Journal of Language Education and Research

9(1), 2023

Journal of Language Education and Research

Research Article

The effects of instruction type on the pragmatic development of compliments and compliment responses in L2 English learners

Burcu Gökgöz-Kurt*

ARTICLE INFO

Received 10.10.2022
Revised form 26.11.2022
Accepted 28.11.2022
Doi:10.31464/jlere.1187150

Keywords:
Complimenting
Compliment responses
Deductive Instruction
Inductive Instruction
Pragmatic development
Processing Instruction
Speech acts
Structured input

ABSTRACT

Despite the wide array of previous research in the area of interventional pragmatics studies, the question of what type of instruction best promotes learners' pragmatic interlanguage development has yet to be explored. With the aim of exploring L2 English learners' speech act behavior in complimenting and compliment responding, the present study sought to determine the relative effects of inductive and deductive instruction using structured input activities within the framework of Processing Instruction. To accomplish this goal, three intact classes of the same proficiency level were randomly assigned to inductive instruction, deductive instruction, and a control group with no instruction. Data was collected through a written Discourse Completion Task followed by a Self-Assessment Questionnaire for Compliments and a multiple-choice Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire for compliment responses administered using a pre-, post-, and delayed post-test design. Findings revealed that both experimental groups showed improvement compared to the control group; however, the effects of instructional treatment varied across test types.

Statement of Publication Ethics

The author hereby declares that this study was conducted in accordance with the scientific publication ethics, and the ethical approval for the study was obtained from the University of South Carolina (#00008349) as well as Kütahya Dumlupinar University Research Ethics Committee with the meeting number 2022/08 dated 05.10.2022.

Conflict of Interest

The author reports no conflicts of interest.

* Assist. Prof. Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7169-2890, Kütahya Dumlupınar University, Department of English Translation and Interpreting, burcu.gkurt@dpu.edu.tr

Copyright © 2023 by JLERE- https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/jlere
ISSN: 2149-5602

Introduction

In language teaching, relatively little attention is paid to communicative functions compared to other aspects of language. A key component of communicative competence is pragmatic competence (Alcón Soler & Martínez-Flor, 2008; Timpe-Laughlin et al., 2015), which is considered highly challenging for learners who aim at communicating effectively (Ishihara & Cohen, 2021). According to Taguchi (2015), learners find L2 pragmatics hard because it requires them to go beyond a mere focus on structures and pay attention to "multipart mappings of form, meaning, function, force, and context" that are "intricate," "variable," and lack "systematic and one-to-one correspondence" (p. 1). This is partly because pragmatic competence encompasses both pragmalinguistic competence, which is "the more linguistic end of pragmatics," and sociopragmatic competence, which is "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, pp. 10-11). An additional challenge is the pre-existing native cultural and pragmatic norms of L2 learners that need to be monitored during communication (Bialystok, 1993; Kasper & Rose, 2002), as a pragmatic error is more likely to cause displeasure or offense than a grammatical or pronunciation error (Ishihara, 2010; Wolfson, 1989).

Schmidt (1993) argues that despite many years of exposure to the L2, even proficient L2 speakers do not necessarily reach a desirable endpoint in the pragmatic functioning of the language (Taguchi, 2010). This may be due in part to a lack of contextual factors, the unlikelihood of noticing (Schmidt, 1993), or lack of saliency (Kasper & Rose, 2002), but also because language learners underestimate the difficulty of balancing two different discourse orientations emanating from their target and native languages (Kramsch, 1985, p. 170). Since L2 speakers who have "coexisting discourse worlds" must switch them during communication (Edmonson, 1985, p. 201, as cited in Wildner-Bassett, 1990, pp. 142-143), they must become aware of this coexistence in order to notice the pragmatic uses in the target language. If L2 learners are unable to achieve this, pragmatic transfer which may lead to pragmatic failure may occur (Thomas, 1983).

Instruction is one way to help L2 learners notice the use of pragmatic patterns in the target language to make them part of their communicative competence. Since the benefits of instruction in teaching pragmatics are now established by previous research (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Taguchi, 2015), review studies including meta-analyses have called for more studies examining the effects of different instructional paradigms on learning (Kasper, 1996; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015). Previous research has mainly focused on the effects of explicit and implicit research paradigms on learners' pragmatic development (e.g., Ebadi & Pourzandi, 2015; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001); however, more research is needed that aims to bring "greater nuance" to the effectiveness of different types of instruction and target pragmatic forms in learning L2 pragmatics (Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019).

Despite the large body of work addressing the efficacy of L2 pragmatics instruction, a cursory glance at the reviews listing the types of speech acts examined in previous studies reveals that relatively little attention has been paid to the study of compliments and compliment responses (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010). Considering that they are commonly encountered by L2

learners in their daily lives in a second language learning environment or in popular media, it could be argued that participants are likely to find the situations in the study useful and less challenging than some other speech acts, such as complaining, due to their rare usage in some cultures (Cohen & Olshtain, 1994, p. 152). Besides, since giving and returning compliments is a means of fostering cooperation and supporting a positive face among people (Wolfson, 1983, p. 89), instruction helps raise learners' awareness of using compliments and compliment responses in a socially, semantically, and syntactically appropriate manner.

While there are studies that examine the effects of different instructional modes on the development of learners' compliments and/or compliment responses, the studies that address the importance of instruction type and go beyond the paradigms of explicit and implicit instruction are limited (e.g., Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001). Taguchi (2015), in particular, calls for additional interventional studies in which instruction includes input processing activities (Vanpatten, 1996) and implicit instruction includes noticing and processing. Therefore, the present study aims to extend previous speech act research on compliments and compliment responses by examining how different instructional paradigms with structured input activities affect learners' pragmatic development in the short term.

Literature review

Pragmatic Instruction: Complimenting & Compliment Responding

The idea that instruction is key to L2 pragmatic development is consistent with Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis, which states that learners should be able to notice the features of the target language in order for L2 development to occur. He also points to the fact that even children learning their first language acquire strategies for the pragmatic use of their L1 rather than just being exposed to it. It is also true that adult L2 learners do not receive the feedback necessary for learning L2 pragmatics outside of the classroom setting (Kasper & Rose, 2002). In this regard, although studies have confirmed that teaching L2 pragmatics is achievable and helps learners support their interlanguage pragmatic development, it raises the question of how the type of instruction and the pragmatic form affect the learning of pragmatics in L2 English (Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015).

The speech acts of compliments and compliment responses, which are relatively under-researched in L2 English pragmatics, are considered a supportive way to build relationships and establish solidarity between interlocutors (Wolfson, 1989). They serve as expressions of support, admiration (Manes, 1983), greeting, farewell, or congratulation, among others (Wolfson, 1989). Researchers have proposed several taxonomies to classify interlocutors' strategies for giving or responding to compliments. For compliments, the most widely accepted set of formulae was proposed by Manes and Wolfson (1981). They analyzed over six hundred compliments and identified the nine most common syntactic structures as well as various semantic and thematic patterns. Previous research also proposed three main categories for compliments, namely appearance/possessions, abilities/performance/skills, and personality traits (Ishihara, 2004; Manes & Wolfson,

1981), and further pragmatic variations based on gender, social status, and context have also been pointed out (Ishihara, 2010). Pomerantz (1978) divided responses to compliments into three major categories that formed the basis for similar classifications: Acceptance, rejection, and self-praise avoidance mechanism. Herbert (1986) created a similar taxonomy for compliment responses based on his evaluation of more than a thousand compliment responses and concluded that a simple "accept" response such as "thank you" was given less frequently by American college students than a "comment accept" or "downgrade" response, which he believed contradicted the general view. Next, Holmes (1988, 1993) suggested three main categories (accept, deflect/evade, reject) based on data he collected in New Zealand. Although all of these taxonomies vary in a number of ways, they all show that native English speakers are unlikely to prefer rejects in responding to compliments.

Regardless of how structured they may seem from a purely descriptive perspective, learning compliments and compliment responses is generally challenging for L2 learners, especially as regards their linguistically and socially appropriate use. This is primarily due to cross-cultural differences in values and norms that affect how compliments and compliment responses are perceived and practiced. Previous descriptive studies have typically collected natural data from native (e.g., Wolfson, 1983) or non-native (e.g., Baba, 1996) speakers of English or used role-playing to uncover or enhance strategies and forms commonly used by non-native speakers of English (e.g., Cheng, 2011; Hasler-Barker, 2016). Compliment responses have been studied more frequently than compliments (e.g., Alsuhaibani, 2022; Cheng & Liang, 2015), and few studies (e.g., Ishihara, 2004) have examined both compliments and compliment responses simultaneously using an intervention design.

Billmyer (1990) was one of the first to investigate the effects of instruction on real-life, authentic interactions between L1 and L2 speakers of English. Half of her participants received instruction in compliments and responding to compliments, while the other half did not. Because the instructed ESL group communicated more appropriately with native English speakers in their interactions, she concludes that teaching socio-pragmatic language rules can help learners communicate more appropriately in real life.

Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) also studied the effects of pragmatics instruction on the use of compliments and compliment responses by Cantonese L2 English learners in Hong Kong. The study used portions of films collected as a corpus of compliments and compliment responses from forty American feature films. These authentic examples of compliments and compliment responses were used to investigate whether two different instructional paradigms, namely inductive and deductive instruction, make a difference in instructional gains. Results indicated that there was a contribution of instruction, although this effect was similar for both types of instructional paradigms, with the exception of sociopragmatic skills, which were measured through a discourse completion test. The researchers pointed out that the heterogeneity and high pre-test scores of the participants may have affected the interpretation of the results. Therefore, they suggested that further research be conducted to examine the effects of instruction on students with lower language levels and similar pre-test performances.

Ishihara (2004) examined how instruction on compliments and compliment responses benefited ESL learners (n = 31). The instruction, which took place in four sessions over a period of approximately three hours, included a variety of activities and skills such as writing compliments for different macro- and micro-social contexts, note-taking, feedback & evaluation, and reading. Both groups received a pre- and an immediate post-test, followed by a delayed post-test administered a year after instruction. The tests included writing compliment dialogs using both compliments and their responses. The results indicated a positive effect of explicit instruction on improving learners' awareness and use of the targeted pragmatic forms, with some degree of attrition measured by the delayed post-test. The findings are very important for exacerbating the efficacy of instruction for learners' pragmatic development, but further studies are needed that examine a comparison of different instructional paradigms.

One such study by Ebadi and Pourzandi (2015), which was conducted with 56 Iranian intermediate EFL learners, investigated the effects of implicit and explicit teaching of compliments and compliment responses using a control group on a pre-post design. The instructional sessions, the details of which were not provided, included either inductive or deductive teaching and lasted three weeks with a total of six academic sessions. The results of the open-ended DCTs revealed that learners in both instructional groups made more progress than those in the control group. The authors further reported slightly higher gains by learners in the implicit instruction group although they cautioned that the difference was "by a small margin" (p. 24).

Alsuhaibani (2022) aimed at examining the effects of consciousness-raising instruction and corpus-based instruction on EFL learners' development of compliment responses. With 136 EFL university students, it used a quasi-experimental design with three groups: control, consciousness-raising, and corpus groups. A discourse completion test (DCT) was utilized as a pre- and post-test to measure the effects of instruction. An open-ended questionnaire was also employed to investigate students' impressions of pragmatic education of praise answers. It was shown that instruction on compliment responses through both consciousness-raising and corpus-based instruction was effective, but no significant differences were found between the two instruction types. The findings also demonstrated that students value pragmatic training, indicating that it is vital, necessary, beneficial, and pleasurable all at the same time.

In another study, Zhang (2021) examines how much L2 learners develops in their use of compliment responses through Computer Mediated-Communication (CMC) alone and CMC along with data-driven teaching. Chinese EFL students at a university (n = 59) were assigned to the experimental group participated in CMC and had data-driven teaching in compliment responses, whereas the control group learned compliment responses through CMC without data-driven instruction. Experimental participants surpassed the control group for both appropriateness and variety in the immediate and delayed post-intervention tests, showing that data-driven instruction combined with CMC enhances pragmatic development in L2.

Although the realization of complimenting and/or responding to compliments has received high attention in various interventional studies besides those with cross-cultural,

and descriptive designs (e.g., Aston, 1995; Billmyer, 1990; Cheng, 2011), researching these speech acts especially for testing the effectiveness of various intervention types continues to merit investigation for their frequency and function.

Inductive Instruction, Deductive Instruction, and Structured Input Activities

Previous reviews on L2 pragmatics instruction have shown that explicit teaching is mostly more effective than implicit teaching (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010). However, in their meta-analysis of the efficacy of pragmatics teaching, Jeon and Kaya (2006) maintained that, given the scarcity of available data, the supposedly stronger results of explicit pragmatic teaching should not be seen as conclusive and should be further explored in future work.

The teaching and processing modalities used in the present study, namely inductive and deductive instruction, were both explicit although inductive and deductive modalities could have possibly involved more implicit and explicit processing, respectively. Therefore, it should be pointed out that in this study, inductive learning was meant to be different from implicit learning, as the former comprised explicit learning. As Takimoto (2008b) also indicated "*inductive* and *deductive* refer to processing strategies in learning and instruction, whereas *implicit* and *explicit* refer to the levels of fostering awareness" (p. 370). The two instructional types used in the present study, inductive and deductive instruction, are detailed in Decoo's (1996, p. 96) five modalities in Table 1.

Table 1. Decoo's Teaching Modalities

Modalities	Explanation
Modality A	Actual deduction
Modality B	Conscious induction as guided discovery
Modality C	Induction leading to an explicit "summary of behavior"
Modality D	Subconscious induction on structured material
Modality E	Subconscious induction on unstructured material

The present study uses the first two instruction modalities, namely Modality A and B. Both of these modalities are considered explicit teaching paradigms, where the learners are expected to notice the input provided in the classroom. According to Decoo (1996, p. 97), Modality A & B can be summarized as follows:

> Modality A (Actual Deduction): The grammatical rule or pattern is explicitly stated at the beginning of the learning process and the students move into the application of this grammar (examples and exercises).
> Modality B (Conscious induction as guided discovery): The students first encounter various examples, often sentences, sometimes embedded in a text. The "conscious discovery" of the grammar is then directed by the teacher: on the basis of the examples he normally asks a few key-questions and the students are led to discover and formulate the rule. The rationale usually given is that students who discover the rule on their own will profit from this.

As Takimoto (2008a) claims, these two modalities "share a common objective: to enhance the salience of target forms in order to promote attention to and noticing of" the

structures being taught (p. 32). Interventional research on the acquisition of L2 pragmatics further supported the finding that explicit instruction combined with input enhancement activities is the most effective way to teach target forms (e.g., Takahashi, 2010; Takimoto, 2008a).

Input enhancement, a term introduced by Smith (1993), refers to a set of teacher-induced or externally-induced techniques that make the target forms more salient for helping learners to learn them. According to him, meaning-based activities alone may not provide the learners with the necessary input to notice the forms, and thus, enhancement of the input is crucial, which may span from the highlighting of texts to the use of gestures. In order to see the effects of input enhancement, the present study uses structured input tasks which were described as one way to enhance L2 learners' input by Ellis (2003).

Structured input activities are claimed to be effective in improving the input learners receive (Ellis, 1997, 2008). The basis of the term "structured input" originates in Vanpatten's (1996) processing instruction, in which the fundamental idea is that the learners are able to process the input through the help of the structural clues and special cases in the structure of the input. In other words, the learners are driven to process the specifically produced target features, and thus, pay attention to the form better than they would otherwise do. Taking stock of the definitions of Vanpatten (1996), Ellis (1997) provided nine principles of interpretation tasks, which are known to resemble structured input activities, and some of those relevant to the present study are listed below:

> (1) An interpretation activity consists of a stimulus to which learners must make some kind of response.
> (2) The stimulus can take the form of spoken or written input.
> (3) The response can take various forms but it should be non-verbal or minimally verbal.
> (4) The activities can be sequenced to require learners to attend to meaning, then notice the form and function of the structure, and, finally, identify and correct errors.
> (5) As a result of task completion, learners should understand the form-meaning connection of a particular structure
> (6) Interpretation tasks should require both personal and referential responses from learners.
>
> (pp. 155-159)

In order to investigate how interpretation tasks such as structured input activities can be used in L2 pragmatics teaching, the current study adopts an interpretation approach Ellis (1997, 2003) described through structured input activities. Including both referential and affective-oriented activities, these activities intended to promote conscious learning through noticing the usages of the structures.

The present study

Previous research has established that instruction helps the learning of target pragmatic forms; however, more research is needed for determining the efficacy of different instructional paradigms (Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019) for teaching how to compliment and respond to compliments. Therefore, the present study seeks to identify and explain the effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the pragmatic

development of compliments and compliment responses in ESL learners by attempting to answer two basic questions:

1. Does short-term L2 pragmatic instruction on complimenting and responding to compliments help promote learning of the target forms in ESL learners?

2. What are the relative effects of instruction for inductive and deductive instructional paradigms in teaching ESL learners complimenting and responding to compliments?

Methodology

Research design and publication ethics

A quasi-experimental design was adopted in this study, with three intact classes acting as two experimental groups and a control group. All three groups took a pre-, immediate post-, and a delayed post-test, which required the learners to complete a written Discourse Completion Task (DCT), with a Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ), and a multiple choice Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire (MAQ). Ethical approval was initially obtained from the Institutional Review Board of the University of South Carolina, and the students signed the informed consent forms. No compensation was provided to interventional groups for taking part in the study, but the control group was offered to be taught similar content on the target subject.

Participants and Context

In this study, there were three intact classes of participants enrolled in the Intensive English Program (IEP) for international students at a large research university in the southeast of the United States. They were enrolled in an intermediate level (B1.1), 9-week speaking & listening class in which they were placed based on their beginning-of-term oral interviews and Michigan Test Listening Scores. Three classes were assigned to deductive instruction, inductive instruction, and control groups through cluster random sampling. The initial set of participants included 45 learners with various first languages (L1s); however, data from 19 participants were excluded from the analysis due to missing data. Therefore, a total of 26 students (F = 12 M = 14) were included in the final analysis. Besides, an initial group of seven participants from various nationalities, as well as 10 native speakers of American English (AE) provided data for the initial development of the questionnaire items. A separate group involving 33 native speakers of AE participated in the research to create a baseline for the data collection instruments and data coding, which will be detailed further in the following sections. Those non-native and native base groups were students at the undergraduate and graduate levels at various universities. Table 2 provides a summary of the participant profiles.

Table 2. Participants' demographic information across groups

Condition	*N* (F; M)	Age *M (SD)*	Length of U.S. residence[6] *M (SD)*
Deductive Instruction	8 (3 F; 5 M)[1]	20 (2.67)	5.25 (3.96)
Inductive Instruction	8 (4 F; 4 M)[2]	20.5 (1.77)	5.63 (6.07)
Control	10 (5 F; 5 M)[3]	21.9 (2.54)	4.70 (3.80)
NS base	33 (19 F; 14 M) [4]	22.4 (2.1)	N/A
NNS/NS base	17 (7 F; 10 M)[5]	24.8 (2.8)	45 (2.1)

Note. NS = Native Speaker; NNS = Non-native Speaker
[1]L1s represented: Arabic (*n* = 3). Chinese (*n* = 3), Spanish (*n* = 1), Turkish (*n* = 1). [2]Arabic (*n* = 1) Chinese (*n* = 4) Japanese (*n* = 2), French (*n* = 1). [3]Arabic (*n* = 4), Chinese (*n* = 3), Japanese (*n* = 1), Korean (*n* = 1), Turkish (*n* = 1). [4] American English (*n* = 33). [5]Arabic (*n* = 1), Chinese (*n* = 1), Japanese (*n* = 1), Korean (*n* = 1), Turkish (*n* = 1), Spanish (*n* = 1), French (*n* = 1), American English (*n* =10). [6] Means were calculated in months.

In addition to the demographic information provided in Table 1, learners were also asked questions about their language background and were expected to self-rate their communicative abilities in L2 English. The learners in all three groups were similar in their age of onset (*m* = 14.3, *SD* = 5.09, *m* = 14.1 *SD* = 4.05, *m* = 12.4 *SD* = 3.06 for deductive, inductive, and control groups, respectively). On a scale out of 6 (1 = rarely, 6 = all the time), learners reported spending a moderate amount of time with native speakers of English with an average of 2.88 (*SD* = 1.36) for the deductive instruction group, 2.63 (*SD* = 1.19) for the inductive instruction group, and 2.80 (*SD* = 1.69) for the control group. While communicating with Americans, learners in instructional groups found themselves equally successful with a mean score of 2.88 (*SD* = .64), and those in the control group self-rated their communication ability as "average" with a score of 3 (*SD* = .94) on a scale out of 5 (1 = not successful at all, 5 = very successful). Finally, for their comfort level while communicating with Americans, out of five (1 = not comfortable at all, 5 = very comfortable), the calculated mean was 2.88 (*SD* = .84) for the deductive instruction group, 3.00 (*SD* = .76) for the inductive instruction group, and 3.40 (*SD* = .96) for the control group.

Target Structures and Instruments

The data for the present study was collected through (a) a written Discourse Completion Task (DCT) with a Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ) to elicit compliments and (b) a Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire (MAQ) for checking learners' development in determining the level of appropriateness in responding to compliments. The scenarios used in the tests were either adapted from Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) or developed by the researcher (data collection instruments are available from the author upon request).

For compliments, target structures were determined based on the formulae proposed by Manes and Wolfson (1981, p. 120, see below) as they have been most commonly cited in similar research. Both in the instructional treatment and the analysis of the DCT the same framework was used.

(1) Your blouse is/looks (really) beautiful.	(NP is/looks (really) ADJ)
(2) I (really) like/love your car.	(I (really) like/love NP)
(3) That's a (really) nice wall hanging.	(PRO is a (really) ADJ NP)
(4) You did a (really) good job.	(You V a (really) ADV NP)
(5) You really handled that situation well.	(You V (NP) (really) ADV)
(6) You have such beautiful hair!	(You have (a) ADJ NP!)
(7) What a lovely baby you have!	(What (a) ADJ NP!)
(8) Nice game!	(ADJ NP!)
(9) Isn't your ring beautiful!	(Isn't NP ADJ!)

For collecting data on compliments, written DCTs were preferred over other forms of assessment because it has been shown that instructional effects were more evident on the results of an assessment tool that did not require too much cognitive processing (Taguchi, 2015), that is, DCTs allow more time for planning compared to other types of productive tasks such as role plays. Another advantage of DCTs is that the context and some other demographic variables such as gender or age can be controlled in DCTs in accordance with the research goals (Cyluk, 2013). For content validity, several measures were taken. First, the DCT used in this study comprised five different scenarios which asked the learners to write two compliments each for appearance and for performance, and one for possession. Since the present study did not aim at measuring the effects of relative power, status/speaker difficulty, or social distance, these variables were kept similar across scenarios to further ensure validity. The SAQ was presented right below DCT and asked learners to rate their own responses. The purpose of the SAQ was to determine learners' level of self-confidence in responding to compliments in an appropriate way. Following is a sample item from the DCT and the SAQ:

(1) DCT sample item

Tom (one of your friends) is a business major. He has an interview today for a part-time job at a large investment company, so he is wearing his best suit. You compliment (express admiration, praise) him on his appearance:

YOU say: "_____"

(2) SAQ sample item

What do you think of your answer? How appropriate is it? Circle one number.
Not very appropriate ☹ 1 — 2 — 3— 4 — 5 ☺ Very appropriate

For compliment responses, the target structures were also determined following Holmes' (1988) response categories for their convenience and learnability given the amount of time allocated for instructional treatment (see below). For collecting data on compliment responses, learners were given the MAQ, which asks learners to rate the level of appropriateness of each of the five possible responses on a scale from 1 (very inappropriate) to 5 (very appropriate) for five different scenarios. MAQ over a DCT was preferred as learners might have responded in the same way to all scenarios by just giving a "thank-you" response. Since the purpose was to examine how each learner would

evaluate the appropriateness of different responses, a questionnaire with previously created items was used. The answers in MAQ were created by the researcher through a corpus of answers gathered from non-native and native speakers of English asking them to write acceptable, less acceptable, and unacceptable answer choices (n = 17). In order to specify the response categories to be used in the questionnaire, the answers collected from ten native AE speakers were coded based on an adaptation of Holmes' (1988) features explaining response types in English:

(a) Accept, additional information/comment
(b) Accept, downgrading
(c) Deflect
(d) Reject, comparison
(e) Accept only (Thank you)

In order to avoid gender bias in these answers, four other native speakers were continuously consulted. Following the development of an answer for each of the five response categories for each scenario, the final version of the questionnaire was sent to a separate group of American speakers of English (n = 33) to create the baseline data for the analysis. These steps aimed at ensuring the validity of the content measured by the instrument. Below is a sample item for the MAQ:

(3) MAQ sample item

Scenario X: You met a friend (of the same gender) on campus and he/she tells you that he/she liked your new car very much.

Your classmate: "I like your car, it is pretty cool"
You: _____

1.	Thanks, I'm really happy with my purchase.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Thanks, but I don't like the color.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My dad is an expert at buying quality cars for cheap.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Oh, no, it isn't. Your car is much better.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Thank you.	1	2	3	4	5

Although response patterns in real life may not be limited to those included in the study, as the objective of the instruction was to help learners better understand the appropriateness of some forms over others and as the instructional treatment period was one-time only, the response patterns were confined to these five categories.

Participants also completed a questionnaire on language background and demographics. It included several additional questions about how seriously the participants were involved in the lesson and how useful they found the session. This helped to interpret the results if there was a large discrepancy that resulted from the performance or atmosphere in that particular classroom that could negatively affect the learning process. This also helps measure the level of student engagement in and commitment to the tasks to better assess the impact of the instruction (Kasper & Rose, 2002, pp. 246-247). If students

do not take the tasks seriously or do not put forth the adequate effort, the effects of instruction may not be readily apparent in the findings.

Instructional Treatments and Procedures

The study involved three intact classes, which were randomly assigned to two experimental (deductive and inductive instruction) and a control group. While the two experimental groups received instruction on compliments and compliment responses, the control group did not receive any treatment but completed all three tests.

The instructional materials used with learners in the deductive and inductive instruction groups were identical with respect to the target pragmatic structures (treatment materials are available from the author upon request). In designing and developing the materials, suggestions from previous research on metapragmatic instruction were taken into account (Ishihara, 2010; Ishihara & Cohen, 2021). The primary objective of the teaching sessions was to help learners understand (a) the common syntactic and semantic structures used for complimenting, (b) the common adjectives used for complimenting, (c) general tendencies in compliment responding, with a special focus on the inappropriateness of disagreement, and (d) gender differences in complimenting. In order to achieve this, Decoo's (1996) Modality A (Explicit-Deductive Instruction) and Modality B (Explicit-Inductive Instruction with guided discovery) were used to teach ESL learners the speech acts of complimenting and responding to compliments.

Table 3. Instructional treatment features across groups

Group	*N*	Treatment	Proactive Metalinguistic Instruction
Deductive Instruction	8	Structured input tasks, Pragmalinguistic form-focused activities, Reinforcement activities	Yes
Inductive Instruction	8	Structured input tasks, Pragmalinguistic form-focused activities, Reinforcement activities	No
Control Group	10	No treatment	No

Each treatment group received one, 90-minute treatment from the same instructor, a non-native speaker of English with more than 6 years of ESL/EFL teaching experience, who was the researcher in this study. The content of the target structures was matched for both treatment groups. The treatments, as well as the administration of the tests, took place during the learners' regular class time. The ESL learners were taught in English only but were allowed to ask for the meaning of unknown words in the questionnaire. Below is a summary of each step of the study.

Day #1: Pre-test (Week 4/9)

ESL learners in all three groups took a pre-test (DCT, SAQ, and MAQ, in order) on consecutive days during the fourth week of a 9-week intensive English program. Since there were options to choose from in the MAQ, students were presented with the tests in a specified order not to influence learners' DCT responses. The same procedure was followed on subsequent days.

Day #2: Instructional Treatment and Immediate Post-test (Week 6/9)

Deductive Instruction Group: The students were instructed deductively for 90 minutes on the speech act of complimenting and responding to compliments. Deductive instruction here means helping learners notice new input that can be used later with explicit instructions. First, learners watched a short audio clip with examples of compliments and compliment responses from American speakers with corresponding questions about the content before, during, and after listening. After metapragmatic explanations of Manes and Wolfson's (1981) syntactic categories and Holmes' (1988) adapted categories for compliment responses, learners were asked to identify the compliments and responses in the transcript of the audio clip and categorize them accordingly. They were provided with additional handouts to reinforce their learning of the target structures, which helped learners to further investigate and practice the target structures. In the last 20 minutes of the class session, they also practiced the target structures through structured input tasks as suggested by Ellis (1997). In these tasks, they had to determine which of the two given compliments or compliment responses was more appropriate for the given situation. This allowed learners to specifically identify the less appropriate types of compliments and/or compliment responses by encouraging them to engage in learning (Ellis, 1997). At the end of the session, learners were given 15 minutes to complete the immediate post-test and the language background & demographic information questionnaire.

Inductive Instruction Group: The students were instructed inductively on speech acts for 90 minutes. The instructional sessions of the inductive and deductive instruction groups were identical in content and time on tasks. Here, the inductive instruction meant that the learners had to induce the meanings in order to notice the input and figure out the rules that form these examples. This meant that learners in the inductive instruction group were not given metalinguistic explanations of the content, but were only asked questions to help guide their own self-discovery of the target structures. For example, they also listened to the same audio clip although there was no explicit teaching of formulae before being asked to find and categorize the compliments and responses. The same rule applied to the presentation and practice of further content. In the last 20 minutes of the class session, they were presented with the same structured input tasks. Finally, they also completed the immediate post-test and the language background questionnaire.

Control Group: The learners in this group followed their regular course content without any exposure to the target pragmatic structures in class as confirmed by the teachers assigned to this class. The control group completed the same questionnaires as the treatment groups.

Day #3: Delayed Post-test (9/9)

All three groups involved in the study were given a delayed post-test in the last week of the 9-week term primarily to provide information on how much of the input was

retained by the learners in the deductive, inductive instruction group. Control group was also given the delayed post-test to measure any changes.

Regarding the instructional treatment session, participants were asked questions to determine their level of satisfaction with the treatment session. The first question asked learners to rate the session out of 5 (5 = very useful, 1= not useful at all). The mean score for the ratings by the learners was 4.13 (*SD* = .83, *SE* = .29) in the deductive instruction group and 3.63 in the inductive instruction group (*m* = 3.63 *SD* = .75, *SE* = .26); however, the difference was not significant. The second question asked learners whether they learned anything they could use outside of class and why. Regardless of the group assignment, all learners were affirmative in their responses and provided some explanation such as the usefulness of the content for complimenting and social relationships. The last question was aimed at understanding how interested they were and how much of the content they could comprehend. The learners in the deductive instruction group were more interested (*m* = 4.60, *SD* = .46, *SE* = .16) than the learners in the inductive instruction group (*m* = 4.63, *SD* = .51, *SE* = .18) without a significant test finding. These results indicate that learners overall benefited from the instructional treatment regardless of their group assignment although learners in the deductive instruction group rated the session better and seemed more interested.

Data Coding and Analysis

Data coding was completed in two main phases. First, the compliments written by the learners in the DCT and the self-ratings in the SAQ were coded by the author. A total of 390 compliments for all groups in three different tests were rated by one male and one female native speaker of AE on a scale out of five (1 = very inappropriate, 5 = very appropriate). Prior to the scoring procedure, raters received short training on the rating process, which involved information on Holmes' (1988) and Manes and Wolfson's (1981) categories and how to deal with ungrammaticality. There were five scenarios and two ratings for each, resulting in a maximum score of 50 points (5 x 5 x 2). To determine the degree of agreement between coders, Cohen's Kappa (κ) was performed and found to be near perfect, κ = .82 (95% CI, .465 to .748), $p < .001$. SAQ ratings were also summed for each learner for analysis with a maximum score of 25.

For the analysis of compliment responses, the data was first rated based on the native baseline data analyzed descriptively. In order to determine the most-commonly preferred compliment responses, the frequency of the responses was calculated. Twenty-five responses rated by the learners for appropriateness were each worth 4 points which makes a maximum score of 100 points. Based on the baseline data, the response with the highest percentage was worth 4 points, and the response with the next highest percentage was worth 3 points. No points were awarded for other response categories. In determining the percentages, care was taken to ensure that either the highest-scoring option alone or the two highest-scoring options accounted for at least 85% of all responses. If a single scoring category accounted for 85% of all data, the second-highest option was disregarded and received no points. Pre-test and post-test scores were calculated for each learner for each

of the five scenarios, and an overall score was calculated that included the sum of scores from all five scenarios. A Cronbach's alpha value for internal consistency of .83 was obtained for the reliability of the MAQ.

Results

DCT and SAQ Results

The descriptive statistics of the DCT and the SAQ, which were scored out of 50 and 25, respectively, are presented in Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 4. Group means and standard deviations for the DCT

		Pre-test		Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
Group	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Deductive Instruction	8	19.63	2.26	23.63	1.30	22.88	1.25
Inductive Instruction	8	19.38	3.02	23.63	1.69	23.25	1.17
Control Group	10	20.40	2.17	20.40	2.37	20.8	1.98

Table 5. Group means and standard deviations for the SAQ

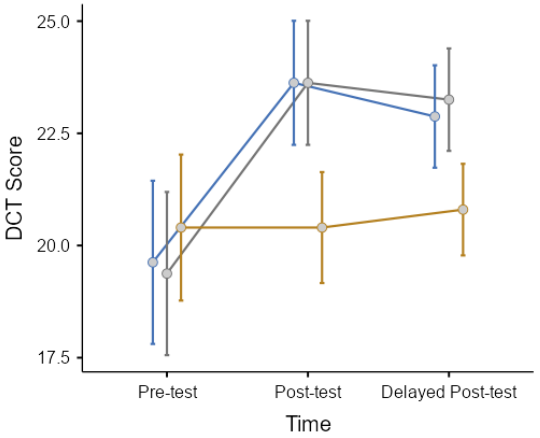
		Pre-test		Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
Group	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Deductive Instruction	8	19.3	2.71	22.1	2.30	21.0	2.20
Inductive Instruction	8	17.0	2.73	19.6	3.38	20.0	2.39
Control Group	10	18.7	2.87	19.6	3.44	19.6	2.99

For the pre-test scores of DCT and SAQ, there were no statistically significant differences among the three groups as revealed by the findings of the one-way ANOVA, F (2, 23) = .423, p = .66 for DCT, F (2, 23) = 1.443, p = .26 for SAQ. Before conducting a repeated measures (RM) ANOVA, data was checked for the assumptions of normality and sphericity. Assumptions associated with the normality of the distributions were examined through an examination of skewness and kurtosis values, and no violations were noted. Also, the Shapiro-Wilk test further indicated that the data was normally distributed (p > .01) for both tests on all three conditions. For DCT data, Mauchly's test indicated a violation of sphericity (p = .02), so degrees of freedom were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity (ε = .68), and finally, the assumption of independence appeared reasonable. For SAQ data, similar violations of sphericity were noted (p = .02) and Huynh-Feldt corrected results are reported (ε = .87). Also, for both tests and on all three conditions, the assumption of the equality of variances was met through non-significant Levene's test findings.

A two-way RM ANOVA within and between-subjects design for DCT showed a significant main effect for Time, F (1.51, 17.36) = 21.20, p < .001, η_p^2= .048, and a significant interaction effect between Treatment and Time was also shown [F (3.02, 75.5) = 19.25, p = .005, η_p^2= .31]. However, the main effect for the Treatment group was not significant, F (2, 23) = 3.29, p < .055, η_p^2= .22. Bonferroni adjusted pairwise comparisons for Time variable further revealed significant effects for pre- and post-tests, t (25) = -3.97, p < .001 (Figure 1). No other significant post-hoc findings were found. The results of the

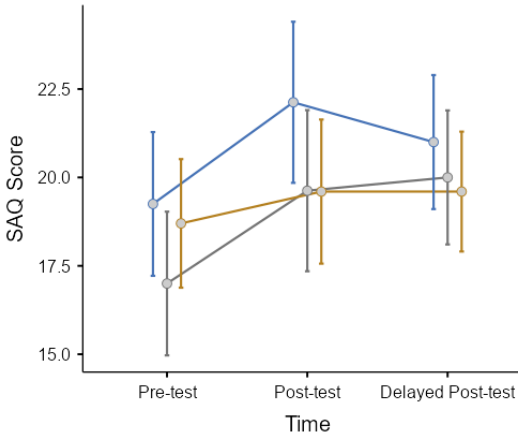
two-way RM ANOVA of the SAQ, with Huynh-Feldt adjustment, revealed a significant main effect for Time, F (1.75, 20.1) = 21.20, p < .001, η_p^2= .048. However, no significant finding for the main effect for Treatment F (2, 23) = 21.20, p =.32, η_p^2= .09, or for an interaction effect were found F (3.5, 40.21) = 2.47, p =.07, η_p^2= .18. As is also shown in Figure 2, no statistically significant differences between the deductive and inductive instruction groups were found although both groups improved from the pre-test to the post-test, t (25) = 4.65, p < .001, and the positive effects of treatment for both groups were maintained through the delayed post-test although no additional gains were made through delayed post-test.

Figure 1. Interaction plot for the DCT



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Figure 2. Interaction plot for the SAQ



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

As for the compliment responses, the data obtained from the MAQ is presented in Table 6, with a maximum score of 100.

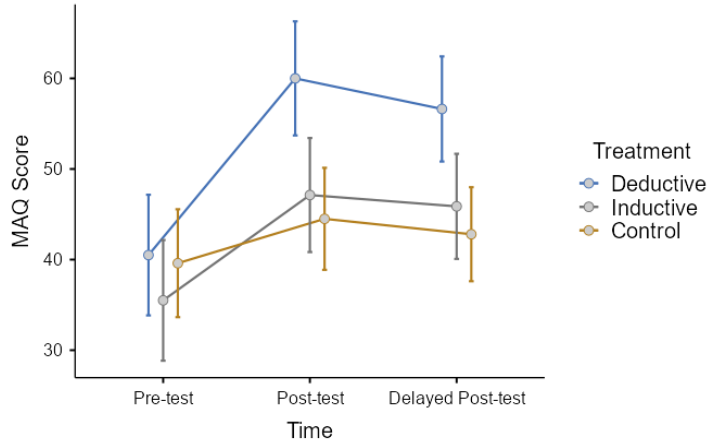
Table 6. Group means and standard deviations for the MAQ

		Pre-test		Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
Group	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Deductive Instruction	8	40.5	9.19	60.0	7.39	56.63	7.39
Inductive Instruction	8	35.5	9.34	47.13	9.05	45.88	9.05
Control Group	10	39.6	8.91	44.50	7.39	42.80	7.39

Before examining the effects of Instruction on the MAQ scores of learners at three different time points, first, a one-way ANOVA was conducted and revealed no statistically significant differences among the deductive instruction, inductive instruction, and control groups, F (2, 23) = .70, p = .51. Also, the data was checked for assumptions of RM ANOVA, no violations of normality (S-W = p > .01) and sphericity (W = .94) were found. For the assumption of homogeneity of variances, no violations were noted as revealed by non-significant Levene's test results, F (2, 23) = .04, p = .96. After meeting the assumptions, a two-way RM ANOVA of the MAQ scores was conducted, and the results showed a significant main effect for Time F (2, 23) = 27.72, p < .001, η_p^2= .55, and for Treatment, there was also a significant main effect F (2, 23) = 5.61, p = .01, η_p^2= .33. Additionally, a significant Treatment x Time interaction effect was also found, F (4, 46) =

3.76, p = .01, η_p^2 = .25. Revealing the positive effects of instructional treatment, Figure 3 further illustrates the amount of gain both treatment groups made from pre- to post-tests. Furthermore, post hoc comparisons showed that the deductive instruction group made higher gain scores than the inductive instruction group with a statistically significant difference with Bonferroni adjustment, t (23) = 2.76, p = .03. As revealed by the delayed post-test findings, the effects of both types of instruction was sustained in the delayed post-test although there was a small amount of drop in the delayed post-test.

Figure 3. Interaction plot for the MAQ



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Discussion

The first research question the present study sought to investigate was whether instruction benefits ESL learners in their pragmatic development of the speech act of complimenting and compliment responding. The findings demonstrate that both treatment groups outperformed the control group as measured by the DCT and the MAQ. This finding is not surprising as the positive effects of instruction have already been established in the related literature (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019). The findings provide further evidence for the fact that when teaching L2 pragmatics, input, on its own, may not be sufficient for learning the target structures, and thus, it is very important to emphasize them for increasing their saliency (Taguchi, 2015, p. 27). Learners in both treatment groups were also found to have improved their confidence in assessing their performance in writing compliments over time compared to those in the control group, which further evidences how instruction helps learners gain confidence in their abilities.

The second research question of the present study aimed to investigate whether the type of instruction made a difference in terms of learners' progress in L2 pragmatics. However, the answer to this question varied across tests. For compliments measured by the DCT, the findings revealed that learners benefited from instruction with no significant effect of the type of instruction. This finding does not support the study of Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) who found deductive instruction to be more effective than inductive instruction in teaching EFL students complimenting and responding to compliments. Similar to the

current study, their study also examined the effects of two instructional paradigms, but in the present study, structured input activities were used as part of the treatment in both treatment groups, which may have affected the findings. One explanation is that both treatment groups used structured input activities which increase the salience of target forms by enhancing learners' attention to the input. Therefore, the target forms could have become identically salient regardless of the instructional modality (e.g., Takimoto, 2009, p. 20), resulting in learner gains that are not significantly different in both treatment groups. However, it should be noted that more evidence is needed to confirm this claim, which could, for example, be possible through a study design in which there are four different treatment groups: Groups receiving deductive and inductive instruction with and without structured input activities. For the SAQ ratings, the findings exacerbate previous studies because learners improved the self-perceived accuracy of their own answers; however, the type of instruction they received made no difference (Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001).

However, for compliment responses, the findings of the second research question were mixed with learners in the deductive instruction group improving more than those in the inductive instruction group, as revealed by the MAQ, which echoes some previous research (e.g., Hasler-Barker, 2016; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001). However, it should be noted that the type of instruction very much depends on a number of different variables such as the learnability of the target forms, the sociopragmatic norms of the L1, and the context. Therefore, studies with larger sample sizes are needed to make robust claims regarding the effectiveness of certain instructional modalities over others.

Previous studies comparing the effectiveness of input-based tasks with varying degrees of explicitness have found that tasks that involve more in-depth processing of input usually presented as part of less explicit instruction are more effective. The primary reason for this is the type of processing such tasks require, which promotes a more in-depth perception and thinking of the input, despite the lack of psycholinguistic evidence for this (Takimoto, 2008b). In the present study, this finding could not be confirmed, as learners in the deductive instruction group made more gains. It may be the fact that a large amount of metapragmatic information combined with structured input activities contributed to learners' better retention of the knowledge in the post-test. Furthermore, the reason for inductive instruction group to lag behind may also be attributable to the short instructional time in the present study. The treatment period may not have been sufficient for the learners to engage in the self-discovery of the structures expected in inductive learning. Studies with longer instructional time might provide more insights into a better understanding of this issue.

Suggestions for Practice

Various pedagogical implications can be observed based on the findings of the present study. First, learners could be taught forms of L2 pragmatics either as a separate module or by being incorporated into regular class hours. One of the key aspects of such instruction is that learners should be made aware of the highly context-sensitive nature of compliments and compliment responses, which may pose challenges to learning. To help

raise learners' awareness of these features, they should be maximally exposed to naturally-occurring data inside and outside the classroom through various activities or assignments that require them to collect authentic samples of the target pragmatic structures.

For L2 pragmatics teaching to become a systematic component in L2 classrooms, it is crucial to make it an essential part of language teacher education and training programs. While most language teachers are trained in teaching various L2 skills and other components, they often lack such training in L2 pragmatics, which is not surprising given its "peripheral" position in L2 teaching (Jeon & Kaya, 2006, p. 166). Therefore, an emphasis on the teaching of L2 pragmatics could empower language teachers who are best able to determine what, when, and how to teach pragmatics. It should, however, be noted that determining the most effective methods for teaching L2 pragmatics is not straightforward as a number of factors such as learning outcomes, target structures, and context deserves consideration. However, as shown by the findings of the present study and other previous work (e.g., Takimoto, 2009), any kind of activity that draws learners' attention to form through input enhancement has been proven beneficial (Taguchi, 2015). Therefore, teachers may be encouraged to incorporate such activities into their classroom teaching. The use of technology might offer abundant opportunities for teachers who aims for more engagement in in the teaching of L2 pragmatics (e.g., Zhang, 2021).

Another related issue is the quality and quantity of the pragmatic content of the materials used for language teaching. Such features should be taken into consideration in the development and selection of classroom and online materials to make L2 pragmatic learning and teaching more effective. Materials that best help raise learners' awareness of the value of using L2 pragmatic forms appropriately through the use of more authentic input from real life sources such as corpora may be encouraged. Therefore, equipping language teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to teach L2 pragmatics through various training and professional development activities is crucial. Some of the areas where teachers need guidance involve teaching and assessment methods, teaching resources, and the use of technology for effective learning and teaching of L2 pragmatics.

Conclusion

The present study addressed two fundamental questions in the literature: (a) the learnability of speech acts and (b) the effects of different teaching paradigms on learning L2 pragmatics. The results demonstrate the benefits of two explicit teaching paradigms, namely, inductive and deductive for the development of complimenting and compliment responding. The results are also consistent with previous research conducted in an EFL setting (e.g., Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001) in that the deductive instruction group improved more. Regardless of the instructional modality, the present study shows that instruction is an effective tool for developing pragmatic knowledge in an ESL environment.

The study is not without limitations. First, it should be acknowledged that the sample size is small, which severely restricts the interpretation and the generalizability of the findings due to decreased effect size and power. Furthermore, the treatment period was limited to one class session, which restricts the amount of exposure to and engagement

with the target forms. However, it should also be noted that treatment length depends on the content and intervention methods (Takahashi, 2010). Another limitation of the study is that DCTs or MAQs are not data collection tools that elicit naturally occurring data. Therefore, more authentic and interactive forms of data collection such as role-playing or the authentic data learners collected could be used in further studies. Therefore, further studies with larger sample sizes that examine a variety of L2 pragmatic forms using less controlled methods of data collection over longer periods of time might provide more insights into the learning and teaching of L2 pragmatics. More research might be done to investigate the influence of various learner-related characteristics including gender and competency in learning L2 pragmatics in greater depth. Despite its limitations, the present study contributes to the existing literature on the relative effects of inductive and deductive instruction in teaching compliments and compliment responses by showing how deductive and inductive instruction with structured input activities was effective.

References

Alcón Soler, E., & Martínez-Flor, A. (2008). Pragmatics in foreign language contexts. In E. Alcón Soler & A. Martínez-Flor (Eds.), *Investigating pragmatics in foreign language learning, teaching and testing* (pp. 3–22). Multilingual Matters.

Alsuhaibani, Z. (2022). Developing EFL students' pragmatic competence: The case of compliment responses. *Language Teaching Research, 26*(5), 847-866. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820913539

Aston, G. (1995). Say 'thank you': Some pragmatic constraints in conversational closings. *Applied linguistics*, *16*(1), 57–86. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/16.1.57

Baba, J. (1996). *A study of interlanguage pragmatics: Compliment responses by learners of Japanese and English as a second language.* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database.

Bialystok, E. (1993). Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 43–59). Oxford University Press.

Billmyer, K. (1990). I really like your lifestyle: ESL learners learning how to compliment. *Penn Working Papers in Educational Linguistics*, *6*(2), 31–48.

Cheng, D. (2011). New insights on compliment responses: A comparison between native English speakers and Chinese L2 speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(8), 2204–2214. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.02.003

Cheng, D., & Liang, J. (2015). The effect of instruction on Chinese EFL learners' compliment responses. *TESOL International Journal*, *10*, 1–23.

Cohen, A., & Olshtain, E. (1994). Researching the production of L2 speech acts. In E. E. Tarone, S. M. Gass, & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Research methodology in second language acquisition* (pp. 167-180). Routledge.

Cyluk, A. (2013). Discourse completion task: Its validity and reliability in research projects on speech acts. *Anglica. An International Journal of English Studies*, *22*(2), 100–111.

Decoo, W. (1996). The induction-deduction opposition: Ambiguities and complexities of the didactic reality. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 34*(2). https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1996.34.2.95

Ebadi, S., & Pourzandi, M. (2015). The effects of explicit and implicit pragmatic instruction on the development of compliments and compliment responses. *I-Manager's Journal on English Language Teaching, 5*(4), 13–26. https://doi.org/10.26634/jelt.5.4.3666

Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2008). Explicit form-focused instruction and second language acquisition. In B. Spolsky & F. M. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 437–455). Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470694138.ch31

Hasler-Barker, M. (2016). Effects of metapragmatic instruction on the production of compliments and compliment responses: Learner-learner role-plays in the foreign language classroom. In K. Baradovi-Harlig & J. C. Félix-Brasdefer (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning*, vol. 14 (pp. 125-152). Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center University of Hawai'i.

Herbert, R. K. (1986). Say "Thank you" - or something. *American Speech, 61*(1), 76-88. https://doi.org/10.2307/454710

Holmes, J. (1988). Compliments and compliment responses in New Zealand. *Anthropological Linguistics*, *28*(4), 485–508.

Holmes, J. (1993). New Zealand women are good to talk to: An analysis of politeness strategies in interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *20*(2), 91–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(93)90078-4

Ishihara, N. (2004). Exploring the immediate and delayed effects of formal instruction: Teaching giving and responding to compliments. *Minne-WI TESOL 21*, 37–70

Ishihara, N. (2010). Compliments and responses to compliments. Learning communication in context. In A. Martínez-Flor & E. Usó-Juan (Eds.), *Speech act performance. Theoretical, methodological and empirical issues* (pp. 179–198). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.26.11ish

Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. D. (2021). Learners' pragmatics: Potential causes of divergence. In N. Ishihara & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where languages and culture meet (*2nd ed.) (pp. 75–96). Longman.

Jeon, E. H., & Kaya, T. (2006). Effects of L2 instruction on interlanguage pragmatic development: A meta-analysis. In J. M. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 165–211). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.13.10jeo

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Interlanguage pragmatics in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(2), 145–148. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263100014856

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *19*, 81–104. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190599190056

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Blackwell.

Kramsch, C. J. (1985). Classroom interaction and discourse options. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *7*(2), 169–183. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263100005350

Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. Longman.

Manes, J. (1983). Compliments: A mirror of cultural values. In N. Wolfson and E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 82–95). Newbury House.

Manes, J., & Wolfson, N. (1981). The compliment formula, In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *Conversational routine: Explorations in standardized communication situations and prepatterned speech* (pp. 115–132). Mouton.

Plonsky, L., & Zhuang, J. (2019). A meta-analysis of second language pragmatics instruction. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of SLA and pragmatics* (pp. 287–307). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351164085-19

Pomerantz, A. (1978). Compliment responses: Notes on the co-operation of multiple constraints. In J. Schenkein (Ed.), *Studies in the organization of conversational interaction* (pp. 79–112). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780190927431.003.0004

Rose, K. R., & Kwai-fun, C. N. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (Cambridge applied linguistics, pp. 145–170). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/CBO9781139524797.013

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The Role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *11*, 129–158. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.2.129

Schmidt, R. W. (1993). Consciousness, learning and interlanguage pragmatics. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 21–42). Oxford University Press.

Smith, M. S. (1993). Input enhancement in instructed SLA: Theoretical bases. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *15*(2), 165–179. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263100011943

Taguchi, N. (2010). Longitudinal studies in interlanguage pragmatics. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 333–362). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110214444.2.333

Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, *48*(1), 1–50. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444814000263

Takahashi, S. (2010). Assessing learnability in second language pragmatics. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Handbook of pragmatics: Volume VII* (pp. 391–421). Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110214444.3.391

Takimoto, M. (2008a). The effects of various kinds of form-focused instruction on learners' ability to comprehend and produce polite requests in English. *TESL Canada Journal*, *26*(1), 31-51. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v26i1.389

Takimoto, M. (2008b). The effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the development of language learners' pragmatic competence. *Modern Language Journal*, *92*(3), 369–386. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00752.x

Takimoto, M. (2009). The effects of input-based tasks on the development of learners' pragmatic proficiency. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm049

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2), 91–112. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.91

Timpe-Laughlin, V., Wain, J., & Schmidgall, J. (2015). Defining and operationalizing the construct of pragmatic competence: Review and recommendations. *ETS research report series*. Educational Testing Service. 1-43. https://doi.org/10.1002/ets2.12053

Vanpatten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction in second language acquisition*. Ablex.

Wildner-Bassett, M. E. (1990). Coexistence discourse worlds: The development of pragmatic competence inside and outside the classroom. In A. VanPatten & J. F. Lee (Eds.), *Second language acquisition/Foreign language learning* (pp. 140–52). Multilingual Matters.

Wolfson, N. (1983). An empirically based analysis of complimenting behavior in American English. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 82–95). Newbury House.

Wolfson, N. (1989). The social dynamics of native and nonnative variation in complimenting behavior. In M. R. Eisenstein (Ed.), *The Dynamic interlanguage. Topics in language and linguistics* (pp. 219–236). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-0900-8_14

Zhang, Y. (2021). Combining computer-mediated communication with data-driven instruction: EFL learners' pragmatic development of compliment responses. *System*, *103*, 102624. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102624