

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

In this chapter, the concepts of compliments, compliment responses, communication competence, cultural influence, Kachru's Three Concentric Circles of English, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) and sociolinguistics are elaborated in details. Moreover, the review of the principles, framework and previous findings of compliments and compliment responses are presented.

#### 2.1 Compliments

Dictionaries defined compliments as a remark that expresses approval, admiration or respect to something or someone positively. Theoretical definitions of compliments can be found in the previous research studies by the scholars and are varied from one to another.

The term "compliment" was stated as one of the speech acts that express the solidarity and grease the social communication between the interlocutors. Wolfson (1983) stated that compliments are said to grease the social wheels to serve as social lubricants that create or maintain rapport. Manes (1983) defined that a compliment must express approval of something that parties, speakers and addressees, regard positively and a structured speech act that reflects social values in the culture. She also added that compliments primarily serve the establishment or reinforcement of solidarity between the compliment-giver and receiver.

Holmes (1986), Brown and Levinson (1987) and Hobbs (2003) provided the definition of the term "compliment" similarly. Holmes (1986 : 485) defined a compliment as a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speakers, usually the person addressed, for some "good" (possession, characteristic, skill, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer. Brown and Levinson (1987) described that compliments are positive politeness strategies which are approving of the hearer's appearance, personality, possession and needs. Hobbs (2003 : 249) proposed that a compliment is a speech act which explicitly or implicitly

bestows credit upon the addressee for some possession, skill, characteristic, or the like, that is positively evaluated by the speaker and addressee.

According to Olshtain and Cohen (1991), compliments are defined as one of the speech acts to express solidarity between speaker and hearer and to maintain social harmony, added that “the speech act of complimenting is intrinsically courteous and enables the speaker to make use of opportunities to express an interest in the hearer” (1991 : 158). Dumitrescu (2006) agreed that a compliment is an expressive, interlocutor- centered and polite speech act, typically followed by the hearer’s response.

Brown and Levinson (1987), Holmes (1988), and Wolfson (1983 ; 1989) added to the definition of compliments that compliments are “not only express sincere expression of positive qualities, but they also replace greetings, thanks, or apologies, and minimize face-threatening acts such as criticism, scolding, or request”.

In this research, the definition of compliments is verbal positive comments made to show one’s appreciation on other persons’ noticeable appearance, possession or personal traits and successful performance, skills or ability which take place in any relationships and situations that create, maintain or improve social communication.

### **2.1.1 Functions of Compliments**

There are multiple functions of compliments serve between the interlocutors such as starting a conversation, building up social relationship, showing approval or admiration and getting information. Scholars revealed the functions of compliments and highlighted the nature of compliment functions differently.

Wolfson (1981) claimed that compliment function in a number of ways within discourse: greeting, thanking, opening a conversation, etc. He also pointed out that compliments are also used as conversation starters and, in particular contexts, they can strengthen or weaken other speech acts such as criticism, apologies, greetings and the expression of gratitude.

Holmes (1988) proposed compliments appeared to be functionally complex speech acts which served as solidarity signals, commenting on friendships, attenuating demands, smoothing ruffled feathers and bridging gaps created by possible offenses. She also added that the primary function of a compliment is affective and social rather than referential or informative. On the other hand,

Johnson and Roen (1992) argued that the compliments simultaneously conveyed both affective (or interpersonal) meaning and referential (or ideational) meaning.

Herbert (1990) also revealed that some compliments function as expression of praise and admiration rather than offers of solidarity. Herbert (1990) and Holmes (1988) stated the primary function of compliments is to show approval and admiration toward the listener, to make him/her feel good and so to create, negotiate and consolidate the solidarity between interlocutors in the interaction.

Jaworski (1995) pointed out that giving a positive evaluation of Polish speakers often wants to have information about the complimented item (e.g the price of the object, the place where it has bought and so on). Rovetto (2012) also stated that compliments also functioned as information seeking means in some cultural context.

Hatch (1994) generalized four significant functions of compliments out of several definitions: First of all, compliments establish rapport and smooth the transition from greeting to the first topic of the conversation, second; they reinforce and encourage good performance, third; they can be used for thanking and the final one is to soften criticism.

### **2.1.2 Topics of Compliments**

Compliments are made on several topics in different situations and settings. However, the topics of the compliments are generally based on the impressive and expressive feelings of the speaker. A number of scholars proposed the general topics of compliments based on their research findings.

American English, two general topics are utilized in daily conversations, “those having to do with appearance, more likely to comment on new clothes and hair-dos and those which comment on ability according to Wolfson (1983 : 90). Manes and Wolfson (1981) classified compliment topics based on the U.S data as follows:

1) Appearance/possessions – compliments on the addressee’s appearance or possessions such as apparel, hairstyle and jewelry.

2) Performance/skills/abilities – compliments on the addressee’s performance/skills/abilities.

3) Personality traits – compliments on the addressee’s personality traits.

People make compliments on the appearance which is easily noticeable and visible and Holmes (1994 : 40) stated that “Appearance” is outward or visible aspect of a person or thing, something that appears and could be seen such as clothes and hair. “Possession” is a state of having or possessing something results from the complimentee’s achievements. Commenting on ones’ performance, skills, abilities are also the general topics of compliments and Manes (1983) stated that “Ability” is a “quality of something produced through the addressee’s skill or effort, a skillfully played game, a good meal. Probst (2003) also proposed that compliments fall into two major categories with respect to the topic: “exteriority” including participants’ external characteristics and their possessions and performance, i.e. talents and abilities.

## 2.2 Compliment Responses

Compliment response is that where a response takes place by the receiver’s formulation after interpreting the message and assigning meaning. It plays an important role in interpersonal communication and social interaction for giving a response appropriately and correctly. Responses are also varied and differed from one person to another depending on social and cultural context. Scholars provided several definitions of the “Compliment Responses” from their perspectives in different ways.

Heidari, Rezazadeh and Reasekh (2009) defined compliment responses as a phatic expression, a particular role in maintaining the solidarity of interpersonal relationships and the harmony of social interaction. Herbert (1989) opinion is that compliment responses are an interesting object for study since there is relatively strong agreement within the speech community as to what form actually constitutes a "correct response" (Herbert. 1989 : 5). Holmes (1986) also claimed that the pragmatic information needed to use and to respond appropriately to compliments is not easy to acquire.

Generally, a compliment response can be benign, such as simply ignoring a provocative remark, or, at the other extreme, a physically aggressive act of violence. Pomerantz (1978) pointed out that responses represent the recipient’s resolution of conflicting conversational constraints. She also added from pragmatic perspective that compliment responses generated by speakers of different languages and language varieties follow different patterns when responding to compliments.

Anyhow, the term “compliment responses” in this research is regarded as verbal recognitions and non-verbal expressions that the complimentee heard and reacted to the compliment given by the complimenter.

### **Compliment Responses Theories and Frameworks**

The study of compliment responses has become a significant aspect in the field of socio-linguistics. Many of the scholars and researchers studied about the compliments and compliment responses; came up with the theoretical framework and principals becoming a foundation for the upcoming studies of compliments and responses speech act. Compliments and compliment responses as research are being recognized as an important speech act in a socio-cultural context and served a serious socio-cultural linguistic function (Heidari, Rezazadeh and Reasekh. 2009).

As Pomenrantz (1978) was the first person who discussed compliment responses and proposed the most influential principles of compliment responses presented as follows.

- 1) the recipients to agree with and/or accept the compliment of the speaker,
- 2) the recipients avoid self-praise.

She also elaborated the compliment responses into four categories as following (Chen. 2003).

- 1) Appreciation (agreement)
- 2) Rejection (disagreement)
- 3) Self-praise avoidance (avoid agreement and disagreement)
- 4) Referent shifts (reassignment and return)

Holmes (1986 ; 1988) who proposed 3 macro levels of Compliment Responses Categories consists of Accept, Reject and Deflect or Evade and sub-categories in every micro level. Holmes (1986 ; 1988) Compliment Responses Categories are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1** Compliment Responses Categories

Macro Level	Micro Level	Compliment Responses Examples
<b>Accept</b>	1. Appreciation Token	“Thanks”; “Thank you”; “Cheers”; “Yes”, “Good”
	2. Agreeing Utterance	“I know”; “I did realize I did that well”; “I am glad you think so”; “Yeah, I really like it”
	3. Downgrading Qualifying Utterance	“It’s nothing”; “It was no problem”; “It’s not bad” , “I enjoyed doing it”; “I hope it was OK”
	4. Returning Compliment	“Your child was an angel”; “I’m sure you will be great”; “Yours was good too”; “You’re not too bad yourself”
<b>Reject</b>	1. Disagreeing Utterance	“Nah, I don’t think so”; “I thought I did badly”; “Nah, it’s nothing special”; “It’s not”; “Don’t say so”
	2. Question Accuracy	“Why?”; “Is it right?”
	3. Challenging Sincerity	“Stop lying”; “Don’t lie”; “Don’t joke about it”; “You must be kidding”; “Don’t, come on”
<b>Deflect /Evade</b>	1. Shift Credit	“That’s what friends are for”; “You’re polite”; “No worries”; “My pleasure”
	2. Informative Comment	“It wasn’t hard”; “You can get it from (store name)”; “It’s really cheap”
	3. Request Reassurance	“Really?”

**Source:** Holmes. 1986 : 485-508 ; 1988 : 445-465.

Herbert (1989) also classified 3 main types of compliment responses: Agreement, Non-agreement and Request Interpretation with 12 sub-types shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Taxonomy of Compliment Responses

Response Type	Description	Example
<b>A. Agreement</b>		
<b>I. Acceptances</b>		
1. Appreciation Token	Accepts the compliment verbally or non-verbally.	Thanks; thank you.
2. Comment Acceptance	Accepts the compliment and offers a relevant comment on the appreciated topic.	Thanks , it's my favorite too.
3. Praise Upgrade	Accepts the compliment and asserts that the compliment force is insufficient.	Really brings out the blue in my eyes, doesn't it?
<b>II. Comment History</b>	Offers a comment (or a series of comments) on the object complimented; these compliments differ from comment acceptance. They shift force of the compliment from the addressee.	I bought it for the trip to Arizona.
<b>III. Transfers</b>		
1. Reassignment	Agrees with the compliment assertion but the complimentary force is transferred to some third person or to the object itself.	My brother gave it to me.
2. Return	The praise is shifted (or returned) to the first speaker.	So is yours.
<b>B. Non-agreement</b>		
<b>I. Scale Down</b>	Disagrees with the complimentary force, pointing to some flaw in the object or claiming that the praise is overstated.	It's really quite old.
<b>II. Question</b>	Same as Scale Down.	Do you really think so?

Table 2 (continued)

Response Type	Description	Example
<b>III. Non-acceptances</b>		
1. Disagreement	Asserts that the object complimented is not worthy of praise.	I hate it.
2. Qualification	Weaker the Disagreement: qualifies the original assertion, usually with <i>though, but, well, etc.</i>	It's all right, but Jen's is nicer.
<b>IV. No Acknowledgement</b>	Gives no indication of having heard the compliment; either responds with an irrelevant comment or gives no response.	[silent]
<b>C. Other Interpretations</b>		
<b>I. Request</b>	Interprets the compliments consciously or not, interprets as a request rather than a simple compliment.	You wanna borrow this one too?

Source: Herbert. 1986 : 76-78 ; 1989 : 3-36.

In a study of Cedar (2006), two additional categories of Smiling (laughing) and No Response are added in Chiang and Pochtrager's (1993) compliment responses categories according to the requirement of her research, Thai and American Responses to Compliments in English.



**Table 3** Compliment Responses Categories

Type	Meaning	Examples
<b>1. Acceptance</b>	Agreement with no further elaboration.	“Thank you”; “I think so, too”; “I’m glad you like it”
<b>2. Positive Elaboration</b>	Account, history, positive comment, efforts, return of compliment.	“I bought it at Macy’s”; “Red is my favorite color”; “I worked hard on the project”; “I like yours, too”
<b>3. Neutral Elaboration</b>	Seeking conformation or shift of credit.	“Really?”; “Do you think so?”; “My assistant selected them”
<b>4. Negative Elaboration</b>	Downgrading, duty or responsibility, need for improvement	“The house is too small for us”; “I still need a lot of improvement”; “It’s my responsibility”
<b>5. Denial</b>	No or negative opinion	“No, not at all”; “No, my baby is ugly”
<b>6. Smiling (laughing)</b>	Non-verbal expression of embarrassment without any overt verbal response.	
<b>7. No Response</b>	No indication of having heard of the compliment.	

Source: Cedar. 2006 : 6-28.

### 2.3 Communicative Competence

The ability to communicate successfully is crucial in a social interaction that speech acts are needed to use appropriately in terms of accomplishing the purpose of communication. Austin (1962) stated that communication is a series of communicative acts or speech acts which are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes. Porter and Samovar (1991) defined that “Communication is also governed by the rules of the social and physical contexts in which it occurs”. There are two types of communication namely verbal and non-verbal communication.

Verbal Communication: Language itself is merely a set of symbols that a cultural group has arbitrarily agreed upon to help them bring meaning to objects, events, emotions, experiences, places, and the like.

Non-Verbal Communication: Non-verbal behaviour includes gestures, facial expressions, eye contact and gaze, posture and movement, touch, dress, silence, the use of space and time, objects and artifacts, and paralanguage. Non-verbal behaviour is inextricably intertwined with verbal behaviour and often communicates as much or more meaning than the actual spoken words.

In order to achieve a successful communication, one needs to have knowledge of social and language rules and apply them appropriately in various contexts named communicative competence. The term communicative competence was first introduced by Hymes (1972) and he defined it as the knowledge of both rules of grammar and rules of language use appropriate to a given context. A language user must possess an ability or competence to understand when to speak, when not, how, where, to whom, in what manner stated by Hymes (1987). Diaz-Rico and Weed (2010) also defined that communicative competence is a feature of a language user's knowledge of the language that allows the user to know "when, where, and how to use language appropriately". For Kwon (2004), the ability to perform various speech acts is an important part of the development of communicative competence.

Compliments and compliment responses are one of the most frequently occurring communicative acts in everyday lives. (Herbert. 1990, Holmes. 1987 ; 1988, Manes and Wolfson. 1981 ; 1983, Pomerantz. 1978). Each speech act is highly complex and variable, with important cultural information embedded in it (Wolfson. 1989). According to Holmes and Brown (1987), paying and responding to compliments appropriately and identifying them accurately are aspects of communicative competence which may differ in a variety of ways from one culture to another. Thus, communicative competence is important to know the cultural values and to communicate successfully in a foreign language speech community.

Canal and Swain (1980) classified four components under the heading of communicative competence: 1) Grammatical Competence, 2) Discourse Competence, 3) Sociolinguistic Competence and 4) Strategic Competence. These four components function for language production. And in addition, Pragmatic competence "socio-cultural rules of use" is also included in this model under sociolinguistic competence. Pragmatic knowledge, however, is an important part of "communicative competence" (Hymes. 1974).

### **1. Grammatical Competence**

Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of the language code, “knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics, and phonology” (Canal and Swain. 1980 : 29, quoted in Brown, D. 1987 : 199) which helps to promote accuracy and fluency in second language production (Gao. 2001).

### **2. Discourse Competence**

Discourse competence refers to the knowledge of achieving coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written text. Moreover, it is the ability to interpret the larger content and construct understandable conversation and language.

### **3. Sociolinguistic Competence**

Sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge or understanding of the socio-cultural rules of use in a particular context in which communication takes place, including role relationship, the shared knowledge of the participants, and the communicative purpose for their interaction (Savignon. 1983).

### **4. Strategic Competence**

Strategic competence refers to the knowledge of how to use communication strategies to handle breakdowns in communication. It is a speaker’s ability related to verbal and non-verbal language and communication techniques to maintain, repair or prevent communication breakdowns due to misunderstanding and miscommunication.

### **5. Pragmatic Competence**

Pragmatic competence is defined as the ability to communicate effectively and involves knowledge beyond the level of grammar (Thomas. 1983). Pragmatic knowledge is information of how to use language, sometimes referred to as the “social rules of speaking” (Wolfson. 1989).

## **2.4 Cultural Influences and Effects**

Language and culture are deeply influenced and reflected as the language describes culture and vice versa, culture also represents the language. Sapir (1968) explained that “language is a guide to ‘social reality’ (and) a symbolic guide to culture; the structures of various languages reflect different cultural patterns and values, and in turn, affect how people understand and respond to social phenomena.

According to Porter and Samovar (1991), “social environment is culture, and if we are to truly understand communication, we must also understand culture”.

Compliments are highly culturally appropriate behavior and the compliment responses depend on the knowledge of the socio-cultural norms of language use than the common language use. Differences in the use of pragmatic strategies in general and compliments/compliment responses in particular have increasingly been in the focus of research especially as “mirrors of cultural values” Manes (1983).

The Inner circle, the United States of America is one of the Western countries and the Outer circle, Singapore and the Expanding or Extending circle, Myanmar are Southeast Asian countries and a great number of differences lie between Western and Eastern countries such as language, culture, worldview, religion, lifestyle, food, etc. The major difference found between Western and Asian compliment responses is that the former tends to accept the compliment, while the latter tends to amend or reject it. Holmes (1986) suggested that compliments are generally paid and appreciated in the Western culture. Americans are much more likely to make spontaneous favorable comments about themselves (Holmberg, Markus, Herzog, and Franks. 1997). On the other hand, in the Eastern culture, when compliments are paid, they are either rejected or denied (Gu. 1990 and Chen. 1993). Since Asian culture is more likely to value sameness to blend themselves with others to be harmonized in social relations, they are more accurately aware of the feelings of others than the Western culture.

This study assumes that compliment responses strategies used by Myanmar people in foreign countries may differ from those in their native country Myanmar for residing in a foreign country needs to make cultural adjustments, produce and understand the language in order to build up good communication. Individuals acquire a bicultural perspective by integrating at least some of the ideas and values of the other culture into their own way of thinking Perry (1999). Therefore, Myanmar people in the foreign countries should better aware the differences and relationships between the language and culture then, integrate or adapt communication strategies to the norms of the host culture to have smoother intercultural communication. Gay (2010) also supported that the languages used in different cultural systems strongly influence how people think, know, feel, and do.

## 2.5 Kachru's Three Concentric Circles of English (1985)

The rapid spread of English as a language of a communication has no doubt stimulated interesting but at the same time controversial debate about the status of English in its varieties, which are commonly called World Englishes (Kachru. 1985). Kachru's Three Concentric Circles of English was firstly published in 1985 and it becomes the most influential model of the spread and categorization of English in the world. Kachru categorized World Englishes into three concentric circles, the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding or Extending Circle that represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages (Kachru. 1985 : 12).

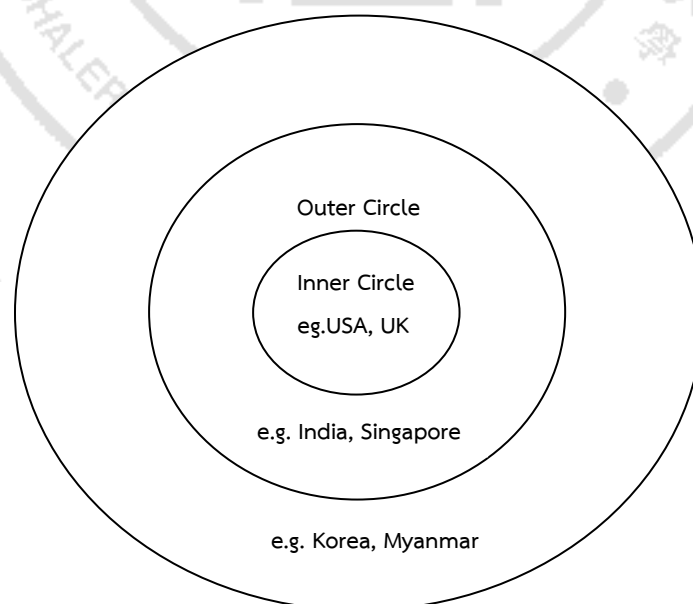
**The Inner Circle (English as a Native Language):** The English spoken in the Inner Circle is said to be “norm-providing” or English as Native Language (ENL) which represents the traditional historical and sociolinguistic origins of English in the regions where it is used as a first or native/ mother language including the United Kingdom, Ireland, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The total number of native English speakers in the inner circle is as high as 380 million and around 120 million are outside the United States of America.

**The Outer Circle (English as a Second Language):** The English spoken in the Outer Circle is said to be “norm-developing” or English as Second Language (ESL), representing the world formerly colonized by Britain and the United States in Asia and Africa. For this reason, English is spread in the earlier years in non-native English countries and now it is used as a second language in these regions since English plays a crucial historical and governmental role in multilingual settings of African and Asian societies such as Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria, Jamaica, Zambia, Pakistan, Malaysia, Malawi, Tanzania, Sri Lanka, India, Singapore, Bangladesh, South Africa, the Philippines, used in more than 50 countries with estimated range from 150 million to over 400 million speakers. Although Kachru's three circles of English continue to serve as a useful initial stepping stone for division of Englishes, shortcomings and variations have been indicated by several authors, including Kachru himself. Kachru (1996) differentiated between two groups of English varieties of norm-providing (including both ENL and ESL varieties) vs. norm-dependent (EFL varieties)

and he classified both Indian and Singaporean English (Outer Circle) as norm-providing, and, along with Australian English (Inner Circle).

**The Expanding or Extending Circle (English as a Foreign Language):** The English spoken in the Expanding Circle is said to be “norm-dependent” or English as Foreign Language (EFL), representing the areas in which English is primarily used as a medium of international communication. People from those areas recognize the importance of English and teach English as a foreign language; though they do not have a history of colonization by members of the inner circle nor have they given English any special administrative status nor they have learnt English for no purposes within their own communities. Countries in this circle include Israel, Japan, China, Egypt, Korea, Nepal, Russia, Taiwan, Indonesia, Zimbabwe, Saudi Arabia, Western Europe, Greece, Thailand, Myanmar and others with the estimation of the language users is from 100 million to one billion. The total number of the expanding circle is the most difficult to estimate because of this group is language users are from the rest of the world’s population apart from the first two circles and the use of English is specific and limited.

**Diagram 1** Model of Kachru’s Three Concentric Circles of English



## 2.6 Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is a study of language in relation to social factors, including differences of regional, class, and occupational dialect, gender differences, and bilingualism, defined similarly in the dictionaries. According to McKay (2005), sociolinguistics is a field of linguistics that studies the relation between language and social factors and how they are used in different situations. Sociolinguistics is concerned with investigating the relationships between language and society with the goal being a better understanding of the student of language and of how languages function in communication (Wardhaugh. 2010). Trudgill (2000) stated that the aim of sociolinguistic investigation is to achieve a further progress in the knowledge of nature and the operation of human language by the study of language in its social context.

## 2.7 Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

Discourse Completion Test (DCT) is the data collection instrument used in this research composed of 9 complimenting scenarios attracting the compliment reposes from the participants. DCT that is one of the major data collection instruments in pragmatic research, a written questionnaire containing short descriptions of a particular situation intended to reveal the pattern of a speech act being studied (Kasper and Dahl. 1991). Another definition for DCT is that a set of brief situational descriptions designed to elicit a particular speech act (Kasper and Rose. 2001).

There are a number of advantages for using DCTs and are listed in the following. A large number of relevant and sufficient data can be collected in a short period, faster than interviews or note taking which can avoid memorization of the researcher and accuracy problem. DCT is a substitution of recording devices such as video or voice recorder, sometimes make the participants uncomfortable since they feel that they are being spied (Wiersma. 1986). As cited in Nurani (2009), data can be collected and directly compared the results by different groups of participants in the same situation. Kwon (2004) noted that DCT is a controlled elicitation data method so that participants can vary their response because the situations are developed with status embedded in the situations.

On the other hand, there are some weaknesses of DCTs as well since they are not as reliable as authentic discourse, naturally occurring responses. Manes and

Wolfson (1980), Kasper and Dahl (1991), and Cohen (1996) suggested that the most reliable data collection instrument which will lead to the proximity of actual linguistic performance is authentic discourse. Rintell and Mitchell (1989) found out the result in oral-mode (role-play) that participants exhibit longer responses than output from written response (DCT). In other words, there are no real consequences for both speaker and hearer on DCT since the real interaction such as pragmatic cues, paralinguistic and non-verbal features are absence. (cited in Nurani. 2009 : 670)

The use of DCT was considered based on the strengths and weaknesses presented above. Finally, DCT questionnaire was finalized for setting up the topics and scenarios that compliments occurred and to observe the use of compliment responses strategies by the participants. Moreover, it gives sufficient time to the participants to think the responses and they can also avoid language mistakes by using a DCT.

## **2.8 Previous Research Studies on Compliment Responses**

### **2.8.1 Previous Research Studies by the Pioneers**

Pomerantz (1978) was the first person who discussed compliment responses from a pragmatic perspective and she proposed two types of most influential conversational principles of compliment responses:

- 1) the recipients to agree with and/or accept the compliment of the speaker
- 2) the recipients avoid self-praise.

In her studies, she observed that most of the compliment responses cause conflicts which lie somewhere in between acceptance and agreement, on the other hand; there is rejection and disagreement. She revealed the conflicts of her stated principles in two conditions. In the first condition, if the recipient accepts the compliment, they praise themselves and violate self-praise. In the second condition, if the recipient avoid self-praise, they disagree the compliment of the complimenter, so; they violate the first principle. She concluded that the production of compliment responses is influenced by the interaction among multiple constraint system and neither of them contributes to the social solidarity of the relationship.

Urano (1998) later explained that when a recipient of a compliment responds by agreeing with the speaker (Condition A), it violates Condition B as this response



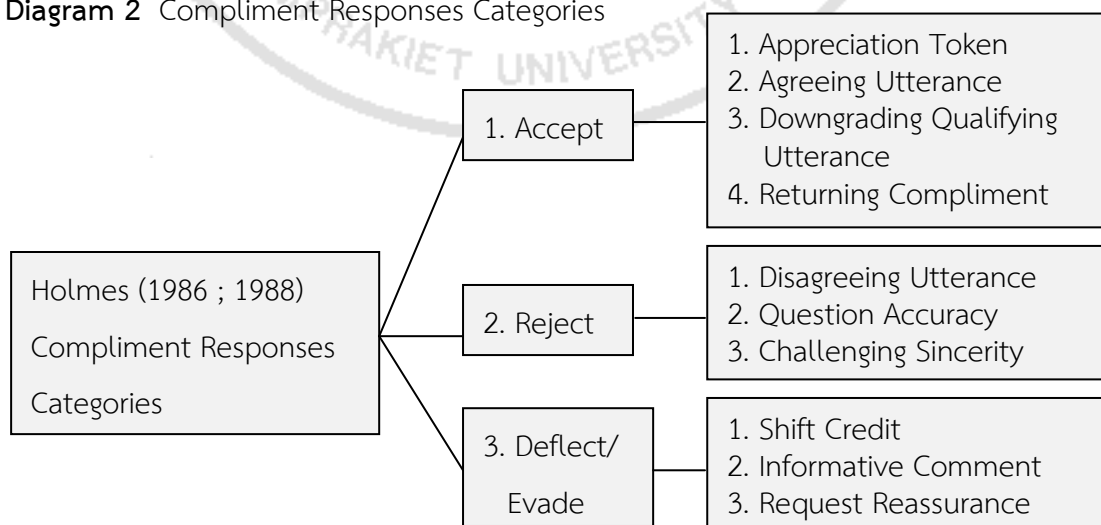
goes against the sociolinguistic expectations of the speaker. On the other hand, if the speaker doesn't accept the compliment to avoid self-praise, the response will be face-threatening since it violates Condition A. Finally, Urano concluded three main solutions for the recipients of compliments to solve the conflicts: 1) Acceptance, 2) Rejection, and 3) Self-praise avoidance.

Manes and Wolfson (1980) examined a corpus of compliments uttered in daily conversation in American English and they observed that there are high rates of both syntactic and semantic levels. They studied three main syntactic patterns where five positive evaluative adjectives- nice, good, pretty, beautiful and great and two verbs- like and love are highly used in compliments. Their final conclusion is that compliments are highly formulaic, both in syntactic form and in lexical items which carry positive evaluation. Three main syntactic patterns of Manes and Wolfson are as follows:

- 1) NP is/looks (really) ADJ (E.g., "That shirt is really nice")
- 2) I really like/love NP (E.g., "I really love your hair")
- 3) DET/PRON is (really) (a/an) ADJ NP (E.g., "That is really a great meal")

Holmes (1986 ; 1988) developed three main categories of compliment responses: Accept, Reject, and Deflect or Evade in terms of Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory. There are three macro levels and sub-categories in micro levels as in Diagram 2.

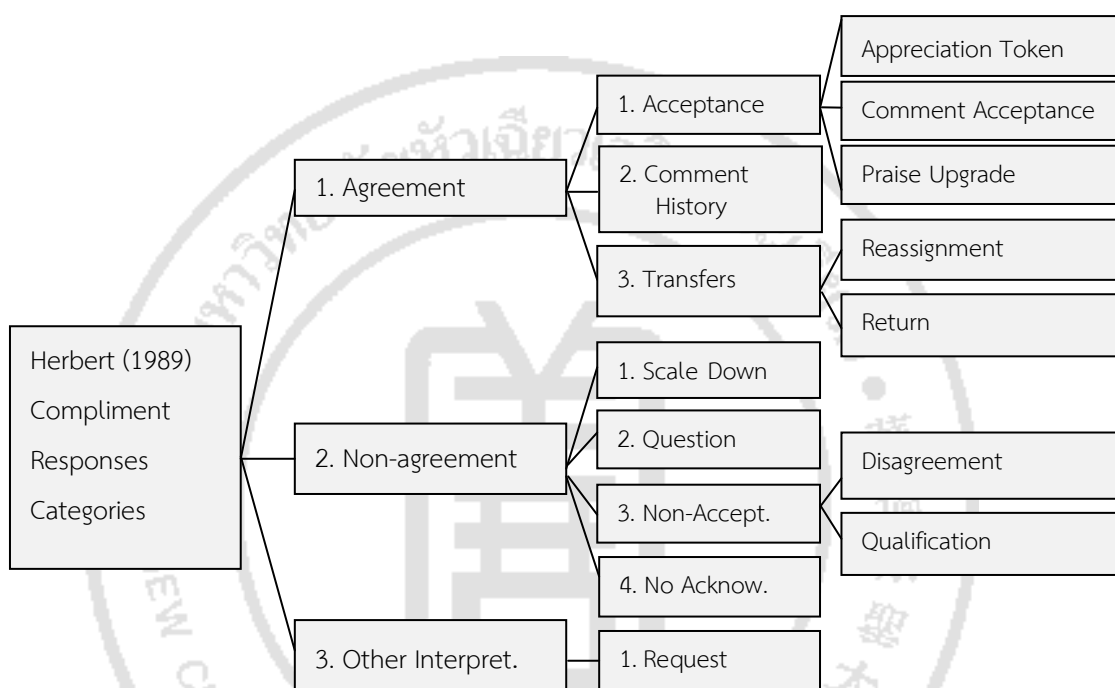
**Diagram 2** Compliment Responses Categories



**Source:** Holmes. 1986 : 485-508 ; 1988 : 445-465.

Herbert (1989) based on Pomerantz's taxonomy and revised by analyzing American English speakers' compliment responses and ended up with a three-main category: Agreement, Non-agreement and Request Interpretation with twelve sub-types taxonomy of compliment responses as shown in Diagram 3.

**Diagram 3** Compliment Responses Categories



**Source:** Herbert. 1989 : 3-35.

Cedar (2006) based on Chiang and Pochtrager's (1993) compliment responses categories and added two more categories: Smiling (laughing) and No Response in her research. There are seven types of compliment responses according to Cedar: 1) Acceptance, 2) Positive Elaboration, 3) Neutral Elaboration, 4) Negative Elaboration, 5) Denial, 6) Smiling (laughing) and 7) No Response.

### 2.8.2 Current Research Studies

Speech act of compliment and compliment response researches has been conducted from different point of view that some researchers have learnt compliments and compliment responses from cross cultural aspects and some have been carried out from second or foreign language learning situations. There are a large number of comparative studies based on pragmatic perspectives, cross cultural

perspectives and sociolinguistic norms have been carried out to compare compliment responses in different strategies, languages and language varieties.

Daikuhara (1986) collected 115 compliment exchanges of natural conversation by 50 native Japanese and the findings suggested that the addresser give great respect to the recipient creating a distance between the interlocutors. The recipients form rejecting or deflecting compliment responses in order to sustain social harmony. Kim (2003) also examined how language and culture play among Korean and Japanese EFL learners' in giving and responding compliments in English. The research is based on online chatting in English between two groups focusing on Four Types of Compliments: 1) Appearance/ Clothing, 2) Performance/ Ability, 3) Personal Traits and 4) Country. The results are significantly similar between Korean and Japanese such as denial and no response/acknowledgement, evidencing the native-like speech production. In a study of English and Korean compliments and compliment responses, Baek (1998 as cited in Kim, n.d) found out the acceptance rates of compliment responses in non-western languages were much lower than those in English speaking communities. Speakers of Asian languages, on the other hand, were likely to reject compliments (Urano. 1998).

Shih's (1986) studied a comparison between American and Chinese compliment functions and behaviors and classified three types of Chinese compliment responses: 1) rejection, 2) acceptance, 3) compromise. She found out that the rejection type is the most common and acceptance is the least in Chinese and concluded that Chinese value modesty in order to be polite which is influenced by various social factors such as sex, age, intimacy and social context. Chen (1993) also studied similar to Shih (1986) and the results came up with that Americans use acceptance strategy while Chinese use rejection and self-denigration where American society receives compliments gracefully but Chinese social norm appears to be modest. When Jing and Liying (2005), a comparative study on Chinese learners of English and American English speakers' compliment responses is compared with Chen (1993), the results are surprisingly different with great changes such as agreeing compliments taking place over rejecting compliments.

Gajseni (1994) compared the compliment responses by Americans and Thais. The result of the research indicated that Acceptance is frequently occurred in both groups but Americans tend to use more than Thais. Moreover, Americans like to give longer responses by combining strategies in one response, or by using the same strategy. Cedar (2006) contrasted the compliment responses used by Thais and Americans and she found out that while Americans tended to accept compliments and elaborate positively in their responses, Thais refrained from elaborating and used formulaic expressions. In her studies, some of the Thai compliment responded by simply smiling, and no utterance was made when given a compliment for pleasure, acceptance, friendliness, and situation-soothing while American participants smile to show their friendliness. In German and American compliment responses research, results showed that Americans' social factors is more important than their truthfulness of their compliments while Germans are more oriented to the content and truthfulness of the language use than the social function (Bymes. 1986 and Golato. 2002).