BENEMERITA UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE PUEBLA

FACULTAD DE LENGUAS

A CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY ON L2 PRAGMATIC DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF COMPLIMENTS IN ENGLISH

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEGREE OF:

MAESTRIA EN LA ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS

BY:
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A Cross-sectional Study on L2 Pragmatic Development:

the Case of Compliments in English

This investigation has been read by the members of the committee of

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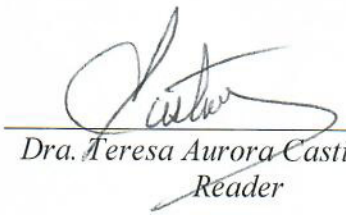

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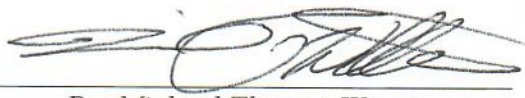

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⊰ DEDICATIONS ⊱

✠ Thanks God for letting me finish this project which has been full of experiences and teachings. Thanks Virgin Maria of Guadalupe for always accompanying me in this project. It has really given me more inspiration for doing what I do with more awareness, passion and commitment. Undoubtedly, I would not have accomplished it without your blessing.

✠ God, you blessed me with my wonderful wife "*NERSI*", who has supported me throughout a whole life together. This work is definitely dedicated to her endless and unconditional love.

✠ I also want to dedicate this project to the pillars in my life: "BONI" and "LOLITA", who taught me the moral and spiritual values that have guided my entire life. "BONI", I'm sure you are very proud, from heaven, of this project of mine.

✠ Finally, I wouldn't even have imagined this cluster of feelings that life has granted me if you haven't blessed me with the arrival of "SEBASTIAN", "ALEJANDRO", ALBA MARINA" and the newcomer "EVAN" (my lovely grandson). They all inject energy, passion, strength, tenderness, joyfulness and some other indescribable feelings to my life. I dedicate this thesis project to them with all my love.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction to the problem

For several decades, there has been a growing interest in pragmatics as a theoretically and/or empirically based discipline in order to understand the linguistic and extra linguistic means that language users employ to communicate in everyday interaction. The study of pragmatics has been of paramount importance to understand how interlocutors construct meaning in particular situational contexts. From the various aspects which have been studied within pragmatics (e.g., deixis, entailment, implicature, impoliteness, mitigation, politeness, presupposition), speech acts have been by far the most widely researched and documented in the literature (Mey, 2001).

Speech acts, or basic functional units of communication which are socially rule-governed (Cohen, 1996), have been the major focus of theoretical inquiry among pragmatists (e.g., Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983), philosophers of language (e.g., Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1976) and ethnomethodologists (e.g., Goffman, 1971). Speech act theory (as originally proposed by Austin in the late 1950s and later developed by Searle during the 1960s and 1970s) has been applied in various disciplines such as philosophy, linguistics, first language acquisition, anthropology, ethnography, and literary criticism. In the field of applied linguistics and language teaching, the most influential application of speech act theory has been through the notion of communicative competence, which underlies works on syllabus design, analysis of classroom interaction, cross-cultural understanding, second language acquisition, and interlanguage pragmatics (Flowerdew, 1990).

In the field of interlanguage pragmatics, the study of speech acts as performed by native and non-native speakers of a language has served to chiefly examine non-native speech act behavior (both comprehension and production), at various stages of language proficiency, and in different

social situations (Cohen, 1996; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). The speech acts studied so far comprise requests, apologies, refusals, compliments, suggestions, expressions of gratitude, invitations, rejections, expressions of disagreement, corrections, and complaints (Culpeper, Mackey & Taguchi, 2018; Kasper, 1996). The results of such studies indicate that language learners with different language backgrounds and at different proficiency levels have access to the same range of speech act strategies as native speakers. However, they also demonstrate that there are language proficiency effects in the use of different linguistic forms to implement such strategies and in the selection of different strategies in the same social situation (Kasper, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 1999, 2002). As Bardovi-Harlig (1999) states, the research results of the various interlanguage pragmatics studies conducted to present have clearly shown that even advanced learners differ in their production of speech acts from native speakers in at least four ways. These include the choice of speech acts in the same context, the use of semantic formulas, their content, and the linguistic forms used to implement them.

It is important to point out that most interlanguage pragmatics studies have been performance-based in nature, or what Rose (2000) calls "single-moment studies". Their focus has been to describe the production and comprehension of L2 pragmatic meaning. Only a few empirical investigations have examined the development of learners' pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2009). Indeed, acquisitional research has been an underexplored area in interlanguage pragmatics (Taguchi, 2011), covering only a small set of speech acts, discourse particles, address markers, pragmatic routines, and conversational implicature (Cai & Wang, 2013). Cross-sectional and longitudinal research is needed in order to understand the developmental stages that L2 learners follow as they develop their competence with a particular pragmatic aspect of the target language (Rose, 2000; Woodfield, 2012). This has prompted some researchers to carry out investigations which strengthen the connection between

second language acquisition (SLA) and interlanguage pragmatics, profiling the latter as an area of inquiry which can shed light on how language learners come to master the pragmatics of an L2 (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). These studies have mostly examined the development of L2 requests (e.g., Achiba, 2003; Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Rose, 2000, 2009; Savic, 2015; Schauer, 2004; Trosborg, 1995; Wen 2014), apologies (e.g., Beckwith & Dewaele, 2008; Chang, 2010; Kondo, 1997; Rose, 2000; Sabaté i Dalmau & Currell i Gotor, 2007; Trosborg, 1995) and, to a much lesser extent, compliments (Hoffman-Hicks, 1999; Lee, 2010; Lee, 2017) and compliment responses (Rose, 2000). It is the speech act of complimenting which is the focus of the present investigation. One of the objectives of the study is to analyze the developmental patterns of L2 learners at the moment they produce compliment strategies.

1.2. Purpose of the study

The purposes of the present study are to explore the developmental patterns followed by the targeted groups of EFL learners with regards to the use of L2 compliments as well as to examine the influence of first language (L1) pragmatic transfer on the students' complimenting behavior. This study contributes to the extant literature on L2 developmental pragmatics. It presents the results of a cross-sectional investigation on the use of compliments by English as a foreign language (EFL) learner at different proficiency levels: basic, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced.

1.3. Research Questions

1. What are the compliment strategies produced by EFL learners at different proficiency levels?

2. To what extent do EFL learners approximate to the English native speakers complimenting norms?
3. To what extent is the EFL learners' use of compliments influenced by L1 pragmatic norms?

1.4. Significance of the study

As pointed out by Taguchi (2011), L2 acquisitional pragmatics is an overlooked and understudied area of interlanguage pragmatics research. While a few studies have shed light on the stages that learners go through as they develop their pragmatic ability in an L2, far more needs to be done. This study investigates the order in which compliments are acquired in English as a foreign language. It adds to the growing body of research on the topic in two distinct ways: it examines the acquisition of compliments in a foreign rather than a second language environment and it focuses on an L1-L2 pairing (Spanish-English) which is different from those represented in the existing literature (Cantonese-English; English-French). Finally, the study explores the extent to which the acquisition of L2 compliments is mediated by learners' L1.

1.5. Content organization

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter one presents the topic of this study and provides a broad overview of the entire research project. Chapter two reviews the related literature that is based on the theoretical background of the study: pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, pragmatic competence, pragmatic development, developmental studies, speech act theory, and the speech act of compliments. Chapter three introduces the methodology and procedures of the study: participants, instrument used for data elicitation, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Chapter four presents the results and discussion of the research

findings. Finally, Chapter five offers conclusions, implications of the study, and suggestions for future research.

1.6. Key terms.

Communicative competence: Speakers' language knowledge and their ability to use such knowledge as something that is feasible, appropriate and in fact done (Hymes, 1972).

Compliment: A speech act employed to give credit to the listener, or someone different from the speaker, for a valued characteristic, possession or skill (Holmes, 1988).

Interlanguage pragmatics: The study of nonnative speakers' acquisition and use of the strategies employed to create and negotiate linguistic action in a second or foreign language (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

Pragmalinguistics: Speakers' knowledge of the linguistic conventions which are available in their language to convey their illocutionary intent (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1984).

Pragmatic competence: The ability of language users to attend to a complex interplay of linguistic forms, communicative functions, interlocutors and contexts of interaction as they actively participate in socially-governed meaning-making exchanges (Taguchi, 2015).

Pragmatic transfer: The influence of speakers' L1 cultural and linguistic knowledge on their acquisition and use of the L2 (Kasper, 1992).

Pragmatics: The study of what interlocutors mean and how this meaning is interpreted in particular social contexts according to the linguistic choices made (Yule, 1996).

Sociopragmatics: Speakers' knowledge of the social norms which govern the contextually appropriate use of linguistic conventions (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1984).

Speech act: The action that people perform through their utterances (Yule, 1996).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides theoretical and empirical background pertinent to the present study of development of L2 pragmatic competence with no instruction in the classroom. It further discusses pragmatics, ILP, communicative competence, speech acts, pragmatic transfer, pragmatic development, research methods in pragmatics and other related issues. This chapter will also highlight studies on the speech acts of compliments, and their implication with pragmatic development of students at different levels of proficiency. While few of the mentioned studies exist, these gaps will be discussed.

While not meant to be exhaustive, this chapter addresses relevant literature to provide a descriptive overview of research that will guide the reader through major works done in various fields that molded the present research. Finally, the need for the present study, as shown by the research presented in this chapter, will be established.

2.2. Communicative Competence

The concept of "communicative competence" was introduced by Hymes (1972) in opposition to the Chomskyan notion of "linguistic competence" which describes the ideal speaker-hearer, whose language knowledge is perfect and socioculturally independent. Hymes, however, emphasizes the importance of integrating a speech community's rules for appropriate language use into the notion of competence. This communicative competence, as he calls it, does not only consist of a speaker's language knowledge but also a speaker's ability to use language as something achievable, appropriate, and in fact done. Speakers, then, know when to speak, what to talk about with whom, and in what manner in a given social situation. That is, a speaker, as

Hymes puts it, becomes able to perform speech acts appropriately, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate others' speech act performance in social interactions.

2.2.1. Canale and Swain's model

The theoretical concept proposed by Hymes (1972) has been reviewed by various scholars in the fields of language teaching and testing in order to provide a more operational concept on which to base language teaching methodologies, the design of syllabuses and materials, and/or the preparation of language tests (Ellis, 1997). One of the early models of communicative competence developed in these fields was proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and later expanded by Canale (1983). The model comprises four different components which integrate the linguistic and functional properties of language. The first component is grammatical competence and refers to a speaker's knowledge of syntax, vocabulary, word formation, spelling, and sentence-grammar semantics of a language. The second component is discourse competence and involves a speaker's ability to connect sentences to achieve cohesion and coherence in stretches of discourse which can range from a simple conversation to lengthy written texts. These two components reflect a speaker's ability to use the linguistic system of a language.

The third and fourth components of Canale and Swain's model, which relate to the functional aspects of communication, are sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Sociolinguistic competence encompasses a speaker's knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language use and discourse. This type of competence addresses a speaker's ability to use language appropriately in social contexts according to the setting, the topic of conversation, and the role of participants. Strategic competence, on the other hand, refers to a speaker's ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for gaps in his/her knowledge of the linguistic code or to compensate for breakdowns in communication.

2.2.2. Bachman's model

As point out by Brown (1994), Canale and Swain's (1980) operational definition of communicative competence has undergone some modifications over the years. The new views of the definition are captured in various recent models of communicative competence. One of these models is proposed by Bachman (1990).

According to Bachman's (1990) theoretical model of communicative language ability, language competence is classified into organizational competence and pragmatic competence (see appendix A). Organizational competence consists of two components: grammatical competence and textual competence. The first refers to a speaker's knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology, and graphology of the language that allows him/her to choose words in order to express significations, to arrange them in utterances, and to realize them through written symbols. The second competence, textual, refers to a speaker's knowledge of such conventions as cohesion and rhetorical organization that serve to join utterances together in order to form a text.

The second type of competence of this model, pragmatic competence, is also divided into two components: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. The first is concerned with a speaker's knowledge of the linguistic forms of a language used to perform a wide range of language functions, namely speech acts, in discourse. The second, sociolinguistic competence, is concerned with a speaker's sensitivity to perform language functions appropriately and in a native-like way according to a set of contextual factors such as the participants of an interaction and the situation in which these functions are used.

Both organizational competence and pragmatic competence, as Bachman (1990) points out, interact with each other in communicative language use. This interaction is carried out by a speaker's assessment (e.g. the identification of information intended to convey), planning (the

retrieval of organizational and pragmatic items from language competence) and execution of his/her intended communicative goals according to a particular context. This interaction, as he also notes, occurs in dynamic and communicative exchanges between interlocutors in which the production and understanding of language is essential.

2.3. Pragmatics

In spite of the fact that pragmatics is a relatively young linguistic discipline, a lot has been said, researched, presented and published about pragmatics. The result is a growing number of applied-linguistics books, various international journals such as the Journal of Pragmatics since 1977, Pragmatics since 1991, and Intercultural Pragmatics to name a few, the Concise Encyclopedia of Pragmatics since 1998, all which include this field. Pragmatics has emerged as a subject of inquiry to stay and decipher the intricacies of language use in context.

Morris (1938) is acknowledged with the first definition of pragmatics which quotes "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters" although it should be noted that this definition was based on a semiotic view of pragmatics (Schauer, 2009). Later definitions of linguistic pragmatics aim to be more complete and detailed. One that pays particular attention to the communicative action in its sociocultural context is the one suggested by Crystal (1985) which recites "Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (Crystal, 1985, p. 240). Another way to define how speakers and writers succeed in accomplishing their goals as social actors who need to deal with interpersonal relationships within a community goes like this "Pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society (Mey, 2001, p. 6). From all these definitions, it can be said that a basic goal

of pragmatics is to examine how hearers arrive at a correct interpretation of the message (without or a minimal effort) so that the exchange between speakers and hearers is both successful and efficient.

Kasper and Rose (1999) point out that pragmatics has two roles in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). First, they say that pragmatics constitutes a kind of communicative knowledge that L2 learners have to acquire; therefore, it restricts the acquisition of linguistic forms during the L2 learning process. Second, they compare pragmatics with some other areas of specialization within SLA like interlanguage syntax, interlanguage lexis, or interlanguage phonology. Consequently, the study of nonnative speakers use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge is referred to as interlanguage pragmatics.

2.3.1. Pragmatic Competence

Since the 1970's, researchers have empirically examined second/foreign language (L2) learners' pragmatic competence. Their studies have mostly addressed issues related to how learners comprehend and produce L2 pragmatic meanings, how they communicatively interact in different contexts, and how they integrate pragmatic-related aspects into their L2 writing. An impressive body of research has accumulated over the years, documenting, for the most part, learners' use, rather than acquisition, of L2 pragmatics (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Research findings generally indicate that in terms of pragmatic production, L2 learners have access to the same speech act realization strategies and are sensitive to contextual constraints in their strategy choice as native speakers. However, their restricted L2 linguistic knowledge, or difficulty in accessing it, does not allow them to successfully exploit their universal pragmatic knowledge base when communicating in the target language. Furthermore, they may also differ from native speakers in the range of linguistic forms they use to implement their speech acts or in their

preference for higher directness strategies. As for pragmatic comprehension, even though L2 learners are able to perceive different levels of politeness in conventions of means and forms, their perceptions do not always coincide with those of native speakers (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993).

2.3.2. Pragmalinguistic Failure

From the perspective of interlanguage, target language errors in the learner's performance are systematic, and indicate the learner's current internal representation of the target language. The interlanguage system is constantly changing in spite of fossilization; although not always in the direction of the target language. Moreover, language learners frequently transfer first language (LI) elements into their interlanguage systems.

The ability to recognize and follow the rules of appropriate language use is a key aspect of native speakers' communicative competence. Therefore, nonnative speakers need to be aware of the rules of appropriate interaction of the target culture in order to be understood in their interactions with native speakers, as a lack of awareness of the rules may result in serious misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. Such misunderstandings and breakdowns can be attributed to what Thomas terms pragmatic failure or "the inability to understand 'what is meant by what is said' (1983, p. 91).

According to Thomas, two types of failure may be involved in cross-cultural misunderstandings: pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. Pragmalinguistic failure, which is largely linguistic in nature, occurs as a result of the mistaken interpretation of the force of an utterance by the hearer. Such "failure" is often caused by the inappropriate transfer of first language (LI) speech act strategies to the L2 context. Without an awareness of the appropriate rules and strategies established for the target culture, nonnative speakers are left to carry out or

interpret the act in the only way they know how: by applying their own Ll rules and strategies to the communicative situation at hand. Sociopragmatic failure refers to "the social conditions placed on language in use" (p. 99) and to inappropriate judgments made about what one believes can be said and to whom. Thomas claims that, of the two types of pragmatic failure, sociopragmatic failure is "more difficult to deal with" (p. 91). One reason is that learners may be more sensitive to correction in this area since it reflects on their personality and beliefs. Most important, however, is native speaker response to such failure. She explains that native speakers are likely to be less forgiving of errors related to social norms: Grammatical errors may be irritating and impede communication, but at least, as a rule, they are apparent in the surface structure, so that the hearer is aware that an error has occurred. Once alerted to the fact that the speaker is not fully grammatically competent, native speakers seem to have little difficulty in making allowances for it. Pragmatic failure, on the other hand, is rarely recognized as such by non-linguists. If a non-native speaker appears to speak fluently (i.e. is grammatically competent), a native speaker is likely to attribute his/her apparent impoliteness or unfriendliness, not to any linguistic deficiency, but to boorishness or ill-will. While grammatical error may reveal a speaker to be a less than proficient language-user, pragmatic failure reflects badly on him/her as a person.

2.3.3. Declarative Pragmatic Knowledge and Procedural Pragmatic Knowledge

Faerch & Kasper (1984) explain that pragmatic competence is composed of declarative pragmatic knowledge (knowledge that) and procedural pragmatic knowledge (knowledge how). The former entails speakers' knowledge of the rules and elements which comprise their native and nonnative languages in terms of linguistic (e.g. phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis), functional (e.g. speech acts), discoursal (e.g. coherence, adjacency pairs, opening-closing sequences), socio-cultural (e.g. conversational maxims, interactional principles), contextual (e.g.

familiarity, dominance, rank of imposition) and factual (e.g. knowledge of the world) features. The second component of pragmatic competence, procedural pragmatic knowledge involves the dynamic selection and combination of parts of declarative pragmatic knowledge (e.g. functional, discoursal, sociocultural, contextual) with the aim of accomplishing specific communicative goals while observing and assessing the processing and sequencing constraints imposed by language use.

Most studies have examined L2 learners' declarative pragmatic knowledge, ignoring its procedural counterpart or the interaction between the two (Faerch & Kasper, 1984). Even though the bulk of ILP research is based on production data, language use has not been its actual focus. Rather, it has served as a window to understanding the nature of the abstract underlying capacity behind L2 learners' pragmatic competence. Research, therefore, has attempted to shed light on the conventions of means and form L2 learners utilize to implement their communicative acts and on how the selection of these conventions is constrained by a range of theory-derived sociocultural factors. However, the process dimension involved in the production of communicative acts in real time as well as the conditions which hinder or facilitate it have been scarcely studied (Kasper, 2009).

The acquisition of pragmatic competence inherently implies the development of declarative pragmatic knowledge and procedural pragmatic knowledge. In the former case, it occurs as speakers' increase their repertoire of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics, make connections between the two, and refine their understanding of form-meaning-contextual mappings (Taguchi, 2012). In the latter case, development requires the acquisition of control strategies which speakers utilize in real time to deal with intended interpretations in context and to select from their linguistic repertoire the forms which best fulfill the social and contextual needs of their interaction (Bialystok, 1993). For L2 learners, the development of (declarative)

pragmatic knowledge poses difficulties. It involves attending to complex mappings of form, meaning, function, force and context which do not follow any systematic one-to-one correspondence. In addition, learners often fail to notice that conveying politeness or indirectness in the L2 depends not only on linguistic and/or non-linguistic means, but on a series of culturally-bound norms and conventions which dictate how social functions need to be performed (Taguchi, 2015).

2.3.4. Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics

There are two aspects within the pragmatic competence that different scholars emphasize. These two aspects are pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics which were initially introduced by Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983). Leech defines the first as the knowledge of particular linguistic forms conveying particular illocutions, and the latter as the sociopragmatic knowledge of social and discourse principles which vary indifferent social contexts, cultures, and language communities (Leech,1983).Thomas (1983) makes a distinction between pragmalinguistic knowledge, which refers to the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force, and sociopragmatic knowledge, which refers to the perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior. Rose and Kasper (2001, p. 2) explain these concepts as follows: “pragmalinguistics refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings”, whereas “sociopragmatics refers to the social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretation and performance of communicative action”. Bardovi-Harlig (1999, p. 686) extends this distinction to the notion of pragmatic competence, explaining that “pragmalinguistic competence is the linguistic competence that allows speakers to carry out the speech acts that their sociopragmatic competence tells them are desirable”.

2.4. Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP)

Interlanguage pragmatics is a natural extension of second language acquisition as the term interlanguage in L1 was first introduced by Selinker in 1972. However, the connection between interlanguage pragmatics and second language acquisition has not always been recognized (Kasper, 1996; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). The basic reason for this is that second language acquisition, which is based on linguistic theory, traditionally was committed to the investigation of how learners attain grammatical competence in a language, with little attention for issues that had to do with language context and use. Clearly, the significant work by Hymes (1972) asserting that the acquisition of language meant the acquisition of communicative competence provoked a critical change in thinking in the SLA field.

In SLA research it is assumed that when learning a second language learners create a language system by developing an internalized process based on available linguistic elements in their native language and the target language (TL). The result of this is called "interlanguage." However, there are some elements in their interlanguage which do not represent their origin in either linguistic source (Gass and Selinker, 1994). There have also been many beliefs that L2 learners' interlanguage is a result of the learners 'own creativity. Their interlanguage reflects their mental learning process of a language other than the existing one(s).

Then, the notion of interlanguage (Selinker, 1972) is central to SLA studies since it attempts to account for the acquisition of target language pragmatic competence by second/foreign language learners by investigating their comprehension and production of target language speech acts. There are several definitions for interlanguage pragmatics. According to Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993), interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is the study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic behavior patterns in a second language. Kasper (1996) refers to ILP as the study of development and use of strategies for linguistic performance by

nonnative speakers. Interlanguage pragmatics makes a valuable contribution to the area of second language acquisition since it examines language acquisition in the social context of language use as well as investigates compliance (or non-compliance) with the sociolinguistic rules of appropriate use within these contexts.

2.5. Pragmatic Transfer

Bou Franch (1998) states that to study pragmatic transfer we must pay attention to the two disciplines that converge in what has been termed Interlanguage Pragmatics. The notion of interlanguage pragmatic transfer refers to the use of one's L1 rules of speaking when conversing in a second language (Kasper, 1992). In other words, the phenomenon of transfer refers to the interaction between the old information – our first language – and the new information or any subsequent language we may learn. Transfer effects have been noted at the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic levels, (Kasper's 1992). According to Thomas, (1983) pragmalinguistic transfer refers to those cases in which the functional and social meanings of certain linguistic forms in the L1 affect the comprehension and production of "form–function mappings in L2" (Kasper, 1992, p. 209). Sociopragmatic transfer occurs when "the social perceptions underlying language users' interpretation and performance of linguistic action in L2 are influenced by their assessment of subjectively equivalent L1 contexts" (Kasper, 1992, p. 209).

Many different factors and conditions have been considered by researchers to be cause of pragmatic transfer. Current studies of pragmatic transfer provide extensive information of how languages known to speakers influence each other in their acquisition and / or use. Pragmatic transfer has been manifested in different ways such as: Negative transfer and positive transfer which are the most common ones. Positive transfer means facilitation to learning another language where learners' LI and the Target Language (TL) have similar forms. On the contrary,

negative transfer is referred to transfer which learners mistakenly map their native-language patterns or rules onto the TL due to their misconception of the notion of 'universality' or their limited knowledge of the TL forms. This phenomenon leads to inappropriate forms in the TL and is seen as interference in language learning (Gass and Selinker, 1994; Richards, Platt, and Platt, 1992). Moreover, this influence on one language upon another may produce different results; for example, excessive use or under-use of forms and functions. Another form of transfer is the influence of a second or third language on the mother tongue. We have to understand pragmatic transfer in its broad scope. That is to say, in all the different ways in which a language may influence the acquisition and use of another language and the conditions under which transfer takes place.

Today a large body of research on interlanguage pragmatics focuses on pragmatic transfer in relation to the development and use of L2 pragmatic ability, the teaching of L2 pragmatics, and pragmatics in the classroom context (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Barron, 2007; Matsumura, 2007).

2.6. Speech acts

The term "speech acts" has usually been defined in the literature as basic functional units of communication which are socially rule-governed (e.g. Cohen, 1996; Searle, 1969) or as the actions people perform through language in order to achieve social goals (e.g. Rintell, 1981; Yule, 1996). Their study was initiated by Austin (1962, cited in Trosborg, 1995) in order to explain how, through speaking, people perform a variety of acts such as complaining, promising, and commanding.

The speech act theory proposed by Austin and Searle has been applied in various disciplines such as philosophy, linguistics, first language acquisition studies, anthropology,

ethnography, and literary criticism. In the field of applied linguistics and language teaching, the most influential application of speech act theory has been through the notion of communicative competence, which underlies work on syllabus design, analysis of classroom interaction, cross-cultural understanding, second language acquisition, and interlanguage pragmatics (Flowerdew, 1990).

2.6.1. Performatives

Austin's (1962) speech act theory, one of the most influential pragmatic frameworks to date, conceptualizes language as a series of functions or acts that people perform during communication. In opposition to the idea that language was merely a set of facts or constatives which describe how things were in the world, Austin claimed that the words speakers use achieve a variety of conversational goals. These words, or performatives, bring about changes into the specific institutional, social, personal, or factual contexts speakers operate and live in the world. Rather than being true or false, performatives can be appropriate or inappropriate and, therefore, successful or unsuccessful in the particular contexts in which they are uttered. Austin (1962) suggested that given their contextually action-based properties, performatives need to be defined and classified functionally rather than grammatically or lexically. In his work, he also drew attention to the distinction between explicit and primary performatives. Whereas in the former case, speakers' words directly mention the specifications they perform (i.e. I apologize for what I said), in the latter case, their words do it implicitly (e.g. I have been thinking on what I did, and I know it's wrong…).

2.6.2. Locutionary, illocutionary and perloctionary acts.

Apart from explaining how conversationalists understand the implied meaning of words and utterances from what is directly or explicitly said, scholars have also been interested in describing what speakers accomplish in conversation.

Austin also proposed that every speech act is composed of three different properties: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary. All of them are part of what a performative is; they represent its different features.

The locutionary act refers to what action speakers' words directly perform. That is to say, it is the literal action words invoke. The illocutionary act, on the other hand, involves what words actually achieve in conversation. The difference between the two can be formulated in terms of the form (locutionary) and force (illocutionary) of performatives. Derived from the locutionary act, the illocutionary act is determined by the set of factors which are inherent to speakers' specific conversation (i.e. what speakers have in mind while communicating, their familiarity, and power relationship). Both act types depend on a set of conventions for their right interpretation. Locutionary acts depend on conventions of language (i.e. the semantic meaning of words; the syntactic structure in which they are embedded) and illocutionary acts depend on conventions of language use (i.e. what a society deems appropriate in a specific communicative situation) and speakers' intentions.

As for the perlocutionary act, it represents the types of consequences speakers' words bring about after a speech act is performed. It deals with the effects that words have on hearers both mentally and emotionally. These effects, however, may not be what speakers originally intended to. Of the three components which make up a speech act, as Austin (1962) put it, the illocutionary act is the most significant and interesting since it has to do with the why and how of language use.

2.6.3. Speech act taxonomy

Another important aspect of Austin's (1962) theory is the classification of speech acts into different categories according to their illocutionary force (and the verbs which embed or project them). These categories include verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives, and expositives. Verdictives (e.g. acquire, convict, rule) refer to presenting or delivering findings according to gathered evidence. Exercitives (i.e. appoint, dismiss, order) are concerned with influencing, exercising power, or making decisions about certain actions. Commissives (e.g. promise, undertake, intend) express speakers' commitment to some course of action. Behabitives (i.e. apologize, thank, congratulate) express speakers' reactions and attitudes towards theirs and others' behavior(s). Finally, expositives (e.g. deny, swear, concede) explain how what speakers say fit into its particularly conversational context. Austin's (1962) original classification of speech acts has been reformulated by other scholars in an attempt to present a clearer taxonomy of the range of functions or actions that speakers perform in conversation. One of such alternative classifications is presented by Searle (1969).

2.6.4. Felicity condition

In order to count as successful or intended, performatives have to be expressed under specific circumstances or "felicity conditions". This means that when performing an act through speaking, speakers need to do it in the right setting, following the right procedure, in front of the right people, having the right intentions, and using the right words.

Searle (1969) incorporated into his view of speech acts several of the core constructs Austin (1962) had originally proposed for his own theory: the propositional (locutionary act) and functional (illocutionary act) content of utterances, speakers' attitude towards that content (illocutionary force), and felicity conditions. In contrast to Austin, Searle divided the concept of

felicity conditions into several categories: Preparatory conditions (the conditions which need to be in place before speakers perform a speech act), sincerity conditions (the set of beliefs or attitudes speakers commit themselves to as they perform a speech act), and essential conditions (what speakers intend to accomplish as/after they perform a speech act). Searle's taxonomy of speech acts differed from that of Austin in terms of what they attempted to classify. Whereas Austin's work focused on performative verbs, Searle's account was based on the illocutionary force of utterances. That meant that a verb could perform different functions or fulfill different illocutionary forces according to the context in which speakers utter it.

Searle's (1976) classification of speech acts relied on three different notions: The illocutionary point (force) of an act, its sincerity conditions, and its direction of fit (how words relate to the world). The different categories he proposed refer to the set of actual functions people can perform via their words rather than a list of individual definitions.

2.7. Compliments

Researchers have made attempts to define and/or determine the pre-conditions, semantic formulas, linguistic forms, and goals of the compliment speech act. For instance, Goffman, (1967) states that compliments are primarily aimed at maintaining, enhancing, or supporting the addressee's face and are used for a variety of reasons, the most significant of which is perhaps to express admiration or approval of someone's work/appearance/taste. On the other hand, Holmes (1988) comments on the difficulty in identifying what a compliment is. She gives the following broad definition.

> A compliment is a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for some "good" (possession, characteristic, skill, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer (Holmes, 1988; p.446).

Holmes' theory (1988) states that the most basic function of a compliment is as an affective speech act used by the speaker to increase solidarity between the speaker and the addressee. Holmes discovered that compliments may serve other functions as well. Using Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory as a framework, Holmes arrived at three functions of compliment exchanges. First, compliments serve as positive affective speech acts by attending to positive face wants and increasing solidarity between people. Second, compliments can serve as positive politeness strategies before a face threatening act (FTA). This is called providing positive redress for the FTA. The third function is that compliments may be FTA's themselves as they may indicate an intrusive desire on the speaker's part towards the hearer or the hearer's possessions.

2.7.1. Empirical studies on native and nonnative compliments and compliment responses speech act behavior.

Most research conducted in the field of cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics, has been, as noted by Rose (2000), based on single-moment studies, that is, studies which have concentrated on comparing language learners' and native speakers' speech act behavior (mostly for evaluating the existence of pragmatic transfer, either positive or negative) without considering the developmental patterns through which learners pass in their road to L2 pragmatic development.

The first studies accounted on compliments originated with the work of Wolfson and Manes (cited in Wolfson & Manes, 1980; Manes & Wolfson, 1981; Wolfson, 1981a, 1981b, 1983, 1984, 1988, 1989a; Manes, 1983), which provided the first comprehensive description of the formulaicity of compliments in American English. They found that in American English the syntax and lexicon of the great majority of compliments were remarkably similar. They also

report that the overwhelming majority (97.2%) of their corpus of 686 naturally occurring compliments fell into one of the following nine syntactic formulas:

1. NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)
2. I (really) {like, love} NP
3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP
7. What (a) (ADJ) NP!
8. ADJ (NP)!
9. Isn`t NP ADJ!

The nine syntactic formulas described by Manes and Wolfson ( ) provide a useful, if not comprehensive, overview of the pragmalinguistic resources available for complimenting in American English. It was significant the fact that these nine syntactic formulas fitted well as routine formulas and could be incorporated into language teaching materials as are other type of sentence patterns.

Manes and Wolfson (1981) found that the compliments fall into two major categories with respect to topics: those that have to do with appearance, and those which comment on ability. Manes and Wolfson (1981) distinguish that the majority of compliments are given to people of the same age and equal status as the speaker. They also found that a great majority of compliments are given by the person in the higher position in interactions between people with unequal status. The compliments from higher to lower status interlocutors were found to be twice as likely to be on the subject of the addressee's ability as on appearance or possessions. But when

the speaker was of lower status than the addressee, the topic of the compliment was most likely to be on appearance or possession.

2.8. Developmental compliment studies

While the bulk of research in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) has described the production and comprehension of second or foreign language (L2) pragmatic meaning, only a few studies have examined the development of learners' pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012; Kasper & Rose, 2003; Rose, 2009). Acquisitional research has been an underexplored area in ILP (Taguchi, 2011b), covering only a small set of speech acts, discourse particles, address markers, pragmatic routines, and conversational implicature (Cai & Wang, 2013). Among the different features which have been studied cross-sectionally or longitudinally, requests are the most widely represented in the L2 developmental pragmatics literature (Kasper & Rose, 2003). Regarding the speech act of compliments, studies in developmental aspects have been carried out by Hoffman-Hicks, (1999); Lee, (2010); and Lee, (2017). Following, these studies will be described briefly.

Hoffman-Hicks, (1999) carried out a longitudinal study into the acquisition of pragmatic competence by adult learners of French. The participants of the research were university students participating in a study abroad program in France. As living in the context were the target language is spoken provides a lot of opportunities to interact with native speakers, it was an excellent opportunity to conduct this research and verify results. Thus, this study explores the pragmatic development of this group of students during their studying sojourn. The purpose was to demonstrate if certain length of time makes pragmatic acquisition easier and to what extent learners approximate to native speakers' norms. So, during a period of sixteen months and with the help of a production questionnaire, the pragmatic skills of fourteen study abroad students from Indiana University were elicited on three occasions. Moreover, there was a control group of

ten students of French who were not part of the study abroad program. French baseline data was also collected from 25 native speakers of French. Then, conversational functions of greeting and leave-taking and the speech act of compliments were analyzed to obtain learners' acquisition in controlled contexts. The results showed that learners reached a minor pragmatic development and narrow in scope. However, when these results were compared with those of the nonnative control group, they became noteworthy since there was not similar development.

In a two-year study from 2007 to 2009 Lee (2010) investigated the developmental patterns of the interlanguage pragmatic comprehension of 176 Cantonese children learners of English from three government subsidized co-educational primary schools located on the Kowloon Peninsula in Hong Kong. Sixty-four seven-year-old Primary 2, 62 nine-year-old Primary 4 and 50 twelve-year-old Primary 6 L2 learners with an average age of 7;5, 9;4 and 11;8 years old, respectively. The study was based on their performance in a multiple-choice comprehension exercise consisting of five direct and indirect speech acts (requesting, apology, refusal, compliment and complaint). In addition, their processing strategies were elicited largely based on retrospective verbal protocols modified from the introspective verbal protocol or 'think aloud' method for adults and children. These results contributed to the literature on the interlanguage developmental pragmatics of young learners, an area on which research literature is scarce.

Lee (2017) traced the gradual development of awareness of one participant, "John", a white American citizen from Chicago, in the role of compliments in Chinese and the ability to use them for various purposes. This process allowed John to increase his ability to participate appropriately as a guest at the Chinese homestay dinner table and to appreciate the subtleties of interpersonal communication that includes unstated expressions of affection. In summer 2012, John, who was fluent in English and Dutch and moderately proficient in Spanish, French, and

German, enrolled in a 5-week short-term program. In spring 2013, John joined a study abroad program with a 15-week curriculum. On each occasion, John lived with a local host family. Before leaving for China, John was asked to make three recordings per week of any social events that he considered helpful in his acquisition of Chinese language and culture. Throughout his two sojourns, John made regular audio recordings of his interactions at the homestay dinner table, yielding 23 hours of audio recordings. He was also interviewed before, during, after, and significantly after his sojourns in China, contributing 6 hours of interview recordings. Finally, this study examined how language learning and relationship building can take place in homestays at the micro-ethnographic level across a longitudinal timeframe. John learned an accurate linguistic form for Chinese compliments and used it as a redressive device to save his host mother's face while also maintaining a cordial guest-host relationship. Development in the second language was evident, both because John was able to reproduce the accurate form to fulfill his duty as a guest at the table, and because he had internalized and expanded the use of compliments by crafting them to regulate the behavior of others when confronted with interactionally and emotionally challenging situations. It was observed that while abroad, students are not only learning to use words, but also to explore the potential meaning of words in communicative interaction.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In the literature review, a number of gaps related to the study of L2 pragmatic development were identified. Few studies have investigated the uninstructed development of L2 pragmatic competence. As such, the present cross-sectional study was conducted in order to examine the developmental patterns followed by L2 learners of English with regard to the speech act of complimenting. In this chapter, an outline of the methodology that guided the investigation is presented. It begins with an introduction to the setting and the participants selected for the study. It continues with a discussion of the data collection instruments employed. Then, it provides a description of how the data were collected. Finally, it discusses how the data collected were coded and analyzed.

3.2. Setting

The study was conducted at the "Facultad de Lenguas" [Faculty of Languages] of the Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla (BUAP). The BUAP is a large-sized public university located in Southeast Mexico offering high school, vocational, bachelor's, master's and doctoral degree programs. The Faculty of Languages is the branch of the university responsible for the teaching of foreign languages. At the time of the investigation, it was composed of seven different academic units, each satisfying different educational demands. Most of these units have fulfilled the same role since their creation. For example, the "Centro de Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras" (CELE) [Foreign Languages Center] has been in charge of offering foreign language courses to the student population at BUAP. The "Tronco Común Universitario" (TCU) [General Education Courses] has provided mandatory English and/or French language courses at the undergraduate level. The "Centro de Evaluación" (CE) [Language Testing Center] administered

as mall number of English language proficiency tests including the TOEFL ITP (Institutional Testing Program) and Cambridge's Preliminary English Test (PET) and First Certificate in English (FCE). Today, the "Centro de Certificaciones Internacionales y Acreditación", as the language testing center is currently known, offers a wider variety of internationally recognized language tests in English and Italian.

Another unit of the Faculty of Languages was the "Licenciatura en Lenguas Modernas" (LEMO). This was an undergraduate degree program who prepared students to be instructors of English or French as a foreign language. This goal is currently fulfilled by the "Licenciatura en la Enseñanza del Inglés" (LEI) and the "Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Francés" (LEF), respectively. The "Licenciatura Abierta en la Enseñanza de Lenguas-Inglés" (LAEL-I) was, and still is, an undegraduate degree program which allowed those interested in teaching English to fit their studies around their working life. Finally, since 2005, the "Maestria en la Enseñanza del Inglés" (MEI) has been a graduate degree program offering training in the theoretical, practical and research aspects of English language teaching.

The largest unit of the Faculty of Languages was, and has always been, the undergraduate program in English language teaching (ELT). Its curriculum included a variety of courses in different areas related to the teaching and learning of English, including linguistics, applied linguistics, culture, pedagogy, teaching methodology, research methodology, testing, curriculum and course design, and materials design. The program also consisted of a range of English language courses, aimed at increasingly developing the learners' L2 proficiency, from basic to advanced. During the first four semesters of the program, the students took classes at the "basic level". These included courses in English, French, linguistics, culture, and pedagogy. Most of them were taught in Spanish, the students' L1. For the last four years of the program, the students had to take core and elective courses in English, applied linguistics, linguistics, language teaching

methodology, and/or research methodology. These courses were mostly taught in English and belonged to the "formative level" of the program, as they are today.

3.3. Participants

The study involved a total of 94 participants. They were composed of six intact groups: four target groups and two baseline groups. The four target groups were Mexican Spanish-speaking learners of EFL enrolled in an English Language Teaching (ELT) undergraduate program in Southeast Mexico. These groups were selected based on their English language proficiency, gauged by the English class ("Lengua Meta") they were taking at the time the data were collected. They represented distinct language proficiency levels, ranging from beginning ("Lengua Meta 2") and low-intermediate ("Lengua Meta 4") to upper-intermediate ("Lengua Meta 6") and advanced ("Lengua Meta 8").

In the beginning proficiency group, there were 18 students. 13 were female and 5 were male. They were all first-year undergraduate students whose age ranged from 17 to 26 (mean age: 19). The low-intermediate proficiency group was composed of 17 students, including 14 females and 3 males. They were in their second year of their undergraduate studies and aged from 18 to 25 (mean age: 20.6). In the upper-intermediate proficiency group, the 15 learners (7 females, 8 males) were third-year undergraduate students who ranged in age from 20 to 25 (mean age: 20.9). Finally, the 14 students in the advanced proficiency group, including 8 females and 6 males, were fourth-year undergraduate students who ranged in age from 20 to 37 (mean age: 23.6).

As reported on in the background questionnaire (See Appendix B), before beginning their undergraduate studies, the learners' previous amount of English instruction varied widely across and within groups, ranging from 1 to 15 years, with a mean of 7.85. This variation reflected the time when students were firstly exposed to the English language formally: in kindergarten, up to

university. Despite such variation, the students had similar prior experience learning the language. For example, the majority had learned English in public institutions, where instruction centered around grammar, reading and translation, with little experience in speaking or listening. Furthermore, most of the EFL learners (53 of 64) had never traveled to a country where English was spoken. Only 11 students reported such visits, ranging from 8 to 120 days. At the time of the study, as also reported on in the background questionnaire, none of the students were taking English classes in another institution. Practice with the language out of the classroom involved the use of textbooks, audio and video material, and, to a lesser extent, newspaper articles and magazines.

As for the two baseline groups, these included 18 native speakers of Mexican Spanish (11 females, 7 males) and 12 native speakers of American English (11 females, 1 male). In the former group, the learners were third-year undergraduate students in the ELT program at the BUAP, whose age ranged from 19 to 27 (mean age: 21.5). In the latter group, the participants were graduate students from different regions of the U.S. completing an intensive study-abroad program in Southeast Mexico. They ranged in age from 20 to 53 (mean age: 35.6).

3.4. Instruments

The data for the study were collected through a background questionnaire and a discourse completion test. These instruments are described below.

3.4.1. Background questionnaire

The background questionnaire (See Appendix B) was used to obtain demographic and language learning experience information from the four target EFL groups participating in the study. The questionnaire was written in Spanish in order to ensure that the learners fully

understood the information requested from them and to allow them to best express themselves while providing their answers. The questionnaire contained 7 questions: 5 closed questions and 2 open-ended questions. The closed questions required the participants to provide the following information: name, gender, age, English language learning history, study abroad experience, English language courses currently taken outside the university, and current practices with the English language. The open-ended questions asked the participants to supply information about the focus of the English language courses they had taken prior to university (i.e., grammar-focused, skills-focused) as well as the learning materials they had made use of while taking those courses. The background questionnaire was not pilot-tested.

3.4.2. Discourse completion test

The instrument used to collect data was a discourse completion test (DCT). The DCT is an off-line task (i.e., an activity in which respondents are not actually involved as depicted in the test) which elicits self-reported written responses on what participants think they would say in particular scenarios (Kasper, 2008). In its basic written format, the DCT requires respondents to read the description provided for each situational item, specifying the setting, the interlocutors, their roles and their relationship in terms of sociocultural factors (e.g., familiarity, dominance, imposition), and supply a response on the space provided (Felix-Brasdefer, 2010). In the field of interlanguage pragmatics, researchers have relied on DCTs to study the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of L2 learners' pragmatic competence (Kasper, 2008), the effect of learners' L1 on their production of L2 pragmatic meaning (Kasper, 1992), the impact of learning environment (second and foreign) and/or individual learner differences on the development and use of L2 pragmatic competence, and the instructed acquisition of L2 pragmatics (Roever, 2011).

3.4.2.1. Constructing and piloting the DCT

The scenarios used in the DCT were derived from a preliminary questionnaire (See Appendix C) administered to two groups (n=44) of Spanish-speaking learners of EFL enrolled at an undergraduate ELT program in Southeast Mexico. None of the groups participated in the present study. The questionnaire required the students to provide on a sheet of paper the three most recent compliments they had given or received in Spanish. The students were asked to describe the scenarios, giving as many details as possible. This procedure yielded 132 scenarios to be used. The scenarios included in the DCT were selected based on the following criteria: first, the most recurring scenarios were selected; second, the scenarios making use of different compliment topic types were chosen; finally, the scenarios incorporating a range of interlocutors, with different social status (e.g., boss-employee) and social distance (e.g., strangers, friends) relationships, were selected. None of the scenarios, however, involved an interaction between relatives. This is a context variable which has been understudied in both cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research (See Rose, 2000 for a notable exception) given the assumption that politeness between family members (and intimates) may be differently expressed/negotiated in comparison to that between strangers, acquaintances or friends (See suggestions for the construction of DCTs in Hudson, 2001).

Out of the pool of scenarios derived from the administration of the preliminary questionnaire, 8 situations were selected to be integrated into the DCT. The instructions and the prompts in the instrument were written in either English (for the English native speakers and the four core groups) or Spanish (for the Spanish native speakers). Each scenario required the participants to imagine themselves in that context and write down in English or Spanish (according to which DCT version they were answering) what they would say in their compliment-giving interaction. Given the limitations in English proficiency experienced by some

of the core groups (e.g., beginning and low-intermediate learners), participants were instructed to leave the space in blank for situations they did not understand or did not know what to say. That is, they were given the choice of opting out (Bonikowska, 1988).

In order to ensure that the situations would reliably elicit compliments from the participants, the instrument was pilot-tested among 29 EFL students. The learners, who did not participate in the present study, were enrolled in Lengua Meta 2 (n=10), Lengua Meta 4 (n=10) and Lengua Meta 8 (n=9) courses at an undergraduate ELT program in Southeast Mexico. The pilot DCT contained 12 situational items. 8 were designed to elicit compliments and 4-other speech act situations were included as distracters (See Appendix D). The results of the pilot test showed the instrument to be reliable in eliciting the target pragmatic feature. However, on average, students took more than 30 minutes to complete the DCT. This was especially the case among the Lengua Meta 2 and the Lengua Meta 4 learners. Given the various challenges and limitations found when conducting the experiment (e.g., difficulty in having access to participants, time constraints to administer the instruments), it was decided to remove 2 distracters from the DCT, resulting in a 10-item questionnaire (See Appendix E). A description of the compliment situations used in this data collection instrument is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Description of compliment situations in the discourse completion questionnaire by "compliment topic type", "social status" and "social distance"

# of item in the DCT	Situation	Compliment topic	Social status	Social distance
1	Class presentation	Act	Speaker-dominant	Acquaintance
2	Baby	Appearance	Status equal	Stranger
3	Joke	Act	Status equal	Acquaintance
5	New hair cut	Appearance	Status equal	Friend
6	Talented cook	Ability	Hearer-dominant	Acquaintance
7	New car	Possession	Speaker-dominant	Acquaintance
9	Football player	Ability	Status equal	Stranger
10	New purse	Possession	Hearer-dominant	Acquaintance

Note: Items 4 and 8 in the DCT were distracters

The variables included under the category "compliment topic" indicate the range of positively valued attributes pertaining to the addressee which are the subject of complimenting on the part of the speaker. These are based on the taxonomy presented in Rose (2000). As for the categories "social status" and "social distance", with the assigned values for each scenario as speaker-dominant, hearer-dominant, status equal, acquaintance, stranger and friend, are listed from the perspective of the participants as interlocutors. It is worth noting that no metapragmatic assessment was carried out by the participating groups in order to know how they perceived the social status and social distance between the complimenter and the complimentee. Such contextual assessment was carried out by the researcher and may be considered as tentative, but with the purpose of serving as working guidelines on which to evaluate the participants'

complimenting behavior. The process followed during the study to collect data is discussed in the next section.

3.5. Data collection procedures

On the day of data collection, the core and baseline groups were administered the background questionnaire first, asking them to provide personal, academic, and language learning information. Next, they took the DCT, in which they were required to write what they thought they should say in each scenario. On average, the baseline and the core groups took 20 and 45 minutes, respectively, to complete both instruments.

3.6. Data analysis

The analysis of the English and the Spanish DCT data was based on the coding scheme for compliments provided in Manes and Wolfson (1981) and Nelson (1997), respectively. Both describe the major syntactic patterns American English (Manes & Wolfson) and Mexican Spanish (Nelson) native speakers utilize to pay their compliments. As for the English data, each compliment response was analyzed according to one of the following nine syntactic formulas:

1. NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)
2. I (really) [like, love] NP
3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP
7. What (a) (ADJ) NP!
8. ADJ (NP)!
9. Isn't NP ADJ!

(Manes & Wolfson, 1981, pp. 120-121)

After initially analyzing the data based on the taxonomy described above, it was necessary to add nine new syntactic patterns plus the category "other" (which doesn't present any of the 18 syntactic patterns to compliment, but precisely "other" that doesn't have to do with it) in order to code all of the participants' compliments in English. These are the following with examples:

10. It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	*That haircut really fixes to her personality.*
11. I V (NP) PP	*I compliment you for the match.*
12. HowADJ NP V PP	*How surprised I am with your style at playing*
13. Interjection	*Congratulations*
14. PRO is NP I V	*That is the purse I love.*
15. PRO V NP	*We need sportsman such as you.*
16. NP I V	*The best I've ever heard.*
17. You V (a) NP	*You have talent.*
18. You are (so) ADJ	*Oh, you really look nice.*
19. Other	*Thank you so much but I'll take a taxi.*

As for the analysis of the Spanish compliment data, this was based on the coding scheme employed in Nelson and Hall (1999). The taxonomy includes four syntactic types, each representing the lexical element carrying the illocutionary force of the speech act: adjective, verb, noun, sentence.

a. Adjective-based compliments:

1. $_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (VP)

¡Qué bonito carro tienes! / ¡Qué bonito carro! / ¡Qué bonito!

2. $_{VP}$[qué + A + N] (NP)

¡Qué amable eres! / ¡Qué bonito está tú carro!

3. VP + $_{NP}$[A(N)]

Tienes bonito carro/ Tienes un carro muy bonito / Es interesante

4. (NP) $_{NP}$[V + A]

Tu presentación estuvo muy bien/ Esta muy bonito tu carro

5. qué + A + V/S

¡Qué bien jugaste el día de hoy! / ¡Qué bien que pudiste llegar a tiempo!

6. V + A

Cocinas bien

b. Verb-based compliments:

7. Gustar/Encantar + PRO NP/S

Me gusta mucho tu casa/ Me encanta la forma en que eres

8. Other verb

Te lo mereces

c. Noun-based compliments:

9. (N) $_{VP}$[V + A]

Eres un genio/ Eres un buenazo

10. NP

Guapa/ Pequeñita/ Muñequita

d. Sentence-based compliments:

11. S (direct)

Manejas muy bien. No necesitas volver a tomar el examen de conducir.

12. S (indirect)

Nunca he visto las estrellas de cerca, pero si son como tú, deben ser hermosas

As with the English compliment data, the Spanish compliment data included instances of syntactic patterns different from the ones presented in Nelson and Hall (1999). Therefore, the following syntactic patterns were added to code this data type.

13. Intj (Interjection)

Felicidades/ Bien hecho/ Buena idea

14. A (Adj)

Interesante/ Bonito/ Gracioso

15. Other

Juegas chickles bomba.

3.7. Coding data

Relying on the coding schemes described above, the English and the Spanish compliment data were analyzed by one coder and the researcher. Both are native speakers of Mexican Spanish who hold a B.A. degree in English Language Teaching and have more than 15 years of classroom experience working with EFL learners at public and private institutions. The coder first went through a training period carried out by the researcher in which the categories of the coding schemes utilized in the study were presented and explained through examples. The coder was then given ten (questionnaire) samples from the data collected (five from each language data set). The coder was instructed to read carefully each compliment response, analyze it, and choose the syntactic pattern which best fitted the response.

After the training session, the coder and the researcher analyzed the data independently. Interrater correlations were then obtained by comparing the coder' and the researcher's coding. The initial value for interrater reliability was 92%. In order to eliminate discrepancies, the coder

and the researcher recoded the items in which there was disagreement through a process of consensus coding. In the end, agreement on all items was achieved.

The results of the coding process were tallied in order to obtain the overall frequency of the syntactic patterns employed by the core and the baseline groups on an item by item basis. The contextual variables described for each compliment situation (See Table 1) in the DCT were used as guidelines to evaluate similarities and differences between English native and nonnative speakers' responses in each situation. Such evaluation was also carried out across the nonnative speaker (core) groups in order to determine developmental patterns in the use of English compliments. Finally, the core groups' responses were compared to those provided by the Spanish native speaker group in order to determine the influence of pragmatic transfer on the learners' L2 complimenting behavior.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction 4.1.

In this chapter, the results of the discourse completion questionnaire administered to the core groups (beginning, low-intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced EFL learners) and the baseline groups (native speakers of English and native speakers of Spanish) will be presented. The statistics used in obtaining the results are based on the frequency of use of compliment formulas on individual items according to their syntactic pattern(s) and the interaction between the pattern(s) and social distance, social power and type of compliment topic as sociopragmatic variables. For illustrative purposes, the eight compliment situations included in the DCT are numbered from 1 to 8 (See Table 1 for the original item number given to each scenario during the administration of the questionnaire).

4.2. Syntactic patterns of compliments: Single strategies

Unlike such speech acts as requests, which generally consist of one main strategy or head act, compliments can be realized through multiple strategies. Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4 show how the syntactic patterns of compliments are distributed across the four learner groups and the native speakers of English.

Table 2: Total number of single compliment strategies produced by each core group and the native speakers of English

SyntacticPattern	**Beginning**		**Lower-int.**		**Upper-int.**		**Advanced**		**NSsof Eng**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
1. NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	31	23	31	22.5	33	27.7	20	18.7	21	22.3
2. I (really) [like, love] NP	5	3.7	6	4.3	1	0.8	4	3.7	9	9.6
3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	12	8.9	20	14.5	2	1.7	7	6.5	7	7.4
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	2	1.5	4	2.9	6	5	1	0.9	6	6.4
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	1	0.7	1	0.7	4	3.4	2	1.9	2	2.1
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP	6	4.4	4	2.9	1	0.8	0	0	1	1.1
7. What (a) (ADJ) NP!	3	2.2	13	9.4	3	2.5	11	10.3	4	4.2
8. ADJ (NP)!	3	2.2	7	5.1	12	10.1	7	6.5	22	23.4
9. Isn't NP ADJ!	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1
10. It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0

11. I V (NP) PP	1	0.7	0	0	4	3.4	0	0	1	1.1
12. How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)	0	0	0	0	2	1.7	1	0.9	1	1.1
13. Interjection!	1	0.7	2	1.4	1	0.8	1	0.9	1	1.1
14. PRO is NP I V	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0
15. PRO V NP	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0
16. NP I V	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
17. You V (a) NP	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
18. You are (so) ADJ	12	8.9	11	8.0	1	0.8	8	7.5	0	0
19. Other	11	8.1	1	0.7	12	10.1	11	10.3	0	0
20. Opt out	8	5.9	11	8.0	11	9.2	11	10.3	0	0
Total	96	71.1	113	82.0	95	79.8	85	79.4	76	80.8

Note. F indicates frequency; % indicates percentage; Lower-int. indicates lower-intermediate; Upper-int. indicates upper-intermediate; NSs of Eng indicates native speakers of English

As shown in Table 2, "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" was the most frequent syntactic pattern across all learner groups, constituting a total of 23%, 22.5%, 27.7% and 18.7% of the compliments produced by the beginning, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced EFL learners, respectively. In contrast, the most preferred choice among the English native speakers was ADJ (NP)! (23.4%). Numbers 1 to 5 below are some compliment examples taken from the learner and the native speaker data exemplifying their most favored compliment strategy. Group, level and/or subject number are indicated in parentheses.

(1) *Your baby is beautiful* (B1, item 2)[1]

(2) *It was all delicious* (LI5, item 5)[2]

(3) *Your new style is cool* (UI8, item 4)[3]

(4) *Your car is really nice* (A9, item 6)[4]

(5) *Great game* (NSE9, item 7)[5]

In contrast to "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", the frequency of use of the remaining compliment strategies is not constant across the learner groups. For example, "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" was the second choice for the beginning (8.9%) and the lower-intermediate learners

[1]Beginning participant 1
[2] Lower-intermediate participant 5
[3]Upper-intermediate participant 8
[4]Advanced participant 9
[5]Native speaker of English participant 9

(14.5%) (with the first group also showing similar preference for "You are (so) ADJ": 8.9%). On the other hand, "ADJ (NP)!" and "other" constituted the second most favored patterns among the upper-intermediate learners (10.1% each). Yet, "other", "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" and "opt out" were the second choice for the advanced group (10.3% each). As for the English native speakers, the second most frequent syntactic pattern was "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" (22.3%). Some examples of the participants' second most preferred strategy are found in (6) to (10). These correspond to "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (6), "You are (so) ADJ" (7), "ADJ (NP)!" (8), "other" (9), "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" (10) and "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" (11).

(6) *I think that you're a very cool person to be around* (LI6, item 3)[6]

(7) *You're really good playing soccer* (B3, item 7)[7]

(8) *Nice car* (UI8, item 6)[8]

(9) *Could you tell me again?* (A10, item 3)[9]

(10) *What a nice purse!* (A4, item 8)[10]

(11) *Your presentation was very thorough* (NSE10, item 1)[11]

Regarding the rest of the compliment strategies, differences in preference use were observed in the learner and the native speaker data. In decreasing order, the beginning group favored the use of "other" (8.1%), "opt out" (5.9%), "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP" (4.4%), "I (really) [like, love] NP" (3.7%), "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" (2.2%), "ADJ (NP)!" (2.2%), "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" (1.5%), "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)" (0.7%), "I V (NP) PP" (0.7%), and "Interjection!" (0.7%). In contrast, the distribution of compliment strategies among the lower-intermediate group shows a different picture. Decreasingly, the learners displayed preference for

[6]Lower-intermediate participant 6
[7]Beginning participant 3
[8]Upper-intermediate participant 8
[9]Advanced participant 10
[10]Advanced participant 4
[11]Native speaker of English 10

"What (a) (ADJ) NP!" (9.4%), "You are (so) ADJ" (8.0%), "opt out" (8.0%), "ADJ (NP)!" (5.1%), "I (really) [like, love] NP" (4.3%), "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" (2.9%), "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP" (2.9%), "Interjection!" (1.4%), "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)" (0.7%), "NP I V" (0.7%), "You V (a) NP" (0.7%) and "other" (0.7%).

For the upper-intermediate group, "opt out" (9.2%), "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" (5%), "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)" (3.4%), "I V (NP) PP" (3.4%), "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (1.7%), "How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)" (1.7%), "I (really) [like, love] NP" (0.8%), "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP" (0.8%), "Interjection!" (0.8%), "PRO is NP I V" (0.8%), "PRO V NP" (0.8%), and "You are (so) ADJ" (0.8%) were the preferred strategies. Data from the advanced group suggest a different tendency in compliment use. The students relied on "You are (so) ADJ" (7.5%), "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (6.5%), "ADJ (NP)!" (6.5%), "I (really) [like, love] NP" (3.7%), "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" (0.9%), "It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP" (0.9%), "How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)" (0.9%), and "Interjection!" (0.9%). Finally, turning to the English native speakers, they favored the following syntactic formulas: "I (really) [like, love] NP" (9.6%), "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (7.4%), "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" (6.4%), "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" (4.2%), "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)" (2.1%), "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP" (1.1%), "Isn't NP ADJ!" (1.1%), "I V (NP) PP" (1.1%), "How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)" (1.1%), and "Interjection!" (1.1%).

Examples 12 to 24 below illustrate a variety of compliment strategies occurring in the native and/or nonnative speaker data. They correspond to the following syntactic patterns: "I (really) [like, love] NP" (12), "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" (13), "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)" (14), "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP" (15), "Isn't NP ADJ!" (16), "It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP" (17), "I V (NP) PP" (18), "How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)" (19), "Interjection!" (20), "PRO is NP I V" (21), "PRO V NP" (22), "NP I V" (23), and "You V (a) NP" (24).

(12) *Your new purse I like it very much* (B1, item 8)[12]

(13) *You have made a very good work* (B5, item 1) [13]

(14) *You really look very well* (LI13, item 5)[14]

(15) *Oh lady you have a beautiful baby* (LI12, item 2) [15]

(16) *Look at your baby. Isn't she lovely!* (NSE1, item 2)[16]

(17) *Your haircut, it suits your personality* (A10, item 4) [17]

(18) *I want to buy a purse like yours* (UI6, item 8) [18]

(19) *I just want to tell you how surprised I am with your style of playing* (UI9, item 7)[19]

(20) *Very well* (UI15, item 1) [20]

(21) *That was the hairstyle I wanted* (UI1, item 4) [21]

(22) *We need sportsman such as you* (UI4, item 7)[22]

(23) *The best I've ever heard* (LI6, item 3)[23]

(24) *You must give me the recipe* (LI8, item 5) [24]

Table 3 summarizes the EFL learners and the English native speakers' favored compliment strategies. From top to bottom, they are arranged in decreasing order of preference for each group. The asterisk (*) marks those cases in which a native or nonnative speaker group exhibited the same preference for two or more syntactic patterns given the distribution of such strategies in the data (i.e., equal frequency of use).

[12]Beginning participant 1
[13] Beginning participant 5
[14] Lower-intermediate participant 13
[15]Lower-intermediate participant 12
[16]Native speaker of English 1
[17]Advanced participant 10
[18]Upper intermediate participant 6
[19]Upper-intermediate participant 19
[20]Upper-intermediate participant 15
[21]Upper-intermediate participant 1
[22] Upper-intermediate participant 4
[23]Lower-intermediate participant 6
[24] Lower-intermediate participant 8

Table 3: Compliment strategies produced by the EFL learners and the native speakers of English (order of preference)

Beginning	**Lower-int.**	**Upper-int.**	**Advanced**	**NSs of English**
NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) (23%)	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) (22.5%)	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) (27.7%)	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) (18.7%)	ADJ (NP)! (23.4%)
* PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP/ * You are (so) ADJ (8.9%)	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP (14.5%)	* ADJ (NP)! * Other (10.1%)	* What (a) (ADJ) NP! * Other * Opt out (10.3%)	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) (22.3%)
Other (8.1%)	What (a) (ADJ) NP! (9.4%)	Opt out (9.2%)	You are (so) ADJ (7.5%)	I (really) [like, love] NP (9.6%)
Opt out (5.9%)	* You are (so) ADJ * Opt out (8.0%)	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP (5%)	* PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP * ADJ (NP)! (6.5%)	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP (7.4%)
You have (a) (really) ADJ NP (4.4%)	ADJ (NP)! (5.1%)	* You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) * I V (NP) PP (3.4%)	I (really) [like, love] NP (3.7%)	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP (6.4%)
I (really) [like, love] NP (3.7%)	I (really) [like, love] NP (4.3%)	* PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP * How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP) (1.7%)	* You V (a) (really) ADJ NP * It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP * How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP) * Interjection! (0.9%)	What (a) (ADJ) NP! (4.2%)
* What (a) (ADJ) NP! * ADJ (NP)! (2.2%)	* You V (a) (really) ADJ NP * You have (a) (really) ADJ NP (2.9%)	* I (really) [like, love] NP * You have (a) (really) ADJ NP * Interjection! * PRO is NP I V * PRO V NP * You are (so) ADJ (0.8%)		You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) (2.1%)
You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) (1.5%)	Interjection! (1.4%)			* You have (a) (really) ADJ NP * Isn't NP ADJ! * I V (NP) PP * How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP) * Interjection! (1.1%)
* You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) * I V (NP) PP * Interjection! (0.7%)	* You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) * NP I V * You V (a) NP * Other (0.7%)			

Note. Lower-int. indicates lower-intermediate; Upper-int. indicates upper-intermediate; NSs of Eng indicates native speakers of English

The analysis of the learners' compliments suggests that rather than being a linear developmental movement, the acquisition of this speech act follows a U-shaped pattern. Except for "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", which was the single largest category in all the learner data, the use of other compliment strategies increased or decreased as learners made progress in their English proficiency level. That is the case of "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" and "You are (so) ADJ". Preference for the first strategy was observed in the beginning (8.9%) and low-intermediate (14.7%) levels. At an upper-intermediate level, its use decreased (1.7%). However, increasing preference for it was found in the advanced group (6.5%). Similarly, the distribution of the second formula went from 8.9% (beginning) to 8.1% (lower-intermediate) to 0.8% (upper-intermediate), shifting back to 7.5% (advanced) with learners of higher proficiency. This decreasing-increasing pattern of preference across the beginning, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced EFL groups was also observed with the students' use of "other" (8.1%, 0.7%, 10.1%, 10.3%), "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" (2.2%, 9.4%, 2.5%, 10.3%), "(ADJ) NP!" (2.2%, 5.1%, 10.1%, 6.5%), and "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)" (0.7%, 0.7%, 3.4%, 1.9%).

Another significant point to note in the learner data is the distribution of the strategy "opt-out". Its use increased as learners progressed from beginning (5.9%) and lower-intermediate (8.1%) to upper-intermediate (9.2 %) and advanced (10.3%) levels of language proficiency. This finding does not support previous results reported in the interlanguage pragmatics literature, where the occurrence of the strategy has been found to be less frequent among more advanced learners (e.g., Ren, 2012; Rose, 2000). Opting out mostly occurred in items 6 (a teacher complimenting a student for his new car) and 8 (an employee complimenting her boss for her new purse) for all learner groups. Questions remain as to why the students decided not to provide an answer on these items since no think-aloud or retrospective data were collected from them during or subsequent to the administration of the DCT, respectively. Reasons related to the

students' linguistic resources should be ruled out given the fact that opting out was most frequent among the most advanced EFL learners. This is an issue which warrants further investigation.

Another important question to ask is whether higher levels of language proficiency entail approximation to target language norms. The analysis of the data seems to indicate that this is not the case. Although the number of compliments decreased with proficiency (beginning: *n*=96; lower-intermediate: *n*=113; upper-intermediate: *n*=95; advanced: n=85), thus emulating native speaker use (*n*=76), the advanced learners relied on distinct syntactic formulas to realize their compliments in comparison to the English native speakers. 70.1% of the students' responses on the DCT included one of the following: "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" (18.7%), "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" (10.3%), "other" (10.7%), "opt out" (10.7%), "You are (so) ADJ" (7.5%), "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (6.5%) and "ADJ (NP)!" (6.5%). In contrast, 69.1% of the native speakers' compliments were accounted for by the following: "ADJ (NP)!" (23.4%), "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" (22.3%), "I (really) [like, love] NP" (9.6%), "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (7.4%), and "You V (a) (really) ADJNP" (6.4%). Except for "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" and "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP", the rest of these syntactic formulas were negligibly used by the different learner groups, regardless of their proficiency level. Conversely, the English native speakers did not favor the use of "You are (so) ADJ" (0%), "other" (0%) or "opt out" (0%). Overall, the results suggest that the native and the nonnative speaker groups differ in important ways in relation to their use of single compliment formulas.

4.3. Syntactic patterns of compliments: Combination of strategies

Concerning the production of multiple compliment strategies, Table 4 shows the distribution of combined syntactic patterns in the learner and the English native speaker data.

Table 4: Total number of combined compliment strategies produced by each learner group and the native speakers of English

SyntacticPattern	**Beginning**		**Lower-int.**		**Upper-int.**		**Advanced**		**NSsof Eng**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
1. NP [ís, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + * (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 13, 18)	15	11.1	6	4.3	7	5.9	4	3.7	1	1.1
2. I (really) [like, love] NP + (1, 4, 5, 10, 13, 18)	0	0	4	2.9	2	1.7	2	1.9	4	4.2
3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP + (1, 2, 3, 5, 13, 18)	4	3.0	6	4.3	0	0	1	0.9	0	0
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP + (1, 13)	3	2.2	0	0	2	1.7	1	0.9	1	1.1
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + (8, 5)	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP + (1, 2, 3, 8, 13, 14)	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	4	3.7	2	2.1
7. What (a) (ADJ) NP! + (1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 18)	3	2.2	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.9	2	2.1
8. ADJ (NP)! + (1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 13, 18)	5	3.7	2	1.4	3	2.5	4	3.7	6	6.4
9. Isn't NP ADJ! +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10. It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. I V (NP) PP + (1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0
12. How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13. Interjection! + (1, 3, 5, 8, 13, 14, 18)	4	3.0	4	2.9	6	5	2	1.9	1	1.1
14. PRO is NP I V + (1)	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	1	1.1
15. PRO V NP+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16. NP I V+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17. You V (a) NP+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18. You are (so) ADJ + (2, 8, 13, 18)	3	2.2	1	0.7	2	1.7	1	0.9	0	0
Total	39	28.9	25	18	24	20.2	22	20.6	18	19.2

Note. * indicates possible combination of strategies across all groups; Lower-int. indicates lower-intermediate; Upper-int. indicates upper-intermediate; NSs of Eng indicates native speakers of English

As shown in Table 4, the number of combined syntactic patterns is smaller than the number of single syntactic strategies across the beginning (39 vs. 96), lower-intermediate (25 vs. 113), upper-intermediate (24 vs. 95) and advanced EFL learners (22 vs. 85) as well as the English native speakers (18 vs. 76). Combinations involving the syntactic pattern "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" were most common among the students (ranging from 3.7% to 11.1%), with the lower-intermediate and the advanced learners also showing similar preference for "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" (4.3%) and "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP"(3.7%)/"ADJ (NP)!" (3.7%),

respectively. Combinations beginning with the pattern "ADJ (NP)!" were the most favored choice among the English native speakers (6.4%), and the second most frequent choice of the beginning EFL learners (3.7%). The analysis of the data also indicates that there were sixty six unique compliment combinations, most of them occurring very infrequently (in fact, forty-four occurred only once). Despite the great variety of combined strategies employed by the native and nonnative participants, there were some which were absent in the data. These include the ones beginning with the strategies "Isn't NP ADJ!", "It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP", "How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)", "PRO V NP", "NP I V" and "You V (a) NP".

As with the use of single syntactic patterns, the range of multiple compliment strategies produced by the students differed according to their proficiency level. For example, in the case of the syntactic pattern "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", beginning students combined it with the following formulas: "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "I (really) [like, love] NP", "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)", "You have (a) (really) ADJ NP", "What (a) (ADJ) NP!", "Interjection!" and "You are (so) ADJ". With regards to the lower-intermediate learners, they combined it with "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP", "Interjection!" and "You are (so) ADJ". A different tendency was exhibited by the upper-intermediate and advanced learners. The former combined the pattern with "I (really) [like, love] NP", "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP", "You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)"and "ADJ (NP)!". The latter combined it with "I (really) [like, love] NP" and "ADJ (NP)!".

The analysis of the rest of the combined strategies showed similar results. Their distribution varied across the four learner groups, with the beginning EFL learners producing the widest range of combinations (27). They were followed by the lower-intermediate, the upper-intermediate and the advanced groups, which produced 17, 17 and 18 compliment combinations, respectively. With increasing proficiency, therefore, the realization of compliments shifted from

incorporating multiple strategies to involving single syntactic formulas. As for the English native speakers, not only did they employ a narrower range of combinations (12), but also preferred distinct ones vis-à-vis the EFL learners (e.g., "ADJ (NP)! + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "ADJ (NP)! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)", "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP") (See Appendix F for a complete description of the compliment strategies each group used in combination). Given the exploratory nature of this study, it is unclear whether the differences observed between the native and nonnative speakers are statistically significant. This is an issue which further research may tackle. Overall, research results suggest that despite a high level of language proficiency, EFL learners do not approximate target language norms with respect to the pragmalinguistic resources native speakers use when paying their compliments. The learners have preference for distinct single and combined compliment strategies.

4.4. Contextual factors and compliment use

Having examined the use of compliment strategies across the different learner groups, it remains to be seen whether there is evidence of situational variation. This is an aspect corresponding to the sociopragmatics of compliment use and which entails the examination of 1) learners' complimenting behavior along those contextual factors as social distance, social power, and type of compliment topic and 2) how such behavior approximate target language norms.

4.4.1. Type of compliment topic

Table 5 displays the results of the DCT in relation to the use of compliment strategies (single and combined) according to compliment topic. Following Rose (2002), there were four topic types in which the data were coded and analyzed: ability (items 5 & 7), appearance (items 2

Table 5: Use of compliment strategies by group according to compliment type

		Beginning	**Lower-intermediate**	**Upper-intermediate**	**Advanced**	**NSs of English**
Topic Type	*Ability*	37 (27.4%)	38 (27.5%)	31 (26.1%)	27 (25.2%)	23 (24.4%)
	Appearance	28 (20.7%)	33 (23.9%)	31 (26.1%)	23 (21.5%)	24 (25.6%)
	Performance	39 (28.9%)	37 (26.8%)	29 (24.4%)	31 (29.0%)	24 (25.6%)
	Possession	31 (23.0%)	30 (21.7%)	28 (23.5%)	26 (24.3%)	23 (24.4%)
	Total	N= 135	N= 138	N= 119	N= 107	N= 94

& 4), performance (items 1 & 3) and possession (items 6 & 8). As Table 5 indicates, there is considerable uniformity across the native and the nonnative speaker groups. Regardless of which group paid the compliment (native or nonnative), what they complimented (someone else's ability, appearance, performance or possession), or which proficiency level the learners had (e.g., beginning, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate or advanced), the percentage of compliments produced was constant across groups. The differences were not considerable (e.g., there is a percentage differential of 5.4 between the upper-intermediate and the beginning group regarding the use of compliments in appearance-based situations). Once again, there is no evidence of development across the four learner groups in the use of compliments according to topic. The data showed no relationship between compliment topic, the frequency of the strategies used, and the learners' English proficiency level. A closer examination of the data (See Appendix F) indicated that even the range of compliment strategies produced by the different learner groups did not vary. Across situations, most compliments were realized through "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP", "What (a) (ADJ) NP!" and "other", including a high proportion of "opt out".

This pattern of compliment use contrasted that exhibited by the English native speakers (See Appendix F). Unlike the EFL learners, the NS group tended to rely on one main strategy to

produce their appearance- ("NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)") and performance-related ("ADJ (NP)!") compliments. On the other hand, to pay their ability- and possession-related compliments, the group favored the use of two ("You V (a) (really) ADJ NP", "ADJ (NP)!") and four ("I (really) [like, love] NP", "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP", "ADJ (NP)!") main strategies, respectively. This evidence of situational variation in compliment use was absent in the learner data.

4.4.2. Social power

The results displayed in Table 6 reflect the frequency of use of compliment strategies (single and combined) in terms of social power (see appendix G for more details). The strategies are distributed into those employed in dominant (items 1, 5, 6 and 8) versus non-dominant (items 2, 3, 4, and 7) situations. The first refers to those scenarios in which the speaker has a higher status than the hearer or the hearer has a higher status than the speaker. The second includes those scenarios in which the speaker and the hearer have the same social status.

Table 6: Use of compliment strategies by group according to social power.

	Beginning	**Lower-intermediate**	**Upper-intermediate**	**Advanced**	**NSs of English**
Dominant	82 (60.7%)	73 (52.9%)	60 (50.4%)	60 (56.1%)	48 (51.1%)
Non-dominant	53 (39.3%)	65 (47.1%)	59 (49.6%)	47 (43.9%)	46 (48.9%)
Total	N=135	N=138	N=119	N=107	N=94

As Table 6 indicates, there is situational variation in compliment strategy for the beginning and advanced learners. Among both groups, compliments were more frequent in dominant (beginning: 60.7%; advanced: 56.1%) than in non-dominant (beginning: 39.3%; advanced: 43.9%) situations. This pattern of compliment use, however, contrasts that exhibited

by the lower-intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners as well as the English native speakers. Across these groups, compliments were equally produced in dominant (lower-intermediate: 52.9%; upper-intermediate: 50.4%; native speakers of English: 51.1%) and non-dominant (lower-intermediate: 47.1%; upper-intermediate: 49.6%; native speakers of English: 48.9%) situations. This tendency seems to indicate the speakers' preference for complimenting regardless of their interlocutor's social power.

Despite seemingly approaching sociopragmatic norms in compliment use, the lower-intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners (as well as the beginning and advanced learners) made use of different strategies in comparison to the English native speakers. Across situations, the students mostly relied on the following patterns: "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP", "What (a) (ADJ) NP!", "You are (so) ADJ" and "other". There were also several instances of "opt out" in the learner data (See Appendix G for details). On the other hand, the English native speakers did vary their strategy use according to their interlocutor's social power. For example, in "dominant" situations involving a complimenter of higher social status, the speakers favored the use of "(ADJ) NP!" and "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)". Conversely, in dominant situations implicating a complimenter of lower social status, the speakers preferred "I (really) [like, love] NP", "You V (a) (really) ADJ NP" and "ADJ NP!". Yet, in situations involving equal status interlocutors, the speakers tended to employ distinct compliment strategies: "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "(ADJ) NP!", "I (really) [like, love] NP" and "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP". Such situational variation in compliment use did not occur in the learner data, suggesting their inability to assess the linguistic, social and interactional features of the setting they are interacting in and vary their language accordingly.

4.4.3. Social distance

In addition to compliment type and social power, the data were also analyzed in relation to social distance (see appendix H for more details). Given the unequal number of items in the DCT involving situations between acquaintances (items 1, 3, 5, 6 and 8), strangers (items 2 and 7) and friends (item 4), participants' responses were examined in terms of their "mean" rather than their frequency of use. To that end, instances of a particular compliment strategy were first identified according to whether they were used in acquaintance-, stranger- or friend-related situations. Then, they were added up and finally divided by the total number of items in the DCT which depicted those specific scenarios: acquaintances [*n*=5], strangers [*n*=2], or friends [*n*=1]. Table 7 below shows the distribution of native and nonnative compliments by social distance.

Table 7: Use of compliment strategies by group according to social distance.

	Beginning	**Lower-intermediate**	**Upper-intermediate**	**Advanced**	**NSs of English**
Acquaintances	80 (16) *	82 (16.4)	73 (14.6)	61 (12.2)	59 (11.8)
Strangers	31 (15.5)	32 (16)	30 (15)	29 (14.5)	25 (12.5)
Friends	24 (24)	24 (24)	16 (16)	17 (17)	10 (10)
Total	N=135	N=138	N=119	N=107	N=94

* The number in brackets represents the mean of the strategies used

As Table 7 indicates, the EFL learners tended to produce more compliment strategies in situations involving friends than in those associated with acquaintances or strangers. This pattern was more evident among the lower than the higher-level learners. On average, in the friend-related situation, the beginning and the lower-intermediate groups yielded 24 compliment strategies in comparison to the 16 and 17 compliment formulas employed by the upper-intermediate and advanced groups, respectively. An important point to note is that as the learners' proficiency develops, their compliment use becomes more evenly distributed across all situations, approximating target language norms. Thus, no considerable differences are observed among the

upper-intermediate or advanced learners or the English native speakers when paying compliments to either an acquaintance, stranger or friend. The number of compliment strategies produced by each group is constant across situations.

A more qualitative analysis of the data, however, indicates that social distance as a contextual variable differentially affected the native and nonnative speakers' complimenting behavior. As with compliment type and social power, the compliment strategies employed by the EFL learners were not constrained by the social distance they had vis-à-vis their interlocutor. Whether the recipient of the compliment was a friend, a stranger or an acquaintance, the students relied on the same set of strategies to pay their compliments. These included "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP", "You are (so) ADJ" and "other". Several instances of "opt out" were also identified in the learner data. In contrast, the native speakers modified their strategy use according to how close or distant they perceived the relationship with their interlocutor. For example, in interactions with acquaintances, the speakers favored the use of "ADJ NP!" and, to a lesser extent, "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)". In scenarios involving a stranger, the pattern was reversed. They mostly relied on "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)", followed by "ADJ NP!". Finally, in situations depicting friends, they showed equal preference for "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" and "I (really) [like, love] NP" (See Appendix 10 for details). This pattern of compliment use was absent in the learner data.

In sum, there is little evidence of situational variation in the compliments produced by the learners. Whether beginning, intermediate or advanced, the students did not vary their compliment use, irrespective of the topic of their compliment or the social power or social distance of their interlocutor. In order to account for the patterns observed among the learners is useful to consider the use of compliments in Spanish and examine the influence of L1 pragmatic transfer on their L2 pragmatic competence.

4.5. L1 Pragmatic transfer and L2 compliment use

Turning to the Spanish data, Table 8 displays the distribution of single compliment strategies in the language. As the table indicates, native speakers of Spanish relied on twelve syntactic patterns to pay their compliments. Most of them took the form of "$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)" (15.7%), "other" (15.7%), "(NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)" (7.1%), "VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]" (6.4%) and "Interjection" (5.7%). One important point to note is that these, and most of the strategies in Table 8, do not have an exact English equivalent. Linguistically, Spanish compliment strategies are different from English compliment strategies.

Table 8: Use of single compliment strategies by native speakers of Spanish

Syntactic Pattern		F	%
1:	$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)	22	15.7
2:	$_{VP}$[qué + A + N] (+NP)	4	2.9
3:	VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]	9	6.4
4:	(NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)	10	7.1
5:	qué+A+V/S	1	0.7
6:	V+A	3	2.1
8:	Other verb	4	2.9
10:	NP	1	0.7
11:	S (direct)	4	2.9
12:	S (indirect)	4	2.9
13:	Interjection	8	5.7
15:	Other	22	15.7
	Total:	92	65.7

Except for "other" and "interjection", the learners did not linguistically construct their L2 compliments by resorting to the syntactic patterns of compliments employed in the Spanish language. The analysis of the data suggests that L1 transfer at the pragmalinguistic level cannot account for the students' complimenting behavior in the L2. It seems that the learners were aware of the lack of linguistic correspondence between compliments in Spanish and compliments in English. One notable exception to this observation is the strategy "other", which the EFL learners and the Spanish native speakers employed to give their compliments in their L2 and L1, respectively. Excluding the lower-intermediate students, the distribution of the strategy was

similar across the beginning (8.1%), upper-intermediate (10.1%) and advanced EFL learners (10.3%) as well as the native speakers of Spanish (15.7%). Examples (25)-(30) illustrate the use of the "other" strategy in the data.

(25) *I compliment you for the match* (UI14, item 7)[25]

(26) *Oh my God! I can't believe it* (A9, item 8)[26]

(27) *That car is yours? I can't believe it* (B12, item 6)[27]

(28) *Comediante, comediante, comediante* (NSS1, item 4) [28]

(29) *¿En dónde te lo hiciste, guapa?* (NSS11, ítem 4) [29]

(30) *Ladronde? Jejeje* (NSS2, ítem 8) [30]

Transfer also occurred in relation to the wide number of compliment strategies the learners employed in the DCT. Unlike the English native speakers, whose compliments were mainly realized through six strategies (see page 42), the EFL learners (see page 41) and the native speakers of Spanish used, at least, 10 strategies regularly.

Influence of L1 pragmatic norms on learners' L2 complimenting behavior was also observed in their preference for using the same compliment strategies across situations, regardless of the social power or social distance of their interlocutor or the topic of their compliments. Table 9 (social power), Table 10 (social distance) and Table 11 (compliment topic) display Spanish native speakers' compliments according to the abovementioned contextual factors.

[25] Upper-intermediate participant 14
[26]Advanced participant 9
[27]Beginning participant 12
[28]Native speaker of Spanish 1
[29] Native speaker of Spanish 11
[30] Native speaker of Spanish 2

Table 9: Use of compliment strategies by native speakers of Spanish according to social power.

Syntactic pattern	**Dominant**		**Non-dominant**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**
$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)	13	9.3	9	6.4
$_{VP}$[qué + A + N] (+NP)	1	0.7	3	2.1
VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]	5	3.5	4	2.9
(NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)	7	5	3	2.1
qué+A+V/S	0	0	1	0.7
V+A	0	0	3	2.1
Other verb	1	0.7	3	2.1
NP	0	0	1	0.7
S(direct)	2	1.4	2	1.4
S(indirect)	3	2.1	1	0.7
Interjection	2	1.4	6	4.3
Other	9	6.4	13	9.3
Combined strategies	26	18.6	22	15.7
Total	69	49.3	71	5.07

Table 10: Use of compliment strategies by native speakers of Spanish according to social distance

Syntactic Pattern	Acq.	Strg.	Frnd
	Mean*	Mean	Mean
$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)	3	3.5	3
$_{VP}$[qué + A + N] (+NP)	0.1	1	1
VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]	2.7	1.5	2
(NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)	1.8	0	1
qué+A+V/S	0	0	0
V+A	0	1	1
Other verb	0.2	0	0
NP	0	0.5	0
S(direct)	0.8	0	0
S(indirect)	0.8	0	0
Interjection	3	3	2
Other	5	5	4
Combined strategies	5.8	6	6
Total	23.2	21.5	20

Note: Acq.=Acquaintance; Strg.= Stranger; Frnd= Friend

* Given the unequal number of situations depicting an interaction between acquaintances (5), strangers (2) and friends (1), the mean rather than the frequen cy of use is shown in the table.

Table 11: Use of compliment strategies by native speakers of Spanish according to compliment type

	Ability		Appearance		Performance		Possession	
Syntactic pattern	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)	4	2.8	7	5	2	1.4	11	7.9
$_{VP}$[qué + A + N] (+NP)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]	1	0.7	2	1.4	3	2.1	5	3.6
(NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)	3	2.1	4	2.8	2	1.4	4	2.9
qué+A+V/S	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
V+A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Other verb	0	0	3	2.1	0	0	0	0
NP	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
S(direct)	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.4	1	0.7
S(indirect)	2	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interjection	3	2.1	1	1.4	6	3.6	2	1.4
Other	4	2.9	8	5.7	3	2.1	7	5
Combined strategies	17	12.1	8	5.7	18	12.8	5	3.6
Total	35	25	34	24.3	36	25.7	35	25

As shown in Table 9, the Spanish native speakers showed preference for "$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)" (15.7%), "other" (15.7%), "NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)" (8.1%), "VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]" (6.4%), "Interjection" (5.7%), and "S (direct)" (2.8%). These were employed across dominant and non-dominant situations. This showed lack of contextual variation in the speakers' responses. The same occurred with the contextual variable "social distance" (See Table 10). Irrespective of whether the compliment was given to an acquaintance, stranger or friend, the speakers favored the use of "$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)", "Interjection", "other" and "VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]". Similar results were obtained with the production of compliments according to their topic (See Table 11). Across ability-, appearance-, performance-, and possession-related situations, the speakers preferred to use "$_{NP}$[qué + A + N] (+VP)" (17.1%), "other" (15.7%), "(NP+) $_{NP}$(V+A)" (9.2%), "interjection" (8.5%) and "VP+ $_{NP}$[A(N)]" (7.8%).

The lack of situational variation among the native speakers of Spanish resembles the behavior exhibited by the EFL learners in their responses. They showed preference for certain syntactic patterns irrespective of which contextual variables (social distance, social power, compliment topic) are inherent in the situation. Thus, the learners transferred their L1 sociopragmatic norms when giving compliments in the L2.

4.6. Conclusion.

The present chapter explained in detail the procedure followed to analyze the data. It also explained the findings obtained after administering the data collection instrument to the core (EFL learners) and baseline (native speakers of English and native speakers of Spanish) groups participating in the study. The results demonstrated that the EFL students followed a U-shaped developmental pattern in their acquisition of L2 compliments. The analysis of the data also showed that the learners' L2 complimenting behavior is to a certain extent influenced by the pragmatic norms of their native language. In the next chapter, the three research questions posed in this study are answered. The chapter also describes the limitations and contributions of the present study.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter consists of a summary of the research project presented in this thesis. First, a general discussion of the research will be introduced. Then, the research questions will be addressed to show the conclusions regarding the significance of this research paper. Following, pedagogical implications will be presented. Next, limitations of the study will be explained. Finally, further possibilities for research will be discussed.

5.2. Discussion and Conclusion

This paper has reported the results of a cross-sectional study of pragmatic development of the speech act of compliments in English by Mexican language (EFL) learners at different proficiency levels: basic, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. It also describes the influence of L1pragmatic transfer on the students' complimenting behavior. The research questions posed in chapter one will be briefly discussed here:

(1). What are the compliment strategies produced by EFL learners at different proficiency levels?

According to the results, it could be observed that the syntactic pattern "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" was the most preferred across all learner groups, contrary to the English native speaker group which preferred "ADJ (NP)!". Opposite to this, the results presented inconsistency in the frequency of use of the remaining compliment strategies among the learner groups. Another interesting point to highlight is that English native speakers used less syntactic formulas than the EFL learners. It was also noticed that there was a great variety in the use of syntactic patterns across the different groups, which means that not one syntactic formula prevailed more than the others except for the syntactic pattern "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)",

as was mentioned previously. This analysis suggests that the acquisition of this speech act follows a U-shaped pattern instead of a linear developmental movement. It means that the use of other compliment strategies increased or decreased as learners made progress in their English proficiency level. A relevant aspect to highlight in the learner data is the distribution of the strategy "opt-out". Unexpectedly, English learners increased the use of this strategy as they progressed from lower to higher proficiency levels.

Evidently, this finding is not in accordance with previous results reported in the interlanguage pragmatics literature, where the occurrence of the strategy has been found to be less frequent among more advanced learners (e.g., Ren, 2012; Rose, 2000). What motivates this behavior is unknown since no think-aloud or retrospective data were collected from the learners to understand their reasons for opting-out. However, something important to observe is that overall, the results suggest that native and nonnative speaker groups differ in important ways in relation to their use of single compliment formulas.

Regarding the use of multiple or combined compliment strategies, this study reports a smaller use of these patterns than the number of single syntactic strategies across the beginning, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced EFL learners as well as the English native speakers. Once again, on the one hand, the syntactic pattern "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" was the most frequently combined with other structures among the EFL learners, regardless of their proficiency level. On the other hand, combinations beginning with the pattern "ADJ (NP)!" were the most favored choice among the English native speakers. Results show that there was a great variety of combined strategies employed by the distinct proficiency groups; some of these compliment combinations were unique and there were even some other syntactic formulas which never appeared in combination. It was evident from the results that not only did the English native speakers employ a narrower range of combinations than the EFL learners, but also that

they favored different ones. Overall, research results suggest that despite a high level of language proficiency, EFL learners do not approximate target language norms with respect to the pragmalinguistic resources native speakers use when paying their compliments. The learners have preference for distinct single and combined compliment strategies.

(2). To what extent do EFL learners approximate the English native speakers' complimenting norms?

As it was demonstrated in the result section of this research project, the EFL learners had preference for distinct single and combined compliment strategies. However, most of these syntactic patterns were distinct from the syntactic compliment formulas produced by the English native speaker group. Regarding the single compliment strategies, the syntactic pattern "NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)" was the most common across all learner groups, and second with the native speakers. This may suggest approximation to the English native speakers' norms. Nevertheless, this syntactic pattern was used indistinctly by the EFL learners in the beginning, lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced groups, not revealing any developmental process. Taking into consideration that English native speakers showed preference for "ADJ (NP)!", and most EFL learners used it infrequently, we cannot establish approximation to the English native speakers' complimenting norms.

Regarding compliment topics (ability, appearance, performance and possession), the data showed similar percentages in the production of compliments across the native and the nonnative speaker groups. However, once again, there was no evidence of development across the four learner groups in the use of compliments according to topic. The results displayed no relationship between compliment topic, the frequency of the strategies used, and the learners' English proficiency level. Turning to social power, there were two groups (lower-intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners) that seemed to approach sociopragmatic norms in compliment use;

however, they, together with the beginning and advanced learners, which showed a contrasting frequency variation in dominant versus non-dominant situations, made use of different strategies in comparison to the English native speakers. Consequently, English native speakers showed strategy variation according to their interlocutor's social power. By contrast, the results did not show such situational variation in compliment use in the learner data. The students tended to employ distinct compliment strategies. This indicates differences on the part of the EFL learners, in comparison to English native speakers, to evaluate and vary their language according to the linguistic, social and interactional features of the setting they are involved with.

Equally important as the compliment type and social power information, it is the information obtained about the social distance in the use of compliment strategies by the participants of this research. It was already explained that because the number of acquaintance-, stranger- and, friend-related items was not equal, responses were going to be analyzed in terms of their mean and not their frequency of use. In the first place, data shows that more compliment strategies in situations involving friends were produced by the EFL learners, especially among the lower than the higher-level learners. In the second place, data reveals that there were not considerable differences among the upper-intermediate and advanced learners as well as the English native speakers when paying their compliments. Nevertheless, the students depended on the same set of strategies to pay their compliments no matter if the addressee was a friend, a stranger or an acquaintance. On the contrary, the native speakers made strategy adjustments whether they considered their relationships with their interlocutor close or distant. In conclusion, there was not clear evidence that beginning, intermediate or advanced learners modified their compliment use depending on the topic of their compliment, the social power or social distance of their interlocutor in the target language. As a result, no L2 pragmatic development was observed in this research.

(3). To what extent is the EFL learners' use of compliments influenced by L1 pragmatic norms?

The first point to note regarding this question is that the twelve syntactic patterns which were used by the native speakers of Spanish to pay their compliments do not have an exact English equivalent. In fact, Spanish compliment strategies are linguistically different from English compliment strategies. Taking this data into consideration, it would be difficult to explain L1 transfer at the pragmalinguistic level for the students' complimenting behavior in the L2. However, one remarkable exception is the use of the strategy "other", which was employed by the EFL learners and the Spanish native speakers to give their compliments in their L2 and L1, respectively. Accordingly, transfer was evidenced by the wide number of compliment strategies the learners employed in the DCT, remarkably different from those employed by the English native speakers, who used fewer strategies. Another way in which L1 pragmatic norms influenced learners' L2 complimenting behavior was the preference for using the same compliment strategies across situations. Finally, another significant example of L1 pragmatic transfer was the shortage of situational variation shown by the native speakers of Spanish which duplicated the behavior displayed by the EFL learners in their responses. Regardless of contextual variables (social distance, social power, compliment topic), the students revealed preference for particular syntactic patterns.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The results obtained from this research suggest that if there is not implicit or explicit instruction to develop pragmatic competence, English learners would hardly acquire or approximate target language norms. Kasper and Schmidt (1996: 160) suggested that "pragmatic knowledge should be teachable" therefore; the development of pragmatics rules for language

learners is very important. Learning English involves learning a variety of communicative acts, or speech acts, to achieve their communicative goals in real life, including: compliments, compliment responses, requests, refusals, apologies, etc. Thus, second language teachers should help learners enhance their knowledge or competence of the appropriate use of speech acts in the target language. The idea is that if the non-native students are consciously aware of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic similarities and differences between their native and the target language, then pragmatic failure will probably be avoided, and successful communication with native speakers will be established. Therefore, instruction on pragmatic aspects is necessary to avoid miscommunication problems.

5.4. Limitations of the Study

In this section certain limitations of this study will be mentioned. First, it should be pointed out that the number of participants was relatively small (more or less 15 students per group) and most of them were female. An equal number of subjects, both male and female would ideally equate results regarding social and contextual variables. Second, the instrument lacked balance in terms of the situations which represented the contextual factors under study (e.g., social distance and social power). Third, the population addressed in this study is students who want to be English language teachers. They have certain characteristics which could have influenced the results of the study, contrary to having had subjects whose major would not be languages and whose learning objectives or needs may be different from those of the subjects participating in this study. Fourth, the exploratory nature of this study did not allow to draw significant conclusions, which could have been obtained if statistical analyses had been carried out. Finally, it should be said that the advantages and shortcomings of this study may contribute to further research in the interlanguage pragmatics field.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research

This section will offer some suggestions for further research related to the interlanguage pragmatic development area. First, it is recommended to carry out a more elaborated process in the design and production of the situations for the DCT. It should consider gathering a bigger number of compliment samples and once the questionnaire is completed to pilot it as many times as necessary to obtain a valid and reliable instrument of investigation. Second, it is suggested to conduct retrospective interviews or the well-known think-aloud protocols in order to know what the subject is experiencing in his/her mind while answering the instrument; thus, accurate data could be collected. Third, in future studies, the gender of subjects could be analyzed in relation to the use of compliments. Fourth, it is also recommended to work with a population with different characteristics such as age, academic level or mother tongue to contrast with this one employed in this study and compare results. Fifth, it is proposed to make comparisons of the pragmatic development of compliments between learners in an EFL context and learners in an ESL context. Finally, it is advised to explore films as a suitable source to provide authentic pragmatic input in speech acts such as requests, apologies, and obviously compliments and compliment responses.

6. References

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Appendix A. Components of Language Competence (Bachman, 1990).

LANGUAGE COMPETENCE	ORGANIZATIONAL COMPETENCE	GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE	Vocabulary
			Morphology
			Syntax
			Phonology /Graphology to use language correctly
		TEXTUAL COMPETENCE	Cohesion
			Rhetorical Organization
	PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE	ILLOCUIONARY COMPETENCE	Ideational Functions
			Manipulative Functions
			Heuristic Functions
			Imaginative Functions
		SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	Sensitivity to differences in Dialect or Variety
			Sensitivity to differences in Register
			Sensitivity to Naturalness
			Ability to interpret Cultural References & Figures of Speech

Appendix B. Background Questionnaire

Nombre: _____
Edad: _____ Sexo: M ( ) / F ( )

1. ¿Desde cuándo has estudiado inglés?Marca con una (X) tu respuesta.
Kinder: _____
Primaria: _____
Secundaria: _____
Preparatoria: _____
Universidad: _____

2. ¿Has estudiado en instituciones públicas y/o en instituciones privadas? Escribe tu respuesta en las líneas.
Kinder: _____
Primaria: _____
Secundaria: _____
Preparatoria: _____
Universidad: _____

3. ¿Actualmente estudias inglés en otra institución?
Si: _____
No: _____

Si tu respuesta es afirmativa, ¿En qué institución y en qué nivel te encuentras?
_____

4. ¿Practicas el idioma inglés fuera del salón de clases?
Si: _____
No: _____

Si tu respuesta es afirmativa, ¿Con quién lo haces? Más de una respuesta (X) es posible.
Familia: _____
Amigos: _____
Trabajo: _____
Extranjeros: _____

5. ¿Has viajado a algún país de habla inglesa? ¿Cuál/es fue/ron el/los motivo/s?
Vacaciones _____
Viaje de negocios _____
Estudiar _____
YMCA Programa _____
Assistanship Programa _____

6. ¿Hacia que áreas se concentraron tus clases de inglés antes de entrar a la universidad (ej. habilidades del idioma como hablar, leer, escribir, entender; gramática; traducción; etc…)? Escribe tu respuesta en las líneas.
_____

7. ¿Qué clase de materiales de apoyo has utilizado desde que empezaste a aprender inglés (ej. libros de texto, pizarrón, video, cassettes, etc.)? ¿Con que frecuencia los utilizaste / los has utilizado? Escribe tu respuesta en las líneas.

Appendix C. Preliminary Questionnaire for the construction of the DCT

Cuestionario preliminar para obtener información para la construcción del DCT.

Describe de forma detallada 3 de las más recientes situaciones en las que hayas dado, recibido o escuchado un cumplido. (Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001).

Explica:

Contexto ¿dónde ocurrió? ¿lugar?

_____

_____

Participantes ¿con quién? ¿Entre quién? ¿Género?

_____

_____

_____

¿Situación? _____

_____

¿Tema? _____

_____

¿Oración lingüística o expresión que se utilizo (aron)?

_____

_____

¡Gracias por tu participación!

Appendix D. First Version of Discourse Completion Task/Questionnaire (DCT)

The following information will help to carry out a final project here at the university. Your answers are voluntary, but complete information will help to ensure the success of this project. Thank you very much for sharing some of your time.

Age: _____ Sex: _____ level: _____

INSTRUCTIONS:
Imagine that you are one of the individuals involved in each one of the described situations. Read each one of them carefully and write in English what you would say in these. Please don't write anything if you don't understand the situation.

1. This is the first time you travel abroad and you are lost in the middle of a city. You see some people talking and you interrupt them to ask where the national museum is:

You say: _____

2. You are at the university, and you are asking your classmate questions about how to use the computer. He explains it to you brilliantly and you are astonished with his explanation.

You say: _____

3. You are the teacher at a university and class has just ended. One of your students had a good presentation in class, and you compliment the student on it.

You say: _____

4. You work as a clerk in a big toy store. A woman asks you for help. After giving her the information you want to tell her that the baby she is carrying is beautiful.

You say: _____

5. You borrowed a jacket from your best friend to go to a party but you lost it. Next time, when you see him and he asks you for his jacket back:

You say: _____

6. You meet a friend by accident. She has just had her hair cut in a new style you really like, and after saying hello you comment on her appearance.

You say: _____

7. Your boss invited you and a group of colleagues to his house for a meal. You didn't know he was such a talented cook. So, after eating …

You say: _____

8. You are at school and it's raining. You don't have an umbrella but you know that one of your teachers has two in her office. After talking some minute with her, you ask her for one of her umbrellas.

You say: _____

9. You are teacher at a university. As you leave school, you bump into one of your students who offered to give you a lift in his brand new car. You admire the new model.

You say: _____

10. You are watching a soccer match and you are very surprised with the excellent ability of one of the players who studies in the same school as you, but who is someone you don't know. After the match has just finished, you get nearer to this guy to compliment on his ability.

You say: _____

11. Today you have an advisement session with one of your teachers. He asked you to stop by at his office at 3:00 but it is now 3:20. You knock at the door and your teacher opens it:

You say: _____

12. Ms. White your Boss has just returned from France. She bought there a new purse that you just loved.

You say: _____

Appendix E. Final Version of Discourse Completion Task/Questionnaire (DCT)

The following information will help to carry out a final project here at the university. Your answers are voluntary, but complete information will help to ensure the success of this project. Thank you very much for sharing some of your time.

Age: _____ Sex: _____ level: _____

INSTRUCTIONS:
Imagine that you are one of the individuals involved in each one of the described situations. Read each one of them carefully and write in English what you would say in these. **Please don't write anything if you don't understand the situation.**

1. You are a teacher at a university. One of your students made a good presentation in class and you compliment the student on it.

You say :_____

2. You're travelling on the bus and you want to tell the woman next to you that her baby is beautiful.

You say:_____

3. One of your classmates told a very good joke. Everybody in the classroom laughs at it. You comment on it.

You say:_____

4. You borrowed a jacket from your best friend to go to a party but you lost it. The next time you see him, he asks you for his jacket back:

You say:_____

5. You meet a friend by accident. She has just had her hair cut in a new style you really like. After saying hello you comment on her appearance.

You say:_____

6. Your boss invited you and a group of colleagues to his house for a meal. You didn't know he was such a talented cook. So, you comment on his ability.

You say:_____

7. You are teacher at a university. As you leave school, one of your students offers to give you a lift in his brand new car. You admire the new model.

You say:_____

8. This is the first time you travel to the U.S. and you are lost in the middle of a city. You see some people talking and you interrupt them to ask where the national museum is:

You say:_____

9. You are watching a soccer match and you are very surprised with the excellent ability of one of the players who studies in the same school as you, but who is someone you don't know. When the match finishes, you compliment this guy on his ability.

You say:_____

10. Ms. White your Boss has just returned from France. When she was there, she bought a new purse for herself that you just loved.

You say:_____

Appendix F. Frequency of Compliment Topic Situations Single Syntactic Patterns

	Performance								Appearance								Ability								Possession							
SP	**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
1	7	5.2	5	3.6	4	5.0	6	6.1	8	5.9	12	10	16	13.4	6	11.2	9	6.7	7	5.8	5	4.2	5	7.1	7	5.2	7	5.2	6	5.0	6	5.1
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	2	1.5	3	2.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2.2	3	2.5	1	0.8	3	2.8
3	3	2.2	9	6.5	0	0	3	2.8	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	4.4	8	6.7	2	1.7	4	3.7	2	1.5	3	2.5	0	0	0	0
4	2	1.5	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	3	2.2	3	2.5	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	1	0.7	1	0.7	4	3.4	1	0/9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	2	1.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.5	2	1.4	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0
7	1	0.7	1	0.7	1	0.8	2	1.9	1	0.7	5	3.6	2	1.7	5	4.8	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.9	1	0.7	6	4.3	0	0	3	2.8
8	0	0	6	4.3	6	5.0	4	3.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.7	1	0.8	2	1.9	2	1.5	0	0	5	4.2	1	0.9
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	3	2.2	4	2.9	0	0	2	1.9	3	2.2	4	2.9	1	0.8	2	1.9	4	3.0	2	1.4	0	0	2	1.9	2	1.5	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.9
19.Other	4	3.0	1	0.7	7	5.9	4	3.7	2	1.5	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	3	2.2	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.9	2	1.5	0	0	4	3.4	4	3.7
20. OO	2	1.5	3	2.2	1	0.8	2	1.9	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.7	1	0.9	3	2.2	3	2.5	3	2.5	2	1.9	2	1.5	5	3.6	5	4.2	6	5.6
Total	25	18.5	31	22.5	23	19.3	23	21.5	20	14.8	27	19.6	25	21.0	17	15.9	29	21.5	28	20.3	23	19.3	21	19.6	22	16.3	27	19.6	24	20.2	24	22.4

Beginn = Beginning Lower-I = Lower-Intermediate Upper-I= Upper-Intermediate Advance = Advanced

Appendix F. Frequency of Compliment Topic Situations Combined Syntactic Patterns

	Performance								Appearance								Ability								Possession							
Synt. Pat.	**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
SP 1+	3	2.2	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0	6	4.4	2	1.5	2	1.7	2	1.9	2	1.5	3	2.2	2	1.7	2	1.9	4	3.0	0	0	2	1.7	0	0.0
SP 2+	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	3	2.2	1	0.8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
SP 3+	2	1.5	3	2.2	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	3	2.2	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 4+	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 5+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 6+	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.9	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 7+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	2	1.5	0	0	1	0.8	1	0.9
SP 8+	4	3.0	0	0	2	1.7	3	2.8	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.4	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 9+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 10+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 11+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 12+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 13+	3	2.2	2	1.4	2	1.7	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.4	2	1.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 14+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
SP 15+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 16+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 17+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 18+	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	1	0.9	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
Total	14	10.4	6	4.3	6	5.0	8	7.5	8	6.0	6	5.0	6	5.0	6	5.6	8	6.0	10	7.2	8	6.7	6	5.6	9	6.7	3	2.2	4	3.4	2	1.9

Beginn = Beginning Lower-I = Lower-Intermediate Upper-I= Upper-Intermediate Advance = Advanced

SP 1+ (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,13)
SP 2+ (1,4,5,13)
SP 3+ (1,2,3,4,5,8,13)
SP 4+ (1,13)
SP 5+ (5)
SP 6+ (1,2,3,8,13)
SP 7+ (1,2,3,5,6)
SP 8+ (1,3,4,8,13,18)
SP 13+ (1,3,8,13,14)
SP 14+ (1)
SP 18+ (2)

Appendix F. Frequency of Compliment Topic Situations Native Speakers of English

Performance				Appearance			
S. Sit.	**Syntactic Pattern**	**Freq.**	**%**	**S. Sit.**	**Syntactic Pattern**	**Freq.**	**%**
1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	5	5.3	1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	10	10.6
3:	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	3	3.2	2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	3	3.2
8:	ADJ (NP)!	12	12.8	5:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	1	1.0
12:	How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)	1	1.0	6:	You have (a) (really) ADJ NP	1	1.0
Comb.				7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	2	2.1
8+1:	ADJ (NP)! + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	2	2.1	8:	ADJ (NP)!	2	2.1
13+5:	Intj! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	1	1.0	9:	Isn't NP ADJ!	1	1.0
				Comb.			
	Total:	24	25.6	2+1:	I (really) [like, love] NP + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0
				2+1+10:	NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP) + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	1	1.0
				2+10:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	1	1.0
				7+1:	What (a) (ADJ) NP! + What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0
					Total:	24	25.6

Appendix F. Frequency of Compliment Topic Situations Native Speakers of English

Ability				Possession			
S. Sit.	**Syntactic Pattern**	**Freq.**	**%**	**S. Sit.**	**Syntactic Pattern**	**Freq.**	**%**
1:	NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	1:	NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)	5	5.3
4:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	6	6.5	2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	6	6.5
5:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	1	1.0	3:	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	4	4.3
7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0	7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0
8:	ADJ (NP)!	4	4.3	8:	ADJ (NP)!	4	4.3
11:	I V (NP) PP	1	1.0	**Comb.**			
13:	Intj!	1	1.0	2+1:	I (really) [like, love] NP + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0
Comb.				7+1:	What (a) (ADJ) NP! + What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0
1+4:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	1	1.0	8+1:	ADJ (NP)! + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0
4+1:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0		Total:	23	24.4
5+2:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + I (really) [like, love] NP	1	1.0				
5+14:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + PRO is NP I V	1	1.0				
8+5:	ADJ (NP)! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	2	2.1				
8+13:	ADJ (NP)! + Intj!	1	1.0				
14+1:	PRO is NP I V + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0				
	Total:	23	24.4				

Appendix G. Social Status of Compliment Situations Single Syntactic Patterns: EFL learners

	Higher-status								Lower-status								Status-Equal							
Synt. Pat.	**Begginning**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advanced**		**Begginning**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advanced**		**Begginning**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advanced**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
SP 1	10	7.4	8	5.8	7	6.0	5	4.7	9	6.7	11	8.0	6	5.1	7	6.5	12	8.9	14	10.1	20	17.1	8	7.5
SP 2	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.9	2	1.5	2	1.4	1	0.8	2	1.9	2	1.5	3	2.2	0	0	1	0.9
SP 3	2	1.5	4	2.9	0	0	0	0	3	2.2	3	2.2	1	0.8	2	1.9	7	5.2	13	9.4	1	0.8	5	4.7
SP 4	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	4	2.9	5	4.2	1	0.9
SP 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.7	2	1.9
SP 6	2	1.5	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3.0	3	2.2	0	0	0	0
SP 7	1	0.7	3	2.2	0	0	2	1.9	1	0.7	4	2.9	0	0	3	2.8	1	0.7	6	4.3	3	2.5	6	5.6
SP 8	0	0	5	3.6	5	4.2	2	1.9	3	2.2	1	0.7	2	1.7	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.7	5	4.2	4	3.7
SP 9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.7	0	0
SP 12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	1	0.9
SP 13	1	0.7	1	0.7	1	0.8	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
SP 17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
SP 18	5	3.7	3	2.2	0	0	3	2.8	4	3.0	2	1.4	0	0	3	2.8	3	2.2	3	2.2	1	0.8	2	1.9
Other	3	2.2	0	0	5	4.2	4	3.7	2	1.5	0	0	1	0.8	4	3.7	6	4.4	2	1.4	6	5.0	3	2.8
Opt out	2	1.5	4	2.9	2	1.7	4	3.7	4	3.0	5	3.6	5	4.2	3	2.8	2	1.5	2	1.4	4	3.4	4	3.7
Total	**28**	**20.7**	**30**	**21.7**	**21**	**17.6**	**22**	**20.6**	**28**	**20.7**	**30**	**21.7**	**22**	**18.5**	**25**	**23.4**	**40**	**29.6**	**53**	**38.4**	**52**	**43.7**	**38**	**35.5**

Beginn = Beginning Lower-I = Lower-Intermediate Upper-I= Upper-Intermediate Advance = Advanced

Appendix G. Social Status of Compliment Situations Combined Syntactic Patterns: EFL learners

	Speaker Dominant								Hearer Dominant								Status Equal							
Synt.	Begginning		Lower-I		Upper-I		Advanced		Begginning		Lower-I		Upper-I		Advanced		Begginning		Lower-I		Upper-I		Advanced	
Pat.	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
SP 1+	2	1.5	2	1.4	3	2.5	0	0	6	4.4	2	1.4	3	2.5	1	0.9	7	5.2	2	1.4	1	0.8	3	2.8
SP 2+	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	3	2.2	1	0.8	1	0.9
SP 3+	1	0.7	2	1.4	0	0	1	0.9	2	1.5	3	2.2	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
SP 4+	2	1.5	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 5+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 6+	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.9
SP 7+	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.5	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 8+	4	3.0	0	0	1	0.8	3	2.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.4	2	1.7	1	0.9
SP 9+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 10+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 11+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 12+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 13+	3	2.2	2	1.4	3	2.5	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.4	1	0.8	0	0
SP 14+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 15+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 16+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 17+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 18+	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.7	1	0.8	1	0.9
Total	**14**	**10.4**	**7**	**5.1**	**8**	**6.7**	**8**	**7.5**	**12**	**8.9**	**6**	**4.3**	**9**	**7.6**	**5**	**4.7**	**13**	**9.6**	**12**	**8.7**	**7**	**5.9**	**9**	**8.4**

Beginn = Beginning Lower-I = Lower-Intermediate Upper-I= Upper-Intermediate Advance = Advanced

SP 1+ (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,13)
SP 2+ (1,4,5,13)
SP 3+ (1,2,3,4,5,13,14)
SP 4+ (1,13,)
SP 5+ (5,)
SP 6+ (1,3,8,13,)
SP 7+ (1,2,3,5,6,18)
SP 8+ (1,3,4,8,13,18)
SP 13+ (1, 3,8, 13)
SP 14+ (1,)
SP 18+ (2,13)

Appendix G. Frequency of Syntactic Patterns of Compliments by Social Status: Native speakers of English

Speaker-dominant				Hearer-dominant				Status equal			
	Syntactic Pattern	F	%		Syntactic Pattern	F	%			F	%
1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	5	5.3	1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	2	2.1	1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	14	14.9
2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	1	1.0	2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	5	5.3	2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	3	3.2
3:	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	3	3.2	3:	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	1	1.0	3:	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	3	3.2
7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0	4:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	4	4.3	4:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	2	2.1
8:	ADJ (NP)!	11	11.7	7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0	5:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	2	2.1
8+1:	ADJ (NP)! + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	2	2.1	8:	ADJ (NP)!	3	3.2	6:	You have (a) (really) ADJ NP	1	1.0
				11:	I V (NP) PP	1	1.0	7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	2	2.1
				1+4:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	1	1.0	8:	ADJ (NP)!	8	8.5
				2+1:	I (really) [like, love] NP + NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	9:	Isn't NP ADJ!	1	1.0
				4+1:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	12:	How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)?	1	1.0
				5+2:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + I (really) [like, love] NP	1	1.0	13:	Intj	1	1.0
				5+14:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + PRO is NP I V	1	1.0	2+1:	I (really) [like, love] NP + NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0
				7+1:	What (a) (ADJ) NP! + What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0	2+1+ 10:	NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP) + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	1	1.0
				8+1:	ADJ (NP)! + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	2+10:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	1	1.0
				14+1:	PRO is NP I V + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	7+1:	What (a) (ADJ) NP! + What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0
								8+5:	ADJ (NP)! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	2	2.1
								8+13:	ADJ (NP)! + Intj!	1	1.0
								13+5:	Intj! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	1	1.0
	Total:	23	24.5		Total:	25	26.6		Total:	46	48.9

Appendix H. Social Distance of Compliment Situations Single Syntactic Patterns: EFL learners

	Acquaintance								Stranger								Friend							
Synt.	**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**		**Beggin**		**Lower-I**		**Upper-I**		**Advance**	
Pat.	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
SP 1	20	14.8	20	14.5	16	13.4	7	6.5	6	4.4	5	3.6	11	9.2	7	6.5	5	3.7	6	4.3	6	5.0	6	5.6
SP 2	3	2.2	3	2.2	1	0.8	4	3.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.5	3	2.2	0	0	0	0
SP 3	6	4.4	14	10.1	1	0.8	5	4.7	4	3.0	6	4.3	1	0.8	2	1.9	2	1.5	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 4	2	1.5	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	0	0	3	2.2	3	2.5	1	0.9	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0
SP 5	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	2	1.7	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 6	3	2.2	1	0.7	1	0.8	0	0	3	2.2	3	2.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 7	3	2.2	8	5.8	1	0.8	5	4.7	0	0	5	3.6	2	1.7	6	5.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 8	2	1.5	7	5.1	11	9.2	5	4.7	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 11	0	0	0	0	2	1.7	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 12	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 13	1	0.7	2	1.5	1	0.8	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0
SP 17	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 18	4	3.0	3	2.2	1	0.8	3	2.8	4	3.0	4	2.9	0	0	2	1.9	4	3.0	4	2.9	0	0	3	2.8
Other	8	6.0	1	0.7	11	9.2	10	9.3	2	1.5	0	0	1	0.8	1	0.9	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
Opt out	7	5.2	9	6.5	7	5.9	8	7.5	0	0	2	1.4	3	2.5	2	1.9	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.9
Total	**59**	**38.5**	**70**	**50.1**	**58**	**48.7**	**48**	**44.9**	**22**	**16.3**	**28**	**20.3**	**27**	**22.7**	**25**	**23.4**	**15**	**11.1**	**15**	**10.9**	**10**	**8.4**	**13**	**12.1**

Beginn = Beginning Lower-I = Lower-Intermediate Upper-I= Upper-Intermediate Advance = Advanced

Appendix H. Social Distance of Compliment Situations Combined Syntactic Patterns: EFL learners

	Acquaintance								Stranger								Friend							
Synt. Pat.	Beginn		Lower-I		Upper-I		Advance		Beggin		Lower-I		Upper-I		Advance		Beggin		Lower-I		Upper-I		Advance	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
SP 1+	8	5.9	2	1.4	5	4.2	1	0.9	4	3.0	1	0.7	1	0.8	1	0.9	3	2.2	3	2.2	1	0.8	1	0.9
SP 2+	0	0	1	0.7	1	0.8	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2.2	1	0.8	1	0.9
SP 3+	2	1.5	6	4.3	0	0	1	0.9	2	1.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 4+	2	1.5	0	0	2	1.7	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 5+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 6+	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.9	1	0.7	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 7+	3	2.2	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 8+	4	3.0	0	0	2	1.7	3	2.8	1	0.7	2	1.5	0	0	1	0.9	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0
SP 9+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 10+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 11+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
SP 12+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 13+	2	1.5	2	1.5	4	3.4	2	1.9	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.7	2	1.5	1	0.8	0	0
SP 14+	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 15+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 16+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 17+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SP 18+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	3	2.2	1	0.7	2	1.7	0	0
Total	**21**	**15.6**	**12**	**8.7**	**15**	**12.6**	**13**	**12.1**	**9**	**6.7**	**4**	**2.9**	**3**	**2.5**	**4**	**3.7**	**9**	**6.7**	**9**	**6.5**	**6**	**5.0**	**4**	**3.7**

Beginn = Beginning Lower-I = Lower-Intermediate Upper-I= Upper-Intermediate Advance = Advanced

SP 1+ (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,13)
SP 2+ (1,4,5,13,18)
SP 3+ (1,2,3,4,5,8,13)
SP 4+ (1,13)
SP 5+ (5,)
SP 6+ (1,2,3,8,13)
SP 7+ (1,2,3,5,6,18)
SP 8+ (1,3,4, 8,13,18)
SP 13+ (1,3,8,13)
SP 14+ (1)
SP 16+ (13)
SP 18+ (2)

Appendix H. Frequency of Syntactic Patterns of Compliments by Social Distance: Native Speakers of English

Acquaintance				Stranger				Friend			
	Syntactic Pattern	**F**	**%**		Syntactic Pattern	**F**	**%**			**F**	**%**
1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	10	10.6	1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	8	8.5	1:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	3	3.2
2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	6	6.4	4:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	2	2.1	2:	I (really) [like, love] NP	3	3.2
3:	PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	7	7.4	5:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	2	2.1	8:	ADJ (NP)!	1	1.0
4:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	4	4.3	6:	You have (a) (really) ADJ NP	1	1.0	2+1+ 10:	NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP) + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	1	1.0
7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	2	2.1	7:	What (a) (ADJ) NP!	2	2.1	2+10:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + It (suits) (ADJ) (PP) NP	1	1.0
8:	ADJ (NP)!	17	18.1	8:	ADJ (NP)!	4	4.3	7+1:	What (a) (ADJ) NP! + What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0
11:	I V (NP) PP	1	1.0	9:	Isn't NP ADJ!	1	1.0				
12:	How ADJ (NP) (V) (PP)?	1	1.0	11:	I V (NP) PP	1	1.0				
1+4:	NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP) + You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	1	1.0	13:	Intj	1	1.0				
2+1:	I (really) [like, love] NP + NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	8+5:	ADJ (NP)! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	2	2.1				
4+1:	You V (a) (really) ADJ NP + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0	8+13:	ADJ (NP)! + Intj!	1	1.0				
5+2:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + I (really) [like, love] NP	1	1.0								
5+14:	You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP) + PRO is NP I V	1	1.0								
7+1:	What (a) (ADJ) NP! + What (a) (ADJ) NP!	1	1.0								
8+1:	ADJ (NP)! + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	3	3.2								
13+5:	Intj! + You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	1	1.0								
14+1:	PRO is NP I V + NP [is, looks] (really) ADJ (PP)	1	1.0								
	Total:	59	62.8		Total:	25	26.6		Total	10	10.6

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