

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Description

1. Pragmatics

Pragmatics, generally, can be defined as a study of how utterance has meanings in particular situations. A speaker, when delivering his or her message to the hearer, has some intended meanings. These intended meanings sometimes are not expressed directly, but implicitly for a certain purpose. As stated by Yule, pragmatics studies how people convey their intended meanings, assumptions, purposes or goal when they speak (1996: 4). Thus, pragmatics focused on what is not explicitly stated in the utterances and how people interpret those utterances based on situational contexts.

Yule (1996:3) also adds four definitions of pragmatics. Firstly, pragmatics is the study of speaker's utterances and the effort of the hearer to interpret those utterances. Secondly, pragmatics is "a study of a contextual meaning". This definition concerns the interpretation of the speaker's utterance each utterance related to a particular context and how the context influences what the speaker said. In this case, both of the speaker and the hearer have to be aware of the context that follows the speaker's utterance. Thirdly, pragmatics is a study that explores how the unsaid is recognized as a part of what is communicated. It explores how a hearer can make an assumption on the speaker's utterances in order to gain at a correct interpretation. The last, pragmatics is a study of the relationship between linguistic forms and the uses of those forms.

From those definitions, pragmatics is a study of how people use language in communication. It deals with the meaning which is communicated by a speaker or writer and is interpreted by the hearer or reader in relation to the context.

2. Parts of Pragmatics

This part discusses some relevant theories which are related to the pragmatics' study. In this discussion, four important parts of pragmatics are presented. Those are context, sentence, utterance, and speech event.

a. Context

Yule called this terminology as a “physical environment” and this part is the most important thing in analyzing the utterances, because the meaning of an utterance depends on the context that followed the utterance. Context also can help people understand or interpret the meaning of an utterance. If the context is ignored, misinterpretation of the meaning of the utterance may happen (1996:21).

In this research, the researcher also uses the theory of context by Holmes (1992). He explains that the way someone speaks is influenced by the situational context in which the conversation or speech take place. Holmes (1992: 12) then adds that the social factors and social dimensions influence the choice of the appropriate ways of speaking in a different social context. The explanation below explains the situational context further.

1) Situational Context

Context of situation or situational context is important in communication. According to Holmes (1992:12), social context involves four components. They are presented below:

- a) the participants : (*who* is speaking and who are they speaking to?),
- b) the setting or social context of the interaction: (*where* are they speaking?),
- c) the topic : (*what* is being talked about?), and
- d) the function: (*why* are they speaking?).

According to the above quotations, the first important thing in a situational context is a participant. Holmes (1992) says that in a certain social context there will be a certain social factor related to the “participant” who is involved in a certain conversation. It concerns the speaker who is talking to whom. The next component is called as the “setting”. This term deals with the place where the conversation takes place and in what kind of situation both speakers and hearers are involved in. The third component is the “topic”. It is about something that is talked about, without which the conversation cannot happen. The last factor is the “function”. It focuses on the reason why both speaker and the hearer decide to talk about a certain topic in certain settings.

c. Utterance

In reference to Crowther in his book *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (1995:203), “an utterance is something that someone says”. The function of it is to express ideas or feeling in spoken words. Supporting the definition above, Carter and McCarthy (2006) explain that an utterance is a communicative unit which contains some linguistics terms. Those terms are words, clauses, phrases, and clause combinations related to the context. Crystal (1991: 405) says that an utterance does not have a definite linguistic definition. An utterance can be seen clearly in a dialogue, and each statement that is said by a

speaker is called as an utterance. Besides, phonetically an utterance can be defined as a unit of speech bounded by silence.

d. Sentence

Crowther (1995) defines a sentence as a group of words that has a meaning in order to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, complaint, command or suggestion. In a written form, it usually starts with a capital letter. A sentence is an expression which, minimally, contains a subject and a predicate. A sentence may also contain other types of elements, complements and adjuncts. The examples of sentences are presented below.

- (1) The King laughed.
 S P
- (2) My brother bought an expensive car.
 S P O
- (3) John wrote a letter.
 S P O
- (4) He went home.
 S P O

(Varga, 2010: 56)

e. Speech Event

Yule (1996: 56) defines a speech event as an activity of a participant who communicates through language, in some conventional ways, to obtain at some outcome. A speech event can also be defined as the basic unit of analysis in a spoken interaction. He then also adds that requesting is one type of speech event and there are two ways in performing an indirect request. They are content condition and preparatory condition. These two terminologies have the same functions as a request, but in different forms. In this case, speech events are needed to interpret them correctly. One may simply utter a single speech act in a single utterance, and one may utter some utterances without performing a single

speech act clearly, but it allows the hearer to react as, if the request had been made. For examples, when a speaker is performing an indirect request, she or he is asking the hearer to do something by performing only a single speech act in a single utterance such as “will you do X? or Can you do X ?”, X here means actions or something that the hearer has to do.

2. Speech Act

a. The Definition of Speech Act

In simple words, a speech act is a compound word between speech and act. It is used by people to express their action via speech or utterances. Yule (1996:47) defines speech acts as “actions performed via utterances” which can be classified into apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise, or request. When a speaker utters something, he or she then expects that the hearer will be affected by his or her utterances. For example, when a speaker utters a complaint to the hearer, he or she does not only expect that the utterance is heard by the complaine, but more importantly, he or she also wants the complaine to fix the mistake based on the complaint.

There are many types and classifications of speech acts. The researcher uses speech acts classifications based on Austin and Searle’s theories of speech acts. The following explanations present the theories of speech acts and the classifications.

b. Speech Act Classifications by Austin

According to Austin in Trosborg (1995), in every utterance, a speaker performs an act such as stating a fact or an opinion, confirming or denying something, asking a question, issuing an order and so forth. Then, he made one important distinction concerning the three kinds of actions associated with the utterances. Those are explained below.

1) Locutionary Acts

A locutionary act is the simple act of saying something and meaning the things that people say. According to Yule's theory (1996: 48), the locutionary act is the basic act of an utterance in producing a meaningful linguistic expression. For example, in the utterance "I've just made some coffee", the locutionary act of this utterance is that the speaker has just made some coffee.

2) Illocutionary Acts

An illocutionary act can also be called as an implied level. It is an act of doing something. Yule (1996: 48) writes that "the illocutionary act is performed via the communicative face of an utterance" and it is an intended meaning of a speaker. For example, in the utterance "I've just made some coffee", it is an imperative statement that a speaker might utter it to make a request or an order to someone else.

3) Perlocutionary Acts

According to Yule (1996: 48), a perlocutionary act is the effect of an utterance. It deals with the effect on the hearer by means of uttering the sentences. The example of a perlocutionary act can be seen clearly in the

utterance “I’ve just made some coffee”, which has the effect on the hearer. This utterance means that the speaker wants the hearer to drink the coffee that he or she has made.

c. Speech Act Classifications by Searle (1979)

Searle in Trosborg (1995: 14) states that there are five types of general functions performed by speech acts. They are declaratives, representatives, expressive, directives, and commissives. Those are explained further below.

1) Declaratives

In this type of speech acts, a speaker wants to change the world via his or her utterance. In order to perform declarations correctly, the speaker has to have a special institutional role in a specific context that can be used to express it. The example of this speech act is presented below.

Jury Foreman: We find the defendant guilty.

(Yule, 1996: 53)

The above utterance is a declaration speech act which is uttered by a jury foreman. He declares that the accused is guilty.

2) Representatives

The purpose of a speaker in performing representatives is to commit him or herself to the belief that the propositional content of the utterance is true. Statements of fact, assertions, conclusions, and descriptions, are the examples of this type of speech acts. In using representatives, the speaker makes the words fit the world. The application of the type can be seen in the following example.

- (a) The earth is flat.
- (b) Chomsky did not write about peanuts.

(Yule,1996: 53)

These two examples above are facts that are believed by people in the world. It is true that the earth is flat and Chomsky did not write about peanuts.

3) Expressives

Expressives are speech acts that state what the speaker feels. It can be caused by something the speaker does or the hearer does. They express psychological states and can be statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy or sorrow. A complaint, the main topic of the research, is a kind of expressive speech act. The complainers express their feelings (disapproval, unsatisfied, anger, etc) through this speech act classification. The examples of this speech act can be seen below.

- (a) I'm really sorry!
- (b) Congratulations!

(Yule, 1996: 53)

Example (a) is an expression to show sympathy or guilty to someone. The second example, (b) is used to congratulate someone.

4) Directives

In directives, a speaker tries to get the hearer to commit him or herself to do something. Directives express what the speaker wants. Commands, orders, requests, suggestions are the forms of directives. The following sentences are the examples of directives.

- (a) You may ask
- (b) Would you make me a cup of tea?
- (c) Don't touch that.

In the first example (a), the sentence is a suggestion that has a function to get the hearer to do something as what the speaker suggests. Meanwhile, in the second example (b), the speaker uses an interrogative sentence to ask the hearer to make a cup of tea. In this case, the speaker does not expect the hearer to answer the question with *yes* or *no*. The last example is a command to make the hearer acts as what the speaker wants (Yule, 1996: 54).

5) Commissives

When a speaker uses commissives, one can assume that the speaker will do an action in the future. It can be in the form of promises, threats, refusals, and pledges. Those actions can be performed by the speaker alone, or by the speaker as a member of a group. This speech act is illustrated in the following example.

- (a) I'll be back.
- (b) I'm going to get it right next time.
- (c) We will not do that.

(Yule, 1996:54)

From the three examples above, it can be concluded that the content of the commissive has something to do with the future and a possible action of the speaker. The modal 'will' or to 'be going to' in certain rules, contexts, and situation signifies a promise in which it is considered as a commissive.

3. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

Direct and Indirect speech acts concern the way a speaker uses various linguistic forms with certain functions (Yule, 1998: 54-56). There is relationship between the three structural forms (declarative, interrogative, imperative) and the

three general communicative functions (statement, question, command or request). As further explanation, a speaker uses a declarative form to express a statement, an interrogative form is used in order to express a question, and command or request will be expressed with imperative form. Simply, it can be seen clearly in the table below.

Table 1: Linguistic forms and the functions

	Forms	Functions
Did you cook the food?	Interrogatives	Question
Cook the food (please).	Imperatives	Command (request)
You cooked the food.	Declaratives	Statement

Both of them, direct and indirect speech acts' explanation can be read below.

a) Direct Speech Acts

Direct speech acts appear when there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function. A speaker, who uses direct speech acts, wants to deliver the literal meaning that the words conventionally express. Clark and Clark (1977: 28) state that there are three forms of sentence when someone wants to tell something to someone else. It is usually done by forming a declarative form, when they want to ask a question, interrogative will be used by the speakers, while imperative will be used when a speaker wants to order something. The application of direct speech acts are illustrated below.

- (1a) John closes the window.
- (1b) Did John close the window?
- (1c) Close the window John!

In (1a), the speaker asserts that John closes the window, while in (1b) the speaker asks whether John closed the window or not, and in (1c) the speaker requests or orders John to close the window.

b) Indirect Speech Acts

An indirect speech act occurs when there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. In an indirect speech act, a speaker usually expresses his or her intention implicitly. Yule (1996: 55) writes that different structures can be used to accomplish the same basic function as it is shown in example 2, where the speaker wants the hearer not to stand in front of the TV. Those examples are illustrated as follow.

- (2a) Do you have to stand in front of the TV?
 (2b) You're standing in front of the TV.

Yule (1996: 55)

The basic function of all the above utterances is command or request. The interrogative structure in (2a) is not being used only as a question but also as an indirect request. The declarative structure in (2b) is also an indirect request.

- (3a) Could you pass the salt?
 (3b) Would you pass the salt?

Yule (1996: 55-56)

There is a typical pattern in English to ask a question about the hearer's assumed ability, as in example (3a) or future likelihood with regard to doing something as in (3b) normally counts as a request to do something.

Indirect speech acts appear to be a complicated way of communication since one must go through a complex reasoning process to interpret the indirect speech acts. One might think that it would be more efficient to do

direct communication. However, it is not 100% true because indirect speech acts can add critics, humor, and even can show politeness instead of just saying something. Thus, indirect speech acts can also be seen as an efficient tool of communication since they can convey two or more messages at the same time.

4. Speech Act of Complaint

a. The Definition of Speech Act of Complaint

The act of complaints belong to the category of expressive functions. “It is included moral judgments which express the speaker’s approval as well as disapproval of the behavior mentioned in the judgment” (Trosborg, 1995: 311). When a speaker complains, he or she verbally expresses his or her disagreement or dissatisfaction to a certain product, service, action, etc.

A complaint is addressed to the person whom the speaker considers to be responsible for her or his problem. In a complaint, the events described in the problem take place in the past. The important thing in the act of complaining is that when the speaker says a moral judgment on something which the complainees has already done or failed to do, or is in the process of doing. The speaker expects that the hearer will give his or her reaction to the complaint and even do some corrective actions.

Trosborg (1995: 316) defines a complaint as an illocutionary act in which the speaker (the complainer) expresses his or her disapproval, negative feeling etc. toward the state of affairs described in the proposition (the complainable) and for which he or she holds the hearer (the complainees) responsible, either directly or

indirectly. According to Leech in Trosborg (1996:312), complaint is a representative of conflictive function, which includes acts of threatening, accusing, cursing and reprimanding. These acts are designed to cause an offence and they are highly threatening to the social relationship between the speaker and the hearer. It can be concluded that speech act of complaint is a speech act used to express a disapproval, negative, and unsatisfied feeling of a complainer to a complaine, either directly or indirectly.

b. Level of Complaint

In reference to Trosborg' theory (1995:314), complaints can be expressed in various levels of directness. When a complainer shows his or her dissatisfaction and expresses the ill feeling in a form of a complaint to a complaine, he or she should be able to choose a particular level of directness. While the complaine has to perform an inference process to find a connection what is said and really intended by the complainer.

Trosborg (1995) proposed two ways of expressing a complaint based on the directness levels of complaint. They are a direct complaint and an indirect complaint. This statement is in line with Boxer (1993:39), who categorized complaints into two categories, direct and indirect complaints. Direct complaints are addressed to a complaine who held responsible for the offensive action, for example "Could you be a little quieter? I'm trying to sleep". It means that the complainer wants the complaine to keep silent because the complainer wants to sleep. Indirect complaints are given to the addresses who are not responsible for the perceived offense "She never cleans up after her eat. Isn't that horrible?" in

this case, the speaker tries to open a conversation and establish solidarity between them.

In addition, Trosborg (1995:316) uses direct and indirect speech acts in the term of describing the complaint situation to make the directness level of complaint clearer. The word direct here means that complaint itself is never formulated in the utterance. Therefore, the speaker and the hearer have to give more attention on the situation which is utterance produced, or usually called as speech events, in order to be able to get the point of complaints. It is very contrast with the indirect complaint. Indirect complaint means that the complaint is formulated clearly in the utterance in the form of a question or a statement.

c. Complaint Strategies

According to Trosborg (1995:348), there are four main categories commonly used in the act of complaining. Each of those four complaint categories will be explained further below.

1) No Explicit Reproach

In many cases, a complainer tends to avoid a conflict when he or she wants to show his or her dissatisfaction. Thus, the best way to express his or her complaints is by using the strategy of no explicit reproach, which force the complainer to formulate a complaint without even mentioning the exact case. The complainer implies that he or she knows about offence and indirectly asks the complainee to show his or her responsibility. However, as the complainer does not directly state that something is bad, the complainee does not know whether an offence is judged to or not. Although this is a weak strategy, it

might be useful to prepare for more powerful strategies. Simply, this strategy is about a complaint that did not express the intimidation to the complainer and the complainable are explained unclearly. Example 6 is the example of this category with no complainable in the proposition.

(4a) My car was in perfect order when last I drove it.

(4b) There was nothing wrong with my car yesterday.

(Trosborg, 1995:348).

In (4a) and (4b), complainers never tell persons (complainers) who broke complainer's car in their complaints. They just utter that their cars were in a perfect shape before the accident happened.

2) Expression of Annoyance or Disapproval

Trosborg (1995: 316) writes that a complainer can express his or her annoyance, dislike, disapproval, etc. concerning with a certain state of affairs he or she considered bad for him or her. By explicitly asserting a dislike, the complainer implies that a complainer is the one who should take a responsibility in the complainable, but the complainer avoids mentioning the complainer as a guilty person. It also expresses the ill consequences resulting from an offence for which the complainer is held responsible implicitly. The examples are clearly shown below.

(5a) There's horrible dent in my car.

(5b) Oh dear, I've just bought it.

The example (5a) and (5b) are the expression of annoyance that are expressed by the complainer. The complainer asserts explicitly that the complainer is the person who broke the complainer's car. The complainer just

complains to the complainee about the bad condition of the car, without mentioning the complainee as the person who broke the car.

(6a) How terrible! Now I won't be able to get to work tomorrow.

(6b) Oh, damn it! I'll lose my insurance bonus now.

The example (6a) and (6b) also explain about the bad conditions of the car without mentioning the complainee as the guilty person. The complainer just explains the condition of the car although the complainer knows that the complainee is a person who is responsible.

3) Accusation

In accusation, the complainer can ask the hearer questions about the situation or assert that he or she was in some ways connected with the offence and he or she tries to accuse the hearer as the potential agent of the complainable (Trosborg, 1995: 317). Making it clear, there are two examples of accusation that can be seen below.

(7a) Did you happen to bump into my car?

In example (7a), the complainer can directly accuse the complainee of having committed the offence (direct accusation). It means that the complainer tries to accuse the complainee directly.

(8a) You borrowed my car last night, didn't you?

The complainer tries to formulate his or her complain by using question, but the intended meaning is to accuse the complainee that he or she is the agent of the incident. By formulating the accusation as a question on the complaint, the complainer is less threatening to the accused.

4) Blame

Trosborg (1995) explains that an act of blame presupposes that the accused is guilty of the offence. The simple indication of this strategy is that the complainer sometimes uses swear words, and treats the complainees as the responsible person of the event directly. There are some examples of the strategies according to Trosborg (1996: 318)

(9a) Oh no, not again! You really are thoughtless.

(9b) Bloody fool! Damn it! You've done it again.

The complainer explicitly states that he finds the accused. From the explanation and the examples above, it can be concluded that the characteristics of blame strategy are the complainer always uses pronoun "you" to mention the complainees and, the swear words which are underlined are used to indicate the directness and they are used to threaten the complainees.

Trosborg (1995:318) then divides complaint into four strategies that the three of them belong to indirect complaint, and the other one belongs to direct complaint. They are presented on table 2.

Table 2: Strategies of Complaint

Complaint			
Indirect			Direct
No Explicit Reproach	Expression of disapproval	Accusation	Blame
Situation: damage car and the hearer has borrowed speaker's car and damage it			
EXAMPLES			
"My car was in perfect order when last I drove it."	"There's a horrible dent in my car".	"Did you happen to bump into my car".	"Oh no, not again! You really are thoughtless".
"You should take more care with other people's cars".	"How terrible! Now I won't be able to get to work tomorrow".	"You borrowed my car last night, didn't you?"	"How on earth did you manage to be stupid".

6. The Functions of Complaint

Trosborg (1995: 320) writes several functions of complaint. They function an attempt to make the complainees repair the damages he or she has and to prevent a repetition of the bad action. Trosborg (1995) then divides the functions of complaint into three categorizations, they are: a) request to repair, b) threat, c) request for forbearance. Each is presented below.

a) Request to Repair

The first function of complaint is request to repair. In most of the cases, a complaint is not made for the main purpose of passing a moral judgement. The complainer states a complaint described in the complainable, to stop the complainees from doing the wrong action. It can be seen as an incentive for the complainees to repair the complainable. The following are the examples.

Situation 1: Passenger to fellow passenger who is smoking in a non-smoking compartment in a train

(FC/1) a complainer: This is a non-smoker.

Situation 2: Neglected cleaning roster

(FC/2) a complainer: Would you mind doing your share of the duties as soon as possible?

(Trosborg, 1995:322)

b) Threat

The second function of a complaint is to threaten. In this case, a complainer may choose to attack the complainees face openly by issuing a certain threat. She or he often states an ultimatum with an immediate consequence. The speaker may usually use swear words to express the threat. The following is the example.

Situation 3: Cassette stolen from shop

(FC/3) a complainer: Now, give me back what you have stolen, or I shall have to call the police

(Trosborg, 1995: 322)

In the above example, the complainer tries to threaten the complainees by saying that the complainer will call the police if the complainees does not give him back the cassette.

c) Request for Forbearance

The last function is request for forbearance. When performing this function, a complainer wants the complainees not to make his or her mistake anymore.

(FC/4) a complainer: Well, I'd like to find out about this because
 I'm hoping it won't happen again
 (FC/5) a complainer: as long as it doesn't happen again

(Trosborg, 1995: 322).

Boxer (1993:39) also notes that three of the functions of a complaint is to share a negative evaluation, to obtain an agreement, and to establish a common bond between the speaker and the addressee. It is usually called as trouble sharing. The example of this function can be seen below.

“I can't believe I didn't get an A on this paper. I worked so hard!”
 “Same here. She doesn't give away A's very easily, that's for sure”

(Boxer, 1993:39)

Whispering is the characteristic of this function, and in many cases, the complaine and the complainer do not stand in the same place.

8. *Confessions of a Shopaholic* Movie

a. The Movie and the Synopsis

Confessions of a Shopaholic is a 2009 American film directed by P. J. Hogan, which is adapted from the *Shopaholic* series of novels written by Sophie Kinsella. The film tells about the life of Rebecca Bloomwood (Isla Fisher), a shopping addict who lives with her best friend Suze (Krysten Ritter).



Figure 1: The Cover of Confessions of a Shopaholic

Rebecca works as a journalist for a gardening magazine, but she dreams to join in a famous fashion magazine *Alette*. On the way to an interview with *Alette*, she buys a green scarf. Unfortunately, her credit card is declined, so she goes to a hot dog stand and offers to buy all the hot dogs with a check. She has to do this in order to get a change in cash and she also says that the scarf is to be given to her sick aunt as a gift. The hot dog vendor refuses to help her, but a man named Luke Brandon, the editor of *Successful Saving* magazine, offers her \$20.

When Rebecca arrives at the interview spot, the receptionist tells her that the position has been filled. However, the receptionist tells her that there is an open position in the *Successful Saving* magazine. The receptionist also explains that getting a job at *Successful Savings* could, eventually, lead her to a position at *Alette* magazine. Finally, Rebecca accepts the receptionist's advice. Unfortunately, Luke Brandon (Hugh Dancy) is the interviewer. Then she hides her green scarf outside of his office, but Luke's assistant comes into the office and gives it back to her. Rebecca fails in the interview because of the incident.

That evening, drunk, she and Suze write letters to *Alette* and *Successful Saving*, but she mails each to the wrong magazine. Luke likes the letter she meant to send to *Alette* and hires her. Rather than completing a work assignment for a new column, Rebecca goes to a clothing sale. While inspecting a pair of cashmere gloves she has just purchased, she realizes it is not 100% cashmere and she has been cheated. This gives her an idea for the column, which she writes under the name of "The Girl in the Green Scarf" and it becomes an instant success.

Rebecca later returns home to renew confrontations with her debt collector named Derek Smeth and Suze asks her to attend "Shopaholics Anonymous", a therapy club for shopaholics. The group leader Miss Korch (Wendie Malick) forces Rebecca to donate all the clothes she just bought, including a bridesmaid's dress for Suze's wedding and a dress for a TV interview. After the meeting, Rebecca cannot afford to buy back both of her clothes and only buys back the interview dress. During the interview, Rebecca is accused of not paying her debts and loses her job. Derek Smeth tells the truth that Rebecca has many debts. This fact makes Luke, who also attends the interview, very angry and he leaves Rebecca alone. Finally, Rebecca and her friends in "Shopaholics Anonymous" want to sell Rebecca's clothes, including the green scarf to pay her debts. Meanwhile, Luke starts his new company, Brandon Communications.

B. Previous Research

The studies of speech act of complaints have been conducted by many researchers. The researcher takes one of them as the example. However, it does not mean that both of the researches are exactly the same. The researchers are

different in their results because of the differences in terms of methodology and focus of the research.

The previous research has been conducted by Ndenguino Mpira Hermanno, entitled *Pragmatic Aspects of Making and Responding to Complaints in an Intercultural University*. She observes complaints through a real object in intercultural interactions involving international students and South African administrative staff in two Stellenbosch University residences. She analyzes the nature and the effects of making and interpreting complaints in international student's daily conversation in the university.

It appears that during these interactions, the international students are often frustrated by the way how their complaints are handled. As a speech act, the effectiveness of a complaint depends on the way it is expressed and understood and also on the social context in which it is performed. In this regard, the study examines the influence of cultural differences on the way how complaints are made and how they respond to the both complainer and complaine.

The study aims to analyze intercultural situations involving the making and the understanding of complaints that may result in misunderstandings. The data were collected through a discourse completion task, performed by 24 international students belonging to six cultural groups, namely American, Chinese, Dutch, Gabonese, German and Libyan.

Hermanno's research is totally different from this undergraduate thesis research because he tries to observe the differences of complaint from 24 multicultural students and by using Blum-Kulka and House and Kasper's theories.

Meanwhile in the research entitled *A pragmatic Analysis of Complaints Used by Characters Found in Confessions of a Shopaholic Movie*, the researcher does not try to make comparison between the complainers found in the movie. Besides, in this research, the researcher also attempts to observe not only how to make complaint, but also how to choose a right complaint strategy, the way of expressing complaint and the functions of the complaints. The theory used in this research is Trosborg's theory, to analyze speech act of complaint further.

C. Conceptual Framework and Analytical Construct

This research is a qualitative research, which focuses on the types of speech act of complaints employed by the characters in the *Confessions of a Shopaholic* movie. The researcher uses pragmatic point of view by considering the context in the process of analyzing. Since pragmatic involves the context in this analysis, it is different from the other kind of analysis. Context is an important element in pragmatics because from the context, an utterance can have a different meaning or interpretation. In this research, the researcher uses the context theory of Holmes.

The researcher focuses on the description of the functions of illocutionary acts in the expressive speech acts, especially the speech act of complaint. Searle's theory of speech act is chosen to classify the types of speech act. In this research, the researcher classifies the speech act of complaint into four strategies based on Trosborg's theory (1995: 311). They are *no explicit reproach*, *expression of annoyance or disapproval*, *accusation* and finally *blame*.

Besides the strategies of complaint and the way to express them, the researcher analyzes the functions of complaint based on the theories of Trosborg

(1995) and also Boxer (1993). They are request for repair, threat, request for forbearance and to share negative evaluation. The four of them are used by the researcher to analyze the function of complaints uttered by the characters in the movie.

The reseacher then makes an analytical construct based on the explanation above. The analytical construct is made on the basis of the conceptual framework as shown in figure 2.

A Pragmatic Analysis of Complaints in *Confessions of a Shopaholic* Movie

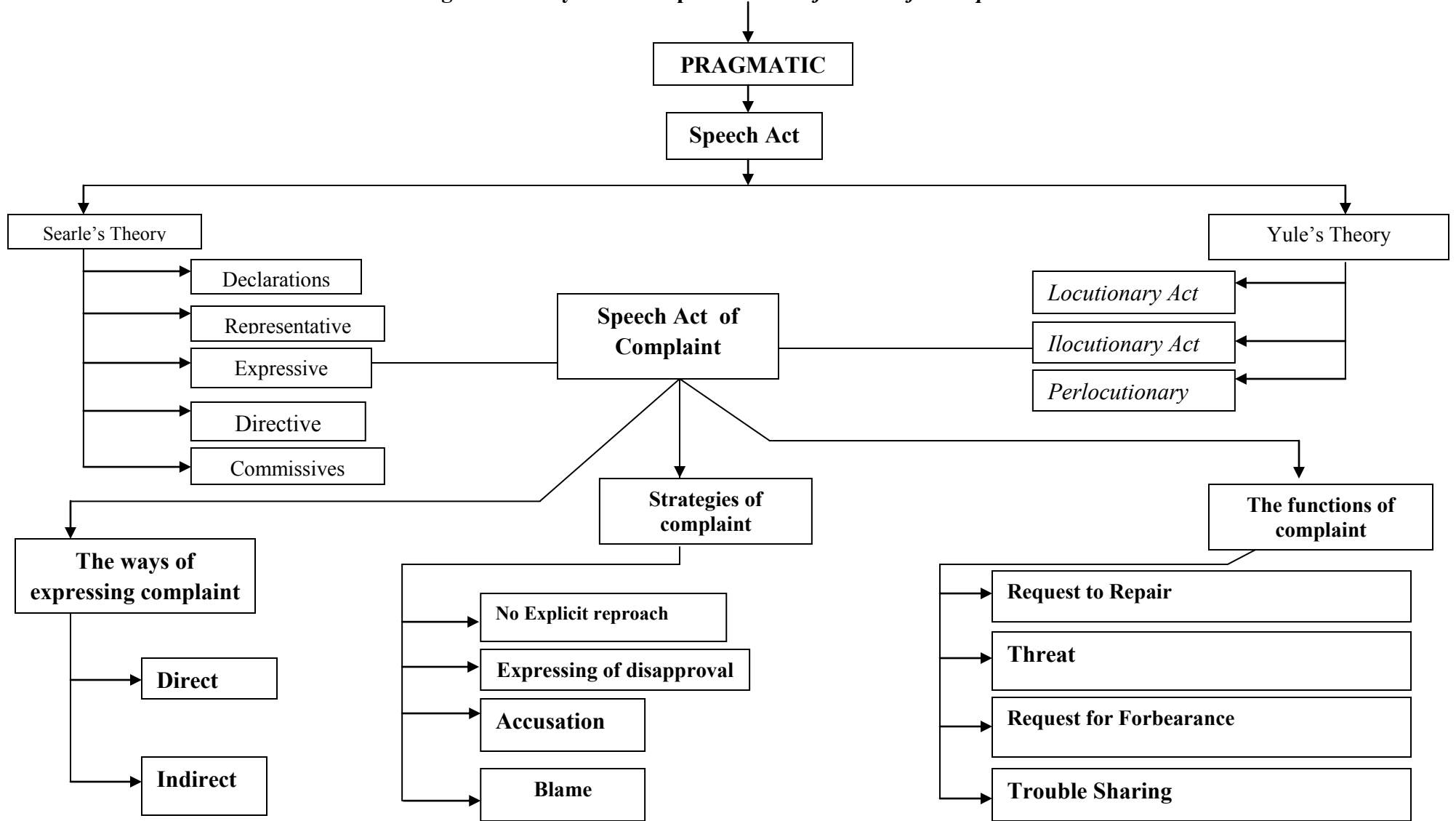


Figure 2: Analytical Construct