

A corpus-based analysis of potential linguistic indicators of corporate deception in tobacco industry documents

Cati Brown-Johnson, Donald Rubin

Abstract Introduction: To more fully understand the impact of specific language attributes on deception in corporate communication, we used a stratified random sample of tobacco industry documents to test a small number of individual potential automated linguistic indicators of corporate deception: cognitive-emotional verbs, allness and superlative terms, nonbinding verbs, and group mentality. Methods: Texts from the Tobacco Documents Corpus were categorized by audience addressed (industry internal/external) and company of origin, and compared for incidence of the deceptive language indicators. Results: Cognitive-emotional verbs were strongly associated with likely deception and most prevalent for external audiences and documents produced by the Tobacco Institute, an industry front group. Cognitive-emotional verbs include *believe*, *think*, *seem*, *feel* and *realize*, in opposition to action verbs (e.g. *throw*). Discussion: Linguistic measurements of cognitive-emotional verbs may help pinpoint deceptive and misleading corporate communication. Verb choice and the use of different classes of verbs may reflect corporate linguistic deception.

2 **A corpus-based analysis of potential linguistic indicators of corporate deception in tobacco**
3 **industry documents**

4 Running head: Linguistic Indicators of Deception

5 Cati G Brown-Johnson, PhD
6 Stanford Prevention Research Center, Stanford University, Stanford, California, USA

7
8 Donald L Rubin, PhD
9 Center for Health and Risk Communication, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, USA

10
11 Corresponding Author: Cati Brown-Johnson, Stanford Prevention Research Center, 1265 Welch Rd, Palo Alto,
12 CA 94305; Email:catibj@stanford.edu; Work telephone: 650-497-4397.
13

15 **Abstract**

16 Introduction: To more fully understand the impact of specific language attributes on deception in
17 corporate communication, we used a stratified random sample of tobacco industry documents to test a
18 small number of individual potential automated linguistic indicators of corporate deception: cognitive-
19 emotional verbs, allness and superlative terms, nonbinding verbs, and group mentality.

20 Methods: Texts from the Tobacco Documents Corpus were categorized by audience addressed
21 (industry internal/external) and company of origin, and compared for incidence of the deceptive
22 language indicators.

23 Results: Cognitive-emotional verbs were strongly associated with likely deception and most prevalent
24 for external audiences and documents produced by the Tobacco Institute, an industry front group.
25 Cognitive-emotional verbs include *believe*, *think*, *seem*, *feel* and *realize*, in opposition to action verbs
26 (e.g. *throw*).

27 Discussion: Linguistic measurements of cognitive-emotional verbs may help pinpoint deceptive and
28 misleading corporate communication. Verb choice and the use of different classes of verbs may reflect
29 corporate linguistic deception.

30

32 INTRODUCTION

33 Evidence from tobacco industry documents warrants the conclusion that the tobacco industry
34 has used deception and unethical business and marketing practices to perpetrate a variety of activities
35 that are illegal and endanger public health, including marketing to youth (Cummings et al. 2002a),
36 marketing “light” cigarettes as healthful (Pollay & Dewhirst 2002), and controlling international
37 tobacco markets through black-market trade (Lee et al. 2004). Some recent studies have linked tobacco
38 industry practices that negatively affect public health to specific language strategies. Low-income
39 women have been targeted by tobacco companies with more easily-comprehensible language (Brown
40 2012). Tobacco companies have engineered associations between menthol and health with “health
41 reassurance” language such as the following tagline, “Breathe easy, clean smoke” (Anderson 2011).
42 Language choice was an important aspect of successfully launching “light” and “ultra-light” cigarettes
43 (Pollay & Dewhirst 2002); words used to market cigarettes in this genre (“light,” “low,” and “mild”)
44 have been deemed so misleading that the Family Smoking and Tobacco Control Act creating oversight
45 of tobacco by the US Federal Drug Administration banned their use (Sec. 911 of the Federal Food,
46 Drug, and Cosmetic Act).

47 Corporations can be expected to try to cover up their deceptive practices. Their attempts to hide
48 unsavory business practices will at some point most certainly include deceptive or misleading
49 communication with people or organizations outside their organization. Previous work in corpus
50 linguistics has shown that language variables can be crafted to uncover subtle stylistic differences
51 between texts, for example in attributing unknown authorship or automatically determining document
52 genre (Stamatatos et al. 2000). Furthermore, linguistic indicators have been shown to pick up on

53 “leaked” language cues of deception, but results of specific indicators vary; for example, modal verbs
54 have been shown to predict deception (Burgoon et al.) and hedging verbs have been associated with
55 fraudulent financial statements (Humpherys 2009).

56 Automated assessment of deception has been a holy grail within numerous fields - criminal
57 justice, accounting, business ethics - and great strides have been made in the last fifteen years towards
58 automated linguistic lie detectors. The computationally straightforward Linguistic Inquiry Word Count
59 computation program (Pennebaker & King 1999) was subsequently found to predict truthfulness or
60 deception in texts almost 70% of the time (Newman et al. 2003). More recently, linguistic assessments
61 of investment house telephone calls and emails successfully identified deceptive executives at a rate
62 greater than chance; deceptive executives used more extreme positive emotions, fewer anxiety words,
63 and talked less about shareholder value (Larcker & Zakolyukina 2012). Overall, a meta-analysis of
64 computer-assisted studies of deceptive language showed small but statistically significant effect sizes
65 (Hauch et al. 2012). Individual deceivers, then, whether petty thieves or CEOs, can likely be identified
66 by their language choices.

67 To test whether potential individual linguistic indicators of deception might be associated with
68 deceptive corporate documents, we assessed the instance of four linguistic indicators (allness and
69 superlative terms, group mentality, nonbinding verbs, and cognitive-emotional verbs) between likely
70 nondeceptive and likely deceptive text groups derived from publicly available tobacco industry
71 documents.

72 **Linguistic indicators of deception**

73 Deception has been defined as a “communicative act that is intended to induce in the addressee
74 a particular belief, by manipulating the truth and falsity of information” (Galasiński 2000:20). The

75 quintessential type of deception is outright lying, in which a speaker actively represents the opposite of
76 the truth (e.g., US President Richard Nixon's famous statement, "I am not a crook."), but other forms
77 of deception include evasion (not providing answers to a question), deception by omission
78 (withholding or concealing relevant information), and deception by obfuscation (overuse of jargon to
79 restrict comprehension) (Buller et al. 1994; Galasiński 2000). Any of these manifestations of
80 deception may be present in corporate contexts. Little research has been conducted on corporate
81 deception language, however. Therefore, a review of interpersonal deception literature (for details of
82 that review see Author1, 2006) was undertaken. This review identified four proposed indicators of
83 corporate fraud and deception: (1) allness and superlative terms, (2) group mentality, (3) nonbinding
84 verbs, and (4) cognitive-emotional verbs. These initial indicators test whether this type of approach
85 would be worth pursuing further within the corporate document repositories such as the Legacy
86 Tobacco Documents Library (LTDL), but they do not constitute an exhaustive set of deception
87 indicators.

88 Allness and superlative terms

89 Deception research asserts that superlative terms and superlatives often mark efforts to deceive
90 via exaggeration. *Always, never, nobody, worst* and *everybody* are mentioned as words that may
91 indicate deception (Lebaron 1996; Vrij 2000) Superlative terms mark communication that has an
92 absolutist position aligning with tobacco industry perception of having been 'singled out' for
93 legislative and judicial punitive attention (1993).

94 Group mentality

95 According to guidelines used by the United States Federal Bureau of Investigation agents in
96 profiling perpetrators of crimes, deceivers often speak in ways that try to enlarge the group they are in

97 (Hess 1997). They use more group inclusion words and fewer self-references, possibly in order to
98 distribute responsibility and distance or cushion themselves from individually assignable blame.

99 Linguistically, an enlargement of the group that you are in is most readily expressed by the use
100 of first person plural pronouns: *we*, *us*, *our*. Of course many referentially appropriate uses of first
101 person plural pronouns are present in everyday communication and speech, and may be commonly
102 used in corporate communication. However, a non-specific *we* can also diffuse responsibility for
103 negative outcomes and be associated with an identity of victimization (Zhou et al. 2004), as is evident
104 in some tobacco industry documents. For example, in a statement responding to a proposed cigarette
105 advertising ban, the President of Wholesale Tobacco Distributors of New York makes use of *we* to
106 enlarge his group's interest to include all people interested in personal freedom: "*We* are particularly
107 sensitive about restrictions on *our* freedom and liberties" (Bloomrosen 1969).

108 Nonbinding verbs

109 *Nonbinding verbs* refers to verb forms that are nonbinding from a legal sense. These verbs are
110 in opposition to *commissives* (Searle 1969), which by contrast are a form of performative speech-act
111 that *commits* or promises future action. Commissive verbs such as *will* and *shall* create an environment
112 of obligation (Searle 1969). Corporations involved in deception may avoid obligation and obscure their
113 future intentions so that they cannot be held responsible. Thus, language that does not promise and is
114 nonbinding from a legal sense is preferred.

115 Cognitive-emotional verbs

116 Cognitive and emotional language prioritizes *emotional* and *cognitive state* information as
117 opposed to *action-oriented* information. A heightened use of cognitive-emotional verbs allow the
118 tobacco industry to assert a position with respect to an issue from an emotive or opinion-centered

instead of factual point of view. The use of *believe* and other cognitive verbs such as *consider* (Lebaron 1996) steers tobacco companies away from making any statements about actions or behaviors that could subsequently be challenged (Derry & Brown 2005). For example, RJR invoked a science-denier position in a advertisement entitled “Of cigarettes and science”: “We *believe* in science... but we do not *believe* that there should be...a different set of experiments involving cigarettes” (Mitchell & Womble 1983).

Research aims and hypotheses

The goal of this study is to track how four proposed linguistic indicators of deception behave in the corporate texts of the Tobacco Documents Corpus (TDC) (Kretzschmar et al. 2004), a stratified sample subset of the previously secret internal tobacco industry documents housed through the LTDL (Kretzschmar et al. 2004). We reviewed deception studies from diverse fields (discourse analysis, organizational studies, corpus linguistics, experimental psychology) to create the four proposed linguistic indicators of corporate deception, which we test on tobacco industry documents to assess in which document sets these indicators occur.

Using these theoretically based indicators of deception, we aim to determine whether there are differences between external (public) and internal language used by the tobacco industry and to explore any differences between companies.

H1: Internal versus external audience documents. Compared with documents addressed to audiences internal to tobacco companies, documents addressed to external audiences will exhibit higher relative frequencies of linguistic indicators of deception.

H1 is based on a body of evidence showing that the industry engaged in communication campaigns deliberately designed to deceive the public (Cataldo & Malone 2008; Cummings et al.

141 2002), and that internal information was frequently at odds with information released to the public
142 (Bero 2005).

143 H2a: Linguistic indicators of deception should vary significantly by industry source;

144 H2b: Documents from the Tobacco Institute and Center for Tobacco Research are predicted to have
145 higher relative frequencies of indicators compared to other companies.

146 For source, we predicted that material originating from two organizations, the Tobacco Institute
147 (TI) and the Council for Tobacco Research (CTR), would house more deception in documents
148 compared to the five major corporate defendants who were party to the Master Settlement Agreement:
149 the American Tobacco Company (ATC), Brown and Williamson (BW), Lorillard (LL), Philip Morris
150 (PM), and RJ Reynolds (RJR). In contrast to manufacturing, TI and CTR did not create cigarettes
151 themselves; instead they promoted tobacco industry agendas (TI) and protected tobacco manufacturers
152 from liabilities with respect to research (CTR). Material originating from these two tobacco industry
153 umbrella organizations was intentionally more misinformative and deceitful than documents from the
154 other tobacco industry company sources (Yach & Bettcher 2000). These “front groups set up by
155 industry to block public health policies” were disbanded as part of the Minnesota Settlement due to the
156 pervasive misinformation and deceptive content they consistently espoused (Yach & Bettcher 2000).
157 TI and CTR strategically misled and deceived the public (Campbell & Balbach 2009; Campbell &
158 Balbach 2011) from 1954 until their court-ordered disbanding in 1998.

159 MATERIALS & METHODS

160 Indicators of deception

161 Allness and superlative terms were calculated as the total number of non-adjective, non-
162 adverbial allness words, superlative adjectives and superlative adverbs (e.g., greatest, best, longest,
163 worst, fastest, etc.) divided by the total number of adjectives and adverbs. Allness words include
164 always, never, nobody, forever, everybody and everyone.

165 Group mentality was calculated as the total of plural first and third person pronouns (us, our,
166 ours, we, them, their, they, theirs) relative to the total number of personal pronouns, possessive
167 pronouns and plural nouns (Hess 1997). The group agency pronouns were denominated by the total
168 number of personal pronouns.

169 The indicator for nonbinding verbs was operationalized as the number of present and past tense
170 base form verbs over the total base form verbs using the MontyTagger part-of-speech tagging software
171 package (Liu 2004).

172 The indicator for cognitive-emotional verbs was operationalized as the total cognitive-
173 emotional verbs divided by the total number of base form verbs. Cognitive-emotional verbs included
174 stative and relational verbs: believe, consider, think, doubt, intend, know, appear, become, appreciate,
175 etc. (Kiparsky & Kiparsky 1970; Lebaron 1996; Shuy 2003).

176 The Tobacco Documents Corpus (TDC)

177 The Tobacco Document Corpus (TDC) (Kretzschmar et al. 2004) was created as a stratified
178 random sample of the LTDL. The TDC used hand encoding (retyping all documents) to reduce errors
179 that can be created by Optical Character Recognition (OCR) in the electronic text. The general tobacco

industry document files are available electronically thanks to scanning techniques adopted by the LTDL in 2004 that translate hard paper copies into electronic text via OCR (Anderson et al. 2011). Unfortunately, due to image quality, hand written notations, and font differences in the hard copies, OCR output is imprecise and error prone. Accordingly, the TDC was manually keyed in as full text. In addition, as part of this retyping process, staff coded additional metadata to represent potentially important information about texts as well as divisions within a single text. The documents in the TDC contain fully represented text as well as various differentiated metatext including headers, pretext, marginalia, main text, post text, lineouts, etc.

Additional metadata associated with each TDC document of interest for this study included audience (industry internal vs. industry external addressees) and industry source (ATC, BW, LL, PM, RJR, CTR, TI). Industry internal audience was defined as documents addressed to any individual or organization known to have received financial support from any tobacco source; industry external audience encompassed all other documents. We used audience affiliation and source as variables among which the indicators of deception could be compared.

Statistical analyses

Because distributions for all four of the indicators violated assumptions of normality, nonparametric tests were performed. For audience (industry Internal versus External), the Mann-Whitney Rank-Sum test (a nonparametric equivalent of the unpaired t-test -- U is the test statistic) was used. For source, chi square (χ^2) analyses were performed. Posthoc Mann-Whitney Rank-Sum tests were performed between pairs of sources where the overall chi square result was significant in order to determine which individual contrasts between industry sources produced the significant effects.

201 RESULTS

202 The means and standard deviations broken down by audience and source for the four indicators
203 of deception are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

204 H1 was supported for cognitive-emotional verbs. Nonparametric tests indicated that documents
205 intended for internal audiences had a significantly lower score for this linguistic feature than did
206 documents addressed to external audiences ($U=70985.0$, $Z=-2.829$, $p=0.005$). Results were marginally
207 significant for nonbinding verbs ($U=74612.0$, $Z=-1.932$, $p=0.053$); documents addressed to industry
208 external audiences likewise displayed a higher frequency of these features. Differences between
209 internally and externally directed documents did not emerge on the other two indicators of deception.

210 Sources differed significantly for cognitive-emotional verbs ($\chi^2=23.051$, $df=6$, $p=0.001$).
211 Partially confirming our second hypothesis, pairwise comparisons among the seven industry sources
212 showed that TI documents were associated with greater cognitive-emotional verbs compared to four of
213 the other six sources, including ATC ($U=2423.5$, $z=-4.540$, $p<0.000$), LL ($U=4137.5$, $z=-2.001$,
214 $p=0.045$), PM ($U=16425.0$, $z=-2.636$, $p=0.008$), and RJR ($U=11142.0$, $z=-2.989$, $p=0.003$). BW
215 documents were associated with greater cognitive-emotional verb use compared to RJR ($U=14177.0$,
216 $z=-2.065$, $p=0.039$) and ATC ($U=3421.5$, $z=-3.206$, $p=0.001$). By contrast, ATC documents were
217 associated with lower cognitive-emotional verb use compared not only to BW and TI (as above), but to
218 all other companies (CTR $U=1363.0$, $z=-2.251$, $p=0.024$; LL $U=3061.0$, $z=-2.610$, $p=0.009$; PM
219 $U=12592.0$, $Z=-2.896$, $p=0.004$; RJR $U=9366.5$, $z=-2.193$, $p=0.028$). No other pairwise contrasts were
220 statistically significant for this indicator.

221 Differences among sources were marginally significant for group mentality ($\chi^2=12.519$, $df=6$,
222 $p=0.051$). For the group mentality indicator, differences among source based on pair-wise comparisons

223 were mixed with respect to our hypothesis. CTR documents were associated with significantly lower
224 group mentality compared to ATC ($U=1354.5$, $z=-2.304$, $p=0.021$), while TI was associated with
225 higher group mentality compared to LL ($U=3938.5$, $z=-2.497$, $p=0.013$), CTR ($U=1599.5$, $z=-2.784$,
226 $p=0.005$), PM ($U=16867.5$, $z=-2.302$, $p=0.021$), and RJR ($U=11585.0$, $z=-2.528$, $p=0.011$). No other
227 pairwise contrasts were statistically significant for this indicator.

228 No significant differences among industry sources emerged for nonbinding verbs or allness and
229 superlative terms.

230 **DISCUSSION**

231 Cognitive-emotional verbs seemed to be especially active as an indicator of potential
232 deceptiveness in tobacco industry documents. The indicator for cognitive-emotional verbs tracked
233 mental, cognitive, stative or relational verbs (e.g., *believe*, *consider*, etc.) that express a position on a
234 topic as opposed to any action. External documents included significantly more cognitive-emotional
235 verbs compared to internal audience documents. This indicator also varied by industry source.
236 Documents produced by the Tobacco Institute, the tobacco industry front group that was deliberately
237 created to shield manufacturers from negative consequences of their products, revealed higher levels of
238 this indicator compared to four of the other six corporate entities. Thus, relatively high frequencies of
239 cognitive-emotional verbs may be a useful indicator of corporate deception. Lastly, the significance of
240 cognitive-emotional verbs suggests that verbs in particular may be a fruitful site for future linguistic
241 investigations of corporate deception.

242 The three other proposed indicators did not uniformly follow hypothesized distributions. Within
243 this sample, nonbinding verbs and group mentality were marginally significant (in each case $p<.055$) in
244 differentiating between audience and source document subsets, respectively. Further testing within the

245 full LTDL is needed to determine whether these marginal results were an artifact of the specific sample
246 examined here, or evidence of the usefulness of the indicators.

247 Our results revealed some problems with our underlying assumptions of deception. For
248 instance, we had assumed that TI and CTR documents would both manifest deception, but only TI
249 documents (and not CTR documents) included higher amounts of cognitive-emotional verbs and group
250 mentality compared to other sources. Although both organizations were found in previous research to
251 have contributed to public misinformation and corporate fraud (Cummings et al. 2002), our results hint
252 that they accomplished this task in different ways. cursory reviews of a number of TI and CTR
253 documents included in our sample show that TI took on more of the role of public interface, while CTR
254 operated scientific granting operations. Verification of these roles and any potential impact they may
255 have had on the corporate culture and language should be undertaken using both quantitative indicator-
256 based investigations and indepth qualitative analysis of documents.

257 Corporate deception is enacted by individuals who are directly influenced by the structure and
258 norm, or “corporate culture,” of the organization and corporate deception is often encouraged by
259 organizational leadership (Fleming & Zyglidopoulos 2008). Examples within large organizations
260 demonstrate that bad behavior of ‘rogue’ employees is at minimum supported by a culture of willful
261 negligence, and often all levels of an organization are implicated in fraudulent practices and their cover
262 up (Zyglidopoulos & Fleming 2008). Indeed, within the tobacco industry companies and organizations,
263 a large body of evidence exposed within previously confidential tobacco industry documents
264 demonstrates that decisions were made in the highest corporate offices to deceive by discouraging
265 public access to information (Cummings 2003; Cummings et al. 2002; Cummings & Pollay 2002;
266 Farren 2004; Friedman 2007). This study demonstrates that although individual and corporate
267 deception do not follow the same pattern on all accounts, there are potentially overlaps between the

268 two, including the indicator of cognitive-emotional verbs, derived from individual deception studies
269 and shown here to be associated with corporate deception in tobacco documents. This successful test
270 case indicates that what little homogeneity exists within written corporate deception can be used to
271 differentiate between deceptive and truthful texts, at least within a highly organized and cohesive
272 corporate culture such as that of the tobacco industry.

273 One limitation of this study is the small number of indicators, which may not represent the full
274 breadth of linguistic mechanisms for deception. Additionally, external audience, TI and CTR
275 documents were assumed a priori based on the literature to be deceptive, but obviously not every
276 document of any of these document sets would be deceptive, which could introduce significance noise
277 into our a priori deceptive document sets.

278 CONCLUSIONS

279 Taken as a whole, this study shows that one linguistic indicator —cognitive-emotional verbs—
280 may be robust enough to red flag deceptive documents for further examination within the context of
281 the tobacco industry. This conclusion needs to be explored in the larger body of documents from the
282 LTDL. Additionally, since two productive indicators of deception (i.e., cognitive-emotional verbs and
283 nonbinding verbs) revolved around verb choice, further research could consider focusing on verb use in
284 particular in the context of corporate deception. One reason why common verbs may be good
285 candidates to function as indicators of deception is that they are so routine as to be used in an
286 unconscious manner by writers. Indeed, authorship attribution studies have similarly found that
287 patterning in nonsalient function words is often the best indicator of an author's individual "wordprint"
288 (Stamatatos et al. 2000). These findings have important implications for public health, tobacco control
289 and applied linguistics. Public health practitioners and activists, who are often under-funded compared

290 to corporations, may now have another tool with which to track and quickly assess possible deception
291 in corporate language. With respect to tobacco control, automated linguistic analysis offers an
292 additional route beyond typical keyword searches to conduct surveillance on tobacco industry
293 activities. The present findings remind us that while tobacco companies may try to control their
294 rhetorical strategies, they may have less control of the linguistic features by which they “leak”
295 deceptive and misleading intentions, thus providing another possible mode for identification of
296 documents of interest for tobacco control and public health.

297 **References**

- 298 1993. Rogers makes the case for kentucky tobacco families, says clinton's tobacco taxes are punitive and
299 unfair. *Lorillard*. Bates: 89735041/89735042. Accessed on 14 Nov 2012.
300 <http://legacy.library.ucsf.edu/tid/gue01e00>
- 301 Anderson SJ. 2011. Marketing of menthol cigarettes and consumer perceptions: A review of tobacco industry
302 documents. *Tobacco Control* 20:ii20-ii28.
- 303 Anderson SJ, McCandless PM, Klausner K, Taketa R, and Yerger VB. 2011. Tobacco documents research
304 methodology. *Tobacco Control* 20:li8-li11.
- 305 Bero LA. 2005. Tobacco industry manipulation of research. *Public Health Reports* 120:200-208.
- 306 Bloomrosen M. 1969. Statement of milton bloomrosen, president , wholesale tobacco distributors of new york,
307 inc. In opposition to proposed bill no. 987 inc. No. 834 banning cigarette advertising in public places
308 and on public conveyances. *Philip Morris*. Bates: 1005098873/1005098879. Accessed on 14 Nov 2012.
309 <http://legacy.library.ucsf.edu/tid/bev38e00>
- 310 Brown CG. 2012. Tobacco industry marketing to low income women. American Psychological Association -
311 Disparities Meeting. Washington, DC.
- 312 Buller DB, Burgoon JK, White CH, and Ebesu AS. 1994. Interpersonal deception .7. Behavioral profiles of
313 falsification, equivocation, and concealment. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* 13:366-395.
- 314 Burgoon JK, Hamel L, and Tiantian Q. Predicting veracity from linguistic indicators.
- 315 Campbell RB, and Balbach ED. 2009. Building alliances in unlikely places: Progressive allies and the tobacco
316 institute's coalition strategy on cigarette excise taxes. *American Journal of Public Health* 99:1188-1196.
- 317 Campbell RB, and Balbach ED. 2011. Manufacturing credibility: The national energy management institute and
318 the tobacco institute's strategy for indoor air quality. *American Journal of Public Health* 101:497-503.
- 319 Cataldo JK, and Malone RE. 2008. False promises: The tobacco industry, "low tar" cigarettes, and older
320 smokers. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 56:1716-1723.

321 Cummings KM. 2003. A promise is a promise. *Tobacco Control* 12:117-118.

322 Cummings KM, Morley CP, Horan JK, Steger C, and Leavell N-R. 2002a. Marketing to america's youth: Evidence
323 from corporate documents. *Tobacco Control* 11 Suppl 1:15-17.

324 Cummings KM, Morley CP, and Hyland A. 2002c. Failed promises of the cigarette industry and its effect on
325 consumer misperceptions about the health risks of smoking. *Tobacco Control* 11:110i-117.

326 Cummings KM, and Pollay RW. 2002. Exposing mr butts' tricks of the trade. Introduction. *Tobacco Control* 11
327 Suppl 1:11-4.

328 Derry R, and Brown C. 2005. Strategic trust-building: The use of linguistic devices to induce trust. IABS:
329 International Association for Business and Society Annual Conference. Sonoma Valley, California.

330 Farren C. 2004. Gasp: Picking off the pack of lies. *Tobacco Control* 13:100-101.

331 Fleming P, and Zyglidopoulos SC. 2008. The escalation of deception in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*
332 81:837-850.

333 Friedman LC. 2007. Philip morris's website and television commercials use new language to mislead the public
334 into believing it has changed its stance on smoking and disease. *Tobacco Control* 16:e9.

335 Galasiński D. 2000. *The language of deception : A discourse analytical study*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage
336 Publications.

337 Hauch V, Masip J, Blandón-Gitlin I, and Sporer SL. 2012. Linguistic cues to deception assessed by computer
338 programs: A meta-analysis. Proceedings of the workshop on computational approaches to deception
339 detection: Association for Computational Linguistics. p 1-4.

340 Hess JE. 1997. *Interviewing and interrogation for law enforcement*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Pub. Co.

341 Humpherys SL. 2009. Discriminating fraudulent financial statements by identifying linguistic hedging. AMCIS:
342 American Conference on Information Systems.

343 Kiparsky P, and Kiparsky C. 1970. Fact. In: Bierwisch EM, and Heidolph K, eds. *Progress in linguistics*. The Hague:
344 Mouton, 143-173.

- 345 Kretzschmar WA, Jr., Darwin C, Brown C, Rubin DL, and Biber D. 2004. Looking for the smoking gun: Principled
346 sampling in creating the tobacco industry documents corpus. *Journal of English Linguistics* 32:31-47.
- 347 Larcker DF, and Zakolyukina AA. 2012. Detecting deceptive discussions in conference calls. *Journal of*
348 *Accounting Research* 50:495-540.
- 349 Lebaron CD. 1996. Looking for verbal deception in clarence thomas's testimony. In: Ragan SL, Bystrom D, and
350 Kaid LL, eds. *The lynching of language : Gender, politics, and power in the hill-thomas hearings*. Urbana:
351 University of Illinois Press, 113-132.
- 352 Lee K, Gilmore AB, and Collin J. 2004. Breaking and re-entering: British american tobacco in china 1979-2000.
353 *Tobacco Control* 13 Suppl 2:ii88-95.
- 354 Liu H. 2004. Monylingua: An end-to-end natural language processor with common sense.
- 355 Mitchell WGC, and Womble C. 1983. We're not just raising questions. We're seeking answers. *RJ Reynolds*.
356 Bates: 503115487-503115494. Accessed on 11 Apr 2013. <http://legacy.library.ucsf.edu/tid/ppg87h00>
- 357 Newman ML, Pennebaker JW, Berry DS, and Richards JM. 2003. Lying words: Predicting deception from
358 linguistic styles. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin* 29:665-675.
- 359 Pennebaker JW, and King LA. 1999. Linguistic styles: Language use as an individual difference. *Journal of*
360 *Personality & Social Psychology* 77:1296-1312.
- 361 Pollay RW, and Dewhirst T. 2002. The dark side of marketing seemingly "light" cigarettes: Successful images
362 and failed fact. *Tobacco Control* 11 Suppl 1:118-31.
- 363 Searle J. 1969. *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University.
- 364 Shuy RW. 2003. Tobaccospeak: Image repair as a variety of american english. American Dialect Society. Atlanta,
365 Georgia.
- 366 Stamatatos E, Kokkinakis G, and Fakotakis N. 2000. Automatic text categorization in terms of genre and author.
367 *Computational Linguistics* 26:471-495.

- 368 Vrij A. 2000. *Detecting lies and deceit : The psychology of lying and the implications for professional practice*.
369 Chichester, England ; New York: John Wiley.
- 370 Yach D, and Bettcher D. 2000. Globalisation of tobacco industry influence and new global responses. *Tobacco*
371 *Control* 9:206-216.
- 372 Zhou L, Burgoon JK, Nunamaker JF, and Twitchell D. 2004. Automating linguistics-based cues for detecting
373 deception in text-based asynchronous computer-mediated communication. *Group Decision and*
374 *Negotiation* 13:81-106.
- 375 Zyglidopoulos SC, and Fleming PJ. 2008. Ethical distance in corrupt firms: How do innocent bystanders become
376 guilty perpetrators? *Journal of Business Ethics* 78:265-274.

Table 1(on next page)

Means by audience of the four normalized potential indicators of deception (standard deviation in parentheses)

*p<.05; †p<.055

2 Table 1. Means by audience of the four normalized potential indicators of deception (standard
3 deviation in parentheses)

Linguistic Indicator	<i>Internal Audience</i>	<i>External Audience</i>
<i>Allness and superlative terms</i>	0.0239 (0.0413)	0.0236 (0.0321)
<i>Group mentality</i>	0.2813 (0.239)	0.2523 (0.212)
<i>Nonbinding verbs</i> †	0.9506 (0.0815)	0.9544 (0.0686)
<i>Cognitive-emotional verbs</i> *	0.1299 (0.094)	0.152 (0.1028)

4 *p<.05; † p<.055

Table 2(on next page)

Mean by source of the five potential indicators of deception (standard deviation in parentheses)

**p<0.001; †p<.055

2 Table 2. Mean by source of the five potential indicators of deception (standard deviation in
3 parentheses)

Linguistic Indicator	<i>Lorillard</i>	<i>Tobacco Institute</i>	<i>Center for Tobacco Research</i>	<i>Philip Morris</i>	<i>R.J. Reynolds</i>	<i>Brown & Williamson</i>	<i>American Tobacco Company</i>
<i>Allness and superlative terms</i>	0.0273 (0.05469)	0.0209 (0.02155)	0.0164 (0.04259)	0.0255 (0.04664)	0.0202 (0.02702)	0.0274 (0.04467)	0.0267 (0.04366)
<i>Group mentality</i> †	0.26 (0.241)	0.32 (0.209)	0.22 (0.206)	0.27 (0.237)	0.27 (0.236)	0.27 (0.246)	0.32 (0.241)
<i>Nonbinding verbs</i>	0.9329 (0.1103)	0.9583 (0.05493)	0.9352 (0.08795)	0.9475 (0.07611)	0.9342 (0.08243)	0.9373 (0.08206)	0.9537 (0.05418)
<i>Cognitive-emotional verbs</i> **	0.1315 (0.08374)	0.1544 (0.09366)	0.1589 (0.12976)	0.1322 (0.09704)	0.1254 (0.08935)	0.1482 (0.10411)	0.1061 (0.08859)

4 **p<0.001; † p<.055