

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY ON THE PERFORMANCE OF COMPLAINTS BY
TURKISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN AN EFL CONTEXT

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A Descriptive Study on the Performance of Complaints by Turkish University
Students in an EFL Context

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Thesis Abstract

Ahmet Süleyman Bikmen, “A Descriptive Study on the Performance of Complaints
by Turkish University Students in an EFL Context”

The current study investigated the speech act of complaining in Turkish learners of English. The complaints of 100 Turkish learners of English (TLEs) were compared to those of 92 English (ENS) and 108 Turkish native speaker (TNS) participants, all of whom were students at universities in Turkey and in England. A ten-item discourse completion task (DCT) was used to elicit complaints. The method of analysis involved measuring the frequency of certain complaint strategies. The frequency values for the three groups were compared.

Eleven complaint strategies were found in the responses to the DCT. Of these eleven strategies, ‘Hints’ (25%), ‘Requests’ (35%), and ‘annoyance’ (10%) were the most commonly-used. Frequency values obtained for the remaining strategies were all below 8% for all three groups. The ENSs and TNSs (the baseline groups) were found to exhibit significant differences in their frequencies for several strategies. This finding was attributed to the typological differences in pragmatic strategies used by the two languages.

The TLEs were then compared to the baseline data. Statistical analysis of the differences in frequencies between the three groups permitted the complaint strategies to be grouped under three headings. These headings are presented with their corresponding strategies in parentheses: Weak Negative Pragmatic Transfer (Modified Blame, Indirect Accusation), No Transfer/ENS-like behavior (Opting Out, Hints, Ill Consequences, Direct Accusations and Threats/Warnings,), and Positive Transfer (Annoyance, Blame [Behavior] and Blame [Person]). Requests did not fit into any of the categories. No examples of Strong Pragmatic Transfer were found in the data. In spite of there being only one instance of Weak Negative Pragmatic Transfer in the statistical findings, a detailed analysis of individual TLE responses led to the conclusion that L1 influence is often present.

Complaint frequency was measured in situations where the parameters of power and social distance were controlled for. Compared to the ENS group, the TLE and the TNS groups complained more to authority figures, (power unequal/high social distance contexts) and at lower frequencies to friends (power equal/low social distance contexts) and strangers (power equal / high social distance contexts). One interpretation of the TLEs’ behavior in the authority context is that the TLEs were exhibiting verbosity; that is, offering more explanations, not in an attempt to confront or criticise their superiors, but simply to overcome their real or perceived L2 limitations. Another interpretation is that the TLEs were indeed criticizing their superiors, which might be a dangerous deviation from acceptable norms as characterized by the ENS data obtained in this study.

Tez Özeti

Ahmet Süleyman Bikmen, “Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğrenim (EFL)

Bağlamında Türk Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Şikayet Performansı üzerine Betimsel

Bir Çalışma”

Bu çalışma ‘şikayet etme’ sözeylemini, İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerde (İTÖ) incelemiştir. Araştırmada, üniversitede İngilizce öğrenen 100 Türk (İTÖ) ile anadili Türkçe (TÜR) olan 108 öğrencinin şikayetleri, anadili İngilizce (İNG) olan 92 öğrencinin şikayetleriyle kıyaslanmıştır. Tüm katılımcılar üniversite öğrencisidir. Bu bağlamda, şikâyet gerektirecek on farklı durumdan oluşan Söylem Tamamlama Testi (STT) kullanılmıştır. Analiz yöntemi ile, bazı şikâyet stratejilerinin sıklığı ölçülüp, bu frekans değerleri birbiriyle karşılaştırılmıştır.

STT’ne verilen yanıtlarda, onbir şikâyet stratejisinin kullanıldığı tespit edilmiş, stratejilerden, ‘İpucu,’ (%25) ‘Rica’(%35) ve ‘Rahatsızlık’ın (%10) üç grup katılımcı arasında en çok kullanıldığı bulunmuştur. Geri kalan stratejilerin kullanım değerleri, her üç grup için %8’in altında kalmıştır.

TÜR ve İNG grupları (temel gruplar), şikayet etme konusunda önemli istatistiksel farklar sergilemiştir. Bu bulgunun, iki dilin edimbilimsel stratejileri arasında bulunan tipolojik farklılıktan kaynaklandığı düşünülmektedir..

İTÖ grubu, diğer iki grup ile karşılaştırılmış ve üç grubun frekans değerlerinin arasında bulunan istatistiksel farklar tespit edilmiştir. Şikayet stratejileri, ortaya çıkan üç çeşit başlık altına gruplandırılmıştır. Bu başlıklar, parantez içinde bulunan stratejiler ile sunulmuştur: Zayıf Edimbilimsel Aktarım (Modifiye Edilmiş Azarlama ve Dolaylı Suçlama) , Aktarımın Bulunmaması/İNG-gibi davranış (Cevap Vermeme; İpucu Verme; Kötü Sonuçları Belirtme; Direkt Suçlama ve Tehdit/Uyarı) Olumlu Edimbilimsel Aktarım, (İpucu, Azarlama [Davranış] ve Azarlama [Kişisel]). İTÖ’lerinin cevaplarında Güçlü Olumsuz Edimbilimsel Aktarımın olduğuna dair belirtiler bulunmamıştır. Zayıf Olumsuz Edimbilimsel Aktarım, İTÖ’lerinin cevaplarında tek bir örneğinin bulunmasına rağmen, bazı İTÖ’lerin cevaplarının analizi yapıldığında, anadil etkisinin (negatif edimbilimsel aktarımın) genelde var olduğunu tespit edilmiştir.

Güç ve yakınlık parametrelerinin sabit tutulduğu durumlarda katılımcıların şikayet etme davranışları ile ilgili bulgular elde edilmiştir. İTÖ ve TÜR grupları, İNG grubuna göre, otorite figürlerine (eşitsiz güç/az yakınlık bağlamlarında) daha fazla şikayette bulunmuşlar, arkadaşlarına (eşit güç/çok yakınlık bağlamlarında) ve yabancılara (eşit güç/az yakınlık bağlamlarında) ise daha az şikayette bulunmuşlardır. İTÖ grubunun otorite bağlamındaki davranışları, söz çokluğu olarak açıklanmış, bu kişilerin daha fazla açıklama yapmaları üstlerini daha fazla eleştirmek yada karşı gelmek için değil, ikinci dil zorluklarını?limitlerini aşmak için yaptıkları sonucuna varılmıştır. Bir başka açıklama da, İTÖ grubunun üstlerini eleştirdiğidir ve bu durumun araştırmada İNG grubundan toplanan verilerin belirlediği normlar dahilinde olmadığı, norm dışı veya bir sapma olarak değerlendirilebileceğidir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This section will give the reader a general background to the study, the rationale and aim of the study, followed by the research questions asked in the current study

1.1. General Background to the Study

The practice of language teaching has long reflected the belief that mastering a language was akin to mastering a system of rules in isolation of context. Ever since the Communicative Competence model was introduced (Hymes, 1972), it has generally been accepted that in addition to grammatical competence, learners also need to know how that language is used by members of the community.

Subsequently, Canale & Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence was introduced. This model included grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence. Many other authors have written about the sociolinguistic rules of language use under different headings such as interlanguage pragmatics and cross-cultural speech act studies. Searle (1990: 16) claims that speaking a language is performing speech acts. By performing a speech act, people perform acts such as thanking, requesting and complaining.

Therefore the successful performance of speech acts entails the possession of the type of knowledge that enables learners to use language in socially as well as linguistically acceptable ways.

1.2. Rationale and Aim of the Study

The main aim of the current study is to identify and compare the complaining behavior of Turkish speakers of English to native speakers of English. There are several reasons for the undertaking of such a study.

Foreign language learners who lack target language mastery of speech acts such as complimenting, refusing and complaining risk the danger of being misunderstood or might even experience a complete communication breakdown (Cohen, 1996b). Indeed, the speech act of complaining is an especially face-threatening one, and has a high potential for causing misunderstandings or disturbing the equilibrium of personal relationships (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Therefore, it is essential that language education, informed by research such as the current study, should raise learners' pragmatic awareness of the speech act of complaining, not only to perform complaints properly, but also to recognize and respond appropriately to complaining behavior in others (Boxer, 2010).

The typological differences between Turkish and English might make it difficult for a Turkish learner to complain in English. The principle of pragmatic transfer/L1 influence (Corder, 1981; Kasper 1992) predicts that Turkish learners of English may not be able to complain in a target-like fashion in English (Deveci,

2002; Onalan, 2009). Beyond simply being misunderstood, a Turkish learner who utilizes L1 complaining strategies in the target culture might cause other people to harbor negative impressions of his/her character. Because typological differences are sometimes responsible for L1 interference or negative pragmatic transfer, this study attempts to point out differences between Turkish and English with regard to complaining behavior.

A number of investigations on the speech act of complaint in non-native speakers of English from backgrounds other than Turkish has been conducted (Boxer 1993; Boxer & Pickering 1995; Chen, 2009; Farnia, 2010; House & Kasper, 1981; Inoue 1982; Kozlova, 2003; Moon, 2001; Murphy & Neu 1996; Nodoushan, 2006; Oh 2010; Olshtain & Weinbach 1993; Piotrowska, 1987, Prykarpatska, 2008; Rinnert, 2006; Shea, 2003; Tanck, 2002; Trenchs, 2001; Trosborg, 1995; Umar, 2006). However, very few studies have focused on Turkish learners of English (Deveci, 2002; Onalan, 2009). Just as there is a lack of emphasis on complaining in the research literature, English course-books in ELT programs also fail to address complaining (Boxer, 2010). The same texts do not fail to address requests and apologies (Boxer and Pickering, 1995) although these speech acts are arguably no more important than the speech act of complaint.

The current study investigates the speech act of complaints as they are performed by Turkish Learners of English (TLEs). To analyze complaining behavior, The current study used a written DCT as its main instrument in order to collect data samples from TLEs, Turkish native speakers (TNSs), English native speakers (ENSs). The data obtained in the current study has the potential not only to inform the ELT (English language teaching) profession but might also be of direct aid to

language students. The corpus of 3000 complaint samples collected as a part of the current study has the potential to help students who are interested in learning how NNSs complain both in English and in Turkish. What is more, Turkish learners and teachers who work with learners from a Turkish background can benefit from examining the NNSs' responses featured in the corpus in order to examine common errors in the pragmatic behavior of Turkish learners of English.

The current study used a DCT or a discourse completion task, as its main instrument. A DCT is a written data collection instrument which provides the participants with a situation that requires them to express a complaint. The rationale for using a DCT was its ease of use and its potential to generate large amounts of useful data. The combination of easy-to-understand descriptions (situations) and the written format made it a very elegant instrument for collecting large numbers of writing samples in a short period of time. The other main advantage of DCTs was comparability. To find and recreate the same real-life situation for 300 students in three different groups would have been a Herculean task. For example, if role play situations involving actors were used, the amount of time necessary to collect 300 responses might have taken weeks or months. Although the DCT utilizes written samples instead of authentic, spoken data, which would be ideal, it is difficult to collect authentic data in a reliable and reproducible fashion (Fraenkel, 2008). To recapitulate, both for its power in generating volumes of data quickly and for its ability to control for threats to reliability and internal validity, the DCT was selected for the current study.

1.3. The Research Questions

The research questions of this study are as follows:

1. How do the TLE, ENS and TNS participants compare in their use of complaint strategies?
2. Do the TLE participants exhibit L1 influence in their use of complaint strategies?
3. How do different contexts influence complaining behavior in TLEs, ENSs and TNSs?

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This study investigates how Turkish learners of English complain, and it is anchored in a cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics framework. Therefore, its theoretical framework draws mainly from speech act theory, politeness theory, and pragmatic transfer. The following sections will discuss these areas.

2.1. Speech Act Theory

Philosophers have always believed that a statement can only “describe” or “state some facts” (Austin, 1962: 1). However, Austin (1962) believes that individuals use language to accomplish communicative purposes, and makes a distinction between constative utterances and performative utterances. Constatives are statements which can be evaluated along a dimension of truth, while performatives are utterances which are neither true nor false, cannot be checked by observation, and do not describe or constate anything at all, but rather perform an action. For example, consider the following performative sentences:

- A) I do take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife
 - B) I name this ship Queen Elizabeth
- (Austin, 1976: 4-5)

In A, the individual's aim is to perform the act of marrying rather than to report on the state of things. The same holds true for B, where the action is that of assigning a name to a ship, rather than stating a fact.

Following Austin, Searle (1988) proposed that speech acts were the basic unit of communication, and divided speech acts into four types: utterance acts, propositional acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. The first, utterance acts, are the simple utterance of sounds and nothing more. Atay (1995) gives the example of "an actor doing voice exercises" (p.6). The second, the propositional act, contains propositions. The third, illocutionary acts, are perhaps the most important element of speech acts study. An illocutionary act refers to a statement in which the speaker's concern is making his/her intention clear to the listener. Illocutionary force is the potential of an illocutionary act to cause someone to interpret a particular message from the implied content of the words in the illocutionary act. Finally, a perlocutionary act is speech that is designed to have consequences on the listener's behavior. Perlocutionary force refers to the actions or behavior assumed by the listener. For example, consider the following statement: "My blouse has a stain on it" (House & Kasper, 1981). Here, the proposition is the fact that a stain exists on the speaker's blouse. The illocutionary force of the speaker's words is "I am disappointed with you getting a stain on my blouse." The perlocutionary force of this statement might cause the hearer, who happens to be guilty of staining the blouse, to pay for the dry-cleaning bill. Olshtain & Weinbach (1993), refer to the perlocutionary force of a complaint as being either an apology or an offer of repair; for example, the fulfillment of a promise or the return of a debt.

Searle (1972) improved on Austin's (1962) classification of illocutionary forces, which he claimed had a great deal of overlap, since many speech acts served more than one function, and a speaker might have several intentions, making it impossible to infer the speaker's intent from his words. As a result Searle (1969) proposed a taxonomy of speech acts consisting of five illocutionary forces. These were representatives; in other words, statements of fact, as in the sentence "I think he is a murderer" (Searle, 1969), expressives (complaints, apologies, etc.), directives (requests, demands), commissives (promises), and declaratives. Because the focus of the current study is on complaints, expressive speech acts are especially important to this discussion. Expressive speech acts are unique in that they express the speaker's psychological state. That is, they indicate a positive or a negative evaluation of the propositional content of the utterance. When thanking, for example, a speaker expresses gratitude. In complaining, however, a speaker communicates negative feelings to a Hearer. Expressive speech acts require a higher level of pragmatic competence than some others because they have the potential to damage interpersonal relationships (Edmonson & House, 1981).

Cohen (1996a) and Thomas (1995) point out that speech acts are often ambiguous in their illocutionary force. For example, a speaker might utter "I'm sorry" (Cohen, 1996a: 384) in a sarcastic manner, and therefore does not apologize according to the strict definition of the speech act. In order to prevent these ambiguities from arising, Searle established a set of rules. Every speech act has (a) propositional content rules, which require that a speaker's words have specific illocutionary force, (b) sincerity conditions, which require that the speaker truly believes that the circumstances require him/her to execute the speech act in question, and (c) preparatory conditions, which entail that a speaker be aware of the

circumstances. To take an example, if a speaker, in this case a pupil, asks his teacher “When can we get our homework assignments back?” the propositional content rules, if satisfied, state that the student is actually accusing his teacher of being slow, thereby having performed a complaint. The sincerity conditions, if they hold, state that the student truly believes that his teacher is being lax in her duties. The preparatory conditions, if they hold, ensure that the student is aware that he has not yet received his homework back from his teacher.

As mentioned above, Searle (1988) described speech acts as the name given to such notions as thanking, greeting, requesting, refusing, complimenting, complaining, and apologizing. Speech act theory assumes that these notions are fundamental; that is, universal, to human communication (Gass, 1996). Despite being universal, however, a speech act may differ from culture to culture; not only in terms of linguistic realization, but in terms of illocutionary force. If we refuse an offer in some cultures, for example, this requires “hedging or beating around the bush before an actual refusal is made” (Gass, 1996: 1). Therefore, the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics, or “investigation of non-native speakers’ comprehension and production of speech acts” (Kasper & Dahl, 1991: 215) has become an important part of speech act studies involving NNS, and deserves, however briefly, to be mentioned here.

Many speech act studies have proposed a speech act set, which is a list of realization patterns, or acceptable things to say in a given speech act situation, for example, requests (Blum-Kulka, 1981; Murphy & Neu, 1996). As an example of complaints, Trosborg’s (1995) speech act set of complaint strategies are provided here:

Table 1: Trosborg's (1995) Complaint Strategies.

Cat. I. <i>No explicit reproach</i>	Str. 1 Hints	"Don't see much of you these days." "Well, the red spot wasn't there when I wore it last."
Cat II. <i>Expression of disapproval</i>	Str. 2 Annoyance	'There's a horrible dent in my car' Oh dear, I've just bought it.
	Str. 3: Ill consequences	How terrible! Now I won't be able to get to work tomorrow.
Cat. III. <i>Accusation</i>	Str. 4: Indirect	You borrowed my car last night, didn't you?
	Str. 5: Direct	Did you happen to bump into my car?
Cat. IV: <i>Blame</i>	Str. 6: Modified blame	Honestly, couldn't you have been more careful? You should take more care with other people's cars.
	Str. 7: Explicit blame (behavior)	It's really too bad, you know, going round wrecking other people's cars. How on earth did you manage to be so stupid?
	Str. 8: explicit blame (person)	Oh no, not again! You really are thoughtless. Bloody fool! You've done it again.

In Table 1, we see that a range of different strategies have been provided under the heading "Complaint Strategies." Each strategy is labeled according to the function it serves; e.g., "Accusation" refers to statements that accuse the Hearer. Trosborg's (1995) speech act categories and individual strategies will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

2.2. Definition of the Speech act of Complaining

Many authors have defined complaints the following way: Speaker (S) voices an expression of annoyance or disappointment at a state of affairs or a wrongdoing towards a Hearer (H) who somehow bears responsibility for the state of affairs, or is at least perceived to do so by

(S) (Trosborg, 1995; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987, 1993; Dersley & Wooton, 2000; House & Kasper, 1981; Monzoni, 2009). However, this definition hardly serves to cover the large variety of complaints that S might produce.

George (1988), adopting a Searlean perspective, distinguishes *between expressive complaints* and *directive complaints* by adding the essential conditions (Searle 1969) that in *expressive complaints*, S should seek sympathy or commiseration from H, and in *directive complaints*, S should issue a directive; that is attempt to persuade H to do something to repair the damage.

Complaints might occupy a number of Searle's (1976) categories of speech acts, depending on the context and the preparatory and sincerity conditions under which they are uttered (Jacobs, 1989). For example, a complaint can be an *expressive* speech act if it expresses a negative evaluation in its proposition, as in "I am disappointed in you." A complaint can have the force of a *directive* if it implies a demand on a hearer, such as in the utterance "do you think you can stop putting your trash in front of my door?" A complaint might have the force of a representative, such as in the utterance "this is a non-smoker," (Trosborg, 1995:334) which states a fact, and yet implies that the hearer is responsible for committing an unlawful and morally wrong act. A complaint might have the force of a commissive, thus committing the speaker to a course of action such as in the expression ("I am not going to put up with this anymore").

Other authors have attempted to divide complaints into *direct complaints* (where the speaker directly addresses a problem or unacceptable situation by fixing the blame on a person or an institution) and *indirect complaints*, where the speaker indirectly addresses a problem or situation by seeking sympathy from a hearer, as when complaining about the weather (Boxer, 1993, 2010; Drew & Walker, 2009;

Edwards, 2005; Kozlova, 2004; Nodoushan, 2006; Deveci, 2002; Ouellette, 2001; Wierzbicka, 1991). Often, the distinction between a *direct* and an *indirect* complaint are likely to be blurred, especially if it is not clear whether the Hearer is responsible for the wrongdoing suffered by S (Jacobs, 1989).

Direct complaints are called for when a Speaker holds a Hearer at least partially responsible for a transgression, misconduct or disappointing state of affairs which is against the speaker's perceived interests, or which the speaker interprets as being "unfair" or "bad for him" (Trosborg, 1995; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987, 1993; Dersley & Wooton, 2000; House & Kasper, 1981; Monzoni, 2009). Direct complaints are highly face-threatening (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and are therefore not very commonly-encountered, except in certain contexts, such as when a problem exists and needs to be remedied immediately. Direct Complaints (henceforth complaints) have also been defined as "hints and mild disapprovals to severe challenges where the complainees is explicitly declared incompetent and irresponsible in his capacity to serve as a member of society" (Trosborg 1995: 314). Brown and Levinson (1987: 66) define a complaint as a situation where "the speaker (S) has a negative evaluation of some aspect of the Hearer's (H) positive face."

Olshtain & Weinbach (1993: 110) describe the process as follows:

1. Speaker (S) expects something from Hearer (H). That is, (S) expects either a favorable event to occur, or expects an unfavorable event to be prevented from occurring. A favorable event could be the return of a debt, or the fulfillment of a promise. An unfavorable event to be prevented could be a cancellation of an appointment, or damage to personal property. Hearer (H) is responsible for making the favorable event happen or preventing the unfavorable event from happening. If (H) fails to do this, he/she has committed a Socially Unacceptable Act, or an SUA.
2. (S) views the SUA as having unfavorable consequences for him or herself.
3. (S) views (H) as responsible for these unfavorable consequences.
4. (S) chooses to express his or her frustration and disappointment verbally.

(Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993: 108)

Trosborg 1995 defines complaining as an abusive and a conflictive act which relies on mitigating devices in order to lessen its inherent face-threatening nature.

In a complaint, the events described in the proposition took place in the past... [Complaining] is retrospective in that a speaker passes moral judgment on something which he/she believes the complainees has already failed to do or is in the process of doing. (Trosborg 1995: 311)

In the above excerpt, passing moral judgment can be interpreted as social rejection, breaking ties of affection, disputing, challenging or bluntly denying the social competence of the complainees.

Definitions of complaining are also connected to behavior that we normally do not associate with complaining. Edwards (2005), for example, describes Objectification as one way of making a complaint more acceptable to the hearer. He claims that the more a speaker builds a complaint “as a factual description of its object, the less available it is to be heard as stemming from the speaker’s disposition to see, feel, or interpret things negatively” (Edwards 2005: 6). Similarly, Trosborg (1995) describes substantiation as a part of complaining thus:

It is important for a complainer to provide [substantiation] in the form of facts or arguments to the effect that “[the offensive behavior] is bad”; i.e. the complainer must “prove” that he/she is justified as interpreting [the offensive behavior] as bad for him/her... (Trosborg, 1995: 331).

Irony is another device that is present in the speech of a complainer; for example, Drew & Holt (1988) claim that “Idiomatic, proverbial, and other figurative expressions are quite frequently employed ... not randomly, but most notably when one speaker is complaining to another.” (p. 398). Furthermore, complaining is often associated with negatively framed questions (Monzoni, 2009).

In summary, complaints have been defined both in a very general fashion; that is, as the voicing of or the expression of ill content to a hearer who has committed a transgression, but also as an act that has many subtleties, such as substantiation, objectification, and the use of figurative expressions.

2.3 Politeness

Politeness is often associated with the concept of “face” or the “positive social value” (Goffman, 1967: 213) that a person projects in his social contacts with others. It is everyone’s natural wish to create a positive image of themselves in the minds of others, and at the same time, not to be interfered with by others. In other words, everyone is engaged in a constant struggle to achieve stability in their relationships with others.

Expanding on Goffman’s (1971) ideas, Brown & Levinson (1987) defined two different varieties of face: positive face and negative face. Positive face is the want of every member in a community to be evaluated in a positive manner by those around him. Negative face is the desire to be unimpeded from the impositions of others, and also involves one’s right to privacy. Brown & Levinson (1987) claim that some speech acts or element of social behavior carry with them a threat either to the hearer's or the speakers own face and thus require softening via politeness. These acts are called Face threatening Acts (FTAs). Fraser (1990: 229) summarized four kinds of FTAs as follows:

1. Acts threatening to the hearer's negative face; that is, their claim to privacy, freedom of action or other elements of personal autonomy (ordering, requesting; threatening and advising, complaining)

2. Acts threatening to the hearer's positive face; that is, self-image and the self-respect a person has (complaining criticizing and disagreeing).
3. Acts threatening to the speaker's negative face (accepting thanks, accepting an offer).
4. Acts threatening to speaker's positive face (apologizing, accepting compliments).

Brown & Levinson (1987) consider the speech act of complaining to be threatening both to the hearer's (H's) positive face and negative face, since the speaker (S) views (H) as responsible for an unfavorable set of circumstances, and perhaps also requests that H repair the wrongdoing, thereby imposing on H's freedom of action.

Other terms defined within Politeness Theory include *redressive action*, *positive politeness*, and *negative politeness*. *Redressive action* is carried out in order to reduce any possible *face* damage of the FTA with modifications or additions that demonstrate that no *face-threat* is desired or intended. *Redressive action* can take one of two forms; *positive* or *negative politeness*. *Positive politeness* takes place when a speaker shows respect to the *positive face* of his /her hearer. This mainly includes statements of friendship, solidarity, compliments, attention to the hearer's interests and needs, and the use of solidarity in-group markers (Brown & Levinson, 1987). On the other hand, in *negative politeness* the speaker gives importance to the *negative face* of the hearer by avoiding restrictions of the hearer's freedom of action. Brown & Levinson (1987: 69) also discuss the steps involved when S decides whether or not to commit a face-threatening act, and whether or not to do it on-record, off-record, or bald-on record. The five steps, or superstrategies, are as follows:

1. Bald on-record: This is where a FTA is performed concisely and without redressive action e.g. 'Wash your hands'
2. Positive politeness: The FTA is performed with redressive action. Strategies are oriented towards the positive face of the hearer. 'Wash your hands, honey.'
3. Negative politeness: The FTA is performed with redressive action, but is oriented towards the hearer's negative face: 'Would you mind washing your hands?'
4. Off-record: The FTA is performed off-record; that is, strategies are used which allow the act to have more than one interpretation, such as 'Gardening makes your hands dirty'
5. Avoidance: The FTA is not performed at all. (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 69).

The above superstrategies, according to Brown & Levinson, (1987) are intrinsically ranked in terms of indirectness. The most direct superstrategy is Superstrategy (1) Bald-on record, which uses the imperative form without any redress. The least direct is Superstrategy (5) Avoidance.

2.3.1. Interpersonal Relationships: Power and Social Distance

Power and social distance are important variables in Brown & Levinson's politeness theory; that is, they consider them important for the evaluation of the degree of imposition or the weightiness of an FTA. First we will define power and social distance and then we will discuss how Brown & Levinson (1987) incorporate them into their theory.

Power is a variable that defines the relationship between two people in terms of their ability to control each other's behavior. Thomas (1995) proposes that several sorts of power exist. First is the power to influence someone's life in a positive way, (reward power) or negative way (coercive power); second, the power to do things or expect things by virtue of age or role (legitimate power); third, the power that is conferred on a person because the other admires him or her (referent power); and

finally, the temporary power that comes from having special knowledge or expertise that other people need, such as in the case of a teacher or a computer technician (expert power).

Social distance is defined as how like-minded or intimate two people are (Brown & Gilman, 1972). Social distance is defined based on five different variables: the frequency of contact, length of acquaintance, amount and type of affect, and the amount of self-disclosure between two people (Spencer Oatey, 1996).

Brown & Levinson (1987) consider social distance to be “based on an assessment of the frequency of interaction and the kinds of material or non-material goods (including face) exchanged between S and H...” (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 76-77), and they define power to be “material ... [and] metaphysical control over the actions of others” (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 77). Brown & Levinson (1987) define a third variable, that of the degree of imposition, or the degree to which a speaker interferes “with an agent’s wants ... or ... face wants” (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 77). They propose the following formula, wherein the weightiness (W) or an FTA is calculated by adding the numerical values of the social parameters P, D, and R. Here, S refers to Speaker and H refers to Hearer:

$$W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x$$

In other words, the amount of risk evaluated by doing an FTA in a particular context is determined by the sum of the social distance (D) between the participants, the relative power (P) of the hearer over the speaker, and the seriousness of the imposition which is expressed as the absolute ranking (R) of the imposition.

Many studies done on the speech act of complaining refer to social distance and power (House & Kasper, 1981; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Trosborg, 1995). For example, Trosborg (1995: 148, 333) defined three different types of role

constellations: (a) status unequals, non-intimates (authority figure/subordinates) +dominance +social distance; (b) status equals, non-intimates (strangers) - dominance, +social distance; and (c) status equals, intimates (friends) –dominance, - social distance. Trosborg found that amongst native speakers, the highest degree of indirect complaint strategies were issued when communicating with authority figure, as one might expect. However, authority figures received more expressions of annoyance and modified blame than strangers.

2.4 Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatics is the study of how two individuals communicate (Trosborg, 1995). In order to understand pragmatic transfer we must first discuss language transfer, of which pragmatic transfer is one variety. The notion of language transfer, commonly referred to as “L1 influence” (Bou Franch, 1998: 21), originated from the behaviorist view that a language learner’s first language (L1) has an effect on his ability to learn a second language (L2). This phenomenon was often referred to as *interference* (Odlin, 1989: 39). These observations of the effect of L1 on L2 led to the development of the CAH (Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis) which claimed that when the two languages are different; i.e., when they have typological differences, there will be negative transfer or interference. Positive transfer represents the opposite case: the two languages are similar; therefore, learning is facilitated and no errors result (Corder, 1981).

Although Contrastive Analysis fell into disfavor as a result of widespread acceptance of Chomsky’s (1965) ideas that developmental factors caused errors, and that these factors were universal, the study of language transfer was not completely abandoned, and many subdivisions were investigated, such as syntactic, morphological, pragmatic and

phonological transfer. The area that is of particular interest to the current discussion, pragmatic transfer, is the influence that previous pragmatic knowledge has on the use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper 1992). Negative pragmatic transfer is the use of L1-based sociocultural and pragmalinguistic knowledge when speaking in the target language where such a use results in perceptions and behaviors that are different from target language norms; positive transfer, on the other hand, is an effect of the L1 on the L2 such that results in perceptions and behaviors that are consistent with TL norms (Kasper, 1992). There are two types of pragmatic transfer: pragmalinguistic transfer, which involves illocutionary force and politeness values, and Sociopragmatic transfer, which involves role-relationships and other context-internal factors (Kasper 1992: 207). Another term is *convergence*. When a learner produces or otherwise uses L2 pragmatic elements in a target-like fashion, we call this “convergence with, or approximation to, target-like pragmatic norms” (Kasper & Schmidt, 1995: 155). Two important concepts here are *optimal convergence* and *total convergence*. “*Optimal*” implies satisfactory approximation, while “*total*” implies mimicry. *Optimal* rather than *total convergence* is the goal of foreign language education (Kasper & Schmidt, 1995: 155).

Research on positive pragmatic transfer, negative pragmatic transfer and “no pragmatic transfer” (Shea, 2003:49) is important to the field of Interlanguage pragmatics and speech acts studies because these conditions are thought to play a role in successful communication (Kasper, 1992). There are relatively few studies on non-transfer and positive transfer compared to negative transfer, which has been investigated by numerous authors (Kasper, 1992; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Nelson, et al, 1993; Rose & Kasper, 2001). The case of non-transfer; that is, a case where transfer could have occurred, but did not, has been investigated by Bergman and Kasper (1993) with respect to apologies. Positive transfer has been studied with respect to complaint speech acts in NNSs from L1 Danish backgrounds, (Trosborg, 1987), Japanese (Shea, 2003) and Turkish (Deveci, 2009) backgrounds.

In the field of Interlanguage pragmatics, researchers generally examine the differences in speech acts in the target language and the learners' mother tongue, and then analyze the learners' speech act performance in the target language to see how closely it matches the same speech act as it is used by native speakers of the target language. Kasper (1992) reported special procedures for investigating pragmatic transfer involving the three groups (IL, L2 and L1): If there is no statistically significant difference between the pragmatic strategy use of the L1 group, the IL group or the TL group, this is considered to be positive transfer. If there are statistically significant differences between the TL group and the IL group, significant differences between the TL group and the L1 group, but no statistically significant differences between the IL group and the L1 group, then this is a case for negative transfer.

Shea (2003) also applied the theoretical framework of pragmatic transfer to statistical findings, but considered only negative transfer, since "positive transfer is a concept which is exceeding difficult to disentangle from the use of universal pragmatic knowledge and inference strategies that all language users may share" (Shea, 2003: 41). With regard to statistical significance, Shea (2003) interpreted four pragmatic transfer scenarios corresponding to differences in complaint strategies between the three groups. First was *strong pragmatic transfer*, or when the AEA group (American speakers of English living in America) had a significantly greater or lower frequency of a strategy than the JJJ group, (Japanese speakers of Japanese living in Japan) and the JEA group (Japanese speakers of English living in America) was indistinguishable from the JJJ group, similarly to the Kasper's (1992) definition of negative transfer. In notation form, this is equivalent to two possibilities: (AEA > JEA ≈ JJJ or AEA < JEA ≈ JJJ.) The interpretation here was that the JEA group had shown strong resistance to convergence or acculturation to the AEA. *Weak pragmatic transfer*, on the other hand, required that the AEA group had either significantly higher or lower strategic frequencies when compared to the JJJ group. The JEA group fell between these two frequencies, and all groups differed significantly (either AEA > JEA >

JJJ, or $AEA < JEA < JJJ$). Conceptually, the JEA participants' responses in such cases suggested that they occupied a "distinctive intermediate position in which opposing forces of transfer from L1 and convergence to TL were both manifested" (Shea, 2003: 43). A third scenario was *No pragmatic transfer*, (i.e. no negative transfer) in which the frequencies of AEA and JJJ groups differed significantly, those of the JEA and the JJJ differed significantly, and those of the AEA and the JEA were statistically indistinguishable (either $AEA \approx JEA > JJJ$, or $AEA \approx JEA < JJJ$). Here, the interpretation was that the JEA group had successfully converged with those of the AEA group in terms of their use of complaint strategies. The fourth scenario, all three groups gave responses that were statistically indistinguishable ($AEA \approx JEA \approx JJJ$). This scenario resembles Kasper's (1992) concept of positive transfer, but because Shea (2003) did not consider positive transfer in her study, she categorized this finding as follows: *Negative Pragmatic transfer not applicable*.

2.5. Interlanguage Studies on the Speech Act of Complaining

Research on complaint speech acts have been conducted in L1 (the speaker's first language). However, the great majority of complaint speech act studies has been conducted on L2 (second-language) learners, or non-native speakers (NNS) of English. Researchers have focused on NNS of English from language backgrounds such as Catalan (Trenchs, 2002), Chinese (Arent, 1997; Chen, 2009; Yian, 2008), Danish (Trosborg, 1995), German (House & Kasper, 1981), Japanese (e.g. Inoue, 1982; Rinnert, 2006; Shea 2003), Korean (Murphy & Neu, 1996; Ouellette, 2001; Moon, 2001), Malaysian (Farnia, 2010), Persian (e.g. Eslami-Rasekh et al., 2004; Salmani-Nodoushan, 2007), Russian (Kozlova, 2004), Sudanese (Umar, 2006),

Turkish (Deveci, 2009; Onalan, 2009) and Ukrainian (Prykarpatska, 2008).

Complaint speech acts have additionally been studied in ESL contexts such as in the case of Bruneian English (Henry & Ho, 2009).

Kasper & Schmidt (1996) remind us that the regular procedure in studies that investigate non-native speakers' (NNSs') speech acts is first to examine differences between the target language (TL) and the learners' mother tongue (L1) in terms of how they use a given speech act. Second, the NNS's speech act performance is measured using the same coding scheme. Finally it is determined whether the NNS exhibits speech act patterns that are closer to the TL or to the L1. Here we must introduce two very important aspects of pragmatics: sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) divide pragmatics into two components: *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics*. *Pragmalinguistics* refers to resources for conveying communicative acts. Leech (1983: 10) defines *sociopragmatics* as "the sociological interface of pragmatics." This refers to the social perceptions that underlie an individual's performance or interpretation of a communicative action. Kasper (1992) refers to *pragmalinguistic sets*, or sets of semantic formulas that comprise speech acts. These have been referred to as speech act sets (Murphy & Neu, 1996), and realization patterns (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993). Often, groups of learners- target-language speakers, non-native speakers and L1 speakers (TL, NNS and L1)- are measured and compared in terms of how frequently they use the components in these pragmalinguistic sets. Kasper (1992) also refers to sociopragmatic factors. Sociopragmatic factors are the NNS's L1 culture, age, gender and situational factors; that is, the seriousness of the offense in the case of complaints and apologies. Various other factors affect speech act behavior, such as attitude, proficiency, learning context, and length of residence in

the target community. Bou Franch (1999) echoes Kasper's (1992) ideas. She proposes a "language-culture continuum" (Bou-Franch, 1999: 8), essentially stating that every speech act study investigating NNSs' production of target language speech, involves some consideration of pragmalinguistics, and sociopragmatics to varying degrees.

Regarding pragmalinguistic sets of complaint speech acts, we observe that they often contain strategies that set the stage for, or introduce a complaint. For example, Ouellette (2001) compares Korean learners to native English speakers in terms of how they use *orientation*, in which the complainer describes who was involved, when the incident occurred and where the incident occurred in order to set the context of a complaint: "They are a lot of French they speak French a lot I don't understand." Similarly, Murphy & Neu (1996) include such strategies as *explanation of purpose*, Rinnert (2006) examines *initiators* and Trosborg (1995) describes *hints*. All of these strategies are similar in that they tend to occur at the beginning of a complaint, thereby serving "to prepare [the complainer] for more forceful strategies" (Trosborg, 1995: 316).

Requests have also often been associated with complaining behavior (Murphy & Neu, 1996; Rinnert, 2006; Shea, 2003; Tanck 2002; Umar, 2006). Umar (2006), who studied Sudanese learners, found that requests were the second most-common strategy employed. The other strategies studied were "Establishing Context... Annoyance... Warning... [and] Excusing Self for Imposing" (Umar, 2006: 23). Similarly Rinnert (2004) and Tanck (2002) have also investigated Requests as a substrategy of complaining.

Murphy & Neu (1996) examined NNS from an L1 Korean background. They placed their participants in a position to complain to a professor about a low grade on

a term paper. Their contribution to the study of the speech act of complaints is that they distinguish between strategies that are particular to NSs and NNSs. The strategies commonly employed by their American native speakers were (1) Acceptance of partial responsibility, (2) Depersonalization of the problem (where the participant transferred blame from the professor to the paper); (3) Acceptance of partial responsibility for the problem. These were also found in varying degrees in the Korean NNS group, but the latter also were found to use: (1) Denial of responsibility; (2) Personalization of the problem (where the complainer placed the blame on the professor giving the low grade rather than on themselves or on the grading system) (3) Refusal to accept responsibility for the problem, and (4) Use of the second person plus the modal *should* "...that indicates that the speaker is in a position to dictate the behavior of the listener" (Murphy & Neu, 1996: 205). The presence of these four elements made the complaints of the Korean participants seem non-target-like, and unlikely to be met with a positive response by the university professor, according to a jury of native speakers of American English (Murphy & Neu, 1996).

Similarly, Tanck (2002) identified complaining behavior that seems more common in the Korean NNS population represented in her study. Using the same situation featured in Murphy & Neu (1996), Tanck (2002) found that Korean NNSs conveyed a sense of urgency in their questions and requests, and tended to add emotional pleas and personal details to their complaints, which might be considered irritating to Americans (Tanck, 2002). Also, NNSs seemed "presumptuous ... [or] confrontational" (Tanck, 2002: 11) in their questions and requests.

Rhetorical questions have been examined in connection to complaints in native speakers of Russian and American English by Kozlova (2004). Rhetorical questions occurred only in the Russian data and not in the English data.

Shea (2003), in comparing the complaints of JEAs (Japanese learners of English living in America) to those of JJs (Japanese speakers of Japanese living in Japan) and AEAs (American speakers of English living in America), makes reference to elements unique to either Japanese culture or to American culture. Some unique features of Japanese culture are taciturnity, “the art of belly... [or] heart-to-heart communication” (Shea, 2003: 13) and the generally low importance placed on verbal communication. Other concepts introduced are *wa* or harmonious integration of the group, and Shea (2003) cites all of these features as being somehow responsible for a low overall level of complaining in her JEA participants. By the same token, the high value placed on rhetoric and verbal articulacy in American culture accounts for a higher level of complaining behavior in American culture. Throughout this study is the idea that complaining, more than just a means of “offending the hearer” (Leech, 1983) or that of disrupting harmony among social intimates, is a complex social phenomenon which is ultimately a means for strengthening in-group ties. Similar attitudes towards the speech act of complaining are present in many other studies (Edwards, 2005; Boxer, 1993; Drew & Curl, 2009).

Prykarpatska (2008) investigates Ukrainian and American English speakers’ complaints, identifying the category of jokes, which occur only in Ukrainian data. Ukrainian jokes are expressed with conversationally elliptic clauses, such as: “Scarcely had three days passed (when you came)” (Prykarpatska, 2008: 99). Conversationally elliptic clauses are thus called because the second part of the clause (in parentheses) is omitted during conversations. Prykarpatska (2008) also analyzes

the two cultures (Ukrainian and American) using the theoretical framework proposed by Hofstede (2004) and Hall (1976), stating that Americans “do not like to play subtle word games, (preferring to) express their communicative intentions explicitly by unambiguous words and gestures... [whereas] Ukrainians resort to allusion [and] irony and tend to respond to communicative situations with phrases from widely known jokes” (Prykarpatska, 2008: 90). This is reflected in the researcher’s findings with regard to Ukrainians complaining, which tends to contain all of the elements referred to above.

The pragmalinguistic set (henceforth coding scheme) used in the current study was adapted from Trosborg (1995), who uses eight strategies, “...strategy 1 being the most indirect, strategy 8 the most direct” (Trosborg, 1995: 315).

2.6. Summary of the Chapter

Because the current study investigates the interlanguage and cross cultural differences in the complaints of Turkish learners with native speakers, it has been necessary to discuss the areas of pragmatic transfer, politeness theory, and speech act theory. First speech acts and speech act sets, then the speech act of complaining were defined. The subtleties of complaining, including substantiation and figurative expressions, were touched upon. Within the politeness theory framework, the chapter discussed face, face-threatening acts, positive and negative politeness, Brown

& Levinson's (1987) superstrategies, and the parameters of power and social distance. Next, pragmatics, types of pragmatic transfer (L1 influence) and the concept of total versus optimal convergence were discussed. Several well-known cross-cultural interlanguage studies on the speech act of complaint were summarized and discussed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 92 English native speakers (ENSs), 100 Turkish learners of English (TLEs), and 108 Turkish native speakers (TNSs). All participants were between the ages of 17 and 30 years, with the exception of the English native speakers, some of whom were over thirty years old. Unless otherwise mentioned (as in the case of ENSs), all participants filled out the demographic form and the questionnaire in-person, using pen and paper. In addition, all participants were selected via convenience sampling methods.

The ENS participants were defined as having been raised by English native speaking parents or guardians as children, and having grown up in a country where English was the sole official language (e.g. the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, etc.) They were recruited in two different ways. One method of recruitment was in-person, and the other method of recruitment was via email. In both cases, the sampling method used was convenience sampling. Because it was difficult to find ENSs in Turkey, it was necessary to employ alternative recruitment methods in order to obtain the 92 participants. Fifty-eight participants were recruited on the campus of a university in Istanbul. Twenty-six of them were recruited on the campus of a university in London. Eight ENS

participants were instructed to fill out and return the open-ended questionnaire via email.

The Turkish native speakers were defined as having been raised by L1 Turkish speaking parents or guardians. They had 7-9 years of English in primary school. None of them had studied English beyond high school. All of them were students at a Turkish speaking university. None of them had attended university level English preparatory programs, although all of them claimed to have some degree of English language instruction in high school.

The TLE group was defined as having spoken Turkish at home with L1 speaking Turkish parents or guardians. They had all graduated from the preparatory program in July 2010, and had thus been qualified for university-level coursework at an English language medium university in Istanbul, Turkey. In order to graduate from the English preparatory program, all of the participants had been required to pass a proficiency examination which was based on the competency standards set by the Common European Framework.

3.2. Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with 16 university students (n=16; 10 M, 6 F) first to collect and investigate conversational topics which members of this age group considered complaint-worthy, and second, to test the reliability of the data collection instrument that was partially based on the participants' responses.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

This section will describe the instruments used in this study. The main instrument was a discourse completion task (Kasper & Dahl 1991). In addition, a demographic questionnaire was applied.

3.3.1. Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire had two main uses. The first was to screen out any participants over the age of 30, and the second was to ensure that the different groups of participants had not had any extensive training or contact with languages or cultures outside their native culture or language. The criteria for an English native speaker to be included among the participants was that (1) the participant should have had at least parent or guardian who was a native speaker of English; (2) the participant should have been born and raised in an English-speaking country; and (3) the participant should not have lived in a foreign country for more than two years. In the case of ENS (English native speaker) participants, this meant that any potential participant who had spent more than 2 years either studying Turkish or living in Turkey or in any other country where the official language was not English, was eliminated from the study. In the case of TLE and TNS participants, all individuals who had lived outside of Turkey for more than two years, or who had two non-Turkish parents, were eliminated.

3.3.2. DCT (Discourse Completion Task)

A DCT (Appendix A) or discourse completion task formed the main instrument of data collection used in the current study. A DCT is an open-ended written elicitation task and one was used in the current study to elicit complaints. Discourse completion tasks have been used extensively in researching speech acts and interlanguage pragmatics. DCTs have been applied to the study of such speech acts as compliments (Beebe & Takahishi, 1996), requests (Blum Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989), and refusals (Cohen & Olshtain, 1996). The largest project to have used this data collection instrument is the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), which investigated a range of languages in an effort to measure the directness levels of participants in their requests and apologies (Blum-Kulka, et al, 1989). Several researchers have used DCTs to study complaints (Arent, 1996; Bonikowska 1988:170; Chen, 2009; DeCapua, 1988; Du 1995; Farnia, et al., 2010 Trenchs, 1995; Olshtain & Weinbach 1987, 1993; Prykarpatska, 2008; Rinnert, 2006; Tanck, 2002; Umar, 2006; Yian, 2008) but there have been relatively few studies which have focused on complaints in Turkish learners of English (Deveci, 2006; Onalan 2009)

An item (henceforth situation) on a discourse completion task consists of a short vignette, or description of a situation, rather than an actual transcript of spoken dialogue. Then the participant is prompted to write what he or she would actually say in such a situation. Each of these situations was constructed so as to be

approximately the same length and use the same style of language. Situation (1)

Phone (Appendix I), used in the current study, is provided below:

You have just bought a brand-new cellular phone, but when you get home, you find that the phone does not work properly. You go to the shop, but the salespeople do not want to help you. Also, they will not give you back your money. You are upset about this. You call the company and tell your problem to Roberta, the customer representative. What do you say to her?

Having read this vignette, the participant is expected to say exactly what he would in a real conversation. This task is open-ended so the participant is free to write anything he or she wants. In the current study, participants were instructed to write “NA” (No Answer) for any of the situations for which they did not wish to write an answer, thus opting out.

Two versions of the DCT task were created for the current study, one version in English and the other, in Turkish. The original situations were all written in English first, and later translated from English into Turkish, and proofread by three different native speakers of Turkish in order to ensure that they were understandable. Both the English and the Turkish version of the DCT radically altered and modified to suit the Turkish context. All of this was done to avoid activating any possible L2 pragmatic competence in the Turkish learners that was not detected via the demographic study (Grosjean, 2001).

The situations on the DCT, including the example above, were based on similar situations that appeared in DCTs utilized by Arent (1995), Bonikowska (1988), Chen (2009), Deveci (2003), Murphy & Neu (1996), Olshtain & Weinbach (1987), Ouellette (2001), Piotrowska (1987), Shea (2003), Tanck (2002), and Trenchs (2002). Some of the situations were not adapted from earlier studies, but

created from scratch by the current researcher based on field notes and participant interviews.

The original situations were constructed based on input from Turkish learners of English studying in a preparatory program in Istanbul. These learners were interviewed in audio recorded focus groups.

Situations were carefully edited in order to control for contextual details such as Power and Social Distance. Power was determined by the age and occupation of the interlocutor, and the social distance was determined according to whether the interlocutor was well-known to the participant, or whether he or she was a stranger. Table 2 (below) illustrates how the situations were categorized.

Table 2: A Characterization of the Situations: Gender, Power and Social Distance.

Note: C= Complainer, E = Complaine,e, Unk = unknown

Strategy	Sex of H	Roles of Speaker and Hearer	Power	Social Distance
1 Broken phone	F	C: customer; E: customer care representative	C<E	High (strangers)
2. Cinema	Unk	C: undefined E: undefined	C=E	High (strangers)
3. Sister	F	C: sibling ; E: Sister	C=E	Low (siblings)
4. TV	M	C: undefined E: host	C= E	Low (friends)
5. Angry Father	M	C: son/daughter; E: father	C<E	Low (family)
6. Splash	M	C: pedestrian E: driver	C=E	High (strangers)
7. Trash	M	C: neighbor E: Murat (neighbor)	C=E	low (close neighbors)
8. Refused Entry	M	C: student; E: Mr. Cohen (invigilator)	C<E	High (different stations)
9. Teacher Forgets	F	C: Student E: Professor Slatsky-Edwards	C<E	High (different stations)
10. Noisy Neighbor	F	C: undefined E : neighbor	C=E	High: (casual acquaintances)

Table 2 illustrates that the situations described in the DCT were classed according to whether the interlocutor in the situation was superior to or equal to the Complainer, and whether the interlocutor was close (as in a friend or family member) or a stranger. Two parameters were especially important. The parameters were Power, referring to status of the speaker and hearer, and social distance, referring to how

degree of familiarity between the two interlocutors. The Social distance (SD) parameter had two possible states: + or -. The Power parameter also had two states: = (equal) or - (low Speaker power, where $S < H$ in terms of status.) When combined in all of their permutations, three different groups resulted. The three groups were: Authority figure contexts (high social distance [+SD] and low Speaker power, [-P]), Friends (low social distance [-SD] and equal power [=P]) and Strangers (high social distance [+SD] and equal power [=P]). One situation, Situation (5) Father (low social distance [-SD] and low Speaker power [-P]), did not fit into any of the above categories. This final context was not analyzed in the current study because it was the only situation in its class, and because it was thought that a high degree of association and intimacy (Triandis 1978) might confound a high degree of power, thereby causing ambiguous results.

As a final note, in this study, situations did not exist in which the speaker had higher status than the Hearer.

3.4. Methods of Data Analysis

The purpose of this section is to introduce how Trosborg's (1995) and Yian's (2008) coding schemes were applied to the DCT data. The following 8 strategies were adapted from Trosborg (1995), strategy 1 being the most indirect and strategy 8 being the most direct: *hints*, *annoyance*, *ill consequences*, *indirect accusation*, *direct accusation*, modified blame, blame (behavior) and blame (personal). Yian's (2008) adaptation of this scheme adds three new categories: directive acts, warnings and opting out. Hence Yian's (2008) variation of Trosborg's (1995) coding scheme was established, and the total number of strategies became eleven.

Table 3: Coding Scheme Adapted from Trosborg's (1995) Complaint Strategies.

Category	Strategy	Example
---	Str. 1 Opting out	N/A I would say nothing
Cat. I. <i>No explicit reproach</i>	Str. 2 Hints	Don't see much of you these days, do I?
Cat II. <i>Expression of disapproval</i>	Str. 3 Annoyance	You know I don't like dust, I'm allergic to dust, Didn't you know it?
	Str. 4: Ill consequences	Now I will probably lose my insurance
Cat. III. <i>Accusation</i>	Str. 5: Indirect	Look at the mess, haven't you done any cleaning up for last week?
	Str. 6: Direct	You used to do the cleaning up all the time. What's up with you now?
Cat. IV: <i>Blame</i>	Str. 7: Modified blame	You could have said so, I mean, if you had so much to do." And "its boring to stay here and I hate living in a mess, anyway you ought to clean up after you."
	Str. 8: Explicit blame (behavior) Str. 9: explicit blame (person)	"You never clean up after you, I'm sick and tired of it." "Mete, (swear word) really, one can never trust you a damn
	Str.10: Request for repair	"Would you mind doing your share of the duties as soon as possible?"
Cat. V: <i>Directive acts</i>	Str. 11: Threat.	"I shall be leaving soon (if you don't do your share of the cleaning)."

The above table was used as a guide (Appendix C) when interpreting the responses from the various groups (TLE, ENS, TNS) in the various situations (1-10). It was possible for several codes to occur in one response; however, in the current study no effort was made to record the exact order either which the strategies occurred. The following example illustrates how multiple strategies are combined to form a response:

TLE 65; *Situation (1): Broken Phone*. This phone does not work (HINT) and your staff did not help me. (DIRECT ACCUSATION) I am not happy about that (ANNOYANCE) and if you do not find a solution for my phone I will not use your product anymore. (WARNING/THREAT)

3.5. Reliability

To increase the reliability of the instrument, another rater who had not done research on speech acts before, was asked to code 10% of the data. Her codes reproduced those of the current researchers at a rate of 96%.

3.6. Statistical Analyses

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was applied to assess whether the differences between the ENS, TLE and TNS, with respect to how frequently each group used each individual complaint strategy. Special attention was paid to whether differences between strategy use between any two groups was statistically significant, as this was taken to indicate that the two groups in question utilized different sociolinguistic norms when performing the particular strategy under investigation. This procedure

did not control for contextual variables; in other words, this procedure was done for all ten situations on the DCT.

In order to answer the third research question, “How do different contexts influence complaining behavior in TLEs, ENSs and TNSs?” each of the three response groups were compared across three different types of situations; namely, a) authority figures, b) friends / family and c) friends, a two-way mixed ANOVA with group (ENS, TLE, TNS) as the between-groups variable and context (subordinate [C1], friends and family [C2], strangers [C3]) as the repeated measures factor was conducted in order to determine whether the groups differed in their overall use of strategies across the three contexts.

3.6.1. Measuring Pragmatic Transfer

One of the research questions posed in this study (Research Question 2) is whether or not pragmatic transfer had occurred. For the purposes of this study, pragmatic transfer refers to positive pragmatic transfer; that is, projection of first-language-based sociocultural and pragmalinguistic knowledge onto second language contexts where such projections result in perceptions and behaviors that are either consistent with, or not consistent with those of the target language community (Kasper 1987).

Several patterns or outcomes related to the statistical findings for the three groups were observed. These were Strong Negative Pragmatic Transfer, Weak Negative Pragmatic Transfer, No Transfer (ENS-like), Positive Transfer and Transfer Not Applicable.

Strong Negative Pragmatic Transfer was considered to have occurred when the TLEs and the TNSs both used a significantly lower or higher amount of a

particular strategy than the ENS group did, but in this regard, the TLEs and the TNSs were themselves statistically indistinguishable. In notation form, this is either $TNS \approx TLE > ENS$ or $TNS \approx TLE < ENS$. (Shea, 2003: 158).

In Weak Negative Pragmatic Transfer, there were significant differences either only between the ENS and the TNS groups, or among all three groups, and the TLE group fell between the other two groups ($ENS < TLE < TNS$ or $ENS > TLE > TNS$) in terms of strategic frequency. (Shea, 2003: 158).

In the category No Pragmatic Transfer (ENS-like), the TLEs and ENSs were expected to use a significantly lower or higher amount of the particular strategy in question than the TNS group did, although the TLEs and the ENSs were themselves statistically indistinguishable from each other. (Either $ENS \approx TLE > TNS$ or $ENS \approx TLE < TNS$). (Shea, 2003: 158).

Positive pragmatic Transfer was considered to have occurred when all three groups were statistically indistinguishable in terms of their strategic frequency as discussed by Kasper (1992). ($ENS \approx TLE \approx TNS$)

Pragmatic Transfer was considered Not Applicable if the TLE group were to have frequency values that did not fall between those of the ENS and TNS groups even though all three groups exhibited statistically significant differences (e.g. $TLE < TNS < ENS$).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of a cross-cultural and interlanguage comparison. The chapter dealt with how the three groups (TLE, ENS, and TNS) used complaint strategies, both in general, and as a function of specific contexts. The chapter was divided into three sections based on the research questions. Section one focused on the most commonly-used strategies for all three groups without examining context. Common trends and differences across the three groups in terms of were described in terms of how frequently they used particular strategies. Section two presented the statistical findings with respect to frequency of strategy use. The TLEs' complaint frequencies were evaluated by comparing them to those of the ENSs and TNSs. These findings were interpreted in line with a theoretical framework of pragmatic transfer. This comparison was done for each individual complaint strategy. Specific responses to situations from the DCT were considered in order to illustrate cross-cultural differences in complaining behavior. Section 3 used inferential statistics to measure strategy use as a function of context for all three groups.

4.1 Research question #1.

Research question 1 was: How do the TLE, ENS and TNS participants compare in their use of complaint strategies? The eleven complaint strategies are presented

below (Table 4) in the order of overall frequency with which they were found among the three groups. Table 4 also gives the percentage distribution of complaint strategy types for TLEs, ENSs and TNSs.

Table 4: Frequency of Strategy Use among the Three Groups

	TLE		ENS		TNS		Total
	N=100		N=92		N=108		
	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Requests	499	29.81	583	36.14	557	30.06	1639
Hints	508	30.35	444	27.53	423	22.83	1375
Annoyance	153	9.14	175	10.85	189	10.20	517
Threats/Warnings	93	5.56	83	5.15	146	7.88	322
Direct accusations	89	5.32	82	5.08	142	7.66	313
Opting Out	102	6.09	92	5.70	55	2.97	249
Modified blame	76	4.54	35	2.17	135	7.29	246
Indirect accusations	76	4.54	48	2.98	89	4.80	213
Blame (personal)	35	2.09	47	2.91	49	2.64	131
Blame (behavior)	39	2.33	19	1.18	42	2.27	100
Ill Consequences	4	0.24	5	0.31	26	1.40	35
All Strategies combined	1674	100.00	1613	100.00	1853	100.00	5140

On average, Requests, Hints, and Annoyance occurred with the greatest frequency, and made up about seventy percent of complaining behavior for all three groups. Threats/Warnings was the fourth most popular strategy choice. Opting out was noted to occur at an approximate rate of 5% on average. The remainder of the strategies, Ill Consequences, Indirect Accusation, Direct Accusation, Modified Blame, Blame (Behavior), and (Person), which Trosborg (1995) describes as being more direct and less polite than Hints and Annoyance, seemed to occur at a lower frequency. It is perhaps not surprising to note that indirect strategies seemed generally to be chosen over harsher ones. Since complaining is a “conflictive illocution” (Leech 1983: 123), harsh strategies did not occur very often in interaction. One exception to this was Ill Consequences, which was categorized as an indirect strategy (Trosborg 1995) and yet, appeared relatively infrequently in the data. Trosborg (1995) reports that this strategy was among those most frequently-used by native speakers. However, Trosborg’s (1995) method of data collection involved audio-recorded spoken data involving interlocutors who engaged in a dialogue consisting of multiple turns. Trosborg’s (1995) involved audio recorded speech data where the interlocutors had multiple turns, which might have permitted the chance “to build up an interaction in order to pave the way for a more direct strategy” (Trosborg 1995: 341).

The predominance of Requests also comes as no surprise. Many studies on the speech act of complaining report that Requests occurred at higher levels in the target language group (the ENS group) than in the Interlanguage group (Murphy & Neu, 1996; Tanck, 2002). Shea (2003), in a similar study, found that Requests (a groups of strategies composed of Request for Repair, Request for Explanation and Request for Information) and Hints (referred to as Problem or Justification in Shea

[2003]) comprised approximately 90% of the total complaint strategies found, which reinforces the current findings.

Table 5 gives the mean frequency values per participant per strategy. The table is organized in order of decreasing frequency of strategy use by the ENS group.

Table 5: Mean Frequency of Strategy Use among the Three Groups

Strategy	TLE			ENS			TNS		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Requests†	99	5.04	2.26	91	6.41	2.03	108	5.16	2.60
Hints*	99	5.08	2.84	92	4.83	2.32	108	3.94	2.32
Annoyance	100	1.53	1.40	92	1.90	1.53	108	1.75	1.37
Opting out*	100	1.02	1.28	92	1.00	1.02	108	0.51	0.80
Threats /Warnings*	100	0.93	0.87	92	0.90	0.96	108	1.35	1.21
Direct Accusation*	100	0.89	0.93	92	0.89	0.99	108	1.31	1.12
Indirect Accusation††	100	0.76	0.82	92	0.52	0.69	108	0.82	0.87
Blame (Personal)	100	0.35	0.58	92	0.51	0.81	108	0.45	1.18
Modified Blame†	99	0.77	0.98	92	0.38	0.61	108	1.25	1.27
Blame (Behavior)	100	0.39	0.71	92	0.21	0.46	108	0.39	0.68
Ill consequences*	100	0.04	0.20	92	0.05	0.27	108	0.24	0.47
CTOT	98	16.86	5.08	91	17.60	4.57	108	17.18	5.44
Valid N (listwise)	98			91			108		

Table 5 is provided in order to supply the values that were used to run the analysis of variance tests in the current study. N refers to the number of participants in the group. The row titled CTOT gives the mean number of strategies used throughout the entire DCT. The TLE, ENS and TNS group used, on average, a total of 16.86, 17.60

and 17.18 strategies throughout the DCT. Analysis of variance comparing the three groups with regard to the combination of all strategies revealed no significant differences, $F(2,294) = 0.56, p > 0.05$. (Table 5) This means that the three groups were statistically indistinguishable in terms of their overall strategy use. It is stressed that these figures represent all the strategies combined, and do not represent individual strategies.

With regard to the individual frequencies, the legend provides information pertaining to statistical significance. In the case of: Annoyance, Blame (Behavior) and Blame (Personal), no significant differences existed among the three groups; in other words, they were statistically indistinguishable. In all other strategies, there were significant differences between the ENS and TNS groups. In the case of Opting out; Hints; Ill Consequences, Direct Accusations, Modified Blame, and Threats/Warnings, the TLE and ENS groups were statistically indistinguishable from each other, but at the same time, both were statistically distinct from the TNS group ($ENS \approx TLE > TNS$, or $ENS \approx TLE < TNS$). From the data presented in Table 5, it is clear that the TNS group had a significantly higher frequency of Threats/Warnings, Indirect Accusations, Direct Accusations, Ill Consequences, and Modified Blame. The TNS group had a significantly lower frequency of Requests, Hints, and Opting Out. Only three strategies did not meet either one of the above criteria: Indirect Accusations; Modified Blame, and Requests. In these cases, the three groups were either all statistically distinct, ($ENS < TLE < TNS$ or $ENS > TLE > TNS$) or only the ENS and TNS groups were statistically distinct. This information will become important when we attempt to draw conclusions about how successfully the TLE group adopts target language pragmatic norms. Therefore, these findings will be discussed in detail under Research Question #2.

Table 6: Complaint Strategies Produced by ENSs

Component	Example
Request	ENS 8 <i>Situation (1) Phone</i> ; Please may I speak to your manager?
Hint	ENS 12 <i>Situation (1) Phone</i> : <u>I bought a phone. When I tried it, it didn't work properly. I have a receipt</u> and I would like my money back. I no longer have faith in your company so I do not want an exchange.
Annoyance	ENS 90 <i>situation (5) Father</i> : Listen, dad, I'm trying my best but I can't find anything. I'm sorry you're upset, <u>but I'm frustrated too</u> and this isn't helping.
Opt Out	ENS 62: <i>Situation (6) Splash</i> : <u>I would say NOTHING ... on rainy days I know to be careful of puddles.</u>
Threats/ Warnings	ENS 82: <i>Situation (1) Phone</i> : I am disappointed with the quality of service and demand a new phone, or else I will not be using the service again.
Direct Accusation	ENS 89 <i>Situation (10) Party</i> : I would really appreciate it if you wouldn't frequently throw parties. <u>You keep me up</u> and I cannot sleep.
Indirect Accusation	ENS 8 <i>Situation (8) Mr. Cohen</i> , I was in a traffic jam. <u>I really don't think it's fair to be shut out of an exam for being ten minutes late.</u> If I take the exam and can't finish it on time, I'll accept getting a lower grade, of course. But not to let me take it at all just isn't fair. (y3)
Blame (Personal)	ENS 6; <i>Situation (6) Splash</i> : <u>What the (swear-word) is your (swear-word) problem, (swear-word)? Watch the (swear-word) puddles, 10 (swear-word)</u>
Modified Blame	ENS 16 <i>Situation (6) Splash</i> <u>Thanks for paying so much attention to everyone else!</u> ENS 42; <i>Situation 5 Father</i> <u>If you care that much, why don't you find a job for me or help me find a job?</u> Is your company hiring? Why are you so concerned about me getting a job? Also, Pass the orange juice.
Blame (Behavior)	ENS 69; <i>Situation 3 Sister</i> : <u>You're out of order. You had me worried.</u> If you cannot remember or you were having too much fun and got distracted, I understand but <u>don't tell lies!</u>

Ill Consequences ENS 41; *Situation 8 Late* 'I understand, sir. I'm probably going to have to drop the class because of this.'

Table 6 provides examples of the complaint strategies as they were used by ENSs. It is plain to see that some responses seemed to use an excessive amount of profanity, and in other cases there seemed to be gratuitous references to violence. Kasper & Dahl (1991) refer to participants being unnaturally brave when filling out written discourse tasks. Similar levels of profanity and references to violence can be seen below in Table 7, which presents examples from the TNS participants. All examples in Turkish are given in italics, followed by the English translation in parentheses. Pertinent parts of the sample responses are underlined.

Table 7: Complaint Strategies Produced by TNSs.

Component	Example
Requests	TNS Situation (2) Cinema: <i>Biraz sessiz olurmusunuz? <u>Can you please be quiet?</u></i>
Hints	TNS 102; Situation (5) Father. <i>Babacığım iş arıyorum ama ya iş bulamıyorum yada bulduğum iş imkanları bana uygun değil . <u>Dad I'm looking for a job but either I can't get a job I want or the job I get isn't for me.</u></i>
Annoyance	TNS 10; Situation (4) Repulsive TV Celebrity; <i>artık bu programı izlemek istemiyorum. <u>İcime fenalıklar geliyor. Lütfen değiştirir misin şu kanal!</u></i> (I don't want to watch this program anymore. <u>It's really getting on my nerves.</u> Could you please change the channel?!)
Threats/Warnings	TNS 15; Situation (7) Young Neighbor's Trash; <i><u>Bir daha o çöpleri oraya bırakırsan komşu momsü dinlemem. Dağıtırım beynini. Bi daha olmasın lütfen.</u></i> (If you leave that trash over there again, I don't care if I am your neighbor. <u>I'll wring your neck.</u> Let's not do that again, please.
Direct Accusations	TNS 46 Situation (9) Teacher Forgets. <i>Hocam pazartesi sınavdan önce kağıtları teslim edeceğinizi ummuştum <u>ama vermediğiniz için kontrol edemedim.</u></i> (Hocam, I was hoping you'd return the papers on Monday but <u>since you did not</u> , I could not study.)
Modified Blame	Situation (5) Father: <i>Baba anlamıyor musun beni iş bulsaydım şu an evde oturuyor olmazdım. <u>Bu kadar ısrarcı davranmanın nedeni ne acaba? Beni sıkıntıya sokma.</u></i> Translation: Dad don't you understand? If I had found a job, I wouldn't be sitting at home right now. <u>Why are you being so insistent?</u> Don't get me stressed.
Indirect Accusations	TNS Situation (3) Sister. <i>Bir haftalık hafıza kaybına uğramamışsındır umarım yada uğramışsındır</i> Translation: I hope you have not had one-week memory loss, or maybe you have
Opting Out	TNS Situation (2) Cinema <i><u>Birsey demem genelde ben de ayısını yaparım</u> ... I would not say anything because I always do the same.</i>
Blame (Personal)	TNS Situation (3) Sister; <i>Sen sözüne güvenilmez bir hiçsin salaksın ya da beyinsiz bir maymun</i> (You're either a nothing who cannot be taken at her word, or a brainless monkey.)
Blame (Behavior)	TNS 15 Situation 10 Party. <i>Bu yaptığınız çok büyük bir terbiyesizlik. Yeter artık. Bu kadar da yapılmaz ki</i> (What you've (POL) done is extremely rude. I've had enough and I can't take anymore.)
Ill Consequences	TNS Situation (9) Teacher Forgets. <i>Hocam ödevi artık okusanız. <u>Yoksa belirsiz bir sınava giricez [sic].</u></i> (Hocam, why don't you (POL) mark the homework already? Otherwise we are going to take a test we don't know anything about.)

When we compare Tables 6 and 7, one point of interest is that Turkish has a T/V distinction; that is, a polite and a familiar form of the pronoun *you*, and as Table 7 demonstrates, TNS participants invariably used the polite form (the V form) of *you* when addressing a teacher or a stranger. Leech (1983:105) points out that “to [complain] in a polite manner is virutally a contradiction in terms.” However, for Turkish people, we see politeness (V form) occurs quite naturally in a complaining context.

An important finding for TNS participants is that *Hints*, or mild complaints, seemed to occur very often in contexts involving an authority figure. This topic will be explored in more depth later, but an example is provided here to illustrate. In example (TNS 61) below, the context of this complaint provoking situation is a teacher who does not let the participant take an exam:

(TNS 61) *Situation (8) Mr. Cohen Refuses Entry to Exam : Elimde olmayan nedenlerden ötürü bu sınava geç kaldım fakat siz de bu derse verdiği onemi biliyorsunuz. bir daha böyle bir durum yaşatmayacağım size fakat bu kez bana bir şans daha tanıyamaz mısınız? (I was late for reasons beyond my control, but you know how much importance I give to this class. I won't let this happen again, but can't you please just give me one more chance?*

The participant's response: “I was late for reasons beyond my control” at first glance, might seem more like an excuse rather than a complaint. Tanck (2002) comments on how Korean learners of English added an emotional plea to their complaint strategies. In an American context this might be viewed as whining and therefore reflect badly on the complainer (Tanck, 2002).

Another important finding regarding the data was the prevalence of Annoyance.

In this strategy the complainer expresses annoyance, dislike, and disapproval concerning affairs that he or she perceives as bad for him/her. The complainer implies that the complainees is responsible by explicitly stating a deplorable state of affairs, but avoids mentioning him/her as the guilty party. Many examples of Annoyance occurred in the data as rhetorical questions:

(TLE 5) *Situation (5) Angry Father* Dont you know I really want to have a job? Why are you insisting?

This finding has been mentioned in the literature, most recently in a study of the Italian language by Monzoni (2009), who studied complaints, made in the form of negatively framed interrogatives, to ambulance-drivers.

It was found that the particular strategy assigned to an utterance depended on where it occurred in the response sequence or what context it occurred in. In examples (a) and (b), the underlined portion is the same, but its interpretation changes based on its position in the sentence.

Situation (10) "Noisy Party"

- a) (ENS 56) I would really appreciate it if you wouldn't frequently throw parties. (REQUEST) You keep me up (DIRECT ACCUSATION) and I cannot sleep. (ANNOYANCE)
- b) (TLE 4) I cannot sleep. If you would do few parties, its okay. But you do a lot of and make always a lot of noise. If you do not take seriously I will find another solution. (HINT)

In example A, the underlined portion is clearly an *expression of annoyance*, given its position in the response sequence. It is preceded by a *request for repair* and an *accusation*. In B, the underlined strategy is clearly a *hint*, given its sentence initial position.

Findings with respect to Modified blame involved modal verbs. Modified blame, like other sub strategies in Category III, presupposes that the Hearer is guilty, and passes judgment on him or her, or the complainer “states preference for an alternative approach not taken by the accused” (Trosborg 1995: 318). Therefore, all data containing modal verbs in the past; e.g., “could have” or “should have” were coded as modified blame. For example:

(TLE 5) *Situation (4) Repulsive TV Celebrity: I guess we’ve watched your show for long enough. Now its [sic] time for mine.*

The expression “I guess we’ve watched your show long enough” actually has the illocutionary force of “I disapprove of this show and the fact that you would watch it for any extended period of time.” The next example is clearly an example of Modified Blame.

(TLE57) *Situation (3) Sister. You finally called me. But you should do that one week before but its okey don’t worry about that I miss you =). [EMOTICON]*

The next section compares TLEs to the ENSs and TNSs. In order to make the complicated task of comparing the three groups simpler, each case will be preceded by a discussion of the ENS and TNS responses alone, and only then will the TLE responses be considered. Examples will then be given from the current study, and parallels and distinctions will be made with findings from other studies.

4.2 Research Question #2

The second research question was: Does the TLE group exhibit pragmatic transfer in its use of complaint strategies? Four patterns emerged in the comparison of TLE participants' use of individual complaint strategies to those of ENS and TNS participants. Table 8 illustrates five operational definitions (Strong; Weak; None; Positive; Not Applicable):

Table 8: Theoretical framework based on Statistical Findings

Strategy number	Strategy	F	$p \leq 0.05?$	Pragmatic Transfer
----	----	----	----	Strong
7	Mod. Blame	$F(2,296) = 18.78$	Yes	Weak
5	Indirect Accusation	$F(2,297) = 3.82$		
4	Ill Consequences	$F(2,297) = 11.29$	Yes	None (ENS-like)
11	Threats/warnings	$F(2,297) = 6.18$		
6	Direct Accusation	$F(2,297) = 5.99$		
2	Hints	$F(2,296) = 5.99$		
1	Opting out	$F(2,297) = 11.29$		
3	Annoyance	$F(2,297) = 1.65$	No	Positive
8	Blame (B)	$F(2,297) = 2.67$		
9	Blame (P)	$F(2,297) = 0.80$		
10	Requests	$F(2,296) = 10.04$	Yes	Not applicable

Table 8 summarizes the strategies grouped according to which category of pragmatic transfer they fell into with respect to their statistical findings. Each strategy will be described below first with respect to the statistical findings, and then with respect to unique examples.

4.2.1 Strong Negative Pragmatic Transfer

The findings were considered consistent with the effects of strong negative pragmatic transfer when the ENS participants has a significantly greater or lower frequency of a

strategy than the TNSs, and the TLEs were statistically indistinguishable from the TNSs, but were significantly different from the ENS participants. (In notation form, this is equivalent to two alternative possibilities: $TLE \approx TNS < ENS$, or $TLE \approx TNS > ENS$). No instances consistent with the concept of Strong Pragmatic Transfer were found among the data. One possible explanation is that the TLE group had recently finished an intensive preparatory program which meant twenty-five hours per week of classroom instruction for six months. This input might have had beneficial effects on the TLEs' L2 pragmatic competence. The same effects might have been obtained if the TLEs had, unbeknownst to the current researcher, had extensive L2 input during the formative periods of their lives. Another possible explanation is that the DCT task allowed the students more thinking time in which to access and activate their pragmatic competence. This allowed them the chance to avoid TNS-like pragmatic strategies, thereby supplying responses that were more ENS-like.

4.2.2. Weak Negative Pragmatic Transfer

Weak Negative Pragmatic Transfer: The findings were consistent with the concept of weak negative pragmatic transfer when the differences between either the ENS and the TNS alone, or all three groups, were significant, and when the TLEs' frequency score fell between that of the ENSs and TNSs. (In notation form, this is equivalent to $ENS < TLE < TNS$, or $ENS > TLE > TNS$.) Shea (2003) refers to the TLE group as being in a "distinctive intermediate position in which opposing forces of transfer from L1 and convergence to TL both manifested" (p.43).

4.2.2.1. Modified Blame

Modified Blame states a preference for an alternative course of action, which usually involves modal verbs such as “should have” or “could have” in English (Trosborg 1995: 317). In Modified Blame, an accusation is made, but the Complainer evaluates the proposition without explicitly stating it is bad. ENS, TLE and TNS participants engaged in Modified blame with a total frequency of 2.17%, 4.54% and 7.29% (Table 4), with the TLE group falling between the ENS and TNS values. The analysis of variance of the means for Modified Blame (Table 5) revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,296) = 18.78, p < 0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure confirmed those differences; that is, between ENS and TNS participants, between TLE and TNS participants, and between ENS and TLE. ($ENS < TLE < TNS$). As mentioned, this finding is consistent with Shea's (2003) interpretation of weak pragmatic transfer. As this would imply, the TLEs seemed to adapt TNS-like complaining behavior in their responses. Oftentimes for example, in the TLE data Modified Blame occurred as rhetorical questions. In Situation (6) Splash, the following samples were obtained: “Are you blind??!”; “Hey! Why do you drive a car if you don't know what to do?”; “Can't you slow down a little bit, you goddamn idiot?” The prevalence of rhetorical questions also was found in the TNS data, such as the following TNS example: “*Olum sen nasıl araba kullanıyorsun biraz dikkatli olsana. Boy, what sort of driving do you call that! You should be more careful!*” or “*Ehliyetini bakkaldan mı aldın?* (Did you get your license from the grocer's?)” or “*Kör müsün oğlum?*” (Are you blind, boy?) In contrast, modified blame in the form of rhetorical questions did not seem to occur very often in ENS responses to Situation (6) “Splash,” but more often as propositions; for example, “Watch where you're driving!” In this sense, the qualitative findings in the data echo the statistical findings; that is, TLEs seem to transfer from their L1 when issuing Modified Blame. In confirmation of the findings, Trosborg (1995) and House & Kasper

(1981) respectively found that German and Danish learners of English issued Modified Blame significantly more often than English native speakers.

4.2.2.2. Indirect Accusation

Indirect Accusation, the eighth most common strategy in the current study, seeks to establish the agent of a wrongdoing. The complainer indirectly asks questions about the socially unacceptable situation or somehow offers the Hearer the chance to disclaim responsibility for the wrongdoing. As we shall see for the case of Direct Accusation, the TLE group seemed to use this strategy quite often in Situation (9) HW, where the complainer visits his professor in her office to ask about some feedback which she has forgotten to give. The assumption here is that when a student asks a teacher about feedback which she is late in returning, the indirect nature of the accusation softens the participant's real intent, which is to accuse the teacher of being late; e.g., "You have not finished our assignments!" In making Indirect Accusations, the TLEs not only conveyed the illocutionary force of an accusation, but also seemed to convey "a sense of urgency" (Tanck 2002:11) which might be irritating to a teacher in a real-life situation: "Did you finish working on our assignments?" TNSs were quite similar in this regard: *Hocam ödevleri okudunuz mu? "Pazartesi sınav olmadan önce onu inceleme fırsat bulabilir miyim?* (Teacher, have you (VOUS) marked the assignment?) Will I have a chance to go over it before the exam on Monday?" In contrast, ENS participants seemed to make careful use of hedges and other internal modifications to avoid conveying a sense of urgency: "Hi, how are you? I was just wondering whether you'd had a chance to mark my assignment yet? [sic]"

The strategic frequency for Indirect Accusation for the ENS, TLE, and TNS was 2.98%, 4.54%, and 4.80% respectively (Table 4). The analysis of variance on

the means for Indirect Accusations (Table 5) revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,297) = 3.82, p < 0.05$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure revealed significant differences only between ENS and TNS participants (Table 6). The TLE group was indistinguishable from either of the other two groups which in turn *were* distinct. Although minute differences make this finding difficult to assess, it may represent low-level, weak transfer (Shea 2003). Again, the statistical findings seem to echo qualitative observations made to the effect that the TLE group resembled the TNS group in their Indirect Accusations in Situation (9).

4.2.3. ENS-like use of L2/no L1 influence.

Here, TLEs demonstrated successful convergence with L2 norms, and at the same time showed no L1 influence. (This case is the opposite of (1) in terms of the patterns of statistical significance: $ENS \approx TLE > TNS$ or $ENS \approx TLE < TNS$). These strategies included: Ill Consequences; Threats/Warnings; Direct Accusations; Hints, and Opting Out. One reason why the TLEs were able to realize these speech acts in an ENS-like way might be that learners were able to access universally available pragmatic knowledge pertaining to these strategies. In other words, these particular strategies might represent a part of the body of universally available pragmatic knowledge, which learners do not have to practice or explicitly learn in order to apply (Kasper, 1992). Another possibility is that since Turkish and English are typologically different from each other, Turkish learners of English were able to

perceive what elements of their L1 pragmalinguistic knowledge were non-target like, and avoided these forms (Odlin, 1989).

4.2.3.1. Ill consequences

In this strategy, the speaker expresses the ill consequences resulting from an offense for which the complaine is held implicitly responsible. The complainer implies that he/she holds the complaine responsible, but avoids mentioning him/her as the guilty person; for example, “*Telefonumu, paketinden çıkarır çıkarmaz arızalı olduğunu farkettim ve bu üretim hatası yüzünden mağdur durumdayım.* (The minute I took my phone out of the box, I noticed it was defective, and because of this defect in production, I am placed in a compromised position.)” Trosborg (1995) reports that for both the L1 and L2 groups in her study, Ill Consequences was among the most frequently-used strategies. Perhaps the difference between Trosborg’s (1995) study and the current one was the data collection method. Ill Consequences seemed unlikely to emerge in written discourse involving only one interactional turn (as used in the current study). TLE 25, in *Situation (8) Late*, demonstrates how TLEs were able to use this strategy in a target like fashion: “If I don’t take this exam, I will not be able to finish my university in time.” The frequency values were highest for the TNS group (Table 4). The analysis of variance on the means for Ill Consequences (Table 5) revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,297) = 11.29, p < 0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure revealed the TLE and ENS groups were not significantly different from each other; however there were significant differences between ENS and TNS participants as well as between TLE and TNS participants. This finding was consistent with ENS-like use of L2; in other words, the TLEs had successfully managed to utilize this strategy in such a way as to approximate the sociolinguistic norms of the target language. Trosborg (1995) reports that the learner group (TLE in this case) expressed their

annoyance and disapproval in the form of Ill Consequences much less frequently than either group of native speakers (TNS and ENS in this case.) However, as mentioned before, Trosborg (1995) uses audio recorded, spoken dialogues between interacting participants (nonnative and native speakers of English), which do not give the learners as much time to rehearse and compose their responses. The extra time for the DCT might be accountable for the TLEs' ENS-like use of L2.

4.2.3.2. Threats/Warnings

Threats/Warnings was the fourth most-commonly used strategy across the three groups. In Threat/Warning, a complainer may choose to attack the complainees' face openly by issuing a threat or an ultimatum. TLEs issued Threats/Warnings at an ENS-like frequency, but the quality of their Threats/Warnings resembled the TNSs responses. First of all, TLEs issued cryptic threats; in other words, they used puzzling, mysterious expressions with hidden or obscure meanings, and the nature of their threats involved what Prykarpatska (2008) refers to as "subtle word games... allusions, [and] irony" (p91-92). In Situation (3) *cinema*, several cinema-goers distract the participant from the film as they noisily crunch their popcorn. One TLE wrote the following dialogue: "Cinema Goer: Yes, What is it? Participant: Step outside and I will show you what "it" is." One TNS, Situation (4) *TV*, where the participant is forced to watch a tasteless TV program by his/her friends says the following: "*Hadi abi deđiřtirin řunu! Ona karřı olan nefretimi birazdan size kızgınlık olarak yansıyabilir* (Change this, man! In a little while, my hatred for that celebrity will transform into anger towards you!) The idea of one's hatred for a TV celebrity somehow transforming into anger towards a friend was not found in the ENS responses.

The frequency of Threat/Warning generated by ENSs, TLEs and TNSs was 5.15 %, 5.56% and 7.88% (see Table 4), respectively, demonstrating a significantly

high frequency of threats and warnings by the TNS. The analysis of variance for on the means for Threats/Warnings (Table 5) revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,297) = 6.18, p < 0.01$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure established that the ENS and TLE groups were statistically indistinguishable; however, there were significant differences between ENS and TNS participants as well as between TLE and TNS participants. These findings are consistent with ENS-like use of the L2 by the TLE (Interlanguage) participants. Again, the statistics reveal ENS-like behavior, but certain examples also point to non-ENS-like behavior.

Shea (2003) reports that Japanese L1 speakers (the counterpart to TNSs in this study) Japanese speakers of English (TLEs in this study) and American speakers of English (ENSs in this study) failed to show any significant differences in their use of Warnings. Shea's (2003) collection methods involved audio recordings of spoken data.

4.2.3.3. Direct Accusation

Direct Accusation was the fifth most commonly-occurring strategy (Table 4). In this strategy, the complainer directly accuses the complainee of having committed the offense. Direct Accusations are formulated as a proposition rather than as a rhetorical question. In this way, Direct Accusations do not offer the Hearer the chance to disclaim responsibility. If the complainee attempts to disclaim responsibility, he or she can do so only by explicitly contradicting the complainer. The TLEs were TNS-like in the quality and manner of their complaints in some cases, but the statistical

findings indicate that the TLEs were generally ENS-like in their frequency of Direct Accusation use. For example, TLEs seemed to use this strategy more often than ENSs when addressing authority figures. In Situation (9) Teacher Forgets, TLE 29 responds as follows: ‘This is the only thing you should do and you did not do it.’ This was also prevalent in the TNS data for the same situation: ‘*Hocam pazartesi sınavdan önce kağıtları teslim edeceğinizi ummuştum ama vermediğiniz için kontrol edemedim. (Hocam, I was hoping you’d return the papers on Monday but since you did not, I could not study.)’.* ENS 34 was more likely to use Hints as in the following example: ‘I was wondering: were we supposed to come to your office for the feedback or were you going to bring the papers to class?’ Thus, we see that in the context of complaining to a superior, TLEs, perhaps transferring from their L1 pragmatic knowledge, seemed to use harsher strategies.

The analysis of variance of the means for direct accusation (Table 5) revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,297) = 5.99, p < 0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure revealed significant differences among ENS and TNS participants and between TLE and TNS participants; however, no significant differences were found between ENS and TLE. These findings were consistent with ‘ENS-like use.’ To recapitulate, in the statistical findings, the TLE group successfully approximated ENS patterns, whereas in isolated examples, TLE responses seemed more to resemble TNS responses than they resembled ENS responses. This is an indication of L1 influence with respect to the pragmatic strategies associated with Direct Accusation.

Trosborg (1995) reports that in the case of Direct Accusations, no significant differences were obtained between the three groups: the L1 group, the IL group and the TL group, which would be consistent with the concept of positive transfer.

However Trosborg (1995) herself acknowledges that her findings were ‘not altogether unexpected since [Danish and English speakers] share similar cultures.’ (Trosborg, 1995:405).

4.2.3.4. Hints

Hints were the second most-commonly encountered strategy throughout the data, second only to Requests. Hints are a form of mild complaint where the complainer makes assertions in the presence of the complaine, but these assertions contain no mention of a complainable or of anything bad or disagreeable. In making these assertions in the presence of the complaine, however, the complainer implies that he or she knows about the offense and holds the complaine indirectly responsible.

The frequency of Hints generated by ENSs, TLEs and TNSs was 27.53%, 30.35%, and 22.83% (see Table 4). In spite of significant differences between the norms of L1 and L2 in terms of complaining behavior, the TLE group had somehow managed to approximate L2 sociolinguistic behavior. Analysis of variance on the means for Hints (Table 5) revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,296) = 5.99, p < 0.01$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure showed that the ENS and TLE groups were not significantly different from each other; however there were significant differences between ENS and TNS participants as well as between TLE and TNS participants. This finding was consistent with the concept of ENS-like use.

In contrast, Trosborg (1995) reports that her interlanguage group used ‘very few hinting strategies’ (p.339) in comparison to native speakers of English. Ouellette

(2001) similarly observes that Korean learners of English tend to avoid the use of Hints.

Shea, (2003) who also found a low level of hinting strategies in the interlanguage of Japanese ESL students, states that one likely reason for a reduced number of strategies is the ‘suppression of verbalism’ in the learners’ native culture’ (p 50). The Japanese use language mainly to transmit information, and believe that excessive verbal eloquence is the mark of untrustworthiness. Those who “propound an eloquent self-justification are branded ... manipulators or ... charlatans” (Shea, 2003: 54). Additionally, complaining or similar conflictive elocution is considered damaging to *wa*, or the Japanese concept of group ‘harmony’ (Shea, 2003: 14). The opposite is true for native speakers of American English, who value rhetoric and verbal skills.

In spite of the ENS-like frequencies obtained in TLEs’ Hints, TLEs were also found to exhibit TNS-like behavior in some cases. For example, TLEs’ Hints were found to contain conversationally elliptic clauses (Prykarpatska, 2008), as demonstrated below:

DCT PROMPT: You have been waiting for a friend, and the friend is very late. When she finally arrives, you say _____.

SAMPLE ANSWER: ‘Scarcely had three days passed... (when you came.)’ (Prykarpatska 2008 : 99)

The clause is called conversationally elliptic because its second part (in parentheses, provided here for the sake of clarity,) is deliberately omitted in speech. The full non-elliptic version of this clause is ‘well-known to every Ukrainian’ from early childhood, owing to its use in fairy tales. Conversationally elliptic clauses occurred with some frequency in the TNS data. In the following examples, the portion in parentheses is not mentioned. The first example comes from TNS 25 *Situation (2) Cinema*, where people are noisily crunching their popcorn, prompting the Complainer to complain: ‘*Haci, sakin yeyin az, (patlamış mısır) alan var, (ve*

patlamış mısır) alamayan var. (Brother, can you keep the crunching down? Some (can) get (popcorn) and others cannot get (popcorn)).’ The conversational ellipsis in this sample is unmistakable. In the example, the expression ‘some can get it and others can’t’ refers to being able to afford popcorn. In other words, ‘not everyone can afford to eat popcorn;’ therefore, the speaker is implying that the Hearer is not only making noise but also being inconsiderate to the hungry people around him. A similar example from ENS 34 is ‘Guys, do you mind (not eating so noisily)?’ In this example, ‘do you mind?’ is instantly recognizable by any native speaker as having the illocutionary force ‘Stop bothering me.’ The conversationally elliptic clause seems to have a parallel in the practice of using idiomatic language when complaining in English. Drew & Holt, (1988) observed that idioms do not occur randomly, but most often when one speaker is complaining to another; for example, an ENS from the current study responded to situation 10 as follows: ‘Hey man, we all like to party around here but you gotta keep it down.’ Here ‘keep it down’ is an idiomatic way of saying ‘lower the volume of the music.’

4.2.4. Positive Transfer

A lack of statistically significant findings in the frequencies of a particular feature of language in the L1, L2 and IL, equates to positive transfer (Kasper, 1992). The following strategies were used in a way that was consistent with the current study’s definition of Positive Transfer: Annoyance, Blame (Behavior) and Blame (Person). The finding of positive transfer behavior implies that that L1 and L2 typologies were similar for these particular complaint strategies.

4.2.4.1. Annoyance

A complainer can express annoyance by expressing disapproval about a state of affairs. The frequency of Annoyance generated by ENSs, TLEs and TNSs, referring to Table 4, was 10.85%, 9.14%, and 10.20% respectively. The analysis of variance revealed no significant differences for the means for Annoyance (See Table 5) among the three groups, $F(2,297) = 1.65, p > 0.05$. Therefore the concept of ‘Positive Pragmatic Transfer’ is applicable; in other words, TLEs simply transferred sociolinguistic norms from their L1 into their L2 in a way that was consistent with L2 norms. However, while the TLEs appear to have used positive transfer to successfully approximate target language behavior, they also exhibited non-ENS like behavior in isolated cases and in isolated contexts. For example, in Situation (4) TV, the ENSs tended to supply a short expression of Annoyance followed by a Request: ‘I really can’t stand this TV show. Can we turn the channel over please?’ In contrast, TLEs provided answers exemplified by the following: “OK! That’s it! I can’t handle this guy and its killing me. I Freaking Hate him. How can you be this silly and actualy (sic) sit down and watch a show about him! (sic)” Here, the expression of Annoyance spans three or four sentences and is not followed by a Request.

TLEs were also typically TNS like in their use of rhetorical questions in the L1 and statements in the target language, such as the following TLE response in Situation (4) : ‘what is so important or attractive about her/him!’ similarly, a TNS participant demonstrates the use of Annoyance in *Situation (1) Phone*, where an electronics goods company has refused to refund the Complainer his/her money for a faulty cellular phone: ‘*Bu ne saygısızlık?* (What sort of disrespect is this?)’ As we can see, in Turkish, Annoyance often seems to occur as a rhetorical question, thus

providing a basis for negative transfer, whereas in English it occurs as a statement, such as in *Situation (4) TV*: ‘Can you please turn over the channel? I’ve endured this torture long enough.’

Trosborg (1995) reports that the IL group (Danish learners of English) used expressions of Annoyance much less often than native speakers (English and Danish speakers.) Again, the difference may be attributable to the fact that spoken data were collected in that study, whereas the current study relied solely on written responses, which gave participants the opportunity to rehearse and compose their speech acts.

4.2.4.2. Blame (behavior)

The second strategy in this group is Blame (Behavior), in which the speaker holds the hearer responsible for a socially unacceptable act, and explicitly states that the act is bad. This strategy often spans several sentences, as in the following example from *Situation (3) Sister*, where the complainer’s sister, who has gone abroad and forgotten to call, is the complaine. ‘You’re out of order. You had me worried. If you cannot remember or you were having too much fun and got distracted, I understand but don’t tell lies!’ (ENS 57). Here, the expression ‘you’re out of order’ explicitly states that the action committed was bad. The action in question is lying. Although TNS participants seemed rather harsh when using blame: ‘*Bu yaptığınız çok büyük bir terbiyesizlik. Yeter artık. Bu kadar da yapılmaz ki* (What you’ve done is a supreme act of rudeness. I’ve had enough and I can’t take anymore)’ both the ENS and the TNS used Blame (Behavior) in a similar fashion. The TLE group was no different. For example TLE 44, in *Situation (7) Trash* “John it’s bad what you do

with the garbage. You shouldn't leave it in front of my door.” ENSs were much less likely to use such direct evaluations (“it's bad what you do...”). The frequency values were as follows: ENS 1.18%; TLE: 2.33%; TNS: 2.27% (See Table 4). The analysis of variance on the means for Blame (Behavior) (Table 5) revealed no significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,297) = 2.67, p > 0.05$, leading to the conclusion that the TLEs used Blame (Behavior) at an insignificantly (slightly) higher rate than ENSs. The findings were consistent with the concept of Positive Transfer. Trosborg's (1995) findings similarly indicate that “there was a tendency for [advanced] learners to use this strategy more than [native speakers of English], though this difference was ... marginal” (p. 347).

4.2.4.3. Blame (Personal)

An act of blame presupposes the hearer is guilty of some offense and that the speaker passes a value judgment on the hearer. In the strategy Personal Blame, the speaker explicitly condemns the hearer as being an irresponsible member of society or of being unworthy of character. This strategy often includes the use of swearing and insults directed at the hearer. In some cases, the use of swear words and insults is sufficient in terms of condemnation and makes it unnecessary for the speaker to explicitly describe how or why the hearer is unworthy. This strategy often spans several sentences or involves multiple clauses, as seen in TNS 45, *Situation (1)*
Phone: “Hem üründen hem de firma çalışanlarınızdan son derece şikayetçiyim. Sizden alışveriş yaptığım için pişmanım (I am utterly disappointed both with your

employees and your product. I regret buying this phone from your company.)”

Examples of Blame (Personal) were extremely rare.

The strategic frequency for personal blame for the ENS, TLE, and TNS participants was 2.91%, 2.04% and 2.64% (Table 4) respectively. The analysis of variance revealed no significant differences between the means for the three groups, $F(2,297) = 0.80, p > 0.05$ (Table 5). Because this strategy represents one of the most face-threatening and harshest strategies in the coding scheme, it is not surprising perhaps that it was the least often used by all three groups, and even less so by the TLE group, and perhaps universal pragmatic principles might have applied for the same reasons. These findings contrasted with those of Trosborg (1995) who claims that her native speakers of English did not use this strategy at all.

4.2.5. Pragmatic Transfer Not Applicable

Here, there were statistically significant differences between all three groups, and yet the TLE group did not fall between the other two groups in terms of strategic frequency, making the findings difficult to interpret. The statistical patterns that characterized the use of strategies in this category were not consistent with any of the preceding theoretical categorizations. The items in this section include Requests in which (a) all three participants had statistically distinct frequencies: (TLE < TNS < ENS).

4.2.5.1 Requests

Requests were the most commonly-encountered strategy in an overall survey of strategy use on the DCT (Table 4). In the current study, requests were defined as “an attempt to make the complaine repair the damage he/she has caused” (Trosborg 1995: 320). ENS participants made requests at a significantly higher rate than TNSs or TLEs. In a similar fashion, Murphy & Neu, (1996) demonstrated that Requests were more commonly-used by native speakers of English than by other groups.

Requests often occurred in conjunction with Annoyance and with Hints. The frequency of Requests by ENS, TLE, and TNS participants are respectively: 36.14%, 29.81%, and 30.06% (Table 4). The analysis of variance on the means for Requests, as shown in Table 5, revealed significant differences among the three groups, $F(2,296) = 10.04, p < 0.001$. This finding was confirmed by applying Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni procedure. The finding that TLE participants produce significantly fewer requests than either TLEs or TNSs ($TLE < TNS < ENS$) suggests that, like Modified Blame, the frequency patterns of requests were not consistent with any of the theoretical categorizations (i.e. ENS-like Use or Positive Transfer). Given the fact that the TLE did not make Requests at a similar frequency to the ENS or the TNS groups, the complaint strategy use pattern found here was considered to be unique to the Interlanguage. The interlanguage pattern of Requests here is in keeping with the findings of other authors (Onalan, 2009, Deveci, 2003; Rinnert, 2006; Murphy & Neu, 1996) who state that learners sometimes avoid using Requests. TLEs might have been reluctant to risk face threatening acts given their incomplete control over the target language.

Although TLEs seemed to use Requests at a significantly lower frequency than TNSs, in certain contexts, their complaint behavior seemed to have similar qualities. Requests are noticeably absent from the strategies used by TLEs in

Situation (8) Mr. Cohen. That is, the TLEs seemed reluctant to use Requests to Mr. Cohen with respect to scheduling a make-up examination. Requests were also conspicuously absent from the complaining behavior of TNSs. The majority of ENSs, in contrast, were very commonly found to request a makeup examination, such as “Can I take it at a later date?” Similarly, Hebrew speakers who are late in meeting their boss avoid suggesting or requesting a further appointment, but rather wait for the boss to initiate the request for a future engagement (Gass, 1996).

4.3. Research question #3

The third research question was: How do different contexts influence complaining behavior in TLEs, ENSs and TNSs? Table 8 demonstrates that different contexts elicited significantly different complaint strategy use among the three response groups.

Table 9 : Mean Frequencies of Strategy Use for ENSs, TLEs and TNSs as a Function of Context

Context	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Authority Figures	ENS	5.4615	2.00725	91

P (S<H); +SD	TLE	6.4082	2.70104	98
Sit.1,8,9	TNS	5.9722	2.67372	108
	Total	5.9596	2.51852	297
	ENS	5.5714	1.74574	91
Friends / family	TLE	4.6327	1.44585	98
P (S=H); -SD	TNS	5.1204	1.90777	108
Sit. 3,4,7	Total	5.0976	1.75161	297
	ENS	4.8681	1.85118	91
Strangers	TLE	4.1122	1.37640	98
P (S=H); +SD	TNS	4.5741	1.79929	108
Sit. 2,6,10	Total	4.5118	1.71067	297

In order to analyze whether combined use of all strategies was affected by the two parameters of dominance and social distance, overall performances in each of the three response groups were compared across the three different types of situations; namely, a) authority figures, b) friends / family and c) friends. A two-way mixed ANOVA with group (ENS, TLE, TNS) as the between-groups variable and context (authority figures (C1), friends / family (C2), and strangers (C3)) as the repeated measures factor was conducted in order to determine whether the groups differed in their overall use of strategies across the three contexts. The ANOVA for the means (Table 8) did not reveal a significant main effect for group, $F(2, 294) = .639, p > .05$. However, the main effect for context, $F(2, 588) = 64.39, p < .001$ and the interaction between context and group, $F(4, 588) = 10.80, p < .001$ were significant. Figure 2 shows the interaction between group and context.

In the Authority Context, the TLE group demonstrated a higher mean frequency of complaining. (TLE: 6.41; ENS: 5.46; TNS: 5.97) A look at the raw frequency of complaining in Situations 1,8, and 9 (all of which feature an authority figure as the interlocutor) reveals that the TLE group used a higher number of Requests and Hints than the other groups. This trend is reversed in Context: Friends and Family. That is, the TLE group uses a lower frequency of strategies in general. The trend continues in Context: Strangers.

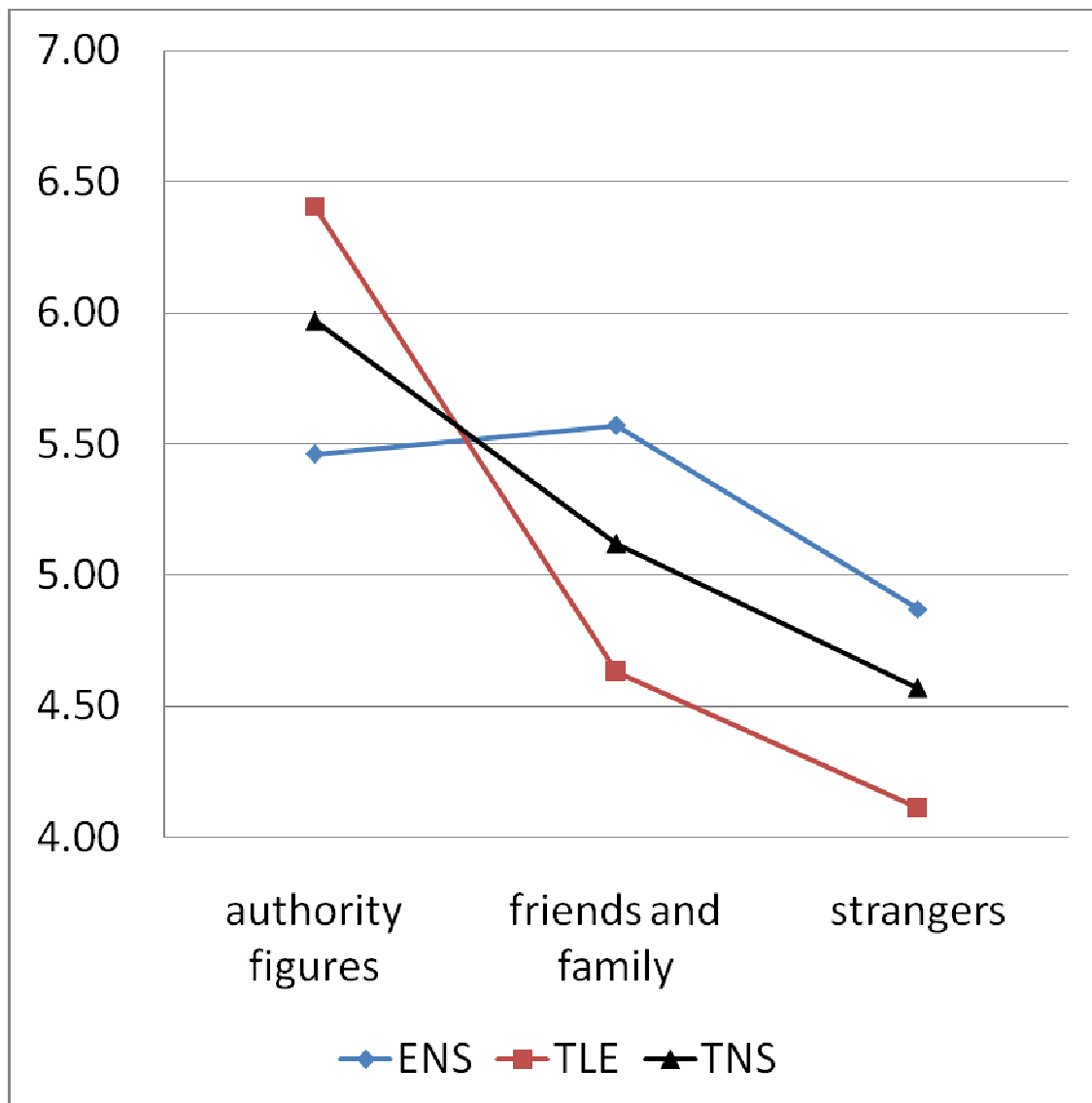


Figure 1. Interaction between group and context.

4.3.1. Interaction between group and context: Overall Similarities and Differences between ENSs and TNSs

As Figure 2 shows, type of situation was a significant determiner for the native speaker response groups (ENS and TNS). The ENS and the TNS group adjusted their overall use of complaint strategies according to the parameters determined by situation type. For example, ENSs supplied fewer complaint strategies to authority figures in comparison to TNSs. Put differently, it appears that Turkish participants were more likely to complain to authority figures, as given by their relatively high complaint frequency in Context 1 (Authority Figures). This underscores fundamental differences in the norms of sociolinguistic behavior between the target culture and the L1.

Moving on to the second context, ENS participants demonstrated a slight increase in their overall complaint frequency in complaining to friends and family, while TNS participants demonstrated a sharp decrease in their complaints. Wolfson's (1988) bulge theory defines a stable relationship between interlocutors as one in which there is a high power difference between the two individuals, such as in Context 1. A less-stable relationship is one in which the interlocutors are non-

intimates, status equal friends co-workers and acquaintances, such as in Context 2. The relationship between a boss and an employee is fixed or stable, meaning that this power-unequal relationship will not change. On the other hand, this distinction is not so clear between status-equals. The bulge theory (Wolfson, 1988) therefore predicts that when the relationship between interlocutors is stable, such as in Context 1, there will be a relatively low amount of negotiation between interlocutors. However, when the relationship is a less stable one, there will be a greater degree of negotiation. ENS participants seemed to demonstrate this by increasing their complaining as a function of decreasing power asymmetry and social distance (going from authority figures to friends and family.) TNS participants behaved less predictably according to Wolfson's theory; however, different cultural values might have influenced the TNS group's pragmatic strategy use (Wierzbicka 1991). Shea (2003) observed that Japanese participants used a relatively low amount of complaints in the *friends* context (Context 2) when compared to English native speakers. She observed that Japanese has a system of honorifics and donatory verbs which allow the speakers to "signify psychological intimacy toward, or distance from, the addressees" (Shea 2003:106). In other words, rather than use negotiation and pragmatic strategies such as complaint strategies, Japanese speakers used honorifics, personal referents and donator verbs to establish and maintain in-group identity. Japanese people also avoided using personal referents, and in this way, established a "selflessness which contributes to in-group identity" (Moeran, 1988: 430). We might assume that the Japanese system of honorifics and personal referents replaced the need for pragmatic strategies, resulting in a lower frequency of complaints. The sociopragmatic belief system here may involve the idea that when interacting with friends and family, one ought to apply the principle of "heart to heart

communication” (Shea 2003: 13); that is, to complain as little as possible in order not to upset the *wa* or in-group harmony (referred to earlier in this Chapter) and mutual high regard that exists between oneself and one’s relations (Shea, 2003). Perhaps a similar effect was observed with the TNS and TLE in the current study. Here the question arises: Why would ENSs choose to complain to friends and family rather than attempt to maintain *wa* as the Japanese do? It might seem strange that in the west, we choose to annoy our loved ones (Kowalski, 2003) with complaints rather than try to carefully avoid complaining behavior and thereby maintain harmony. The reader is reminded that the original definition of complaining is expressing displeasure to a hearer who is “at least partially... responsible for the offensive action” (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993: 108). Here, expressing disappointment and censure is an extremely complex phenomenon that might actually work to build rapport and bring two individuals closer (Boxer, 1993, 2010) rather than sever ties and disrupt relationships (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1981). This is especially true if the complainer and the complainees view the unpleasant exchange as having a feasible resolution. However, it is beyond the scope of the current study to examine discourse. The current study is limited to examining a speaker's words and his/her corresponding intentions.

It is also beyond the scope of this study to ask whether such a system of honorifics as that referred to above also exists in Turkish, although a cursory look at the Turkish data collected in this study will reveal that polite forms are consistently used in interactions with authority figures (See Table 7).

Proceeding to the extreme right of Figure 2, the ENS participants exhibited a relatively sharp decline in their complaining. Here, the TNS participants also exhibited this decline although the rate of decline was slightly less. Again,

Wolfson's (1988) Bulge Theory predicts that when we move from a low social distance to a high social distance (as in from *friends and family* to *strangers*,) the nature of the relationships in such contexts goes from unstable and unfixed to relatively fixed. In other words, a stranger on the street is likely to remain a stranger, and therefore the individual uses a low number of strategies.

4.3.2. Interaction between Group And Context: Overall Differences And Similarities

Between TLEs, ENSs and TNSs

Overall, the curve for the TLE group resembled that of the TNS group. This striking resemblance presents a very strong case for L1 influence. One significant area of difference was in Context 1 (authority figures) where the TLE group had an even higher frequency of complaining than the TNS group. Olshtain & Weinbach (1993) attribute an unnaturally high level of complaining (higher than native norms) to learners compensating for a lack of pragmatic strategies by using excessive explanations. Olshtain & Weinbach (1993) also describe their interlanguage group as having used less severe strategies. If we take into account the context, (Authority figures) we realize that the TLEs were probably not interested in censure or in blaming their higher status interlocutors, but rather, interested in repairing damage. This is supported by the descriptive statistics. A look at the raw frequencies reveals that for Context 1, TLEs used the greatest number of Hints among the three groups. Therefore, the strategies used might have been those described by Trosborg (1995: 312) as "less severe" such as Hints and Requests. An alternative explanation might be that more severe strategies were employed by the TLE group. Trosborg 1995:365 comments that learners issued more Blame (Behavior) in Context 1.

Proceeding onward to Context 2, *friends and family*, we note an unnaturally low level of complaining for the TLEs (beyond the baseline for both TNS and ENS). The cause for this is perhaps the opposite case. In other words, TLEs compensated for a lack of pragmatic strategies by saying less, rather than by saying more. The current researcher interpreted this as transferring from L1 norms (see above discussion of TNSs and Context 2). Context 3 *strangers* once again demonstrates parallels between the groups; however all three groups appear to have been affected by the change in the same way. In other words, going from *friends and family* to *strangers*, all three groups drastically reduced their complaint strategies.

4.4. Summary of Results

The aim of this section was to compare complaint frequency across three response groups: TLEs, ENSs, and TNSs. This was done by analyzing responses to ten (10) different complaint-provoking situations. The following findings were organized by research question. First, it was found that no significant difference in complaining behavior existed when all complaining strategies were taken as a whole; that is, when they were not considered individually. In terms of individual situations, all three groups preferred Hints, Requests, and Annoyance. These three strategies made up 70% of all strategy use among the three groups. No individual group used any of the remaining strategies at a frequency higher than 7.88 (TNS, Threats/Warnings). Significant differences between the ENS and TNS groups were presented next in order to establish baseline trends. It was found that TNSs used five strategies: Ill Consequences, Indirect Annoyance, Direct Annoyance, Modified Blame, and Threats/Warnings, more often than the ENS group did. For the remainder of the

strategies (the TNS group's score was either lower than that of the ENS group's (Opting Out, Hints) or the two groups were indistinguishable in their frequencies (Annoyance, Blame [Behavior], Blame [Person])).

When the TLEs were compared to the baseline groups, in 5 cases (Opting Out, Hints, Ill Consequences, Direct Accusation and Threats/Warnings) they were simultaneously indistinguishable from the ENS group and distinct from the TNS group in terms of statistical significance. This finding was in line with the interpretation of ENS-like use. In three cases, all three groups were statistically indistinguishable (Annoyance, Blame (Behavior) and Blame (Person)). This finding was consistent with the concept of positive pragmatic transfer. In three cases, significant differences existed between all groups, or at least between the baseline groups. The TLE scores fell in between the ENS and TNS scores (as in the Indirect Accusation and Modified Blame). This finding was interpreted along the lines of weak negative pragmatic transfer. If the TLE scores did not fall in between the former groups' scores (as in the case of Requests) then the results were considered not applicable to the concept of pragmatic transfer. No instances of Strong Negative Transfer were found.

The final question dealt with contextual variables. The differences in strategic frequency between groups was considered while controlling for contextual variable; namely, social distance (+/- SD) and dominance (power) (S<H [P] / S=H [P]). All three groups were found to adjust their overall use of complaint strategies according to the parameters determined by situation type. TNS and ENS groups were considered first to establish baseline trends. It was found that TNSs complained more to authority figures. However, the trend reversed itself in the case of the other two contexts (context 2, friends and family and context 3 strangers. TNSs

complained less to friends and family, and to strangers, with respect to the ENSs. In the case of context 3 (strangers) both groups demonstrated a relatively low level of complaint strategies compared to the other two situations, but the TNSs frequency of complaints to both friends and family and to strangers were significantly less than those of ENSs. The complaint frequency curve for the TLE group resembled that of the TNS group more closely than it did the ENS group. This was interpreted as a case for L1 influence.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Overview

This section will review the findings, discuss the limitations, and then consider some of the implications of the current study.

The current study attempted to investigate the complaining behavior of Turkish learners of English by comparing them to two other baseline groups: native speakers of Turkish and native speakers of English. This was done by applying a one-way, between-groups ANOVA to assess whether or not significant differences existed between the three groups in terms of complaint strategy use. The research questions were threefold: 1. How do the TLE, ENS and TNS participants compare in their use of complaint strategies? 2. Does the TLE Group Exhibit Pragmatic Transfer in its Use of Complaint Strategies? 3. How Do Different Contexts Influence Complaining Behavior in Turkish Learners of English, English Native Speakers and Turkish Native Speakers? It was found that all three groups tended to use Hints, Requests and Annoyance far more commonly than all other strategies. Regarding strategy use, the TLE group was found not to differ from the ENS group statistically, but in the same regard, did differ from (Trosborg, 1995: 54). This finding was also consistent with the concept of typological differences that separate Turkish from

English. That is, because of the clear typological differences between Turkish and English, Turkish learners might have avoided what they perceived to be non-target like pragmatic behavior.

Another possibility is that some of the participants had somehow been exposed to extensive L2 input and discourse. That is, some of the participants might have lived abroad for extended periods, or might have had English language input during their early years. They might also have had other languages, such as German or French, spoken to them for extended periods whilst they were very young. These hypothetical participants would have escaped detection by not filling out the demographic questionnaire, or by filling it out inaccurately.

Yet another explanation is that the TLEs success was a result of practice effects; that is, the TLE group were administered the DCT task after having just completed an intensive English preparatory course. Therefore, it seems plausible that the effect of regular studying and regular exposure to English and English materials might have been responsible for their high success rate. The same success rate, for example, might not be found in a similar group of NNSs who had not recently had EFL instruction, and who therefore did not have the necessary information fresh in their memories.

Universally available pragmatic strategies (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996) are another attractive option. In other words, we might attribute the TLEs' success to their use of universally available pragmatic strategies, or strategies that need not be learned and are available across cultures (Kasper, 1992). If the TLEs in this study had access to universally available strategies with regard to Opting Out, Hints, Ill Consequences Direct Accusation and Threats/Warnings, then they might have

successfully realized speech acts using these strategies without needing any practice or didactic learning.

A fourth explanation of the high success rate of the TLEs is the written nature of the DCT, which gave them more time to think about and to compose their answers. However, if the TLE group really did use the advantage of a written task to their advantage; that is, if the TLEs' answers were more ENS-like as a consequence of more thinking time and composing time on the DCT, this finding is also a valid one. To restate, four possible explanations are considered here in answer to the question: Why and how were the TLEs so successful at approximating ENS complaining behavior?

The final question dealt with contextual variables. The differences in strategic frequency between groups was considered while controlling for contextual variables; namely, social distance (+/- SD) and dominance (power). It was found that TNSs complained more to authority figures. However, the trend reversed itself in the case of the other two contexts (context 2, friends and family and context 3 strangers.) TNSs complained less to friends and family, and to strangers, with respect to the ENSs. TLEs were found to exhibit L1 influence in their response to changing situational context. Comparison of the three curves (TLEs, ENSs, TNSs) revealed that the TLE group resembled the TNS group in its strategy use across different contexts.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

The current study has several implications for the field of English language teaching. Although the learners in this study were extremely successful in approximating target language norms of complaining (i.e. they did not exhibit L1 influence in their complaint usage) in most cases, this was not true for Requests. Also, when contextual variables were controlled for, TLEs were influenced by their L1 sociolinguistic norms in terms of overall complaint strategy use.

The implication here is that by finding out the limitations of the participants' knowledge, teachers can then focus on the weak points in their students' knowledge. For example, the current study found that learners seemed to perform the strategy of Requests to a lesser degree than the ENS participants and therefore in a non-targetlike manner in complainable situations. Cohen (1996b: 413) proposes that we take certain steps to teach speech acts. These five steps are:

- 1) Diagnose the student's level of awareness of the particular speech act to be taught. The current study has done this via DCT instruments, both in Turkish and in English.
- 2) Present short and natural-sounding model dialogues. Students hereby become aware of the speech act in question. Following this the teacher gives the learners dialogues. Students attempt to guess sociocultural factors, including whether the speakers know each other, their relative ages, and the degree of imposition.

- 3) Learners evaluate the semantic formulas used and discuss whether intensification of the complaint is necessary, or whether the hearer is likely to offer an apology or a remedy.
- 4) Learners engage in role-plays activities. They are given ample contextual information in order to help them decide how to issue their complaints. Students might watch video clips involving, for example, a late-night party and a next-door neighbor who needs to sleep.
- 5) Conduct feedback and discussion sessions focusing on learners' perceptions and awareness of the similarities and differences between speech act behavior in the L1 culture and the target culture.

Kasper & Rose (2001: 4) recommend that three major questions should be asked when attempting to recommend a course of action for teaching pragmatics in the classroom; they are:

1. What opportunities for developing L2 pragmatic ability exist in classrooms?
2. Does pragmatic ability develop in a classroom without instruction?
3. What effects do various approaches to instruction have on pragmatic development?

Sadly, it appears that in the absence of pragmatic instruction, pragmatic ability might not develop. Blum-Kulka (1982) says the classroom must provide the rich variety of contexts and the wide range of appropriate forms to use in those contexts; otherwise, in the absence of this environment, the only other place where this might take place is in a foreign country.

Pearson (2006) claims that expansion of a learner's linguistic competence is not automatically accompanied by pragmatic competence.

Many recommendations have been made regarding instruction in pragmatics, (Edmonson & House, 1981) but few of them have been examined in action. In addition,

research shows that in instructional contexts where pragmatic awareness is not tested, attempts to incorporate pragmatic awareness modules will not meet with success. Stated differently, "Curricula that include pragmatics ... will fail unless pragmatic ability is one of the items on the test" (Kasper & Rose, 2001:9).

5.3. Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

A major shortcoming of the current study is the DCT instrument, which has been criticized because it does not "reflect the actual wording used in real-life situations" (Kasper & Dahl, 1991: 38). Participants' answers might be unnaturally bold, or on the contrary, unnaturally reserved and polite. Their pragmatic behavior might also be influenced by the fact that the written task affords thinking time. As a consequence, they can carefully mold their responses, saying what they think ought to be said rather than providing an unrehearsed reaction. Evidence of this exists in the high number of scratched-out responses and false starts (Garcia, 2004) on pen-and-paper DCT response sheets. To address this, DCTs can be used in conjunction with verbal reports, where students provide feedback in the form of verbal reports to give us "insights regarding the choices individuals make about their speech behavior" (Cohen, 1996a: 26). Another limitation of the DCT data was that it often yielded short, one-sentence-answers. Again, the idea of using the DCT alongside other instruments, in this case audio recorded speech samples, is attractive because spoken data is known to yield much longer responses (Beebe & Cummings, 1996: 66). As a final note, using a variety of instruments would also increase the reliability of future studies. Beyond simply making a study seem more interesting, audio and video-recordings can triangulate or cross-verify the data collected via DCTs.

A second limitation is participant mortality. Although the number of participants that participated in the study was sufficient to allow the current researcher to draw statistically significant conclusions, an even greater number would have been even more representative of the populations studied. However, a great many participants left the DCT half-filled out, or failed to read the prompt. Participants' answers were often inappropriate or very brief, indicating that they had not carefully read the situation prompts. It is likely that participants grew careless as they progressed through each situation, hardly paying attention to what was written in the vignettes (the 'situation' or vignette that forms the stem of each DCT item). It is recommended that future researchers recruit participants in classrooms rather than in cafes. Participants tend to be more prepared to fill out a written task or do other sorts of tasks if they are seated in classrooms, perhaps owing to the serious environment, or because they have already committed themselves to spending a period of time engaging in some sort of work.

A third limitation has to do with the coding scheme, which was adapted from Trosborg (1995). The coding scheme used by Trosborg (1995) was insufficient for the needs of the current study for two reasons. First, Trosborg's (1995) coding scheme was used in a study of native English speakers and nonnative Danish speakers of English. Therefore the coding scheme was not well-suited to resolving elements of Turkish complaining behavior transferred into English. Second, Trosborg's (1995) study collected spoken data while the DCT collected written data. Different kinds of complaining behavior were likely to occur in the two different forms of data, thus reducing the usefulness of Trosborg's (1995) coding scheme in the current study.

First, the Turkish language contains unique examples of complaint strategies; that is, strategies that do not seem to occur in English (Bayraktaroğlu, 1992). Therefore, it is the current researcher's opinion that a unique group of codes ought to be developed upon collecting a sample of Turkish data. Based on the findings of the current study, application

of such codes as rhetorical questions (Kozlova, 2003) negatively framed interrogatives (Monzoni, 2009), conversationally elliptic clauses (Prykarpatska, 2008), and cryptic threats, might have revealed heretofore-unnoticed patterns in the data. Also, evidence that TLEs transfer these strategies into L2 English would then establish very clearly whether or not TLEs are successful in their approximation of ENS complaining behavior. Application of Grounded Theory (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998) to observations of complaining in real life might allow future researchers to make more incisive observations with regard to pragmatic differences between, and common trends in, the English and Turkish data collected. Grounded Theory, rather than starting with a hypothesis, starts with data collection. The salient aspects of the collected data are marked with codes. Codes are then grouped into categories. These categories then form the basis of a theory of language use. In the current study, this would involve sociolinguistic observations on complaint speech acts in Turkish learners of English. However, in the name of reliability, pre-existing codes were not modified or refined to suit the needs of the current study, and an original coding scheme was not used.

Even slight modifications of pre-existing codes would have been preferable to maintaining the integrity of Trosborg's (1995) coding scheme. For example, Directive Acts were a category mentioned in Trosborg's (1995) coding scheme. This category had three substrategies: Requests for Repair, Requests for Forbearance, and Threats/Warnings. Although Threats/Warnings had occurred in the current study, an additional substrategy, "Demands" might have served to better characterize the data, which contained a great deal of demanding language. Thus, it emerges that in order to maintain reliability, the flexibility of the coding scheme might have been sacrificed to some degree.

Second, the data collection instrument used in the current study (a DCT) was different from the data collection instrument used by Trosborg (1995) (recorded spoken dialogues), which elicited different complaint behavior. For example, a letter of complaint

written to a doctor would probably differ greatly from spoken complaints to the doctor in the his/her office. The opportunity to engage in multiple turns with one's interlocutor, and in so doing, "build up an interaction in which the way was paved for a more direct strategy (accusation or blame)" (Trosborg 1995: 340) means that audio-recorded data probably contains both more indirect and direct strategies (such as ill consequences, Blame (Behavior) and Blame (Personal)). To wit, these three strategies were the least frequently-used in the current study.

Although the current coding scheme was useful in determining what aspects of English complaints existed/did not exist in the TNS and in the TLE data, it was not very useful in determining what unique aspects of Turkish L1 pragmatic complaining behavior were transferred by TLEs into L2 English. In the interest of obtaining meaningful data, future researchers of complaint behavior in Turkish are urged to either employ original coding schemes and/or to adopt/adapt coding schemes from authors who have used similar data collection instruments.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK IN ENGLISH AND IN TURKISH

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the situations below and then write what you would say to the other person. All of the scenarios describe unpleasant situations and might require you to complain. Respond to the situation as if you were actually in a conversation. Do not think too much. Just write the first thing that comes to mind. **IF YOU CHOOSE NOT TO RESPOND TO ONE OR MORE OF THE SITUATIONS BELOW, PLEASE WRITE THE LETTERS 'NA' IN THE BOX(ES).**

EXAMPLE: You are on a bus and the bus stops very suddenly. You decide to say something to the bus driver.

Me	:	Uh, I just want you to know that I almost fell out of my seat because you were driving too fast.
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1. You have just bought a brand-new cellular phone, but when you get home, you find that the phone does not work properly. You go to the shop, but the salespeople do not want to help you. Also, they will not give you back your money. You are upset about this. You call the company and tell your problem to Roberta, the customer representative. What do you say to her?

Me	:	
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2. You are in the cinema, watching a film with great interest. However, some people sitting right behind you are making too much noise while eating their popcorn. The sound keeps getting louder and you can no longer concentrate on the film. What do you say to them?

Me	:	
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3. Your sister is in the airport, waiting for her flight to Canada. You are a bit concerned because she is going far away. You make her promise to call you as soon as she arrives in Canada, but she forgets. She calls one week later. You remind her of the promise she made, but she denies it. What do you say to her?

Me	:	
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4. You and a group of your friends are over Ray's house, eating snacks and watching a program on TV about a celebrity. You hate this celebrity; however, you say nothing and watch for fifteen minutes. Finally, you cannot wait anymore. You need to say something. What do you say to them?

Me	:	
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5. Your father keeps insisting that you go find a job and earn some money. He does not understand that it is very hard to find a job these days. You have been

talking to him over breakfast. He is very angry because you have not found a job yet. What do you say to him?

Me :

6. You are walking down the street. It is raining. A car passes by and splashes dirty water all over your trousers. The driver stops at a red traffic light. He is a young male, maybe 17-18 years old. What do you say to him?

Me :

7. Your neighbor's son Johnny has left his garbage near your front door. The garbage smells and it is probably bad for your health. You are not very pleased about this and have decided to talk to him about it. You knock on the door and Johnny opens it. What do you say to him?

Me :

8. You have a final examination today, and you are late for your exam. You do not have a car. You get into a taxi and ask the driver to go fast, but find yourself in the middle of a traffic jam. The exam begins soon, and you are very angry. You arrive at the examination center ten minutes late. Mr. Cohen tells you 'Sorry, but you cannot take the exam.' What do you say to him?

Me :

9. Professor Slatsky-Edwards was supposed to mark and return your assignments by Monday morning. It is now Friday and she has not marked them yet. You are concerned because she is also going to give you a test on the assigned topic on the following Monday. You visit the professor in her office. What do you say to her?

Me :

10. It is 12 midnight on a Wednesday. You have been trying to fall asleep for two hours, but your next-door neighbor is having a party next door. You cannot sleep because of the loud noise and music. This is not the first time. Your neighbor has thrown several loud and noisy parties over the past month. Since your neighbor has not taken you seriously, you decide to speak with her very firmly this time. What do you say to her?

Me :

Thank you for your participation!

Ahmet Bikmen
Boğaziçi University

BİLGİ : Aşağıda rahatsız edici durumlar anlatılmıştır ve bu yüzden şikayet etmeniz gerekebilir. Lütfen aşağıdaki sorulara verebildiğiniz kadar doğal cevap veriniz. Durumdaki belirtilen kişinin karşınızda olduğunu farz ederek cevap veriniz. Fazla düşünmeyiniz; aklınıza ilk gelen cevabı yazınız. **CEVAP VERMEMEYİ TERCİH EDİYORSANIZ KUTUYU BOŞ BIRAKABİLİRSİNİZ.**

Örnek:

Otobüstesiniz ve kaptan çok sert frene basıyor. Kaptan'a bir şey demeye karar veriyorsunuz. Ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben : Formula 1 yarışması değil bu! Sizce insanı koltuğundan düşürecek kadar hızlı bir şekilde fren yapmak doğru mu?

1. Çok beğenerek satın aldığımız son model cep telefonunuz arızalı çıkmıştır, ve telefonu dükkana geri getirdiniz. İlgili firma sizinle ilgilenmediği gibi ürünün iadesini de kabul etmemiştir. Bu duruma canınız çok sıkılmıştır. Müşteri temsilcisi olan Canan hanıma telefonda derdinizi anlatırsınız. Kendisine şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben:

2. Sinemada çok heyecan verici bir film izlemektesiniz. Tam arkanızdaki koltukta oturan izleyiciler patlamış mısır yerken çok fazla ses çıkartmaktadırlar. Gürültü sizi oldukça rahatsız etmekte ve de aralıksız devam etmektedir. Dikkatinizin dağılması ve filmi rahatça izleyebilmek için diğer izleyicilere bir şey söylemeye karar verirsiniz. Onlara şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

3. Kız kardeşiniz havaalanında, Amerika'ya gitmek üzeredir. Uzaklara gideceği için biraz endişelisiniz. Kardeşinizden Amerika'ya ulaştığında sizi hemen arayacağına dair söz alırsınız, ama uçaktan indikten sonra sizi aramayı unuttur. Sizi ancak bir hafta sonra arar. Telefonda kardeşinize size vermiş olduğu sözü hatırlattığınızda kardeşiniz böyle bir söz vermiş olduğunu inkar eder. Ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

4. Birkaç arkadaş bir arkadaşınızın evinde toplanmış çay kahve içiyorsunuz. O arada televizyon açık ve herkes ortak programda sizin görmeye tahammül edemediğiniz bir sanatçıyı izliyor. Sıkılsanız da bir süre sesinizi çıkartmadan izliyorsunuz ancak aradan 15 dakika geçtikten sonra dayanamayıp bir şeyler söyleme ihtiyacı duyuyorsunuz: Onlara şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

5. Babanız sürekli size iş bulmanızı öneriyor hatta bu konuda ısrarcı davranıyor, ama bugünkü iş fırsatlarının çok kısıtlı olduğunu anlayamıyor. Hatta bugün, kahvaltıda size aynı konuyu bir daha açıyor ve iş bulamadığınız için size çok kızgındır. Ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

6. Yolda yürürken yanınızdan araba geçiyor ve üstünüze çamurlu su sıçratıyor. Sürücü az ileride trafik lambasında duruyor. Arabadaki 17-18 yaşlarında erkek bir sürücü. Ona dönüp şunu dersiniz:

Ben :

7. Komşunuzun oğlu Murat çöplerini kapının önüne koyuyor. Çöpler çok pis kokuyor ve ayrıca sağlığınıza zarar veriyor. Bu durum sizin hiç hoşunuza gitmiyor. Komşunuzun kapısını çalılıyorsunuz. Murat kapıyı açıyor. Ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

8. Final zamanı. Sınava geç kalmışınız, o gün arabanız da yok. Taksiye atlayıp sınava yetişmeye çalışılıyorsunuz. Yarı yolda trafik sıkışıyor, sınava az vakit kalmıştır, canınız çok sıkılıyor. Sınava on dakika geç kaldığınızdan dolayı, Şekip Hocanız size 'üzgünüm, seni sınava alamam' diyor. Ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

9. Nimet Hocanız ödevlerinizi pazartesi gününe kadar değerlendirip geri verecekti, ancak bugün cuma ve henüz kendisi ödevleri kontrol etmedi. Pazartesi günü de ödev konusunu kapsayan bir sınav yapacağı için endişelisiniz. Nimet Hocanızla konuşmak için ofisini ziyaret ediliyorsunuz ve ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

10. Çarşamba gece saat 12. İki saattir uyumaya uğraşıyorsunuz ama yan dairedeki bayan komşunuz bir parti veriyor. Yüksek sesli müzik ve konuşma seslerinden dolayı uyuyamıyorsunuz. Bu ilk defa değil; bir kaç seferdir yan komşunuz aynı şekilde sizi rahatsız etmektedirler. Komşunuz sizin şikâyetinizi ciddiye almadığı için, artık onu sert bir şekilde uyarmaya karar veriliyorsunuz. Ona şöyle diyorsunuz:

Ben :

Katıldınız için tekrar teşekkürlerimi sunarım! Ahmet Bikmen

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH AND IN TURKISH

Dear participant:

Thank you for participating in this study. I am a Master student at Bogazici University's English Language Teaching program, and I will use the information you give me in this questionnaire for my masters thesis. I am going to present some of this information to my thesis advisor. Any names used in my presentations will be changed. In all other references to you or your responses you will remain completely anonymous. After the project is over, all records and documents will be kept in a private file. You have the right to withdraw from or refuse to participate this study at any stage. If you decide to participate in this study, please fill out the form below. You do not have to give me your name or email address, but if you do it might help me. IF you have any questions regarding the current study or the procedures involved, I can be reached at xxxxxxxxxx. Thank you once again for your cooperation. Ahmet.

I AGREE TO BE A PART OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY.

Signature : _____

Date: _____

PART ONE : Demographic Information

1. Name* : _____

2. Telephone number* : _____ - _____

3. Email address* : _____@_____

(* You are not obliged to fill in these items.)

4. Grade:

Prep " Freshman " Sophomore " Junior " Senior " Postgraduate "

5. Age: 16-18 " 19-22 " 23-26 " 27-30 " over 30 "

6. Sex: F " M "

7. Do you know (a) language(s) other than Turkish and English? Yes " No "

8. If your answer is 'yes', please indicate how long *have you been learning/did you learn* this language/these languages.

language	time period

9. Have you ever lived abroad? Yes " No "

10. (If your answer is 'yes' to question 8, Please indicate which countries you have been to/ lived in, and how long you stayed there. If your answer is 'no' please go straight to question 11.)

country	time period

11. Where were you born?

12. How long have you been living in this country?

13. Which high school did you graduate from?

14. When did you start studying at this University? _____

Sevgili katılımcılar,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde İngilizce Dili Eğitimi alanında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Yüksek lisans tezim için araştırma yapıyorum. Bu bağlamda, doldurmanız için sizlere bir anket veriyorum.

Elde edeceğim araştırma bulgularını, tez danışmanıma sunacağım. Gizlilik politikası göz önünde bulundurularak kimliğinizin bilinmemesi için tüm yazılı not ve metinlerde ve kayıtlarda isimleriniz değiştirilecektir. Araştırmaya katılmayı reddedebilir veya anketten istediğiniz zaman ayrılabilirsiniz. Şayet araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorsanız aşağıdaki kısmı doldurunuz. Herhangi bir sorunuz olursa ulaşabileceğiniz telefon numarası 0535 569 02 76 dır. Teşekkürler .

Ahmet Bikmen

Araştırmaya katılmaya kabul ediyorum.

İMZA : _____TARİH

I. Demografik Bilgi

1. İsim : _____
2. Telefon no.* : _____
3. E-posta adresi* : _____

(Yukarıdaki kişisel bilgilerinizi doldurmak zorunda değilsiniz.)

4. Sınıf lise ilk yıl ikinci yıl
üçüncü yıl dördüncü yıl lisansüstü

5. Yaş : 16-18 19-22 23-26 27-30 30 üstü

6. Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek

7. Türkçe'den başka bir dil ya da (diller) biliyor musunuz?

Evet Hayır

8. Bir önceki soruya yanıtınız 'evet' ise lütfen hangi dil ya da dilleri konuştuğunuzu ya da şu an hangi dili öğrenmekte olduğunuzu belirtiniz. Bu dil (leri) ne zamandan beri bildiğinizi ya da ne zamandan beri öğrenmeye çalıştığınızı lütfen belirtiniz.

Dil	Tarihler (Örn. 12 Mayıs, 2005- 12 Mayıs 2009)

9. Hiç yurtdışında yaşadınız mı? Evet Hayır
(9. soruya yanıtınız 'evet' ise, lütfen 10. soruyu da cevaplayınız. Yanıtınız 'hayır' ise, 11. sorudan itibaren anketi yanıtlamaya devam ediniz.)

10. Lütfen şimdiye kadar kaldığınız yada kısa süreli de olsa bulunduğunuz ülkeleri belirtiniz.

Ülke	Tarihler (Örn. 12.05.2005- 12.05.2009)

11. Çocukken, evde Türkçe'den başka diller konuşuyor muydunuz? Evet
Hayır (Bu soruya yanıtınız 'evet' ise lütfen 12. soruyu cevaplayınız.)

12. Hangi dilleri konuşuyordunuz?

13. Nerede doğudunuz?

14. Şu anda nerede yaşıyorsunuz?

15. Hangi lise'den mezun oldunuz?

16. Bu üniversiteye ne zaman girdiniz?

17. Üniversitenizin ismi nedir?

APPENDIX C

COMPLAINT STRATEGIES IN TURKISH AND IN ENGLISH

CATEGORY 1: Opting Out

- 1) ‘NA’; ‘I would say nothing. I know to be careful of puddles on rainy days.’

‘Bir şey demem çünkü çoğu zaman ses çıkaran benim.’
‘...’

I would not say anything because I am usually the one making noise.

CATEGORY 2: Below the Level of Reproach (Hints)

- 2) ‘Dad believe me I’m trying really hard to find a job’;
‘I bought this phone from x shop and when I got home I found it was broken’
‘elimden geldikçe iyi bir iş bulmaya çalışıyorum.’ (I am trying my best to find a job that suits me.)

‘Her gün çöplerimi götürüp çöpe atıyorum bu sana bir şey ifade ediyor mu?’ I throw my trash away each and every day. Does that remind you of anything?

Haci, az sakın yer misiniz? Alan var, alamayan var. (Brother, will you please eat quietly? There are people starving in this world.)

‘Saying ‘sorry’ never killed anyone!’

CATEGORY 3: Expressions of Annoyance and Dissatisfaction

- 3) Annoyance
Situation 9 *‘Yazıktır, zulümdür, günahdır’* (It’s a damned, crying shame!)
MY clothes are ruined!

- 4) Ill Consequences
‘Now I am going to have to take the whole year over again.’
‘Hocam inanın çok uğraştım gelebilmek için, yalvartıyorum size alın beni bu sınava yoksa mahvolurum.’
Please believe me, Teacher. I tried really hard to get here on time. I’m begging you to let me take this exam or else I will be ruined.

CATEGORY 4: ACCUSATION

- 5) Indirect accusation
'Did you not see me?'
'Are you crazy?'
Kör müsiin oğlum? (You blind, son?)
- 6) Direct Accusation
'I've tried to talk to you about these parties and you haven't been listening. I am giving you 10 minutes to get everyone out then I am calling the police!'
'*Zaten aklın beş karış havadaydı. Amerikaya gittin iyice unuttun tabi beni.*' (Your head has always been in the clouds anyway. Of course you forgot about me when you went to America.)

CATEGORY 5: BLAME

- 7) Modified Blame
'*Keşke beni anlamaya çalışsaydın*' (I wish you would try to understand me)
'*Sınava alıp almamak sizin insiyatifinizdeyken neden almadığınızı anlamıyorum.*' (It is beyond me why you do not to allow me in when it is in your power to do so.)

'Why did you leave the trash in front of my house?'
- 8) Blame (Behavioral)
'You're out of order. You had me worried. If you cannot remember or you were having too much fun and got distracted, I understand but don't tell lies!'
Uzakta olduğun için çok fazla üstüne gelmeyeceğim; ama bu yaptığın çok büyük bir ihmalkarsızlık!
(Since you're very far away, I won't get on your case too much, but what you've committed is great negligence!)

Bu yaptığın saygısızlık! (This action of yours constitutes disrespect!)
- 9) Blame (Personal)
'*Sen söziine güvenilmez bir hiçsin salaksın ya da beyinsiz bir maymun*' (You are either an untrustworthy nobody or a brainless monkey!)
'Are you kidding me??! You are so self centered! We were worried about you! How can you just forget something [sic] like that?'

CATEGORY 6 DIRECTIVE ACTS

- 10) Requests

'Murat (çöpleri göstererek) bunun tekrarlanmasını istemiyorum'
(Showing him the trash) I don't want this to happen again.
'Please could you keep the noise down. I'm trying to watch the film.
Thank you.'

11) Warnings and Threats

'Rahat dur, yoksa o mısırları kafanda patlatırım' (Sit still or I'll pop that popcorn in your head!)
'Murat, naber dostum. Eğer, çöpleri kapun önüne koymaya devam edersen o çöpleri sana yediririm.'
(Murat, hey buddy! If you keep putting that trash in front of the door, I'll make you eat it.)

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