

ABSTRACT

Second Language Acquisition:
The Need for Explicit Pragmatic Instruction in Beginning-Level Language Classes

Noelle Kerber, M.A.

Chairperson: Linda McManness, Ph.D.

Conventional classroom instruction leaves a void in the formation of communicative competence among language learners. This communicative competence deficiency can in part be attributed to learners' deficient pragmatic abilities. Due to insufficient attention and/or poor teacher preparation, language classrooms lack incorporation of significant pragmatic instruction, leaving students with inadequate understanding of the language function. While students might understand the forms of the language, they need instruction and consciousness-raising to truly acquire sociolinguistic abilities. The process of acquiring pragmatics should be encouraged from early on; even in natural settings, development of speech acts takes some time (Achiba; Bardovi-Harlig). Therefore, pragmatic instruction must be included from beginning level classes. Specifically, speech acts such as greetings and compliments are suitable for the grammar knowledge of novice learners.

Second Language Acquisition:
The Need for Explicit Pragmatic Instruction in Beginning-Level Language Classes

by

Noelle K. Kerber, B.S.Ed.

A Thesis

Approved by the Department of Modern Languages and Cultures

Michael Long, Ph.D., Chairperson

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Baylor University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
of
Master of Arts

Approved by the Thesis Committee

Linda M. McManness, Ph.D., Chairperson

Karol J. Hardin, Ph.D.

Brooke Blevins, Ph.D.

Accepted by the Graduate School

May 2020

J. Larry Lyon, Ph.D., Dean

Copyright © 2020 by Noelle Kerber

All rights reserved

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
CHAPTER ONE	1
Introduction.....	1
CHAPTER TWO	18
Greetings.....	18
CHAPTER THREE	41
Compliments	41
CHAPTER FOUR.....	71
Pragmatic Instruction	71
CHAPTER FIVE	92
Conclusion and Further Research Needs	92
WORKS CITED	97

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Dr. McManness, thank you for agreeing to work with me, for guiding me through this process, and for continually providing wisdom, support, and encouragement. I have learned so much from working with you and being your *estudiante* all these years.

Dr. Hardin, thank you for agreeing to be on my committee and for your patience and guidance throughout this process. Thank you for always willing to listening to my concerns and thoughts.

Dr. Blevins, thank you for agreeing to serve on my committee and for your insight and input. Your values in the educational field encourage me to strive for the best.

Dr. Evans, thank you for your guidance, love, and dedication throughout my time in the program. Your passion and pursuit of excellence embolden me to strive for success.

Baylor Graduate faculty, thank you for your encouragement, wisdom, and support. I aim to model the same one day for others.

Graduating cohort of 2020, thank you for allowing me to be myself, for your friendship and kindness, and for your constant support.

To my friends and family, thank you for your proof-reading contributions, for your endless encouragement, and for your caring acts along the way. I am sincerely grateful for each person who has come alongside me in this process.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Pragmatics entered the research realm fairly recently. Since the linguistic study of pragmatics first evolved, it has been defined in slightly different manners. As Herraiz-Martínez explains: “Even though the term pragmatics emerged in 1930 in the United States, it was Charles Morrison (1938) who coined the term and proposed three different areas within semiotics: syntax, semantics and pragmatics” (39). The definition of pragmatics evolved with time, extending to include aspects such as context, culture, situational variables, and more. Kasper and Rose utilize the definition of pragmatics penned by Crystal in *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Language and Languages*: “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 310); italics added by Kasper and Rose 2). Interlanguage pragmatics, or ILP, expands upon this understanding of pragmatics, moving to include the study of non-native speakers utilizing an L2, or target language, pragmatic system. As Bardovi-Harlig points out, literature on interlanguage pragmatics tends to focus on the employment of pragmatics rather than learning of pragmatics; therefore, she encourages the terms “acquisitional pragmatics” or “L2 pragmatics” to indicate research dedicated to the learning of L2 pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, “Developing L2 Pragmatics” 69). For this study, interlanguage pragmatics will be

reviewed, but more specifically it will focus on L2 pragmatics: how to help learners acquire the Spanish pragmatic system.

If the goal of teaching pragmatics is to create communicatively competent learners, it is important to note the context in which the students are acquiring the pragmatic knowledge. As Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen note, foreign language learning, or FL, and second language acquisition or target language, SLA or L2, convey different meanings (651-2). For the purposes of this essay, SLA can also be L2, or the second (or third, fourth...) language a student is in the process of acquiring. The manner in which a learner develops pragmatic abilities depends on the context: L2 or FL. According to Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen, an L2 context implies the students are exposed to input in the target environment (such as studying Spanish while in Mexico), while an FL context means there are as naturally occurring input opportunities in the environment; the same experiences do not exist in an FL context (such as learning Spanish in a US university) (652). Essentially, those learning another language in a FL context lack opportunity: they are often without access to native speakers of the target culture, the input is infrequent and inconsistent, and they do not have access to formal and/or informal settings to practice the pragmatic skills. The focus of this thesis will be on teaching pragmatics in a FL context, for schools and universities where students do not necessarily reside in an environment with access to authentic material to enhance pragmatic learning. Because the students do not naturally encounter the pragmatic features on a day-to-day basis, pragmatic acquisition could take even longer to achieve than if they were living in the target language environment (as in L2 contexts). Therefore, pragmatic instruction should be taken seriously, with an intentional and purposeful focus. From the beginning

language learning levels onwards, pragmatics should be integrated into instruction (Félix-Brasdefer and Hasler- Barker; Bardovi-Harlig; Ishihara and Cohen; Martínez- Flor and Usó-Juan; Rose, “On the Effects of Instruction in Second Language Pragmatics”).

By teaching the pragmatic forms and functions early on, the students will have more time to integrate these practices into their language formation. For instance, as forms are taught, such as different ways to greet others, it would be beneficial to also teach students the pragmatically appropriate ways to greet others- including formal and informal situations. With this method, students will find themselves with an array of pragmatically- appropriate greetings from early on in their studies. This paper will focus on acquiring pragmatic practices in a newly learned language, referred to as L2 pragmatics, but it is important to note the context if focus is a FL context (without naturally occurring authentic input or easily accessible authentic input). Because natural input does not surround learners the need for intentional focus on pragmatics is essential.

Furthermore, this thesis will focus on aiding students to achieve mainly oral pragmatic abilities. While pragmatics usually looks at oral or written instances of communication, the majority of these exchanges seem to occur orally, demonstrating the need for speaking practice. However, the inclusion of pragmatics does not imply the focus of a class period— or part of a class period— only concentrates on speaking. Comprehension precedes production, and many of the proposed activities also ask students to read and write (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 475). It is not hard to imagine how a lesson including pragmatics might cover all forms of communication (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) and

accomplish all five “C” goal areas (communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities), helping students to advance according to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) proficiency standards (“World-Readiness Standards”). In order to understand how to appropriately respond to another person(s), the student must correctly understand the speaker in addition to correctly interpreting the micro and macro social variables. Microsocial variables include factors such as social power, distance, and situational context while macrosocial variables include factors such as gender, age, and region (Félix-Brasdefer and Koike 36). These variables all influence the type and execution of utterances. The appropriate production of pragmatic communication through writing and speaking demonstrates a correct understanding of the prompting material. Therefore, to analyze pragmatics, researchers can focus on writing and speaking. Since speech acts often occur in oral communication (such as greeting someone, complaining, etc.), the focus of this thesis will be on speaking.

For students who acquire languages mainly through classroom lessons, they often finish their studies without pragmatic knowledge. Some pragmatic knowledge might be learned in the classroom without drawing students’ attention to the matter, and other times pieces of pragmatic instruction are provided. For example, students may learn the grammatical forms *tú* and *usted*, whose differences distinguish between the formal and informal second person. They might also acquire knowledge of when to use these forms, what makes it “okay” to use the *tú* form in conversation instead of *usted*. Language learners may acquire some aspects of the language inherently related to pragmatics. However, classroom instruction to equip students to recognize different situations that require pragmatic responses and teaching students how to implement different strategies

falls short. This is, in part, due to the fact that the classroom environment poses difficulties for pragmatics learning. Naturally occurring pragmatic situations are scarce, and without the sociocultural environment, instructors must bring authentic materials into the classroom to provide teaching examples and opportunities. After reviewing work by Bardovi-Harlig, Kasper and Vellenga, Taguchi summarizes the results: “This [poor opportunities for pragmatic learning] results from the lack of both a range of representations of communication situations and registers within classroom discourse, as well as information about pragmatic norms of the given language in textbooks, and instead the presence of inauthentic language samples based on intuitions of textbook writers” (Taguchi, “Teaching Pragmatics” 301). Reliance on inauthentic materials in the classroom can hinder students’ language learning acquisition, especially in the pragmatic realm. Another reason pragmatic instruction seems to be lacking from classrooms, is that instructors are poorly trained or not uniform in their view and implementation of pragmatic instruction. In a study conducted by Vásquez and Sharpless, they found out of 92 Master’s level TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) (or related) programs, only 18 of them offered students the opportunity to learn about pragmatics; and out of the 18 programs, only four of them required a course on pragmatics (13-14). Vásquez and Sharpless also note that 10 out of the 18 programs that offer pragmatics courses are more theoretically based instead of application-based (14). While these programs focus on ESL instruction, they still demonstrate instructors’ lack of training and insufficient understanding of pragmatics. Additionally, since the courses are not required, they might even see pragmatics as something “extra” and not worthy of serious consideration in the classroom. Vásquez and Sharpless address how some

institutions see pragmatics as something to be integrated into methodology or SLA (Second Language Acquisition) courses; however, they note the ensuing confusion: “Most often, when respondents whose program did not offer a dedicated pragmatics course were asked about if and where specific pragmatics topics were covered, there was a tendency to use imprecise or uncertain language: ‘I can’t imagine that it is not addressed in our Methods course...’” (Vásquez and Sharpless 21-22). They then provide more examples of uncertainty in responses, making it clear that if pragmatics does not explicitly receive attention it often becomes lost throughout the curriculum. The present situation harms L2 learners, and merits consideration for change.

Investigations concerning pragmatics draws forth research from both SLA and Linguistics fields. The intersection of the two fields produces information suitable for implementation in classrooms to move students toward true communicative competence. Without the ability to understand micro and macro social variables, and the appropriate manner to communicate, students risk negative effects of face-threatening acts. Brown and Levinson define face-threatening acts as communicative moments in which interlocutors must assess three culturally sensitive factors: the social distance, social power between participants, and the absolute ranking of impositions in a culture in order to know the acceptable manner to communicate (Pinto and de Pablos-Ortega 151-2). The failure to accurately assess these features might result in unintended consequences, hindering positive interactions. Language learners may commit pragmatic errors, resulting in pragmatic failure. Thomas defines pragmatic failures as breakdowns in communication (91). Thomas distinguishes between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failures: pragmalinguistic failures being “caused by mistaken beliefs about pragmatic

force of utterance” and sociopragmatic failures being “caused by different beliefs about rights, ‘mentionables’, etc” (100). She argues instructors must be aware of both types of failures (110). She also remarks pragmatic failure is not limited to cross-cultural mistakes, but it can also take place within a culture (91). Whether caused by the lack of knowledge about sociocultural norms or another reason, pragmatic failures can occur, creating uncomfortable, offensive, or potentially dangerous situations. Some communicative acts such as requests and refusals pose greater risks to the speaker: they are “negative politeness” acts because they attempt to avoid imposition. Those like greetings and compliments can be classified as “positive politeness” because they create solidarity among interlocutors (Brown and Levinson 18). Even at novice level instructions, learners must still be aware of these three aspects: social distance, social power, and the absolute ranking of impositions in order to appropriately interact with others. Teaching pragmatically appropriate greetings and compliment structures does not pose a risk quite as high as “negative politeness” acts. However, learners might still encounter frustration, offend the interlocutor and/ or experience potential embarrassment. While some of these undesirable outcomes are to be expected while learning and practicing another language, much of it can be avoided with proper pragmatic instruction. As Thomas states, “While grammatical error may reveal a speaker to be a less than proficient language-user [(language- user)], pragmatic failure reflects badly on him/her as a person” (97). With the potential dangers of poorly executed speech acts, students must develop an awareness of the sociolinguistic principles and grammatical knowledge.

Oftentimes in SLA research and literature, attention is given to either the form or function of a language. Pragmatics offers a unique environment in which both form and

function receive recognition for their crucial role. For students to truly achieve communicative competence, he or she must understand both the form and function. Chandler and Munday define communicative competence as: “A speaker’s knowledge of sociolinguistic rules, norms, and conventions for a particular language” (Chandler and Munday). Originating with Hymes’ idea that communicative competence is more broad than grammatical knowledge, it includes, for example, the knowledge of appropriateness. Hymes differentiated linguistic competence and linguistic performance, noting the need for sociocultural knowledge to successfully communicate (54). This idea emphasizes the necessity of sociolinguistics in communication. Then, according to Nurkholida, “Canale and Swain developed Hymes’ concept of communicative competence by suggesting that such skill comprised grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence” (61). Additionally, Widdowson presented a case for teaching grammar as a communicative resource, assuring instructors that grammar provides a means for language learners to regulate their use (334). Grammar cannot be seen as an opposition to sociolinguistics, but rather as a tool to improve pragmatic use. To truly communicate, learners must utilize their evolving grammar knowledge in manners that suit the situation at hand. Thus, true communication is much more than the grammatical knowledge; this axiom must carry over to classroom instruction.

Instructing L2 pragmatics is not an easy task: pragmatics requires more than grammatical knowledge. In addition to an understanding and ability to manipulate the various grammatical structures, or the form of the language, acquiring L2 pragmatics also requires sociocultural knowledge and awareness. For instance, a native, or pragmatically skilled speaker might ask an L2 learner *¿Cómo andas?* which in Spanish literally means

“How do you walk?” The students, even at the beginning level, will understand the literal meaning of this question. However, what they might not know is that it is a greeting, similar to the English expression “How is it going?” Instead of attempting to demonstrate how they walk, which would cause an embarrassing situation, the student will then know the appropriate response would be something like *estoy/ ando bien* (I am well), *mal* (poor), *fatal* (awful). Then, it would be best for the student to provide more information (if it is necessary), thank the interlocutor for asking, and follow up with a similar inquiry. Since the question was asked in an informal manner, using the *tú* [informal second person singular] form, the student would know it would be acceptable to do the same unless they feel the need to demonstrate more respect. In this short scenario, it is evident that a simple greeting exchange will require the students to be grammatically capable and demonstrate sociocultural knowledge.

In the study of pragmatics, linguists have identified several speech acts, which play important roles in the pragmatic formation of a language. Cohen defines speech acts: “Speech acts are often, but not always the patterned, routinized language that natives and pragmatically competent nonnative speakers and writers in a given speech community (with its dialect variations) use to perform functions such as thanking, complementing, refusing, apologizing, and complaining” (214). The speech acts categorize groups of expressions or interactions common among interlocutors. Ideally, learners master these speech acts and are aware of their cultural variation in order to appropriately express themselves. The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) at the University of Minnesota provides activities and information regarding the most commonly utilized speech acts in Spanish: complement sequences; gratitude and leave

taking; requests; apologies; invitation sequences; service encounters; and advice, suggestions, disagreements, complaints, and reprimands. In the beginning level language classes, greetings and compliments are the most ideal speech acts on which to focus. Every textbook, or introductory class, includes material on greetings, usually very early on in the course. Therefore, it is sensible to introduce the students to these grammatical concepts with sociocultural knowledge as well. In addition, the speech act of giving and receiving compliments demonstrates formulaic similarities between the Spanish and English language. Therefore, with an L1 of English, students can compare and extend this grammatical and social knowledge to their newly acquired Spanish language comprehension.

The degree to which language learners adopt pragmatic practices varies depending on how much they wish to keep their own cultural values instead of embracing the L2 cultural and social standards, and vice versa. However, it is best to instruct students on how to adhere to the L2 pragmatic system if they choose to communicate in a native-like manner. A potential difficulty in acquisitional pragmatics is the variation among regions, people groups, individual people, and/or situations. Authentic material might show regional variation, which is beneficial for students in order to possess an awareness of the multitude of possibilities. However, this can be problematic in developing a sort of curriculum or standard. Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen point out that there is, in fact, enough commonality to create generalizations that can be taught to students while still raising awareness about variations (656). They note after mentioning the various studies on pragmatic regional differences, certain Spanish-speaking regions orient towards positive politeness (developing trust), while others more equally express

positive and negative politeness (establishing formality, respect) (Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen 659). With these generalizations, instructors, and potentially future textbook creators, can be sure to include vital information to help students acquire pragmatic language skills. While addressing every regional or people-group difference would prove too ambitious for a classroom learning experience, awareness and generalized information with meaningful activities would provide beneficial practices. As Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen note, “Overall, the main goal for teaching pragmatics in the classroom is to focus on developing learners’ pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge by supplying them with appropriate input related to communicative actions at the discourse level” (659). Instead of requiring students to comprehend and utilize every pragmatic variation, it is best to raise consciousness on the topic and develop aware, adaptable, and able students.

In developing pragmatic content for students, instructors must be aware of the grounding principles behind pragmatic instruction. First, the instructors might familiarize themselves with several SLA theories or hypotheses. Awareness of the driving pedagogical principles aids teachers to understand the need for input, authentic material, consciousness- raising, repetition, guided practice, and other key aspects in SLA. For instance, researchers from Vietnam National University mention even in naturalistic settings, pragmatic exposure alone often results in slowly acquired pragmatic knowledge. They also note pragmatic exposure alone does not suffice for students to acquire the knowledge in a classroom setting: “In other words, mere exposure is insufficient for L2 pragmatic development and therefore instruction is necessary to raise the learner’s consciousness of form-function mapping and pertinent contextual variables which may

not be salient enough to be noticed” (Nguyen et al. 416). This statement aligns with Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis, which the learner must consciously acknowledge a feature, otherwise it will not be acquired. Therefore, instructors must be sure to point out the pragmatic features they wish for students to learn. Herraiz-Martínez notes: “Due to this difficulty of limited opportunities and poor exposure, the learnability of pragmatic aspects in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has been influenced by three main theories: Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt 1995), Swain’s Output Hypothesis (Swain 1996) and Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1996)” (42). Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis relates to Swain’s Output Hypothesis, as Swain argues output is necessary for learners to realize there the gaps in their learning lie; thus, helping them to notice and respond appropriately (Swain 248-9). Furthermore, Herraiz- Martínez notes how Long highlighted the benefits of personal interaction and how it aids learners: “... face-to-face interaction raises the ideal outcome for learners to understand conventions, expected norms and the difference between the intended meaning and interpreted one” (42). These theories contribute to helping form pedagogical models for pragmatic instruction. They are based on previous research in the SLA field. Constructivist theory, both that of Piaget and Vygotsky, helps instructors understand how authentic materials help to develop students’ skills (Nurkholida 61-2). They both argue, though with differing points, that learning can be seen “as processes embedded and co-constructed within contexts and intrinsically interwoven with them” (Vianna and Stetsenko 84). With the understanding of co-constructing understandings, language instructors will also find Vygotsky’s ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) and the general idea of scaffolding, or learning with others, pushing just out of the learners’ comfort zone to be useful (Nurkholida 62). It is

important that teachers value background knowledge and its role in constructing new understandings. Furthermore, Krashen's Input Hypothesis, often seen as $i + 1$, with the "i" representing the students' interlanguage and the "+1" representing one step beyond the students' current acquisitional stage, reflects the need for input encouraging learners to move forward in their acquisitional process (21). With understanding of these principles, instructors can move forward, selecting appropriate material to utilize in their course. Furthermore, Nurkholida notes, "It is important to shape the curriculum so that it fits with an appropriate developmental level and also capitalizes on students' natural curiosities to learn" (62). Teachers should follow these guidelines in order to best serve their students, encouraging not only grammatical form capabilities but also social function capabilities.

To apply these theories in a classroom, instructors must recognize the importance of sociolinguistics and its various facets. For instance, pragmatic knowledge requires awareness of subjectivity and the potential variation among different people groups. These skills are not easily gained, and they require development. More than just grammatical knowledge, students must wrestle with how much they wish to assimilate to the L2 pragmatic practices. Sykes and Cohen explain students can decide to conform or diverge with the pragmatic patterns (392). In addition, teachers might also recognize instructional materials alone often do not provide sufficient materials to engage students and provide enough authentic material. Pragmatic knowledge requires understanding how and what native speakers actually communicate. Therefore, pragmatic instruction must be carried out with authentic material to provide real examples without overly scripted or unnatural elements. The importance of authenticity has been recognized since the end of the 19th century with Henry Sweet's work, who was one of the first linguists.

Authenticity experienced resurgence as an important aspect in the 1970s when Chomsky and Hymes debated the issue of authenticity, making it evident “communicative competence involved much more than knowledge of language structures, and contextualized communication began to take precedence over form” (Gilmore and Gaidai 97). Authenticity in a FL classroom has been redefined over the years, but as a necessity in the classroom, it has not wavered. Without authentic material, pragmatic instruction would become much more difficult. However, many language learning classrooms still lack sufficient authentic input. This void holds especially true for more informal communication. As Gilmore and Gaidai point out, “In terms of conversation management, the kind of talk requiring the most work by participants, and therefore also providing the best model to develop this aspect of discourse competence, is casual conversation but this is largely ignored by textbooks, perhaps because it is seen as unstructured and, as a result, unteachable (Eggins and Slade 315)” (101-2). Instead of preparing students for casual, informal interactions, textbooks might guide students towards acquiring more formal, structured language. Formality in both Spanish and English can be thought of as a scale, in which one end holds slang and intimate communication characteristics while the other end holds rigidly formal communication characteristics. Each textbook seems to select one section of the scale and provide all instruction and examples within that section, neglecting the other formality levels. Kasper argues the absence of pragmatic material in textbooks could be related to textbook writers and publishers’ focus on institutional lexicogrammatical knowledge rather than quotidian pragmatics (Kasper, “Classroom Research on Interlanguage Pragmatics” 39). While this is understandable, as more formulaic material is easier to teach, instructors must be aware

of this and provide supplemental diverse and informal input. Gilmore and Gaidai suggest audio-visual forms of authentic input provide the most content wealth: “Authentic materials, particularly audio-visual ones, offer a much richer source of input for learners and have the potential to be exploited in different ways and on different levels to develop learners' communicative competence” (103). Part of an instructor’s role must be selecting appropriate materials for the course; they must keep in mind different manners to use the resource, how the materials demonstrate form and function, and how the students will receive the material. While this task requires planning and methodical thought, the results are much more impressive, as students are more motivated and achieve greater language acquisition. Including authentic material not only increases exposure and awareness to various pragmatic forms and functions, but it also increases student motivation.

Numerous studies demonstrate the motivation power linked to authentic materials (Cross 1984; Deutsh 1984; Hill 1984; Wipf 1984; Swaffar 1985; Freeman & Holden 1986; Keinbaum, Russell & Welty 1986; Little, Devitt & Singleton 1989; Morrison 1989; Bacon & Finnemann 1990; Gonzalez 1990; King 1990; Little & Singleton 1991; McGarry 1995; Peacock 1997). The benefits of including authentic material in a language learning course abound; authentic material would clearly enhance - if not be necessary- in pragmatic instruction.

Another aspect of pragmatic instruction that has received attention recently is whether to teach pragmatics in an explicit or implicit manner. In many studies, explicit instruction proves to be more effective for helping learners to acquire and retain pragmatic knowledge (Bardovi-Harlig, “Another Piece of the Puzzle”; Rose, “On the Effects of Instruction in Second Language Pragmatics”; Koike and Pearson; Félix-

Brasdefer; Nguyen et al.). All of these studies demonstrate students better acquire pragmatic knowledge, or at least retain the pragmatic knowledge for longer, if explicit instruction was provided. After analyzing the results of a study conducted on the effects of implicit and explicit instruction on students' ability to perform mitigation acts, Félix-Brasdefer remarks, "Although this report is limited in scope, the results of the pedagogical intervention seem to suggest that the learners' ability to use lexical and syntactic mitigators may be facilitated through explicit instruction by means of raising the learners' metapragmatic awareness of specific features of the input in social interaction" (492). Supported by notions such as Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, some promote the idea that students must experience moments of explicit conscious raising in order to effectively learn the new pragmatic material. This does not imply implicit instruction does not aid students in acquiring pragmatic knowledge, rather it does not produce as compelling of results. As Nyugen et. al state, "Generally, these results seemed to suggest that although both types of instruction proved effective in developing learners' pragmatic performance, explicit instruction tended to produce a larger magnitude of effects" (24). In addition, Koike and Pearson's study revealed the essential character of explicitly raising awareness in the classroom: "It appears that explicit instruction and feedback are effective in helping learners understand pragmatic elements and contexts by calling their attention to pragmatic form. But implicit instruction, and especially the implicit feedback in the form of recasts, may help learners produce appropriate pragmatic utterances" (495). Explicit instruction proved well-worth implementation, but implicit instruction should not be disregarded because it still holds value. Overall, in order to create the best

situation for pragmatic acquisition, including explicit teaching practices when incorporating pragmatic instruction in the classroom is recommended.

CHAPTER TWO

Greetings

Buenas noches (goodnight/ good evening) might not appear to be a greeting to an English native speaker; however, Spanish speakers commonly employ *buenas noches* to greet someone in the evening or at night. In order to know this, language learners must develop their sociolinguistic awareness. For beginning language learners, one of the most suitable speech acts for pragmatic instruction is greetings, or *saludos*. Mestre de Caro explains the importance of greetings: “el empleo de los saludos va más allá de la integración de una serie de fórmulas y exige al usuario de la lengua extranjera una capacidad para adaptar su discurso a las formas empleadas por la comunidad de habla en la que interactúa” (“The use of greetings goes beyond the integration of a series of formulas and it demands from the foreign language user a capacity to adapt his or her speech to the forms employed by the speaking community in which he or she interacts”) (415). That is to say, knowing how to properly greet someone requires knowledge of the context and interlocutors. As Wildner-Bassett notes, ACTFL, which provides standards for instructing languages other than English, acknowledges the crucial need to communicate in appropriate manners: “At the Novice level, the ‘ability to communicate minimally with the learned material’ will certainly be based on the most common of routine formulas, especially those for ‘expressing the basic courtesies’” (4). Therefore, students should be able to employ their knowledge of courteous greetings, and their routine formulas, to communicate.

The routine nature of greetings serves beginning L2 learners, as greetings are ubiquitous. Nearly every human interaction provides grounds to employ greetings. They can be seen in text messages, as the study by Flores- Salgado and Castineira-Benitez demonstrates, “In this study, formulaic utterances were found in the use of opening and closing sequences and they occurred in all the interactions analyzed” (90). In this study they collected a corpus to study speech acts within WhatsApp Messenger, an application for smartphones that allows users to send text and voice messages. Flores- Salgado and Castineira-Benitez note the most commonly utilized greeting forms: “*hola, buenas tardes, buenos días*” (hi, good afternoon, good morning) were preferred over deferential forms of address (90). These greeting forms are easily learned and employed by language learners, and they form an essential aspect of the language. In summary, Flores-Salgado and Castineira-Benitez found, “In WhatsApp conversations, greetings and closings are an important part of the exchange and should be negotiated, or at least signaled. Formulaic conversation components are valuable resources for constructing relationships” (90). Even in the modern variations of communication, greetings constitute a vital aspect of the Spanish language. Greetings can also be observed in emails. In the modern platform of emails, greetings adjust to the contextual factors. Concerning this, Pinto and Pablos-Ortega note: “En la comunicación escrita, a través de cartas o de mensajes de correo electrónico, se suelen emplear las siguientes fórmulas de saludo para dirigirse al interlocutor en un contexto formal: Estimada señora, Muy señor mío o Muy guido señor” (“In written communication, through cards or e-mails, they usually employ the follow greeting formulas to address the interlocutor in a formal context: Esteemed / Dear Mrs., My good sir, or Very good sir”) (90). A more official email requires a more formal

greeting construct, and the writer might not say *hola*, but rather employ something a little more formal, like *buenos días* (Pinto and Pablos-Ortega 90). In greetings for emails, text messages, and verbal communication there is formal and information variation. As with all speech acts, the speaker must be cognizant of the situation and also with whom he or she is speaking. The inability to appropriately greet someone can impede a conversation or cause a rift in the interlocutors' relationships. Failing to greet the other person in an appropriate manner carries potentially unintended and unpleasant consequences.

Greetings are not usually considered face-threatening-acts because; however, the absence of greetings might be considered rude. Nevertheless, speakers are often well-aware of how to respond and the necessity to greet others. This is in-part due to the formulaic nature of greetings.

Greetings frequently serve to open a conversation, but they can also serve other purposes. Duranti notes different research fields have defined greetings in distinct manners: ranging from the ethological view that greetings serve to ward off potential aggression, to the sociological view of speech act theorists in which greetings serve as an acknowledgement of a person (63-6). While the purpose(s) of greetings might be debated, the essential nature of greetings to properly communicate remains evident. For the purposes of this study, Zeff's description serves well: "A greeting can be as simple as a nod of the head or a wave of the hand. It can also be a statement that forms an adjacency pair, in that there is an initiation of contact followed by a response, both of which can be verbal or nonverbal and may conclude with a warm embrace" (3). Greetings can be expressed verbally or nonverbally. For instance, in the United States, hugging, slaps on the back, handshaking, and waving are all regularly utilized nonverbal forms of

communication, although they are often accompanied with verbal communication. When greetings are spoken, they often take the form of adjacency pairs. Schegloff and Sacks describe the essence of adjacency pairs as: “A basic rule of adjacency pair operation is: given the recognizable production of a first pair part, on its first possible completion its speaker should stop and a next speaker should start and produce a second pair part from the pair type of which the first is recognizably a member” (296). Adjacency pairs are ubiquitous in greetings. Furthermore, in another article Schegloff notes, “The first part of an adjacency pair not only makes one of a set of type-fitted second parts relevant in next turn, but typically displays a preference for one of them” (36). In the adjacency pair, the first interlocutor might prompt a desired response from the second interlocutor. This can also be a nonverbal prompt. Pinto and Pablos- Ortega provide an example:

Marta: [saluda a Victoria con la mano y una sonrisa]. ([greets Victoria with a wave and smile])

Victoria: ¡Hola, Marta!

Sometimes the entire greeting exchange takes the form of gestures, or extralinguistic signals that in both Spanish and English, can communicate a greeting. Regardless of verbal or nonverbal, greetings are often adjacency pairs, needing reciprocation. For example, when one person waves, the other is expected to return the greeting in a manner that is pragmatically appropriate. Questions, greeting phrases and greeting gestures provoke an appropriate response to fulfill the adjacency pair.

The CARLA website created by the University of Minnesota makes note of how greetings are a form of politeness: “Greetings play an essential role in everyday conversation and are commonly used as a ritual form of politeness” (“Greetings”).

Politeness strongly influences greetings, and upon receiving a greeting, refusing to supply an appropriate response is considered impolite. As Pinto and Pablos-Ortega write: “De modo que, no contestar a un saludo, o responder con algo irrelevante, representaría un turno no preferido” (In such a way, not answering a greeting, or responding with something irrelevant would represent a dispreferred turn) (83). Bernal also writes about impoliteness and greetings: a breach of politeness norms can occur when an interlocutor does not greet participants (Bernal 139). This speech act is essential in order to properly communicate. As the CARLA also notes, greetings serve a different purpose than many other speech acts: “[it] serves an interactional purpose in communication rather than conveying information in a transactional manner” (“Greetings”). Greetings seek to obey societal norms rather than gain information from the interlocutor, and because of their crucial and routine nature, they lend themselves to beginner-level Spanish curriculum material. Oftentimes, the very first phrases introduced in the classroom are greetings. The instructor will likely use Spanish greeting phrases from the first class onward, continuing with more variation and practice. Greetings may include nonverbal gestures such as a kiss on the cheek, a handshake, a hug, or other physical actions. In many Spanish-speaking communities, a kiss on the cheek is appropriate.

Although greetings are relatively uncomplicated, there are some areas which merit consideration and attention. As Duranti notes, “We cannot, however, in principle assume that, because greetings are formulaic, (i) they are always completely predictable, (ii) they have no information value, and (iii) participants have nothing invested in the propositional value of what is said” (70). Even though these assumptions are tempting, they are false and should serve as a reminder for language teachers that greetings might

need more attention. Instructors must be aware of these complex features of greetings in order to accurately introduce and practice them in the classroom. Searle, one of the first researchers to identify speech acts, proposes some speech acts like greetings and goodbyes might appear simple at first; however, they are boundary-markers for conversations, often they are ritualistic and without “propositional content” (Jucker, “Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences” 67). Although this is true in many circumstances, Jucker reminds readers that oftentimes greetings are more complex because they often initiate or take place within longer exchanges (Jucker, “Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences” 39). While some aspects of Spanish greetings might need extra attention, most of the commonly employed phrases are easily acquired by language learners.

In all levels of language learning, pragmatic instruction should be included in the curriculum. Specific speech acts lend themselves better to certain levels of language knowledge and acquisition. For instance, requests in Spanish often include conditional or past tense grammatical forms. While this does not mean these speech acts cannot be addressed in the beginner level classroom, certain speech acts - like greetings and compliments - are more fitting for novice grammatical knowledge. The forms taught in introductory Spanish classes, such as formulaic structures and present tense conjugations, coincide well with pragmatic instruction for greetings and compliments.

Several components distinct to greetings create an optimal learning experience. For instance, greetings, according to Zeff, are universal constructs (3). This means greetings are not specific to a certain culture or language; rather, varieties of greetings can be found in every language and culture. This variance reinforces the necessity to

expose and reinforce pragmatics in the classroom. Since greetings possess this universal characteristic, the idea of greeting another person should not be unfamiliar to any language learner, as he or she practices greetings in his or her L1 pragmatic system. Furthermore, the number of customary greetings is limited in each language. As Jucker notes, “Some speech acts can appear in a seemingly infinite number of creative forms, while others such as greetings and farewells tend to occur in a fairly small number of formulaic guises” (Jucker, “Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences” 40). While variation exists among greetings, especially in gender or regional differences, it is fairly limited. This is true especially compared to other speech acts, which often contain more creativity on the speaker’s part. Jucker explains the benefit of formulaic elements: “Such formulaic elements are helpful for speakers in that they can easily produce routine tasks in everyday life, and they are useful for listeners in that they can easily recognize the intended illocutionary force of the speech act” (Jucker, “Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences” 41). These elements aid language learners to understand the purpose of the speech act. The formulaic elements also assist language learners to more easily recall and internalize the conventional greetings. For instance, the greeting *buenos días* (good morning) can be used throughout the morning and *buenas tardes* (good afternoon) can be utilized throughout the afternoon. Wildner- Bassett explains routine formulas as habitual, rather than a conscious process: “They help reduce the complexity of social interaction by offering the security that the act performed will be understood by the partner in the intended way” (4). The assurance provided by routines aids language learners in communicating more efficiently. Furthermore, since they are formed by the native language speakers, routines are naturally culturally acceptable: “They also express

cultural appropriateness, since they help smooth interaction in a highly conventionalized and generally accepted manner” (4). Routines are crucial for the daily encounters, and language learners should acquire them in order to better connect with native speakers. Acquiring these conventional greetings will aid language learners in appropriately communicating with interlocutors, and they are crucial to gain L2 proficiency.

Pragmatic acquisition, especially in the beginning of language acquisition, can be influenced by the learner’s L1 pragmatic system. This merits attention from language instructors because it is something, they should be aware of from the very start of the acquisition process. Kasper defines pragmatic transfer: “Hence, invoking once again the wor(l)d-creating power of definitions, pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatics shall refer to the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information” (Kasper, “Pragmatic Transfer” 207). The routines and pragmatic system ingrained in a language learner from their L1 will affect their acquisition of L2 pragmatics, as the learner is likely to replicate L1 pragmatic norms. As demonstrated by Odlin, pragmatic transfer can be positive or negative (36). Furthermore, Pearson comments the duality of pragmatic transfer is not completely surprising, as this negative and positive transfer can be seen among other acquisitional aspects, such as phonology, syntax, and semantics (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 484). The study of pragmatic transfer must also take into account when learners choose whether or not to perform certain aspects due to their personal beliefs and values. On this subject Pearson explains, “Pragmatic transfer can be sociopragmatic when speakers choose to perform or not to perform SAs in certain situations according to

cultural norms, or pragmalinguistic when SA forms used the L1 are incorporated into L2 utterances” (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 484). The language learner can choose not to perform a pragmatic norm when the sociopragmatic speech act is something the learner might be uncomfortable with, but oftentimes, the divergence from the L2 pragmatic system can be attributed to the interference of the learner’s L1 pragmatic system. This is tricky, as Bu explains: “In their communication with native speakers of the target language, learners tend to transfer their native social and cultural norms into the target language, produce inappropriate linguistic behaviours, and lead to pragmatic failure” (Bu 32). Instructors must be aware of the potential for pragmatic transfer and note various ways in which they can help learners avoid failures caused by negative pragmatic transfer. One element to consider is that pragmatic transfer varies among learners, especially in regard to the age of the learners. Adult learners have already adapted the L1 pragmatic system, and Pearson notes this can assist them in recognition for pragmatic behavior: “Adult L2 learners recognize the need to modify their speech based on hearer and context. Continued exposure to L2 pragmatic norms through instruction can help them develop their pragmatic competence along with other areas of L2 knowledge” (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 489). The realization that pragmatics exists and plays an important role in interactions serves adult learners as they acquire a new language. As Koike observes, adults easily recognize speech acts and attempt to communicate accordingly (286). It appears to be intuitive for adult learners to try to incorporate pragmatic acts and aim for politeness.

While including pragmatic instruction in the classroom, teachers should be aware that learners may make greater strides in pragmatic competence before grammatical competence. This thought has been verified by various studies (Dietrich et al.; Eisenstein and Bodman; Koike; Salisbury and Bardovi-Harlig; Schmidt). With their knowledge of L1 pragmatics, the process of acquiring L2 serves to make connections while comparing the two languages. As adult learners advance in L2 acquisition, Koike suggests that they connect L1 structures with L2 structures: “the pragmatic component of interlanguage is probably developed more along the lines of Selinker’s notion of “restructuring” continuum, in which L2 grammatical structures are gradually linked to those of L1” (Selinker; Koike 286). Pearson verifies this in his study and notes, “L1 pragmatic system appears to have a role in processing new L2 input and making connections between similar L1 and L2 forms” (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 488). Pearson adds, “learners may use their L1 rules to comprehend the input. This strategy, however, is problematic if certain elements in the L2 require an interpretation different from that of the L1” (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 488). The negative transfer plays a role when language learners link their knowledge of the L1 pragmatic system and utilize it in their application of L2. Because of this phenomenon, instructors must be conscientious of this and highlight differences or purposefully select speech acts that can be positively transferred according to the language learners’ L1. When the Spanish language learners are native English speakers, greetings offer relatively easily transferable material.

One of the main reasons so many researchers suggest focusing on pragmatic greetings in beginning level classes is because of their similarities to English greetings.

Pragmatic transfer works in favor of these similarities because students will encounter positive, rather than negative, pragmatic transfer. Shleykina notes the expectation for greetings in both English and Spanish speaking cultures: “they represent politeness, and are often motivated by a certain event and are expected in a certain social situation” (54-5). Upon recognizing someone else, it is appropriate, and expected in both languages, to greet him or her. This can be a verbal greeting or a nonverbal greeting. In both Spanish and English greetings can be communicated verbally, relayed through a gesture or conveyed through a combination of verbal communication and nonverbal gestures. In addition, both languages frequently employ adjacency pairs in their greetings. For instance, saying *hola* (hi) or *¿Cómo está usted?* (How are you?) in Spanish to someone, would urge the interlocutor to respond. This occurs in English greetings as well. In analyzing English greetings, Shleykina applies Ferguson and Laver’s research on sociopragmatic factors affecting language: “Polite norms exist in the choice of greeting formulas in relation to social status and identity, age, gender, degree of familiarity, and degree of intimacy or distance (Ferguson 1981) (Laver 1981)” (58). These principles apply in Spanish as well. For instance, the grammatical choice to use “tú” or “usted” reflect the pragmalinguistic awareness of respect, formality, distance, intimacy, age and social status. The speaker makes a conscientious decision to employ one form or another. Shleykina makes note of the various classifications for English greetings: “Researchers propose several classifications of English verbal greetings: according to the presence or lack of the time indicator, contextual factors, and lexico-semantic content” (61). These groupings of greeting types also function for Spanish greetings. For example, there are greetings influenced by the existence of time indicator, such as *buenos días* [good

morning]. Greetings in Spanish also waver according to contextual factors and the lexico-semantic content. For example, in a situation with less social distance, one might say *¿Qué hubo?* [What's up?]. This greeting form is commonly employed in Mexico for close relationships or situations with little social distance. There is a spectrum of greetings, which all have appropriate situations according to the pragmalinguistic norms of the culture. Shleykina also argues English greetings can be broken down into pieces: "English greetings include three major components: greeting phrases, address terms, and elements of phatic communication" (63). Greeting phrases consist of words or utterances normalized to signify a greeting such as "hi," "hello," and "good afternoon." These greeting phrases have Spanish equivalents: *hola* (hi/ hello) and *buenas tardes* (good afternoon). The greeting phrases vary in formality, with "hi" being informal, "hello" being formal, and time-bound affirmations like "good morning" being more formal. This applies in Spanish as well: *hola* is more informal, and the time-bound affirmation, *buenos días*, is more formal. Interlocutors take into account various factors to decide the level of formality to employ. Phatic expressions, or communication that serves a social function, also play a large role in greetings in both Spanish and English. As Malinowski demonstrates in the article "The problem of meaning in primitive languages," "How are you?" serves as a "phatic expression" because it works to perform a social rather than informative function (315-6). That is to say, when interlocutors ask one another, "How are you?" they do so in order to follow social norms. They are not really seeking information on the wellbeing of the recipient. In fact, in English, it would break the Principle of cooperation to answer honestly. This applies in Spanish as well with its commonly employed phatic greeting questions *¿Qué tal?* [How is it going?] and *¿Cómo*

estás? [How are you?]. Upon analyzing Italian students learning Spanish, Vila notes the students do not respond to the phatic question as a native speaker would: “La mayoría [de los estudiantes italianos] se limita a dar una respuesta breve y, sobre todo, ninguno de ellos interactúa como lo haría un nativo, es decir, respondiendo a la pregunta brevemente y devolviendo la misma tipología de pregunta de cortesía al interlocutor” (The majority [of the Italian students] are limited to giving a brief response, and above all, none of them acted like a native speaker would, that is to say, responding to the question briefly and returning the same sort of courteous question to the interlocuter) (52). Instead of responding to the question *¿Qué tal?* with *todo bien* [it’s going well], as a native would, the students attempted to answer the question with more detail and did not reciprocate the question (Bernardo Villa 52). Students must be made aware of these phatic expressions that form part of politeness routines rather than seek information. Furthermore, students should learn how to appropriately respond to these questions, as answers like *regular* [normal] instead of *(todo) bien* in Spanish provoke further inquiry. Another area of similarity in English and Spanish greetings is their use of terms of address. Shleykina provides a description of English titles of address often used in greetings:

The most common ones include: personal names; respectful and formal terms or honorifics such as Mr./ Mrs., Sir/ Madame; titles such as Doctor, Professor, Major; kinship terms which can be used literally and metaphorically; terms of endearment in addressing children or close and intimate persons such as “honey,” “sweetie,” “buddy;” colloquial or slangy addresses, such as “dude,” or “bro” and nicknames derived from proper names or personal characteristics of the addressee. (67)

These forms of address are commonly utilized by English-speakers of greeting possibilities. They also have very similar equivalents in Spanish. For example, to be more formal or respectful, Spanish-speakers often employ types of honorifics such as *señor*

(Mr./ sir) or *señora* (Mrs./ Madame). To show more care or solidarity when speaking with intimate companions, Spanish-speakers use terms of endearment, such as *cariño* (darling). Terms of address, then, supply another opportunity for positive pragmatic transfer. While these three components in English greetings (greeting phrases, address terms, and elements of phatic communication) transfer well into Spanish, there are some areas of difficulty.

One of the most troublesome features of Spanish greetings is the vast variation. This variation is in part due to the socio-lexical and contextual factors, but a lot of the variation can be tied to regional norms. For instance, the norms for greetings in Spain are different from those in Ecuador. As Placencia discovers in her study on audio recordings from corner store interactions in Quito and Madrid, Spaniards tend to employ more matter of fact and transactional phrases (584). Madrileños use more direct forms and use less mitigation, which can be understood as a “recurso lingüístico que se utiliza para suavizar la posible imposición de un acto de habla” (a linguistic resource that is used to soften the possible imposition of a speech act) (Pinto and de Pablos-Ortega 248). Additionally, Madrileños often employ tacit requests. Tacit requests do not require explicit asking, and as Placencia explains, “Tacit requests in MS [Madrid Spanish], of which 15 instances (18.75%) occur, reflect regularity of contact between the participants that enables customers to enact their request by their mere presence, and the shopkeeper to predict what his/her customer wants. Such requests may indicate the shopkeeper's desire to get to the heart of the interaction without delay. This second interpretation accords with comments by one Madrileño shopkeeper on the futility of small talk in corner store interactions” (587). In contrast, Quiteños favor more formal forms, make

more indirect requests, and mitigate the requests with tools such as diminutives and phrases like *por favor* [please]. In regard to greetings, Madrileños seem to disregard the value of small talk, and the worker or owner of the store initiates the interaction by greeting the customer instead of the customer initiating the interaction. For Quiteños the reverse occurs, in which it is normal for a customer to greet the worker or owner of the store upon entering. Then, they might ask “how-are-you” inquiries before making the request. In Placencia’s study Quiteños use more formal greetings, such as *buenas tardes* (good afternoon) when Madrileños employ the adjacency pair *hola-hola* (hi- hi) more often (584- 596). This study demonstrates variation among Spanish speakers in regard to location or region of origin. Those from Spain tend to utilize less negative politeness strategies. This generalization holds true in Shively’s study as well, which reports on longitudinal research of service encounters recorded between Spanish language learners and the Spanish employees in Toledo, Spain. While those in Toledo would follow the *hola-hola* adjacency pair norm, the “how-are-you” inquiries were not generally practiced. Those from Toledo would not initiate this inquiry and upon being asked, they were perplexed. Shively explains they do not see “how-are-you” inquiries as a necessary act of politeness, and the absence of this inquiry does not imply unfriendliness (1825). This fact could pose a difficulty for L2 Spanish learners, as it is normal in English exchanges to ask about another’s well-being in as a social action more than a true inquiry. Therefore, in this situation, pragmatic transfer would be positive for certain Spanish-speaking communities, like those in Quito, and negative for other communities, like those in Madrid or Toledo.

Greetings are feasible for early pragmatic instruction and should be incorporated into language learning. However, there is a shortage of research on the best methods to implement pragmatic greeting lessons. Jucker suggests this can be attributed to the small quantities of studies that have used corpus-linguistic tools to study them (Jucker, “Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences” 56). Shleykina also notes the lack of attention given to greetings from the interlanguage pragmatic community, as empirical studies of greetings are scarce (72). The number of studies on greetings as speech acts are sparse, but this could also be connected to the rather straightforward nature of greetings. Greetings are often included within the first chapter of a Spanish language learning textbook; however, the depth and diversity of greetings should also be addressed within the classroom. Instructors must continually draw attention to pragmatically appropriate greetings, which are not necessarily intuitive. As Zeff notes,

Greetings are one of the few speech acts that children are taught explicitly in their native language (Kakiuchi 2005). Yet, the communicative function that greetings serve is usually understood as subordinate to other purposes in the ultimate goal of communication (DuFon 1999). In the language classroom, this subordinate position often means that teaching greetings is neglected; too little attention is paid to the roles that greets play in various cultures and how these roles may affect the ultimate goal of communication. (2)

Because of the need for greetings is rather self-evident, the focus on pragmatic greeting instruction is often overlooked in the classroom. Therefore, teachers must remember to regularly incorporate pragmatically appropriate greeting practice during instruction.

In order to teach pragmatic greetings, instructors must know their students’ backgrounds and needs in addition to understanding the nature of Spanish greetings. Wildner-Bassett suggests the first step is to compare to what they already know within their L1 pragmatic system (6-7). Then, routines should be included and regularly

practiced in the classroom. To ensure appropriate production, exposure to authentic material is necessary. As established, exposure alone does not necessarily mean pragmatic competence. For greetings, it is fitting to begin explicit instruction along with the beginning of the language instruction process. Advocating this idea Pearson notes, “By beginning pragmatic instruction at the earliest levels of study, as is done with grammar and vocabulary, additional opportunities can be provided for learners, especially those in FL learning environments, to comprehend and acquire L2 pragmatic forms” (Pearson, “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition” 489). Purposeful choices must be made to introduce pragmatic greetings to students and provide continual exposure and practice. Researchers from the University of Minnesota recommend not solely relying on textbook materials, as they are not always reliable sources of pragmatically appropriate language data (“Greetings”). Instead of sole reliance on textbooks, instructors can turn to other resources to incorporate pragmatic material in the classroom. A discussion of textbooks and pragmatic instruction will be included in subsequent chapters.

Zeff encourages teachers to expose students to greetings in their natural context to demonstrate accurate depictions of the pragmatic system, including for nonverbal behavior (such as a kiss on the cheek) (3). He notes the role of the instructor: to provide options for students regarding how to best engage in pragmatically appropriate conduct and “provide input and an environment for interpreting the communicative act” (3). CARLA echoes this idea: “Guide students in a language variation analysis to help them develop a wider repertoire of greeting expressions” and “Guide students in learning new skills to analyze the contextual variables that may influence language use” (“Greetings”).

Students' analytical skills must be cultivated and encouraged to assist them in recognizing pragmatic variation and the contextual factors that influence the language choices. For example, students might be taught in Spain, when answering the phone, it is appropriate to say *dígame* (speak to me), whereas in a country like Costa Rica, one might say *¿Aló?* (hello). Even the location can determine an appropriate response. While developing the students' analytical skills, Pearson recommends that instructors start with reliance on routines, which includes a vast range of greetings. As Kasper and Schmidt note, routines aid pragmatic development: "Studies by Schmidt (1983), Ellis (1992), and Sawyer (1992) suggest that, as in naturalistic second language development generally, pragmatic competence seems to evolve through initial reliance on a few unanalyzed routines that are later decomposed and available for productive uses later decomposed and available for productive use in more complex utterances" (159). Routines are beneficial for language learning, and greetings fall into this formulaic category. Therefore, students can more easily internalize the appropriate patterns of interaction. As Zeff notes, "With some knowledge of the most useful greeting routines and the variety of greetings one might encounter, students can begin to make their own choices and create their own greeting routines, moving them closer toward communicative competence in the target language" (3). Helping students employ and familiarizing students with greeting routines moves toward the goal to prepare students to interact with native speakers.

To accomplish this goal of preparing students to engage appropriately with native speakers, Zeff proposes four awareness-raising tasks that introduce the greeting speech act as a cycle of explicit pragmatic instruction that includes keeping a journal, observing

and documenting greetings on TV shows, using discourse completion tasks, and participating in role plays and mingles (type of open role play) (4-9). These activities align with the Input and Noticing Hypotheses. They also create opportunities for sheltered and scaffolded practice. The journal can be used for students to track their learning and note progress. This brings awareness to the role of greetings, and students can share their reflections with classmates during designated times. The authentic material in television programs allows for students to infer meanings from language in context. The instructors might have students watch specific clips or programs to ensure students will be able to comprehend some of the language use and interactions. However, even without total comprehension, students can observe greetings in a more authentic manner. Television shows also provide great examples of physical contact, such as handshakes, kisses on the cheeks, and hugs to greet others. Zeff also notes “Addressing what is inferred from the way something is said versus just translating the words and grammar of the sentence makes this type of analysis more pragmatic” (5). Students can utilize inference skills, witness cultural norms and actively notice the pragmatic functions of greetings. Discourse completion tasks (DCT) are a common method for practicing pragmatics explicitly. Zeff explains discourse completing tasks: “A typical DCT will name actors and a situation that a student considers in order to fill in or select language that is appropriate for the interaction” (6). The students must note the context (including elements such as power differential, intimacy of the relationship between interlocutors and location) in order to create or select the best responses. Zeff recommends instructors reward their students for quick responses to more accurately imitate realistic conversations (7). Discourse completion tasks intentionally focus students’ attention on

appropriate responses, but the students might not actually produce the language orally. Participating in role plays and mingles allow students to practice pragmatic greetings and conversations in a safe environment in which pragmatic failure does not necessarily mean their image or “face” has been threatened. Students might write the scripts, or they might verbally act out the DCTs. If the students write the scripts, Zeff suggests instructors limit the time they are allowed to construct the scenarios as the students’ progress to more realistically represent the actual speech act. Mingles are a type of open role play in which students are given the situation in the moment to act out. Every student can participate at the same time by having the students create two lines, in which one line rotates to continually switch their speaking partner. The students can also create two circles, in which either the inner or outer circle rotates to continually change speaking partners. These activities provide optimal opportunities to practice aspects such as change in formality (decisions on using the tú form or the usted form) and turn-taking. Zeff suggests utilizing a “VIP badge” in order to prompt formality: “To help students practice switching from casual to more formal greetings, I conduct simple activities, such as distributing a VIP badge to random students within a group and instructing them to wear the badge, as it signifies a change in social status for the role play” (9-10). Creating variation within activities aids students in practicing more realistic applications of greetings.

Feedback from instructors, self-reflection or other forms of assessment serve vital purposes in the process of pragmatic acquisition. In regards to classroom assessments, Wildner-Bassett argues for assessments to include grammatical and pragmatic evaluations: “It is essential that teachers begin to evaluate target language production for

its pragmatic appropriateness as well as for its grammatical accuracy at all levels of student proficiency, and that this be done on an individual basis as well as for a class or general instructional level” (13). Without feedback, students might develop fossilized errors, leading to repeated pragmatic failure. Zeff also provides various ways to assess pragmatic greetings: oral or written feedback to assess performance, discourse completion tests, and having students rank example responses from most to least appropriate (10). There are many methods to assess student acquisition of pragmatics, and these will be discussed later in this thesis. Implementing forms of assessment encourages students to seriously consider the weight of pragmatic greetings. Furthermore, it allows for student reflection and provides a measurement for the instructor to gauge student understanding. Overall, setting the standard of evaluation for grammar and pragmatics encourages continual holistic acquisition.

While including pragmatic instruction for greetings, potential difficulties arise. Wildner-Bassett notes areas in which predicaments might surface: “different routines for the same situation, different functions for what appears to be the same routine, differences in social situations which are culture specific or are overgeneralizations of routines” (13). Barron expresses different types of variation within a language, including cross-cultural differences as well as situational variability and dialectal influence (Barron 521-2). Each of these factors influences the production of the language. Regional variation provides slightly more predictable patterns, as there are general tendencies. For instance, Placencia’s research results demonstrate the tendency for Spaniards to employ a more direct, or transactional approach in service exchanges as well as their tendency to employ “tú” forms (584-5). Pinto and Pablos-Ortega also note

the regional variation with the Mexican greeting *¿Qué hubo?* (What's up?) or *¿Qué húbole?*, which are very similar to one of Spain's colloquial greetings: *¿Qué hay?* (What's up?) (178). Furthermore, when answering the phone, responses can vary from *¿Aló?*, common in places like Ecuador, to *¿Dígame?*, common in Spain (Pinto and Pablos-Ortega 177). In addition to regional variation, greetings can vary in regard to the formality of the register. Pinto y Pablos-Ortega remark for an informal register, greetings like *hola*, *¿qué onda?* and *¿qué pasa?* are commonly used, while formal register greetings might resemble something like *buenos días* or *buenas tardes* (177). While these examples merely scratch the surface of the depth in pragmatic variation, they demonstrate the ways in which greetings might take different forms. Many of these differences concern the variation among distinct communities of speakers and variation in context. This can be frightening for a language learner who might already feel overwhelmed by the abundance of material to learn. In part, this problem can be mitigated with abundant exposure to authentic materials in order to introduce students to variation among native speakers. As Barron advises, learners should have exposure to variation, "Equipping learners with a recognition that variation exists within one language furnishes them with an appreciation, expectance and acceptance for differences in language use norms within cultures" (522). Awareness, rather than complete knowledge of every variation, serves students well to interact in authentic language situations where they might come across a variety of forms. In addition, as Zeff suggests, instructors should teach in a manner that make students feel as though they are equipped with the knowledge of several options for replying or starting an exchange (3). When students feel as though the situation is familiar in at least some form, they can draw from their educational experience to know

how to interact appropriately. A classroom in which students regularly witness and engage in pragmatic greeting exchanges equips them to perform these acts outside of the classroom. Wildner-Bassett, in his study, found a key for productive and meaningful instruction for students is a conducive climate. He observes: “A playful environment was an essential element of the instructional segments” (14). The link between successful instruction and a relaxed environment for students could be related to the fact that students feel more comfortable in a tolerant and casual atmosphere, which lowers their affective filters. The idea of lowering an affective filter for productive language learning originates with Krashen: “The Affective Filter hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquires vary with respect to the strength or level of their Affective Filters” (31). These affective filters are variables that affect the success of students’ language acquisition, and the most prominent variables are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety (31). A fun, trusting atmosphere in which students can feel motivated, self-confident, and at peace allows them to practice speech acts with less hindrance. Then, they can truly produce the language without undue fear of scrutiny or judgment for an incorrect answer. The acceptance that one might be wrong and the ability to continually try to provide acceptable responses makes for a conducive classroom. When students enjoy the learning process, they can practice the pragmatic routines in ways that are productive for creating true language acquisition.

CHAPTER THREE

Compliments

Compliments, or *cumplidos*, are more frequently studied than greetings, and through this research, English and Spanish compliments have demonstrated many commonalities. Holmes, one of the prominent, early researchers to investigate compliments, provides a commonly cited 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” (485). An inherent attribute of a compliment includes a positive aspect in the utterance, either created by the verb, adjective choice, tone of voice, or some other function. According to Jucker, there are three forms a compliment can take: explicit, implicit, and indirect compliments (1612). The most studied compliment type are explicit ones, in which the compliment is directly realized, or the form matches the function, as in “You look wonderful,” said John, ‘glowing with health. Shall I pour you a cup of tea? It’s just made’” (BNC A0R Jucker 2262-4). The utterance “You look wonderful... glowing with health” takes the form of a compliment and it serves as a compliment; therefore, it is an explicit compliment. Implicit compliments, as Jucker notes, refer to utterances in which “the participants can infer an intended compliment even if it was not explicitly uttered,” such as: “I wish I could play the piano like you do” (Jucker 1613). Implicit compliments do not take the form of a normal compliment structure, but their purpose serves as a compliment. Lastly,

Jucker addresses indirect compliments: “The speaker does not make the compliment himself or herself but quotes somebody else as saying something complimentary about the addressee” (1613). The example Jucker uses is extracted from Yuan’s research: “Sun Ping said that the preserved vegetables you made were the most delicious!” (286). These indirect compliments take place as reported speech. While compliments might be observed in other instances, there remain three principle forms: explicit, implicit, and indirect. Moreover, Jucker also notes, “It seems obvious that they [compliments] are culture specific and sociologically conditioned. Compliments that are appropriate in a particular situation for one language community may be inappropriate in a comparable situation for another language community” (1612). Compliments are created with a specific and shared cultural understanding. Perhaps because of this culturally bound feature, compliments are usually shared within the same sociocultural groups (Alonso Lopera 89). To summarize, compliments praise another’s “good” and usually occur explicitly, implicitly, or indirectly while being understood within the sociocultural context.

Compliments might seem insignificant to a language teacher, but their use is vital for appropriate communication. For instance, an inappropriate response to a compliment or the failure to recognize an utterance as a compliment can result in perceived rudeness or a perverse disposition on the part of the hearer. Compliments are important for communication, as they often fulfill various functions in discourse both as face-enhancing acts and face-threatening acts. They can act as face-enhancing acts when they reinforce relationships and seek to encourage the hearer; however, a speaker might commit a face-threatening act when the compliment limits the hearer’s freedom. As

Brown and Levinson explain, face-threatening acts can create a debt in which the complimentee feels a debt to respond appropriately and/ or return the compliment; it creates an imposition (66). In regard to the variety of functions, Barros García observes compliments can be employed as a means to requests, criticize, reproach, interrupt, apologize, reinforce an apology, insult, and consolidate, negotiate, or increase solidarity between interlocutors (149). Alonso Lopera echoes that the multifunctional nature of compliments can serve to replace or accompany other speech acts; for instance, compliments might serve the following purposes: “acompañar un saludo/ despedida, expresar admiración, suavizar un reproche, agradecer o sostener una conversación, entre otros” (accompany a greeting/ farewell, express admiration, soften a reproach, give thanks, or sustain a conversation, among other [purposes]) (90). In their research, Wolfson and Manes note the flexible nature of compliments because of their ability to begin a conversation and /or compose an entire interaction: “A compliment/ response discourse unit may constitute the entire speech event, or it may serve to initiate a longer conversation” (397). This feature makes being able to produce compliments very useful, especially for language learners. In regard to their location within a speech act, Holmes and Brown note: “Compliments tend to occur at the openings and closings of speech events, often preceded by greetings and followed by farewells” (530-1). However, they also note that compliments can serve as transition points, bivalent or plurivalent speech acts and expressions of gratitude (Holmes and Brown 531). The bivalent or plurivalent speech acts are those which serve two or more purposes, respectively. While there is a tendency for compliments to occur at the beginning of a conversation, compliments in both English and Spanish can be found in other parts of a conversation as well. Manes

and Wolfson write, “A compliment may occur at almost any point within a speech event and, indeed, may be completely independent of the utterances which immediately precede it” (395). In many languages, the placement of compliments within a conversation seem to hold a great deal of flexibility, and sometimes a compliment adjacency pair can constitute an entire conversation. Compliments’ role in communication might go unrealized because of their seemingly simplistic character; however, because of their ubiquitous nature, it is imperative that language instructors include compliments in their curriculum.

In order to incorporate compliment instruction, teachers must be made aware of the nature and diversity of compliments. While studying the variety of compliments across cultures, one might observe that compliments vary tremendously. As Barros García notes,

It has been concluded that different cultures make different uses of compliments, not only in the devices used to formulate them but also in their frequency of appearance, the contexts where they are considered appropriate, the responses of the complimentees, the recognition of an utterance as a compliment, and the functions performed by the speech act. (148)

Compliments seem to exist in some form across all cultures; however, differences in their realization could give rise to pragmatic failure. A pragmatic failure, as Holmes and Brown define it, consists of “a misunderstanding of the intended illocutionary, or pragmatic force, of an utterance” (526). They go on to note, “Though such misunderstandings are possible between native speakers, they occur much more frequently and systematically between members of different cultural groups (527). This potential for trouble encourages instructors to identify the potential sources of predictable misunderstandings is the language teacher’s task. For students learning Spanish, or

English, they might have less to worry about because they present some similarities, and as Dumitrescu notes, compliments are inherently polite speech acts in both Spanish and English (1). Along with their innately polite nature, Spanish and English compliments also demonstrate other similarities, such as the limited syntactic patterns and repetitive vocabulary. Commonalities work in favor of language learners, as in these cases, because transfer from L1 will be positive, not negative. They also allow for students to make comparisons to their own language and potentially gain the ability to produce these speech acts sooner. These similarities will be addressed in further detail, but first it is important to note the risk of incorrectly performing or responding to a compliment.

Perhaps the most notable areas of danger in regard to compliments for non-native speakers are the risks of pragmatic and sociopragmatic failure, especially the risk of neglecting to recognize a compliment and the inability to respond appropriately to a compliment. The speech act of compliments presents clear grounds for potential pragmatic failures. These pragmatic offenses can be caused by a simple grammatical or vocabulary error, but transgressions can also arise from insufficient cultural understanding.” Holmes and Brown identify this type of misstep as a sociopragmatic failure, which: “can be accounted for by inadequate knowledge of relevant cultural and social values, occurs when a speaker selects an inappropriate linguistic strategy to express a speech act in a particular context” (528). Furthermore, Dumitrescu observes, “not performing a ritual in the way it is expected to unfold is a noticeable offense, and the person ‘breaking the rules’ (i.e. failing to properly thank for a favor, to apologize for an offense, etc.) is immediately considered rude or impolite” and “the situation is aggravated when cross-cultural communication is involved where misunderstandings may arise due

to different socio-cultural interaction norms and/or expectations” (8-9). The cultural knowledge of the interlocutors plays a vital role. Additionally, Maíz- Arévalo also notes the potential for compliments can lead to sociopragmatic failure, and implicit compliments add another layer of complexity (Maíz-Arévalo, ““Was That a Compliment?” 991-4). These implicit compliments might not appear to be a compliment to a non-native speaker, and the receiver might not respond appropriately or he or she might take offense. Another area of potential problems, in regard to compliments, presents itself as a paradox. Upon receiving a compliment, the complimentee must respond in a manner that does not imply self-praise but also does not offend the complimenter. Pomerantz originally acknowledged this dilemma in 1978: “The productions of compliment responses are sensitive to the cooperation of the constraint systems. One preference system is that of *supportive actions*, that is responses which legitimize, ratify, affirm, and so on prior compliments. A second constraint system is that of *self-praise avoidance*” (106). The complimentee must be aware of these constraints in both English and in Spanish. Despite the challenge this paradoxical situation presents, culturally appropriate compliments are not unattainable for language learners. In fact, the possibility of misinterpreting or failing to recognize a compliment demonstrates the necessity for learners to acquire this speech act. For English speakers learning Spanish, English and Spanish compliments demonstrate several similarities, making these utterances easier to attain.

For beginner learners with an L1 of English, compliments are well-suited for pragmatic instruction for several reasons. First, the purpose of complimenting appears to be the same, or very similar, in both languages. As discussed earlier, compliments can

serve various purposes, but in both Spanish and English, the principle reason for complimenting another is the recognition of something admirable. For example, Maíz-Arévalo states that in both English and Spanish both interlocutors recognize the object of comparison as admirable (Maíz-Arévalo, ““Was That a Compliment?” 958).

Additionally, Placencia and Yépez emphasize the basic function of compliments as to offer praise: “In short, a large number of compliments in ES [(Ecuadorian Spanish)], as in AE [(American English)], appear to have the overall function of expressing admiration or approval and, at the same time, depend on the context, can be used to carry out other function” (115). In addition to the recognition of something as praise-worthy, there can lie various reasons behind complimenting another, but oftentimes, it is to maintain a good relationship. Alonso Lopera notes: “Un cumplido tiene diferentes funciones, características y estrategias que van en pro de mantener las buenas relaciones sociales entre los participantes” (A compliment has different functions, characteristics, strategies that serve in maintaining good social relationships between the participants) (90).

Maintaining a positive relationship is a key feature of compliments and using compliments as a means to preserve a relationship is something utilized both in English and in Spanish.

Furthermore, in both English and Spanish appropriate topics for complimenting demonstrate concordance. Holmes and Brown verify Wolfson and Manes’ recognition of appearance and ability as the most common topics for compliments in English. After these topics, research conducted in New Zealand by Holmes and Brown demonstrated possessions and personality/ friendship to be the third and fourth, respectively, most complimented topics in English (530). Rose, with his research in compliments, also

points to appearance, possessions, and ability as the most common and appropriate compliment topics (Rose, “Compliments and Compliment Responses in Film” 313). Therefore, appearance, ability, and possessions all seem to be the most appropriate topics for compliments in English. However, these topics can vary according to region, gender, age, and other factors. As Holmes and Brown note, in New Zealand, personality and / or friendship composes another commonly complimented topic (Holmes and Brown 530). However, this is not as frequently noticed in American English. Additionally, Wolfson and Manes mention the tendency for Americans to especially compliment newness in regard to appearance (398).

In Spanish, the topics are similar, though they are not necessarily identical. While there is some variation, English and Spanish present remarkably similar principle topics for complimenting. As Dumitrescu finds in regard to romance languages, the objects of praise appropriate for compliments follow four categories: “there appear to be basically four kinds of situations that favor the occurrence of a complimenting exchange: 1) physical appearance; 2) intellectual qualities; 3) material possessions and/ or family; and 4) skills, abilities and/ or achievements (especially in the workplace)” (16). Alonso Lopera’s list of appropriate objects to compliment in Spanish include appearance, possession, ability, and personality (89- 90). The slight difference between these two sets is Alonso Lopera’s inclusion of personality and Dumitrescu’s inclusion of intellectual qualities; however, one could argue these are very similar topics in many cases. Furthermore, in their data collected from Ecuadorian compliments, Placencia and Yépez find appearance, achievement, and possessions to be the most commonly complemented topics (90-6). This closely resembles Nelson and Hall’s results from their data of

compliments in Pueblo, Mexico; they found the most frequently complemented subjects to be appearance, skill/ work, traits, and possessions (92). In comparison to English, there appears to be an extra emphasis on appearance in Spanish, as Maíz- Arévalo notes: “With regard to what is complimented, Spanish interlocutors seem to compliment more on appearances than abilities both explicitly and implicitly” (Maíz-Arévalo, ““Was That a Compliment?” 90). Spanish speakers compliment more on appearance, and English speakers compliment more on abilities. However, there are similarities, as appearance, possession, and ability are all common compliment topics. Additionally, in regard to possessions, noticing “newness” is almost crucial in both Spanish and English (Maíz-Arévalo 987). Therefore, native English-speaking students learning how to compliment in Spanish can allow their intuition to guide them to appropriate compliment topics. Fine-tuning topics will take time, as Holmes and Brown note with respect to possessions and performance: “Judging which possessions and which aspects of performance are appropriate topics for compliments, however, may require extensive knowledge of the relevant culture” (529). Again, it is crucial to practice speech acts and expose students to authentic material so that they might develop L2 sociopragmatic awareness. With fixed attention, students will develop a better understanding and sense of appropriate compliment topics.

One remarkable commonality is that both English and Spanish compliments are formed in a limited number of syntactic formulas. That is to say, the research on compliment syntactic formulas demonstrates relatively predictable patterns. Wolfson and Manes were two of the first to publish research on the English compliment formulas. With 686 naturally- occurring compliments recorded, they found nine syntactic patterns

that account for 97% of all patterns, and the three most common types account for close to 80% of the compliments (Wolfson and Manes 403). The three preferred formulas they found were: (1) NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ, (2) I really {like/ love} NP, and (3) PRO is (really) (a) ADJ NP. Furthermore, the most prevalent formula: NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ proved especially useful, as over half (53.6%) of the data resemble this syntactic pattern (402). These results have remained largely unchanged, as researchers such as Rose have demonstrated very similar data. Rose's results observed 408 compliments from films, and his data also showed limited syntactic formulas for English compliments, with nine patterns composing nearly all of the data. The most common pattern remained (1) NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ, as it was the syntactic formula of 50.7% of the compliments observed (Rose, "Compliments and Compliment Responses in Film" 315-6).

(1) NP (+ is/ looks) (+ really) + ADJ

(2) I + really (+ like/ love) + NP

(3) PRO + is (+ really) (+ a) +ADJ + NP.

Spanish compliments have also shown to be syntactically formulaic. As Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen note, "When Wolfson's (1989) work on compliments is applied to Spanish, it can be seen that Spanish, like English, displays only a few syntactic patterns for giving a compliment" (652). However, the syntactic patterns are more diverse and might not seem as clear to L2 Spanish learners. Nelson and Hall note, "However, because the flexibility of Spanish word order and the ability to omit the subject, this may be a more difficult area for learners" (116). Regardless, there are syntactic patterns for Spanish compliments, and with sufficient input and noticing, students should recognize

and then be able to incorporate said patterns. Nelson and Hall, in their study of Mexican compliments, found their data could be grouped into twelve syntactic patterns. They also claim two of Wolfson's proposed structures resemble the nature of the Mexican compliment syntactic structures. While they do not boast the same structures, they can be linked according to their usage: predicative usage or attributive usage with adjectives (Nelson and Hall 114). Predicative adjective usage occurs when the positive adjective occurs after the noun in the predicate of the sentence, and attributive adjective usage assigns a quality or someone or something before they are mentioned. Nelson and Hall argue the English structure (1) NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ and the Spanish structures (4) VP[qué+A+N]*(+NP) and (5) (NP+)NP[V+A] both utilize predictive qualities (Nelson and Hall 104, 114). For example, the following compliments from Nelson and Hall all fall into the (4) and (5) syntactic structures, which fulfill predictive usage. *¡Qué chistoso eres!* (You are so funny!); *¡Qué padre está tu playera!* (Your t-shirt is really cool!); *Está muy padre tu suéter* (Your sweater is really cool) (105). Additionally, Nelson and Hall propose the English compliment structure (3) PRO + is (+ really) (+ a) +ADJ + NP relates to the Spanish compliment structures (6) NP[qué+ A+N](+VP) and (7) VP+NP[A(N)] because they are attributive (104, 114). For example, the following compliments from Nelson and Hall's data demonstrate these Spanish syntactic patterns: *¡Qué bonito cuerpo tienes!* (You have a great body!); *¡Qué guapa!* (You look great!); *Eres interesante* (You're interesting); and *Tienes bonitos ojos* (You have pretty eyes) (105).

*For VP[], elements within brackets constitute a verb phrase. For (), elements within parentheses are optional (Nelson and Hall 104).

- (4) VP[qué+A+N] (+NP)
- (5) (NP+) NP[V+A]
- (6) NP[qué+ A+N]* (+VP)
- (7) VP + NP[A(N)]

Finding similar results concerning Spanish compliments' syntactic nature, Placencia and Yépez analyzed over 130 compliments in Ecuador and found three syntactic structures to compose 67.84% of the data and with three more structures, the six patterns account for 72.38% of the data (104). There are some similarities with the data provided by Nelson and Hall. Their syntactic formulas demonstrate flexibility and diversity because they list several manners in which each pattern might take place, but Placencia and Yépez group them according to their overarching syntactic pattern. The most commonly employed complement structure found by Placencia and Yépez took place in two variations: (8a) (NP) + V(+INTES) +ADJ/ ADV (+NP) and (8b) (NP) + V(+NP) (+INTES) +ADJ/ ADV (105). For example, *¡La comida está super buena!* (The food is really good); *¡Está precioso ese saco!* (That jacket is beautiful); *Esa cola te sienta bien* (That ponytail suits you well); *¡Tu mama cocina excelente!* (Your mom cooks excellently!); *Eres una ersona muy valiente* (You are a very brave person) and *Tienes un cuerpo bien bonito* (You have a very nice figure) (105). The second most commonly used compliment structure among Placencia and Yépez's data also took two forms: (9a) (INTERJ) + (qué) + ADJ (+ POSS + NP) and (9b) (INTERJ) (+ qué) + ADJ + (que V) (104). Examples of these patterns include *¡Ay! ¡Qué guapa!* (Wow! How good/ attractive); *¡Qué guapa que está!* (How good/ attractive you look); *¡Tenaz tu camiseta!* (Cool (your) t-shirt); and *¡Qué lindo tu pelo!* (How pretty your hair) (104). Lastly, (10)

Qué (+ADJ) + NP (+que +V) was the third most frequently utilized syntactic pattern (105). This pattern always has *qué* in the utterance: *¡Qué pinta!* (What looks!) and *¡Qué bonita sonrisa tienes!* (What a nice smile you've got!) (105). There were other formulas, compromising the 32.16% of the data, but these structures were the most frequently employed.

(8a) (NP) + V(+INTES) +ADJ/ ADV (+NP)

(8b) (NP) + V(+NP) (+INTES) +ADJ/ ADV

(9a) (INTERJ) (+ qué) + ADJ (+ POSS + NP)

(9b) (INTERJ) (+ qué) + ADJ + (que V)

(10) Qué (+ADJ) + NP (+que +V)

While the syntactic patterns are not the same for English and Spanish compliments, they both demonstrate a limited number of syntactic structures. This does not mean teachers must require students to learn these patterns. However, it does suggest with enough exposure and explicit teaching, students should recognize and be able to produce these syntactic compliment patterns.

Barros García argues the consistent features found in Spanish compliments indicate they must be formulaic. These features include declarative, copulative, or exclamatory syntactic structures, semantically positive adjectives, intensifiers to reinforce positive effect, isolated utterances, and adjacency pairs (162). These features can be noted in both Spanish and English compliments, not only arguing for their formulaic nature, but also demonstrating how similar these formulas are. Maíz- Arévalo's research shows three distinct Spanish compliment clauses. One common pattern is a declarative clause with the complimentee in the subject position, followed by a copulative verb and a

positive adjective, such as *Eres un bellezon* (“You are a real beauty”). Another common structure is an exclamative clause with an adjective group modifying a complimented item, such as *¡Qué preciosidad de pulsera!* (“What a beautiful bracelet!”). Additionally, Maíz-Arévalo lists the declarative clause with the complimenter in the subject position, followed by a mental process of ‘liking’ and the complemented item in the direct object position, as in *Me encanta tu camisa* (I like your shirt) (Maíz-Arévalo, ““Was That a Compliment?” 983). These forms are also attested to by Barros García. As Barros García demonstrates, “most of the compliments in the data are formed by declarative sentences (39.7%), short copulative sentences (34%), or exclamatory sentences (17.3%)” (155). Declarative statements, such as *este queda muy bonito* (this looks very pretty) and *esto queda precioso puesto* (this fits beautifully) (Barros García) were the most common structures, resembling the most common English structure of NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ. The second most common Spanish structure, copulative, can be seen in examples like *es muy majo* and *es muy bonito* (282). These copulative structure examples follow the (7) and (8a) Spanish syntactic patterns found by Nelson and Hall and Placencia and Yépez. Additionally, it resembles the English syntactic structure (1) NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ format taking into account that in Spanish the inclusion of the pronoun or noun for the subject is often unnecessary, as the conjugated verb includes the subject. The third most prominent structure, exclamatory, often takes the form of *Qué ADJ!* such as Barros García demonstrates with the compliments *¡QUÉ MOONA!* (How cute!) and *¡QUÉ GRACIOOSA!* (How funny!) (capitalization is utilized to emphasize the louder tone and repetition of vowels demonstrates the elongation of the sound) (292). This common form of Spanish compliments can be compared to the English formula of (How)

ADJ! For example, the English forms such as Cool! How fun!, etc. resemble their Spanish forms. Alonso Lopera, remarks that utterances beginning with *qué* and *cómo*, are conventionalized forms for Spanish compliments: “El cumplido se presenta de una manera convencional mediante oraciones exclamativas introducidas por las palabras *qué* o *cómo* que ayudan a intensificar la fuerza del cumplido (“¡qué computadora tan bacano!; cómo juegas de bien!”) (The compliment presents itself in a conventional manner by means of exclamatory sentences introduced by the words *qué* or *cómo* that help to intensify the force of the compliment) (91). With the exception of this third formula, the two most frequent Spanish compliment patterns found by Barros García align with the most common English compliment formula: NP {is/ looks} (really) ADJ. The other Spanish compliment syntactic formula mentioned by Maíz-Arévalo with the verb of “liking,” as in “Me encanta tu camisa,” conforms to the second most common syntactic formula presented by Wolfson and Manes: I really {like/ love} NP. These commonalities enable positive transfer for language learners. This positive transfer potential and the ubiquitous nature of compliments make the speech act of compliments appropriate for teaching at basic proficiency levels.

The similarities in compliment structure can also be noted in their adjacency pairing and type of utterances. In both English and in Spanish, compliments are often formed as part of an adjacency pair. As Barros García notes in regard to Spanish compliments, “Research shows that compliments can occupy either a first or a second turn position in adjacency pairs, so the identified FE [(face-enhancing)] compliments were classified as starting/initial turns or as reactive turns” (158). Bustos Rus’s definition of compliments stems from its adjacency pair nature: “El cumplido consiste en un acto de

habla mediante el que un hablante emite un enunciado que valora positivamente los méritos de otra persona; por su parte, el destinatario del cumplido se ve obligado a responder con una reacción verbal o no verbal” (The compliment consists of a speech act by the speaker emitting a utterance that positively values the merits of the other person. For his or her part, the recipient of the compliment becomes obligated to respond with a verbal or non-verbal reaction) (5). The first utterance is either something that provokes a compliment or is a compliment itself; it demands that the complimentee reacts in some manner, whether it be verbal or nonverbal. Dumitrescu, in her comparison of Romance languages to English, also establishes this commonality in the Spanish and English compliments: “Furthermore, they are typically followed by a verbal response on the part of the hearer, insomuch that they along with their responses appear to form what conversation analysts would probably call an adjacency pair” (3). The structure of adjacency pairs is common in both English and Spanish compliments.

In addition to their syntactic patterns, both Spanish and English compliments often utilize limited adjectives. Regarding American English compliments, Wolfson notes:

We may categorize 80% of all compliments in the data as adjectival in that they depend on an adjective for their positive semantic value. In all, some seventy-two positive adjectives occur in the data and there is no doubt that if further data were collected, a great many more such adjectives would appear. What is striking, however, is that of these seventy-two adjectives, only five (nice, good, beautiful, pretty and great) are used with any frequency (Wolfson, “Compliments in Cross-Cultural Perspective”).

Of the nearly seven hundred naturally occurring compliments, 80% of the compliments are adjectival, and two-thirds utilize one of the five most frequently used adjectives. Furthermore, Wolfson notes that “nice” and “good” together make up over 40% of the

adjectival compliments, and this might be because their “semantically vague [characteristic] makes it possible for speakers to use them in connection with an almost unlimited variety of nouns” (Wolfson, “Compliments in Cross-Cultural Perspective” 121). This frequency can be beneficial for those wishing to learn English, as the knowledge of these five adjectives - nice, good, beautiful, pretty, and great - can significantly serve language learners. Rose also tested this adjectival frequency and found similar results. His film data demonstrated a little more variety, but the five most common adjectives remained the same: nice, good, pretty, beautiful, and great (Rose, “Compliments and Compliment Responses in Film” 315-6). There was a slight change in frequency of each, and overall, they together composed 49% of the adjectival compliments instead of 80%. However, the high frequency and utility of these adjectives in American English compliments cannot be denied.

Moreover, this characteristic is also found among Spanish compliments, as there appear to be commonly employed adjectives. For instance, Nelson and Hall’s 240 Mexican Spanish compliments, 174, or 73% of the compliments were adjective based (102). Placencia and Yépez’s data demonstrated similar results, with 61.43% of the compliments being adjective- based (97). This means the adjective carried the utterance’s positive illocutionary force. According to Barros García’s study of compliments from Valencia, Spain, in the face-enhancing compliments, those meant to benefit the “image” of the speaker and / or listener, 40% of the compliments used *bonito/a* (beautiful) (156). Other adjectives frequently used in the compliments recorded by Barros García include *precioso* (gorgeous), *guapo/a* (good looking), *majo* (nice), *mono* (pretty), and *monada* (lovely) (156). This limited list of adjectives denotes those widely utilized to give

compliments. Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen refer to various studies to suggest the most frequently employed adjectives in compliments across several Spanish-speaking countries: “Consistent with other studies that examined compliments in Spanish in the United States (Valdés and Pino 1981), Ecuador (Placencia and Yépez 1999), and Mexico (Nelson and Hall 1999), the most frequent adjectives used to give a compliment in Spanish include bien ('well'), bueno ('good'), bonito ('pretty'), guapo ('cute'), lindo ('beautiful'), padre (Mexico) or guay (Spain) ('cool'), rico ('delicious'), and inteligente” (652-3).

The data for adjectives used in Spanish compliments presents a greater variety than in English. This could be caused by several factors, but the most significant influence can likely be attributed to regional variation. Studies on compliments in Spanish have been conducted in many different Spanish-speaking countries. Just as one might expect adjectival compliments to vary when comparing American English compliments to those of New Zealand or England, the same is revealed among different Spanish-speaking countries. According to Dumitrescu’s analysis of Spanish compliments, there are more universal adjectives as well as more regional or sociocultural adjectives: “In addition to more common (and register-neutral) words such as *hermoso*, *lindo*, *bonito*, there are regional and/or argotic words such as *padre*, *chevere*, *chulo*, *chivo*, *regio*, *bacan*, among others” (16). As with English, the words utilized present a select group of more universal adjectives and adjectives more common among specific socioeconomic, age, gender, or regional groups. For instance, Ferrer and Sanchez Lanza found that among the younger generation of Argentines prefer to use *rebueno* and *genial* (46). This regional variation for adjective preference might seem intimidating for language

instructors, but it should be emphasized again that teachers must expose their students to variation.

While students cannot be expected to learn all numerous ways to express “cool,” they might learn the most universal adjectives, such as *bueno* and *bonito*, and then later incorporate regional variations into their lexicon. In regard to teaching students adjectives to include in their own compliments and lexicon, Nelson and Hall suggest covering the most frequently utilized adjectives: “Since the majority of compliments in both languages are adjectival, instructors could teach the most commonly used Spanish adjectives (e.g. *bien, bueno, bonito, guapo, lindo, padre, rico* and *inteligente*)” (well, good, pretty, good-looking, beautiful, cool, delicious, and intelligent) (116). Additionally, adjectives are commonly employed in with the word *qué* in syntactic structures (4), (6), (9a), (9b), and (10). While this syntactic pattern does not hold an exact equivalent in English, students should not encounter much difficulty in acquiring it. Nelson and Hall explain this: “Although “Qué + ADJ,” the single most common structural feature of Mexican Spanish compliments, is not commonly used in American English (e.g., “what/ how + ADJ”), it does not seem a difficult pattern to learn” (116). Adjectives are vital in compliments, and instructors should both teach the most commonly used adjectives in addition to helping students to notice other positive adjectives.

While the use of an adjective to communicate a positive utterance is more common, verbs also frequently carry the positive semantic meaning in compliments. Wolfson observes English compliments most often obtain their affirmative value from adjectives, but there are a portion of compliments that obtain their positive value from verbs “While 80% of all compliments in the corpus are of the adjectival type,

compliments which make use of verbs to carry the positive semantic evaluation also occur” (Wolfson, “Compliments in Cross-Cultural Perspective” 122). In Nelson and Hall’s study adjective- based compliments constituted for 70% of the data (106). Reliance on a positive verb plays an important role in English compliments, and just as with adjectives, there is also consistency and predictability in the verbs utilized. As Wolfson notes in the study of almost seven hundred naturally- occurring American English compliments, the verbs “like” and “love” were in 86% of the compliments containing a semantically positive verb (Wolfson, “Compliments in Cross-Cultural Perspective” 122). This is also seen in Spanish compliments, Spanish compliments employ verb- based compliments; however, it is not as common as adjective-based compliments. For example, Nelson and Hall found about 10% of the compliments were verb- based with the two most common verbs to be *gustar* (to like) and *encantar* (to love) (107). While adjective- based compliments are much more common, verb- based compliments are still important to teach, and they occur with varying frequency among different regions, people groups, and other factors. For instance, the third type of compliment noted by Maíz- Arévalo specifically includes those that employ a verb of “liking.” She identifies this type of compliment as, “Declarative clause with the complimenter in the subject position, followed by a mental process of ‘liking’ and the complimented item in the direct object position such as: *Me encanta tu camisa* (I love your shirt) (Maíz-Arévalo, ““Was That a Compliment?”” 983). This is also verified by Dumitrescu’s observations, deeming one of the three most recurrent compliment structures to be composed of: “a verb of liking followed by the noun that corresponds to the object of praise” (15). Verbs of liking play a large role in the group of verb-dependent

Spanish compliment structures. This structure suits beginning learners well, as *me gusta... followed by the predicate* (I like...) (or literally "... is pleasing to me") is one of the early constructions taught in beginner-level Spanish. Therefore, due to this construction's importance in both English and Spanish compliments and inclusion in beginner-level curriculum, the compliments with verbs of liking bode well for inclusion in pragmatic instruction.

In both Spanish and English, compliments can occur in many contextual settings. For instance, Maíz- Arévalo notes some factors that might play a role in both Spanish and English compliments: "In fact, the speaker who chooses to pay a compliment has to take into account many aspects such as: the social relationship between the speaker and the addressee, what exactly can be complimented and what should not, the point of the conversational exchange, the gender and age of the interlocutors and so on" (Maíz- Arévalo, "Was That a Compliment?" 922). As Pinto and Pablos- Ortega point out, there are three factors that establish the level of politeness: the power difference between interlocutors, the social distance, or relationship between the interlocutors and the imposition carried with an utterance (Pinto and de Pablos-Ortega 151-2). These can be applied to compliments, because with compliments the same factors must be taken into account by the speaker before uttering the speech act. For instance, if the power difference is too large, it might be considered inappropriate to compliment something or someone. Additionally, gender influences compliments, as in both cultures, it is generally more common for women to give compliments than men (Wolfson, "An Empirically Based Analysis of Complimenting in American English"; Maíz-Arévalo, "Intercultural Pragmatics: A Contrastive Analysis of Compliments in English and Spanish"; Rose,

“Compliments and Compliment Responses in Film”). However, there are instances in which men pay more compliments in Spanish, as demonstrated by Cordell et. al that males who are strangers paid more compliments to younger women than to male friends regardless of their levels of intimacy (247). While there are exceptions, women generally pay more compliments. The more important aspects to consider seem to abide by the three social aspects: the power difference, the social distance, and the imposition (if any in the form of face-threatening acts). It is typical for compliments to occur among interlocutors within the same sociocultural group. Alonso Lopera notes: “los cumplidos son expresiones verbales que normalmente se utilizan dentro un mismo grupo sociocultural y que se usan no sólo para demostrar comportamiento cortés, sino también para asegurar que los participantes son conscientes de que se valoran las opiniones. Implican, por tanto, una solidaridad conjunta” (Compliments are verbal expressions that are normally used within the same sociocultural group, and [they] are used not only to demonstrate polite behavior, but also to assure that participants are conscious that their opinions are valued. They imply, therefore, a group of solidarity) (90). In both languages, compliments can serve to create, reinforce, or negotiate solidarity, especially when exchanged between members of the same sociocultural group. Barros García also acknowledges the importance of the settings in which compliments are given: “Compliments are mostly exchanged in familiar settings and between participants that maintain a close relationship” (160). Familiarity is a common feature of compliments; however, this varies among cultures, with English-speaking communities more readily giving compliments in unfamiliar situations.

While Spanish and English compliments present many similarities, there are differences of which language instructors should be aware. For instance, there are some differences in regard to frequency, lexical variation, and recipients of compliments. For example, in general American English speakers offer compliments more frequently than Spanish speakers. Wolfson and Manes argue English compliments have “freedom of occurrence” in which they appropriately occur “from casual conversations to service encounters to formal function in a number of specific ways” (394-5). Wolfson echoes this idea in a separate article: “In American English, compliments occur in a very wide variety of situations. They are quite frequent, and they serve to produce or to reinforce a feeling of solidarity between speakers, as Wolfson and Manes (in press) have shown”

(123). Reaffirming this, Dumitrescu states:

Americans both pay and accept more compliments than Spanish-, Romanian- and French-speaking people do, to stay within the group of European languages under scrutiny. (28) This probably has to do with the fact that the speech act of complimenting appears to be restricted in those languages to interactions between people who are close to each other, (29) while in American English it is not uncommon to receive compliments even from perfect strangers with whom one comes into ephemeral contact (for instance, while sharing an elevator ride or crossing paths in a hallway) (19).

In contrast, Spanish compliments are reserved for people with whom the speaker feels comfortable and the power and social differential is minimal. As Barros García notes, the idea of closeness, or *confianza*, carries more weight in Spanish compliments, especially in Spain (147). She adds in the Spanish culture interlocutors “lean toward proximity in communication” (147-8). This cultural value comes across in their compliments.

According to Barros García, in Spain the tendency toward a positive politeness culture predominates, leaning toward affiliation and solidarity; these tendencies are connected with the abundance of Face-Enhancing Acts (FEAs), or face- flattering acts (695). The

tendency toward Face-Enhancing Acts or the avoidance of Face-Threatening Acts varies among Spanish-speaking cultures, but these characteristics are important to note when utilizing authentic material in the classroom. While closeness is important, it is not something Spanish speakers seek out with every interaction. With this knowledge, language instructors might advise their students to avoid complimenting strangers in Spanish-speaking communities or to consider the closeness of their relationship with the proposed compliment. A compliment from a stranger might be interpreted as insincere for a native Spanish speaker. This is something students can be aware of when practicing compliments.

Another potential difference might also be encountered in regard to sociopragmatic variation, which Dumitrescu defines as “the way in which speakers vary their use of language in similar situational contexts, with similar communicative purposes and thus exhibit different interactional features/patterns” (29). This variation can take many forms and be caused by many factors. One type of pragmatic variation especially relevant to compliments is word choice. Alonso Lopera notes the frequent appearance of “palabras informales, coloquiales o del parlache” (informal words, colloquial words, or social-culturally bound words) (91). For instance, to express “(How) cool!” one might hear *¡qué guay!* in Spain and *¡qué padre!* in Mexico. This difference can be accounted for by employment of regional colloquial words. Variation might also occur in other manners, such as gender differences previously discussed, the grammar structure of *voseo* or *tuteo*, the frequency of compliments, appropriate responses to comments, and more. These differences can be discussed in class and might serve as an excellent cultural segment for the class. For example, it might be appropriate to introduce *piropos*, or

flirtatious comments or whistles common among Spanish-speaking communities. The University of Minnesota speech-act website, CARLA states:

They [piropos] are usually given to a female by a male and do not evoke a response from the female, unlike most other types of compliments. Also, they are usually given anonymously. Traditionally, piropos have been viewed as compliments that are polite and artistic. The perception of piropos is changing, however, as the roles that women assume in society continue to change (*The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA)*, “Compliments”).

This instance is just an example of cultural differences in compliments, but it serves several purposes. It makes students aware of a common cultural practice, and it serves to open cultural conversations and lessons. Additionally, if suitable for the class, an instructor might spend time on appropriate responses to compliments. Responses vary slightly by culture, and methods to accept, reject and / or avoid self-praise can all be practiced within the classroom. Indiana University’s Pragmatics & Discourse website demonstrates survey of research conducted on compliment responses:

Typical CRs [compliment responses] may include accepting or rejecting the compliment, agreeing or disagreeing with the compliment, or avoiding self-praise (Herbert 1989, Holmes 1986, Pomerantz 1978). While compliments tend to be accepted (e.g., United States) or rejected with a disagreeing response (e.g., Malaysian and Mexican society) in different cultural contexts (Holmes 1995: 143), CRs may also function to convey humor or irony (Lorenzo-Dus 2001). (“Compliments”)

Therefore, the recipient must choose how to appropriately respond, and for United States English, speakers tend to accept compliments. However, in some Spanish speaking cultures, such as Mexico, it is considered more polite to disagree or demonstrate doubt, in order to avoid self-praise. The complimentee might disagree at first, but as the complimenter extends the interaction with more assurance and complimenting, the complimentee might accept the compliment (“Compliments”). The best way to approach

teaching students how to respond to compliments is fixing their attention on appropriate responses through authentic input and noticing how they differ from English responses.

Even though variation among different cultural groups might appear overwhelming, it is important that teachers do not attempt to cover every possible compliment form and variety. Even with sociopragmatic variation, commonalities and predictable patterns emerge, making it feasible for language learners to acquire the ability to receive and give pragmatically appropriate compliments. These commonalities should serve as anchoring points, from which students can base their understanding and then adjust to be more socioculturally appropriate. There might be some unacquired grammatical or vocabulary differences, but exposure to authentic compliments and experience with giving and receiving compliments will prepare students to engage more appropriately. Therefore, the teacher's role once again revolves around authentic exposure, explicit instruction, and practice.

While some methods for pragmatic instruction, specifically for greetings were discussed, there are some specific manners in which instructors can provide instruction on pragmatically appropriate compliments. Educational principles discussed earlier, such as the need for explicit instruction to call students' attention to pragmatics and the Noticing Hypothesis, are still crucial in developing lesson plans. Furthermore, the role of the teacher remains the same: provide input, focus students' attention on the nature of speech acts, help students to develop skills to recognize speech act forms, and create opportunities for practicing pragmatically appropriate speech acts. Overall, to obtain the goal of fostering communicatively competent students, an instructor should encourage students' development of analytical and observational skills. By fostering growth in

students' metapragmatic abilities, they will become capable of handling various situations, able to more readily recognize verbal and non-verbal sociopragmatic norms. For instance, this ability will serve students as they discover which topics, recipients and contexts are appropriate for compliments.

Holmes and Brown not only discuss the nature of compliments, but they also describe various exercises for incorporating compliments in Spanish language classrooms. One of the most important features of pragmatic instruction that Holmes and Brown mention is that emphasis should be placed on developing sociopragmatic competence through noticing patterns. For example, this applies to compliments because students should notice the common compliment topics (Holmes and Brown 535). This relates to the ability to recognize possible compliments, as students must note the crucial clues to comprehend the speech act as a compliment. As Holmes and Brown state, "Distinguishing between compliments and other speech acts which may use similar linguistic formulas is an important pragmalinguistic skill the learner must develop" (537). Students' awareness leads to pragmatic competence. Holmes and Brown also provide some practical exercises teachers can implement in their Spanish classes. For instance, they suggest students listen to/ watch / read an authentic piece of language interaction and record in a table the frequency of certain formulas for complimenting in order to learn compliment formulas (535). Holmes and Brown also provide the ideas for talking about intensifiers, which in Spanish would consist of words such as *muy* (very) (536). To encourage sociopragmatic awareness and analytical skill development, Holmes and Brown recommend students collect compliment data themselves and then analyze the data, answering questions such as "How many compliments were analyzed in total in this

study?; How many of the compliments were about appearance?; Which topic is the most common one for paying compliments about?” (538- 40). Additionally, Holmes and Brown present an exercise for “Developing knowledge of factors relevant in role play,” which contains different prompts for role plays: “They [students] should make notes on the range of possible topics and linguistic formulas for compliments in each situation, and then consider how, leaving the setting the same, these would change in variable such as sex, age, relative status of participants and degree of familiarity are changed” (542). Ask students questions about how and why linguistic forms change according to the social variables enhances students’ realization of these changes. Zeff’s ideas for helping students acquire pragmatically appropriate greetings can also be implemented for compliments (4-9). For instance, keeping an observation journal, watching and documenting compliments on TV programs, using discourse completion tasks, and implementing role plays and mingles in classroom activities all provide excellent tools for teaching pragmatic compliments. Furthermore, these activities encourage forms of scaffolded or sheltered practice. Instructional time can incorporate both pragmatically focused greetings and compliments. For example, if the teacher wishes to conduct a mingle activity in the classroom, he or she might have the students create two lines. Some students could wear a name badge that says something like *Presidente de México* (the President of Mexico), *tu profesora de inglés* (your English professor), *tu sobrina que tiene un año* (your one-year-old niece), or other indicators to change register and notice the change in relationship, power or imposition. Then, the students can be instructed to greet and complement one another (if it is appropriate to compliment him or her). One line of students will rotate, creating new conversations, changing the contextual variables

and creating variation. Additionally, students should practice appropriate compliment responses, uttering more than *gracias* (thank you). To help students become familiar with suitable responses, Félix-Brasdefer provides several examples of authentic input and prompting questions to help students notice, and then practice appropriate Spanish compliment responses (“Compliments”). This method is just one example of how pragmatic activities can serve to practice speech acts and grammar.

For students to gain knowledge from the pragmatic activities, it is important that students receive feedback, conduct self-reflection and /or receive another type of assessment. These forms of assessment encourage students to focus on the material, noticing the details that go into one or more speech acts. Additionally, assessment encourages students to seriously consider the importance of pragmatic competence. This creates more student awareness, which aids in pragmatic acquisition. However, in order to ensure students do not become paralyzed with fear of numerous possibilities for “mistakes” in an utterance, it is important to maintain a fun, playful climate. This principle was discussed previously, but it merits reiteration: lowering students’ affective filter can be achieved by creating a classroom atmosphere in which students are not too afraid of making an error and can enjoy learning the language. Cultivating respect, trust, willingness to try, acceptance, kindness and light-heartedness among students and the instructor encourages a conducive climate.

In sum, compliments present many similar features in Spanish and English, making them viable for classroom instruction. Spanish and English compliments serve relatively the same purposes, take place in a limited number of syntactic formulas, rely heavily on adjectives for positive value, and they employ limited adjectives. While there

are some differences, such as whether or not it is appropriate to compliment a stranger and differences based on gender, Spanish and English compliments present many similar features. Furthermore, to develop communicatively competent speakers, the students must cultivate the ability to give and receive pragmatically appropriate compliments. Because of the opportunities for positive transfer from English to Spanish compliments, the well-suited grammar components, and the utility of compliments, pragmatic instruction on compliments should be included in beginning- level Spanish classes.

CHAPTER FOUR

Pragmatic Instruction

Upon learning about the importance of encouraging sociopragmatic development in their classrooms, it might still appear daunting for L2 Spanish instructors. This situation is especially true, considering many education institutions still do not actively promote pragmatic instruction, or they regard pragmatics as something to be taught exclusively in advanced level language courses. For instance, Pearson notes, “Another factor limiting the teaching of pragmatics is the view that it should only be included in more advanced courses when learners have sufficient command of the TL grammar and vocabulary or for study abroad, so that learners can effectively interact in immersion contexts” (Pearson, “L2 Spanish Pragmatics Instruction at the Novice Level” 216). However, this view limits pragmatic instruction, which is dangerous. Many students only complete the minimal language requirements for their degree or program, never enrolling in upper level language courses. The research conducted for the MLA (Modern Language Association of America) demonstrated that among United States universities and colleges a stark decrease occurs in enrollment of advanced language classes compared to the number of students enrolled in introductory classes (Goldberg et al. 40). Although this logically follows the degree plans many students follow for their programs, it draws attention to the need for pragmatic instruction in introductory level classes. Instructors must deliberately incorporate pragmatic instruction. Furthermore, in many curriculums, pragmatic material is treated as additional content, not receiving deserved attention in

textbooks and other instructional content. Additionally, there are fears on the instructors' behalf caused by teacher training programs' lack of pragmatic information and practical manners to implement pragmatic material. To attempt to provide suggestions for improvement, this section covers the gaps in the many current language classrooms and resources for instructors to combat these disparities.

The focus of this thesis is not to berate current practices, but rather to draw attention to areas that could be improved. One of these areas is teacher preparation for pragmatic instruction. Many studies have shown the insufficient preparations language teachers received in regard to pragmatics. Sometimes, instructors have not received any type of conscious-raising instruction themselves, leaving them unaware of sociopragmatic features pertaining to a language. These language instructors might not realize the importance of raising students' awareness, even at the beginning levels. Gironzetti and Koike; Nurkholida; Ishihara, and Wyner and Cohen have all found a lack of pragmatic preparation in teacher training programs. Wyner and Cohen acknowledge improvements are being made to encourage pragmatic instruction in L2 classrooms, but they also note some teachers are still unaware or unsure how to incorporate the material: "An assumption is usually made that teachers are aware of the pragmatics themselves and just need to pass this information and these insights on to their students. But in fact, FL teachers who themselves are NNSs [nonnative speakers] and are not necessarily highly competent in the TL may not understand the importance of teaching pragmatics, let alone know much about pragmatics in the TL context" (542).

As mentioned earlier, Vásquez and Sharpless' national survey results demonstrated great variation in how pragmatics was viewed and to the extent in was

taught (22). Concerning the results of this research Taguchi remarks, “The findings indicate a discrepancy between theoretically and empirically grounded needs for pragmatic teaching and teachers’ preparedness and willingness in dealing with pragmatics in the classroom” (Taguchi, “Teaching Pragmatics” 299). Ishihara also notes that even when teachers do receive training in pragmatic instruction, it is often too theoretical for classroom application (945). Instructors might take a pragmatics course or receive instruction, but they might continue to feel ill-equipped to include pragmatic content in their own classes. This may arise from feelings of insecurity concerning their ability to instruct and evaluate students’ performance in pragmatics (Pearson, “L2 Spanish Pragmatics Instruction at the Novice Level: Creating Meaningful Contexts for the Acquisition of Grammatical Forms” 216). In order to combat these situations, Ishihara and Cohen argue for explicit modeling for teachers on pragmatic instruction. For teachers to grasp how to include pragmatic instruction including input, activities and assessment, it is important that teacher training programs provide realistic examples of how to do this (Ishihara and Cohen 222). Another potential issue arises when teachers suffer from a deficit in relaying information from researchers. Sykes observes that the information gathered by researchers about the feasibility of teaching pragmatics is often not be readily accessible to instructors (256-9). With increasing research about pragmatics, this disconnect between researchers and instructors could dissolve and the research findings must be conveyed in teacher training, as Taguchi explains: “As the body of materials and options for pragmatics learning grows, emerging research in pragmatics teaching is significant for practitioners and consumers of these materials. To this end, teacher training is critical because inevitably influences the ways in which

instructional methods and materials are utilized” (Taguchi, “Teaching Pragmatics” 299). Therefore, with the insufficient pragmatic instructional training and lack of practical support, guidance, and resources for teachers, many facets remain underdeveloped. Instructors should be aware of sociopragmatic factors and tendencies, they should recognize the importance of including pragmatic instruction in the classrooms, and they should feel equipped or as though they have access to useful information and resources. The teachers must recognize their role as a language teacher includes more than grammatical and lexical instruction, but also pragmatic instruction.

Another area in which pragmatic instruction has fallen short is that of textbook materials. As Gilmore and Gaidai note, “It has long been recognised that the language presented to students in textbooks is a poor representation of the real thing” (98). Textbooks present a much more rigid style of speech. Sessarego observes: “Ahora bien, de una evaluación general de los programas y libros de textos de principiantes de E/LE en Norteamérica, se ve que persiste el énfasis en los componentes sintáctico, semántico, en menor grado el fonológico y el componente pragmático aparece de manera muy tangencial” (Now then, from a general evaluation of programs and textbooks for beginner English language learners in North America, one sees that the emphasis continues to lie on syntax and semantics, and to a lesser degree phonology, while pragmatics appears in a very tangential manner) (317). Textbooks might be improving their inclusion of pragmatic material, but it seems to be an afterthought. Ishihara and Cohen also shed light on the situation with pragmatic material in textbooks, as they note instructional materials accessible for teachers are not always backed by research, and teachers lack contextual information and representations; occasionally pragmatic instruction materials offer

erroneous information (148-150). Upon analyzing research studies on pragmatic material in textbooks, Inawati suggests that textbooks do not provide enough or high enough quality pragmatic information, stating “Quantity and quality of pragmatic information in the books is inadequate as a source to gain pragmatic competence” (1-2). Inawati also recommends that textbooks provide more context to their pragmatic material, which would draw students’ attention to sociocultural and contextual factors that play important roles in speech acts (3). These sociocultural factors are hugely important, as students should be taught to notice them upon forming, or responding to, an utterance. Sometimes textbooks include pragmatic material, such as more formal greeting in situations requiring more formality, but there does not seem to be any explicit explanation or instruction following the pragmatically appropriate communication. Textbook writers do not explicitly focus students’ attention on important factors that cause a change to a more formal greeting, nor do they focus students’ attention on what aspects of the language change to form a more formal greeting. While improvements are being made to include more pragmatically appropriate content, the instructional portion still does not receive sufficient attention. Without intentional noticing, there might not be any pragmatic acquisition. This lack of adequate textbook material might be a reflection of the general educational environment concerning pragmatics. Higher importance must be placed on pragmatic instruction, and in turn this will create a demand for more pragmatic instruction material.

The need for feasible and effective ways to implement pragmatic instruction abounds. While some research content has provided ideas on how to implement pragmatic instruction, instructors still might feel as if they do not know how to regularly

and effectively include pragmatic instruction. Therefore, the aim of the remainder of this chapter is to provide suggestions for how teachers can increase pragmatic focus in their classrooms.

As shown, focused pragmatic instruction in language learning classrooms needs more attention. On this topic Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen note, “It is our sense that many classrooms still lack this focus. Spanish learners are still memorizing grammatical forms without necessarily having control over the pragmatic functions of those forms in discourse” (665). Memorization can be unavoidable with certain aspects of language learning, like marked grammatical features or vocabulary words; however, in order to increase students’ critical thinking and help them internalize the material, higher order processes must be utilized. There are several prominent models, such as Martínez Flor’s (2006) pedagogical model based on six steps: researching, reflecting, receiving, reasoning, rehearsing, and revising (Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen 653). Focusing on intermediate level students, Félix- Brasdefer’s 2006 model emphasizes communicative actions, cross-cultural awareness, conversation analysis and communicative practice (Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen 653). Additionally, Koike’s 2008 pedagogical pragmatic model calls for teachers to contextualize grammar to learn pragmatics, develop learners’ grammatical, pragmatic and sociocultural knowledge as well as sociocultural variation understanding (Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen 653). After comparing Martínez- Flor’s proposed six-step pedagogical model, Félix- Brasdefer’s own classroom communicative model, and Koike’s three-principal instructional method, Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen conclude: “Overall, the pedagogical models described above emphasize consciousness-raising, teaching grammar in context for communicative purposes, regional variation, and

practicing speech acts at the discourse level” (654). Therefore, researchers from across the country find these aspects essential to an L2 pragmatic pedagogical structure. They also point out all three of these models based their theory on Widdowson’s principle of teaching grammar as a communicative resource. These models demonstrate the need for guided instruction.

Félix-Brasdefer and Cohen go on to develop a new model for L2 pragmatic acquisition, also drawing on Bardovi-Harlig’s (1996, 2001) argument for more pragmatic input with focused learner attention. Their model contains four steps: raising awareness, recognizing strategies for the speech act in focus, teaching grammar as a communicative resource, and producing the speech act in a FL context (Félix-Brasdefer y Cohen 660-4). They emphasize the importance of various activities, regional variation in pragmatic material, and plenty of input. The majority of input should be authentic to best demonstrate an unstructured and naturally occurring scenario in which the speech acts are carried out. Then, Sykes and Cohen furthered studied 54 pedagogical models and discovered “Drawing on previous work, both in terms of intercultural communicative competence as well as ILP development, the common dimensions of 54 theoretical models were brought together to emphasize the elements appearing across all models, and, as a result, deemed most critical for ILP competence (Sykes, 2016; Sykes, Malone, Forrest, & Sadgic, forthcoming)” (387). This synthesis of common dimensions across models suggested a framework with four interwoven components of knowledge, language analysis, awareness of emotions, and subjectivity (388). Sykes and Cohen emphasize the importance of the first two areas, knowledge and language analysis, form the basis for pragmatic acquisition (388-9). Without the ability to utilize language

knowledge, or semantic formulas and other structural elements, students lack the capability to understand and produce language (Sykes and Cohen 388). Furthermore, learners require language analysis skills to be able to determine which speech acts to use, and when to use them, as well as general awareness of pertinent factors (Sykes and Cohen 388). Language knowledge and analysis are the building blocks for many pedagogical models; therefore, they hold great value in the process of pragmatic acquisition. Then, awareness of emotions and subjectivity can be implemented to enhance the depth of pragmatic knowledge. For example, instructors might help students recognize their heritage cultural values and personal emotions and how those impact their pragmatic practices. In another model, Sessarego focuses on beginning L2 Spanish learners, and she provides guidelines for input to incorporate into classroom instruction. She proposes instructors present input, guide students in analyzing the input, provide activities to practice pragmatic communication, and then assess the students' pragmatic skills (322-4). The bountiful models attest to both the importance and the challenging pursuit of including pragmatic instruction in classrooms. Liddicoat lists the fundamental elements in pragmatic instruction: awareness- raising, skills development, production, and feedback (Liddicoat). The students need to receive information and examples about speech acts, develop analytical and language skills, practice producing the speech acts, and then they need to have some form of feedback or assessment.

While these models might seem highly theoretical, there are recurring and important aspects essential for pragmatic instruction. While no model has shown to be the perfect solution, applicable in every classroom, those described above provide valuable base models for instructors to utilize in their quest to include and teach pragmatics in

their courses. With this basis, instructors should assess the needs of their students (such as learning styles, interests and scaffolding) and goals of the course to form the best pragmatic instruction practices.

One feature many models emphasize is quality input. The importance of input in an L2 classroom is vital, as Félix- Brasdefer and Cohen state:

With regard to the second issue, the importance of classroom input, it is by now established that L2 input is a required condition for second language acquisition. However, not all of the input provided in the classroom contains pragmatic information. Pragmatic input—oral or written—needs to be directed to the learner’s attention in various ways. (654)

Both oral and written input provide opportunities to increase learners’ pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. There must be input in language classrooms, and the students’ attention must be focused on said input. Taguchi’s analysis of pragmatic instruction notes various components in instructional input, “Because pragmatics entails linguistic resources for both performing communicative acts and discerning social perceptions of these acts, teaching materials inevitably involve several key elements: social context, functional language use, and interaction” (296). Considering input includes these features: social context, functional language use, and interaction, it is important to pay attention to each factor when presenting students with authentic input, ensuring these aspects can be more or less understood by students. Brown and Yule mention the importance of realistic examples, or real examples, of the language: “For students to learn how to manage conversations effectively in the target language, they need to have realistic models of proficient users doing the same thing” (24). There needs to be a model for students to follow, and native speakers provide the best model. Sessarego argues the best practice is to provide input with native speakers

communicating (322). Sessarego lists important aspects to consider when selecting material for the classroom. She argues input should obey conversational rules, such as those established by Grice (322).

It would be practical for language instructors to consider input in terms of Grice's maxims and the cooperative principle, both guiding benchmarks for pragmatic communication. Grice's maxims can be summarized as be concise, be truthful, be pertinent, and be orderly (Grice 47). The cooperative principle states: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the state at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice 45). The cooperation principle argues interlocutors should make appropriate contributions to the conversation so that it can continue in an acceptable manner. These two guiding ideas can serve instructors as they assess possible resources to use with their students. Sessarego also argues the input should be attainable for the students' knowledge (culturally, grammatically, lexically, etc.) (321). For example, grammatical concepts that are too difficult, might cause students to become frustrated and then give up on the activity, deeming it to be "too hard." To avoid this, teachers might use Brown and Yule's guidelines about text difficulty as a guide when evaluating material for classroom use. Concerning input difficulty, Brown and Yule discuss several factors that might affect text difficulty: the genre depending on the abstractness of the content; the number of elements in the texts (such as characters); the delivery speech and accents in a spoken text; the content (such as vocabulary and grammar); and visual support (if any) (60-7). When selecting input, the utterances should demonstrate good conversation skills and the students should be able to comprehend the key components of the interaction.

Sessarego also provides other factors that should be present for the input to be successful with students: specifying from where the input originates (country, region, etc.), ensuring it is a comfortable situation and /or topic, making sure the grammar and vocabulary content are accessible for students' knowledge, and using input from native speakers (320). Instructors should follow these guidelines to confirm their input selection. If not all the qualifications can be met, the teacher might provide extra instruction or clarification prior to the input. Sessarego's guidelines might seem rigid, especially for beginning language learners, but they help guide teachers in selecting appropriate and beneficial material for their students.

Another aspect of input content frequently discussed among researchers is that of increased motivation. Motivation, especially intrinsic, or innate, motivation greatly impacts a student's language learning. When students learn more about other lifestyles and societies, their understanding and appreciation for other cultures will likely increase. As Nurkholida explains, "One of the powerful reasons for learning a new language is to get closer to its speakers, to understand them better and take part in their lives, in other words is the integrative motivation" (63). If the input can appeal to this innate curiosity, then their motivation will rise. Additionally, this authentic material about other places and communities will spark curiosity, and if it is interesting enough, it seems to increase student motivation. Nurkholida discusses this correlation: "Authentic materials utilize this motivation very strongly by their ordinariness and favor of everyday life; they seem exotic and exciting, the very stuff of strange foreign life. For students who have this motivation, authentic materials are a highly effective way of bringing the target culture closer; this is as near as to participation as they will get without actually living in the

country” (63). Motivation, especially intrinsic motivation, is almost necessary for students to truly thrive in the learning process. As found in Peacock’s 1997 study, authentic material was shown to be more motivating than non-authentic material for L2 students (148). Carefully selected authentic material can be a great tool to achieve well-motivated students. Furthermore, for the input to be truly beneficial for students, it should adhere to the guidelines set by Sessarego.

With the increasing amounts of technology, access to input resources for language and pragmatic instruction has greatly increased. Authentic material typically falls into three types: listening- viewing materials, visual materials, printed materials (Nurkholida 63-4). Listening- viewing materials might be commercials, television shows, news broadcasting segments and other similar forms. Visual materials are those without words such as photographs, picture books without words, and paintings. Printed materials contain words, and menus, newspaper or magazine articles, street signs with words and brochures all provide authentic material resources. All of these forms can be found with technological tools, but perhaps the most useful tools for pragmatic instruction are listening- viewing materials. These resources are rich in opportunities for pragmatic instruction, as not only *what* the speakers say is important but also *how* the speakers produce the utterance with their intonation, body- language and other communicative factors.

With increasing technological access, students can engage with authentic Spanish content in several forms: “El acceso al Internet, los programas tutoriales, las videoconferencias, las redes sociales, las aplicaciones móviles los videojuegos y todo aquello que promueve el contacto con la L2 aumenta la cantidad de tiempo que el alumno

dedica al estudio de la L2” (Access to the Internet, tutorial programs, videoconferences, social networks, cellphone applications, videogames and all that promotes contact with the L2 increases the amount of time that the student dedicates to studying the L2) (Blake and Zyzik 137). With increased globalization, some students might already come across authentic material in their daily activities. There are many ways in which technology grants access to authentic material, both in students’ home lives and school experiences. Technology greatly aids instructors bring quality input into their classrooms. Taguchi states: “Effective use of technology could increase authenticity of pragmatic language use and incentivize the learning of pragmatics, which is often difficult to attain in a formal instructional setting” (Taguchi, “Instructed Pragmatics at a Glance” 43). Specifically, Godwin-Jones suggests instructors look for digital videos: “For learning pragmatics, the incorporation of digital video can be quite helpful, as it provides valuable visual and nonverbal dimensions, often important in speech acts, as well as in other instances of situated language use” (6-7). Cohen argues sometimes movies and TV programs can be too scripted, failing to demonstrate realistic communication (217). Instead, he proposes the use of websites designed for teachers and curriculum developers like CARLA (<http://www.carla.umn.edu/speechacts/>), which includes information, ideas on how to implement pragmatic instruction, and access to their resources (217). Rose counters the idea that movies are too scripted, stating: “The fact that film language appears to have a rather close correspondence to naturally-occurring speech where pragmalinguistics is concerned makes a strong case for its use in the teaching of pragmatics, at least where pragmalinguistics is concerned... where sociogramatics is concerned, however, things are a bit less clear” (Rose, “Compliments and Compliment Responses in Film” 319).

How much the language reflects authentic pragmatic norms, of course, depends on the film. After assessing the material, the decision must be made by the instructor as to how the material might benefit the language learning process. For example, if a movie clip might be a little out of the comfort zone of the students grammatically, but it is engaging, motivating, and an excellent example of pragmatic communication by native speakers, it might be worth showing and discussing in class. While there are many resources, Gilmore and Gaidai argue authentic input, especially those that are listening- viewing materials, provides a wealth of teaching opportunities: “Authentic materials, particularly audio- visual ones, offer a much richer source of input for learners and have the potential to be exploited in different ways and on different levels to develop learners’ communicative competence” (103). Additionally, instructors must continually scaffold and explicitly draw students’ focus on relevant factors that influence the speech act.

Another important aspect to develop pragmatically competent students is developing their analytical capabilities. Sykes and Cohen highlight two components vital for interlanguage pragmatic development: language knowledge and analysis skills (388). While language skills seem evident and occupy the vast majority of textbook content, analysis skills present a less obvious, but essential, aspect to competence. Sykes and Cohen define analysis skills as “the learner’s ability to determine which speech acts to use, the order in which to use them, the content of those structures and the determination of the context based on their interlocutor and other contextual factors for making that decision” (382). These skills do not necessarily develop naturally, especially among L2 adult learners. Therefore, these analytical skills must be taught by helping students learn how to notice different components. Sykes and Cohen propose the main objective in

teaching these skills is for students to recognize variation according to several influencing components such as the seriousness of the issue, the age of the interlocutors, the relationship and / or status between speakers (390). Ideally, students will begin to notice influential aspects affecting a speech act and components of a speech act on their own, but teachers might need to continually guide students in this analytical process. Even if students cannot comprehend every word or grammatical aspect utilized, beginning students are still capable of recognizing factors such as hierarchy, status and formality. The students should be led in breaking down a speech act, considering factors such as microsocial and macrosocial variables, the context and grammatical features. This analysis might reveal recurring patterns in speech acts, such as the repetitive syntactic formulas in compliments. For instance, while students do not need to learn *qué* + ADJ (VP) is a frequently employed syntactic formula for Spanish compliments, they will realize exclamatory expressions beginning with the word *qué* are common and acceptable forms of compliments. Furthermore, with noticing, students should develop an understanding for appropriate and common compliment topics. An analysis also serves to guide students in comparing their L1 to Spanish. For instance, students might note differences in compliment frequency. Detailed analysis draws students' attention to important pragmatic features, and according to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, students' pragmatic acquisition will benefit. This analytical ability is crucial in language learning. Félix- Brasdefer and Koike highlight the importance of noticing:

The learner must be aware of contextual and linguistic factors- for example, the age of the interlocutor, the relationship each person is building with the other through the talk, shifting identities, the tone of the conversation (formal, conversational, etc.), the appropriate level or politeness, which topics seem to be more 'delicate' than others and require greater sensitivity in framing them

(Meiners 2013), how to react appropriately to what the interlocutor is saying (or not saying), cultural perspectives, and so on. (36-7)

How these factors play a role in communication cannot always be transferred from English because they might not have the same cultural value. For greetings and compliments there are fewer possibilities to negatively transfer the linguistic factors, but the possibility still remains. This skill must also be developed for other speech acts. Pinto and Pablos- Ortega propose several specific areas in which instructors can focus their students' attention: (1) the connection between form and function, (2) Spanish expressions, conventions or linguistic norms, (3) English conventions or linguistic norms that negatively transfer in Spanish, and (4) how contextual variables affect the language (229-31). For example, concerning the third area to fix students' attention, Pinto demonstrates that upon praising another's presentation, native English speakers would transfer the English syntactic formula V (to be) + ADJ to Spanish and would say something like *Tu presentación fue excelente* (Your presentation was excellent). For the same situation in Spanish, however, native speakers employed the syntactic formula *me* + V (of liking) + *tu exposición/ plática* (I liked your presentation/ talk) (230-1). While V (to be) + ADJ normally functions in Spanish, the preferred form of compliments for presentations seemed to incorporate a verb of liking. These distinctions require repeated noticing and exposure. Additionally, for the fourth area, Pinto and Pablos- Ortega note how students should notice the difference between *fallecer* vs. *morir* (231). These verbs essentially have the same meaning, but *fallecer* is understood as "pass away" and *morir* is understood as "die." A speaker might use *fallecer* in order to be more polite or politically correct in a situation, depending on contextual variables. While students will not gain perfect pragmatic competence, the development of noticing skills will greatly impact

students' future learning. Pearson states, "Due to the low proficiency levels, the expectations for acquisition of TL pragmatics will be modest. However, this instruction will supply learners with skills for interaction in the TL as well as give meaningful contexts for grammatical items that are typically in the first- year syllabus" (216-7).

Echoing this thought, Pinto and Pablos- Ortega state:

Para los estudiantes de español como segunda lengua, a diferencia de la gramática, tratar de dominar la pragmática española no sería un objetivo realista porque hay un número limitado de palabras, expresiones o estructuras concretas que uno pueda aprender de memoria para lograr un dominio completo del ámbito pragmático. Además, el enfoque principal de la pragmática, la relación entre el lenguaje y el contexto, abarca un terreno limitado y mutable. (For L2 Spanish learners, besides grammar, trying to dominate Spanish pragmatics would not be a realistic objective because there are a limited number of words, expressions or concrete structures that one could learn by memory to achieve complete dominance in the pragmatics realm. Furthermore, the main focus of pragmatics, the relationship between language and the context, spans a restricted and unpredictable terrain) (229).

Pragmatic competence will not develop through knowledge of every possible way to compliment or greet someone. Rather, pragmatic competence will develop by training students to be observant language learners, analyzing input with fixed focus on sociolinguistic factors and then practicing appropriate communication.

A crucial component in pragmatic instruction is the inclusion of opportunities to practice the speech acts. Even if an instructor decides not to teach specific speech acts at specific times, there should be opportunities to practice creating culturally and contextually appropriate utterances. Not only will students have the opportunity to practice grammar but also pragmatic concepts. Applying the learned material will aid students in cementing their understanding. It will also serve to help students and teachers notice where there might be gaps in learning. With practice and repetition, students will gain confidence in executing speech acts, creating more pragmatically competent

language learners. For pragmatic instruction, Bardovi- Harlig suggests teachers try nonproduction tasks, in which students are not necessarily creating a product, but they are analyzing content (Bardovi-Harlig, “Developing L2 Pragmatics” 77). Bardovi- Harlig explains these activities serve well for assessment and might be less biased:

“Nonproduction tasks often ask learners for interpretation, metapragmatic judgments, ranking, rating, comprehension, identification, and calculation of implicature. The measurement of performance on nonproduction tasks tends to be more straightforward with their analysis following from the design of the task. This is less controversial than the analysis of the production data” (Bardovi-Harlig, “Developing L2 Pragmatics” 77). Some activities such as role plays, mingles and discourse completion tasks have already been discussed in this thesis; however, there are more practice activities that are easily accessible with technology. One of these resources is the application, or mobile app, called LingroToGo, which focuses on “real language for real life” (www.lingrolearning.com/). This app moves through common topics such as talking about yourself, health and safety, and work and school. It aims to teach language in a manner that students might use, especially in casual and informal situations. For example, under the section “My Life,” there are games encouraging users to respond appropriately to a given statement with a *saludo*. This might be a great tool for teachers to have students work through on their own, providing rewards for completion of certain tasks. TalkAbroad is another app, or website, that can benefit L2 Spanish learners because it creates opportunities for students to communicate with native speakers. It suggests teachers “Add interaction with a native speaker into your curriculum as a standalone assignment or as a complement to an already existing activity”

(talkabroad.com/story#education). Furthermore, Busuu is an app in which students submit writing or speaking segments and then receive feedback from native speakers, which could permit them to correct grammatical and pragmatic features (www.busuu.com/). Another useful tool is Dancing with Words, an online website designed by the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) at the University of Minnesota. This website provides modules, authentic examples and activities for students to move through while learning about speech acts. For example, under the “Compliment Sequences” section, students learn about *piropos* and how they are perceived by many within Spanish-speaking cultures. For educators, there are many resources to provide information about Spanish pragmatics. For instance, the University of Texas’ Center for Open Education Resources and Language Learning (COERLL) provides excellent resources and information (www.coerll.utexas.edu/coerll/). COERLL provides links to other resources, which boast numerous activities, assessment tools, pedagogy strategies, pragmatic research and more. CARLA not only provides the Dancing with Words website, but it also supplies teachers and researchers with useful information. Indiana University at Bloomington’s website on pragmatics, Pragmatics & Discourse at IU (pragmatics.indiana.edu/pragmatics/index.html) contains well-written explanations on all the speech acts, pragmatics itself, politeness and more. It also compares Spanish and English speech acts, which are useful for helping students to notice differences. Finally, Zambombazo, a website designed for teachers provides many activity ideas for including authentic material in lessons (zachary-jones.com/zambombazo/). For example, there are interview clips with native speakers, movie trailers, television commercials and much more authentic resources that all lend

themselves to analysis. While these mentioned resources are only a handful of the many resources, they are perhaps the most useful and beneficial to students and instructors. Some resources also give ideas for assessment methods. While students' growing pragmatic competence can be assessed in many ways, researchers provide some suggestions. Bardovi-Harlig notes tasks in which learners must respond under a time constraint reflect authentic conversation, and it limits students' time to call on explicit knowledge, encouraging them to rely on implicit knowledge (Bardovi-Harlig, "Developing L2 Pragmatics" 73). For example, as a form of assessment students could record a response in a simulated conversation within a set amount of time. Then, as Cohen recommends, "Teachers could also check for application of formulas, sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic norms for appropriateness" (222). Furthermore, ranking communicative acts and responses by their level of appropriateness with justification can serve as a useful assessment tool. It is important to incorporate some form of assessment with pragmatic instruction. However, assessment does not have to be formal, and it can occur through reflections, journal entries, teacher observations, among other techniques. For beginning level students with limited grammar understanding and minimal exposure to sociocultural norms, less rigid forms of assessment might be best until students develop more skills and knowledge. Instructors must remember L2 Spanish learners will develop grammar and pragmatic competence over time, and they can serve students by encouraging growth throughout the process. Sykes and Cohen argue, pragmatics poses a demanding task on students: "Learners must learn words and structures, but must also develop the ability to understand the ways in which their intentions may, or may not, be realized in any given interaction, regardless of whether the

grammar is correct” (382). Educators can help students move toward pragmatic competence, but it will take one day of noticing and practicing at a time.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion and Further Research Needs

In L2 instruction, the goal is to foster the development of learners for them to become communicatively competent. For this goal to become a reality, classroom instruction must focus on the form and function of the language. To incorporate more pragmatic instruction in the classroom, teachers need to draw students' attention to relative pragmatic features, such as factors affecting the utterances and how speech acts are executed in comparison to students' L1, aligning with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis. Additionally, teachers should provide scaffolding with material that pushes students to increase their understanding and capabilities just above their current stage. While some speech acts, such as refusals, might contain grammatical concepts that are too difficult or unfamiliar for beginning learners, some speech acts like greetings and compliments coordinate well with the typical grammatical topics covered in introductory language courses. Teachers should draw students' attention explicitly to the pragmatic material, helping them to notice contextual factors and how the language spoken changes according to such factors. Implicit instruction can also serve students learning pragmatics, but explicit instruction has shown to be more beneficial. While incorporating pragmatic instruction in the classroom, teachers should aim to provide authentic material that displays speech acts in an exemplary manner. Exposure to input is crucial for students to become familiar with the diversity found in regard to how different people carry out speech acts. In addition to providing crucial input, teachers should continue to

have students practice the speech acts. It is important that students practice in interactional manners and engage with different contextual factors. While pragmatic instruction might seem intimidating for some teachers, even small steps, such as focusing students' attention on pragmatically appropriate greetings will greatly serve students.

Greetings are essential to communicative competence, and they are well- suited for beginning level instruction. Spanish greetings are similar to English greetings in their purpose, which is to acknowledge another's presence, and they are habitual in nature. In both English and Spanish, greetings experience a change in formality according to micro and macrosocial variables. Additionally, both languages contain verbal and nonverbal forms of greetings and frequently take place as adjacency pairs. Furthermore, English and Spanish greetings both contain phatic expressions, such as *¿Qué tal?* (How is it going?), which are not always to be answered sincerely. Moreover, English and Spanish greetings often employ forms of address, which can be taught explicitly. While there is some diversity in forms, with regional variation, for example, there are a limited number of accepted forms (Jucker, "Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences" 40–41). In order to assist students in becoming familiar with a variety of greetings, teachers should include awareness- raising activities and opportunities to practice the speech acts. Because they are ubiquitous in real language practice, both authentic and contrived instructional material will demonstrate greetings. However, authentic greetings better demonstrate realistic greeting exchanges and can benefit teachers aiming to help students notice influential factors. It is important that instructors include various types of greetings in the classroom, not sticking to one register or formality. For example, teachers might become accustomed to entering the classroom and saying *buenos días* or *buenas tardes*, which

could limit the greetings the students hear. However, a teacher might also say *buenos* or *buenas* and deliberately select materials to include that demonstrate variety. Whether the conversational situation is highly formal or informal, explicit teaching is needed, drawing students' attention to the microsocial and macrosocial variables. Then, instructors should guide students in appropriate greetings for different situations, continuing to encourage growth in analytical skills.

In addition to greetings, compliments work well for novice- level pragmatic instruction. In both Spanish and English compliments present many resembling features, making them viable for classroom instruction. In both languages, compliments serve relatively the same purposes. The primary purpose for a compliment in both languages is to acknowledge another's goods and maintain, or create, solidarity. Compliments take place in three main types: explicit, implicit, and indirect (Jucker, "Speech Act Research between Armchair, Field and Laboratory" 1612). All forms of compliments are created with a specific shared cultural understanding, and are usually shared in sociocultural groups (Alonso Lopera 89). Responding erroneously to a compliment or giving an inappropriate compliment presents a risk of pragmatic failure, which can be combatted with instruction and practice. Teachers should include compliments in L2 classrooms, especially as both English and Spanish compliments demonstrate similar features. For instance, the most common topics appropriate for compliments in both Spanish and English are appearance, possession and ability. While there is some variation, Spanish compliments tend to focus more on appearance, and English compliments tend to focus more on ability.

Additionally, compliments in both Spanish and English take place in a limited number of syntactic formulas. While Spanish compliments take place in more syntactic patterns, there are still limited in number and because of the frequency of a few structures in particular, like (5) (NP+) NP[V+A] and (6) NP[qué+ A+N]* (+VP), students should notice, understand, and practice these utterances (Nelson and Hall 104). Additionally, Spanish and English compliments rely heavily on adjectives for positive value. About 61-73% of Spanish compliments are adjective- based and about 80% of English compliments are adjective- based (Placencia and Yépez; Nelson and Hall; Wolfson and Manes).

Although adjective- based compliments are the most utilized form, English and Spanish both demonstrate little variety in the adjectives utilized. Spanish compliments might include more diversity, especially with regional variation, but there are still a set of universal, common adjectives that teachers can be sure to emphasize, including *bien* (well), *bueno* (good), *bonito* (pretty), *guapo* (good-looking) *lindo* (beautiful), *padre* (cool), *rico* (delicious), and *inteligente* (intelligent) (Nelson and Hall 116). In addition to limited adjectives, both Spanish and English compliments employ limited verb structures. Spanish compliments demonstrate more variety in verb structures, but with exposure, students should recognize and be able to utilize many of the common formulas. Exposure and fixed- attention are crucial for learning pragmatically appropriate compliments, and the teacher should direct students' attention to how the contextual factors influence the form and function of the utterances. While there are some differences, such as whether or not it is appropriate to compliment a stranger and differences based on gender and the emphasis of *confianza* for Spanish speakers, Spanish and English compliments present many similarities. Furthermore, compliments are crucial for communicating well with

native speakers. Pragmatic instruction on compliments should be included in beginning-level Spanish classes.

In order to create learning experiences in which students practice and receive instruction in pragmatics, it is important that teachers receive more training on how to incorporate pragmatic material in the classroom. Research should reach teachers and be developed in a way that supports implementation in the classroom. Teachers need ideas for practical application and explicit modeling on how to best help students develop their pragmatic skills and understandings. There are some resources, as discussed, that are especially beneficial for language instructors of introductory classes, but teachers might still require explicit modeling on how to incorporate the material effectively. As the importance on pragmatic instruction grows, teachers should receive helpful and practical information on useful activities to integrate. This might cover manners in which teachers and textbook writers can include more pragmatically appropriate speech acts into curriculum, perhaps with more authentic material. Additionally, textbook material should encourage pragmatic development by including more authentic material, helping students to notice micro and macrosocial variables, and by supporting teachers with valuable pragmatic content and activity ideas. As the majority of language learners only complete about two years of instruction, research should focus on which, if not all, important pragmatic features students often lack upon exiting language instruction. Then, tactics to combat pragmatic failures with classroom instruction should be developed and reach instructors with feasible implementation ideas and explicit demonstrations. With more pragmatic instruction, language programs become capable of truly developing communicatively competent students.

WORKS CITED

- Achiba, Machiko. *Learning to Request in a Second Language: A Study of Child Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Multilingual Matters, 2003.
- Alonso Lopera, Sergio. *Reflexiones sobre el uso del acto del habla de los cumplidos*. no. 2, 2013, p. 7.
- Bardovi-Harlig, Kathleen. "Another Piece of the Puzzle: The Emergence of the Present Perfect." *Language Learning*, vol. 51, no. s1, 2001, pp. 215–64. *Wiley Online Library*, doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.2001.tb00018.x.
- . "Developing L2 Pragmatics." *Language Learning*, vol. 63, no. s1, 2013, pp. 68–86. *Wiley Online Library*, doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00738.x.
- Bardovi-Harlig, Kathleen. "Pragmatics and Language Teaching: Bringing Pragmatics and Pedagogy Together." *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, edited by Lawrence Bouton, vol. 7, 1996, pp. 21–39.
- Barron, Anne. "Variational Pragmatics in the Foreign Language Classroom." *System*, vol. 33, no. 3, Sept. 2005, pp. 519–36. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1016/j.system.2005.06.009.
- Barros García, María Jesús. *La cortesía valorizadora en la conversación coloquial española estudio pragmalingüístico*. Editorial de la Universidad de Granada, 2011.
- Bernal, María. "Teaching Sociopragmatics: Face-Work, Politeness and Impoliteness in L2 Spanish Colloquial Conversations." *L2 Spanish Pragmatics: From Research to Teaching*, edited by Domnita Dumitrescu and Patricia Lorena Andueza, 1st ed., Routledge, 2018, pp. 131–50.
- Bernardo Villa, Natalia. "La Interlengua: ¿Frontera Cercana o Lejana? Acercamiento a La Importancia de La Pragmática." *OGIGIA*, vol. 15, 2014, pp. 43–60.
- Blake, Robert, and Eve Zyzik. "¿Ayudan Las Nuevas Tecnologías a Aprender Lenguas?" *El Español y La Lingüística Aplicada*, Georgetown University Press, 2016, pp. 134–47.
- Brown, Gillian, and George Yule. *Teaching the Spoken Language: An Approach Based on the Analysis of Conversational English*. Cambridge University Press, 1983.

- Brown, Penelope, and Stephen Levinson. *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Use*. Edited by John Gumperz, Cambridge University Press, 1987.
- Bu, Jiemin. "A Study of Relationships between L1 Pragmatic Transfer and L2 Proficiency." *English Language Teaching*, vol. 5, no. 1, Dec. 2011, p. p32. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.5539/elt.v5n1p32.
- Chandler, Daniel, and Rod Munday. "Communicative Competence." *A Dictionary of Media & Communication*, 2nd ed., Oxford University Press, 2016.
- Cohen, Andrew D. "Teaching and Assessing L2 Pragmatics: What Can We Expect from Learners?" *Language Teaching*, vol. 41, no. 2, Apr. 2008, pp. 213–35. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1017/S0261444807004880.
- "Compliments: Speech Acts: Pragmatics & Discourse at IU: Indiana University Bloomington." *Pragmatics & Discourse at IU*, <https://pragma.iu.edu/speechacts/compliments.html>. Accessed 6 Feb. 2020.
- Cordella, Marisa, et al. "Complimenting Behavior in Australian English and Spanish Speech." *ARTICLE TITLE: Multilingua- Journal of Cross- Cultural and Interlanguage Communication*, vol. 14, no. 3, 2009, pp. 235–52.
- Crystal, David. *An Encyclopedic Dictionary of Language and Languages*. Blackwell, 1992.
- Dietrich, Rainer, et al. *The Aquisition of Temporality in a Second Language*. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1995.
- Dumitrescu, Domnita. "Noroc!; Merci; !Que Lindo!; Sorry: Some Polite Speech Acts across Cultures." *Southwest Journal of Linguistics*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 1–37.
- Eggin, Suzanne, and Diana Slade. *Analysing Casual Conversation*. Paperback ed, Equinox, 2006.
- Eisenstein, M., and J. W. Bodman. "'I Very Appreciate': Expressions of Gratitude by Native and Non-Native Speakers of American English." *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 7, no. 2, Feb. 1986, pp. 167–85. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1093/applin/7.2.167.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. César. "Teaching Pragmatics in the Classroom: Instruction of Mitigation in Spanish as a Foreign Language." *Hispania*, vol. 91, no. 2, 2008, pp. 479–94. JSTOR, *JSTOR*, doi:10.2307/20063733.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. César, and Andrew D. Cohen. "Teaching Pragmatics in the Foreign Language Classroom: Grammar as a Communicative Resource." *Hispania*, vol. 95, no. 4, 2012, pp. 650–69. JSTOR.

- Félix-Brasdefer, J. César, and Maria Hasler- Barker. “Complimenting and Responding to a Compliment in the Spanish FL Classroom: From Empirical Evidence to Pedagogical Intervention.” *Speech Acts and Politeness across Languages and Cultures*, edited by Leyre Ruiz de Zarobe and Yolanda Ruiz de Zarobe, Peter Lang AG, 2012. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.3726/978-3-0351-0438-7.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. César, and Dale April Koike. “Perspectives on Spanish SLA From Pragmatics and Discourse.” *The Routledge Handbook of Hispanic Applied Linguistics*, edited by Manel Lacorte, 1st ed., Routledge, 2014. *www-taylorfrancis-com.ezproxy.baylor.edu*, doi:10.4324/9781315882727.
- Ferguson, C. A. “The Structure and Use of Politeness Formulas.” *Conversational Routine: Explorations in Standardized Communication Situations and Prepatterned Speech*, edited by Florian Coulmas, vol. 2, 1981, pp. 21–36. *Open WorldCat*, <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110809145>.
- Gilmore, Alex, and Kansai Gaidai. “Authentic Materials and Authenticity in Foreign Language Learning.” *Language Teaching*, vol. 40, no. 2, Apr. 2007, pp. 97–118. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1017/S0261444807004144.
- Gironzetti, Elisa, and Dale Koike. “Bridging the Gap in Spanish Instructional Pragmatics: From Theory to Practice/Acortando Distancias En La Enseñanza de La Pragmática Del Español: De La Teoría a La Práctica.” *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, vol. 3, no. 2, July 2016, pp. 89–98. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1080/23247797.2016.1251781.
- Goldberg, David, et al. “Enrollments in Languages Other than English in United States Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 2013.” *Modern Language Association*, 2015, pp. 1–81.
- “Greetings.” *The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA): Pragmatics and Speech Acts*, <https://carla.umn.edu/speechacts/greetings/functions.html>. Accessed 28 Jan. 2020.
- Grice, H. P. “Logic and Conversation.” *Speech Acts*, edited by Peter Cole, 5. ed, Academic Press, 1982, pp. 41–58.
- Holmes, Janet, and Dorothy F. Brown. “Teachers and Students Learning about Compliments.” *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 21, no. 3, 1987, pp. 523–46. JSTOR, *JSTOR*, doi:10.2307/3586501.
- Ishihara, Noriko. “Instructional Pragmatics: Bridging Teaching, Research, and Teacher Education.” *Language and Linguistics Compass*, vol. 4, no. 10, 2010, pp. 938–53. *Wiley Online Library*, doi:10.1111/j.1749-818X.2010.00242.x.

- Ishihara, Noriko, and Andrew D. Cohen. *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics: Where Language and Culture Meet*. Longman Applied Linguistics/ Pearson Education, 2010.
- Jucker, Andreas H. "Speech Act Research between Armchair, Field and Laboratory." *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 41, no. 8, Aug. 2009, pp. 1611–35. *DOI.org* (*Crossref*), doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2009.02.004.
- . "Speech Acts and Speech Act Sequences: Greetings and Farewells in the History of American English." *Studia Neophilologica*, vol. 89, no. sup1, Dec. 2017, pp. 39–58. *DOI.org* (*Crossref*), doi:10.1080/00393274.2017.1358662.
- Kasper, Gabriele. "Classroom Research on Interlanguage Pragmatics (Chapter 3)." *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*, edited by Kenneth Rose and Gabriele Kasper, Cambridge University Press, 2001.
- . "Pragmatic Transfer." *Second Language Research*, vol. 8, no. 3, 1992, pp. 203–31. JSTOR.
- Kasper, Gabriele, and Kenneth R. Rose. *Pragmatic Development in a Second Language*. Blackwell, 2002.
- Koike, Dale April. "Pragmatic Competence and Adult L2 Acquisition: Speech Acts in Interlanguage." *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. 73, no. 3, 1989, pp. 279–89. JSTOR, *JSTOR*, doi:10.2307/327002.
- Koike, Dale April, and Lynn Pearson. "The Effect of Instruction and Feedback in the Development of Pragmatic Competence." *An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*, vol. 33, no. 3, 2005, pp. 481–501.
- Krashen, Stephen D. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. 1st ed, Pergamon, 1982.
- Laver, John. "Linguistic Routines and Politeness in Greeting and Parting." *Conversational Routine: Explorations in Standardized Communication Situations and Prepatterned Speech*, edited by Florian Coulmas, vol. 2, 1981, pp. 289–304. *Open WorldCat*, <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110809145>.
- Liddicoat, Anthony J. *TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION*.
- Maíz-Arévalo, Carmen. "Intercultural Pragmatics: A Contrastive Analysis of Compliments in English and Spanish." *Discourse and Communication: Cognitive and Functional Perspectives*, 2010, pp. 175–208.

- . “‘Was That a Compliment?’ Implicit Compliments in English and Spanish.” *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 44, no. 8, June 2012, pp. 980–96. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2012.04.004.
- Martínez- Flor, Alicia, and Esther Usó-Juan. “A Comprehensive Pedagogical Framework to Development in the Foreign Language Classroom: The 6Rs Approach.” *Applied Language Learning*, vol. 16, no. 2, 2006, pp. 39–64.
- Nelson, Gayle, and Christopher Hall. “Complimenting in Mexican Spanish: Developing Grammatical and Pragmatic Competence.” *Spanish Applied Linguistics*, vol. 3, no. 1, 1999, pp. 91–121.
- Nguyen, Thi Thuy Minh, et al. “The Relative Effects of Explicit and Implicit Form-Focused Instruction on the Development of L2 Pragmatic Competence.” *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 44, no. 4, Mar. 2012, pp. 416–34. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2012.01.003.
- Nurkholida, Erna. “Developing Authentic Material of Listening on Higher Education Based on Constructive Learning of Jean Piaget and Vygotsky Theory.” *OKARA: Jurnal Bahasa Dan Sastra*, vol. 12, no. 1, 2018, pp. 59–74.
- Peacock, M. “The Effect of Authentic Materials on the Motivation of EFL Learners.” *ELT Journal*, vol. 51, no. 2, Apr. 1997, pp. 144–56. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1093/elt/51.2.144.
- Pearson, Lynn. “L2 Spanish Pragmatics Instruction at the Novice Level: Creating Meaningful Contexts for the Acquisition of Grammatical Forms.” *L2 Spanish Pragmatics: From Research to Teaching*, edited by Domnita Dumitrescu and Patricia Lorena Andueza, 1st ed., Routledge, 2018, pp. 214–32.
- . “Patterns of Development in Spanish L2 Pragmatic Acquisition: An Analysis of Novice Learners’ Production of Directives.” *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. 90, no. 4, 2006, pp. 473–95. *Wiley Online Library*, doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00427.x.
- Pinto, Derrin, and Carlos de Pablos-Ortega. *Seamos Pragmáticos: Introducción a La Pragmática Española*. Yale University Press, 2014.
- Placencia, María Elena. “Pragmatic Variation in Corner Store Interactions in Quito and Madrid.” *Hispania*, vol. 88, no. 3, 2005, pp. 583–398.
- Placencia, Maria Elena, and María Yépez. “Compliments in Ecuadorian Spanish.” *Lengua*, vol. 9, 1999, pp. 84–119.

- Rose, Kenneth R. "Compliments and Compliment Responses in Film: Implications for Pragmatics Research and Language Teaching." *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, vol. 39, no. 4, Jan. 2001. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1515/iral.2001.007.
- . "On the Effects of Instruction in Second Language Pragmatics." *System*, vol. 33, no. 3, Sept. 2005, pp. 385–99. *ScienceDirect*, doi:10.1016/j.system.2005.06.003.
- Salisbury, Tom, and Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig. "I Know Your Mean, but I Don't Think So': Disagreements in L2 English." *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, vol. 10, 2001, pp. 131–51.
- Schmidt, Richard. "Interaction, Acculturation, and the Acquisition of Communicative Competence: A Case Study of an Adult." *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition*, edited by Nessa Wolfson and E Judd, Newbury House, 1983, pp. 137–74.
- Selinker, Larry. "Interlanguage." *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, vol. 10, no. 1–4, 1972, pp. 209–32.
- Sessarego, Cecilia. "La Enseñanza de La Pragmática: Principios de Un Enfoque Didáctico Para Nivel Principiante En Un Entorno Universitario Anglófono." *Hispania*, vol. 90, no. 2, 2007, pp. 316–27. *JSTOR, JSTOR*, doi:10.2307/20063518.
- Shively, Rachel L. "L2 Pragmatic Development in Study Abroad: A Longitudinal Study of Spanish Service Encounters." *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 43, no. 6, May 2011, pp. 1818–35. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2010.10.030.
- Shleykina, Galina. *THE SPEECH ACT OF GREETING PERFORMED BY RUSSIAN EFL LEARNERS*. p. 234.
- Swain, Merrill. "Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in Development." *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, edited by S Gass and C Madden, Newbury House, 1985, pp. 235–53.
- Sykes, Julie M., and Andrew D. Cohen. "Strategies and Interlanguage Pragmatics: Explicit and Comprehensible." *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, vol. 8, no. 2, July 2018, pp. 381–402. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.14746/sslit.2018.8.2.9.
- Taguchi, Naoko. "Instructed Pragmatics at a Glance: Where Instructional Studies Were, Are, and Should Be Going." *Language Teaching*, vol. 48, no. 1, Jan. 2015, pp. 1–50. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1017/S0261444814000263.

- . "Teaching Pragmatics: Trends and Issues." *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, vol. 31, Mar. 2011, pp. 289–310. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1017/S0267190511000018.
- The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA)*.
https://carla.umn.edu/speechacts/sp_pragmatics/Compliments/varieties_compli.html. Accessed 27 Jan. 2020.
- Thomas, Jenny. "Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Failure." *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 4, no. 2, 1983, pp. 91–112.
- Vásquez, Camilla, and Donna Sharpless. "The Role of Pragmatics in the Master's TESOL Curriculum: Findings From a Nationwide Survey." *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 43, no. 1, 2009, pp. 5–28. *Wiley Online Library*, doi:10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00225.x.
- Vianna, Eduardo, and Anna Stetsenko. "Embracing History through Transforming It: Contrasting Piagetian versus Vygotskian (Activity) Theories of Learning and Development to Expand Constructivism within a Dialectical View of History." *Theory & Psychology*, vol. 16, no. 1, Feb. 2006, pp. 81–108. *SAGE Journals*, doi:10.1177/0959354306060108.
- Widdowson, H. G. "ELT and EL Teachers: Matters Arising." *ELT Journal*, vol. 46, no. 4, 1992, pp. 333–39.
- Wildner-Bassett, Mary. "Intercultural Pragmatics and Proficiency: 'Polite Noises' for Cultural Appropriateness." *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, vol. 32, no. 1, 1994, pp. 3–17.
- Wolfson, Nessa. "An Empirically Based Analysis of Complimenting in American English." *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition*, edited by Nessa Wolfson and Elliot Judds, 1983, pp. 82–95.
- . "Compliments in Cross-Cultural Perspective." *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 15, no. 2, 1981, pp. 117–24.
- Wolfson, Nessa, and Joan Manes. "The Compliment as a Social Strategy." *Paper in Linguistics*, vol. 13, no. 3, Jan. 1980, pp. 391–410. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.1080/08351818009370503.
- "World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages." *ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages)*, <https://www.actfl.org/publications/all/world-readiness-standards-learning-languages/standards-summary>.

Wyner, Lauren, and Andrew D. Cohen. "Second Language Pragmatic Ability: Individual Differences According to Environment." *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, vol. 5, no. 4, Dec. 2015, pp. 519–56. *DOI.org (Crossref)*, doi:10.14746/ssl.t.2015.5.4.2.

Zeff, B. Bricklin. "The Pragmatics of Greetings: Teaching Speech Acts in the EFL Classroom." *English Teaching Forum*, vol. 54, no. 1, 2016, pp. 2–11.