1989

Conversational retreat typology

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CONVERSATIONAL RETREAT TYPOLOGY

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Communication Studies

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

by

Josephine Bao-Sun Chen

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ABSTRACT

This thesis reports on a study of conversational retreat tactics. Descriptions of efforts to "get out of a conversation" were collected from 145 participants and coded for the separate tactics employed. A total of 350 separate tactics were coded. The coders generated 14 categories for the tactics. A set of 76 tactics were selected as exemplars representing both the central concept and the diversity of the 14 categories. A sample of 243 participants was asked to categorize randomly selected sets of 40 of the 76 exemplar tactics such that each tactic was categorized by over 100 of the participants and had an equal chance of being matched with any other tactic. A matrix of the tactic by tactic matches was generated from the 243 categorizations and submitted to cluster analysis. Ten clusters of conversational retreat tactics emerged from the cluster analysis.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Inspecting the research on the latter stage of human transactions, one might conclude that conversations are seldom incomplete. Such a conclusion, however, seems counterintuitive. Although all conversations do end, it is probably rare (and perhaps impossible) that a conversation represents a fulfilled and completed process. Nevertheless, while conversations are dynamic, they have identifiable segments (e.g., Kellermann, Broetzmann, Lim, & Kitao, 1989). The final segment of typical conversations (i.e., conversations where the interactant perceives that the conversation has been mutually satisfactory to both parties and that the decision to end the conversation is also mutual) has been well documented (Knapp, Hart, Friedrich, and Shulman, 1973; Albert and Kessler, 1976; 1978; O'Leary and Gallois, 1985). Thus, there is a basis for the examination of conversations that an interactant perceives to have been full and mutually closed and conversations where an interactant perceives the need to retreat. The evidence that such retreats are common is provided from a related study in progress, described in Appendix A, where the respondents reported that they terminated 45% of their conversations before their partners were ready to end the conversations.

Conversational endings may occur for a variety of reasons other than the fulfillment of the conversational process. A conversation could be temporarily tabled to a more convenient or appropriate time. One or both of the partners may lack the skills to have fulfilling conversations. An interactant may retreat from a conversation because the conversation appears to be boring, unproductive or wasteful, distasteful, or less worthwhile than a competing alternative activity.

The focus of the research tradition on the termination of human transactions is on the final segments of typical conversations rather than on conversational retreat. The scholarly writing seems to treat ending and retreat as one. Albert and Kessler (1978) defined ending as "the cessation of all verbal and nonverbal communication behavior between two previously interacting individuals" (p. 541). Albert and Kessler's definition, however, seems to overlook the cognitive process underlying the overt behaviors of conversational ending. A conversational ending seems to imply a cognitive assessment on the part of both interactants that the conversation has come to a natural ending point. Conversational retreat, on the other hand, implies an assessment that the conversation is no longer desired by one of the interactants while the other wants to continue the conversation. A conversational ending can be viewed as an effort at bilateral closing. A conversational retreat can be viewed as an effort at unilateral withdrawal. (Obviously, both parties could simultaneously seek retreat, but the process remains a unilateral action. Bilateral "retreat" action would be merely coordinated agreement on early closure of a conversation without a future. Retreat always involves the perception that the conversational future or potential is being curtailed, foregone, or sacrificed.)

Perhaps, the distinction between conversational ending and conversational retreat can be better explained from Kellermann and Roloff's (1986) notion of conversational commitment. A conversational ending would occur when both of the interactants decommit. A conversational retreat would occur when one interactant perceives that he or she is decommitted but that the partner remains committed to the conversation.

In Eric Berne's (1964) opinion, a conversational ending is "a stereotyped series of simple complementary transactions programmed by external social forces" (p. 36). Ending is said to be a well-ordered sequence constructed almost entirely by socially

determined ritual. On the other hand, conversational retreat is an intentional and effortful behavior which generally emerges from unpleasant encounters or when ending is difficult to achieve. In other words, conversational retreat may not be a socially predispositioned ritual.

In substance, retreat is an act or process of drawing back from an advanced position (especially from what is difficult, dangerous, or disagreeable) while ending is the completion of a course of action, pursuit, or activity. Ending is more like a transition between being together and being apart. Retreat is a potentially disturbing process that involves the termination of an interaction that has the potential of continuation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to gather basic information about the retreat strategies commonly used in conversations. The conversation research, to date, has not systematically explored the range of retreat tactics from conversations nor elaborated on the factors involved in their enactment. A basic descriptive profile about how people retreat from conversations (i.e., communicate about not-to-communicate at this time) is needed. In doing so, distinctive retreat behaviors (i.e., retreat tactics) need to be collected before categories of retreat tactics (i.e., retreat strategies) can be generated.

Statement of the Research Questions

This study seeks answers to the following questions: (1) What conversational retreat tactics do people frequently use to try to get out of conversations? (2) What are the dimensions of conversational retreat tactics? In other words, how do these tactics combine to form conversational retreat strategies?

Review of the Literature

To compensate for the lack of research specifically addressing the phenomenon of conversational retreat, a review of the conversation ending literature and the interpersonal communication theories may facilitate the generation of conversational retreat strategies and tactics. An examination of the literature on conversational ending could be promising in shedding light on our understanding of the process of conversational retreat. First, since the observable distinction between conversational ending and retreat is defined by interactants' perception, the previous ending studies may have confused conversational ending with retreat. Therefore, some of what has previously been claimed to be conversational ending may actually be conversational retreat. Second, people may often engage in socially scripted conversational ending behaviors to accomplish their imminent goal of retreating from conversations. People may use conversational ending rituals as one vehicle to signal conversational retreat intent. On the other hand, a review of the interpersonal communication theories may provide a set of parameters which may guide or limit the needed search for conversational retreat tactics and strategies. Given the distinction between conversational ending and retreat, the interpersonal communication theories may also provide alternative insights for conversational retreat which may not have appeared relevant in the earlier ending literature. Furthermore, the interpersonal theories may help make more specific the distinction between retreat and other conversational moves (e.g., insults, compliments, greeting, blaming, or typical endings).

Conversational Ending Literature

There are several studies that focus on the process of conversational ending. Some of the studies on ending were devoted to developing a linguistic categorization system, drawing from observations of the final sequences of conversations (e.g.,

Albert & Kessler, 1978; Knapp et al., 1973). In an early article on "processes for ending social encounters," Albert and Kessler (1976) made an effort to advance a conceptual framework of the reasons why and the ways people end conversations. By taking a causal attribution point of view, Albert and Kessler first identified two processes of conversational ending, that is, the internal process and external process. The summary process, defined as "an abbreviated statement of the history of a social encounter" (Albert & Kessler, 1976, p. 486), and the process of resource exhaustion (focusing on finite resources people possess) were identified as two primary internal processes for terminating conversations. The physical environment of the encounter, the social environment (a change in the formation of an encounter which facilitates termination of the encounter) and the temporal environment (a shift from the shared temporal frame of an ongoing encounter to another time period which establishes an individual's independence from the social unit) were noted as three main sources for the external process of ending social encounters.

In addition, Albert and Kessler (1976) studied the continuity process from a relationship perspective and suggested seven means by which conversations are ended. These mechanisms are denial of termination (rarely used to end conversations), the promise of continuity, the symbolic reification of the encounter, processes of social influence, the expression of good wishes, the structure of the encounter as a source of continuity, and redefinition of the encounter as a means rather than an end in itself. In conclusion, Albert and Kessler (1976) suggested that these processes were, in fact, fundamental categories of analysis for many "different kinds of endings" (1976, p. 494).

In a following study, Albert and Kessler (1978) postulated the typical patterns of behavior that occur during the ending of an interaction. Albert and Kessler recorded telephone conversations between friends and strangers on either a

structured (criteria used to judge a teacher's effectiveness) or an unstructured topic (talk about yourself and things that are personally important to you). Albert and Kessler hypothesized a sequence of verbal statements used to end conversations: Summary statements, justification statements, positive statements, continuity statements, and, well-wishing statements. The recorded conversations were content analyzed by two judges and the results confirmed Albert and Kessler's (1978) hypothesis. Albert and Kessler also found that the frequency of these statements increased during the terminal phase of social encounters.

The contribution of the Albert and Kessler (1978) study to finding retreat tactics or strategies is limited because the conversations were arranged and requested by the researchers; thus the participants might have felt the demand to "complete" the conversations. The properties of conversational ending suggested by Albert and Kessler (1978), however, may provide some insights into conversational retreat. In general, people may signal and accomplish their desire to retreat from conversations via a unique sequence or form of conversational ending statements. More specifically, the motivation to retreat should tend to shorten the otherwise lengthy sequence of conversational endings. There are a number of ways that an ending can be shortened. Summary statements may be omitted in the process of retreat since a summary could highlight how incomplete the conversation is. Justifications, while needed, are more likely to be offered as indisputable and final rather than open to partner approval in order to avoid potential extended conflict over the effort to retreat. Retreats may also provide only particular continuity or well wishing statements that are likely to be normatively reciprocated (Albert & Kessler, 1978) so that the partner is led to behave as if the typical end of the conversation is taking place.

A study that may offer greater insight into conversational retreat was conducted by Knapp et al. (1973). Knapp et al. attempted to isolate the verbal and nonverbal components of leave-taking in the context of formal interviews between acquaintances and strangers of equal and unequal status. Subjects were assigned to conduct an information-gathering interview with one of the two confederate interviewees (professor and student). The confederates were pre-instructed not to give termination cues under any circumstances in order to observe the ways participants ended the interview. It was found that the most frequently occurring behaviors (breaking eye contact, smiling, major head nodding movements, major leg movements, forward lean, and leverage positions) peaked in frequency in the 15 seconds prior to standing. At the same time, verbal terminating and orientation of the subject in the direction of an exit occurred most frequently during the final stage, as the subject left the room.

The results from Knapp et al.'s (1973) study indicated that "'proper' leave-taking consisted primarily of a combination of reinforcement, professional inquiry, buffing and appreciation on the verbal level, and the non-verbalisms of breaking eye contact, left positioning, forward lean, and head nodding" (p. 194). Moreover, the existence of leave-taking norms was suggested by the absence of significantly different behaviors in different status and relation conditions.

Unfortunately, the insight into conversational retreat offered by the Knapp et al. study is limited by the likelihood that the subjects thought that they had gone through an entire interview and that the process should be ending. As the interviewer, the subjects had every reason to think that they should initiate a normal conversational ending sequence. Recall that the confederates were instructed not to give any termination cue. It was very possible, therefore, that actions were taken by the Knapp et al. subjects under a situation where they were frustrated that the normal

conversation ending sequence was not being reciprocated. Since there was no information about how the conversations actually went, we have no way of knowing whether the subjects in the Knapp et al. study were engaged in retreat from a second unexpected conversation or if they were just giving conversational ending cues for the conversation (interview) just finished. The Knapp et al. data, therefore, may only be informative about situations when closure gestures are not "properly" reciprocated when they normally would be.

Other than the drawback discussed above, Knapp et al. did conclude that all of the leave-taking behaviors served the communicative function of signalling inaccessibility. Either subtly or directly, a retreating communicator may use the leave-taking behaviors to change the established conversation pattern or to ascertain the finality of a conversation. Some conversational retreat tactics and strategies, therefore, are suggested. Explicit verbal cues for termination may be used to make vivid a retreat intent, thus, accelerating the "normal" conversation ending process. Similarly, dramatic accentuating nonverbal cues (i.e., left positioning) would induce the same effect. Furthermore, some of the subtle cues (such as buffering, breaking eye contact, forward lean, leverage position, and grooming) found in the Knapp et al. study may reflect an anxiety that may well accompany retreat. Such anxiety indicators may be utilized as an entreaty to the other person for retreating from a conversation.

O'Leary and Gallois (1985) postulated the sequence of statements in conversation endings as a combination of the pattern proposed by Albert and Kessler (1978) and the three elements identified by Knapp et al. (1973). O'Leary and Gallois studied paired strangers and friends in relatively unconstrained conversations. Participants were instructed to converse with their paired partners on some social issues. One of them in each pair was instructed to leave the laboratory after they finished their conversation. The conversations were videotape-recorded, coded, and analyzed.

The results supported O'Leary and Gallois's hypothesis. The sequence of verbal behavior within the ending phase was: information statements, summary statements, questions, verbalization, justification, continuity statements, and well-wishing statements. A sequence of nonverbal behaviors was derived from their observations: "Smiling by both subjects, hand gesture by the subject who would remain, hand gesture by the subject who would depart, looking away by both subjects, leverage/lean forward by the departing subject, head nodding by the subject who would stay, and grooming by the departing subject" (O'Leary & Gallois, 1985, p. 24).

The observations obtained by O'Leary and Gallois (1985) indicated a negotiation process of conversation ending. The distinction in the behaviors between the remaining and departing subjects, however, seems to imply probable conversation retreat tactics. The leverage, forward lean, and grooming observed only in the sequence of the departing subject's behavior, thus, are suggested as possible retreat tactics. Preceding these retreat tactics, smiling and hand gestures may be the salve used to counteract a potential norm violation, (i.e., a retreat intent) by the departing party. While most of the behaviors may be associated in some way with signalling affiliation, some of them, such as looking away and leverage/lean forward, in particular, could function as a signal of imminent departure which might facilitate a conversational retreat process.

In sum, the Albert and Kessler (1976, 1978), Knapp et al. (1973) and O'Leary and Gallois (1985) studies all deal with conversations that are not clearly retreat situations. However, the following tactics for conversational retreat seem to be suggested: final justification statements, shortened sequence of conversational ending, continuity statements or well-wishing statements which are normally reciprocated, explicit verbal termination statements, dramatic left positioning, and subtle anxiety cuing behaviors such as buffing, breaking eye contact, leveraging, and grooming.

Other researchers have focused on specific conversational ending variables. Lockard, Allen, Schiele, and Wiemar (1978) studied postural stance as an intentional movement for leaving a dyadic social situation. Two stance-types (equal- vs. unequal-weight) and the number of weight-shifts per 15-seconds until departure were recorded in their first study. In the second study, equal- vs. unequal-weight stance, stance-weight shifts, and stance-shift toward and away from the other member of the dyad per 10-second intervals were systematically recorded. Lockard et al. (1978) found that unequal weight-stance, weight shifts in general, and weight-shifts away from other individuals may alone, but especially in combination, signal imminent departure. It was suggested that behavioral patterns other than postural changes, such as the breaking of eye contact and hand gestures, may also function as signals of the intention to depart. People might utilize the signaling feature of behavioral patterns such as those suggested in the Lockard et al. study to initiate their retreat intents. In essence, shifting behaviors may be a way of getting the other to notice that a retreat is possible so that the other can politely end the conversation. At the same time, shifting behaviors may also indicate effortful cognitive consideration of other retreat strategies.

Summary. Conversational ending researchers suggest that there are a variety of tactics for performing each part of the ending process; the ending literature provides a basis for launching conversational retreat studies. What remains unknown is why people retreat from conversations. Since knowing why conversational retreat happens will help understand what tactics and strategies people use to retreat, a review of some theoretical perspectives in interpersonal communication is useful.

Theoretical Perspectives

Kellermann and Roloff (1986) discussed conversational commitment as a general explanatory principle for conversational endings. These two researchers argue that conversations end when the commitment of the participants decreases or

fades. Such an argument benefits from the incorporation of a number of theoretical bases relevant to the study of interpersonal communication. Given the lack of theory and research on conversational retreat, it is perhaps, a good idea to examine what the major theories of interpersonal communication could contribute to the understanding of such phenomena.

Uncertainty Reduction Theory. According to the uncertainty reduction theorists, the primary concern for individuals entering conversations is coping with uncertainty (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Several plausible explanations for why people retreat from conversations could be drawn from this assumption. One is that individuals who retreat from a conversation may perceive the uncertainty level is too high to continue. Some of them might not be capable of reducing the uncertainty involved, while others might not care about reducing the uncertainty (Berger, 1979). Alternatively, people might retreat from conversations in which the uncertainty level is too low. People might, for example, be bored to death with a conversation. Regardless of the demand of being socially appropriate, we may all have experienced trying to twiddle our thumbs or yawn a reply under such circumstances.

If high uncertainty might prompt a person to retreat from a conversation, then perhaps a strategy of accomplishing retreat might be to increase the uncertainty level for the other person. Since the axioms proposed by Berger and Calabrese (1975) indicate that increasing the amount of verbal communication and nonverbal affiliative expressiveness will decrease uncertainty, then a tactic for increasing another's uncertainty level might be to lower the amount of verbal communication and to restrict the expression of affiliation.

Social Exchange Theories. Since people engage in social interactions trying to maximize their self-interests, the social exchange theorists would predict people who perceive conversations as costly rather than rewarding would be more likely to

initiate retreat from conversations. More specifically, given the theoretical approach maintained by Fao and Fao's (1972) Resource Theory, people would retreat from a conversation where the needed resource is not existent, exhausted, or available at a higher profit elsewhere.

The explicit application of social exchange ideas to the ending of an encounter or relationship has been offered by Thibaut and Kelly (1959). According to Thibaut and Kelly, a conversational or relational retreat will occur when the outcome within a conversation falls below the comparison level of an alternative. Thus, interactants would retreat from a conversation for more attractive potential alternative activities.

The application of Thibaut and Kelly's (1959) theoretic ideas to conversational retreat indicates a number of potential strategies which might be used to accomplish a retreat. An obvious strategy would seem to be to increase the attractiveness of a conversational partner's potential alternatives. One could make the attractiveness of a potential alternative more perceptible by placing that person in a more favorable light. For example, person A may praise person B, who is person C's potential alternative, in front of person C. Person C may then perceive person B as a more attractive partner than person A. Thus, person A would be able to retreat from the conversation without any difficulty. An equally obvious strategy would be to decrease the conversational partner's outcomes from the conversation. One could simply deny the availability of resources to a conversational partner. Another probable strategy to accomplish conversational retreat is to purposely create threatening conversations, such as conflicts or disagreements. Conflict emerges when people find themselves behaving in ways that run contrary to their self-interest. Individuals would avoid contacts in which threats are likely to occur. Threatening, intimidating, or conflict behavior generally produce undesired tension and result in stressful, frustrated, irritable, or dismal emotional states. The destructive features embodied in these emotions, decrease any reward from the conversation, in turn, making people leave it.

Social Penetration Theory. Altman and Taylor (1973) proposed the social penetration process as an analogue to the interpersonal communication process. Social penetration proceeds from superficial to intimate levels of exchange, and interaction moves gradually to deeper levels of penetration rather than suddenly; likewise, the depenetration process moves from intimate back to successively more superficial areas. Research on conversation structure suggested a similar sequence in winding up a conversation. Both social penetration theorists and conversation researchers would agree that individuals retreat from conversations by shifting back to the superficial level of exchange. That is, retreat is likely to involve return to an earlier general topic and short responses (Craig & Tracy, 1983; Kellermann, Broetzmann, Lim, & Kitao, 1989; McLaughlin, 1984).

Self-disclosure plays a major role in social penetration processes. Research on self-disclosure for the past two decades (Berg & Archer, 1983; Chaikin & Derlega, 1974; Cozby, 1972; Davis & Sloan, 1974; Lange & Grove, 1981; Mann & Murphy, 1975) has found that recipients of disclosure preferred interaction with a moderate rather than high (at both the intimacy level and amount) discloser in an initial encounter. As an example, we often judge as deviant those who engage in extremely intimate conversation at a cocktail party. Lange and Grove (1981) found that high disclosure in an initial contact would elicit the most intense reaction (e.g., anxiety) and less attraction. Such findings imply that people would retreat from conversations when their partner engages in high disclosure which violates the underlying assumption of the social penetration process. Thus, overzealous disclosure may be a manipulative device to provoke retreat from the other person.

Other than the amount and intimacy level of disclosure, the most obvious inappropriate self-disclosure is the one with either wrong timing (Jones & Gordon, 1972; Mann & Murphy, 1975; Wortman, Adelman, Herman, & Greenberg, 1976) or

with a negative flavor (Taylor, 1979; Gilbert & Horenstein, 1976; Hecht, Shepherd, & Hall, 1979). Without considering the timing of one's disclosure, self-disclosure may lose its capacity to accomplish a variety of communicative goals. The probability of conversational retreat with someone enacting such indiscriminate self-disclosure would surely be increased. Similarly, valence of disclosure has effects on responses to disclosure. Gilbert and Whiteneck (1976) suggested that more positive statements were more likely to be disclosed to maintain positive evaluation from others. People, at the same time, could deliberately disclose negative information to hurt, shock, or embarrass another person (Knapp, 1984). Specifically, one may disclose negative information about oneself in attempts to scare one's conversational partner out of a conversation.

Attribution Theory. Attribution theory is concerned with whether a specific behavior is perceived to be due to a person's disposition or to the situation impinging on the person. The actor-observer attribution bias (Jones & Nisbett, 1971) may offer some insight into why and how people might retreat from conversations. The actor-observer bias is the tendency for people to make dispositional attributions about another person's behavior and situational attributions about one's own behavior. When a conversational partner engages in deviant behavior, the behavior is likely to be seen as indicative of the partner's dispositions. For example, person A may want to retreat from the conversation with person B who says "hey, groovy to see you man" because A thinks that B is dumb and weird (negative dispositional attributions).

Although making negative dispositional attributions about their conversation partners, the retreating parties tend to make overt situational attributions about themselves for the sake of social appropriateness. In other words, consistent with the justification step from ending conversations, persons attempting to retreat from a conversation may well attempt to mention some external force relevant to the

situation or condition which is out of their control that requires them to leave the conversation. While not socially appropriate, the reliance on situational self attributions may be expressed by attempts to blame the perceived disposition of the other for the impending retreat (e.g., "You can't keep a secret").

Attraction Literature. Judgments concerning another person's attractiveness are made whenever two persons come together. While the criteria for such judgments may change at various stages, some feelings of attraction or aversion emerge during the early, the middle, or the end of an encounter. The extent to which people feel attracted to another person will surely affect the ways they communicate with the person and sometimes, whether they communicate with the person. Similarly, the attractiveness or unattractiveness one person perceives in the other will certainly affect the probability of the conversational retreat actions.

Several variables have been studied by attraction theorists for the past two decades. Above all, physical attraction and perceived similarity are the most frequently investigated variables in attraction studies (Huston & Levinger, 1978). An examination of these variables may contribute to an understanding of why people retreat from conversations.

Physical attraction is perhaps the most obvious referent when people think of attraction. Knapp (1984) summarizes numerous studies in this area and notices that "evidence from contemporary United States culture overwhelmingly supports the notion that initially we respond much more favorably to people perceived as physically attractive than to those seen as less attractive" (p. 141). The physical attractiveness researchers (e.g., Berscheid & Walster, 1974; Barocas & Karoly, 1972) may suggest that people will be more likely to retreat from conversations with less physically attractive strangers or acquaintances.

Not only is physical attraction itself said to affect people's reactions toward others, but there is a perceived association between physical attraction and a wide range of socially desirable traits. In their best known classic study, Dion, Berscheid and Walster (1972) found that participants rated pictures of physically attractive individuals as more sexually warm and responsive, interesting, poised, sociable, kind, strong and outgoing than persons of less attractiveness. These findings have been consistently supported in later studies (Adams & Huston, 1975; Dermer & Thiel, 1975). These findings suggest that people may engage in conversational retreat because they infer socially undesirable attributes from their partners' physical unattractiveness.

As attraction researchers realized that interpersonal attraction is a more complex phenomenon than just physical attraction, perceived similarity began to play a very important role in the attraction literature. Using Byrne's (1971) "phantom-other technique," many experimenters examined the relationship between attitude similarity and attraction. Some researchers have found that we are drawn to others who are similar to us (e.g., Craig & Duck, 1977; Touhey, 1975). In conversations, interactants who perceive their partners as less similar to themselves are more likely to withdraw from their partners. Therefore, conversational retreat behaviors will emanate.

Self-disclosure is another variable discussed in the attraction literature that is relevant to conversational retreat. Experimental work (Chaikin & Derlega, 1974) provides positive answers to the question of "does attraction lead to self-disclosure?" It is indicated that people less attracted to their conversational partners will tend to self-disclose less (Berscheid & Walster, 1974; Bochner, 1982; Bradac, Hosman, & Tardy, 1978; Chaikin & Derlega, 1974; Cozby, 1972; 1973; Dalto, Ajzen & Kaplan, 1979; Derlega, Harris & Chaikin, 1973; Kohen, 1975; Pellegrini, Hicks, & Meyers-

Winston, 1978), and eventually retreat from conversations. Specifically, Baxter (1979) found that respondents were less willing to self-disclose when they intended to disengage with their partners.

Summary

The preceding literature indicates that some rationales, general strategies, and tactics for conversational retreat may be found within a variety of interpersonal communication theories and antecedent research efforts. Specific conversational retreat tactics are suggested by the empirical studies of conversation ending. At the verbal level, justification statements, continuity statements, well-wishing statements, and information statements seem to be more likely when a person intends to retreat from a conversation. More tactics at the nonverbal level are generated: breaking eye contact, hand gestures, forward lean, leverage positions, grooming, major leg movements, shifting behaviors, and orientation in the direction of a proposed exit.

Some of the interpersonal communication theories provide a base for the study of the conversational retreat phenomenon. Some conversational retreat strategies and tactics are predicted within uncertainty reduction theory, social exchange theories, social penetration theory, attribution theory, and the attraction literature. Lower amounts of verbal communication and non-affiliative expressions are two tactics for the strategy of increasing the other's uncertainty level in order to retreat from a conversation. General strategies like making conversations unrewarding, decreasing rewards from conversations, and creating threatening conversations for the other are derivable from the reward/cost concept of social exchange theories, while more specific strategies such as shifting back to an earlier general conversation topic, overzealous self-disclosure, indiscriminate self-disclosure, and negative self-disclosure are predicted under the assumptions of social penetration theory. Making self situational attributions and making other dispositional

attributions are strategies generated from attribution theory. Finally, research on attraction suggests that people may disclose less about themselves when conversational retreat is desired.

What is not known is how distinct conversational retreat is from conversational ending. One way to get at the problem of the distinction between an ending and a retreat behavior is to have social actors self-report on their conversational retreat behaviors and then compare those reports to the previous conversational ending literature.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

The goal of this research is to construct a typology of conversational retreat strategies. This chapter describes the methods employed to accomplish this goal. The development of this typology took place in three stages: elicitation of exemplars, coding, and validation of tactics. The first and third stages are described in terms of sample, questionnaire, procedure, and data analysis, while the second stage is reported in the following sections: coders, training of the coders, tactic identification, and tactic categorization.

Stage One: Elicitation of Exemplars

A survey was conducted to compile a pool of exemplars of retreat tactics that were typically employed by interactants. It was decided that a list of retreat tactics drawn from the experience of ordinary people might well be superior to any list that a group of "experts" might be able to construct. Given that this is a preliminary examination of conversational retreat, an empirical data based study would be more suitable to the goal than would an armchair synthetic effort.

Participants

A total of 145 undergraduate students were recruited to participate in this study. The participants who volunteered for participation in this study were from the introductory course in the Communication Studies Department at San Jose State University. Seventy-three of the participants were randomly assigned to the friend or close friend condition while seventy-two were assigned to the stranger or acquaintance condition.

Questionnaire

Following an induction for recall of a conversational retreat experience, the elicitation questionnaire consisted of two open-ended questions paralleling a modification of the Retrospective Interview Technique (RIT) (Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald, & Cate, 1981). The written mode of recall was selected over oral recall, as originally designed in RIT, for the sake of convenience. Stafford and Daly (1984) reported no superiority of either oral or written mode for eliciting content information.

On the first open-ended question participants were asked to describe the ways they retreated from the particular conversation they recalled. To answer the second question, participants provided the reasons for using the tactics they described in responding to the first question. In order to capture a broader range of potential retreat tactics, two versions of the questionnaire (see Appendix B) were constructed that represented two levels of relationships (friends or close friends vs. strangers or acquaintances). Interactions between friends were found to be significantly different from those between strangers in several experiments (e.g., Derlega, Wilson, & Chaikin, 1976). As a result, these two levels of relationships were employed to make sure that data would be more representative of the full range of retreat behaviors.

Procedure

After giving a brief introduction, the researcher invited participants to voluntarily participate in this study by completing a take-home questionnaire designed to elicit recall of conversational retreat tactics and reasons for tactic selection. Participants were asked to think of a conversational experience they had had where they attempted to get out of the conversation before its normal end. The normal end was defined by the communicator's perceptions. The two open-ended

questions concerning the tactics used and the reasons for tactic selection were explained before the questionnaire was distributed. Participants were assured that information provided by them would be kept confidential.

Stage Two: Coding

There were two successive goals for the coding procedures. The first goal was to identify tactics from written exemplars of retreat obtained from the survey. The second goal was to develop a set of categories for the identified tactics. The coding process consisted of three steps following the completion and return of the questionnaires. Each step involved the same group of coders who were recruited for the coding process. There were four coders in the group. These four coders were recruited from an upper-division Communication Theory and Research course in the Communication Studies Department at San Jose State University. The percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreements among all four coders was counted for intercoder reliability (Folger, Hewes, & Poole, 1983; Krippendorff, 1980). In addition, the percentage of missed tactics was also calculated on the surveys to provide further information about intercoder reliability. In order to eliminate potential bias, the coders were told the objectives for the coding steps only one at a time as they proceeded. The responses on the second question will be employed in a later study.

Training of the Coders

Given the goal of the first coding step, that is, identification of tactics, there were three purposes for the training sessions. One was to familiarize the coders with the procedures of coding (see Appendix C-I). The second was to have all the coders discuss and agree on the rules for coding the tactics. Finally, coders were trained to make sure that they were able to apply the rules consistently and independently in coding the data.

After explaining the coding procedures to the coders, the researcher led a discussion on the coding criteria by starting with a definition of conversational retreat tactics. A set of rules was generated through the discussion (see Appendix C-II). These rules defined a retreat tactic as an identifiable, specific and observable behavior aiming at stopping a conversation and enacted by the person "I" in the self-reported survey. In order to reinforce the rules, the coders and the researcher engaged in a practice session employing a dummy conversation (see Appendix C-III). Coders were asked to apply the rules in explaining the ways the example description was coded. The first training session took ninety minutes. Coders were then asked to code five examples independently and told that they would be subjected to retraining if the intercoder agreement for these five examples was lower than .80. All the examples were made up to encompass the distinction between descriptions of behaviors and cognitive rationales (e.g., "I stopped looking at him and felt angry") in order to test coders' capability of independent and consistent coding.

The percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreements was calculated (number of agreements divided by number of decisions; see Krippendorff, 1980, p. 133) on their coded examples. The intercoder agreement was far below .80. Consequently, the second training session started with a discussion of the disagreement coders had in their coding the previous five examples. Additional tips on applying the rules (see Appendix C-IV) and a check list were provided. After resolving the disagreement, coders were instructed to code five additional examples which were again made up by the researcher for the training session. Intercoder agreement on this task for training was calculated. In the event a tactic coded by one coder contained two tactics coded by another, the number of agreement was counted as one over the maximally possible number of tactics (i.e., as 2). The maximally possible number of tactics coded for each example across all four coders were

counted as number of decisions. The ratio of the number of agreements to the number of decisions was calculated as intercoder agreement for each example. Intercoder agreement on this task for training exceeded .80 agreements across all five examples. Altogether, training took about four hours.

Step One: Tactic Identification

All four coders were instructed to identify tactics from the descriptions of conversational retreat obtained from the questionnaires. In order to ensure that coders would apply the rules consistently, data were divided into three packs of 50, 50, and 45 surveys.

Multiple reliability checks were taken after each set of surveys was coded in order to maintain high reliability. Multiple reliability checks included the percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreements across all four coders (which were calculated in the same fashion described above in the training section) and the percentage of missed tactics. The actual calculation of agreements are tabulated in Table 1. The percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreements were .79, .77, and .83. Disagreements among coders were resolved by discussion after each percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreement was calculated. The overall percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreements was .80. Providing that all four coders had coded all the questionnaires and that we intended to extract all tactics possible from all surveys, this reliability is fairly good.

The percentage of missed tactics was calculated to provide information supplemental to the percentage of simultaneous intercoder agreements. In earlier measurement, a tactic was excluded from the number of agreements when three coders found the tactic but one missed it. Given that all coders coded all surveys and disputes were resolved via discussions, the previous criterion is extremely conservative. Therefore, this percentage of missed tactics was calculated as the

TABLE 1
CALCULATION OF SIMULTANEOUS INTERCODER AGREEMENTS

Ss No.	First 50 Surveys	Second 50 Surveys	Third 45 Surveys
1	0.57	0.67	1.00
2	0.67	1.00	0.57
3	1.00	0.57	0.50
4	0.63	0.86	0.57
5	0.71	0.67	1.00
6	1.00	1.00	0.73
7	0.50	0.75	0.71
8	1.00	1.00	1.00
9	1.00	0.60	0.75
10	1.00	0.86	0.50
11	1.00	1.00	1.00
12	1.00	0.75	1.00
13	0.29	0.57	1.00
14	1.00	1.00	0.67
15	1.00	1.00	1.00
16	0.88	1.00	0.60
17	1.00	0.40	1.00
18	1.00	0.80	1.00
19	0.57	0.50	0.70
20	0.00	1.00	1.00
21	0.50	0.80	0.75
22	1.00	1.00	1.00
23	1.00	1.00	1.00
24	0.60	1.00	1.00
25	1.00	1.00	1.00
26	0.20	1.00	0.44
27	1.00	0.67	0.60
28	1.00	0.40	1.00
29	NA	0.43	1.00
30	0.75	1.00	1.00
31	0.33	1.00	1.00
32	1.00	1.00	0.75
33	NA	0.00	1.00
34	0.57	1.00	1.00
35	0.50	1.00	0.56
36	NA	1.00	1.00
37	1.00	1.00	1.00
38	0.67	0.50	0.75
39	1.00	0.33	0.33
40	0.67	0.71	0.57
41	1.00	0.25	1.00
42	0.60	0.80	0.75
43	1.00	0.71	1.00
44	0.13	NA	1.00
45	0.67	1.00	0.50
46	1.00	1.00	
47	1.00	0.75	
48	1.00	0.29	
49	1.00	0.58	
50	1.00	0.60	
TOTAL	37.01	37.82	37.30
MEAN	0.79	0.77	0.83

Overall Reliability = .80 (N = 141)

percentage of times a coder failed to identify a given tactic. The percentage of missed tactics was derived from the ratio of the number of misses to the maximally possible number of chances, which was the product of the maximally possible number of tactics and the number of coders (i.e., 4). The result is shown in Table 2. The overall percentage of missed tactics was 8%. This means the intercoder reliability could be as high as .92, which is excellent.

Twenty-five of the surveys were about the retreat attempts in telephone conversations while 120 were about the retreat attempts in face-to-face conversations. Four surveys were discarded since all the coders agreed that the contents provided were unrelated to the subject. A total of 623 tactics were identified and agreed to by the coders, yielding roughly 4.42 tactics per questionnaire (623/141).

Step Two: Tactic Categorization

The coders were asked to independently divide the tactics into categories that made sense to them. Part of this coding step involved the elimination of duplicate tactics. A duplicate tactic was defined for the coders as one that was near identical in wording to another tactic. The coders were cautioned that, when in doubt, a tactic should not be eliminated.

Disagreement among coders in eliminating the duplicate tactics was resolved by discussion. This process reduced the number of tactics from 623 to 350. The results from coders' individual categorizations ranged from as few as seven categories to as many as seventeen. Coders then met as a group to discuss their individual results and to arrive at a set of categories to which all could subscribe.

The resulting coder categories contained the following fourteen categories of conversational retreat strategies:

1. Third Party--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by having another person intervene or by having another person as a medium to pass the message to their conversation partners.

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGE OF MISSED TACTICS

MPC = Maximally Possible Chances of Tactics Coded

NMT = Number of Missed Tactics

PMT = Percentage of Missed Tactics

Survey #	First 50 Surveys		Second 50 Surveys		Final 45 Surveys	
	MPC	NMT	MPC	NMT	MPC	NMT
1	28	0	24	1	8	0
2	36	0	4	1	28	4
3	4	0	28	0	16	3
4	32	3	12	2	24	0
5	28	4	12	0	44	9
6	4	0	28	1	28	1
7	32	4	16	0	12	0
8	12	0	20	0	16	1
9	8	0	20	2	32	8
10	28	0	28	6	20	0
11	20	0	4	0	28	0
12	16	0	16	2	24	0
13	28	9	28	5	12	1
14	12	0	20	0	28	0
15	4	0	28	0	20	1
16	32	3	12	0	12	0
17	32	0	20	5	12	0
18	4	0	20	1	40	8
19	28	3	16	3	24	0
20	12	3	16	0	32	0
21	8	2	20	3	8	0
22	16	0	32	0	24	0
23	8	0	16	0	4	0
24	20	2	12	0	8	0
25	12	0	8	0	36	5
26	20	8	16	0	20	2
27	28	0	12	2	8	0
28	12	0	20	4	16	0
29	16	2	28	9	20	0
30	24	3	16	0	24	0
31	4	0	24	0	16	3
32	28	2	4	0	20	0
33	8	0	24	10	12	0
34	24	0	12	0	38	5
35	12	3	8	0	28	0
36	8	0	8	0	4	0
37	36	4	28	0	32	0
38	8	0	16	6	12	2
39	20	2	24	4	28	0
40	16	0	28	2	28	0
41	32	7	16	7	32	0
42	24	4	20	0	16	3
43	8	0	28	4		
44	12	0	16	0		
45	16	0	20	0		
46	16	0	16	0		
47	12	0	28	5		
48			48	9		
49			20	3		
50						
TOTAL	848	68	840	97	892	64
PMT	0.08		0.10		0.06	

Overall Percentage of Missed Tactics = .08

2. Rudeness--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by acting impolite, offensive, or discourteous to their conversation partners.
3. Turning the Table--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by placing the responsibility of ending conversations on their conversation partners.
4. Deceiving--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by lying to their conversation partners.
5. Impending Commitment--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by justifying with their obligations to something or someone else.
6. Short Answers--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by giving short responses which will not extended the length of the conversation too much.
7. Agreeing--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by adopting their conversation partners' opinion in order to avoid possible prolonged discussion.
8. Ignoring--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by not noticing or acknowledging their conversation partners or what their conversation partners say.
9. Diverting Eye Contact--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by removing eye gaze with their conversation partners.
10. Changing Subjects--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by changing the subject.
11. Restless Actions--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by acting uneasy, apprehensive, or impatient.
12. Transition Movements--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by physically changing from one state to another.

13. Deferring Conversations--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by assuring future contacts but actually putting off the conversation right at the moment.

14. Closing Statements--Strategy people use to retreat from conversations by using cliché conversation enders, by summarizing the conversation, and by closing the conversation directly.

The number of tactics in the coder categories ranged from 7 to 63 tactics. The specific tactics for these categories are reported in Table 3. Some of the coder categories included more subgroups than did others. "Restless actions," for instance, consisted of actions of being busy, actions of being impatient, actions of being bored or tired, and actions of preparing to leave. Other coder categories, such as, "deceiving," "agreeing," "turning the table," contained only one subgroup of their own. The coders seemed careless at times in their categorizations of the tactics. For example, one tactic ("I said that it was late") was sorted into the "changing subjects" coder category when it seemed to fit better as an impending commitment.

Step Three: Tactic Selection

A set of retreat tactics for each coder category was selected in order to eliminate participant fatigue in the validation stage. The decision to draw a sample of tactics was made for two reasons. First, it would require long hours for participants to sort out all 350 tactics. Such a time-consuming process, even if feasible, would produce participant fatigue which, in turn, would confound the research results. Second, the coders seemed to have substantially overcollapsed the tactics into the fourteen categories. That is, the coder categories had considerable diversity. Some of the categories consisted of less than ten tactics while others consisted of more than fifty tactics. Moreover, some categories contained more subgroups than did others. The tactic sample selection, therefore, was based on two criteria. One is the degree

TABLE 3
TACTICS WITHIN CODER CATEGORIES

Coder Category (number of tactics)
Tactics

Third Party (7)

- 30. I started talking to another person about how tired I was (sort of loud to let the person with me hear).
- 67. Another person told me loud enough for the person with me to hear that I needed to get going.
- 68. I signaled someone else to try to get me out of the conversation.
- My dad (the third person) came out saying "Son, your buddy Rick in Santa Barbara is on the phone, come and get your call."
- My dad (the third person) said to the person, "He'll be a while, I'll have him call you once he gets off the phone."
- My sister (the third person) picked up the phone and slipped in a quick good-bye.
- I told her mom (the third person) that I needed to get some sleep before work the next morning.

Rudeness (12)

- 1. I said, "Would you please leave me alone?"
- 21. My tone of voice became "curt."
- 62. I cut the person off when the person was talking.
- 70. I made harsh comments to make the person feel guilty, upset, or angry.
- I criticized his bicycle brand while he was talking about biking.
- I made a comment that I thought would irritate him.
- I stated that I really didn't care.
- I just spoke right up.
- I just cut in.
- I interrupted the person talking.
- I said, "I don't want to talk to you now."
- I said loudly, "Drop it!"

Turning the Table (9)

- 18. I said, "You probably have to go now."
- 53. I told them that I should let them go because I knew they probably had better things to do.
- 75. I said, "You sound tired."
- I said, "Well, I'd better let you go."
- I said, "You must be busy."
- I said, "You try to get some sleep."
- I said, "You probably have to do things you want to do."
- I said that I should let him get going since he was finished being checked out.
- I said that we'd both better get busy.

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Deceiving (8)

- 19. I lied to the person that I was busy.
- 29. I made up some kind of story like "I have an appointment with someone else," or "My next class is almost started."
- 65. I made up some phony reasons why I must go.
 - I just lied myself out of the conversation.
 - I told him that I didn't have the test he wanted with me even though I really did.
 - I lied that I had to get going if I were to finish my work.
 - I told the person that I really needed to get going so I was not late to class, even though I had a lunch break.
 - I gave in and told him what he wanted to hear.

Impending Commitment (63)

- 11. I said, "Someone is waiting for me."
- 25. I flat out explained that I was busy.
- 33. I said, "I wish I had more time to talk."
- 34. I started to mention all the things I had to do that evening.
- 39. I said I was late for something else.
- 63. I said, in a polite way, that I had to do something.
- 64. I said I had to go somewhere.
- 76. I said, "I'm tired."
 - I told him, "My parents need me to run uptown to take care of some errands."
 - I said my dad wanted me to do the dishes.
 - I told her that I had to go eat because my mother was mad.
 - I told her that I really had to go because my father was waiting for a job phone call.
 - I said, "My sister is going to kill me."
 - I said that I couldn't answer his question, because the professor was lecturing on something we need to know.
 - I said that the phone is wanted by someone else.
 - I told her that a good friend was coming over.
 - I said, "Well, before I go, I'd like to use the restroom."
 - I said that I had to go to the restroom.
 - I said, "I have to go to class."
 - I just said to my friend I have another class.
 - I said that I was going to be late for class.
 - I said that I had to get to class because I was late.
 - I told him that I had to go because I had an appointment with my professor to discuss my grade.
 - I said, "I have to meet someone."
 - I told him that I had company with me.
 - I said I need to get off the phone because there is another call coming in."
 - I said that I had to go to get things done.
 - I said, "I have to be at such-and-such place in 20 minutes."
 - I responded by saying I was ready to go home.
 - I kept saying I was going to be late.
 - I said, "I have to go, I'm already 15 minutes late."
 - I said that I wanted to finish talking with her but I was late for work.
 - I said, "I was supposed to leave an hour ago."
 - I mentioned that I was eating.

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- I reminded him that my food was getting cold.
- I said, "My French toast is burning."
- I told him that I had to go eat dinner.
- I said, "Well, I have to get to my homework."
- I told her that I was busy doing a lot of homework.
- I said that I had tons of homework.
- I said that I had to get moving on a project on which I was behind.
- I said, "I really enjoy talking to you but I really have a lot of studying to do."
- I made an excuse that I had to turn something in on another part of campus in the opposite direction.
- I immediately made it quite clear that I was working.
- I just said I had to leave to get a piece of equipment from another area.
- I told her that I needed to talk to a customer.
- I said I had to go punch back in for work.
- I said that I was expecting an important call from a friend.
- I gave her a list (long but fast): I told her that I had just finished vacuuming and before that I dusted all the furniture and before that I cleaned the bedrooms, kitchen and mopped the floors.
- I said, "I have a paper to write, a midterm to study for, and tons of homework to do."
- I said I had too much homework!
- I mentioned how busy I was.
- I said, "I have too much work to complete by tonight."
- I said, "I'm really busy lately."
- I said, "Sorry but I need to go to bed."
- I told her that I needed to get dressed.
- I flat out explained that I needed to concentrate.
- I told her that I had to feed my son.
- I told her, "I have to get dinner started."
- I explained that I just stepped in the door with groceries in my hands.
- I told him how excited I was about my trip to L.A., though I still had to pack and do some errands.
- I said I didn't have time to discuss the matter any further.
- I told her that I loved to chat with her but I was really pressed by time.

Short Answers (25)

- 3. I began to talk to the person with monosyllable answers like "yeah," "no doubt," "uh-huh," etc.
- 42. I responded very shallowly.
- 55. I answered with appropriate mumbles as necessary, rather than actively engaging in the conversation.
- 66. I gave little response.
 - I gave very short answers so as to quicken the pace of the conversation.
 - I kept what I said extremely short.
 - I started to become less responsive.
 - I didn't add much to the conversation.
 - I tried to make the conversation as simple as possible
 - I tried to say as little as possible.
 - I answered those questions as briefly as possible.
 - I only filled in words with things like "o.k." or "I see."

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- I just kept on answering "uhn," "hmmm," and "really."
- I didn't answer or comment in full sentences until absolutely necessary.
- I just started saying "really, really."
- I began to answer in simple nods or shakes of my head.
- I only responded yes or no, or with quick, short answers.
- I said things like "Wow, oh, ah-ha, I say mmm..."
- I just say "Yeah, yeah,..."
- I gave simple answers such as "yes," "no," or grunt.
- I began to reply with one word answers.
- I just said, "I don't know."
- I just said, "yes" or "no."
- I just said, "ahuh."
- I found myself talking less.

Agreeing (7)

- 14. I just agreed with whatever the person was saying.
- 27. I said, "I understand what you've been trying to say."
- 57. I just tried not to keep up with the conversation by agreeing with what my friend said.
- I agreed with everything he was saying.
- I began to agree with her all the time.
- I even tried to somewhat agree or at least pretend to understand his view.
- I agreed with the person.

Ignoring (47)

- 4. I just listened.
- 5. I just sat there and said nothing.
- 8. I made little comments to people next to me while the person talked.
- 12. I shoved my face into a book.
- 15. I gave no response to the statement that was made.
- 24. I tried very hard to give disinterested answers.
- 31. I let the person talk the whole time.
- 35. I acted uninterested.
- 60. I didn't pay attention to the person.
- 72. I shifted my attention back to what I was doing.
- 73. I used unusually long pauses.--- I kept ignoring her.
- I kept walking.
- I made sure I was constantly talking so that the guy could not get any words in.
- I engaged in a project while he was talking.
- I started typing on the computer.
- I began to pay less and less attention to the person.
- I paid more and more attention to my work.
- I started singing.
- I highlighted a book.
- I pulled out the Spartan Daily.
- I read the Spartan Daily.
- I immediately talk to someone else beside me.
- I acted distant and detached by talking to others when the person was talking to me.

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- I made sure that I was constantly talking to someone else so that he couldn't get a word in.
- I pretended that I didn't hear the person call my name.
- I kept giving him answers like "What? what did you say?" or "Oh sorry, I didn't hear what you said."
- I stopped adding input.
- I stopped talking.
- First attempt I made was to say nothing at all.
- I stopped asking any kind of question.
- I wouldn't say anything after my friend would stop talking.
- I never invited him in.
- I stopped all reactions to what the person was saying.
- My first attempt was unresponsiveness.
- I just stopped responding to her.
- I ignored him by not answering back.
- I just didn't say anything.
- I tried giving him the quiet treatment.
- Being silent.
- I paused often, trying to signal that there was not much to talk about.
- I pretended that I was not interested in what was being said.
- I try to avoid him by acting not interested in his presence.
- I showed little interest.
- I showed that my interest was elsewhere.
- The phone rang, I appeared more interested in it than in the person.
- I made myself look disinterested.

Diverting Eye Contact (20)

- 26. I broke eye contact with the person.
- 38. I gazed at objects at a distance from us.
- 40. I looked around me.
- 49. I made obvious gestures of looking at my watch.
- 69. I interrupted with a sudden glance at the clock.
- I first stopped making eye contact.--- By not maintaining eye contact, I tried to discourage the conversation.
- I looked away a little.
- I also have my eyes wander around the room trying to avoid direct eye contact.
- I pretended to look at something which I found to be more interesting.
- I looked at the ground.
- I kept looking out of the car window to let him know I really wasn't interested in what he was saying.
- I started looking around at other people instead of paying complete attention to the person.
- I looked around at other people, trying to find someone I know so as I can excuse myself.
- I began to look away from the person.
- I kept on turning my head to the direction where I wanted to go to.
- I turned my head around to another direction.
- I constantly looked at my watch, as if I would be late to be somewhere.
- I started to stare at my watch.
- I tried looking at my watch.

(continued on next page)

Changing Subjects (16)

- 7. I said that it was late.
- 16. I asked if the person knew what time it was.
- 36. I asked the person some simple questions that were not related to the subject the person was talking about.
- 37. I tried to switch to another topic.
- 56. I said, "Could we talk about something else?"
- 61. I noticed the time out loud like "Oh my gosh, it's already 7 o'clock," etc.
- I brought up the subject of work.
- I tried to change the subject.
- I introduced a new subject.
- My third attempt was to completely change the subject by looking out the window and making a comment about a young lady who walked by.
- My second attempt was to introduce a variable that we both could agree on.
- I told him that I was uncomfortable with the conversation.
- I just told him to change the subject.
- I flat out said, "Tim, I really do not want to talk about Jim without him here."
- I said, "Oh my God, it's dark out!"
- I said, "Can't believe it's already 8:30."

Restless Action (36)

- 2. I grabbed my books.
- 6. I packed my things up.
- 10. I tried to make it seem as if I was in a hurry.
- 13. I fidgeted.
- 23. I tried to act preoccupied about something else.
- 28. I started to act kind of restless.
- 45. I started shifting my weight back and forth from leg to leg.
- 46. I tried to make myself look tired.
- 48. I acted busy.
- 58. I started yawning.
- 74. I pulled my car keys out of my pocket.
- I became restless, couldn't stand still.
- I started to slouch in my chair.
- I started to stretch.
- Nervous foot tapping.
- I started to act antsy.
- I leaned against the door.
- I changed posture by tilting to one side.
- I kept my hand on the door as a way of being ready to show him out of the house.
- I started to become more distracted.
- I made more deliberate movements.
- I turned on the radio.
- I started to move around a lot like I was impatient.
- I made it seem like I had to "get back to work."
- I pretended to be in a rush by nodding quickly.
- I went around the office like I had tons of paperwork.
- I started to talk fast.
- I kept yawning like I was tired.
- I acted sleepy.

(continued on next page)

- I sounded and acted tired, sighing a lot.
- I kept shuffling with my books and paper.
- I resorted to fumbling with my paper.
- I began to prepare myself to leave.
- I grabbed my keys.
- I put the car in gear.
- I started the motor.

Transition Movements (32)

- 9. I walked away.
- 43. I turned my back.
- 20. I started to move a little further away from the person.
- 51. I stood up to signal that I wanted to go.
- I left.
- I hung up the phone.
- I slammed the telephone down.
- I had to actually close the garage door.
- I ended up just leaving.
- I took off out of there.
- I left the room to use the bathroom.
- I ran to my bedroom.
- I walked into the kitchen (another room).
- I went out in the water.
- I started swimming out.
- I got in the car.
- I got out of my chair.
- I ran to answer the phone.
- I approached a customer for assistance.
- I moved quickly so that he didn't have a chance to start up the conversation again.
- I turned my body away from the person.
- I turned around looking at the computer.
- I started moving around my work area.
- I made sure that I sat between my friends, so that I would sort of have a wall around me.
- I backed away.
- I took a few steps backward.
- I stepped away from the person.
- I widened the distance between me and him.
- I started to take a step to one side.
- I started moving toward the door.
- I positioned myself toward the exit.
- I walked toward the car.

Deferring Conversations to the Future (21)

- 17. I told them I would get back to them.
- 32. I said, "Why don't you just give me a call later?"
- 47. I told them that I would like to talk to them again some other time.
- I said I would talk to him later.
- I said that we would finish the conversation later.
- I said that we could make the arrangement later.

(continued on next page)

- I told him that I'd write to him soon.
- I told him that we'd speak again soon.
- I just told him that we might pick up the conversation some other time.
- I said, "I'll talk to you about this next time."
- I said, "So hey, why don't we get together next week?"
- I also made a date for lunch in the next week.
- I told him that I would talk to him about it at a better time (e.g., tomorrow).
- I told him that we would go over the problems he had at the library.
- I told him that I would meet him later in the day.
- I told her that I'd see her in a few days.
- I said, "See you Saturday."
- I mentioned the next time we would see each other.
- I said, "Give me your phone number, I'll call you."
- I gave my name and phone number, and said if there are any other questions/problems to give me a call.
- I bluntly asked if I could call her back at another time.

Closing Statements

- 22. I said, "I have to go now."
- 41. I tried to use some conversation enders such as "Well,... take care..."
- 44. I said bye in an abrupt way.
- 50. I said, "Good-bye."
- 52. I said, "It really is nice talking with you."
- 54. I tried to end the conversation by saying "well" and "o.k."
- 59. I made a comment to summarize the conversation, such as "they just don't build them like they used to."
- 71. I said, "See you later."
- I said, "Good night!"
- I said a couple of times "Good-bye."
- I said a couple of times "Thank you."
- I said, "Excuse me."
- I excused myself quickly before they could say another word.
- I said, "I got to get going."
- I told her that I needed to hurry.
- I said, "Well, I wish I could talk longer, but I must really be going."
- I said, "Excuse me, but I really must be going."
- I told her I couldn't stay talking any longer.
- I just told him we should call it a night.
- I said, "O.k., that's all I want to ask you."
- I asked, "Is that all?" in an urgent tone.
- I said, "Take care."
- I told him, "Talk to you later."
- I tried to pass the old, "...well, it's been nice talking to you, but I really have to go now..."
- I said that it was great seeing him again.
- I said, "It really is nice talking with you."
- I said, "Thanks for calling me."
- I started finishing the person's questions or comments.
- I tried to wrap up the conversation with some "catch-all" phrases.
- I kept saying, "Well, anyway, I..."

(continued on next page)

- I told him that I would need my book to explain some of the problems he asked.
- I made it quite clear that I couldn't talk.
- My response was that it was not necessary for us to discuss any further.
- I told him that my salvation was between God and I, and he would find out in heaven.
- I stated that there was absolutely nothing for me to say about what she said.
- I told them that they could do whatever they wanted to.
- I said that I didn't have time to discuss the matter any further.
- I told him the armed forces was not for me.
- I told her that I needed no help, everything was under control.
- I told him I was not interested.
- I said, "Forget it, mom."
- I said, "Mom, don't worry."
- I said, "Want to talk to mom?"
- I said I didn't want to say anything because I might sway or alter her opinion.
- I told her that her brother was not home.
- I told her that I couldn't recall the answers.
- I told the sales person that I had already bought one.

of the representativeness of the central theme for the category. The other is diversity of the tactics in each category. Based on these two criteria, 76 tactics were chosen by two communication experts and the researcher. At least three tactics were selected for each coder category. The same group of coders was asked to rate independently each selected tactic chosen for each category based on the two criteria discussed above. Following each coder category and its definition, all tactics from each coder category were listed. Coders were asked to rate individual tactics on seven-point Likert type scales regarding how well each tactic represents the category. The diversity of the chosen tactics for each category was also rated on a seven-point Likert type scale by the coders. The results of this check on tactic selections are provided in Table 4. With the highest score of seven indicating high representativeness or diversity of the tactics, the mean on the representative criterion was 6.3; the mean on the diversity criterion was 6.1 (see Table 4). The representativeness and diversity of the set of selected tactics was, therefore, supported. The selected tactics are indicated with a numerical assignment in Table 3. The numerical assignments were arbitrary and used only for ease of later reference.

Stage Three: Validation of the Tactics

A second survey was conducted to validate the initial coder categories of conversational retreat tactics. Since the initial categories of tactics for conversational retreat were determined by a small group of coders, an empirical testing of the categories with a larger sample was deemed necessary. Such a validation based on a larger sample was performed in order to resolve the suspicion in the previous creation of coder categories and produce a more stable solution for a conversational retreat typology.

TABLE 4
CODERS' RATING ON TACTIC SELECTION

TN = Tactic Number

RR = Averaged Rating on the Representativeness of Tactic

RD = Averaged Rating on the Diversity of Tactic

TN	RR	RD	TN	RR	RD
1	5.75	5.50	39	6.50	6.00
2	7.00	6.00	40	6.75	7.00
3	7.00	6.25	41	7.00	6.00
4	5.50	6.00	42	5.25	6.25
5	6.00	5.25	43	7.00	7.00
6	7.00	6.00	44	6.50	6.00
7	4.50	6.00	45	7.00	6.00
8	6.25	5.25	46	6.00	6.00
9	7.00	7.00	47	6.75	6.75
10	5.75	6.00	48	6.00	6.00
11	6.75	6.00	49	7.00	7.00
12	7.00	5.25	50	7.00	6.00
13	6.75	6.00	51	6.50	7.00
14	6.75	6.25	52	6.50	6.00
15	6.75	5.25	53	6.50	7.00
16	5.75	6.00	54	6.25	6.00
17	6.75	6.75	55	7.00	6.25
18	7.00	7.00	56	7.00	6.00
19	6.50	6.50	57	6.75	6.25
20	7.00	7.00	58	6.75	6.00
21	5.50	5.25	59	5.50	6.00
22	7.00	6.00	60	6.75	5.25
23	6.50	6.00	61	5.75	6.00
24	5.00	5.25	62	6.75	5.50
25	5.50	6.00	63	6.50	6.00
26	7.00	7.00	64	6.75	6.00
27	6.00	6.25	65	6.75	6.50
28	6.75	6.00	66	5.50	6.25
29	6.50	6.50	67	6.00	6.00
30	4.50	6.00	68	6.50	6.00
31	5.75	5.25	69	7.00	7.00
32	7.00	6.75	70	7.00	5.50
33	4.00	6.00	71	6.75	6.00
34	6.50	6.00	72	6.50	5.25
35	5.00	5.25	73	3.50	5.25
36	7.00	6.00	74	7.00	6.00
37	6.75	3.00	75	6.50	7.00
38	7.00	7.00	76	3.25	6.00
Total	238.00	229.75		242.25	234.00
Mean	6.26	6.05		6.38	6.16

Overall Mean of Coders' Rating on Tactic Representativeness = 6.32

Overall Mean of Coders' Rating on Tactic Diversity = 6.10

Participants

A Total of 243 individuals (124 females and 119 males) participated in the validation stage of the study. Participants were drawn from students in basic courses at San Jose State University and West Valley College. These students were asked to participate on a voluntary basis. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 52, with an average age of 24.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from regularly scheduled class periods. Upon arriving in the communication laboratory, participants were given the consent form, instruction sheets, and an envelope of index cards with recording sheets and some rubber bands. Participants were informed that each one of them might want to select a large table area to sort out the cards. The participants were told to follow the instructions on the instruction sheets and to raise their hands if they had any question. The materials in each packet are described below.

Instruction Sheets. Participants were given full written instructions (see Appendix D-III). After a brief introduction about the research topic, participants were first directed to take out a set of provided index cards and read the tactic recorded on each index card. Second, participants were asked to divide the cards into piles which made sense to them on the basis of the similarities and differences among the tactics. Third, the participants were instructed that they could create as many or as few categories as they thought were needed. Participants were assured that there is no right or wrong answer for their categorizations. Participants were instructed to use rubber bands provided in the envelope to hold together tactic cards for the categories they created. A recheck of each category was requested before participants were told to record their categorization results. Participants were instructed to indicate their categorization results by placing the number from the front of each index card in each pile on the recording sheet group by group.

Participants were then informed to take a sheet of follow-up questions from the researcher, to complete it, and to place the completed form in the envelope. Participants were told to turn in the index cards rubber banded together for each of their categories, the recording sheet, and the completed follow-up questions in an envelope.

Exemplar Tactic. The materials were constructed based on stage one data. The 76 tactics previously selected were utilized as a basis for validation of the scheme. To minimize subject fatigue, 250 different sets of 40 tactics were randomly generated from the 76 tactics. Each tactic in each randomly selected set was placed on a 3 x 5 index card with its randomly assigned number. Each set of 40 index cards was put into an envelope.

Recording Sheet. A four page recording sheet was provided to participants in the envelope. Each recording sheet consisted of forty groups. Each group had over forty blocks for participants to record the numbers. This arrangement was made to ensure that there was no bias in category selection. (see Appendix D-I).

Follow-up Questions. A set of follow-up questions was designed to check prior awareness of the study. The likelihood of conversational retreat behavior and some demographic background information (i.e., gender, age, ethnic group, status, and profession) were also included (see Appendix D-II).

Each question that was asked by individual participants during the study was answered by the researcher. After completing the major task, participants filled out a sheet of follow-up questions, put all materials into the envelope and turned in the envelope to the researcher. Participants were thanked for helping with the study and dismissed after finishing the tasks. The time for participants to finish the tasks ranged from 10 minutes to 40 minutes.

Statistical Analysis

The subject by category matrix (how each subject categorized the tactics) was converted to a tactic by tactic matrix of the frequency of matches (e.g., how many subjects grouped tactic 1 with tactic 7; tactic 2 with tactic 10. See Table 5). A special program developed for this matrix conversion was employed.

The frequency matrix of tactic matches was cluster analyzed with the cluster analysis routine available with SPSS/PC+ (Norusis, 1986). The average linkage between group method was selected. The cluster criterion of the average linkage method is the average of the distances between all pairs of cases in which one member of the pair is from each of the clusters. The median, centroid, and Ward's methods were not considered because all of them require a particular type of distance measure which is not available with this data, (i.e., the squared Euclidean distance--the distance between two cases is the sum of the squared differences in values for each variable). Of the methods that could be used with the similarity matrix at this stage, the average linkage method was chosen. The average linkage method utilizes information about all pairs of distances. The single linkage and the complete linkage methods were not used due to the fact that these methods either use the distance of the nearest or the furthest pair.

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY MATRIX OF TACTIC MATCHES

TACTIC NUMBER

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	
1	123	9	7	1	5	10	9	10	29	4	9	12	2	2	9	4	5	18	6	5	32	24	3	4	24	1	6	3	5	10	3	11	11	1	6	2	2	3	
2	9	142	7	9	12	67	10	6	25	27	8	29	36	5	11	5	8	2	9	32	10	7	15	5	9	25	0	34	9	8	6	5	6	3	14	6	5	19	
3	7	7	132	19	15	4	7	25	3	12	7	8	15	50	22	12	5	7	5	10	32	5	11	42	2	16	10	16	4	16	22	2	6	7	27	20	16	14	
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5	5	12	15	69	138	16	3	16	10	8	5	20	21	36	66	7	3	5	3	17	8	3	17	25	7	17	6	14	2	7	55	0	3	4	41	9	3	24	
6	10	67	4	8	16	131	14	6	35	26	13	32	26	3	10	9	6	9	26	6	15	20	2	11	19	1	27	5	11	5	5	6	8	18	4	4	20		
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23	3	15	11	9	17	20	6	20	9	18	3	28	29	11	17	8	6	5	8	26	12	1	103	18	5	22	1	28	7	11	7	7	5	7	34	7	7	27	
24	4	5	42	16	25	2	12	17	3	6	10	12	13	25	23	17	12	11	11	21	6	16	135	9	12	8	14	4	17	17	5	7	9	35	29	23	16		
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26	1	25	16	18	17	19	7	15	5	11	0	22	40	12	21	10	5	3	1	37	14	1	22	12	5	122	3	37	5	11	17	4	2	4	31	9	10	40	
27	6	0	10	9	6	1	15	6	1	5	10	3	3	23	6	11	16	13	7	1	6	12	1	8	6	3	115	3	4	2	12	17	24	7	3	11	11	2	
28	3	34	16	9	14	27	13	14	13	36	9	17	67	9	17	13	7	6	6	55	14	6	28	14	6	37	3	136	11	14	8	3	4	13	35	5	7	32	
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35	6	14	27	29	41	10	7	25	14	13	3	29	27	30	40	8	3	4	6	25	17	3	34	35	5	31	3	33	1	16	22	0	2	10	140	11	12	37	
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38	3	19	14	18	24	20	6	17	14	6	2	27	35	17	24	7	6	6	2	37	9	3	27	16	2	40	2	32	2	6	12	2	1	4	37	14	10	121	

TACTIC NUMBER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38		
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40	1	3	19	17	23	29	24	6	16	11	1	24	51	2	35	6	4	2	32	19	3	41	3	8	20	2	2	4	41	8	8	53							
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CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Overview

This chapter summarizes the most probable solution for cluster analysis on the data collected in the validation stage. Different approaches were employed to reach the best solution for the conversational retreat typology. The resulting clusters are then labelled based on the shared characteristic of the tactics in content.

Furthermore, a comparison of the results with coder categories is reported.

Determination of the Number of Clusters

Although determination of the optimal number of clusters is highly subjective, several researchers (e.g., Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984) have suggested some basic approaches. Several of the alternatives were employed to make a decision on the most acceptable number of clusters.

Consideration of Coder Categories. Since the validation was designed to test the validity of coder categories, the number of the coder categories (i.e., the 14 categories) is the first step in looking for a cluster solution. The 14-cluster solution obtained is, however, uninterpretable since it contains three single item clusters. A vertical icicle plot shown in Figure 1 was used to evaluate the 14-cluster solution. The numbers of the tactics are shown horizontally across the top and the number of clusters vertically down the left side. The 1 at the top left indicates that all tactics are grouped to form one cluster; the 2 indicates the two-cluster solution. To see which tactics are found in each cluster of the 14-cluster solution, look for the blank spot in the row of X's beside the 2. The number of tactics for each cluster is obtained by counting the numbers of tactics between the blanks. Looking at the vertical icicle shown in Figure 1, at 14 clusters we note that tactic 72, tactic 27, and tactic 16 each forms a cluster by themselves, making 14 cluster solution difficult to interpret.

FIGURE 1

VERTICAL ICICLE PLOT USING AVERAGE LINKAGE (BETWEEN GROUPS)

Given the agglomerative algorithm of the average linkage method used, the probable number of clusters for the 76 conversational retreat tactics will be smaller than the initial 14 coder categories.

Examination of Agglomeration Coefficients. An agglomeration coefficient is the value at which various cases merge to form a cluster. Two basic approaches utilizing the value of agglomeration coefficients have evolved (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). One approach requires analysis of a graph of the number of clusters against the agglomeration coefficient. A marked "flattening" in this graph, suggesting that no new information is portrayed by the following mergers of clusters, points to the probable solution. The second approach is a more formal, but still subjective, technique which is to discover a "jump" in the value of the fusion coefficient, i.e., the agglomeration coefficient. A jump in the fusion value indicates merger of relatively dissimilar clusters; thus, the solution prior to that jump is most acceptable. This method is also recommended by Norusis (1986).

Figure 2 displays a plot of the number of clusters versus agglomeration coefficients. The values of the agglomeration coefficients are shown along the y axis, whereas, the numbers of clusters are marked along the x axis. Examination of the plot shows that a flattening in the curve begins at the eleven-cluster solution. The highest stability is obtained subsequent to the ten-cluster solution. Therefore, the plot indicates that the optimal number of clusters is ten. Another mild flattening starting at the four-cluster solution points to the three-cluster solution.

Table 6 provides information about the value of the distance between two clusters being combined at each stage. Small coefficients indicate that clusters containing fairly homogeneous members are being merged. Large coefficients indicate that quite dissimilar clusters are being combined. The distinctive jump between three- and four-cluster solutions can also be seen in Figure 2, thus strongly implying that a three-cluster solution may be the most appropriate. The next mild

FIGURE 2
AGGLOMERATION BY CLUSTER PLOT

TABLE 6

AGGLOMERATION SCHEDULE USING AVERAGE LINKAGE (BETWEEN GROUPS)

Stage	Clusters Cluster 1	Combined Cluster 2	Coefficient	Stage Cluster Cluster 1	1st Appears Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	4	5	69.000000	0	0	5
2	13	28	67.000000	0	0	4
3	2	6	67.000000	0	0	44
4	13	45	57.500000	2	0	21
5	4	31	56.500000	1	0	8
6	49	69	55.000000	0	0	18
7	38	40	53.000000	0	0	31
8	4	15	51.666668	5	0	28
9	41	54	51.000000	0	0	47
10	19	29	51.000000	0	0	20
11	50	71	50.000000	0	0	40
12	46	58	50.000000	0	0	30
13	18	53	50.000000	0	0	59
14	36	37	50.000000	0	0	51
15	3	14	50.000000	0	0	29
16	62	70	49.000000	0	0	32
17	17	47	49.000000	0	0	35
18	49	74	48.000000	6	0	44
19	24	55	47.000000	0	0	34
20	19	65	46.000000	10	0	42
21	13	20	45.333332	4	0	30
22	63	64	45.000000	0	0	27
23	9	43	45.000000	0	0	48
24	33	52	44.000000	0	0	46
25	7	11	44.000000	0	0	38
26	35	60	43.000000	0	0	53
27	39	63	42.500000	0	22	42
28	4	66	42.250000	8	0	53
29	3	57	41.000000	15	0	43
30	13	46	40.625000	21	12	45
31	26	38	40.500000	0	7	45
32	1	62	40.000000	0	16	41
33	10	34	40.000000	0	0	58
34	24	42	38.500000	19	0	43
35	17	32	38.500000	17	0	46
36	67	68	38.000000	0	0	37
37	30	67	38.000000	0	36	57
38	7	61	38.000000	25	0	50
39	75	76	37.000000	0	0	59
40	22	50	36.500000	0	11	62
41	1	21	36.333332	32	0	49
42	19	39	35.888889	20	27	50
43	3	24	35.444443	29	34	54
44	2	49	35.333332	3	18	52
45	13	26	35.222221	30	31	56
46	17	33	35.000000	35	24	65
47	41	59	34.000000	9	0	66
48	9	12	34.000000	23	0	68
49	1	44	32.750000	41	0	67
50	7	19	32.666668	38	42	58
51	36	56	32.500000	14	0	71
52	2	51	32.400002	44	0	56
53	4	35	32.200001	28	26	61
54	3	73	30.500000	43	0	61
55	23	48	30.000000	0	0	60
56	2	13	29.277779	52	45	60
57	8	30	28.666666	0	37	71
58	7	10	28.555555	50	33	63
59	18	75	28.250000	13	39	69
60	2	23	26.533333	56	55	64
61	3	4	26.306122	54	33	72
62	22	25	25.333334	40	0	67
63	7	16	24.545454	58	0	70
64	2	72	23.588236	60	0	68
65	17	27	22.600000	46	0	66
66	17	41	21.833334	65	47	69
67	1	22	21.049999	49	62	73
68	2	9	19.888889	64	48	72
69	17	18	19.666666	66	59	70
70	7	17	17.147436	63	69	73
71	8	36	14.166667	57	51	74
72	2	3	13.731293	68	61	75
73	1	7	12.808888	67	70	74
74	1	8	11.105042	73	71	75
75	1	2	7.368641	74	72	0

jump in the agglomeration coefficients appears between the ten- and eleven-cluster solutions. Thus the jump test may be seen as pointing to a three- or a ten-cluster solution.

Both "flattening" and "jump" tests suggest that three or ten clusters may be the most plausible number for a solution. A closer inspection of both the ten-cluster and three cluster solutions is, therefore, warranted.

Inspection of Icicle Plot. The vertical icicle plot (see Figure 1) shows substantial stability (i.e., the vertical height of blanks between clusters) was obtained subsequent to the ten-cluster solution. At the eleven-cluster solution, tactics 59, 54, and 41 are combined into a unique cluster. The split at the eleven-cluster solution, however, is very shallow (i.e., the linkage between tactics 41 and 27 is only one cluster deep). Thus, the eleven cluster solution is not as stable as the ten-cluster solution, which is supported by the vertical icicle plot.

Inspection of Dendrogram. Figure 3 provides a quick visual overview of the clustering process. The most important information offered in the dendrogram is the distance at which clusters are joined. The actual distances are rescaled to numbers between 0 and 25, while the ratio of the distances between stages is preserved. Looking at the dendrogram, it appears that the three-cluster solution may be the most appropriate since it occurs before the distances at which clusters are combined become comparatively large.

Comparison to Adjacent Cluster Alternatives. Hair, Anderson, and Tatham (1987) make some suggestions for the final stage of cluster analysis. An important step suggested by Hair et al. is to examine the contents of cluster solutions adjacent to the cluster solution indicated by other tests.

The nine-cluster solution seems to combine tactics that convey rudeness with tactics that contain closing statements. All of the remaining eight clusters are the same as they are in the ten-cluster solution. The content dissimilarity between

FIGURE 3

DENDROGRAM USING AVERAGE LINKAGE (BETWEEN GROUPS)

rudeness and closing statement seems to be fairly large. Such content dissimilarity always produces quite distinctive effects on a communicator's perception and portray very different scenarios. For example, closing statements like "see you later" or "I have to go now" are socially accepted as conversation ending cliches, whereas making harsh comments or cutting a conversation partner off is perceived as socially inappropriate behavior. As a result of this dissimilarity, the nine-cluster solution is not warranted.

The eleventh cluster simply divides one cluster from the ten-cluster solution that seems to contain polite yet indirect tactics into two groups. One group could be labelled "closing statements" since it consists of three tactics from the closing statement coder category. The other group may be labelled "polite hinting" since it contains most tactics that seem polite yet indirect in suggesting conversational ending. The eleven cluster solution as well as the ten-cluster solution both seem to make sense. While the three closing statement tactics in the eleventh cluster seem to involve some effort at politeness, it could also be argued that closing statements are more overt than mere hinting. Nevertheless, the weight of the other tests performed seems to favor the ten-cluster solution.

Summary. Most of the approaches for determination of the most probable solution (i.e., the number of clusters) support the three-cluster and ten-cluster solution, while the huge jump obtained from the jump test distinctively points to the three-cluster solution. The next section reports on the contents of the ten clusters and then explores the three-cluster solution.

Cluster Contents

Specific cluster contents for the ten-cluster solution are provided in Table 7. The ten clusters are labelled according to their content similarities. The labels are rudeness, restlessness, nonresponsiveness, excuses, getting third party help, vanishing, polite hinting, turning the table, closing statements, and changing subjects. Each cluster is described as follows:

TABLE 7
TEN CLUSTER SOLUTION BROKEN DOWN BY EXEMPLARS

Cluster # Cluster Name

Exemplar # Exemplar

Cluster 1--rudeness

- 1. I said, "Would you please leave me alone?"
- 21. My tone of voice became "curt."
- 44. I said bye in an abrupt way.
- 62. I cut the person off when the person was talking.
- 70. I made harsh comments to make the person feel guilty, upset, or angry.

Cluster 2--restlessness

- 2. I grabbed my books.
- 6. I packed my things up.
- 13. I fidgeted.
- 20. I started to move a little further away from the person.
- 23. I tried to act preoccupied about something else.
- 26. I broke eye contact with the person.
- 28. I started to act kind of restless.
- 38. I gazed at objects at a distance from us.
- 40. I looked around me.
- 45. I started shifting my weight back and forth from leg to leg.
- 46. I tried to make myself look tired.
- 48. I acted busy.

(continued on next page)

- 49. I made obvious gestures of looking at my watch.
- 51. I stood up to signal that I wanted to go.
- 58. I started yawning.
- 69. I interrupted with a sudden glance at the clock.
- 72. I shifted my attention back to what I was doing.
- 74. I pulled my car keys out of my pocket.

Cluster 3--nonresponsiveness

- 3. I began to talk to the person with monosyllable answers like "yeah," "no doubt," "uh-huh," etc.
- 4. I just listened.
- 5. I just sat there and said nothing.
- 14. I just agreed with whatever the person was saying.
- 15. I gave no response to the statement that was made.
- 24. I tried very hard to give disinterested answers.
- 31. I let the person talk the whole time.
- 35. I acted uninterested.
- 42. I responded very shallowly.
- 55. I answered with appropriate mumble as necessary, rather than actively engaging in the conversation.
- 57. I just tried not to keep up with the conversation by agreeing with what my friend said.
- 60. I didn't pay attention to the person.
- 66. I gave little response.
- 73. I used unusually long pauses.

Cluster 4--excuse

- 7. I said that it was late.
- 10. I tried to make it seem as if I was in a hurry.

(continued on next page)

- 11. I said, "Someone is waiting for me."16. I asked if the person knew what time it was.
- 19. I lied to the person that I was busy.
- 29. I made up some kind of story like "I have an appointment with someone else," or "My next class is almost started."
- 34. I started to mention all the things I had to do that evening.
- 39. I said I was late for something else.
- 61. I noticed the time out loud like "Oh my gosh, it's already 7 o'clock," etc.
- 63. I said, in a polite way, that I had to do something.
- 64. I said I had to go somewhere.
- 65. I made up some phony reasons why I must go.

Cluster 5--getting third party help

- 8. I made little comments to people next to me while the person talked.
- 30. I started talking to another person about how tired I was (sort of loud to let the person with me to hear).
- 67. Another person told me loud enough for the person with me to hear that I needed to get going.
- 68. I signaled someone else to try to get me out of the conversation.

Cluster 6--vanishing

- 9. I walked away.
- 12. I shoved my face into a book.
- 43. I turned my back.

Cluster 7--polite hinting

- 17. I told them I would get back to them.
- 27. I said, "I understand what you've been trying to say."
- 32. I said, "Why don't you just give me a call later?"
- 33. I said, "I wish I had more time to talk."
- 41. I tried to use some conversation enders such as "Well,... take care..."

(continued on next page)

- 47. I told them that I would like to talk to them again some other time.
- 52. I said, "It really is nice talking with you."
- 54. I tried to end the conversation by saying "well" and "o.k."
- 59. I made a comment to summarize the conversation, such as "They just don't build them like they used to."

Cluster 8--turning the table

- 18. I said, "You probably have to go now."
- 53. I told them that I should let them go because I knew they probably had better things to do.
- 75. I said, "You sound tired."
- 76. I said, "I'm tired."

Cluster 9--closing statements

- 22. I said, "I have to go now."
- 25. I flat out explained that I was busy.
- 50. I said, "Good-bye."
- 71. I said, "See you later."

Cluster 10--changing subjects

- 36. I asked the person some simple questions that were not related to the subject the person was talking about.
- 37. I tried to switch to another topic.
- 56. I said, "Could we talk about something else?"

Rudeness. The common element for the five tactics grouped in the first cluster is rudeness. Actors using these tactics seem to deliver the message via either the verbal or the nonverbal channel, regardless of the norm of social appropriateness. The intent to retreat from a conversation is expressed explicitly through the words being said, the tone of voice, and ways of cutting the other person off. In a way, these tactics are employed to irritate or to scare the other person out of the conversation.

Restlessness. Tactics included in the second cluster seem to share the ingredient of restlessness. In this category, individuals try to retreat from conversations by acting uneasy, impatient, or apprehensive. Rather than verbalizing the desire to retreat from conversation, most tactics in this cluster contain many nonverbal expressions of restlessness such as diverting eye contact, fidgeting, yawning, and watch-looking.

Nonresponsiveness. The third cluster is labelled nonresponsiveness, since tactics in this cluster seem to share the quality of not responding, one way or the other. People show their disinterest in conversing with their partners by no response, not keeping up with the conversation, passively agreeing, or only offering short or shallow answers.

Excuses. The fourth cluster is labelled excuses. Tactics from this cluster are perceived as the utilization of excuses to justify people's retreat attempts. Such excuses are designed to have outside persons or events take the blame for breaking off conversations.

Getting Third Party Help. Tactics in this cluster are used to invite outsiders to "rescue" the "victim" who wants to retreat, from the conversation. The main component of these tactics is the introduction of a third party who assists with the retreat from a conversation. The person in tactic 68, for example, tried to get out of the conversation by signaling someone else to help him or her.

Vanishing. Three tactics merged in the sixth cluster are "walking away," "shoving my face into a book," and "turning my back." All of the tactics in this cluster involve actions that put the self or the other person out of sight.

Polite Hinting. The tactics in this cluster are characterized by people indirectly rather than explicitly conveying their intention to retreat from conversations. In order to get out of a conversation, the retreating party tries summarizing the conversation, mentioning future interactions, or using cliché conversation-enders to subtly draw the conversation to an end.

Turning the Table. This label is based on a common element existing in three of the four tactics. Three tactics (tactic 18, 53, & 75) in this cluster seem to place the onus of ending the conversation on the conversational partner. Thus, turning the table involves getting the partner to take the responsibility for the early ending of the conversation. The fourth tactic, "I said, 'I'm tired,'" joins this cluster due to its similarity with "I said, 'you sound tired'" (tactic 75). Indirectly, the expression of being tired is also used to get the other person to take actions in the same way as do the other three tactics.

Closing Statement. Three tactics using cliché conversation enders, such as "I have to go," "goodbye," "see you later," plus an indication of being busy form the ninth cluster. While it may seem that "being busy" belongs with excuse tactics, the statement seems to be more in the form of a command rather than an explanation or an excuse.

Changing Subjects. Tactics clustered in this category consist of either changing subjects subtly or explicitly asking others to change subjects. Such changes may suggest that the individuals mean to start a new conversation rather than physically leaving the current conversation.

Summary. Tactics in each of the ten clusters share some characteristics in common. Each cluster was given a label to reflect the common quality shared by its tactics. Following the analysis of the ten clusters, the structure of the three-cluster solution, related to the ten clusters, was explored.

Three Cluster Solution

The three-cluster result is the most prominent solution supported by the "flattening" test, the jump test, the examination of agglomeration coefficients, and the inspection of the dendrogram. An analysis of the three cluster solution will provide us a cognitive structure of channels used to retreat from undesired conversations. Based on the ten cluster contents examined above, this analysis emphasizes the relationship between the ten clusters and the three clusters, i.e., how the ten clusters were grouped into the three clusters.

Intentional Signal Scheme. This cluster is composed of the "rudeness," "excuses," "polite hinting," "turning the table," and the "closing statements" clusters that resulted from the ten-cluster solution. Each of these tactics, whether explicitly or implicitly, involves intentional signals of a retreat effort.

Indirect Cueing Scheme. This cluster involves the "restlessness," "nonresponsiveness," and "vanishing" clusters from the ten-cluster solution. Tactics in this cluster are employed to cue the conversational partner that retreat is possible (often in an underhanded or devious manner) and yet leave the option of plausible denial of a retreat intent if confronted about the behavior (or lack thereof).

Shifting Attention Scheme. Two very diverse strategies from the ten-cluster solution (getting third party help and changing subjects) form this cluster. The common ingredient that can be discerned from these two strategies is the intent of shifting attentions from a self or a partner to a third party who is outside of a present conversation, or, shifting attention from one subject to another. This scheme seems

to offer evidence for the application of Thibaut and Kelly's (1959) theory on the relationship evaluation process. The third party is searched for as a more attractive or demanding alternative for the retreating person right in front of his or her conversation partner's face, or as a substitute alternative for the conversation partner. Similarly, changing topics may be an effort at finding a more productive conversation. On the other hand, individuals may try to alarm their conversation partner by changing subjects, indicating lack of interest in continuing the conversation.

Comparison to Coder Categories

Even though the ten-cluster solution is generally consistent with the fourteen coder categories as shown in Table 8, there is substantial realignment of some of the tactics. Given the difficulty coders encountered in their categorization, a comparison of the ten-cluster solution (hereinafter, the ten participant strategies) and the fourteen coder categories may offer further insight into how tactics are clustered.

Rudeness. The rudeness participant strategy preserves the coder category of rudeness intact, but includes tactic 44 to form a new rudeness cluster. This cluster is conceptually uninfluenced by the inclusion of tactic 44, "I said bye in an abrupt way." The different classification between coders and participants may rest on different perceptual foci. Perhaps the coders emphasized the word "bye" while the participants for the validation stage focused on the qualifier "in an abrupt way." Undoubtedly, the central characteristic of the rudeness participant strategy is manifested in part by behavior such as abruptness. The similar perceptual discrepancy may also explain the difference between the third party coder category and the getting third party help participant strategy, and the difference in categorizing tactic 10 "I tried to make it seem as if I was in a hurry," which is the only tactic that was excluded from the restlessness participant strategy and clustered in the excuses participant strategy.

TABLE 8
A COMPARISON OF
TEN CLUSTER SOLUTION AND CODER CATEGORIES

Ten Cluster Solution (number of tactics)	Coder Categories (number of tactics)
Cluster 1--Rudeness (01, 21, 44, 62, 70)	Rudeness (01, 21, 62, 70)
	Closing statements (44)
Cluster 2--Restlessness (02, 06, 13, 20, 23, 26, 28, 38, 40, 45, 46, 48, 49, 51, 58, 69, 72, 74)	Restless Action (02, 06, 13, 23 28, 45, 46, 48 58, 74)
	Diverting eye contact (26, 38, 40, 49, 69)
	Transition movement (20, 51)
	Ignoring (72)
Cluster 3--Nonresponsiveness (03, 04, 05, 14, 15, 24, 31, 35, 42, 55, 57, 60, 66, 73)	Ignoring (04, 05, 15, 24, 31, 35, 60, 73)
	Short answer (03, 42, 55, 66)
	Agreeing (14, 57)
Cluster 4--Excuses (07, 10, 11, 16, 19, 29, 34, 39, 61, 63, 64, 65)	Impending commitment (11, 34, 39, 63, 64)
	Deceiving (19, 29, 65)
	Changing subject (07, 16, 61)
	Restless action (10)

(continued on next page)

Cluster 5--Getting third party help
(08, 30, 67, 68)

Third party
(30, 67, 68)

Ignoring
(08)

Cluster 6--Vanishing
(09, 12, 43)

Transition movement
(09, 43)

Ignoring
(12)

Cluster 7--Polite hinting
(17, 27, 32, 33, 41,
47, 52, 54, 59)

Closing statements
(41, 52, 54, 59)

Deferring conversation
(17, 32, 47)

Impending commitment
(33)

Agreeing
(27)

Cluster 8--Turning the table
(18, 53, 75, 76)

Turning the table
(18, 53, 75)

Impending commitment
(76)

Cluster 9--Closing statement
(22, 25, 50, 71)

Closing statement
(22, 50, 71)

Impending commitment
(25)

Cluster 10--Changing subjects
(36, 37, 56)

Changing subjects
(36, 37, 56)

Restlessness. This participant strategy combines all but one restlessness tactic, all diverting eye contact tactics, two of the four transition movement tactics, and one of eleven ignoring tactics from coder categories. All these tactics are actions that share a common perceptual implication. People may use these tactics to manifest their discontent with conversations from which they are trying to retreat.

Alternatively, messages such as "I may be physically conversing with you, however, my mind has already gone miles away" are implicitly conveyed by these overt behaviors. All tactics for the restlessness strategy are used as a function of a suggestion that people who enact these actions would or could no longer stay in the conversations.

Nonresponsiveness. The nonresponsiveness participant strategy consists of all tactics from short answers, eight of the eleven tactics from ignoring, and two of three tactics from the agreeing coder categories. The underlying factor for this strategy is delivered in three different ways. First, five tactics from the ignoring coder category in this nonresponsiveness cluster are those by which people simply do not backchannel. Second, tactics from the short answers coder category and the agreeing coder category as well as one tactic from the ignoring coder category are those by which people respond with superficial, pseudo or uninterested answers which virtually say nothing. Third, the rest of the tactics in this strategy are those by which people transmit the nonresponsiveness message through nonverbal channels. The clustering of all these tactics seems to imply that people perceive little difference between short answers and zero response.

Excuses. All of the deceiving tactics and five of the eight impending commitment tactics were combined with three of the six changing subject tactics plus one of the restless action tactics from the coder categories. The merger of the deceiving and impending commitment categories into the "excuses" cluster brings up an underlying assumption of conversational retreat behavior. One may argue that

when conversational retreat is the intention, a lie or a truth will make no difference: An excuse is an excuse regardless of the basis. The implication seems to be that while excuses may be politely accepted, the recipient is less likely to appreciate an excuse than several other forms of retreat strategies. Tactics from the changing subject coder category are those involving individuals' concern for the time constraint. This disparity in categorization may indicate that any verbal retreat tactic could be misinterpreted as an effort to change the subject of the conversation. It is also interesting to find that all the tactics in this strategy resort to the prevailing belief that people are so busy today that they are always running around the clock. Such belief makes all tactics in this strategy "perfect excuses" for conversational retreat.

Getting Third Party Help. As with the rudeness cluster, this cluster of getting third party help maintains the "third party" coder category intact. The one exception was the admission of tactic 8 (i.e., "I made little comments to people next to me while the person talked") from the ignoring coder category. Inspecting contents of all these tactics, one may suspect that the inclusion of this ignoring coder tactic resulted from random error.

Vanishing. The vanishing participant strategy contains two of the four transition movement tactics and one of the ignoring tactics from the coder categories. Unlike the two other tactics from the restlessness strategy, the two transition movement coder tactics (item 9 & 43) and the ignoring coder tactic (item 12) in the vanishing strategy are used in a more extreme way that makes retreating parties physically unavailable to their conversation partners.

Polite Hinting. All three tactics from the deferring conversation coder category merge into the polite hinting participant strategy with four of the eight tactics from closing statements, one of the tactics from impending commitment, and one of the tactics from the agreeing coder categories. All deferring conversation

tactics are used by which a retreating party voluntarily promise future interactions, while actually putting off the conversation. What is really said in the message is "I don't have time," or "I don't want to talk, now." The closing statement tactics included in this cluster are not as straightforward as those included in the closing statement participant strategy. Individuals use these indirect closing statements as well as the impending commitment tactic and the agreeing coder tactic clustered in this strategy in a fashion that maintains societal norms and yet still gets them out of the undesirable conversation.

Turning the Table. There are four tactics in the participant strategy of turning the table. Three of them are the tactics in the turning the table coder category which survived the analysis intact. The remaining one tactic is from the coder category of impending commitments. Examining the formation of this strategy on the icicle plot, one may find that the impending commitment tactic included in this strategy was paired with one of the turning the table coder tactics (item 75). The word, "tired," used in these two tactics may be the reason why they were grouped together in the midst of the clustering process. Otherwise, the inclusion of tactic 76 in this strategy may be a random result.

Closing Statement. Three out of the eight tactics from the closing statement coder category were grouped with one impending commitment tactic from the coder categories. As mentioned in the polite hinting strategy, the three closing statement tactics are those which directly wrap up conversations without beating around the bush. Direct cliché enders such as "bye" and "see you later" are addressed for conversational retreat use as well. Different from these direct tactics, the closing statement coder tactics that were grouped into the polite hinting strategy involve summary-like statements rather than direct closing statements. The point here appears to be that summary statements, like efforts at deferring conversations, may

only be a subtle intent the retreating party tries to convey. Such subtlety may result because summary statements and efforts to defer conversations tend to involve the simultaneous goal of preserving the future relationship between the interactants (Baxter, 1979). The impending commitment tactic (item 25, "I flat out explained that I was busy") was included among these three tactics due to the same factor, that is, its directness.

Changing Subjects. The changing subjects coder category split into two groups. One group merged into the excuses participant strategy while the other formed a cluster by itself, i.e., the changing subjects participant strategy. All changing subject tactics that remained in this strategy are tactics by which people make either explicit suggestions or implicit efforts to change subjects. As mentioned before, the three changing subjects coder tactics that were excluded from the changing subject participant strategy were more reasonably clustered in the excuses participant strategy.

Summary. Overall, this ten-cluster solution maintains three of the coder categories (the third party, rudeness, and turning the table) intact, splits three of the coder categories (the changing subject, closing statement, and transition movement) into six subgroups, and rearranges the remaining eight of the coder categories into six larger participant strategies.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter interprets the results reported in the previous chapter. Conclusions are drawn from the conversation ending literature; implications for various interpersonal communication theories are addressed; and, an examination of the cluster contents is made. Subsequently, this chapter provides a discussion of limitations of methodology and suggestions for future research.

Conclusion

The analysis supports a reduced form of the typology of conversational retreat strategies suggested by the coders as a team. The retreat typology contains ten strategies in three groups indicating how people retreat from conversations: Intentional signaling scheme (rudeness, excuses, polite hinting, turning the table, and closing statements), indirect cueing scheme (restlessness, nonresponsiveness, and vanishing), and shifting attentions scheme (getting third party help and changing subjects). These basic empirical properties of conversational retreat can be studied as a function of many other variables.

Discussion

Conversation Ending Literature

Compared to the findings in the conversational ending literature, all five verbal behaviors, summary, justification, continuity statements, well-wishing statements, and positive statements, confirmed by Albert and Kessler (1978), are found in the conversational retreat typology. Summary statements appear in the two subgroups for the closing statements and polite hinting participant strategies. Instead of forming three distinctive categories for conversational retreat strategy, continuity statements, well-wishing statements, and positive statements, as defined in the

conversational ending literature, are grouped together under the polite hinting participant strategy. Justification statements for ending conversations are represented by the excuses strategy found for conversational retreat. These findings indicate substantial overlap between conversational ending and retreat in at least three verbal behavior clusters. Moreover, people may have taken advantage of typical conversational ending behaviors to convey or facilitate their retreat attempts.

The nonverbal actions found in this study reflect some of the nonverbal components of leave-taking isolated by Knapp et al. (1973). Part of the restlessness strategy may be interpreted as involving the breaking eye contact and left positioning behaviors identified by Knapp and his colleagues in "the rhetoric of goodbye" (1973). Other nonverbal conversational ending behaviors such as major nodding movements, smiling, hand gestures, major leg movements, forward lean, leverage positions, and grooming are not obtained for conversational retreat in this study. The absence of these behaviors for conversational retreat may be ascribed to the total reliance on the retrospective interview technique. Participants might have not reported their retreat tactics in a discernible fashion. Or, some of the behaviors may be enacted beyond participants' awareness.

In particular, the distinction between the perceptions of conversational ending and conversational retreat is supported by the results of this study. Despite the overlap aforementioned, the rudeness, getting third party help, vanishing, and turning the table strategy are all not identified by the previous research efforts on closing segments of full term conversations. Further replications of this study are recommended to confirm the argument that conversational retreat is a different phenomenon from the final segment of a full term conversation, i.e., a typical conversational ending.

Implications for Interpersonal Communication Theories

The results of this study offer several theoretical insights and implications. A number of the strategies that emerged were predictable from one or more interpersonal communication theories or research areas. A few of the strategies are not easily accounted for and, therefore, will require further theoretic and empirical examination.

Rudeness. There are at least three situations under which people would be more likely to use the "rudeness" strategy when trying to retreat from conversations. Equity theory (Walster, Berscheid, & Walter, 1976) predicts that people would use the "rudeness" strategy as a means of equity restoration following a punishing conversation. The victim (who is kept from leaving a punishing conversation and wants to retreat) might be distressed enough to employ the "rudeness" strategy as a means of retaliation.

Besides equity theory, the attraction literature suggests that people might employ the "rudeness" strategy to get out of a conversation with someone they dislike very much. The perceived unattractiveness of a conversation partner could be associated with physical appearance (Berscheid & Walster, 1974), negative impressions of behavior (Marston, 1976), or perceived dissimilarity (Byrne, 1969).

People who anticipate no future interaction would be more likely to use the "rudeness" strategy. People were found to be more attracted to and attend to persons they expected to meet again (Tyler & Sears, 1977). The degree of unattractiveness may have to reach the point that the retreating parties do not want to have anything to do with their partners.

Nonresponsiveness. Several interpersonal communication theories may explain differential use of the "nonresponsiveness" strategy. First, uncertainty reduction theory (Berger & Calabrese, 1975) suggests that people might use the

"nonresponsiveness" strategy to retreat from a conversation where uncertainty is high. On the other hand, the retreating party may try to create a high level of uncertainty in order to facilitate termination of the conversation.

Second, the social exchange theories suggest that people would use the "nonresponsiveness" strategy in order to make a conversation less rewarding. Those who feel like maintaining social politeness may respond with short or shallow answers in an effort to be less rewarding while others may just not respond as a way of punishing an undesirable partner.

Third, social penetration theory predicts that people will self-disclose at a superficial rather than an intimate level as they disengage from a conversation. Employing the "nonresponsiveness" strategy may be a means of establishing such a superficial level.

Finally, the association between attraction and self-disclosure (Chaikin & Derlega, 1974) could be tested by asking whether the retreating party, who uses the "nonresponsiveness" strategy, feels attracted toward his or her partner. The retreating party may even try to be nonresponsive in order to present himself or herself as an unattractive conversation partner.

Excuses. People use the "excuses" strategy as a way of covering up their intention of retreating from a conversation. Excuses are a special form of justifications. In closings, justifications are meant as explanatory and remain generally open to refutations (i.e., the conversational partner can reject the justification for the closing and present reasons for why the conversation should continue). In retreat (as in other instances), an excuse is closed to refutations. The partner is expected only to accept the excuse as valid.

Excuses could also have been predicted from several other interpersonal communication theories. Taking a social exchange approach, excuses tend to remove threat of loss of an interpersonal resource (e.g., affection) by the partner being retreated from. Attribution theorists interpret excuses as a function of offering a situational attribution for the retreat behavior so that a partner will not make a negative dispositional attribution for the retreat. According to the attraction researchers, excuses are made in order not to hurt an attractive other's feelings or the attractiveness of selves.

Getting Third Party Help. The entrance of a third party could be subjected to two different interpretations. The inclusion of a third party may suggest a more attractive alternative besides the dyad. The theory proposed by Thibaut and Kelly (1959) could be tested by giving an unattractive alternative as the third party. Alternatively, the intrusion of a third party may force the dyadic situation to dissolve. The possible disruptive effects of the entrance of a third party on a dyadic encounter have been noted by Simmel (1950) and Albert and Kessler (1976).

Vanishing. By employing the "vanishing" strategy, people shut off information exchange. This strategy could be used to signal the inaccessibility of the retreating party and the resources he or she possesses. Since no more resources are available to the other person, he or she would probably make it easier for the retreating party to get out of the conversation.

Turning the Table. We could look at this strategy from two different perspectives. One is the attributional perspective, and the other is the equity perspective. Adopting the attributional perspective, the retreating party may use the "turning the table" strategy making the other person take the blame for discontinuing the conversation. By making a dispositional attribution about the conversational partner (e.g., "you look tired"), one may even be considered very thoughtful despite the real intent.

Viewed from a different angle, this strategy could be employed to test the prediction made by the equity theorists (Walster, Berscheid, & Walster, 1976) about one of the mechanisms the harm-doer may use to restore equity. The harm-doer is said to provide the victim with compensation to ease the distress he or she feels. By using the "turning the table" strategy, the retreating party may provide the partner (in this case, "victim") with compensation by assuming the victim role.

Closing Statements. Tactics in this strategy involve using typical conversation enders to elicit reciprocal responses from a conversation partner. The reciprocity norm suggested by social penetration researchers would be one explanation. It has been found that as one communicator increases or decreases the level of self-disclosure or intimacy, the other reciprocates (Spiritas & Holmes, 1971; Cozby, 1972). Given that the behavior of one member of a dyad is mirrored by the other member, closing statements would be an effective choice to attain one's goal of retreat.

Changing Subjects. Tactics reported for the "changing subjects" strategy in this study are somewhat abstract. No specific information is given about the direction of topic shifts. Thus, the prediction drawn from social penetration theory that people initiate a topic shift from intimate to superficial levels to accomplish a conversation retreat is not confirmed since no specific information is reported on the changing subjects tactics. Similarly, an empirical observation may be necessary to verify the explanation offered by social exchange theorists that people may change subjects to an obviously boring or weird topic as a conversation retreat strategy.

Conclusion.

Basically, decision on strategy uses seem to be based on the degree to which one wants to be socially appropriate and the degree to which one wants to be efficient in winding up a given conversation. The dilemma here hinges on the relationship between means and ends. Social appropriateness concerns the methods used to

attain goals while efficiency emphasizes the goals themselves. In information-seeking situations these two dimensions have been found to be competing predictors (Berger & Kellermann, 1983; Kellermann & Berger, 1984). A similar competitive choice may be invoked in the decision to attempt conversational retreat. Sequence demands encourage interactants to behave in socially appropriate ways so that they may compromise efficiency and appropriateness when selecting among conversational retreat strategies. The rudeness strategy, for example, is less likely to be employed unless other alternatives have been exhausted during initial conversational retreat attempts.

Moreover, as with anticipation of future interaction, the desire to be polite is important in conversational retreat in order to maintain access to potential future relationships. On the contrary, more direct strategies may be utilized when future interaction is not desired. The vanishing strategy, for example, is common in a stranger-to-stranger situation although it is socially prohibited even within an acquaintance relationship.

A two-dimensional graph of the ten clusters of conversational retreat strategies embedded in three conceptual schemes found in this study is hypothetically made along the two measures: social appropriateness and efficiency. As Figure 4 illustrates, the intentional signaling scheme (rudeness, excuses, polite hinting, turning the table, and closing statements) seems to overlap the appropriate and efficient section and the inappropriate and efficient section of the plot. First, the excuses, polite hinting, and closing statements strategies, being part of the conversational ending ritual, are naturally socially appropriate. One can easily tell the level of appropriateness associated with these three strategies from their labels. The closing statements strategy is acceptable, while the excuses strategy seems to be more appropriate and the polite hinting strategy the most appropriate. Among all these

FIGURE 4
2-DIMENSIONAL PLOT OF
SOCIAL APPROPRIATENESS AND EFFICIENCY

three strategies, closing statements would be the most efficient one due to its assertive nature. The excuses strategy seems to be more efficient than the polite hinting strategy since the desire to leave the conversation is out in the open by making excuses rather than by some subtle hints. Second, the turning the table strategy is the one by which a retreating party might even be considered thoughtful, thus indicating high social appropriateness. The efficiency level of turning the table strategy seems to sit between the polite hinting and the excuses strategies. The intent to close a conversation is revealed by making excuses for others, while such excuses would more likely to be turned down in return. Finally, the rudeness strategy seems to be as efficient as the closing statements strategy, although socially prohibited.

The indirect cueing scheme (restlessness, nonresponsiveness, and vanishing) is hypothetically plotted across the efficient to inefficient section within the inappropriate section. Except some tactics in the nonresponsiveness strategy, other tactics from this indirect cueing scheme are those "don't" behaviors which we are forbidden starting at an early age. The nonresponsiveness strategy is placed across the border of appropriateness and inappropriateness because there are still efforts at maintaining politeness in some of the tactics. The vanishing strategy is more inappropriate, but more efficient than the restlessness strategy since the physical accessibility of one person is denied. Given the feature of being passive, subtle, or indirect, the restlessness and nonresponsiveness strategies by which one allows the other person to take over the role of decision maker, which in turn, leave one with less power in attaining one's goal (i.e., effective retreat).

The shifting attention scheme (getting third party help and changing subjects) is hypothetically placed across the efficient and inefficient section on the appropriate side of the plot. The characteristics of subtlety embedded in these tactics makes this scheme socially appropriate. Nevertheless, the imposition of a third party may

possess more power to reinforce a conversational retreat than did changing subjects strategy. Changing subjects strategy is considered inefficient unless transition links are carefully planned, which is generally not the case.

Methodological Limitations

Instrument

The most serious limitation of this study is the reliance on the retrospective interview technique. The descriptions generated could represent cultural and sociological stereotypes rather than objective accounts of dyadic behavior. This weakness may be supplemented by observation on actual conversational retreat behaviors which will provide information about conversational retreat strategies beyond the range of participants' awareness.

Improvements in wording the question should have been made. The same problem happened in the follow-up questions for the validation stage. The first question on the follow-up questionnaire was designed to detect possible contamination effects produced by the questionnaire administered at stage one. This information was ignored because some respondents indicated confusion about what was wanted. Participants wondered whether "the first phase of this project" was the very phase in which they were participating. Another reason for neglecting this information is that only 15 out of 243 subjects circled the answer "yes," indicating their participation in the previous survey. There is no distinct difference in categorization results between those who participated in both exemplar elicitation and validation stages and those who only participated in the validation stage. Moreover, the participants categorized the tactics before they answered this question.

Research Procedures

A major shortcoming in the research procedures involves the timing of data collection. The survey for the validation stage was conducted during the time final examinations were in progress at the university. Although some of the participants were given extra-credit as a motivation, participant fatigue or distraction may still have been a factor.

Coder fatigue is another factor that needs to be considered. First, the duration of the coding stage was extended over a month. Second, the categorization step was performed near the end of the semester. Given that coders were from an upper-division course, the pressure of up-coming final examinations and term papers might have affected the coders' judgment. For example, coders seemed to overcollapse tactics related to time constraints into the category of changing subjects, which did not seem to fit. One example could be found with the misclassification of tactic 76, "I said, 'I am tired,'" in the impending commitment category which focuses on obligations to something or someone else.

A third limitation to the research procedure is that the researcher speaks English as a second language. Thus, it is possible that some participants may have had difficulty following the verbal instructions, or understanding answers to their questions.

Participants

Greater generalizability of the results could have been achieved if the sample had included a broader dispersion of subjects across ranges of population demographics. While the sample for this study represents college students who work and come from a wide range of cultural backgrounds, one may suspect a difference in the selection of conversational retreat strategies used by an older age group or from those outside academics.

Suggestions for Future Research

Despite all of the effort made above in interpreting the results, replication tests of this typology are recommended. Not until this typology is replicated across different samples can its generalizability be properly tested.

Data from the stage of eliciting conversational retreat descriptions indicated differences in tactic effectiveness. While some respondents reported a series of conversational retreat tactics, others reported only single ones. In addition, the reasons provided for why certain tactics were selected appear to be two-fold along the competitive choice between social appropriateness and efficiency. These two dimensions have been found to be competing predictors in information-seeking situations (Berger & Kellermann, 1983; Kellermann & Berger, 1984; Douglas, 1987). A simple paper and pencil test on the proposed typology in terms of these two predictors may reveal more information about the retreat strategies obtained in this study. Besides such self-report information, one may observe how people actually act with different goals in mind by asking participants to retreat from a conversation in either an efficient or a socially appropriate way. Results from these studies will be complementary to each other.

When examining the efficiency vs. social appropriateness of conversational retreat strategies, an additional consideration in the choice of how to retreat may rest on the relationships between interactants. Although no significant difference between friend and stranger conditions was found in the conversational ending literature (i.e., Knapp et al., 1973), future research on this relationship variable is suggested for two reasons. On one hand, strangers may retreat in the way acceptable to the social norms while friends may retreat in an unique way based on previously established trust and respect. On the other hand, strangers who anticipate no future encounter may retreat in a more blunt way than may friends.

These potential, underlying dimensions, i.e., between friends vs. strangers or efficiency vs. appropriateness may be among the first criteria communicators use when determining how to retreat. A further exploration of what is the most frequently used strategy, the sequence of strategies (when more than one strategy is needed), or the most frequently used tactic for each strategy in different given contexts (i.e., high vs. low status, gender compositions, conversation structure) might provide useful information about how people go about the retreat tactic selection process. First, strategies that are most socially appropriate may be those that are most frequently used. When more than one strategy is necessary, individuals may start using strategies along two parallel scales, that is, from those perceived as socially appropriate to those as socially inappropriate, and from those perceived as indirect to those as direct. Second, people are taught to adapt to a variety of situations, each of which is marked by varied demands. For example, the restlessness strategy reported in this study would less likely be employed in an interview situation where more rigid structure is prescribed. Justifications would be used more often in unstructured conversations, due to the absence of obvious sources of internal motivation (task-specific) for terminating. Additionally, retreat communication may be seen as a persuasive task or as a conflict situation (i.e., one wants to leave but the other does not). Persuasion researchers may wish to explore retreat strategy effectiveness. Conflict and negotiation researchers should be interested in the specifics of how retreat behaviors affect conflict management or negotiation efforts. With its embedded withdrawal elements, retreat behavior may be considered more destructive than constructive for conflict management efforts.

Certainly some effort should be made to examine varied contexts for conversational retreats. Actual dyadic behaviors may differ from the accounts provided in this study. As previously reported, some actual dyadic behaviors may not

be within the range of participants' awareness. It would also be interesting to compare retreat from dyads vs. small groups or social, formal, work, and accidental encounters. For example, one might argue that it would be easier to retreat from a small group than from a dyadic situation since "only two can meet without distraction" (Simmel, 1950, p. 136). One could also argue that people would be more likely to retreat by referring to the context inside a formal conversation than referring to the context outside an accidental conversation, based on the social appropriateness criterion.

The conversational retreat typology suggests that not only do people retreat from conversations but also that they have a rich repertoire of how to go about it. This study is but the first step in the hierarchy of exploration of the conversational retreat phenomenon. Further research should allow us to look more precisely for the behavioral correlates of that process and to understand why and when people might choose to retreat from conversations.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
CONVERSATION PATTERN:
FREQUENCY, AFFECT, AND EFFORT

Conversation Pattern: Frequency, Affect, and Effort

A survey on communication patterns was conducted to complement the lack of information on the frequency of conversational retreat phenomena and the effects caused by the occurrence of such phenomena.

Sample

A total of 83 volunteers participated in this preliminary study. Most were from undergraduate courses in the Communication Studies Department at San Jose State University. A group of 18 graduate students in a graduate statistics course were recruited to broaden the age group. The sample size was based upon having at least 25 respondents for each version of the questionnaire.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire on perception of conversation patterns was designed to obtain information about the frequency and effects of conversational retreat behaviors. A seven-point agree-disagree scale was employed with 9 Likert-type items which represent the three dimensions of frequency, affect, and effort for conversational retreat behaviors. There were three versions of the questionnaire which focus on the perceptions of self, conversation partners, or people in general. Following the Likert-type scales, eleven simple questions about the respondents' daily conversation frequency, the likelihood of conversational retreat behavior, the likelihood to retreat while talking with females or males, average numbers of strangers they talk to in a week, the numbers of friends they have, and demographic background information (i.e., gender, age, ethnic group, status, and living situation) were included in the questionnaire (see Appendix A-I).

Procedure

This survey was administered by the course instructors. Three different versions for each focus (self, conversation partners, or people in general) were randomly distributed. A modified consent form was stapled on the top of the questionnaire. After signing the consent form (which indicates their agreement to participate), volunteers completed the questionnaire within 5-10 minutes. Full instructions were provided on the first page of the questionnaire. The consent form and the questionnaire booklet were collected separately in order to ensure confidentiality.

Data Analysis

Responses to the nine Likert scales for the three dimensions of perceptions of early conversational retreat behaviors were submitted to confirmatory factor analysis in order to examine the intended dimensionality of frequency, affect, and effort of conversational retreat. In addition, single factor analysis of variance was performed to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference in the perception of conversational retreat behaviors among the three foci (self, other, and people in general). Finally, correlations between each item of the scales and each of the demographic variables were performed.

Results

The factor analysis of the 9-item Likert scale did not support a three factor solution for conversational retreat frequency, affect, and effort. While this result may be a function of sample size (only 83 participants while 200 or more would be preferable), it seems clear in hindsight that the individual scale construction was poor. Reliabilities for the three intended factors were very weak: Frequency (items 1, 2, & 5. See questionnaire in the back of this appendix) $r = .52$, affect (item 3, 6, & 8) $r = .57$, effort (item 4, 7, & 9) $r = .21$. Therefore, only individual item results will be reported.

Retreat Frequency. The participants reported that they have an average of 25.6 (sd = 9.5) conversations a day and that an average of 8.8 out of 20 conversations ended by their retreating (45%). Put in other terms, these data suggest that people retreat from about 10 conversations a day.

For the perception of how "often" retreat occurs (item 1), these data indicate that partners ($M = 3.0$) were seen as less likely to "often" attempt retreat than people in general ($M = 4.36$) or the actor ($M = 5.07$; $F = 11.65$, $df = 2/80$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .06$). In addition, the more conversations a day a person has, the less that person thinks that retreat occurs often ($r = -.44$).

For the perception that conversants are "usually" ready to finish conversations at the same time (item 2), these data indicate that partners ($M = 5.2$) were seen as more likely to end conversations at the same time than were actors ($M = 4.82$) and actors as more likely to reach simultaneous conclusions than people in general ($M = 3.14$; $F = 14.66$, $df = 2/80$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .27$). In addition, the more friends a person claims, the more that person thinks that people usually end conversations at the same time ($r = .42$). But, the more people a person lives with, the less that person thinks conversational partners are usually ready to finish a conversation at the same time ($r = -.54$).

For the perception that conversations "rarely" continue past the point wanted (item 5), these data indicate that the participants thought that their partners ($M = 5.1$) were more likely to see conversational extensions as rare than did the participants themselves (actors, $M = 4.1$) or people in general ($M = 3.2$; $F = 9.19$, $df = 2/80$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .19$). In other words, the participants thought that partners see fewer retreats than do actors and actors see fewer retreats than do people in general.

A general pattern appears in these findings: The participants think that their partners do not retreat often, usually end conversations when expected, and rarely think that conversations go beyond where they (the partners) want them to. For the actor, retreat is engaged in often, but they (the actors) usually end conversations when expected and rarely think that conversations go beyond where they (the actors) want them to. People in general retreat regularly (but not often), but they (people in general) usually fail to end conversations when expected and typically think that conversations go beyond where they (people in general) want them to. In short, compared to people in general, the participants think that they and their partners are pretty good at conversational endings (while the participants still must retreat often).

Retreat Affect. The central question asked here is: How do people feel about retreat events? The answer from this study is provided by data on the experience of discomfort, insult, and guilt associated with retreat behaviors.

For the perception that retreat makes a person feel "uncomfortable" (item 3), actors ($M = 5.5$) and people in general ($M = 5.7$) were more likely to experience discomfort than were the participants' partners ($M = 3.7$; $F = 17.29$, $df = 2/80$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .30$). This difference, however, seems to be mediated by the number of strangers a person talks to in a week: The more strangers talked to in a week, the more conversational partners are perceived to be uncomfortable with retreat ($r = .48$).

The participants in the study indicated the perception that retreat is "rude" (item 6; $M = 4.55$, mode = 6.0). The perception of the rudeness of retreat is, however, mediated by the number of people a person lives with ($r = -.41$).

Feelings of guilt (item 8) resulting from retreat were perceived to be stronger for people in general ($M = 4.9$) than for conversational partners ($M = 3.7$) and actors ($M = 4.0$; $F = 3.71$, $df = 2/80$, $p < .03$, $r^2 = .09$). The perception of guilt was

also affected by the number of strangers talked to a week ($r = -.44$), the age of the person making the judgment ($r = -.43$), the number of friends ($r = .48$ for perception of partners' guilt; $r = -.49$ for perceptions that people in general feel guilt).

These data tend to support the conclusion that the participants perceived their conversational partners as experiencing less affect (discomfort and guilt) than do people in general. In addition, the data indicate that the more communication experiences a person has (friends, talking to strangers, age, and persons lived with), the less likely one is to feel negative affects from retreat but the more likely the person is to think that partners feel such affects.

Retreat Effort. Perceptions of the effort (item 4), awkwardness (item 7) and simplicity (item 9) varied substantially. Much of this variance, however, was due to measurement error rather than perceptions of effort.

The effort required for retreat was perceived to be higher for people in general ($M = 5.6$) than for actors ($M = 4.7$) or partners ($M = 4.6$; $F = 3.27$, $df = 2/80$, $p = .043$, $r^2 = .08$). Females ($M = 5.26$) were more likely to see retreat as requiring effort than were males ($M = 4.69$; $F = 4.97$, $df = 1/80$, $p = .03$). Perceptions that retreat required effort were negatively associated with age of the respondent ($r = -.44$) and the number of people a person lives with ($r = -.41$).

The view that retreat is an awkward activity is associated with the number of friends ($r = .39$). Being older, however, seems to decrease the perceptions of retreat awkwardness ($r = -.57$). It is worth noting here that the older a person is, the more that person engages in retreat (number of retreats out of 20 conversations; $r = .57$).

Perceptions of the simplicity of retreat were clouded by the reference to a cavalier apology in the question ("I simply say something like 'sorry.'"). Indeed, in hindsight the wording of the question is so ambiguous that the results could only be misleading.

Discussion

Despite some serious measurement problems with this pilot study, there are a few general conclusions that are suggested. First, people are very much aware of the difference between conversational retreat and the more typical conversational ending. Second, conversational retreat is a fairly common communication event. Third, there are actor vs. observer vs. norm perception effects in the views held for retreat behavior. Actors engage in retreat with mixed affective reactions but without extensive effort. Conversational partners are thought not to engage in retreat and, when they do, not to feel much affect or extend much effort. People in general, however, suffer from and must work at retreat even though they engage in retreat regularly. Finally, a person's amount of communication experience or opportunity has an impact on perceptions of retreat frequency, affect, and effort.

These findings are encouraging for the future study of conversational retreat. The theoretic potential and empirical difficulties for studying retreat have just begun to emerge in the data set reported here.

I: Questionnaire on Conversational Patterns

Instructions: We are interested in your perceptions about conversation ending behaviors focused on (targets)*. For each statement on the next page circle the number that best represents your response. Circle numbers according to the following meaning: Circle 1 if you strongly agree with the statement; circle 2 if you moderately agree with the statement; circle 3 if you slightly agree with the statement; circle 4 if you neither agree nor disagree with the statement; circle 5 if you slightly disagree with the statement; circle 6 if you moderately disagree with the statement; circle 7 if you strongly disagree with the statement. Please work quickly but carefully. We are interested in your FIRST response to each statement. Please be sure to respond to each statement and question. Thank you for your assistance.

*Targets-- Self
Conversation partners
People, in general

(continued on next page)

(* Self Version)**1 = Strongly agree****4 = Neither agree nor disagree****7 = Strongly disagree****Circle one number for each statement.**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I have often tried to end a conversation even though the other person wanted to continue.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I am usually ready to finish a conversation at the same time as my conversation partner.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I always feel uncomfortable terminating conversation when the other person is still enthusiastic about it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 It usually takes little effort for me to get out of conversations with others before they want to end the conversations.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I rarely feel that conversations are continuing past the point I want them to.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I consider it rude to try to conclude a conversation when others still feel like talking.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 It is awkward for me to end conversations before others are ready to end the conversations.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I feel guilty when I try to "escape" from a conversation.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I simply say something like "sorry" before I leave a conversation with others when they are still interested in talking.

(continued on next page)

(* Conversation Partners Version)

1 = Strongly agree

4 = Neither agree nor disagree

7 = Strongly disagree

Circle one number for each statement.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Others have often tried to end the conversations with me even though I wanted to continue.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Others usually are ready to finish conversations with me at the same time I do.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 My conversation partners seem uncomfortable terminating conversations with me when I am still enthusiastic about the conversations.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Others find it easy to get out of their conversations with me before I want to end the conversations.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Others rarely feel that conversations with me are continuing past the point they want the conversations to.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 My conversation partners consider it rude for them to conclude conversations with me when I still feel like talking.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 It is awkward for my conversation partner to end our conversation before I am ready for it to end.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Others feel guilty when they try to "escape" from a conversation with me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Others simply say something like "sorry" before they leave a conversation with me when I am still interested in talking with them.

(continued on next page)

(* People in General Version)

- 1 = Strongly agree
 4 = Neither agree nor disagree
 7 = Strongly disagree

Circle one number for each statement.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People, in general, often try to end a conversation even though others want to continue.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People usually are ready to finish a conversation at the same time as their conversation partner.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People generally feel uncomfortable terminating a conversation when the other person is still enthusiastic about it.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People, in general, find it easy to get out of a conversation with another before the conversation is completed.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People rarely feel that conversations are continuing past the point they want the conversations to.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People, in general, consider it rude to try to conclude a conversation when others still feel like talking.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People, in general, find it awkward to end conversations before the other person is ready to end the conversations.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People, in general, feel guilty when they try to "escape" from a conversation.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 People, in general, simply say something like "sorry" before they leave a conversation with others who are still interested in talking.

(continued on next page)

Please answer the following questions:

1. How many times a day would you say that you have conversations with others? _____ times a day.
2. Across 20 conversations you are likely to have, how many times would you say that you want to end them before the other does? _____ (number) of 20 conversations.
3. Are you more likely to want to end a conversation early when you are: (circle on answer below)
A) talking with females
B) talking with males
C) doesn't matter
4. About how many strangers do you talk to in a week? _____ (number) strangers.
5. What is your gender? (circle one) FEMALE MALE
6. How old are you? _____ years old.
7. What is your ethnic group? (circle one below)
Black Chinese Japanese Mexican-American
Vietnamese White Other _____.
8. Approximately how many friends do you have? _____ friends.
9. Are you married? (circle one) YES NO
10. How many people do you live with right now? _____ persons.
11. Do you live with your family? (circle one) YES NO

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE ON CONVERSATIONAL ENDINGS

**Questionnaire on
Conversation Endings**

PLEASE, take a moment to recall the last time you were in a conversation with (type of relationship)*, where you wanted to get out of the conversation before the normal end. Be sure you recall an event like the one above and have the event clearly in mind before you proceed to the next page. Please work by yourself and remember to turn it in after you have finished. Thank you for your assistance.

* Types of relationship-- a friend or a close friend
a stranger or an acquaintance

(to be continued)

Please describe all the attempts you made to get out of the conversation. Be specific and detailed as possible.

What are the reasons for you choosing to get out of the conversation in the ways you describe above?

APPENDIX C
TRAINING MATERIALS

I: Coding Procedures

1. The purpose of these procedures is to identify the tactics in the description provided by respondents and make it easier and clearer for coders in step two to place the tactics on separate index cards.
2. Please do NOT do the coding while you are tired or preoccupied.
3. Read the description completely and ignore grammatical errors.
4. Please use a red pencil to do the coding.
5. Underline "phone" if it was specified as a telephone conversation.
e.g. She called me on the phone.
It was with a friend over the phone.
6. Identify each ending tactic by bracketing the self-actions in the descriptions. Number (next to the bracket) each tactic in sequence.
e.g. (1)[I ignored him] and (2)[walked away.]
7. When there are multiple acts in one single sentence, underline the pronoun (I) and verb to make sense for coders in step two.
e.g. [I said sorry, really can't talk now,] [good-bye.]
8. Code by yourself. You should be able to code the tactics independently and consistently after the training session.
9. Do not talk with anyone else about your coding until we are done coding.
10. If there is any difficulty or uncertainty in deciding what to code and what not to code, try your best to finish coding and place a mark (*) on the sheet that you have difficulty coding. We will deal with the problems during the discussion sessions.
11. Disagreement on coding procedures and rules will be brought up and resolved during the training sessions and the group discussion sessions.
12. Coders will be subjected to retraining whenever a substantial problem evolves.
13. Fill the phrase you code in the blank below to see whether the whole sentence makes sense to you or not. If yes, you are on the right track.
_____ trying to end the conversation.

II: Coding Rules

What is a tactic in ending a conversation? (with examples of [what to code] and what not to code)

1. A tactic must be done by the person "I", rather than the behavior of the other.

e.g. [I stopped looking at him] and he turned away.

Whenever [I moved away], he followed me.

[My response was "I don't care."]

2. An ending tactic must be aimed at stopping the conversation.

e.g. [I stopped looking at him], though I still walked with him.

[I stopped looking at him], but did not move away.

3. A tactic must be an observable behavior rather than thoughts, emotion, intention, or feeling.

e.g. [I stopped looking at him] and thought he was through.

[I stopped looking at him] and got angry.

I was angry and [acted angrily.]

I wanted him to leave and [told him to leave.]

I hoped to scare him out of the conversation.

Exception to rule 3:

key words: "tried to" + specific observable behavior

e.g. [I tried to avoid eye contact.]

I tried to end the conversation by [acting preoccupied.]

4. A tactic must be a specific behavior which was actually enacted, rather than a general statement.

e.g. I used both verbal and nonverbal communication.

5. Each identifiable behavior should be counted separately.

Key words: and, or, because, if (conj. used to connect two phrases with similar meanings).

e.g. [I stopped looking at him] and [I asked him to leave.]

[I turned around] and [left.]

[I said "It is really nice to see you] and [be sure to call me for lunch."]

[I told her that she should find another place to sit]

or [she might have my seat] because [I was leaving.]

[I told him that I had to go] because [I promised to pick up my younger brother.]

[I told her that I had to go] if [I don't want to be late for my class.]

Exception to rule 5:

a. Examples given to illustrate an act would be counted as a single tactic. Key words: "such as", "like".

e.g. [I gave him short answers such as "yes," "no."

[I said something like "take care," "see you later,"]

hoping she will leave.

b. Action described using a phrase such as "shake and nod," or "yes or no", etc. should be coded as a single tactic.

e.g. [I gave little response by shaking and nodding my head.]

[I only answered with yes or no.]

III: Illustrative Coded Example

I didn't agree with what he said and began to feel frustrated. Then [I became less responsive] and [more and more disinterested]. I made myself sound and act exhausted, [yawning a lot.] [I only shook and nodded my head], but still looked at him in order not to offend him. He kept talking on and on. [I looked at my watch several times] hoping he would get the "hint." No such luck. [I jumped in the middle of his talking] and [said "I would like to talk longer but I have to go now."] He said, "well, let me walk with you." I couldn't refuse but [didn't say anything], and [walked toward the parking lot.] I was really annoyed with him, so [I picked up my pace] trying to lose him. He kept following me and asking questions. [I gave him the answers he wanted] hoping he would be satisfied and leave. It didn't work. Finally [I said something like "I'm really tired of listening to all that," or "I don't want to talk anymore."] This surprised him and he said "Is there anything wrong?" I was kind of feeling guilty although I did not do anything wrong. [I said "nothing."] He asked again. I had to make excuses by [mentioning all the things I had to do by that evening.] Thank God! at that moment I saw my good friend Jennie walking toward us. She knew I didn't like the guy so she said, "I was just looking for you. I need to pick up something at your house, remember? And didn't you say you need to pick up your brother after school?" [I said, "Yeah, I almost forgot it."] Quickly [I apologized to the guy] and [said " You see, I really have to run now,] [I forgot I have to pick up my younger brother before I go home.] [We will talk soon."] [I then pulled my key out of my pocket] and [ran to my car with Jennie.]

IV: Coding Aid

- * An ending tactic is a behavior, verbal or nonverbal, which is employed to end a conversation or to try to get out of a conversation.

Tips:

When you find a tactic to code, PLEASE ASK YOURSELF THE TWO

FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

1. Did this person do this trying to end the conversation?

2. Did this person say this trying to end the conversation?

-- If your answers for both #1 & #2 are "NO," the tactic you think you are going to code is NOT what we are

looking for. (i.e., it is not a tactic as we have defined them).

-- If your answer for either #1 or #2 is "YES," ask yourself the third question:

3. Is the action described or the words this person said separable, under the condition of making sense?

If it is NOT separable, bracket it as one single tactic.

If it is separable, please bracket them separately.

V: Instructions for Coding Step III: Categorization

Phase One: Eliminating Duplicate Tactics

Criteria:

1. A duplicate tactic is defined as one that is near identical in wording to another tactic.
2. Whenever in doubt, a tactic should not be eliminated.

Phase Two: Categorizing Tactics into Strategies

Criteria:

1. Please divide the tactics into own categories that make sense to you.
2. Tactics will be sorted into strategies based on between tactic similarity.
3. Define the strategies.

Phase Three: Discussion

1. Resolve the disagreement in categorization.
2. Ranking

APPENDIX D
SURVEY ON CATEGORIZATION OF
RETREAT TACTICS FROM CONVERSATIONS

I: Recording Sheets

Recording Sheet: P.1[illegible]

II: Follow-up Questions

Please answer the following questions

1. Did you participate in the first phase of this project by providing a description of a conversation retreat?

(circle one) Yes No

2. Across 20 conversations you typically have, how many times would you say that you want to end them early

before the other person does?

_____ out of 20 conversations.

3. What is your gender? (circle one) Male Female

4. How old are you? _____ years old.

5. Are you married? (circle one) Yes No

6. What is your ethnic group? (circle one below)

Black Chinese Japanese Mexican-American

Vietnamese White Other _____.

7. Do you work? (circle one) Yes No

If yes, what is your profession? _____.

**Survey on Categorization of
Retreat Tactics from Conversations**

We are interested in the ways people try to get out of an unwanted conversation with others. We are searching for answers to the question, "What strategies do people use to try to 'escape' from a conversation which they do not want to continue?" We would like to ask for your assistance in categorizing the retreat tactics selected from descriptions provided by a group of respondents. Please read and follow the instructions below carefully.

**Instructions on
Categorization of Retreat Tactics from Conversations**

1. Take out the index cards in the envelope and read each of them carefully and completely.
2. Please divide the retreat tactics on the index cards into piles which make sense to you, based on your perception of between tactic similarity. Put the cards you think are similar in content into the same pile. Whenever a card content is different from the others, start a new pile. Please take your time to group the retreat tactics that resemble each other together and separate those that are distinctive.
3. There is no right or wrong answer for your categorization. You may have anywhere between one to forty categories. You could create as many or as few categories as you feel like.
4. After you finish categorizing the tactics into piles, place a rubber band (from the envelope) around each pile.

5. Please use the recording sheet to indicate how you categorized the tactics. Please do not write on the index cards.
 - a. Take one pile of the index cards,
 - 1) Recheck it to make sure that the tactics are similar to each other.
 - 2) Place the number from the front of each index card in that pile on the "recording sheet" line for "Group 1."
 - 3) Please write the numbers clearly.
 - 4) Place the rubber band back around the pile.
 - 5) Place the pile with the rubber band back into the envelope.
 - b. Take another pile of the index cards,
 - 1) Recheck it to make sure that the tactics are similar to each other.
 - 2) Place the number from the front of each index card in that pile on the "recording sheet" line for "Group 2."
 - 3) Please write the numbers clearly.
 - 4) Place the rubber band back around the pile.
 - 5) Place the pile with the rubber band back into the envelope.
 - c. Follow the same procedures described above until you have completed recording all of the piles you have created on the recording sheet.
 - d. Only use the number of group lines that match the number of categories you created.
6. When you are done, please take a "Follow-up Questions" sheet from the front of the room, complete it, and place the completed form in the envelope.
7. Turn in the envelope to the researcher.