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**VARIATION IN THE PERFORMANCE OF SPEECH ACTS
IN PENINSULAR SPANISH:
APOLOGIES AND REQUESTS**

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Interdepartmental Program in Linguistics

by

Laura Elizabeth Stapleton
B.A., Mississippi College, 1992
M.A., University of Mississippi, 1994
August 2004

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my family, friends, and colleagues. You all have provided the motivation for me to complete this project, and I truly thank you all. To my family- no matter what I do in life, you are the rock of my stability and always help me keep my head on straight. To Melanie, Miguelito, Kim, and Francisco- I appreciate the constant support and encouragement through your phone calls, hugs and e-mails during this process. You will never know how special you all are to me and how much I love you all. To my colleagues at Mississippi College- you have given me “heart” when I felt discouraged and supplied smiles to keep me happy while completing this chapter in my life. I appreciate your wisdom and unconditional support during this adventure. Thank you all!

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ABSTRACT

This study examines variations in the performance of speech acts and additional discourse features in situational speech patterns of Peninsular Spanish. Based on studies by Blum-Kulka, et al. (1989), nine situations were created, varying from less severe to more severe, to elicit natural responses for apologies and requests. Forty participants from Castile and Andalusia were interviewed, and the data were coded to examine the differences in speech act realizations and the use of specific discourse features. The participants' responses were classified by regional, gender, and age differences for the data set. Sociolinguistic differences in the use of additional discourse features were also compared, examining the use of alerters, personal address items, intensifiers, polite markers, hedges, accepting responsibility, offering repair, and the expression of need. In part three of this study, native speaker judgments and metalinguistic discussions were conducted to test the speech act data of participants from Castile and Andalusia and to verify the acceptability of the responses.

Results show that in the performance of speech acts, little variation is seen for region, gender, and age. The speech acts for apologies and requests are formulaic in nature, and only change with situational variation. Likewise, even though some differences exist, there is no statistical significance in the use of additional discourse features according to region, gender, and age. The use of these discourse features provides information for Spanish language variation and in the areas of linguistic politeness and language and gender. Results from the metalinguistic discussions provide qualitative data, supporting the findings of speech act realizations. Further investigation is suggested modifying targeted speech acts and situational contexts.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Research in Spanish language variation has been focused on different aspects of language (phonology, morphology, lexicon, and syntax) and has been conducted in the fields of dialectology, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. Studies from a dialectology perspective have addressed variation of ‘standard’ Spanish in the acrolect compared to the basilect spoken on the streets, and isogloss indexes were often composed for regions. In Spain, the regions of Castile, Andalusia, and the Canary Islands have been studied heavily based on dialect variance of speakers in the lexicon (i.e. Arabic, Latin, and North African influences) and phonology (i.e. contrast of the *seseo* [s] and *ceceo* [θ], or *lleísmo* of the palatal [ʎ]). In Caribbean, South American, and Mexican Spanish dialects, the contrast has been similar. The focus has been on the lexicon (i.e. influences from English, Indian languages, and Caribbean creoles) and phonological patterns (i.e. final /s/ deletion or aspiration; contrasting the *lleísmo* [ʎ], *yeísmo* [ɲ], and *zheísmo* [ʒ] in the word *calle*). Some of the research includes Vaz de Soto (1981), Goilo (1974), Zamora Munné et al (1982, 1976), and Alvar (1959, 1980, 2000), where the primary goal in the research was to create isoglosses of where particular features were found and where the contrasting features existed.

Research from a sociolinguistic perspective has often addressed speakers who have multiple dialects of Spanish. The focus has been on the use of those dialects within particular registers (formal, informal, domestic, intimate). Other variables have included age differences, urban vs. rural language, and social class. Some of the research includes Hornberger (1991), Fishman (1967, 1972), Kany (1960), Lope Blanch and J. Lope

(1977), Hensey (1972), and Rosenblaut (1987). This research focused on different uses of Spanish within particular environments, such as bilingual communities, certain euphemisms and profanity items used by particular speakers, and dialect diversity according to register differences (i.e. formal vs. informal language; written vs. spoken language).

In applied linguistics the general focus has been on the acquisition of Spanish in an L2 (second language) environment, which is not relevant for this study. The previous research in dialectology and sociolinguistics has provided a foundation for establishing language patterns throughout the Spanish-speaking world, both Peninsular and in the Americas. Studies in discourse analysis and pragmatic usage of the Spanish language, however, are far less abundant in comparison. These pragmatic studies provide information used to delineate this study. Further discussion of previous research in these areas is found in Chapter 2- Review of Relevant Research Studies.

1.1 Rationale of Study

This study focuses on pragmatic usage of Peninsular Spanish, specifically on the performance of speech acts, and is divided into a three-part investigation. In the first part, the classification of speech act realization is explained, focusing on the formulation of an apology or making a request. This classification is based on speech act theory explained by Searle (see section 2.3.1.1). In the second part, sociolinguistic features are compared and contrasted by region, gender, and age for all apologies and requests. The study addresses two dialect regions in Spain, Castile and Andalusia, compares the speech of men and women, as well as, the speech patterns in young and old speakers. Because of the inherit nature of apologies and requests, politeness and directness of speech are

also examined and discussed by region, gender, and age. In the third part, data from parts one and two is taken for further discussion with native speakers to serve as metalinguistic language judgments for the study. The need for this type of study exists, based on previous literature within the fields of Spanish language variation and pragmatics and the huge void present in these areas for Peninsular Spanish.

1.2 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to examine Spanish speakers from Castile and Andalusia and to see how individuals vary in the use of speech acts, based on different situations of apologies and requests. It also serves to explain sociolinguistic differences in region, gender, and age of Spanish speakers while making apologies and requests and in using additional discourse features of language. Finally, the study highlights metalinguistic judgment data from native speakers, strengthening the findings from speech act classification and sociolinguistic differences. The findings of this study will provide useful data for describing Spanish language variation and language use in different contexts. The results may also be used to show how men and women use language differently. The findings may also be used in research on politeness and speech act realization, along with the use of extralinguistic features.

The remainder of this dissertation discusses the literature of previous work in the areas of Spanish language variation, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and linguistic politeness. A discussion of sociolinguistic issues and a section on methodology follows, detailing the research design and the procedures for the study. Finally, the results for speech act classification, sociolinguistic variation, metalinguistic judgments, and linguistic politeness are given followed by a section of discussion and a conclusion.

1.3 Graphical Representation of Study

In order to give an overview of the study, it is often best to use a visual mapping to explain the direction of research. Within the field of Spanish language variation, much investigation has been done in the variation of phonology, morphology, lexical features and syntax, including Peninsular and other dialects of Spanish. However, far less research is present in the studies of use of language in the fields of pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

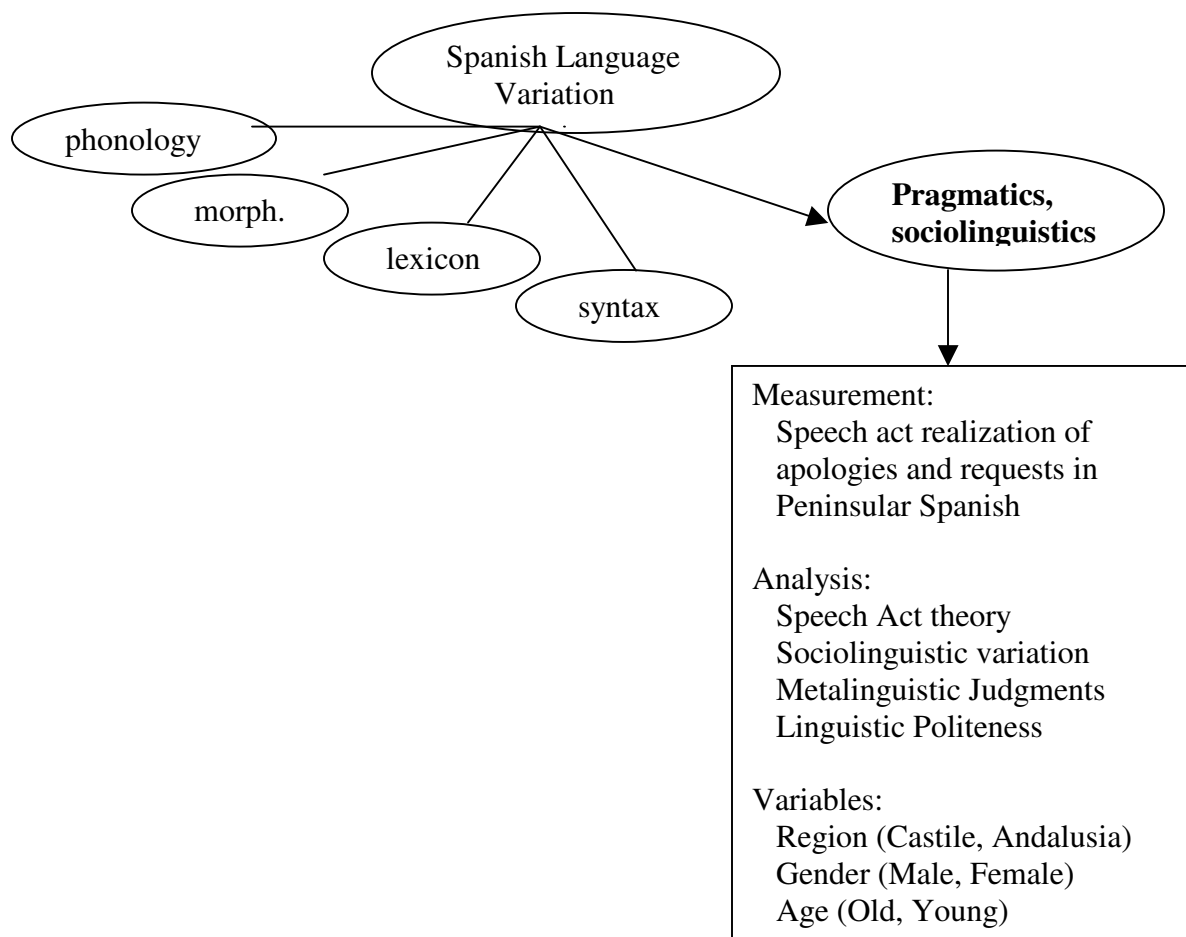


Figure 1.1 Visual Representation of Research Design

To summarize, this study examines the production and classification of speech acts, specifically the formulation of apologies and making requests. It also shows sociolinguistic variation due to region, gender, and age, and analyzes the metalinguistic judgments of native speakers. Finally, it discusses the notion of linguistic politeness among speakers of Peninsular Spanish.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELEVANT RESEARCH STUDIES

To further explain the previous work done in Spanish language variation and to provide background for this study, a brief literature review is given in the major areas of Spanish language variation, sociolinguistics and dialectology, pragmatics, and linguistic politeness. This is not an exhaustive list within each area, but rather a description of the primary work in relation to this study.

2.1 Spanish Language Variation

In Spanish language variation, several studies have been done on dialectology, ranging from phonological differences, lexical differences, syntactical differences, and morphological differences. These include both Peninsular and New World Spanish of the Caribbean and the Americas. Major studies in Peninsular Spanish include Zamora Vicente (1960) and López García (1983) in Spanish dialectology and the work done by Alvar (1959, 1980, 2000) on the Spanish of Tenerife, Andalusia and other parts of Spain, as well as contrasts in American Spanish. In these studies, specific features of Spanish, such as the use of lexical items and noted phonological differences were described. Particular sociolinguistic aspects were not studied. The Spanish of the Caribbean and the Americas has been highly studied, primarily from a phonological perspective. Some major works include Lipski (1983, 1985, 1994) and Navarro Tomás (1948) in Caribbean Spanish and Latin American Spanish; Terrell (1979, 1982, 1986) and Poplack (1980) in Caribbean Spanish variations; Solé (1990) in South American Spanish; Lope Blanch (1967, 1968, 1981, 1990), Alonso, A. (1961), and Zamora Munné & Guitart (1982) in Mexican and American Spanish; and López Morales (1970, 1979) with particular

indigenous words found in the Spanish of the Americas. The underlying theme in these studies is the variation inherent in the Spanish language because of regional influences and lexical and/or phonological features present. The syntactical differences are primarily studied and compared in two dialects of Spanish (i.e. the syntactical differences in Mexican vs. Puerto Rican Spanish).

2.2 Sociolinguistics and Dialectology

Numerous studies have been done both in the United States and in Spanish speaking countries concerning the variables found in sociolinguistics. The foundations of sociolinguistics are based on research done by Labov (1972, 1972b, 1994) with particular interest in inner city English; Fishman (1972) with bilingualism issues; Milroy (1987), Hudson (1980) and Hymes (1974) with social network issues in English; Bailey and Shuy (1973) and Romaine (1988, 1994) with Creole languages and dialect speakers; and Ferguson (1959) with research done on diglossia and the concept of register adjustment. These findings show that variables such as age, gender, and SES (socio-economic status) do affect language in some manner. Major studies in Spanish sociolinguistics have focused on the Caribbean and the Americas. These include Silva-Corvalán (1982, 1989, 1994, 2001), Solé (1991), Hornberger (1991), Coles (1991), D’Introno and Sosa (1979), Bentivoglio and Sedano (1993), Escobar (1978), Fishman, Cooper, and Ma (1971), García (1998), Koike (1987), López Morales (1979), Myers-Scotton (1993), Zentella (1997). These Spanish studies address language differences based on social level, educational level, and status of language choice. They also discuss the differences in age of speaker and gender of speaker. This research offer fundamental elements used for this study, such as design and methodology of study, as well as participant profile choices.

2.2.1 Labov's Approach to the Observer's Paradox

Because of the magnitude and importance of the work done by Labov, further discussion is merited concerning methodologies of gathering sociolinguistic data. Labov's (1972, 1972b, 1972c) pioneering work on the social stratification of English and language of the inner city is crucial for the field of sociolinguistics. The primary question posed as a result of his research is how to best gather data for linguistic analysis. Labov developed the term "observer's paradox" which addresses the idea of validity of data and speech samples while being observed. Do informants change language in the presence of the investigator? Would language be different only with peers and within social network groups? If the investigator were a part of the peer group, would the results be different? Through these questions, Labov approached the observer's paradox and formulated particular methods of gathering data.

Labov noticed variation in the speech of his informants based on the style of speech, or linguistic register, of the social setting and based on the context of the discussion. Labov found that there were four basic styles of speech that informants used during interview processes: careful speech (question-answer type), reading style (selected passage), formal style (word lists), and more formal style (minimal pairs of words). In these four styles, informants are cognitively aware that language is being judged and are often more careful of what is said. Labov's attempt in defeating the observer's paradox was to gather data in a casual or spontaneous speech style, where informants forget that language is being assessed. While some criticize the work of Labov suggesting that it is impossible to gather "real" data without getting some form of careful speech, his methodologies were used for this study.

2.2.2 Native Speaker Judgments

An integral part of capturing and acquiring the most authentic data is an awareness on the part of the interviewee of the peer and social environment, as well as the relationship between the interviewee and the investigator. Because this researcher is a nonnative speaker, it was critical that data be gathered in the most authentic way possible and examined by native speakers both before and after gathering data. As a part of this study, metalinguistic judgments on the previously gathered sociolinguistic data are used for several purposes. First and foremost, the native speakers served to verify the responses gathered in speech act and sociolinguistic data. Given the situation and response, would speakers produce these utterances in Spain? Would the utterances be produced by men, women, young, or old, or does it matter? These questions were used to compensate for the nonnative aspect of the investigation. Secondly, native speakers were used to verify the data on tape transcriptions. Do the native speakers agree with the transcriptions? Are there in-group phrases that were missed by the nonnative investigator? These questions were all addressed based on the methodologies of Labov and were used to gather the most casual data possible.

2.3 Pragmatics

2.3.1 Speech Acts

As one of the basic tenets and phenomena of pragmatics, speech act theory has been examined in many fields, including philosophy (Austin, 1962; and Searle, 1969, 1979) anthropology, sociolinguistics, and linguistics (Sadock, 1974; Bach & Harnish, 1979). While research differs on how speech acts are examined, the underlying theory loosely remains the same- when used in appropriate situations, speech acts are actions

performed through words. Further discussion of the theory of Speech Acts follows below:

2.3.1.1 Austin and Searle

Speech act theory was developed by philosopher John Austin in an attempt to explain how particular utterances operate within natural language. Austin (1962) was interested in how words seemed not only to provide information and facts, but also how these words seemed to carry action. He wanted to differentiate between phrases like (1) “I see a boy” and (2) “I promise that I will come tomorrow” for example. In the first example (1), the speaker provides information about what is in sight and nothing more. In example (2), however, the speaker not only gives information about plans tomorrow, but also offers a promise. This phrase “I promise..” operates differently because of the force contained within the words. Austin classified these special types of “force-words” as performatives, which contrasted with normal statements and assertions like in (1). Other examples include, “I *beg, warn, apologize, declare...*” In other words, by using these performatives, the speaker is performing the utterance.

After recognizing the special functions of performatives, Austin’s next task was to distinguish these performatives from assertions and other utterances. Austin posited that there were rules for using the performatives so that the force of utterance would be valid. For one, the use of first person is necessary. The force of saying (3) “She promises to be here” cannot function as a speech act performative because the speaker has no control over another person in order to fulfill the promise. Another rule applying to the performatives is that of authority. If someone shouts from the crowd, (4) “You’re out!” at a baseball game, the force of that performative is unfulfilled because of lack of

authority in the speaker. In that situation, only the umpire can say these words to fulfill the speech act. After analyzing how performatives fail when “infelicitous”, Austin formulated certain conditions for these underlying rules of performatives. He called these conditions felicity conditions for performatives, but how were other utterances addressed?

After formulating the felicity conditions for performatives, Austin compared utterances using the felicity conditions and tested truth statements to measure validity of the utterance. For example, if a speaker says, (5) “I swear that the President lives in Kansas”, he is using a performative that represents truth for his belief system in “I swear...” but the true value of the utterance may be seen as either true or false. When dissecting the utterance (5) further, the performative phrase remains true because the speaker may truly believe that the president lives in Kansas, but the subordinate sentence, when taken alone, is false. From this notion of felicity and truth statements, Austin realized that speech acts must be further explained by dividing them in separate categories because one could not always distinguish between a true performative and other utterances.

Austin, realizing that actions within words were not always transparent, restructured his classification of performatives into three kinds of acts (Levinson, 1983). The first type is the locutionary act. In simple terms, the locutionary act is the basic act of making an utterance containing a literal meaning. The utterance must contain comprehensible meaning for it to be accepted as a locutionary act. If someone said (6) “wellnnib yhleer”, the utterance would be gibberish for hearers because there is no

meaning in what was said. Besides that, as Austin suggested, a person doesn't customarily say things without a purpose.

The second type of speech act is the illocutionary act. Austin describes this as the act of making a bet, or a promise, or an offer, etc. by applying the force carried within the performatives, either directly or indirectly. This type of act requires the felicity conditions and truth-value testing to carry the force of the performative. So in saying (7) "I'll bet you \$20" the speaker is performing a locutionary act by stating the utterance, as well as an illocutionary act of making the bet. Lastly, speech acts can be classified as perlocutionary acts. This type of act is the effect of the utterance received by the hearer in the given situation. For example, if John screams to Paul (8) "Shut the door!", the perlocutionary act would be effective if Paul shut the door. Most of the research done on speech acts by Austin and others has been focused on the second type of act, illocutionary acts, and the illocutionary force indicting devices (IFIDs). Austin's notion of meaning of locutionary and illocutionary acts and the force in perlocutionary acts has been challenged by some in the fields of philosophy and semantics regarding reference, implicature, and truth conditions (Strawson, 1974; Davis, 1979; Récanati, 1980), but since these criticisms do not ultimately affect the argument of this dissertation, they will not be discussed now.

From the foundations of Austin, Searle (1969, 1979) further developed the theory of speech acts. Like Austin, Searle et al. (1980) state, "the theory of speech acts starts with the assumption that the minimal unit of human communication is not a sentence, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts". However, Searle argued that the felicity conditions established by Austin were not alone sufficient for speech acts because one

could not merely test a list of performative verbs and truth statements to determine the force of the utterance. Rather Searle formulated a set of conditions to assist in understanding speech acts, as well as explaining how to make them felicitous. The first condition is the propositional content. This is often compared to Austin's locutionary act because this entails meaning of the utterance itself based on context. So given the utterance (8) "I warn you not to go", the propositional content is that the speaker provides a warning that refers to a future event. For this condition to be felicitous, it must be appropriate for the given context and must be intended for the hearer's future. The utterance (9) "I warned you not to go" would not be felicitous because the speech event has already occurred. In other words, the property of propositional content intended for a warning must be in the present tense and in the first person; other wise, an utterance like in (9) would only be a statement of a previous speech act.

The second type of Searle's speech act conditions is the preparatory condition. This condition must be applied to the intentions of the speaker, which are difficult to analyze. The preparatory condition for the warning utterance (8) would mean that the speaker thinks that in the future, a certain event will occur and it is not in the hearer's best interest for him to go. The speaker in saying this also feels that it may not be obvious to the hearer that the event will not be in his best interest. The third type of felicity condition also applies to the intentions and feelings of the speaker. This third type is the sincerity condition. For this condition to be felicitous, when saying (8) the speaker must truly believe that the future event is not in the hearer's best interest.

Finally, the last type of felicity condition is the essential condition. This condition is most transparent because it serves as an attempt for the speaker to show that

the future event is not in the best interest of the hearer. This last condition is most essential because this is where the force of the utterance lies. It also combines the first three conditions, which are basic intentions of the speaker, and transforms them into an act of *warning*, or *promising*, or *betting*, etc. Hence, by analyzing the essential condition, the effect of the communicative utterance can be seen.

2.3.1.2 Classification Typology

While typologies of speech acts differ across field and philosophy, the Searle typology will be the basis for this study because of the broad classification of speech types. Criticisms of speech act classification and speech acts theory will be discussed after Searle's typology. Searle developed five basic kinds of speech acts that we use to express our communicative intent and purpose in speaking:

- representatives- basic assertions made by the speaker, which contain a truth-value on the proposition. If someone says, (10) "I state that the earth is flat", an assertion has been made, although the statement is false.
- directives- utterances made in an attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something for him. These directives may be expressed in different forms, such as in question form or in command form like (11) "Would you mind passing the salt?" or (12) "Pass the salt". In either case, the speaker wants the hearer to pass the salt.
- commissives- these actions commit the speaker to some future event or action. These also express what the speaker intends to do, such as promising, threatening, or swearing, i.e. (13) "I promise to be there in the morning". In using the

commissives, the speaker is making an understood contract with the hearer that will be carried out.

- expressives- these speech acts express psychological states within the speaker and tell how the speaker feels. Examples of expressives are statements of happiness (14) “Joy! Joy! Joy!” thanking someone (15) “Thanks”, apologizing (16) “I’m so sorry”, dislikes (17) “You bought me this?”, and pain (18) “Mother of Christ!”. These, of course, must be context dependent because the illocutionary and perlocutionary acts may be interpreted differently in alternative environments. Whereas the locutionary act of these expressives may be used for other categories, such as in (18) as in a response to the question (19) “Who was Mary?”, when taken in appropriate context, they operate as expressives.
- declaratives- these are statements made by authority, which cause immediate action from the utterance. These are only effective when stated by the appropriate authority. For example (20) “I hereby pronounce you man and wife” in turn officially causes the couple to be wed, and can take effect only if said by a priest or someone who carries authority to wed individuals.

Within this system, Searle addressed possible intentions of speakers and desired actions of the utterances for different situations. Others have offered alternative classifications and different typologies to expand on or argue dissent with Searle (Hancher, 1979; Bach & Harnish, 1979; Lyons, 1977). They argue that there are different levels of Speech Acts and that the classifications are not as easy to classify as suggested by Searle. They argue that it would be difficult to classify every utterance using the five classifications discussed above.

Much debate has been directed toward the classification of speech acts in general. Should the classification be driven from a semantics or pragmatics point of view? How does one analyze utterances that fall outside of the Searle realm of classification? Bierwisch (1980), in particular, criticizes the entire theory of speech acts, stating that human language is not solely used and intended for communication. He argues that language and communication can operate independently, like in the case of “monologues” and “non-verbal” communication between participants. Finally, he claims that speech act theory is only a “branch of the whole theory of communication....involving linguistic utterances, rather than a theory of language.” Wunderlich (1980) also suggests different criteria for speech act classification. First, speech acts should be arranged by “main grammatical moods” i.e. indicative, subjunctive, declarative, etc. and specific formulas of speech. Secondly, he suggests that speech acts should be classified by the “propositional content and satisfactory condition” so that outcomes can be measured. Finally, he says that speech acts should be coded by function and that “literal meaning should always be language-specific.” This reiterates the need for context to derive appropriate meaning, whether literal or non-literal, hence placing speech acts in the scope of pragmatics.

For this study, as stated earlier, the Searle taxonomy will be used for classification and analysis, focusing on speech acts of apologies and requests, which lie under expressives and directives. A pragmatic approach will be taken in this study, placing the utterance within context. Further discussion of speech act classification and speaker responses will include Sperber & Wilson’s relevance theory (see section 2.3.3), where some given utterances miss the targeted or desired speech act of an apology or requests,

but do communicate appropriately within the context. First, a brief summary of direct and indirect speech acts.

2.3.1.3 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

The Searle typology for speech acts described above is useful for an overall classification based on functions that are provided in the speech act. Within each category, there are differences in how the speech act is performed, either directly or indirectly. As Searle (1975) says, “The simplest cases of meaning are those in which the speaker utters a sentences and means exactly and *literally* (my emphasis) what he says.” In these cases, there is a direct correlation in the utterance type and the function, giving a direct speech act (DSA). Therefore, the utterances (21) “I apologize” and (22) “Give me your jacket!” would be DSAs because the type and function are related. In (21) the expressive is given and expresses an apology. In (22) the directive is used to order/direct someone to give a jacket. The essential condition is fulfilled in the “attempt for the addressee to perform the speaker’s intentions” by the predicate “Give me your jacket” (Clark & Carlson, 1982). Although this DSA (22) could be strengthened by the use of the performative as in (22b) “I command you to give me your jacket!”, the fact remains that the type (*directive*) and function (*commanding*) are related. This is contrasted with the statement (23) “I am a little cold” where the type of act (declarative) carries the function (stating for the purpose of getting the jacket).

In indirect speech acts (ISA), the form differs from the function. Usually in these cases, the ISA carries meaning in the utterance, but the intended force in the speech act has a secondary meaning also. As Searle states, (1975) “the speaker utters a sentence, means what he says, but also means something more.” The classic example (24) “Can

you pass the salt?” is clearly a case for ISA. The literal meaning of (24) refers to the ability of the hearer to pass the salt physically, while the intended meaning or perlocutionary effect of the utterance is for the hearer to pass the salt. Searle (1975) describes the ISA as “cases where one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another.”

Much debate has been focused on direct and indirect speech acts, questioning primarily the operations of indirect speech acts. One theory explaining certain types of ISA is the idiom theory, stating that ISAs are many times idioms of DSAs. The utterance (24) while in the literal sense refers to ability, proponents of the idiom theory suggest that this expression has become short-circuited to mean (25) “I request that you pass the salt”, which is a DSA. Several problems arise with the notion of ISAs as idioms. One problem with the idiom theory is that even with implied meaning, one can’t remove literal meaning of the utterance. The hearer, while likely to infer the idiomatic meaning of utterance (24), can also respond with (26) “Yes”, stating the ability to pass salt. A second problem with the idiom theory is that the ISAs can be stated in various ways to arrive at the same function. For example, returning to (24) “Can you pass the salt?”, a speaker may also use examples like (24b) “This soup sure is bland, mom”, or (24c) “Would you mind passing the salt?” or (24d) “Is salt within your reach?” As Searle (1975) explains, while these ISAs function idiomatically, they are not idioms.

Searle’s hypothesis and understanding of ISA is based on several factors, which take into account the idiom theory and other inferred uses of language, like irony and metaphor. Searle (1975) explains, “In indirect speech acts, the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared

background information ...together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer...(this requires) a theory of speech acts, certain general principles of cooperative conversation, and mutually shared factual background information.” Searle is clear in saying the secondary meaning derived from indirect speech acts requires participation from both the speaker and hearer.

In Clark (1979), six properties of ISAs are described based on the work of many researchers. These six properties summarize how ISAs function and will be useful in the analysis of conversation for this project. They are as follows: 1) ISAs have multiple meanings. There are literal and implied meanings. 2) ISAs follow logical priority of meanings. Since multiple meanings are available in the utterance, the most logical and salient one will be selected based on the given context. 3) ISAs are rational. Based on the principles of cooperativeness found in Grice (1968), speakers and hearers assume that the utterances are rational and according to the maxims set for conversation. 4) ISAs have conventionality. Speakers tend to speak idiomatically rather than directly. This idiomatic usage has become conventional, so “Can you reach the salt?” the ability is not questioned, but rather serves as an ISA for passing the salt. Finally ISAs are 5) polite and 6) purposeful. Based on the notion of linguistic politeness, explained later, the ISAs are used to fulfill a certain societal norm of indirectness and serve the purpose for meeting the speaker’s intentions. Further analysis of direct and indirect speech acts will be discussed in relation to politeness and directness and why speakers choose direct versus indirect speech acts.

Numerous studies have covered English pragmatics and speech acts including, but not limiting to Cohen & Perrault (1979), Clark (1979), Cole & Morgan (1975), Bach &

Harnish (1979), Clark & Carston (1982), and Haverkate (1984). These studies have focused on the use of speech acts, particularly the differences in direct and indirect speech acts, and in the communicative value of speech acts. Concerning the performance of Spanish speech acts, there is much less research available. Of the studies conducted in Spanish or concerning Spanish as a variable, the emphasis has been placed on Central and South America, as well as Spanish in the United States. Each study involving Spanish pragmatics and speech acts is listed below. Some of the methodology used in this Spanish research was adapted for this study of Peninsular Spanish. The primary studies concerning Spanish include Arellano (2000) "Requests in California Spanish"; Haverkate (1979, 1984) "Impositive sentences"; Hornberger (1989) "Speech event in Perú"; Placencia (1998) "Pragmatic variation in Ecuadorian vs. Peninsular Spanish"; LePair (1996) "Request strategies"; Nelson and Hall (1999) "Complimenting in Mexican Spanish"; Overfield (1991) "Apologies among L2 learners"; García (1989, 1992, 1993) "Requesting and refusing in Peruvian Spanish"; Bustamante-López and Niño- Murcia (1995) "Andean Spanish impositives"; Lorenzo-Dus (2001) "Compliments by British and Spanish University students". These studies provide information on strategies used by speakers while performing speech acts and are useful to compare with Peninsular Spanish, especially in the research done on apologies and requests.

2.3.2 Cooperative Principle

The cooperative principle, developed by Grice (1968), was derived from a philosophical point of view and the analysis of implicature. This notion of implicature is often compared to indirect speech acts because there is a conventional meaning in the utterance and often a conversational implicature where appropriate meaning is derived.

So for Grice, within an utterance, there are two types of meaning: “what is said and what is implied”. The literal meaning for an utterance would contain truth-value. The implied meaning is derived from another source, far beyond the literal meaning of the utterance. For example, if John asks Tom (27) “ Can you tell me the time?” and Tom responds, (28) “Well, the mail hasn’t run yet” an implicature has occurred. From the response, we can infer that Tom is answering John based on mutual knowledge of when the mail generally runs, perhaps at noon. So in Tom saying (28), John receives and answer. The implicature drawn, “to some degree, is based on cooperative efforts” of both participants (Grice, 1968). This notion of cooperative effort leads to the explanation of the Cooperative Principle.

Implicature can only be derived and processed with a clear understanding of the maxims of cooperative communicative behavior among participants. Grice attempted to explain how people participate in conversation based on a set of assumptions he formulated called maxims of conversation. These maxims instantiate a more general cooperative principle- “make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of talk exchange in which you are engaged.” There are four maxims: quantity, quality, relevance, and manner. In other words, speakers should say just enough, provide truth, be relevant, and present the information in the best possible way for the hearer. When participants obey the cooperative principle, general implicatures can be drawn because both parties are aware of the inference. Likewise, if any of these maxims are violated, flouted, or a speaker opts out, an inference or implicature can also be made. Grice formulates the implicature as:

Speaker says p to mean q , provided that he abides by the Cooperative Principle; and believes that by saying p , he has best conveyed his intentions.

One of the major criticisms of Grice and the Cooperative Principle is that implicatures must be worked out almost mathematically, either conventionally or conversationally. That distinction is not always possible, as Sadock (1978) suggests. Based on the tests designed to differentiate implicature- calculability, nondetachability, and cancellability- there is “no way of knowing for sure if an implicature is conventional or conversational.” Wilson & Sperber (1986, 1981) also criticize the notion of implicature presented by Grice. They suggest that to derive these implicatures, speakers and hearers must process too much information, and at times, the maxims involved in the implicature can clash, causing multiple implicatures. They propose an alternative view on conversational analysis based on the maxim of relevance (explained in section 2.3.3). Other criticism is discussed in Carston (1988), Récanati (1989), and Harnish (1976). Further description of implicature can be lengthy, and since this is not the topic for this study, the maxim of quantity is observed and further explanation is halted. However, key to this study is the notion of cooperativeness in conversation.

2.3.3 Relevance Theory

Sperber & Wilson (1986) also address human communication and conversation with the relevance theory. They take the maxims of conversation first discussed by Grice and reduce them to one- be relevant. Sperber & Wilson explain, that with the Cooperative Principle, speakers must know the maxims and norms to “communicate effectively, and speakers may violate norms to gain effects....In relevance theory, speakers do not follow rules.... they communicate by acts of ostensive communication,

therefore making everything a presumption of being relevant.” On the surface, the theory of relevance appears simple, but what does “being relevant” entail?

Relevance theory is based on a cognitive environment of understanding rather than tedious decoding of meaning and inference. As Searle suggested with indirect speech acts, both speaker and hearer should share mutual background information and equally participate in conversation. Sperber & Wilson further advance the concept of mutual background information by defining mutual cognitive environments. This allows for information, perhaps including some previously shared by speaker and hearer, to be manifest in both speaker and hearer, depending on the context of conversation. They say that with each “new utterance, a new context is created.” They go even further explaining that the context is “extended” by use of previous utterances, encyclopedic knowledge of the world, and additional information in conversational context.

Like the theory of speech acts, relevance theory aims to show that when speakers communicate, it occurs for a purpose. With speech acts, the speaker shows intentions through linguistic means of speech act types. With relevance theory, the speaker shows intentions to the hearer through ostensive communication. The speaker points out information relevant to the context and his intentions. Lastly, relevance theory states that for the most effective communication, the speaker makes information mutually manifest by using ostensive means, and doing so with minimal effort. In other words, provide the information in such a way that language processing is most accessible and requires the least amount of effort to process. Compare the following dialogue with possible answers:

A: (29) Would you like some ice cream?

B: (30) Yes, of course. (30b) Is the sun shining today? (30c) Make it the usual.

In the above context, all three responses from person B could be interpreted as “Yes”, as directly in utterance (30). Utterances (30b) and (30c) both imply that the answer is “Yes” although the effort to process “yes” may require more effort than in (30) according to speech act theory and the notion of implicature. In (30b) and (30c) the response of “No” could also be inferred if, in fact, the sun was not shining and “the usual” meant “I never eat ice cream.” Sperber & Wilson argue that all three possibilities are acceptable and equally accessible under relevance theory.

Some criticize relevance theory based on the improbability of mutual knowledge and shared cognitive environments of participants (Gibbs, 1987; Carston, 1988b; Garnham & Perner, 1990; Levinson, 1989; and Wilks, 1987). The purpose in using relevance theory in this study is to explain certain responses, even when considered appropriate responses for given contexts, when they fall outside of the realm of speech act classification. It is hoped that this will explain particular utterances that are appropriate for the given situation, yet cannot be easily explained through speech act theory and targeted speech acts. For example, suppose a teenager accidentally breaks an antique plate belonging to her mother. An anticipated speech act response would entail asking for an apology. When the mother sees that the plate is broken, she looks to her daughter, who then says, (31) “Grandmother said she would get me one day.” On the surface, the response may seem completely irrelevant.

However, through relevance theory we can derive a plausible reason for the utterance, given the mother and daughter share mutual knowledge and a cognitive environment. The utterance (31) could have referred to an earlier conversation between the grandmother and the daughter, and now it’s an inside joke that the grandmother is

haunting the daughter. In any case, the utterance can be accepted as valid for the situation.

2.4 Linguistic Politeness

As stated earlier, because of the inherit nature in the speech act types used for this study (apologies and requests), an analysis of linguistic politeness can be beneficial for comparing groups of speakers. In terms based on the social-norm hypothesis (Fraser, 1990), by formulating an apology, the speaker is being polite and abiding by societies' norms of behavior. That given apology can fall along a scale of being very direct or indirect. The same applies for making a request. The speaker may request in many different ways, ranging from direct to indirect and polite to impolite. For example, Mary may say (32) "I don't mean to bother you, but would you be a dear and pass the salt?" while Jane may say, (33) "Hey, throw some salt my way." In both examples, a request is being made, but based on the speech act realization and other discourse features, utterance (32) is less direct and more polite than (33). This section briefly discusses some theories of politeness and ideas of "face-saving" found in the work of Goffman (1967), along with the notions of politeness described by Brown & Levinson (1978). Lastly, work done on Spanish politeness is examined and related to this study.

2.4.1 Theories of Politeness

As Fraser (1990) explains, the notion of politeness "might seem a well understood concept that pervades human interaction....and that the task is relatively straightforward." Actually, politeness can be complicated due to variability in participants and cultural expectations placed on society. There are four primary theories of politeness: the social-

norm view, the conversational-maxim view, the face-saving view, and the conversational contract view.

Briefly, the social-norm view expects participants in daily interaction, in both linguistic and non-linguistic situations, to follow a set of understood rules of manners. The conversational-maxim view is based on Grice's ideas of following the maxims of conversation. When speakers engage in conversation, it must be assumed that utterances are following maxims, while avoiding friction of missed implicatures. Some have suggested creating maxims of pragmatics like "Be clear" and "Be polite" (Leech, 1983). Thirdly, the face-saving view, which has generally been accepted as the most convincing theory, will be discussed below through the work of Goffman and Brown and Levinson. Finally, the conversational-contract view was presented with the idea of constant "contract renewal" after each turn in conversation. As Fraser (1975) explains, this allows participants to "negotiate" politeness through conversation. With this theory, participants in conversation communicate in a polite manner not to make the other party feel better or to save-face, but "to carry on the task of the conversation." No one theory of politeness is perfect because each has been criticized and reformulated. However, for this study, the primary ideas of politeness offered by Brown and Levinson (1978) are used and related to how politeness is seen in speakers of Peninsular Spanish.

2.4.2 Goffman and "Face"

The concept of politeness first was examined by anthropologists and sociologists as an idea to see how cultures view "socially polite behavior." The concept of "face" and later "face-work" was developed by Goffman (1967), in an attempt to define how people interact in terms of face. Goffman suggested that in general, people cooperate in

maintaining each other's face (or keeping positive face). Politeness strategies have been postulated from the concept of face threatening and face saving, where participants in conversation avoid face-threatening acts in order to protect and save face of self and others. This assumes that both parties are cooperating and feel the social duty to maintain face. Goffman also posited the ideas of negative face and positive face, where negative face means the speaker wants to be free and independent from society. This speaker would be less likely to follow rules of politeness because he doesn't care about society's perception of his face. Positive face, in turn, means the speaker wants to be seen and accepted positively in society, and would be more likely to participate in the rules of politeness. While Goffman's concept of face seems universal, criticism of using face and the defense of face does exist. Spencer-Oatey (2003) argues that the meaning of face differs across cultural boundaries and that the definitions of politeness and the protection of face must be examined from the cultural perspective of the participants (i.e. Japanese culture vs. American culture).

2.4.3 Brown & Levinson's Model of Politeness

Based on Goffman's notion of face, Brown & Levinson [B&L] (1978) developed a model of linguistic politeness. Like Goffman, they posit, "face is a universal notion....a public self-image that every member of society wants to claim for himself." Their theory of politeness explains, "some acts are intrinsically threatening to face and thus requiring softening." B & L also describe in broad terms that the level of politeness used is based on three primary factors: power between hearer and speaker, social distance between hearer and speaker, and the ranking of the imposition involved in the utterance. They describe through their model of politeness that speakers use particular strategies for

politeness, not necessarily targeted on the actual speech acts themselves, but rather on protection of the face of the speaker and the hearer. Based on the three broad factors and politeness maneuvers, speakers use five different strategies in conversation related to politeness and the risk of losing face when approached with a “face-threatening act” (FTA). This is explained visually below:

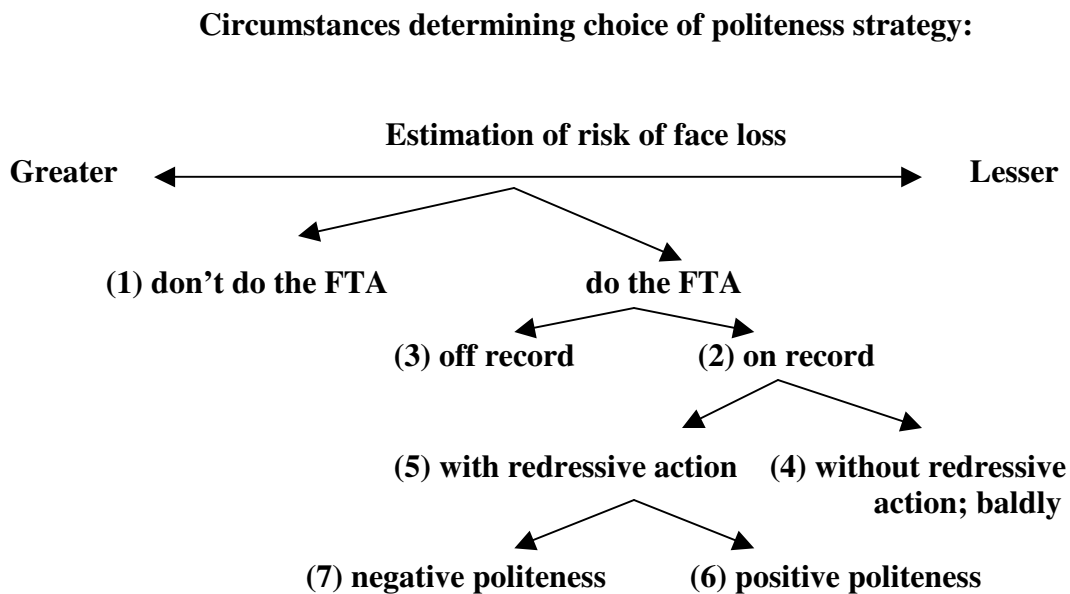


Figure 2.1: Strategies for Face Threatening Acts (Brown & Levinson, 1978)

First, a speaker can choose not to do the FTA by opting out (1). If he chooses to do the FTA, he can do so in many ways. He can choose to be on record (2) or off record (3). If he chooses on record, he chooses to make his communicative intentions known to the hearer. He can do so baldly (clearly), without redressive action (4) or with redressive action (5). If he chooses redressive action, he is not concerned by losing face. This could be due to an imbalance of power or other reason. If he chooses to be on record with redressive action, then it may be in either positive (6) or negative politeness (7). The

redressive action taken attempts to “counteract or avoid potential face damage.”

Examples of the different strategies are given below. These are taken from Brown & Levinson, (1978).

Strategy 1). Speaker chooses not to respond (do the FTA). Speaker probably feels that by speaking loss of face would occur to self or others.

Strategy 2, 4). Speaker goes on record, baldly, without redressive action. He might say “Do it now!”. Here the speaker does not feel a risk to face of self or others.

Strategy 3). Speaker does the FTA, but off record. This contrasts with on record. Here the speaker communicates meaning but in a hinting or ambiguous way. For example, knowing that Joe wants to borrow money, Tom says “Damn, I forgot to go to the bank this morning.” Here, Tom is indirectly communicating “Don’t ask for money, because I won’t lend you any.”

Strategy 2,5,6). Speaker is doing the FTA on record, with redressive action and positive face. The speaker is communicating, but protecting the hearer’s face, i.e. “Since we both want to hear the announcement, let’s stop talking.”

Strategy 2,5,7) Speaker is doing the FTA on record, with redressive action and negative face. In this strategy, the speaker communicates intentions, but avoids directly damaging face to anyone i.e. “If everyone would stop talking now” (rather than calling down Joe). This strategy is also used when evading questions.

In using these strategies, not only does the speaker choose how to manage the FTA, but does so in relation to his face and the other participant’s face. Given the strategies available for speakers, B & L assert that individuals will vary on notions of face depending on the given context and the relationship between speaker and hearer. In other words, typically, an individual will be more polite when the power relationship of participants increases, and the social distance between participants increases, and finally, when the degree of imposition increases. This triad of contextual factors is a key part of measuring politeness in this study.

While although recently, contrary opinions about the theory of politeness model of B&L have surfaced, the B&L model still contains the most comprehensive look at linguistic politeness. Fraser (1990) argued for the conversational-contract view of politeness explaining that intentions of politeness are not always signaled as suggested by B&L. He argues for constant modifications within the conversation, looking for contextual clues like “Sir” and “please.” Kasper (1990) also criticizes the face-saving approach of B&L because of differences in cultural values of face. She stresses that the face-saving model is based on Indo-European languages, primarily English. The B&L model falls short concerning the difference in cultural faces. However, by adjusting the “scale” of face-value for any particular culture, an appropriate measurement of variability can be seen.

Recently, Jary (1998) analyzed linguistic politeness from the theoretical viewpoint of relevance theory, based on the assumptions of B&L concerning relationships of speaker and hearer. The relevance model of politeness differs in that the speaker’s primary goal is to communicate the message. The strategies for doing so first rest on the formula of most effects/least processing. The speaker is concerned that the message be related. Jary provides the example “Could you PLEASE be quite!” said by a teacher to his students. In this utterance, the linguistic discourse marker, “please”, traditionally signals politeness. However, the teacher more than likely was not concerned with being polite, only conveying the message. This study will also compare politeness with relevance theory and speech act theory. Given particular situations where roles and circumstances are changed, this study will measure how politely or impolitely speakers respond according to social and group norms.

2.4.4 Spanish Research on Politeness

Some work has been done in Spanish in terms of politeness and directness of language. The focus on this research has been on the use of politeness of language within specific contexts. In 2003 the first colloquium on Spanish Politeness was held in Stockholm. The EDICE (Estudios del Discurso de la Cortesía en Español) program addressed Spanish dialects from around the world, including Peninsular variations, Colombian, Peruvian, Argentine, and Costa Rican Spanish variations. This program included sections on theory of politeness, addressing the ideas of Brown & Levinson as well as Goffman; sections on the strategies used in politeness both by men and women and the concept of defining politeness; lastly, sections on situational politeness taken from a speech act perspective and the use of extralinguistic features in politeness.

Specifically relating to Peninsular Spanish, the program includes work by Briz (2003), “La estrategia atenuadora en la conversación cotidiana española” describing how speakers tone-down speech to be polite. His study also addresses the concept of peer group speech and speech strategies while in these groups. He addresses the politeness role of turn taking as well as the use of profanity in male speakers. Other work includes Albelda (2003), “Los actos de refuerzo de la imagen en al cortesía peninsular” addressing the strategies of face and positive or negative image; Haverkate (2003) “El análisis de la cortesía comunicativa” addressing methods of comparing and contrasting politeness across the Spanish culture, again discussing the Brown & Levinson model of politeness and cultural diversity; Chodorowska-Pilch (2003) “Las ofertas cortesas en español peninsular” addressing linguistic constructions that equate politeness in speech patterns. She discusses direct and indirect questions and the use of the conditional in speakers to

offer a grammatical source of politeness in Spanish; Zimmerman (2003) “Constutución de la identidad y anticortesía verbal entre jóvenes masculinos hablantes de español” addressing the use of politeness or anti-politeness in young men to be part of the peer group. He explains, as Labov did with the inner city, that young Spanish males often practice ritualized speech, including insults and profanity within the group to serve as politeness with each other. The themes discussed on the surface may seem to be anti-polite, but the group norm defines those themes as acceptable and “polite.”

Three final studies from the colloquium includes the work of Boretti (2003) “Tests de hábitos sociales y la investigación de la cortesía”, Hernández Flores (2003, 2003b) “Los tests de hábitos sociales y su uso en el estudio de la cortesía” and “Cortesía y contextos socioculturales en la conversación española de familiares y amigos.” These studies address the creation of tests within social environments and through the use of situational scenarios. They describe how speakers vary speech according to the relationship of the hearer and speaker, as well as the social situation present. These research findings mirror the methodology chosen for this study, even though published after the investigation had already started.

Other work on Spanish politeness has included Bravo (2003, 2002, 1998), Briz (1996, 1998), Chodorowska (1997), and Delgado (1995). These studies range from politeness strategies to the use of grammatical patterns in speech. In these studies, there are conventional formulas explained (i.e. the use of polite markers) and further discussion on the theory of politeness in Peninsular Spanish.

CHAPTER 3 METHODS AND PROCEDURES

3.1 Scope of Study

This study measures the pragmatic differences and variation between two groups of speakers of Peninsular Spanish when formulating an apology or making a request and is divided into a three-part investigation. The first part of the study focuses on the classification of speech acts. The second part concentrates on the use of additional discourse features across sociolinguistic variables or region, gender, and age. Because of the inherent nature of apologies and requests and because these speech acts are often used to be courteous, the analysis of this variation will focus on the degree of politeness and the levels of directness. In the last part, metalinguistic judgments and discussions with native speakers are analyzed, based on primary data set.

Nine situations were created, five apologies and four requests, to solicit different types of responses from participants in Spain. These situations represent different degrees of severity based on such factors as the situational content and social setting, chances of future consequences, damage to personal face and other person's face, strength of the desired response, and relationship between the interlocutors. A group of native speakers from Spain (N= 5) ranked each situation to help establish the situational severity level for each targeted apology and request. Data for speech act analysis was gathered in the summer of 2000 for this study. Data for the metalinguistic analysis was gathered in the spring of 2003 for native speaker judgments of the primary data. This chapter discusses the methods and procedures used in the design of the study.

3.1.1 Linguistic Variables

Language variation can be measured by altering and focusing on various social variables. These may include age, gender, educational level, socio-economic status, and ethnicity. For this study, the role of geographic region, gender, and age is examined in relation to speech act performance. Of the three variables used, gender has been mostly widely signaled out. Several studies have used region and age as a means for dividing groups, but the noticeable differences have been observed in relation to gender. In the next section, the role of language and region, language and age, and language and gender is discussed with respect to research findings.

3.1.1.1 Language and Region

Traditionally, differences in region were noted through differences in phonology and in lexical items (Chambers and Trudgill, 1980). In Britain, social dialects are typically marked heavily by regional boundaries (Trudgill, 1983). The same holds true for an urban-versus-rural region. An urban dialect tends to be like other urban dialects (Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 1998) regardless of proximity. As Trudgill (1983) explains, typically “linguistic innovations can spread from one dialect boundary to another if adjacent. This occurs mostly for grammatical and phonological features.....Lexical items, however, seems to spread across greater differences.” This linguistic transfer of speech act realization and politeness is tested for this study. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) used region, along with sex and age, to measure cross-cultural difference in requests and apologies. They found that region, along with relative age played a role in the differences. The variable of sex (gender) was not significant. Some studies have been included for information on further regional variation Kurath (1949), Atwood (1962),

Bailey (1972, 1973), Shuy (1967). Research on regional variation has been examined in Spanish as well, primarily through the work of Manuel Alvar (1959, 1969, 1980). He has examined and questioned the differences in standard and nonstandard language in several regions using linguistic atlases. He has compared and contrasted the different registers of Spanish in several regions and within different dialects. Other notable Spanish research in regional variation is seen in the work of Navarro Tomás (1954), Alonso (1961), Lorenzo (1980). This work has been targeted to specific regions showing variation, such as in the Spanish of León, the Spanish of Buenos Aires, and the Spanish of Puerto Rico.

3.1.1.2 Language and Gender

Within the same aspect of linguistic politeness, differences in gender have been researched, providing a myriad of information, comparing the speech of men and women. The notion of gender for this contrast does not refer to gender usage in language, such as the pronoun debate of *he* and *she*, or the choice of noun usage in *flight attendant* versus *stewardess*. This focus, rather, is targeted to how men and women vary in the uses of language. Stereotypically, women are considered more polite and less direct than men. What is the basis of that stereotype? Is it derived from social manners? This study will attempt to measure linguistically the difference, if one exists, in how men and women in Spain use language within the contexts of speech act realization.

Robin Lakoff (1975) is one of the leading sources of work done on language and gender in the United States. She has examined speech through avenues of personal acquaintances and intuitions, the media, and volunteers in academia. The information provided in Lakoff's book, Language and Woman's place, was fundamental in beginning the discourse about linguistic styles of men and women. Because the book was

introduced in the height of the feminist movement in the United States, social issues of language and gender were even more pressing. Lakoff explained that “linguistic and social change go hand in hand: one cannot, purely by changing language use, change social status... women must achieve some measure of greater social independence from men before *Ms* can gain wider acceptance.” (in response to the use of titles *Miss*, *Mrs.*, and newly used *Ms*.)

Besides providing social commentary about the times, Lakoff linguistically analyzed the speech of men and women. The major differences can be summed in nine points, keeping in mind these are findings from 1975: Women’s language has 1) a large supply of lexical items related to special interests, like sewing; 2) the use of empty adjectives, like *divine* and *cute*; 3) tag questions after declaratives 4) the heavy use of hedges; 5) the use of the intensifier *so* like in “He is so tall”; 6) hypercorrect grammar, avoiding tough talk like *ain’t*, *damn*, and *singin’*; 7) polite markers like *please* and *thank you*; 8) avoidance of jokes, at least in public; and 9) expressions of uncertainty. Even though clearly, the speech of women has changed over the last 25 years, some of the inherent descriptions of women’s talk still are true.

Other research has been done by scholars to clarify or criticize the claims made by Lakoff in 1975. Different theories on language and gender have emerged and pressed the issue of linguistic differences along the lines of politeness and directness. Some of the most noted research includes Tannen (1990), Cameron (1995), Poynton (1985), Biber & Burges (2000), Freed (1995), Eckert & McConnell-Ginet (1999), and Bergvall (1999), providing further evidence on the speech of women and peers, women in different social situations, and women and power relationships. This research has offered further

evidence in gender differences in language, both supporting Lakoff and providing new findings to discredit her early work.

Language and gender research has been recently studied in Spanish, primarily focusing on politeness strategies of Spanish, comparing men and women and particular uses of polite markers (see section 2.4.4). García Mouton (1999) in her book, Cómo hablan las mujeres, discusses the range of women's speech based on dialectology and sociolinguistics. She explains certain conservative and innovative language patterns and markers women use in speech. García Mouton finishes the book with examples of stereotypical ways in which women have often been categorized, both in English and Spanish, and then provides evidence against these stereotypes using actual speech. Other work concerning the gender differences in Spanish includes Salvador (1951) studying the gender differences in the Canary Islands; Williams (1983) and Alvar (1969) discussing the speech of Andalusia in pronunciation patterns; and López García and Morant (1991) discussing the grammar found in women.

3.1.1.3 Language and Age

Like region and gender, the variable of age has been used to measure sociolinguistic differences, although not particularly examined much in Spanish. Of the Spanish research involving language and age, the primary topics include verbal interaction rules studied by Zimmerman (2002), generational norms addressed by Rodríguez González (2002) and forms of address of peers by Molina (2002). The most challenging aspect of measuring age differences is the decision concerning the establishment of age ranges. Do speakers group more in segments of generations? Should generations be skipped? Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) found in several studies on

requests and apologies that age of both the speaker and the hearer affected variation. Silva-Corvalán (1989) also divided groups according to age and sex in several of her studies. Many other studies have used age, but outcomes vary (Solé, 1970; Silva-Corvalán, 2001; Labov, 1972b). The angle taken by many researchers is that of contrasting young and old speakers in terms of lexical items and in politeness. For this study, speech acts differences and discourse features will be compared by age. Age groups are divided in segments of 15 years, following Silva-Corvalán. The young speakers range from 15-30 years old. The old speakers range from 45-60. There is a gap of 15 years left intentionally to further divide groups.

3.1.2 Research Questions

The specific research questions for this study mirror the three-part investigation for the study. First, the classification of speech act performance is examined, focusing on apologies and requests. These classifications are then compared to and contrasted with the three major sociolinguistic variables: region, gender, and age. Finally, the data is then discussed and further analyzed with the use of metalinguistic judgments of native speakers. Below are the questions related to each part of the study:

Part I: Speech Act Classification:

- Question 1: How are the speech acts of apologies classified and coded? Do these apologies differ according to situational severity?
- Question 2: How are the speech acts of requests classified and coded? Do these requests differ according to situational severity?

Part II: Sociolinguistic Variables

Differences due to Region:

- Question 3: In what ways do speakers from Castile vary from Andalusia in the performance of speech acts? What types of acts are used for apologies and requests?
- Question 4: Based on situational responses, are there regional differences in the use of additional discourse features, therefore affecting politeness?

Differences due to Gender:

- Question 5: In what ways do men differ from women in relation to the speech act realizations? What types of speech acts are used for each group?
- Question 6: Are there gender differences in the use of additional discourse features, and if so, does this affect politeness as suggested by previous research done in English?

Differences due to Age:

- Question 7: Does age, like region and gender, affect the realization of speech acts according to given situations? What types of speech acts are used for each group?
- Question 8: What additional discourse features are used in the speech of the old and the young? Does this affect politeness?

Part III: Metalinguistic Judgments

- Question 9: How do native speakers perceive speech differences in the regions of Castile and Andalusia? Do these perceptions parallel the speech act findings?
- Question 10: How do native speakers perceive speech differences in men and women? Do these perceptions parallel the speech act findings?

- Question 11: How do native speakers perceive speech differences in the two age groups? Do these perceptions parallel the speech act findings?

Concerning Analysis of Politeness:

- Question 12: Based on all gathered data, is there a correlation in speaker response and the situational severity, where the more severe a situation, the more polite the response? What role does the addressee play in the given responses?

3.1.3 Location and Focus of Study

The two dialects regions in Spain used for this study are Castile and Andalusia. While Spain has several different languages, these two areas offer dialectal differences of *Castellano*, (Peninsular Spanish). Several primary cities in both regions were visited, including both metropolitan and rural cities to provide the most heterogeneous data. Travel and observations occurred during the months of June and July when weather and culture helped to facilitate more outside activities, proving to be advantageous for gathering data. Primary cities visited for each region include: for Castile- Madrid, Segovia, Toledo, Ávila, and Cuenca; for Andalusia- Sevilla, Málaga, Granada, Alicante, Salobreña, Almería, and Córdoba. Below is a map highlighting the regions under analysis:

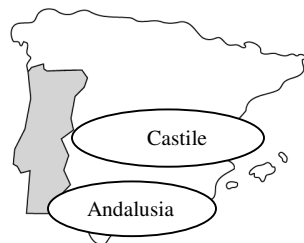


Figure 3.1: Geographic Regions of Castile and Andalusia in Spain

3.2 Oral Performance of Speech Acts

Based on previous research conducted with speech acts, an effective method for measuring authentic responses is done orally. In daily interactions between people, apologies and requests are spontaneous, unplanned, and generally in an informal manner. The interaction is instant, and when done immediately, the illocutionary force behind the request and apology is strongest. Participants responded to the open-ended situations in an unplanned manner. The response was instant and as authentic as possible.

3.2.1 System for Classifying Apologies

In order to best analyze the responses, two typologies were created for apologies and requests: one typology marking the speech act realization, while the other categorizing additional discourse features in the utterance. The use of additional discourse features is explained later in this chapter under the linguistic politeness forms. The speech acts realization is based on the definitions used by Searle (see section 2.3.1.1) in his speech act classifications (i.e. direct versus indirect speech acts, as well as speech act types).

The typology used to analyze apologies is given below. This typology was created prior to gathering data to serve as a framework and skeleton for possible responses. Once all data was gathered, the initial typology allowed for the classification of the given responses, and the finalized classification system was set. An example of each category is listed below, corresponding to the number in the response typology.

Table 3.1: Typology for the Analysis of Apologies

Individual Response Types	Examples of response types
<p>Response with targeted IFID¹ (apology)</p> <p>1. formal 2. informal 3. non-marked</p>	<p>1. <i>Perdone</i> (Pardon) 2. <i>Perdona</i> (Pardon) 3. <i>Perdón</i> (Pardon)</p>
<p>Response with targeted IFID with an additional expressive</p> <p>4. formal with expressive 5. informal with expressive 6. non-marked with expressive</p>	<p>4. <i>Perdone. Lo siento.</i> (Pardon. I'm sorry) 5. <i>Perdona. Disculpa.</i> (Pardon. Excuse me) 6. <i>Perdón Lo siento.</i> (Pardon. I'm sorry)</p>
<p>Response with targeted IFID with an additional directive</p> <p>7. formal with directive 8. informal with directive 9. non-marked with directive</p>	<p>7. <i>Mire. Perdone.</i> (Look. Pardon) 8. <i>Disculpa. Se me escapó</i> (Excuse me. He escaped from me) 9. <i>Cálmate. Lo siento.</i> (Calm down. I'm sorry)</p>
<p>Response with targeted IFID with an additional representative</p> <p>10. formal with representative 11. informal with representative 12. non-marked with representative</p>	<p>10. <i>Perdone. Tengo problema</i> (Pardon. I have a little problem) 11. <i>Perdona. Es culpa mia.</i> (Pardon. It's my fault) 12. <i>Perdón. Te compro otro nuevo.</i> (Pardon. I'll buy you another new one)</p>

Table 3.1 (cont.)

Response without targeted IFID	
13. another expressive 14. a directive 15. a representative 16. two or more non-pardons 17. no response to the situation	13. <i>¡Dios!</i> (God) 14. <i>Ten cuidado</i> (Be careful) 15. <i>Está muerto</i> (He is dead) 16. <i>Mira. Me voy.</i> (Look. I'm going) 17. <i>No le diría nada</i> (I wouldn't say anything)

¹ IFID = Illocutionary Force Indicating Device. When the speaker uses an IFID in the formulation of an apology, the force carried is that of a direct speech act. By saying this IFID, the form and function are the same.

In the categorization of speech act realization, the most direct response is that of the IFIDs (Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices). Within the nature of making an apology, the IFIDs are generally included. In Spanish, these may be marked either formally, informally, or non-marked. An example is in the response, “*Perdone, Perdona, or Perdón*”. The speaker marks the apology as formal, informal, or non-marked depending on his or her reaction. Some response may include the IFID along with another speech act. These are coded separately according to formal, informal, or non-marked. The other possible responses include those responses that do not follow the targeted response for the situation, that of an apology. These include directives, representatives, or other expressives. The final category included in the speech act typology is that of the “no response”. In these cases, participants responded with “*No le diría nada.*” (I wouldn't say anything to him/her”). In these cases, the participant is avoiding the situation by opting out, which becomes important in the politeness factor.

3.2.2 System for Classifying Requests

The analysis for the requests is similar to that for apologies. The responses were coded according to the speech act realization and the additional discourse features present. The typology created for the requests differs from the apologies because the speech acts are different and responses would be expected to also differ.

Table 3.2: Typology for the Analysis of Requests

Individual Response Types	Examples of response types
Response with DSA –Direct Speech Act (Requesting) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. formal 2. informal 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Le pido que me llame.</i> (I'm asking you to call me) 2. <i>Te solicito que lo hagas.</i> (I'm requesting that you do it.)
Response with DSA (Requesting) and additional speech act <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. formal with directive 4. formal with representative 5. formal with expressive 6. informal with directive 7. informal with representative 8. informal with expressive 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. <i>Escuche. Le pido que me lo dé.</i> (Listen, I'm asking you to give it to me.) 4. <i>Le ruego que lo haga. Lo necesito.</i> (I'm asking you to do it. I need it.) 5. <i>Por Dios. Le pido permiso.</i> (For God's sake. I'm asking permission) (ex. 6-8 are similar, only with informal verbs)
Response with ISA - Indirect Speech Act (Requesting) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. form of representative 10. form of directive 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. <i>Necesito ir al mercado.</i> (I need to go to the store) 10. <i>¿Te importa pasar por el mercado?</i> (Would you mind going by the store)

Table 3.2 (cont.)

Response with ISA (requesting) with additional speech act	
11. rep. with additional representative	11. <i>Tengo que irme. No tengo coche.</i> (I have to go. I don't have a car)
12. rep. with additional directive	12. <i>Tengo que irme. ¿Tienes coche?</i> (I have to go. Do you have a car?)
13. rep with additional expressive	13. <i>¡Coño! No tengo dinero.</i> Damn! I don't have any money)
14. rep. with additional commissive	14. <i>No tengo dinero. Te pago mañana.</i> (I don't have any money. I'll pay you tomorrow)
15. dir. with additional representative	15. <i>¿Dónde está tu coche? Tengo que irme.</i> (Where is your car? I have to go.)
16. dir with additional directive	16. <i>¿Te gustaría ayudarme? Dame dinero.</i> (Would you like to help me? Give me money.)
17. dir with additional expressive	17. <i>Ayúdame por favor.</i> (Help me, please)
18. dir. with additional commissive	18. <i>Dámelo. Te pago mañana.</i> (Give it to me. I'll pay you tomorrow)
Response with other speech act (non requesting)	
19. with representative	19. <i>Yo no veo el libro.</i> (I don't see the book)
20. with directive	20. <i>¿Tienes sed?</i> (Are you thirsty?)
21. with expressive	21. <i>¡Por Dios!</i> (For God's sake!)
22. no response	22. <i>No le pediría.</i> (I wouldn't ask him)

The possible speech act realization mirrors the typology for the apologies in that the direct speech acts are most direct. The “no response”, which is the most indirect response, may also be used by some speakers, opting not to make the request.

3.3 Situations for Study

The situations below were created to solicit several different types of apologies and requests. As stated before, each situation varies according to overall situational severity. The situational severity is based on several factors: the relationship of the speaker and hearer, the damage or lack thereof caused by the speaker, and the situation itself. This severity rank is based on researcher intuitions and the native speaker rankings conducted before gathering data. Native speakers from Spain were asked to rank each situation prior to gathering data based on the factors of relationship, damage, and situational factors in order to assess how they felt about each particular situation. The situations were marked from one to five, with one being least severe to five being most severe. By using the variable of situational severity, a specific evaluation can be made comparing different types of speech acts used, additional discourse features needed, and the politeness and directness of responses. Below are the nine situations in Spanish, with an English gloss:

Table 3.3: Situation Summaries for Study

Situation	Targeted Speech Act	Familiarity of Interlocutors
1. Vas caminando por una calle y chocas con un hombre desconocido que te parece muy enojado. ¿Qué le dirías?	Apology; (Level 1) ¹	Unknown to speaker; (male)
<i>You are walking down the street and you bump into and unknown man that appears to be very angry. What would you say to him?</i>		
2. Sales de una tienda. Cuando abres la puerta, te chocas con una mujer con muchos paquetes y ella deja caer sus paquetes. ¿Qué le dirías?	Apology; (Level 2)	Unknown to speaker; (female)
<i>You are leaving a store. When you open the door, you bump into a lady with many packages and she drops the packages. What would you say to her?</i>		

Table 3.3 (cont.)

<p>3. Estas en casa y por casualidad rompes una reliquia familiar, por ejemplo, un plato antiguo. ¿Qué le dirías a tu madre?</p>	<p>Apology; (Level 3)</p>	<p>Family member; (female)</p>
<p><i>You are at home, and by accident, you break a family heirloom, for example an antique plate. What would you say to your mother?</i></p>		
<p>4. Llamas por teléfono a tu mejor amigo pero cuando responde la otra persona, te das cuenta que has marcado un número equivocado. ¿Qué le dirías a la persona?</p>	<p>Apology; (Level 1)</p>	<p>Unknown to speaker; (not specific gender)</p>
<p><i>You are calling your best friend on the phone, but when the other person answers, you realize that you dialed the wrong number. What would you say to that person?</i></p>		
<p>5. Tu hermano te ha pedido que le cuides a su mascota porque se va a ir de viaje. Durante su viaje, el animalito se muere. ¿Qué le dirías a tu hermano cuando regresa?</p>	<p>Apology; (Level 4)</p>	<p>Family member; (male)</p>
<p><i>Your brother has asked you to take care of his pet because he is going on a trip. During the trip, the animal dies. What would you say to your brother when he returns?</i></p>		
<p>6. Entras al cine y te acomodas en tu lugar. Antes de empezar la película, decides comprar un refresco. Cuando vuelves a tu asiento, alguien está sentado en tu lugar que es tu favorito. ¿Qué le dirías?</p>	<p>Request; (Level 2)</p>	<p>Unknown to speaker; (not specific gender)</p>
<p><i>You enter into the movie theater and settle down in your seat. Before the movie starts, you decide to go get a drink. When you return, there is someone sitting in your seat, and it's your favorite. What would you say to that person?</i></p>		
<p>7. Viajas con un amigo en autobus. Cuando suben al autobus, no hay dos asientos juntos. Ves a un joven sentado sólo. ¿Qué le dirías para que él se cambie de asiento?</p>	<p>Request; (Level 3)</p>	<p>Unknown to speaker; (male)</p>
<p><i>You are traveling with a friend by bus. When you get on the bus, there are not two seats together, side-by-side. You see a young guy sitting by himself. What would you say to him so that you can change seats?</i></p>		

Table 3.3 (cont.)

8. Estás en la esquina cuando ves a un niño corriendo hacia la calle para coger su pelota. Viene un auto muy de prisa. ¿Qué le dirías al niño?	Request/order; (Level 4)	Unknown to speaker; (not specific gender)
<i>You are on the street corner when you see a young child running after his ball. There is a car coming quickly. What would you say to the child?</i>		
9. Acabas de tener un accidente y necesitas pedirle dinero prestado a tu hermana. Sabes que ella no tiene mucho dinero pero es necesario que te ayude. ¿Cómo le pedirías ese favor?	Request; (Level 4)	Family member; (female)
<i>You have just had an accident and you need to ask your sister for some money. You know that she doesn't have a lot of money, but it is necessary that she help. How would you ask her this favor?</i>		

¹ Level of severity of the Speech Act- this level is on a scale from 1 to 5. Level 1 is least severe or important, which at times may not even elicit a response. Level 5 is most severe, as in a case of life and death or an emergency (see section 3.3).

3.4 Definition of Linguistic Politeness Forms

To assist in coding participants' responses for politeness, an additional typology was created to mark additional discourse features for each utterance. This typology was created from various sources of discourse analysis, but primarily based on the coding system of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in cross-cultural pragmatics from the CCSAPR of 1987 (Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project). The CCSAPR project focused on requests and apologies from several languages, including Spanish, and was divided into separate sections. These sections include speech act theory and pragmatics of language, socio-cultural differences in pragmatics and finally, the interlanguage pragmatics with modifications of speech for L2 learners. The CCSAPR project relates to the

methodology and features observed in this study on several levels. Primarily, the observation of requests and apologies is identical to the examination of apologies and requests in the speech acts of Peninsular Spanish. The linguistic issues of politeness are also addressed by the examination of additional discourse features of language, used by the Blum-Kulka group in the project.

Of the categories used by Blum-Kulka et al. in coding utterances, only three main categories were chosen for this study: Alerters, Linguistic Strategies, and Lexical downgraders or upgraders. The definitions for these specific categories are explained below:

Table 3.4: Definitions of Coding Categories by Blum-Kulka Group

<p>1. Alerters: an element whose function is to alert the Hearer’s attention to the ensuing speech.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attention getter: (Hey, excuse me, look) • Name, endearment term, or personal address: (Bill, sweetie, brother)
<p>2. Strategies: a choice made by the speaker to vary degree of illocutionary force of utterance.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IFIDs: illocutionary force indicating devices: formulaic and routine expressions to explicitly mark apologies (I’m sorry, excuse me) • Want statement: expresses desire that the proposition will be fulfilled (I’d like to..., I want to..., etc) • Hinting: inference from the speaker to the hearer that the proposition will be fulfilled. (<i>Intent: to get a ride home</i>, “Will you be going home now?”; <i>Intent: to borrow notes</i>, “You know I wasn’t in class yesterday.”) • Hedge: avoiding the proposition directly and precisely by using additional lexical items (I’d kind of like to go to the movies; It might work better if we studied this first.) • Taking blame: (My mistake, my fault) • Offers repair: (I’ll buy you another, I can replace this....)

Table 3.4 (cont.)

3. Lexical downgraders or upgraders: items used to soften or strengthen the impositive force of the utterance.

- **Polite markers:** (Please, thank you)
- **Tag questions:** (would you?, will you?, right?, ok?)
- **Intensifier:** (frightful, dreadful, *problemillo*, *grandísimo*, very, a lot)
- **Exclamations:** (My God, Oh no)

Although some of the categories used in the creation of this typology overlap with the Blum-Kulka group, this study differs in the classification and system of analysis. In this study, each utterance is coded with a specific speech act realization, followed by another coding using the typology of additional discourse features. If the utterance contained one of the elements listed in the typology, then the utterance was coded accordingly. In many cases, the utterance contained several additional discourse features and was coded appropriately with more than one category. This typology is used for apologies and requests, although at times, all categories were not needed based on participants' responses. Below are examples in Spanish of the additional discourse features examined for each utterance:

1. Alerters

- Attention getter: *Oye* (Hey)
- Discourse marker: *Mira*. (Look); *Pues* (Well)
- Personal address: *Hermano* (Brother); *Madre* (Mother)

2. Intensifiers

- Adverbials: *Es muy grande*. (It's very big)
- Adjectives: *Tengo necesidad imperiosa*
(I have an urgent need)
- Morphological items: *Es grandote*. (It's enormously big)
- Polite marker: *Por favor*. (Please)

- | | |
|-------------------|--|
| 3. Hedge | <i>Pues, mira. Entiendo la situación.
¿Has visto la tele nueva?
(Well, look. I understand the situation.
Have you seen the new television?)</i> |
| 4. Responsibility | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accepts: <i>Es culpa mia. (It's my fault)</i> • Denies: <i>Se me escapó. (He escaped from me)</i> |
| 5. Offers repair | <i>Te compro nuevo mañana.
(I'll buy you a new one tomorrow)</i> |

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

For this study, two data sets were used: primary and secondary data. The primary data serves as the basis of information for this study in the classification of speech acts and the analysis of sociolinguistic variations. The secondary data serves to confirm primary findings through metalinguistic discussions with native speakers. The primary data was coded on the speech act realization and the use of additional discourse features. The secondary data was analyzed in terms of responses to the questionnaire and additional comments provided. Both data sets are discussed below, along with specific demographic information:

3.5.1 Speech Act and Sociolinguistic Data

For gathering the primary data, informants were interviewed for five to ten minutes. Each participant listened to nine different situations and responded according to how he or she felt appropriate. Each subject was told that there was no correct answer, only to respond as if the situation were real. Contrary to some other research methods that use cloze tests, possible answers were not provided for participants for the situations. The open-ended approach was preferred for this study because it produced the most

natural and authentic responses by participants. Often, a participant would not only provide his or her answer, but also other possible responses according to the situation.

Following the notion of the observer's paradox described by Labov (see section 2.2.1), data collection was done in the most natural way possible. Individuals ranging from teenagers to the elderly were approached and asked if they were interested in providing information. They were told that their responses were needed to show how normal people react to situations in daily life, because often textbooks do not provide all possibilities. For each participant, the response to each situation was recorded on tape. After the series of situations, demographic information was gathered through follow-up questioning in conversational practice.

3.5.2 Demographics Considered for Primary Data

During the interview and follow-up questioning, questions about age, educational level, and occupation were addressed. This information was important to equalize sociolinguistic variable as much as possible between regions so that the data is balanced. This helped to prevent all participants from being too similar, and therefore, from gathering too limited a set of responses in the regions. The target number of participants was set between 60 and 80 for the primary data and between 15-25 for the secondary data. Participants were grouped by region, gender, and age. The regional variation was preset using Castile and Andalusia as discourse zones. The gender provided two groups of male and female participants. Setting the age groups prior to the study was based on previous research with variation in age. The age groups were set as young (15-30 years old) and old (45-60 years old) participants. An intentional gap of 15 years was created.

Any participant between the ages of 31 and 44 was omitted and eliminated from the corpus.

3.5.3 Data for Metalinguistic Analysis of Speech Acts

Because of the small participant numbers used in the primary data set, a secondary data set was needed to validate results marking the trends in speech acts performance in Peninsular Spanish. In addition to showing conversational trends, this secondary data was also used to serve as native speaker judgments to help verify results. The secondary data was gathered from a separate set of informants living in the regions of Castile and Andalusia, in addition to two participants living outside both regions. The secondary data was quantified by using a questionnaire to show opinions about conversational speech differences. Lastly, the secondary data was used to combat one of the limitations of the study: a nonnative speaker as investigator. Previous research done in second language acquisition (Ferguson, 1971; Gass&Varonis, 1985; Beebe & Zuengler, 1983; Freed, 1981; Hatch et al., 1978) has found that native speakers often accommodate speech patterns and use “foreigner talk” when addressing a non native speaker. The metalinguistic discussions were used to help verify the responses, showing natural language patterns of the speakers, not just foreigner talk used for the investigation.

These informants were interviewed based on a series of opinions and metalinguistic questions created after the primary data was gathered. The subjects were approached and asked to provide opinions about the differences in the way people converse, comparing region, gender, and age. If the individual agreed to give answers, then the questionnaire was read and the answers were marked. A follow-up set of

questions was also asked of participants after the questionnaire to elicit additional data to serve as a metalinguistic discussion about conversation in general. The free responses give by the subjects were varied but help to provide additional opinions concerning how regional, gender, and age differences function in Peninsular Spanish. Below is the questionnaire used for the metalinguistic items in the secondary data:

Item 1.

¿Quién usaría más las palabras de cortesía, por ejemplo <<por favor>> y <<gracias>>? (Who would use more polite words, for example please and thank you?)

Item 2.

¿Quién usaría más las palabrotas o los tacos en la conversación? (Who would use more bad words/curse words in conversation?)

Item 3.

¿Quién usaría más la palabras como intensificadores, por ejemplo el uso de <<muchísimo>> o <<problemillo>> en vez de usar <<mucho>> o <<problema>>? (Who would use more intensifier words, like 'very much' or 'big problem' instead of just 'much' or 'problem'?)

Items 4 through 7 were designed specifically for feedback on actual responses from participants in the primary data set. These items provided a situation and response for the informant. Each informant was asked to tell who might have said that response without knowing any other information.

In addition to answering the questions above, several informants provided extra information and comments on perceptions of language differences in Spain. Some of the older informants spoke about how things had changed over time. Others spoke about regional differences and age differences. These comments were also used with the

metalinguistic data. Although not calculated in terms of percentages and other quantitative data, the statements provided are analyzed as qualitative data included in Chapter 5- Discussion and Conclusion.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

4.1 Selection of the Participants in the Study

The target number of participants for this study was between 60 and 80 to show an average sampling of the trends in speech patterns of people living in the regions of Castile and Andalusia. Of all the people approached to take part in the study, 61 conversations were recorded and transcribed for data analysis. Of those 61 participants, a corpus of 40 was created for the final analysis. The other 21 conversations in the overall recording sample were eliminated for various reasons. Some of the volunteers (N=12) for the study were not from either of the designated regions. Others (N=5) did not fall in the range created for age groupings, while others (N=4) did not finish all nine situations. Four of the recorded conversations were eliminated for poor tape quality and outside interference of road noise in Madrid. Below is a breakdown of the 40 participants used for the study:

Table 4.1: Participants in the Study

N = 40							
Castile (N=20)				Andalusia (N=20)			
Male (N= 9)		Female (N= 11)		Male (N= 9)		Female (N=11)	
<i>Old</i>	<i>Young</i>	<i>Old</i>	<i>Young</i>	<i>Old</i>	<i>Young</i>	<i>Old</i>	<i>Young</i>
4	5	5	6	5	4	5	6

Although the age range set up initially for the Young group was 15-30, none of the participants who responded was younger than 18 years old. The range initially created for the Old group was 45-60. One participant, male from Andalusia, was 61 years old but

was included in the corpus. A more detailed list of all participants is presented in Appendix A, p. 121.

4.2 Data Analysis of Speech Acts

The analyses of speech act data for this study were divided into two main sections: the realization of speech act types and the use of additional discourse features. Of the speech acts gathered, each was classified as a target apology or request based on the typologies previously presented. The results are described below according to apologies and requests. The analyses compare frequencies and percentages to highlight differences, followed by tests of significance using ANOVA and Chi-square analyses when necessary. The results of describing the use of specific discourse features follow the analyses of speech acts involving apologies and requests.

The specific research questions for this study address speech act realization, sociolinguistic differences due to region, gender, and age, and lastly, metalinguistic judgments about data from native speakers. The results are displayed based on specific speech act types and the use of additional discourse features, following the outline of the research questions presented in Chapter 3 (see section 3.1.2). All apologies will be discussed first, followed by the discussion of the requests.

4.2.1 Apologies

The results presented in this section relate to Question 1 for the study: How are the speech acts of apologies classified and coded? Do these apologies differ according to situational severity?

4.2.1.1 Situational Differences with Response Type

The first analysis describes the differences in situational severity level of the five situations used for elicitation of apologies. This measure helps to assess if the speech act response types given by all participants do indeed change as the severity of the situation changes from less severe to more severe. This global analysis was performed for all responses of apologies before segmenting the groups by region, gender, and age. Below are results of all response types in connection with the five apology situations:

Table 4.2: Types of Responses According to the Five Apology Situations for all Informants

Types of Responses in Percentages**	Situations *				
	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5
Type 1	12.5	2.5	5	5	0
Type 2	2.5	0	2.5	5	2.5
Type 3	32.5	17.5	20	5	7.5
Type 4	5	2.5	0	7.5	0
Type 5	5	0	0	7.5	0
Type 6	0	2.5	7.5	2.5	0
Type 7	2.5	10	0	0	0
Type 8	0	2.5	0	0	0
Type 9	0	17.5	0	0	2.5
Type 10	0	0	2.5	17.5	0
Type 11	2.5	0	2.5	7.5	0
Type 12	0	0	20	32.5	32.5
Type 13	5	0	0	0	0
Type 14	10	32.5	0	0	0
Type 15	0	0	20	5	22.5
Type 16	10	2.5	5	5	22.5
Type 17	12.5	10	15	0	10

Scale definition:

* Situations used for apology elicitation

P1, making apology to unknown person (male); P2, making apology to unknown person (female); P3, making apology to relative (mother); P4, making apology to unknown person (non specific gender); P5, making apology to relative (brother)

** Response types for apologies as explained in Chapter 3; numbers displayed in percentages

Situation A1 elicits 11 different types of responses. The highest percentage (32.5%) occurs for a Type 3 response (a non-marked IFID: i.e. *Perdón*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 2 response (an informal IFID: i.e. *Perdona*), a Type 7 response (a formal IFID with an additional directive: i.e. *Perdone. ¿Le ayudo?*), and a Type 11 response (an informal IFID with an additional representative: i.e. *Disculpa. No sabía que estabas allí*). There were six response types (Types 6,8,9,10,12,15) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation A2 elicits 10 different types of responses. The highest percentage (32.5%) occurs for a Type 14 response (a representative without IFID: i.e. *Tiene muchos paquetes*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 1 response (a formal IFID: i.e. *Disculpe*), a Type 4 response (a formal IFID with an additional expressive: i.e. *Perdone. Por Díos*), a Type 6 response (a non-marked IFID with an additional expressive: i.e. *Lo siento. Cuidado*), a Type 8 response (an informal IFID with an additional directive: i.e. *Lo siento. ¿Te ayudo?*), and a Type 16 response (two or more non apologies). There were seven response types (Types 2,5,10,11,12,13,15,17) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation A3 elicits 10 different types of responses. The highest percentage (20%) occurs for a Type 3 response (a non-marked IFID: i.e. *Lo siento*), a Type 12 response (a non-marked IFID with an additional representative: i.e. *Perdón. Te compro otro*), and a Type 15 response (a representative without IFID: i.e. *Se me cayó*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 2 response (an informal IFID: i.e. *Disculpa*), a Type 10 response (a formal IFID with an additional representative: i.e. *Disculpe. Puedo comprar otro mañana*), and a Type 11 response (an informal IFID with an

additional representative: i.e. *Perdona. Lo arreglo mañana*). There were seven response types (Types 4,5,7,8,9,13,14) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation A4 elicits 11 different types of responses. The highest percentage (32.5%) occurs for a Type 12 response (a non-marked IFID with an additional representative: i.e. *Perdón. Equivocado*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 6 response (a non-marked IFID with an additional expressive: i.e. *Caramba. Lo siento.*). There were six response types (Types 7,8,9,13,14,17) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation A5 elicits seven different types of responses. The highest percentage (32.5%) occurs for a Type 12 response (a non-marked IFID with an additional representative: i.e. *Lo siento mucho pero el perrito está muerto*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 2 response (an informal IFID: i.e. *Lo siento*) and a Type 9 response (a non-marked IFID with an additional directive: i.e. *Perdón. ¿Puedo compararte otro?*). There were ten response types (Types 1,4,5,6,7,8,10,11,13,14) where no response was given by the informants.

4.2.1.2 Reclassification of Apology Responses

The 17 different types of responses used for the five situations were grouped into five macro speech act types. These individual types were combined because in several situations, only 10 or 11 types were used, leaving no response for the other categories. The macro speech act types for apologies were combined using response types of similar nature and were formed using the response types previously described in Chapter 3 (see section 3.2.1). The new groupings are listed below:

Table 4.3: Regrouping of Apology Response Types

Macro Speech Act Type	Micro Response Forms
Apology (A)	Response with targeted IFID (apology) 1. formal 2. informal 3. non-marked
Apology + expressive (AE)	Response with targeted IFID with an additional expressive 4. formal with expressive 5. informal with expressive 6. non-marked with expressive
Apology + directive (AD)	Response with targeted IFID with an additional directive 7. formal with directive 8. informal with directive 9. non-marked with directive
Apology + representative (AR)	Response with targeted IFID with an additional representative 10. formal with representative 11. informal with representative 12. non-marked with representative
No apology given (NA)	Response without targeted IFID 13. another expressive 14. a directive 15. a representative 16. two or more non-apologies 17. no response to the situation

Once again, to measure the differences in all apologies before segmenting the data in terms of region, gender, and age, an analysis was done using the large speech act units for all five situations. This comparison gives the frequency and percentage of all response types by unit type.

Table 4.4: Frequency and Percentage of Responses for Macro Apology Types

Macro Apology Types *	Frequency of all apologies	Percentage of Total %
Type A	48	24
Type AE	16	8
Type AD	14	7
Type AR	47	23.5
Type NA	75	37.5
Totals:	200 (40 participants x 5 situations)	100%

Scale Definitions:

- * Type A, only apology was given
- Type AE, apology +expressive was given
- Type AD, apology +directive was given
- Type AR, apology + representative
- Type NA, no apology was given

After counting frequency and showing percentage of all apologies given in the five situations, the highest percentage (37.5%) occurs in Type NA (no apology given). Types A (apology given) and AR (apology + representative) are almost identical in the distribution with 24% and 23.5% respectively. The two lowest percentages occur in Types AE and AD with 8% and 7% respectively of responses.

The results above show that according to the speech act response unit type, there are differences across all five situations. In order to measure the difference in terms of situational severity as it relates to response type (as in Table 4.2), a similar analysis was done using the macro groupings. Below are the percentages of macro apology types with individual situations:

Table 4.5: Situational Differences in Speech Act Unit Response Types

Percentage of Responses for Macro Apology Types	Situations *				
	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5
Type A	48	20	28	15	10
Type AE	10	5	8	18	0
Type AD	3	30	0	0	3
Type AR	3	0	25	58	33
Type NA	38	45	40	10	55

Scale Definitions:

* Situations used for apology elicitation

A1, making apology to unknown person (male)

A2, making apology to unknown person (female)

A3, making apology to relative (mother)

A4, making apology to unknown person (non specific gender)

A5, making apology to relative (brother)

** Macro Apology Types

Type A, only apology was given

Type AE, apology +expressive was given

Type AD, apology +directive was given

Type AR, apology + representative

Type NA, no apology was given

For Situation A1, all five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (48%) occurs in Type A (only apology given). The lowest percentage of response type (3%) occurs in Type AD (apology +directive) and in Type AR (apology + representative).

For Situation A2, four of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (45%) occurs in Type NA (no apology was given). The

lowest percentage of response type (5%) occurs in Type AE (apology + expressive). There were no responses from Type AR (apology + representative).

For Situation A3, four of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (40%) occurs in Type NA (no apology given). The lowest percentage of response type (8%) occurs in Type AE (apology + expressive). No response was given for Type AD (apology + directive).

For Situation A4, four of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (58%) occurs in Type AR (apology + representative). The lowest percentage of response type (10%) occurs in Type NA (no apology given). No response was given for Type AD (apology + directive).

For Situation A5, four of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (55%) occurs in Type NA (no apology given). The lowest percentage of response type (3%) occurs in Type AD (apology + directive). No response was given for Type AE (apology + expressive).

4.2.1.3 Comparison for Region, Gender, and Age

The results for this section are based on the questions concerning differences in sociolinguistic variables. The specific questions are: Question 3: In what ways do speakers from Castile vary from Andalusia in the performance of speech acts? What types of acts are used for apologies and requests? Question 5: In what ways do men differ from women in relation to the speech act realizations? What types of speech acts are used for each group? Question 7: Does age, like region and gender, affect the realization of speech acts according to given situations? What types of speech acts are used for each group?

To calculate the differences according to the segments of region, gender, and age, the responses of the five individual situations used for apologies were combined, and the responses types of the macro apology types were used instead of the 17 micro apology response types. This was done because of the small sample size per cell and the limited amount of variation noticed when comparing situations. The table below compares differences in region, gender and age.

Table 4.6: Apology Segmentation: Differences in Region, Gender, and Age with Percentage of Macro Apology Response Types

Comparison Groups		Percentage of Response according to Macro Response Types				
		A % *	AE %	AD %	AR %	NA %
Region	Castile (N=20)	25	9	7	21	38
	Andalusia (N=20)	23	7	7	26	37
Gender	Male (N= 18)	28	7.8	6.7	17.8	40
	Female (N=22)	20.9	8.2	7.3	28	35.5
Age	Young (N=22)	22.7	9	5.5	26.4	36.4
	Old (N=18)	25.6	6.7	8.9	20	38.9

Scale Definitions

* Macro Response Types

- Type A, only apology was given
- Type AE, apology +expressive was given
- Type AD, apology +directive was given
- Type AR, apology + representative
- Type NA, no apology was given

When comparing the regions of Castile and Andalusia, little significant difference is noted across large speech act units for all situations. Individual comparison by large speech act units shows only small variance in the percentage differences (range 1-5% change). For Type A (apology given), the Castilians responded 25% to 23% for Andalusians. For Type AE (apology +expressive), the Castilians responded 9% to 7% for Andalusians. For Type AD (apology +directive), both groups responded 7% of all responses. For Type AR (apology + representative), the Andalusians responded 26% to 21% for the Castilians. Finally, for Type NA (no apology given), the Castilians responded 38% to 37% for the Andalusians.

However, when analyzing the regions separately by response type and then comparing the range of responses, more variation is noted between regions. For Castilians, the highest percentage to lowest percentage response was first Type NA (no apology given), second Type A (apology given), followed by Types AR (apology + representative), AE (apology +expressive), and AD (apology +directive). The speakers from this region responded either most directly with Type A or indirectly with Type NA in 63% of all responses.

For the participants in Andalusia, the order of response types is different. The highest percentage to lowest percentage response type was first Type NA (no apology given), second Type AR (apology + representative), followed by Types A (apology given), AE (apology + expressive), and AD (apology +directive). In 60% of the responses, the participants chose Types NA or AR. In these cases, participants responded indirectly or either with an apology and some explanatory statement.

When comparing gender, some difference is seen in the use of speech acts in large units for all situations. For speech act Types A (apology is given) and AR (apology + representative), the variation ranges up to 11% difference in males and females. The other speech act units showed less variation. For Type A (apology given) males responded 28% to 20.9% for females. For Type AE (apology +expressive) females responded 8.2% to 7.8% for males. For Type AD (apology +directive) females responded 7.3% to 6.7% for males. In Type AR (apology + representative) females responded 28% to 17.8% in males, the largest percentage variation between the groups. Finally for Type NA (no apology given), males responded 40% to 35.5% for females.

More variation is seen when ranking the speech act types used by both male and female speakers. For male speakers, the highest percentage to lowest percentage response type was Type NA (no apology given), second Type A (apology given), followed by Type AR (apology +representative), AE (apology +expressive), and AD (apology + directive). Male speakers preferred to give no apology or a either direct apology in 68% of all responses.

For female speakers, the range of speech act units was different. The highest percentage to lowest percentage response type was first Type NA (no apology given), second Type AR (apology +representative). Followed by Types A (apology given), AE (apology + expressive), and AD (apology +directive). Female speakers choose to give no apology or either an apology followed by some representative in 63.5% of all responses.

When comparing age of speakers, little significant variation is noted across large speech act units for all situations. Individual comparison by large speech act units shows only small variance in the percentage differences (range 3-6% change). For Type A

(apology given) older speakers responded 25.6% to 22.7% for younger speakers. For Type AE (apology +expressive) young speakers responded 9% to 6.7% for old speakers. For Type AD (apology +directive) old speakers responded 8.9% to 5.5% for young speakers. For Type AR (apology + representative) young speakers responded 26.4% to 20% for old speakers. Finally, for Type NA (no apology given) older speakers responded 38.9% to 36.4% for younger speakers.

Once again, more variation is seen when ranking the order of speech act units by highest to lowest percentage to see the range of preferred speech act types. For younger speakers, the highest percentage to lowest percentage was first Type NA (no apology given), second Type AR (apology +representative), followed by Types A (apology given), AE (apology + expressive), and AD (apology +directive). The young speakers used no apology or an apology with some representative in 72.8% of all responses.

For the older speakers, the order of response type is different. The range from highest to lowest percentage response was first Type NA (no apology given), second Type A (apology given), followed by Types AR (apology + representative), AD (apology + directive), and AE (apology + expressive). The older speakers used either no apology or a direct apology in 64.5% of all responses.

To examine if there were more pronounced differences exist within groups, a two-way analysis was done for Gender x Age. The findings did not diverge from the overall findings as seen in Table 4.6. The sample size was not large enough to run a three-way analysis of Region x Gender x Age and be statistically valid.

4.2.2 Requests

The results presented in this section are based on Question 2 for the study: How are the speech acts of requests classified and coded? Do these requests differ according to situational severity?

4.2.2.1 Situational Differences with Response Type

As done with apologies, the first analysis describes the differences in situational severity level of the four situations used for elicitation of requests. This measure helps to assess if the speech act response types given by all participants do indeed change as the severity of the situation changes from less severe to more severe. This comparison combined all segments of region, gender, and age. Below are results of all response types in connection with the four request situations:

Table 4.7: Types of Responses According to the Four Request Situations for all Informants

Type of Response in Percentages	Situations *			
	R1	R2	R3	R4
Types 1-8 **	0	0	0	0
Type 9	0	0	0	10
Type 10	2.5	17.5	20	10
Type 11	17.5	2.5	0	30
Type 12	7.5	0	0	10
Type 13	20	2.5	0	2.5
Type 14	0	0	0	12.5
Type 15	15	62.5	7.5	10
Type 16	0	0	5	0
Type 17	0	7.5	2.5	0
Type 18	0	0	0	5
Type 19	0	0	0	0
Type 20	0	0	45	0
Type 21	0	0	7.5	0
Type 22	37.5	7.5	12.5	10

Table 4.7 (cont.)

Scale Definitions

* Situations used to elicit requests

R1, requesting to unknown person (non specific gender); R2, requesting to unknown person (male); R3, requesting to unknown person (non specific gender); R4, requesting to known family member (sister)

** Response types for requests as explained in Chapter 3; numbers displayed in percentages. There were no responses given in Request Types 1-8. These columns were collapsed for economy of space.

Situation R1 elicits 6 different types of responses. The highest percentage (37.5%) occurs for a Type 22 response (no response: i.e. *No le pediría*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 10 response (ISA directive: i.e. *¿Te importa ponerte atrás?*). There were 16 response types (Types 1-9, 14, 16-21) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation R2 elicits 6 different types of responses. The highest percentage (62.5%) occurs for a Type 15 response (ISA directive +representative: i.e. *¿Te importa cambiarte? Estaba yo.*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 11 response (ISA representative +representative: i.e. *Estoy con mi amigo y nos gustaría sentarnos juntos.*) and a Type 13 response (ISA representative +expressive: i.e. *Oye, chaval. Somos dos y solo hay un asiento aquí*). There were 16 response types (Types 1-9, 12, 14, 16, 18-21) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation R3 elicits 7 different types of responses. The highest percentage (45%) occurs for a Type 20 response (no request, but a directive: i.e. *Corre, niño*). The lowest percentage (2.5%) occurs for a Type 17 response (ISA directive +expressive: i.e. *Para*.

Hay un coche). There were 15 response types (Types 1-9, 11-14, 18-19) where no response was given by the informants.

Situation R4 elicits 9 different types of responses. The highest percentage (30%) occurs for a Type 11 response (ISA representative + representative: i.e. *He tenido accidente y necesito dinero*). The lowest percentage response (2.5%) occurs for a Type 13 response (ISA representative + expressive: i.e. *Perdona la molestia pero necesito que me ayudes*). There were 13 response types (Types 1-8, 16-17, 19-21) where no response was given by the informants.

4.2.2.2 Coding for all Requests

The 22 different types of responses used for the four situations were grouped into five macro speech act types representing the request types. These micro individual types were combined because response Types 1-8 were not used in any situation. For many other response types as well, large voids existed where no response was given. The macro speech act types for requests were combined using response types of similar nature and were formed using the response types previously described in Chapter 3 (see section 3.2.2). The new groupings are listed below:

Table 4.8: Regrouping of Request Response Types

Macro Speech Act Type	Micro Response Forms
DSA (direct speech act) Request (DR)	Response with Direct Speech Act (Requesting) 1. formal 2. informal
DSA + Other SA (speech act) (DRO)	Response with DSA (Requesting) and additional speech act 3. formal with directive 4. formal with representative 5. formal with expressive 6. informal with directive 7. informal with representative 8. informal with expressive

Table 4. 8 (cont.)

ISA (indirect speech act) Request (IR)	Response with Indirect Speech Act (requesting) 9. form of representative 10. form of directive
ISA + Other SA (speech act) (IRO)	Response with ISA (requesting) with additional speech act 11. rep. with additional representative 12. rep. with additional directive 13. rep with additional expressive 14. rep. with additional commissive 15. dir. with additional representative 16. dir with additional directive 17. dir with additional expressive 18. dir. with additional commissive
No request given (NR)	Response with other speech act (non requesting) 19. with representative 20. with directive 21. with expressive 22. no response

Once again, to measure the differences in all requests before segmenting the data in terms of region, gender, and age, an analysis was done using the macro speech act types for all four situations. This comparison gives the frequency and percentage of all response types by groupings.

Table 4.9: Frequency and Percentage of Responses for Macro Request Types

Macro Speech Act Types *	Frequency of all requests	Percentage of Total %
DR	0	0
DRO	0	0
IR	24	15
IRO	88	55

Table 4.9 (cont.)

NR	48	30
Totals:	160 (40 participants x 4 situations)	100%

Scale Definitions:

- * Type DR, direct speech act of request
- Type DRO, direct speech act +other speech act
- Type IR, indirect speech act of request
- Type IRO, indirect speech act +other speech act
- Type NR, no request was given

After counting the frequency and showing percentage of all requests in the four situations, the highest percentage (55%) occurs in Type IRO (indirect request +other SA). Type NR (no request given) has the second highest percentage with 30%, followed by Type IR (indirect request) with 15% of responses. The Type DR (direct request) and DRO (direct request +other SA) did not elicit any responses.

The results above show that according to response group, there are noticeable differences. In order to measure the difference in terms of situational severity as it relates to response type (as in Table 4.7), a similar analysis was done using the macro speech act types. Below are the percentages of macro speech act types with individual situations:

Table 4.10: Situational Differences in Macro Response Types

Percentages of Responses for Macro Speech Act Type **	Situations *			
	R1	R2	R3	R4
Type DR	0	0	0	0
Type DRO	0	0	0	0
Type IR	3	18	20	20

Table 4.10 (cont.)

Type IRO	60	75	15	70
Type NR	38	8	65	10

Scale Definitions

* Situations used to elicit requests

R1, requesting to unknown person (non specific gender); R2, requesting to unknown person (male); R3, requesting to unknown person (non specific gender); R4, requesting to known family member (sister)

** Macro Speech Act Types

Type DR, direct speech act of request; Type DRO, direct speech act +other speech act

Type IR, indirect speech act of request; Type IRO, indirect speech act +other speech act

Type NR, no request was given

For Situation R1, only three of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (60%) occurs in Type IRO (an indirect request +other SA). The lowest percentage of response type (3%) occurs in Type IR (indirect request). The response Types DR (direct request) and DRO (direct request +other SA) were not produced by any informants.

For Situation R2, three of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (75%) occurs in Type IRO (indirect request +other SA). The lowest percentage of response type (8%) occurs in Type NR (no request given). The response Types DR (direct request) and DRO (direct request +other SA) were not produced by any informants.

For Situation R3, three of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (65%) occurs in Type NR (no request given). The lowest percentage of response type (15%) occurs in Type IRO (indirect request +other SA). The

response Types DR (direct request) and DRO (direct request +other SA) were not produced by any informants.

For Situation R4, three of the five macro types were produced. The highest percentage of response type (70%) occurs in Type IRO (indirect request +other SA). The lowest percentage of response type (10%) occurs in Type NR (no request). The response Types DR (direct request) and DRO (direct request +other SA) were not produced by any informants.

4.2.2.3 Comparisons for Region, Gender, and Age

The results for this section are based on the questions concerning differences in sociolinguistic variables. The specific questions are: Question 3: In what ways do speakers from Castile vary from Andalusia in the performance of speech acts? What types of acts are used for apologies and requests? Question 5: In what ways do men differ from women in relation to the speech act realizations? What types of speech acts are used for each group? Question 7: Does age, like region and gender, affect the realization of speech acts according to given situations? What types of speech acts are used for each group?

To calculate the differences according to the segments of region, gender, and age, the responses of the four individual situations used for requests were combined, and the responses types of the macro speech act types were used instead of the 22 micro response types. This was done because of the small sample size per cell and the limited amount of variation noticed when comparing situations. The table below compares differences in region, gender and age.

Table 4.11: Request Segmentation: Differences in Region, Gender, and Age with Percentage of Macro Request Response Types

Comparison Groups		Percentage of Response according to Macro Speech Act Types				
		DR % *	DRO %	IR %	IRO %	NR %
Region	Castile (N=20)	0	0	13	63	25
	Andalusia (N=20)	0	0	18	48	35
Gender	Male (N= 18)	0	0	18	54	28
	Female (N=22)	0	0	12.5	55.7	31.8
Age	Young (N=22)	0	0	18.2	53.4	28.4
	Old (N=18)	0	0	11.1	56.9	32

Scale Definitions

* Macro Speech Act Types

Type DR, direct speech act of request

Type DRO, direct speech act +other speech act

Type IR, indirect speech act of request

Type IRO, indirect speech act +other speech act

Type NR, no request was given

Before describing the segmentation by region, gender, and age, it must be clear that none of the comparison groups used macro speech act units Types DR (direct request) or DRO (direct request +other SA). The category system was created prior to gathering data so therefore, included in the total system. However, because none of the informants used either type of a direct request, the data of 0% will not be discussed at this point. Further explanation is discussed in chapter 5.

When comparing the regions of Castile and Andalusia and their use of requests, some variation is seen between groups. Both groups used the same range of response types and maintained the same order from highest to lowest percentage. Speakers from Castile responded 63% to 48% for Andalusians for Type IRO (indirect requests +other SA). For the second most frequent response, Type NR (no request given), Castilians responded 25% compared to 35% for the Andalusians. These speakers were less likely to give a 'no request' than the speakers from Andalusia. Finally in Type IR (indirect request), speakers from Andalusia responded 18% to 13% for the Castilians. While the types of responses were mirrored between groups, the percentage difference within group is most clearly seen in the Castilian speakers. The range high to low is 63% -13%, a difference of 50 points. The Andalusian speakers were more evenly divided within group comparison. The range high to low is 48% -18%, a difference of 30 points.

A comparison of gender reveals a similar pattern. Both groups of speakers, male and female, used the same range of response types and maintained the same order from highest to lowest percentage. Male speakers responded 54% to 55.7% for females in Type IRO (indirect requests +other SA). For the second most frequent response, Type NR (no request given), males responded 28% compared to 31.8% for the females. Finally in Type IR (indirect request), male speakers responded 18% to 12.5% for the females. An analysis between groups for specific speech act types shows very few percentage points difference, less than 6 points of difference. Comparing within the groups shows similar patterns. The range high to low for male speakers is 54% -18%, a difference of 36 points. The female speakers were similar within group comparison. The range high to low is 55.7% -12.5%, a difference of 43.2 points.

When comparing different age groups and their use of requests, some variation is seen between groups. Both groups used the same range of response types and maintained the same order from highest to lowest percentage. Young speakers responded 53.4% to 56.9% for older speakers for Type IRO (indirect requests +other SA). For the second most frequent response, Type NR (no request given), young speakers responded 28.4% compared to 32% for the older speakers. Finally in Type IR (indirect request), younger speakers responded 18.2% to 11.1% for the older speakers. While the types of responses were mirrored between groups, the percentage difference within group is most clearly seen in the older speakers. The range high to low is 56.9% -11.1%, a difference of almost 46 points. The young speakers were also divided within group comparison. The range high to low is 53.4% -18.2%, a difference of 35.2 points, but not as dramatic at the old speakers.

To examine if there were more pronounced differences exist within groups, a two-way analysis was done for Gender x Age. The findings pattern with the overall findings as seen in Table 4.11. The sample size was not large enough to run a three-way analysis of Region x Gender x Age and be statistically valid.

4.3 Data Analysis of Additional Discourse Features and Linguistic Politeness

The results presented in this section are based on the questions concerning the use of additional discourse features in the speech of the participants. The specific questions are: Question 4: Based on situational responses, are there regional differences in the use of additional discourse features, therefore affecting politeness? Question 6: Are there gender differences in the use of additional discourse features, and if so, does this affect

politeness as suggested by previous research done in English? Question 8: What additional discourse features are used in the speech of the old and the young? Does this affect politeness?

As a secondary analysis of the gathered data, the use of additional discourse features were categorized and coded to further assess differences in the speech patterns of region, gender, and age. As explained in Chapter 3 (see section 3.4), this method of coding discourse was created using the Blum-Kulka et al. study as a model. For each of the categories, coding was done for all nine situations and examples are given followed by an analysis of significance. The first comparison in each category is that of percentage differences followed by a chi square analysis. The value of chi square should be greater than or equal to 3.84 to show statistical significance. The value of each chi square is given showing significance. For a complete list of all coded items of additional discourse marking and the chi square formula, see Appendix C, p. 146.

4.3.1 Use of Alerters

The category of Alerters includes attention getters, discourse markers, expressions and phrases provided in the participant's response. Several attention getters and discourse markers were prominent in the responses, such as *oye*, *ey*, *mira*, *pues*, and *bueno*. Other expressions as *ándame por Dios* and *cuidado* were also frequent. Of the 138 alerters used in the nine situations, some difference occurs. Below are percentage comparisons of region, gender, and age.

Table 4.12: Comparisons in the Use of Alerters in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N= 138)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	79	57
	Andalusia (N=20)	59	43
Gender	Male (N=18)	54	39
	Female (N=22)	84	61
Age	Young (N=22)	88	64
	Old (N=18)	50	36

When analyzing differences within regions, there is a slight difference in the use of alerters. Of the alerters used, Castilians provided 14% more alerters than participants from Andalusia, responding 57% compared to 43% for Andalusians. To measure statistical significance in this difference, a chi square analysis was run of possible alerters. The results show the chi square value of 1.58 with $p=.05$, therefore making the difference not statistically significant.

Of the alerters used, there are noticeable differences comparing men and women. Women participants used 22% more alerters than males, responding 61% compared to 39% for males. However, when testing with chi square analysis, the value was 1.29 with $p=.05$, making the percentage not statistically significant.

Once again, of the total number of alerters used, the differences can be seen when comparing young and old. The young participants used 28% more alerters than the old,

responding 64% compared to 36% for old speakers. As with the gender differences, the chi square analysis proved not statistically significant with a value of 1.29 and $p=.05$.

4.3.2 Use of Personal Address

The category of personal address items include names of family members, nicknames, and lexical items used as terms of endearment, such as *ángel*, *chaval*, and *chato*. The use of *mamá* and *hermano(a)* were frequent due to the nature of specific situations but included in the analysis because not all participants provided these terms in their responses. Of the 31 instances of personal address provided, slight differences occur. Below are percentage comparisons for region, gender, and age.

Table 4.13: Comparisons in the Use of Personal Address in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N=31)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	17	55
	Andalusia (N=20)	14	45
Gender	Male (N=18)	11	35.5
	Female (N=22)	20	64.5
Age	Young (N=22)	19	61
	Old (N=18)	12	39

When comparing the regional differences in the use of personal address, percentages are minor. Speakers from Castile responded 55% to 45% for Andalusians, a

difference of 10% more. The tested difference with a chi square analysis has a value of .318 with $p=.05$, showing the difference is not statistically significant.

There are more noticeable differences in the use of personal items in gender. Of the items given, women provided 29% more times than men, responding 64.5% to 35.5% for males. The chi square analysis, however, showed no statistical significance with a value of 1.24 and $p=.05$.

The differences in age are apparent, where young participants used 22% more personal address items than the old participants, responding 61% to 39% for old speakers. However, when the difference was tested using a chi square analysis, there is no statistical significance, with a value of .054 and $p=.05$.

4.3.3 Use of Intensifiers

The category of intensifiers includes adverbials, adjectives, and added morphological items, such as *-ito*, *-illo*, and *-ísimo*. The majority of the intensifiers produced were quantitative in nature, like *muy*, *mucho* and *más*. Other intensifiers were coded because of the semantic value of the item, such as *inmediatamente*, *en seguida*, and *con urgencia*. Of the 39 intensifiers produced, some difference occurs. Below are percentage comparisons for region, gender, and age.

Table 4.14: Comparisons in the Use of Intensifiers in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N=39)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	16	40
	Andalusia (N=20)	23	60

Table 4. 14 (cont.)

Gender	Male (N=18)	14	64
	Female (N=22)	25	36
Age	Young (N=22)	25	64
	Old (N=18)	14	36

The regional differences are somewhat pronounced in the use of intensifiers. The participants in Andalusia used 20% more of the intensifiers, responding 60% compared to 40% for Castilians. However, when a chi square analysis was performed, there was no statistical significance with a value of 1.48 and $p=.05$.

Of the intensifiers used, males use 28% more than females do. Males responded 64% to 36% for female speakers. Although this percentage is different, the statistical significance is not noticed when using a chi square analysis. The value is .855 with $p=.05$.

As with differences in gender, age differences do occur in the use of intensifiers. Of the intensifiers produced, young participants use them 28% more, responding 64% compared to 36% for old speakers. However, a chi square analysis shows no statistical significance in the difference with a value of .854 when $p=.05$.

4.3.4 Use of Polite Markers

The category of polite markers includes lexical items and expressives, such as *por favor*, *gracias*, and *adiós*. Other expressives were also included, like *perdón* and *disculpa* when not used as a function of making an apology. Of the 50 polite markers

used, *por favor* is most prominent. Some difference is noted in region and gender, but not in age. Below are the percentage comparisons for all segments.

Table 4.15: Comparisons in the Use of Polite Markers in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N=50)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	31	62
	Andalusia (N=20)	19	38
Gender	Male (N=18)	21	58
	Female (N=22)	29	42
Age	Young (N=22)	25	50
	Old (N=18)	25	50

Of the 50 polite markers used, the participants from Castile used 24% more than the region of Andalusia. Speakers from Castile responded 62% to 38% for speakers from Andalusia. While some difference exists in the percentages, the chi square analysis shows no statistical significance with a value of 2.96 where $p=.05$.

Differences in gender are not as pronounced as in the region. Of the 50 polite markers used, males produced 16% more, responding 58% compared to 42% for females. The chi square analysis showed no statistical significance with a value of .002 when $p=.05$.

When comparing the differences in age, the percentages show no difference in the use of polite markers produced. Both young and old participants equally use the polite

markers responding 50% to 50%. A chi square analysis show no statistical significance with a value of .338 when $p=.05$.

4.3.5 Use of Hedges

For coding the use of hedges by participants, responses were marked as [+hedge] or [-hedge] based on the utterance given. A hedge is a linguistic strategy used to vary the strength of the illocutionary force of the utterance. Blum Kulka et al. define a hedge as “avoiding the proposition directly and precisely by using additional lexical items”. Some examples of hedges in pardons include the use of representatives or discourse markers before the actual speech act of pardon. Others include excuses or detailed representatives before making the request. Below are the comparisons for region, gender, and age.

Table 4.16: Comparisons in the Use of Hedges in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N= 46)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	26	57
	Andalusia (N=20)	20	43
Gender	Male (N=18)	21	46
	Female (N=22)	25	54
Age	Young (N=22)	26	57
	Old (N=18)	20	43

Of the 46 instances when hedges were used, the participants from Castile produced 14% more, responding 57% compared to 43% for speakers from Andalusia.

An analysis using chi square showed no statistical significance having a value of .897 when $p=.05$.

Like in regional differences, there was variance in the use of hedges between genders. Of the 46 hedges, females used only 8% more than male speakers. Females responded 54% to 46% for male speakers. However, the chi square analysis showed no statistical significance with a value of .009 when $p=.05$.

The differences in age mirror those of region. The young participants used 14% more hedges than the old speakers. The young speakers responded 57% to 43% for old speakers. The chi square analysis had a value of .049 showing no statistical significance when $p=.05$.

4.3.6 Accepts Responsibility

For the coding of responsibility, only the five apology situations were examined due to the nature of the situation. If participants showed evidence of taking or accepting responsibility, then the utterance was coded [+ R]. Examples include *rompí el plato* and *era mi culpa*. Below are the comparisons for region, gender, and age.

Table 4.17: Comparisons in Accepting Responsibility in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N= 21)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	12	57
	Andalusia (N=20)	9	43
Gender	Male (N=18)	4	19
	Female (N=22)	17	81

Table 4.17 (cont.)

Age	Young (N=22)	11	52
	Old (N=18)	10	48

Regional differences in the accepting of responsibility were only slight. Of the 21 instances used in accepting responsibility, participants from Castile used 14% more than those from Andalusia, responding 57% to 43%. A chi square analysis was performed and a value of .478 showed no statistical significance when $p=.05$.

The most heavily marked difference in accepting responsibility is seen in gender. Of the 21 instances, females provided 61% more than male participants. Female speakers responded 81% compared to 19% for male speakers. A further test of significance using a chi square analysis was used. The resulting value was 6.385 showing a significant difference when $p \leq .025$. Females do accept responsibility more than male counterparts when apologizing.

The differences in age groups are not as pronounced as gender differences. Of the 21 instances, young speakers use only 4% more, responding 52% to 48% for the old participants. A chi square value of .065 showed no statistical significance when $p=.05$.

4.3.7 Offers Repair

In the same manner as coding responsibility, the only five situations examined were those of apologies due to the specific nature of the situation. If the participant offered to help or repair the situation, then the utterance was coded [+OR]. Examples

include *¿te ayudo?* and *lo arreglo ahora*. Below are comparisons for region, gender, and age.

Table 4.18: Comparisons in Offering Repair in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N= 43)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	19	44
	Andalusia (N=20)	24	56
Gender	Male (N=18)	18	42
	Female (N=22)	25	58
Age	Young (N=22)	21	49
	Old (N=18)	22	51

There were 43 instances when participants offered to help or repair the situation during an apology. Speakers from Andalusia offered 12% more times, responding 56% to 44% for Castilians in these given situations. A chi square value of .467 showed no statistical significance when $p=.05$.

Female speakers offered repair 16% more than male speakers in the 43 instances. Females responded 58% compared to 42% for male speakers. A chi square analysis was used to measure statistical significance. A value of .001 showed no significance in the difference when $p=.05$.

The offer of repair was almost identical when comparing age differences. Of the 43 instances, the old participants offered only 2% more than the young speakers. Old

speakers responded 51% to 49% for young speakers. The chi square value was 1.071 when $p=.05$ showing no statistical significance.

4.3.8 Expresses Need

To code utterance in terms of expressing need, only the four situations involving requests were examined due to the nature of the other situations. The primary lexical items marked were in the forms of the verbs *necesitar*, *querer*, and *gustar* (conditional form). If participants used one of these forms, then the utterance was coded [+EN]. Below are the percentage comparisons for region, gender, and age.

Table 4.19: Comparisons in the Expression of Need in Region, Gender, and Age

Comparison Groups		Frequency (N= 31)	Percentage %
Region	Castile (N=20)	17	55
	Andalusia (N=20)	14	45
Gender	Male (N=18)	12	39
	Female (N=22)	19	61
Age	Young (N=22)	18	58
	Old (N=18)	13	42

When comparing regions, only a 10 % variation is seen. Speakers from Castile expressed a need more (55%) than the speakers in Andalusia (45%) when making a request. The chi square value was .360 when $p=.05$ showing no statistical significance.

When comparing difference in gender, the difference becomes greater. Of the 31 instances when need was expressed, female used 22% more than male speakers. Females

responded 61% compared to 39% for male speakers. However, when testing with a chi square analysis, the value of .614 showed no statistical significance in the difference when $p=.05$.

Age differences in the expression of need showed a 16% range. Young participants performed more (58%) than the older participants (42%) when expressing need. A chi square value of .145 showed no statistical significance when $p=.05$.

4.4 Metalinguistic Discussions and Native Speaker Judgments

The results in this section are based on the research questions concerning the secondary data of native speaker judgments. The specific questions are: Question 9: How do native speakers perceive speech differences in the regions of Castile and Andalusia? Do these perceptions parallel the speech act findings? Question 10: How do native speakers perceive speech differences in men and women? Do these perceptions parallel the speech act findings? Question 11: How do native speakers perceive speech differences in the two age groups? Do these perceptions parallel the speech act findings?

4.4.1 Informants for Metalinguistic Judgments

The informants for the secondary data were demographically mixed by region, gender, sex and educational level. A total number of 18 informants participated in responding to the questionnaire. Eight of the informants were from the region of Castile, eight were from Andalusia and two were from Valencia. The two informants from Valencia, one male and one female, were interviewed to provide somewhat neutral opinions concerning region. A complete breakdown of informants is given in Appendix D, p. 157.

Table 4.20: Informants in Secondary Data Corpus

N=18											
Castile (N= 8)				Andalusia (N= 8)				Valencia (N= 2)			
Male (N= 3)		Female (N= 5)		Male (N= 4)		Female (N= 4)		Male (N=1)		Female (N=1)	
Old	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young
1	2	2	3	3	1	1	3	1			1

The questionnaire used for the secondary data contained 11 items for eliciting a response. The items were ranked from global to specific, beginning with broad questions about conversational differences to specific situations and responses. The questionnaire responses used for the secondary data is given below. The translated English version is listed in Appendix F, p. 161.

4.4.2 Results of Questionnaire

Item 1 *¿Quién usaría más las palabras de cortesía, por ejemplo <<por favor>> y <<gracias>>?* was created based on the global idea of politeness of words based on stereotypes. When asked who would be more likely to use these words, 67% said women, 67% said older people, and 55% said that either region would use polite words.

Item 2 *¿Quién usaría más las palabrotas o los tacos en la conversación?* was created to test global feelings of profanity in conversation based on cultural stereotypes. When asked who would be more likely to use these words, 56% said men, 50 % said young people, and 50 % said that either region would use them.

Item 3 *¿Quién usaría más la palabras como intensificadores, por ejemplo el uso de <<muchísimo>> o <<problemillo>> en vez de usar <<mucho>> o <<problema>>?* was created to focus on intensifiers in speech. Of the responses given, 61% said that both men and women would equally use intensifiers, 44% said that old and young would use intensifiers, and 44% said that both regions would use them.

Items 4 through 7 were designed specifically for feedback on actual responses from participants in the primary data set. These questions provided a situation and response. Each informant was asked to tell who might have said that response without knowing any other information. Some of the stimulus answers were rated as ‘both’ because of the neutrality of response. Other stimulus answers were coded more heavily to stereotypical responses. Below are the results of Items 4 through 7.

Table 4.21: Results of Item 4, Parts 1 and 2

Situation: <i>Vas caminando por la calle y chocas con un hombre desconocido que te parece muy enojado. ¿Qué le dirías?</i>	M/F ¹	Y/O ²	C/A ³
	% of who would say utterance	% of who would say utterance	% of who would say utterance
Answer 1: Lo siento mucho. Disculpe	67% both groups	56% both groups	45% both groups
Answer 2: Tenga más cuidado. Mire por donde va	67% men	50% young	44% Castile and 44% both groups

¹ refers to Male or Female

² refers to Young or Old

³ refers to Castile or Andalusia

Answer 1 elicited a neutral response where 67% of the informants said that either male of females could say the utterance, 56% said that both young and old could say the utterances, and 45% said that both regions could produce the utterance. Answer 2

elicited more of a specific selection of gender, region, and age. 67% of the informants thought the utterance would be from a male speaker, 50 % thought that it would be from a young speaker, and 44% felt that Castilian speakers were more likely to say this than Andalusian speakers. Of the other informants, 44% felt that both regions could produce the utterance.

Table 4.22: Results of Item 5, Parts 1 and 2

Situation: <i>Estás en casa y por casualidad rompes una reliquia familiar, por ejemplo, un plato antiguo. ¿Qué le dirías a tu madre?</i>	M/F ¹ % of who would say utterance	Y/O ² % of who would say utterance	C/A ³ % of who would say utterance
Answer 1: ¡Ándame por Dios! Lo siento	62% both groups	55% both groups	61 % both groups
Answer 2: Ay, perdone, mamá. Lo siento mucho. Mañana te compro otro.	55% both groups	50 % both groups	72 % both groups

¹ refers to Male or Female

² refers to Young or Old

³ refers to Castile or Andalusia

For Answer 1, informants felt that distinctions in gender, age, and region were not noticeable by the utterance. 62% felt that either gender could produce the utterance, 55% felt that both age groups could produce the utterance, and 61% felt that both regions could produce the utterance. Answer 2 is similar in the patterns of non-distinction in gender, age, and region. 55% felt that either gender could produce the utterance, 50 % felt that both age groups could produce the utterance, and 72% felt that region was not a factor in the utterance.

Table 4.23: Results of Item 6, Parts 1 and 2

Situation: <i>Entras al cine y te acomodas en tu lugar. Antes de empezar la película, decides comprar un refresco. Cuando vuelves a tu asiento, alguien está sentado en tu lugar que es tu favorito. ¿Qué le dirías?</i>	M/F ¹ % of who would say utterance	Y/O ² % of who would say utterance	C/A ³ % of who would say utterance
Answer 1: <i>Mira, este asiento es mío. Por favor levántese o llamaría a alguien.</i>	67% men	39% both groups	50% Castile
Answer 2: <i>Oye, disculpa, pero yo estaba antes y fui a comprar bebida. Es mi sitio.</i>	50% men	44% young and 44% both groups	44% both groups

¹ refers to Male or Female

² refers to Young or Old

³ refers to Castile or Andalusia

Item 6 provided more variation in the response of the informants. Answer 1 elicited differences in gender and region, but not in age. 67% of the informants felt that a male would say the utterance and 50% felt that someone from Castile would say the utterance. 39% felt that both old and young speakers could say the utterance. Answer 2 had less distinction in the groups. 50% felt that male speakers would use the utterance, 44% felt that young speakers would say the utterance and 44% felt that old or young speakers could use the utterance. 44% felt that both regions could say the utterance.

Table 4.24: Results of Item 7, Parts 1 and 2

Situation: <i>Acabas de tener un accidente y necesitas pedirle dinero prestado a tu hermana. Sabes que ella no tiene mucho dinero pero es necesario que te ayude. ¿Cómo le pedirías ese favor?</i>	M/F ¹ % of who would say utterance	Y/O ² % of who would say utterance	C/A ³ % of who would say utterance
Answer 1: Yo sé que estás liado pero es que necesito pelotas para el accidente.	50% both groups	39% both groups	44% Castile and 44% both groups
Answer 2: Pues, mira, ángel. Necesito que me des dinero. Sé que no tienes ni un duro pero es que lo necesito.	67% women	44% both groups	61% both groups

¹ refers to Male or Female

² refers to Young or Old

³ refers to Castile or Andalusia

Item 7 also provided some variation in the responses of the informants. Answer 1 elicited responses proving gender nor age were factors of difference. 50 % of the informants said that males or females could say the utterance. 39% of informants felt that either young or old speakers could say the utterance. Region showed some variation with 44% leaning to Castile as the utterance and 44% non specific by region. Answer 2 provided gender variation where 67% of the informants felt that female speakers would use the utterance. 44% felt that age was not a factor and 61% felt that both regions could use the utterance.

A complete description of the raw responses and totals for the questions used in the secondary data are given in Appendix G, p. 163. The totals given with the raw data correspond to the responses given by all participants.

4.4.3 Conversational Analysis of Interviews

After completing the questionnaire, informants were asked to describe in broad terms their perceptions on the speech differences based on the sociolinguistic variables of region, gender, and age. Many of the older informants felt that young speakers are much different now from before, with comments like, “No hablábamos así.... No usábamos tantas palabras malas.... Hablábmos con respeto” (We didn’t talk that way before.... We didn’t use so many bad words.... We spoke with respect). Some of the young informants felt that their language was fine and the primary things that make them different are word choices and speed of talk. One young female said, “Pues, creo que hablamos bien.... Claro, no usamos las palabras antiguas ni somos ángeles..... y hablamos muy rápido a veces.” (Well, I think that we speak well.... Of course, we don’t use antiquated words nor are we angels.... and we speak very quickly sometimes.)

A general consensus by most of the informants dealt with the concepts of social context and false stereotypes. Many said that speech can be different depending on the context of the talk, and that stereotypes are not always the case in these speech communities. Several informants said of the use of profanity, “no es una cosa solamente para hombres... se dice todo el mundo con chistes y entre amigos.” (it’s not just a thing for men.... Everybody says (it) with jokes and among friends). These comments will be further discussed in the next section.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A broad analysis of this three-part study does appear valid in marking variation in the performance of speech acts in Peninsular Spanish. The typology for coding the speech act realization for apologies and requests classifies the utterance by the type of speech act performed or by the severity of the situational opting out. An analysis of the “no responses” is addressed for individual situations based on the situational severity level and relationship of speaker to hearer. The coding of additional discourse features classifies the utterance on a secondary level, providing evidence of the sociolinguistic differences in region, gender, and age, as well as the politeness factor in speech. The metalinguistic discussions and native speaker judgments serve as additional data in the explanation of these differences. Specific discussion of the results is explained in the following sections.

5.1 Speech Act Classification and Usage

5.1.1 Situational Severity Factor

Before discussing the differences in the speech acts and their classifications in apologies and requests, a brief look must be taken at the situations themselves. Do the situations provide enough variation in the situational severity level to elicit different types of speech acts? For apologies, there were 17 different types of responses possible for each situation, ranging from direct to indirect in nature. Some of those types were not used in all five situations, so the types were regrouped into macro speech act types. When examining the macro speech act types for situational difference, variation is observed based on the situational severity level, meaning that different types of speech

acts are used in different situations. Do these types follow the pattern of more severe the situation, the more indirect the response? Not in every case. Based on data from Table 4.5, responses are varied and do not follow a pattern based on the severity of the situation.

For requests, there were 22 different types of responses based on four request situations. As in apologies, some of these types were not produced so they were regrouped into macro speech act response types. These macro response types also show variation based on the situational severity level of the given request, but not all types were produced. Based on Table 4.10, there is evidence that speakers do not use direct speech acts (Types DR and DRO) when making requests. This shows a softening of the speech acts by using more indirect methods of requesting. As the request situations become more severe, the type of macro speech act response also changes. As the potential damage to the face of the speaker and hearer changes, the participants provided indirect requests with additional speech acts to soften the request. Often the speakers would opt out of making the request, possibly to insure no damage to face in the situation. Based on the responses given for apologies and requests, there is no solid correlation found in the type of speech act used and the situational severity level. Responses are varied among all speakers.

5.1.2 Speech Act Variation by Region, Gender, and Age

When analyzing the apologies and requests given and characterizing the data by region, gender, and age, very little variation is seen between the groups. Table 4.6 shows the results of classification of apologies based on the sociolinguistic factors. When looking at each macro response type according to region, gender, and age, there are only

small percentage differences in usage. This indicates that the apologies are used almost identically in each segment. These apologies have become almost formulaic in nature and are used by all speakers in Peninsular Spanish. The use of the IFID (illocutionary force indicating device) is produced in many forms, but the function of formulating the apology still exists.

The speech acts produced while making requests are similar to the patterns of the apologies. Table 4.11 shows the classification of the Macro response types based on sociolinguistic factors of region, gender, and age. None of the speakers used direct speech acts while requesting. This might be expected based on the nature of requests themselves. Speakers may feel less likely to cause damage to face by reducing the impact of the request. Often speakers provided some type of explanation or expressed some type of need while making the request. This explanation often was intended to include the hearer in the situation so that the social distance was minimized. What do these results mean? Concerning the formulation of apologies and making requests in Peninsular Spanish, there are set ways to perform speech acts and these methods have become somewhat formulaic in nature, regardless of region, gender, or age of the speaker. Certain situations may elicit different types of speech acts, but these different types appear to be universal across groups. Even when the responses seem to vary in some way from the norm, relevance theory explains how the response follows the maxim: be relevant. Participants provided possible utterances, which were compared to other utterances and rechecked by native speakers. None of the speech acts fell outside of the classification typology. When the speaker chose to use an uncommon speech act type,

then native speakers were able to explain the meaning behind the utterance, therefore making it acceptable.

One possible reason for the uniformity of responses goes back to the observer's paradox. As a nonnative speaker from outside the group, were participant's adjusting speech patterns to be understood by the investigator? It is likely that the speakers were accommodating their speech and using a form of "foreigner talk", providing the most salient response based on the situation. Would the results be different if the data were gathered in a different manner and using a different interview technique? These are unanswered questions. One can never be truly sure of the authenticity of data, whether in oral or written form, whether gathered by in-group peers or outside investigators. The data, however, must stand on the fact that all participants were responding to the same stimulus and to the same investigator.

5.2 Additional Discourse Features and Linguistic Politeness

Since the performance of the actual speech acts does not show great variation, the focus then becomes shifted to the differences seen in the speech patterns of the sociolinguistic groups by region, gender, and age. There are differences observed in the marking of additional discourse features of the language. These markings for discourse features are often used in showing politeness of speech and will be explained accordingly. The additional discourse features under examination include the use of alerters, personal address items, intensifiers, polite markers, hedges, accepting responsibility, offering repair and expressing need. When comparing the groups on the use of these discourse features, with the exception of accepting responsibility, the statistical significance of the differences in region, gender, and age does not exist. There

are small percentage differences, but these are not statistically significant. This strengthens the creativity of language. While the speech acts themselves are similar, speakers used a wide variety of discourse features to mark individuality. These tell a lot about language because many times, these discourse features are unconscious utterances made by speakers to convey meaning. Differences are not seen in the numeric comparison of groups, but are seen in the specific discourse features used. For alerters, speakers from Castile and female speakers used more often “Oye”, while males used more “Mira” or “Mire.” Young speakers used more expressives like, “Eh” and expressions of profanity. This is perhaps due to the cultural relationship that males have in regard to the female investigator. Males may have shown a cultural restraint in using profanity. Of all the discourse features used, the alerters have the highest frequency count at 138 instances.

The personal address items used by speakers were slightly different in males and females. Young speakers and female speakers used more of these features than did males and older speakers. The majority of the personal address items were elicited during the situations dealing with family members. Female speakers also added personal address to strangers as a way of personalizing the situation and lessening social distances. The most common personal address was “mamá” followed by “niño” and “hombre.”

The use of intensifiers also showed no statistical significance across groups, producing only small percentage differences. Speakers from Andalusia, male speakers, and young speakers used more intensifiers in the discourse than did speakers from Castile, female speakers, or old speakers. The types of intensifiers used were heavily weighted based on the type of situation. Situation R4 (requesting money from sister)

elicited the most intensifiers due to the nature of the request. Most of the intensifiers in this situation came from lexical items and semantic power. Phrases like “urgente”, “es grave” and “con urgencia” were used to express need and framed the request as really important. Other typical intensifiers used were morphological in nature (i.e. –ísimo, -ito, -illo, -in). These intensifiers could be used to strengthen or weaken the situation. Several speakers used “mucho” or the variation “muchísimo.” Others marked words with diminutives “poquito”, “animalito” and “problemillo.” In either case, the morphological intensifiers show expressiveness of language.

The use of polite markers stereotypically has been attributed to women. In these situations, male speakers and speakers from Castile produced more polite markers than did female speakers and speakers from Andalusia. There were no differences in the age comparison. Once again, this may have been caused by cultural roles of male speakers in Spain addressing a female investigator and the use of formal talk. They may have felt obliged or have taken more caution to speak politely. In addition, female speakers may have felt more relaxed and used more casual speech with a female investigator. The leading polite markers were “por favor” and one of the pardons “perdón”, “lo siento” or “disculpe.” These pardons were classified as polite markers and not considered apologies when used in the request situations, showing some type of politeness before making the request.

The use of hedges revealed no significance in the differences in group comparisons. Speakers from Castile, female speakers, and young speakers produced more hedges than the group counterparts. Speakers often chose linguistic strategies before making the requests by softening the proposition. This use of hedges functions in

the same mode as do indirect requests by avoiding direct speech acts and softening the request. Often speakers making a request would use representative speech acts to give contextual information before making the request. This in some ways serves to verify the request and save face for the speaker and hearer (i.e. “I wouldn’t ask you this but...”, or “I know you don’t have much money now, but...”).

The discourse features used in offering repair and the expressing of need show no statistical significance. When apologizing, speakers were almost identical in offering repair to the hearer if fault was taken. This is seen in the apology situations when some type of damage occurs. In situation A2 (an unknown lady drops her packages because you run into her) speakers consistently offered to help the lady with expressions like “¿Te ayudo?” or “lo hago” therefore saving face of both participants. In situation A3 (you break your mother’s antique plate) most speakers offered repair by offering to fix the plate or buying another plate. This offer of repair in this situation is driven by saving face of the speaker. Lastly, in situation A5 (your brother’s pet dies while you are watching him) speakers offered to do something to repair the horrible situation. Many speakers suggested that they would buy another animal to have when the brother returned home, offering repair before expressing the apology.

The expression of need is similar to the offering of repair in the sense that as the situation becomes more severe, more speakers express a need before making the request. These expressions of need are usually patterned with the use of hedges. Speakers would show a need in the hedge proposition created before the request. Even though not significant, female speakers expressed a need more often than did male speakers.

The only statistical significant finding in the use of additional discourse features comes in the accepting of responsibility. Speakers from Castile and older speakers used this feature more than speakers from Andalusia and younger speakers. The percentage differences are small but some distinction does exist. The largest and most heavily marked difference is observed in the gender comparison. Female speakers accepted responsibility 61 percent more than male speakers when given the same situations in pardons. It is difficult to explain exactly why females accepted responsibility more than males. This may be due to cultural roles and social power in Spain. This may have been a result of face saving strategies used by female speakers to save personal face and the face of others. Why did female speakers overtly take blame for dialing the wrong number when male speakers did not? In the same situation, why did female speakers frequently use the active construction “Rompí el plato” when males more often used the impersonal “Se me cayó?” These are linguistic patterns that can be traced through the use of additional discourse features.

How do these findings affect linguistic politeness? It is clear that in certain situations, linguistic strategies and the use of additional discourse features are used to soften the speech act. These may be used to save face, depending on the relationship of the speaker and hearer, the potential for damage, and the particular severity of the situation. In the past, linguistic politeness has often been based on the use of polite markers and lexical choices associated with the speech of men and women. Now through the coding of discourse features, regional and age variations can be observed as well. The linguistic politeness is based on particular strategies speakers use to protect face,

both of speaker and hearer, and to reduce potential damage to face, as in the expression of need, accepting of responsibility, and by offering repair.

5.3 Secondary and Metalinguistic Data

The importance and significance of the metalinguistic discussion and native speaker judgments is two-fold. First, because a nonnative speaker was doing the investigation, the use of native speaker intuitions and opinions helps to validate the responses of the participants in the speech act production. These speech act verifications solidify the findings involving slight variation. They provide further evidence that the apologies and requests have become formulaic. Secondly, the metalinguistic discussions about language differences provide opportunities for informants to address stereotypes about language in Peninsular Spain and express perceptions about their language.

The results of the questionnaire concerning broad language issues proved interesting, often perpetuating the stereotypes about language. When asked which group would be more likely to use polite words, 67 % felt that women and older speakers would do so. The actual results based on the speech act data proved otherwise. No preference was given to the regional usage of polite words. Likewise, when asked a broad question about the use of profanity in conversation, 56% of the informants felt that men would be more likely to use profanity and 50% felt that young speakers would use profanity. No preference was given to the regional usage of profanity. While not specifically targeting the use of profanity as a discourse marker in the speech act data, many young females provided examples of profanity. The male speakers very well could have been restraining due to social and cultural norms while speaking with a female investigator. The last major question concerning language differences dealt with the use of intensifiers.

Informants felt that intensifiers could be used equally regardless of region, gender, or age. The findings mirror those comments providing only minor percentage differences within groups. Even though the percentages were not heavily weighted toward one group, the comments made by the informants are valuable. The second part of the questionnaire was a test of actual utterances gathered in the speech act data. The results pattern with the responses in the broad questioning. The informants gave language intuitions based on the response, more times than not, choosing the correct region, gender, and age of the speaker. This further strengthens the findings of formulaic speech patterns in apologies and requests. The use of additional discourse features, not speech acts, alerted informants of speech differences (i.e. the use of personal address items and intensifiers).

The most interesting part of the metalinguistic discussions was following the questionnaire with free conversation about language. The informants were willing to discuss how groups varied. Speakers from Castile often thought of themselves as “rough” speakers while the speakers from Andalusia felt they were more “patient and polite.” Female informants, mostly young ones, wanted to break the stereotypes of women’s speech saying that they spoke differently than the older females. The young women said that they used profanity and were not afraid to be forceful with language if the situation demanded it. The older males felt that language of the youth has been totally changed. They (the young people) “don’t show respect” and use “terrible” expressions. Many of the young male speakers felt that their language changed according to the conversation and people involved in the conversation, but that they spoke like everyone else. Some of the older women from Andalusia tried to express differences based on phonology and language sounds, and told how they often “ate their words in fast

conversation.” In all cases, the opinions and intuitions about language given by the informants provided authentic language judgments from speakers using Peninsular Spanish. Overall, based on the metalinguistic discussions and native speaker intuitions, the primary differences are perceived in gender and some in age, but not in region. This supports the findings for additional discourse features and sociolinguistic variation.

5.4 Implications for Future Research

The findings from this study offer insights to language variation between regions, gender, and age. The results can be compared and contrasted with previous research done in pragmatics, linguistic politeness, and language and gender. Do the speech act realizations correspond to the findings of other studies? Do they show up as formulaic patterns in apologies and requests? How does the use of additional discourse features fit into the area of linguistic politeness? Are these features used to save face and prevent damage? Does qualitative data, such as native intuitions and judgments, prove important and necessary in quantitative research? The answers to these questions can be addressed with further investigation of speech acts and extralinguistic discourse features.

Other possibilities for this research include educational uses of L2 speech act acquisition and uses within the business community. How are speech acts taught in language learning settings through pragmatics? Is it optimal teaching to show the formulaic expressions? How do these acts change according to situational content? A longitudinal study would be ideal, gathering data every ten years to track language progression and change in Spain. One possibility is that over the next thirty years, language variation will become less apparent due to technological advances and more open communication within the country. As of now, the regional differences are not

evident in this study. The description of the sociolinguistic variations is needed for the total corpus, and the results of this study are needed for Spanish language variation and pragmatics.

While these findings shown little variation in the performance of apologies and requests, further research is suggested using different speech act types and altering the situational content, as well as in gathering the data. Would written surveys provide different results? Would a native speaker within specific social groups provide different results? These additional studies would supplement the fields of Spanish language variation in pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

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APPENDIX A: DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANT PROFILES FOR SPEECH ACT AND SOCIOLINGUISTIC DATA

Participant No. Gender	Region, City	Age	Occupation
01 (F1)	Castile, Madrid	28	Graphic Designer
02 (F2)	Castile, Madrid	25	Music Production, Publicity
03 (F4)	Castile, Madrid	45	College Professor
04 (F5)	Castile, Madrid	29	Businesswoman
05 (F6)	Castile, Madrid	47	Television Production
06 (F9)	Castile, Segovia	50	Small Business Owner
07 (F11)	Castile, Segovia	58	Retired Housewife
08 (F12)	Castile, Segovia	18	Student
09 (F13)	Castile, Toledo	30	Doctor
10 (F14)	Castile, Toledo	20	Student
11 (F15)	Castile, Cuenca	22	Student
12 (F16)	Andalusia, Granada	45	Housewife
13 (F17)	Andalusia, Granada	47	Retired
14 (F18)	Andalusia, Granada	18	Student
15 (F20)	Andalusia, Granada	19	Student
16 (F22)	Andalusia, Málaga	26	Businesswoman
17 (F23)	Andalusia, Málaga	24	Student
18 (F25)	Andalusia, Salobreña	60	Retired school teacher
19 (F26)	Andalusia, Salobreña	18	Student
20 (F27)	Andalusia, Seville	59	Retired
21 (F28)	Andalusia, Seville	27	Student
22 (F30)	Andalusia, Seville	51	Store Owner
23 (M4)	Castile, Madrid	45	Businessman
24 (M5)	Castile, Madrid	60	Retired Bar Owner
25 (M6)	Castile, Madrid	26	Policeman
26 (M7)	Castile, Segovia	56	Retired
27 (M8)	Castile, Segovia	51	Businessman
28 (M9)	Castile, Segovia	23	Student
29 (M10)	Castile, Toledo	18	Student
30 (M11)	Castile, Toledo	28	Construction Worker
31 (M12)	Castile, Madrid	27	Graphic Design
32 (M13)	Andalusia, Granada	23	Hotel Clerk
33 (M14)	Andalusia, Granada	18	Student
34 (M16)	Andalusia, Granada	22	Student
35 (M17)	Andalusia, Granada	61	Retired
36 (M18)	Andalusia, Salobreña	46	Local Store Owner
37 (M19)	Andalusia, Salobreña	28	Fisherman
38 (M21)	Andalusia, Seville	53	Bus driver
39 (M22)	Andalusia, Seville	55	Businessman
40 (M23)	Andalusia, Seville	60	Retired

APPENDIX B: SITUATION RESPONSES OF INFORMANTS FOR ALL NINE SITUATIONS

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
1. Vas caminando por una calle y chocas con un hombre desconocido que te parece muy enojado. ¿Qué le dirías?	apology (level 1)	unknown to speaker (male)

You are walking down the street and you bump into and unknown man that appears to be very angry. What would you say to him?

Castile:

F1: Eh. Ten cuidado.		<i>Hey. Be careful.</i>
F2: Perdón		<i>Pardon.</i>
F4: Disculpa. No lo sabía que estabas allí.		<i>An apology. I didn't know that you were there.</i>
F5: ¡Pero Hombre! Mire un poco adonde va.		<i>But man! Watch out a little where you are going.</i>
F6: Perdón.		<i>Pardon.</i>
F9: Lo siento mucho. Disculpe		<i>I'm very sorry. An apology.</i>
F11: Perdón.		<i>Pardon.</i>
F12: No le diría nada.		<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F13: Perdone.		<i>Pardon.</i>
F14: Perdone.		<i>Pardon.</i>
F15: Perdón.		<i>Pardon.</i>
M4: Perdón.		<i>Pardon.</i>
M5: Disculpa. Perdón.		<i>An apology. Pardon.</i>
M6: Disculpe.		<i>An apology.</i>

M7:	Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
M8:	Perdone.	<i>Pardon.</i>
M9:	No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M10:	Hasta luego.	<i>See you later.</i>
M11:	Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
M12:	¡Cuidado, por favor!	<i>Careful please!</i>

Andalusia:

F16:	Lo siento	<i>I'm sorry.</i>
F17:	Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
F18:	Tenga más cuidado. Mire por donde va.	<i>Be more careful. Watch Where you are going.</i>
F20:	No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F22:	¡Qué coño te pasa! Cuidado.	<i>What the hell's happening! Careful!</i>
F23:	Disculpe. Lo siento.	<i>An apology. I'm sorry.</i>
F25:	¡Qué pasa hombre!	<i>What's happening man!</i>
F26:	Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
F27:	Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
F28:	No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F30:	No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M13:	Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>

M14: Perdone	<i>Pardon.</i>
M16: Disculpa.	<i>An apology.</i>
M17: Oye. Disculpa.	<i>Hey. An apology.</i>
M18: Tranquilo, hombre. Perdone.	<i>Calm down, man. Pardon.</i>
M19: Lo siento.	<i>I'm sorry.</i>
M21: Pase.	<i>Pass (on by).</i>
M22: ¿Te puedo ayudar?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
M23: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
2. Sales de una tienda. Cuando abres la puerta, te chocas con una mujer con muchos paquetes y ella deja caer sus paquetes. ¿Qué le dirías?	apology (level 2)	unknown to speaker (female)

You are leaving a store. When you open the door, you bump into a lady with many packages and she drops the packages. What would you say to her?

Castile:

F1: Perdón	<i>Pardon.</i>
F2: Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
F4: Espere. ¿Puedo ayudarle?	<i>Wait. Can I help you?</i>
F5: Lo siento. ¿Le ayudo?	<i>I'm sorry. Can I help you?</i>
F6: Perdón. ¿Puedo ayudarle?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
F9: Disculpa. ¿Le ayudo?	<i>An apology. Can I help you?</i>
F11: Perdón. ¿Le puedo ayudar?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
F12: ¿Puedo ayudarle?	<i>Can I help you?</i>

F13: ¡Ay, qué putado! Lo siento.	<i>Ay! What a bitch! (the situation) I'm sorry.</i>
F14: No le diría nada pero le ayudaría coger los paquetes.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to her, but I would help her pick up the packages.</i>
F15: Lo siento. ¿Te ayudo?	<i>I'm sorry. Can I help you?</i>
M4: ¿Le puedo ayudar?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
M5: Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
M6: ¿Le puedo ayudar?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
M7: Perdón. ¿Puedo ayudarle?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
M8: Perdone. ¿Le ayudo?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
M9: No le diría nada, pero le ayudaría cogerlos.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to her, but I would help her pick them (packages) up.</i>
M10: Lo siento.	<i>I'm sorry.</i>
M11: Lo siento.	<i>I'm sorry.</i>
M12: ¿Te puedo ayudar?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
Andalusia:	
F16: ¿Te ayudo?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
F17: ¿Puedo ayudarle?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
F18: Lo siento y le ayudaría.	<i>I'm sorry and I would help her.</i>
F20: ¿Te ayudo coger los paquetes?	<i>Can I help you pick up the packages?</i>
F22: Perdone. Lo siento.	<i>Pardon. I'm sorry.</i>
F23: Disculpe. ¿Puedo ayudarle?	<i>An apology. Can I help you?</i>
F25: Perdone.	<i>Pardon.</i>

F26: Perdón. ¿Le puedo ayudar?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
F27: Perdón. ¿Te ayudo?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
F28: ¿Te ayudo cogerlos?	<i>Can I help you pick them (packages) up?</i>
F30: ¿Te ayudo?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
M13: No le diría nada, pero le ayudaría cogerlos.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to her, but I would help her pick them (packages) up.</i>
M14: Perdone. ¿Te ayudo?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
M16: ¿Te ayudo?	<i>Can I help you?</i>
M17: Lo siento.	<i>I'm sorry.</i>
M18: Perdone. ¿Te ayudo?	<i>Pardon. Can I help you?</i>
M19: ¿Te puedo ayudar en algo?	<i>Can I help you in someway?</i>
M21: ¿Necesitas ayuda?	<i>Do you need help?</i>
M22: ¿Te ayudo cogerlos?	<i>Can I help you pick them (packages) up?</i>
M23: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to her.</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
3. Estas en casa y por casualidad rompes una reliquia familiar, por ejemplo, un plato antiguo. ¿Qué le dirías a tu madre?	apology (level 3)	family member (female)

You are at home, and by accident, you break a family heirloom, for example an antique plate. What would you say to your mother?

Castile:

F1: Lo siento, mamá. ¡Ostia!	<i>I'm sorry, mom. Crap!</i>
F2: Lo siento, mamá. Se me ha roto.	<i>I'm sorry, mom. It broke from me.</i>
F4: Se ha caído.	<i>It has fallen.</i>

F5: Mamá, sé que me vas a matar pero ha sido un accidente. Sé también que era muy importante para ti pero fue accidente. Lo siento.	<i>Mom, I know that you are going to kill me but there has been an accident. I know also that it (plate) was very important for you, but it was an accident. I'm sorry.</i>
F6: Mamá. Se me cayó.	<i>Mom. It fell from me.</i>
F9: Se me cayó. ¿Puedo compensarte? No te enojés, mamá.	<i>It fell from me. Can I compensate you? Don't get mad, mom.</i>
F11: Perdón, mamá. Se me cayó.	<i>Pardon, mom. It fell from me.</i>
F12: Lo escondería y no le diría nada.	<i>I would hide it (plate) and I wouldn't say anything.</i>
F13: Ay, mamá. Lo siento mucho.	<i>Ay, mom. I'm very sorry.</i>
F14: Lo siento muchísimo.	<i>I'm very, very sorry.</i>
F15: Lo siento. No me di cuenta.	<i>I'm sorry. I didn't realize it.</i>
M4: Mira, no perdí la guerra de Cuba, pero algo pasó. Se me cayó.	<i>Look, I didn't lose the Cuban war, but something happened. It fell from me.</i>
M5: Perdona. Rompí el plato.	<i>Pardon. I broke the plate.</i>
M6: Mamá, le pido perdón.	<i>Mom, I ask for pardon.</i>
M7: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything.</i>
M8: Lo siento, mamá y le compraría otro plato.	<i>I'm sorry, mom and I would buy her another plate.</i>
M9: Lo siento. No vas a creerlo.	<i>I'm sorry. You are not going to believe it.</i>
M10: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to her.</i>
M11: Perdón, mamá.	<i>Pardon, mom.</i>
M12: Mamá, se me cayó un plato de abuela.	<i>Mom, it (grandmother's plate) fell from me.</i>

Andalusia:

F16: Perdona.	<i>Pardon.</i>
F17: Lo siento, mamá. Se me cayó.	<i>I'm sorry, mom. It fell from me.</i>
F18: Lo siento, mamá.	<i>I'm sorry, mom.</i>
F20: Le compraría otro y no le diría nada.	<i>I would buy her another and I wouldn't say anything to her.</i>
F22: Ay, perdone, mamá. Lo siento mucho. Mañana te compro otro.	<i>Ay, pardon, mom. I'm very sorry. Tomorrow I'll buy another one.</i>
F23: Se me cayó.	<i>It fell from me.</i>
F25: Se me ha caído sin querer.	<i>It fell from me without wanting it to.</i>
F26: Perdón. Te compro otro igual.	<i>Pardon. I'll buy you another one equal (to the other)</i>
F27: Se me cayó.	<i>It fell from me.</i>
F28: Lo siento, mamá.	<i>I'm sorry, mom.</i>
F30: Lo siento y intento comprar otro.	<i>I'm sorry and I intend to buy another.</i>
M13: Lo siento, mamá.	<i>I'm sorry, mom.</i>
M14: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to her.</i>
M16: Lo escondería y no le diría nada.	<i>I would hide it and I wouldn't say anything to her.</i>
M17: ¡Andame por Dios! Lo siento.	<i>Oh my God! I'm sorry.</i>
M18: Perdone, mamá.	<i>Pardon, mom.</i>
M19: Lo arreglo inmediatamente.	<i>I will fix it immediately.</i>
M21: Lo siento.	<i>I'm sorry.</i>
M22: Perdón. Lo hice sin pensar.	<i>Pardon. I did it without thinking.</i>
M23: Mamá. Se lo he roto sin querer.	<i>Mom. It broke without my wanting it to.</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
4. Llamas por teléfono a tu mejor amigo pero cuando responde la otra persona, te das cuenta que has marcado un número equivocado. ¿Qué le dirías a la persona?	apology (level 1)	unknown to speaker (not specific gender)

You are calling your best friend on the phone, but when the other person answers, you realize that you dialed the wrong number. What would you say to that person?

Castile:

F1: Ay, Perdón. Equivocado.	<i>Ay, pardon. Mistaken.</i>
F2: Oye, mira es que me he equivocado. Hasta luego.	<i>Hey, look it's that I've mistaken. See you later.</i>
F4: Disculpa. Se me he equivocado el número.	<i>An apology. I've mistaken (misdialed) the number.</i>
F5: Perdone. Me he equivocado el número.	<i>Pardon. I've mistaken (misdialed) the number.</i>
F6: Disculpa la molestia. Adiós.	<i>(I) apologize for the bother. Good-bye</i>
F9: Se me he equivocado.	<i>I've mistaken.</i>
F11: Perdón. Me he equivocado.	<i>Pardon. I've mistaken.</i>
F12: Me he equivocado.	<i>I've mistaken.</i>
F13: Ay, me he equivocado. Lo siento.	<i>Ay, I've mistaken. I'm sorry.</i>
F14: Perdone. Equivocado.	<i>Pardon. Mistaken.</i>
F15: Perdón. Me he equivocado.	<i>Pardon. I've mistaken.</i>
M4: Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
M5: Perdón. Adiós.	<i>Pardon. Good-bye.</i>
M6: Discuple las molestias. Perdone.	<i>(I) apologize for the bother. Pardon.</i>

M7: Equivocado. Adiós.	<i>Mistaken. Good-bye.</i>
M8: Perdone. Me he equivocado.	<i>Pardon. I've mistaken.</i>
M9: Perdón. Me he equivocado.	<i>Pardon. I've mistaken.</i>
M10: Me he equivocado. Lo siento.	<i>I've mistaken. I'm sorry.</i>
M11: Perdón.	<i>Pardon.</i>
M12: ¡Ostra! Perdona.	<i>Crap! Pardon.</i>

Andalusia:

F16: Perdone, pero es que me he equivocado la marca.	<i>Pardon, but it's that I've misdialed the number.</i>
F17: Perdone.	<i>Pardon.</i>
F18: Lo siento. Perdone.	<i>I'm sorry. Pardon.</i>
F20: Perdóname. Equivocado.	<i>Pardon me. Mistaken.</i>
F22: Perdone. Lo siento. Es que me he equivocado el número y lo he hecho mal.	<i>Pardon. I'm sorry. It's that I've misdialed the number and I did it poorly.</i>
F23: Lo siento. Me he equivocado.	<i>I'm sorry. I've mistaken.</i>
F25: Perdone. Me he equivocado.	<i>Pardon. I've mistaken.</i>
F26: Perdón. Equivocado.	<i>Pardon. Mistaken.</i>
F27: Lo siento. Me he equivocado marcar el número.	<i>I'm sorry. I've misdialed the number.</i>
F28: Disculpe. Hasta luego.	<i>An apology. See you later.</i>
F30: Lo siento. Me he equivocado.	<i>I'm sorry. I've mistaken.</i>
M13: Lo siento. Me he equivocado.	<i>I'm sorry. I've mistaken.</i>
M14: Lo siento mucho. Confundido.	<i>I'm very sorry. Confused.</i>

M16: Disculpa. Perdone.	<i>An apology. Pardon.</i>
M17: Disculpa.	<i>An apology.</i>
M18: Disculpe. Equivocado.	<i>An apology. Mistaken.</i>
M19: Perdóname. Me he equivocado el número. Lo siento mucho. Disculpa.	<i>Pardon me. I've misdialed the number. I'm very sorry. An apology.</i>
M21: Disculpe.	<i>An apology.</i>
M22: Perdón. Marqué el número equivocado.	<i>Pardon. I misdialed the number mistakenly.</i>
M23: Perdona.	<i>Pardon.</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
5. Tu hermano te ha pedido que le cuides a su mascota porque se va a ir de viaje. Durante su viaje, el animalito se muere. ¿Qué le dirías a tu hermano cuando regresa?	apology (level 4)	family member (male)

Your brother has asked you to take care of his pet because he is going on a trip. During the trip, the animal dies. What would you say to your brother when he returns?

Castile:

F1: Se me escapó. Lo siento.	<i>He escaped from me. I'm sorry.</i>
F2: Oye, tengo que contarte una cosa. Se ha muerto el perro.	<i>Hey, I have to tell you something. The dog has died.</i>
F4: Mira lo que ha pasado. Está muerto.	<i>Look what happened. He's dead.</i>
F5: Sabes que no soy especialista de animales...No es que lo he matado.. es que no sabía cuidarle. Lo siento.	<i>You know that I'm not an animal specialist... It's not that I killed him, it's that I didn't know how to care for him. I'm sorry.</i>
F6: Se me escapó.	<i>He escaped from me.</i>
F9: No era mi culpa.	<i>It wasn't my fault.</i>

F11: Le compraría otro y le diría lo siento.	<i>I would buy him another and I would say that I'm sorry.</i>
F12: Me siento muy mal pero se ha muerto el perro.	<i>I feel very bad but the dog has died.</i>
F13: Mira lo que ha pasado. No me mates.	<i>Look what has happened. Don't kill me.</i>
F14: Discúlpame, hermano.	<i>Pardon me, brother.</i>
F15: Pues mira, lo siento. Se ha muerto.	<i>Well look, I'm sorry. He has died.</i>
M4: Le compraría otro y no le diría nada.	<i>I would buy him another and I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M5: Mira, no tenía la culpa. Se está muerto.	<i>Look, I don't have the blame. He's dead.</i>
M6: Yo le cuidé bien pero es que se me escapó y el perro se ha muerto.	<i>I cared for him well but it's that he escaped from me and the dog has died.</i>
M7: Le compraría otro y no le diría nada.	<i>I would buy him another and I wouldn't say anything.</i>
M8: Lo siento pero se fue "caput"	<i>I'm sorry but he went "caput".</i>
M9: Se ha muerto por una cosa en que no tengo idea.	<i>He has died by something (for some reason) unknown.</i>
M10: Lo siento mucho.	<i>I'm very sorry.</i>
M11: Se ha muerto.	<i>He has died.</i>
M12: Mira, ¿sabes lo que pasó? Se me ha escapado tu perrito.	<i>Look, you know what happened? Your dog has escaped from me.</i>

Andalusia:

F16: Lo siento mucho.	<i>I'm very sorry.</i>
F17: Mira, yo lo he cuidado lo más que he podido. Te compro otro.	<i>Look, I have cared for him as well as I could. I'll buy you another.</i>

F18: Mira, al principio estaba bien. Luego, sin darme cuenta, se murió.	<i>Look, at the beginning he was fine. Later, with out realizing it, he died.</i>
F20: Se me escapó. Lo siento.	<i>He escaped from me. I'm sorry.</i>
F22: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F23: Lo siento hermano. Está muerto.	<i>I'm sorry brother. He's dead.</i>
F25: ¡Que mala suerte! Está muerto tu mascota.	<i>What bad luck! Your pet is dead.</i>
F26: Perdon. No era culpa mía.	<i>Pardon. It wasn't my fault.</i>
F27: Es difícil. Lo siento.	<i>It hard. I'm sorry.</i>
F28: Lo siento mucho pero se ha muerto.	<i>I'm very sorry but he has died.</i>
F30: Se ha muerto el animalito.	<i>The animal has died.</i>
M13: Mira estaba fuera y cuando llegué, estaba muerto y no sé por qué.	<i>Look, I was outside and when I arrived, he was dead and I don't know why.</i>
M14: Mira, lo siento. ¿Te compro otro igual?	<i>Look, I'm sorry. Can I buy you another one just alike?</i>
M16: Está muerto el perro. Lo siento.	<i>The dog is dead. I'm sorry.</i>
M17: No le diría nada, pero le compraría otro.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him, but I would buy him another one.</i>
M18: Tranquilo. No era mi culpa. Era viejo.	<i>(Be) calm. It wasn't my fault. He was old.</i>
M19: Mira, niño. Lo siento mucho. Yo lo he cuidado todo lo que podía pero se ha muerto.	<i>Look, son. I'm very sorry. I have cared for him in everyway I could but he has died.</i>
M21: La mascota se puso enfermo y se ha muerto. Lo siento.	<i>The pet became sick and he has died. I'm sorry.</i>
M22: Se ha muelto.	<i>He has died.</i>
M23: Se ha muerto el perro. Lo siento.	<i>The dog has died. I'm sorry.</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
6. Entrás al cine y te acomodas en tu lugar. Antes de empezar la película, decides comprar un refresco. Cuando vuelves a tu asiento, alguien está sentado en tu lugar que es tu favorito. ¿Qué le dirías?	request (level 2)	unknown to speaker (not specific gender)

You enter into the movie theater and settle down in your seat. Before the movie starts, you decide to go get a drink. When you return, there is someone sitting in your seat, and it's your favorite. What would you say to that person?

Castile:

F1: Oye, perdón, pero yo estaba sentado aquí.	<i>Hey, pardon, but I was seated here.</i>
F2: Oye, perdón. Es mi sitio.	<i>Hey, pardon, It's my place (seat).</i>
F4: Disculpa, pero este es mi sitio.	<i>An apology, but this is my place.</i>
F5: Perdona. Creo que te has equivocado. Este es mi sitio y yo estaba sentado ahí.	<i>Pardon. I think that you have mistaken. This is my place and I was seated here.</i>
F6: Por favor se levante ahora. Este es mi sitio. Estaba yo antes.	<i>Please get up now. This is my place. I was here before.</i>
F9: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F11: Mira, estaba yo sentado antes.	<i>Look, I was seated (here) before.</i>
F12: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F13: Mira, perdone pero este es mi sitio.	<i>Look, pardon, but this is my place.</i>
F14: Por favor ponte en otro sitio. Este es mío.	<i>Please go to another place. This is mine.</i>
F15: Estás equivocado. Este es mi sitio.	<i>You are mistaken. This is my place.</i>
M4: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M5: Mira, estaba yo antes en este asiento.	<i>Look, I was (here) before en this seat.</i>

M6: Perdona, pero este es mi asiento.	<i>Pardon, but this is my seat.</i>
M7: Levanta. Estaba yo.	<i>Get up. I was here.</i>
M8: Mira, este asiento es mío. Por favor levántese o llamaría alguien.	<i>Look, this seat is mine. Please get up or I will call someone.</i>
M9: Disculpa. Es mi lugar.	<i>An apology. This is my place.</i>
M10: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M11: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M12: Mira, te importaría que estaba yo y fui a comprar una coca cola y este asiento es mío.	<i>Look, it would matter to you that I was here and I went to buy a Coca cola y this seat is mine.</i>

Andalusia:

F16: Oye, perdone, pero este es mi sitio.	<i>Hey, pardon, but this is my place.</i>
F17: Perdone, pero es mi asiento.	<i>Pardon, but it is my seat.</i>
F18: Perdone, pero estaba yo antes y puedes encontrar otro sitio.	<i>Pardon, but I was here before and you can find another place.</i>
F20: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F22: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F23: ¿Te importa cambiarte al sitio? Estaba yo.	<i>Would you mind changing seats? I was here.</i>
F25: Perdón, pero es mi sitio. Antes estaba yo.	<i>Pardon, but it's my place. I was here before.</i>
F26: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything.</i>
F27: ¿Podrías cambiarte porque estaba yo?	<i>Would you be able to change because I was here?</i>
F28: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>

F30: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M13: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M14: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M16: Oye, mira, perdona, pero estaba ahí sentado.	<i>Hey, look, pardon, but I was seated here.</i>
M17: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M18: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M19: Oye, disculpa, pero yo estaba antes, y fui a comprar bebida. Es mi sitio.	<i>Hey, pardon, but I was here before and I went to buy a drink. It's my place.</i>
M21: Mire, estaba ahí. Si no te importa...	<i>Look, I was here. If you don't mind.</i>
M22: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
M23: Levanta. Es mi sitio.	<i>Get up. It's my place.</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
7. Viajas con un amigo en autobus. Cuando suben al autobus, no hay dos asientos juntos. Ves a un joven sentado sólo. ¿Qué le dirías para que él se cambie se asiento?	request (level 3)	unknown to speaker (not specific gender)

You are traveling with a friend by bus. When you get on the bus, there are not two seats together, side-by-side. You see a young guy sitting by himself. What would you say to him so that you can change seats?

Castile:

F1: Oye, perdona. Es que viajo con un amigo, somos dos, y me gustaría, si no te importa, sentar con mi amigo. ¿Cambiarías? Si no te importa, múevete de este sitio y me siento aquí.	<i>Hey, pardon. It's that I'm traveling with a friend, we are two (both of us) and I would like, if you don't mind, to sit with my friend. Would you change? If you don't mind, move to this place and I'll sit here.</i>
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- F2: Hola, disculpa. ¿Te importaría cambiar un sitio porque venimos juntos y queremos hablar? *Hello, pardon. Would you mind changing places because we are going together and we want to talk?*
- F4: Oye, perdona, si no te importa... es que venimos juntos y si no te importa, ¿cambiarías al otro sitio? *Hey, pardon, if you don't mind... It's that we are going together and if you don't mind, would you change to the other place?*
- F5: Oye, por favor. ¿Puedes cambiar al otro sitio? Estamos juntos. *Hey, please. Could you change to the other place? We are together.*
- F6: Si, por favor, no te importa, cambiarnos el asiento porque somos dos amigos y queremos seguir hablando durante el viaje muy largo. *If, please, you don't mind changing seats with us because we are two friends and we want to continue talking during the very long trip.*
- F9: Oye, somos dos. Si no te importa ¿puedes cambiarte porque queremos charlar? *Hey, we are two. If you don't mind, could you change because we want to chat?*
- F11: Oye, si puedes cambiar, dejaríamos juntos para viajar. *Hey, if you could change it would leave us together to travel.*
- F12: Mira, voy con mi amigo. Si no te importa, ¿puedes cambiarte tu asiento? *Look, I'm going with my friend. If you don't mind, could you change your seat?*
- F13: Oye, mira. ¿Te importa cambiarte el asiento de ahí? Es que estamos aquí los dos y queremos hablar. *Hey, look. Would you mind changing seats here? It's that we are the two of us here and we want to talk.*
- F14: Por favor, ¿puedes cambiarte el asiento? *Please, could you change seats?*
- F15: ¿Te importaría cambiarte porque voy con mi amigo y queremos sentarnos juntos? *Would it matter to you to change because I'm going with my friend and we want to sit together?*
- M4: Si no te importa cambiarse de sitio. Estoy con mi amigo. *If you don't mind changing places... I'm with my friend.*
- M5: Si seas tan amable, ¿puedes moverte para que sentemos aquí juntos? *If you would be so kind, could you move so that we could sit here together?*

M6: Si seas tan amable, ¿te cambiarías tu asiento para que los dos viajemos juntos?	<i>If you would be so kind, would you change your seat so that the two of us can travel together?</i>
M7: Si no le importa, ¿puede cambiarse al otro sitio para que pueda sentarme yo con mi amigo?	<i>If you don't mind, could you change to the other place so that I can sit with my friend?</i>
M8: Si no le importa, irse al otro asiento y yo voy con mi compañero.	<i>If you don't mind, go to another seat and I am going with my companion.</i>
M9: Por favor, cámbiese de asiento.	<i>Please, change seats.</i>
M10: Por favor, ¿te puede cambiar de este asiento?	<i>Please, could you change (move) from this seat?</i>
M11: Oye, ¿te importaría cambiarte el asiento? Estoy con mi amigo.	<i>Hey, would it matter to you to change seats? I'm with my friend.</i>
M12: Oye, mira. Es que aquí estamos colegas. ¿Te importarías, o bueno, cambiarías para que sentemos juntos?	<i>Hey, look. It's that here we are pals. Would it matter to you, or better, would you change so that we can sit together?</i>

Andalusia:

F16: No le diría nada.	<i>I wouldn't say anything to him.</i>
F17: No pediría cambiarse.	<i>I would ask him to change.</i>
F18: Si no te importa, ¿puedes ponerte enfrente para que estemos juntos?	<i>If you don't mind, could you go in front (move up) so that we are together?</i>
F20: Si no te importa, ¿te cambiarías?	<i>If you don't mind, would you change?</i>
F22: Perdón. ¿Puedes cambiar de este sitio? Estamos juntos.	<i>Pardon. Could you change from this place? We are together.</i>
F23: Oye, si te da igual, ¿puedes cambiarte de asiento?	<i>Hey, if it's the same to you, could you change seats?</i>
F25: Si seas tan amable para cambiar y no te importa, ¿puedes cambiar para que estemos juntos?	<i>If you would be so kind to change and it doesn't matter to you, could you change so that we are together?</i>

F26: ¿Te importa cambiarte?	<i>Would you mind changing?</i>
F27: Por favor. Somos dos amigos y queremos viajar juntos. ¿Podrías cambiarte conmigo el asiento?	<i>Please. We are two friends and we want to travel together. Would you be able to change seats with me?</i>
F28: Oye, ¿podrías cambiar conmigo?	<i>Hey, would you be able to change with me?</i>
F30: Oye, por favor. Si podrías ser tan amable, ¿te importaría cambiar para que vaya con mi amigo?	<i>Hey, please. If you would be so nice, would you mind changing so that I can go with my friend?</i>
M13: ¿Puedes cambiarte de asiento para sentar dos amigos juntos?	<i>Could you change seats so that the two friends can sit together?</i>
M14: Si no te importa, déjanos este sitio para que estemos juntos viajando.	<i>If you don't mind, leave us this place so that we are together traveling.</i>
M16: Perdona. ¿Te importa ponerte atrás para ponernos juntos?	<i>Pardon. Would you mind moving back to put us together?</i>
M17: Perdón. ¿Te importa cambiarte? Quiero sentarme aquí con mi amigo.	<i>Pardon. Would you mind changing? I want to sit here with my friend.</i>
M18: ¿Podrías sentarte al otro lado porque estamos juntos? Mira, vamos dos.	<i>Would you be able to sit on the other side because we are together? Look, we are two (there are two of us).</i>
M19: Oye, ¿Te gustaría un cigarillo? Si no te importa, cambiar para el asiento. Viajamos juntos.	<i>Hey, would you like a cigarette? If you don't mind, change seats. We are traveling together.</i>
M21: Por favor, si no te importa, ¿puedes cambiar de asiento?	<i>Please, if you don't mind, could you change seats?</i>
M22: No le pediría.	<i>I wouldn't ask him.</i>
M23: Por favor, ¿podrías cambiarte para sentarme yo con mi amigo para hablar?	<i>Please, would you be able to change so that I sit with my friend to talk?</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
8. Estás en la esquina cuando ves a un niño corriendo hacía la calle para coger su pelota. Viene un auto muy de prisa. ¿Qué le dirías al niño?	request/ order (level 4)	unknown to speaker (not specific gender)

You are on the street corner when you see a young child running after his ball. There is a car coming quickly. What would you say to the child?

Castile:

F1: ¡Cuidado!	<i>Careful!</i>
F2: ¡Cuidado con el coche!	<i>Careful with the car!</i>
F4: ¡Corre, niño!	<i>Run, child!</i>
F5: ¡Cuidado, niño!	<i>Careful, child!</i>
F6: ¡Chaval!	<i>Kid!</i>
F9: ¡Cuidado!	<i>Careful!</i>
F11: ¡Cuidado! Espera que pase el coche.	<i>Careful! Wait until the car passes.</i>
F12: Intentaría cogerlo.	<i>I would try to catch him.</i>
F13: ¡Ey, cuidado!	<i>Hey, careful!</i>
F14: ¡Espera que pase el coche!	<i>Wait until the car passes!</i>
F15: ¡Cuidado!	<i>Careful!</i>
M4: Cogería al niño.	<i>I would catch the child.</i>
M5: ¡Deja el pelota!	<i>Leave the ball!</i>
M6: Intentaría cogerlo.	<i>I would try to catch him.</i>
M7: ¡Para! Viene coche.	<i>Stop! A car is coming.</i>
M8: ¡No cruce!	<i>Don't cross!</i>

M9: ¡Tenga cuidado al cruzar! *Be careful crossing!*

M10: ¡Espera! *Wait!*

M11: ¡Cuidado! *Careful!*

M12: ¡Cuidado! *Careful!*

Andalusia:

F16: ¡Cuidado! ¡Párate! *Careful! Stop!*

F17: ¡Cuidado! *Careful!*

F18: Iría por el. *I would go for him.*

F20: ¡Tenga cuidado! *Be careful!*

F22: ¡Cuidado! *Careful!*

F23: ¡Cuidado! *Careful!*

F25: Lo cogería. *I would catch him.*

F26: ¡Espera que pase el coche! *Wait until the car passes!*

F27: Gritaría como loca. *I would shout like a crazy woman.*

F28: ¡Cuidado! *Careful!*

F30: ¡No cruce! *Don't cross!*

M13: ¡Para! Viene un autobús. *Stop! A bus is coming.*

M14: ¡Te van a pillar! ¡Para! *They are going to hit you! Stop!*

M16: Niño! ¡Mira! *Child! Watch!*

M17: ¡Cuidadín! *(Be) very careful!*

M18: ¡Tenga cuidado! *Be careful!*

M19: ¡Deja la pelota! *Leave the ball!*

M21: Intentaría cogerlo y gritaría ¡Chaval!	<i>I would try to catch him and I would shout, Kid!</i>
M22: Intentaría cogerlo y gritaría ¡Cuidado!	<i>I would try to catch him and I would shout Careful!</i>
M23: ¡Para!	<i>Stop!</i>

<u>Situation</u>	<u>Targeted Speech Act</u>	<u>Familiarity</u>
9. Acabas de tener un accidente y necesitas pedirle dinero prestado a tu hermana. Sabes que ella no tiene mucho dinero pero es necesario que te ayude. ¿Cómo le pedirías ese favor?	request (level 4)	family member (female)

You have just had an accident and you need to ask your sister for some money. You know that she doesn't have a lot of money, but it is necessary that she help. How would you ask her this favor?

Castile:

F1: Pues, mira, angel. Necesito que me des dinero. Sé que no tienes ni un duro pero es que lo necesito.	<i>Well, look, angel. I need you to give me money. I know that you don't have a dime but it's that I need it.</i>
F2: Tengo un problema y necesito que me ayudes.	<i>I have a problem and I need you to help me.</i>
F4: Pues, sé que estás mal de dinero pero tengo la necesidad imperiosa que me dejes algo. Es necesario.	<i>Well, I know that you are bad on money (hard up) but I have a huge need that you leave (give) me something. It necessary.</i>
F5: Mira, sé que estás mal de dinero pero esta es una emergencia y espero que me puedas ayudar, y si no, pues nada.	<i>Look, I know that you are bad on money (hard up) but this is an emergency and I hope that you can help me, and if you can't, well don't worry.</i>
F6: Primero, perdona la molestia. Mira, tú me conoces y sabes que yo te lo devuelvo todo de lo que me dejas, y si puedes, necesito tu ayuda.	<i>First, pardon the bother. Look, you know me and you know that I will return everything that you leave me (give) to you, and if you can, I need your help.</i>

F9: Por favor, es que lo necesito y si no lo tienes, ¿conoces alguien que pueda pedir y nos pueda ayudar?	<i>Please, it's that I need it and if you don't have it, do you know someone that I can ask and can help us?</i>
F11: ¿Podrías ayudarme? Lo devolvería cuando pueda.	<i>Would you be able to help me? I would return it when I can.</i>
F12: Necesito el dinero. ¿Me lo darías?	<i>I need the money. Would you give it to me?</i>
F13: Pues, necesito un poquito de dinero y lo devolvería en seguida.	<i>Well, I need a little money and I would return it right away.</i>
F14: ¿Podrías dejarme algo de dinero?	<i>Would you be able to leave (give) me some money?</i>
F15: Me hace falta el dinero y si puedes, lo devolvería cuando pueda.	<i>I'm lacking the money and if you can, I would return it when I can.</i>
M4: Por favor, déjame lo que puedas. Es necesario.	<i>Please, leave (give) me what you can. It's necessary.</i>
M5: Mira, he tenido accidente y sabes que me encuentro en este día y en esta hora sin dinero. ¿Me prestarías el dinero?	<i>Look, I have had an accident and you know that I find myself in this day, in this hour, without money. Would you loan me the money?</i>
M6: Por favor, me ayudaría porque se lo devolvería cuando yo podría.	<i>Please, you would help me because I would return it to you when I am able.</i>
M7: Déjame por este caso el dinero y luego, te devolveré.	<i>Leave (give) me in this case the money, and later, I will return it to you.</i>
M8: Este es lo que ha ocurrido. ¿Puedes dejarme el dinero?	<i>This is what has occurred. Can you leave (give) me the money?</i>
M9: Necesito el dinero porque es muy importante.	<i>I need the money because it's very important.</i>
M10: Lo siento, pero necesito dinero por mi accidente.	<i>I'm sorry, but I need money for my accident.</i>
M11: No le pediría.	<i>I wouldn't ask her.</i>
M12: Yo sé que estás liado pero es que necesito pelas para el accidente.	<i>I know that you are strapped (with money) but it's that I need cash for the accident.</i>

Andalusia:

- F16: Mira, yo sé que estás mal, ¿no? pero ¿puedes dejarme un poquito porque es necesario? *Look, I know that you are bad off (hard up), right? But could you leave (give) me a little because it's necessary?*
- F17: Me hace falta mucho pero por favor, déjame algo de dinero. *I'm lacking a lot but please, leave (give) me some money.*
- F18: Lo necesito con urgencia y lo que tengas, me lo des y lo devuelvo pronto. *I need it with urgency and whatever you have, give it to me and I will return it soon.*
- F20: Mira, necesito un poquillo de dinero por mi accidente. *Look, I need a little money for my accident.*
- F22: ¿Podrías ayudarme y dejarme algo de dinero? *Would you be able to help me and leave (give) me some money?*
- F23: Mira, este es lo que pasó y necesito tu ayuda. *Look, this is what happened and I need your help.*
- F25: No le pediría. *I wouldn't ask her.*
- F26: Mira, es muy importante porque tengo poco dinero y somos hermanos. *Look, it's very important because I have little money and we are brothers and sisters.*
- F27: No le pediría porque no tiene dinero. *I wouldn't ask because she doesn't have money.*
- F28: ¿Me prestas el dinero, hermana? *Will you loan me money, sis?*
- F30: Mira, me conoces bien y somos hermanos. Tengo problema y necesito dinero. *Look, you know me well and we are brothers and sisters. I have a problem and I need money.*
- M13: Es algo urgente y necesito dinero, y sabes, es grave. *It's something urgent and I need money, and you know, it's serious.*
- M14: Me gustaría que tú me ayudarías en esta situación. *I would like for you to help me in this situation.*

M16: Tengo problema y necesito que me prestes algo de dinero.	<i>I have a problem and I need you to loan me some money.</i>
M17: Pues, mira. Tengo problemillo y necesito que me ayudes.	<i>Well, look. I have a small problem and I need you to help me.</i>
M18: Por favor, déjame un poquito de dinero para llevarme más.	<i>Please, leave (give) me a little money to carry me over (along).</i>
M19: Oye, mira, me hace falta dinero y necesito tu ayuda.	<i>Hey, look, I'm lacking money and I need your help.</i>
M21: Por favor, necesito dinero.	<i>Please, I need money.</i>
M22: Es una situación difícil pero no le pediría.	<i>It's a difficult situation, but I wouldn't ask her.</i>
M23: ¿Podrías prestarme algo de dinero? Necesito ayuda.	<i>Would you be able to lend me some money? I need help.</i>

APPENDIX C: ADDITIONAL DISCOURSE FEATURES (ALERTERS, INTENSIFIERS, PERSONAL ADDRESS, AND POLITE MARKERS)

I. Use of Alerters (attention getters, discourse markers, expressions and phrases)

* The expressives such as *perdón*, *disculpa*, etc are included as attention getters when not used as function of pardon

Alerter Used	Situation Number	Speaker - Participant No.
Eh, Ey	1	F1- 01
	8	F13-09
¡Pero Hombre!	1	F5- 04
¡Cuidado!	1	M12-31 F22-16
	8	F1-01 F2-02 F5-04 F9-06 F11-07 F13-09 F15-11 M11-30 M12-31 F16-12 F17-13 F22-16 F23-17 F28-21 M22-39
¡Cuidadín!	8	M17-35
¡Qué coño te pasa!	1	F22-16
¡Qué pasa hombre!	1	F25-18
Oye	1	M17-35
	4	F2-02
	5	F2-02

	6	F1-01 F2-02 F16-12 M16-34 M19-37
	7	F1-01 F4-03 F5-04 F9-06 F11-07 F13-09 M11-30 M12-31 F23-17 F28-21 F30-22 M19-37
	9	M19-37
Tranquilo	1	M18-36
	5	M18-36
¡Ay, qué putado!	2	F13-09
¡Hostia!	3	F1-01
¡Ay!	3	F13-09 F22-16
	4	F1-01 F13-09
Mira	3	M4-23
	4	F2-02
	5	F15-11 M5-24 M12-31 F17-13 F18-14

	6	M13-32 M14-33 M19-37 F11-07 F13-09 M5-24 M8-27 M12-31 M16-34
	7	F12-08 F13-09 M12-31 M18-36
	8	M16-34
	9	F1-01 F5-04 F6-05 M5-24 F16-12 F20-15 F23-17 F26-19 F30-22 M17-35 M19-37
Mire	6	M21-38
¡Andame por Dios!	3	M17-35
¡Ostra!	4	M12-31
Pues	5 9	F15-11 F1-01 F4-03 F5-04 F13-09 M17-35
Luego	5	F18-14

	9	M7-26
¡Qué mala suerte!	5	F25-18
Perdón	6	F1-01 F2-02 F25-18
	7	F22-16 M17-35
Perdona	6	F5-04 M6-25 M16-34
	7	F1-01 F4-03 M16-34
Perdone	6	F13-09 F16-12 F17-13 F18-14
Disculpa	6	F4-03 M9-28 M19-37
	7	F2-02
Por favor	6	F6-05 F14-10 M8-27
	7	F5-04 F6-05 F14-10 M9-28 M10-29 F27-20 F30-22 M21-38 M23-40
	9	F9-06

		M4-23 M6-25 M18-36 M21-38
Hola	7	F2-02
Bueno	7	M12-31
¡Te van a pillar!	8	M14-33
Primero	9	F6-05
Lo siento	9	M10-29
Sabes	9	M13-32

Totals per situation:

Sit. 1	8
Sit. 2	1
Sit. 3	5
Sit. 4	5
Sit. 5	13
Sit. 6	28
Sit. 7	33
Sit. 8	19
Sit. 9	26
	===
	138

Totals F= 84 (61%)
M= 54 (39%)

Totals C= 79 (57%)
A= 59 (43%)

Total Y=88 (64%)
O= 50 (36%)

II. Use of Intensifiers (adverbials, adjectives, morphological items)

Intensifier Used	Situation	Speaker- Participant No.
Pero	1	F5-04
Mucho	1	F9-06
	3	F13-09 F14-10 F22-16
	4	M14-33 M19-37
	5	M10-29 F16-12 F28-21 M19-37
	9	F17-13
Más	1	F18-14
Muy	3	F5-04
	5	F12-08
	9	M9-28 F26-19
-ísimo (muchísimo)	3	F14-10
Inmediatamente	3	M19-37
-ito (perrito) (animalito) (poquito)	5	M12-31 F30-22
	9	F13-09 F16-12 M18-36
lo más que	5	F17-13
tan	7	M5-24 M6-25

tan (cont)		F25-18 F30-22
-ín (cuidadín)	8	M17-35
...ni un duro	9	F1-01
imperiosa	9	F4-03
en seguida	9	F13-09
con urgencia	9	F18-14
-illo (poquillo) (problemillo)	9	F20-15 M17-35
bien	9	F30-22
urgente	9	M13-32
es grave	9	M13-32

Totals Per Situation

Sit. 1	3
Sit. 2	0
Sit. 3	6
Sit. 4	2
Sit. 5	8
Sit. 6	0
Sit. 7	4
Sit. 8	1
Sit. 9	15
	===
	39

Total	F=25 (64%)
	M= 14 (36%)
Total	C=16 (40%)
	A= 23 (60%)
Total	Y= 25 (64%)
	O= 14 (36%)

III. Use of Personal Address (family members, nicknames, lexical items)

Personal Address	Situation	Speaker- Participant No.
hombre	1	F5-04 F25-18 M18-36
mamá	3	F1-01 F2-02 F5-04 F6-05 F9-06 F11-07 F13-09 M6-25 M8-27 M11-30 M12-31 F17-13 F18-14 F22-16 F28-21 M13-32 M18-36 M23-40
hermano	5	F14-10 F23-17
hermana	9	F28-21
niño	5 8	M19-37 F4-03 F5-04 M16-34
chaval	8	F6-05 M21-38
ángel	9	F1-01

Totals per situation:

Sit. 1	3
Sit. 2	0
Sit. 3	18
Sit. 4	0
Sit. 5	3
Sit. 6	0
Sit. 7	0
Sit. 8	5
Sit. 9	2
	===
	31

Total F= 20 (64.5%)
M= 11 (35.5%)

Total C= 17 (55%)
A= 14 (45%)

Total Y=19 (61%)
O= 12 (39%)

IV. Use of Polite Markers (Lexical items and expressives)

* The expressives such as *perdón*, *disculpa*, etc are included as P.M. when not used as function of pardon

Polite Markers Used	Situation	Speaker- Participant No.
Por favor	1	M12-31
	6	F6-05 F14-10 M8-27
	7	F5-04 F6-05 F14-10 M9-28 M10-29 F27-20 F30-22 M21-38 M23-40
	9	F9-06 M4-23 M6-25 F17-13 M18-26 M21-38
Hasta luego	4	F2-02 F28-21
Adiós	4	F6-05 M5-24 M7-26
Perdón	6	F1-01 F2-02 F25-18
	7	F22-16 M17-35
Perdona	6	F5-04 M6-25 M16-34

	7	F1-01 F4-03 M16-34
	9	F6-05
Perdone	6	F13-09 F16-12 F17-13 F18-14
Disculpa	6	F4-03 M9-28 M19-37
	7	F2-02
Hola	7	F2-02
si seas tan amable... si podrías ser tan amable...	7	M5-24 M6-25 F25-18 F30-22
Lo siento	9	M10-29

Totals per situation:

Sit. 1	1
Sit. 2	0
Sit. 3	0
Sit. 4	5
Sit. 5	0
Sit. 6	16
Sit. 7	20
Sit. 8	0
Sit. 9	8

===
50

Total F=29 (58%)
M= 21 (42%)

Total C= 31 (62%)
A= 19 (38%)

Total Y= 25 (50%)
O=25 (50%)

APPENDIX D: DESCRIPTION OF INFORMANT PROFILES FOR METALINGUISTIC DATA

Participant No.	Region 1= Castile 2= Andalusia 3=Valencia	Gender 1=Male 2= Female	Age 1=Young 2= Old
1	1	2	1
2	1	2	1
3	1	2	1
4	1	2	2
5	1	2	2
6	1	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	2
9	2	2	1
10	2	2	1
11	2	2	1
12	2	2	2
13	2	1	1
14	2	1	2
15	2	1	2
16	2	1	2
17	3	1	1
18	3	2	2

APPENDIX E: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR METALINGUISTIC DATA

Informants were approached and a short conversation of introductions and greetings occurred. The informants were told:

Quiero saber sus opiniones sobre la conversación y las diferencias entre la región, el sexo, y la edad de hablante.

1. ¿Quién usaría más las palabras de cortesía, por ejemplo “por favor” y “gracias”?

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

2. ¿Quién usaría más las palabrotas o los tacos en la conversación?

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

3. ¿Quién usaría más las palabras como intensificadores, por ejemplo el uso de “muchísimo” o “problemillo” en vez de usar “mucho” o “problema”?

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

Ahora tengo unas situaciones específicas y algunas respuestas. Quiero saber quién lo diría como su respuesta.

4. Situación: Vas caminando por la calle y chocas con un hombre desconocido que te parece muy enojado. ¿Qué le dirías?

Respuesta 1: Lo siento mucho. Disculpe.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

Respuesta 2: Tenga más cuidado. Mire por donde va.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

5. Situación: Estás en casa y por casualidad rompes una reliquia familiar, por ejemplo, un plato antiguo. ¿Qué le dirías a tu madre?

Respuesta 1: ¡Ándame por Dios! Lo siento.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

Respuesta 2: Ay, perdone, mamá. Lo siento mucho. Mañana te compro otro.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

6. Situación: Entras al cine y te acomodas en tu lugar. Antes de empezar la película, decides comprar un refresco. Cuando vuelves a tu asiento, alguien está sentado en tu lugar que es tu favorito. ¿Qué le dirías?

Respuesta 1: Mira, este asiento es mío. Por favor levántese o llamaría a alguien.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

Respuesta 2: Oye, disculpa, pero yo estaba antes y fui a comprar bebida. Es mi sitio.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

7. Situación: Acabas de tener un accidente y necesitas pedirle dinero prestado a tu hermana. Sabes que ella no tiene mucho dinero pero es necesario que te ayude. ¿Cómo le pedirías ese favor?

Respuesta 1: Yo sé que estás liado pero es que necesito el dinero para el accidente.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

Respuesta 2: Pues, mira, ángel. Necesito que me des dinero. Sé que no tienes ni un duro pero es que lo necesito.

___ los hombres ___ las mujeres ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ los jóvenes ___ los mayores ___ los dos ___ no sé
___ alguien de Castilla ___ x de Andalucía ___ los dos ___ no sé

APPENDIX F: ENGLISH TRANSLATION FOR QUESTIONNAIRE FOR METALINGUISTIC DATA

Informants were approached and a short conversation of introductions and greetings occurred. The informants were told:

I want to know your opinions about conversation and the differences in the region, gender, and age of the speakers

1. Who would more likely use polite words, for example “please” and “thanks”?

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

2. Who would more likely use curse worse or profanity in conversation?

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

3. Who would more likely use intensifying words like “very much” or “big problem” in stead of using “a lot” or “problem”?

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

Now I have some specific situations and some responses. I want to know who would say it as his/her response.

4. Situation: You are walking down the street and you bump into an unknown man who appears to you to be very mad. What would you say to him?

Answer 1: I'm very sorry. Pardon.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

Answer 2: Be more careful. Look where you are going.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

5. Situation: You are at home and by accident, you break a family heirloom, for example, an antique plate. What would you say to your mom?

Answer 1: Oh my God! I'm sorry.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

Answer 2: Ay, sorry, mom. I'm very sorry. Tomorrow I'll buy you another one.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

6. Situation: You enter the movie theater and get settled into your spot. Before the movie begins, you decide to buy a soft drink. When you return to your seat, someone is seated in your spot and it's your favorite. What would you say?

Answer 1: Look, this seat is mine. Please get up or I will call someone.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

Answer 2: Hey, pardon, but I was there before and I went to buy a drink. It's my place.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

7. Situation: You have just had an accident and you need to ask for money from your sister. You know that she doesn't have much money but it's necessary that she help you. How would you ask her that favor?

Answer 1: I know your tied up/ strapped for cash but it's that I need cash for the accident.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

Answer 2: Well look, angel. I need for you to give me money. I know that you don't even have a dime/ 5 cents but it's that I need it.

___ men ___ women ___ both ___ I don't know
___ the young ___ the old ___ both ___ I don't know
___ someone from Castile ___ x from Andalusia ___ both ___ I don't know

Table G3: Responses to Item 3 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.																		
muj.		x			x		x		x							x		
los dos	x		x			x		x		x	x		x	x	x		x	x
no sé				x								x						
jov.			x	x		x		x	x	x					x			
may.																		
los dos	x				x		x				x	x	x			x		x
no sé		x												x			x	
Cast.																		
Anda.			x						x	x		x					x	
los dos	x	x			x	x					x		x	x				x
no sé				x			x	x							x	x		

Totals

-0- hombre	39% juvenes	-0- Cast.
28% mujer	-0- mayores	28% Anda.
61% los dos	44% los dos	44% los dos
11% no sé	17% no sé	28% no sé

Table G5: Responses to Item 4- Part 2 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.		x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x				x	x		x
muj.																		
los dos	x				x	x							x					x
no sé														x				
jov.	x	x		x		x	x				x	x		x				x
may.									x									
los dos			x		x			x		x					x	x		
no sé													x					x
Cast.	x	x					x		x	x	x					x	x	
Anda.																		
los dos			x	x	x			x				x	x		x			x
no sé						x								x				

Totals

67% hombre	50% juvenes	44% Cast.
-0- mujer	5% mayores	-0- Anda.
28% los dos	34% los dos	44% los dos
5% no sé	11% no sé	12% no sé

Table G6: Responses to Item 5- Part 1 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.																x		
muj.			x			x					x	x						
los dos	x	x		x	x		x		x	x			x		x		x	x
no sé								x						x				
										x								
		x	x	x									x	x				
	x				x	x		x	x		x	x				x	x	x
							x								x			
						x					x	x					x	x
	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	x				x	x	x		
				x									x					

Totals

5% hombre	5% juvenes	-0- Cast.
22% mujer	28% mayores	28% Anda.
62% los dos	55% los dos	61% los dos
11% no sé	12% no sé	11% no sé

Table G7: Responses to Item 5- Part 2 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.																		
muj.		x	x	x							x	x	x					
los dos	x				x	x		x	x	x					x	x	x	x
no sé							x							x				
jov.	x	x						x	x	x				x				
may.																		
los dos			x	x		x	x				x	x			x	x	x	
no sé					x								x					x
Cast.																		
Anda.												x		x				
los dos	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x			x	x	x
no sé			x					x							x			

Totals

-0- hombre	33% juvenes	-0- Cast.
33% mujer	-0- mayores	11% Anda.
55% los dos	50% los dos	72% los dos
12% no sé	17% no sé	17% no sé

Table G8: Responses to Item 6- Part 1 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x		
muj.																		
los dos			x			x							x				x	
no sé												x						x
jov.		x							x		x	x		x				
may.			x				x								x	x		x
los dos	x			x	x	x		x					x				x	
no sé										x								
Cast.	x	x		x				x	x	x	x			x	x			
Anda.																		
los dos			x		x	x	x						x			x	x	
no sé												x						x

Totals

67% hombre	28% juvenes	50% Cast.
-0- mujer	28% mayores	-0- Anda.
22% los dos	39% los dos	39% los dos
11% no sé	5% no sé	11% no sé

Table G9: Responses to Item 6- Part 2 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.		x		x	x		x				x	x				x	x	x
muj.																		
los dos	x		x			x			x	x			x	x				
no sé								x							x			
jov.	x		x	x	x							x		x	x	x		
may.							x											
los dos		x				x			x	x	x		x				x	x
no sé								x										
Cast.																		
Anda.						x					x	x		x	x			
los dos	x	x		x			x		x	x			x					x
no sé			x		x			x								x	x	

Totals

50% hombre	44% juvenes	-0- Cast.
-0- mujer	5% mayores	28% Anda.
39% los dos	44% los dos	44% los dos
11% no sé	5% no sé	28% no sé

Table G10: Responses to Item 7- Part 1 (Responses to Appendix E Questionnaire)

Totals	Participant number																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
hom.			x		x						x			x		x		
muj.								x										
los dos	x	x				x	x		x	x			x		x		x	
no sé				x								x						x
			x	x	x						x				x	x		
									x	x								
	x	x				x	x						x				x	x
								x				x		x				
	x	x		x		x					x	x					x	x
			x		x		x		x	x			x		x	x		
								x						x				

Totals

28% hombre	33% juvenes	44% Cast.
5% mujer	11% mayores	-0- Anda.
50% los dos	39% los dos	44% los dos
17% no sé	17% no sé	11% no sé

VITA

Laura Elizabeth “Beth” Stapleton was born in Hazlehurst, Georgia, in 1970 to Jeri and James Stapleton. She lived most of her childhood in Alamo, Georgia, graduating from Wheeler County High School in 1988. Beth attended Mississippi College and graduated in 1992 with a Bachelor of Arts Degree in Spanish and business communications. After Mississippi College, Beth attended the University of Mississippi and worked as a teaching assistant in the Department of Modern Languages. She graduated in 1994 with a Master of Arts Degree in Spanish literature. In 1994, Beth returned to Georgia to teach Spanish and coach tennis at Taylor County High School, while teaching summer terms at Mississippi College. In 1999, Beth returned to graduate school at Louisiana State University to study linguistics. During her time at Louisiana State University, Beth worked in the Department of Foreign Languages teaching Spanish. In August 2004, Beth will graduate from Louisiana State University with a Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Linguistics. Beth is currently employed at her alma mater, Mississippi College, in the Department of Foreign Languages, teaching Spanish survey courses and Spanish linguistics.