

**A CROSS-CULTURAL PRAGMATIC STUDY OF THE
SPEECH ACT OF COMPLAINT BY NATIVE
SPEAKERS OF THAI AND CHINESE USING
ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA**



Li Yang

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Studies**

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การศึกษาวิจัยปฏิบัติการศาสตร์ข้ามวัฒนธรรมเรื่องวัฒนธรรมการร้องเรียน
โดยเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยและชาวจีนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ
ในฐานะภาษากลางเพื่อการสื่อสาร

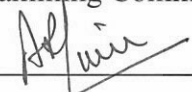


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partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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เจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยและชาวจึนที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางเพื่อการลือสาร
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งานว้จยนี้เปรยบเทยบรูปเบบการแสดงว้จนกรรการร้องเรยรระหว่างเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทย
เจ้าของภาษาชาวจึน เจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง และเจ้าของภาษา
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และชาวจึน อยมึไรก็ตามกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยเลือกที่จะไม่กล้าวร้องเรยร ขอโทษล้าสำหรับ
ความกคคันที่อ้อจะเกดขึ้นกับคู้สนทนา และอ้อถึงบริบทมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึนอยมึ
นัยล้าคัญ ในขณะที่กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึนต้อว่าคู้สนทนามากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยอยมึ
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เสยหน้ามากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึน หากต้อร้องเรยร กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยจะขอโทษ
ล้าสำหรับความกคคันที่อ้อจะเกดขึ้นกับคู้สนทนาและอ้อถึงบริบทมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึน

ประการที่สอง กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางเลือกที่จะไม่
กล้าวร้องเรยรมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึนที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางอยมึ
นัยล้าคัญ ในทางกลบกันกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึนที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางต้อว่าคู้
สนทนามากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางอยมึนัยล้าคัญ
นอกจากนี้กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจึนที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางมีการใ้คำเรยรขานคู้
สนทนาและแสดงความซาบซึ้งใจต้อความร่วมมือของคู้สนทนาเพื่อลคพลังว้จนกรรการร้องเรยร
อยมึไรก็ตามกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยและชาวจึนที่ใ้ภาษาอ้กฤษในฐานะภาษากลางไม่มีควม
แสดกต่างอยมึนัยล้าคัญในการใ้ตัวบ่งชี้พลังว้จนกรรการร้องเรยร

ประการที่สาม กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษต่ำกว่าระดับกลางมีการถ่ายโอนวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการใช้สูตรทางอรรถศาสตร์ในการร้องเรียนมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงกว่าระดับกลาง อย่างไรก็ตามกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษต่ำกว่าระดับกลางจะทำการเตือนคู่สนทนา น้อยกว่าแต่มีการพุดชู้มากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ นอกจากนี้กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษต่ำกว่าระดับกลางมีการใช้ตัวเพิ่มพลังวัจนกรรมมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยเพื่อเพิ่มน้ำหนักการร้องเรียน ในทางกลับกันกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงกว่าระดับกลางมักจะกล่าวถึงเรื่องร้องเรียนอย่างชัดเจน พุดชู้คู่สนทนา ขอโทษสำหรับความกดดันที่อาจจะเกิดขึ้น ให้เหตุผล และใช้ตัวเพิ่มพลังวัจนกรรมมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ ในขณะที่กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยเลือกที่จะเตือนคู่สนทนาและไม่กล่าวถึงเรื่องร้องเรียนมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงกว่าระดับกลางอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ

ประการสุดท้าย กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษต่ำกว่าระดับกลางมีการถ่ายโอนวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในการใช้สูตรทางอรรถศาสตร์และตัวบ่งชี้พลังวัจนกรรม การร้องเรียนมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงกว่าระดับกลาง อย่างไรก็ตามกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษต่ำกว่าระดับกลางใช้การพุดชู้คู่สนทนา ขอโทษสำหรับความกดดันที่อาจจะเกิดขึ้น และแสดงความขอบคุณต่อความร่วมมือมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ ในทางกลับกันกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงกว่าระดับกลางมักจะกล่าวถึงเรื่องร้องเรียนอย่างชัดเจน ใช้คำเรียกขานคู่สนทนา ขอโทษสำหรับความกดดันที่อาจจะเกิดขึ้น อ่างบริบท ให้เหตุผล แสดงความขอบคุณ และใช้ตัวเพิ่มพลังวัจนกรรมมากกว่ากลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ

จากการเปรียบเทียบข้างต้น สามารถสรุปได้ว่าเพศและความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษของผู้ผู้ดูรวมไปถึงระยะห่างทางสังคมและอำนาจเทียบเคียงระหว่างคู่สนทนามีอิทธิพลต่อการใช้สูตรทางอรรถศาสตร์และตัวบ่งชี้พลังวัจนกรรมการร้องเรียนของกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทย กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีน กลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวไทยที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง และกลุ่มเจ้าของภาษาชาวจีนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง ผลการวิจัยนี้ช่วยส่งเสริมการสอนภาษาและการสื่อสารข้ามวัฒนธรรมระหว่างคนไทยและคนจีนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษากลาง

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The present study primarily compared the complaining realization patterns performed by native Thai speakers speaking Thai (TTs), native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs), Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English (TEs), and Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English (CEs). One hundred eighty Thai and 180 Chinese participants responded to a twelve-scenario Discourse Completion Task (DCT) questionnaire. The complaining samples elicited were coded into 12 semantic formulae and 13 illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs). The results are as follows:

First, in terms of the total of semantic formulae, downgraders and upgraders, TTs and CCs did not differ in a significant way. However, TTs chose to remain silent about the offence, apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CCs did, while CCs criticized the hearer significantly more than TTs did. The results suggest that TTs found complaining more face threatening than CCs did. When they had to, they apologized for the potential imposition and referred to the context for the utterance more than CCs did.

Second, TEs chose to remain silent about the offence significantly more than CEs did. On the other hand, CEs criticized the hearer significantly more than TEs did. Besides, they addressed the hearer and showed appreciation for the hearer's potential cooperation to mitigate the illocutionary force of complaining. However, TEs and CEs did not differ in IFMDs of complaining.

Third, lower intermediate TEs made the pragmatic transfer in semantic formulae of complaining more than upper intermediate TEs did. However, lower intermediate TEs warned the hearer significantly less than TTs did, but threatened the hearer significantly more than TTs did. Moreover, lower intermediate TEs used more upgraders to aggravate the illocutionary force of complaining than TTs did. On the contrary, upper intermediate TEs explicitly mentioned the offence, threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, justified the utterance and employed upgraders significantly more than TTs did, but TTs warned the hearer and kept silent about the offence significantly more than upper intermediate TEs did.

Finally, lower intermediate CEs made the pragmatic transfer in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining more than upper intermediate CEs did. However, lower intermediate CEs threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, and expressed their gratitude for the potential cooperation significantly more than CCs did. In contrast, upper intermediate CEs explicitly mentioned the offence, addressed the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, established the context, justified their utterance, expressed their gratitude and employed upgraders significantly more than CCs did.

Based on the above comparisons, it can be concluded that the speaker's gender and English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between interlocutors were found to influence TTs, CCs, TEs and CEs in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining. The findings of the study might facilitate language teaching and Thai-Chinese ELF intercultural communication.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACTFL	=	American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages
CC	=	native Chinese speaker speaking Chinese
CCSARP	=	Cross-cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns
CE	=	Chinese <i>ELF</i> speaker speaking English
CEL	=	lower intermediate Chinese <i>ELF</i> speaker speaking English
CEU	=	upper intermediate Chinese <i>ELF</i> speaker speaking English
DCT	=	Discourse Completion Task
<i>EFL</i>	=	English as a foreign language
EIL	=	English as an international language
ELF	=	English as a lingua franca
ELS	=	English Language Studies
ESL	=	English as a second language
FTA	=	face-threatening act
ILP	=	interlanguage pragmatics
IFID	=	illocutionary force-indicating device
IFMD	=	illocutionary force modification device
L1	=	first language
L2	=	second language
NES	=	native English speaker
NNES	=	non-native English speaker

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (Continued)

NNIVE	=	a non-native institutionalized variety
P-F Tests	=	Picture-Frustration Test
SASEP	=	Self-Assessment of Spoken English Proficiency
SUA	=	socially unacceptable act
TE	=	Thai <i>ELF</i> speaker speaking English
TT	=	native Thai speaker speaking Thai
TEL	=	lower intermediate Thai <i>ELF</i> speaker speaking English
TEU	=	upper intermediate Thai <i>ELF</i> speaker speaking English

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the background of the study, the problems that inspired the present study, the rationale behind the study, the research objectives and questions, the significance of the study, the key terms used in this study, the scope of the study, the limitations of the study, and finally, the thesis outline.

1.1 Background of the study

With economic development and advancement in transportation and telecommunications, intercultural communication between Thailand and China is intensifying. In 2013, Thailand and China even agreed to a Five-Year Development Plan on Trade and Economic Cooperation, in which the two countries agreed to expand their cooperation in the fields of politics, trade, investment, finance, tourism, and cultural exchanges and education, etc. (The Long-Term Planning for Sino-Thai Relations Development (full text), 2013). Therefore, increased Thai and Chinese intercultural communication is anticipated.

To communicate, the Thai and the Chinese mainly employ the English language. The use of English as a medium of communication between speakers of different first languages (L1s) is defined as *English as a lingua franca (ELF)* (Seidlhofer, 2005). In this sense, the English language used by the Thai and Chinese peoples can be considered as *ELF*.

1.2 Statement of the problems

Seidlhofer (2005) distinguishes English as a lingua franca (*ELF*) from *English as an international language (EIL)* in that *EIL* is a general cover term for use of English spanning Kachru's (1992) Inner Circle (such as the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand where English acts as a first language), Outer Circle (such as Malaysia, Singapore, India, Ghana, Kenya and others which are former colonies of the UK or the USA), and Expanding Circle (such as China, Japan, Greece and Poland where English is learnt as a foreign language), while *ELF* refers to the communication within Kachru's (1992) Expanding Circle.

EIL usually upholds British English and Received Pronunciation as norms, while *ELF* used to adopt native English speakers' pragmatic knowledge as the sole goal and the norm of teaching and learning. The native English speakers for *ELF* refer to people from Australia, Britain, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, and the United States. However, more and more scholars censure the practice for its strong bias towards Anglo-Saxon pragmatic norms right from the start in research into *ELF* intercultural communication (Wierzbicka, 1985; DeCapua, 1989; Knapp, 2011). They argue that non-native speakers are also judging their interlocutors, be they native speakers of the target language or not, according to their own norms of interaction, rather than the target language norms (DeCapua, 1989; Wierzbicka, 2003). Therefore, when the Thai and the Chinese communicate in English, they are also judging each other according to their L1 pragmatic appropriateness. As a result, those scholars advocate accepting educated local form of English as a means of communication (Knapp, 2011; Schneider, 2011).

Despite increasing attention to local educated forms of English, to the best knowledge of the researcher, no studies have been conducted to compare and contrast the

educated Thai and Chinese forms of English to enhance understanding of the intercultural communication between the Thai people and Chinese people.

1.3 Rationale behind the study

Increasing Thai and Chinese *ELF* intercultural communication necessitates a systematic study of both Thai and Chinese *ELF* varieties in *ELF* intercultural communication, with reference to *ELF* speakers' variables, such as gender and English proficiency, and the contextual factors, such as social distance and relative power between the interlocutors and the ranking of imposition. Moreover, it is also essential to study their L1 speech behavior, since Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers may be influenced by their L1 pragmatic norms.

The present pragmatic study aims at enhancing the understanding of the speech act of complaining performed by the Thai and Chinese peoples. This speech act is chosen because of its frequent occurrence. As we know, intercultural communication may have a higher probability of dissatisfactory social intercourse than intracultural communication, which may lead to conflicts. If the dissatisfied person knows how to convey his/her displeasure properly, he/she may be consoled and potential conflict may be avoided. Therefore, an awareness of each other's realization patterns of the speech act of complaining may facilitate Thai and Chinese interlocutors in performing this "unpleasant conversational chore" in ordinary life (Korsko, 2004, p. 1). Here, the complaining speech act refers to the utterance made by the speaker in the complainable situation, which may include establishing context for utterance, expressing displeasure, asking for remedy, and/or criticizing the hearer etc.

Although it can be a very useful skill in communication, complaining “has fewer ritualized or formulized” realization patterns (Zhang, 2001, p. 2). Moreover, despite increasing attention to complaining during the past decade, the findings from previous studies of complaining are quite ambiguous.

Firstly, findings about the relationship between target language proficiency and pragmatic transfer are not consistent. For example, Takahashi (1987) established that the negative transfer effect is greater among high-proficiency learners than among their low-proficiency counterparts. Likewise, Azarmi and Behnam (2012) found greater negative pragmatic transfer effect in the advanced language learners than the intermediate learners. On the contrary, Trosborg (1995) discovered the greater positive pragmatic transfer effect in the advanced learners of English than the lower proficiency participants in using some complaining strategies. Similarly, Gallaher (2011) noticed that advanced learners showed better control over linguistic strategies to mitigate the offense than the intermediate learners did. Therefore, more studies are needed to clarify the effects of the language proficiency on the pragmatic transfer.

Secondly, findings on the effects of the speaker’s gender are not congruent. Giddens (1981) and Li, Zheng and Yang (2006) concluded that gender did not seem to be a major influence in the study. Conversely, Kraft and Geluykens (2002) found that men complain differently than women, but not more directly or less politely, as commonly assumed. Gallaher (2011) also found that L2 female learners of Russian showed their frustration more overtly than male speakers did, and their behaviors were closer to those of Russian females than to those of American females. Therefore, more evidence is required to verify the gender differences.

Thirdly, the effects of different social distances are controversial. Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) claimed that social distance creates no significant difference in strategy selection for complaints among native speakers of Hebrew. In contrast, Wolfson (1983) suggests that solidarity-establishing speech behavior happens towards the middle of the social distance continuum of strangers, friends/acquaintances and intimates, but not at the extremes of this continuum, because the certainty of people's relationships determines very little negotiation of relationships. Dissimilarly, Boxer (1993b) proposed that strangers are nearly as likely to build solidarity as friends do. While Wolfson's solidarity building appears in the middle of the continuum, Boxer's (1993b) appears at the extremes of the continuum. Therefore, more studies are called for to ascertain the effect of the social distance.

The above studies on complaining were mainly concerned about how non-native speakers complained differently from the native speakers of the target language (House & Kasper, 1981; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; DeCapua, 1989; Boxer, 1993a; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Tatsuki, 2000; Laforest, 2002; Zhao, 2003; Jian, 2007; Wang, 2007; and Gallaher, 2011). However, few studies have been conducted to find how native Thai and Chinese speakers complain to each other in English as a lingua franca. Considering its authenticity and prevalence, it is essential to investigate the realization patterns of complaining performed by the Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers.

1.4 Research objectives and questions

The present study aims at investigating complaining realization patterns performed by the native Thai speakers in Thai, the native Chinese speakers in Chinese, and Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English. Within the framework of cross-cultural pragmatics,

ELF intercultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics, this study attempts to achieve the following research objectives:

- 1) to investigate the similarities and differences between the complaining realization patterns produced by native Thai and Chinese speakers in their L1;
- 2) to investigate the similarities and differences in the complaining realization patterns produced by Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English;
- 3) to examine the pragmatic transfer performed by Thai *ELF* speakers from L1 (Thai) to L2 (English) in terms of the complaining realization patterns; and
- 4) to examine the pragmatic transfer performed by Chinese *ELF* speakers from L1 (Chinese) to L2 (English) in terms of the complaining realization patterns.

Based on the above research objectives, the present study proposes the following four research questions:

- 1) What are the similarities and differences between the complaining realization patterns produced by native Thai and Chinese speakers in their L1? And how?
- 2) What are the similarities and differences between the complaining realization patterns produced by Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English? And how?
- 3) What pragmatic transfer do Thai *ELF* speakers make from their L1 to English in terms of the complaining realization patterns? And how?
- 4) What pragmatic transfer do Chinese *ELF* speakers make from their L1 to English in terms of the complaining realization patterns? And how?

To answer the four research questions, both qualitative and quantitative comparisons will be made between complaining samples produced by 1) native Thai speakers speaking Thai (TTs) and native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs), 2) Thai *ELF* speakers in English (TEs) and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English (CEs), 3) native Thai

speakers speaking Thai (TTs) and Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English (TEs) and 4) native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs) and Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English (CEs) (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 Comparison between Thai and Chinese complaining in L1 and English

Research questions	Thai		Chinese	
	TTs	TEs	CCs	CEs
1) Cross-cultural pragmatic study	✓		✓	
2) <i>ELF</i> intercultural pragmatic study		✓		✓
3) Interlanguage pragmatic study (Thai)	✓	✓		
4) Interlanguage pragmatic study (Chinese)			✓	✓

In addition, the distribution of the semantic formulae and IFMDs will be examined to answer the “what” questions. Besides, the effects of different factors, (speaker’s perception of severity of offence in the situation, speaker’s gender and the language proficiency and the contextual factors, e.g. social distance and relative power between the interlocutors) on the complaining realization patterns will be examined to answer the “how” questions.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study attempts to investigate how native Thai and Chinese speakers make complaints in their L1 and English, with reference to the participants’ gender and English proficiency, social distance and relative power between the interlocutors and ranking of the imposition in the scenarios.

First, the present study may provide more empirical evidence to the ethnic differences in 1) the field of cross-cultural pragmatics by exploring the relation between

Thai and Chinese complaining realization patterns, 2) the field of *ELF* intercultural pragmatics by examining the L2 complaining produced by Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers, and 3) the field of interlanguage pragmatics by investigating pragmatic transfer of the speech act of complaining from L1 to L2 by native speakers of Thai and Chinese in their L1s and English.

Second, the findings may help elucidate linguistic differences in the speech act of complaining performed by Thai and Chinese of opposite genders and varied English proficiencies, and such Thai and Chinese sociocultural differences as offence perception of the complainable situation. As a result, misconceptions about each other's cultures may be reduced.

Thirdly, the identified Thai and Chinese varieties of English may facilitate the teaching of English to Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers. In other words, the findings from this study of complaining can be included in the classroom materials so that Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers can make an informed choice in how to negotiate relationships with each other in order to avoid pragmatic failures.

1.6 Key terms in the study

From the perspective of cross-cultural pragmatics, the present study examines the Thai and Chinese realization patterns of complaining produced by native Thai and Chinese speakers in their L1s.

In addition, from the perspective of *ELF* intercultural pragmatics, this study compares how Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers perform the speech act of complaining in English.

Moreover, within the framework of interlanguage pragmatics, the study investigates the pragmatic transfer made by lower and upper intermediate Thai ELF speakers from Thai to English, and that made by lower and upper intermediate Chinese ELF speakers to English. The key terms involved in this study are as follows:

1) English as a lingua franca (*ELF*)

English as a lingua franca (*ELF*) refers to the use of the English language as a common means of communication between speakers of different first languages other than English (Seidlhofer, 2005). The present study involves both Thai and Chinese local educated varieties of *ELF* contributed by Thai and Chinese graduate students who employed English as a means of communication in the authentic intercultural communication.

2) Cross-cultural pragmatics

Cross-cultural pragmatics deals with how people in different cultures perform and perceive speech acts (Gallaher, 2011). This cross-cultural pragmatic study compares how native Thai and Chinese speakers perform the in-group complaining speech act in their L1 respectively, i.e. Thai and Chinese.

However, as Barnlund (1975) warned, “[c]ultural generalizations need to be regarded as approximations, not absolutes”. Besides, the broad cultural generalizations or trends may apply to the majority of that culture, but not necessarily all members of that particular culture.

The Thai and Chinese cultures here refer to the culture beliefs and characteristics shared by the majority of the Thai and Chinese peoples. As Wierzbicka argued (2003), despite increasing individualization and diversity within each culture, it is assumed that there should be more cultural homogeneity within the culture than across cultures.

3) *ELF* intercultural pragmatics

ELF intercultural pragmatics studies how people of different first languages other than English perform speech acts in *English as a lingua franca* (Seidlhofer, 2005). This *ELF* intercultural pragmatic study compares how Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers perform the out-group complaining speech act with each other in English.

4) Cross-cultural pragmatics and intercultural pragmatics

The present study distinguishes between cross-cultural pragmatics and intercultural pragmatics in that the former compares two independent modes of in-group interaction, while the latter deals with one direct out-group interaction between different cultures. The present study belongs to both the cross-cultural pragmatic study by comparing the speech act of complaining performed by native Thai and the Chinese speakers in their L1s, and the intercultural pragmatic study by comparing the speech act of complaining performed by Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English.

5) Interlanguage pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics studies how non-native speakers comprehend, produce, and acquire speech acts in a target language and how their pragmatic competence develops over time (Kasper & Rose, 2002). The present interlanguage pragmatic study aimed at determining whether Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers make a pragmatic transfer from their L1s to English in performing the speech act of complaining and how the English language proficiency (i.e. lower intermediate and upper intermediate levels) influences Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in their pragmatic transfer.

6) Pragmatic transfer

Kasper (1992) defined pragmatic transfer as “the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension,

production and learning of L2 pragmatic information” (p. 207). In present study, pragmatic transfer refers to the similarities between Thai or Chinese L1 realization patterns of complaining and English realization patterns of complaining.

7) The speech act of complaining

In the present study, the speech act of complaining refers to an utterance produced by a speaker when it is his/her turn to speak in a situation where the hearer’s past or ongoing action is unfavorable for him/ her (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Murphy & Neu, 1996). It is interchangeable with *the speech act of complaint*, *the speech act set of complaining*, or *the complaining realization patterns* used in the previous studies. The complaining realization patterns in the present study are analyzed in terms of a) semantic formulae and b) illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs) (see 3.3.1 for detail).

8) Semantic formulae of the complaining speech act

Semantic formulae of the complaining speech act refer to the functional units a speaker produces when it is his/her turn to speak to the hearer in a complainable situation.

Based on Murphy and Neu (1996), and Tanck (2002) and Gallaher (2011), the present study identified twelve semantic formulae: 1) Opt-out, e.g. no mention of the socially unacceptable act (SUA); 2) Address term, e.g., “Hey, dear...” 3) Apology, e.g. “Excuse me.” or “Sorry.” 4) Context, e.g. “May I pick up the theses I ordered yesterday?” 5) Valuation, e.g. “I’m disappointed.”; 6) Justification, e.g. “This is my favorite suit.”; 7) Problem, e.g. “I can’t sleep.”, or “Why my suit has faded?”; 8) Remedy, “Can you help me finish it in an hour?” or “Just copy it as soon as possible.” 9) Criticism, e.g. “Your noisy TV makes me unable to sleep.”, “You should have finished the photocopying before I came here.” or “How did you forget to submit my term paper?”; 10) Warning, e.g. “If you don’t finish them in time, I won’t come to your shop again.”; 11) Threat, e.g.

“You are an idiot.”; 12) Gratitude, e.g. “Thanks for your cooperation.” (see Table 3.3 for details).

9) Illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs)

Illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs) refer to the linguistic devices used to intensify or mitigate the illocutionary force. They can be classified into upgraders and downgraders based on DeCapua’s (1989) model. Upgraders refer to linguistic devices used to intensify the degree of directness with which a speech act is performed, while downgraders are the linguistics devices used to mitigate the degree of directness with which a speech act is performed (see Table 3.4 for detail).

1.7 Limitation and delimitation of the study

Despite the researcher’s endeavor, the present study did not overcome three limitations.

First, cultural diversities within the Thai or Chinese group were not fully acknowledged because the present study assumed that the cultural diversities within the Thai culture or Chinese culture should be smaller than those across the Thai or Chinese cultures.

Second, the participants’ English proficiency rested on their own self-assessment. If they did not know themselves well enough, the findings in the present study might have been changed. Although the researcher attempted to take age into consideration, some participants were not willing to report their ages. Therefore, the influence of the participants’ ages was not considered in the present study.

Third, the validity of the findings heavily rested on the authenticity of reported introspective performance of the speech act of complaining in the Discourse Completion

Tasks (DCTs).-The present study assumed that the participants were reliable in reporting their introspection like most social science studies had done before. If the participants performed the speech act of complaining in a different way from their inspection, the findings should have been different.

With an awareness of the limitations of the present study, the researcher attempts to compare the realization patterns of complaining produced by 1) native Thai speakers in Thai and native Chinese speakers in Chinese; 2) Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English; 3) the Thai *ELF* speakers in Thai and English; and 4) the Chinese *ELF* speakers in Chinese and English (see Table 1.1 for details).

Firstly, the Thai and Chinese graduate students have been recruited to represent the native Thai and Chinese speakers, and the Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers. Secondly, the Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers are asked to self-assess their English proficiency. The influence of the participants' age is not considered in the present study. Thirdly, the complaining samples are elicited from Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), instead of from ethnographic observation.

1.8 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is organized into eight chapters:

Chapter One provides an overview of the study, including the background of the study, the statement of the problems, the rationale behind the study, the research objectives and questions, the significance of the study, the definitions of key terms, and delimitation and limitation of the study.

To answer the research questions, Chapter Two reviews the conceptual and theoretical frameworks relevant to the speech act of complaining, including pragmatics

and its interdisciplinarity, politeness theory, and speech act theory. Then, the definitions and classifications of the speech act of complaining and findings from empirical studies on the speech act of complaining are reviewed.

Chapter Three specifies the research design for this study, including the participants, research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures of this study.

Chapter Four presents the results of the comparison between the native Thai and Chinese speakers in their L1s in terms of the complaining realization patterns. In addition, it discusses the effects of gender and the contextual factors on the realization patterns of the speech act of complaining.

Chapter Five presents the results of the comparison between Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in English in terms of the speech act of complaining. In addition, it discusses the effects of the participants' gender and English proficiency levels and the contextual factors on the realization patterns of the speech act of complaining.

Chapter Six presents the results of the comparison between the complaining realization patterns produced by native Thai speakers in Thai and those produced by Thai *ELF* speakers in English. In addition, it discusses the effects of the participants' gender and English proficiency and the contextual factors on the realization patterns of the speech act of complaining.

Chapter Seven presents the results of the comparison between the complaining realization patterns produced by native Chinese speakers in Chinese and those produced by Chinese *ELF* speakers in English. In addition, it discusses the effects of the participants' gender and English proficiency and the contextual factors on the realization patterns of the speech act of complaining.

To conclude, Chapter Eight summarizes the major findings of the study and points out the implication of the findings, and offers suggestions for further research on the speech act of complaining.

1.9 Summary

Economic development and advancement in transportation and telecommunications have intensified Thai and Chinese *ELF* intercultural communication. Despite increasing intercultural communication, no empirical study has been made to compare the Thai and Chinese speech behaviors. Therefore, the present study attempts to investigate how native Thai and Chinese speakers perform the speech act of complaining in their L1s, then examine how Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers produce the speech act of complaining in English, and finally inspect whether pragmatic transfer from their L1s to L2 exists. The present chapter also presents the research objectives and questions and the key terms used in the present study. The forthcoming Chapter 2 will present the conceptual and theoretical frameworks and review previous studies relevant to the speech act of complaining.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The conceptual frameworks of this study consist of 1) pragmatics and such inter-disciplines as sociopragmatics, pragmalinguistics, cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics (Interlanguage Transfer Theory is briefly introduced here); 2) Politeness Theory, offering insights into motives and reasons behind the pragmatic linguistic choices that speakers make; and 3) Speech act theory, describing its evolution and drawbacks.

Following the conceptual frameworks are the definitions and classification of complaining. In addition, the researcher also goes over relevant studies on the speech act of complaining in terms of 1) mono-cultural pragmatic studies, 2) cross-cultural pragmatic studies, 3) intercultural pragmatic studies, and 4) cross-cultural, intercultural and interlanguage pragmatic studies, and concludes the chapter with the academic gaps found from previous studies, which justify the present study.

2.1 Pragmatics and its interdisciplinarity

Although the scope of pragmatics is far from easy to define, the “research interests and developments in this field share one basic concern: the need to account for the rules that govern the use of language in context” (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984, p. 196). Pragmatics studies how speakers use language to achieve communicative goals in a context; in other words, it investigates the linguistic choices that the speaker makes to

convey an intended meaning in a context (Gallaher, 2011). For example, the face-threatening request act may be realized as an imperative or a question depending on different cultural norms. Pragmatics does not study language as such, or isolated linguistic forms or structures, but language that speakers use in context and the relationship between language form and language use. As Cap and Nijakowska (2007, p. viii) maintain, “[u]sing language involves *cognitive* process, taking place in a *social* world with a variety of *cultural* constraints”. Their statement implies that pragmatists need to indulge themselves in such multidisciplinary considerations as linguistics, psychology, sociology, ethnography etc. to pursue any study in pragmatics. The following two sub-sections explain sociopragmatics, pragmalinguistics, cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics, which involve sociology, linguistics, ethnography and second language acquisition respectively.

2.1.1 Sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics

Pragmatic competence refers to the ability to use the language appropriately. When a person is not pragmatically competent, pragmatic failures may occur. Based on the causes of pragmatic failures, Leech (1983) proposes a distinction between 1) sociopragmatics, which deals with how “the Cooperative Principle and the Politeness Principle operate variably in different cultures or language communities, in different social situations, among different social classes, etc.”, and 2) pragmalinguistics, which studies “the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocution” (p. 10).

The above definitions indicate that sociopragmatics focuses on social norms and cultural values of rights and obligations in a society to perform appropriately within one culture and across cultures (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Gallaher, 2011). On the other

hand, pragmalinguistics emphasizes linguistic strategies like directness, indirectness, language routines, and linguistic forms employed by speakers in performing illocution. In a word, sociopragmatics is culture-specific and pragmalinguistics is language-specific.

This distinction between *sociopragmatics* and *pragmalinguistics* resembles Quirk's (1978, cited in Bonikowska, 1988) distinction between *act of referring* and *manner of referring*. The former consists of judging contextual factors (e.g. social distance and relative power between the interlocutors and ranking of imposition) to decide the appropriateness in performing a given act, and the latter concerns linguistic choices in encoding the speaker's illocutionary force in an appropriate way. For example, the face-threatening act of apologizing may be realized as an offer of dinner, or saying *sorry* to the offende in different cultures.

Chang (2011) has examined the relation between pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence in the development of L2 learners' pragmatic competence. The results reveal that social status has influenced the interlocutor's perception of the severity of the offense, the strategy use, the directness level and the intensifier use. The findings have also showed that the relation between pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence varies with L2 learners' proficiency level. In addition, perception data, as well as production data, can facilitate the understanding of the relation between pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence.

The acceptable sociopragmatic (or act of referring) and pragmalinguistic (or manner of referring) decisions constitute Leech's (1983) *pragmatic competence*. In the same vein, Bachman's (1990) *pragmatic competence* requires knowledge of both linguistic strategies and sociocultural rules in the speaker. His proposal somewhat blurred the distinction between sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. As all the socially accepted

usage of language demands pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge, the present pragmatic study will refer to the speaker's proficiency level of the target language, social distance between the interlocutors, and perception data of the severity of the situation. Besides, the present study investigates the realization patterns of complaining produced by native Thai and Chinese speakers in their L1 and English, which makes it both cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic study.

2.1.2 Cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics

Cross-cultural pragmatics, another interdisciplinary field of pragmatics, focuses on the issue of universality in the context of speech act studies. It investigates how people in different languages and cultures perform and perceive speech acts, because linguistic strategies that speakers use in one culture to perform a speech act may not necessarily be associated with so-called universal politeness in another culture (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989). The cultures involved in this cross-cultural pragmatic study are Thai and Chinese cultures.

Among all the cross-cultural pragmatic studies, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) Project has occupied a significant niche in that they holds the speech act should be studied "in a variety of situations within different cultures, in cross-culturally comparable ways, across similar situations, preferably involving different types of individuals" (p. 197).

As the present study also analyses non-native performance of the speech act of complaining, it also falls into interlanguage pragmatics (Owen, 2001).

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), a field of second language acquisition, studies how non-native speakers comprehend, produce, and acquire speech acts in a target language, and how their pragmatic competence develops over time (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

Learners may transfer elements from their L1 or any other languages that they have acquired into their interlanguage system (Odlin, 1989). Transfer in this case is “characterized as a problem-solving strategy which uses native language knowledge in order to communicate in the target language” (DeCapua, 1989, p. 55). ILP judges the obtained convergence or divergence in any given speech act performed by learners in their interlanguage as positive transfer or negative transfer according to the target language norms. When the L1 and the target language are similar, positive transfer may occur. When there are cross-cultural differences, and/or the learners are under-developed in terms of linguistic proficiency, negative transfer might happen. However, as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis suggests, speakers might switch their thinking when employing a different language than their L1. In this sense, interlanguage pragmatics might incorporate intercultural communication.

To sum up, this study attempts 1) to explore the similarities and differences of complaining realization patterns 1) between native Thai and the Chinese speakers in their L1, and 2) between Thai and Chinese ELF speakers in English. Moreover, the present study also examines whether there is a transfer in Thai *ELF* speakers from Thai to English, and whether there is a transfer in Chinese *ELF* speakers from Chinese to English. As pragmatic studies are based on universality of politeness, the following section describes the politeness theory.

2.2 Politeness theory

Numerous theories on politeness help crystalize the *politeness theory*; therefore, to have a better understanding, it is necessary to review the development of the Politeness Theory.

2.2.1 Evolution of the politeness theory

The politeness theory may be traced back to Lakoff's (1975) politeness rules, namely 1) Do not impose; 2) Give options; and 3) Make the hearer feel good. She believed that "politeness is developed by societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction" (1975, p. 64).

Based on Lakoff's politeness rules, Grice (1975) proposed the Cooperative Principle, which consists of four maxims of Quantity, Quality, Relevance, and Manner. For him, cooperation forms the basis of politeness. The theory on *politeness* culminates in Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory, "[whose] theories have served as a theoretical framework for most research in contemporary pragmatics" (Gallaher, 2011, p. 19). *Politeness* is seen as conflict avoidance with universal *rationality* and *face*. *Rationality* refers to the availability to a Model Person of a precisely definable mode of reasoning from ends to the means that will achieve those ends; *face* covers the Model Person's two particular wants of being unimpeded and of being approved of in certain respects. The kernel ideas behind their theory include *face*, *intrinsic face-threatening acts* and *strategies for doing face-threatening act*, which will be elaborated on in the following sections of 2.2.2, 2.2.3 and 2.2.4 respectively.

Watts (1992) incorporated into *politeness* the notion of *appropriateness*, which means socially accepted practice, and argues that polite behavior includes the ability to use "the full range of socio-culturally appropriate linguistic behavior in any given social activity" (p. 50). Likewise, Blum-Kulka (1992) pointed out that "appraisals of *politeness* will be motivated by cultural determinants of face wants and variable degrees of linguistic conventionalization", but will also "be affected by culturally colored definitions of the situation" (p. 275). Similarly, Eelen (2001) claimed "Acting *politely* equals acting

appropriately, equals acting according to the hearer's expectations" (p. 128). To summarize, the above theories of politeness propose such different ingredients for politeness as *cooperation, rationality, face, and appropriateness*. Among them, *face* is an important concept; therefore, the following section introduces this concept.

2.2.2 The concept of *face*

In essence, *face* represents one's acquired prestige, social status, as well as one's achievements and morals. Considering its physiological reference, *face* can be a highly abstract notion. Goffman (1967, p. 5) defined *face* as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact". He uses *stage craft* and *stage management* to refer to the various means that *actors* use to control the impression that others receive of them (Goffman, 1971). In the same way, Zhang (2006) described *face* as the manifestation of honor and humiliation values, with certain implicit social norms for social behavior. Similarly, Brown and Levinson (1987) defined *face* as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 61).

They further propose that face "consists of two specific kinds of desires ('face wants') attributed by interactants to one another: the desire to be unimpeded in one's actions (negative face), and the desire (in some respects) to be approved (positive face)" (p. 13). Negative face is threatened when an individual does not avoid or intend to avoid the obstruction of their interlocutor's freedom of action. Positive face is threatened when an individual does not show or intend to show the approval of their interlocutor's action. They claim that negative face and positive face co-exist universally in human culture; that is, each person wants to be accepted and to be unimpeded by others.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) *negative face* and *positive face* echo the two orientations that Hymes (1971) proposed in *Relations in Public*, namely, a defensive one toward saving their own face and a protective one toward saving the other's face in conversational interaction. Although the content of *face* concept is subject to cultural elaboration or specifications in different cultures, the mutual knowledge of member's public self-image or *face*, and the social necessity to orient oneself to it in interaction, are universal (Brown and Levinson, 1987). To put it simply, although each culture has its own way to satisfy a person's face want, face want is worldwide.

2.2.3 Intrinsic face-threatening acts (FTAs)

Given the universality of *face*, Brown and Levinson (1987) argued that "certain kinds of acts intrinsically threaten face, namely those acts that by their nature run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or of the speaker" (p. 65). In social interactions, these acts are at times inevitable and they are known as *Face-Threatening Acts (FTAs)*. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 65-68) classified FTAs according to whether the hearer's or the speaker's face is at stake (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Classifications of face-threatening acts (FTAs)

Category		Definition	Examples
Hearer's negative face is at stake		1) Those acts that predicate some future act of the hearer, and in so doing put some pressure on the hearer to do (or refrain from doing) the act	e.g. orders and requests, suggestions, advice, reminding, threats, warnings, and dares
		2) Those acts that predicate some positive future act of the speaker toward the hearer, and in so doing put some pressure on the hearer to accept or reject them, and possibly to incur a debt	e.g. offers and promise
		3) Those acts that predicate some desire of the speaker toward the hearer or hearer's goods, giving the hearer reason to think that he may have to take action to protect the object of the speaker's desire, or give it to the speaker	e.g. compliments, and expressions of strong (negative) emotions toward the hearer
Hearer's positive face is at stake		1) Those that show that the speaker has a negative evaluation of some aspect of the hearer's positive face	e.g. expressions of disapproval, criticism, contempt or ridicule, complaints and reprimands, accusations, insults, contradictions or disagreements, challenges
		2) Those that show that the speaker does not care about (or is indifferent to) Hearer's positive face	e.g. expressions of violent (out-of-control) emotions, irreverence, mention of taboo topics, bringing of bad news about the hearer, or good news about the speaker, raising of dangerously emotional or divisive topics, blatant non-cooperation in an activity, and use of address terms and other status-marked identifications in initial encounters
Speaker's negative face is at stake		Those that put some pressure on the speaker to fulfil some future act for the hearer	1) expressing thanks; 2) acceptance of the hearer's thanks or the hearer's apology; 3) excuses; 4) acceptance of offers; 5) responses to the hearer's faux pas; and 6) unwilling promises and offers

Table 2.1 Classifications of face-threatening acts (FTAs) (Cont.)

Category		Definition	Examples
Speaker's positive face is at stake		Those that show the speaker is not worth being liked	1) apologies; 2) acceptance of a compliment; 3) breakdown of physical control of body, bodily leakage, stumbling or falling down, etc.; 4) self-humiliation, shuffling or cowering, acting stupid, self-contradicting; 5) confessions, admissions of guilt or responsibility; and 6) emotion leakage, non-control of laughter or tears

Overlap can be found in this classification, as some FTAs may intrinsically threaten both the speaker's and the hearer's negative and/or positive face, e.g. *complaints, interruptions, threats, strong expressions of emotion, and request for personal information*. When the speaker decides to perform an FTA, special need for politeness is highlighted for the speaker to mitigate the face threat of certain FTAs. Successful realization of these FTAs is crucial for social interactions within one culture and across cultures, while deviations from native-like performance of these speech acts may lead to a communication breakdown (Gallerher, 2011).

2.2.4 Strategies for doing FTAs

In view of mutual vulnerability of face, any rational person will seek to avoid these FTAs, or will employ certain strategies to mitigate the threat. What to do is determined by the relative weighting of (at least) three wants: 1) the want to communicate the content of the FTA; 2) the want to be efficient or urgent; and 3) the want to maintain the hearer's face to any degree (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 68-70).

Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed five possible strategies to realize an FTA, 1) Do not do the FTA, 2) Do the FTA *off record*, 3) Do the FTA *on record* with redressive

action for the sake of *positive face*, 4) Do the FTA *on record* with redressive action for the sake of *negative face*, and 5) Do the FTA *on record* without redressive action, explicitly.

Among the five strategies, doing the FTA *off record* involves more than one unambiguously attributable intention so that the actor cannot be held to have committed himself or herself to one particular intent, while the *on record* strategy makes the communication intent clear to the participants. If the speaker goes *on record* in doing the Act, s/he can do it either in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible, or with some redressive action. Such redressive action takes one of two forms, depending on which aspect of face (negative or positive) is being stressed.

According to whether the hearer's positive face or negative face is attended to, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 68) categorized politeness into two types: positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness, being approach-based, which is oriented toward the positive face of the hearer, the positive self-image that he/she claims for himself/herself, e.g. by treating him/her as a member of an in-group, a friend, a person whose wants and personality traits are known and liked. On the other hand, negative politeness, being avoidance-oriented, which is oriented mainly toward partially satisfying (redressing) the hearer's negative face, his/her basic want to maintain claims of territory and self-determination, e.g. apologies for interfering or transgressing.

The distinction between positive politeness and negative politeness contributes to cross-linguistic studies "by helping to characterize different cultures as well as subcultures within societies" (Olshtain & Cohen, 1989). The distinction leads to the dichotomy between positive politeness culture and negative politeness culture. Positive politeness culture, also positive-face oriented politeness culture, might show preference

for “directness, matter-of-factness, friendly back-slapping, and the like” (p. 59). On the contrary, the negative politeness culture, also negative-face oriented politeness culture, might show preference for “maintenance of social distance and face-saving” (Olshtain & Cohen, 1989, p. 59-60). In the next section, the researcher will elaborate on the speech act theory.

2.3 Speech act theory

Austin (1962) first proposed the concept of “speech act” in his series of lectures given at Harvard University between 1955 and 1962. He began with thinking how utterances affected social action, and how people realized and inferred the intended function of an utterance when it was not explicitly stated. In this sense, when we speak, we are performing a “speech act”.

2.3.1 Locution, illocution and perlocution

Austin (1969) suggested that the speech act can be analyzed on three levels: locution, illocution (illocutionary force), and perlocution (perlocutionary effect). Locution refers to the actual form of words the speaker uses and their semantic meaning. Illocution means what the speaker intends to do by uttering those words, such as *commanding, offering, promising, threatening, and thanking*, etc. In addition, perlocution stands for the hearer’s reaction to the locution. Although the speaker can determine locution and illocution of an utterance, perlocution may go beyond the speaker’s control when certain felicity conditions are not met.

Peccei (1999) observed that the relationships among these three levels of the speech act are not unilateral. The same locution may have different illocutionary forces and perlocutionary effects depending on the context; the same illocutionary force may be

realized by different locutions and achieve different illocutionary forces; and the same perlocutionary effect may be achieved through different locutions and different illocutionary forces. For example, the locution of “I have been waiting here for two hours” in a line-cutting situation. It literally states that the speaker has been waiting for two hours. The illocutionary force may be a complaint to a hearer who tries to cut in the line; and the perlocutionary effect may be that the hearer takes the hint and stops cutting in the line. Sometimes locution and illocution are not that distinct unless an utterance contains a performative verb that explicitly describes the intended speech act, like *promise, admit, warn, thank, apologize, and order, etc.*

In view of performative verbs, Austin (1962) further suggested that utterances could be classified into performatives and constatives. *Performatives* not only perform a speech act over and above simple assertion, but also simultaneously describe the speech act itself; here, the verb must describe an action that is under the speaker’s control, e.g. *promise, beg, etc.* On the other hand, *constatives* may be performing the same act but do not contain a performative verb.

2.3.2 Taxonomy of illocution

Although he was interested in the notion of illocutionary force, Austin (1962, p. 150-163) started with explicit performative verbs and proposed a tentative five-category classification: *verdictives, exercitives, commissives, expositives, and behabitives* (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Austin's classification of performative verbs

Category	Definition	Example
verdictives	consist in the delivering of a finding, official or unofficial, upon evidence or reasons as to value or fact so far as these are distinguishable	to condemn, to absolve, to acquit, to decree, to judge, to calculate, to estimate, to appraise, to assess, to rank, to describe, to analyse, to date, and to characterize
exercitives	give a decision in favour of or against a certain course of action or advocacy of it	to appoint, to dismiss, to nominate, to veto, to declare... closed, to declare... open, to warn, to order, to command, to direct, to plead, to beg, to recommend, to entreat, to vote, to judge, and to advise
commissives	commit the speaker to a certain course of action	to promise, to vow, to pledge, to swear, to covenant, to guarantee, and to embrace
expositives	expound views, conduct arguments, and clarify usages and reference	to affirm, to deny, to describe, to emphasize, to answer, to report, to accept, to object to, to concede, to class, to identify, to refer to, to argue, and to illustrate
behabitives	have to do with reactions to other people's behaviour and fortunes and attitudes and expressions of attitudes to someone else's past conduct or imminent conduct	to apologize, to thank, to congratulate, to deplore, to commiserate, to facilitate, to welcome, to applaud, to criticize, to bless, to curse, to toast, to drink, to defy, to protest, to dare and to challenge

However, Searle (1976) criticized Austin's typology of performative verbs.

1) its confusing performative verbs with illocutionary verbs and even types of illocutionary forces, 2) lack of a clear or consistent principle or set of principles to construct the taxonomy, 3) a great deal of overlap from one category to another and 4) heterogeneity within some of the categories" (p. 3).

To compensate, he proposed a classification based on three major dimensions and nine minor dimensions. The three major dimensions are 1) illocutionary point, 2) direction of fit, and 3) sincerity condition. In addition, the nine minor dimensions are

- 1) illocutionary force,
- 2) relative status of speaker and hearer,
- 3) interest of the speaker and the hearer,
- 4) relations to the rest of the discourse,
- 5) propositional contents that are determined by illocutionary force-indicating devices (IFIDs),
- 6) acts that must always be speech acts or those that can be, but need not be performed as speech acts,
- 7) acts that require extra-linguistic institutions for their performance or not,
- 8) acts where the corresponding illocutionary verb has a performative use or not,
- and 9) the style of performance of the illocutionary act.

The consequential classification includes five types of speech acts: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Searle's classification of illocution

Category	Definition	Example	Equivalent in Austin's classification
representatives	comprise acts in which the words state what the speaker believes to be true or false	to affirm, to deny, to think, and to estimate	most of Austin's expositives and many of his verdictives
directives	cover acts in which the words of the speaker are aimed at making the hearer do something	to ask, to order, to beg, to command, to request, to invite, to forbid and to suggest	many of Austin's exercitives and some of his behabitives
commissives	include acts in which the words commit the speaker to further action	to promise, to offer, to threaten, to refuse, to vow and to volunteer	the only Austin's "unexceptionable" definition for Searle (1975, p. 11)
expressives	consist of acts in which the words state what the speaker feels	to apologize, to praise, to congratulate, to deplore, to complain and to regret	Austin's behabitives
declarations	take in words and expressions that, if successfully performed, change the world by their very utterance	to fire, to resign, to excommunicate, to bequeath, to bet, to declare, to baptize, to pronounce and to sentence	many of Austin's verdictives

However, Leech (1983) argues that *declarations* are not really communicative acts at all, but simply the linguistic part of a larger ritual and as such do not belong to speech act categorization system and should be deleted. Besides, he criticizes that Searle's model mainly considers linguistic behavior and intention of the speaker, not much the perlocutionary effect of the speech act. Therefore, he proposes the addition of *rogatives* to deal with request for information, through which the hearer rather than the speaker would make the words fit the world, such as *to ask*, *to query* and *to question*. The classifications of speech acts proposed by the three scholars can be summarized in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Taxonomy of illocutionary verbs and acts

	Austin (1962)	Searle (1975)	Leech (1983)
Coverage	performative verbs	illocutionary acts	illocutionary acts & perlocutionary effects
Category	verdictives, exercitives, commissives, expositives, and habbitives	representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations	representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and -declarations +rogatives

Note: -: refers to deletion;
+: refers to addition

Searle's declarations would not work without the larger ritual, e.g. *to fire*, *to name*, which goes beyond the speaker's control; otherwise, declarations do not differ from directives. Therefore, Leech's deletion of *declarations* makes sense. Although Leech's *rogatives* introduce the perlocutionary effect on the hearer, it complicates the Searle's classification by involving an extra criterion, which the other four categories of representatives, commissives, expressives, and declarations do not focus on. Therefore, the present study advocates the resultant taxonomy in Table 2.5, which does not emphasize the perlocutionary effect.

Table 2.5 Taxonomy of illocution used in the present study

Illocutionary point	Direction of fit	Sincerity condition
representatives	words-to-world (<i>outside</i> world)	belief
directives	world-to-words	want, wish or desire
commissives	world-to-words	intention
expressives	words-to-world (<i>psychological</i> world)	a psychological state

--based on Searle, 1969, pp. 10-3; and Peccei, 1999, p. 53

In the resultant taxonomy, a complainer expressing displeasure, discontent, or dissatisfaction, etc. in the hope of getting remedy from the wrongdoer may belong to either *expressives* or *directives*, depending on certain felicity conditions. Therefore, the following section will elucidate the felicity conditions for the speech act.

2.3.3 Felicity conditions

To achieve the desired perlocutionary effect, the illocution should meet certain felicity conditions. Following Austin (1962), Searle (1969) proposed that felicity conditions for a particular illocution to work should include 1) preparatory conditions, which refer to hearer's or speaker's ability with reference to the action in question; 2) propositional content conditions, or the meaning of the sentence; 3) sincerity conditions, which refer to the truthful intent of the speaker; and 4) essential conditions, which refer to the weight an utterance carries.

Likewise, Olshtain and Weinbach (1993, p. 108) proposed four felicity conditions for the speech act of complaining to take place, namely, 1) the hearer performs a *socially unacceptable act* (SUA) that is contrary to a social code of behavioral norms shared by the speaker and the hearer; 2) the speaker perceives the SUA as having unfavorable consequences for the speaker, or for the general public; 3) The verbal expression of the speaker relates post facto directly or indirectly to the SUA, thus having the illocutionary force of censure, and 4) the speaker perceives the SUA as: i) freeing the speaker (at least partially) from the implicit understanding of a socially cooperative relationship with the hearer; and ii) giving the speaker the legitimate right to ask for repair in order to undo the SUA, either for her benefit or for the public benefit.

Felicity conditions proposed by Olshtain and Weinbach imply that complaining may be in the form of *expressives* or *directives* (DeCapua, 1989; Sato, 2010). However, the request for remedy in complaining has distinct characteristics from the usual request in terms of felicity conditions (see Table 2.6).

Table 2.6 Felicity conditions for directive complaining and usual request

	Usual requests	Directive complaining
Preparatory condition	i) Speaker believes Hearer is able to do Act	i) Speaker believes Act caused disadvantage to Speaker ii) Speaker believes Hearer is obliged to do Act iii) Hearer is able to do Act
Propositional condition	i) Speaker predicates a future act of Hearer	i) past act done by Hearer ii) Speaker predicates a future act of Hearer
Sincerity condition	i) Speaker wants Hearer to do Act	i) Speaker feels displeasure at Act ii) Speaker wants Hearer to do Act
Essential condition	Count as a request for favour	Counts as an expression of displeasure and/or a request for repair

Therefore, request in a directive complaining is more binding than a usual request. The hearer of the request in a directive complaining should feel more obliged to meet the requirement than the hearer of a usual request.

Sato (2010) further clarified the felicity conditions for these two types of complaining (see Table 2.7).

Table 2.7 Felicity conditions for two types of complaining

Complaining	Expressive	Directive
Propositional condition	past act done by Hearer	i) past act done by Hearer ii) Speaker predicates a future act of Hearer
Preparatory condition	Speaker believes Act caused disadvantage to Speaker	i) Speaker believes Act caused disadvantage to Speaker ii) Speaker believes Hearer is obliged to do Act iii) Hearer is able to do Act
Sincerity condition	Speaker feels displeasure at Act	i) Speaker feels displeasure at Act ii) Speaker wants Hearer to do Act
Essential condition	counts as an expression of displeasure	count as a request for repair

--Adapted from Sato, 2010, p. 15

The felicity conditions for the two types of complaining reveal that *directive* complaining steps further than *expressive* complaining. In an expressive complaining, the speaker just intends to express dissatisfaction, displeasure, discontent or frustration, while in a directive complaint, the speaker not only states the offensive act, but also asks for the remedy on the hearer's part (DeCapua, 1989; Sato, 2011). The distinction between expressive and directive complaining may facilitate the analysis of Thai and Chinese complaining samples.

2.3.4 Directness and indirect speech acts

Apart from the felicity conditions, speech acts differ from one another in terms of illocutionary force (Searle, 1975). Illocutionary force refers to the degree of directness with which a speech act is performed (DeCapua, 1989). Gallaher (2011) equated *indirectness* with *indirect speech act*, maintaining “directness refers to linguistic structures that match an intended communicative function, while indirectness refers to linguistic structures that on the surface do not express an intended speech act” (p. 19).

On the contrary, DeCapua (1989) argued that directness of a speech act needs “to be distinguished from the notion of *indirect speech acts*” (p. 26) in that the former concerns the degree of face-threatening of an utterance, while the latter “has to do with the conventionalized forms native speakers of a language accept as having specific non-literal meanings” (DeCapua, 1989, p. 27). Kraft and Geluykens (2002) voiced the same idea.

Her distinction between *directness* and *indirect speech act* implies that directness should be thought of as existing along a hierarchical continuum, ranging from a hint to an expression of displeasure to a threat. For example, complaining “*If you don't photocopy the thesis for me, I will burn down your shop.*” is much more face-threatening,

or more direct, than “*You should have photocopied the thesis for me,*” which in turn is more direct than “*You have promised to photocopy the thesis for me.*” In the same situation, “*Could you photocopy the thesis for me now?*” may serve as an indirect speech act of complaining.

The above examples show that Gallaher’s (2011) directness focuses on the fit between linguistic structures and the intended illocutionary force, while DeCapua’s (1989) directness emphasizes face-threatening degree of the illocutionary force. As the indirect speech act may also serve the purpose of complaining, the present study adopts DeCapua’s definition of directness as face-threatening degree.

2.3.5 Limitations of the speech act theory

With the notion of communicative competence, the influence of the speech act theory has spread from philosophy, linguistics, anthropology, and ethnography to the areas of language teaching and applied linguistics (Hymes, 1972; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). Evidence can be found in more studies of interlanguage pragmatics of how speech acts are realized by non-native speakers.

However, Searle (1969) admitted, not all speech acts can be easily identified and defined, since when a speaker utters a sentence, s/he might denote more than one thing. Brown and Levinson (1987) also voice their reservations on the speech act theory, which “forces a sentence-based, speaker-oriented mode of analysis, requiring attribution of speech act categories where our own thesis requires that utterances are often equivocal in force” (p. 10). Similarly, DeCapua (1989) argued that a speech act tends to be defined in terms of the intentions and beliefs of the interlocutors without really taking into account the complex interactions that occur in any conversation between interlocutors. Moreover, she noted that classifications such as Searle’s tend to emphasize speech acts as series or

chains of utterances; and that it seems too mechanistic, even simplistic, to regard speech acts as strings or chains. LoCastro (1996, pp. 169-170) also pointed out four analytical limitations in the speech act theory:

- 1) the difficulty of recognizing the illocutionary force to be assigned in nonconventionally indirect speech acts; 2) the lack of understanding in how conversations proceed without considering the adjacent sociolinguistic context; 3) little explanation of the multi-function of illocutionary acts; and 4) the limitation of analyses of surface level linguistic forms without a consideration of the psycholinguistic reality (p. 5).

In answer to the shortcomings of the speech act theory, Hymes (1972) proposed a framework to account for the speaker's communicative competence, which involves the interaction of social, cultural, and grammatical factors. This framework presents a hierarchy of *the speech situation* at the top, *the speech event* in the middle, and *the speech act* at the bottom (see Table 2.8).

Table 2.8 Hymes' interaction hierarchy

Hierarchy	Definition	Example
speech situation	circumstances in which some activity happens	meals, parties, auctions, conferences, etc.
speech event	activities or aspects of activities that are governed directly by rules of language use	lectures, two or more party conversations, advertising, etc. It is analysed in terms of its constitutive components: setting, participants, ends (purpose), act sequence, key, instrument, norms, and genre (abbreviated as SPEAKING)
speech act	the basic unit to constitute act sequence	apologies, greetings, etc.

For example, “*I seriously have no time to waste. If you can't complete this job, could you please let the other one help you?*” in a situation where the negligent worker did not finish the speaker's order for thesis. For Hymes, the utterance is produced in a complainable situation, where the interlocutors are acquaintances. The speaker attempts to justify his/her displeasure and remedy the situation. Therefore, Hymes' concept of *speech event* incorporates a set of semantic formulae by one speaker at one turn. Fraser (1981, cited in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984) called the same concept compound

speech act, *macrostructure* by van Dijk (1977) and *macro speech acts* by Ferrara (1985), and *speech act set* by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984).

To sum up, be it *speech event* (Hymes, 1972), *compound speech acts* (Fraser, 1981), *speech act set* (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) or *macro speech acts* (Ferrara, 1985), they refer to the maximal potential range of semantic formulae produced by a speaker when it is his/her turn to speak. The present thesis adopts a *speech act* in this sense. The following section will elaborate on the speech act of complaining.

2.4 The speech act of complaining

Complaining has never had a positive meaning. It comes from the Latin verb *plangere*, which originally meant *to hit* literally and *to beat one's breast* metaphorically (Barlow & Moller, 2008). Today complaining, as a disapproval exchange (D'Amico-Reisner, 1985), can be understood in terms of *gripping* or *grumbling* (Boxer, 1993b), or *troubles-telling* (Jefferson, 1984), *troubles-talk* (Tannen, 1990), *fault-finding*, *criticizing*, *bitching*, *whining*, or *trouble-telling* (Lee, 2005) (cf. Lee, 2005 for the differences between complaining and the above terms).

2.4.1 Definitions of complaining

Many scholars have attempted to define complaining, but these definitions differ in terms of the content and recipient of the utterance.

In a narrower sense, Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) defined *complaining* as “the speaker expresses displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which affect the S[peaker] unfavorably. This complaining is addressed to the hearer, whom the speaker holds responsible for the offensive action” (p. 108). Likewise, Trosborg (1995, pp. 311-312) defined *complaining* as “an illocutionary act in

which the speaker (the complainer) expresses his/her disapproval, negative feelings etc. towards the state of affairs described in the proposition (the complainable) and for which he/she holds the hearer (the complaine) responsible, either directly or indirectly". These definitions specify that the speaker expresses displeasure to the hearer who is responsible for a socially unacceptable act (SUA).

Similarly, Umar (2006) defined *complaining* as "an expression of a psychological state of being dissatisfied or unhappy about something" (p. 14). In addition, Azarmi and Behnam (2012) defined *complaining* as "an expression of a psychological state of being dissatisfied or unhappy about something which demands special kind of speech act and different kind of face keeping strategies" (p. 78). These definitions emphasize *expression of negative feelings* such as displeasure, dissatisfaction or discontent about some state of affairs without specifying the recipient.

Along the same lines, Kowalski (1996) defined *complaining* as a statement of dissatisfaction resulted from disconfirmation of expectancies. This definition introduces a new element of expectation. Likewise, Barlow and Moller (2008) defined *complaining* as "statements about expectations that have not been met" (p. 37). These two definitions of *complaining* revolve around a complainer's expectation of what people should do, which indicates a gap between cultural moral ideals and the complainer's negative experience (Lee, 2005).

Correspondingly, Littlewood (1992) proposed three criteria for complaining: 1) the speaker is unhappy about something (literal meaning); 2) the speaker requests the hearer to refrain from the socially unaccepted act (SUA), or the speaker expects that the hearer is obliged to apologize for SUA (functional meaning); and 3) the speaker desires to preserve or weaken his/her relationship to hearer (social meaning). To a certain extent,

Littlewood's criteria is more inclusive than the above definitions in that he does not require the speaker to express displeasure explicitly; instead, the speaker needs to seek remedy, be it for the physical or spiritual sake.

In a broader sense, Rader (1977) defined *complaining* as utterances or sets of utterances that identify a problem or trouble source and seek remediation, from the person directly responsible for the problem or from a third party, that has the power to affect the situation. This definition expands the content of *complaining* from *an expression of negative feelings, an expression of unmet expectation, or seeking remediation to a statement of problem*. In addition, this definition extends the recipient from the hearer who is responsible for the offensive event to the hearer who can change the situation.

Considering all the above definitions, the operational definition of *complaining* in this study is an utterance made by the speaker directly to the hearer in a situation where Hearer's past or ongoing act is unfavorable to the speaker. It can be in the form of expressing displeasure and annoyance, unmet expectations, identifying a problem, seeking remediation (including asking the hearer to refrain from the ongoing unfavorable Act), demanding apology, and/ or wishing to weaken the relationship.

2.4.2 Classification of complaining

Some scholars attempted to classify complaining according to who is present in complaining (Zhang, 2001; Boxer, 1993a, 1993b; Heinemann & Traverso, 2009).

Based on the people present, complaining can be classified into faced complaints, non-faced complaints and mixed complaints (Zhang, 2001). Faced complaints are commonly known as complaints, or direct complaints, which occur when the speaker conveys dissatisfaction to a hearer who s/he holds accountable for it. They may damage the hearer's positive and negative face because the speaker disagrees with the way the

hearer did/does things, and the speaker expects the hearer to remedy the situation by stopping the offensive event, or apologizing. Non-faced complaints, or indirect complaints, refer to expression of displeasure or annoyance to the third party who is not responsible for the offence without presence of the party who is responsible for the offence. With the presence of the party who is responsible for the offence, expression of displeasure or annoyance to the third party who is not responsible for the offence is called *mixed complaints*, or *third party complaints* (Heinemann & Traverso, 2009).

Likewise, Boxer (1993a, 1993b) distinguished *complaints*, addressed to the person deemed responsible for the undesirable action, from *gripes* or *indirect complaints*, addressed to persons who have no responsibility for the action, about non-present third persons who are responsible. Her *indirect complaint* is defined as “the expression of dissatisfaction to an interlocutor about a speaker himself/herself or someone/something that is not present” (Boxer, 1993a, p. 106; Boxer & Pickering, 1995, p. 44). She argues, “It [an indirect complaint] differed from a direct complaint in that the addressee is neither held responsible nor capable of remedying the perceived offense” (1993a, p. 280). In this sense, Boxer’s (1993) *direct complaints* equals Zhang’s (2001) *complaints, faced complaints* or *direct complaints*, whereas her *gripes* or *indirect complaints* corresponds to Zhang’s (2001) *indirect complaints* or *non-faced complaints*.

In some literature, *indirect complaints* are identified as *troubles-talk*, *troubles-telling*, *troubles-talk narrative*, and *troubles-sharing* (Boxer, 1996, p. 218-219). Obviously, Boxer (1993a, 1993b) and Boxer and Pickering (1995) did not consider Zhang’s mixed complaints when classifying complaints. However, Du (2011) supported Zhang (2001) by holding that *an indirect complaint* (expression of displeasure or annoyance to the third party who is not responsible for the offence) can be further

subdivided based on presence or absence of the party who is responsible for the offence, which results in Zhang's *mixed complaints* and *non-faced complaints* respectively.

Additionally, direct complaints may have two functions: 1) to discharge displeasure felt towards the complaine; and 2) to redress the socially unacceptable acts (SUA), while indirect complaints can be used to 1) express displeasure; 2) improve the situation; 3) establish solidarity; 4) seek for comfort; and 5) clarify the matter (Du, 2011). As Kowalski (2003) summarized, a common function of direct and indirect complaining is "to help the speaker achieve catharsis, or purge emotional tensions" (p. 35).

The present study focused on Zhang's (2001) *faced complaints*, or Boxer's (1993a, 1993b) *direct complaints*. However, *direct* here lies in the immediacy of the accountability of socially unacceptable act (SUA), or whether the hearer is responsible for the unfavorable situation or not (Boxer, 1993a, 1993b; Olshtain and Weinbach, 1993; Trosborg, 1995).

2.5 Previous studies of complaining

According to the linguistic medium involved, previous studies on the speech act of complaining are classified into mono-cultural, cross-cultural, intercultural, interlanguage pragmatic studies, and a combination of these studies. In addition, this section will review the studies in these five sub-sections arranged by authors in alphabetical order and publication years.

2.5.1 Mono-cultural pragmatic studies of complaining

A mono-cultural pragmatic study deals with a particular speech act performed by in-group native speakers of a single L1, or performed by non-native speakers in a single language.

Schaefer (1982) investigated how the *English as a foreign language (EFL)* learners performed the speech act of complaining. The participants were Japanese, Mexican Spanish, and American English students from University of California at Los Angeles. They were asked to respond orally to 20 hypothetical situations with reference to status, intimacy and authority roles. From the elicited 777 complaint samples, he identified nine semantic formulae of complaining in English: 1) *opener*; 2) *orientation*; 3) *act statement*; 4) *justification of the speaker*; 5) *justification of the addressee*; 6) *remedy*; 7) *threat*; 8) *closing*; and 9) *valuation* (1982, pp. 14-15). The study showed that the choice, order and frequency of seven major semantic formulae were influenced by sociolinguistic variables such as age, status and intimacy, as well as contextual variables such as severity of the problem. A wide variety of syntactic patterns was used in the individual semantic categories.

Du (1995) investigated the Chinese realization patterns of three face-threatening acts: complaining, giving bad news, and disagreeing. She found that direct complaints were expressed frequently through *suggestions* as to how the source of irritation can be removed. On the other hand, *expressing hope* and *on-record complaining* were not favored strategies. Direct complaints were chosen relatively infrequently because of the participants' concern for maintaining surface harmony, which she described as "a crucial social factor governing Chinese daily life" (p. 179). Du concluded, "FTAs in Chinese tend to be performed in a cooperative rather than confrontational manner" (p. 193).

Laforest (2002) studied the complaint and complaint-response sequence in everyday conversations between people on intimate terms by recording French family conversations in Montreal. She identified six strategies of the speech act of complaining: 1) allusion to the offensive act/ behavior, 2) justification of discontent, 3) request that the

complainee justifies his or her offensive act/ behavior, 4) mentioning the offensive act/ behavior, or statement of the offending act/ behavior addressed to the complainee, 5) request that the complainee change behavior or make up for the offensive act/ behavior, and the request may go to the extreme of becoming an order, and 6) adverse criticism of the hearer, without mentioning the offensive act/ behavior or anything else that could be associated with the preceding categories. The findings showed that the three most frequent strategies for realizing a complaint, in descending order, are 1) mentioning the offensive act; 2) criticizing the hearer without mentioning the problem; and 3) requesting that the person charged with the wrongdoing change his or her behavior or that they rectify the problem.

Lee (2005) examined the meaning associated with complaint making among the Chinese Malaysian speech community, the community's assumptions about personhood, and their cultural ideals through the complaint-making speech act. She collected three types of data for the study: 1) 31 opinion letters containing complaints published online by Malaysian newspapers; 2) data from 11 semi-structured interviews; and 3) field notes and audio-recording of 12 instances of spontaneous complaint-making episodes by 23 different individuals in the community. She found such direct complaining semantic formulae as 1) explanation of purpose or warning of the forthcoming complaints; 2) the speech act of complaint itself; 3) request or demand for repair; 4) request for non-recurrence. Besides, she identified two types of complaint making: *thou soo*, a solution-focused speech act, and *aih auan*, a lamentation about situations that is irreversible and beyond the complainant's control.

Yuan (2009) studied direct complaints in Chinese in terms of the directness levels of complaining, distribution and typical linguistic expressions of complaining in each

situation. He asked 120 non-linguistic university juniors to fill in a 9-situation DCT questionnaire. Based on House and Kasper's (1981) eight-level hierarchy and Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) five-level severity of complaining, he proposed seven directness levels of complaining: 1) *below the level of reproach*; 2) *empathetic utterances*; 3) *implicit blame*; 4) *explicit complaint*; 5) *query and accusation*; 6) *immediate warning and threat*; and 7) *demand for compensation*. The results showed that *empathetic utterances*, *explicit complaint*, and *implicit blame* were the most frequently used strategies used by the Chinese participants. In terms of syntactic structures, complex sentences, imperatives, and declaratives are the most frequently used sentence patterns. The findings also revealed that adjuncts to head act included explanation for complaining, demand for repair or compensation, and downgraders included "Oh, it's ...", and "Excuse me," etc. and upgraders included "I'm sure ...", "definitely", "apparently", and "damn it" etc. The contextual factors of social distance and relative power between the interlocutors influenced the strategy choices made by the Chinese participants.

Farnia, Buchheir and Salim (2010) investigated the preferred semantic formulae of the speech act of complaining by Malaysian *English as a Second Language (ESL)* learners. Thirty Malaysian English-major university students were first asked to respond to a 2-situation DCT questionnaire and then a semi-structured interview to share their perception and the effect of social status in choosing strategies and whether they would be different in actual face-to-face conversation. Following Rinnert and Nogami (2006), they examined 1) the main semantic formulae of complaining, i.e., *a) initiator*; *b) complaints*; and *c) request*; 2) its level of directness, namely, *a) indirect (no explicit mention of offense, implied offense only)*; *b) somewhat direct (mention of offense, but no mention of the hearer's responsibility)*; *c) very direct (explicit mention of offense and*

hearer's responsibility for it); and 3) degree of mitigation (*counting the softening expressions, e.g. "a little, sort of, you know, would/could, I think/ I wonder"*). The results showed that social distance and status influenced Malaysian ESL learners in their semantic formula selection and sequence of complaining. The interview results showed that the respondents valued the importance of social status and being polite and showing respect to older people, even when the conversation was not in their native language.

Azarmi and Behnam (2012) investigated the pragmatic ability of the upper intermediate and the intermediate learners in realizing the complaining speech act in different situations. Forty *EFL* learners were tested on their proficiency level first and then were divided into 2 groups of 20 intermediate and 20 upper intermediate *EFL* learners (35 female and 5 male learners). They were asked to respond to a five-scenario DCT from Moon's (2001) and Tanck's (2002) study. The data were analyzed based on Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) and DeCapua's (1989) and Brown and Levinson's (1987) models. The findings revealed that the upper intermediate learners and the intermediate learners used different levels of directness of complaining in each situation and "even fairly advanced language learners' communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic error, or deficits, in that they fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary force or politeness value" (p. 85).

Noisiri (2015) investigated gender differences through the speech act performed by male and female native Thai speakers in Thai. A total of 20 native Thai speakers (10 males and 10 females) were asked to respond to a 3-scenario DCT questionnaire. The elicited complaining data were analyzed into four categories based on Trosborg's (1994) theory and eight sub-strategies according to House and Kasper's (1981) model. The results revealed that Thai men tended to make complaints more directly and more

aggressively than women, while women tend to convey their complaints in an indirect and soft manner.

The findings from the above studies provide the present study with possible research method (see 2.5.5 for detail).

2.5.2 Cross-cultural pragmatic studies of complaining

A cross-cultural pragmatic study compares the independent pragmatic performance of a speech act produced by at least two groups of native speakers in their different L1.

Li et al. (2006) investigated factors (such as education, age, and gender of the speaker) that influence the severity of complaining produced by native speakers of Chinese and native speakers of American English. Three groups of native speakers of Chinese, 1) 41 undergraduate students (14 males, 27 females), 2) 30 M.A. students (24 males, 6 females), and 3) 30 Ph.D. students (20 males, 10 females), along with a group of 52 American students (18 males, 34 females), were asked to respond to a three-scenario DCT questionnaire, with a view to social distance and social power. The data were analyzed according to the five levels of severity hierarchy proposed by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987). Results showed that the four groups tended to adopt *expression of annoyance or disapproval*, *explicit complaint* and *accusation and warning*. The Chinese undergraduate group and M.A. students were not significantly different from the American group in the three situations, while Chinese doctoral students were significantly different from the American group in the second and third situations. The findings also revealed that the younger the respondents were, the more severe the complaining was, and the higher the expectations they had of others. No significant difference was found in gender.

Jian (2007) investigated the Chinese and English complaining semantic formulae and directness levels, focusing on the effect of the social distance and power. She asked 65 native speakers of Chinese and 35 native speakers of English to complete a nine-scenario DCT in their L1 and the corresponding multiple choices evaluating the social power and distance of the situation. The data were analyzed according to Blum-Kulka's (1984) CCSARP model. The findings showed both Chinese and English direct complaints shared seven directness levels: 1) *opt out*, 2) *hint (mild hint, joke and irony)*, 3) *expression of annoyance*, 4) *explicit complaint (request, and suggestion)*, 5) *accusation*, 6) *warning and 7) threat*. They were different in terms of the position of the auxiliary speech acts and the variety of micro-units. Chinese auxiliary speech acts (e.g. justification) usually precede center speech acts, and English auxiliary speech acts follow center speech act. Chinese address terms are more varied than English ones. While the Chinese used particles (e.g. *ma, ne, a*) to mitigate the severity of complaints, the English used past tense to achieve the same effect. After quantifying the data, the researcher concluded that Chinese tended to *opt out* more often than English, who preferred to *express their displeasure*, and Chinese participants were more liable to be influenced by social variable like social distance and relative power than their English counterparts were.

Wang (2006) investigated the realization patterns of complaining produced by native English and Chinese speakers and the types of responses to these complaints. 30 Chinese college students and 30 Americans were asked to respond in their L1 to a seven-scenario written DCT, with reference to relative social power, social distance, social contract and level of the speaker's expectations/frustration. Based on the models proposed by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) and Trosborg (1995), he found that the

strategy of *expression of annoyance or disapproval* was most frequently employed in both English and Chinese, and the strategies of *accusation and warning* and *immediate threat* were the least frequently used in both groups. However, the Chinese group used the directness level of *below the level of reproach* and *no explicit complaint* more often than their English counterparts did. When the speaker's status was lower than the hearer's, both the English and Chinese groups tended to choose more indirect complaining levels, like *below the level of reproach* or *no explicit reproach*. However, the social status had more influence on native Chinese speakers in their strategy selection than on native English speakers. When the social distance between interlocutors was small, the English and Chinese groups both used *expression of annoyance or disapproval* and *explicit complaint*.

The above literature shows that Chinese complaining samples were usually analyzed according to Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) and Trosborg's (1995) directness scales, which inspired the establishment of the coding scheme for the present study.

2.5.3 Intercultural pragmatic studies of complaining

Intercultural pragmatic studies compare the speech acts produced in the same language by at least two groups of native speakers of different L1. In this sense, the comparison can be directly made through a common language.

Olshtain and Weinbach (1987, pp. 199-201) compared direct complaints produced by 35 undergraduate native speakers of Hebrew and 35 undergraduate non-native speakers of Hebrew. They were asked to respond to a 20-scenario DCT questionnaire. Based on Brown and Levinson's degree of face-threat and severity for a specific scenario in which the speaker was kept waiting by another colleague, they identified a five-level severity hierarchy: 1) *below the level of reproach*; 2) *expression of annoyance or*

disapproval; 3) explicit complaint; 4) accusation and warning; and 5) immediate threat. Their study showed that learners produced longer utterances than native speakers did in order to negotiate the problem expressed in a complaint. Immediate and advanced learners tended to use more words than native speakers, and used more words in the foreign language than they use in their native language. Both native and non-native speakers negotiated more by using more words with acquaintances than with strangers or relatives. Although the three groups made use of each strategy, they tended to prefer the middle of the continuum to the extremes, which made them appear neither too soft nor confrontational. The learners of Hebrew preferred the less direct end of the scale whereas the native speakers were more direct in their complaints. The speakers of lower status addressing higher status speakers tended to use less severe complaint strategies, and speakers with equal or higher social status tended to use more severe strategies. The researchers asserted that the situation itself, not the language- or culture-specific norms, played a significant role in the strategy selection across cultures and social status affected the variability of the strategies native speakers of Hebrew employed.

Piotrowska (1987) compared the sociolinguistic competence of Cantonese learners of English as a foreign language with native speakers of English. She asked the native speakers of English and the non-native speakers of English at Hong Kong University to produce English complaining samples. From them she identified 8 semantic formulae: 1) *societal justification*; 2) *request for explanation*; 3) *blame*; 4) *resignation*; 5) *conciliation*; 6) *persuasion*; 7) *indirect disagreement*; and 8) *request for agreement*. Her study showed that learners and native speakers differed in terms of linguistic choices and directness levels of complaining according to social distance and situational context. She attributed the differences to the sociocultural norms in both language groups. It was

concluded that Cantonese speakers of English need to better understand social rules governing the directness choice of English speakers in a complainable situation in order to successfully negotiate with native English speakers.

Murphy and Neu (1996) compared the complaining speech act sets produced by native speakers of American English and Korean learners of English, and examined the perception of non-native speakers' speech act sets of complaining by native speakers. Fourteen male American graduate students and 14 male Korean graduate students were asked to respond orally to DCTs. They identified four semantic formulae: 1) *explanation of purpose*; 2) *complaint/criticism*; 3) *justification*; 4) *candidate solution (request/demand)*. The findings revealed that native English speakers never used *criticism* and *demand* by candidate solutions, while Korean learners of English used all six possible semantic formulae. Besides, both native English speakers and non-native English speakers used *explanation of purpose*, *justification*, and *candidate solution: request* most frequently. Based on the tape-recorded responses to the situation in which the participants had to complain to a professor about a grade, native speakers of English were asked to judge aggressiveness and respectfulness of the student, creditability in obtaining his goal, appropriateness of the response and alternative of the response. Most native speakers of English deemed most responses produced by Koreans "aggressive, disrespectful, and lacking credibility" (p. 210). It was concluded that appropriate linguistic choices in complaining might facilitate negotiations among interlocutors, while inappropriate sociolinguistic behavior can negatively affect negotiations and lead to a conflict.

Tanck (2002) investigated the differences between native and non-native English speakers' production of refusals and complaints. Twelve native speakers of English and

13 non-native speakers of English were asked to respond to a 6-scenario DCT, representing the two speech acts and two distractors, within familiar equal and superior-inferior relationships. The complaining speech act set was analyzed into four semantic formulae: 1) excusing self for imposition, such as, “Excuse me for interrupting...”; 2) establishing context or support, as in, “I placed an order last week...”; 3) a request, such as, “Can you please look for it?”; and, 4) conveyance of a sense of urgency, as in, “I need it right away.” The refusal speech act set was analyzed into three semantic formulae: 1) an expression of regret, “I’m sorry...”; 2) an excuse, “I have to pick up a friend at the airport...”; and 3) an offer of alternative, “Can we meet again tomorrow?” It was found that although native and non-native speakers often produced the same speech act set for complaints and refusals, the non-native speakers’ responses, compared with the native speakers’, “often lacked the pragmatic elements that allow these face-threatening acts to be well received by the interlocutor” (P. 11).

Umar (2006) compared direct complaints produced by advanced Sudanese learners of English to those of native speakers of English. Forty-six Sudanese English-major graduate students and 14 British native speakers of English responded to a three-scenario DCT questionnaire, with reference to social distance and relative power. She identified five semantic formulae, 1) *excusing oneself for imposition*; 2) *establishing context or support*; 3) *a request*; 4) *conveyance of sense of dissatisfaction, disappoint or annoyance*; and 5) *warning or threat* (p. 22). The results showed that that the Sudanese learners’ complaints differed from those of the native speakers at the linguistic and sociopragmatic levels when social distance and severity of offense were considered (Umar, 2006, p. 22). “The differences in learners’ linguistic behavior were attributed to cultural norms (the value of friendship), pragmatic transfer (the use of the imperative), and limited linguistic

competence” (Umar, 2006, p. 34). The Sudanese group was more reserved in making complaints to a friend and more direct in complaining to a stranger and the boss than the native speaker group. It was concluded that even advanced Sudanese learners lacked the pragmatic competence to produce appropriate complaints in the target language.

Zhu (2008) compared the speech act of complaining performed by native speakers of English, and Chinese EFL learners of English. Twenty native American speakers, 20 Chinese learners of English and 20 Chinese learners of non-English majors responded to a six-scenario DCT. According to Trosborg’s (1995) model, the elicited data were coded into four directness levels (eight subcategories): 1) no explicit reproach (hint); 2) expression of annoyance or displeasure: a) annoyance; b) bad consequence; 3) accusation: a) indirect accusation; b) direct accusation; 4) blame: a) modified blame; b) explicit blame of the offensive act; c) explicit blame of the complaine. It was found that Chinese learners of English-major differed from both native American speakers and Chinese learners of non-English majors in terms of both quality and quantity. They could not adjust their complaints according to the status of the complaine. This suggests that complaining is a difficult speech act to grasp. It was also found that native American speakers and Chinese learners of non-English majors shared the same level of complaining directness, and similar tendencies in phrasing their complaining. Besides, the study also revealed that complaining is culturally bound.

Yuan (2011) made a contrastive study of the speech act of complaining produced by native American speakers and Chinese *EFL* learners with reference to social variables of social status and social distance. Ninety-one Chinese *EFL* learners and 96 native speakers of American English were asked to choose from seven directness levels of complaining in the five given situations with different social status and social distance.

The seven directness levels of complaining were: 1) ignoring and making no complaint; 2) allusion to the offensive act: below the level of reproach; 3) expression of annoyance or disapproval; 4) explicit complaint; 5) accusation and warning; 6) immediate threat; 7) physical expression. The non-parametric method of the Chi-square independent test and Fisher's Exact Test were employed for the quantitative analysis to determine whether the occurrence of one variable affected the probability of the occurrence of the other variable. Besides, the index of complaining degree (ICD) is calculated as: $ICD = \text{total score} / \text{the total number of participants investigated}$. The results showed that social status and social distance influenced American and Chinese participants' choice of directness levels of complaining in a significantly different way. The Chinese showed greater respect to professor than American counterparts did. When interacting with interlocutors of equal social status, the Chinese's complaining degree bulged at the both ends of intimates and strangers with friends in the middle, while Americans' complaining degree displayed a gradually descending tendency along a social distance continuum from intimates to strangers. More importantly, the study refuted Brown and Levinson's formula: $W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x$ in that in private conversation, the variable of social distance carries more importance than the variable of social status.

Eslamirasekh, Seresht and Mehregan (2012) compared the speech act of complaining produced by Persian learners of English and native speakers of American English. Fifty-five Persian university students responded to an 8-scenario DCT and an interview for their complaining use. The production data from the DCT were coded into seven major categories: *opting out, no explicit reproach, indirect complaint, indirect accusation, direct complaint, request for repair and threat*. The results showed that Persian learners of English complained significantly differently from native speakers of

American English. It was also found that native speakers of American English used more *indirect complaint (IC)* and *request for repair (RR)* but Persian preferred more *direct complaint (DC)* and *indirect accusation (IA)* under identical circumstances. The qualitative findings and the quantitative results showed that different sociocultural norms dictate significantly different realization patterns of the speech act of complaining.

Pu (2012) examined the similarities and differences of the direct complaint speech act set produced by Chinese learners of English and American/Australian native speakers of English. She asked 20 Chinese learners of English who majored in English and 15 native speakers of English from America or Australia to respond to the situation in which the student thought the professor gave him/ her lower grade than he/ she deserved. Based on Murphy and Neu's (1996) model, she coded the data into 4 semantic formulae: 1) explanation of purpose, 2) a complaint, 3) justification, and 4) a candidate solution: request. The findings show that native speakers of English were clearer in terms of purpose statement, and milder in terms of complaining directness, which increased their possibility of being remedied, while Chinese learners of English used a lot of criticism, without regard to the hearer's face, which reduced their possibility of being remedied. Furthermore, the author pointed out that the discrepancy might occur because of lack of relevant pragmatic teaching in class.

2.5.4 Interlanguage pragmatic studies of complaining

Interlanguage pragmatic study compares the speech act performed by speakers in both L1 and L2. In such studies, learners of a foreign language may have different proficiency levels of the target language.

Tatsuki (2000) examined the level of complaining aggression produced by Japanese college students in L1 and English. A modified version of Rosenzweig's Picture-

Frustration Test was used to elicit complaining samples from Japanese students in Japanese and English. She matched three levels of outward manifestations of aggression, i.e. *extrapeditive*, *extrapunitive*, and *extrapersistive*, to levels of severity proposed by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987). A significant number of participants responded to stress or frustration with the same direction of aggression in both languages, but they were different in terms of types of aggression. In Japanese, it was *extrapeditive*, similar to Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) *expression of annoyance or disapproval*, level 1 of severity. However, in English, it was *extrapersistive*, similar to Olshtain and Weinbach's *accusation and warning*, Level 4 or Level 5. Their study confirmed the culture-specificness of the severity evaluation of complaining.

Zhao (2003) investigated the speech act of direct complaints produced by Chinese *EFL* learners in both L1 and English. The data elicited from an eight-scenario DCT questionnaire, with reference to social status, social distance, contractual bond and level of expectation, were analyzed in terms of syntactic patterns and directness levels proposed by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) and Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness strategies of 1) *opting out*; 2) *off-record*; and 3) *on-record*, a) *unmitigated strategies* and b) *mitigated strategies*. However, she did not find significant differences between L1 and English complaining produced by Chinese *EFL* learners.

2.5.5 Cross-cultural, intercultural and interlanguage pragmatic studies of complaining

As mentioned above, cross-cultural pragmatic studies compare speech acts produced by two groups of native speakers in their L1, while intercultural pragmatic studies compare speech acts produced by two groups of native speakers of different L1s in a common language. An interlanguage pragmatic study compares speech acts

performed by speakers in both L1 and L2. When a pragmatic study involves two L1s, two groups of participants speaking the same language and one or two groups of participants speaking both L1 and L2, it belongs to cross-cultural, intercultural and interlanguage pragmatic studies.

House and Kasper (1981) investigated complaining and request speech acts produced by pairs of native German speakers in both L1 and English, and native speakers of English in English. They were asked to role-play 24 situations. The complaining data were analyzed in terms of 8-level directness and modality markers. The results indicated that native speakers of German tended to use more direct levels in expressing their complaints than native speakers of British English did. Besides, the German speakers tended to use fewer down-graders and more up-graders of these modality markers to intensify the pragmatic force of an utterance than their English counterparts did. The researchers concluded that different cultural systems led to differential behavior displayed by the English and German speakers.

In the same year, Kasper (1981) compared the speech act of complaining produced by native speakers of English and German and German learners of English, and found that the non-native speakers' complaining was more severe, or more direct, than those of native speakers when they interacted with each other in role-play dialogues. Moreover, learners had difficulty choosing appropriate modality markers and modal verbs in English. Unlike native speakers, they preferred intensifiers in direct complains, which was attributed to their linguistic behavior in their L1 (Kasper, 1981). The learners' complaints were perceived by native speakers as negative behavior, which, consequently, led to their pragmatic failure (Kasper, 1981).

DeCapua (1989) examined the existence of pragmatic transfer from German to English by native speakers of German in the speech act of complaining. 50 native speakers of German and 50 native speakers of American English were asked to respond to a five-scenario DCT questionnaire. The German subjects provided two types of data, first in German and then in English, so that covert encouragement of transfer from L1 into English could be minimized. The data were analyzed in terms of semantic formulae, directness, and modifiers. First, she identified the seven most important semantic formulae out of thirteen, 1) *criticism*; 2) *demand for repair*; 3) *justification*; 4) *opt out*; 5) *request for repair*; 6) *statement of problem*; and 7) *threat/pressure*. Second, she also developed an eight-point directness hierarchy based on House and Kasper (1981) and Olshtain and Cohen (1987). Third, DeCapua (1989) classified directness modifiers into downgraders and upgraders. The results showed that Germans in both their German and English produced more justifications than the Americans did. Besides, gender, linguistic medium and the severity of the problem determined their selection of semantic formulae. In addition, German subjects were more direct, both in German and in English, than American speakers of English were. The results indicated that pragmatic transfer did indeed occur, primarily in the perception of the degree of acceptable directness. The directness modifier study showed that the Germans speaking German used by far the largest number of directness modifiers, they used fewer directness modifiers in English, and the Americans used an even smaller number. The men used more upgraders while the women used more downgraders. The study indicated that directness seems to be culturally determined.

Trosborg (1995) investigated speech acts of requests, complaints and apologies performed by native speakers of English, native speakers of Danish and [Danish](#) learners of

English. The informants in her study consisted of five groups: three groups of *EFL* learners with different proficiency levels, and two groups of native speakers of British English and Danish, respectively. She elicited 120 complaining samples from role enactment conversations and established two analytical measures: a scale of directness levels and semantic formulae of complaining. The data were classified into four directness levels: 1) *no explicit reproach, including hint*; 2) *expression of disapproval*; 3) *accusation*; and 4) *blame*. In addition, internal modifications used by the complainer were analyzed in terms of two categories of modality markers: downgraders and upgraders. It was found that native speakers of English employed more indirect complaining (hints) toward a person of higher status than toward a person of lower status in order to show politeness. In contrast, native speakers of Danish did not select more indirect complaining when addressing authority figures, but they used significantly more supportive moves than English speakers did. She concluded that speakers across cultures perceive the parameter of social status differently and that social distance was a negative predictor for directness decision in a complainable situation. Besides, she found that Danish learners of English used more severe complaining, but significantly fewer semantic formulae, than native speakers of English did. They also had difficulties using appropriate modality markers, i.e. downgraders and upgraders, to soften or to intensify their complaints, particularly with reference to the parameters of social distance and social power.

Kraft and Geluykens (2002) compared direct complaints produced by native speakers of French, native speakers of German, and German learners of French. 81 native speakers of French in French and 84 German speakers in German, and 87 German learners of French in French, with an almost equal distribution of male and female respondents, were asked to respond to a six-scenario DCT questionnaire, with reference

to social distance, and the gender of the speaker and the addressee. The data were analyzed in terms of the length of the complaining samples, its internal structure, as well as the relative frequency of occurrence of certain downgrading strategies. Based on the directness of the complaining head act, they proposed a hierarchy of 1) *implicit*, a) *silence*; and b) *absence of explicit reproaches*, and 2) *explicit*, a) *expressions of disapproval*; b) *accusation*; and c) *appointing blame* (p. 234). They also identified three types of supportive moves, 1) *solidarity-enhancing*, 2) *neutral*, and 3) *confrontational*. It was found that learners generally used significantly longer complaining utterances than native speaker did, which was attributed to learners' "attempt to compensate for potential linguistic shortcomings by using repetitions and variations of strategies" (Kraft and Geluykens, 2002, p. 235). Moreover, the findings showed a lower degree of directness in learners' complaining. The study also provided some evidence that men complained differently than women, but the findings did not support the authors' hypothesis that males complained more directly than females. The researchers did not attribute any of the differences to learners' transfer from their L1.

Tamanaha (2003) investigated speech acts of apologies and complaining produced by American learners of Japanese (J2s) and native speakers of Japanese. The average oral proficiency of 24 J2s was assessed based on ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines (1987), which produced 13 intermediate American learners of Japanese (J2L) and 11 advanced American learners of Japanese (J2H). This group of 24 native speakers of American English (also American learners of Japanese) was asked to role-play in both L1 and L2 (English and Japanese) three situations each for apologies and complaining, with reference to social distance, relative power and imposition of the offence. In addition, a group of 20 native speakers of Japanese (J1) was also asked to role-play the

same situations in L1 as the baseline group. The researcher played the offended party in apologies and the complaine in complaints, while the participants played the apologizer in apologies and the complainer in complaints. Based on Trosborg (1995), the researcher identified four levels of complaining, 1) *no explicit reproach*; 2) *expression of annoyance or disapproval*; 3) *accusation*; and 4) *blaming*. Besides, the researcher observed that when a complaint was issued, a directive act might be implied or added, which could be divided into 1) *request for repair*, 2) *threat*, and 3) *request for forbearance*. She also studied external modification, dividing them into 1) *preparators*; 2) *disarmers*, a) *softener*; b) *pleaser*; and c) *apology*; and d) *own responsibility*; 3) *account*; 4) *providing evidence*; 5) *sweetener*; 6) *cost minimizing*; 7) *promise of a reward*; 8) *mutual consideration*; 9) *alternative suggestion*; 10) *preparatory questions*; 11) *substantiation* (pp. 42-4). She also studied the complaining perspectives, modality markers and sequential organization of complaining. The results showed that regarding social distance, the Japanese responded differently toward out-group interlocutors (i.e. strangers) than toward in-group interlocutors (i.e. family, friends), and they were generally more indirect with out-group members.

Shimada (2005) compared the sociolinguistic behaviors of complaining performed by native speakers of English, native speakers of Japanese and Japanese learners of English. 10 American speakers of English living in America (AEA's), 10 Japanese speakers of English living in America (JEA's), and 10 Japanese speakers of Japanese living in Japan (JJJ's) were asked to respond to 12-scenario DCTs, with reference to social distance, and relative status. Based on Shea's (2003) framework, she identified fourteen semantic formulae: 1) *opening*; 2) *justification*; 3) *problem*; 4) *request for repair*; 5) *request for explanation*; 6) *disapproval*; 7) *expression of empathy*; 8) *warning*;

9) *request for information*; 10) *offering repair*; 11) *apology*; 12) *acknowledgement*; 13) *reducing the gravity of the problem*; and 14) *closing*. The results from DCTs showed that the JJJ's complained more than JEA's and EAE's, and the JJJ's group had the least number of opting out instances than the JEA's group and the AEA's group. The results also indicated the descending levels of complaining directness from the JJJ's, JEA's to AEA's. The JJJ's manifested greater social distance and relative status effects than the other two groups. All groups tended to employ complaints more frequently with familiar addressees than with unfamiliar addressees. There was an overall tendency to use complaints the most frequently with higher-status persons, as compared with equals or lower status persons. In addition, the researcher randomly selected four students from each group of participants to be interviewed for their feelings toward complaining. The interviews revealed that the participants of all groups had both positive and negative feelings about complaining and tended to turn complaints into constructive criticism in many situations. Although the JEA's showed many similarities in complaining to AEA's in the DCTs, the interviews revealed that the JEA's perceptions toward complaining were quite similar to the JJJ's.

Rinnert (2006) compared the speech act of complaining produced by native speakers of English, native speakers of Japanese, and Japanese university *EFL* (JEFL) learners. A hundred native speakers of English, 100 native speakers of Japanese and 196 JEFL learners responded to a two-scenario DCT (a. Professor situation, and b. Roommate situation). The production data were analyzed in terms of 1) semantic formulae: Initiators, Complaints and Requests, or combinations of these semantic formulae, 2) three levels of directness: *a) indirect*; *b) somewhat direct*; and *c) very direct*, and 3) mitigation, or softening expressions. The results showed that existence of *initiator* differed across the

three groups. Besides, the results indicated significant differences in terms of directness levels and the use of softeners across the three groups. In addition, 20 native speakers of English, 11 fluent non-native speakers of English and 40 less fluent JEFL students were asked to evaluate appropriateness and effectiveness of the same three aspects in twelve systematically constructed complaints and four distractors on an online questionnaire. The judgments were based on a 5-point scale ranging from very appropriate/effective (5 points) to very inappropriate/ineffective (1 point), along with an opt-out choice of “I can’t determine.” The judgment scores showed that complaining with requests were judged more appropriate and effective than those without, and the combination of Initiator+ Complaint was considered the least appropriate and effective. The findings indicated the need to raise JEFL learners’ pragmatic awareness regarding the directness levels of complaining in particular contexts.

Sato (2010) investigated the speech act of complaining performed by native speakers of Japanese and native speakers of American English in both their L1s and L2s, viz. Japanese and English. Two groups of participants, namely, 1) 10 native speakers of Japanese speaking Japanese to a Japanese (JJJ), or speaking English to a native speaker of English (JEE) and 2) 12 native speakers of English speaking English to an American (EEE), or speaking Japanese to a native speaker of Japanese (EJJ), were asked to role play four situations. Based on Trosborg’s (1995) and Frescura’s (1993) models, she identified five levels of complaining directness ranging from least to most aggravated: 1) *Hint*; 2) *Mention of Complainable Act*; 3) *Mention of Complainable, Duration or Frequency (Severity)*; 4) *Negative Assessment of the Act*; and 5) *Negative Assessment of the Person*. It was found that the JJJ groups complained less directly than the EEE group, and the JEE and EJJ groups resembled their target language speakers, rather than speakers of their own L1.

Zhu and Zhang (2010) examined the pragmatic transfer in the speech act of complaining made by Chinese *EFL* learners from L1 to L2. Eighty-six learners of low English proficiency and 76 learners of intermediate English proficiency responded to a six-situation Picture-Frustration Test questionnaire in English first and then in Chinese. They correlated Olshtain and Weinbach's (1993) five levels of complaining severity with Rosenzweig's Frustration-aggression Hypothesis, i.e. 1) *Extraggession, including a) extrapeditive (E'), b) extrapunitive (E); and c) extrapersistive (e); 2) intraggressive (M); and 3) Inaggression (I)*. The severity of complaining was arranged on a continuum of $I < M < E' < E < e$. The data were further merged into two sets: extraggession (E) and non-extraggession (NE), including M and I. It was found that low level learners demonstrating more discrepancies in the direction of aggression in English and Chinese.

Gallaher (2011) investigated production and perception of the speech act of complaining made by native speakers of Russian in Russian and native speakers of American English in English and Russian. Thirty American speakers, 30 Russian speakers, and 37 American learners of Russian as a second language responded to a 12-scenario DCT and an assessment questionnaire. Based on Trosborg's (1995), and Owen's (2001) models, the researcher identified 14 semantic formulae 1) *opener*; 2) *explanation of purpose*; 3) *act statement*; 4) *justification of speaker*; 5) *threat*; 6) *blame*; 7) *remedy*; 8) *apology*; 9) *valuation*; 10) *social justification*; 11) *request for explanation*; 12) *gratitude*; 13) *conciliation*; and 14) *closing*. The results showed that the most frequent strategies employed by American speakers, Russian speakers and American learners of Russian in all situations were *justification of the speaker, remedy, opener and act statement*. In addition, American learners of Russian approximated semantic formulae selection of American speakers, which demonstrated L1 transfer at the sociopragmatic

and pragmalinguistics levels. However, L2 learners also used semantic formulae that were closer to the behavior of native speakers of Russian than to American speakers in their expressions of *Valuation*, *Societal Justification*, and *Apology*, which could have been triggered by their daily interaction with native speakers of Russian. The results also indicated that American learners of Russian at both proficiency levels had difficulties adjusting their semantic formulae selection and their degree of directness to the parameters of social distance and social power. However, the advanced learners negotiated a problem more effectively than the intermediate learners did. It was also found that gender of the complainee influenced males and females in three groups differently in their complaints. The American learners' use of diminutives and address forms revealed their uncertainty about how to mitigate or intensify their dissatisfaction as well as how to address the hearer and the wrongdoing.

Rhurakvit (2012) made a cross-cultural pragmatic study of the speech act of complaints between native Thai speakers and native English speakers. Four groups of informants: 1) native Thai speakers, 2) native English speakers, 3) Thai learners of English in Thailand, and 4) Thai learners of English in the UK, responded to the DCT questionnaire. The elicited complaining data were analyzed into three aspects: the complaint strategies, the complaint lengths and patterns, and the complaint internal modifications. The results showed that Thai learners of English in Thailand tended to resemble native Thai speakers, while Thai learners of English in the U.K. tended to resemble native English speakers. It can be inferred that studying in the target language context may help language learners in their language learning. However, Thai learners of English, be they in Thailand or in the U.K., could not use downgraders in complaining properly, which made their complaints inappropriate to native English speakers.

Therefore, language educators in Thailand should include real-language in use and other supplements regarding the sociopragmatic rules of the target language to enhance the learner's pragmatic competence.

Nakhle, Naghavi, and Razavi (2014) investigated the speech act of complaining produced by Canadian native speakers, Iranian native speakers of Persian, and Iranian *EFL* learners. Through a Nelson Proficiency Test, three groups of 20 participants were selected and then they were asked to respond orally to a 30-scenario DCT. The complaining data were analyzed in terms of the semantic formulae (initiator, complaints, and request), levels of directness, and amount of mitigation. Then, the Mann-Whitney U Test was used to analyze the effect of subject's sex on their use of semantic formulae in the speech act of complaining. Moreover, the Kruskal Wallis H Test was utilized to evaluate whether or not one of the three samples of independent observation had larger values than the other(s) did. The three groups of respondents were found to differ significantly from one another in expressing complaints in the different situations. Moreover, sex and social power were found to cause differential use of complaining utterances.

Zhang (2001) compared a Chinese and American cross-cultural study of the speech act of complaining. A total of 94 subjects (a group of 32 long-term Chinese residents in America, a group of 30 short-term Chinese residents in America, and a group of 32 native speakers of American English) responded to an eight-scenario DCT questionnaire. The data were analyzed into six semantic components (Opener, Orientation, Justification, Remedy, Act Statement and Closing), and the level of the directness. In addition, the social and situational variations, and cultural influences were also investigated via a self-reported questionnaire. Besides, a Chi-square test was used to find out significant

differences among three groups. The findings revealed significant differences between Chinese and Americans' complaints in terms of the use of semantic components and levels of directness, which might be accounted for by their respective cultures.

From the above literature review, we can find that the present study falls into cross-cultural, intercultural and interlanguage pragmatic study. The above studies enlighten the present study in terms of research methodology, which will be illustrated in the following section.

2.5.6 Methods of previous studies of complaining

In terms of data collection, there are three major methods in pragmatic studies: 1) written completion of partial acts, or Discourse Completion Tasks (DCT); 2) role-plays; and 3) ethnographic observation.

Ethnographic observation seems to be the only means of collecting reliable and valid samples of authentic spoken language (Wolfson, 1988). However, there are a few limitations to this method. Firstly, some face-threatening speech acts such as complaining are so private that sufficient samples are not readily available for observation (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981). Secondly, the presence of the researcher itself may change the speech act under investigation. Thirdly, the increasingly serious academic ethics prevent the researcher from using the private data without asking for the informant's consent.

Based on the above reasons, many researchers have adopted methods other than observation to gather the data. Among the above thirty-three studies of the speech act of complaining, 61.1% (22 out of 36) used DCTs to elicit the speech data, with 19.4% (7 out of 36) role play, 5.6% (2 out of 36) Picture-Frustration Test (P-F Tests), 5.6% (2 out of 36) ethnographic observation, 5.6% (2 out of 36) unspecified and 2.8% (1 out of 36) multiple choice of directness levels.

The main strength of DCT is its efficiency in terms of research time, research effort and financial resources, as they can be used with a wide variety of people in varied situations on diverse topics. The data from DCT allow researchers to make an initial classification of semantic formulae pertaining to the speech act being investigated. DCT also helps the researcher specify the canonical shape of speech acts in the minds of speakers of that language (Beebe & Cummings, 1996).

Although Beebe & Cummings (1996) argued that the test-like format and administration of DCT may hinder the subject in providing naturally occurring discourse (e.g. fewer conversational turns, repetitions, elaborations, and hedges), the present study were mainly concerned about discovering the archetypical features of the speech act of complaining. Therefore, DCTs were employed to elicit Thai and Chinese complaint samples from the participants.

These previous empirical studies also show that the complaining samples are usually analyzed in terms of 1) semantic formulae; 2) illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs).

The major semantic formulae proposed are 1) explanation of purpose (Murphy & Neu, 1996; Lee, 2005; Gallaher, 2011), 2) statement of problem (DeCapua, 1989; Shimada, 2005), 3) justification (Schaefer, 1982; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Laforest, 2002; Shimada, 2005; Gallaher, 2011) and 4) request or demand for remedy (Schaefer, 1982; DeCapua, 1989; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Laforest, 2002; Tanck, 2002; Lee, 2005; Shimada, 2005; Umar, 2006; Farnia et al., 2010; Gallaher, 2011; Nakhle et al., 2014). Since semantic formulae are culture-specific, the coding scheme used in this study is determined by the Thai and Chinese complaining samples.

The IFMDs used in previous studies were also known as modality markers (Kasper, 1981; House & Kasper, 1981; Trosborg, 1995; Tamanaha, 2003), directness markers (DeCapua, 1989) or upgraders and downgraders (Kraft & Geluykens, 2002; Yuan, 2009). The present study adopts IFMDs to refer to the same linguistic devices to modify the directness of the speech act of complaining.

With so many studies on the speech act of complaining and the increasing contacts between the Thai and Chinese peoples, none have been made to compare how Thais and Chinese perform this face-threatening, but essential speech act of complaining.

2.6 Summary

This chapter reviewed the conceptual and theoretical frameworks for the present study, i.e. pragmatics and its inter-disciplines, speech act theory, and politeness theory. Moreover, 33 previous studies on the speech act of complaining, which are classified into mono-cultural, cross-cultural, and intercultural pragmatic studies, are reviewed in terms of their research purposes, methods and findings. These studies have inspired the present cross-cultural, intercultural and interlanguage pragmatic study. The following chapter will focus on the research methodology of the present study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter Three describes the research design, including participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures, for this pragmatic study of the speech act of complaining.

3.1 Research design

The present pragmatic study explores the complaining speech act produced by four groups of participants: 1) the native Thai speakers in Thai (TTs), 2) the native Chinese speakers in Chinese (CCs), 3) Thai *ELF* speakers in English (TEs) and 4) Chinese *ELF* speakers in English (CEs) in 12 scenarios. Therefore, the effects of nationality, gender, and English proficiency of the participants will be examined, with reference to the contextual factors of social distance, relative power and ranking of imposition.

3.1.1 Participants

The present study aims at investigating whether speakers' nationality, gender, English proficiency, and the contextual factors of social distance, relative power and perception of severity of offence would influence the speech act of complaining. Kasper and Dahl (1991) warned that at least 30 subjects per undivided sample should be surveyed; otherwise, small samples sizes (i.e., 20 and below) can be considered case studies, not generalizable to a larger target population. Although both DeCapua (1989) and Sato (2010) employed the same groups of native speakers to provide both L1 and L2

complaining samples, they advocated using different groups of native and learner subjects to avoid test effects from the L2 version to the L1 version of DCTs. Therefore, the present study recruited different groups of native and learner informants to contribute to the complaining samples.

The 180 Thai participants were mainly graduate students, aged from 23 to 53, majoring in physics, biotechnology, English Language Studies (ELS), TESOL, business management, tourism, or information management at Suranaree University of Technology, Thammasat University, Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University, and Mae Fah Luang University in Thailand. The 180 Chinese participants were mainly graduate students, aged from 23 to 45, majoring in petroleum, linguistics, business management at Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing University of Posts and Telecommunications, and Nanjing University of Forestry in China. They were selected based on purpose and convenience. The Thai and Chinese participants had different age ranges. However, it was impossible for the researcher to control the participants' age in data collection, since some participants did not provide the information on their age.

To know their English-speaking proficiency, the researcher asked the participants to self-assess their English-speaking proficiency according to Self-Assessment of Spoken English Proficiency (SASEP) (see Appendix B). It was designed according to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines (2012).

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) is the national association for language education professionals from all levels of instruction and representing all languages. With more than 12,300 active members, ACTFL provides innovative professional development opportunities, acclaimed training and certification programs, and widely cited books, publications, scholarly journals, research studies and language education resources, including *Foreign Language Annals* and *The Language Educator* magazine. ... ACTFL is a leading national voice among language educators and administrators and is guided by a responsibility to set standards and expectations that will result in high quality language programs.

The quotation reveals that the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines were created to assess the proficiency of foreign language speakers. These proficiency levels are defined separately for listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities. For each ability, these guidelines specify five major levels of proficiency: novice, intermediate, advanced, superior and distinguished. The present study recruited Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers mainly based on their speaking ability because it is more important in daily face-to-face communication and that students in those language programs that emphasize written language over spoken may reach the advanced level in reading and writing while remaining at a lower level in listening and speaking (Tamanaha, 2003; Gallaher, 2011).

Self-Assessment of Spoken English Proficiency (SASEP) used in the present study includes five levels of the English-speaking proficiency. Participants who rank themselves into Level 1 or Level 2 fall into the “lower intermediate” group and those who rate themselves into Level 3, Level 4 or Level 5 belong to the “upper intermediate” group.

As a result, the present study recruited four groups of participants 1) 60 native speakers of Thai speaking Thai (TTs); 2) 60 native speakers of Chinese speaking Chinese (CCs); 3) 120, with 60 lower intermediate and 60 upper intermediate, Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English (TEs); and 4) 120, with 60 lower intermediate and 60 upper intermediate, Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English (CEs) (See Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Distribution of the participants

Participants	TT	CC	TE		CE	
			Lower intermediate	Upper intermediate	Lower intermediate	Upper intermediate
Male	30	30	30	30	30	30
Female	30	30	30	30	30	30
Total	60	60	60	60	60	60

3.1.2 Instruments

As Chapter Two mentioned, 58% (19 out of 33) of the previous studies of the speech act of complaining used DCTs to elicit the complaining samples. Considering the advantages of the DCT, the present study employed a twelve-scenario DCT questionnaire to elicit complaining samples and a semi-structured interview to elicit their perception of the severity of the offence from the native Thai speakers speaking Thai (TTs), the native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs), Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English (TEs) and Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English (CEs).

3.1.2.1 Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs)

To elicit complaining samples, the researcher needed to decide on the complainable situations used in the DCTs. After reviewing previous studies, the researcher collected 94 scenarios, which can be classified into 6 types of offence: 1) bad service; 2) failed promise; 3) noise making; 4) time-wasting; 5) possessions; and 6) social gaffe.

After consulting native Thai speakers and native Chinese speakers about authenticity and complainability of the situations, the researcher selected 12 scenarios, which represented six types of offence and different social distance and relative power (see Table 3.2). The three values of social distance between the interlocutors in the present study depended on the frequency of contacts. On the other hand, the two values of relative power between the interlocutors in the twelve situations were determined by age, and expertise etc.

Table 3.2 Types of offence, social distance and relative power of 12 situations

Type of offence	Situation	Social distance	Relative power
1. Bad service	1. Negligent worker	Acquaintance	Speaker Higher
	2. Faded suit	Stranger	Speaker Higher
2. Failed promise	3. Undelivered paper	Intimate	Equal
	4. Forgetful classmate	Acquaintance	Equal
3. Noise making	5. Noisy roommate	Intimate	Equal
	6. Noisy neighbour	Acquaintance	Speaker Higher
4. Time-wasting	7. Late arriving classmate	Acquaintance	Equal
	8. Late arriving friend	Intimate	Equal
5. Possessions	9. Lost lecture notes	Acquaintance	Equal
	10. Broken mobile phone	Stranger	Speaker Higher
6. Social gaffe	11. Cutting in line	Stranger	Equal
	12. Annoying phone rings	Stranger	Equal

After the description of each scenario, blank space is provided for the participants to write down how they will complain in the scenarios and a multiple choice for them to rank their perception of the offence on a five-likert scale, from the least serious to the extremely serious. An example of the situations is given below:

Situation 1

Yesterday you placed an order at the photocopy shop on your campus for 10 bound copies of your thesis. In the past, you sometimes went to this shop too. Today you must deliver all 10 copies to your evaluation committee by 12:00 noon. When you go to the photocopy shop at 11:00 a.m. to pick up your booklets, the shopkeeper seems confused and unaware of your request. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all somewhat serious serious
 very serious extremely serious

After finalizing the scenarios used in DCT, the researcher integrates the scenarios with introduction, instructions and demographic information. The introduction informs the subjects of the purpose of the study. The Thai/Chinese instructions guide the participants to produce their introspective complaining in L1 to a hearer of the same nationality and gender. The English instructions guide the participants to produce their

introspective complaining in English to a foreign hearer of the same gender. The finished English version of DCT is translated into Thai and Chinese versions for accuracy and fluency. Modifications were made accordingly.

The Thai and English versions of the DCT were piloted with a group of five native speakers of Thai at Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand, and the Chinese and English versions of the DCT were piloted with a group of five native speakers of Chinese at Nanjing University of Posts and Communications, China. The pilot study aimed at checking whether the DCT items indeed elicited complaining samples. Scenarios that did not delimit the context sufficiently were modified, and the resulting version was administered to another two groups of five native speakers of Thai and Chinese. When the informants confirmed that the scenarios could elicit the complaining speech act, the Thai, Chinese and English versions of DCTs became the master version for the present study (see Appendix A).

3.1.2.2 An interview guide for the semi-structured interview

The researcher also conducted a semi-structured interview to explore the factors that influence the production of the speech act of complaining. Richards (2003) suggests designing an interview guide before interviewing the participants.

Therefore, the researcher designed an interview guide, which covered the main purpose of the complaining utterances, the factors that led to their complaining, and the cultural differences in interacting with in-group/out-group interlocutors (see Appendix C). Five participants were selected randomly from each group to be interviewed.

3.2 Data collection

The materials for TTs and CCs included two items: 1) a consent form in Thai for TTs or in Chinese for CCs (Appendix D); and 2) a twelve-scenario DCT questionnaire in Thai for TTs or in Chinese for CCs (Appendix A). For TEs and CEs, they needed to complete three items: 1) a consent form in English; 2) Self-Assessment of English Spoken Proficiency (SAESP) (Appendix B); and 3) a twelve-scenario DCT in English. An interview guide (Appendix C) was also prepared for the interview with five participants from TTs, CCs, TEs, and CEs chose at random.

The data were collected as follows:

First, 60 TTs, 60 CCs, 120 TEs, and 120 CEs were requested to sign the consent form to give the researcher the right to use the data. One hundred and twenty TEs and 120 CEs were also asked to self-assess their spoken English proficiency according to the SASEP.

Then, they were required to rank the severity of the offence and write down what they would say below the scenarios in the language instructed. In addition to ranking and responding to the offence, the participants were also requested to provide such personal information as gender, and nationality. It took from twenty-five minutes to one hour to complete the DCT questionnaire.

Finally, five participants from each group were interviewed for their perception of the offensive event. The interview lasted from thirty minutes to one hour, depending on how much the participants were willing to talk.

After examination, the researcher eliminated 24 invalid questionnaires. For example, in Situation 7 Late arriving friend, the participant said, "Sorry, I am late." In addition, 10 questionnaires were from Vietnamese or Lao students in Thailand. The

researcher did not know their nationality until they had finished their questionnaire. Besides, among 120 TEs, more than half ranked their English speaking proficiency lower intermediate. Therefore, the research recruited more target informants to contribute to the complaining samples to substitute for the invalid questionnaires.

3.3 Data analysis

From the cross-cultural pragmatic perspective, the present study attempted to examine the complaining samples produced by TTs and CCs. Besides, from the intercultural pragmatic study, the present study aimed at investigating the complaining samples produced by TEs and CEs. Moreover, from the interlanguage perspective, the present study endeavored to inspect the complaining samples produced by TTs and TEs, and the complaining samples produced by CCs and CEs.

3.3.1 Data

The complaining samples for the study consist of 1) 720 Thai complaining samples from 60 TTs; 2) 720 Chinese complaining samples from 60 CCs; 3) 1440 English complaining samples from 120 TEs; and 4) 1440 English complaining samples from 120 CEs. In other words, 360 participants produced 4320 complaining samples in the 12-scenario DCT questionnaire. The comparisons of the four sets of complaining data were made both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Besides, the 360 participants also ranked the severity of the offence in the 12 scenarios in numeric form from 1 to 5, with one representing “not serious at all”, and five “extremely serious”.

From the self-structured interview, the researcher also got some idea of the purpose of complaining, and factors that would influence the complaining.

As she does not understand the Thai language, the researcher asked a Thai teacher of English to translate the Thai data literally for her. Then, a second Thai teacher of English was asked to check the translated Thai data for accuracy. As a Chinese, the researcher can understand Chinese, so she did not have the Chinese data translated.

3.3.2 Coding scheme

As Chapter Two (see 2.5.6) mentioned, the complaining samples elicited by the DCT were analyzed in terms of 1) semantic formulae, and 2) illocutionary force indication devices (IFMDs).

As Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984, p. 199) mentioned, “the process of developing a coding scheme with its major categories and sub-classification is a major challenge for research of this kind.” To decide on the coding scheme, the researcher first reviewed all the coding schemes used in previous studies. Then, after reading all the complaining samples, including the translated complaining samples from TTs, she developed a tentative coding scheme for 1) semantic formulae, and 2) IFMDs.

With the tentative coding scheme, she co-worked with one native speaker of Thai to analyze 10 Thai complaining samples, one native speaker of Chinese to analyze 10 Chinese complaining samples, and one native speaker of English to analyze 20 English complaining samples (10 from TEs and 10 from CEs). Then the results from the same complaining data were compared. When disagreement arose, they discussed until reaching an agreement. According to their discussion, the researcher modified the tentative coding scheme.

The following part will introduce the coding scheme used in the present study in terms of 1) semantic formulae, and 2) IFMDs.

Firstly, based on Murphy and Neu's (1996), Tanck's (2002) and Gallaher's (2011) models, the researcher developed the coding scheme for the semantic formulae used for the present study of the speech act of complaining (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Coding scheme for semantic formulae of complaining

Semantic formulae	Definition	Example
Problem	<p>an utterance in which Speaker explicitly mentions SUA, which may include</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) an utterance in which Speaker informs Hearer of the bad consequence(s) of SUA or Speaker explicitly mentions SUA without mentioning Hearer; 2) an utterance in which Speaker explicitly asserts that Hearer has performed SUA; 3) an utterance in which Speaker confronts Hearer to explain SUA 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) "I can't sleep." or "The mobile phone broke down." 2) "Your noisy TV makes me unable to sleep." or 3) "Why my suit has faded?" "How did you forget to submit my term paper?" or "How will you solve the problem?"
Criticism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) an utterance in which Speaker explicitly asserts that Hearer should have taken an alternative action to SUA; 2) an utterance in which Speaker explicitly asserts that Hearer is at fault; or 3) an utterance in which Speaker confronts Hearer to have better personal traits 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) "You should have finished the photocopy before I came here"; 2) "You are not reliable." or 3) "Can you be more considerate?"
Warning	<p>an utterance in which Speaker</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) explicitly moralize Hearer, without mentioning the potential sanction; 2) explicitly informs Hearer of the potential sanction(s) imposed on Hearer by Speaker, if Hearer does not follow the proposed course of action 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) "Be careful and cautious." 2) "If you don't finish them in time, I won't come to your shop again."
Threat	<p>an utterance in which Speaker</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) openly attacks, or even insults Hearer, without regard for his face wants; or 2) breaks up with Hearer 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) "You are an idiot." 2) "I won't come here again."
Opt-out	<p>an utterance in which Speaker chooses not to mention the offensive event or to minimize the cost of the offensive event</p>	<p>keep silent, or "Never mind", "It doesn't matter"</p>
Address term	<p>an utterance by which Speaker greets or addresses Hearer</p>	<p>"Hey, dear..."</p>
Apology	<p>an utterance by which Speaker apologizes for the imposition on Hearer</p>	<p>"Excuse me." or "Sorry."</p>

Semantic formulae	Definition	Example
Context	an utterance in which Speaker 1) states the purpose for initiating the conversation; 2) establishes the context for the conversation; or 3) asks Hearer about whether the offensive event has happened	1) "I'd like to talk about your XXX." 2) "I bought this mobile phone in your shop." 3) "May I pick up the theses I ordered yesterday?" or "Have you done my copies?"
Valuation	an utterance in which Speaker expresses his/her negative feelings towards the offensive event, without explicitly mentioning it or Hearer	"I am upset."
Justification	an utterance in which Speaker justifies his utterance by referring to Speaker, Hearer, or the social norms 1) an utterance in which Speaker tells Hearer something related to himself/ herself which makes SUA complainable; 2) an utterance in which Speaker shows concern about Hearer or justifies SUA for Hearer; 3) an utterance in which Speaker justifies his/ her utterance by appealing to socially accepted values and norms of behaviour	1) "This is my favourite suit." 2) "I know you are busy recently." 3) "A person should keep his promise to his friend."
Remedy	an utterance in which Speaker seeks remedy from Hearer for SUA. It may be realized by 1) request for remedy; 2) demand for remedy	1) "Can you help me finish it in an hour?" or 2) "Just copy it as soon as possible."
Gratitude	an utterance by which Speaker expresses his appreciation for Hearer for the potential remedy for SUA	"Thanks for your cooperation."

Note: SUA=socially unacceptable act

The twelve semantic formulae are divided into five subcategories: "Problem" makes explicit complaining; "Criticism", "Warning", "Threat" aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining; "Opt-out" makes no complaint; "Context", "Justification", "Remedy" and "Valuation" constitute implicit complaining; and "Address term", "Apology" and "Gratitude" mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining; and.

Apart from semantic formulae, the illocutionary force indicating device (*IFMD*) is also an important part of the realization patterns of the speech act of complaining. *IFMDs*, also known as internal modifications, or downgraders and upgraders, refer to the lexical

and syntactic features used to mitigate or intensify the pragmatic force of the speech act of complaining. The coding scheme for IFMDs used in this study was adapted from DeCapua (1989) (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Coding scheme for IFMDs of complaining

IFMDs		Definition	Example
Downgraders	Politeness markers	words that usually convey deference to Hearer and attempt to enlist Hearer's cooperation	"please", "help"
	Play-downs	syntactic devices that minimize the cost of SUA	"It doesn't matter..." or "It's OK that ..."
	Consultative devices	routine formulae by which Speaker tries to involve Hearer and enlist his/her cooperation	"... Ok?" "..., all right?" or, "alright?"
	Hedges	adverbials (excluding sentence adverbials) that add an element of imprecision to Speaker's utterance and hence make the utterance seem less face-threatening to Hearer	"kind of", "sort of", and "a little bit"
	Downtoners	sentence modifiers that Speaker uses in order to soften the pragmatic force of the utterance on Hearer	"just", "somewhat", and "possibly"
	Minus committers	sentence modifiers that serve to somewhat reduce the degree of Speaker's or Hearer's involvement in the utterance	"I don't know", "I suppose", "in my opinion", "I'm afraid", or "you don't know ..."
	Agent avoiders	syntactic devices by which Speaker avoids assigning anyone active participation status, thereby avoiding a direct accusation of the interlocutor. These devices include the use of the imperative construction without the subject	"Line up please."
Upgraders	Scope setters	elements by which Speaker may express his/her subjective opinion towards SUA	"Oh, no.", or "Oh, my god."
	Overstaters	adverbial modifiers of exaggeration that serve to strengthen the pragmatic force of the utterance	"really", "horribly", "always"
	Intensifiers	adverbial modifiers that intensify certain parts of the utterance	"very", "so", "really", and "rather"
	Plus committers	sentence modifiers that increase the degree of Speaker's or Hearer's involvement in the utterance	"I'm sure", "I know that", "I understand", "you know", and "Are you sure that ..."
	Lexical intensifiers	semantic words that are strongly marked for negative attitudes	"stupid", "damn", "idiot", "fuck", "ass"

IFMDs		Definition	Example
	Aggressive interrogatives	1) a question through which Speaker does not explicitly mention SUA, but through which Speaker directly involves Hearer, thus serving to intensify the force of the utterance. They may be about the context, hinting at SUA; or 2) a rhetorical command that sets the stage for the utterance	1) “What happened?” or “Why?” “Are you joking?”, “Are you kidding?”, “Are you serious?” 2) “Look at this suit!”

Note: SUA=socially unacceptable act

Moreover, the present study used three letters for TT and CC male and female groups, and four letters for TE and CE lower intermediate and upper intermediate male and female groups, and two digits before and after the decimal point to stand for the sequence of the participant and the situation respectively. For example, TTF3.2 means the third female participant in TT group responding to the second situation.

Here is an example in English to illustrate the analysis of the data (from Situation 1 Negligent worker in which Speaker’s theses have not been photocopied by the photocopy shop):

TEUF29.1 Oh, my god! {Scope setter} What is the hell {lexical intensifier}? {Aggressive interrogative} Why are you not responsible for it? [PROBLEM] You should do it now. [REMEDY] I am in a hurry. I have deadline to complete. [JUSTIFICATION]

Note: The linguistic mistakes are not corrected deliberately, so that the reader can have an idea what the speaker really speaks in the situation.

Here, “TE” means “Thai ELF speakers speaking English”; “U” means “upper intermediate level in terms of speaking ability; “F” means “female”, and “29.1” means “the twenty-ninth participant in Situation 1 Negligent worker”. Therefore, “TEUF29.1” means that this complaining sample came from the twenty-ninth Thai female *ELF* speaker speaking English, who was of upper intermediate in terms of speaking ability, when she responded to Situation 1 Negligent worker. Besides, [] is used to mark semantic formulae, while {} to mark IFMDs.

In this example, the speaker used three semantic formulae:

Problem: Why are you not responsible for it?

Remedy: You should do it now.

Justification: I am in a hurry. I have deadline to complete.

Although the speaker used Justification twice, the research tallied the frequency only once in case some outliers may bias the distribution of the semantic formulae.

In addition, the speaker used two downgraders and three upgraders, e.g.

Scope setter: Oh, my god!

Lexical intensifier: What is the hell?

Aggressive interrogative: What is the hell?

The above example shows the coding scheme for both semantic formulae and IFMDs used in the present study.

3.3.3 Data analysis procedures

The complaining samples in this study were elicited from the twelve scenarios in the DCT, while the perception of the twelve scenarios came from the multiple-choice after each scenario and a semi-structured interview. The present study employed both qualitative analysis and quantitative analysis.

3.3.3.1 Qualitative analysis of the complaining samples

First, according to the coding scheme, the researcher co-worked with a native Thai speaker on the Thai samples, a native Chinese speaker on the Chinese complaining samples, and a native speaker of American English on the English complaining samples individually. The initial inter-rater reliabilities of the Thai, Chinese, and English complaining samples were 0.92, 0.95, and 0.90.

Then, the discrepancies between the three raters and the researcher were discussed until they reached an agreement.

3.3.3.2 Quantitative analysis of the complaining data

After that, semantic formulae and IFMDs in twelve scenarios used by four

groups of participants were input as frequencies into SPSS 20.0 for statistical analysis, with 1 representing the presence of the semantic formulae or IFMDs, and 0 the absence of the semantic formulae or IFMDs.

As mentioned above, although the participant might use the same semantic formula or IFMD more than once in one utterance, the researcher input “1” to represent the existence of the semantic formula or IFMD, so that any outlier who preferred one semantic formula/ IFMD would not bias the results.

Then, two different statistics were used for semantic formulae and IFMDs: a) Mann-Whitney U Test (which is the non-parametric counterpart for independent samples t-test) to analyze the effect of the nationality and linguistic media on the semantic formulae and IFMDs; and b) Kruskal Wallis H Test (which is the non-parametric alternative to one-way between-groups ANOVA) to evaluate the interaction effect of nationality, gender/ English proficiency). Nakhle, Naghavi, and Razavi (2014) also used the same statistics in their study.

3.4 Summary

This chapter outlined the research design for this pragmatic study of the speech act of complaining. The participants were composed of four groups: native Thai speakers speaking Thai (TTs), native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs), Thai ELF speakers speaking English (TEs), and Chinese ELF speakers speaking English (CEs). These four groups of participants responded to a twelve-scenario DCT in their L1 or English. In addition, five participants who were randomly selected from each group were interviewed on their perception of the contextual factors of the 12 scenarios. The complaining samples were analyzed in terms of semantic formulae, and IFMDs.

CHAPTER 4

**RESULTS & DISCUSSION I: CROSS-CULTURAL
PRAGMATIC STUDY OF THE SPEECH ACT OF
COMPLAINING PERFORMED BY THAI AND
NATIVE CHINESE SPEAKERS IN L1**

Chapter Four attempts to answer the first research question:

1) What are the similarities and differences between the complaining realization patterns produced by native Thai and Chinese speakers in their L1? And how?

As the complaining realization patterns were composed of semantic formulae and illocutionary force indicating devices (IFMDs), the researcher first reported the overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs used by native Thai speakers speaking Thai (TTs) and native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs), and then the semantic formulae and IFMDs used by TTs and CCs in twelve situations respectively. At the same time, the Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to find out significant differences between TTs and CCs in these two aspects. After that, the researcher presented the perception data of the offences obtained from the participants. Finally, the researcher attempted to discuss the similarities and differences from the perspective of the speaker's gender, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

4.1 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

The twelve semantic formulae are divided into five subcategories: 1) “Problem” makes explicit complaining; 2) “Criticism”, “Warning”, and “Threat” aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining; 3) “Opt-out” makes no complaint; 4) “Context”, “Justification”, “Remedy” and “Valuation” supplement complaining; and 5) “Address term”, “Apology” and “Gratitude” mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining. On the other hand, IFMDs, which are subdivided into seven downgraders and six upgraders, are analyzed based on the coding scheme adapted from DeCapua (1989, pp. 182-184) (see Table 3.4 for details).

The researcher tallied the total frequencies of the twelve semantic formulae and two types of IFMDs produced by TTs and CCs in twelve situations. In addition, significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae and IFMDs were marked with asterisks (see Table 4.1)

Table 4.1 Overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining produced by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

	TT		CC		Sig.	TT	CC	Sig.
	M	F	M	F		Total	Total	
Problem	142	178	143	215*	.002*	320	358	N.S.
Criticism	27	38	57	48	N.S.	65	105*	.044*
Warning	24	48*	30	29	.050*	72	59	N.S.
Threat	10	11	17	7	N.S.	21	24	N.S.
Opt-out	33	29	12	6*	.001*	62*	18	.000*
Address term	28	42	30	32	N.S.	70	62	N.S.
Apology	24	29	1*	12	.014*	53*	13	.015*
Context	70	91	39*	74	.000*	161*	113	.002*
Valuation	14	15	30	10	N.S.	29	40	N.S.
Justification	63	83	65	110*	.002*	146	175	N.S.
Remedy	172	156	146	176	N.S.	328	322	N.S.
Gratitude	14	6	2	5	N.S.	20	7	N.S.
Total	621	726	572	724	.001*	1347	1296	N.S.
Downgrader	246	240	217	245	N.S.	486	462	N.S.
Upgrader	81	81	87	124	N.S.	162	211	N.S.

Notes: N=720 for TTs and CCs;

*=significant difference between TTs and CCs, with $p < .05$;

N.S. =no significant difference between TTs and CCs

The results show that TTs and CCs were similar in eight semantic formulae and IFMDs, but they differed significantly from each other in four semantic formulae: Criticism, Opt-out, Apology and Context. To be precise, TTs chose not to mention the offence, apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CCs did, while CCs criticized the hearer significantly more than TTs did. The results implied that similarities in complaining between Thailand and China outweighed the differences in complaining. This means that TTs found complaining more face threatening than CCs did, in that they chose not to complain at all more frequently than CCs did. When they had to, they apologized for the potential imposition and referred to the context for the utterance more than CCs did.

In addition, the significant differences were found between TT and CC males and females in six semantic formulae: problem statement, warning, opt-out, apology, context and justification. In other words, females stated the offence more frequently than males did, and CC females stated the offence significantly more than TT females did. Besides, TT females warned the hearer significantly more than TT males did, but CC males and females did not differ significantly from each other in warning. In addition, TT males and females chose not to mention the offence and apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CC counterparts did. However, CC males mentioned the context significantly less than CC females, and TT males and females did. Moreover, CC females justified their utterance significantly more than CC males, TT females and TT males did.

After analyzing the similarities and differences between TTs and CCs in the overall semantic formulae and illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs), the researcher will explore the similarities and differences between TTs and CCs in terms of the semantic formulae, and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, which differ in terms of the speaker's gender and the contextual factors. The contextual factors in this study refer to social distance, and relative power between the interlocutors in the 12 situations.

4.2 Semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

The following sub-section will illustrate the specific semantic formulae and IFMDs employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations. The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed to compare the frequencies of semantic formulae of complaining. Examples of the semantic formulae used by TTs and CCs are provided for better understanding. In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test was conducted to find out the significant effects of

the speaker's gender on the semantic formulae of complaining.

4.2.1 Comparison of semantic formulae of complaining employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

Table 4.2 displays a comparison of semantic formulae of complaining between TTs and CCs in 12 situations and Table 4.3 presents significant differences among TT and CC males and females in semantic formulae in 12 situations.

Table 4.2 Semantic formulae of complaining used by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

Semantic formulae	S1		S2		S3		S4		S5		S6	
	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC
Problem	15	34*	43	38	42	36	34	34	29	31	22	22
Criticism	6	10	2	10*	8	11	13	22	2	6	3	1
Warning	4	2	3	4	1	1	6	1	10	4	2	2
Threat	4	4	1	3	3	4	2	3	1	0	0	0
Opt-out	0	0	3	4	3	4	13*	2	1	0	2	0
Context	39*	19	18*	5	35*	15	15	16	2	5	1	3
Valuation	2	6	0	3	5	10	0	5*	0	1	0	0
Justification	22	20	3	14*	5	5	9	9	24	25	34	46*
Remedy	33	23	12	15	12	6	2	3	35	45	52	54
Address term	4	5	4	9	3	2	2	3	10	7	6	12
Apology	1	1	4*	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	12	9
Gratitude	3	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	6	4
Total	133	125	93	105	118*	94	100	99	119	125	140	153
Semantic formulae	S7		S8		S9		S10		S11		S12	
	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC
Problem	23	30	30	35	13	21	41	47	4	14*	23	16
Criticism	7	11	6	6	7	14	2	2	3	11*	6	1
Warning	6	6	5	10	13	11	2	3	13	10	7	5
Threat	2	0	2	1	2	0	4	4	0	4*	0	1
Opt-out	10*	2	11	5	7	2	0	0	4*	0	8*	2
Context	2	3	5	3	7	3	11	9	24	21	2	11*
Valuation	3	2	14*	5	3	4	2	2	0	0	0	2
Justification	15	16	6*	2	13	17	10*	2	4	14*	1	5
Remedy	25	31	12	21	27*	9	37	31	39	35	42	49
Address term	7	4	2	1	3	0	3	6	17	10	9	7
Apology	1	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	12*	3	12*	0
Gratitude	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	0
Total	103	105	96	89	96	81	114	106	121	122	113	99

Notes: N=60;

*=significant difference between TTs and CCCs, with $p < .05$;

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;
 S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;
 S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;
 S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;
 S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;
 S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;
 S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;
 S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;
 S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 4.3 Significant differences among TT and CC males and females in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	TT		CC		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Problem	5	10	12	22	.000*
	Opt-out	0	0	0	0	N.S.
	Context	17	22	7	12	.001*
Faded suit	Problem	19	24	17	21	N.S.
	Opt-out	3	0	0	1	N.S.
	Context	7	11	3	2	.013*
	Justification	1	2	6	8	.031*
	Criticism	0	2	7	3	.023*
Undelivered paper	Problem	21	21	16	20	N.S.
	Opt-out	1	2	2	2	N.S.
	Context	16	18	7	8	.005*
	Total	59	59	47	47	.047*
Forgetful classmate	Problem	8	4	8	11	N.S.
	Opt-out	4	9	2	0	.004*
	Valuation	0	0	5	0	.001*
Noisy roommate	Problem	8	21	13	18	.005*
	Opt-out	1	0	0	0	N.S.
	Remedy	22	13	20	25	.009*
	Warning	2	8	3	1	.026*
	Total	53	66	54	71	.044*
Noisy neighbour	Problem	6	16	11	11	N.S.
	Opt-out	1	1	0	0	N.S.
	Justification	14	20	19	27	.005*
	Total	59	81	66	87	.044*
Late arriving classmate	Problem	11	12	13	17	N.S.
	Opt-out	4	6	2	0	N.S.
	Justification	8	7	3	13	.003*
	Total	51	52	45	60	.027*

Late arriving friend	Problem	15	15	15	20	N.S.
	Opt-out	6	5	4	1	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	Problem	7	6	7	14	N.S.
	Opt-out	5	2	2	0	N.S.
	Remedy	15	12	2	7	.001*
	Address term	3	0	0	0	.027*
	Total	44	52	33	48	.023*
Broken mobile phone	Problem	19	22	18	29	.006*
	Opt-out	0	0	0	0	N.S.
Cutting in line	Problem	3	1	7	7	N.S.
	Opt-out	3	1	0	0	N.S.
	Context	9	15	6	15	.036*
	Threat	0	0	4	0	.006*
	Total	55	66	53	69	.043*
Annoying phone rings	Problem	7	16	2	14	.000*
	Opt-out	5	3	0	2	N.S.
	Apology	5	7	0	0	.003*
	Context	1	1	3	8	.011*
	Total	44	69	37	62	.000*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among TT and CC males and females, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among TT and CC males and females

4.2.1.1 Negligent worker

In complaining to a worker in a photocopy shop, both TTs and CCs employed “Context”, “Remedy”, “Justification”, and “Problem” very frequently. In this situation, TTs employed “Context” the most frequently. However, CCs ($f=19$) established the context for the conversation less frequently than TTs did ($f=39$). TTs and CCs usually established the context by either referring to the former engagement or their relationship, or asking the hearer about the theses. For example, “TTM2.1 อ้าว! คุณครับ ผมสั่งไว้แล้วนี่ แบบนี้งานผมก็เสียนะสิ pǒm sàng wái láew nêe (I have placed an order.)”, “CCM5.1 我告诉你十一点来取。怎么还不打呢？现在快点打印吧。wǒ gào su nǐ shí yī diǎn lái qǔ (I told you that (I’ll) come to get them at 11.00.)”, “CCM10.1 都是老顾客了，一点都不上心。

dōu shì lǎo gù kè le (I am a regular customer.)”, “TTM5.1 ใครเป็นคนรับงานผมครับ เขาอยู่ที่ไหน krai bpen kon rǎp ngaan pǒm kráp / kǎo yào têe nǎi (Who received my order? Where is he/she?)”, “TTM6.1 งานฉันอยู่ที่ไหน? ngaan chǎn yào nǎi (Where is my work?)”.

On the other hand, the most frequently used semantic formula by CCs was “Problem”. However, TTs did not explicitly mention the problem (f=15) as frequently as CCs did (f=34). In the situation, the problem can be a statement, or a question, asking the hearer to explain the unbound theses or remedy the situation. For example, “TTM8.1 สั่งไว้แล้ว ไม่ตรวจดูดีๆ ก่อน mâi dtruat doo dee dee gòn (You don’t check it carefully.)”, “CCM6.1 您怎么能把这么重要的事情给忘了呢? nín zěn me néng bǎ zhè me zhòng yào de shì qing gěi wàng le ne (How can you forget such an important thing?)”, “CCM23.1 这怎么还没装订? 我跟你讲好的十二点的。 zhè zěn me huán méi zhuāng dìng (How come it hasn’t been bound?)”.

In addition, both TTs and CCs asked the hearer for the remedy for the problem in this situation. “Remedy” was the second most frequently used by both TTs (f=33) and CCs (f=23). In this situation, the speaker usually asked the hearer to finish theses in time, in a request or demand form. For example, “TTM25.1 ภายในหนึ่งชั่วโมงเสร็จไหม ถ้าไม่ผมจะไปทำร้านอื่น ถ้าเสร็จจะนั่งรอ paai nai nèung chūa mohng sèt mǎi (Can you finish in an hour?)”, “TTM27.1 ช่วย ดำเนินการให้ผมด่วนได้ไหม chūay · dam-nern gaan hǎi pǒm dùan dāai mǎi (Can [you] please speed it up for me?)”, “TTM12.1 เนื่องจากผมมีความจำเป็นต้องส่งเล่มภายในเที่ยงนี้ รบกวนที่พี่ให้ผมด่วนด้วยนะครับ ขอบคุณครับ róp guan · pē · tam hǎi pǒm dùan dúay ná kráp (Please brother/sister speed it up for me.)”, or “CCF11. 1 怎么能把这么重要事情忘记呢。快点给我装订吧。 kuài diǎn gěi wǒ zhuāng dìng bā (Hurry up to bind them for me.)”.

The third most frequently used semantic formulae by both TTs ($f=22$) and CCs ($f=20$) was “Justification”. In this situation, TTs and CCs usually justified their utterance by referring to the urgency or importance of the event, e.g. “TTM4.1 แล้วจะทำให้ทันไหม ต้องส่งก่อนเที่ยง ทำให้เดี๋ยวนี้ได้ไหม dtông sòng gòn tiāng (Have to submit them before noon).”, “CCM21.1 赶紧给我装订论文, 马上就要交了。 mǎ shàng jiù yào jiāo le (Have to submit them soon.)”, or “CCF4.1 这件事对我来说很重要, 希望能够在剩下的不到一个小时之后尽量帮我弄好, 拜托了 zhè jiàn shì duì wǒ lái shuō hěn zhòng yào (This matter is important for me.)”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results showed significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae “Context” and “Problem” (see Table 4.2). This result indicates that TTs tended to establish the context for the conversation, while CCs preferred to explicitly mention the socially unacceptable act (SUA).

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test also indicated significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formulae “Context”, and “Problem” (see Table 4.3). The results suggest that in this situation, CC males mentioned the context for the unbound theses significantly less than TT males, TT females and CC females did, while TT males mentioned the problem significantly less than TT females, CC males and CC females did.

4.2.1.2 Faded suit

In complaining to the owner of a laundry, TTs employed “Problem” and “Context” the most frequently, while CCs employed “Problem” and “Remedy” very frequently. “Problem” was most frequently used by both TTs ($f=43$) and CCs ($f=38$). They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of dry-cleaning, without referring to the

hearer, e.g. “CCM30.2 这件衣服的颜色洗掉了，这是我最喜欢的！你们说怎么办吧 ? 要不给一个合理的答复，这件事没完。 zhè jiàn yī fu de yán sè xǐ diào le (The color of the clothes has been washed away.)”. They also explicitly asserted that the hearer had made the suit fade, e.g. “CCF2.2 最喜欢这个颜色，可是你给洗掉了 kě shì nǐ gěi xǐ diào le (But you have washed (the color) away.)”. Moreover, they asked the hearer to explain the faded suit, e.g. “TTM13.2 ทำไมสูทผมสีถึงซีด มันเกิดอะไรขึ้นกับเสื้อผม คุณซักยังไง tam-mai sòot pǒm sě tǎung sêet (Why did the color of my suit fade?)”, “TTF4.2 ทำไมชุดสูทของอันเป็นแบบนี้ล่ะ แล้วใครจะรับผิดชอบ ทำไมชุดซีดจัง tam-mai chú t sòot kǒng chǎn bpen bàep nées là · láew krai jà ráp pít chóp · tam-mai chú t sêet jang (Why is my suit like this? Who will be responsible? Why did the suit fade?)” or “TTM16.2 ทำไมชุดถึงซีดลงกว่าเก่า มีวิธีแก้ไหม mee wí-tee gâe mǎi (Is there any solution?)”.

The second most frequently used semantic formula was “Context” by TTs (f=18). The context can be established by stating that the color was different, or asking the hearer whether the washing process was all right. For example, “TTM30.2 เกิดอะไรขึ้นกับสูทของผม ตอนผมเอามันมาซักขนาดนี้ แล้วคุณจะช่วยอย่างไรครับ dton pǒm ao maa / man mǎi sêet kà-nàat nées (When I brought it, it did not fade.)”, or “TTF9.2 ทำไมชุดซีด คุณได้แยกซักไหม kun dâai yâek sák mǎi (Did you wash it separately?).”

On the other hand, “Remedy” was the second frequently used semantic formulae by CCs and the third most frequently used semantic formula by TTs. The remedy asked by TTs and CCs are either specific remedy or an unspecific remedy. For example, “TTM18.2 ผัดผ้าหรือเปล้าครับ เอาไปย้อมสีให้หน่อยไป ao bpai yóm sěe hâi nòi bpái (Go get it dyed for (me).)”, “TTF2.2 น้อง..ชุดนี้พี่รักมาก ..คิดค่าเสียหายตามที่พี่ขอ kít kâa sǎa hâai dtaam tée pée

· séu (Compensate for the damage according to the price I bought it.)”, “CCM17.2请帮我洗成白色的。或者给我赔一件。 qǐng bāng wǒ xǐ chéng bái sè de huò zhě gěi wǒ péi yí jiàn (Please help me remove the stain, or provide compensation (for the damaged suit).)”, or “CCM8.2赔一件吧。 péi yí jiàn ba (Provide compensation (for the damaged suit).)”, “TTM1.2 ทำให้ชุดถึงเป็นอย่างนี้ครับ ทางร้านต้องรับผิดชอบชุดของผมครับ taang ráan dtông ráp pít chòp chú t sòt kǒng pǒm kráp (The laundry must be responsible for my suit.)”, “CCF3.2 这件衣服是我最喜欢的，你们得为自己的过错负责 nǐ men dé wèi zì jǐ de guò cuò fù zé (You should take responsibility for your own mistake.)”

Although less frequently, CCs also employed “Justification” in their utterance (f=14). In this situation, CCs usually mentioned that the color or the suit was their favorite, e.g. “CCM27.2 这是我特别喜欢的颜色。你怎么给洗掉了呢？你怎么这么不小心。 zhè shì wǒ tè bié xǐ huan de yán sè (This is my favorite color.)”, or “CCM26.2 这是我最喜欢的西装。要洗成这样了，没法穿了。 zhè shì wǒ zuì xǐ huan de xī zhuāng (This is my favourite suit.)”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results suggest significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae “Context”, “Justification”, “Criticism” and “Apology” (see Table 4.2). The results indicate that TTs tended to establish the context for the conversation, while CCs preferred to explain why they felt dissatisfied. Besides, CCs criticized the hearer for lack of expertise in the field, e.g. “CCM2.2会不会洗衣服啊？不会洗开啥店啊？ bú huì xǐ kāi shá diàn ā (If (you) don't know how to dry-clean, why did you open a laundry?)”. In addition, only TTs apologized for the potential imposition of complaining on the hearer when the hearer has damaged the speaker's suit.

Moreover, the Kruskal Wallis H Test shows significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formulae “Context” and “Problem” (see Table 4.3). This means that in Situation 2 Faded suit, only TT males did not criticize the hearer. In addition, TT females mentioned the context for the faded suit significantly more than TT males, CC males and CC females did, while CC females explained why they felt dissatisfied significantly more than TT males, TT females, and CC males did.

4.2.1.3 Undelivered paper

In complaining to a friend who has made the speaker fail the course, both TTs and CCs employed 2 semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem” and “Context”. In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Problem” the most frequently. The problem statement in this situation included the bad consequence for the speaker, an assertion that the hearer did not submit the term paper for the speaker, and a question asking the hearer to explain the offence. For example, “TTF3.3 ทำไมไม่ส่ง/แล้วทำไมไม่บอก เลียหายนะรู้ไหม sǐa hǎa-yá-ná róo mǎi (I’m in trouble)”, “TTF15.3 เธอได้ส่งรายงานให้ฉันไหม เธอรู้ไหมว่าฉันไม่ผ่านวิชานี้ เพราะอาจารย์บอกว่าคุณไม่ได้ส่งรายงาน chǎn mǎi pàan nai wí-chaa née · prór aa-jaan bòk wǎa chǎn mǎi dǎai sòng raai ngaan (I failed the course because the teacher told me that I did not submit the paper.)”, “TTM9.3 ส่งงานให้เราหรือเปล่า ทำไมเราไม่ผ่านรายวิชานี้ เพราะไม่ได้ส่งรายงานให้ใช่ไหมล่ะ prór mǎi dǎai sòng raai ngaan hǎi chǎi mǎi lâ (Because you didn’t submit my paper, did you?)”, or “CCM29.3 这么重要的事你怎么可以忘记。你害我那门课不及格。这对我影响很大的。 zhè me zhòng yào de shì nǐ zěn me kě yǐ wàng jì 。 nǐ hài wǒ nà mén kè bú jí gé 。 zhè duì wǒ yǐng xiǎng hěn dà de (How can you forget such an important thing? You made me fail the course. This affects me a lot.)”, “TTF26.3 ฉันฝากเธอส่งอาจารย์แล้วทำไมเธอไม่ส่งงาน

ให้ฉัน tam-mai ter mâi sòng ngaan hâi chǎn (Why didn't you submit the paper for me?),

“CCM20.3 你怎么没交我的论文，我的课没过。 nǐ zěh me méi jiāo wǒ de lùn wén ,

wǒ de kè méi guò (Why didn't you submit my term paper? I did not pass the course.)”

“Context” was the second most frequently used semantic formula for both TTs and CCs. However, TTs referred to the context for the situation (f=35) much more than CCs did (f=15). TTs and CCs usually established the context by either referring to the former engagement, or inquiring of the hearer whether the offence had really happened, e.g. “TTM4.3 ทำไมไม่ได้ส่งให้ล่ะ คุณก็รับปากแล้ว แล้วผมจะทำอย่างไร kun gôr ráp bpàak láew (You have promised.)”, “TTF21.3 เธอสัญญากับเราว่าจะส่งงานให้ก่อนกำหนด มีปัญหาอะไรหรือเปล่า ทำไมถึงไม่ส่ง แล้วแบบนี้จะ
แก้ไขอย่างไร ter sǎn-yaa gáp rao wâa jà sòng ngaan hâi gòn gam-nòt (You promised me that you would submit the paper before the deadline.)”, “TTF5.3 งานที่ฝากส่งอาจารย์ เธอได้ส่งอาจารย์หรือ
เปล่า ngaan têe fàak sòng aa-jaan ter dâai sòng aa-jaan rěu bplào (Did you submit the paper I asked you to submit to the teacher?)”.

Although less frequently, TTs also employed “Remedy” (f=12). They usually asked the hearer to remedy the situation, e.g. “TTM23.3 เธอลืมส่งรายงานให้ทั้งหมด ทำให้เราสอบตก
รายวิชานี้ เธอช่วย ไปเป็นพยานกับอาจารย์ว่าเราฝากงานให้เธอส่งให้หน่อยสิ ter chúay · bpai bpen pá-yaan gáp aa-
jaan wâa rao fàak ngaan hâi ter sòng hâi nòi sí (You help be the witness to the teacher that I asked you to submit my paper.)”.

Also, although less frequently, CCs employed “Criticism” (f=11) and “Valuation” (f=10). When they criticized the hearer, they proposed an alternative course of action for the hearer, e.g. “CCF26.3 这件事对我很重要，你本不应该忘记的， 下次
注意吧。 nǐ běn bú yīng gāi wàng jì de (You shouldn't have forgotten.)”; or directly

comment on the hearer negatively, e.g. “CCF27.3你当初不是答应好的吗？你这样做太过份！ 如果你没时间为什么不跟我说？nǐ zhè yàng zuò tài guò fèn (You’re overdoing too much.)”. Besides, they may show regret for not reminding the hearer, e.g. “CCF4.3我应该再三提醒你的wǒ yīng gāi zài sān tí xǐng nǐ de (I should have reminded you again and again!)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formula “Opt-out” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.2). This result suggests that TTs tended to establish the context for the conversation significantly more than CCs did. Besides, TTs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results suggest a significant difference among TT and CC males and females in semantic formula “Context” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.3). This indicates that in this situation, within the same culture, males did not differ from females in referring to the context for the not-submitted term paper, but across cultures, TT females mentioned significantly the context for the unbound theses significantly more than CC males, and CC females did. Moreover, TT males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

4.2.1.4 Forgetful classmate

In complaining to a classmate who did not show up to help the speaker as agreed, TTs employed 2 semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem” and “Context”, while CCs employed 3 semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem”, “Criticism”, and “Context”. In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Problem” the most frequently. The problem statement in this situation included the bad consequence for the speaker, e.g.

“TTM1.4 โห้! เพื่อนรัก ทำไมนายทำกับเราเช่นนี้วะ เพื่อนไม่มาเลย งานเราเกือบเสร็จไม่ทันเลยอะ...โด้ ngaan rao gèuap sèt mâi tan loie a (My work almost could not have been finished.)”, “TTM15.4 นายไม่มาไม่เห็นบอกเราเลย เหลือเวลาเตรียมงานน้อยเลยนะ lěua way-laa dtriam ngaan nói loie ná (Little time left to prepare.)”; an assertion that the hearer committed the offence, e.g. “CCM5.4 你那天干嘛去了? 约好了你却没去。打电话你也不接。害的我也没准备陈述 yuē hǎo le nǐ què méi qù 。 dǎ diàn huà nǐ yě bú jiē 。 hài de wǒ yě méi zhǔn bèi chén shù (You did not go despite our appointment. I called you, but you didn't pick up the phone. As a result, I was not able to prepare for the presentation.)”; and a question asking the hearer to explain the problem, e.g. “TTM21.4 ทำไมไม่มาตามเวลาที่นัดไว้/ รออยู่นานเลย โทรไปก็ไม่รับสาย/ ทำให้ต้องนั่งรอไปเองเลย tam-mai mâi maa dtaam way-laa tēe nát wái (Why didn't you come at the appointed time?)”, “TTF6.4 ทำไมไม่รับโทรศัพท์ ถ้าทำไม่ได้อย่ารีบปาก มันคือเครื่องคนอื่น tam-mai mâi ráp toh-rá-sàp (Why didn't you pick up the phone?)”, “CCM28.4 你去哪呢? 怎么打你电话都没人接? 害得我没多少时间陈述我的报告。 zěn me dǎ nǐ diàn huà dōu méi rén jiē hài dé wǒ méi duō shǎo shí jiān chén shù wǒ de bào gào (Why didn't you pick up the phone when I called you? As a result, I didn't have much time to prepare for my presentation?)”, or “CCF4.4 你怎么没来送我? 答应了的就该做到, 不然就不要承诺, 你不说的话我就可以提前去也就会没事的 nǐ zěn me méi lái sòng wǒ (Why didn't you give me a ride?)”.

“Context” was the second most frequently used semantic formula by TTs, and the third most frequently used semantic formulae by CCs. It can be a statement of the agreement made before, e.g. “TTF4.4 ไหนเธอจะพาฉันไป ทำไมไม่พาไป nǎi ter jà paa chǎn bpai (You said that you would take me.)”; or an interrogative to verify whether the hearer can

be forgiven, e.g. “TTF19.4 ติดธุระอะไรหรือเปล่า/ทำไมไม่รับโทรศัพท์ dtit tú-rá a-rai rêu bplào (Did you have any errands?)”, or “TTM13.4 ทำไมถึงคิดนัด ติดขัดปัญหาอะไร ทำไมถึงไม่โทรบอก งานที่จะทำเสนอมัน
สำคัญนะ dtit kàt bpan-hãa a-rai (Were there any problems?)”.

Besides, “Criticism” was the third most frequently used semantic formula by TTs, and the second most frequently used semantic formulae by CCs. In this situation, they either moralized the hearer what they should (not) have done, or explicitly asserted that the hearer is at fault, e.g. “CCM15.4 答应同学的事情, 你不应该忘记. dā ying tóng xué de shì qing nǐ bù yīng gāi wàng jì (You shouldn’t have forgotten what you promised your classmate.)”, “TTM1.4 โธ่! เพื่อนรัก ทำไมนายทำกับเราเช่นนี้วะเพื่อน ไม่น่าเลย งานเราเกือบเสร็จ
ไม่ทันเลยอะ...โธ่ mái nâa loie / ngaan rao gèuap sèt mái tan loie a (You shouldn’t (have done that). I almost did not finish my work.)”, “TTM14.4 ทำไมจึงไม่มาตามเวลานัด ติดต่อไปก็ไม่รับโทรศัพท์/
มีปัญหาหรือติดอะไรก็ควรจะบอกกัน เราจะได้อาหากทางอื่นไปแทน mee bpan-hãa rêu dtit a-rai gôr kuan jà bòk gan (Whatever problems you had, you should have told me.)”, or “TTM17.4 ทำไมโทรไปไม่
ยอมรับ มีธุระก็บอกจะได้ไปเอง mee tú-rá gôr bòk sí jà dâai bpai ao ayng (If you had an errand, you should have told (me) so that I would go and get (it) by myself.)” “TTM25.4 ทำไมทำ
แบบนี้ใจร้ายมาก jai ráai mâak (You are so mean.)”, “TTF2.4 ต่อไปจะไม่ขอ ความช่วยเหลือจากเธออีก ที่
ไม่ได้ pèung mái dâai (You are not reliable.)”, or “CCF16.4 你是个不守时的人! nǐ gè bù shǒu shí de rén (You are not a punctual person.)”; or inquired of the hearer explicitly why the hearer was at fault, e.g. “CCM20.4 你怎么不守信用? nǐ zěn me bù shǒu xìn yòng (Why didn’t you keep your promise?)”.

In addition, “Opt-out” was also the third most frequently used semantic formula by TTs (f=13). However, CCs opted out in this situation (f=2) much less frequently than TTs did.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae “Opt-out” and “Valuation” (see Table 4.2). The results suggest that TTs tended to keep silent more than CCs did. However, only CCs made negative comments on SUA or the hearer, without explicitly mentioning them, e.g. “CCM8.4 太过分了。 tài guò fèn le (Too much.)”, “CCM9.4 不靠谱。 bú kào pǔ (Unreliable.)”, or “CCM13.4哥，你早点啊，疯了。 fēng le (Crazy)”

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results suggest a significant difference among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formulae “Opt-out” and “Valuation” (see Table 4.3). This indicates that in Situation 4 Forgetful classmate, TT females opted out significantly more than TT males, CC males and CC females did. However, only CC males made negative comments on SUA or the hearer, without explicitly mentioning them.

4.2.1.5 Noisy roommate

In complaining to a noisy roommate, both TTs and CCs employed 3 semantic formulae very frequently: “Remedy”, “Problem”, and “Justification”. In Situation 5 Noisy roommate, both TTs and CCs used “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy for this situation was to keep quieter as a request, or as a demand, e.g. “TTM5.5 能不能小点声音 bao sǎng sàk nít dāi mǎi (Can you keep the noise down a bit?)”, “TTM8.5 能不能小点声音 baobao nòi jà pák pòn (Keep the noise down.)”, or “CCM8.5 以后回来时能不能小点声音，照顾别人的感受行吗？ yǐ hòu huí lai shí néng bù néng xiǎo diǎn

shēng yīn (Can you keep the sound down when you come back in the future?)”, “CCM7.5 以后回来轻点。 yǐ hòu huí lái qīng diǎn (Be quieter when (you) come back in the future.)”.

The second most frequently used semantic formula was “Problem” for both TTs and CCs. The problem statement in this situation included the bad consequence for the speaker, e.g. “TTM10.5 ขอ โทษนะ เรารู้ว่านายมีธุระและทำให้ต้องกลับดึก แต่ว่าพรุ่งนี้ตอนเช้าเรามีเรียนต้องตื่นแต่เช้า แล้วเราก็นอนไม่ได้เลย เพราะฉะนั้น/อยากขอ ร้องให้ช่วย เมาเสียงได้หรือเปล่า láew rao gôr non mâi dâai loie (I cannot sleep at all.)”, “TTF2.5 เธอ..ฉันไม่ได้พักผ่อน เกรงใจฉันบ้าง ฉันต้องการพักผ่อน chǎn mâi dâai pák pòn (I don’t take any rest.)”; an assertion that the hearer committed the complainable, e.g. “CCM16.5 声音小点。回来时，刚睡又被你弄醒。 huí lái shí , gāng shuì yòu bèi nǐ nòng xǐng . ((I) Just fall asleep and you woke me up again.)”, “CCF4.5 你可以轻点吗? 你这样已经打扰到了我了, 毕竟我们是合租, 没有一个人来的随心所欲些, 希望见谅。 nǐ zhè yàng yǐ jīng dǎ rǎo dào le wǒ le (You have disturbed me.)”; and a question asking the hearer to explain the problem, e.g. “TTM24.5 ขอ โทษนะ ทำไมไม่ลดเสียงลงบ้าง พอดีผมต้องพักผ่อน ไม่ค่อยสบายเนื่องจากอาการนอนไม่หลับมาหลายวันต่อเนื่อง ยังไงก็รบกวนทางคุณช่วยลดเสียงด้วยนะ ขอขอบคุณครับ tam-mai mâi lót siāng long bāng (Why don’t you keep the noise down a bit?)”, or “CCM27.5 你为什么每晚回来那么晚。我都睡得很香的。还是听到了你的归来。好些天都这样, 你能不能早点回来。 nǐ wéi shí me měi wǎn huí lái nà me wǎn 。 wǒ dōu shuì dé hěn xiāng de 。 hái shì tīng dào le nǐ de guī lái 。 hǎo xiē tiān dōu zhè yàng , (Why do you come back so late every night?)”. However, TTs preferred to mention the bad consequence (f=15) than CCs did (f=5), whereas CCs preferred to assert that the hearer had committed SUA (f=22) than TTs did (f=11).

Besides, “Justification” was the third most frequently used semantic formula by TTs and CCs. In this situation, the speaker usually referred to their need for sleep, e.g. “TTM13.5 รบกวน ทำเบาๆ หรือเกรงใจกันหน่อยได้ไหม เราต้องการเวลาพักผ่อน rao dtông gaan way-laa pák pòn (I need time to rest.)”, or “CCF1.5 以后能不能小声点呢, 亲, 我晚上已经睡了昵wǒ wǎn shang yǐ jīng shuì le ne (I’ve slept in the evening.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show no significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae usage (see Table 4.2). The results suggest that TTs and CCs did not differ significantly in their semantic formulae usage in Situation 5 Noisy roommate.

However, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Remedy”, “Warning” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.3). This indicates that in Situation 5 Noisy roommate, within the same culture, females explicitly mentioned SUA significantly more than males did. Besides, TT females also explicitly mentioned SUA significantly more than CC males did. Besides, TT females asked the hearer to remedy the situation significantly less frequently than TT males, CC males and CC females did. Moreover, TT females asked the hearer to be a better person significantly more than TT males, CC males and CC females, e.g. “TTF3.5 เกรงใจคนอื่นบ้าง grayng jai kon èun bâang (Be considerate to others.)”. Moreover, CC females used significantly more semantic formulae than TT females did.

4.2.1.6 Noisy neighbor

In complaining to a noisy neighbor, both TTs and CCs employed 3 semantic formulae very frequently: “Remedy”, “Justification”, and “Problem”. In this situation,

both TTs and CCs used “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy for this situation was to keep quieter as a request, e.g. “TTM2.6 รบกวนช่วยเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์หน่อยได้ไหมครับ เสียงมันดังไปถึงห้องผมเลยครับ róp guan · chûay · bao sǎng toh-rá-tát nòi dâai mǎi · kráp (Can you please turn down the TV?)”, “TTF3.6 เบาๆ หน่อยได้ไหม คนจะหลับจะนอน/ เกรงใจกันบ้าง bao bao nòi dâai mǎi (Can you turn down (the TV)?)”, “CCM20.6 麻烦你能不能把声音开小一点。影响我睡觉，我明天还要考试。 má fan nǐ néng bù néng bǎ shēng yīn kāi xiǎo yì diǎn (Could you please turn down the TV?)”; or as a demand, e.g. “TTM7.6 ช่วย เบาๆ หน่อย chûay · bao bao nòi (Please turn down (the TV))”, “CCM9.6 声音关小一点 shēng yīn guān xiǎo yì diǎn (Lower the sound.)”, “CCF2.6 希望你把电视声音调小点，别人在休息呢！ xī wàng nǐ bǎ diàn shì shēng yīn diào xiǎo diǎn (Hope you turn down the TV.)”, or “CCF20.6 明天我有考试，电视声音小点。 diàn shì shēng yīn xiǎo diǎn (Turn down the TV.)”.

The second most frequently used semantic formula was “Justification” by TTs and CCs. In this situation, the speaker usually referred to their coming exam, e.g. “TTM12.6 เนื่องจากพรุ่งนี้ผมจะมีสอบ รบกวนเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์ด้วยนะครับ ขอคุณครับ nêuang jàak prùng-née pǒm jà mee sòp (Because tomorrow I will have an exam.)”, “CCF6.6 明天我有重要的考试，你看电视这么大声音，我真的无法好好休息，也请您体谅 míng tiān wǒ yǒu zhòng yào de kǎo shì (Tomorrow I have an important exam.)”.

The third most frequently used semantic formula was “Problem” for both TTs and CCs. The problem statement in this situation included the bad consequence for the speaker, and an assertion that the hearer committed the complainable. For example, “TTM2.6 รบกวนช่วยเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์หน่อยได้ไหมครับ เสียงมันดังไปถึงห้องผมเลยครับ sǎng man dang bpai

těung hōng pǒm loie kráp (The noise comes into my room.)”, “TTF8.6 ขอโทษนะ เสียงโทรทัศน์ดังเกินไป sǎng toh-rá-tát dang gern bpai (The TV is too loud.)”, “CCM17.6对不起, 我想你电视声音太大。 nǐ diàn shì shēng yīn tài dà (Your TV is too loud.)”, or “CCM10.6你影响别人休息了呀。 nǐ yǐng xiǎng bié ren xiū xi le ya (You have affected others’ sleep.)”. In complaining to a neighbor, only two CCs confronted the hearer directly with the offence, e.g. “CCM2.6你们天天看电视到这么晚。还让不让人睡觉了? 你们再不注意我要向社区反映了。 nǐ men tiān tiān kàn diàn shì dào zhè me wǎn huán ràng bú ràng rén shuì jiào le (Every day you watch TV so late. Do you still allow people to sleep?)”, “CCF11.6最近你回家时能不能早点, 或者不要影响到我们。明天我要考试了, 休息不好怎么办? míng tiān wǒ yào kǎo shì le xiū xi bù hǎo zě n me bàn” (Tomorrow I am going to take an exam. What can I do if I can not get enough rest?).

The Mann-Whitney U Test results suggest a significant difference between TTs and CCs in semantic formula “Justification” (see Table 4.2). The results mean that CCs justified their utterance significantly more than TTs did in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formula “Justification” and the total of semantic formulae, (see Table 4.3). This indicates that in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, CC females justified their utterance significantly more than TT males, TT females, and CC males did. Besides, CC males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than TT males and females did.

4.2.1.7 Late arriving classmate

In complaining to a late arriving classmate, both TTs and CCs employed 3 semantic formulae very frequently: “Remedy”, “Problem”, and “Justification”. In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy for this situation was to come on time as a request, or as a demand. For example, “TTF21.7 หน้าเธอมาประชุมตรงเวลาหน่อยได้ไหม เดี่ยวงานจะเสร็จไม่ทัน วันนี้เราต้องรีบไปประชุมต่อด้วย kraao nâa ter maa bprà-chum dtrong way-laa nòi dâai mǎi (Next time, can you attend a meeting on time?)”, “CCF14.7 以后你能不能准时和我约会啊, 早点动手我们也能早点结束, 对不对。今天我的兼职要迟到半小时了。 yǐ hòu nǐ néng bù néng zhǔn shí hé wǒ yuē huì ā (Can you meet me on time in the future?)”, “TTM7.7 รักษเวลาด้วย rák-sǎa way-laa dūay (Be on time.)”, “TTM9.7 วันหลังมาเร็วๆ หน่อยก็ดีนะ wan lǎng maa reo reo nòi gōr dee ná (Next time, it’s better to come earlier.)”, or “CCM1.7 抓紧时间。 zhuā jǐn shí jiān (Hurry up.)”.

The second most frequently used semantic formula was “Problem” for both TTs and CCs. They mentioned explicitly the bad consequence for the speaker, asserted directly that the hearer committed the complainable, or asked the hearer to explain his/her coming late. The bad consequences may be “TTM4.7 ไปไหนมาหรือ ผมรอนานแล้วนะ pǒm ror naan láew ná (I have been waiting for so long.)”, “TTM10.7 วันนี้คงจะอยู่ประชุมจนเสร็จไม่ได้ เพราะผมต้องไปทำงานในตอนเย็น และด้วยเนื่องจากเราได้เริ่มประชุมสายไปเกือบ 30 นาที เพราะอะไร คุณคงจะรู้นะ lái dūay nēuang jàak rao dâai rêrm bprà-chum sǎai bpai gèuap · sǎam sǐp · naa-tee (And we also started the meeting late for almost 30 minutes)”. The direct assertion may be “TTF9.7 ทีหลังมาให้ตรงเวลากว่านี้หน่อยนะ ฉันไปทำงานพิเศษสายเพราะเธอมาสาย chǎn bpai tam ngaan pí-sàyt sǎai prór ter maa sǎai (I am late for a part-time job because you are late.)”, “CCF4.7 约好的时间你却没

有准时到，这样我后面的安排就都得往后推，这样会耽误很多事的，下次别这样了 yuē hǎo de shí jiān nǐ què méi yǒu zhǔn shí dào (You didn't come at the appointed time.)”, “CCF7.7 让你迟到，弄得我的计划都乱了，以后能不能守时点 ràng nǐ chí dào nòng dé wǒ de jì huà dōu luàn le (Your late arriving disrupts my plan.)”. Moreover, the inquiry may be “TTF11.7 ทำไมไม่ตรงเวลา tam-mai · mâi dtrong way-laa (Why are you not on time?)”, “CCM2.7 你怎么老是迟到。你怎么搞的。还要不要做作业了。我等会还有事。耽搁了，要找你负责。 nǐ zěn me lǎo shì chí dào (Why are you always late?)”.

The third most frequently used semantic formula was “Justification” by TTs and CCs. In this situation, the speaker usually referred to their other engagement, e.g. “TTM11.7 เลขเป็นประจำเลยอะ มีงอะ ฤไม่อยู่แล้วนะ ้วย ต้องรีบไปทำงาน goo mâi yòo láew ná wóí dtông rēep bpai tam ngaan (I am not staying. I am in a hurry for work.)”, “TTF4.7 ตรงเวลากว่านี้ หน้อยได้ไหม เรามีธุระที่ต้องทำ rao mee tú-rá tēe dtông tam (I have an errand to run.)”, or “CCM26.7 请准时，我还要忙别的事情。不能因为等你耽误了其他事情。 wǒ huán yào máng bié de shì qing bù néng yīn wèi děng nǐ dān wu le qí tā shì qing (I have other business to do, and can't delay other things because of waiting for you.)”. However, CCs referred to social norms of being punctual, e.g. “CCM18.7 做人最起码要守时，你这样简直害人精。 zuò rén zuì qǐ mǎ yào shǒu shí (A person should be punctual at least.)”, “CCF1.7 希望你以后准时，守时是做人的基本礼貌呢 shǒu shí shì zuò rén de jī běn lǐ mào ne (Punctuality is the basic good manners of a person.)”, or “CCF13.7 守时是最主要的品质之一。 shǒu shí shì zuì zhǔ yào de pǐn zhì zhī yī (Punctuality is one of the primary merits.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and CCs in semantic formula “Opt-out” (see Table 4.2). The results suggest that TTs kept silent about their classmate’s being late significantly more than CCs did in Situation 7 Late arriving classmate.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate a significant difference among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formula “Justification” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.3). This suggests that in Situation 7 Late arriving classmate, CC females justified their utterances, especially by referring to social norms, significantly more than TT females, and CC males did. In addition, CC males employed significantly fewer semantic formulae than TT males did, while CC females used significantly more semantic formulae than TT females did.

4.2.1.8 Late arriving friend

In complaining to a late arriving friend, TTs employed “Problem” very frequently, while CCs employed “Problem” and “Remedy” very frequently. In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Problem” the most frequently. The problem could be the bad consequence for the speaker, e.g. “TTF2.8 เธอไม่รักษาเวลานัดเลย เสียเวลามาก sǎa way-laa mâak ((It) wastes a lot of time.)”, “TTF10.8 รอานานมาก จนจะกลับแล้วหะะ ที่หลังฉันนั่งมาให้ตรงเวลาหน่อยสิ ror naan mâak · jon jà glàp láew là (Have been waiting for so long that I almost leave.)”, “TTF18.8 ทำไมมาสายตลอดเลย/ รอานานแล้ว/ ที่หลังรักษาเวลาด้วยนะ ror naan láew ((I) have been waiting for so long.)”, “CCF20.8我以为你不打算来了, 我等了二十分钟。 wǒ děng le èr shí fēn zhōng (I’ve been waiting for 20 minutes.)”. They also asserted that the hearer committed the offence, e.g. “TTM2.8 มาสายเกินไปถึง.....เกินเวลานานแล้วนะเต maa sāai gern bpai máng gern way-laa naan láew ná gae (You are too late.... much later than the

appointed time.”, “CCM5.8你总是迟到，下次请准时可以吗？nǐ zǒng shì chí dào (You are always late.)”, “CCF22.8是不是时间表比别人慢啊，我每次都要等你。wǒ měi cì dōu yào děng nǐ (I have to wait for you every time.)”. Furthermore, they asked the hearer to explain the late arrival, e.g. “TTM4.8 ทำไมมาช้า หนัดไว้แล้ว ไม่โทรบอกก่อน ผมจะกลับแล้ว tam-mai maa cháa (Why are you so late?)”, or “CCM2.7你怎么老是迟到。你怎么搞的。还要不要做作业了。我等会还有事。耽搁了，要找你负责。nǐ zěn me lǎo shì chí dào (Why are you always late?)”.

The second most frequently used semantic formula by CCs was “Remedy” (f=21), which was not used as frequently by TTs (f=12). The remedy in this situation was to come on time as a request, e.g. “CCM4.8下次能不能早点啊。老让我等也不是个事。xià cì néng bù néng zǎo diǎn ā (Can you come earlier next time?)”; or as a demand, e.g. “TTM7.8 ตรงเวลาด้วย dtrong way-laa dūay (Be on time.)”, “TTF10.8 รอนานมาก จนจะกลับแล้วห ล่ะ ทีหลังถ้าหนัด/มาให้ตรงเวลาหน่อยดี tee lǎng tâa nát / maa hâi dtrong way-laa nòi sì (Next time, if (we) arrange an appointment, come on time.)”, “CCM7.8唉。老毛病又犯了吧。不要每次都迟到。bú yào měi cì dōu chí dào (Don't arrive late every time.)”, or “CCF10.8 下次守时一点吧。xià cì shǒu shí yì diǎn bā (Be on time next time.)”.

Although used less frequently, TTs employed “Valuation” (f=14). Even though they did not have anything urgent to do, TTs chose to leave when the friend was late for a casual gathering, e.g. “TTM6.8 กลับแล้วนะ glàp láew ná (I am leaving.)”, “TTM9.8 ทำไมเพิ่งมาห ล่ะ/เรากำลังจะกลับแล้ว rao gam-lang jà glàp láew (I am about to leave.)”, or “TTF6.8 จะกลับแล้ว/ค่อย เจอกันพรุ่งนี้/วันนี้ไม่มีอารมณ์แล้ว wan née mâi mee aa-rom láew (I'm not in a mood (to talk).).

Although used less frequently, CCs also employed “Warning” (f=10). In this situation, the speaker warned the hearer to come on time; otherwise, s/he will not wait for the hearer or stop being friends with the hearer, e.g. “CCF4.8慢吞吞的, 下次不等你了 màn tūn tūn de xià cì bù děng nǐ le (So slow. Won’t wait for you next time.)”, “CCF7.8你怎么总是迟到, 下次要是再迟到就不等你了 xià cì yào shì zài chí dào jiù bù děng nǐ le (If late again next time, won’t wait for you.)”, or “CCF17.8怎么才来啊。都等你半个多小时了, 以后再这样不和你一起出来了, 下不为例啊。 yǐ hòu zài zhè yàng bù hé nǐ yì qǐ chū lái le xià bù wéi lì ā (If like this in the future, won’t go out with you. No next time.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate a significant difference between TTs and CCs in the semantic formula “Valuation” (see Table 4.2). The result suggests that TTs showed moodiness about their friend being late significantly more than CCs did in Situation 8 Late arriving friend.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show no significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formula usage (see Table 4.3). This indicates that in Situation 8 Late arriving classmate, TT males, TT females, CC males, and CC females did not differ from one another in semantic formula usage.

4.2.1.9 Lost lecture notes

In complaining to a classmate who lost the speaker’s lecture notes, TTs employed “Remedy” very frequently, while CCs employed 2 semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem” and “Justification”. In this situation, TTs used “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy in this situation was to look for the lecture notes as a demand, e.g. “TTM2.9 ลองกลับไปหาใหม่สิ/...แล้วถ้าไม่เจอ/ฉันจะเอาอะไรอ่านหะคราวนี้ long glàp bpai hǎa mài sì (Try

to look for them again)”, “TTM8.9 พยายามหาให้ด้วย pá-yaa-yaam hăa hâi dûay (Try to find them for me.)”, “TTF4.9 เอาสมุดมาให้เร็วๆ หน่อย จะอ่านสอบ ao sà-mùt maa hâi reo reo nòi (Please bring back the lecture notes soon.)”, or “TTF10.9 มันสำคัญสำหรับเรามาก ช่วย กลับไปหาหมาให้เจอ ถ้าไม่เจอ ไปยืมกับเพื่อนคนอื่นมาให้เราได้ไหม chûay · glàp bpai hăa mài hâi jer (Please look for (them).)”.

On the other hand, CCs employed “Problem” the most frequently (f=21), which was less frequently employed by TTs (f=13). The problem statement asserted that the hearer lost the lecture notes, or asked the hearer to explain for the lost lecture notes, e.g. “CCM5.9 你太不小心了。害得我不得复习了。 hài dé wǒ méi dé fù xí le ((You) made me unable to review.)”, “TTM2.9 ลองกลับไปหาหมาให้...แล้วถ้าไม่เจอ ฉันจะเอาอะไรอ่านหละคราวนี้ ... long glàp bpai hăa mài sì ... láew tâa mài jer · chăñ jà ao a-rai àan là kraao née (And if you can't find (them), what can I read then?)”, “TTM4.9 ทำไมหาไม่เจอ แล้วผมจะอย่างไร ยังไม่ได้อ่านเลย tam-mai hăa mài jer / láew pôm jà tam yàng rai (How come you didn't find it? So, what can I do?)”, or “TTF21.9 ทำไมยืมไปแล้วไม่รับผิดชอบ/ ถ้าทำแบบนี้คราวหลังไม่ต้องมายืมกันอีก tam-mai yeum bpai láew mài ráp pít chòp (Why are you not responsible when you already borrowed (the lecture notes)?)”.

In addition, although not used very frequently, TTs also employed two semantic formulae: “Justification”, and “Warning” (f=13). “Justification”, which was also the second most frequently used semantic formula by CCs, referred to the importance of the lecture notes for the exam, e.g. “TTM12.9 เนื่องจากเป็นเอกสารสำคัญ รกทวน ช่วยหาอีกครั้งนะครับ/ ขอบคุณครับ nêuang jàak bpen àyk-gà-săan sām-kan (Because they are important documents.), “TTF10.9 มันสำคัญสำหรับเรามาก ช่วยกลับไปหาหมาให้เจอ/ ถ้าไม่เจอ ไปยืมกับเพื่อนคนอื่นมาให้เราได้ไหม man sām-kan sām-ráp rao mâak (They are very important for me.)”, “CCF18.9 笔记对我来说很重要的, 你怎能给我弄

丢呢。 bǐ jì duì wǒ lí shuō hěn zhòng yào de (The lecture notes are very important for me.)”, “CCM24.9你应该小心保管好的。 因为这是我努力的心血。 yīn wèi zhè shì wǒ nǚ lì de xīn xuè (Because they’re the results of my efforts.)”, “TTF4.9 เอาสมุดมาให้เร็วๆ หน่อย จะอ่านสอบ jà àn sòp (I will read for an exam.)”, “CCM28.9这么重要的东西你怎么能弄丢了昵? 我还要考试啊。 wǒ huán yào kǎo shì ā (I still need to take an exam.)”, “CCF8.9 我还没有复习好呢? 你怎么这么不小心呢? 把我的笔记弄掉了。 wǒ huán méi yǒu fù xí hǎo ne (I haven’t finished reviewing yet.)”, or “TTM4.9 ทำไมหาไม่เจอ แล้วผมจะทำอย่างไร ยังไม่ได้อ่านเลย yang mâi dâai àn loie (I have not read them yet.)”

Moreover, TTs either warned the hearer explicitly, e.g. “TTM7.9 ต่อไปจะไม่ให้ยืมอะไรอีก dtòr bpai jà mâi hâi yeum a-rai èk (Next time, I will not let you borrow anything.)”, “TTF2.9 ต่อไปไม่ให้ยืมอีกแล้ว dtòr bpai mâi hâi yeum èk láew (From now on, I will not lend (them to you))”, “TTM22.9 ไปซื้อสมุดมาใช้คืนเลยนะ และครั้งต่อไปอย่ายืมสมุดของผมหัก ไปยืมคนอื่นเถิด lác kráng dtòr bpai yàa yeum sà-mùt kǒng pǒm èk · bpai yeum kon èun tèr (And next time, never borrow the notebook from me again. Borrow from others.)” “CCM2.9不是坑人吗? 你赶快想办法。我要是考不好, 你要负责。 bù shi kēng rén mǎ nǐ gǎn kuài xiǎng bàn fǎ wǒ yào shi kǎo bù hǎo nǐ yào fù zé (Are you playing a trick? You figure out the way out. If I did poorly in the exam, you should be responsible for it.)”, or implicitly, e.g. “TTF1.9 ทีหลังอย่าทำแบบนี้นะ /และอย่าทำกับคนอื่นด้วย tee lǎng yàa tam bàep née ná lác yàa tam gáp kon èun dūay (Next time, never do this again and never do this to others.)”.

Although not used very frequently (f=14), CCs explicitly criticized the hearer by 1) asserting that the hearer had a faulty personality trait, e.g. “CCM5.9 你太不小心了

。害得我没得复习了。nǐ tài bú xiǎo xīn le 。 hài dé wǒ méi dé fù xí le 。 (You are so careless that I won't be able to review (for the exam))”, “CCF7.9你也太不靠谱了，不想再借东西给你了nǐ yě tài bú kào pǔ le , bú xiǎng zài jiè dōng xī gěi nǐ le (You are so unreliable that I don't want to lend things to you.)” or 2) moralizing to the hearer what should (not) have been done, e.g. “CCM15.9向别人借的东西应该保存好。xiàng bié ren jiè de dōng xī yīng gāi bǎo cún hǎo ((You) Should take good care of things borrowed from others.)”; or interrogate the hearer about his/her faulty personality trait, e.g. “CCF11.9为什么这么大意呢？笔记本是我全部的心血啊。wèi shén me zhè me dà yì ne (Why (are you) so careless?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results suggest a significant difference between TTs and CCs in the semantic formula “Remedy” (see Table 4.2). The results mean that TTs sought remedy for the offence significantly more often than CCs did in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT and CC males and females in semantic formulae “Remedy”, “Address term” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.3). This suggests that in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, male TTs sought remedy significantly more often than both males and CC females did. In addition, only TT males addressed the hearer, e.g. “TTM1.9เพื่อน...เธอช่วยถ่ายรูปในสมุด โปสต์ลงไลน์ให้หน่อย เราจะได้อ่านสอบ pêuan ter chûay · tàai rôop nai sà-mùt / pôht · long lai hâi nòi / rao jà dâai àan sòp (Buddy...can you take photos of the lecture notes and post them on LINE so that I can read them for an exam.)”. Besides, CC males and females used significantly fewer semantic formulae than TT males and females did.

4.2.1.10 Broken mobile phone

In complaining to the owner of a mobile phone shop, both TTs and CCs employed 2 semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem”, and “Remedy”. In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Problem” the most frequently.

The problem referred to the fact that the mobile phone broke down, e.g. “TTM6.10 มันเสียอีกแล้ว man sǎ àek láew (It's broken again.)”, “TTF16.10 เอาโทรศัพท์ที่มือสองมา
ซ่อมแมวขายหรือเปล่านั้น เสียบ่อยขนาดนี้ sǎ bòi kà-nàat née (It is often broken.)”, “CCF8.10 老板这
手机真心不好，质量有问题，不然怎么会这么频繁的坏呢？ zhè shǒu jī zhēn x
īn bù hǎo zhì liàng yǒu wèn tí (The mobile phone is really not good. Something's
wrong with the quality.)”, “CCF15.10 这手机质量太差了，一直坏，你们要负责重新
换个新手机才行。 zhè shǒu jī zhì liàng tài chà le, yì zhí huài (The quality
of the mobile phone is too poor. It keeps breaking down.)”. TTs and CCs also directly
asserted that the hearer had sold the hearer an inferior mobile phone, e.g., “CCM5.10 你
卖得手机质量太差了我要退货。 nǐ mài dé shǒu jī zhì liàng tài chà le (The
mobile phone you sold me is too poor in quality.)”, “CCF12.10 你们店的手机质量也太
差了吧，以后谁还会买你家的手机呀！ nǐ men diàn de shǒu jī zhì liàng yě tài chà le
bā (The mobile phone from your shop is really too poor in quality.)”, “CCM14.10 我很
怀疑你们的手机质量。影响了我的正常生活。 我希望你们能够解决这个问题。
我绝对没有耐心再跑一次了。 wǒ hěn huái yí nǐ men de shǒu jī zhì liàng yǐng xiǎng le
wǒ de zhèng cháng shēng huó (I am doubtful of the quality of your mobile phone. It has
affected my normal daily life.)”. Moreover, they also asked the hearer to explain the
broken mobile phone, e.g. “TTM2.10 ทำไมมันเสียบ่อยจัง...ทางร้านจะรับผิดชอบยังไง tam-mai man sǎ

bòi jang (Why is it often broken?)”, or “CCM3.10怎么搞的。怎么越修越坏。zěn me yuè xiū yuè huài (Why the more often it is fixed, the more it breaks down?)”.

The second most frequently used semantic formula was “Remedy” for both TTs and CCs. Most of the remedy for this situation was to fix the mobile phone, exchange for a new one as a request, e.g. “TTM3.10 ช่วยดูให้หน่อยได้ไหม chûay · doo hâi nòi dâai mǎi (Can you please check it for me?)”, “TTF3.10 มีประกันไหมคะ ขอเปลี่ยนเครื่องใหม่ได้ไหมคะ kõr bplian krêuang mǎi dâai mǎi · kê (Can I change to a new one?)”, “TTF6.10 ทำไมมีปัญหาหยาอะจังเลยคะ เดลมเครื่องใหม่ได้ไหม ค่ะ kay lom krêuang mǎi dâai mǎi · kê (Can I make a claim to get a new one?)”, or “TTF24.10 ช่วยตรวจสอบโทรศัพท์ที่ฉันหน่อยได้ไหม ฉันรู้สึกว่าจะมีปัญหาตอนข้างจะปอย หรือไม่ก็ ช่วย เปลี่ยนโทรศัพท์เครื่องใหม่ให้ฉันที เพราะมันยังอยู่ในช่วงประกันอยู่ค่ะ chûay dtruat sòp toh-rá-sàp hâi chǎn nòi dâai mǎi (Can you please check my cell phone?)”; or check or refund the mobile phone as a demand, e.g. “TTM9.10 ช่วยดูโทรศัพท์ที่มีมือถือให้หน่อยครับ เพิ่งใช้แค่สองอาทิตย์ก็พังอีกแล้ว chûay doo toh-rá-sàp meu têu hâi nòi kráp (Please check this cell phone for (me).)”, “TTF18.10 ดูโทรศัพท์ที่ฉันหน่อย เสียอีกแล้ว ซ่อมให้ดีๆ ด้วย doo toh-rá-sàp hâi nòi (Check this cell phone for (me))”, “CCM13.10退货 tùi huò (Return the goods (for a refund).)”, “TTF13.10 ขอเปลี่ยนเครื่องใหม่ค่ะ kõr bplian krêuang mǎi ná (Let (me) change to a new one.)”. A few TTs demanded an unspecific remedy, e.g. “TTM7.10 คุณต้องรับผิดชอบ kun dtông ráp pít chòp (You need to be responsible.)”.

Although not used as frequently, both TTs and CCs established the context for the utterances by mentioning that the mobile phone was expensive, e.g. “CCM22.10这部手机怎么回事。动不动出问题。我花了这么多钱买的这样手机。要求赔偿。wǒ

huā le zhè me duō qián mǎi de zhè yàng shǒu jī (I spent a lot on such a mobile phone.)”, or “CCF2.10你家的手机太不值了，明明花了很多钱买，却坏了好几次，没见过这样的手机呢。míng míng huā le hěn duō qián mǎi ((I) spent a lot on it.); or directly asked the hearer about the context for the problem, e.g. “CCM28.10这手机怎么老是坏。你们到底有没有认真修？实在不行，我只能要求退货了。nǐ men dào dǐ yǒu méi yǒu rèn zhēn xiū (Did you really fix it carefully?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and CCs in the semantic formula “Justification” (see Table 4.2). The results indicate that TTs mentioned the warranty period of the mobile phone significantly more often than CCs did in Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. Usually, they mentioned the necessity of the mobile phone or the warranty period of the mobile phone, e.g. “TTM23.10 โทรศัพท์ที่ขอ
งผมชัดข้อครับ ช่วย แก้ไขหรือซ่อมให้หน่อย เพราะผมต้องใช้งานทุกวันครับ prór pǒm dtông cháí ngaan túk wan kráp (because I need to use it every day.), or “TTM1.10 ผมขอเอาเครื่องใหม่ครับ เพราะมันอยู่ในประกัน
pǒm kǒr · ao kréuang mǎi kráp prór man yòu nai bprà-gan (I want to get a new one because it is still under warranty).”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results suggest a significant difference among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formula “Problem” (see Table 4.13). This indicates that in Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, CC females mentioned explicitly the problem significantly more than TT males, TT females, and CC males did.

4.2.1.11 Cutting in line

In complaining to a stranger who cut in line, TTs employed 3 semantic formulae frequently: “Remedy”, “Context”, and “Address term”, while CCs employed 2 semantic formulae frequently: “Remedy” and “Context”.

In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Remedy” the most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to stand in line as a demand, e.g. “TTM8.11 เข้าแถวให้เป็นระเบียบ káo tǎe hâi bpen rá-bìap (Queue up.)”, “TTF8.11 ขอ โทษค่ะ กรุณาเข้าแถวด้วย gà-rú-naa · káo tǎe dúay (Please queue up.)”, “CCF8.11 请不要插队，大家都在排队。 qǐng bú yào chā duì (Please don’t cut in line.)”, or “CCF15.11 同学，你要重新排队好吗？我们都排了好长时间了，你不能这样没有素质。 nǐ yào chóng xīn pái duì (You need to queue up again.)”.

“Context” was the second most frequently used semantic formulae for both TTs and CCs. They usually mentioned that others, including the speaker, were standing in line, e.g. “TTM11.11 ขอโทษครับ ผมต่อแถวอยู่ pǒm dtòr tǎe yò (I am standing in line.)”, “TTM17.11 ทำไมคุณทำแบบนี้ล่ะครับ คนอื่นเขาเข้าแถวกันหมด kon èun kǎo káo tǎe gan mòt (Other people are queueing up.)”, “TTF6.11 คุณคะ เขาต่อแถวกันค่ะ kǎo dtòr tǎe gan kâ (They are queueing up.)”, “TTF2.11 คุณคะ มีมารยาท เข้าแถว ยืนยืนรอนานแล้ว chǎn yeun ror naan láew (I have been standing and waiting for so long.)”, “TTF7.11 คุณคะจะซื้อตั๋วต้องเข้าแถวนะค่ะ ทุกคนที่อยู่ข้างหลังคุณ níe เขาก็เข้าแถวกันค่ะ kun kâ jà séu dtúa dtông káo tǎe ná kâ · túk kon tée yò kâang lǎng kun nêe kǎo gôr káo tǎe gan kâ (Everybody behind you is queueing up.)”, “CCM14.11 同学高素质的人都不插队的。我辛辛苦苦等半天，你插队合适吗？ wǒ xīn xīn kǔ kǔ děng bàn tiān (I have been waiting for half a day.)”. Some speakers even told the hearer where the queue was, e.g. “TTM19.11 ขอโทษนะคะ รับ ทางแถวอยู่ตรงโน้นครับ hǎang tǎe yò dttrong nóhn kráp (The end of the queue is there.)”.

In addition, the third most frequently used semantic formula by TTs was “Address term”. They usually addressed their interlocutor with “คุณครับ kun kráp (Mister/Miss)”, “นี่.....คุณครับ nêe kun kráp (Hey...Mister/Miss)” or “คุณคะ kun kâ (Mister/Miss)” (f=17) more than CC did (f=10). Besides, TTs also employed “Warning” and “Apology” as frequently used semantic formulae. They usually warned the hearer implicitly by asking them to have better personal traits, e.g. “TTM13.11 รักษามารยาททางสังคม ด้วยครับ rák-sǎa maa-rá-yâat taang sǎng-kom dûay kráp (Mind (your) social manners.)”, “TTM22.11 กรุณามีสมบัติของผู้ดีด้วยครับ gù-rú-naa mee sǎm-bàt kǒng pò dee dûay kráp (Please behave like a civilized person.)”, “TTM23.11 คุณครับกรุณา เข้าแถวด้วยครับ และเคารพสิทธิของผู้อื่นด้วย ครับ lái kao-róp sít kǒng pò èun dûay kráp (And respect others’ rights)”, “TTF3.11 ตามใจ ด้วยค่ะ เกรงใจคนอื่นบ้าง มีมารยาทหน่อยค่ะ grayng jai kon èun bâang mee maa-rá-yâat nòi kâ (Be considerate to others. Mind (your) manners.)”, “TTF14.11 กรุณา เข้าแถวด้วยค่ะ มารยาทสังคมรักษาด้วย maa-rá-yâat sǎng-kom rák-sǎa dûay (Mind (your) social manners.)”. Moreover, TTs also apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, e.g. “ขอโทษนะคะ kǒr tǒht ná kâ (Excuse me.)” (f=12) more than CCs did (f=3).

In addition, CCs also stated the problem explicitly frequently (f=14). The problem statement included an assertion that the hearer committed the complainable, e.g. “CCF6.11 请你遵守排队秩序好吗？我们都赶时间，都等了好长时间。请按队排，你这样插队，别人就赶不上时间了 nǐ zhè yàng chā duì bié ren jiù gǎn bú shàng shí jiān le (You cutting in line, others won’t catch their schedule.)”, “CCF17.11 能不能有点公德啊，我们都排了一个多小时的队了，你就想插到前面。 nǐ jiù xiǎng chā

dào qián miàn (You just want to cut in front of others.)”, or “CCF22.11大家都在排队，请你文明点，你这样只会破坏这里的秩序。nǐ zhè yàng zhī huì pò huài zhè lǐ de zhì xù (Your doing so can only ruin the order here.)”; or a question for the hearer to explain cutting in line, e.g. “CCM6.11你怎么可以不排队？nǐ zěn me kě yǐ bù pái duì (How can you not queue up?)”, “CCM10.11插什么队？有没有素质。chā shén me duì (Why cut in line?)”, or “CCM14.11同学，高素质的人都不插队的。我辛辛苦苦等半天，你插队合适吗？nǐ chā duì hé shì mǎ (Is it proper for you to cut in line?)”. Moreover, CCs also justified their displeasure frequently (f=14). They mentioned urgency they felt, e.g. “CCM25.11同学，请排队，我也赶时间呢。wǒ yě gǎn shí jiān ne (I am also in a hurry.)”, “CCM30.11请排队好不好。我有急事，等一个多小时了。wǒ yǒu jí shì (I have something urgent.)”, “CCF6.11请你遵守排队秩序好吗？我们都赶时间，都等了好长时间。请按队排，你这样插队，别人就赶不上时间了wǒ men dōu gǎn shí jiān (We are all in a hurry.)”, or “CCF12.11请自觉排队，你有急事我也有急事。在公共场所请注意自己的行为举止。nǐ yǒu jí shì wǒ yě yǒu jí shì (You have urgent business, so do I.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Justification”, “Apology”, “opt-out”, “criticism” and “Threat. The examples of “Criticism” are “TTM10.11 คุณรีบมากหรือเปล่าครับ ถ้าไม่รีบมาก ก็ขอความกรุณาเช่นเดียวกับคนอื่นด้วยนะครับ แต่ถ้าจำเป็นจริงๆ ก็ควรจะขอ อนุญาตทุกคนที่คิดจะแซงด้วยนะครับ dtàe taa jam bpen jing jing / gôr kuan jà kôr · a-nú-yâat túk kon tée kun kít jà saeng dúay ná kráp (If (it’s) important, you should ask for permissions from everybody you think you will cut in line.)”. The examples of “threat” are “CCM13.11找死。zhǎo sǐ (Seek

death.)”, “CCM16.11 滚到后面去。 gǔn dào hòu mian qù (Get fucking out to the back.)”, or “CCM17.11 滚 gǔn (Get fucking out.)”(see Table 4.2). The results indicate that TTs said nothing about cutting in line, apologized significantly more than CCs did, while CCs explicitly mentioned cutting in line, justified their displeasure, and criticized the hearer more than TTs did in Situation 11 Cutting in line. Besides, only CCs threatened the hearer.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results suggest significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formulae “Context”, “Threat” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.3). This indicates that in Situation 11 Cutting in line, CC males justified their utterance significantly less than both TT females and CC females. In addition, only CC males threatened the hearer. In addition, TT females used more semantic formulae than TT males did, and CC females also used more semantic formulae than TT females did.

4.2.1.12 Annoying phone rings

In complaining to a stranger whose mobile phone kept ringing at a seminar, both TTs and CCs employed two primary semantic formulae: “Remedy” and “Problem”.

In this situation, both TTs and CCs used “Remedy” the most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to lower the voice, turn off the mobile phone, or talk outside as a request, e.g. “TTM13.12 รบกวนออกไปคุยข้างนอกห้องได้ไหม róp guan · òk bpai kui kâang nôk hông dâai mǎi (Can you please talk outside the room?)”, “CCM4.12 能不能出去接电话。 néng bù néng chū qù jiē diàn huà (Can (you) answer the phone outside?)”, or “CCF7.12 要接电话的话可以出去吗？这里是公共场所，你打扰到别人了 yào jiē diàn huà de huà kě yǐ chū qù mǎ (If (you) want to answer the phone, can (you) go outside?)”; or as a

demand, e.g. “TTM8.12 เบาๆ หน่อยครับ bao bao nòi kráp (Keep (the noise) down.)”, “TTM20.12 ช่วยออกไปคุยข้างนอกครับ chúay · òk bpai kui kâang nôk kráp (Please talk outside.)”, “TTF6.12 ขอ โทษนะค่ะ ช่วยพูดเบาๆ หน่อยค่ะ ดิฉันไม่ได้ยินการบรรยาย chúay pôot bao bao nòi kê (Please speak quietly.)”, “TTF14.12 กรุณาปิดเสียงด้วยค่ะ gà-rú-naa · bpit sǎng dūay kê (Please turn off the sound.)”, “CCM5.12 请你出去打电话。不要打扰别人听研讨！ qǐng nǐ chū qù dǎ diàn huà (Please you go outside to make the phone call.)”, “CCF3.12 请关掉手机，不仅是对他人的尊重也是对自己的负责 qǐng guān diào shǒu jī (Please turn off the phone.)”, or “CCF21.12 麻烦你不在这里接电话可以吗？这里是研讨会，会影响到我们。 má fan nǐ bú zài zhè lǐ jiē diàn huà (Please you don’t answer the phone here.)”.

In addition, both TTs and CCs stated the problem explicitly the most frequently. The problem statement included the bad consequence of annoying phone rings, an assertion that the hearer affected others. For example, “TTM14.12 คุณครับ ช่วยลดเสียงหรือปิดเสียงด้วยครับ ผมไม่ได้ยินการบรรยายเลยครับ pǒm mâi dâai yin gaan ban-yaai loie kráp (I cannot hear the seminar at all.)”, “TTF9.12 คุณค่ะ ช่วย พูดเบาๆ หรือไปรับข้างนอกหน่อยค่ะ ดิฉันได้ยินการบรรยายไม่ชัดเจน dì-chǎn dâai yin gaan ban-yaai mâi chát jayn (I can’t hear the seminar clearly.)”, “CCF25.12 你能不能出去打电话呀？我都听不清演讲的人讲什么了。 wǒ dōu tīng bù qīng yǎn jiǎng de rén jiǎng shén me le (I can’t hear what the speaker is talking about.)”, “TTM5.12 เสียงดังจังครับ ผมหนวกหู sǎng dang jang kráp / pǒm nùak hǒo (So noisy. It deafens me.)”, “TTF7.12 คุณค่ะ กรุณา ไปรับสายของคุณข้างนอกนะค่ะ เสียงมือถือของคุณดังกว่าเสียงที่เขาสัมมนาอีกค่ะ sǎng meu tǎu kǒng kun dang gwàa sǎng tē kǎo sǎm-má-naa èek kê (Your cell phone is even louder than the seminar.)”, “TTF24.12 กรุณา ออกไปรับโทรศัพท์ข้างนอกได้ไหมคะ การกระทำของคุณทำให้ผู้เข้าอบรมเสีย

สมาธิและเป็นการไม่เคารพวิทยากรค่ะ gaan grà-tam kǒng kun tam hâi pōo kâo òp-rom sǎa sà-maa-tí
lái bpen gaan mâi kao-róp wít-tá-yaa gon kâ (Your behavior makes other participants
lose concentration and shows disrespect to the speaker.)”, “CCF4.12你可以出去接电话
吗?你这样在里面接已经影响到大家了 nǐ zhè yàng zài lǐ miàn jiē yǐ jīng yǐng xiǎng
dào dà jiā le (Your answering the phone inside has affected everyone.)”, or “CCF7.12要
接电话的话可以出去吗?这里是公共场所, nǐ dǎ rǎo dào bié ren le
(You disturbed others.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae “Apology”, “opt-out”, and “Context” (see Table 4.2). The results suggest that TTs apologized for the potential imposition, e.g. “TTM4.12 ขอโทษครับ
ช่วยโทรศัพท์ที่คุยมาๆ ได้ไหมครับ kǒr tǒht kráp (Excuse me.), and kept silent about the annoying
phone rings significantly more than CCs did; while CCs mentioned the context for the
annoying phone rings more than TTs did, e.g. “CCM6.12这里是公共场合。有电话请
到外面去接好吗? 请不要打扰别人的听讲。 zhè lǐ shì gōng gòng chǎng hé (This is
public occasion.)”, “CCM24.12这里是会议室。请把手机调成静音, 接打电话请到
外面去。 zhè lǐ shì huì yì shì (This is a conference room.)”, or “CCF1.12现在研讨会,
能不能会后接 xiàn zài yán tǎo huì (Now is a seminar.)”.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in semantic formulas “Apology”, “Context” and “Problem” (Table 4.3). This suggests that in Situation 12 Annoying phone rings, only TT males and TT females apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, while CC males and CC females did not. Besides, CC females

mentioned the context for the annoying phone rings significantly more than TT males, TT females and CC males did. In addition, TT females mentioned the annoying phone rings significantly more than TT males, and CC females also did so significantly more than CC males did.

After examining the similarities and differences between TTs and CCs in semantic formulae in 12 situations, the following sub-section will elaborate on the IFMDs employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations.

4.2.2 Comparison of IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

Table 4.4 presents the distribution of IFMDs employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations. In addition, Table 4.5 presents the significant differences between TT and CC males and females in IFMDs in 12 scenarios. This sub-section will compare the IFMDs frequently used by TTs and CCs in 12 situations.

Table 4.4 IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs and CCs in 12 situations

IFMDs	S1		S2		S3		S4		S5		S6	
	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC
Politeness marker	12	8	2	4	1	0	3	1	25*	9	45*	20
Play-down	2	3	0	0	4	3	5*	0	1	3	3	2
Consultative device	2	6	1	0	5	2	3	2	1	11*	1	7*
Hedge	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	9*	14	24
Downtoner	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Minus committer	4	4	4*	0	2	0	0	0	5	3	0	2
Agent avoider	18	23	5	5	5	6	7	15	22	22	25	17
Total (Downgrader)	38	46	12	9	18	12	19	18	55	58	88	72
Scope setter	4	5	1	2	0	3	1	2	1	2	0	0
Overstater	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
Intensifier	4	6	2	2	3	7	3	3	5	5	7	5
Plus committer	0	6*	1	3	18*	4	3	7	3	2	1	2
Lexical intensifier	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Aggressive interrogative	3	8	10	6	5	3	7	14	4	1	2	1
Total (Upgrader)	11	26	14	13	27	18	14	26	14	10	11	8
IFMDs	S7		S8		S9		S10		S11		S12	
	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC	TT	CC
Politeness marker	12	6	3	7	4*	0	12	6	3	7	4*	0
Play-down	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	1
Consultative device	0	2	1	2	0	0	0	2	1	2	0	0
Hedge	0	3	0	5*	1	1	0	3	0	5*	1	1
Downtoner	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Minus committer	6	3	5	7	0	2	6	3	5	7	0	2
Agent avoider	21	27	10	16	24*	9	21	27	10	16	24*	9
Total (Downgrader)	40	41	20	37*	32*	13	40	41	20	37*	32*	13
Scope setter	0	0	0	3	1	7*	0	0	0	3	1	7*
Overstater	3	8	10	12	0	0	3	8	10	12	0	0
Intensifier	3	5	7	4	0	1	3	5	7	4	0	1
Plus committer	2	1	3	0	0	3	2	1	3	0	0	3
Lexical intensifier	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
Aggressive interrogative	1	1	0	0	1	5	1	1	0	0	1	5
Total (Upgrader)	9	16	20	20	3	16	9	16	20	20	3	16

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference between TTs and CCs, with $p < .05$

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 4.5 Significant differences among TT and CC males and females in IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	IFMDs	TT		CC		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Plus committer	0	0	1	5	.008*
	Downgrader	21	17	26	20	N.S.
	Upgrader	2	9	9	17	.007*
Faded suit	Downgrader	5	7	2	7	N.S.
	Upgrader	9	5	5	8	N.S.
Undelivered paper	Downgrader	10	8	5	7	N.S.
	Upgrader	11	16	8	10	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	Play-down	1	4	0	0	.031*
	Downgrader	9	10	12	6	N.S.
	Upgrader	7	7	14	12	N.S.
Noisy roommate	Politeness marker	12	13	5	4	.014*
	Consultative device	0	1	5	6	.023*
	Downgrader	28	27	26	32	N.S.
	Upgrader	8	6	1	9	N.S.
Noisy neighbour	Downgrader	51	37	39	33	N.S.
	Upgrader	6	5	3	5	N.S.
Late arriving classmate	Downgrader	19	21	18	23	N.S.
	Upgrader	7	2	7	9	N.S.
Late arriving friend	Downgrader	6	14	15	22	.035*
	Upgrader	9	11	7	13	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	Downgrader	15	17	2	11	.005*
	Upgrader	2	1	10	6	.029*
Broken mobile phone	Downgrader	18	14	14	12	N.S.
	Upgrader	15	16	16	23	N.S.
Cutting in line	Politeness marker	16	17	7	16	.033*
	Intensifier	0	1	2	8	.002*
	Downgrader	36	35	28	38	N.S.
	Upgrader	3	3	4	11*	.010*
Annoying phone rings	Consultative device	0	0	2	5	.018*
	Downgrader	28	33	30	34	N.S.
	Upgrader	2	0	3	1	N.S.
Total	Downgrader	246	240	217	245	N.S.
	Upgrader	81	81	87	124	N.S.

Notes: N=30;

Significant difference among TT and CC males and females, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among TT and CC males and females

4.2.2.1 Negligent worker

In this situation, both TTs and CCs avoided mentioning the hearer in their utterance frequently, e.g. “CCF11.1怎么能把这么重要的事情忘记呢。快点给我装订吧。 zěn me néng bǎ zhè me zhòng yào shì qing wàng jì ne (How can (you) forget such an important matter?)”. Besides, TTs also employed politeness markers “กรุณา gà-rú-naa (please)”, “请qǐng (please)” frequently, e.g. “กรุณา ตรวจสอบรายการบัญชีรับงานให้ด้วยครับ gà-rú-naa · dtruat sòp raai gaan ban-chee ráp ngaan hâi dūay kráp (Please check your order record book.)”, or “CCF9.1昨天已预定过，今天来拿怎么没有呢？请立刻给我装订五份，并帮我送到答辩委。 qǐng lì kè gěi wǒ zhuāng dīng wǔ fèn (Please bind me five copies immediately.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate a significant difference between TTs and CCs in “Plus committers” in Situation 1 Negligent worker (see Table 4.4). The result suggests that only CCs stressed the hearer’s or the speaker’s involvement, e.g. “CCF6.1我昨天不是跟你说过了我今天十一点会来取这些论文吗？你们竟然还没给我装订。 wǒ zuó tiān bù shì gēn nǐ shuō guò le wǒ jīn tiān shí yī diǎn huì lái qǔ zhè xiē lùn wén ma (Didn’t I tell you that I would get these theses at 11.00 today?)”.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show a significant difference among TT and CC males and females in “Plus committers” (see Table 4.5). This indicates that CC females used “你知道nǐ zhī dào...(Do you know ...” significantly more than TT males, TT females and CC males did, e.g. “CCF16.1老板，你说我经常到你这儿来打印，你都应该认识我了，哎.....那怎么办啊，现在装订一下吧，我下午就要用。 nǐ shuō wǒ jīng cháng dào nǐ zhè rǎ lái dǎ yìn nǐ dōu yīng gāi rèn shi wǒ le (You say I often come to you to photocopy, and you should have known Me.)”.

4.2.2.2 Faded suit

In this situation, only TTs employed “Aggressive interrogative”, e.g. “TTM14.2 ทำไมชุดสูทของ ผมจึงสีซีดลง เกิดความผิดพลาดอะไรขึ้นครับ *gèr kwaam pít plâat a-rai kèun kráp (What’s wrong?)*”, but CCs did not use any downgraders or upgraders very frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and CCs in “Minus committers” (see Table 4.4). The result suggests that only TTs reduced their involvement in mentioning the complainable by saying “ฉันไม่รู้ *chăn mâi róa (I don’t know...)*”, e.g. “TTM24.2 ขอโทษครับเสื้อสูทผมสีมันเปลี่ยนไปจากเดิม ไม่ทราบที่ทางร้านซักหรือใช้น้ำยาอะไร ถึงได้ทำให้สีเปลี่ยนไป และจะแก้ไขหรือรับผิดชอบอย่างไรได้บ้าง *mâi sâap wâa taang raan sák rêu chái nám yaa a-rai tẻung dâai tam hâi sẻ bplian bpai (I don’t know how the laundry washed (it) and what detergent was used*”.

However, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate no significant differences among TT and CC males and females in any IFMD (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that TT and CC used IFMDs in a similar way to a laundry owner.

4.2.2.3 Undelivered paper

In this situation, TTs frequently employed plus committers, e.g. “TTM10.3 รู้ไหม ว่าผมไม่ผ่านรายวิชานี้เพราะไม่ได้ส่งรายงาน และผมก็รู้สึกว่ารายงานตอนนั้นผมฝากคุณส่งนะ แต่ไม่รู้ว่ามีอุปสรรคหรือปัญหาอะไรระหว่างนั้นหรือเปล่า คุณคิดว่าไงครับ *róa mải wâa pỏm mâi pỏan raai wí-chaa nẻ prỏr mâi dâai sẻng raai ngaan/ (Do you know I don’t pass this course because I did not submit the paper?)*”. But CCs did not use any downgraders or upgraders very frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and CCs in “Plus committers” (see Table 4.4). The result suggests that TTs involved the

hearer by using “你知道nǐ zhī dào...(Do you know ...)” significantly more than CCs did. On the one hand, plus committers may make TTs sound more interactive than CCs did. On the other hand, TTs may sound more confrontational than CCs did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT and CC males and females in “Plus committers” and “Scope setter” (see Table 4.5). The scope setters were exemplified in “CCF1.3你应了呀，哦！怪我，没再提醒你，没事，我自己的错，不怪你。nǐ yīng le ya é guài wǒ méi zài tí xǐng nǐ méi shì wǒ zì jǐ de cuò bú guài nǐ (You have promised. Oh! It’s my fault, not reminding you again. It’s all right. It’s my fault, not yours.” The results suggest that within the same culture, males and females did not differ in using plus committers, but TT females used plus committers significantly more than CC males, and CC females did. Besides, only CC females exclaimed about failing a course with a scope setter like “Oh”.

4.2.2.4 Forgetful classmate

In this situation, TTs did not use any IFMDs frequently, but CCs frequently avoided mentioning the hearer in their utterance, e.g. “CCM7.4你在干什么？答应我的事，怎么没有完成。dā ying wǒ de shì zěn me méi yǒu wán chéng ((You) promised me, but why (you) haven’t completed?)”, or “CCF15.4你都答应我送我过去，怎么可以忘记呢！ 你不知道这对我很重要吗？怎么可以这样，下次不找你了。zěn me kě yǐ wàng jì ne (How could (you) forget?)”. In addition, they frequently employed aggressive interrogatives, e.g. “CCM4.4怎么办呢，你发生什么事了吗？zěn me ne (What happened?)”, or “CCF7.4你去哪了，不是说好送电脑去维修的？打电话也不接nǐ qù nǎ le (Where have you been?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and CCs in play-downs in Situation 4 Forgetful classmate (see Table 4.4). This indicates that only TTs used play-downs, e.g. “TTF1.4 ไม่เป็นไร เพราะเราเตรียมตัวมาดีแล้ว mâi bpen rai / prór rao dtriam dtua maa dee láew (Never mind because I am already well-prepared.)”

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate a significant difference among TT and CC males and females in “Play-downs” (see Table 4.5). The result suggests that TT females used play-downs significantly more than TT males, CC males, and CC females did.

4.2.2.5 Noisy roommate

In this situation, TTs used “Politeness marker” the most frequently, e.g. “TTM4.5 บ๊าย หนอยครับ ดึกมากแล้ว bao bao nòi kráp / dèuk mâak · láew (Keep the noise down. It's already very late.)”. They avoided mentioning the agent of SUA the second most frequently, which was most frequently employed by CCs, e.g. “CCF5.5 今天去哪里玩了? 最近很high嘛, 回来这么晚。我睡觉很浅, 你晚回来的时候尽量小点声好吗? jīn tiān qù nǎ lǐ wán le (Where did (you) play around today?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences in “Politeness marker”, “Consultative device”, and “Hedge” (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that TTs used politeness markers significantly more than CCs did, e.g. “TTM20.5 ช่วย เงียบ หนอยครับ ผมนอนแล้ว chûay · ngîap nòi kráp · pǒm non láew (Be quiet please. I am sleeping.)”, but CCs used consultative devices significantly more than TTs did, e.g. “CCM5.5 你晚上总是回来很晚。害得我睡不好觉, 请你以后改改好吗? qǐng nǐ yǐ hòu gǎi gǎi hǎo mǎ (Please you improve (it), all right?)” and hedges, e.g. “CCM22.5 和你商量件事。你每天很晚回来, 肯定很忙。不过你回来后能不能声音小一点

。声音太大，根本无法睡。bú guò nǐ huí lai hòu néng bù néng shēng yīn xiǎo yì diǎn
(But can you keep quieter a little bit after you come back?).

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT and CC males and females in “Politeness marker” and “Consultative devices” (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that within the same culture, males did not differ from each other in the two IFMDs, but across cultures, TT females used significantly more politeness markers than CC males and CC females, and that CC females used more consultative devices than TT males and females did.

4.2.2.6 Noisy neighbor

In this situation, TTs used “Politeness marker” “chūay (please)”, “qǐng (please)” the most frequently, e.g. “TTM2.6 รบกวนช่วยเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์หน่อยได้ไหมครับ เสียงมันดังไปถึงห้องผมเลยครับ róp guan · chūay · bao sāng toh-rá-tát nòi dāai mǎi · kráp (Can you please turn down the TV?).” They also used “Agent avoider” the second most frequently, e.g. “TTM12.6 เนื่องจากพรุ่งนี้ผมจะมีสอบ รบกวนเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์ด้วยนะครับ ขอขอบคุณครับ róp guan · bao sāng toh-rá-tát dūay ná kráp (Please turn down the TV.)”. In addition, they also used “Hedge” the third most frequently, e.g. “TTM11.6 ขอโทษครับ ช่วยเบาเสียงลงหน่อยได้ไหม ครับ chūay · bao sāng long nòi dāai mǎi · kráp (Can you please turn down the sound a bit?).” On the other hand, CCs used hedges the most frequently, e.g. “CCM12.6明天我有急事需要休息麻烦小声点。má fan xiǎo shēng diǎn (Please be quieter a bit.)”, politeness markers the second most frequently, e.g. “CCM25.6你好请问你可以把电视声音放小一点吗? 我明天要参加一个重要的考试。电视声音太大我睡不着。qǐng wèn nǐ kě yǐ bǎ diàn shì shēng yīn fàng xiǎo yì diǎn mǎ (Would you please turn down TV a little bit?)” and agent avoider the third most frequently, e.g. “CCM11.6我明天有考试

。 关电视睡觉吧。 guān diàn shì shuì jiào bā ((You) turn off TV and sleep, all right?)”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences in “Politeness marker”, and “Consultative device” (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that TTs used politeness markers significantly more frequently than CCs did, but CCs used consultative devices significantly more than TTs did, e.g. “CCF9.6你好，打扰了。最近经常听到你家的电视声，我明天要考试了，麻烦把音调调小点好吗？谢谢！
wǒ míng tiān yào kǎo shì le má fan bǎ yīn diào diào xiǎo diǎn hǎo ma (I’m going to have an exam tomorrow. Please you turn down a little bit, all right?)”.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in “Politeness marker”, and “Agent avoider” (see Table 4.5). The result suggests that TT males employed politeness markers significantly more than CC males did, and that CC females used agent avoider significantly less than TT males, TT females, and CC males did.

4.2.2.7 Late arriving classmate

In this situation, TTs avoided mentioning the agent of SUA the most frequently and employed politeness markers the second most frequently, but CCs avoided mentioning the agent of SUA the most frequently, e.g. “CCM4. 7能不能不迟到。每次都如此。neng bu neng bu chi dao (Can (you) not be late?)”, “CCM20.7为什么总是迟到，明天就要交作业了。wei shen me zong shi chi dao (Why (do you) always arrive late?)”, “CCF5.7这么晚才来，迟到的习惯可不好zhe me wan cai lai (Come so late.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show no significant difference between TTs and CCs in any IFMDs (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that TTs did not differ from CCs in IFMDs in this situation.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate no significant difference among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in IFMDs (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that TT and CC males and females did not differ from one another in IFMDs in this situation.

4.2.2.8 Late arriving friend

In this situation, both TTs and CCs avoided mentioning the agent of SUA the most frequently, and employed overstaters the second most frequently, e.g. “TTF3.7 ตรงเวลา บ้างดิ ให้คนอื่นรอดตลอด สำนักบ้างไหม hâi kon èun ror dtà-lòt/ (You always made people wait for you.)”, “TTF28.7 ทำไมมาสายอีกแล้วอะ เราอยู่ต่อไม่ได้นะ เรามีงานต้องทำต่อนะ tam-mai maa sâai èek láew a / rao yòo dtòr mâi dâai ná / rao mee ngaan dtông tam dtòr nâ (Why are you late again?”, “CCF12.7你每次都迟到，难道不能早点过来吗？这作业是我们两个人的，并不是我一个人的，希望你能积极一点。nǐ měi cì dōu chí dào (You arrive late every time.).”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and CCs in “Hedge” and downgraders (see Table 4.4). The result suggests that only CC employed hedges, e.g. “CCF10. 8下次守时一点吧。xià cì shǒu shí yì diǎn bā (Next time be on time a little bit, all right?” In addition, CCs employed significantly more downgraders than TTs did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in “Hedge” and “Scope setter” (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that CC females used hedges significantly more than TT males, TT females did, and that CC males used more scope setters, e.g. “CCM7.8唉。老毛病又犯了吧。不要每次都迟到。āi lǎo máo bìng yòu fàn le b ā (Oh, old habit again.)”.

4.2.2.9 Lost lecture notes

In this situation, TTs frequently avoided mentioning the hearer, e.g. “TTM2.9 ลองกลับไปหาใหม่สิ...แล้วถ้าไม่เจอ ฉันจะเอาอะไรอ่านหะคราวนี้ long glàp bpai hǎa mài sì (Try to look for (them) again.)”. However, CCs did not use any downgraders or upgraders very frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in “Politeness marker”, “Agent avoider”, “Scope setter” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that only TTs employed politeness markers in this situation, e.g. “TTM12.9 เนื่องจากเป็นเอกสารสำคัญ รบกวนช่วยหาอีกครั้งนะ ครับ ขอคุณครับ róp guan · chûay hǎa èek kráng ná kráp/ (Please look for (them) again.)”, that TTs avoided mentioning the agent of SUA significantly more than CCs did, e.g. “TTM20.9 ไปหามา bpai hǎa maa (Find (them) for (me).)”, and that CCs used scope setters more than TTs did, e.g. “TTM26.9 คุณพระช่วย นายทำโน้ตฉันหายหรือ ฉันจะสอบผ่านโดยไม่มีโน้ตได้อย่างไร นายจะรับผิดชอบอย่างไรหะ kun prá chûay / naai tam nóht chǎn hǎai rêu (OMG! You lost my lecture note.)” Besides, TTs used significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in “Agent avoider”, and “Aggressive interrogative” (see Table 4.5). The aggressive interrogatives were exemplified in “你开玩笑吗? nǐ kāi wán xiào mǎ (Are you joking?)”, or “CCM4.9 怎么回事。咋这么不小心啊。 zěn me huí shì (What happened)”. The results suggest that TT males avoided mentioning the hearer significantly more than CC males did, and that TT females did so more than CC females did. In addition, CC males asked whether the hearer was joking more than the other three groups did.

4.2.2.10 Broken mobile phone

In this situation, TTs used overstaters the most frequently, e.g. “TTM2.10 ทำไมมันเสียบ่อยจัง...ทางร้านจะรับผิดชอบยังไง tam-mai man sǎ bòi jang (Why is it often broken?)”, or “TTM4.10 ช่วยซ่อมอีกได้ไหม เสียอีกแล้ว sǎ èek láew (It is broken again.)”. In addition, they also avoided mentioning the hearer as the second most frequently used downgrader, which was most frequently used by CCs, e.g. “TTM23.10 โทรศัพท์ของผมขัดข้องครับ ช่วยแก้ไขหรือซ่อมให้หน่อย เพราะผมต้องใช้งานทุกวันครับ chúay · gâe kǎi rěu sôm hâi nòi (Please fix or repair (it).)”, or “CCF10.10 卖给我的手机是不是次品啊? mài gěi wǒ de shǒu jī shì bu shì cì pǐn ā (Did (you) sell me a faulty mobile phone?)”. The second most frequently used IFMDs by CCs was intensifiers “那么 nà me (so)”, “很 hěn (quite)”, and “非常 fēi cháng (very)”, e.g. “CCM5.10 你卖得手机质量太差了我要退货。 nǐ mài dé shǒu jī zhì liàng tài chà le (The mobile phone you sold is too poor in quality.” In addition, TTs also used politeness markers as the third most frequently used downgrader, e.g. “TTM9.10 ช่วยดูโทรศัพท์มือถือให้หน่อยครับ ฟังใช้แค่สองอาทิตย์ก็พังอีกแล้ว chúay · doo toh-rá-sàp meu tǒu hâi nòi kráp / pēung chái kê sōng aa-tít gōr pang èek láew (Please check this cellphone for me. I have used it for only 2 weeks and it is broken again.)”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in “Overstater”, “Intensifier”, and “Plus committer” (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that TTs employed overstaters significantly more than CCs did, and that CCs employed intensifiers “那么 nà me (so)”, “很 hěn (quite)”, and “非常 fēi cháng (very)” and plus committers, “你说过 nǐ shuō guò (You said) ...”, “你解释 nǐ jiě shì (You explain) ...”, significantly more than TTs did, e.g. “CCM27.10 两个多月，新手

机修了又修，修了三次。 还能不能一起愉快的玩耍了。你说怎么办。liǎng gè duō yuè xīn shǒu jī xiū le yòu xiū xiū le sān cì huán néng bù néng yì qǐ yú kuài de wán shuǎ le nǐ shuō zěn me bàn (Within two months, the new mobile phone broke down and got fixed three times. Can it be used joyfully? You tell (me) what to do?”.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in “Overstater”, and “Intensifier” (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that TT females used overstaters significantly more than CC males, and CC females did, and that CC females used more intensifiers more than TT males and TT females did.

4.2.2.11 Cutting in line

In this situation, both TTs and CCs avoided mentioning the hearer the most frequently, e.g. “CCM7.11 别插队。 bié chā duì ((You) Don’t cut in line.)”. In addition, both TTs and CCs employed politeness markers as the second most frequently used downgrader, e.g. “TTM2.11 นี้.....คุณครับ กรุณา ไปต่อแถวด้วยครับ nêe kun kráp · gà-rú-naa · bpai dtòr tǎe dūay kráp (Hey...Mister/Miss...Please queue up)”, or “CCM9.11 年轻人，请自觉排队。 nián qīng rén , qǐng zì jiào pái duì 。”. Moreover, CCs also used intensifiers as the third frequently used upgrader “太tài (too)”, “那么nà me (so)”, “很hěn (very)”, e.g. “CCM18.11我等很久了，为何如此自私。wǒ děng hěn jiǔ le wéi hé rú cǐ zì sī (I’ve been kept waiting for a very long time.”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TTs and CCs in “Consultative device”, and “Intensifier”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that CCs used consultative devices “行吗

xíng mǎ (all right?)”, and “好吗hǎo mǎ (ok)?”, e.g. “CCM30.11请排队好不好。我有急事等一个多小时了。qǐng pái duì hǎo bu hǎo (Please queue up, all right?)”, and intensifiers significantly more than TTs did. In addition, CCs used significantly more downgraders than TTs did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TT and CC males and females in “Politeness marker” and “Intensifier” (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that CC males used politeness markers significantly less than TT males, TT females and CC females, and that CC females used intensifiers significantly more than the other three groups did.

4.2.2.12 Annoying phone rings

In this situation, TTs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, e.g. “TTM3.12 ช่วยเบาเสียงคุยได้ไหมครับ chúay · bao sāng kui dāi mǎi · kráp (Can you please talk quietly?)” and agent avoiders as the second most frequently used downgrader, e.g. “TTM8.12 เบาๆ หน่อยครับ bao bao nòi kráp (Keep (the noise) down.)”. However, CCs avoided mentioning the agent the most frequently, e.g. “CCM1.12 可以出去接吗? kě yǐ chū qù jiē mǎ (Can (you) go outside to answer the phone?)”, and politeness markers as the second most frequently used downgrader, e.g. “CCM3.12 请出去接电话。qǐng chū qù jiē diàn huà (Please go outside to answer the phone.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in “Politeness marker”, consultative devices, hedges, minus committers and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 4.4). The results suggest that TTs used politeness markers, e.g. “TTF30.12 รบกวน ใช้โทรศัพท์ที่ด้านนอกด้วยค่ะ róp guan · chái toh-rá-sàp dāan nôk dūay kâ (Please use the telephone outside.)”, minus committers, e.g. “TTF1.12 คุยข้างนอกก็

ไหม้ kui kâang nôk dee mǎi já (Is it better to talk outside?)” significantly more than CCs did, while CCs used consultative devices, e.g. “CCM6.12这里是公共场合。有电话请到外面去接好吗？请不要打扰别人的听讲。 zhè lǐ shì gōng gòng chǎng hé yǒu diàn huà qǐng dào wài miàn qù jiē hǎo ma? qǐng bùyào dǎrǎo biérén de tīng jiǎng. zhè lǐ shì gōng gòng chǎng hé shēng yīn xiǎo diǎn (This is a public occasion. Please step outside to answer the phone, all right?)”, and hedges, e.g. “CCM19.12这是公共场合，声音小点。 zhè shì gōng gòng chǎng hé shēng yīn xiǎo diǎn (This is a public occasion. Be quieter a bit.)”, significantly more than TTs did. In addition, TTs used significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate a significant difference among TT males, TT females, CC males and CC females in consultative devices (see Table 4.5). The results suggest that CC females used consultative devices significantly more than TT males, and TT females did.

After comparing similarities and difference between TTs and CCs in terms of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, the present study will report the perception of severity of the offence in 12 situations by TTs and CCs, so that the readers can understand the similarities and differences in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining.

4.3 Perception of severity of the offence in 12 situations by TTs and CCs

Since perception of severity of offence usually determines the directness levels of complaining, the present study also investigates the severity of offence in 12 situations perceived by TTs and CCs (see Table 4.6) and severity of offence perceived by TT and CC males and females (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.6 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TTs and CCs

Perception of severity of offence	TT	Relation	CC	Sig.
	\bar{X} (S.D.)		\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Situation 1 Negligent worker	2.00(1.28)	<	2.95(0.95)	.000*
Situation 2 Faded suit	1.90(0.95)	<	3.15(1.05)	000*
Situation 3 Undelivered paper	2.38(1.25)	<	3.50(1.03)	000*
Situation 4 Forgetful classmate	1.78(0.92)	<	2.87(1.11)	000*
Situation 5 Noisy roommate	1.53(0.72)	<	2.62(0.88)	000*
Situation 6 Noisy neighbour	1.47(0.70)	<	2.87(1.03)	000*
Situation 7 Late arriving classmate	1.65(0.97)	<	2.57(0.93)	000*
Situation 8 Late arriving friend	1.62(0.78)	<	2.47(1.02)	000*
Situation 9 Lost lecture notes	2.27(1.25)	<	3.10(1.07)	000*
Situation 10 Broken mobile phone	1.93(1.13)	<	3.52(0.89)	000*
Situation 11 Cutting in line	2.03(1.19)	<	3.13(1.16)	000*
Situation 12 Annoying phone rings	1.83(0.99)	<	3.07(1.02)	000*

Notes: N=60;

<=Less serious than;

N.S.=Not significant difference between TTs and CCs;

*=Significant difference between TTs and CCs, with $p < .05$

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

Generally speaking, TTs perceived the offence in all 12 situations as less serious than CCs did. The highest level of offence perceived by TTs was “serious”, while CCs perceived the highest level of offence as “very serious”. TTs perceived the unfinished theses from a photocopy shop, undelivered paper by a close friend, lost lecture notes by a classmate, and cutting in line by a stranger as serious offence. On the other hand, CCs perceived the faded suit from a laundry, undelivered paper by a close friend, lost lecture by a classmate, an easily broken mobile phone, cutting in line by a stranger and annoying phone rings at a seminar as very serious offence.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and CCs in their perception of offence in 12 situations. The results suggest that CCs perceived

the offence in 12 situations as significantly more serious than TTs did (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.7 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TT and CC males and females

Perception of severity of offence	TT		CC		Sig.
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Situation 1 Negligent worker	2.10(1.27)	1.90(1.30)	3.27(1.05)	2.63(0.72)	000*
Situation 2 Faded suit	2.03(1.07)	1.77(0.82)	3.47(1.01)	2.83(1.02)	000*
Situation 3 Undelivered paper	2.53(1.20)	2.23(1.30)	3.80(0.89)	3.20(1.10)	000*
Situation 4 Forgetful classmate	2.03(1.03)	1.53(0.73)	3.07(1.14)	2.67(1.06)	000*
Situation 5 Noisy roommate	1.60(0.86)	1.47(0.57)	2.80(1.06)	2.43(0.63)	000*
Situation 6 Noisy neighbour	1.53(0.86)	1.40(0.50)	3.13(1.07)	2.60(0.93)	000*
Situation 7 Late arriving classmate	1.73(1.11)	1.57(0.82)	2.63(1.03)	2.50(0.82)	000*
Situation 8 Late arriving friend	1.67(0.96)	1.57(0.57)	2.50(1.17)	2.43(0.86)	000*
Situation 9 Lost lecture notes	2.07(1.11)	2.47(1.36)	3.17(1.09)	3.03(1.07)	000*
Situation 10 Broken mobile phone	1.93(1.17)	1.93(1.11)	3.70(1.02)	3.33(0.71)	000*
Situation 11 Cutting in line	2.03(1.27)	2.03(1.13)	3.37(1.35)	2.90(0.88)	000*
Situation 12 Annoying phone rings	1.80(1.00)	1.87(1.01)	3.30(1.09)	2.83(0.91)	000*

Notes: N=60;

N.S.=Not significant difference among TT and CC males and females;

*=Significant difference among TT and CC males and females, with $p < .05$;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TT and CC males and females in their perception of severity of offence in the twelve situations (see Table 4.7). The results suggest that within the same culture, TT males perceived severity of offence in the first eight situations as more serious than females did. But in the last four situations, TT males perceived the offence as less, or as serious as, than TT females did. On the other hand, CC males perceived severity of offence in 12 situations as more serious than CC females did. Across cultures, CC males and females perceived the offence as more serious than TT males and females did.

When interviewed about the severity of faded suit by a new laundry, a Thai participant said, “It’s quite natural for a suit to fade. Maybe it’s my suit’s problem, so I should not blame the laundry.” Quite the opposite, a Chinese participant replied, “If I sent a suit to be dry-cleaned, it must be my favorite and the laundry should do their job well.” Thus, TTs asked the context more than CCs did, e.g. “TTM13.2 ทำไมสูทผมสีถึงซีด มันเกิดอะไรขึ้นกับเสื้อผม คุณซักยังไง tam-mai sòot pǒm sěi tǐng sēet · man gèrt a-rai kêun gáp sēua pǒm · kun sák yang ngai (Why did my suit fade? What happened to my suit? How did you wash it?)”. On the contrary, CCs criticized the hearer more than TTs did, e.g. “CCM2.2会不会洗衣服啊？不会洗开啥店啊？ hùi bú hùi xǐ yī fu ā bú hùi xǐ kāi shá diàn ā (Can (you) wash clothes? If not, why (do you) open a laundry?”, or “CCM15.2你们干洗店的洗衣水平不行啊。 nǐ men gān xǐ diàn de xǐ yī shuǐ píng bù xíng ā (Your laundry is not good at washing clothes.)” Therefore, it can be inferred that the differences in their utterances reflected the speaker’s different expectations of TTs and CCs.

To sum up, the perception data showed that CCs usually perceived severity of offence in 12 situations as significantly more serious than TTs did, but both TTs and CCs ranked the offence in Situation 3 Undelivered paper, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 11 Cutting in line as serious or very serious offence. The interview data indicates that the speaker’s gender, social distance, and relative power between the interlocutors contribute to the perception of severity of offence in 12 situations.

4.4 Discussion

The discussion will focus on five subcategories of semantic formulae of complaining, and two types of IFMDs of complaining.

Generally speaking, TTs and CCs did not differ from each other in explicitness of complaining, which might be explained by the commonality of Asian cultures. However, CCs aggravated their complaining by criticizing the hearer significantly more than TTs did (see Table 4.1). Compared with CCs, TTs appeared more reluctant in making complaints. When they had to, they apologized for the potential imposition of the hearer and mentioned the context for the utterance. In this sense, CCs might sound more aggressive than TTs did. The reason behind might be that TTs found complaining more imposing than CCs did. However, TTs and CCs did not differ in downgraders and upgraders.

The following sub-sections will elaborate on the effects of the speaker's gender, and social distance and relative power between interlocutors on the semantic formulae and IFMDs.

4.4.1 Speaker's gender

Significant differences were found among TT and CC males and females in their complaining. Generally speaking, CC females complained significantly more explicitly than CC males, TT males and TT females did. Besides, they justified their complaining the most. On the other hand, TT females aggravated the illocutionary force of complaining by warning the hearer. Similarly, CC males apologized the least for the potential imposition of complaining and mentioned the least the context for the utterance.

The results suggest gender differences among TT and CC males and females, CC females complained the most explicitly, which differs from Li et al.'s (2006) finding that gender did not influence the directness of complaining.

For example, in Situation 1 Negligent worker, CC females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TT males, TT females and CC males did (see Table 4.3). In Situation 5 Noisy roommate, both TT and CC females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than their male counterparts did. This also happened in Situation 9 Broken mobile phone, and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. The results seem to suggest that females tend to complain more directly than males did. However, the findings differ from Noisiri's (2015) study that women tended to complain more indirectly than men did with their noisy flatmate. Maybe in Situation 5 Noisy roommate, the hearer is not regarded as an intimate by some TT females.

Gender differences among males and females found in the present study conform to the Asian educational conception that "Bring up a daughter in a rich environment, and a son in a poor environment". This conception encourages males to think twice what they want to speak out, and females to speak out freely what they think. Furthermore, in Asian cultures, politeness is always emphasized to females than to males.

When it comes to IFMDs, TT and CC males and females did not differ significantly from one another in either downgraders or upgraders (see Table 4.1). Therefore, gender equality in terms of IFMDs of complaining contradicts DeCapua's (1989) observation that the men used more upgraders, and that the women used more downgraders.

4.4.2 Social distance

In the present study, the social distance involved three values: strangers, acquaintances, and intimates. Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings represent the social distance of strangers; Situation 4 Forgetful classmate, Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, Situation 7 Late classmate and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes stand for the social distance of acquaintances; and Situation 3 Undelivered paper,

Situation 5 Noisy roommate, and Situation 8 Late arriving friend stand for the social distance of intimates.

In terms of semantic formulae, the tendency is that both TTs and CCs increased the explicitness of complaining according to intimacy of the relationship. In other words, when the interlocutor was an intimate, both TTs and CCs complained the most explicitly (see Table 4.2).

As for strangers, more than half of TTs and CCs chose not to state the offence explicitly in Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. However, significant differences were found between TTs and CCs in Situation 11 Cutting in line. When a stranger cut in line, CCs complained significantly more explicitly than TTs did. Besides, they also intensified the illocutionary force of complaining by criticizing the hearer.

As regards acquaintance interlocutors, both TTs and CCs mentioned the offence explicitly very frequently in Situation 4 Forgetful classmate, Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, and Situation 7 Late arriving friend. Situation 9 Lost lecture notes seemed to be an exception here. However, a second thought would reveal that in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, the potential harmful consequences had not become a reality. This explains why both TTs and CCs complained less explicitly in this situation.

When the interlocutor was an intimate, both TTs and CCs intensified the explicitness of complaining in Situation 3 Undelivered paper, Situation 5 Noisy roommate and Situation 8 Late arriving friend. The salient examples come from the contrasts between Situation 5 Noisy roommate and Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, and between Situation 7 Late arriving classmate and Situation 8 Late arriving friend. In these two pairs of situations, the offence was similar, but both TTs and CCs complained very explicitly by

mentioning the offence directly. The increasing explicitness of complaining from strangers to acquaintances to intimates may be accounted for by the necessity of negotiating the relationship. That is, when the interlocutors know each other quite well, they don't think it is necessary to hide their feelings, positive or negative, from each other.

The findings from semantic formulae employed by TTs and CCs resemble Wang's (2007) conclusion that both the English and Chinese groups explicitly mentioned the offence with interlocutors of small social distance. Besides, the findings in terms of explicitness of complaining also echo Tamanaha's (2003) observation with the Japanese that they were generally more indirect toward out-group members (i.e. strangers) than toward in-group interlocutors (i.e. intimates).

Another important semantic formula was "Opt-out". TTs and CCs differ from each in "Opt-out" in Situation 4 Forgetful classmate, Situation 7 Late arriving classmate, Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. From the usage of "Opt-out", we can conclude that in Thai culture, tolerance was reserved more for strangers and acquaintances than for intimates, but not so in Chinese culture.

In Situation 4 Forgetful classmate, TTs employed "Opt-out" the most frequently (see Table 4.2). When interviewed about their silence about the offence, a Thai informant said, "Never mind, I will try to solve the problem by myself." However, some TTs mentioned, "TTF3.4 ไม่พูดอะไรเลย...เบื่อ...เลิกคบ mãi pôot a-rai loie ... bèua lêrk kóp (Keep silent...bored...break the friendship.)", or "TTF11.4 ไม่พูดอะไร (ไม่เชื่อคนนี้อีกต่อไป) mãi pôot a-rai (mãi chêu kon née èk dtòr bpai) (Keep silent. (No longer trust this person))". Therefore, silence of TTs may have two interpretations: nothing serious, or something too serious to talk. Instead of keeping silent about the offence, CCs criticized the hearer more than TTs did, e.g. "CCM15.4 答应同学的事情, 你不应该忘记。 dā ying tóng

xué de shì qīng nǐ bù yīng gāi wàng jì (Whatever (you) have promised your classmate, you shouldn't have forgotten.)” As a result, CCs might sound more aggressive than TTs did to a forgetful classmate.

In Situation 7 Late arriving classmate, TTs employed “Opt-out” the second most frequently. When interviewed about their silence about others’ being late, a Thai participant said, “I don’t want to offend the friend.” Compared with them, CCs chose to mention others’ being late more than TTs did in both Situation 7 Late arriving classmate, and Situation 8 Late arriving friend. The reason behind may be that the Thai culture, one of the Southeast Asian cultures, is more typical of polychronic-time than the Chinese culture is. Polychronic-time implies that the Thai people value people and human relationships more than tasks (Samovar, 2009). The differences between TTs and CCs in “Opt-out” suggest that TTs were more reluctant to making complaint to acquaintances and strangers than CCs did.

In view of IFMDs, neither TTs nor CCs employed upgraders very frequently, but they produced a lot of downgraders to mitigate the illocutionary force of complaining. The statistics reveal that both TTs and CCs employed downgraders most frequently with acquaintance in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, followed by strangers in Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings (see Table 4.4). Therefore, we can infer both TTs and CCs mitigated the pragmatic force of complaining with an acquaintance, a stranger, and an intimate in a descending order. The findings in IFMDs of complaining repeat Wolfson’s (1983) reflection that acquaintances need more solidarity-establishing speech behavior than strangers and intimates.

Significant differences were found between TTs and CCs in downgraders in Situation 8 Late arriving friend and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes. Although CCs chose

to explicitly mentioned friend's late arriving more than TTs did, they mitigated the illocutionary force of complaining by downgraders. Differently, even though TTs mentioned the offence less explicitly than CCs did in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, they still soften the illocutionary force of complaining through downgraders. This suggests that in Thai and Chinese cultures, larger social distance demands more IFMDs to negotiate the relationship.

4.4.3 Relative power

Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone involved the hearer of lower relative power, but in Situation 1 Negligent worker, the hearer was also an acquaintance.

Both TTs and CCs explicitly mentioned the offence when the hearer was of lower relative power. For example, both TTs and CCs explicitly mentioned the offence explicitly in Situation 2 Faded suit, and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, where the hearer was of lower relative power (see Table 4.2). Noisiri (2015) explained that, in Thai social status, a waiter is usually in a lower position than the customer and has a duty to provide the customer with good service. If a customer does not get it, he or she has every right to complain about it directly and aggressively, without being afraid that it would be discourteous. Through this study, the same might hold true with Chinese social status.

However, TTs became less explicit when the hearer was an acquaintance of lower relative power. For example, in Situation 1 Negligent worker, TTs did not explicitly mention the offence as they did in Situation 2 and Situation 10. On the contrary, CCs still chose to explicitly mention the offence when the hearer was an acquaintance of lower relative power. Therefore, the combination of social distance and relative power changed TTs in their complaining, but did not change CCs.

In terms of IFMDs, both TTs and CCs tended to employ less downgraders, even more upgraders toward a stranger of a lower relative power, but more downgraders toward an acquaintance of lower relative power than with a stranger of lower relative power (see Table 4.4). The findings conform to Nakhle, Naghavi, and Razavi's (2014) study that social power may cause differential use of complaining utterance.

In Situation 2 Faded suit, neither TTs nor CCs employed many downgraders or upgraders with the hearer. And in Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, TTs employed overstaters to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “TTM2.10 ทำไมมันเสียบ่อยจัง...ทางร้านจะรับผิดชอบยังไง tam-mai man sǎ bòi jang ... / taang ráan jà ráp pít chòp yang ngai (Why is it often broken?...How the shop will responsible for this?)”, while CCs employed intensifiers to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “CCF15.10 这手机质量太差了，一直坏，你们要负责重新换个新手机才行。 zhè shǒu jī zhì liàng tài chà le (The quality of the mobile phone is too poor.)”.

However, when the hearer became an acquaintance of lower relative power, both TTs and CCs used more downgraders than toward a stranger of lower relative power. For example, both TTs and CCs used more “Politeness marker” and “Agent avoider” in Situation 1 Negligent worker than they did in Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. Therefore, it can be inferred that lower relative power leads the speaker to use less IFMDs of complaining in both Thai and Chinese cultures. The findings resemble Yuan's (2009) conclusion that the contextual factors of social distance and relative power between the interlocutors influence the strategy choices made by the Chinese participants.

4.5 Summary

This chapter compared the similarities and differences between TTs and CCs in terms of the semantic formulae, and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations. The results indicate that perception of severity of the offence, the speaker's gender, social distance and relative power between interlocutors influenced TTs and CCs in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining.



CHAPTER 5

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION II: INTERCULTURAL
PRAGMATIC STUDY OF THE SPEECH ACT OF
COMPLAINING PERFORMED BY THAI AND
CHINESE ELF SPEAKERS IN ENGLISH**

Chapter Five attempts to answer the second research question:

2) What are the similarities or differences between the complaining realization patterns produced by Thai and Chinese *ELF* learners in English? And how?

As the complaining realization patterns were composed of semantic formulae and illocutionary force indicating devices (IFMDs), the researcher first reported the overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs used by Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English (TEs) and Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English (CEs), and then the semantic formulae and IFMDs used by TEs and CEs in twelve situations respectively. At the same time, the Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to find out significant differences between TEs and CEs in these two aspects. After that, the researcher presented the perception data of the offences obtained from the participants. Finally, the researcher attempted to discuss the similarities and differences from the perspective of the speaker's gender, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

5.1 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

The twelve semantic formulae are divided into five subcategories: “Problem” makes explicit complaining; “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Threat” aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining; “Opt-out” makes no complaint; “Context”, “Justification”, “Remedy” and “Valuation” supplement complaining; and “Address term”, “Apology” and “Gratitude” mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining. On the other hand, IFMDs, which are subdivided into seven downgraders and six upgraders, are analyzed based on the coding scheme adapted from DeCapua (1989, pp. 182-184) (see Table 3.4 for detail).

The researcher tallied the total frequencies of the twelve semantic formulae and two types of IFMDs produced by TEs and CEs in twelve situations. In addition, significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining were marked with asterisks (see Table 5.1)

Table 5.1 Overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining produced by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

	TE	CE	Sig.
Problem	726	768	N.S.
Criticism	167	215*	.050*
Warning	72	76	N.S.
Threat	86	83	N.S.
Opt-out	76*	33	.001*
Address term	115	189*	.026*
Apology	154	114	N.S.
Context	284	258	N.S.
Valuation	46	69	N.S.
Justification	378	432	N.S.
Remedy	685	692	N.S.
Gratitude	47	79*	.001*
Downgrader	925	966	N.S.
Upgrader	545	650	N.S.

Notes: N=1440;

*=significant difference between TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference between TEs and CEs

The results show that TEs and CEs resemble each other in eight semantic formulae and downgraders and upgraders, but they differed from each other in four semantic formulae: Criticism, Opt-out, Address term, and Gratitude. In other words, TEs chose not to mention the offence significantly more than CEs did. On the other hand, CEs criticized the hearer significantly more than TEs did. However, they also mitigated the illocutionary force of complaining by addressing the hearer and showing appreciation for the hearer's potential cooperation. In terms of IFMDs, no significant differences were found between TEs and CEs.

Besides, semantic formulae and IFMDs produced by TE and CE males and females were compared (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TE and CE males and females

	TE		CE		Sig.
	M	F	M	F	
Problem	352	374	369	399	N.S.
Criticism	87	80	107	108	N.S.
Warning	33	39	48	28	N.S.
Threat	54	32	41	42	N.S.
Opt-out	36	40*	18	15	.008*
Address term	70	45	100	89	N.S.
Apology	73	81	57	57	N.S.
Context	124	160*	114	144*	.027*
Valuation	27	19	29	40	N.S.
Justification	177	201*	198	234*	.045*
Remedy	329	356	324	368	N.S.
Gratitude	31	16*	33	46	.013*
Downgrader	457	468	480	486	N.S.
Upgrader	287	258	317	333	N.S.

Notes: N=720;

*=significant difference between TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference between TEs and CEs

The results indicate that TE and CE males and females complained in a quite similar way. Nevertheless, TE males and females chose not to complain significantly more than CE males and females did. The difference may be more resulted from cultural differences

than gender differences. In addition, TE and CE females mentioned the context and justified their utterance significantly more than TE and CE males did. However, TE females expressed their gratitude for the hearer's potential cooperation significantly less than TE males and CE males and females did. No significant differences were found among TE and CE males and females in IFMDs.

Moreover, the researcher compared the semantic formulae and IFMDs used by lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs

	TE		CE		Sig.
	L	U	L	U	
Problem	326	400*	325	443*	.000*
Criticism	65	102	97	118	N.S.
Warning	36	36	40	36	N.S.
Threat	48	38	50	33	N.S.
Opt-out	47*	29	22*	11	.001*
Address term	56	59	60	129*	.009*
Apology	65	89*	43	71*	.017*
Context	135	149	87	171*	.000*
Valuation	28	18	29	40	N.S.
Justification	165	213*	195	237*	.005*
Remedy	325	360	335	357	N.S.
Gratitude	21	26	29	50*	.003*
Downgrader	455	470	484	482	N.S.
Upgrader	244	301*	234	416*	.000*

Notes: N=720;

*=significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$

N.S.=no significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs

The results suggest that upper intermediate TEs and CEs were similar in “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Threat”, “Valuation”, and “Remedy”. However, upper intermediate TEs and CEs explicitly mentioned the offence, apologized for the potential imposition of the utterance, and justified for the utterance significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did, while lower intermediate TEs and CEs chose not to mentioned the offence significantly more than upper intermediate TEs and CEs did. Moreover, upper

intermediate CEs addressed the hearer, mentioned the context for the utterance, and showed their appreciation for the hearer's potential cooperation significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did, but such differences were not found between lower and upper intermediate TEs. In addition, lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs were similar in "Downgrader", but upper intermediate TEs and CEs used "Upgrader" significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did.

After analyzing the similarities and differences between TEs and CEs in the overall semantic formulae and IFMDs, the researcher will explore the similarities and differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae and IFMDs in 12 situations, with reference to social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

5.2 Semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

The following sub-section compares semantic formulae of complaining between TEs and CEs in 12 situations. The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed to compare the frequencies of semantic formulae of complaining. Examples of the semantic formulae used by TEs and CEs are provided for better understanding. In addition, Kruskal Wallis H Test was conducted to find out the significant effects of the speaker's gender and English proficiency on the semantic formulae of complaining.

5.2.1 Comparison of semantic formulae of complaining employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

Table 5.4 displays a comparison of semantic formulae of complaining between TEs and CEs in 12 situations, Table 5.5 presents the significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae in 12 situations, and Table 5.6 reports the

significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae in 12 situations.

Table 5.4 Semantic formulae of complaining used by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

Semantic formulae	S1		S2		S3		S4		S5		S6	
	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE
Problem	38	53*	72	64	88	96	84	73	49	69*	55	47
Criticism	7	14	16	27	12	12	28	19	9	12	1	2
Warning	7	6	9	10	1	4	4	8	14*	2	4	5
Threat	7	4	3	12*	9	9	6	8	9*	2	0	1
Opt-out	4	6	4	3	5	4	5	4	2	0	1	0
Context	69*	47	12	6	52	40	57	46	18	31*	2	14*
Valuation	6	9	5	10	10	12	3	9	3	2	0	0
Justification	45	39	16	36*	5	14*	12	21	39	41	90	103*
Remedy	69	58	36	39	18	16	11	13	84	92	111	111
Address term	3	4	5	5	11	25*	13	15	21	28	11	29*
Apology	13	8	13*	3	5	1	2	2	8	10	27	39
Gratitude	2	8	4*	0	2	6	2	2	5	11	14	32*
Total	270	256	195	215	218	239	227	220	261	300*	316	383*
Semantic formulae	S7		S8		S9		S10		S11		S12	
	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE
Problem	63	65	70	82	54	62	63	65	70	82	54	62
Criticism	24	23	9	20*	20	19	24	23	9	20*	20	19
Warning	11	7	7	10	3	2	11	7	7	10	3	2
Threat	5	6	5	14*	27*	10	5	6	5	14*	27*	10
Opt-out	10*	3	25*	3	10	7	2	0	1	2	7*	1
Context	10	10	8	7	15	17	10	10	8	7	15	17
Valuation	2	2	3	4	7	12	2	3	4	7	12	
Justification	67*	50	6	12	27	38	67*	50	6	12	27	38
Remedy	50	67*	23	42*	35	32	50	67*	23	42*	35	32
Address term	8	14	11	16	5	3	8	14	11	16	5	3
Apology	7	7	7	5	2	1	7	7	7	5	2	1
Gratitude	2	3	1	0	1	0	2	3	1	0	1	0
Total	259	257	175	215*	206	203	232	215	264	249	213	256*

Notes: N=120;

*=Significant difference between TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 5.5 Significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	TE		CE		Sig.
		Male	Female	Male	Female	
Negligent worker	Problem	21	17	25	28	N.S.
	Opt-out	3	1	3	3	N.S.
	Criticism	3	4	11	3	.026*
	Context	33	36	19	28	.012*
	Remedy	36	33	21	37	.013*
	Gratitude	2	0	1	7	.007*
Faded suit	Problem	37	35	29	35	N.S.
	Opt-out	0	4	2	1	N.S.
	Apology	8	5	1	2	.046*
	Justification	4	12	17	19	.004*
Undelivered paper	Problem	43	45	47	49	N.S.
	Opt-out	3	2	2	2	N.S.
	Warning	1	0	4	0	.033*
	Address term	8	3	15	10	.022*
Forgetful classmate	Problem	39	45	36	37	N.S.
	Opt-out	2	3	2	2	N.S.
	Context	21	36	18	28	.005*
	Total	110	117	98	122	.040*
Noisy roommate	Problem	20	29	32	37	.017*
	Opt-out	1	1	0	0	N.S.
	Warning	5	9	1	1	.008*
	Total	125	136	143	157	.029*
Noisy neighbour	Problem	25	30	22	25	N.S.
	Opt-out	1	0	0	0	N.S.
	Address term	5	6	14	15	.020*
	Context	1	1	8	6	.017*
	Gratitude	7	7	16	16	.034*
	Total	151	165	189	194	.003*
Late arriving classmate	Problem	32	31	26	39	N.S.
	Opt-out	2	8	1	2	.019*
Late arriving friend	Problem	30	40	41	41	N.S.
	Opt-out	14	11	2	1	.000*
	Criticism	8	1	8	12	.020*
	Remedy	10	13	22	20	.043*
	Total	85	90	104	111	.004*

Situation	Semantic formulae	TE		CE		Sig.
		Male	Female	Male	Female	
Lost lecture notes	Problem	28	26	30	32	N.S.
	Opt-out	4	6	4	3	N.S.
	Threat	12	15	3	7	.013*
	Problem	45	48	40	48	N.S.
Broken mobile phone	Opt-out	1	1	0	0	N.S.
	Remedy	33	46	28	33	0.007*
Cutting in line	Problem	4	10	11	7	N.S.
	Opt-out	1	0	1	1	N.S.
	Threat	8	2	3	0	0.010*
	Apology	13	23	3	8	0.000*
Annoying phone rings	Problem	18	18	30	21	N.S.
	Opt-out	4	3	1	0	N.S.
	Address term	1	1	7	8	0.013*
	Context	2	2	8	11	0.009*
Total	Problem	352	374	369	399	.000*
	Opt-out	36	40	18	15	.008*
	Context	124	160	114	144	.027*
	Justification	177	201	198	234	.045*
	Gratitude	31	16	33	46	.013*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among TE and CE males and females, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among TE and CE males and females

Table 5.6 Significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	TE		CE		Sig.
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
Negligent worker	Problem	14	24	24	29	.039*
	Opt-out	4	0	5	1	N.S.
	Context	36	33	17	30	.003*
	Justification	14	31	15	24	.003*
	Total	117	153	115	141	.001*
Faded suit	Problem	31	41	30	34	N.S.
	Opt-out	2	2	3	0	N.S.
	Apology	3	10	1	2	.004*
	Context	3	9	1	5	.039*
	Justification	10	6	14	22	.003*
Undelivered paper	Problem	40	48	47	49	N.S.

Situation	Semantic formulae	TE		CE		Sig.
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
	Opt-out	3	2	3	1	N.S.
	Address term	4	7	5	20	.000*
	Total	97	121	108	131	.006*
	Forgetful classmate	Problem	17	26	18	23
	Opt-out	2	3	3	1	N.S.
	Context	32	25	17	29	.035*
	Noisy roommate	Problem	24	25	27	42
	Opt-out	2	0	0	0	N.S.
	Warning	7	7	2	0	.017*
	Context	6	12	11	20	.016*
	Gratitude	2	3	2	9	.028*
	Total	130	131	127	173	.000*
	Noisy neighbour	Problem	23	32	13	34
	Opt-out	1	0	0	0	N.S.
	Address term	4	7	10	19	.002*
	Context	0	2	1	13	.000*
	Gratitude	5	9	13	19	.009*
	Total	146	170	165	218	.000*
	Late arriving classmate	Problem	32	31	29	36
	Opt-out	6	4	0	3	N.S.
	Justification	29	38	27	23	.046*
	Remedy	18	32	34	33	.010*
	Late arriving friend	Problem	37	33	34	48
	Opt-out	13	12	2	1	.000*
	Remedy	8	15	16	26	.003*
	Total	85	90	91	124	.000*
Lost lecture notes	Problem	19	25	26	36	.005*
	Opt-out	6	4	5	2	N.S.
	Threat	15	12	8	2	.007*
	Justification	2	15	11	27	.003*
	Total	92	114	82	121	.000*
	Broken mobile phone	Problem	38	55	38	50
	Opt-out	2	0	0	0	N.S.
	Warning	6	2	1	9	.020*
	Address term	0	2	0	6	.006*
	Total	107	125	90	125	.000*
	Cutting in line	Problem	13	11	7	11
	Opt-out	1	0	1	1	N.S.

Situation	Semantic formulae	TE		CE		Sig.
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
	Threat	3	7	3	0	.046*
	Apology	16	20	2	9	.000*
	Total	127	137	106	143	.001*
	Annoying phone rings	Problem	13	23	20	31
	Opt-out	5	2	0	1	N.S.
	Address term	0	2	6	9	.006*
	Context	1	3	5	14	.000*
	Gratitude	4	2	3	10	.032*
	Total	98	115	110	146	.000*
Total	Problem	326	400	325	443	.000*
	Opt-out	47	29	22	11	.001*
	Address term	56	59	60	129	.009*
	Apology	65	89	43	71	.017*
	Context	135	149	87	171	.000*
	Justification	165	213	195	237	.005*
	Gratitude	21	26	29	50	.003*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;
 N.S.=no significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs

5.2.1.1 Negligent worker

In complaining to a worker in a photocopy shop, both TEs and CEs employed four semantic formulae very frequently: “Remedy”, “Context”, “Justification” and “Problem”. In this situation, both TEs and CEs employed “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy both TEs and CEs sought was usually in a request or demand form, e.g. “TELM3.1 Could you please help me to make a copy?” “CELM13.1 Can you let me print the copies first?”, “TELF3.1 Please do it now.”, “CEUF1.1 Please give my booklets to me on time.”.

Meanwhile, “Context” was also the most frequently used semantic formula by TEs, but it was the third most frequently used semantic formula by CEs. Usually, TEs and CEs established the context by either referring to the order placed yesterday,

e.g. “TEUM6.1 I already placed an order.” or being a regular customer, e.g. “CELF3.1 I’m a regular customer”; or asking the hearer whether the theses had been finished, e.g. “TELM9.1 How about my photocopy? Are they finish(ed)?”, or whether the hearer remembered the speaker, e.g. “CELF1.1 Don’t you remember me?”.

CEs used “Problem” the second most frequently, but TEs used it the fourth most frequently. TEs and CEs mentioned the offence in a declarative or interrogative form, e.g. “TELM25.1 But you haven’t done the copy yet”, “TEUM8.1 I’m afraid that you may forget to make 5 bound copies of my thesis”, “TELM8.1 Why don’t you make the photocopies for me?”

In addition, TEs used “Justification” the second most frequently, but CEs used it the fourth most frequently. In this situation, both TEs and CEs justified their utterance by referring to the urgency or importance of the thesis photocopy, e.g. “TEUM21.1 I have to submit it before 12:00 noon?” or “CEUM6.1 I must deliver 5 copies to my evaluation committee by 12:00 noon.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results suggest significant differences between TEs and CE in semantic formulae “Context” and “Problem” (see Table 5.4). The results mean that TEs established the context for the unfinished theses significantly more than CE did, while CE explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TE did.

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Criticism”, “Context”, “Remedy” and “Gratitude” (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that CE males criticized the hearer significantly more than TE males and CE females did, e.g.

“CELM12.1 If you didn’t understand my mean(ing) at that time, you should call me and ask for information.” Moreover, CE males established the context for the utterance significantly less than TE males and TE females did. They also sought remedy significantly less than TE males and CE females did. Besides, none of TE females thanked the hearer for their potential cooperation, but CE females did so significantly more than TE females and CE males did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Context”, and “Justification” (Table 5.6). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than lower intermediate TEs did. Furthermore, lower intermediate CEs established the context for the utterance significantly less than lower and upper intermediate TEs did. Besides, upper intermediate TEs justified their utterance significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did.

5.2.1.2 Faded suit

In complaining to the owner of a laundry, TEs employed “Problem” and “Remedy” very frequently, while CEs employed “Problem”, “Remedy”, and “Justification” very frequently. Both TEs and CEs employed “Problem” the most frequently. They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of dry-cleaning, without referring to the hearer, directly asserted that the hearer has made the suit fade, or directly ask the hearer to explain the faded suit, e.g. “CEUM1.2 The color of my cloth is not the same as before”, “TELM3.2 It was your fault”, “CEUM9.2 You hurt my clothes”, or “TELM2.2 Why my suit has faded.”

In addition, both TEs and CEs employed “Remedy” the second most frequently. The remedy sought by TTs and CCs was either specific, or unspecific, e.g. “TELM16.2 I want to go to cleaned my suit again.”, “TELM23.2 I want a new cloth.”, “CELF1.2 Please wash my clothes again.” or “TELM19.2 I would like to ask your help to solve this problem.”

Besides, CEs employed “Justification” as the third most frequently used semantic formula (f=16), but TEs did not (f=16). They usually mentioned that the suit was their favorite, e.g. “CELF6.2 It’s my favorite suit.” In addition, although less frequently, CEs also employed “Criticism” (f=27) more than TEs did (f=16), e.g. “CEUM28.2 Why are you so careless? Or you don’t have the ability to wash the clothes.”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results suggest significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Justification”, “Threat”, “Apology”, and “Gratitude” (see Table 5.4). The results indicate that CEs justified their utterances significantly more than TEs did. Besides, CEs also threatened the hearer significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUF12.2 I won't give you money for this bad laundry. In addition, I won't come here!”. On the other hand, TEs apologized for the potential imposition of complaining on the hearer significantly more than CEs did. Besides, only TEs showed their appreciation for the hearer’s potential cooperation, e.g. “TELM18.2 Could you explain what's happen? Thank you.”

Moreover, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Justification and “Apology” (Table 5.5). The results indicate that in this situation, both CE males and CE females justified their utterance significantly more than TE males did. In addition,

TE males apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer significantly more than CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Apology”, “Context”, and “Justification” (Table 5.6). Upper intermediate TEs apologized for the potential imposition of complaining on the hearer significantly more than lower intermediate TEs, and lower and upper intermediate CEs did. Besides, upper intermediate TEs established the context for the utterance significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs justified their utterance significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs did.

5.2.1.3 Undelivered paper

In complaining to a friend who failed to submit the term paper for the speaker, both TEs and CEs employed “Problem” and “Context” very frequently in a descending order. They might explicitly mention the bad consequence of the offence, without focusing on the hearer, e.g. “TELM16.3 I failed the course for not submitting the term paper.”; explicitly assert that the hearer has committed the offence, e.g. “CELM8.3 You have not do what you promised.”; or directly ask the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “TELM20.3 Why you not submit term paper for me?”

“Context” was employed the second most frequently by TEs and CEs. They usually established the context by either referring to the former engagement, e.g. “TELM2.3 In course, I asked you about submission of my paper and you said you submit(ted) it before the deadline”, or verifying whether the offence had happened, e.g. “TELM11.3 did you help me to submit the paper?” or “CELM28.3 Do (Did) you forget to help me submit a term paper?”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Address term” and “Justification”. The results suggest that CEs addressed the hearer ($f=25$) significantly more than TEs did ($f=11$), e.g. “CELM30.3 Peter, I am disappointed of you.” and they also justified their utterance significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM24.3 Brother, this course do important to me.”

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Warning”, and “Address term”. The results suggest that TE females and CE females did not warn the hearer at all in this situation. Besides, CE males addressed the hearer significantly more than TE females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show a significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formula “Address term”. The result suggests that upper intermediate CEs addressed the hearer significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs, and lower intermediate CEs did.

5.2.1.4 Forgetful classmate

When complaining to a classmate who did not show up to help the speaker as agreed, TEs and CEs employed “Problem” and “Context” very frequently. They might mention the bad consequence for the speaker, e.g. “TEUF15.4 I had to take a bus and it took a long time”, or “CEUM2.4 I have to prepare for the presentation at short time”. They may also assert that the hearer committed the offence, e.g. “TEUF11.4 You wasted my time”, or even ask the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CEUM2.4 Can you give the reasons why you didn't show up at the appointed time?”

“Context” was the second most frequently used semantic formula by TEs

and CEs. They mentioned the previous engagement, e.g. “CEUM8.4 You had promised!”, or asked the hearer about the context for the offence, e.g. “TELM2.4 Excuse me, can you remember our appointment.”

In this situation, TEs criticized the hearer ($f=28$) more than CEs did ($f=19$), e.g. “TELM9.4 Why you don’t answer my call. If you was very busy you should tell (have told) me.”

However, the Mann-Whitney U Test results did not show any significant difference between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae in this situation. This means that TEs and CEs employed almost the same semantic formulae in this situation.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results suggest a significant difference among TE and CE males and females in semantic formula “Context”. The results reveal that TE females mentioned the previous engagement significantly more than TE males and CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem” and “Context”. The results suggest that upper intermediate TEs and CEs mentioned the offence significantly more than their lower intermediate counterparts did. Besides, lower intermediate TEs mentioned the previous engagement significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did.

5.2.1.5 Noisy roommate

In complaining to a noisy roommate, TEs employed “Remedy”, “Problem”, and “Justification” very frequently, while CEs employed “Remedy”, “Problem”, “Justification”, and “Context” very frequently. Both TEs and CEs sought remedy the most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to come back early or keep quiet in a

request or demand form, e.g. “TELM6.5 Could you be a bit quiet?” or “CEUM5.5 Please do not make any noise if you will come home very late.”

Both TEs and CEs employed “Problem” the second most frequently. However, CEs explicitly mentioned the offence (f=69) more frequently than TEs did (f=49). They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of the hearer’s noise making, without focusing on the hearer, e.g. “CEUM10.5 I have not felt asleep for several days because of the noise”. They also explicitly asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, e.g. “TELM16.5 I’m cannot sleep because of the noise from you”, or “CEUM13.5 You have made a big noise, so that I can't fall asleep every day.” They also asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “TELM16.5 My friend, why you came to room late every night?”

In addition, both TEs and CEs employed “Justification” the third most frequently. They usually justified their utterance by referring to themselves, or others, e.g. “TELM6.5 I'm trying to get some rest”, “TELM17.5 People are sleeping!!”, “CELF9.5 I need a quiet environment to fall asleep.”

Moreover, CEs also employed “Context” the fourth most frequently (f=31), but TEs did not do so that frequently (f=18). In this situation, CEs usually set the stage for the utterance, e.g. “CELF15.5 Darling, I have something to consult with you.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Warning”, “Threat”, and “Context”. The results suggest that CEs set the stage for the utterance and explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TEs did. On the other hand, TEs warned the hearer significantly more than CEs did, e.g. “TELM5.5 Quiet please. If not, I will change

room.” And they also threatened the hearer significantly more than CEs did, e.g. “TEUM24.5 We cannot live together any more. If you don’t leave, I will.”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Problem” and “Warning” (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that CE females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TE males did, and TE females warned the hearer significantly more than CE males and CE females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Warning”, “Context, and “Gratitude”. The results suggest that only upper intermediate CEs did not warn the hearer. Besides, upper intermediate CEs set the stage for the utterance significantly more than lower intermediate TEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs thanked the hearer significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did.

5.2.1.6 Noisy neighbor

In complaining to a noisy neighbor, TEs employed three semantic formulae very frequently: “Remedy”, “Justification”, “Problem”, whereas CEs employed five semantic formulae very frequently: “Remedy”, “Justification”, “Problem”, “Apology” and “Gratitude”.

Both TEs and CEs employed “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy in this situation was to turn down TV in a request or demand form, e.g. “TEUF2.6 Could you please slow (turn) down your volume please?” or “CELF10.6 Please turn down the TV.”

In addition, both TEs and CEs employed “Justification” the second most frequently. Usually they justified their utterance by referring to the coming exam or

the need for more sleep, e.g. “TEUM3.6 I have an exam today and really really want to sleep”, or “CELF11.6 Dear Sir/ Madam, I am going to take an exam tomorrow morning and I must assure the sleeping quality.”

Both TEs and CEs also employed “Problem” the third most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned the bad consequence for the speaker, e.g. “TEUM10.6 I can’t sleep”, asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, e.g. “TEUM18.6 I couldn't sleep because of your noise”.

In this situation, CEs also addressed the hearer, e.g. “CEUM3.6 Hi, I am your neighbor”, apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, e.g. “CEUM2.6 Excuse me. Could you please turn off the TV?” and thanked the hearer for the potential cooperation, e.g. “CEUM5.6 Sorry, I am going to take an exam tomorrow. So could you turn down the volume of your TV or go to bed earlier. Thank you!” very frequently, but TEs only apologized for the potential imposition fairly frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reflect significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Address term”, “Context”, “Justification”, and “Gratitude” (see Table 5.4). The results suggest that CEs addressed the hearer, set the stage for the utterance (e.g. “CEUM9.6 Hi, Mr. Excuse me, can I talk to you with something?”), justified their utterance, and showed appreciation for the hearer’s potential cooperation significantly more than TEs did.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Address term”, “Context”, and “Gratitude” (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that CE females addressed the hearer significantly more than TE males did. CE males set the stage for

the utterance significantly more than TE males and TE females did. Besides, CE males and females showed their appreciation for the hearer's potential cooperation significantly more than TE males and females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae "Problem", "Address term", "Context", and "Gratitude" (see Table 5.6). The results suggest that lower intermediate CEs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than upper intermediate TEs and CEs did. In addition, upper intermediate CEs addressed the hearer significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs did. Besides, upper intermediate CEs set the stage for the utterance significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs and lower intermediate CEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs thanked the hearer for the potential cooperation significantly more than lower intermediate TEs did.

5.2.1.7 Late arriving classmate

In complaining to a late arriving classmate, both TEs and CEs employed three semantic formulae very frequently: "Justification", "Problem", and "Remedy". However, some TEs and CEs also employed "Criticism". "Justification" was most frequently used by TEs, and the third most frequently used semantic formula by CEs. Usually, they referred to their part-time job to justify their utterance, e.g. "TELM8.7 I don't have a time to discuss with you, because I have to work."

"Problem" was the second most frequently used semantic formula by both TEs and CEs. Usually they mentioned bad consequence of being kept waiting, e.g. "CEUM8.7 It's too late to do this discussion today.", asserted explicitly that the hearer had committed the offence, e.g. "TELF21.7 You are late", or asked the hearer to

explain the offence, e.g. “TELF1.7 I waiting you for over 30 minutes. Why do you late?”

“Remedy” was the third most frequently used semantic formula by TEs and the most frequently used by CEs. The remedy in this situation was to come on time next time in a request or demand form, e.g. “TEUM5.7 Next time, can you please come on time?” or “CEUM7.7 Please stay on time next time.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Opt-out”, “Justification” and “Remedy” (see Table 5.4). The results suggest that TEs kept silent about the offence and justified their utterance significantly more than CEs did. On the other hand, CEs asked the hearer to remedy the offence significantly more than TEs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show a significant difference among TE and CE males and female in semantic formula “Opt-out” (see Table 5.5). The result suggests that TE females kept silent about the hearer’s coming late significantly more than CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Justification” and “Remedy” (see Table 5.6). The results suggest that upper intermediate TEs justified their utterance significantly more than upper intermediate CEs did. Besides, lower intermediate TEs sought the remedy for the offence significantly less than upper intermediate TEUs, and lower and upper intermediate CEs did.

5.2.1.8 Late arriving friend

In complaining to a late arriving friend, TEs employed “Problem” very frequently, while CEs used “Problem” and “Remedy” very frequently. In this situation, they usually mentioned the bad consequence of being kept waiting, e.g. “TELM8.8 You are too late. I thought that if you don’t (didn’t) come in 10 minutes, I (was) gonna go.”, asserted directly that the hearer had arrived late, e.g. “CELF6.8 You (are) always be late. I have to wait you for a long time.” and asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “TELM6.8 Why are you late?”

Furthermore, CEs frequently asked the hearer to come on time in a request or demand form, e.g. “CELF21.8 Would you please arrive here early next time? or “CELF7.8 Please keep time next date, OK?”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Criticism”, “Opt-out”, and “Remedy” (see Table 5.4). The results suggest that CEs criticized the hearer, opted out, and sought remedy significantly more than TEs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reflect significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Criticism”, “Opt-out”, and “Remedy” (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that CE females criticized the hearer significantly more than TE females did, e.g. “CEUF12.8 If you can't arrive here on time, you should tell me before.” On the contrary, both TE males and females kept silent about the offence significantly more than CE males and females did. Besides, CE males sought remedy for the offence significantly more than TE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also shows significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Opt-

out”, and “Remedy” (see Table 5.6). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than upper intermediate TEs and lower intermediate CEs did. Besides, lower intermediate TEs kept silent about the offence significantly more than lower and upper intermediate CEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs asked the hearer to come on time significantly more than lower intermediate TEs did.

5.2.1.9 Lost lecture notes

In complaining to a classmate who lost the speaker’s lecture notes, TEs employed “Problem”, and “Remedy” very frequently, while CEs employed “Problem”, “Justification”, and “Remedy” very frequently. The most frequently used semantic formula by TEs and CEs was “Problem”. Usually they mentioned the bad consequence of losing lecture notes, e.g. “TEUM21.9 Did you return my lecture notes? I don’t have anything to read for the exam”, asserted directly that the hearer had arrived late, e.g. “CEUM9.9 You just cannot take care of my notes”, and asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “TELF2.9 I have written my words in that lecture notes. Why didn’t you take care of my lecture notes?”

“Remedy” was the second most frequently used semantic formula by TEs, but it was the third most frequently by CEs. They usually asked the hearer to find the lecture notes, or borrow one from others, e.g. “TELF22.9 Can you borrow the lecture notes from others?” or “CELM29.9 I have not prepared for the exam, please find them again”.

In addition, CEs used “Justification” the second most frequently. Usually they justified their utterance by referring to the necessity of lecture notes, e.g. “CELM29.9 I have not prepared for the exam”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal a significant difference between TEs and CEs in semantic formula “Threat” (see Table 5.4). The results suggest that TEs threatened the hearer significantly more than CEs did, e.g. “TEUM1.9 Do you understand the word "responsibility"? I tell you "GO TO HELL"! ”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show a significant difference among TE and CE males and females in semantic formula “Threat” (see Table 5.5). The result suggests that TE females threatened the hearer significantly more than CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Threat”, and “Justification” (see Table 5.6). The results suggest that lower intermediate TEs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than upper intermediate TEs and CEs did. In addition, lower intermediate TEs threaten the hearer significantly more than upper intermediate CEs did. Besides, upper intermediate CEs justified their utterance significantly more than lower intermediate CEs and TEs did.

5.2.1.10 Broken mobile phone

In complaining to the owner of a mobile phone shop, both TEs and CEs employed two semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem” and “Remedy”. They employed “Problem” the most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned that the mobile broke down, e.g. “TELM18.10 my phone has broken down”, or asserted that the mobile phone was poor in quality, e.g. “CEUM15.10 The boss, this mobile phone quality is bad”, or asked the hearer to explain why the mobile phone often broke down, e.g. “TELM26.10 You are a repairman, right? Why my mobile phone still breaks down?” or “CELM8.10 How could a new phone breaks so frequently”.

In addition, both TEs and CEs used “Remedy” the second most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to fix the mobile, change a new one or refund the mobile phone in a request or demand form, e.g. “TEUM2.10 Can I claim for the new one?” or “CELM11.10 Give me a new one.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Criticism”, “Threat”, and “Remedy”. The results suggest that CEs criticized or threatened the hearer significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CELF22.10 Your store is not good”, or “CELM10.10 I'll never buy anything from your company.” However, TEs sought remedy significantly more than CEs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show a significant difference among TE and CE males and females in semantic formula “Remedy”. The results suggest that TE females asked the hearer to remedy the situation significantly more than CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Warning”, and “Address term”. The result suggests that upper intermediate TEs and CEs explicitly mentioned the broken mobile phone significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did. Besides, upper intermediate CEs warned the hearer significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did, e.g. “CEUF6.10 Please give me a satisfy solution, or I will tell the Consume Association.” Besides, none of lower intermediate TEs and CEs addressed the hearer in this situation.

5.2.1.11 Cutting in line

When complaining to a stranger who cut in line, both TEs and CEs employed three semantic formulae very frequently. “Remedy” was most frequently

used by both TEs and CEs. They usually asked the hearer to queue up in a request or demand form, e.g. “TEUM11.11 Could you please get the back of the line”, or “CELM7.11 Please buy the ticket in order”.

Both TEs and CEs justified their utterance the second most frequently. They usually mentioned the importance of the ticket, e.g. “TEUM6.11 Excuse me!! We are in the line. You are a new comer so you should queue up”, or “CELF5.11 Sorry, Mrs. I don’t mind you cutting in line in front of me. But the tickets are almost sold out. I need it for my trip. So I’m sorry.”

“Apology” was the third most frequently used semantic formula by TEs, but CEs did not use it very frequently. TEs usually apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, e.g. “TELM28.11 Sorry! The last person in the line is over there. Thank you!”.

However, CEs employed “Criticism” the third most frequently (f=35), which TEs also employed frequently (f=27). Usually they moralized the hearer not to cut in line or be a better person, e.g. “CEUM10.11 You shouldn’t cut in line”, or “TELF9.11 You should have good manners.”

Besides, TEs and CEs also employed “Address term” very frequently (f=23 and 29 respectively), e.g. “TELF15.11 Hey! Please be on queue. I’m been waiting for long time!”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Warning”, “Threat”, and “Apology” (see Table 5.4). The results suggest that TEs threatened the hearer significantly more than CEs did, e.g. “TEUM9.11 Don’t be stupid, okay? I’m in queue here, are you blind?” In addition, TEs also apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer significantly

more than CEs did. Moreover, CEs warned the hearer significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM12.11 Hi, man, do you know I have waited for more than an hour. If you do it, I will lead you a lesson”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Threat” and “Apology” (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that TE males threatened the hearer significantly more than CE females did. Besides, TE females apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer significantly more than CE males and CE females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Threat” and “Apology” (see Table 5.6). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs did not threaten the hearer at all; thus, compared with them, upper intermediate TEs threatened the hearer significantly more than upper intermediate CEs did. Besides, lower intermediate CEs apologized for the potential imposition significantly less than lower and upper intermediate TEs did.

5.2.1.12 Annoying phone rings

In complaining to a stranger whose mobile phone kept ringing at a seminar, both TEs and CEs employed two semantic formulae very frequently. The most frequently used semantic formula by TEs and CEs was “Remedy”. They usually asked the hearer to lower the voice, turn off the mobile phone, or talk outside in a request or demand form, e.g. “TELM9.11 Please in the line. Because this is what are the good manner to do. Could you in the line please?” or “TELM16.11 Sorry, you must go to last line to buy ticket.”

Both TEs and CEs employed “Problem” the second most frequently. They usually mentioned the bad consequence of annoying phone rings, e.g. “TELM9.12 I cannot hear anything from the lecturer”, and asserted directly that the hearer had disturbed others, e.g. “CELM5.12 Your behavior will influence others”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Criticism”, “Opt-out”, “Address term”, and “Context” (see Table 5.4). The results suggest that TEs kept silent about the offence significantly more than CEs did. On the other hand, CEs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TEs did. In addition, they also criticized the hearer significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM14.12 You shouldn't disturb us!” Besides, CEs also address the hearer and describe the context for the utterance significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM20.12 hello, Mr. XX This is a seminar”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae “Address term” and “Context” (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that CE females addressed the hearer significantly more than TE males and female did. In addition, CE females describe the context for the utterance significantly more than TE males and females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Address term”, “Context” and “Gratitude” (see Table 5.6). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs explicitly mentioned the offence and addressed the hearer significantly more than lower intermediate TEs did. Besides, upper intermediate CEs describe the context for the utterance significantly more than lower and upper

intermediate TEs and lower intermediate CEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs expressed their gratitude for the hearer's potential cooperation significantly more than upper intermediate TEs did.

After examining the similarities and differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae in 12 situations, the following sub-section will elaborate on the IFMDs employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations.

5.2.2 Comparison of IFMDs of complaining employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

Table 5.7 presents the distribution of IFMDs employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations, Table 5.8 presents significant differences among TE and CE males and females in IFMDs in 12 situations, and Table 5.9 shows significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in IFMDs in 12 situations.

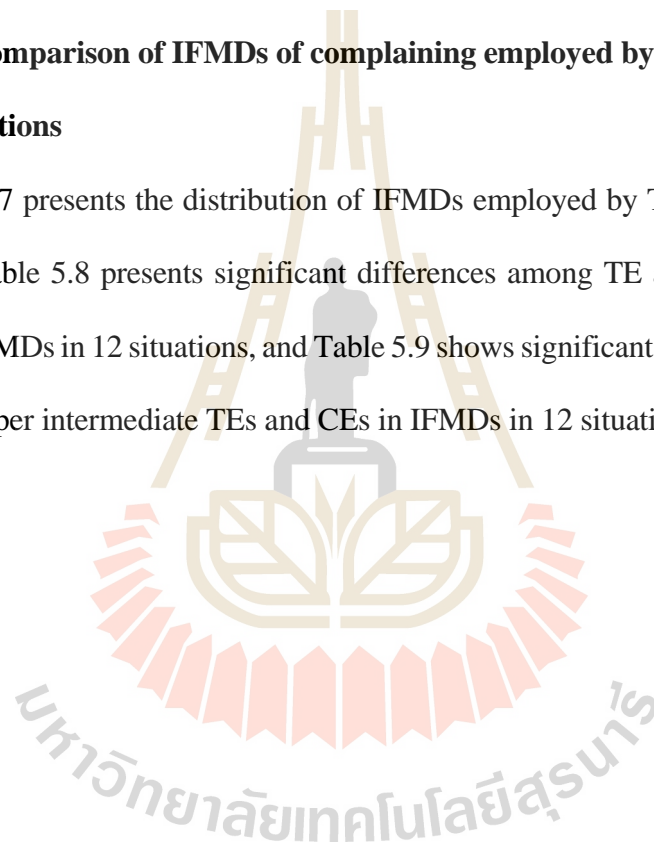


Table 5.7 IFMDs of complaining employed by TEs and CEs in 12 situations

IFMDs	S1		S2		S3		S4		S5		S6	
	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE
Politeness marker	33	32	11	6	4	4	7	7	59*	31	82*	40
Play-down	1	6	3	5	6	7	8	6	8	7	6	7
Consultative device	1	4	2	3	4*	0	1	2	2	6	2	5
Hedge	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	4	2	10*	3
Downtoner	3	12*	4	6	9	8	4	5	5	8	9	8
Minus committer	12	13	11	16	15	16	7	8	14	25	3	13*
Agent avoider	22	32	12	7	4	9	10	18	42*	28	35	30
Total (Downgrader)	72	99	44	43	42	44	37	47	134*	107	147*	106
Scope setter	6	22*	17	30*	2	7	1	7*	1	4	0	0
Overstater	12*	4	2	2	6	9	8	5	6	9	6	9
Intensifier	12	8	4	7	14	19	10	16	6	22*	9	17
Plus committer	11	18	14	9	30	24	15	22	10	17	6	9
Lexical intensifier	2	1	1	3	5	3	2	2	1	1	0	0
Aggressive interrogative	6	11	48*	29	36	19*	11	8	3	1	1	1
Total (Upgrader)	49	64	86	80	93	81	47	60	27	54*	22	36*
IFMDs	S7		S8		S9		S10		S11		S12	
	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE	TE	CE
Politeness marker	25	18	11	16	14	7	25	18	11	16	14	7
Play-down	6	6	1	4	5	13	6	6	1	4	5	13
Consultative device	4	5	1	10*	1	1	4	5	1	10*	1	1
Hedge	1	3	0	2	0	1	1	3	0	2	0	1
Downtoner	2	6	0	7*	2	6	2	6	0	7*	2	6
Minus committer	6	23*	8	19*	2	13*	6	23*	8	19*	2	13*
Agent avoider	27*	15	17	20	18	12	27*	15	17	20	18	12
Total (Downgrader)	71	76	38	78*	42	53	71	76	38	78	42	53
Scope setter	3	3	5	9	11	11	3	3	5	9	11	11
Overstater	10	12	28	31	5	5	10	12	28	31	5	5
Intensifier	7	10	5	11	6	19*	7	10	5	11	6	19*
Plus committer	12	17	5	17*	14	13	12	17	5	17*	14	13
Lexical intensifier	1	1	0	2	2	4	1	1	0	2	2	4
Aggressive interrogative	0	1	4	3	8	15	0	1	4	3	8	15
Total (Upgrader)	33	44	47	73	46	67	33	44	47	73	46	67

Notes: N=120;

* = Significant difference between TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;

S1= Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 5.8 Significant differences among TE and CE males and females in IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	IFMDs	TE		CE		Sig.
		Male	Female	Male	Female	
Negligent worker	Play-down	1	0	1	5	.034*
	Downtoner	1	2	9	3	.012*
	Scope setter	2	4	8	14	.004*
	Overstater	9	3	1	3	.002*
	Downgrader	36	36	47	52	N.S.
	Upgrader	25	24	33	31	N.S.
Faded suit	Downgrader	17	27	19	24	N.S.
	Upgrader	42	44	40	40	N.S.
Undelivered paper	Scope setter	1	1	0	7	.003*
	Aggressive interrogative	11	25	10	9	.001*
	Downgrader	19	23	24	20	N.S.
	Upgrader	41	52	35	46	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	Downgrader	23	14	23	24	N.S.
	Upgrader	28	19	34	26	N.S.
Noisy roommate	Politeness marker	27	32	18	13	.001*
	Scope setter	1	0	0	4	.033*
	Intensifier	1	5	9	13	.005*
	Downgrader	63	71	54	53	N.S.
	Upgrader	11	16	25	29	.009*
Noisy neighbour	Politeness marker	39	43	18	22	.000*
	Minus committer	2	1	3	10	.004*
	Downgrader	78	69	45	61	.002*
	Upgrader	14	8	18	18	.009*
Late arriving classmate	Minus committer	1	5	12	11	.006*
	Downgrader	31	40	41	35	N.S.
	Upgrader	20	13	17	27	N.S.
Late arriving friend	Consultative device	1	0	3	7	.012*
	Minus committer	5	3	6	13	.024*
	Plus committer	4	1	6	11	.014*
	Downgrader	18	20	34	44	.003*
	Upgrader	26	31	30	43	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	Minus committer	2	0	6	7	.026*
	Scope setter	10	1	7	4	.030*

	Intensifier	0	6	8	11	.009*
	Downgrader	21	21	27	26	N.S.
	Upgrader	28	18	35	32	N.S.
Broken mobile phone	Downgrader	28	30	27	29	N.S.
	Upgrader	33	24	31	25	N.S.
Cutting in line	Lexical intensifier	4	0	1	0	.033*
	Downgrader	58	60	69	60	N.S.
	Upgrader	17	6	11	12	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	Politeness marker	37	32	27	22	.040*
	Intensifier	0	0	0	3	.028*
	Downgrader	65	57	70	58	N.S.
	Upgrader	2	3	8	4	N.S.
Total	Downgrader	457	468	480	486	N.S.
	Upgrader	287	258	317	333	N.S.

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among TE and CE males and females, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among TE and CE males and females



**Table 5.9 Significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and
CEs in IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations**

Situation	IFMDs	TE		CE		Sig.
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
Negligent worker	Scope setter	4	2	5	17	.000*
	Aggressive interrogative	3	3	1	10	.008*
	Downgrader	34	38	47	52	N.S.
	Upgrader	26	23	19	45	.002*
Faded suit	Scope setter	10	7	10	20	.017*
	Aggressive interrogative	22	26	9	20	.007*
	Downgrader	21	23	30	13	N.S.
	Upgrader	40	46	27	53	.013*
Undelivered paper	Scope setter	2	0	1	6	.023*
	Plus committer	6	24	11	13	.001*
	Aggressive interrogative	22	14	10	9	.020*
	Downgrader	21	21	21	23	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	Upgrader	39	54	34	47	N.S.
	Downgrader	14	23	33	14	.034*
Noisy roommate	Upgrader	20	27	25	35	N.S.
	Politeness marker	33	26	17	14	.001*
	Intensifier	4	2	7	15	.001*
	Plus committer	3	7	4	13	.018*
	Downgrader	69	65	57	50	N.S.
Noisy neighbour	Upgrader	11	16	16	38	.000*
	Politeness marker	45	37	23	17	.000*
	Minus committer	2	1	3	10	.004*
	Agent avoider	26	9	18	12	.003*
	Downgrader	82	65	53	53	.003*
	Upgrader	8	14	15	21	N.S.
Late arriving classmate	Minus committer	2	4	10	13	.006*
	Downgrader	31	40	39	37	N.S.
	Upgrader	11	22	20	24	N.S.
Late arriving friend	Consultative device	1	0	6	4	.035*
	Downgrader	14	24	35	43	.003*
	Upgrader	27	30	29	44	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	Minus committer	1	1	6	7	.033*
	Intensifier	0	6	4	15	.000*
	Aggressive interrogative	3	5	2	13	.003*
	Downgrader	21	21	24	29	N.S.
	Upgrader	22	24	18	49	.003*
Broken mobile phone	Overstater	13	16	5	20	.009*
	Downgrader	33	25	22	34	N.S.
	Upgrader	30	27	18	38	N.S.
Cutting in line	Downgrader	54	64	60	69	N.S.
	Upgrader	9	14	9	14	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	Consultative device	0	0	1	4	.033*
	Downgrader	61	61	63	65	N.S.
	Upgrader	1	4	4	8	N.S.
Total	Downgrader	455	470	484	482	N. S.
	Upgrader	244	301	234	416	.000*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;
 N.S.=no significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs

5.2.2.1 Negligent worker

In this situation, both TEs and CEs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, e.g. “TEUM4.1 Please make it hurry up”. Besides, CEs also employed “Agent avoider” the second most frequently, which refers to avoiding mentioning the hearer. For example, “CELF7.1 Please hurry up!”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TEs and CEs in “Downtoner”, “Scope setter”, and “Overstater” (see Table 5.7). The results suggest that CEs used “Downtoner” significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM18.1 Now I just wish that you can use the least time as possible to copy 5 thesis for me?”. Besides, CEs also used “Scope setter” in Situation 1 Negligent worker, e.g. “CEUM18.1 Oh, no, please. I've told you that by 12:00 today I need 5 copies of my thesis and you also have promised to do that”. On the other hand, TEs employed “Overstater” to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining more than CEs did, e.g. “TELM13.1 Please stop working on other order. May me first? Please. I need it seriously”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Play-down”, “Downtoner”, “Scope setter” and “Overstater” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that CE females used “Play-down” significantly more than TE females, e.g. “CELF2.1 OK, so can you do it right now?”. Besides, CE males used “Downtoner” significantly more than TE males and females did, and CE females used “Scope setter” significantly more than TE males and females did. However, TE males used “Overstater” significantly more than CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Scope setter” and “Aggressive

interrogative” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs used “Scope setter” significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs and lower intermediate CEs did. Besides, upper intermediate CEs used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did, e.g. “CEUF26.1 What? How can you forget my request?”

5.2.2.2 Faded suit

In this situation, TEs employed “Aggressive interrogative” very frequently, e.g. “TELF1.2 What is happened with my suit?” while CEs used “Scope setter” very frequently, e.g. “CELF2.2 Oh, my god! You just ruined favorite suit!” An analysis of Mann-Whitney U Test indicates these differences are significant (see Table 5.7).

However, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show no significant differences among TE and CE males and females in IFMDs (see Table 5.8). This means that TE and CE males and females employed downgraders and upgraders in a similar way. However, Kruskal Wallis H Test reveals significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Scope setter” and “Aggressive interrogative” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs used “Scope setter” significantly more than upper intermediate TEs did. On the other hand, upper intermediate TEs employed “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did.

5.2.2.3 Undelivered paper

In this situation, TEs employed most frequently “Aggressive interrogative”, e.g. “TELM23.3 What happened?” In addition, they employed the second most frequently “Plus committer”, e.g. “TELM21.3 I am serious why I failed the course?”. But CEs did not use any downgraders or upgraders very frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TEs and CEs in “Aggressive interrogative” and “Consultative device” (see Table 5.7). The results suggest that TEs used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than CEs did. Besides, only TEs employed “Consultative device”, e.g. “TEUF2.3 You forgot to submit my paper, right?”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Aggressive interrogative” and “Scope setter” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that TE females used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than TE males, CE males and CE females did. Besides, CE females used “Scope setter” significantly more than TE males, TE females, and CE males did, e.g. “CELF27.3 Oh, you forget to help me submit my term paper”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Aggressive interrogative”, “Scope setter” and “Plus committer” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that lower intermediate TEs employed “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than lower and upper intermediate CEs did. Besides, upper intermediate TEs used “Plus committer” significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did, e.g. “TELM26.3 You know, I am very serious about my course.”. On the other hand, upper intermediate CEs employed “Scope setter” significantly more than upper intermediate TEs did.

5.2.2.4 Forgetful classmate

In this situation, neither TEs nor CEs employ any upgraders or downgraders frequently. The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TEs and CEs in “Scope setter” (see Table 5.7). The results suggest that CEs used “Scope setter” significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM9.4 Oh, darling. What's wrong with you?”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate no significant difference among TE and CE males and females in this situation (see Table 5.8), or among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs (see Table 5.9).

5.2.2.5 Noisy roommate

In this situation, both TEs and CEs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, e.g. “TELM2.5 Please don’t make your loud noise”, or “CEUM5.5 Hey, what’s up? Please do not make any noise if you will come home very late”. In addition, TEs also avoided mentioning the hearer the second most frequently, which was also employed by CEs ($f=28$), e.g. “TEUM2.5 Just realize that you are not the owner of the room but ‘we’”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences in “Politeness marker”, “Agent avoider”, and “Intensifier”. The results suggest that TEs used “Politeness marker” and “Agent avoider” significantly more than CEs did. However, CEs used “Intensifier” significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CELF3.5 You comes home very late recently and makes so much noise that I can’t fall asleep”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Politeness marker”, “Scope setter” and “Intensifier” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that TE males employed politeness markers significantly more than CE females did, and TE females employed politeness markers significantly more than CE males and CE females did. Besides, none of TE females or CE males employed “Scope setter”. Moreover, CE females employed intensifiers significantly more than TE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Politeness marker”, “Intensifier” and

“Plus committer” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that lower intermediate TEs employed politeness markers significantly more than lower and upper intermediate CEs did. Besides, upper intermediate CEs employed “Intensifier” significantly more than lower intermediate TEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs employed “Plus committer” significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did, e.g. “CELF23.5 You know, sleeping earlier is better for us”.

5.2.2.6 Noisy neighbor

In this situation, both TEs and CEs employed “Politeness marker”, e.g. “TELM3.6 Excuse me, please keep the TV noise down”. The also avoided mentioning the hearer the second most frequently, e.g. “CELM26.6 Please turn down your TV noise”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences in “Politeness marker”, “Hedge” and “Minus committer”. The results suggest that TEs used “Politeness marker” significantly more than CEs did. In addition, they also used “Hedge” significantly more than CEs did, e.g. “TELM6.6 Could you turn the volume down a bit”. However, CEs used “Minus committer” significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “TELM25.6 Sorry to disturb you, but I have to say I’ll take an exam tomorrow, and I can’t sleep because of the noisy TV”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Politeness marker” and “Minus committer” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that TE males and females employed “Politeness marker” significantly more than CE males and females did, and that CC females used “Minus committer” significantly more than TE males, TE females, and CE males did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Politeness marker”, “Minus committer” and “Agent avoider” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that lower and upper intermediate TEs employed “Politeness marker” significantly more than lower and upper intermediate CEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs used “Minus committer” significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs and lower intermediate CEs did. Besides, lower intermediate TEs avoided mentioning the hearer significantly more than upper intermediate TEs and CEs did.

5.2.2.7 Late arriving classmate

In this situation, neither TEs nor CEs employed any downgrader or upgrader very frequently. The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TEs and CEs in “Minus committer” and “Agent avoider”. The results suggest that CEs employed “Minus committer” significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CELM9.7 I hope you can be on time next time, and I would be late for my part-time job because of you”. On the other hand, TEs avoided mentioning the hearer significantly more than CEs did, e.g. “TELM17.7 Next time on time, please”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal a significant difference among TE and CE males and females in “Minus committer” (see Table 5.8). The result suggests that TE males employed “Minus committer” significantly less than CE males and females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show a significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Minus committer” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs employed “Minus committer” significantly less than lower intermediate TEs did.

5.2.2.8 Late arriving friend

In this situation, only CEs employed “Overstater” very frequently ($f=31$), e.g. “CEUM1.8 You (are) late again and again”, which TEs also employed ($f=28$).

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TEs and CEs in “Consultative device”, “Downtoner”, “Minus committer” and “Plus committer” (see Table 5.7). The results suggest that CEs employed these IFMDs significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CEUM19.8 Oh, dear, you always leave me alone for at least 20 minutes, just {Downtoner} promise me that you won't next time, OK?{Consultative device}”, and “CELF8.8 Every time you are at least 20 to 30 minutes late. You know {Plus committer} you are my good friend, so I hope {Minus committer} you will not be late next time”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Consultative devices”, “Minus committer” and “Plus committer” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that CE females used “Consultative device” significantly more than TE males and females did. Besides, CE females employed “Minus committer” and “Plus committer” significantly more than TE females did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate a significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Consultative devices” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that lower intermediate CEs used “Consultative device” significantly more than upper intermediate TEs did.

5.2.2.9 Lost lecture notes

In this situation, neither TEs nor CEs employed any IFMDs very frequently. The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TEs and CEs in “Minus committer” and “Intensifier” (see Table 5.7). The results suggest that CEs

employed these two IFMDs significantly more than TEs did, e.g. “CELM1.9 Actually, I wish {Minus committer} you can find them more carefully”, and “CEUM5.9 Are you kidding with me? I'm very {Intensifier} angry”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Minus committer”, “Scope setter”, and “Intensifier” (see Table 5.8). The results suggest that CE females used “Minus committer” significantly more than TE females did. Besides, TE males used “Scope setter” significantly more than TE females did, e.g. “TEUM5.9 Oh, my god! You did lost my lecture note”. Moreover, CE females used intensifiers significantly more than TE males did, e.g. “CELF13.9 You don't keep your promise and I'm very angry.”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Minus committer”, “Intensifier”, and “Aggressive interrogative” (see Table 5.9). The results suggest that lower and upper intermediate CEs and CEs used “Minus committer” significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs did. In addition, upper intermediate CEs employed “Intensifier” significantly more than TEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate CEs used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did, e.g. “CELF5.9 Are you crazy? I trust you, but you left it somewhere”.

5.2.2.10 Broken mobile phone

In this situation, TEs and CEs used “Overstater” fairly frequently (f=29 and 25 respectively), e.g. “TELM20.10 Why my mobile phone often breaks down”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate no significant difference between TEs and CEs in any IFMD. The results suggest that TEs and CEs employed IFMDs in a similar way.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate no significant difference among TE and CE males and females in any IFMD. The results suggest that TE males and females used IFMDs in a similar way as CE males and females did. However, Kruskal Wallis H Test indicated a significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Overstater”. The result suggests that upper intermediate CEs employed “Overstater” significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did.

5.2.2.11 Cutting in line

In this situation, both TEs and CEs avoided mentioning the hearer the most frequently, e.g. “TEUM5.10 Give me back my money!”. In addition, both TEs and CEs employed “Politeness marker” the second most frequently, e.g. “CELF12.10 Please repair it again”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate no significant difference between TEs and CEs in any IFMD. The results suggest that TEs used IFMDs in a similar way as CEs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal a significant difference among TE and CE males and females in “Lexical intensifier”. The results suggest that neither TE females nor CE females used “Lexical intensifier”, but TE males did so, e.g. “TELM15.11 Hey, damn”. However, Kruskal Wallis H Test shows no significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in any IFMD. The results suggest that lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs employed IFMDs in a similar way in this situation.

5.2.2.12 Annoying phone rings

In this situation, TEs and CEs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, and “Agent avoider” the second most frequently, e.g. “TELM2.12 Please

{Politeness marker}{Agent avoider} be quiet.” or “CEUM3.12 Hey, please {Politeness marker} answer the phone outdoors and this will not disturb other students”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TEs and CEs in “Politeness marker” and “Consultative device”. The results suggest that TEs employed “Politeness marker” significantly more than CEs did. On the contrary, only CEs employed “Consultative device”, e.g. “CEUM12.12 Excuse me, we have a meeting now. Please answer the phone out the door, OK?”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among TE and CE males and females in “Politeness marker” and “Intensifier”. The results suggest that TE males employed “Politeness markers” significantly more than CE females did. Besides, only CE females employed “Intensifier”, e.g. “CEUM20.12 Last time you talked so loudly that I couldn’t hear a word about the lecture”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show a significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in “Consultative device”. The results suggest that upper intermediate CEs employed “Consultative devices” significantly more than lower and upper intermediate TEs and TEs did.

After comparing similarities and difference between TEs and CEs in terms of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, the present study will report the perception of severity of the offence in 12 situations by TEs and CEs, so that the reader can understand the similarities and differences in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining.

5.3 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TEs and CEs

Table 5.10 presents severity of offence in 12 scenarios perceived by TEs and CEs, Table 5.11 reports severity of offence perceived by TE and CE males and females, and Table 5.12 shows severity of offence perceived by lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs.

Table 5.10 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TEs and CEs

Situation	TE	Relation	CE	Sig.
	\bar{X} (S.D.)		\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	3.15 (1.28)	>	2.88 (0.95)	N.S.
Faded suit	2.88 (0.99)	>	2.85 (0.97)	N.S.
Undelivered paper	3.94 (1.14)	>	3.54 (1.04)	.001*
Forgetful classmate	2.91 (1.06)	>	2.77 (1.04)	N.S.
Noisy roommate	2.78 (1.09)	>	2.61 (1.00)	N.S.
Noisy neighbour	2.80 (0.97)	<	2.96 (0.99)	N.S.
Late arriving classmate	2.80 (0.92)	<	2.83 (0.91)	N.S.
Late arriving friend	2.24 (1.14)	<	2.36 (0.94)	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	3.63 (1.18)	>	3.17 (1.10)	.001*
Broken mobile phone	3.13 (1.02)	>	3.06 (1.10)	N.S.
Cutting in line	3.08 (1.01)	>	2.84 (1.00)	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	2.68 (0.99)	<	2.74 (0.97)	N.S.

Notes: N=120;

<= Less serious than;

>=More serious than;

N.S.=Not significant difference between TEs and CEs;

*=Significant difference between TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

TEs perceived the offence in eight situations as more serious than CEs did, while CEs perceived the offence in four situations as more serious than TEs did (see 5.10 for detail). To be exact, TEs perceived the offence in Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 3 Undelivered paper, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, and Situation 11 Cutting in line as very serious offence, while CEs only

perceived the offence in Situation 3 Undelivered paper, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone as very serious offence.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TEs and CEs in their perception of offence in Situation 3 Undelivered paper and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes. The results suggest that TEs perceived failing a course and the potential of failing a course in these two situations as significantly more serious than CEs did (see Table 5.10).

Table 5.11 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TE and CE males and females

Situation	TE		CE		Sig.
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Situation 1 Negligent worker	3.17 (1.21)	3.13 (1.36)	2.98 (0.81)	2.77 (1.06)	N.S.
Situation 2 Faded suit	2.95 (0.96)	2.82 (1.02)	2.80 (0.92)	2.90 (1.02)	N.S.
Situation 3 Undelivered paper	4.05 (1.06)	3.83 (1.21)	3.40 (1.11)	3.68 (0.97)	.004*
Situation 4 Forgetful classmate	3.03 (0.99)	2.78 (1.12)	2.72 (1.11)	2.82 (0.98)	N.S.
Situation 5 Noisy roommate	2.82 (1.07)	2.75 (1.13)	2.70 (1.06)	2.52 (0.93)	N.S.
Situation 6 Noisy neighbour	2.83 (0.87)	2.77 (1.06)	3.00 (1.09)	2.92 (0.89)	N.S.
Situation 7 Late arriving classmate	2.83 (0.91)	2.77 (0.95)	2.82 (0.93)	2.85 (0.90)	N.S.
Situation 8 Late arriving friend	2.28 (1.15)	2.20 (1.13)	2.45 (0.93)	2.27 (0.95)	N.S.
Situation 9 Lost lecture notes	3.48 (1.14)	3.78 (1.21)	3.08 (1.11)	3.25 (1.10)	.003*
Situation 10 Broken mobile phone	3.13 (0.97)	3.13 (1.08)	3.15 (1.06)	2.97 (1.13)	N.S.
Situation 11 Cutting in line	3.10 (1.02)	3.05 (1.02)	2.97 (1.06)	2.72 (0.92)	N.S.
Situation 12 Annoying phone rings	2.77 (0.96)	2.60 (1.01)	2.95 (1.02)	2.53 (0.87)	N.S.

Notes: N=60;

N.S.=Not significant difference among TE and CE males and females;

*=Significant difference among TE and CE males and females, with $p < .05$;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among TE and CE males and females in their perception of severity of offence in Situation 3 Undelivered paper and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes. The results imply that TE males perceived the undelivered paper by an intimate as significantly more serious than CE

males did, and TE females perceived the lost lecture notes by a classmate significantly as more serious than CE males did (see Table 5.11).

Table 5.12 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs

Situation	TE		CE		Sig.
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Situation 1 Negligent worker	3.12 (1.29)	3.18 (1.28)	2.73 (0.90)	3.02 (0.98)	N.S.
Situation 2 Faded suit	2.88 (1.04)	2.88 (0.94)	2.85 (1.02)	2.85 (0.92)	N.S.
Situation 3 Undelivered paper	3.80 (1.15)	4.08 (1.12)	3.52 (1.10)	3.57 (1.00)	.004*
Situation 4 Forgetful classmate	2.85 (1.10)	2.97 (1.03)	2.82 (1.08)	2.72 (1.01)	N.S.
Situation 5 Noisy roommate	2.97 (1.10)	2.60 (1.06)	2.57 (1.05)	2.65 (0.95)	N.S.
Situation 6 Noisy neighbour	2.97 (1.01)	2.63 (0.90)	2.93 (1.02)	2.98 (0.97)	N.S.
Situation 7 Late arriving classmate	2.92 (0.93)	2.68 (0.91)	2.98 (0.97)	2.68 (0.83)	N.S.
Situation 8 Late arriving friend	2.42 (1.24)	2.07 (1.01)	2.43 (0.96)	2.28 (0.92)	N.S.
Situation 9 Lost lecture notes	3.70 (1.21)	3.57 (1.16)	2.98 (1.11)	3.35 (1.07)	.003*
Situation 10 Broken mobile phone	3.22 (0.94)	3.05 (1.10)	3.15 (1.22)	2.97 (0.96)	N.S.
Situation 11 Cutting in line	3.07 (0.99)	3.08 (1.05)	2.95 (0.98)	2.73 (1.01)	N.S.
Situation 12 Annoying phone rings	2.88 (1.03)	2.48 (0.91)	2.82 (1.00)	2.67 (0.93)	.047*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=Not significant difference among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in their perception of severity of offence in Situation 3 Undelivered paper, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings (see Table 5.12). The results suggest that upper intermediate TEs perceived undelivered paper by a close friend significantly as more serious than lower intermediate CEs. In addition, lower intermediate TEs perceived lost lecture notes by a classmate as significantly more serious than lower intermediate CEs did. Moreover, upper intermediate TEs perceived annoying phone rings at a seminar significantly less serious than lower intermediate TEs did.

To sum up, TEs and CEs were similar in their perception of the offence in 12 situations except for Situation 3 Undelivered paper and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes. However, despite significant differences, both TEs and CEs perceived the offence in Situation 3 Undelivered paper, and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes as very serious. From the speaker's gender and English proficiency, social distance, and relative power between the interlocutors, the following section will discuss the similarities and differences between TEs and CEs in semantic formulae and IFMDs.

5.4 Discussion

The discussion will focus on five subcategories of semantic formulae of complaining and two types of IFMDs of complaining.

Generally speaking, TEs and CEs did not differ from each other in explicitness of complaining. This means Thai and Chinese learners of English did not differ from each other in explicit mentioning of the offence. Compared with CEs, TEs appeared more reluctant in making complaints. However, CEs aggravated their complaining by criticizing the hearer significantly more than TEs did (see Table 5.1). When they did so, they mitigated the illocutionary force of complaining by addressing the hearer and showing their appreciation for the hearer's potential cooperation. The comparison between TEs and CEs in terms of "Gratitude" resembles Wannaruk's (2008) finding that gratitude is used much less frequently in Thailand than in western countries. However, TEs and CEs did not differ in downgraders and upgraders.

The following sub-sections will elaborate on the effects of the speaker's gender, English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between interlocutors on the semantic formulae and IFMDs.

5.4.1 Speaker's gender

Significant differences were found among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae and IFMDs (see Table 5.2 and Table 5.3).

In terms of semantic formulae, generally speaking, TE males chose not to mention the offence significantly more than CE males did, and TE females chose not mention the offence significantly more than CE females did. The finding differs from Li et al.'s (2006) conclusion that gender did not influence the directness of complaining.

Besides, TE and CE females mentioned the context and justified their utterances significantly more than TE and CE males did. The common perception that females are more talkative than males seems to hold true in terms of the speech act of complaining. Moreover, TE males expressed their gratitude significantly more than TE females, whereas CE females did so significantly more than CE males did. This seems to create an impression that Thai males mitigated the illocutionary force of complaining in the same way as CE females did.

To be exact, CE males and females explicitly mentioned the offence to a roommate significantly more than TE males and females did in Situation 5 Noisy roommate. Besides, TE females chose not to mention the offence to their late arriving classmate significantly more than TE males and CE males and females did in Situation 7 Late arriving classmate. Moreover, TE males and females chose not to mention the offence to their late arriving friend significantly more than CE males and females did in Situation 8 Late arriving friend. It can be inferred that Thai females were more tolerant of a late arriving classmate or friend than Chinese females did. Therefore, when TE and CE females became acquaintances or friends, they would find it difficult to adjust the intercultural difference in being late.

When it comes to IFMDs, generally speaking, no significant difference was found among TE and CE males and females. But among 12 situations, significant differences were found among TE and CE males and females in “Politeness marker”. In Situation 5 Noisy roommate, Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings, TE males and females employed “Politeness marker” significantly more than CE males and females did (see Table 5.5). The results suggest that CE males and females found it less necessary to use “politeness marker” in these offensive situations than TE males and females did, and that the difference in “Politeness markers” was largely due to cultural difference, instead of gender difference.

5.4.2 Speaker’s English proficiency

Significant differences were found among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEs in semantic formulae and IFMDs.

In terms of semantic formulae, generally speaking, upper intermediate TEs and CEs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did (9 out of 12 situations) (see Table 5.3). On the other hand, lower intermediate TEs and CEs chose not to mention the offence significantly more than upper intermediate TEs and CEs did. In addition, upper intermediate TEs and CEs apologized for the potential imposition of the utterance and justified their utterance significantly more than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did. Peculiar to CEs, upper intermediate CEs addressed the hearer and showed their gratitude significantly more than lower intermediate CEs did. The finding suggests that upper intermediate TEs and CEs achieved effectiveness of complaining better than lower intermediate TEs and CEs did. Besides, they were able to soften the illocutionary force of complaining better than lower intermediate counterparts, which echoes Gallaher’s (2011) observation that advanced learners showed better control

over linguistic strategies to mitigate the offense than the intermediate learners did.

In Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 4 Forgetful classmate, Situation 6 Noisy neighbor, S9 Lost lecture notes and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, upper intermediate TEs and CEes explicitly mentioned the offence more than lower intermediate TEs and CEes did (see Table 5.6). However, in Situation 8 Late arriving friend, although upper intermediate CEes still explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than lower intermediate CEes did, upper intermediate TEs explicitly mentioned the offence less than lower intermediate TEs did. In addition, lower and upper intermediate TEs chose not to mention the offence significantly more than lower and upper intermediate CEes did.

When it comes to IFMDs, generally speaking, no significant differences were found among lower and upper intermediate TEs and CEes in downgraders. The results suggest that lower intermediate TEs and CEes employed linguistic devices to mitigate the illocutionary force of complaining in a similar way to upper intermediate TEs and CEes. But upper intermediate TEs and CEes employed significantly more upgraders than lower intermediate TEs and CEes did. This indicates that lower intermediate TEs and CEes did not match their upper intermediate TEs and CEes in aggravating the illocutionary force of complaining. The results imply that lower intermediate TEs and CEes should accumulate these upgraders of complaining in their language learning.

5.4.3 Social distance

In terms of semantic formulae of complaining, TEs complained as explicitly as CEes did in ten situations (see Table 5.4). But in Situation 1 Negligent worker, TEs complained significantly less explicitly than CEes did. When TEs were interviewed, they reported that it is embarrassing to complain explicitly to an acquaintance, even though s/he was of lower relative power. However, CEes did not report the same feeling of embarrassment

when they complained to people of lower relative power, be they acquaintance or not.

In addition, significant difference was also found in Situation 5 Noisy roommate between TEs and CEs. The result shows that TEs complained significantly less explicitly to intimate the hearer than CEs did. The interview data reveal that TEs cherished mutual respect in friendship, while CEs valued intimacy in friendship. Therefore, when an intimate offended the speaker, TEs would try to avoid mentioning the offence first, whereas CEs would directly confront the intimate with the offence. The same tendency can be found in Situation 8, where an intimate arrived late for the meeting. More TEs did not mention the offence than CEs did, though the difference was not significant. This finding indicates that TEs behaved in a similar way to the Sudanese group, who were reserved in making complaints to a friend (Umar, 2006).

However, TEs and CEs employed more semantic formulae speaking to an acquaintance in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor and Situation 7 Late arriving friend than to an intimate (see Table 5.4). The finding corroborates Wolfson's (1983) study that acquaintances need more solidarity-establishing speech behavior than intimates do. Maybe the certainty of social distance between intimates demands less negotiation than that between acquaintances does. This result echoes Wang's (2007) finding that both the English and Chinese groups explicitly mentioned the offence with interlocutors of small social distance.

In terms of IFMDs, TEs and CEs did not differ from each other in most situations. Nevertheless, from Situation 5 Noisy roommate to Situation 6 Noisy neighbour TEs employed more downgraders to mitigate the illocutionary force of complaining and fewer upgraders to aggravate the illocutionary force of complaining, while CEs did not change their downgrader, but used fewer upgraders to an acquaintance. The same holds

true from Situation 8 Late arriving friend to Situation 7 Late arriving classmate. Compared with intimate the hearer in Situation 8 Late arriving friend, TEs employed more downgraders and fewer upgraders with acquaintance the hearer in Situation 7 Late arriving friend, while CEs did not vary in downgraders, but decreased the upgraders.

When speaking to a stranger in Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings, TEs used fewer downgraders and more upgraders, whereas CEs did not change their downgraders, but increased their upgraders. The results show that TEs increased their downgraders from stranger and intimate to acquaintance and that CEs did not change their downgraders usage. Besides, both TEs and CEs increased their upgraders from acquaintance and intimate to stranger. The findings in IFMDs of complaining repeat Wolfson's (1983) reflection that acquaintances need more solidarity-establishing speech behaviour than strangers and intimates.

In addition, we can infer that both TEs and CEs complained to a stranger with most upgraders and fewer downgraders. The finding with TEs and CEs differs from Tamanaha's (2003) study that the Japanese were generally more indirect toward out-group members (i.e. strangers) than toward in-group interlocutors (i.e. family, friends).

5.4.4 Relative power

The hearer was of lower relative power in Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone (see Table 5.4). Both TEs and CEs employed fewer semantic formulae with the hearer of lower relative power. Besides, they frequently mentioned the offence explicitly. Nevertheless, when the hearer of lower relative power became an acquaintance in Situation 1 Negligent worker, both TEs and CEs employed more semantic formulae than when they spoke to a stranger of relative power. Moreover, TEs did not explicitly mention the offence as they did in Situation 2 or

Situation 10. However, CEs still chose to explicitly mention the offence when the hearer was an acquaintance of lower relative power. Therefore, CEs seemed not to consider the effect of social distance when the hearer was of lower relative power.

In terms of IFMDs, both TEs and CEs tended to employ fewer downgraders, and more upgraders toward a stranger of a lower relative power in Situation 2 Faded suit. For example, TEs employed “Aggressive interrogative” to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “TEUM6.2 OMG. Look at this. You ruin my favourite suit”. Instead, CEs employed “Scope setter” to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “CELF12.2 God, this is my favourite suit.” But strangely, they used more downgraders and fewer upgraders in Situation 1 Negligent worker and S10 Broken mobile phone. The reason behind might be the possibility of remedial work: in Situation 2 Faded suit, the damage seemed more irrevocable, but in Situation 1 Negligent worker and S10 Broken mobile phone, the loss could be reimbursed. Therefore, TEs and CEs did not distinguish the relative power in IFMDs. The finding conforms to Nakhle, Naghavi, and Razavi’s (2014) study that social power may cause differential use of complaining utterance.

5.5 Summary

This chapter compared the similarities and differences between TEs and CEs in terms of the semantic formulae, and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations. The results indicate that the speaker’s gender, social distance and relative power between interlocutors influenced TEs and CEs in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS & DISCUSSION III: PRAGMATIC TRANSFER OF THE SPEECH ACT OF COMPLAINING PERFORMED BY NATIVE THAI SPEAKERS FROM L1 TO ENGLISH

Chapter Six attempts to answer the third research question:

3) What pragmatic transfer do Thai *ELF* speakers make from their L1 to English in terms of the complaining realization patterns? And how?

Since the complaining realization patterns were composed of semantic formulae and illocutionary force indicating devices (IFMDs), the researcher first reported the overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs used by native Thai speakers speaking Thai (TTs) and Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English (TEs, which were divided into TELs, lower intermediate Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English, and TEUs, upper intermediate Thai *ELF* speakers speaking English), and then the semantic formulae and IFMDs used by TTs, TELs, and TEUs in twelve situations respectively. At the same time, the Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to find out the absence of pragmatic transfer made by TELs and TEUs from Thai to English in these two aspects. After that, the researcher presented the perception data of the offences obtained from the participants. Finally, the researcher attempted to discuss the results from the perspective of the speaker's gender and English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

6.1 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations

The twelve semantic formulae are divided into five subcategories: “Problem” makes explicit complaining; “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Threat” aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining; “Opt-out” makes no complaint; “Context”, “Justification”, “Remedy” and “Valuation” supplement complaining; and “Address term”, “Apology” and “Gratitude” mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining. On the other hand, IFMDs, which are subdivided into seven downgraders and six upgraders, are analyzed based on the coding scheme adapted from DeCapua (1989, pp. 182-184) (see Table 3.4 for detail).

The researcher tallied the total frequencies of the twelve semantic formulae and two types of IFMDs produced by TTs, TELs and TEUs in twelve situations. In addition, significant differences between TTs and TELs and between TTs and TEUs in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining were marked with asterisks (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TEs, and lower and upper intermediate TEs in 12 situations

	TT	TEL	Sig.	TT	TEU	Sig.	TEL	TEU	Sig.
Problem	320	326	N.S.	320	400*	.004*	326	400@	.007
Criticism	65	65	N.S.	65	102	N.S.	65	102	N.S.
Warning	72	36*	.002*	72	36*	.002*	36	36	N.S.
Threat	21	48*	.000*	21	38	.048*	48	38	N.S.
Opt-out	62	47	N.S.	62	29*	.006*	47	29	N.S.
Address term	70	56	N.S.	70	59	N.S.	56	59	N.S.
Apology	53	65	N.S.	53	89*	.004*	65	89	N.S.
Context	161	135	N.S.	161	149	N.S.	135	149	N.S.
Valuation	29	28	N.S.	29	18	N.S.	28	18	N.S.
Justification	146	165	N.S.	146	213*	.001*	165	213@	.008
Remedy	328	325	N.S.	328	360	N.S.	325	360	N.S.
Gratitude	20	21	N.S.	20	26	N.S.	21	26	N.S.
Total of semantic formulae	1347	1317	N.S.	1347	1519	.011*	1317	1519@	.001
Downgrader	486	457	N.S.	486	468	N.S.	457	468	N.S.
Upgrader	162	287*	.000*	162	258*	.001*	287	258	N.S.

Notes: N=720;

*=significant difference between TTs and TELs or between TTs and TEUs, with $p < .05$;

@= significant difference between TELs and TEUs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference

The results show that TELs made the pragmatic transfer in semantic formulae of complaining more than TEUs did. To be precise, TELs differed from TTs only in two semantic formulae and upgraders. They warned the hearer significantly less than TTs did. However, they threatened the hearer significantly more than TTs did. Moreover, TELs used more upgraders to aggravate the illocutionary force of complaining. On the contrary, TEUs differed from TTs in six semantic formulae and upgraders. To be exact, TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, and justified for the utterance significantly more than TTs did, but they warned the hearer and chose not to mention the offence significantly less than TTs did. Besides, TEUs used significantly more upgraders than TTs did.

Furthermore, semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TT, TEL and TEU males and females were compared (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TT, and lower and upper intermediate TE males and females in 12 situations

	TT		TEL		Sig.	TT		TEU		Sig.
	M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F	
Problem	142	178	152	174	N.S.	142	178	200	200	.009*
Criticism	27	38	36	29	N.S.	27	38	51	51	N.S.
Warning	24	48	17	19	.001*	24	48	16	20	.001*
Threat	10	11	28	20	.003*	10	11	26	12	.023*
Opt-out	33	29	23	24	N.S.	33	29	13	16	.050*
Address term	28	42	34	22	N.S.	28	42	36	23	N.S.
Apology	24	29	34	31	N.S.	24	29	39	50	.034*
Context	70	91	60	75	.038*	70	91	64	85	N.S.
Valuation	14	15	15	13	N.S.	14	15	12	6	N.S.
Justification	63	83	74	91	N.S.	63	83	103	110	.003*
Remedy	172	156	155	170	N.S.	172	156	174	186	N.S.
Gratitude	14	6	14	7	N.S.	14	6	17	9	N.S.
Downgrader	246	240	223	234	N.S.	246	240	238	230	N.S.
Upgrader	81	81	127	160	.000*	81	81	123	135	.005*

Notes: N=720;

*=significant difference among TT, TEL and TEU males and females, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among TT, TEL and TEU males and females

The results reveal that, generally speaking, TEL males and females made more pragmatic transfer in complaining than TEU males and females did. TELs resembled TTs in nine semantic formulae and downgraders, while TEUs resembled TTs in six semantic formulae and downgraders. In other words, TEL males and females warned the hearer and set the stage for the utterance significantly less frequently than TT males and females did, but they threatened the hearer significantly more frequently than TT males and females did. In addition, TEL males and females employed more upgraders than TT males and females did. However, TEU males and females differed from TT males and females in six semantic formulae and upgraders. That is, TEU males and females mentioned the offence, apologized for the potential offence, justified for the utterance significantly more than TT males and females did, but they warned the hearer, and chose not to mention the offence significantly less than TT males and females did. Besides,

TEU males and females employed more upgraders than TT males and females did. Interestingly, TEU males threatened the hearer significantly more than TT males and females did, but TEU females used upgraders in a similar way to TT females.

After analyzing the similarities and differences between TTs and TELs, and those between TTs and TEUs, the researcher will explore the similarities and differences between these two pairs of groups in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, with reference to social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

6.2 Semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations

The following sub-section compares semantic formulae of complaining between TTs and TELs and those between TTs and TEUs in 12 situations. The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed to find out the absence of pragmatic transfer made by TELs and TEUs from Thai to English in terms of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining. Examples of the semantic formulae used by TTs, TELs, and TEUs are provided for better understanding. In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test was conducted to find out the significant effects of the speaker's gender on the semantic formulae of complaining.

6.2.1 Comparison of semantic formulae of complaining employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations

Table 6.3 displays a comparison of semantic formulae of complaining between TTs and TELs, and those between TTs and TEUs in 12 situations, Table 6.4 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by TEL males and females from Thai to English in semantic formulae in 12 situations, and Table 6.5 reports the absence of pragmatic transfer made

by TEU males and females from Thai to English in semantic formulae in 12 situations.

When the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English did not exist in TELs or TEUs, an asterisk was used to mark its absence.

Table 6.3 Semantic formulae of complaining used by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations

Semantic Formulae	S1			S2			S3			S4		
	TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE	
		L	U		L	U		L	U		L	U
Problem	15	14	24	43	31*	41	42	40	48	35	42	42
Criticism	6	2	5	2	6	10*	8	2*	10@	13	9	19@
Warning	4	3	4	3	4	5	1	1	0	6	2	2
Threat	4	3	4	1	2	1	3	5	4	2	2	4
Opt-out	0	4* @	0	3	2	2	3	3	2	13	2*	3*
Address term	4	2	1	4	4	1	3	4	7	2	6	7
Apology	1	3	10* @	4	3	10@	1	3	2	2	2	0
Context	39	36	33	18	3*	9	35	22*	30	15	32*	25
Valuation	2	4	2	0	3	2	5	3	7	0	2	1
Justification	22	14	31@	3	10*	6	5	3	2	9	2*	10@
Remedy	33	31	38	12	22*	14	12	10	8	2	4	7
Gratitude	3	1	1	0	1	3	0	1	1	2	1	1
Total	133	117	153@	93	91	104	118	97	121@	101	106	121*
Semantic Formulae	S5			S6			S7			S8		
	TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE	
		L	U		L	U		L	U		L	U
Problem	29	24	25	22	23	32	23	32	31	30	37	33
Criticism	2	4	5	3	1	0	7	12	12	6	4	5
Warning	10	7	7	2	2	2	6	5	6	5	2	5
Threat	1	6	3	0	0	0	2	4	1	2	4	1
Opt-out	1	2	0	2	1	0	10	6	4	11	13	12
Address term	10	13	8	6	4	7	7	3	5	2	6	5
Apology	3	7@	1	12	12	15	1	3	4	3	3	4
Context	2	6	12*	1	0	2	2	6	4	5	3	5
Valuation	0	2	1	0	0	0	3	2	0	14	1*	2*
Justification	24	17	22	34	43	47*	15	29*	38*	6	3	3
Remedy	35	40	44	52	55	56	25	18	32@	12	8	15
Gratitude	2	2	3	6	5	9	2	1	1	0	1	0
Total	119	130	131	140	146	170* @	103	121	138*	96	85*	90

Semantic Formulae	S9			S10			S11			S12		
	TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE	
		L	U		L	U		L	U		L	U
Problem	13	19	35* @	41	38	55* @	4	13 *	11	23	13 *	23@
Criticism	7	7	13	2	1	2	3	13 *	14*	6	4	7
Warning	13	1*	2*	2	6	2	13	1*	1*	7	2	0*
Threat	2	15*	12*	4	3	0*	0	3	7*	0	1	1
Opt-out	7	6	4	0	2	0	4	1	0*	8	5	2*
Address term	3	2	3	3	0	2	17	12	11	9	0*	2*
Apology	0	1	1	2	2	4	12	16	20	12	10	18
Context	7	7	8	11	11	11	24	8*	7*	2	1	3
Valuation	3	5	2	2	5	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Justification	13	12	15	10	2*	4	4	23 *	27*	1	7*	8*
Remedy	27	17	18	37	36	43	39	34	36	42	50	49
Gratitude	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	3	3	3	4	2
Total	96	92	114 @	11 4	10 7	125@	12 1	12 7	137*	11 3	98	115 @

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference between TTs and TELs, or between TTs and TEUs, with $p < .05$;

@=Significant difference between TELs and TEUs, with $p < .05$

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 6.4 Significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	TT		TEL		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Justification	7	15	9	5	.032*
Faded suit	Context	7	11	1	2	.002*
	Justification	1	2	1	8	.015*
Forgetful classmate	Opt-out	4	9	1	1	.005*
	Context	7	8	14	18	.011*
Noisy roommate	Problem	8	21	9	15	.002*
	Remedy	22	13	23	17	.028*
Late arriving friend	Valuation	9	5	1	0	.002*
Lost lecture notes	Warning	3	10	0	1	.000*
	Threat	1	1	5	10	.002*
Cutting in line	Warning	6	7	1	0	.008*
	Context	9	15	3	5	.003*
	Justification	3	1	8	15	.000*
Annoying phone rings	Problem	7	16	6	7	.016*
	Warning	1	6	1	1	.030*
	Address term	2	7	0	0	.001*
	Total	44	69	48	50	.002*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, with $p < .05$

Table 6.5 Significant differences among TT and TEU males and females in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	TT		TEU		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Apology	0	1	5	5	.041*
	Justification	7	15	19	12	.016*
	Total	59	74	84	69	.018*
Faded suit	Address term	0	4	1	0	.031*
Forgetful classmate	Opt-out	4	9	1	2	.012*
	Context	7	8	7	18	.005*
Noisy roommate	Problem	8	21	11	14	.006*
	Context	0	2	6	6	.034*
	Remedy	22	13	22	22	.030*
Noisy neighbour	Problem	6	16	15	17	.016*
	Criticism	0	3	0	0	.027*
	Justification	14	20	23	24	.027*
	Total	59	81	80	90	.005*
Late arriving classmate	Valuation	3	0	0	0	.027*
	Justification	8	7	20	18	.000*
	Total	51	52	68	70	.003*
Late arriving friend	Valuation	9	5	1	1	.006*
Lost lecture notes	Problem	7	6	19	16	.001*
	Warning	3	10	2	0	.001*
	Threat	1	1	7	5	.034*
Broken mobile phone	Problem	19	22	26	29	.007*
Cutting in line	Problem	3	1	8	3	.044*
	Criticism	1	2	6	8	.031*
	Warning	6	7	1	0	.008*
	Threat	0	0	6	1	.002*
	Address term	5	12	8	3	.037*
	Context	9	15	3	4	.001*
	Justification	3	1	13	14	.000*
	Total	55	66	70	67	.024*
Annoying phone rings	Warning	1	6	0	0	.002*
	Address term	2	7	1	1	.020*
	Total	44	69	57	58	.004*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among TT and TEU males and females, with $p < .05$

6.2.1.1 Negligent worker

In complaining to a worker in a photocopy shop, TTs and TELs employed “Context”, “Remedy”, “Justification”, and “Problem” frequently in a descending order, while upper intermediate TEs employed “Remedy”, “Context”, “Justification” and “Problem” in a descending order.

The remedy TTs, TELs and TEUs sought was usually in a request or demand form, e.g. “TTM27.1 ช่วย ดำเนินการให้ผมด่วนได้ไหม chûay dam-nern gaan hâi pôm dùan dâai mǎi (Can (you) please speed it up for (me)?)”, “TELM3.1 Could you please help me to make a copy?” “TELF3.1 Please do it now.”.

Usually, TTs, TELs and TEUs established the context by either referring to the order placed yesterday or asking the hearer whether the theses had been finished, e.g. “TTM2.1 อ้าว! คุณครับผมสั่งไว้แล้วนี่ แบบนี้งานผมก็เสียนะสิ pôm sàng wái láew nêe (I have placed an order.)”, “TEUM6.1 I already placed an order”, “TELM9.1 How about my photocopy? Are they finish(ed)?”

TTs, TELs and TEUs may state the problem in a declarative or interrogative form, e.g. “TTM8.1 ก็สั่งไว้แล้ว ไม่ตรวจดูดีๆ ก่อน mâi dtruat doo dee dee gòn (You don’t check it carefully.)”, “TELM25.1 But you haven’t done the copy yet.”, “TEUM8.1 I’m afraid that you may forget to make 5 bound copies of my thesis.”, or “TELM8.1 Why don’t you make the photocopies for me?”

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs justified their utterance by referring to the urgency or importance of the thesis photocopy, e.g. “TTM4.1 แล้วจะทำให้ทันไหม ต้องส่งก่อนเที่ยง ทำให้เดี๋ยวนี้ได้ไหม dtông sòng gòn tiàng (Have to submit before noon)”, “TEUM21.1 I have to submit it before 12:00 noon?”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Opt-out” and between TTs and TEUs in “Apology” (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs did not make the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English by not keeping silent about the offence involve, and TEUs did not make the pragmatic transfer by apologizing for the potential imposition more frequently than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Justification” and among TT and TEU males and females in “Apology”, “Justification” and the total of the semantic formulae (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL females did not justify their utterance so frequently as TT females did in this situation, while TEU males and females apologized more frequently than TT males and females did. Furthermore, TEU males justified their utterance significantly more than TT males did. In addition, TEU males employed significantly more semantic formulae than TT males did.

6.2.1.2 Faded suit

In complaining to the owner of a laundry, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem” and “Remedy” very frequently. In addition, TTs also employed “Context” the second most frequently.

TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem” the most frequently. They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of dry-cleaning, without referring to the hearer, explicitly asserted that the hearer has made the suit fade, or directly ask the hearer to explain the faded suit. For example, “TELM3.2 It was your fault”, “TELM2.2 Why my suit has faded.” or “TTM13.2 ทำไมสูทผมถึงซีด มันเกิดอะไรขึ้นกับเสื้อผม คุณซักยังไง tam-mai sòt pòm sêe tễung sêet (Why did the color of my suit fade?)”.

In addition, they sought specific or unspecific remedy, e.g. “TTM18.2 ผัดตัวหรือ เปล่าครับ เอาไปย้อมสีให้หน่อยไป ao bpai yóm sêe hâi nòi bpái (Go get (it) dyed for (me).)”, “TTM1.2 ทำไมชุดถึงเป็นอย่างนี้ครับ ทางร้านต้องรับผิดชอบชุดสูทขอ งผมครับ taang ráan dtông ráp pít chòp chúit sòot kǒng pòm kráp (The laundry must be responsible for my suit.)”, “TELM16.2 I want to go to cleaned my suit again”.

In this situation, only TTs employed “Context” the second most frequently. The context can be established by stating that the color was different, or asking the hearer whether the washing process was all right. For example, “TTM30.2 เกิดอะไรขึ้นกับสีของผม ตอนผมเอามันไม่ซีดขนาดนี้ แล้วคุณจะได้รับผิดชอบอย่างไรครับ dton pöm ao maa / man mâi sêet kà-nàet née (When I brought it, it did not that fade.)”, or “TTF9.2 ทำไมสีที่ติด/ คุณได้แยกซักไหม tam-mai sòot sêet : kun dâai yâek sák mǎi (Did you wash it separately?).”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Problem”, “Context” and “Justification” and “Remedy” and those between TTs and TEUs in “Criticism” (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs mentioned the problem and established the context for the utterance significantly less than TTs did, and justified their utterance and asked for the remedy for the offence significantly more than TTs did. On the other hand, TEUs criticized the hearer more than TTs did in this situation.

Moreover, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in “Context” and “Justification”, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Address term” (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results indicate that TEL males and females established the context for the utterance significantly less than TT males and females did. Besides, TEL females justified their utterance significantly more than TT females did. On the other hand, TEU females did not address the hearer, but TT females did so.

6.2.1.3 Undelivered paper

In complaining to a friend who failed to submit the term paper for the speaker, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem” and “Context” very frequently.

They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of the offence, without focusing on the hearer, explicitly asserted that the hearer has committed the offence, or directly asked the hearer to explain the offence. For example, “TTF15.3 เธอได้ส่งรายงานให้ฉันไหม เธอรู้ไหมว่าฉันไม่ผ่านในวิชานี้ เพราะอาจารย์บอกว่าฉันไม่ได้ส่งรายงาน chăn mâi pàan nai wí-chaa née prór aa-jaan bòk wâa chăn mâi dâai sòng raai ngaan (I failed the course because the teacher told me that I did not submit the paper.)”, “TELM16.3 I failed the course for not submitting the term paper”, or “TELM20.3 Why you not submit term paper for me?”

“Context” was employed the second most frequently by TTs, TELs and TEUs. They usually established the context by either referring to the former engagement, or verifying whether the offence had happened, e.g. “TTM4.3 ทำไมไม่ได้ส่งให้ล่ะ คุณก็รับปากแล้ว แล้วผมจะทำอย่างไรล่ะ kun gôr ráp bpàak láew (You have promised.)”, “TELM2.3 In course, I asked you about submission of my paper and you said you submit(ted) it before the deadline”, “TELM11.3 did you help me to submit the paper?”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Criticism”, and “Context”, but no difference between TTs and TEUs (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs criticized the hearer and established the context significantly less than TTs did, but TEUs made the pragmatic transfer in all semantic formulae.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results show no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, or among TT and TEU males and females in any semantic formulae (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that both TEL and TEU males and females made pragmatic transfer in all the semantic formulae in this situation.

6.2.1.4 Forgetful classmate

When complaining to a classmate who did not show up to help the speaker as agreed, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem” and “Context” frequently. In addition, TTs also opted out frequently in this situation.

They mentioned the bad consequence for the speaker, or directly asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, e.g. “TTM1.4 โธ่! เพื่อนรัก ทำไมนายทำกับเราเช่นนี้วะ เพื่อนไม่มาเลย งานเราเกือบเสร็จไม่ทันเลยอะ...ได้ ngaan rao gèuap sèt mâi tan loie a (My work almost could not have been finished.)”, “TEUF15.4 I had to take a bus and it took a long time”, or “TEUF11.4 You wasted my time”.

“Context” was the second most frequently used semantic formula by TTs, TELs and TEUs. They mentioned the previous engagement, or asked the hearer about the context for the offence, e.g. “TTF4.4 ไหนเธอจะพาฉันไปทำไมไม่พาไป năi ter jà paa chăn bpai (You said that you would take me.)”, or “TELM2.4 Excuse me, can you remember our appointment?”

In this situation, TTs kept silent about the offence more than TELs and TEUs did.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Opt-out”, “Context” and “Justification”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Opt-out” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs opted out significantly less than TTs did. Besides, TELs established the context significantly more than TTs did, but justified the utterance significantly less than TTs did. In addition, TEUs employed more semantic formulae than TTs did in this situation.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Opt-out” and “Context” and among TT and TEU males and females in “Opt-out” and “Context” (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL and TEU females opted out less than TT females did. Instead, TEL males and females established the context significantly more than TT males and females did. However, only TEU females established the context significantly more than TT females did.

6.2.1.5 Noisy roommate

In complaining to a noisy roommate, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Remedy”, “Problem”, and “Justification” very frequently.

They sought remedy the most frequently by asking the hearer to keep quiet in a request or demand form, e.g. “TTM5.5 เมาเสียงสักนิดได้ไหม bao sǎng sàk nít dâai mǎi (Can you keep the noise down a bit?)”, or “TELM6.5 Could you be a bit quiet?”

TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem” the second most frequently. They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of the hearer’s noise making, without focusing on the hearer, e.g. “TTM10.5 ขอ โทษนะ เรารู้ว่านายมีธุระและทำให้ต้องกลับดึก แต่ว่าฟุ้งนี้ตอนเช้าเรามีเรียนต้องตื่นแต่เช้า แล้วเราก็นอนไม่ได้เลย เพราะฉะนั้นอยากขอ ร้องให้ช่วย เมาเสียงได้หรือเปล่า láew rao gôr non mâi dâai loie (I cannot sleep at all,)”. They also explicitly asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, or asked the hearer to explain the offence e.g. “TELM16.5 I’m cannot sleep because of the noise from you”, “TTM24.5 ขอ โทษนะ ทำไมไม่ลดเสียงลงบ้าง พอตีผมต้องพักนอน ไม่น้อยสบาย เนื่องจากการนอนไม่หลับมาหลายวันต่อเนื่อง ยังไงก็รบกวน ทางคุณช่วย ลดเสียงด้วยนะ ขอขอบคุณครับ tam-mai mâi lôt sǎng long bâang (Why don’t you keep the noise down a bit?), or “TELM16.5 My friend, why you came to room late every night?”

In addition, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Justification” the third most frequently. They usually justified their utterances by referring to themselves, or others, e.g. “TTM13.5 รบกวน ทำเบาๆ หรือเกรงใจกันหน่อยได้ไหม เราต้องการเวลาพักผ่อน rao dtông gaan way-laa pák pòn (I need time to rest.)”, “TELM6.5 I’m trying to get some rest”, “TELM17.5 People are sleeping!!”

Moreover, TEUs also employed “Context” the fourth most frequently, e.g. “TEUM7.5 Hi, I think it's time I talked about this.” However, TTs and TELs did not establish the context as frequently as TEUs did.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate a significant difference between TTs and TEUs in “Context”, but no significant difference between TTs and TELs in any semantic formula (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs made the pragmatic transfer in all the semantic formulae from Thai to English, and TEUs established the context for the utterance significantly more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show a significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in “Problem” and “Remedy” and among TT and TEU males and females in “Problem”, “Context” and “Remedy” (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL and TEU females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than TT females did; instead, they sought remedy significantly more than TT females did. In addition, TEU males and females established the context for the utterance significantly more than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.6 Noisy neighbor

In complaining to a noisy neighbor, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Remedy”, “Justification”, “Problem” and “Apology” very frequently.

The remedy in this situation was to turn down TV in a request or demand form, e.g. “TTM2.6 รบกวนช่วยเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์หน่อยได้ไหม ครับ เสียงมันดังไปถึงห้องผมเลยครับ róp guan · chûay · bao sǎng toh-rá-tát nòi dâai mǎi · kráp (Can you please turn down the TV?)”, or “TEUF2.6 Could you please slow (turn) down your volume please?” or “TTM7.6 ช่วยเบาๆ หน่อย chûay · bao bao nòi (Please turn down (the TV).)”.

In addition, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Justification” the second most frequently. Usually they justified their utterance by referring to the coming exam or the need for more sleep, e.g. “TTM12.6 เนื่องจากพรุ่งนี้ผมจะมีสอบ รบกวน เบาเสียงโทรทัศน์ด้วยนะครับ ขอบทูลครับ nêuang jàak prûng-née pôm jà mee sòp (Because tomorrow I will have an exam.)”, or “TEUM3.6 I have an exam today and really really want to sleep”.

They also employed “Problem” the third most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned the bad consequence for the speaker, or asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, e.g. “TTM2.6 รบกวนช่วยเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์หน่อยได้ไหมครับ เสียงมันดังไปถึงห้องผมเลย ครับ sǎng man dang bpai tǔeng hông pôm loie kráp (The noise comes into my room.)”, “TEUM10.6 I can’t sleep”, or “TEUM18.6 I couldn’t sleep because of your noise”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate no significant difference between TTs and TELs in any semantic formula, but significant differences between TTs and TEUs in “Justification” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs made pragmatic transfer in all the semantic formulae, and TEUs justified their utterance significantly more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in any semantic formula, but significant differences among TT and TEU males and females in “Problem”, “Criticism”,

“Justification” and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The result suggests that TEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the semantic formulae, but TEU males explicitly mentioned the offence more than TT males did. Although TT females criticized the hearer, no TEU females did that. Both TEU males and females justified their utterance and employed semantic formulae more than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.7 Late arriving classmate

In complaining to a late arriving classmate, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed three semantic formulae very frequently: “Justification”, “Problem”, and “Remedy”. However, TELs and TEUs also employed “Criticism”.

TTs employed “Remedy” the most frequently, but TELs used it the third most frequently, and TEUs used it the second most frequently. The remedy in this situation was to come on time next time as a request, or a demand form, e.g. “TTF21.7 คราวหน้าขอมาประชุมตรงเวลาหน่อยได้ไหม เดี๋ยวงานจะเสร็จไม่ทัน วันนี้เราต้องรีบไปประชุมด้วย kraao nâa ter maa bprà-chum dtrong way-laa nòi dâai mǎi (Next time, can you attend a meeting on time?)”, or “TEUM5.7 Next time, can you please come on time?”.

“Problem” was the second most frequently used by TTs, but TELs used it the most frequently, and TEUs used it third most frequently. Usually they mentioned bad consequence of being kept waiting, asserted directly that the hearer had committed the offence, or asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “TTM4.7 ไปไหนมาหรือ ผมรอนานแล้วนะ pôm ror naan láew ná (I have been waiting for so long.)”, “TELF21.7 You are late”, “TELF1.7 I (was) waiting you for over 30 minutes. Why do (were) you late?”

“Justification” was the third most frequently used by TTs, but TELs used it the second most frequently, and TEUs used it the most frequently. Usually, they referred to their part-time job to justify their utterance, e.g. “TTM11.7 เลขเป็นประจำเลยอะ มึงอะ ฎไม่อยู่แล้ว นะโว้ย ต้องรีบไปทำงาน goo mâi yòo láew ná wói / dtông rêep bpai tam ngaan (I am not staying. I am in a hurry for work.)”, “TELM8.7 I don’t have a time to discuss with you, because I have to work.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Justification”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Justification” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 6.3). The result suggests that both TELs and TEUs justified their utterance significant more than TTs did. In addition, TEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in any semantic formulae, but significant differences among TT and TEU males and females in semantic formulae “Valuation”, “Justification”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The result suggests that TEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the semantic formulae, but TEU males and females did not express their negative feelings as TT males did, e.g. “TTM25.7 นัดไม่เป็นนัด เสียความรู้สึก nát mâi bpen nát · sĭa kwaam róo sèuk (Appointment is not appointment. (I am) upset.)”. However, TEU males and females justified their utterance more than TT males and females did. Also, they employed more semantic formulae than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.8 Late arriving friend

In complaining to a late arriving friend, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem” very frequently. In addition, TTs also employed “Valuation” to express their negative feelings very frequently.

In this situation, they usually mentioned the bad consequence of being kept waiting, asserted directly that the hearer had arrived late, and asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “TTF2.8 เธอไม่รักษาวลาคัดเคย เสียเวลามาก sǎa way-laa mâak ((It) wastes a lot of time.)”, “TELM8.8 You are too late. I thought that if you don’t (didn’t) come in 10 minutes, I (was) gonna go.”, “TELM6.8 Why are you late?”

Furthermore, TTs frequently mentioned their negative feelings, e.g. “TTM9.8 ทำไมเพิ่งมาหละ เรากำลังจะกลับแล้ว tam-mai pèung maa là / rao gam-lang jà glàp láew (Why have you just come? I am about to leave.)”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Valuation” and the total of semantic formulae, and between TTs and TEUs in “Valuation” (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs expressed their negative feelings significantly less than TTs did. In addition, TELs employed semantic formulae significantly less than TTs did.

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in “Valuation”, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Valuation” (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL and TEU males and females expressed their negative feelings toward the offence significantly less than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.9 Lost lecture notes

In complaining to a classmate who lost the speaker's lecture notes, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed "Remedy", "Problem", and "Justification" very frequently. In addition, TTs warned the hearer very frequently, while TEs threatened the hearer very frequently.

The most frequently used semantic formula by TTs was "Remedy", but TELs and TEUs employed it the second most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to find the lecture notes, or borrow one from others, e.g. "TTM2.9 ลองกลับไปหาใหม่สิ...แล้วถ้าไม่เจอ ฉันจะเอาอะไรอ่านหะคราวนี้ long glàp bpai hǎa mài sì (Try to look for (them) again)", "TELF22.9 Can you borrow the lecture notes from others?"

"Problem" was the second most frequently used by TTs, but TELs and TEUs used it the most frequently. Usually they mentioned the bad consequence of losing lecture notes, asserted directly that the hearer had arrived late, and asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. "TEUM21.9 Did you return my lecture notes? I don't have anything to read for the exam", "TELF2.9 I have written my words in that lecture notes. Why aren't you take care my lecture notes.", or "TTM2.9 ลองกลับไปหาใหม่สิ...แล้วถ้าไม่เจอ ฉันจะเอาอะไรอ่านหะคราวนี้ long glàp bpai hǎa mài sì ... láew tǎa mài jer • chǎn jà ao a-rai àan là kraao née (And if you can't find it, what can I read then?)".

In addition, TTs also employed "Justification" the second most frequently, but TELs used it the fourth most frequently, and upper intermediate TEs used it the third most frequently. Usually they justified their utterance by referring to the necessity of lecture notes or the fact that they haven't read them, e.g. "TTM4.9 ทำไมหาไม่เจอ แล้วผมจะทำอย่างไร ยังไม่ได้อ่านเลย tam-mai hǎa mài jer / láew pǒm jà tam yàang rai / yang mài dǎai àan loie (How come you didn't find it? So, what can I do? I have not read yet.)".

Besides, TTs warned the hearer the third most frequently, e.g. “TTF9.9 ยืมแบบนี้ทีหลังไม่ต้องยืมนะ yeum bàep née / tee lǎng mâi dtông yeum ná (If you borrow like this, next time don't borrow.)” Instead, “Criticism” was the third most frequently by TELs threatened, and the fifth most frequently used by TEUs, e.g. “TEUM1.9 Do you understand the word “responsibility”? I tell you "GO TO HELL"!” Besides, TEUs also criticized the hearer the fourth most frequently, e.g. “TEUM8.9 Didn't you have any responsibility? Although you know that I had to use lecture notes, you didn't bring it back to me on time.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant difference between TTs and TELs in “Warning” and “Threat”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Problem”, “Warning” and “Threat” (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs warned the hearer significantly less than TTs did, but they threatened the hearer significantly more than TTs did. In addition, TEUs mentioned the offence segmentally more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among TT and TEL males and female in “Warning” and “Threat”, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Problem”, “Warning” and “Threat” (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL males and females warned the hearer significantly less than TT males and females did, but they threatened the hearer significantly more than TT males and females did. In addition, TEU males and females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.10 Broken mobile phone

In complaining to the owner of a mobile phone shop, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Problem”, “Remedy” and “Context” very frequently. In addition, TTs also employed “Justification” very frequently.

They employed “Problem” the most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned that the mobile broke down, directly asserted that the mobile phone was poor in quality, or asked the hearer to explain why the mobile phone often broke down e.g. “TTM6.10 มันเสียอีกแล้ว man sǎa èek láew (It's broken again.)”, “TELM18.10 my phone has broken down”, “TELM26.10 You are a repairman, right? Why my mobile phone still breaks down?”.

In addition, they used “Remedy” the second most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to fix the mobile, change a new one or refund the mobile phone in a request or demand form, e.g. “TEUM2.10 Can I claim for the new one?” or “TTM3.10 ช่วยดูให้หน่อยได้ไหม chúay · doo hâi nòi dâai mǎi (Can you check for me?)”.

They also employed “Context” the third most frequently, but TELs and TEUs did not. TTs usually mentioned that the mobile phone was newly bought, e.g. “TTF4.10 ทำโทรศัพท์เสียบ่อยจัง เพิ่งซื้อไปไม่นานเอง เช็คให้หน่อยนะคะ pêung séu bpai mâi naan ayng / chék hâi nòi ná kê ((I just bought not long ago.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Justification” and between TTs and TEUs in “Problem” and “Threat” (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs justified their utterance significantly less than TTs did, and TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TTs did. Different from TTs, TEUs did not threaten the hearer at all in this situation.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in any semantic formula, but a significant difference among TT and TEU males and females in “Problem” (see Table 6.4). The results suggest that TEL made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the

semantic formulae, and TEU males and females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.11 Cutting in line

In complaining to a stranger who cut in line, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Remedy” the most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to queue up in a request or demand form, e.g. “TTM8.11 เข้าแถวให้เป็นระเบียบ káo tǎe hâi bpen rá-biap (Queue up.)”, or “TEUM11.11 Could you please get the back of the line”.

TTs employed “Context” the second most frequently. They usually mentioned that others, including the speaker, were standing in line, e.g. “TTM11.11 ขอโทษ ครับ ผมต่อแถวอยู่ pôm dtòr tǎe yòo (I am standing in line.)”, “TTM17.11 ทำไมคุณทำแบบนี้หละครับ คนอื่นเขาเข้าแถวกันหมด kon èun kǎo káo tǎe gan mòt (Other people are queueing up)”. However, TELs and TEUs did not use it frequently.

Instead, TELs and TEUs justified their utterance the second most frequently. They usually mentioned that they were waiting for a long time before the hearer, e.g. “TELM2.11 I wait here before you”, or “TELM26.11 This is queue. I'm waiting for a long time”.

In addition, TTs also employed “Address term” the third most frequently, and TELs and TEUs also used it the fifth most frequently, e.g. “TELF15.11 Hey! Please be on queue. I'm been waiting for long time!”

In addition, TTs warned the hearer the fourth most frequently, e.g. “TTF3.11 ตามคิดด้วยคะ เกรงใจคนอื่นบ้าง มีมารยาทหน่อยคะ grayng jai kon èun bâang / mee maa-rá-yâat nòi kâ (Be considerate to others. Mind (your) manners.)”, “TTF14.11 กรุณา เข้าแถวด้วยคะ มารยาทสังคมรักษา ด้วย maa-rá-yâat sǎng-kom rák-sǎa dûay (Mind (your) social manners.). However, lower

and upper intermediate TEs did not do so frequently.

Moreover, TTs apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer the fifth most frequently, and TELs and TEUs apologized the third most frequently, e.g. “TELM28.11 Sorry! The last person in the line is over there. Thank you!”

Furthermore, TELs and TEUs justified their utterance the second most frequently, e.g. “TEUM8.11 Excuse me, I’m afraid you need to be in line. This is my position.” In addition, they criticized the hearer the fourth most frequently, e.g. “TEUM25.11 Please stay in queue. Everyone is waiting for a long time as well. Don’t cheat”, or “TEUM17.11 Hey, this is rude, you know?”

Besides, TELs mentioned the offence the fourth most frequently and TEUs the fifth most frequently. They usually mentioned that the hearer cut in line, e.g. “I’m waiting for ages and last minute you cut me off.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Problem”, “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Context” and “Justification”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Threat”, “Opt-out”, “Context”, “Justification” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TTs did. Both TELs and TEUs criticized the hearer, and justified the utterance significantly more than TTs did, but warned the hearer, and established the context for the utterance significantly less than TTs did. Besides, different from TTs, TEUs threatened the hearer and did not remain silent about the offence. Moreover, TEUs employed more semantic formulae than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Warning”, “Context” and “Justification”, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Problem”, “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Threat”, “Address term”, “Context”, “Justification” and the total of the semantic formulae (see

Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL males and females warned the hearer and established the context significantly less than TT males and females did, but they justified their utterance significantly more than TT males and females did. On the other hand, TEU males explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TT males did. Besides, TEU males and females criticized the hearer, and justified their utterance significantly more than TT males and females did. In addition, TEU males and females almost did not warn the hearer, but TT males and females did so. Moreover, although TT males did not threaten the hearer, TEU males did so. Besides, TEU females addressed the hearer significantly less than TT females did. Lower intermediate TE females justified their utterance significantly more than the lower intermediate TE males did. Furthermore, TEU males and females employed more semantic formulae than TT males and females did.

6.2.1.12 Annoying phone rings

In complaining to a stranger whose mobile phone kept ringing at a seminar, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed ‘Remedy’, ‘Problem’, and ‘Context’ very frequently.

They employed ‘Remedy’ the most frequently. Usually they asked the hearer to lower his/her voice, turn off the mobile phone, or talk outside in a request or demand form, e.g. “TTM13.12 รบกวนออกไปคุยข้างนอกห้องได้ไหม róp guan · òk bpai kui kâang nôk hông dâai mǎi (Can you please talk outside the room?)”, “TELM3.12 Please keep quiet. If you would like to talk, please talk outside the room.” or “TEUM14.12 Can you take it outside? We all are trying to study here.”

They also employed ‘Problem’ the second most frequently. Usually they mentioned the bad consequence of annoying phone rings, and asserted directly that the hearer had disturbed others, e.g. “TTM14.12 คุณครับช่วยลดเสียงหรือปิดเสียงด้วยครับ ผมไม่ได้ยินการบรรยายเลยครับ pǒm mǎi dâai yin gaan ban-yaai loie kráp (I cannot hear the seminar at all.)”,

“TELM9.12 I cannot hear anything from lecturer”.

In addition, they apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer the third most frequently, e.g. “TEUM6.12 Excuse me!! If you want to pick up the phone, please go outside.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Problem”, “Address term”, and “Justification”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Warning”, “Opt-out”, “Address term” and “Justification” (see Table 6.3). The results suggest that TELs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than TTs did. Besides, although TTs addressed the hearer, no TELs did so. Moreover, TELs justified their utterance significantly more than TTs did. On the other hand, no TEUs warned the hearer, although TTs did so, e.g. “TTM18.12 ขอโทษครับ ขอรบกวนที่คุยโทรศัพท์ข้างนอกได้ไหมครับ วิทยากรมองมาทางฝั่งนี้บ่อยมากเลย ดูเหมือนเขาและประธานในที่ประชุมไม่ชอบอารมณ์เท่าไรแล้วนะครับ kōr tôht kráp • kōr • róp guan • pēe kui toh-rá-sàp kâang nôk dâai mǎi • kráp • wít-tá-yaa gon mong maa taang fàng née bòi mâak • loie • doo mǎuan kǎo láe bprà-taan nai tēe bprà-chum mâi sòp aa-rom tâo rai láew ná kráp (Excuse me. Can brother/sister please talk outside? The speaker has often looked this way. Seems like he/she and the chair of the seminar is dissatisfied). Besides, TEUs remained silent about the offence and addressed the hearer significantly less than TTs did, and TEUs justified their utterance more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Problem”, “Warning”, “Address term”, and the total of semantic formulae, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Warning”, “Address term”, and the total of the semantic formulae (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). The results suggest that TEL females explicitly mentioned the offence, warned the hearer significantly less than TT females did. Besides, although TT males and females addressed

the hearer, no TELs did so. Moreover, TEL males employed more semantic formulae than TT males, but TEL females employed fewer semantic formulae than TT females did. On the other hand, no TEU males or females warned the hearer, though TT males and females did so. Moreover, TEU males and females addressed the hearer significantly less than TT males and females did. Interestingly, TEU males employed more semantic formulae than TT males did, but TEU females employed fewer semantic formulae than TT females did.

After examining the similarities and differences between TTs and TELs, and between TTs and TEUs in semantic formulae in 12 situations, the following section will elaborate on the IFMDs employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations.

6.2.2 Comparison of IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations

IFMDs, which are subdivided into seven downgraders and six upgraders, are analyzed based on the coding scheme adapted from DeCapua (1989, pp. 182-184) (see Table 3.4 for detail). The following section compares IFMDs of complaining frequently used by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations. Table 6.6 reports the distribution of IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations, Table 6.7 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by TEL males and females from Thai to English in IFMDs in 12 situations, and Table 6.8 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by TEU males and females from Thai to English in IFMDs in 12 situations.

Table 6.6 IFMDs of complaining employed by TTs, TELs and TEUs in 12 situations

IFMDs	S1			S2			S3			S4		
	TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE	
		L	U		L	U		L	U		L	U
Politeness marker	12	18	15	2	6	5	1	3	1	3	4	3
Play-down	2	0	1	0	1	2	4	3	3	5	4	4
Consultative device	2	1	0	1	1	1	5	3	1	3	1	0
Hedge	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Downtoner	0	1	2	0	3	1	1	6	3	1	0	4@
Minus committer	4	3	9	4	3	8	2	4	11*	0	2	5*
Agent avoider	18	11	11	5	7	5	5	2	2	7	3	7
Total (Downgrader)	38	34	38	12	21	23	18	21	21	19	14	23
Scope setter	4	4	2	1	10*	7*	0	2	0	1	1	0
Overstater	0	6*	6*	0	1	1	1	0	6@	0	2	6*
Intensifier	4	6	6	2	1	3	3	6	8	3	4	6
Plus committer	0	6*	5*	1	5	9*	18	6*	24@	3	5	10*
Lexical intensifier	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	3	2	0	1	1
Aggressive interrogative	3	3	3	10	22*	26*	5	22*	14*	7	7	4
Total (Upgrader)	11	26*	23*	14	40*	46*	27	39	54*	14	20	27
IFMDs	S5			S6			S7			S8		
	TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE	
		L	U		L	U		L	U		L	U
Politeness marker	25	33	26	45	45	37	12	12	13	3	3	8
Play-down	1	5	3	3	2	4	0	4*	2	1	0	1
Consultative device	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	4*@	1	1	0
Hedge	1	2	2	14	5*	5*	0	0	1	0	0	0
Downtoner	0	1	4*	0	1	8*@	1	1	1	0	0	0
Minus committer	5	4	10	0	2	1	6	2	4	5	4	4
Agent avoider	22	23	19	25	26	9*@	21	12	15	10	6*	11
Total (Downgrader)	55	69	65	88	82	65	40	31	40	20	14	24
Scope setter	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	2	3
Overstater	1	2	4	1	2	4	3	3	7	10	17	21*
Intensifier	5	4	2	7	4	5	3	3	4	7	2	3
Plus committer	3	3	7	1	2	4	2	2	10*@	3	2	3
Lexical intensifier	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Aggressive interrogative	4	1	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	4*@	0
Total (Upgrader)	14	11	16	11	8	14	9	11	22	20	27	30
IFMDs	S9			S10			S11			S12		
	TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE		TT	TE	
		L	U		L	U		L	U		L	U
Politeness marker	4	7	7	10	12	6	33	26	28	33	35	34
Play-down	2	5@	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
Consultative device	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	3	0	0	0
Hedge	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Downtoner	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
Minus committer	0	1	1	7	6	11	1	0	3	7	3	2
Agent avoider	24	8*	10*	13	13	7	37	27	29	20	23	19
Total (Downgrader)	32	21	21	32	33	25	71	54	64	61	61	61
Scope setter	1	7*	4	0	1	0	0	3	1	0	0	0
Overstater	0	3	2	24	13*	16	3	0	0	1	0	0
Intensifier	0	0	6*@	2	9*	6	1	1	2	1	0	0
Plus committer	0	7*	7*	0	2	3	2	4	7	0	0	4*@

Lexical intensifier	1	2	0	0	2	1	0	1	3	0	0	0
Aggressive interrogative	1	3	5	5	3	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
Total (Upgrader)	3	22*	24*@	31	30	27	6	9*	14@	2	1	4

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference between TTs and TELs, or between TTs and TEUs, with $p < .05$;

@=Significant difference between TELs and TEUs, with $p < .05$;

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 6.7 Significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in

IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	IFMDs	TT		TEL		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Plus committer	0	0	1	5	.008*
	Scope setter	1	0	6	4	.029*
Faded suit	Aggressive interrogative	7	3	7	15	.005*
	Upgrader	9	5	19	23	.002*
Undelivered paper	Plus committer	8	10	4	2	.041*
	Aggressive interrogative	2	3	7	15	.000*
Late arriving classmate	Upgrader	7	2	5	15	.009*
Lost lecture notes	Agent avoider	11	13	3	5	.009*
	Scope setter	1	0	6	1	.009*
	Plus committer	0	0	6	1	.002*
	Upgrader	2	1	16	12	.000*
Broken mobile phone	Intensifier	1	1	8	1	.002*
Cutting in line	Upgrader	3	3	6	11	.034*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, with $p < .05$

Table 6.8 Significant differences among TT and TEU males and females in**IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations**

Situation	IFMDs	TT		TEU		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Overstater	0	0	5	1	.008*
	Upgrader	2	9	14	10	.033*
Faded suit	Plus committer	1	0	3	6	.028*
	Aggressive interrogative	7	3	15	11	.006*
	Upgrader	9	5	21	23	.000*
Undelivered paper	Aggressive interrogative	2	3	4	10	.022*
	Upgrader	11	16	22	30	.003*
Forgetful classmate	Consultative device	0	3	0	0	.027*
Noisy roommate	Downtoner	0	0	4	0	.006*
Noisy neighbour	Downtoner	0	0	7	1	.000*
	Agent avoider	15	10	5	4	.006*
	Downgrader	51	37	40	29	.013*
Late arriving classmate	Plus committer	2	0	7	3	.023*
Lost lecture notes	Agent avoider	11	13	5	5	.040*
	Scope setter	1	0	4	0	.031*
	Intensifier	0	0	0	6	.000*
	Upgrader	2	1	9	9	.036*
Cutting in line	Consultative device	0	0	3	0	.027*
	Lexical intensifier	0	0	3	0	.027*

Notes: N=60;

* = Significant difference among TT and TEU males and females, with $p < .05$ **6.2.2.1 Negligent worker**

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Agent avoider” and “Politeness marker” the most frequently. TTs employed “Agent avoider” (avoiding mentioning the hearer) the most frequently, and TELs and TEUs used it the second most frequently, e.g. “TTM1.1 ทำไมถึงยังไม่เสร็จครับ รบกวนเร่งให้หน่อยได้ไหมครับ ขอขอบคุณครับ róp guan · râyng hâi nòi dâai mǎi kráp (Can you please speed it up?)”, or “TEUM4.1 Please make it hurry up”. Besides, TTs also employed “Politeness marker” the second most frequently, TELs and TEUs used it the most frequently, e.g. “TTM12.1 เนื่องจากผมมีความจำเป็น ต้องส่งเล่มภายในเที่ยงนี้ รบกวนพี่ทำให้ผมด่วนด้วยนะครับ ขอขอบคุณครับ nêuang jàak pöm mee kaam jam bpen / dtông

sòng lêm paai nai tâng née / róp guan · pê tam hâi pôm dùan dâay ná kráp / kòp kun kráp (Because I have to submit the copies by this noon. Please speed it up for me. Thank you.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Overstater”, “Plus committer”, and upgraders, and between TTs and TEUs in “Overstater”, “Plus committer”, and upgraders (see Table 6.5). The result suggests that, although TTs did not use “Overstater”, and “Plus committer”, TELs and TEUs did so. Besides, TELs and TEUs employed more upgraders than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Plus committer”, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Overstater” and upgraders (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that, although TT males and females did not use “Plus committer”, TEL males and females did so. Likewise, although TT males did not use “Overstater”, TEU males did so. In addition, TEU males used more upgraders than TT males did.

6.2.2.2 Faded suit

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Aggressive interrogative” very frequently, e.g. “TTM14.2 ทำไมชุดของ ผมจึงสีซีดลง เกิดความผิดพลาดอะไรขึ้นครับ gèrt kwaam pít plâat a-rai kêun kráp (What’s wrong?)”, “TELF1.2 What happened to my suit?” In addition, TELs also employed “Scope setter” frequently, e.g. “TELM7.2 Oh, shit! What’s the fucking happened to my suit”. Moreover, TEUs employed “Plus committer” very frequently, e.g. “TELM18.2 Could you explain what’s happen? Thank you.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and lower intermediate TEs in “Scope setter”, “Aggressive interrogative”, and upgraders, and between TTs and TEUs in “Scope setter”, “Plus committer”, “Aggressive

interrogative” and upgraders (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs used “Scope setter”, “Aggressive interrogative”, and upgraders significantly more than TTs did. In addition, TEUs employed more “Plus committer” than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Scope setter”, “Aggressive interrogative”, and upgraders, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Plus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative”, and upgraders (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL males used more “Scope setter” than TT males did, while TEL females used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than TT females did, and TEL males and females used more upgraders than TT males and females did. On the other hand, even though no TT females used “Plus committer”, TEU females did so. Besides, TEU males and females used “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders significantly more than TT males and females did.

6.2.2.3 Undelivered paper

In this situation, TTs employed “Plus committer” frequently, e.g. “TTM10.3 รู้ไหมว่าผมไม่ผ่านรายวิชานี้เพราะไม่ได้ส่งรายงาน และผมก็รู้สึกว่ารายนงานตอนนั้นผมฝากคุณส่งนะ แต่ไม่รู้ว่ามีอุปสรรคหรือปัญหาอะไรระหว่างนั้นหรือเปล่า คุณคิดว่าในกรับ *róo mǎi wǎa pǒm mǎi pǎan raai wí-chaá née prór mǎi dǎai sòng raai ngaan/ (Do you know I didn't pass this course because I did not submit the paper)*”. TELs employed “Aggressive interrogative” frequently, e.g. “TELM23.3 What happened?” TEUs employed both frequently. In addition, they also employed “Minus committer” frequently, e.g. “TEUF6.3 I really feel bad and upset that failed the course. I don't know why you did not submit my term paper”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Plus committer” and “Aggressive interrogative”, and between TTs and

TEUs in “Minus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs used “Plus committer” significantly less than TTs did, but TELs employed “Aggressive interrogative” more than TTs did. On the other hand, TEUs used “Minus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders significantly more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Plus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative”, and upgraders, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL males and females used “Plus committer” significantly less than TT males and females did, but they used “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders significantly more than TT males and females did. On the other hand, TEU females used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than TT females did. Besides, TEU males and female employed more upgraders than TT males and females did.

6.2.2.4 Forgetful classmate

In this situation, only upper intermediate TEs used “Plus committer” frequently, e.g. “TEUM2.4 John, why yesterday you did not show up to pick me? You know, it's almost not in time yesterday.” But TTs and TELs did not employ any upgraders or downgraders frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal no significant difference between TTs and TELs in any IFMD, but significant differences in “Minus committer”, “Overstater”, and “Plus committer” (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs, while TEUs employed more “Minus committer”, “Overstater”, and “Plus committer” than TTs did. An example of “Overstater” used by

TEUs in this situation is “TEUM18.4 You really let me down, mate. What happened? Did you forget about it or something?”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in any IFMD, but a significant difference among TT and TEU males and females in “Consultative device” (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the IFMDs in this situation, but TEU females did not use any “Consultative device” in this situation, although TT females did so, e.g. “TTF10.4 ถ้ามาได้ ทำไม่บอกแต่แรก จะได้ไม่ต้องรอ มันเสียเวลา รู้ไหม man sǎa way-laa róo mǎi (it wastes time, (you) know?)”

6.2.2.5 Noisy roommate

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, e.g. “TTF19.5 กรุณาเบาๆหน่อยค่ะ ความเกรงใจเป็นสมบัติของผู้ดี gà-rú-naa · bao bao nòi kâ · kwaam grayng jai bpen sǎm-bát kǒng pǒo dee (Please keep the noise down. Being considerate is one of an aristocrat’s qualifications.)”, “TELM2.5 Please don’t make your loud noise”. In addition, they also avoided mentioning the hearer the second most frequently, e.g. “TEUM2.5 Just realize that you are not the owner of the room but ‘we’”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results do not indicate any significant difference between TTs and TELs in any IFMD, but a significant difference between TTs and TEUs in “Downtoner” (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs, while TEUs used “Downtoner”, which TTs did not use.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, but a significant difference among TT and TEU males and females in “Downtoner” (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL

males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the IFMDs, but TEU males employed “Downtoner”, which TT males did not use at all.

6.2.2.6 Noisy neighbor

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Politeness marker”, e.g. “TTM2.6 รบกวนช่วยเบาเสียงโทรทัศน์หน่อยได้ไหมครับ เสียงมันดังไปถึงห้องผมเลยครับ róp guan · chûay · bao sǎng toh-rá-tát nòi dâai mǎi · kráp (Can you please turn down the TV?)”, or “TELM3.6 Excuse me, please keep the TV noise down”. Besides, TTs and TELs also employed “Agent avoider” frequently, e.g. “TTM12.6 เนื่องจากพุ่มนี้ผมจะมีสอบ รบกวน เบาเสียงโทรทัศน์ด้วยนะครับ ขอขอบคุณครับ róp guan · bao sǎng toh-rá-tát dūay ná kráp (Please turn down the TV.)”. In addition, TTs also employed “Hedge” frequently, e.g. “TTM11.6 ขอโทษครับช่วยเบาเสียงลงหน่อยได้ไหมครับ chûay · bao sǎng long nòi dâai mǎi · kráp (Can you please turn down the sound a bit?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Hedge”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Hedge”, “Downtoner”, and “Agent avoider” (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs used “Hedge” significantly less than TTs did. In addition, TEUs used “Downtoner” significantly more than TTs did. However, TEUs used “Agent avoider” significantly less than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in any IFMD, but significant differences among TT and TEU males and females in “Downtoner”, “Agent avoider” and downgraders (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs, but TEU males used “Downtoner”, which TT males did not use at all. Besides, TEU males and females employed “Agent avoider” and downgraders significantly less than TT males and females did.

6.2.2.7 Late arriving classmate

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Politeness marker”, and “Agent avoider” very frequently. For example, “TTF13.7 กรุณา มาให้ทันตามนัดหมายด้วย gà-rú-naa · maa hâi tan dtaam nât mǎai dûay (Please be in time for the appointment)”, “TELM17.7 Next time on time, please”. In addition, TEUs also used “Plus committer” frequently, e.g. “TEUM16.7 You know, I have a part-time job this evening. I am so sick of you that you are always late.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Play-down”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Consultative device” and “Plus committer” (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that, different from TTs, TELs used “Play-down”, and only TEUs employed “Consultative device”, e.g. “TEUM18.7 You know what? I'm not staying till the end. I've got to go to my part-time job. Let's separate. Send it to me ON TIME, okay”. In addition, TEUs also used “Plus committer” significantly more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Upgrader”, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Plus committer” (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL females used significantly more graders than TT females did, while TEU males employed “Plus committer” significantly more than TT males did.

6.2.2.8 Late arriving friend

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Overstater” frequently, e.g. “TTF3.7 ตรงเวลาบ้างดี ให้คนอื่นรอตลอด สำนักบ้างใหม่ hâi kon èun ror dtà-lòt (You always made people wait for you.)”, “TEUM26.7 Do you realize that you're always late to the meeting”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Agent avoider” and “Aggressive interrogative”, and between TTs and TEUs in “Overstater” (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs employed “Agent avoider” significantly less than TTs did, and only TELs used “Aggressive interrogative” in this situation, e.g. “TELM26.8 Look at your watch. What time is it!” Moreover, TEUs used “Overstater” significantly more than TTs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal no significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, or among TT and TEU males and females in any IFMD (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL and TEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the IFMDs in this situation.

6.2.2.9 Lost lecture notes

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Agent avoider” frequently, e.g. “TTM20.9 หามา บpai hãa maa (Find (them) for me.)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between TTs and TELs in “Agent avoider”, “Scope setter”, “Plus committer”, and upgraders, and between TTs and TEUs in “Agent avoider”, “Intensifier”, “Plus committer” and upgraders (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs employed “Agent avoider” significantly less than TTs did, but they used upgraders significantly more than TTs did. Besides, although TTs did not use “Plus committer”, TELs and TEUs did so. Moreover, TELs used “Scope setter” more than TTs did. In addition, different from TTs, TEUs employed “Intensifier”, e.g. “TEUF1.9 What?? don’t you know it is very important to me? Where can I read from then?”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in “Agent avoider”, “Scope setter”, “Plus

committer”, and upgrader, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Agent avoider”, “Scope setter”, “Intensifier”, and upgraders (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The results suggest that TEL and TEU males and females used “Agent avoider” significantly less than TT males and females did. Besides, TEL and TEU males used “Scope setter” significantly more than TT males did, e.g. “TELM10.9 Oh, no, and then how I can read a lecture”. In addition, different from TT males, TEL males employed “Plus committer”, e.g. “TELM13.9 Do you know that paper is my life” Besides, TEL and TEU males and females employed more upgraders than TT males and females did. Moreover, different from TT females, only TEU females used intensifiers.

6.2.2.10 Broken mobile phone

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs used “Overstater” fairly frequently, e.g. “TTM2.10 ทำไมมันเสียบ่อยจัง...ทางร้านจะรับผิดชอบยังไง tam-mai man sia bòi jang (Why is it often broken?)”, or “TELM20.10 Why my mobile phone often breaks down”. In addition, TTs and TELs employed “Politeness marker” and “Agent avoider” frequently, e.g. “TTM23.10 โทรศัพท์ของผมขัดข้องครับ ช่วยแก้ไขหรือซ่อมให้หน่อย เพราะผมต้องใช้งานทุกวันครับ chûay · gâe kǎi rêu sôm hâi nòi (Please fix or repair (it).)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between TTs and TELs in “Overstater” and “Intensifier”, but no significant difference between TTs and TEUs in any IFMD. The results suggest that TELs employed “Overstater” significantly less than TTs did, but they employed “Intensifier” significantly more than TTs did. On the contrary, TEUs made the pragmatic transfer in IFMDs of complaining from Thai to English in this situation.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show a significant difference among TT and TEL males and females in “Intensifier”, but no significant difference among TT and TEU males and females in any IFMD. The results suggest that TEL males used “Intensifier” significantly more than TT males did, e.g. “TELM12.10 This mobile phone is so sensitive. Next time I will buy new brand”. Dissimilarly, TEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs from Thai to English in this situation.

6.2.2.11 Cutting in line

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Agent avoider” and “Politeness marker” frequently, e.g. “TTM1.11 คุณครับคุณมาทีหลัง กรุณาไปต่อแถวด้วยครับ kun kráp / kun maa tee lăng / gà-rú-naa · bpai dtòr tǎe dūay kráp (Mister/Miss, you come after us. Please queue up”, or “TELM6.11 Please be in the queue”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal a significant difference between TTs and TELs in upgraders, but no significant difference between TTs and TEUs in any IFMD (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs used more upgraders than TTs did, and TEUs made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in upgraders, and among TT and TEU males and females in “Consultative device” and “Lexical intensifier”. The results suggest that TEL females used more upgraders than TT females did, and only TEU males used “Consultative device”, e.g. “TELM30.11 Please line up, okay!” and “Lexical intensifier”, e.g. “TEUM9.11 Don’t be stupid, okay? I’m in queue here, are you blind?”

6.2.2.12 Annoying phone rings

In this situation, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, and “Agent avoider” the second most frequently, e.g. “TTM8.12 บางที หน่อย

กรับ bao bao nòi krap (Keep (the noise) down.), or “TELM2.12 Please be quiet”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show no significant difference between TTs and TELs in any IFMD, but a significant difference between TTs and TEUs in “Plus committer” (see Table 6.6). The results suggest that TELs made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs, and only TEUs employed “Plus committer”, e.g. “TEUM26.12 Don’t you see that you are annoying others.”

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results do not indicate any significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, or among TT and TEU males and females in any IFMD. The results suggest that TEL and TEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in all the IFMDs.

After examining the pragmatic transfer made by TELs and TEUs from Chinese to English in terms of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, the researcher will report severity of offence in 12 situations perceived by TTs, TELs and TEUs.

6.3 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TTs, TELs and TEUs

Table 6.9 presents severity of offence in 12 situations perceived by TTs, TELs and TEUs, Table 6.10 reports significant differences among TT and TEL males and females in their perception of severity of offence in 12 situations and Table 6.11 shows significant differences among TT and TEU males and females in their perception of severity of offence in 12 situations.

Table 6.9 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TTs, TELs and TEUs

Situation	TT	TEL	Sig.	TT	TEU	Sig.	TEL	TEU	Sig.
	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)		\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)		\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	2.00 (1.28)	3.12 (1.29)	.000*	2.00 (1.28)	3.18 (1.28)	.000*	3.12 (1.29)	3.18 (1.28)	N.S.
Faded suit	1.90 (0.95)	2.88 (1.04)	.000*	1.90 (0.95)	2.88 (0.94)	.000*	2.88 (1.04)	2.88 (0.94)	N.S.
Undelivered paper	2.38 (1.25)	3.80 (1.15)	.000*	2.38 (1.25)	4.08 (1.12)	.000*	3.80 (1.15)	4.08 (1.12)	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	1.78 (0.92)	2.85 (1.10)	.000*	1.78 (0.92)	2.97 (1.03)	.000*	2.85 (1.10)	2.97 (1.03)	N.S.
Noisy roommate	1.53 (0.72)	2.97 (1.10)	.000*	1.53 (0.72)	2.60 (1.06)	.000*	2.97 (1.10)	2.60 (1.06)	.044*
Noisy neighbour	1.47 (0.70)	2.97 (1.01)	.000*	1.47 (0.70)	2.63 (0.90)	.000*	2.97 (1.01)	2.63 (0.90)	.041*
Late arriving classmate	1.65 (0.97)	2.92 (0.93)	.000*	1.65 (0.97)	2.68 (0.91)	.000*	2.92 (0.93)	2.68 (0.91)	N.S.
Late arriving friend	1.62 (0.78)	2.42 (1.24)	.000*	1.62 (0.78)	2.07 (1.01)	.000*	2.42 (1.24)	2.07 (1.01)	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	2.27 (1.25)	3.70 (1.21)	.000*	2.27 (1.25)	3.57 (1.16)	.000*	3.70 (1.21)	3.57 (1.16)	N.S.
Broken mobile phone	1.93 (1.13)	3.22 (0.94)	.000*	1.93 (1.13)	3.05 (1.10)	.000*	3.22 (0.94)	3.05 (1.10)	N.S.
Cutting in line	2.03 (1.19)	3.07 (0.99)	.000*	2.03 (1.19)	3.08 (1.05)	.000*	3.07 (0.99)	3.08 (1.05)	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	1.83 (0.99)	2.88 (1.03)	.000*	1.83 (0.99)	2.48 (0.91)	.000*	2.88 (1.03)	2.48 (0.91)	.014*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among TTs, TELs and TEUs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among TTs, TELs and TEUs;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

Table 6.10 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TT and TEL males and females

Perception Situation	TT		TEL		Sig.
	Male X (S.D.)	Female X (S.D.)	Male X (S.D.)	Female X (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	2.10(1.27)	1.90(1.30)	3.10(1.19)	3.13(1.41)	.000*
Faded suit	2.03(1.07)	1.77(0.82)	2.93(0.98)	2.83(1.12)	.000*
Undelivered paper	2.53(1.20)	2.23(1.31)	3.83(1.15)	3.77(1.17)	.000*
Forgetful classmate	2.03(1.03)	1.53(0.73)	3.07(1.05)	2.63(1.13)	.000*
Noisy roommate	1.60(0.86)	1.47(0.57)	3.10(1.03)	2.83(1.18)	.000*
Noisy neighbour	1.53(0.86)	1.40(0.50)	3.00(0.79)	2.93(1.20)	.000*
Late arriving classmate	1.73(1.11)	1.57(0.82)	3.00(0.79)	2.83(1.05)	.000*
Late arriving friend	1.67(0.96)	1.57(0.57)	2.33(1.18)	2.50(1.31)	.000*
Lost lecture notes	2.07(1.11)	2.47(1.36)	3.50(1.25)	3.90(1.16)	.000*
Broken mobile phone	1.93(1.17)	1.93(1.11)	3.33(0.92)	3.10(0.96)	.000*
Cutting in line	2.03(1.27)	2.03(1.13)	2.93(0.94)	3.20(1.03)	.000*
Annoying phone rings	1.80(1.00)	1.87(1.01)	3.00(0.98)	2.77(1.07)	.000*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among TT and TEL males and females, with $p < .05$;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

Table 6.11 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by TT and TEU males and females

Perception Situation	TT		TEU		Sig.
	Male X (S.D.)	Female X (S.D.)	Male X (S.D.)	Female X (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	2.10(1.27)	1.90(1.30)	3.23(1.25)	3.13(1.33)	.000*
Faded suit	2.03(1.07)	1.77(0.82)	2.97(0.96)	2.80(0.93)	.000*
Undelivered paper	2.53(1.20)	2.23(1.31)	4.27(0.94)	3.90(1.27)	.000*
Forgetful classmate	2.03(1.03)	1.53(0.73)	3.00(0.95)	2.93(1.11)	.000*
Noisy roommate	1.60(0.86)	1.47(0.57)	2.53(1.04)	2.67(1.09)	.000*
Noisy neighbour	1.53(0.86)	1.40(0.50)	2.67(0.92)	2.60(0.89)	.000*
Late arriving classmate	1.73(1.11)	1.57(0.82)	2.67(0.99)	2.70(0.84)	.000*
Late arriving friend	1.67(0.96)	1.57(0.57)	2.23(1.14)	1.90(0.85)	.000*
Lost lecture notes	2.07(1.11)	2.47(1.36)	3.47(1.04)	3.67(1.27)	.000*
Broken mobile phone	1.93(1.17)	1.93(1.11)	2.93(0.98)	3.17(1.21)	.000*
Cutting in line	2.03(1.27)	2.03(1.13)	3.27(1.08)	2.90(1.00)	.000*
Annoying phone rings	1.80(1.00)	1.87(1.01)	2.53(0.90)	2.43(0.94)	.000*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among TT and TEU males and females, with $p < .05$;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between TTs and TELs and between TTs and TEUs in their perception of offence in 12 situations (see Table 6.9). The results suggest that TELs and TEUs perceived the offence in 12 situations as more serious than TTs did. However, TTs, TELs and TEUs ranked the top 5 serious offences in a similar way.

In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among TT and TEL males and females and among TT and TEU males and females in their perception of severity of offence in 12 situations. The results suggest that TEL and TEU males and females perceived the offence in 12 situations as significantly more serious than TT males and females did. Within the same group, TT males perceived the offence in 10 situations (except for Situation 9 Lost lecture notes and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings) as more serious than TT females did. In addition, TEL males perceived the offence in 8 situations (except for Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 8 Late arriving friend, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 11 Cutting in line) as more serious than TEL females did. Moreover, TEU males perceived the offence in 8 situations (except for Situation 5 Noisy roommate, Situation 7 Late arriving classmate, Situation 9 Lost mobile phone and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone) as more serious than TEU females did.

The perception results show that TTs perceived the offence in 12 situations as significantly less serious than TELs and TEUs did. Therefore, it was hypothesized that TTs might explicitly mention the offence in Thai significantly less than TELs and TEUs did in English.

An examination of the overall semantic formulae and IFMDs used by TTs, TELs and TEUs shows that TELs did not differ from TTs in mentioning the offence explicitly, but they used upgraders significantly more than TTs did. However, TEUs explicitly

mentioned the offence significantly more than TTs did. In addition, TEUs also used significantly more upgraders than TTs did. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed in this sense. In terms of specific situations, TELs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TTs did in Situation 2 Faded suit, Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings, and TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TTs did in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. Moreover, TELs employed upgraders significantly more than TTs did in Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 2 Faded suit, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes and Situation 11 Cutting in line, and TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TTs did in Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 2 Faded suit, Situation 3 Undelivered paper and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes.

Therefore, it can be concluded that perception determines explicitness of complaining; TTs, TELs and TEUs varied in their explicitness of complaining according to their perception. The findings accord with DeCapua's (1989) observation that learners are usually more explicit in their complaining than native speakers are.

However, although they differed in their perception of severity of the offence in 12 situations, TTs, TELs and TEUs ranked the severity of offence in the similar order. In this sense, TELs and TEUs transferred their L1 perception to their L2 perception of severity of offence in 12 situations.

To sum up, TEs determined the severity of offence in the situation based on their gender and English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutor, which, in turn, influenced their complaining realization patterns. Therefore, the following section discusses the effects of these factors on the realization patterns of complaining.

6.4 Discussion

This section will discuss the similarities and differences between TTs and TELs and between TTs and TEUs in semantic formulae and IFMDs from the perspectives of the speaker's gender and English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

6.4.1 Speaker's gender

Generally speaking, TEL male and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English more than TEU males and females did.

In terms of semantic formulae, TEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English in nine semantic formulae, and differed from TT males and females in three semantic formulae: warning, threat and context. In other words, TEL males and females warned the hearer significantly less than TT males and females did, but threatened the hearer significantly more than TT males and females did. Besides, TEL males and females established the context significantly less than TT males and females did. On the other hand, TEU made the pragmatic transfer in six semantic formulae: criticism, address term, context, valuation, remedy, and gratitude. In other words, TEU males and females explicitly mentioned the offence, apologized for the potential imposition, and justified for their utterance significantly more than TT males and females did, but warned the hearer, and opted out significantly more than TT males and females did. In addition, TEU males threatened the hearer significantly more than TT males did.

When it comes to explicitness of complaining in specific situations, TEL females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than TT females did in Situation 5 Noisy roommate and in Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. In addition, TEU females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than TT females did in Situation 5

Noisy roommate, but TEU males explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TT males did in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor and Situation 11 Cutting in line. Moreover, TEU males and females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TT males and females did in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. The findings suggest that increase of proficiency gives learners more control of the linguistic devices. Besides, it also makes them deviate from their L1 social norms. Therefore, acquisition of a new language implies acquisition of a new identity.

When it comes to IFMDs, generally speaking, TEL and TEU males and females did not differ from TT males and females in downgraders, but they used significantly more upgraders than TT males and females did. A closer look at the IFMDs in specific situations reveals that TEL males and females employed more upgraders than TT males and females did in Situation 2 Faded suit, Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, and Situation 11 Cutting in line. In addition, TEL females employed significantly more upgraders than TT females did in Situation 7 Late arriving classmate. On the other hand, TEU males and females used significantly more upgraders than TT males and females did in Situation 2 Faded suit, Situation 3 Undelivered paper and Situation 9 Lost lecture notes. Moreover, TEU males used significantly more upgraders than TT males did in Situation 1 Negligent worker. However, TEU males and females used significantly less downgraders than TT males and females did in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor. The differences among TEL and TT males and females and among TEU and TT males and females seem to result more from differences in English proficiency than differences in gender. Besides, the results suggest that increase of English proficiency brings about explicitness of complaining. The finding differs from Li et al.'s (2006) conclusion that gender does not influence directness of complaining.

6.4.2 Speaker's English proficiency

Generally speaking, significant differences were found between TELs and TEUs in semantic formulae and IFMDs.

In terms of semantic formulae, TEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than TELs did. To be exact, TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence and justified their utterance significantly more than TELs did. In specific situations, TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than TELs did in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes, Situation 10 Broken mobile phone and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. This might be explained by more linguistic devices with an increase of the English proficiency. This suggests that with proficiency enhancement, Thai learners of English may become increasingly explicit in complaining.

When it comes to IFMDs, TELs and TEUs did not differ in the overall downgraders or upgraders (see Table 6.1). The reason behind may be that the modification devices of illocutionary force of complaining can be acquired at an early stage of learning. However, significant differences can be found between lower and upper intermediate Thai learners in Situation 9 Lost lecture notes and Situation 11 Cutting in line.

Although they differed significantly from TTs in their perception of severity of offence, TELs and TEUs resembled each other in all the situations except for Situation 5 Noisy roommate, Situation 6 Noisy neighbor and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. The results suggest that acquisition of a foreign language is unconsciously changing Thai learners of English in their perception of situations. However, TEUs employed more semantic formulae than TELs did.

To sum up, TEUs employed more semantic formulae than TELs did, especially “Problem” and “Justification”. However, TELs were rather unstable in their complaining

behavior, oscillating between TTs' and TEUs' complaining realization patterns. The findings conform to Gallaher's (2011) observation that advanced learners showed better control over linguistic strategies to modify the offence than the intermediate learners did. Although whether the pragmatic transfer from Thai to English is negative or positive is beyond the scope of the present study, the differences between TEUs and TTs was larger than those between TELs and TTs. Maybe TEUs had more linguistic devices to realize their intention than TELs did.

6.4.3 Social distance

In the present study, when the offence was noise-making late at night, TTs explicitly mentioned the offence with their intimate interlocutor significantly more than with their acquaintance interlocutor, while TEs explicitly mentioned the offence with their acquaintance interlocutor significantly more than with their according to social distance.

However, when the offence was late arriving, both TTs and TEs explicitly mentioned the offence with their intimate interlocutor more than with their acquaintance interlocutor. Nevertheless, they employed more semantic formulae with an acquaintance interlocutor than with an intimate interlocutor. The extra information conveyed by the speaker mainly came from semantic formulae like "Context", "Justification", and "Remedy". When complaining to a stranger interlocutor, TTs and TEs did not explicitly mention the offence as they did with acquaintances or intimates. Instead, they used more semantic formulae with strangers than with intimates. The finding corroborates Wolfson's (1983) study that acquaintances need more solidarity-establishing speech behavior than intimates. In addition, the present study also finds that TTs and TEs also became less explicitly in mentioned the offence with their stranger interlocutor. The extra information conveyed by the extra semantic formulae were mainly aimed at negotiating

the relationship. Therefore, the results suggest that certainty of the intimate relationship calls for little negotiation in Thai culture.

In terms of IFMDs, TTs and TEs used more downgraders and fewer upgraders with their acquaintance interlocutor than with their intimate interlocutor. Besides, TTs, TELs and TEUs used more downgraders and fewer upgraders with their stranger interlocutor than with an acquaintance or an intimate. The numbers of downgraders and upgraders suggest that TTs and TEs complained the most explicitly with an intimate, and the least explicitly with a stranger. The finding supports Tamanaha's (2003) observation with the Japanese that they were generally more indirect toward out-group members (i.e. strangers) than toward in-group interlocutors (i.e. family, friends).

6.4.4 Relative power

When the hearer was a stranger of lower relative power in Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, TTs, TELs and TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence more than with interlocutors of equal relative power. However, TTs, TELs and TEUs mentioned the offence less explicitly when the hearer was an acquaintance of lower relative power. In Situation 1 Negligent worker, they did not explicitly mention the offence as they did in Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone.

In terms of the total of semantic formulae used, TTs, TELs and TEUs used more semantic formulae with the hearer in Situation 1 Negligent worker and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone than in Situation 2 Faded suit. The major reason for this might be the possibility of remedy the situation in Situation 1 Negligent worker and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. In Situation 2 Faded suit, the speaker seemed aware of the irrevocability of the faded suit. Therefore, they explicitly mentioned the offence and ended the utterance. But in Situation 1 Negligent worker and Situation 10 Broken mobile

phone, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed “Remedy” to fix the situation. In addition, in Situation 1 Negligent worker they also used “Justification” to establish the solidarity between the interlocutors. Therefore, relative power works together with social distance for TTs, TELs and TEUs to produce the semantic formulae of complaining.

In terms of IFMDs, TTs, TELs and TEUs employed fewer downgraders, and more upgraders with a stranger interlocutor of lower relative power. But they employed more downgraders with an acquaintance of lower relative power than with a stranger of lower relative power.

The finding conforms to Nakhle, Naghavi, and Razavi’s (2014) study that social power may cause differential use of complaining utterance.

In Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, TTs, TELs, and TEUs employed a lot of downgraders and upgraders with the hearer of lower relative power. The results reflect their attempts to mitigate and aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining at the same time. On the one hand, they found the offence unacceptable. On the other hand, they had to rely on the hearer to remedy the situation; therefore, they could not afford to offend the hearer. In Situation 2 Faded suit, the offence seemed unfixable. TTs did not mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining, while TELs and TEUs still mitigated the pragmatic force of complaining. Differently, TTs did not aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining in this situation, but TELs and TEUs employed many upgraders, especially “Aggressive interrogative”, to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “TEUM6.2 OMG. Look at this. You ruin my favorite suit”. However, in Situation 1 Negligent worker TTs, TELs and TEUs used more downgraders with an acquaintance of lower relative power than with a stranger of lower relative power. They mainly used “Politeness marker” and “Agent avoider” to mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining.

Therefore, the results suggest that TTs, TELs and TEUs employed fewer downgraders and more upgraders of complaining with interlocutors of lower relative power. This finding resembles Yuan's (2009) conclusion that the contextual factors of social distance and relative power between the interlocutors influence the strategy choices made by the Chinese participants.

6.5 Summary

This chapter investigated the pragmatic transfer made by TELs and TEUs from Thai to English in terms of the semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, and their perception of severity of the offence in the situations. The results indicate that the speaker's gender and the language proficiency, social distance and relative power between the speaker and the hearer influenced TTs, TEL and TEUs in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS & DISCUSSION IV: PRAGMATIC TRANSFER

OF THE SPEECH ACT OF COMPLAINING

PERFORMED BY NATIVE CHINESE

SPEAKERS FROM L1 TO ENGLISH

Chapter Seven attempts to answer the fourth research question:

4) What pragmatic transfer do Chinese *ELF* speakers make from their L1 to English in terms of the complaining realization patterns? And how?

Since the complaining realization patterns were composed of semantic formulae and illocutionary force indicating devices (IFMDs), the researcher first reported the overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs used by native Chinese speakers speaking Chinese (CCs) and Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English (CEs, which were divided into CEL, lower intermediate Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English, and CEU, upper intermediate Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English), and then the semantic formulae and IFMDs used by CCs, CELs, and CEUs in twelve situations respectively. At the same time, the Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to find out the absence of pragmatic transfer made by CELs and CEUs from Chinese to English in these two aspects. After that, the researcher presented the perception data of the offences obtained from the participants. Finally, the researcher attempted to discuss the results from the perspective of the speaker's gender and English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutors.

7.1 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

The twelve semantic formulae are divided into five subcategories: “Problem” makes explicit complaining; “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Threat” aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining; “Opt-out” makes no complaint; “Context”, “Justification”, “Remedy” and “Valuation” supplement complaining; and “Address term”, “Apology” and “Gratitude” mitigate the pragmatic force of complaining. On the other hand, IFMDs, which are subdivided into seven downgraders and six upgraders, are analyzed based on the coding scheme adapted from DeCapua (1989, pp. 182-184) (see Table 3.4 for detail).

The researcher tallied the overall frequencies of the twelve semantic formulae and two types of IFMDs employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in twelve situations. In addition, significant differences between CCs and CELs and between CCs and CEUs in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining were marked with asterisks (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 Overall frequencies of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

	CC	CEL	Sig.	CC	CEU	Sig.	CEL	CEU	Sig.
Problem	358	325	N.S.	358	443	.007*	325	443	.000*
Criticism	105	97	N.S.	105	118	N.S.	97	118	N.S.
Warning	59	40	N.S.	59	36	N.S.	40	36	N.S.
Threat	24	50	.019*	24	33	N.S.	50	33	N.S.
Opt-out	18	22	N.S.	18	11	N.S.	22	11	.027*
Address term	62	60	N.S.	62	129	.009*	60	129	.014*
Apology	13	43	.006*	13	71	.000*	43	71	.034*
Context	113	87	N.S.	113	171	.001*	87	171	.000*
Valuation	40	29	N.S.	40	40	N.S.	29	40	N.S.
Justification	175	195	N.S.	175	237	.007*	195	237	N.S.
Remedy	322	335	N.S.	322	357	N.S.	335	357	N.S.
Gratitude	7	29	.003*	7	50	.000*	29	50	N.S.
Total of semantic formulae	1296	1312	N.S.	1296	1696	.000*	1312	1696	.000*
Downgrader	462	484	N.S.	462	482	N.S.	484	482	N.S.
Upgrader	211	234	N.S.	211	416	.000*	234	416	.000*

Notes: N=720;

*=significant difference between and among CCs, CELs and CEUs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=no significant difference between and among CCs, CELs and CEUs

The results show that CELs made the pragmatic transfer in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining more than CEUs did (see Table 7.1). In other words, CELs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in nine semantic formulae, downgraders and upgraders. However, they threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, and expressed their gratitude for the potential cooperation significantly more than CCs did. On the other hand, CEUs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in six semantic formulae and downgraders, but they explicitly mentioned the offence, addressed the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, established the context, justified their utterance, and expressed their gratitude significantly more than CCs did. In addition, CEUs used significantly more upgraders than CCs did.

Furthermore, the researcher also compared semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by CC and CEL males and females and by CC and CEU males and females (see Table 7.2).

Table 7.2 Overall semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining employed by CC, CEL and CEU males and females in 12 situations

	CC		CEL		Sig.	CC		CEU		Sig.
	M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F	
Problem	143	215	156	169	.006*	143	215	213	230	.001*
Criticism	57	48	46	51	N.S.	57	48	61	57	N.S.
Warning	30	29	25	15	N.S.	30	29	23	13	N.S.
Threat	17	7	24	26	.047*	17	7	17	16	N.S.
Opt-out	12	6	10	12	N.S.	12	6	8	3	N.S.
Address term	30	32	29	31	N.S.	30	32	71	58	.037*
Apology	1	12	17	26	.002*	1	12	40	31	.000*
Context	39	74	39	48	.004*	39	74	75	96	.000*
Valuation	30	10	7	22	.008*	30	10	22	18	N.S.
Justification	65	110	85	110	.001*	65	110	113	124	.001*
Remedy	146	176	164	171	N.S.	146	176	160	197	.004*
Gratitude	2	5	9	20	.016*	2	5	24	26	.000*
Downgrader	217	245	239	245	N.S.	217	245	241	241	N.S.
Upgrader	87	124	100	134	.035*	87	124	217	199	.000*

Notes: N=720;

*=significant difference among CC, CEL and CEU males and females, with $p < 0.05$;

N.S.=no significant difference among CC, CEL and CEU males and females

The results reveal that CEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in five semantic formulae and downgraders, but they did not make the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in seven semantic formulae and upgraders (see Table 7.2). In other words, CC and CEL females explicitly mentioned the offence, apologized for the potential imposition, established the context for the utterance, and justified for the utterance more than CC and CEL males did. CC and CEL females used significantly more upgraders than CC and CEL males did. Differently, while CC males threatened the hearer significantly more than CC females did, CEL males did not differ from CEL females in threatening the hearer. Moreover, CC males expressed their negative feelings significantly more than CC females did, but CEL females expressed their negative feelings significantly more than CEL males did. In addition, CC males and females did not differ in showing gratitude to the hearer, but CEL females showed their gratitude for the potential cooperation significantly more than CEL males did.

On the other hand, CEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer in five semantic formulae and downgraders. However, CC and CEU females explicitly mentioned the offence, established the context, justified their utterance, and sought remedy for the offence significantly more than CC and CEU males did. Also, CC males and females did not differ from each other in address term, but CEL males addressed the hearer significantly more than CEL females did. Besides, while CC females apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CC males did, CEL males apologized significantly more than CEL females did. Moreover, CEL males and females showed their gratitude significantly more than CC males and females did. Though CC females used more upgraders than CC males did, CEL males used more upgraders than CEL females did.

7.2 Comparison of semantic formulae of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

The following sub-section compares semantic formulae of complaining between CCs and CELs and those between CCs and CEUs in 12 situations. The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed to find out the absence of pragmatic transfer made by CELs and CEUs from Chinese to English in terms of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining. Examples of the semantic formulae used by CCs, CELs, and CEUs are provided for better understanding. In addition, the Kruskal Wallis H Test was conducted to find out the significant effects of the speaker's gender on the semantic formulae of complaining.

7.2.1 Comparison of semantic formulae of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

Table 7.3 displays a comparison of semantic formulae of complaining between CCs and CELs, and between CCs and CEUs in 12 situations, Table 7.4 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by CEL males and females from Chinese to English in semantic formulae in 12 situations, and Table 7.5 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by CEU males and females from Thai to English in semantic formulae in 12 situations. When the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English did not exist in CELs or CEUs, an asterisk was used to mark its absence.

Table 7.3 Semantic formulae of complaining used by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

Semantic formulae	S1			S2			S3			S4		
	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U
Problem	34	24	29	38	30	34	36	47*	49*	34	30	43@
Criticism	10	8	6	10	10	17	11	5	7	22	9*	10*
Warning	2	3	3	4	5	5	1	2	2	1	5	3
Threat	4	3	1	3	5	7	4	5	4	3	6	2
Opt-out	0	5*	1	1	3	0	4	3	1	2	3	1
Address term	5	3	1	5	1	4	2	5	20* @	3	4	11*
Apology	1	5	3	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	2	0
Context	19	17	30* @	5	1	5	15	16	24	16	17	29* @
Valuation	6	3	6	3	6	4	10	7	5	5	3	6
Justification	20	15	24	14	14	22	5	6	8	9	10	11
Remedy	23	25	33	15	21	18	6	8	8	3	10*	3@
Gratitude	1	4	4	0	0	0	0	4*	2	1	0	2
Total	125	115	141@	98	97	118	94	108	131* @	99	99	121* @
Semantic formulae	S5			S6			S7			S8		
	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U
Problem	31	27	42* @	22	13	34* @	30	29	36	35	34	48* @
Criticism	6	3	9	1	1	1	11	11	12	6	10	10
Warning	4	2	0*	2	1	4	6	4	3	10	7	3*
Threat	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	5*	1	9*	5
Opt-out	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	5	2	1
Address term	7	10	18* @	12	10	19	4	4	10	1	4	12*
Apology	0	4*	6*	9	17	22*	0	3	4*	0	1	4*
Context	5	11	20*	3	1	13* @	3	5	5	3	2	5
Valuation	1	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	0	5	0*	4@
Justification	25	20	21	46	52	51	16	27*	23	2	6	6
Remedy	45	46	46	54	57	54	31	34	33	21	16	26
Gratitude	1	2	9* @	4	13*	19*	0	2	1	0	0	0
Total	125	127	173* @	153	165	218* @	105	122	135* @	89	91	124* @
Semantic formulae	S9			S10			S11			S12		
	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U	CC	CE L	CE U
Problem	21	26	36*	47	38*	50* @	14	7	11	16	20	31* @
Criticism	14	6	13	2	5	5	11	18	17	1	11*	11*
Warning	11	2*	0*	3	1	9@	10	6	4	5	2	0*
Threat	0	8* @	2	4	7	4	4	3	0*	1	2	1

Opt-out	2	5	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	1
Address term	0	0	3	6	0*	6@	10	13	16	7	6	9
Apology	0	0	1	0	1	5*	3	2	9* @	0	7*	14*
Context	3	6	11*	9	4	9	21	2*	6*	11	5	14 @
Valuation	4	3	9	2	3	3	0	0	2	2	1	0
Justification	17	11	27 @	2	2	1	14	24	36* @	5	8	7
Remedy	9	15	17	31	29	32	35	29	39	49	45	48
Gratitude	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	3	10* @
Total	81	82	121 *@	106	90*	125 @	122	106	143 *@	99	110	146 *@

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference between CCs and CELs and between CCs and CEUs, with $p < .05$;

@=Significant difference between CELs and CEUs with $p < .05$;

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 7.4 Significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	CC		CEL		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Problem	12	22	13	11	.017*
	Gratitude	1	0	0	4	.031*
Undelivered paper	Valuation	6	4	0	7	.050*
Forgetful classmate	Criticism	10	12	3	6	.038*
	Valuation	5	0	0	3	0.023
	Total	43	56	57	64	.036*
Noisy roommate	Context	1	4	2	9	.012*
Noisy neighbour	Apology	1	8	5	12	.005*
	Justification	19	27	25	27	.023*
	Total	66	87	77	88	.005*
Late arriving classmate	Justification	3	13	12	15	.007*
	Total	45	60	56	66	.007*
Late arriving friend	Threat	0	1	3	6	.028*
Lost lecture notes	Warning	4	7	2	0	.027*
	Threat	0	0	2	6	.005*
	Total	33	48	39	43	.050*
Broken mobile phone	Problem	18	29	18	20	.004*
	Address term	1	5	0	0	.008*

Cutting in line	Context	6	15	1	1	.000*
Annoying phone rings	Problem	2	14	13	7	.002*
	Criticism	1	0	4	7	.012*
	Gratitude	0	0	0	3	.027*
	Total	37	62	54	56	.000*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among CC and CEL males and females, with $p < .05$

Table 7.5 Significant differences among CC and CEU males and females in semantic formulae of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	Semantic formulae	CC		CEU		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Problem	12	22	12	17	.028*
	Remedy	11	12	11	22	.010*
Undelivered paper	Problem	16	20	23	26	.033*
	Address term	2	0	13	7	.000*
	Context	7	8	8	16	.047*
	Total	47	47	69	62	.001*
Forgetful classmate	Problem	12	22	22	21	.017*
	Address term	3	0	8	3	.014*
	Context	6	10	12	17	.031*
	Total	43	56	57	64	.030*
Noisy roommate	Context	1	4	10	10	.007*
	Remedy	20	25	19	27	.045*
	Total	54	71	85	88	.000*
Noisy neighbour	Apology	1	8	15	7	.001*
	Justification	19	27	24	27	.028*
	Gratitude	1	3	11	8	.004*
	Total	66	87	112	106	.000*
Late arriving classmate	Threat	0	0	1	4	.031*
	Justification	3	13	11	12	.024*
	Remedy	11	20	13	20	.033*
	Total	45	60	62	73	.000*
Late arriving friend	Problem	15	20	23	25	.032*
	Address term	1	0	7	5	.011*
	Apology	0	0	4	0	.006*
	Total	43	46	61	63	.004*
Lost lecture notes	Problem	7	14	19	17	.012*
	Warning	4	7	0	0	.003*
	Total	33	48	63	58	.000*
Broken mobile phone	Problem	18	29	22	28	.001*
	Warning	2	1	7	2	.044*
	Apology	0	0	4	1	.031*
Cutting in line	Threat	4	0	0	0	.006*
	Apology	0	3	2	7	.023*
	Context	6	15	3	3	.000*
	Justification	6	8	15	21	.000*
	Total	53	69	68	75	.023*

Annoying phone rings	Problem	2	14	17	14	.000*
	Criticism	1	0	5	6	.023*
	Apology	0	0	6	8	.001*
	Gratitude	0	0	4	6	.009*
	Total	37	62	70	76	.000*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among CC and CEU males and females, with $p < .05$

7.2.1.1 Negligent worker

In complaining to a worker in a photocopy shop, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed four semantic formulae frequently: “Problem”, “Remedy”, “Justification” and “Context”.

In this situation, CCs employed “Problem” the most frequently, and CELs used it the second most frequently, and CEUs used it the third most frequently. They mentioned the offence in a declarative or interrogative form, e.g. “CCM6.1 您怎么能把这么重要的事情给忘了呢？ nín zěn me néng bǎ zhè me zhòng yào de shì qing gěi wàng le ne (How can you forget such an important thing?)”, “CCM23.1 这怎么还没装订？ zè zěn me huán méi zhuāng dìng (How come it hasn't been bound?)” or “CELM7.1 I can't believe you forget to deliver the papers. You know it's very important for me, so you had better to do it right now and finish it before 12:00.”

Besides, CCs employed “Remedy” the second most frequently, and CELs and CEUs used it the most frequently. The remedy CCs, CELs and CEUs sought was usually in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCF11.1 怎么能把这么重要事情忘记呢。 kuài diǎn gěi wǒ zhuāng dìng bā (Hurry up to bind them for me.)”, “CELM13.1 Can you let me print the copies first?”, or “CEUF1.1 Please give my booklets to me on time.”.

In addition, CCs used “Justification” the third most frequently, but CELs and CEUs used it the fourth most frequently. In this situation, CCs, CELs and CEUs justified their utterances by referring to the urgency or importance of the thesis photocopy, e.g. “CCM21.1赶紧给我装订论文，马上就要交了。mǎ shàng jiù yào jiāo le (Have to submit them soon.)”, “CCF4.1这件事对我来说很重要，希望能够在剩下的不到一个小时之后尽量帮我弄好，拜托了zhè jiàn shì duì wǒ lái shuō hěn zhòng yào (This is important for me.)” or “CEUM6.1 I must deliver 5 copies to my evaluation committee by 12:00 noon.”

Moreover, CCs employed “Context” the fourth most frequently, but CELs used it the fourth most frequently, and CEUs used it the second most frequently. Usually, they established the context by either referring to the order placed yesterday or being a regular customer, or asking the hearer whether the theses had been finished, or whether the hearer remembered the speaker. For example, “CCM5.1我告诉你十一点来取。怎么还不打呢？现在快点打印吧。wǒ gào su nǐ shí yī diǎn lái qǔ (I told you that (I’ll) come to get them at 11.00.)”, “CCM10.1都是老顾客了一点都不上心。dōu shì lǎo gù kè le (I am a regular customer.)”, “CELF3.1 I’m a regular customer”, “CELF1.1 Don’t you remember me?”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Opt-out”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Context” (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs remained silent about the offence, e.g. “CELM21.1 Never mind”, which CCs did not do. In contrast, CEUs established the context for the unfinished theses significantly more than CCs did.

Besides, the Kruskal Wallis H Test results also show significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Problem”, and “Gratitude”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Problem” and “Remedy” (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than CC females did. Unlike CC females, CEL females did express their gratitude for the potential cooperation. On the contrary, CEU females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than CC females did. Instead, they sought remedy more than CC females did.

7.2.1.2 Faded suit

In complaining to the owner of a laundry, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem”, “Remedy”, “Justification” and “Criticism” frequently. They employed “Problem” the most frequently. Usually, they explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of dry-cleaning, without referring to the hearer, directly asserted that the hearer has made the suit fade, or directly ask the hearer to explain the faded suit, e.g. “CCM30.2 这件衣服的颜色洗掉了，这是我最喜欢的！你们说怎么办吧？要不给一个合理的答复，这件事没完。 zhè jiàn yī fu de yán sè xǐ diào le (The color of the clothes has been washed away.)”, “CCF2.2最喜欢这个颜色，可是你给洗掉了 kě shì nǐ gěi xǐ diào le (But you have washed (the color) away.)”, “CEUM1.2 The color of my cloth is not the same as before”, “CEUM9.2 You hurt my clothes.”

In addition, CCs, and CELs employed “Remedy” the second most frequently, and CEUs used it the third most frequently. The remedy sought was either specific, or unspecific, e.g. “CCM17.2请帮我洗成白色的。或者给我赔一件。 qǐng bāng wǒ xǐ chéng bái sè de huò zhě gěi wǒ péi yí jiàn (Please help me remove the

stain, or provide compensation (for the damaged suit).)”, or “CCM8.2 赔一件吧。 péi yí jiàn bā (Provide compensation (for the damaged suit).)”, “CELF1.2 Please wash my clothes again”, or “CCF3.2这件衣服是我最喜欢的，你们得为自己的过错负责 nǐ men dé wèi zì jǐ de guò cuò fù zé (You should take responsibility for your own mistake.)”.

Besides, CCs employed “Justification” the third most frequently, and CELs and CEUs used it the fourth most frequently. They usually mentioned that the suit was their favorite, e.g. “CCM27.2 这是我特别喜欢的颜色。你怎么给洗掉了呢？你怎么这么不小心。 zhè shì wǒ tè bié xǐ huan de yán sè (This is my favorite color.)”, “CCM26.2 这是我最喜欢的西装。要洗成这样了，没法穿了。 zhè shì wǒ zuì xǐ huan de xī zhuāng (This is my favorite suit.)”, or “CELF6.2 It’s my favorite suit.”

Moreover, CCs, CELs, and CEUs also employed “Criticism” the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CCM2.2 会不会洗衣服啊？不会洗开啥店啊？ bú huì xǐ kāi shá diàn ā (If (you) don’t know how to dry-clean, why did you open a laundry?)”, or “CEUM28.2 Why are you so careless? Or you don’t have the ability to wash the clothes”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show no significant difference between CCs and CELs or between CCs and CEUs in any semantic formulae in this situation (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in all the semantic formulae in this situation.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal no significant difference among CCs and CELs males and females, or among CC and CEU males or females in any semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and Table 7.5). The results suggest that CEL and

CEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in all the semantic formulae in this situation.

7.2.1.3 Undelivered paper

In complaining to a friend who failed to submit the term paper for the speaker, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem” and “Context” frequently. They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of the offence, without focusing on the hearer, directly asserted that the hearer has committed the offence, or directly ask the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CCM29.3 这么重要的事你怎么可以忘记。你害我那门课不及格。这对我影响很大的。 nǐ hài wǒ nà mén kè bù jí gé (You made me fail the course.)”, “CELM8.3 You have not do what you promised”.

In addition, they employed “Context” the second most frequently. Usually they established the context by either referring to the former engagement, or verifying whether the offence had happened, e.g. “CCF1.3 你应了呀, 哦! 怪我, 没再提醒你, 没事, 我自己的错, 不怪你。 nǐ yīng le ya (You have promised.)” or “CELM28.3 Do (Did) you forget to help me submit a term paper?”

Besides, CEUs employed “Address term” the third most frequently, e.g. “CEUM2.3 Oh, my friend, you play a trick for me. Are you sure that you have submitted my paper before the deadline? Never mind, I have explained for my course instructor.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Problem” and “Gratitude”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Problem”, “Address term” and the total of the semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that both CELs and CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than CCs did. In addition, CELs addressed the hearer significantly more than CCs

did, and CEUs addressed the hearer significantly more than CCs did. Moreover, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Valuation”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Problem”, “Address term”, “Context” and the total of the semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL males did not express their negative feeling at all, which differed from CC males. Besides, CEU males and females explicitly mentioned the offence, and addressed the hearer significantly more than CC males and females did. In addition, CEU females established the context for the utterance significantly more than CC females did. Moreover, CEU males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.4 Forgetful classmate

When complaining to a classmate who did not show up to help the speaker as agreed, CCs, CELs, and CEUs employed “Problem” and “Context” frequently. They used “Problem” the most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned the bad consequence for the speaker, directly asserted that the hearer committed the offence, or even asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CCM5.4你那天干嘛去了? 约好了你却没去。打电话你也不接。害的我也没准备陈述dǎ diàn huà nǐ yě bù jiē hài de wǒ yě méi zhǔn bèi chén shù (I called you, but you didn’t pick up the phone? As a result, I didn’t prepare for the presentation.)”, “CEUM2.4 I have to prepare for the presentation at short time”, “CEUM2.4 Can you give the reasons why you didn't show up at the appointed time?”, “CCM28.4你去哪呢? 怎么打你电话都没人接。害得我 没多少时间陈述我的报告? zěn me dǎ nǐ diàn huà dōu méi rén jiē hài dé wǒ méi

duō shǎo shí jiān chén shù wǒ de bào gào (Why didn't you pick up the phone when I called you? As a result, I didn't have much time to prepare for my presentation?)”, or “CCF4.4你怎么没来送我? 答应就该做到, 不然就不要承诺, 你不说的话我可以提前去也就会没事的nǐ zěn me méi lái sòng wǒ (Why didn't you give me a ride?)”.

In addition, CCs also employed “Criticism” the third most frequently, e.g. “CCM15.4答应同学的事情, 你不应该忘记。dā ying tóng xué de shì qing nǐ bù yīng gāi wàng jì (You shouldn't have forgotten what you have promised your classmate)”. However, CELs and CEUs did not employ it frequently.

Moreover, CCs employed “Context” the third most frequently, and CELs and CEUs used it the second most frequently. Usually they mentioned the previous engagement or asked the hearer about the context for the offence, e.g. “CEUM8.4 You had promised!”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Criticism” and “Remedy”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Criticism”, “Address term”, “Context” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs criticized the hearer significantly less than CCs did. Moreover, CELs sought remedy significantly more than CEUs did. On the contrary, CEUs addressed the hearer and established the context for their utterance significantly more than CCs did. Besides, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant difference among CC and CEL males and females in “Criticism”, “Valuation”, and the total of semantic

formulae, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Problem”, “Address term”, and “Context” in this situation (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL males and females criticized the hearer significantly less than CC males and females did. Furthermore, CEL males did not express any negative feelings at all, but CCs males did so. Moreover, CEL males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did. On the other hand, CEU males explicitly mentioned the offence, addressed the hearer, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CC males did. Moreover, CEU males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.5 Noisy roommate

In complaining to a noisy roommate, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Remedy”, “Problem”, and “Justification” frequently. In addition, CEUs also employed “Context” and “Address term” frequently.

CCs, CELs, and CEUs sought remedy the most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to come back early or keep quiet in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCM8.5 以后回来时能不能小点声音，照顾别人的感受行吗？ yǐ hòu huí lai shí néng bù néng xiǎo diǎn shēng yīn (Can you keep the sound down when you come back in the future?)”, “CCM7.5 以后回来轻点。 yǐ hòu huí lai qīng diǎn (Be quieter when (you) come back in the future.)”, or “CEUM5.5 Please do not make any noise if you will come home very late.”

In addition, CCs, CELs, and CEUs employed “Problem” the second most frequently. They explicitly mentioned the bad consequence of the hearer’s noise making, without focusing on the hearer, e.g. “CEUM10.5 I have not felt asleep for several days because of the noise”. They also explicitly asserted that the hearer had

committed the offence, e.g. “CCM16.5 声音小点。回来时，刚睡又被你弄醒。 huí lái shí , gāng shuì yòu bèi nǐ nòng xǐng 。 (When (you) came back, (I) Just fell slept and was woken up by you again.)”, “CCF4.5 你可以轻点吗?你这样已经打扰到了我了，毕竟我们是合租，没有一个人来的随心所欲些，希望见谅。 nǐ zhè yàng yǐ jīng dǎ rǎo dào le wǒ le (You have disturbed me.)” or “CEUM13.5 You have made a big noise, so that I can't fall asleep every day.” They also asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CCM27.5 你为什么每晚回来那么晚。我都睡得很香的。还是听到了你的归来。好些天都这样，你能不能早点回来。 nǐ wéi shí me měi wǎn huí lái nà me wǎn 。 wǒ dōu shuì dé hěn xiāng de 。 hái shì tīng dào le nǐ de guī lái 。 hǎo xiē tiān dōu zhè yàng , (Why do you come back so late every night? I was having a sound sleep, but I still heard your coming back. It has been for several days.)”

Besides, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Justification” the third most frequently. They usually justified their utterance by referring to themselves, or others, e.g. “CCF1.5 以后能不能小声点呢，亲， 我晚上已经睡了呢 wǒ wǎn shàng yǐ jīng shuì le ne (I've slept in the evening.)”, or “CELF9.5 I need a quiet environment to fall asleep.”

Moreover, CEUs also employed “Context” the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CEUM5.4 You promised to help me, but you not! I think we are friends, aren't we? I am very disappointed.” Furthermore, they employed “Address term” the fifth most frequently, e.g. “CEUM2.5 My dear roommate, what's wrong with you? I'm confused that you go home very late and make a lot of noise. Your unusual action make me worried.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Apology”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Problem”, “Warning”, “Address term”, “Apology”, “Context”, “Gratitude” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that, different from CCs, both CELs and CEUs apologized for the potential imposition of the utterance. In addition, CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, addressed the hearer, established the context, and expressed their gratitude for the hearer’s potential cooperation significantly more than CCs did. Moreover, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did. However, CEUs did not warn the hearer in this situation, even although CCs did so.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among CC and CEL males and female in “Context”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Context”, “Remedy” and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL females apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CC females did. Moreover, CEU males and females established the context for the imposition significantly more than CC males and females did. However, CEU females sought remedy more than CEU males did, which resembled the pattern between CC females and males. Moreover, CEU males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.6 Noisy neighbor

In complaining to a noisy neighbor, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed three semantic formulae frequently: “Remedy”, “Justification”, “Problem” and “Address term”. In addition, CELs and CEUs also employed “Apology” and “Gratitude” frequently.

CCs, CELs, and CEUs employed “Remedy” the most frequently. The remedy in this situation was to turn down TV in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCM20.6麻烦你能不能把声音开小一点。影响我睡觉，我明天还要考试。 má fan nǐ néng bù néng bǎ shēng yīn kāi xiǎo yì diǎn (Could you please turn down the TV?)”, “CCF2.6希望你把电视声音调小点，别人在休息呢！ xī wàng nǐ bǎ diàn shì yīn shēng yīn diào xiǎo diǎn (Hope you turn down the TV.)”, “CCF20.6明天我有考试，电视声音小点。 diàn shì shēng yīn xiǎo diǎn (Turn down the TV.)”, or “CELF10.6 Please turn down the TV.”

In addition, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Justification” the second most frequently. Usually they justified their utterance by referring to the coming exam or the need for more sleep, e.g. “CCF6.6明天我有重要的考试，你看电视这么大声音，我真的无法好好休息，也请您体谅 míng tiān wǒ yǒu zhòng yào de kǎo shì (Tomorrow I have an important exam.)”, or “CELF11.6 Dear Sir/ Madam, I am going to take an exam tomorrow morning and I must assure the sleeping quality.”

Moreover, CCs, and CEUs employed “Problem” the third most frequently, but CELs used it the fourth most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned the bad consequence for the speaker, or directly asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, e.g. “CCM17.6对不起，我想你电视声音太大。 nǐ diàn shì shēng yīn tài dà (Your TV is too loud.)”, “CCM10.6你影响别人休息了呀。 nǐ yǐng xiǎng bié ren xiū xi le ya (You have affected others’ sleep.)”, or “CEUM4.6 Tomorrow is important for me, but I can't sleep for the sounds of TV. If you can switch it down, I will be great appreciate for me.”

Besides, CCs also addressed the hearer the fourth most frequently, and CELs and CEUs employed it the fifth most frequently, e.g. “CEUM3.6 Hi, I am your neighbor”.

Furthermore, CELs apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer the third most frequently, and CEU used it the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CEUM2.6 Excuse me. Could you please turn off the TV?”, but CCs did not do that frequently.

Besides, CELs and CEUs thanked the hearer for the potential cooperation the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CEUM5.6 Sorry, I am going to take an exam tomorrow. So, could you turn down the volume of your TV or go to bed earlier. Thank you!”, but CCs did not do that frequently. In addition, CEUs also established the context for the utterance frequently, e.g. “CEUM7.6 Let’s have a talk. Your TV is so noisy I can’t prepare my exam. Could you please turn down your TV?”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Gratitude”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Problem”, “Apology”, “Context”, “Gratitude”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs showed the gratitude for the hearer’s potential cooperation significantly more than CCs did. Moreover, CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, apologized for the potential imposition, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CCs did. Besides, CEUs employed semantic formulae significantly more than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Apology”, “Justification” and the total of the semantic formulae, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Apology”, “Justification”, “Remedy” and the total of the semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results

suggest that CEL males and females apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CC males and females did. Besides, CEL males justified their utterance more than CC males did. Moreover, CEL males employed more semantic formulae than CC males did. On the other hand, CEU males apologized for the potential imposition, and justified their utterance more than CC males did. In addition, CEU males and females expressed their gratitude significantly more than CC males and females did. Also, CEU males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.7 Late arriving classmate

In complaining to a late arriving classmate, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed three semantic formulae frequently: “Remedy”, “Problem”, “Justification”, and “Criticism”.

CCs and CELs employed “Remedy” the most frequently, but CEUs employed it the second most frequently. The remedy in this situation was to come on time next time in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCF14.7以后你能不能准时和我约会啊，早点动手我们也能早点结束，对不对。今天我的兼职要迟到半小时了。yǐ hòu nǐ néng bù néng zhǔn shí hé wǒ yuē huì ā (Can you meet me on time in the future?)”, or “CEUM7.7 Please stay on time next time.”

In addition, CCs and CELs employed “Problem” the second most frequently, and CEUs used it the most frequently. Usually they mentioned bad consequence of being kept waiting, directly asserted that the hearer had committed the offence, or asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CCF4.7约好的时间你却没有准时到，这样我后面的安排就都得往后推，这样会耽误很多事的，下次别这样

了 yuē hǎo de shí jiān nǐ què méi yǒu zhǔn shí dào (You didn't come at the appointed time.)”, “CCF7.7 让你迟到，弄得我的计划都乱了，以后能不能守时点 ràng nǐ chí dào nòng dé wǒ de jì huà dōu luàn le (Your late arriving disrupts my plan.)”, “CEUM8.7 It's too late to do this discussion today.” Or “CCM2.7 你怎么老是迟到。你怎么搞的。还要不要做作业了。我等会还有事。耽搁了，要找你负责。 nǐ zěn me lǎo shì chí dào 。 nǐ zěn me gǎo de 。 hái yào bú yào zuò zuò yè le 。 (Why are you always late? What happened to you? (Do you) Still want to do homework?)”

Moreover, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Justification” the third most frequently. Usually, they referred to their part-time job to justify their utterance, e.g. “CCM26.7 请准时，我还要忙别的事情。不能因为等你耽误了其他事情。 wǒ huán yào máng bié de shì qing bù néng yīn wèi děng nǐ dān wu le qí tā shì qing (I have other business to do, and can't delay other things because of waiting for you.)”. However, CCs justified their utterance with social norms of being punctual, e.g. “CCM18.7 做人最起码要守时，你这样简直害人精。 zuò rén zuì qǐ mǎ yào shǒu shí í (A person should be punctual at least.)”, “CCF1.7 希望你以后准时，守时是做人的基本礼貌呢 shǒu shí shì zuò rén de jī běn lǐ mào ne (Punctuality is the basic good manners of a person.)”, or “CCF13.7 守时是最主要的品质之一。 shǒu shí shì zuì zhǔ yào de pǐn zhì zhī yī (Punctuality is one of the primary merits.)”.

Moreover, CCs, CELs and CEUs criticized the hearer the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CELM1.7 In fact, I am always working for evening part-time job. As your good friend, I want to say that you should come here in time.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Justification”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Threat”, “Apology”,

and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs justified their utterances more than CCs did. Moreover, unlike CCs, CEUs did threaten the hearer and apologized for the potential imposition. CEUs also employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Justification” and the total of semantic formulae, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Threat”, “Justification”, “Remedy”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL males justified their utterance more than CC males did. Besides, CEL males and females employed more semantic formulae than CC males and females did. On the contrary, different from CC females, CEU females threatened the hearer, e.g. “CEUF14.7 Why are you late every time? You know, this wastes too much time. So, I think maybe you can done this by yourself”. Moreover, CEU males justified their utterance more than CC males did. Furthermore, CC females sought remedy significantly more than CC males did, and CEU females and CEU males repeated the same pattern. In addition, CEU males and females employed more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.8 Late arriving friend

In complaining to a late arriving friend, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem” and “Remedy” frequently. In addition, CEUs also used “Address term” frequently.

CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem” the most frequently. Usually they mentioned the bad consequence of being kept waiting, asserted directly that the hearer had arrived late, or asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CCF20.8我以你不打算来了，我等了二十分钟。 wǒ děng le èr shí fēn zhōng (I’ve been waiting

for 20 minutes.)”, “CELF6.8 You (are) always be late. I have to wait you for a long time.”, “CCM5.8你总是迟到, 下次请准时可以吗? nǐ zǒng shì chí dào (You are always late.)”, “CCF22.8是不是时间表比别人慢啊, 我每次都要等你。wǒ měi cì dōu yào děng nǐ (I have to wait for you every time.)” or “CCM2.7 你怎么老是迟到。你怎么搞的。还要不要做作业了。我等会还有事。耽搁了, 要找你负责。nǐ zě n me lǎo shì chí dào (Why are you always late?)”

Furthermore, CCs, CELs and CEUs frequently asked the hearer to come on time in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCM4.8下次能不能早点啊。老让我等也不是个事。xià cì néng bù néng zǎo diǎn ā (Can you come earlier next time?)”, “CELF21.8 Would you please arrive here early next time?”, “CELF7.8 Please keep time next date, OK?”, “CCM7.8唉。老毛病又犯了吧。不要每次都迟到。bú yào měi cì dōu chí dào (Don't arrive late every time.)”, or “CCF10.8下次守时一点吧。xià cì shǒu shí yì diǎn bā (Be on time next time.)”

In addition, CEUs also employed “Address term” the third most frequently, e.g. “CEUF27.7 Dear friend, I'm very happy you can come to the meeting. I also know you may have your own business. But we eager to hope you can come earlier to have a happy time with us.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results reveal significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Threat” and “Valuation”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Problem”, “Warning”, “Address term”, “Apology” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs threatened the hearer more than CCs did. Unlike CCs, CEUs did not express negative feelings. On the other hand, CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, and addressed the hearer significantly more than CCs did.

Different from CCs, CEUs apologized for the potential imposition. Besides, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results show significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Threat”, and among CC and CEU males and females in semantic formulae “Problem”, “Address term”, “Apology”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL males threatened the hearer significantly more than CC males did, e.g. “CELM11.8 You little bastard, you are late again.” On the other hand, CEU males and females explicitly mentioned the offence, and addressed the hearer significantly more than CC males and females did. Unlike CC males, CEL males apologized for the potential imposition. In addition, CEU males and females employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.9 Lost lecture notes

In complaining to a classmate who lost the speaker’s lecture notes, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem”, and “Justification” frequently. In addition, CCs and CEUs employed “Criticism” frequently, and CELs and CEUs employed “Remedy” frequently.

CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem” the most frequently. Usually they mentioned the bad consequence of losing lecture notes, asserted directly that the hearer had arrived late, or asked the hearer to explain the offence, e.g. “CCM5.9 你太不小心了。害得我没得复习了。 hài dé wǒ méi dé fù xí le ((You) made me unable to review.)”, or “CEUM9.9 You just cannot take care of my notes”.

In addition, CCs and CEUs employed “Justification” the second most frequently, and CELs used it the third most frequently. Usually they justified their

utterance by referring to the necessity of lecture notes, e.g. “CCF18.9笔记对我来说很重要的，你怎能给我弄丢呢。bǐ jì duì wǒ lái shuō hěn zhòng yào de (The lecture notes are very important for me.)”, “CCM24.9 你应该小心保管好的。因为这是我努力的心血。yīn wèi zhè shì wǒ nǚ lì de xīn xuè (Because they’re the results of my efforts.)”, “CELM29.9 I have not prepared for the exam”. or “CCF8.9我还没有复习好呢？你怎么这么不小心呢？把我的笔记弄掉了。wǒ huán méi yǒu fù xí hǎo ne (I haven’t finished reviewing yet)”.

CCs also criticized the hearer the third most frequently, and CEUs did so the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CCM5.9你太不小心了。害得我没得复习了。nǐ tài ài bù xiǎo xīn le (You are too careless.)”, “CCF7.9你也太不靠谱了，不想再借东西给你了nǐ yě tài bú kào pǔ le (You are too unreliable.)”, “CCM15.9向别人借的东西应该保存好。xiàng bié ren jiè de dōng xī yīng gāi bǎo cún hǎo ((You) Should keep things borrowed from others well.)”, “CCF11.9为什么这么大意呢？笔记本是我全部的心血啊。wèi shén me zhè me dà yì ne (Why (are you) so careless?)”, or “CEUM7.9 How can you be so careless? I am sure that I will not pass the exam.”

Moreover, CCs also warned the hearer the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CCM2.9不是坑人吗？你赶快想办法。我要是考不好，你要负责。bú shì kēng rén ma ? nǐ gǎn kuài xiǎng bàn fǎ 。 wǒ yào shì kǎo bú hǎo , nǐ yào fù zé (Are you playing a trick? You figure out the way out. If I did poor in the exam, you should be responsible for it.)”. However, CELs and CEUs did not warn the hearer frequently.

Furthermore, CELs sought “Remedy” the second most frequently, e.g. “CELM29.9 I have not prepared for the exam, please find them again”, and CEUs did

so the third most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to find the lecture notes, or borrow one from others.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Warning” and “Threat”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Problem”, “Warning”, “Context” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs warned the hearer significantly less than CCs did. Instead, they threatened the hearer. On the other hand, CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CCs did. Nevertheless, CEUs did not warn the hearer, even though CCs did so. In addition, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Warning”, “Threat” and the total of semantic formulae, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Problem”, “Warning”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The result suggests that CEL females warned the hearer significantly less than CC females did, but they threatened the hearer significantly more than CC females did. In addition, CEL males employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males did, while CEL females employed fewer semantic formulae than CC females did. On the other hand, CEU males explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than CC males did. Unlike CC males and females, CEU males and females did not warn the hearer at all. Furthermore, CEU males and females employed more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

7.2.1.10 Broken mobile phone

In complaining to the owner of a mobile phone shop, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed two semantic formulae very frequently: “Problem” and “Remedy”. They

employed “Problem” the most frequently. Usually they explicitly mentioned that the mobile broke down, asserted that the mobile phone was poor in quality, or asked the hearer to explain why the mobile phone often broke down, e.g. “CCF8.10老板这手机真心不好，质量有问题，不然怎么会这么频繁的坏呢？zhè shǒu jī zhēn xīn bú hǎo , zhì liàng yǒu wèn tí , bú rán zěn me huì zhè me pín fán de huài ne (The mobile phone is really not good. There must be some quality problem; otherwise, how could it break down so frequently?)”, “CCF15.10这手机质量太差了，一直坏，你们要负责重新换个新手机才行。zhè shǒu jī zhì liàng tài chà le , yī zhí huài (The quality of the mobile phone is too poor. It keeps breaking down.)”, “CEUM15.10 The boss, this mobile phone quality is bad”, “CCM3.10怎么搞的。怎么越修越坏。zěn me yuè xiū yuè huài (Why the more it gets fixed, the more it breaks down?)”, or “CELM8.10 How could a new phone breaks so frequently”.

In addition, CCs, CELs and CEUs used “Remedy” the second most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to fix the mobile phone, change a new one or refund the mobile phone in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCM13.10退货tùi huò (Return the goods (for a refund).)”, or “CELM11.10 Give me a new one.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Problem”, “Address term”, and the total of semantic formulae, and between CCs and CEUs in “Apology” (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than CCs did. Besides, even though CCs addressed the hearer, CCs did not do so. As a result, CELs employed significantly fewer semantic formulae than CCs did. On the contrary, different from CCs, CEUs apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Problem” and “Address term”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Problem”, “Warning”, and “Apology” (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL females explicitly mentioned the problem less than CC females did. Unlike CC females, CEL females did not address the hearer at all. On the contrary, CEU males explicitly mentioned the offence, and warned the hearer significantly more than CC males did. Different from CC males, CEU males did apologize for the potential imposition on the hearer.

7.2.1.11 Cutting in line

When complaining to a stranger who cut in line, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed different semantic formulae frequently. CCs, CELs and CEUs used “Remedy” the most frequently. They usually asked the hearer to queue up in a request or demand form, e.g. “CCF8.11 请不要插队，大家都在排队。 qǐng bú yào chā duì (Please don’t cut in line.)”, “CCF15.11 同学，你要重新排队好吗？我们都排了好长时间了，你不能这样没有素质。 nǐ yào chóng xīn pái duì (You need to queue up again.)”, or “CELM7.11 Please buy the ticket in order”.

Besides, CCs established the context for their utterance the second most frequently. They usually mentioned that others, including the speaker, were standing in line, e.g. “CCM14.11 同学，高素质的人都不插队的。 我辛辛苦苦等半天，你插队合适吗？ wǒ xīn xīn kǔ kǔ děng bàn tiān (I have been waiting for half a day.)”, or “CEUM11.11 I have been waiting here for more than an hour.”. However, CELs, and CEUs did not do so frequently.

Instead, they justified their utterance the second most frequently, which CCs also did the third most frequently. They usually mentioned the necessity of the ticket, e.g. “CELF5.11 Sorry, Mrs. I don’t mind you cutting in line in front of me. But the tickets are almost sold out. I need it for my trip. So, I’m sorry”.

In addition, CCs also explicitly mentioned the offence, or asked the hearer to explain the offence the third most frequently, and CEUs did so the fifth most frequently, e.g. “CCM28.11大家都比较急，你怎么能插队。 dà jiā dōu bǐ jiào jí nǐ zěn me néng chā duì (Everyone is in a hurry. Why could you cut in line?)”

Furthermore, CCs criticized the hearer the fourth most frequently, and CELs and CEUs did that the third most frequently, e.g. “CCM8.11你有没有一点公德心? nǐ yǒu méi yǒu yì diǎn gōng dé xīn (Do you have any sense of morality?)”, “CEUM10.11 You shouldn’t cut in line”, or “CEUF14.11 You should wait in line. We all wait for a long time. What you do now is really bad!”

Moreover, CCs addressed the hearer the fifth most frequently, and CELs and CEUs did so the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CCM9.11年轻人，请自觉排队。 nián qīng rén qǐng zì jué pái duì (Young man, please stand in queue without being asked to)”.

The Mann-Whitney U-Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Context”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Threat”, “Apology”, “Context”, “Justification”, and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs established the context for their utterance significantly less than CCs did. In addition, Unlike CCs, CEUs did not threaten the hearer at all. Instead, they apologized for the potential imposition and justified their utterance more than CCs did. As a result, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

，会影响到我们。 má fan nǐ bú zài zhè lǐ jiē diàn huà (Please you don't answer the phone here.)”

They also employed “Problem” the second most frequently. Usually they mentioned the bad consequence of annoying phone rings, and asserted directly that the hearer had disturbed others, e.g. “CCF25.12你能不能出去打电话呀？我都听不清演讲的人讲什么了。 wǒ dōu tīng bù qīng yǎn jiǎng de rén jiǎng shén me le (I can't hear what the speaker is talking about.)”, “CELM5.12 Your behavior will influence others”.

In addition, CCs and CEUs established the context for the utterance the third most frequently, e.g. “CCM6.12这里是公共场合。有电话请到外面去接好吗？请不要打扰别人的听讲。 zhè lǐ shì gōng gòng chǎng hé (This is public occasion.)”, “CCM24.12这里是会议室。请把手机调成静音，接打电话请到外面去。 zhè lǐ shì huì yì shì (This is a conference room.)”, or “CCF1.12现在研讨会，能不能会后接 xiàn zài yán tǎo huì (Now is a seminar.)” CEUs also apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer the third most frequently, e.g. “CEUM8.12 Excuse me, sir. Can you shut your phone down please? I can't hear the lecturer.”

Furthermore, CELs and CEUs also criticized the hearer the third and fourth most frequently respectively, e.g. “CEUM10.12 You shouldn't be talking here.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Criticism” and “Apology”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Problem”, “Criticism”, “Warning”, “Apology”, “Gratitude” and the total of semantic formulae (see Table 7.3). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs criticized the hearer significantly more than CCs did. Unlike CCs, CELs and CEUs apologized for the potential imposition of the utterance. In addition, CEUs explicitly mentioned the

offences significantly more than CCs did. Different from CCs, CEUs expressed their gratitude for the hearer's potential cooperation. Furthermore, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in "Problem", "Criticism", "Gratitude", and the total of semantic formulae, and among CC and CEU males and females in "Problem", "Criticism", "Apology", "Gratitude" and the total of semantic formulae (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5). The results suggest that CEL males explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than CC males did, while CEL females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than CC females did. Unlike CC females, CEL females criticized the hearer and showed gratitude for the hearer's potential cooperation. In addition, CEL males employed significantly more semantic formulae than CC males, but CEL females used significantly fewer semantic formulae than CC females did. On the other hand, CEU males explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than CC males did. CEU males and females criticized the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, and showed gratitude for the hearer's potential cooperation significantly more than CC males and females did. Besides, CEU males and females used significantly more semantic formulae than CC males and females did.

After examining the similarities and differences between CCs and CELs, and between CCs and CEUs in semantic formulae in 12 situations, the following section will elaborate on the IFMDs employed by CCs, CELs, and CEUs in 12 situations.

7.2.2 Comparison of IFMDs of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

IFMDs, which are subdivided into seven downgraders and six upgraders, and upgraders, are analyzed based on the coding scheme adapted from DeCapua (1989, pp. 182-184) (see Table 3.4 for detail). The following section compares IFMDs frequently used by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations. Table 7.6 presents the distribution of IFMDs of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations, Table 7.7 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by CEL males and females from Chinese to English in IFMDs in 12 situations, and Table 7.8 shows the absence of pragmatic transfer made by CEU males and females from Chinese to English in IFMDs in 12 situations.

Table 7.6 IFMDs of complaining employed by CCs, CELs and CEUs in 12 situations

IFMDs	S1			S2			S3			S4		
	CC	CEL	CEU	TT	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU
Politeness marker	8	16	16	4	5	1	0	4* [@]	0	1	5	2
Play-down	3	2	4	0	3	2	3	3	4	0	5*	1
Consultative device	6	1	3	0	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	1
Hedge	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Downtoner	2	6	6	0	5*	1	0	4*	4*	0	4*	1
Minus committer	4	7	6	0	9*	7*	0	5*	11*	0	5*	3
Agent avoider	23	15*	17	5	7 [@]	0*	6	5	4	15	12	6*
Total (Downgrader)	46	47	52	9	30*[@]	13	12	21	23	18	33[@]	14
Scope setter	5	5	17* [@]	2	10*	20* [@]	3	1	6	2	2	5
Overstater	1	3	1	0	1	1	1	3	6	0	3	2
Intensifier	6	4	4	2	3	4	7	7	12	3	6	10*
Plus committer	6	5	13 [@]	3	3	6	4	11*	13*	7	9	13
Lexical intensifier	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	2	1	0	1	1
Aggressive interrogative	8	1	10 [@]	6	9	20* [@]	3	10*	9	14	4*	4*
Total (Upgrader)	26	19	45*[@]	13	27*	53*[@]	18	34*	47*	26	25	35
IFMDs	S5			S6			S7			S8		
	CC	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU
Politeness marker	9	17	14	20	23	17	6	10	8	7	8	8
Play-down	3	2	5	2	1	6	0	1	5*	0	1	3
Consultative device	11	5	1*	7	3	2	2	4	1	2	6	4
Hedge	9	1*	1*	24	2*	1*	3	2	1	5	1	1
Downtoner	1	4	4	0	3	5*	0	3	3	0	4*	3
Minus committer	3	12*	13*	2	3	10* [@]	3	10*	13*	7	7	12
Agent avoider	22	16	12*	17	18	12	27	9*	6*	16	8	12
Total (Downgrader)	58	57	50*	72	53*	53*	41	39	37	37	35	43*

Scope setter	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	2	7
Overstater	0	2	7*	0	4*	5*	8	4	8	12	11	20
Intensifier	5	7	15*	5	5	12	5	6	4	4	6	5
Plus committer	2	4	13*@	2	5	4	1	8*	9*	0	8*	9*
Lexical intensifier	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2	0
Aggressive interrogative	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	3
Total (Upgrader)	10	16	38@	8	15	21	16	20	24	20	29	44
IFMDs	S9			S10			S11			S12		
	CC	CE		CC	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU	CC	CEL	CEU
Politeness marker	0	4*	3	6	4	9	23	23	26	22	24	25
Play-down	1	6	7*	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
Consultative device	0	1	0	0	1	0	4	3	1	7	1*	4
Hedge	1	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	5	0*	2
Downtoner	0	1	5*	0	3	2	0	1	1	0	2	2
Minus committer	2	6	7	3	4	13*@	1	3	6	1	6	5
Agent avoider	9	6	6	17	8*	10	36	29	34	28	29	26
Total (Downgrader)	13	24	29*	26	22	34	66	60	69	64	63	65
Scope setter	7	2	9@	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Overstater	0	4*	1	10	5	20*@	0	1	1	0	1	0
Intensifier	1	4	15*@	12	7	8	10	4	3*	1	1	2
Plus committer	3	3	10*@	4	2	3	3	2	9@	1	1	5
Lexical intensifier	0	3	1	2	1	3	2	1	0	2	1	1
Aggressive interrogative	5	2	13*@	11	2*	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total (Upgrader)	16	18	49*@	39	18*	38@	15	9	14	4	4	8

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference between CCs and CELs and between CCs and CEUs, with $p < .05$;

@=Significant difference between CELs and CEUs, with $p < .05$;

S1=Situation 1 Negligent worker;

S2= Situation 2 Faded suit;

S3= Situation 3 Undelivered paper;

S4= Situation 4 Forgetful classmate;

S5= Situation 5 Noisy roommate;

S6= Situation 6 Noisy neighbor;

S7= Situation 7 Late arriving classmate;

S8= Situation 8 Late arriving friend;

S9= Situation 9 Lost lecture notes;

S10= Situation 10 Broken mobile phone;

S11= Situation 11 Cutting in line;

S12= Situation 12 Annoying phone rings

Table 7.7 Significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	IFMDs	CC		CEL		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Faded suit	Minus committer	0	0	3	6	.008*
	Downgrader	2	7	12	18	.007*
Undelivered paper	Minus committer	0	0	4	1	.031*
	Plus committer	1	3	3	8	.044*
Forgetful classmate	Play-down	0	0	1	4	.031*
	Aggressive interrogative	9	5	3	1	.028*
Noisy roommate	Minus committer	0	3	5	7	.044*
Noisy neighbour	Hedge	12	12	2	0	.000*
	Plus committer	1	1	0	5	.031*
Late arriving classmate	Downtoner	0	0	0	3	.027*
	Agent avoider	13	14	5	4	.005*
Late arriving friend	Plus committer	0	0	2	6	.005*
Lost lecture notes	Aggressive interrogative	5	0	0	2	.018*
	Downgrader	2	11	13	11	.046*
	Upgrader	10	6	7	11	.006*
Broken mobile phone	Agent avoider	12	5	2	6	.014*
Cutting in line	Intensifier	2	8	2	2	.034*
	Upgrader	4	11	4	5	.038*
Annoying phone rings	Minus committer	0	1	5	1	.031*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among CC and CEL males and females, with $p < .05$



Table 7.8 Significant differences among CC and CEU males and females in IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations

Situation	IFMDs	CC		CEU		Sig.
		M	F	M	F	
Negligent worker	Scope setter	3	2	6	11	.013*
	Plus committer	1	5	9	4	.044*
	Aggressive interrogative	3	5	9	1	.028*
	Upgrader	9	17	25	20	.046*
Faded suit	Agent avoider	1	4	0	0	.031*
	Scope setter	0	2	12	8	.000*
	Aggressive interrogative	5	1	11	9	.009*
	Upgrader	5	8	29	24	.000*
Undelivered paper	Minus committer	0	0	7	4	.003*
	Scope setter	0	3	0	6	.008*
	Upgrader	8	10	19	28	.001*
Forgetful classmate	Aggressive interrogative	9	5	2	2	.036*
Noisy roommate	Consultative device	5	6	1	0	.023*
	Minus committer	0	3	4	9	.007*
	Intensifier	1	4	6	9	.044*
	Plus committer	0	2	6	7	.019*
	Upgrader	1	9	18	20	.000*
Noisy neighbour	Hedge	12	12	1	0	.000*
	Minus committer	1	1	2	8	.006*
	Agent avoider	13	4	3	9	.009*
	Downgrader	39	33	20	33	.028*
	Upgrader	3	5	13	8	.017*
Late arriving classmate	Play-down	0	0	4	1	.031*
	Minus committer	0	3	7	6	.035*
	Agent avoider	13	14	4	2	.000*
Late arriving friend	Plus committer	0	0	4	5	.020*
	Aggressive interrogative	0	0	3	0	.027*
	Upgrader	7	13	20	24	.010*
Lost lecture notes	Intensifier	1	0	7	8	.003*
	Plus committer	1	2	8	2	.015*
	Aggressive interrogative	5	0	5	8	.036*
	Downgrader	2	11	14	15	.018*
	Upgrader	10	6	28	21	.004*
Cutting in line	Intensifier	2	8	2	1	.015*

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among CC and CEU males and females, with $p < .05$

7.2.2.1 Negligent worker

In this situation, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently, e.g. “CCF9.1昨天已预定过，今天来拿怎么没有呢？请立刻给我装订五份，并帮我送到答辩委。qǐng lì kè gěi wǒ zhuāng dìng wǔ fèn (Please bind

me five copies immediately.)”. Besides, they also employed “Agent avoider” the second most frequently, which refers to avoiding mentioning the hearer. For example, “CCF11.1 怎么能把这么重要的事情忘记呢。快点给我装订吧。zěn me néng bǎ zhè me zhòng yào shì qing wàng jì ne (How can (you) forget such an important matter?)”, or “CELF7.1 Please hurry up!” In addition, CEUs also employed “Scope setter” frequently, e.g. “CEUM15.1 Oh, my god! It is terrible; I have to deliver all five copies later.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Agent avoider”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Scope setter” and upgraders (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs avoided the agent of the offence or remedy less than CCs did, while CEUs exclaimed more than CCs did. In addition, CEUs used more upgraders than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal no significant difference among CC and CEL males and females, but significant differences among CC and CEUs in “Scope setter” and “Aggressive interrogative” (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The result suggests that CEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in all the IFMDs, but CEU females exclaimed significantly more than CC females did. Besides, CEU males used “Plus committer”, e.g. “CEUM1.1 I told you that I need it before 12:00 noon but you completely ignore my request, and it is my thesis which will deliver to my evaluation committee, and it just left one hour.”, and “Aggressive interrogative”, e.g. “CEUM4.1 What happened”, significantly more than CC males did. In addition, CEU males employed more upgraders more than CC males did.

7.2.2.2 Faded suit

In this situation, CCs did not use IFMDs frequently, while CELs and CEUs employed “Scope setter” the most frequently, e.g. “CELF2.2 Oh, my god! You just ruin favorite suit!”. Besides, they also used “Aggressive interrogative” the second most frequently, e.g. “CELM11.2 What happened to my clothes, oh, my expensive beautiful clothes.”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Downtoner”, “Minus committer”, downgraders, “Scope setter” and upgraders, and between CCs and CEUs in “Minus committer”, “Agent avoider”, “Scope setter”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that, unlike CCs, CELs used “Downtoner” and “Minus committer”. As a result, CELs used more downgraders than CCs did. In addition, CELs employed “Scope setter” more than CCs did. Thus, CELs employed more upgrader than CCs did. On the contrary, unlike CCs, CEUs did use “Minus committer”, but they did not use “Agent avoider”. Moreover, CEUs employed “Scope setter” and “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than CCs did. As a result, CEUs used significantly more IFMDs than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Minus committer”, downgraders, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Agent avoider”, “Scope setter”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that, unlike CC males and females, CEL males and females did use “Minus committer”. Besides, CEL males and females used more downgraders than CC males and females did. On the contrary, unlike CC males and females, CEU males and females did not use “Agent avoider”. Moreover,

CEU males and females employed “scope setter” and “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than CC males and females did. Furthermore, CEU males and females employed significantly more upgraders than CC males and females did.

7.2.2.3 Undelivered paper

In this situation, CCs did not use any downgraders or upgraders frequently, but CELs and CEUs employed “Plus committer” frequently, e.g. “CEUM2.3 Oh, my friend, you play a trick for me. Are you sure that you have submitted my paper before the deadline?” In addition, CEUs also employed “Intensifier” the second most frequently, e.g. “CEUM15.3 My friend, I am very disappointed. If you can't (couldn't) do this matter, I will (would have done it) by myself.” and “Minus committer” the third most frequently, e.g. “CEUF27.3 Dear friend, I have the matter (a problem): I failed the course. To be honest, I finished the course better, I don't know why instructor cage me in. Oh, god, do you forget to submit the paper to the instructor?”. Besides, CEUs also used “Aggressive interrogative” the fourth most frequently, e.g. “CEUM19.1 Are you kidding me? It's very important to me! Oh, my god, can you do it immediately? I'm catching time; there is only an hour left!”, which CELs used the second most frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Politeness marker”, “Downtoner”, “Minus committer”, “Plus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders, and between CCs and CEUs in “Downtoner”, “Minus committer”, “Plus committer” and upgraders (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that, unlike CCs, CELs did use “Politeness marker”, “Downtoner” and “Minus committer”. Moreover, CELs used “Plus committer” and “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than CCs did. Furthermore, CELs used significantly more upgraders than CCs did. On the other hand, unlike CCs, CEUs did use

“Downtoner” and “Minus committer”. Moreover, CEUs used “Plus committer” significantly more than CCs did. Besides, CEUs employed significantly more semantic formulae than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Minus committer” and “Plus committer”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Minus committer” “Scope setter” and upgraders (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that unlike CC males, CEL males used “Minus committer”. Besides, CLE females used “Plus committer” significantly more than CC females did. On the contrary, unlike CC males and females, CEU males and females employed “Minus committer”. Different from CC females, CEU females employed “Scope setter”. Besides, CEU males and females used significantly more upgraders than CC males and females did.

7.2.2.4 Forgetful classmate

In this situation, CCs and CELs frequently avoided mentioning the hearer in their utterance, e.g. “CCM7.4你在干什么？答应我的事，怎么没有完成。 dā ying wǒ de shì zěn me méi yǒu wán chéng ((You) promised me, but why (you) haven't completed?)”, and CEUs employed “Plus committer” the most frequently, e.g. “CEUM2.4 Can you give the reasons why you didn't show up at the appointed time? So, I have to prepare for the presentation at short time”, and “Intensifier” the second most frequently, e.g. “CEUM3.4 You know the situation is very urgent.” In addition, CCs also employed “Aggressive interrogative” frequently, e.g. “CCM4.4怎么办呢，你发生什么事了吗？ zěn me ne (What happened?)”, or “CCF7.4你去哪了，不是说好送电脑去维修的？打电话也不接 nǐ qù nǎ le (Where have you been?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Play-down”, “Downtoner”, “Minus committer” and “Aggressive interrogative”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Agent avoider”, “Intensifier”, and “Aggressive interrogative” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that, unlike CCs, CELs employed “Play-down”, “Downtoner”, and “Minus committer”. In addition, CELs employed “Aggressive interrogative” significantly less than CCs did. On the contrary, CEUs employed “Agent avoider” and “Aggressive interrogative” significantly less than CCs did, but they employed “Intensifier” significantly more than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Play-down” and “Aggressive interrogative”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Aggressive interrogative” (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that, unlike CC males, CEL males employed “Play-down”, e.g. “CELF4.4 Well, I am very angry at you. You promised, and you fail it. I think I need some times to forgive, and you must explain why”. Besides, CEL and CEU males used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly less than CC males did.

7.2.2.5 Noisy roommate

In this situation, CCs employed “Agent avoider” the most frequently, which CELs used the second most frequently and CEUs used the third most frequently, e.g. “CCF5.5 jīn tiān qù nǎ lǐ wán le (Where did (you) play around today?)”. In addition, CCs also employed “Consultative device” the second most frequently, e.g. “CCM5.5 今天去哪里玩了？最近很high嘛，回来这么晚。我睡觉很浅，你晚回来的时候尽量小点声好吗？ qǐng nǐ yǐ hòu gǎi gǎi hǎo mǎ (Please you improve (it), all right)”, and “Hedge” the third most frequently, e.g. “CCM22.5和你商量件事。你每天很晚回来，肯定很忙。不过你回来后能不能声音小一点。声音太大，根本无法睡。

bú guò nǐ huí lai hòu néng bù néng shēng yīn xiǎo yì diǎn (But can you keep quieter a little bit after you come back?)”

Besides, CELs employed “Politeness marker” the most frequently and CEUs employed it the second most frequently, e.g. “CEUM5.5 Hey, what’s up? Please do not make any noise if you will come home very late”. Moreover, CEUs employed “Minus committer” the most frequently, e.g. “CEUM12.5 Hi, I have something to tell you. You come home very late every day and make a lot of noise. I cannot fall asleep because of you. I really hope that you can consider my feelings!”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Hedge”, and “Minus committer”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Consultative device”, “Hedge”, “Minus committer”, “Agent avoider”, downgraders, “Overstater”, “Intensifier”, and “Plus committer” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs employed “Hedge” significantly less than CCs did, but they employed “Minus committer” significantly more than CCs did. In addition, CEUs employed “Consultative device”, “Agent avoider”, and downgraders significantly less than CCs did. However, they employed “Overstater”, “Intensifier”, and “Plus committer” significantly more than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also indicate significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Minus committer”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Consultative device”, “Minus committer”, “Intensifier”, “Plus committer” and upgraders (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that CEL males and females employed “Minus committer” significantly more than CC males and females did. However, CEU males and females used “Consultative devices” significantly less than CC males and females did. In addition, CEU males and females

used “Minus committer”, “Intensifier”, “Plus committer” and upgraders significantly more than CC males and females did.

7.2.2.6 Noisy neighbor

In this situation, CCs used “Hedge” the most frequently, e.g. “CCM12.6明天我有急事需要休息麻烦小声点。 má fan xiǎo shēng diǎn (Please be quieter a bit.)”. However, CELs and CEUs seldom used it. In addition, CCs also employed “politeness markers” the second most frequently, and CELs and CEUs also employed it the most frequently, e.g. “CCM25.6你好请问你可以把电视声音放小一点吗？我明天要参加一个重要的考试。电视声音太大我睡不着。 qǐng wèn nǐ kě yǐ bǎ diàn shì shēng yīn fàng xiǎo yì diǎn mǎ (Would you please turn down TV a little bit?”, or “CELM26.6 Please turn down your TV noise”. Moreover, CCs employed “Agent avoider” the third most frequently, which CELs and CEUs also used the second most frequently, e.g. “CCM11.6我明天有考试。 关电视睡觉吧。 guān diàn shì shuì jiào bā ((You) turn off TV and sleep, all right?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Hedge”, downgrader, and “Overstater”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Hedge”, “Downtoner”, “Minus committer”, downgraders, and “Overstater” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs used “Hedge”, downgraders, and “Overstater” significantly less than CCs did. In addition, CEUs used “Downtoner”, and “Minus committer” significantly more than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Hedge” and “Plus committer”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Hedge”, “Minus committer”, “Agent avoider”, downgraders and

upgraders (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that CEL and CEU males and females used “Hedge” significantly less than CC males and females did. Besides, CEL females employed “Plus committer” significantly more than CC females did. Moreover, CEU females used “Minus committer” significantly more than CC females did, e.g. “CEUF11.6 Please turn down the TV. I couldn't sleep because of the noisy TV and I have a(n) exam tomorrow. I hope you can understand me.” Furthermore, CEU males used “Agent avoider” significantly less than CC males did, but CEU females used “Agent avoider” significantly more than CC females did. Generally speaking, CEU males used downgraders significantly less than CC males did, but they used upgraders significantly more than CC males did.

7.2.2.7 Late arriving classmate

In this situation, CCs avoided mentioning the agent of SUA the most frequently, e.g. “CCM4. 7能不能不迟到。每次都如此。 neng bu neng bu chi dao (Can (you) not be late?)”, “CCM20.7为什么总是迟到，明天就要交作业了。 wei shen me zong shi chi dao (Why (do you) always arrive late?)”. CELs and CEUs employed “Minus committer” frequently, e.g. “CELM9.7 I hope you can be on time next time, and I would be late for my part-time job because of you”, or “CEUM6.7 I think you should come here early”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Minus committer”, “Agent avoider”, and “Plus committer”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Play-down”, “Minus committer”, “Agent avoider”, and “Plus committer” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs and CEUs employed “Minus committer”, and “Plus committer” significantly more than CCs did, but they employed “Agent avoider” significantly less than CCs did. In addition, unlike CCs, CEUs used “Play-down”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Downtoner” and “Agent avoider”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Play-down”, “Minus committer”, and “Agent avoider” (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that, unlike CC females, CEL females used “Downtoner”. Besides, CEL males and females employed “Agent avoider” significantly less than CC males and females did. Moreover, CEU males employed “Play-down” significantly more than CC males did, e.g. “CEUM16.7 I'm happy to do this with you. But my time is not enough. I can't wait you every time. I hope we should understand each other. You should give me a reason”. In addition, different from CC males, CEU males employed “Minus committer”. Besides, CEU males and females employed “Agent avoider” significantly less than CC males and females did.

7.2.2.8 Late arriving friend

In this situation, CCs employed “Agent avoider” the most frequently, which CEUs employed the second most frequently, e.g. “CEUM2.8 My dear friend, I have slept for a long time when you arrive. Please don't be late for long time the next time.” CCs also employed “Overstater” the second most frequently, which CELs and CEUs employed the most frequently, e.g. “CEUM1.8 You late again and again”. In addition, CEUs also employed “Minus committer” the second most frequently.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Downtoner”, and “Plus committer”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Downgrader”, and “Plus committer” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that, Unlike CCs, CELs employed “Downtoner” and “Plus committer”. In addition, CELs also used downgraders significantly more than CCs did. Different from CCs, CEUs also employed “Plus committer”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Plus committer”, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Plus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that, unlike CC females, CEL females and CEU males and females employed “Plus committer”. Different from CC males, CEU males employed “Aggressive interrogative”. In addition, CEU males and females employed upgraders significantly more than CC males and females did.

7.2.2.9 Lost lecture notes

In this situation, neither CCs nor CELs employed any IFMDs very frequently. But CEUs employed “Intensifier” the most frequently, “Aggressive interrogative” the second most frequently, and “Plus committer” the third most frequently. For example, “CEUM5.9 Are you kidding with me?{Aggressive interrogative} I'm very {Intensifier} angry”, and “CEUM7.9 How can you be so {Intensifier} careless? I am sure that{Plus committer} I will not pass the exam”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Politeness marker” and “Overstater”, and between CCs and CEUs in “Play-down”, “Downtoner”, downgraders, “Intensifier”, “Plus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that, unlike CCs, CELs employed “Politeness marker” and “Overstater”. On the other hand, CEUs used “Play-down”, downgraders, “Intensifier”, “Plus committer” “Aggressive interrogative” and upgrader significantly more than CCs did. Unlike CCs, CEUs used “Downtoner”.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in “Aggressive interrogative”, downgraders and upgraders,

and among CC and CEU males and females in “Intensifier”, “Plus committer”, “Aggressive interrogative”, downgraders and upgraders (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that CEL males used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly less than CC males did. Generally speaking, CEL males used significantly more downgraders than CC males did. However, CEL females used significantly more upgraders than CC females did. On the other hand, CEU males and females used “Intensifier” more than CC males and females did. In addition, CEU males used “Plus committer” more than CC males did, and CEU females used “Aggressive interrogative” significantly more than CC females did. Overall, CEU males and females used significantly more downgraders and upgraders than CC males and females did.

7.2.2.10 Broken mobile phone

In this situation, CCs used “Agent avoider” the most frequently, e.g. “CCF10.10 卖给我的手机是不是次品啊？ mài gěi wǒ de shǒu jī shì bu shì cì pǐn ā (Did (you) sell me a faulty mobile phone?)”. They also used “Intensifier” the second most frequently, e.g. “CCM5.10 你卖得手机质量太差了我要退货。 nǐ mài dé shǒu jī zhì liàng tài chà le (The mobile phone you sold is too poor in quality”, and “Aggressive interrogative” the third most frequently, e.g. “CCM3.10 怎么搞的。 怎么越修越坏。 zěn me gǎo de? zěn me yuè xiū yuè huài (What happened? How come the more it gets fixed, the more it breaks down?)”. Lower intermediate CEs did not employ any IFMDs frequently. Upper intermediate CEs employed “Overstater” the most frequently, e.g. “CEUM1.10 The mobile phone is a rubbish. It breaks down again and again and I can't bear it any more”, and “Minus committer” the second most frequently, e.g. “CEUM14.10 The mobile phone has broken down again! It cost me a lot of money. I don't hope it cost me a lot of time to repair over and over again!”

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Agent avoider”, “Aggressive interrogative”, and upgraders, and between CCs and CEUs in “Minus committer” and “Overstater” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs used “Agent avoider”, “Aggressive interrogative” and upgraders significantly less than CCs did. On the other hand, CEUs used “Minus committer”, and “Overstater” more than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate a significant difference among CC and CEL males and females in “Agent avoider”, but no significant difference among CC and CEU males and females in any IFMD (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that CEL males employed “Agent avoider” significantly less than CC males did. On the other hand, CEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer in all the IFMDs.

7.2.2.11 Cutting in line

In this situation, CCs, CELs and CEUs avoided mentioning the hearer the most frequently, e.g. “CCM7. 11别插队。bié chā duì ((You) Don't cut in line.)”. In addition, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Politeness marker” the second most frequently, e.g. “CCM30.11请排队好不好。我有急事等一个多小时了。 qǐng pái duì hǎo bu hǎo (Please queue up, all right?)”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show no significant difference between CCs and CELs in any IFMD, but a significant difference between CCs and CEUs in “Intensifier” (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in all the IFMDs, but CEUs used “Intensifier” significantly less than CCs did.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results reveal significant difference among CC and CEL males and females in “Intensifier” and upgraders, and among CC and CEU males and females in “Intensifier” (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that CEU females used “Intensifier” and upgraders significantly less than CC females did. In addition, CEU females used “Intensifier” significantly less than CC females did.

7.2.2.12 Annoying phone rings

In this situation, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Agent avoider” the most frequently, e.g. “CCM1.12 可以出去接吗？ kě yǐ chū qù jiē ma (Can (you) go outside to answer the phone?)”, and “Politeness marker” the second most frequently, e.g. “CCM3.12 请出去接电话。 qǐng chū qù jiē diàn huà (Please go outside to answer the phone.)” or “CEUM3.12 Hey, please answer the phone outdoor and this will not disturb other students”.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show significant differences between CCs and CELs in “Consultative device”, and “Hedge”, but no significant difference between CCs and CEUs in any IFMD (see Table 7.6). The results suggest that CELs used “Consultative device” and “Hedge” significantly less than CCs did. On the other hand, CEUs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in all the IFMDs.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results indicate a significant difference among CC and CEL males and females in “Minus committer”, but no significant difference among CC and CEU males and females in any IFMDs (see Tables 7.7 and 7.8). The results suggest that, unlike CC males, CEL males employed “Minus committer”. On the contrary, CEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in all the IFMDs.

After examining the pragmatic transfer made by CELs and CEUs from Chinese to English in terms of semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations, the present study will report the severity of offence in 12 situations perceived by CCs, CELs and CEUs.

7.3 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by CCs and CE

Table 7.9 presents severity of offence in 12 scenarios perceived by CCs, CELs, and CEUs, Table 7.10 reports significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in their perception of severity of offence in 12 situations, and Table 7.11 shows significant differences among CC and CEU males and females in their perception of severity of offence in 12 situations.

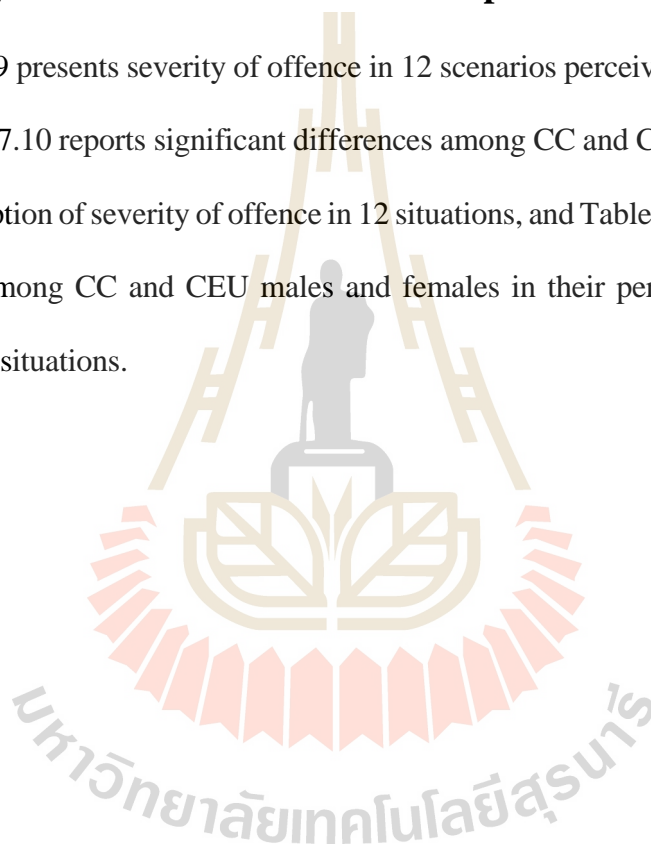


Table 7.9 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by CCs, CELs and CEUs

Situation	CC	CEL	Sig.	CC	CEU	Sig.	CEL	CEU	Sig.
	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	N.S.	\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)		\bar{X} (S.D.)	\bar{X} (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	2.95 (0.95)	2.98 (0.81)	N.S.	2.95 (0.95)	2.77 (1.06)	N.S.	2.98 (0.81)	2.77 (1.06)	N.S.
Faded suit	3.15 (1.06)	2.80 (0.92)	N.S.	3.15 (1.06)	2.90 (1.02)	N.S.	2.80 (0.92)	2.90 (1.02)	N.S.
Undelivered paper	3.50 (1.03)	3.40 (1.11)	N.S.	3.50 (1.03)	3.68 (0.97)	N.S.	3.40 (1.11)	3.68 (0.97)	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	2.87 (1.11)	2.72 (1.11)	N.S.	2.87 (1.11)	2.82 (0.98)	N.S.	2.72 (1.11)	2.82 (0.98)	N.S.
Noisy roommate	2.62 (0.89)	2.70 (1.06)	N.S.	2.62 (0.89)	2.52 (0.93)	N.S.	2.70 (1.06)	2.52 (0.93)	N.S.
Noisy neighbour	2.87 (1.03)	3.00 (1.09)	N.S.	2.87 (1.03)	2.92 (0.89)	N.S.	3.00 (1.09)	2.92 (0.89)	N.S.
Late arriving classmate	2.57 (0.93)	2.82 (0.93)	.020*	2.57 (0.93)	2.85 (0.90)	N.S.	2.82 (0.93)	2.85 (0.90)	N.S.
Late arriving friend	2.47 (1.02)	2.45 (0.93)	N.S.	2.47 (1.02)	2.27 (0.95)	N.S.	2.45 (0.93)	2.27 (0.95)	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	3.10 (1.07)	3.08 (1.11)	N.S.	3.10 (1.07)	3.25 (1.10)	N.S.	3.08 (1.11)	3.25 (1.10)	N.S.
Broken mobile phone	3.52 (0.89)	3.15 (1.06)	N.S.	3.52 (0.89)	2.97 (1.13)	.005*	3.15 (1.06)	2.97 (1.13)	N.S.
Cutting in line	3.13 (1.16)	2.97 (1.06)	N.S.	3.13 (1.16)	2.72 (0.92)	N.S.	2.97 (1.06)	2.72 (0.92)	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	3.07 (1.02)	2.95 (1.02)	N.S.	3.07 (1.02)	2.53 (0.87)	.039*	2.95 (1.02)	2.53 (0.87)	N.S.

Notes: N=60;

*=Significant difference among CCs, CELs and CEUs, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=Not significant difference among CCs, CELs and CEUs;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

Table 7.10 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by CC and CEL males and females

Situation \ Perception	CC		CEL		Sig.
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	X (S.D.)	X (S.D.)	X (S.D.)	X (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	3.27 (1.05)	2.63 (0.72)	2.87 (0.82)	3.10 (0.80)	.036*
Faded suit	3.47 (1.01)	2.83 (1.02)	2.80 (1.06)	2.80 (0.76)	N.S.
Undelivered paper	3.80 (0.89)	3.20 (1.10)	3.30 (1.21)	3.50 (1.01)	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	3.07 (1.14)	2.67 (1.06)	2.80 (1.27)	2.63 (0.93)	N.S.
Noisy roommate	2.80 (1.06)	2.43 (0.63)	2.60 (1.19)	2.80 (0.93)	N.S.
Noisy neighbour	3.13 (1.07)	2.60 (0.93)	2.93 (1.23)	3.07 (0.94)	N.S.
Late arriving classmate	2.63 (1.03)	2.50 (0.82)	2.87 (1.07)	2.77 (0.77)	N.S.
Late arriving friend	2.50 (1.17)	2.43 (0.86)	2.67 (0.96)	2.23 (0.86)	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	3.17 (1.09)	3.03 (1.07)	2.97 (1.22)	3.20 (1.00)	N.S.
Broken mobile phone	3.70 (1.02)	3.33 (0.71)	3.27 (1.11)	3.03 (1.00)	N.S.
Cutting in line	3.37 (1.35)	2.90 (0.89)	3.17 (0.99)	2.77 (1.10)	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	3.30 (1.09)	2.83 (0.91)	3.00 (1.05)	2.90 (1.00)	.039*

Notes: N=30;

*=Significant difference among CC and CEL males and females, with $p < .05$;

N.S.=Not significant difference among CC and CEL males and females;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

Table 7.11 Severity of the offence in 12 situations perceived by CC and CEU males and females

Situation \ Perception	CC		CEU		Sig.
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	X (S.D.)	X (S.D.)	X (S.D.)	X (S.D.)	
Negligent worker	3.27 (1.05)	2.63 (0.72)	2.67 (0.92)	2.87 (1.20)	N.S.
Faded suit	3.47 (1.01)	2.83 (1.02)	2.90 (1.00)	2.90 (1.06)	.038*
Undelivered paper	3.80 (0.89)	3.20 (1.10)	3.80 (0.89)	3.57 (1.04)	N.S.
Forgetful classmate	3.07 (1.14)	2.67 (1.06)	2.87 (0.90)	2.77 (1.07)	N.S.
Noisy roommate	2.80 (1.06)	2.43 (0.63)	2.53 (0.90)	2.50 (0.97)	N.S.
Noisy neighbour	3.13 (1.07)	2.60 (0.93)	2.87 (0.78)	2.97 (1.00)	N.S.
Late arriving classmate	2.63 (1.03)	2.50 (0.82)	3.07 (0.87)	2.63 (0.89)	N.S.
Late arriving friend	2.50 (1.17)	2.43 (0.86)	2.20 (0.93)	2.33 (0.99)	N.S.
Lost lecture notes	3.17 (1.09)	3.03 (1.07)	3.00 (1.02)	3.50 (1.14)	N.S.
Broken mobile phone	3.70 (1.02)	3.33 (0.71)	2.97 (1.33)	2.97 (0.93)	.012*
Cutting in line	3.37 (1.35)	2.90 (0.89)	2.67 (0.92)	2.77 (0.94)	N.S.
Annoying phone rings	3.30 (1.09)	2.83 (0.91)	2.60 (0.93)	2.47 (0.82)	.015*

Notes: N=30;

N.S.=Not significant difference among CC and CEU males and females;

*=Significant difference among CC and CEU males and females, with $p < .05$;

0.00-0.99 not serious at all;

1.00-1.99 a little serious;

2.00-2.99 serious;

3.00-3.99 very serious;

4.00-4.99 extremely serious

The Mann-Whitney U Test results show a significant difference between CCs and CELs in their perception of offence in Situation 7 Late arriving classmate, and between CCs and CEUs in their perception of offence in Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, and Situations 12 Annoying phone rings, but no significant difference between CELs and CEUs in their perception of offence in any situation (see Table 7.9). The results suggest that CELs perceived a classmate's late arriving as more serious than CCs did; CEUs perceived a broken mobile phone, and annoying phone rings in a similar way as less serious than CCs did; and CELs and CEUs perceived the offence in 12 situations in a similar way.

The Kruskal Wallis H Test results also reveal significant differences among CC and CEL males and females in their perception of offence in Situation 1 Negligent worker and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings, and among CC and CEU males and females in their perception of severity of offence in Situation 2 Faded suit, Situation 10 Broken mobile phone and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings (see Tables 7.10 and 7.11). The results suggest that while CC males perceived the offence in Situation 1 Negligent worker as significantly more serious than CC females did, CEL males perceived a negligent worker as significantly less serious than CEL females did. On the other hand, CC males perceived a faded suit and a broken mobile phone as significantly more serious than CC females did, but CEU males did not differ from CEU females in their perception of the severity of the offences in Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. Besides, CEU males and female perceived the annoying phone rings as significantly less serious than CC males and females did. These seem to suggest that Chinese upper intermediate learners of English perceived the offence as less serious than native Chinese speakers did.

The interview data show that the speaker's gender and English proficiency, and social distance and relative power between the interlocutor determined their perception of severity of offence in the situation, thus, their complaining realization patterns. Therefore, the following section discusses the effects of these factors on the realization patterns of complaining.

7.4 Discussion

From the perspectives of severity of offence, the speaker's gender and English proficiency, social distance, and relative power between the interlocutors, this section will elaborate on the similarities and differences among CCs, CELs and CEUs in semantic formulae and IFMDs.

7.4.1 Speaker's gender

Significant differences were found among CC and CEL males and females and among CC and CEU males and females in semantic formulae and IFMDs (see Table 7.2). The findings differ from Li et al.'s (2006) conclusion that gender did not influence the directness of complaining.

In terms of semantic formulae, CEL males and females made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in five semantic formulae and downgraders. In other words, generally speaking, CC and CEU females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than their male counterparts did. However, CEL females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than CC females did. In addition, although CC males threatened the hearer more than CC females did, CEL males and females did not differ in threatening the hearer. Both CC and CEL females apologized for the potential imposition, established the context for the utterance and justified for the utterance significantly more than CC

and CEL males did. Nevertheless, CEL males and females apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CC males and females did; CC females established the context significantly more than CEL females did; and CEL males justified their utterance significantly more than CC males did, though CEL females made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in justification for the utterance. Moreover, CC males expressed their negative feeling toward the offence significantly more than CC females did, but CEL females expressed their negative feelings more than CEL males did. Furthermore, while CC males and females did not differ in showing gratitude to the hearer, CEL females showed their gratitude significantly more than CEL males did. Besides, CEL males and females employed significantly more upgraders than CC males and female did.

On the other hand, CEU males and females made the pragmatic transfer in five semantic formulae and downgraders. In other words, though CC females explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than CC males, CEU males and females did not differ in explicitly mentioning the offence. However, CEU males and females mentioned the offence significantly more than CC males did. In addition, CC males and females did not differ in addressing the hearer, but CEU males addressed the hearer significantly more than CEU females did, e.g. “CEUM2.3 Oh, my friend, you play a trick for me. Are you sure that you have submitted my paper before the deadline? Never mind, I have explained for my course instructor.” Moreover, while CC males apologized for the potential imposition significantly less than CC females, CEU males apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CEU females did. In addition, CC and CEU females justified their utterance and asked for remedy significantly more than their male counterparts did, but CEU males justified their utterance significantly more than CC

males did, and CEU females sought the remedy significantly more than CC females did. Furthermore, CEU males and females showed their gratitude significantly more than CC males and females did. Also, although CC females used significantly more upgraders than CC males did, CEU males used significantly more upgraders than CEU females did.

To sum up, females seemed more direct in complaining in terms of semantic formulae, while males seemed more direct in complaining in using upgraders.

7.4.2 Speaker's English proficiency

In terms of the speaker's English proficiency, CELs made more pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English than CEUs did. In other words, significant differences were found more between CCs and CEUs than between CCs and CELs in semantic formulae and IFMDs.

In terms of the total of semantic formulae, CELs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English, but CEUs did not. In addition, CEUs employed more semantic formulae than CELs did. This has been referred to as the waffle-phenomenon (Edmondson and House, 1991, cited in Kraft & Geluykens, 2002). Although Kraft and Geluykens (2002) claim that learners used more strategies to compensate for potential linguistic deficiency, the researcher adds that lower intermediate Chinese learners of English did not show better control of over linguistic strategies as upper intermediate Chinese learners of English did; instead, they are more influenced by their mother tongue in choice of linguistic strategies.

When it comes to specific semantic formulae, CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly more than CELs did (see Table 7.1). For example, CELs explicitly mentioned the offence significantly less than CEUs did in Situation 10. When interviewed, CELs replied, "Because of my poor English, I just want to get the mobile

phone fixed.” Besides, CELs kept silent about the offence more than CEUs did. Moreover, CEUs addressed the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CELs did.

In terms of IFMDs, CEUs did not differ from CELs in downgraders, but CEUs employed significantly more upgraders than CELs did. Among upgraders, CEUs mainly employed “Intensifier” to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “CEUM2.5 My dear roommate, what's wrong with you? I'm confused that you go home very late and make a lot of noise. Your unusual action make me worried”.

The differences between CELs and CEUs might be explained by acculturation, i.e. the process of assimilating new ideas into an existing cognitive structure. By learning English, CEUs assimilate the western low-context culture into their L1 high-context cognitive structure more than CELs did. Therefore, their language expresses their intention more explicitly than CELs’.

From above, it can be concluded that CEUs employed more semantic formulae and more upgraders than CELs did to exhibit their pragmatic competence. However, CELs made more pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English than CEUs did in complaining realization patterns. The findings conform to Gallaher’s (2011) observation that advanced learners showed better control over linguistic strategies to mitigate the offense than the intermediate learners did. Trosborg (1995) also discovered lower proficiency participants shower fewer positive pragmatic transfers than advanced learners of English in using complaining strategies. Although it is beyond the scope of the present study to argue whether the transfer from Chinese to English is negative or positive, the researcher holds that CEUs can make an informed choice in complaining better than CELs can.

7.4.3 Social distance

In the present study, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed more semantic formulae toward an acquaintance than toward an intimate.

For example, CCs, CELs and CEUs mainly explicitly mentioned the offence, sought remedy, and justified their utterance toward a noisy roommate in Situation 5 Noisy roommate. However, they addressed the hearer and apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, before they did the same toward a neighbor in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor. In addition, CEUs established the context for their utterance in both situations; CELs and CEUs also expressed their gratitude to the hearer for the potential cooperation in Situation 6 Noisy neighbor.

Moreover, in Situation 8 Late arriving friend CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Problem”, and “Remedy” toward a friend, but they added “Justification” when complaining to a classmate in Situation 8 Late arriving friend. The finding that CCs, CELs and CEUs employed more semantic formulae toward acquaintances than toward intimates corroborates Wolfson’s (1983) discovery that acquaintances need more solidarity-establishing speech behavior than intimates. However, CCs, CELs and CEUs did not employ less semantic formulae toward strangers in Situation 11 and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. The reasons behind may be that in Chinese culture, social distance between strangers demands more negotiation than that between intimates do.

In terms of IFMDs, CCs used downgraders with strangers in Situation 11 Cutting in line, and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings. Next, CCs used more downgraders with a neighbour in Situation 6 Noisy neighbour than with a roommate in Situation 5 Noisy roommate, but CELs and CEUs did not increase their downgraders when they changed their interlocutor from an intimate to a neighbour. Similarly, CCs used fewer upgraders

with strangers in Situation 11 Cutting in line and Situation 12 Annoying phone rings than with acquaintances in Situation 6 Noisy neighbour and Situation 7 Late arriving classmate. In addition, CELs and CEUs employed fewer upgraders toward a neighbour than toward a roommate. Likewise, CCs, CELs and CEUs used more upgraders toward a friend in Situation 8 Late arriving friend than they did toward a classmate in Situation 7 Late arriving classmate. The findings support Tamanaha's (2003) observation with the Japanese that they were generally more indirect toward out-group members (i.e. strangers) than toward in-group interlocutors (i.e. family, friends). In this sense, maybe Chinese culture is similar to Japanese culture in treating out-group members.

7.4.4 Relative power

CCs, CELs and CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence when the hearer was of lower relative power (see Table 7.3). In addition, they aggravated the pragmatic force of complaining by criticizing, warning or threatening the hearer. The examples can be found in Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone.

In terms of IFMDs, CCs, CELs and CEUs employ fewer downgraders and upgraders toward a stranger of a lower relative power when the loss was a suit in Situation 2 Faded suit, but more downgraders and upgraders when the loss was a mobile phone in Situation 10 Broken mobile phone. However, when the hearer was an acquaintance of lower relative power in Situation 1 Negligent worker, they employed more downgraders and fewer upgraders than with a stranger of lower relative power (see Table 7.6). The finding conforms to Nakhle, Naghavi, and Razavi's (2014) study that social power may cause differential use of complaining utterance.

In Situation 1 Negligent worker, Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone, CCs, CELs and CEUs employed “Aggressive interrogative” to aggravate the pragmatic force of complaining, e.g. “CCM11.1 你是在搞笑吗? nǐ shì zài gǎo xiào o mǎ (Are you joking?)”.

However, when the hearer became an acquaintance of lower relative power in Situation 1 Negligent worker, CCs, CELs and CEUs used more downgraders and fewer upgraders than toward a stranger of lower relative power. They used more “Politeness marker” and “Agent avoider” in Situation 1 Negligent worker than they did in Situation 2 Faded suit and Situation 10 Broken mobile phone.

Therefore, the results suggest that CCs, CELs and CEUs employed fewer downgraders or more upgraders of complaining toward strangers of lower relative power, but more downgraders toward acquaintances of lower relative power. This finding resembles Yuan’s (2009) conclusion that the contextual factors of social distance and relative power between the interlocutors influence the strategy choices made by the Chinese participants.

7.5 Summary

This chapter investigated the pragmatic transfer made by CELs and CEUs from Chinese to English in terms of the semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining in 12 situations and their perception of severity of the offence in the situations. The results indicate that the speaker’s gender, and language proficiency, social distance and relative power between interlocutors influenced CCs, CELs and CEUs in their semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

Chapter Eight summarizes the major findings from the present study, points out the pedagogical and practical implications and limitations of the present study and discusses the possible directions for further studies.

8.1 Major findings

Increasing *English as a lingua Franca* (ELF) intercultural communication between Thai and Chinese non-native English speakers and the widespread usage of complaining in daily life motivated the present study. It compared the complaining realization patterns of complaining by Thai and Chinese graduate students in their L1 and English.

The participants consisted of two groups of 60 native Thai and Chinese speaker speaking Thai and Chinese, and four groups of 60 lower and upper intermediate Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers speaking English. With each group, half were male and half were females. They were asked to respond to a 12-scenario DCT with multiple choices of perception of severity of offence and a follow-up interview.

The complaining samples elicited were coded into 12 semantic formulae based on Murphy and Neu's (1996), Tanck's (2002) and Gallaher's (2011) models, and illocutionary force modification devices (IFMDs) according to DeCapua's (1989) model. The coded data were analyzed in terms of frequency. The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed to find significant differences between TTs and CCs, and between TEs and

CEs in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining, and the Kruskal Wallis H Test was conducted to find out significant differences among TT and CC males and females, and among TE and CE males and females in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining. The similarities and differences between TTs and CCs, between TEs and CEs, among TT and CC males and females, and among TE and CE males and females were investigated.

8.1.1 Cross-cultural pragmatic study of complaining between TTs and CCs

TTs and CCs employed 12 semantic formulae of complaining and 13 IFMDs in complaining. Among them, TTs sought remedy for the offence, explicitly mentioned the problem, established the context for the utterance, and justified their utterance in a descending order, while CCs explicitly mentioned the offence, sought remedy for the offence, justified their utterance, established the context for the utterance and criticized the hearer in a descending order. In terms of the total of semantic formulae, downgraders and upgraders, TTs and CCs did not differ from each other in a significant way. However, they differed significantly from each other in four semantic formulae: Opt-out, Apology, Context, and Criticism. To be precise, TTs chose to remain silent about the offence, apologized for the potential imposition on the hearer, and established the context for the utterance significantly more than CCs did, while CCs criticized the hearer significantly more than TTs did. The results suggest that TTs found complaining more face threatening than CCs did, in that they chose not to complain at all more frequently than CCs did. When they had to, they apologized for the potential imposition and referred to the context for the utterance more than CCs did.

In addition, the significant differences were found between TT and CC males and females in six semantic formulae: problem statement, warning, opt-out, apology, context

and justification. In other words, females stated the offence more frequently than males did, and CC females stated the offence significantly more than TT females did. Besides, TT females warned the hearer significantly more than TT males did, but CC males and females did not differ significantly from each other in warning. In addition, TT males and females chose not to mention the offence and apologized for the potential imposition significantly more than CC counterparts did. However, CC males mentioned the context significantly less than CC females, and TT males and females did. Moreover, CC females justified their utterance significantly more than CC males, TT females and TT males did.

8.1.2 Intercultural pragmatic study of complaining between TEs and CEs

TEs and CEs resembled each other in eight semantic formulae and downgraders and upgraders, but they differed from each other in four semantic formulae: Opt-out, Criticism, Address term, and Gratitude. In other words, TEs chose to remain silent about the offence significantly more than CEs did. On the other hand, CEs criticized the hearer significantly more than TEs did. However, they also mitigated the illocutionary force of complaining by addressing the hearer and showing appreciation for the hearer's potential cooperation. In terms of IFMDs, no significant differences were found between TEs and CEs.

Besides, TE and CE males and females also complained in a quite similar way. Nevertheless, TE males and females chose to remain silent significantly more than CE males and females did. The difference may come more from cultural differences rather than gender differences. In addition, TE and CE females mentioned the context and justified their utterance significantly more than TE and CE males did. However, TE females expressed their gratitude for the hearer's potential cooperation significantly less than TE males and CE males and females did. In other words, Thai females were the last

group to say “Thank you” to an offender. In addition, no significant differences were found among TE and CE males and females in IFMDs.

8.1.3 Pragmatic transfer made by TELs and TEUs from Thai to English in complaining

TELs made the pragmatic transfer in semantic formulae of complaining more than TEUs did. In other words, TELs differed from TTs only in two semantic formulae and upgraders. They warned the hearer significantly less than TTs did. However, they threatened the hearer significantly more than TTs did. Moreover, TELs used more upgraders to aggravate the illocutionary force of complaining. On the contrary, TEUs differed from TTs in six semantic formulae and upgraders. To be exact, TEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, and justified for the utterance significantly more than TTs did, but they warned the hearer and chose not to mention the offence significantly less than TTs did. Besides, TEUs used significantly more upgraders than TTs did.

Besides, TEL males and females made more pragmatic transfer in complaining than TEU males and females did. TELs resembled TTs in nine semantic formulae and downgraders, while TEUs copied TTs in six semantic formulae and downgraders. In other words, TEL males and females warned the hearer and established the context for the utterance significantly less frequently than TT males and females did, but they threatened the hearer significantly more frequently than TT males and females did. In addition, TEL males and females employed more upgraders than TT males and females did. However, TEU males and females differed from TT males and females in six semantic formulae and upgraders. To be exact, TEU males and females mentioned the offence, apologized for the potential offence, justified for the utterance significantly more

than TT males and females did, but they warned the hearer, and chose not to mention the offence significantly less than TT males and females did. Moreover, TEU males and females employed more upgraders than TT males and females did. Furthermore, TEU males threatened the hearer significantly more than TT males and females did, but TEU females used upgraders in a similar way to TT females.

8.1.4 Pragmatic transfer made by CELs and CEUs from Chinese to English in complaining

CELs made the pragmatic transfer in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining more than CEUs did (see Table 7.1). To be exact, CELs threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, and expressed their gratitude for the potential cooperation significantly more than CCs did. In addition, TELs made the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in downgraders and upgraders. On the other hand, CEUs explicitly mentioned the offence, addressed the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, established the context, justified their utterance, and expressed their gratitude significantly more than CCs did. In addition, CEUs also used more upgraders than CCs did.

Moreover, CEL and CEU males and females did not make the pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English in five semantic formulae and upgraders (see Table 7.2). In other words, CEL males explicitly mentioned the offence more than CC males did, but CEL females did so less than CC females did. Besides, CEL males and females threatened the hearer, apologized for the potential imposition, showed their gratitude for the potential cooperation more than CC males and females did. In addition, CEL females established the context significantly less than CC females did. Also, CEL males expressed their negative feelings less than CC males did, but CEL females did so more than CC females

did. Moreover, CEL males justified their utterance significantly more than CC male did, and CEL males and females used more upgraders than TT males and females did.

Through interviews, the researcher found that perception data of severity of offence were usually determined by the speaker's gender and English proficiency, social distance and relative power between interlocutors, which in turn influenced TTs, CCs, TEs and CEs in their selection of semantic formulae and IFMDs.

8.2 Pedagogical implications

There were both similarities and differences between TTs and CCs, between TEs and CEs, between TTs and TELs/TEUs, and between CCs and CELs/CEUs in semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining. Also, the results of this study indicate that when Thai *ELF* speakers interact with Chinese *ELF* speakers, their realization patterns of complaining might be influenced by their gender, English proficiency, social distance and relative power between the interlocutors. The study, therefore, has important implications for the teaching and learning of English, especially in an *ELF* context concerning cross-cultural, intercultural, and interlanguage pragmatics.

First, although pragmatics is not conducted to force learners to act in accordance with the norms of another culture (Thomas, 1983), the findings on the similarities and differences between the native Thai speakers and native Chinese speakers in complaining in L1 should be included in the Thai or Chinese language classroom to help learners of Thai or Chinese to develop awareness and sensitivity for their own second/foreign language use. In this way, they can be aware of the appropriate realization patterns of complaining in Thai and in Chinese.

Second, the findings on the similarities and difference between Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers in their complaining should also be included in the English language classroom. With non-native speakers of English communicating in English as a lingua franca, the semantic formulae and IFMDs of complaining become more varied than before. The findings of the possible semantic formulae and IFMDs might facilitate the development of Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers' pragmatic competence of what is appropriate in each other's culture.

Third, the findings on the pragmatic transfer made by Thai lower and upper intermediate *ELF* speakers from L1 to English may inform Thai teachers of English of the possible stages of development of pragmatic competence of Thai learners of English. As a result, they can anticipate the possible linguistic routines used by learners at different stages, and take corresponding measures to adjust their teaching of complaining in English.

Fourth, the same holds true with Chinese lower and upper intermediate *ELF* speakers. Chinese teachers of English can also adjust their teaching of English according to the linguistic routines employed by learners of different English proficiencies.

Finally, differences in English complaining caused by gender and social distance and relative power between interlocutors should be discussed in the language classroom, so that learners can understand appropriateness in Thai and Chinese varieties of *ELF*.

8.3 Limitations of the present study

Despite the endeavor of the researcher, the present study still has limited generalizability inherent in qualitative inquiries.

First, the complaining samples were elicited via DCT, instead of an ethnographic observation. However, the face-threatening nature of complaining makes it impossible for the researcher to elicit a sufficiently large corpus of comparable complaining samples with ethnographic observation.

Second, the analysis was inevitably tainted with subjectivity in interpreting the complaining samples, although the researcher has made an effort to keep it to a minimum. For example, the researcher involved members of the relevant discourse community as inter-coders.

Third, the participants in the present study were selected based on convenience and purposive sampling. Therefore, the findings from the participants in the present study may not be generalized to all the Thais or the Chinese. Besides, the participants were asked to self-assess their spoken English proficiency. If they did not know themselves well enough, the findings on the differences between TELs and TEUs, or between CELs and CEUs, may not hold true.

Finally, the present study did not deal with the perception of the complaining samples by Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers. Therefore, it is not clear how the Thai and Chinese peoples perceive each other's complaining.

8.4 Suggestions for further studies

To enhance the understanding of the realization of complaining by non-native speakers of English, further research should investigate naturally occurring data.

Additionally, more inter-coders from different discursive community should be invited to code the data. In this way, the subjectivity of data coding can be further minimized.

Moreover, if conditions permit, participants should be recruited from different parts of Thailand and China. Moreover, they should be asked to complete a standardized proficiency test, like TOEFL, so that their proficiency levels will be more comparable.

Last, further studies should examine each other's perception of the English complaining samples produced by Thai and Chinese *ELF* speakers. Their feedback can help the Thai and Chinese peoples to adjust their realization patterns accordingly.

8.5 Summary

This chapter summarized the major findings from the present study, pointed out the pedagogical implication of the findings and limitations of the present study, and lastly, provided suggestions for further research.

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APPENDIX A

Discourse Completion Task Questionnaire (English Version)

The present study aims at investigating how native speakers of Thai and Chinese complain in different situations using English as a lingua franca. The results may shed lights on a better understanding of Thai and Chinese intercultural communication.

Part I Discourse completion tasks:

Please read aloud each scenario and write down your natural and spontaneous responses **in Thai** in these situations. In the situations, the hearer is of the same sex as you. Please react as naturally and spontaneously as you would do in real life.

Situation 1

Yesterday you placed an order at the photocopy shop on campus for 5 bound copies of your thesis. You are a regular customer of this shop. Today you must deliver all 5 copies to your evaluation committee by 12:00 noon. When you go to the photocopy shop at 11:00 a.m. to pick up your booklets, the clerk seems confused and unaware of your request. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 2

A laundry has opened recently and you sent several clothes to be dry-cleaned. When you go there to pick them up, you find that the colour in your favourite suit has faded. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 3

At the end of the term you have to go back home for some family issue. During your absence, you have no access to internet or telephone service to contact your course instructor, but you need to submit the paper version of your term paper. Therefore, you asked your close friend to submit it before the deadline and s/he agreed. But later you found that you failed the course for not submitting the term paper. When you meet her/ him, you complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 4

Your computer breaks down when you are preparing for tomorrow's seminar presentation. Your classmate promises to drive you to the computer shop. S/He knows it is very urgent. However, s/he doesn't show up at the appointed time. You try to ring her/him up but s/he does not answer the phone. In the end you have to go there by bus, which takes a long time and leaves you limited time to prepare for the presentation. When you see her/ him, you complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 5

You share a room with your friend. You have lived together for a month peacefully. But recently, s/he comes home very late almost every night and makes a lot of noise. For several days, you cannot fall asleep because of the noise. Tonight, when s/he makes noises again, you complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 6

Your neighbour greets you when you meet, but s/he often watches TV until around 2 a.m. on weekends. This week, however, s/he has been doing so every night. It is now ten minutes before 2 a.m., Wednesday night, and you can't sleep because of the noisy TV. Tomorrow you are going to take an exam, so you knock on her door. When s/he opens the door, you complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 7

Through the whole semester, you have been working together with a new classmate on a project for your statistics class. Each time, your classmate comes to the meeting late. Today, you have been waiting for him/ her for over 30 minutes. Finally, s/he is there. However, if you stay to finish the discussion, you will be late for your evening part-time job. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 8

You have been waiting at the cafe for your close friend, who is younger than you, for over 30 minutes. Every time you arrange to meet this friend, s/he is at least 20 to 30 minutes late. You are in the process of leaving when your friend arrives. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 9

Since an important exam is coming, your classmate borrowed your lecture notes to prepare for it. But later s/he told you that s/he cannot find them. You cannot borrow similar lecture notes from others, and you have not prepared for the exam yet. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 10

You bought a very expensive mobile phone, but it has broken down twice within two months. When the mobile phone breaks down again two weeks after last repair, you go back to the shop and complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

Situation 11

You need to buy a ticket to travel to another city over the weekend. You go to the ticket office at the bus station and you have to wait in a long line to get a ticket. You have been waiting there for more than an hour. The tickets are almost sold out. While you are standing in line, a man/ woman about your age, tries to cut in line in front of you. You complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious

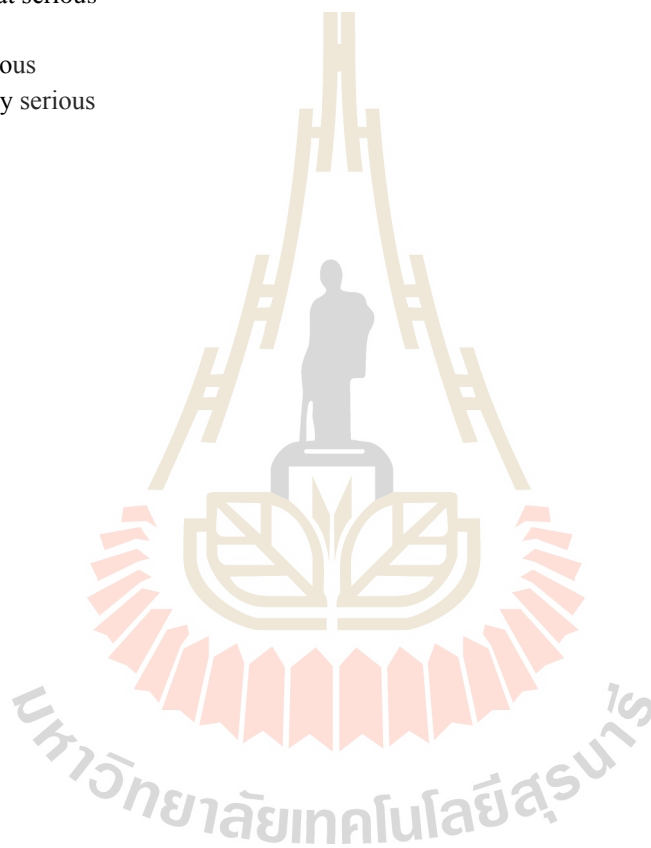
Situation 12

At a seminar, a woman's/ man's mobile phone keeps ringing and s/he talks loudly on the phone there. You cannot hear the lecturer clearly. When the phone rings again and the woman/ man is going to answer the phone, you complain by saying:

You: _____

How serious do you think the offence in this situation is?

- not serious at all
- somewhat serious
- serious
- very serious
- extremely serious



เมื่อคุณอยู่ในสถานการณ์ต่างๆ คุณจะโต้ตอบกับสถานการณ์ของคุณอย่างไร (Thai Version)

ส่วนที่ 1 แบบสอบถามชนิดเติมเต็มบทสนทนา:

กรุณาอ่านออกเสียงข้อมูลที่ให้ในแต่ละสถานการณ์และเขียนคำพูดโต้ตอบของคุณที่คิดได้ในทันที ในทุกสถานการณ์ผู้ฟังเป็นเพศเดียวกับคุณ กรุณาโต้ตอบเหมือนกับที่คุณจะกระทำในสถานการณ์จริง

สถานการณ์ที่ 1

เมื่อวานนี้คุณสั่งให้ร้านถ่ายเอกสารในมหาวิทยาลัยถ่ายเอกสารเข้าเล่มวิทยานิพนธ์ของคุณจำนวน 5 เล่ม คุณเป็นลูกค้าประจำของร้านนี้ วันนี้คุณต้องส่งเล่มวิทยานิพนธ์ทั้ง 5 เล่มให้คณะกรรมการประเมินภายในตอนเที่ยง เมื่อคุณไปถึงร้านถ่ายเอกสารเวลา 11 นาฬิกาเพื่อรับเล่ม พนักงานที่ร้านทำต่างๆ และไม่รู้เรื่องงานที่คุณสั่งไว้ คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มี ความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
 ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
 รุนแรง
 รุนแรงมาก
 รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 2

มีร้านซักรีดเพิ่งเปิดใหม่และคุณได้ส่งเสื้อผ้าหลายตัวไปซักแห้ง เมื่อคุณไปรับผ้าที่ร้าน คุณพบว่าสีชุดสูทตัวโปรดของคุณซีดลง คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มี ความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
 ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
 รุนแรง
 รุนแรงมาก
 รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 3

ในช่วงปลายภาคการศึกษาคุณต้องเดินทางไปต่างประเทศช่วง ช่วงที่คุณไม่อยู่คุณไม่สามารถใช้อินเทอร์เน็ตหรือบริการโทรศัพท์เพื่อติดต่ออาจารย์ผู้สอนได้ แต่คุณจำเป็นต้องส่งรายงานของรายวิชานั้น คุณจึงขอให้เพื่อนสนิทของคุณช่วยส่งรายงานให้ก่อนวันกำหนดส่งและเธอ/เขาก็ตกลงที่จะช่วยคุณ แต่ภายหลังคุณกลับพบว่าตัวเองไม่ผ่านรายวิชานี้เนื่องจากไม่ได้ส่งรายงาน เมื่อคุณพบเพื่อนของคุณ คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 4

คอมพิวเตอร์ของคุณเกิดเสียขึ้นมาขณะที่คุณกำลังเตรียมงานสำหรับการสัมมนาในวันรุ่งขึ้น เพื่อนสนิทของคุณสัญญาว่าจะพาคุณไปร้านคอมพิวเตอร์ เธอ/เขาเองก็รู้ว่าเป็นเรื่องที่เร่งด่วนมาก แต่กลับไม่มาตามเวลาที่นัดไว้ คุณพยายามโทรหาแต่เธอ/เขาไม่รับสาย หายที่สุดคุณต้องขึ้นรถโดยสารไปร้านคอมพิวเตอร์เองซึ่งใช้เวลานานและทำให้คุณเหลือเวลาในการเตรียมงานนำเสนอ น้อย เมื่อคุณพบกับเพื่อน คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 5

คุณพักอยู่ห้องเดียวกับเพื่อนร่วมชั้นเรียนคนใหม่ คุณอยู่ด้วยกันอย่างสุขสบายเป็นเวลาหนึ่งเดือน แต่เมื่อไม่นานมานี้เธอ/เขาเริ่มกลับห้องเดิมเกือบทุกคืนและยังทำเสียงดัง คุณนอนไม่หลับมาเป็นเวลาหลายวันเนื่องจากเสียงที่ดัง คืนนี้เมื่อเขาทำเสียงดัง คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 6

เพื่อนข้างห้องคนใหม่ของคุณมักจะชอบดูโทรทัศน์จนเกือบตีสองในช่วงวันหยุดสุดสัปดาห์ แต่อาทิตย์นี้เธอ/เขาดูโทรทัศน์แบบนี้ทุกคืน ตอนนี้อีกสัปดาห์ที่จะตีสองของคืนวันพุธ คุณนอนไม่หลับเพราะเสียงที่ดังของโทรทัศน์ และคุณมีสอบในวันพรุ่งนี้ ดังนั้นคุณจึงไปเคาะประตูห้องของเธอ/เขา เมื่อเธอ/เขาเปิดประตูออกมา คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ก่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 7

ตลอดภาคการศึกษาคุณต้องทำโครงการวิชาสถิติกับเพื่อนร่วมชั้นเรียนคนใหม่ แต่ครั้งเธอ/เขามักจะมาประชุมสาย วันนี้คุณรอเธอ/เขาเป็นเวลานานกว่า 30 นาที ในที่สุดเธอ/เขาก็มา แต่ถ้าคุณอยู่ประชุมจนเสร็จ คุณก็จะไปทำงานพิเศษคอนเสิร์ต คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ก่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 8

คุณรอเพื่อนสนิทของคุณที่ร้านกาแฟเป็นเวลานานกว่า 30 นาที ทุกครั้งที่คุณนัดพบเพื่อนคนนี้ เธอ/เขาจะต้องมาสายเป็นเวลานานอย่างน้อย 20-30 นาที คุณกำลังจะกลับในขณะที่เพื่อนคุณมาถึง คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 9

เนื่องจากใกล้ถึงการสอบที่สำคัญ เพื่อนร่วมชั้นเรียนของคุณได้ขโมยสมุดจดเล็กเชอร์ของคุณไปเพื่อเตรียมตัวสอบ แต่ภายหลังเธอ/เขากลับบอกคุณว่าหาสมุดไม่เจอ คุณไม่สามารถขโมยสมุดจากเพื่อนคนอื่นได้และคุณเองก็ยังไม่ได้เตรียมตัวสอบ คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 10

คุณได้ซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือในราคาที่แพงมาก แต่โทรศัพท์กลับเสียถึงสองครั้งภายในเวลาสองเดือน เมื่อโทรศัพท์เกิดเสียขึ้นมาอีกครั้งภายในเวลาสองอาทิตย์หลังจากการซ่อมครั้งสุดท้าย คุณกลับไปร้านและร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 11

คุณต้องซื้อตั๋วเพื่อเดินทางไปยังเมืองหนึ่งในช่วงวันหยุดยาว ที่สถานีขนส่งคุณไปที่ช่องขายตั๋วและคุณต้องเข้าแถวยาวเพื่อรอซื้อตั๋ว คุณรอมานเป็นเวลานานกว่าหนึ่งชั่วโมง ตั๋วถูกขายจนเกือบหมด ขณะที่คุณเข้าแถว อยู่ๆ ผู้หญิง/ผู้ชายอายุไล่เลี่ยกันกับคุณก็พยายามเข้ามาแทรกแถวข้างหน้าคุณ คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

สถานการณ์ที่ 12

ณ สถานที่สัมมนา โทรศัพท์มือถือของผู้หญิง/ผู้ชายคนหนึ่งมีสายเข้าตลอดเวลาและเธอ/เขาก็คุยโทรศัพท์เสียงดังในที่นั้น คุณได้ยินการบรรยายไม่ชัดเจน เมื่อมีสายเข้าอีกครั้งและผู้หญิง/ผู้ชายคนนั้นกำลังจะรับสาย คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าโดยพูดว่า:

คุณ: _____

คุณคิดว่าเรื่องที่คุณร้องเรียน/ต่อว่าในสถานการณ์นี้มีความรุนแรงในระดับใด?

- ไม่รุนแรงเลย
- ค่อนข้างรุนแรง
- รุนแรง
- รุนแรงมาก
- รุนแรงมากที่สุด

ส่วนที่ 2 ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล:

- 1) สัญชาติ ไทย จีน
- 2) เพศ ชาย หญิง
- 3) อายุ _____ ปี
- 4) การศึกษา นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาโท
 นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก
 อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ: _____
- 5) สาขาวิชา สังคมศาสตร์: _____ (เช่น ภาษาอังกฤษ)
 อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ: _____ (เช่น วิศวกรรมศาสตร์)
- 6) อีเมล: _____ เบอร์โทรศัพท์: _____
- 7) คุณเคยอาศัย/เรียน/ทำงานในต่างประเทศหรือไม่ ถ้าเคย ที่ไหนและเป็นระยะเวลากี่ปี
 เคย ที่ประเทศ _____ เป็นเวลา _____ ปี _____ เดือน
 ไม่เคย
- 8) คุณมี/เคยมีงานทำหรือไม่ ถ้ามี/เคยมี โปรดระบุงานของคุณและระยะเวลาที่คุณทำงานนั้น
 มี/เคยมี ฉันทำงานเป็น _____ เป็นเวลา _____ ปี _____ เดือน
 ไม่มี/ไม่เคยมี

ขอบคุณมากค่ะ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรนารี

Chinese Version

一、会话完形:

请阅读以下十二个场景, 请用中文如实写下你在此场景下会说的话。注意在这些场景中, 对话者的性别与你相同。

场景 1

昨天你在学校的复印店预订装订五本论文。你是这家店的老顾客。今天中午 12 点以前你必须递交五本论文给答辩委员会, 可是十一点钟你去取论文时, 复印店的职员却显得对你论文装订的事情一无所知, 你抱怨说:

你: _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 2

一家干洗店开张了, 你送几件衣服去干洗。结果你取衣服的时候发现你最喜欢的西装的颜色洗掉了。你抱怨说:

你: _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 3

学期末你需要回去处理一些家庭事务。在此期间, 你无法联系任课老师, 但是你需要上交纸质学期论文, 因此, 你请闺蜜/好哥们儿在截止日期前你上交学期论文, 她/他同意了。但是后来你发现由于没有交学期论文, 这门课你没有及格。当你见到她/他时, 你抱怨说:

你: _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 4

就在你准备明天研讨会的陈述时，电脑坏了。你的闺蜜/好哥们答应开车送你去维修点。她/他知道这事很紧急。但是在约定的时间她/他并没有出现，你给她/他打电话也没人接。你不得不坐公交车去维修店，这花了很长的时间，使你没有多少时间准备陈述。当你见到她/他时，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 5

你和校友合租一个房间。最近她/他几乎每晚都很晚回来，还发出很大的声响。你已经忍了好几天了，但是今晚她/他又发出很大的声响，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 6

你的新邻居经常周末看电视到凌晨两点。但是这个星期她/他每晚都这样。现在已经是周三凌晨两点差十分了，明天还要参加考试，因此你去敲门。当门打开后，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 7

这学期你和新同学一起做统计课的作业，明天就要交作业了。每次这位新同学都迟到。今天，你已经等她/他半个小时了。为了完成作业，你打工就会迟到了。最后，当她/他出现时，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 8

你已经在咖啡馆等你闺蜜/好哥们半个多小时了。每次你们见面，她/他总是最少迟到二三十分钟。正要离开时，她/他来了，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错:

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 9

要大考了，同学借了你的讲义笔记备考。但是之后她/他告诉你笔记丢了，你从别人那借不到类似的笔记，你还没有复习好，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错：

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 10

你买了一只很贵的手机，但是两个月内新手机坏了两次。手机修好两个星期后又坏了，这次你找到店家抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错：

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

场景 11

你需要买汽车票以便周末的时候去别的城市看你的朋友，你去了汽车站卖票处排队买票。已经等了一个多小时了，汽车票就快售完了。就在你排队的时候，一个和你差不多年龄的人想挤到你的前面，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错：

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重

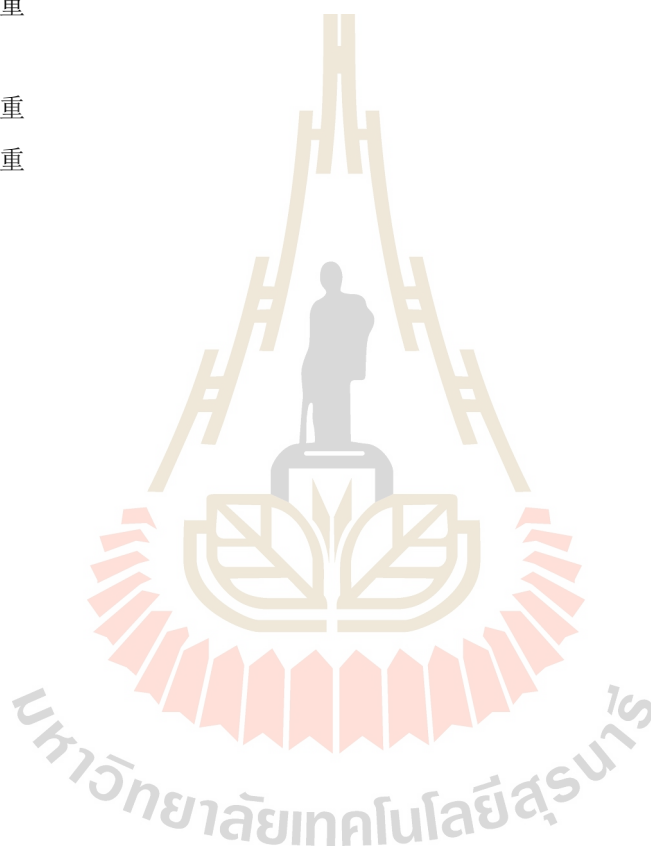
场景 12

研讨会上，一个人的手机不停地响起，然后她/他就原地大声地接电话。你都听不清演讲人说什么了。当电话再次响起，这人正打算接电话时，你抱怨说：

你： _____

你觉得该场景中对方的过错：

- 一点都不严重
- 有点严重
- 严重
- 非常严重
- 特别严重



二、个人信息:

- 1) 民族 汉族 壮族 满族 其它: _____
- 2) 性别 男 女
- 3) 年龄 _____岁
- 4) 教育 硕士研究生
 博士研究生
 其它: _____
- 5) 专业 社会科学: _____ (如英语)
 非社会科学: _____ (如机械工程)
- 6) 邮箱 _____ 电话号码 _____
- 7) 你是否在其它国家生活/ 学习/工作过? 如果有, 请说明哪个国家和居住时间。
 有过, 在 _____ 国家待了 _____ 年 _____ 月。
 没有。
- 8) 你工作过吗? / 现在有工作吗? 如果有, 请说明从事的职业和工作年限。
 有, 我做过 _____ 年(月)的 _____。
 没有。

非常感谢!

APPENDIX B

Self-Assessment of Spoken English Proficiency

Instructions: Read the following descriptions of the spoken English proficiency, and check (√) the one that you think most matches your level on the left column.

Description of your spoken English	Yours
<p>Level 1: Use of isolated words and phrases</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to communicate short messages on <u>highly predictable, everyday topics that affect you directly</u> (e.g. where you live, people you know, and things you have). 	
<p>Level 2: Use of sentence-level language</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to create with the language when talking about familiar topics related to your daily life; • Be able to recombine learned material in order to express personal meaning; • Be able to ask simple questions and can handle a straightforward survival situation. 	
<p>Level 3: Use of paragraphs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to engage in conversation in a clearly participatory manner in order to communicate information on <u>autobiographical topics</u> (i.e. topics relevant to one's own life), as well as topics of community, national, or international interest; • Be able to deal with a social situation with an unexpected <u>complication</u> (复杂性). 	
<p>Level 4: Use of extended <u>discourse</u> (论述) without unnaturally lengthy hesitation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to communicate with accuracy and fluency in order to participate fully and effectively in conversations on a variety of topics in formal and informal settings from both <u>concrete and abstract perspectives</u> (e.g. your interests and special fields of competence, social and political issues); • Be able to construct and develop <u>hypotheses</u> (假设) to explore alternative possibilities. 	
<p>Level 5: Use of highly sophisticated and tightly organized extended discourse as well as cultural and historical references</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to use language skilfully, and with accuracy, efficiency, and effectiveness; • Be able to reflect on a wide range of global issues and highly abstract concepts in a culturally appropriate manner; • Be able to use persuasive and hypothetical <u>discourse</u> (论述) for representational purposes, allowing you to advocate a point of view that is not necessarily your own; • Be able to tailor language to a variety of audiences by adapting your speech and <u>register</u> (语体) in ways that are culturally authentic. 	

Note: If you are not within the above five levels, please describe your spoken English proficiency in the blank space: _____.

APPENDIX C

Interview guide for the semi-structured interview

1) By uttering complaining, what purposes did you mainly want to achieve in situation 1?

- just express displeasure solve the problem maintain the relationship

2) What factors made you choose the directness level of complaining in situation 1?

- relationship relative power consequence of the situation

3) Would you express yourself differently in English (Thai or Chinese)? If yes, can you explain the reason?

- You cannot express yourself in English. The hearer is a foreigner.

- Others _____

APPENDIX D

Participant consent form

To the Participant,

The purpose of this study is to better understand the linguistic and cultural behavior of native speakers of Thai and Chinese in both their first language and English in communicative situations related to everyday life.

As a participant in the study, you will be asked to write down your natural and spontaneous responses in Thai to the twelve scenarios in the discourse completion task questionnaire. To complete the task, you may need 30 to 40 minutes. If you have any difficulty in understanding the meaning of the scenario, please don't hesitate to ask the researcher or your teacher.

Any personal information from you will be kept strictly confidential. Your participation in the study is voluntary, and you can withdraw from the project at any time. Your participation in the study will not affect your grades at your university.

If you have any questions regarding the research, please contact me at [096-418-7458](tel:096-418-7458) or lisayangli@163.com.

(Li Yang)

Researcher

Date _____

Participant's Authorization

I have read and I understand the consent form. I understand the purpose and the methods of the study, and I agree to participate voluntarily in this study. I understand that I may withdraw from the research at any time.

(_____)

Participant

Date _____

Chinese Version 参与同意书

亲爱的参与者：

本研究旨在更好地了解中泰两国人民在日常生活场景中使用本族语和英语的语言和文化行为。

作为本研究的参与者，您将被邀请用中文对会话完型中的十二个场景进行回应。完成这一任务可能需要您三十至四十分钟的时间。如果您对这十二个场景有任何疑问，请立刻咨询研究者或者您的任课老师。

研究者将会对您的任何个人信息严格保密。您自愿参与该研究，任何时候都可以退出该研究。您的参加与否绝不会影响您的学校成绩。

如果您对该研究有任何疑问，欢迎致电 13770522985 或者发邮件至 lisayangli@163.com。

(杨丽)

研究者

日期 _____

参与者授权书

本人已经阅读并且理解参阅同意书，本人自愿同意参加该研究。研究者杨丽已经详细介绍了该研究的目的和参与方法。本人了解任何时候都可以退出该研究。

_____)

参与者

日期 _____

CURRICULUM VITAE

Li Yang was born on October 9, 1978 in Jiangsu, China. She graduated from Nanjing Normal University, China, majoring in English in 2001. In 2005 she received a Master of Arts in Linguistics from Nanjing Normal University, China.

Upon graduation from Nanjing Normal University, Li Yang has been working as an English lecturer at Nanjing University of Post and Communication. In this position, she has been teaching, designing courses and researching. Her research interests include second language acquisition, English for specific purposes and cross-cultural pragmatics.

