles such as *when*, *what*, *who*, *why*, *where* and *how* (Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998). Rather than making a specific claim, this type of disagreement questions the addressee's stance and implies that he or she cannot provide evidence for his or her claim. This strategy also sought to indicate that the claim was incomplete, problematic or worthy of additional consideration (Black & Wiederhold, 2014). That said, rhetorical questions were also considered as challenges in this research and were categorised as such. See Examples 17, 18 and 19:

Example 17

NF0118S02M: you see ((insert host's name)) me my worry is that anytime that- and it has been very consistent we serve the Ministry of Finance, we saw it with even the Attorney General office itself and now as you know with the Minister of Health, we saw in the DVLA. It appears that any time the- this government appointees of this government want to take decisions which are potentially controversial they don't seek the opinion of the Attorney General they don't [what do you mean? Why? Then ((insert host's name)) are the directors of a company owners of the company [

NF0118S01M: [that's that's not true]

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NF0118S04F: [no]

Example 18

NF1117S03F: … I I am concerned about the play of words as I've said. The **economy** has turned around. Excuse me. We all live in Ghana. <u>How do you tell Ghanaians that the economy has turned around when obviously that is not the case</u>. I want to believe that ((insert Minister's name) wanted to start off on a light note and was trying to crack a joke to begin his presentation. Th**e economy** at best is in the **process** of being turned around. I'll give some credit for that. At best in the process but not turned around…

Example 19

BI0917S02M: Okay very very quick on Kenya and a few things. I'm going to forgive ((insert panellist's name)) for being so out of touch with everything that Occupy Ghana uh, has been up and about. You know, the NDCs have always been biased against Occupy Ghana from day one so we'll leave them. Uhm, fortunately for Occupy Ghana, because of the caliber of people that are in it so many of them are found their way into a government not because they want to be a part of NPP but because they want to be a part of the solution in Ghana you know our slogan at the end of the day is for God and country is for God and country

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BI0917S03M: <u>How could you be a member of Parliament contest on behalf of a political party without ever been a member of it?</u> That is a very dishonest statement

In Example 17, NF0118S02M makes an assertion to which NF0118S01M overlaps and produces a contradictory statement which claims NF0118S02M's assertion is false. NF0118S02M quickly produces a challenge by asking NF0118S01M what he means by making a claim that his assertion is false. The challenge 'why' expressed by NF0118S02M in response to NF0118S01M's overlapping speech questions his stance and implies that he cannot back up his claim; thus, directly attacking his competence.

Doubt/Disbelief

Another strategy used in expressing disagreement is the expression of doubt or disbelief. It is a strategy in which the speaker expresses that he or she does not believe or doubts the previous proposition and therefore cannot accept it (Koczogh, 2012). As such, it is used to downplay the previous statement. This strategy is often accompanied by interjections expressing scepticism and emotive expressions. This is exemplified in the following extract

Example 20

NF08(2)17S02M: now err I think that basically errr there's more °questions than answers° and like we said earlier when we appeared on this programme in connection with the referral of the   matter to the police we said that that probably was on attempt to whitewash (.) the the issue

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and I think that we have been vindicated (.) because

subsequent to the investigation by the police it has

emerged that the report was faked so the integrity

NF08(2)17S01M: how can you make such sweeping statements=

NF08(2)17S02M: =well well [they said

NF08(2)17S01M: [you're a lawyer come on

Example 21

NF08(2)17S01M: [that was covert operation=

NF08(2)17S02M: = oh you know what what ↑happened before you heard

about [the the investigations

NF08(2)17S01M: [ooh come on

NF08(2)17S02M: you wouldn't know. My brother I'm telling you you

don't know=

NF08(2)17S01M: =oh come on=

Example 22

NF08(2)17S02M: they should have called the parties and called Korle Bu

and [called the minister

NF08(2)17S01M: [but those were preliminary moves

NF08(2)17S02M: they should have called the the [committee that was set

up

NF08(2)17S01M: [that's incredible

In Example 20, NF08(2)17S01M by making the statement 'you're a

lawyer come on' is casting doubt on the authenticity of the statement made by

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the prior speaker. By so doing, he sought to imply that as a lawyer he must make sure he has the facts and that whatever he says must be verifiable. He therefore challenges NF08(2)17S02M by asking how possible it is for him to make such sweeping statements before finally casting doubt on what he says.

Partial Agreement

Partial agreement can be defined as disagreement disguised as agreement. It occurs when a speaker makes a concession or agrees with the prior speaker and then goes on to state his or her view or opinion which may be contrary to that of the first speaker. Brown and Levinson (1987) mention that they are mechanisms used to pretend to agree.

When panellists wanted to disagree with others they oftentimes tended to balance the need to express their own positions with the acknowledgment and respect of the other's views. This they did by agreeing to the entire proposition or part of the proposition by the earlier speaker and later articulating an alternate position. The common forms of partial agreement expressed in the data are yes/of course/yeah/well, but … which are shown in Examples 23 and 24:

Example 23

NF0817S01M: … I've heard the minority talk about the fact that oh because of the general consensus on the fact that the minority should have their say and the majority should have their way which I think is not an official position of Parliament and I don't believe in that I believe that parliamentary debate must conform to superior arguments and so the issue of minorities you have their say and the

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majority should have their way doesn't come in at all. The speaker exercises his [

NF0817HM: [if you don't hear the inferior argument you can't determine the superior argument

NF0817S01M: of course but the arguments must come from both sides

Example 24

BI0517S03M: Well errm if it satisfies your queries but for us at the minority we will not be satisfied until we get to the bottom of it. The reason is this, you see, you can short-change the people of Ghana. The minority- the purpose of the minority is to, is to make things, you know, to investigate and ensure that things are going right…

There was one instance, however, in the data where the disagreement turn began with 'but'. According to Locher (2004) when 'but' occurs initially, it may presuppose a partial agreement of the previous speaker's contribution and that forms the basis for which it is categorized it as partial disagreement in this present research. Moreso, this instance is a continuation of Example 23 where after NF0817S01M makes a statement partially agreeing to what has been said earlier, the host takes the turn after which he (NF0817S01M) comes in to make another turn. This provides basis for Schiffrin's (1987) definition of 'but' as a marker of speaker turn.

Example 25

NF0817S01M: but we shouldn't put it in such a way that oh let us speak and let them have their way that is not what the law

requires us to do so the speaker we are talking about here

is not an amateur person in the chair that he sits in. He's

been a former member of parliament before. The speaker

is also an astute lawyer he's been a diplomat, a High

Commissioner before so as a politician he understands the

game and the rules of engagement in the house

Example 25 which is a continuation of Example 23 was a discussion on some issues that had happened in the house of Parliament the week before. The members of Parliament on the minority side were complaining that the speaker of the house had been ignoring them and not giving them the opportunity to speak their minds on the issues before the house. Therefore, NF0817S01M was of the view that the concern of the minority is illegitimate because the speaker of the house of Parliament is not someone who will do anything that goes against the standing orders of the house.

Stating Disagreement

Stating disagreement is a strategy used to refer to those strategies or utterances in which a speaker explicitly states his or her disagreement with a previous speaker's view or proposition. This strategy is marked by the presence of the performative verb 'disagree' or the phrase 'do not agree'. This is illustrated in Example 26:

Example 26

BI0917S01M: well I stand to disagree with you because uh, the IMF clearly

indicated in that document, that we are not doing anything

different in terms of medium term sustainability and we were

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borrowing to retire old debt and we are still borrowing to retire

old debt.

Example 27

BI0717S01M: I want ((insert name of a panellist)) to appreciate the fact that

we understand the concern he is raising except that errr I

disagree with some of the posture or the position that he wants

to take. For instance, inviting people to attend programmes

cannot be a basis and whether they attend or not should not be a

basis to determine whether somebody is business friendly or

not.

Example 28

NF0118S04F: … I don't agree with him that therefore we will see

more and more of it even though there are copycat situations.

Example 29

NF0817S01M:… It's not as if and I don't agree that we don't have strong

institutions. We don't have strong men who will allow the

strong institutions to **work** and that is the problem.

It is obvious from Examples 26 to 29 that the speakers, by using the

performative verb 'disagree' or the phrase 'do not agree', made their

disagreements clear to the other panellists. Kotthoff (1993), as seen in Locher

(2000), mentions that such disagreements can occur in contexts where it is

more important to defend one's point of view than to pay attention to the face

considerations of their participants.

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Intensify Disagreement

This type of disagreement strategy uses certain words and expressions such as *I am telling you and I'm saying,* among others, to intensify or emphasize the disagreement. Such words or expressions are used to intensify the force of the utterance and to express certainty on the part of the speaker. This is shown in Example 30

Example 30

NF08(2)17S01M: [are those two incidents covert operations↑ that's the
                        question [I asked

NF08(2)17S02M: [they were covet operations until a prima facie
                        case of probability or otherwise was established=

NF08(2)17S01M: =not true

NF08(2)17S02M: it's true I'm telling you [(   )

NF08(2)17S01M: [not true=

NF08(2)17S02M: =it's true I'm telling you (   )it's true it's true and that
                        it was only when [the

NF08(2)17S01M makes a contradictory statement to what NF08(2)17S02M says earlier and in disagreeing with him NF08(2)17S01M intensifies his disagreement by using the intensifier *I'm telling you.* He again uses it when NF08(2)17S01M still disagrees with what he says one more time to which he (NF08(2)17S02M) disagrees again. Although NF08(2)17S02M is disagreeing with another panellist, he utters a positive statement to perform that act and in the last line of Example 31, he repeats the statement *it's true* to emphasize his proposition, make it prominent and to display his confidence in what he is saying.

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Providing Alternatives/Suggestion

This strategy was used 3 times throughout the data. In disagreeing, the panellists did not explicitly state their disagreements but rather provided suggestions or alternatives to the issue under discussion as shown below:

Example 31

NF0817S0M: I think that is a huge concern to people but my own view

is that since this will generate about 20 million dollars annually why can't the state engage in this same act or the payment of car vehicle insurance by private persons is compulsory. Why can't we also get the insurance company to get involved in this matter and then a company like this one Road Safety Management Services Limited can also be given the opportunity to also undertake a job like this

The conversation in Example 31 above was about the compulsory payment of the tolling levy which the government of the day was seeking to introduce nationwide. This levy attracted several misgivings from the general public with so many calling for the abolishment of the policy. NF0817S0M in his expression of disagreement to the issue under discussion sought to provide an alternative to the processes that will lead to the payment of the levy.

Irrelevancy Claim

Irrelevancy claim is one of the categories under Muntigl and Turnbull (1998) taxonomies of disagreement. They define it as an utterance that makes a claim that another speaker's proposition is not relevant to the discussion at

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hand. From the data, irrelevancy claim was used 4 (2%) times of the total disagreement instances identified in the data.

Example 32

NF0118S01M: … So that is what it is so <u>as far as I'm concerned really the public banter and disagreements errm in my view should cease</u>. Why because the University of Ghana itself belongs to the government of Ghana. University of Ghana is Ghana government property is that okay and therefore all its parts are also Ghana government property and <u>so for me the argument that arose as to whether that facility is the Ghana government property or not in my view was needless</u>. Are you following me=

Example 33

BI0517S02M: Well, this morning I tell you that I will- I probably will lay out I probably will lay out everything- me I think that this is a matter that is even dying I'm surprised that you are asking me. <u>I think it's a matter that is dying. It is so irrelevant.</u> I am saying ((insert host's name)) I state again without equivocation that it's just not about me. Let us not get distracted from the main issues...

In Example 32, the speaker sees the argument about the ownership of the University of Ghana medical facility as unnecessary, mentions it and goes on to provide reasons for why he thinks it is so. He later on in the turn restates that position; thereby, reinforcing his claim.

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Also, in Example 33 the speaker is incensed that the host keeps talking about the Ameri deal and his likely involvement in the saga. Therefore, he disagrees with him and mentions that the topic is irrelevant as such it should not be discussed on the show.

Question/Request for clarification

This strategy includes utterances that ask for a reason or example. It usually involves the use of interrogatives and often indicate that the previous speaker's proposition cannot be accepted by the speaker as found in Example 34

Example 34

NF08(2)17S02M: is where ((insert panellist's name)) comes in please can you give me an opportunity you see why we are seeing that when you are given a function to perform you must perform the function in accordance with your authority the letter again betrays the chief of- deputy chief of staff=

NF08(2)17S01M: =how

The speaker, in asking for clarification in Example 34, latches his request unto the utterance of the previous speaker. The use of the single wh-item indicates that the speaker wishes to find out how the said letter that is being discussed betrays the deputy chief of staff. There is in this instance some doubt in the statement NF08(2)17S02M makes; hence, the need to ask for clarification using the question item 'how'.

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Clarification of Speaker's Meaning

This is an utterance that seeks to clarify the misunderstood meaning of a speaker's previous utterance. This is normally used when a speaker has said something which has been misconstrued by the panellists and he or she provides clarification on what he or she meant or to correct his or her previous proposition. Panellists do this to ensure smooth communication and to avoid a breakdown of communication. See Example 35 which is an extension of Example 7:

Example 35

NF0817S02M: [it's not supposed to be paternal. He's not

supposed to be paternal

NF0817S01M: no no what I mean is that he's shown no no not in the

negative way

After NF0817S01M makes a comment to which NF0817S02M disagrees, he (NF0817S01M) comes back to clarify what he meant by his earlier comment to ensure that the participants understand one another and to also ensure that the discussion will continue smoothly.

Indeterminate Cases

In the course of identifying and assigning disagreement strategies, I encountered four instances of disagreement that did not fit into any of the categories I had identified. Therefore, I created a category labelled miscellaneous. Consider the following example from when a panellist was disagreeing with another panellist over the contents of the 2018 budget:

Example 36

NF1117S03F: but what I'd like to say is that this budget did not really **address** the things that need to be done and one of the things is ( ) <u>A hundred thousand jobs for graduates when we have 250 errrm doctors waiting to start working. When we have **many** National Service graduates **waiting** to start working. What is a hundred thousand graduates working- and even the amount that was allocated to that what is that is going to do exactly.</u> It is a **convoluted** policy that is going nowhere. We should look at these things properly and come out with **real practical** solutions to solving unemployed graduates. We need to do that rather than turn it into one of the fulfilling of campaign promises=

In the above utterance, the speaker questions why the budget has an allocation for hundred thousand graduates to gain employment when there are professionals who are far less than the one hundred thousand graduates the government budget has made provision for to start working. What it presupposes is that if the government cannot employ two hundred and fifty doctors, how then is it sure it can employ such a huge number of graduates. The use of such a strategy does not readily fit into any of the strategies that have been identified.

It has to be noted that the disagreement strategies described above display varying degrees of directness and indirectness hence, they can be said to be on a continuum. The direct strategy of disagreement, it can be said, is the one in which the force of disagreeing is explicitly stated therefore, there is

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little or no interpretative work on the addressee's part. As such, utterances stating the disagreement are easily interpretable. This is in line with Koczogh (2012) who mentions that direct disagreement strategies are utterances in which there is a match between the propositional content and the illocutionary force of the acts, so the disagreement is uttered in a way that clearly communicates to the hearer that a disagreement is being made.

On the other hand, indirect strategies are used to express disagreement in which the force of disagreeing cannot be clearly seen. In this strategy, the propositional content does not clearly convey a disagreement and, therefore, its illocutionary force is not transparent (Koczogh, 2012). The main characteristics of indirect disagreement are the absence of disagreement markers and the multiplicity of meanings of utterances (Choyimah & Latief, 2014). Some findings confirming the existence of direct and indirect strategies in disagreeing are Locastro (1986), Blum-Kulka (2002), Rohmah (2006), and Behnam and Niroomand (2011).

Obviously, out of the strategies that have been identified in the data, the most direct strategy is stating disagreement. The other direct strategies include contradictory statement, doubt/disbelief, use of no, intensify disagreement and irrelevancy claim. Indirect disagreements make use of the following strategies partial agreement, challenge, hedges, providing suggestions/alternatives, questions/request for clarification and clarification of speaker's meaning.

Consequently, it can be said that overall, the panellists on both shows used more direct disagreement strategies than indirect disagreement strategies.

Out of 191 disagreements that were categorized, 130 of them were direct disagreements and 61 of them were indirect disagreements.

It can be said that a lot more direct strategies were used because often the people who appear on both shows (Newsfile and The Big Issue) are either politicians who are affiliated to the two main political parties in the country or experts in various fields whose expertise may be needed depending on the topic(s) under discussion for the day. Politicians will either agree or disagree based on the views of the political parties they belong to. In effect, politicians will choose which side of the issue to align themselves to based on their political affiliations. To stamp their authority on the views they share and to appear to the audience as representing their political parties well and being forceful in their thoughts, they express their disagreements directly. Experts will want to appear as knowledgeable in their various areas of specialty. Thus, they also tend to use more direct than indirect strategies of disagreement.

Disagreement, when it occurs in such shows which have as panellists or discussants people whose political affiliations are known, tends to take on a political perspective, forcing discussants to shy away from the real issues and making the issues or topics under discussion political hence forcing them to say things that will make them win political points with the audience.

Mitigation of Disagreement Strategies

This section of the chapter provides an analysis of the strategies panellists use to mitigate disagreements. This section specifically answers the second research question.

2. *How do discussants of radio panel discussions employ*

mitigation strategies when they express disagreement?

As potentially face threatening acts, disagreements of various kinds are sometimes viewed as a violation of the hearer's privacy and freedom of action. Mitigation can thus be defined as the reduction of certain unwelcome effects which a speech act in this instance disagreement, has on the hearer (Fraser, 1980). It can also be said to be an attempt at reducing the harshness or hostility of the force of one's actions. The data revealed a number of strategies that were used by the panellists to mitigate their disagreements. These include *hedges, hesitation markers, partial agreement, questions for clarification, explanation, expression of regret and providing suggestion or alternatives.* These findings confirm the findings on mitigated disagreement in the literature (Pomerantz, 1986; Locher, 2004; Maiz-Arevalo, 2014;). These mitigation strategies help the person disagreeing to 'buy time' and to soften the face threatening act. Table 4 shows the various mitigating strategies and their frequency distribution across the data.

Table 4: Mitigation strategies

Mitigation strategy	Frequency
Hedge	31
Hesitation	9
Explanation	8
Partial agreement	6
Clarification of speaker meaning	3
Providing suggestion or alternative	2
Expression of regret	1
Total	**60**

Hedge

In the first section of this chapter, hedges were defined as words or phrases that free the speaker from the responsibility for word and saves him or her the trouble of finding a better word or phrase. In the data, hedges are the most used strategy to mitigate disagreement. Although hedges are used primarily to soften disagreement, they were used both as a strategy to express disagreement and also to mitigate the effect of the disagreement being expressed. Thus, it can be said that hedges perform a dual function as they appear in the data.

As has been already discussed, hedges are a means to hesitate before choosing, to comment on what is on one's mind, or to abbreviate or condense information (Aijmer, 1986). This finding corroborates that of several other studies (Locher, 2004; Kreutel, 2007; Kusevka, 2015). Hedges protect the speaker's face— a task which is sometimes a difficult task in conversations. When disagreeing with other speaker's propositions, the speaker, aside performing an act which is inherently face-threatening to the hearer's face, s/he also puts his or her face in jeopardy because some other speaker may disagree with his proposition thus threatening his face. By using hedges, the speaker tries to mitigate the effect of his disagreement thereby preventing him from explicitly stating his or her disagreement in such a way that makes the hearer feel less threatened.

Some of the hedges identified are *I think, well, just, I'm not sure, I don't see, actually* among others. 'I think' and 'well' are the most frequently used hedges with the rest recording three or two appearances in the data. Thus, the part of this section dedicated to discussing hedges as mitigating strategies

will focus on discussing the two most occurring hedges — *I think* and *well* —
throughout the data.

'I think' may function as a hedge or a booster, depending on its function in context. Brown and Levinson (1987) regard 'I think' as a quality hedge which means that the speaker is not taking full responsibility for the truth of his utterance (Locher, 2004). It can also primarily express referential meaning when a speaker expresses insecurity about the truth value of an utterance (Holmes, 1995). The hedge 'I think' appears to be the most frequently used hedge in the data appearing about twenty times in the data.

'Well' is considered by Pomerantz (1984) as a turn-initial component that always precedes disagreement. Locher (2004) points out that 'well' is a multi-functional word which can be used as an adverb, a noun, a degree word or as a discourse marker. Jucker (1993), as seen in Locher (2004), proposes four uses of 'well' as a discourse marker which are outlined below:

1. It can be used as a marker of insufficiency, indicating some problems on the content level of the current or the preceding utterance.

2. It can be used as a face threat mitigator, indicating some problems on the interpersonal level

3. It can be used as a frame marking device indicating a topic change or introducing direct reported speech

4. It can be used as a delay device.

'Well' appeared six times throughout the data and was used in the turn initial position as a mitigating device to 'buy' time and to delay disagreement. In Example 10, before stating that the proposition of the previous speaker which is something the speaker sees as logical reference, he begins his turn with

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"well" a hedging device that seeks to lessen the threat of the disagreement he is about to make. Hedges are also used in combination with other strategies. Examples 36 and 37 illustrate this:

Example 36

BI0917S01M: <u>Well, I think, uh,</u> your position in the last statement was not the

case. If jobs were seized it means people were removed from

their jobs and that led to downsizing or maintaining adequate

number of people that should work in those institutions [

BI0917S01M in Example 36 uses two hedging devices ('well' and 'I think') and finally uses a hesitation marker in a bid to mitigate the effect of the disagreement he is about to utter.

Example 37

BI0917S03M: <u>no I don't think</u> you are objective about that

Example 37 sees the speaker using "no" together with the hedge "I don't think". *No* has been classified as a direct means of disagreement which has the face threatening potential; thus, the use of the hedge "I don't think" in this instance is to mitigate the effect of the direct disagreement expressed earlier.

Hesitation

Another strategy that is used to mitigate disagreement is hesitation. Hesitation is one characteristic of spoken language which together with other characteristics such as false starts, pauses and afterthoughts. does not hinder the ultimate goal of the verbalization of one's thoughts. Consequently,

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hesitation markers are not seen as a characteristic of a poor speaking style but as an indicator of a planning process (Locher, 2004).

According to Gilquin (2008), the reason for the occurrence of hesitation markers in speech is that it signals a moment of reflection and ensures that a speaker can keep his or her turn in the conversation and is not interrupted by the other participants. This point is also shared by Locher (2004) when she says that hesitation markers serve as floor holding devices within which space the speaker has some level of production difficulties and tries to find focus.

The use of hesitation markers constitutes mitigation in the sense that it gives the speaker some time to carefully think about his next utterance and to carefully choose his words. Consider Example 36 above and Examples 38 and 39.

Example 38

BI0517S03M: Uh, well, not at all…

Example 39

NF1117S05F: on the issue of the indicators and whether the minister spoke the truth or not I think errm ((insert panellist's name)) has worked with the Ministry of Finance, the same technical people she left who are still there and the metho- methodology we use, the processes we use in coming up with these indicators are still the same. The numbers speaks for themselves GDP is provided by the statistical service June figures clearly shows that GDP at September was 7.8. That is the truth. That is a fact. Yearly inflation is at 11.6. That is a fact and any economy is assessed

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on the basis of indicators globally accepted indicators we cannot make our own- you can have an opinion. You can express an opinion. You can have your own errm perceptions about it but you cannot question the clear indicators showing whether an economy is doing well or not. All the indicators as we have them indi- indicates that we are doing well.

The speaker in Example 38, in trying to mitigate his disagreement here uses a number of strategies to delay the disagreement turn. First, he uses a hesitation marker followed by a hedge even before he expresses his disagreement. This is similar to Pomerantz's (1984) finding in which she notices that whenever disagreement is a dispreferred turn, the speakers try to use hesitation to display reluctance or discomfort and to further push down disagreement in his or her speech and to delay the utterance of the disagreement.

Explanation

Explanation involves stating or giving reasons for — which a speaker is disagreeing with another's proposition. Disagreement acts which are accompanied by explanation help to minimize the face threatening act of the disagreement. From the data, explanation as a mitigation strategy occurred together with other strategies. These strategies were often direct strategies which require minimal to no effort to minimize the threat of the disagreement to the hearer's face. By co-occurring with the speech act expressed in the first part of the utterance, they provide an explanation or reason as to why the act is being performed. Explanation is used nine times in the data; one instance is

illustrated in Example 39. Consider Example 16 also. The speaker expresses 'no' and follows it up with an explanation:

Example 40

BI0517S01M: **no**. The schools don't matter if you don't have teachers for the schools.

Partial Agreement

Partial agreement refers to instances where the speaker starts out by agreeing with the utterance or proposition of the previous speaker before voicing out his or her disagreement. Thus, partial agreement can be seen as disguised disagreement. When the speaker is in disagreement with another or the previous speaker's utterance but does not want to do so directly or bald-on-record, they tend to disguise their disagreement as agreement so the other participant does not feel the effect of the disagreement; thereby, mitigating the effect of the disagreement on the face of the hearer. This is the same phenomenon Pomerantz (1984) refers to as agreement prefaces which when conjoined together with disagreement in the same turn are joined together with the conjunction 'like'. One example of partial agreement identified in the data is shown in Example 41
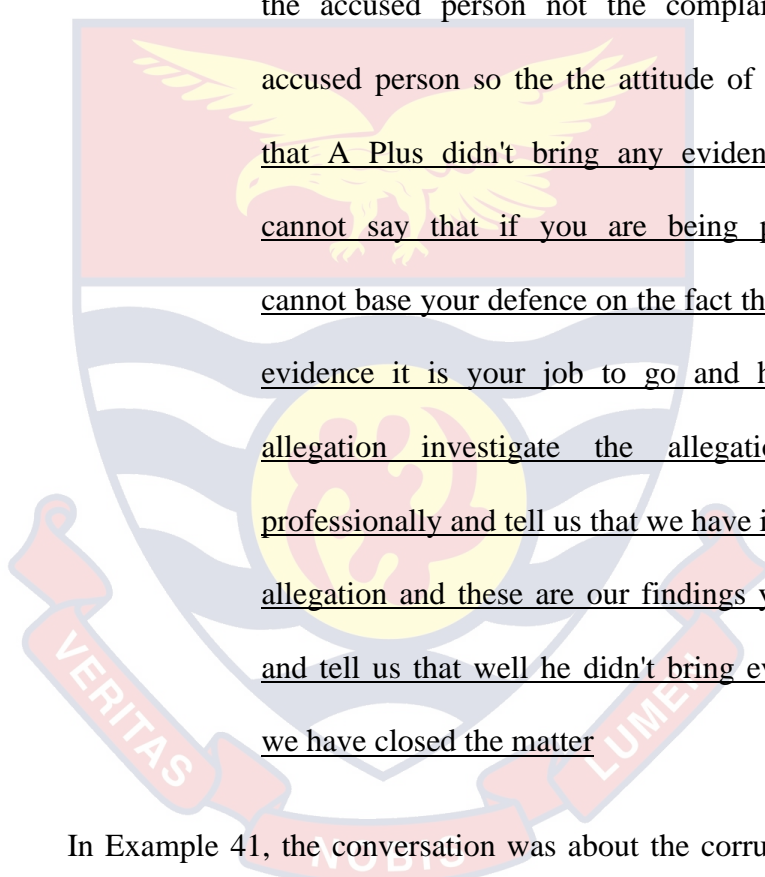
Example 41

NF08(2)17S01M: yeah but you see that's not exactly also competitive tendering as such in terms of following the procedures so the idea- the advice from the chief of staff's office through these two deputies was to the effect that what you are doing is irregular and then particularly in the

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absence of a board a governing board of Korle Bu

teaching hospital that could not be sustainable so wait

hold your fire and let the board be in place and this has

serious decisions could be taken.

Example 42

NF08(2)17S04F: that is why in the criminal process it is the state versus

the accused person not the complainant versus the

accused person so the the attitude of well we can say

that A Plus didn't bring any evidence but the CID

cannot say that if you are being professional you

cannot base your defence on the fact that he didn't bring

evidence it is your job to go and he has given an

allegation investigate the allegations come out

professionally and tell us that we have investigated the

allegation and these are our findings you cannot come

and tell us that well he didn't bring every evidence so

we have closed the matter

In Example 41, the conversation was about the corruption allegations

levelled against the Chief of staff at the presidency and is deputy at the time

by A Plus. This was about the collection of revenue at the Korle Bu Teaching

Hospital in Ghana and the abrogation of the contract between the hospital and

a bank in Ghana. NF08(2)17S01M in making his submission agrees partially

to what an earlier speaker had said but goes on to express his disagreement.

This is evident in his use of 'yeah but…'.

Clarification of Speaker's Meaning

Conversations are supposed to flow smoothly when the speakers attain and maintain a common ground. Whenever something happens to disrupt that common ground they share, the conversation is thrown out of balance. One of such ways conversations can be thrown out of balance is when a speaker says something that the other participants misunderstand. The speaker then comes in to clarify or correct the misunderstood meaning of the speaker's previous utterance. When a speaker clarifies something he has said earlier, it has a contrastive effect on conversation as it helps to avoid communication breakdowns, mitigate the effect of the disagreement on the face of the hearer as well as the speaker and facilitate the smooth flow of conversation.

Example 43

BI0517S03M: I think you should say that it's not only don't say it is not about that. Say it is not only about

BI0517S01M: that is what your government is saying. Anytime any NDC functionary is defending his government, they say the same thing. We built schools, we built hospitals, we built roads [but

BI0517S03M: [no no I was only I was only responding to why it is mystical. [Not just- we did more than that

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Providing Suggestion/Alternative

Instead of disagreeing with the other panellists directly, panel members offer suggestions or provide alternatives to the issues under discussion. Provision of alternatives or suggestions has already been identified as an indirect means of disagreeing. By offering alternatives or suggestions, the panellists mitigate the force of their opposition, preventing the hearer or other panellists from having to concede. An example is provided in Example 43:

Example 44

NF0817S03M: I think that is a huge concern to people but my own view is that since this will generate about 20 million dollars annually why can't the state engage in this same act or the payment of car vehicle insurance by private persons is compulsory. Why can't we also get the insurance company to get involved in this matter and then a company like this one Road Safety Management Services Limited can also be given the opportunity to also undertake a job like this

Example 43 is an excerpt from a discussion on the towing levy saga in 2017 and the concern that the towing company the Road Safety Commission was working with is the one to determine the entry of other companies or persons as third parties to the contract. NF0817S03M is of the view that the decision to work with one towing company creates monopoly and disagrees with the commission's decision to involve only one company in the contract. He therefore offers alternatives or suggestions in his submission to the commission.

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Expression of Regret

Leech (1983) mentions that there is the tendency to mitigate disagreement by expressing regret. Expression of regret occurs when a speaker apologizes to the previous speaker for disagreeing with his or her earlier utterance or proposition. There is only one instance of the expression of regret throughout the data. It occurs after the speaker performs a direct disagreement. In an attempt to mitigate the face threat of such an utterance, she quickly expresses regret by saying she is sorry. In most instances where people express regret for disagreeing with others, the disagreement act is prefaced with the mitigation strategy. However, in the only instance that was recorded in the data, expression of regret seems to be added as an afterthought. This is probably because the speaker expresses disagreement in a rather direct manner and finally attempts to mitigate its effect by expressing regret. This strategy has been identified as means of mitigating disagreement by several scholars (Pomerantz, 1984; Maiz-Arevalo, 2014) although in such instances, the speakers express regret before stating disagreement.

Example 45

NF1117S03F: [I don't. This budget has no credibility at all.

                         I'm sorry about that [

Chapter Summary

The chapter reported and discussed the strategies used by panellists on two news analysis shows on radio stations — Joy FM and Citi FM in Ghana. It also presents the strategies used to mitigate disagreement. The study identifies a number of direct and indirect strategies used to express disagreement. Some direct strategies include explicitly stating disagreement,

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the use of no and the expression of doubt/disbelief. The indirect strategies also include hedges, partial agreement, tests and clarification of speaker's meaning. The analyses indicate that the commonest strategy for expressing disagreement in Ghana is a contradictory statement. Panellists were found to use more direct disagreement strategies than indirect ones. To mitigate their disagreement, panellists used a variety of strategies including hedges, hesitation, explanation, questions/request for clarification etc. Hedges were used often to mitigate disagreement.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMEDATIONS

Introduction

This concluding chapter comprises three sections. The first section provides a summary of the entire research. The second section highlights the key findings of the study. This is followed by some key recommendations for further research based on the findings of the present study.

Summary of the Study

This research has attempted to investigate disagreement as used by panel members on two popular radio news analysis talk shows — *Newsfile* and *The Big Issue* hosted every Saturday morning between 9am and 12pm on Joy FM and Citi FM respectively. The study sought to find out if there were peculiar strategies that were used in expressing disagreement and the attempts made by the panellists to mitigate their disagreements since they are viewed as potentially face-threatening. In this light, the research was guided by two research questions:

1. *What linguistic strategies do discussants of radio panel discussions in Ghana use to express disagreement?*

2. *How do discussants of radio panel discussions employ mitigation strategies when they express disagreement?*

The research adopted the qualitative approach to describe the strategies used to express disagreement. This type of research locates the researcher as an observer in the world where he studies various phenomena in their natural setting and attempts to make sense of or interpret phenomena in

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terms of the meaning it brings to him or her (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). For this reason, qualitative research emphasizes meaning and how people process and make sense of their experiences and the structures of the world. By drawing on this type of research paradigm, the researcher was able to give a detailed account of the strategies used by panel members to express disagreement and the varied ways in which these disagreements were mitigated by their producers.

The data for the study were collected between September, 2017 and January, 2018. It consists 8 editions (4 editions of each show) of both shows which were made up of 23 hours and 19 minutes of talk. Since the data were in spoken form, it was transcribed, using Jefferson's transcription model which offers the researcher the opportunity to transcribe speech into ordinary writing coupled with providing details on pauses, emphasis, overlapping, intonation, latching among others.

The data were then coded structurally to help determine the directness or indirectness of disagreements identified. Structural coding, generally, results in the identification of large segments of text on broad topics which can then form the basis for an in-depth analysis within or across topics. This coding process was followed by axial coding which sought to help the researcher establish the relationships between categories by breaking them down into subcategories and specifying the properties and dimensions of each category.

Since the study concentrates on opinions expressed by panellists on radio talk show programmes, it is information which was already in the public domain prior to this research. However, to protect the identity of the

participants they were identified only by codes which were assigned to them by the researcher. Codes assigned were based on which of the news analysis programmes they were on, the month and year the programme was aired, the speaker's gender and when they were first invited to take their turn in the discussion.

Key Findings

The analysis of the data revealed the following findings with specific reference to the research questions.

With respect to the first research question, the study revealed twelve disagreeing strategies used by panel members on both shows. These are stating disagreement through the use of the performative 'I disagree', challenge, contradictory statement, hedges, the use of 'no', doubt/disbelief, partial agreement, questions/requests for clarification, irrelevancy claim, clarification of speaker meaning, intensify disagreement and providing suggestion/ alternative. The study identified other strategies which could not be categorized by the research. This is because although they were contextually identified as disagreement, they did not readily fit into any of the identified strategies. It was found that hedges and contradictory statements were the most used strategies to express disagreement.

The strategies were later classified into direct and indirect strategies depending on the nature and force of disagreement. In direct strategies of disagreement, the force of disagreeing is explicitly stated; therefore, there is little or no interpretative work on the addressee's part. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are used to express disagreement in which the force of

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disagreeing cannot be clearly seen. Several of the instances of disagreement were uttered while interrupting the utterance of the previous speaker.

Out of the twelve strategies identified, six were categorized as direct strategies of disagreement. They include stating disagreement, contradictory statement, doubt/disbelief, use of 'no', intensify disagreement, and irrelevancy claim. The other six which were also classified as indirect strategies of disagreement are; partial agreement, challenge, hedges, providing suggestions/alternatives, questions/request for clarification and clarification of speaker's meaning. The study also identified three variants of contradictory statements. Contradictory statements that usually occur with a particle such as *no* or *not*. Contradictory statements that are prefaced by the use of intensifiers and contradictory statements that do not bear any disagreement markers yet contradict a previous utterance in the context in which it occurs.

Based on the classification of disagreement strategies into direct and indirect strategies, it is fair to assume that an equal number of direct and indirect strategies were distributed across the data. However, the findings of this research show that a lot more direct strategies were employed in disagreeing than the indirect ones. This finding confirms Kreutel's (2007) findings which indicate that non-native speakers of English tend to use direct and unmitigated means to express disagreement. This may be so because the speakers "perceive a proposition as a speaker is compelled to disagree forcefully" (Rees-Miller, 2000, p. 1107). The panel members are often politicians belonging to different political parties or experts in one field or the other. Therefore, when a disagreement occurs, there is the need for discussants to ensure that they appear to be representing their political parties well on the

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part of the politicians. On the part of the experts, they may also want the audience to perceive them as knowing what they are about. In such situations, the speaker's need to maintain face outweighs the need to protect the hearer's face. This affirms Rees-Miller's (2000) claim that when disagreement is severe, the speaker may or may not choose to lessen the threat to the addressee's face or to preserve his own. However, in this research, speakers chose to preserve their own faces rather than their addressees' faces.

One interesting finding this study makes is the expression of doubt/disbelief and intensified disagreement as strategies for the expression of disagreement. Both strategies seem not to have been identified in the literature as means by which non-native speakers express disagreement. Such a finding may perhaps be attributed to the fact that the speakers whose utterances were studied are considered as individuals with a high level of linguistic competence of the English Language. Previous studies (Choyimah & Latief, 2014; Maiz-Arevalo, 2014) attribute their findings to the fact that the participants have low levels of language proficiency which may have accounted for the findings they make.

Concerning the second research question, the study revealed that panellists mitigated their disagreements using a number of strategies. These include hedges, hesitation markers, partial agreement, questions for clarification, explanation, expression of regret and providing suggestion or alternatives. These findings confirm the findings on mitigated disagreement in the literature on mitigated disagreement. These strategies help the person disagreeing to 'buy time', further push down his or her disagreement in the turn and soften the face threat of the act.

Hedges were the most used mitigated strategies used by the participants in the data, occurring about 31 times throughout the data. Some of the hedges identified are *I think, well, just, I'm not sure, I don't see, actually* among others. 'I think' and 'well' are the most used hedges with the rest recording three or two appearances in the data.

Implications

Based on the findings of the study, some implications can be discussed.

The research contributes to the field of pragmatics by investigating the unexplored aspect of polite or impolite behaviour within the Ghanaian setting. It also provides an in-depth examination of disagreement based on empirical evidence. The study also introduces some rare findings as associated with the language of non-native speakers that is hardly mentioned in the literature.

Ghana attracts a lot of foreigners and tourists into the country all year round because of the numerous tourist sites the country can boast of. Therefore, this study provides a useful lens to understanding the Ghanaian speaker of English and ultimately serve as a guide to communication between them (foreigners and tourists) and the Ghanaian speaker of English. Since the data which was used for the study is naturally occurring, it can be said that the findings of the study provide real examples which could be used as models for foreigners. Therefore, foreigners will be better equipped when communicating with Ghanaians to prevent instances of pragmatic failure.

Pedagogically, the study will be useful to Ghanaian tutors and students of English. For tutors, it will serve as an aid to instruction in the classroom. Knowledge of these strategies identified in this study will enable teachers of

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English as a Second Language (ESL) prepare adequate materials to guide students to acquire the skills requisite to perform an act as complex as disagreement. For the students, this study will help them to be conscious of the strategies used to express disagreement as well as the strategies used to mitigate the effect of disagreement in various contexts.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings derived from the study, there is the need for further research in the following areas.

This study focused on language as it is used in the media, specifically in the radio. The study also used data from two radio stations in Ghana. However, since the study is not a comparative one. Therefore, I recommend that in future, another study be conducted to compare the expression of disagreement in different contexts in Ghana.

With the increasing rate of internet use and its accessibility in the country, I recommend that future research should consider disagreement as it is expressed in computer-mediated communication. With the rise in the number of people who belong to the virtual community, it will be interesting to find out if the absence of the persons communicating via the internet pay attention to the face needs of the other when expressing disagreement.

Also, further studies could consider how factors such as gender, age and education impact or influence the expression of disagreement. A lot of studies in the literature (Lakoff, 1975; Holmes, 1995; Tannen, 1990) provide claim that there are differences between the language of men and women. Thus, a sociolinguistic study on disagreement within the Ghanaian context

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will prove enlightening and seek to broaden the area and theory of gendered language use.

Another study could also be conducted to investigate the influence of power and dominance on the expression of disagreement. Such a study will throw more light on the power structure and social imbalance in the country.

Lastly, it will be interesting to find out if there are any paralinguistic or non-verbal means by which disagreement is expressed. In the course of this research, it was evident to the researcher that the tone of voice, among others, gave out cues to identifying disagreement. Therefore, a study in that direction will be very insightful.

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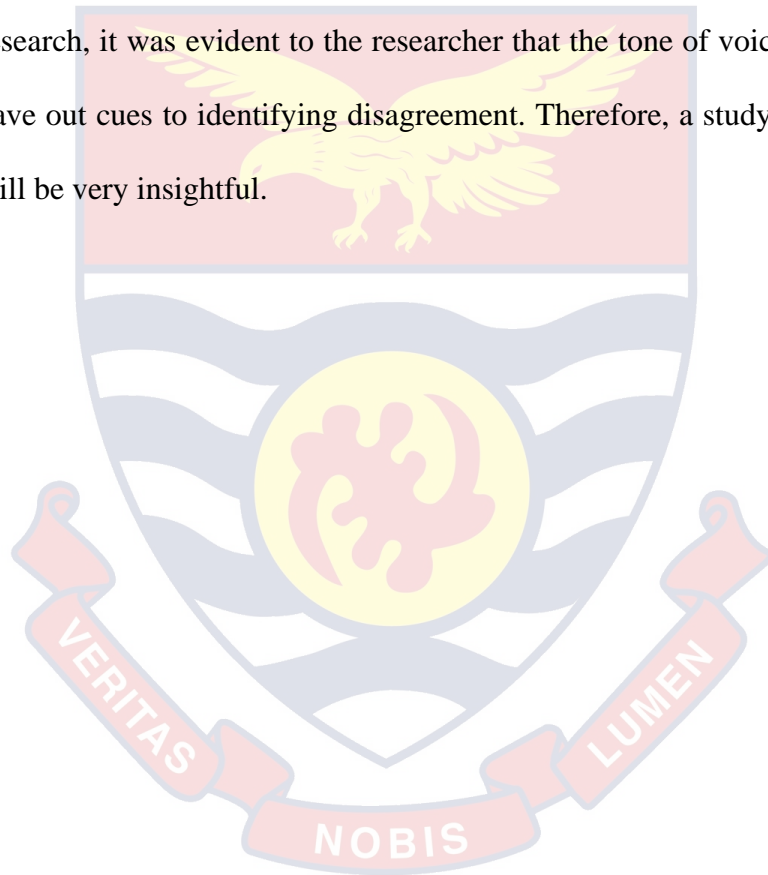
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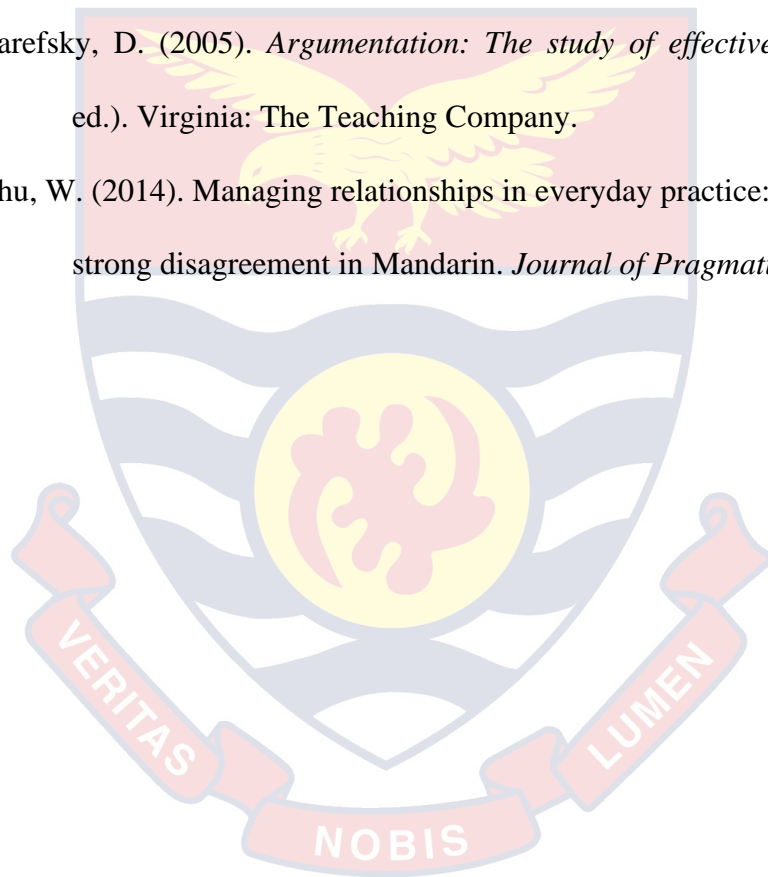
APPENDIX A

( )   Single parentheses around a blank space indicate stretches of talk that

the transcriber is uncertain about because the words were hard to hear or

understand

(words) Single parentheses around words indicate that the transcriber is not

certain that those were the words spoken, but is making an informed

guess

(( ))   Double parentheses indicate the transcriber's *descriptions* of talk or

behaviour

[ ]   Brackets indicate overlapping talk – two participants are speaking at

the same time

Boldface Indicates some form of emphasis, which may be signalled by

increased loudness or changes in pitch

…   Indicates that a few words – *less* than one line of text – have been

removed from the transcript

(.)   Short pause

=   Latching together of two phrases or sentences

-      Word or sound is cut off

° °   Degree symbol indicates whisper or reduced volume in speech

↑or ?   Up arrow or question mark indicates rising intonation

> text< Greater than, less than symbol is used to indicate that speech was

delivered rapidly than usual for the speaker

< text > less than symbol shows that speech was delivered more slowly than

usual for the speaker

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APPENDIX B

BI0717

Amankwah. He is a chairman of the Ghana at 60 years on committee. We will talk about that and later on we'll have a conversation on Charlotte Osei and the electoral commission. So a group of people faceless for now petition the president through their lawyer known as Maxwell Opoku Agyeman requesting that the president removes Charlotte Osei for a number of what they call shady deals they say she's engaged in cronyism. She antagonizes sympathizers of the governing New Patriotic Party who work with the electoral commission and a number of other claims that they've made against her. And so they have written to the president so the president is supposed to forward same to the chief justice and then action will be taken on it. Now that is happening and then we also know that Charlotte Osei has written to demand that some officers of the commission proceed on leave. Yesterday we spoke to the proceed on leave so that the Economic and Organized Crime office would investigate them for an apparent financial misappropriation that is happening now at the electoral commission. The minority leader in Parliament the Hon Haruna Iddrisu at Kofi Poturphy's press conference said that they will not sit down and watch for Charlotte Osei to be removed from office. That's another development. Then yesterday I spoke to the majority leader. No I didn't speak to him… he said that he thinks that some people thought they should have been the chairperson for instance the deputy commissioners who had been there before she was brought   perhaps thought that they should be Chairperson's and so she becomes chairperson   there might be some undermining and some disrespect and that will lead to the bloodbath- bad blood that we seeing the electoral commission … Let me come in studio and introduce my guests now Sydney Casely Hayford is an   independent   financial analyst, a member of Occupy Ghana. He's wearing white smoke. Good morning Sydney

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Host: but so far no job has been created because the president when he was asked about jobs he said that he needs in 18 months to answer a [question on jobs

BI0717S01M: [well he didn't say that please. Let's be fair to the president. He did say that so far no jobs have been created. You just played the tape when I was coming, I listen to it. He said all the steps are initiative towards the job creation. If you ask me how many jobs at this moment it will be difficult to tell you but I'll be [

Host: [what does that mean

BI0717S01M: it doesn't mean he hasn't created anything. He's never said that

Host: if you ask me

BI0717S01M: if you ask me how many at this moment it will be difficult to say. But if you ask   me in 18 months time I'll be in a better position because he has rolled out so many things. One district one factory is ongoing, one constituency one million is ongoing err errr National Entrepreneurship and Innovations Plan (NEIP) is ongoing so we alone have a seed capital of 10 million.

Host: so he has created jobs that he doesn't know about

BI0717S01M: no he didn't- he said that these are initiatives which when we finish rolling them out will create so many jobs

Host: so he hasn't created any job

BI0717S01M: but he didn't say he hasn't created any jobs. At the moment he has created err err the- let me say the **scheme** to bring the jobs

Host: so there are no jobs yet

BI0717S01M: you know it doesn't mean there are no jobs what about me as I sit here I have a job to work [and my office are recruiting people

Host: [ooh no your job is a political ooh no

BI0717S01M: ooh no you don't say there are no jobs. Just go to www.yea.gov.gh. So many people are registering under different modules

Host: so why didn't you give this figure to the president to announce

BI0717S01M: I know he asked a specific question that's why the president says Wait. The process is ongoing. I can't give you the figures, you want **specific** numbers. And   he says   no   we   are

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ongoing. We have created but we are- and we are putting the platforms in place for people to get on board and we want to expand but at the moment I can't give specific figures but I can tell you every angle government is pulling out strategies to recruit the youth into working. Paid internship programmes, youth in sanitation, youth security community services differently from different and then even under NEIP alone we are doing so many things. So it is too early as   he said but in terms of the initiative and the opportunity for the job creation, the one district one factory as is being rolled out are you saying that people are not even being recruited to do background research study so that they know what can be put in each district

Host: I spoke to Member to Parliament of Bolga Cenral Issac Adongo, and he said not a single human being has gone through his whole constituency to do you know tests ahead of building dams in villages. It is raining and no one is doing any checks

BI0717S01M: I listened to his laughable allegation that in raining season you can't- you have to- an engineer can only determine where water passes in rainy season. It was so laughable. Then when- I can even determine when it's raining where water will pass. That doesn't make me a professional. Those who know their job will go and do that and government is working according to its own plan and strategy and so let's state the facts as presented by the president you jobs are being created. It takes time. Like he said but I can assure you look under this national entrepreneurship and innovation plan, very soon we are creating a platform for all people- it's going to operate like Facebook. If you have a business idea you just log on wherever you are in the world and then you set up your own page to tell us what you can do and then as we are all linked up and interconnected on that platform it's easy to go into competition and selection and then draw up these people. It is also a platform to bring mentors and people with experience and those who can even ask questions depending on your area of interest. And is also opportunity to identify- even JHS and SHS students we are going down to that level to put to form different entrepreneur clubs even at that level and to challenge them to be innovative and not just go through school with the hope that you will be employed by government after school but we want to inculcate a culture of entrepreneurship even children at basic and JSS and tertiary levels to come out with business concepts whiles they are even

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in school and how they can get support and assistance through the NEIP programme

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BI0717S02M: … you know if I'm an M.D and I go to meet my board and they're asking me questions I'm not going to parry the questions to somebody else. To my accountants or to my HR or to somebody else to answer those questions. As an M.D, I'm supposed to be on top and I must have done the necessary preparation to deliver my state of business address to my board and my shareholders. When you parry a question it gives an **impression** that you are not on top of that issue and that you are looking for a bailout. So when the issue of economy came up and he   parry it to the vice president, are we running a parallel leadership system whereby the vice president will answer all issues on the economy and the president **cannot** or does not know. That is the impression I received. So when you do that it seems like you are not fully in charge and on top of the issues. My greatest worry was what my brother has started in the job **creation** sector. I also listen and I deduced that the president has said that there's no jobs created. My brother John has come and brought a certain dimension. I will take that for now. But now let me add on. JHS people have written their BECE exams. For the last 10 years you have an average failure of about 50%. WAEC results were just released. The accepted pass in terms of what qualifies for tertiary was around 52%. We have the university   graduates coming out who are not getting jobs. What are we doing for these three levels of people? We campaigned a campaign on jobs, jobs jobs. The thematic area for 2016 campaign rotated around jobs we must be able to tell the people   concretely where their jobs are coming from and what systems we have put in place for them. In 18 months from now that's 2 years from now. If you add 2 years plus 6 months, we are moving into **two** years so two years of the administration before people will begin to get jobs or that we can give concrete figures on those who have received jobs. That is for the good people of Ghana to judge. I think the entire focus of this encountering with the people should have just hovered around jobs jobs jobs jobs and that is what everybody wants to hear. There is nothing you are going to say about agric, education, health, and all those things that is does not gear   towards   that   job   menace   in   this   country. We have a increase in crime. Look at what is happening on the streets   now   and   look   at   that   age   of   the   people   who   are

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committing those activities. When you have a system that 50% is being dropped at the BECE, another 50 percent is being dropped at the SHS. What job can they do? And if you are not created jobs they will find their jobs and those jobs they will pick up guns they'll pick up machetes, they will jump your wall, they will shoot you in broad daylight and that will be their job, their employment because the state has failed. You see this issue that talks about young people should be looking to have jobs is something that we should disabuse our mind? Why do I see that? You see you must build **the principles and tenets of working for someone and learning the principles, the rudiments (.) and understanding those things before you can begin to do your own.** You just don't jump from 0 to 100 overnight. So this thing about JHS and SHS people creating their own jobs, where is this idea coming from? >Where is this idea coming from?< People who have never worked in a structured environment and understand putting in place processes and procedures that allow businesses to thrive. They are supposed to come out with ideas? How do they manage that business? Entrepreneurship is not for everybody. **Entrepreneurship is not for everybody and cannot be used as the panacea to solve if the job deficits challenges that we have as a country.** You must, you see first of all government's initiative in the creating business, I don't see it. I am into industry. There's no incentive in place for me to go and set up a business in Effutu to manufacture anything that government is going to give me tax relief that government is going to give me certain incentives for me to go and establish those businesses. Government does not have the business of establishing factories and the rest because the government does not have the expertise to do that but in putting together a **policy** that will make me want to run from Accra and go and set   up in Effutu. That is what we are looking for. Where is that? Where is that. Can somebody tell me? Where is the policy that says that the industry, the energy that I'm using at industry it so much so that I have to lay off workers to meet (.) my overheads. They say there's no dumsor but those of us in the industry we know there's dumsor. You see dumsor comes in various ways. Power fluctuations affect my machinery I'm unable to work, I lose production. What is government doing that for me? What the government has done in the policy of using solar that you   have a brake on the use of solar, you are encouraged to use. Where is that policy. So the job creation, the policy of job creation is not there. Is not there so until

government is able to put in this processes and procedures and this policy and encourage all big businesses in Accra to expand to the district and give them the necessary breaks and support that will allow them to create, it won't happen. It won't happen. One of the things they have done to encourage that the drug sector, the chemist sector which I'm in support of. They have banned about 45 or so drugs from being imported. So right there you have given the advantage to a local manufacturer to take advantage of that. But what about making this across the board for industry to be able to take those policies and ride with it and drive with it. Let me- something- I used to blame NDC and I said that NDC was anti business. NPP has also shown to be anti business [and much more

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APPENDIX C

NF0817

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Host: right. okay so (.) we're going to start straight away and just have a preliminary take on the Auditor General's move the Auditor General had a press conference this week, spoke to the media and indicated clearly that he is going to begin the processes of retrieving lost monies to the state errm there's something based on it let's take a listen and then we'll come and look at this quickly

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Host: right so errr that's the auditor-general errr Domlevo now I go straight to my guest and then ask what your views are about what he is beginning to do and I start with Dr. Oduro Osai and and and Doc the last time you came up I was talking about your Constitution and how you were undertaking it in a way that I don't pretty much like you're rewriting the Constitution
Laughter

Host: look at what he's written here and one thing about Doc is that he comes to the studio with a notebook so you see his notebook here and he's written points that he's errr gonna use in the discussion and I can see that errr errr Dr. Brako has also done the same you've got some notes okay so get ready and enjoy the show what do you- what do you make of what the auditor-general is beginning to do

NF0817S01M:thank you very much Samson and good morning to our viewers and listeners. I think it is long overdue. The auditor-general is empowered and article 27 of the Constitution and under its own establishment act to be able to do some of these things and by public finance once you audit, you surcharge people you have to go ahead and then make sure that the amount surcharged on them are paid. I don't know what has happened to our system but for me is a good sign that now we are trying to inject **discipline** in the public financial management system and I'm happy my brother Dan Domelevo has started doing something like that the Institute of Chartered Accountants is happy because he is a chartered accountant he is a member of the institute I think that he should continue he shouldn't rest my only challenge is that why should he allow errr an

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organization to go to court for the court to compel him to do what he is   supposed to do=

Host: =let's say welcome to the- the Honourable Inusah Fuseini thanks for joining us

NF0817S02M: thank you

Host: right

NF0817S01M:(that's) what what he is required to do under article 187 it's better late than never I think it's a good sign he should continue. The only thing is   that I would not expect him to make statements to the effect that it is political witch hunting or whatever it is. It should not be political witch   hunting. Under the ethtics of the profession you are expected to perform your work as required by the International Monitoring Standard and that's what I expect my brother Dan Domelevo to be doing so that it reveal to the benefit of the whole of Ghana

Host: right and in all of this we ought to recognize that this whole fight began   with Occupy Ghana they began the whole thing crusading that we ought to- the Auditor General ought to exercise that function of his by issuing disallowances and surcharges and errr it wasn't too much of errr a palatable thing with the- with the previous Auditor General but eventually they were forced and they went to court (.) and they got the Supreme Court to make a pronouncement that the Auditor General had no option in the matter he should just go ahead and do what the law requires and to do and in fact Occupy Ghana went forward upon being   invited by the rules of court committee to to literally draft the rules and   apply and which were used for the court for the processes now and   thankfully   this Auditor General is going ahead to execute the agenda   yeah

NF0817S03M:thank you very much and good morning errm I'm proud to say that on the sidelines I was also part of errr the back door [

Host: [right]

NF0817S03M: [or back room persons who were also giving our advice to Occupy Ghana here and there [

Host: [right]

NF0817S03M:to Occupy Ghana as well as you. Now for me the- as doctor said the highlight really is the role played by errm Occupy Ghana and indeed the Supreme Court we in recent times has observed a Supreme Court that is very active. There is an emerging concept of judicial activism which I think the Supreme Court in wisdom times have seriously applied in situations where you may not exactly find a solution in the law the Supreme Court has taken up its duty as a policymaker as well and so when you look at the orders that were issued the one that I   think is quite remarkable is the fact that where Auditor-General himself fails to issue a disallowance and comply with law the Auditor General has violated the Constitution and we know that when you violate an order of the Supreme Court's Article 2down there will tell you that that can

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constitute an in- a grounds for an imprisonment of about ten years=

Host: =right=

NF0817S03M:and so the Auditor General [(   )

Host: and after that you lose the opportunity to do public service for another ten years

NF0817S03M:exactly so the Auditor General in doing this must also remind himself and his officers that if there is a clear evidence of any situation where he should issue these orders and he fails of course if somebody wants to be charitable they may go for an order which you call mandamus to compel him to do others can just straight away invoke these orders issued against him by the Supreme Court and criminal proceedings may commence against him **personally** so it's not a situation where it is one-sided=

Host: =right

NF0817S03M: and it's a very important provision in the Constitution and the law which I think that maybe moving forward more organizations- sometimes it's so difficult for an individual to commence a suit like this but more organizations should go by this kind of activism=

Host: =right

NF0817S03M:and we are much grateful to the Supreme Court itself because if they had not understood these things in the context of the suit that was brought by the- errm by Occupy Ghana (perhaps) a different results may have err emanated and may not have achieved this decisive people and then also of course the Auditor General has been very active previous ones hadn't
been I don't know whether without this case he will himself hadn't been active so we are going to watch the Auditor-General occasionally they should report to us what disallowances and surcharges orders he has issued whether they had been any and for some reason he was not able to comply so that the rest of us can take him on but I think is good for our legal system and also the governance system we have chosen for ourselves

Host: thank you very much and I'd like to hear from Inusah Fuseini before err Gideon takes the err you know very final take on this the Auditor-General says he's issued err 11 or so so far and he will not disclose who the names are. I think that's a good a good conduct maybe err so that you don't prejudicially criminalize the individuals involved and when they pay   and everything else later he would inform us but you have been in Parliament and the Public Accounts Committee goes through the ritual **every year** of going through this report and the nation you know gets shocked at the revelations. End of story. We had a situation where even President Mahama had to issue orders that this should be done prosecutions and everything and nothing seems to have happened. This certainly is the way to go right

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NF0817S02M: ooh definitely and before I even start my contribution let me extend fecilitations to all the (   ) panellists especially my brother Justice (   ) when are you ( ) the Supreme Court
LAUGHTER

NF0817S02M: yes I think that err it's a step in the right direction err in this country we have called time and again for people who have misconducted themselves in public office to be held accountable err the difficulty actually has been setting up institutions to **deal** with findings of the Public Accounts Committee and you know at a point Mrs. Georgina Wood errr set up the financial tribunal to be able to **deal** with such issues but clearly when it went to the courts it suffered the difficulties of cases going through court and and monies being retrieved=

Host: =and I think up to now the information we have is that only one case has been reported to those courts

NF0817S02M: yes yes and so so but kind of think about it I think this is very good. It is very good in the sense that with shifting responsibility to officers in public office I've been in public office and sometimes you will wonder why public officers will conduct themselves of that way I mean sometimes they don't go to spend the money but they are just negligent or **reckless** in keeping records. Sometimes even (**retire**) the resources that have been allocated to them is a problem and so you find all that and at the end of the year when the audit is done and the they bring you queries and when you call officers to come in and tell you what has happened why xyz that has been reported not to have been complied with in accordance with law then they are found wanting. They will swear Heaven and earth that the money was used but if the money was used it must be accounted for and so if it's not accounted for someone must be held responsible so I believe I believe that what Accountant-General is doing is good it's good for this country look at it from all   levels clearly good it ties in neatly with the po- the Public Financial Management Act and holds public officers responsible to their budget and all those things so clearly err I also think that in the final analysis after he's gotten the money we should name the people he should name the people=

Host: =okay

NF0817S02M:and shame them

Host: right okay so now he's began the process by issuing the surcharge and this is to only 11 people so far and they are supposed to voluntarily come and pay- refund those monies. We do not know how much for each individual. What are some of the difficulties you anticipate he'll encounter

NF0817S02M: well errr errr people will file the petitions- complaints err like I've said my own experience in office clearly shows that some public offices do not spend the money but they fail, neglect or refuse to even retire the monies that have been given to them and so they will file file complaints and others accusing subordinate officers of not having done the proper thing but

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clearly someone must be held responsible I believe that he will face such petitions and complaints and I'm sure many will come to him. Err whatever being the case some people- somebody must be held responsible and he's trying to identify the proper persons to be held responsible in this particular matter. Err and if he is successful we must commend him for taking the initiative and if he is successful I'm sure many other offices will sit up

Host: okay. Doc now if they don't do this voluntarily he'll be compelled to put   these people before court how do you expect that this process will go on smoothly and to rake in the money that we are expecting we'll get back

NF0817S04M: thank you very much my good friend and it's nice to see you once again=

Host: =you're welcome

NF0817S04M: yeah and good morning to our viewers and our listeners. I think that errm if you look at what the Constitution- the Constitution and the laws of this country impose on the Auditor-General it's a huge responsibility and recently I learnt that the Auditor General has the sole responsibility to make sure that all audits and forensic audits that can lead to prosecution is done by the Auditor-General and so that that's a huge responsibility and going forward if as a country we want to kind of errr mitigate the problems of public offices errm sitting back, laxity, laziness, negligence and then also getting themselves into the trap of business as usual and then they get to office they don't do what is expected of them and at the end of the day you don't see any kind of sanctions be meted out to them it becomes business as usual and we keep on having this and this. I had a slight experience on the Public Accounts Committee when I was doing my national service in Parliament and sitting in Public Accounts Committee meetings sometimes even the Auditor-General's report quite lacks it takes some some some months and years before it comes. There were situations where public officers who were found in the Auditor-General's report who were still working at the time and they had to appear before the Public Accounts Committee and you can tell from their countenance and their disposition that that there wasn't some element of seriousness in them responding to even questions from members of the public accounts committee is because over the years they have seen their seniors, predecessors, people they came to meet in office go through the same attitude laxity, negligence and all of that but nothing happens to them so they see it as oh even if I do it nothing's going to happen to me at the end of the day. Now it is good that this time around the Auditor-General seems to be in a position to crack the whip and apply the laws and I want to commend errr errr errr Occupy Ghana for for for initiating and pushing this and I'm told this this ( ) is precipitated by the actions and that's that's very good as as as

part of the civic responsibilities and so I think err we would want to encourage the Auditor-General it's not going to be a smooth exercise for him to embark upon and I read from one of the news portals   yesterday I don't know how true it is that he he alleges that people are trying to come to him to talk to him and all of that and that also goes to

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NF0817S04M: that also goes to deepen why I support the reason why he did not put out the names you know our social setting and our society if he had put out   the names the next day he'll see a big pastor coming to him, he will see a chief of high repute coming to him to talk to him that ooh this is

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NF0817S04M: exactly this is my person let him go and all of that I think we need to be serious if we want to ensure that public officers are held accountable for   the acts that we commit or omit then this kind of actions ought to be taken regularly=

Host: =particularly at the time when your government is looking to rake in money from [

NF0817S04M: [exactly]

Host: from acts of corruption because during the campaign that was one of the rhetoric that you're going to make sure that the money is there you know to fund projects and stuff and that you're going to get a lot from from err stopping corruption so you should be a lot more excited

NF0817S04M: yeah we are happy but also we are happy it is not coming from us so that somebody will say this was political witch-hunting=

Host: =okay

NF0817S04M: okay so this is the Auditor-General he is the Auditor- General for all of us irrespective of which political colour [

Unknown: and you didn't even appoint   him

NF0817S04M: yeah yeah exactly so he's supposed to work in the interest of the larger   Ghanaian community and so let us depoliticize this let us see this an- as   an   apolitical   exercise   and   it doesn't matter who you- who is caught in   this matter if it is on the left side or the right side of the political divide let's all support it and make sure that we get what we are due as a country and people don't take us for ride for just occupying public offices

Host: okay

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APPENDIX D

PICTURE OF MULTIMEDIA PREMISES

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APPENDIX E
PICTURE OF CITI FM PREMISES

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