University of Texas at Arlington

MavMatrix

Linguistics & TESOL Dissertations

Department of Linguistics & TESOL

2023

SPEECH ACTS OF COMPLAINT ON ARABIC TWITTER: A PRAGMATIC AND CORPUS ANALYSIS

Wael Yahya S Alghamdi

Follow this and additional works at: https://mavmatrix.uta.edu/linguistics_tesol_dissertations



Part of the Linguistics Commons

Recommended Citation

Alghamdi, Wael Yahya S, "SPEECH ACTS OF COMPLAINT ON ARABIC TWITTER: A PRAGMATIC AND CORPUS ANALYSIS" (2023). Linguistics & TESOL Dissertations. 120. https://mavmatrix.uta.edu/linguistics_tesol_dissertations/120

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Department of Linguistics & TESOL at MavMatrix. It has been accepted for inclusion in Linguistics & TESOL Dissertations by an authorized administrator of MavMatrix. For more information, please contact leah.mccurdy@uta.edu, erica.rousseau@uta.edu, vanessa.garrett@uta.edu.

SPEECH ACTS OF COMPLAINT ON ARABIC TWITTER: A PRAGMATIC AND CORPUS ANALYSIS

by

WAEL YAHYA ALGHAMDI

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at
The University of Texas at Arlington
December, 2023

Arlington, Texas

Supervising Committee:

Laurel Stvan, Supervising Professor Lisa Jeon Cynthia Kilpatrick

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Writing a dissertation is not an easy task, but the acknowledgement section was even more challenging to write. This arduous education journey would not have been doable without the support of many people. The order in which I express my gratitude to others does not in any way demonstrate preferences. Each individual mentioned has contributed to what I believe has been a fruitful educational journey that began in 2013 and will end in 2023.

I'm thankful to Prof. Laurel Stvan, my supervisor and chair of my committee. Prof. Stvan has been extremely helpful, knowledgeable, and patient with me throughout this project. I'm also grateful to Prof. Cynthia Kilpatrick and Lisa Jeon for accepting my invitation to serve on the committee and providing constructive criticism of my work.

I'm very grateful to my father, Yahya Alghamdi, and my mother, Halima Alghamdi, and I hope this degree will compensate for what they have done for me. I also hope that the degree will make up for the disappointment of being so far away from them during my educational journey.

I would like to express my gratitude to my brothers Bader and Hail, and sisters Bdoor and Kholoud for their support and for looking after my parents in my absence. Without them, I would not have been able to continue my graduate studies and travel outside the country.

I would like to extend a special thanks to my wife, Rawan Alghamdi, for all her assistance and for caring for our children while she, too, worked on her PhD. This is, in my opinion, the equivalent of pursuing two doctoral degrees simultaneously, which I believe is quite impressive.

In addition, I would like to convey my gratitude to my daughter, Shahad, as well as my son, Nasser. I was able to relieve some of the stressors in my life by listening to their laughter and spending time playing with them. I'm sorry that my work pulled me away from them from time to time.

I'm also grateful to my friends who have stood by my side throughout this journey, beginning with my studies in English and continuing through the completion of my PhD program.

Finally, I want to thank my sponsor, Albaha University, for sponsoring my education in the United States.

ABSTRACT

THE SPEECH ACT OF COMPLAINING ON ARABIC TWITTER: A PRAGMATIC AND CORPUS ANALYSIS

WAEL YAHYA ALGHAMDI, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Arlington, 2023

Supervising Professor: Laurel Stvan

There is little research on Arabic speech acts of complaint in computer-mediated communication (CMC), and specifically on Twitter. This study examined Saudi Arabic complaints on Twitter, employing a pragmatic approach and an automated corpus approach.

Data were collected from responses to the customer care accounts of Noon, an online retailer on Twitter. A total of 12,200 tweets were used to conduct the corpus analysis, and another 1,000 tweets were used to conduct the pragmatics analysis.

The keywords corpus analysis revealed eight complaint categories that included both direct and indirect complaints, the majority of which were relatively direct and confrontational. In addition, a corpus analysis examined earlier published definitions of *speech acts of complaint*, one of which was contributed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) and supported by the present study.

iii

The pragmatics analysis showed that Arabic complaints tended to use more direct strategies, while indirect complaint strategies were rarely employed. The analysis also revealed five directive acts, the most common of which was the request for repair.

The *perspective of the complainant* analysis revealed that focalizing references were more prevalent than defocalizing references. In addition, the analysis found that complainers utilized more intensifying than diminishing modifiers, and that they most frequently sought solution seeking as an external modifier to justify complaints.

Further analysis indicated that complaints were generally impolite in nature. Also, both polite and neutral complaints were observed when the Relational Work Model by Locher & Watts (2005) was employed.

The implications of the findings include the importance of combining corpus and pragmatic methods. Also, the finding shows the significance of employing naturally occurring data. The study shows the importance of differentiating between defining complaints in CMC and complaints in face-to-face communication. The results demonstrate that the theoretical distinction between politeness and impoliteness was insufficient to account for the complaint in CMC.

Table of Contents

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	i
ABSTRACT	iii
List of Figures	ix
List of Tables	xi
Chapter 1	1
Introduction	1
1.1 Preview of the study	2
1.2 The significance of the study	2
1.3 Why study speech acts of complaint?	3
1.4 Why Twitter?	4
1.5 Why Noon?	7
1.6 Why corpus analysis?	8
1.7 Research questions	9
Chapter 2	11
Literature Review	11
2.1 Five speech act theories	12
2.2 Austin and Searls' account of speech acts	14
2.2.1 Locutionary acts	16
2.2.2 Directness	17
2.3 Politeness theory	18

2.4 The framework of the study	20
2.4.1 Politeness Theory: (Leech 1993, 2008)	20
2.4.2 Politeness Theory: Brown and Levinson (1987)	22
2.4.3 Impoliteness Theory: Culpeper's (2011)	25
2.4.4 Relational Work: Locher and Watts (2005)	28
2.5 Complaints	30
2.6 Definition of complaint	30
2.6.1 Previous complaint studies	34
2.6.2 Complaints in other languages	35
2.6.3 Complaints in Arabic	37
Chapter 3	47
Methodology	47
3.1 Pilot Study	47
3.2 Data collection procedures	49
3.3 Data analysis	53
3.3.1 Data analysis (corpus method)	54
3.3.2 Data coding (pragmatic method)	62
3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of automated and manual analysis	64
Chapter 4	65
Results	65
4.1 Corpus analysis results	66
4.1.1 Arabic and twitter data issues	66
4 1 2 Top 100 keywords	67

4.1.3 Corpus analysis of speech acts of complaint definitions	79
4.1.4 Corpus analysis Summary	94
4.2 Pragmatics analysis results	97
4.2.1 Complaining strategies	97
4.2.2 Directive acts	103
4.2.3 Complaint perspective	110
4.2.4 Internal modification	124
4.2.5 External modification	135
Discussion	140
4.3 Previous speech acts of complaint definitions	140
4.3.1 Olshtain and Weinbach (1987)	140
4.3.2 Sacks (1995)	142
4.3.3 Edwards (2005)	143
4.3.4 Olshtain and Cohen (1983)	144
4.3.5 Corpus discussion summary	144
4.4 Pragmatics analysis	145
4.4.1 Complaining strategies	145
4.4.2 Directive acts	149
4.4.3 - Referential categories	152
4.4.4 Internal modification discussion	155
4.4.5 External modification discussion	157
4.4.6 Summary	159
4.5 Findings in relation to Politeness Theory	161
-Viewing the findings through Politeness	161
4.5.1 Leech (1982, 2014)	162
4.5.2 Brown and Levinson (1987)	163

4.5.3 Politeness Theory summary	166
4.5.4 Impoliteness	166
4.5.5 Relational Work	172
4.6 Summary and conclusion	187
Chapter 5	
Conclusion and implications	189
Appendix A	194
Appendix B	198
References	220

List of Figures

Figure 1. Leading countries of Twitter users	6
Figure 2. Screenshot of Noon's main website	7
Figure 3, Speech act directness	17
Figure 4 Brown and Levinson's FTA strategies	24
Figure 5 Relational Work by Locher and Watts., 2005, P.12	29
Figure 6. Data collection diagram showing the process of gathering and building the corpus	53
Figure 7. Sample coding for complaint strategies	63
Figure 8. A screenshot of the keyword analysis results in AntConc	68
Figure 9 Top ten most frequent keywords in the target corpus	69
Figure 10 A screenshot of the Lemma list results in AntConc	71
Figure 11. A screenshot of the concordance lines of the word "expect."	80
Figure 12. A screenshot of the concordance lines of the word "supposed."	82
Figure 13. Graphic representation of the distribution of complaint strategies	. 103
Figure 14. Graphic representation of the distribution of directive acts	. 110
Figure 15 Graphic representation of the focalizing and defocalizing reference to the complain (Speaker- perspective)	
Figure 16. Graphic representation of focalizing and defocalizing reference to the complainer (speaker-perspective)	
Figure 17. Graphic representation of the focalizing reference to the complainee (Hearer-perspective)	. 121
Figure 18. Graphic representation of the focalizing reference to the complainee (Hearer-perspective)	. 122
Figure 19. Graphic representation of the focalizing reference (speaker versus hearer- perspect	
Figure 20. Graphic representation of the frequency distribution of internal modifiers (Downgraders vs. Upgraders)	. 134
Figure 21. Graphic representation of the internal modifiers distribution	. 135

Figure 22. Graphic representation of external modifiers' distribution	138
Figure 23. Politeness Ratings Distribution	175
Figure 24. Cluster Visualization Based on Rating.	176
Figure 25. Rating Distribution Across Tweets	178

List of Tables

Table 1 Culpeper's Impoliteness strategies, 2011. pp.135-136	27
Table 2. Data of the study	50
Table 3. Trosborg's (1995) model	58
Table 4. Personal pronouns in the Arabic dialect	62
Table 5. Top 100 keywords in the Noon corpus	72
Table 6 Collocation of the word complaint.	90
Table 7. Distribution of complaint strategies.	102
Table 8. Distribution of directive acts	109
Table 9. Frequency of reference to the complainer (Focalizing vs. Defocalizing)	114
Table 10. Frequency of focalizing and defocalizing the complainer	115
Table 11. Frequency distribution of reference to the complainee	120
Table 12. Frequency distribution of reference to the complainee	121
Table 13. Frequency distribution of focalizing reference to the complainee and the com-	_
Table 14. Distribution of internal modifiers (upgraders)	132
Table 15. Frequency distribution of internal modifiers (downgrading)	134
Table 16. Distribution of internal modifiers (Upgraders vs. Downgraders)	135
Table 17. Distribution of external modifiers	138
Table 18 Politeness categorization according to the modified Relational Work	184

Chapter 1

Introduction

Language is a medium of communication. However, the manner in which we communicate is not always effective and the message is not always straightforward. The most common question people ask during a conversation is, "What do you mean?" What we utter is often different from our intention. Semantics is concerned with the literal meaning of words in a language, while pragmatics is "the study of language use in context—as compared with semantics, which is the study of literal meaning independent of context" (Birner, 2012).

This distinction leads us to the question: How do we differentiate between complaints and sarcasm, or requests and questions? For example, one may utter the phrase, "I hate you." How one interprets this phrase can vary, depending on the speaker's intended meaning. If the speaker utters the phrase while laughing, it can be assumed that the speaker does not really hate the addressee. Thus, numerous factors play essential roles in the interpretation of utterance. In this case, the pragmatic meaning differs from the semantic meaning (Birner, 2012).

This study examines *speech acts of complaint* among Saudi Arabic Twitter users who express complaints to Noon, an online retailer, by directing their displeasure to the company's customer service account in Twitter. This analysis will ultimately help formalize a more precise definition of *speech acts of complaint*, as well as identify the strategies and pragmatic tools that Arabic speakers use when complaining in computer-mediated communication (CMC) on Twitter.

1.1 Preview of the study

In this section, I explain the significance of the study and the justification for choosing speech acts of complaint as the topic for analysis, and Twitter as the data source. Subsequently, the framework will be explained, and the research questions will be presented.

The remainder of the study is structured accordingly: Chapter 2 provides an overview of the speech acts of complaint literature, related theories such as the Speech Act Theory and the Politeness Theory, the study's framework, and definitions of complaint.

Chapter 3 summarizes the pilot study and then discusses the methodology used in this investigation as well as its benefits and drawbacks. Additionally, an overview of data collection and coding procedures is presented. Chapter 4 follows and summarizes the pilot study.

Chapter 4 reviews the pragmatics and corpus results. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses the findings, the implications for further study, and the conclusion.

1.2 The significance of the study

The results of the study are projected to impact three areas, the first one being the field of pragmatics and Twitter linguistics by demonstrating politeness behaviors among Saudi speakers of Arabic. Future cross-cultural studies can benefit from this study by helping the researchers avoid the ethnocentric problem wherein the majority of philosophers base their theories on English alone (Wierzbicka, 2003). The results are anticipated to help formalize a more precise definition of complaints in CMC.

Second, the study is expected to contribute to language aggression research since aggression and complaints are hard to distinguish. Aggression is "anger directed at the addressee or another person" (Vladimirou et al., 2021), whereas complaint means "to express feelings of

discontent about some situation, for which responsibility can be attributed to 'someone' (to some person, organization or the like)" (Heinemann & Traverso, 2009). Additionally, the analysis will examine speakers' complaints in CMC, where aggression is often relatively intense (Vásquez, 2011; Vásquez, 2014).

Finally, the result can benefit the company under analysis, as well as other companies by discovering the reasons for customers' complaints, knowing that customer satisfaction is the central goal of any company.

1.3 Why study speech acts of complaint?

Many studies have investigated speech acts of complaint in other languages in CMC such as Meinl (2013). However, to the researcher's knowledge at the time of this writing, no study has examined Arabic speech acts of complaint incorporating data from Twitter, despite the growing number of people who communicate on social media and demonstrate contempt for its social, economic, and political implications (Sloan & Quan-Haase, 2017). Also, no study in the Arabic language has combined both corpus methods and pragmatics analysis to examine speech acts of complaints.

Moreover, in the previous speech acts of complaint literature, the focus has been on spoken complaints (Boxer, 1993; Deveci, 2015; House & Kasper, 2011; Migdadi et al., 2012; Salam El-Dakhs & Ahmed, 2021; Trosborg, 1995) or on written complaints (al Hammuri, 2011; Al-khawaldeh, 2016; Al-Omari, 2008; Al-Shorman, 2016; Farnia et al., 2010; Geluykens & Kraft, 2003; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987a, 1993; Rashidi, 2017); the methodologies employed in these studies have either used role play to elicit spoken complaints or discourse completion tasks

(DCTs) for written complaints. Neither of these methods generate natural and authentic complaints.

This study aims to fill the gap by examining speech acts of complaint in writing (CMC) on Twitter. Although the data are regarded as written complaints, Twitter complaints differ from those collected by DCTs, or those which have been sent to editors or appear in business settings in that they are generally more natural in nature—as opposed to lengthy composed letters. Also, the addressivity in Twitter is more complex and complainers do not expect the same answers to their complaints.

In addition, CMC complaints lack face-to-face interactions, intonation, and facial expressions, which may lead to the development of new pragmatics tools.

Furthermore, the absence of a clear and agreed upon definition of *complaint* in the literature creates a challenge (Edmondson & House, 1981; Edwards, 2005; Heinemann & Traverso, 2009; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Sacks, 1995; Trosborg, 1995; Wierzbicka, 1991). The result of the study will either strengthen one or more of the definitions found in the literature, or formalize new definitions based on the findings.

1.4 Why Twitter?

According to Zappavigna (2012), the media and internet have been studied from various perspectives since 1996. Twitter and other social media have been investigated from a communication point of view under the umbrella of CMC. CMC is defined as "communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers "(Herring, 1996: 1).

According to Beißwenger and Lüngen (2020), CMC discourse consists of conversation and structured exchanges among individuals utilizing communication technology programs,

social media platforms, collaborative projects, and 3D environments such as Second Life and various gaming environments. The present study concentrated on discourse surrounding speech acts of complaint on social media, specifically Twitter. Discourse in CMC is distinctively different from that found in newspapers and scientific articles, and also differs from the language and structure of spoken conversation (Beißwenger & Lüngen, 2020).

Twitter offers public and private data which is appropriate to analyze quantitively and qualitatively using various technological tools (Sloan, et al., 2017). It is a "short-form social media technology" that involves small, typically episodic, posted messages aimed at internet-mediated audiences. Texts appear on social media services such as Twitter and Weibo "as chronologically unfolding streams of posts associated with a user's social profile" (Zappavigna, 2012).

Twitter users may post up to 240 characters in each tweet (Vladimirou et al., 2021) and can include "micro media, small-scale multimedia, and shortened aliases of longer hyperlinks (Tiny URLs)." Tweets are visible to users who follow other users and can be helpful to those searching for specific topics--unless the privacy setting is set to block access. Via these tweets or short messages, user interactions become a valuable source for investigations due to their constrained environments. They are also an invaluable source of opinions (Pak & Paroubek, 2010; Zappavigna, 2011, 2012).

Most recent politeness research has used naturally occurring data (Haugh, 2010). Twitter has been a valuable source of research in the main field of linguistics due to its wide and broad variety of information. The majority of studies that have investigated speech acts of complaint have used discourse completion task DCT to collect data for analysis, leading to unnatural

language samples and ultimately inaccurate conclusions. However, Twitter is considered one of the most valuable sources of naturally occurring discourse (Sifianou, 2015; Zappavigna, 2012, 2017).

For the present study, it was advantageous to use Twitter to collect Arabic data for speech act analysis since the vast number of Saudi Arabic speakers use Twitter. Saudi Arabia was classified among the top eight nations by "Statista," with over 14.1 million Twitter users as of July 2021, as illustrated in Figure 1.

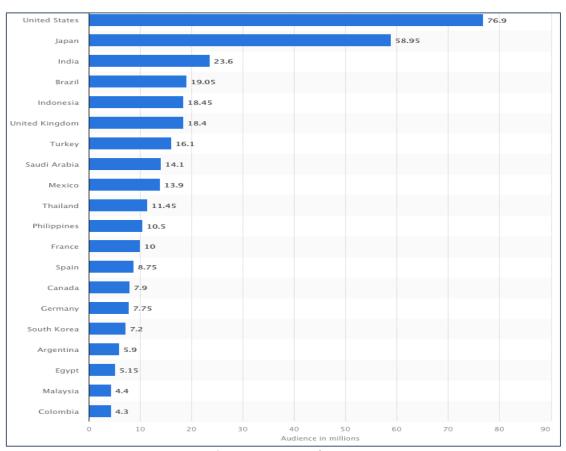


Figure 1. Leading countries of Twitter users

Because the existing literature is focused on spoken data, Twitter satisfies the goal of filling the information gap and contributing to studies on written speech acts in CMC. Moreover,

since the purpose of the study is to investigate speech acts of complaint, social media has been shown to be a good source of data, particularly since complaints are found to be more aggressive on social platforms (Vladimirou et al., 2021).

1.5 Why Noon?

This study is primarily interested in natural interactions between users because they provide insight into speech acts of complaint. Such speech acts in Arabic were examined by analyzing Arabic tweets from Arabic customers who wrote about their shopping experiences with Noon as in the Following tweet:

"The worst company ever, they do not have any professionalism in dealing. A company that does not have employees who are able to resolve complaints"

Noon is a digital marketplace like Amazon that delivers merchandise to customers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates. Noon is based in Riyadh in Saudi Arabia and operates initially from UAE (Parasie, 2016).

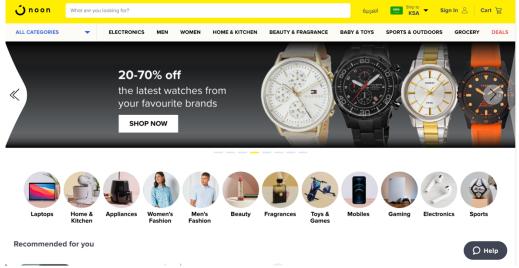


Figure 2. Screenshot of Noon's main website

1.6 Why corpus analysis?

Collecting an abundance of data and utilizing automated corpus analysis was necessary for the following reasons: First, using API methods to download the Tweets increased their number from 1,000 to 5,000. Second, corpus analysis was used to count the frequency of lexical words related to complaints (i.e., lexical search method) to help the researcher answer the research questions listed in the second part (b).

Using corpus method with AntConc software reduced the number of human counting errors and aided in navigating specific complaint structures in the corpus. The corpus analysis was less time-consuming compared to line-by-line reading, especially for big data. Furthermore, the automated analysis increased the accuracy of frequency counting compared to human-based counting. Also, the contextual information was analyzed using the collocation search method in AntConc. Finally, automated corpus tools provided units used for discourse analysis.

The corpus analysis of speech acts was beneficial and provided a representative sample when vast amounts of data were employed in the current study. Nevertheless, computerized analysis alone would have been incapable of providing a comprehensive picture. Thus, discourse analysis and line-by-line examination of the data were necessary. The inclusion of corpus linguistics and discourse linguistics approaches were necessary and complementary. According to Renouf and Kehoe (2015), even if the outcomes of each approach are in opposition, pragmatics analysis researchers should use both methodologies.

By altering data collection and analysis techniques, it was possible to compare both ways (pragmatics vs. corpus) and obtain maximum accuracy in evaluating speech acts of complaint by adjusting for each method's shortcomings.

1.7 Research questions

This study examined speech acts of complaint on Twitter among Saudi Arabic speakers to uncover and examine the complaint strategies utilized. Additionally, the study examined the *directness level of complaint* by comparing the complainer's and complainee's referential categories. Moreover, the study analyzed the politeness of Saudi complaints by examining the internal modifications of complaints as well as identified other speech acts that accompanied the complaints. Finally, the research analyzed how Saudis avoid social conflict and justify their complaints by using external modifiers.

The written speech acts of complaint in Arabic were analyzed by employing Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory (1987) as a framework. The model is discussed in section 2.4. Furthermore, the data was coded using Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy; corpus analysis will also be incorporated in the next phase of the study. The methods of data analysis are explained in the methodology section.

The study will ultimately answer the following questions:

- a- (Questions related to the definition of speech acts of complaint--corpus analysis)
- RQ1. How often do complainants refer their complaints to their expectations? (Olshtain and Weinbach, 1987).
- RQ2. To what extent do Arabic complaints juxtapose positive observation? And in what order (Sacks, 1992)?
- RQ3. Do complainers make it apparent that they're complaining? How often do complainers expressly state that they are complaining (Edwards, 2005)?
- RQ4. Does the complaint occur as a speech act set (Cohen and Olshtain, 1993) (Olshtain and Weinbach, 1987)?

- b- (Questions related to the pragmatic analysis of the speech acts of complaint)
- RQ5. How do Saudis realize speech acts of complaint in CMC on Twitter? What are the complaint strategies Saudis use on Twitter?
- RQ6. What is the level of directness in Saudi complaints on Twitter? What are the referential categories of both the complainer and the complainee?
- RQ7. What is the level of politeness of Saudis' complaints? What are the internal modifications Saudis use when they complain on Twitter?
- RQ8. How do Saudis avoid social conflict and justify their complaints? What are the external modifications of the complaint?

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

A speech act is a dominant topic in the field of pragmatics, and In Speech Act Theory, speaking is an action, not only a proposition (Austin, 1962). However, how the addressee infers the speaker's intended meaning, and whether the speakers' intention plays a role are disputed issues among linguistic scholars. For instance, if someone says, "This is a great company," the phrase can be interpreted in more than one way. If the speaker likes the company, he truly believes this company is great. However, if he does not like the company, he is performing a speech act of complaint by being sarcastic. The question becomes: how do we distinguish the phrase's literal meaning from the speaker's intended meaning? Does social convention help us determine meaning (Austin,1962; Searle & Searle, 1969), or is it the speakers' intention (H. P. Grice, 1957)? Other scholars argue that function determines the meaning of a speech act (R. Millikan, 1984; R. G. Millikan, 1984, 1998; Montgomery, 2014), arguing that speech acts are better explained as normative phenomena.

The following section discusses five varying theories of speech acts. Also, since one of the present study's objectives was to investigate politeness and directness in Arabic complaints, the politeness theories of Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1993, 2008) were selected. According to the findings, however, most Arabic complaints are more direct than indirect, necessitating the addition of other theories such as those addressing rudeness (Culpeper, 2011).

In addition, the data revealed that complaints cannot be classified as either polite or impolite; thus, politic complaints have also been identified. To account for all types of complaint

politeness, Locher and Watts (2005) introduce the Relational Work Modal which accounts for all possible levels of complaint politeness.

2.1 Five speech act theories

The first and most influential theory was established by Austin (1962) in his famous lecture, "How to do the thing with words," and proposed that a speech act is a conventional action. He argued that a speech act is a convention between speakers who follow what he called "felicity conditions," which are primarily socially forced. However, this conventionalist approach has faced many challenges; for instance, other speech acts such as questions and assertions can sometimes be uttered out of the convention. In response, conventionalists argue that these types of speech acts remain linguistic conventions--not social conventions. Austin's theory is further discussed in section 2.3.

The second popular Speech Act Theory is the *cooperative principle* (CP) (H. P. Grice, 1957; P. Grice, 1989). Grice has argued that a speech act or illocutionary act is a matter of the speaker's intention, and the role of the addressee is very minimal. The act is intended to be communicative; and when cooperative principles are followed, the specific intended meaning is expected by the addressee. A challenge to this view is that intention alone is not enough to perform a successful illusionary act. For example, during a marriage ceremony, certain words must be said for the marriage to be valid, and other contextual factors need to be satisfied as well. Thus, intentionalism is problematic when it is not constrained enough; intention alone is not enough to perform an illocutionary act. If true, anything can be said in order to perform various speech acts if a particular intention is involved. Another issue is that Grice claims these communication acts are not linguistically exclusive. They can be achieved through other means

such as drawing a picture to deliver an intended meaning and when the convention is not necessary to convey an intended meaning.

Functionalism is a third speech act theory that attempts to explain speech acts. The opposite of intentionalism wherein the speaker's intention is the primary source that determines a speech act's meaning, functionalism proposes that speech acts can be explained using secondary sources. Speech acts differ according to proper functions obtained via natural selection (R. Millikan, 1984). Millikan's theory suggests that intention or convention can be a source of speech act function, or that both of them can engage simultaneously (R. Millikan, 1984; R. G. Millikan, 1984; Ruth G. Millikan, 1998; Ruth Garrett Millikan, 2005).

The fourth speech act theory is Expressionism Theory which argues that different speech acts represent various states of mind. Since *conditions of the mind* center this theory, it relates closely to intentionalism wherein the speaker is the primary source of meaning in a speech act. However, expressionism differs from intentionalism: in expressionism a speaker does not need to expect a specific response from an addressee--the speech act's meaning is determined by the speaker's beliefs and state of mind. Advantageous of expressionism explains the continuity of speech act communication that becomes obscured in intentionalism (Bar-on, 2013; Green, 2010).

A fifth speech act theory views speech acts as *normative phenomenon*; and assertion, for example, is governed by the epistemic norm. Normative Theory has been discussed by Dummett (1981) and Unger (1978), and more recently by Williamson (2002). According to Williamson (2000), knowledge is the primary norm of assertion. To assert something means the speaker knows what is being claimed and will be believed. Williamson (2002) asserts that for "the knowledge norm: one must assert P only if one knows that p."

However, it is debatable whether we should take knowledge as the only norm of assertion since others argue for belief, justification, and other norms that affect assertion. The idea that assertion has an epistemic norm seems to be true in all five theories discussed above. However, each theory employs it to support its primary goal. For instance, a conventionalist would agree that the knowledge norm is the principal norm of assertion due to social conventions, whereas intentionalists like Grice, would agree that the knowledge norm is also the primary norm for assertion, but only due to the cooperative principles in his theory—and so on (Harris et al., 2018).

The normative approach seems to make sense when explaining speech acts such as assertions; however, when asking questions, for example, knowledge norms cannot explain the act. Thus, the normative approach does not adequately explain other speech act types.

Another approach in the normative account explains speech acts from two perspectives: entailments and commitments. Brandom (1983, 1994, 2000) uses entitlement and commitments to explain assertions: "To assert p is to do something that entitles participants in the conversation to make a characteristic range of-related inferences and responses, and that commits the speaker to justify p and related claims going forward" (Harris et al., 2018).

2.2 Austin and Searls' account of speech acts

Austin argues in his famous work, *How to do thing with words* (1962), that speech acts are actions, and to understand the meaning we need to focus on the speaker's intention and how the listener inferences this intention. He contends that this process is constrained by social convention which helps speakers understand each other. The topic of speech acts has been an object of research in both semantics and pragmatics. However, Austin argues that speech acts are more pragmatic since some utterances such as commands and questions do not have truth values.

Austin argues in his theory that some speech acts cannot be explained by truth-conditional semantics. For instance, questions, commands, thanking, and requests cannot be tested for their truth-value since they are neither true nor false. This truth-conditional problem led Austin to distinguish between constative and performative utterances. A constative utterance is a declarative sentence such as:

- (1) He went to school.
- In (1), we can determine the truth value. Performative utterances, however, do not have truth values--they perform actions, as in Example (2):
 - (2) I apologize to Wael.

The speaker in (2) is performing an act of apologizing, and this performative action does not express a state of affairs to be evaluated for truth conditions. Austin found that performative sentences tend to have specific characteristics such as the verb occurring as first-person pronouns and in the present tense. A "herby test" is usually used to determine whether the sentence is performative or not. This performative distinction is also divided into *explicit acts* where all conditions are met (i.e., first-person pronoun, present tense, and herby test), and *implicit acts*.

In Austin's Speech Act Theory, speech acts must follow specific rules, or as he states-they are "felicity conditions" that perform intended actions correctly. These conditions are a mix
of contextual factors and intentional ones.

Austin (1962) felicity conditions are as follows (Birner, 2012, 184-185):

- (A.1) There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances, and further,
- (A.2) the particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.

- (B.1) The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and (B.2) completely
- $(\Gamma.1)$ Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend so to conduct themselves, and further
- $(\Gamma.2)$ must actually so conduct themselves subsequently.

The felicity conditions were expanded by Searls (1965) as follows (Birner, 2012):

- 1. The utterance must predicate some future act A of the speaker.
- 2. H would like S to do A, and S knows this.
- 3. It should not be obvious to both of them that S will do A in the normal course of events.
- 4. S must intend to do A.
- 5. The utterance of P counts as S's taking on an obligation to do A.

The felicity conditions proposed by Searle are ordered, so for the act to occur successfully, propositional content (i.e., number 1) must occur first. The preparty rules (i.e., rules number 2 and 3) must occur second, before the essential role (i.e., role number 5) (Birner, 2012).

2.2.1 Locutionary acts

Austin (1962) defines speech acts by introducing three levels of meaning. First, locutionary meaning, the act of using words. Second, illocutionary meaning, this can be either direct or indirect, and the act is intended to be performed. For example, when a speaker says, "It is cold in here," it could be understood as an indirect request from the speaker to the addressee to close the window. Third, perlocutionary meaning is the effect of the speaker's words on the addressee. For instance, the phrase, "It's cold in here," might make

the addressee close the window.

(Searle, 1976) divided the illocutionary act into five categories: representative, directives, commissive, expressive, and declarative. The speaker expresses feelings and attitudes in the expressive acts, which would constitute a speech act of complaint in this study.

2.2.2 Directness

A further division of the speech act involves its directness, whether direct (i.e., explicit) or indirect (i.e., implicit). Figure 3 indicates that speech acts are performatives and can be divided into two types that pertain to directness (Briner, 2012). There is a match between the illocutionary force and the linguistics form as imperatives, commands, and questions in direct speech acts. On the other hand, when the linguistics form mismatches the illocutionary force, the result is an indirect illocutionary act. For example, if someone says, "It is cold in here," the speaker is uttering a declarative statement, but he may intend to perform a speech act of request such as, "Close the window!" Explicit performative acts are less common in direct and indirect acts, but the opposite is true for implicit performative acts.

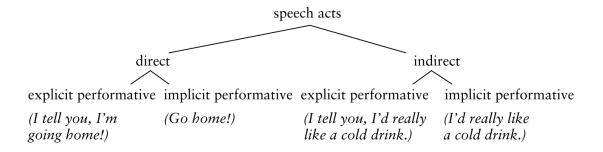


Figure 3, Speech act directness

To analyze indirect speech acts, Searle believes that the Gricean cooperative principle (i.e., shared knowledge and general power of rationality) is needed so the hearer can understand the

indirect act, which makes the indirect speech act analyzable via Gricean conversational implicature (Birner, 2012).

2.3 Politeness theory

Generally, politeness describes the appropriateness of social behaviors and speech (Huang, 2017). Kasper (1994: 3206) defines politeness as, "proper social conduct and tactful consideration of others." As discussed above during mention of the indirect illocution act, scholars question why speakers use indirect speech acts. This inquiry has led to research on politeness as cited in Asher and Simpson (1993).

Several scholars have studied politeness since the 1970s, but Lakoff (1973) is considered the pioneer scholar. She built her work on the Gricean view on politeness and proposed the importance of three rules: "Don't impose, Give options, and Make A feel good—be friendly" (Leech & Geoffrey, 2014). Lakoff (1990) revised these rules to include the following: "Distance," "Deference," and "Camaraderie," arguing for its importance and variation according to each culture (Leech & Geoffrey, 2014).

This communication distinction led Lakoff to define politeness as "a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange" (Lakoff & Lakoff, 1990).

Other scholars (Goffman 1967a, b; Gumperz 1982b; Goody 1995; Carrithers 1992; Enfield and Levinson 2006; Tomasello 2008, 2009) view politeness as a medium to maintain and build good social relationships which lead to human cooperation during interaction, and in turn, ultimately lead to universality roles that govern politeness (Huang, 2017).

This shift in politeness research from a focus on the speaker and the addressee to psychological and social factors has led scholars representing various fields to investigate politeness such as Lakoff and Leech in linguistics, Brown and Levinson in anthropology, and scholars in other areas associated with the social sciences, social psychology, sociology, and communication.

Politeness studies can be divided into three approaches or phases. The first one views politeness as a culturally related social norm (Ide, 1989; Watts, 1992). In this approach, Ide criticizes Brown and Levinson, and Leech for their Western bias when explaining politeness. She introduced the terms volition and discernment, where discernment plays a role in the Japanese culture's version of politeness, as opposed to volition in Western cultures.

Leech (2014) argues that each society has conventionally known the linguistic terms associated with various speech acts. However, collectivistic cultures such as the Japanese culture differ from individualistic cultures in politeness form (Huang, 2017; Leech, 2014).

The second one used to explain politeness is the Gricean approach (CP) and is socially derived (i.e., quality, quantity, relevance, and manner). The basic idea being that speakers are cooperative during conversation and share a common goal. Speakers may follow or flout these principles during conversation, but their contributions should be appropriate (Birner, 2012). Thus, the message is transmitted efficiently: "Make your contribution such as required by the purposes of the conversation at the moment" (Huang, 2017).

2.4 The framework of the study

2.4.1 Politeness Theory: (Leech 1993, 2008)

Leech (1983) proposed the politeness principles (PP), building on Grecian work.

Interactors tend to show or imply politeness rather than impoliteness. According to Leech (1983), PP consists of six maxims: modesty, agreement, sympathy, tact, generosity, and approbation. Although these maxims are in imperative form, they describe the actual communication. Like Grecian's maxims, a violation of one of these maxims leads to an unsuccessful transmission of an intended message. Additionally, the cross-culture differences in these maxims are attributed to the encoded differences in each maxim according to each culture (Leech, 2014).

The maxim of approbation is relevant to the speech act of complaint. Leech uses Searle's (1975) taxonomy and categorizes speech acts such as complement and apologies as expressive. Thus, complaints can be appropriately examined employing the maxim of approbation. The maxim is summarized below (Leech, 2014).

APPROBATION MAXIM: minimize dispraise of O, [and maximize praise of O]

Leech (2014) proposed ten maxims in the revised version of PP by adding four maxims to the previous six: the obligation of S to O, the obligation of O to S, opinion reticence, and feeling reticence). Leech (2014, P:90) summarizes all the maxims in the general strategy of politeness (GSP):

General Strategy of Politeness:

In order to be polite, S expresses or implies meanings that associate a favorable value with what pertains to S or associates an unfavorable value with what pertains to S (S = self, speaker).

The revised approbation maxim (Leech, 2014)

Give a high value to O's qualities (approbation Maxim)

In the approbation maxim, the speaker is expected to give value to others. Leech argues that speakers often observe this maxim except when the speaker has a more dominant social role or O was a third party (i.e., not the hearer).

Leech argues that two scales can be used to measure politeness: the pragmalinguistics scale and the sociopragmatics scale. The pragmalinguistics politeness scale (formerly "absolute") is derived from linguistics choices independent of context. Thus, "Thank you so much," is more polite than "Thanks." The sociopragmatics politeness scale quantifies politeness with respect to social norms and context. Thus, depending on the context, a complaint may be accepted or rejected--for example, a complaint to a stranger vs. a complaint to a close friend.

Leech argues that various speech act interactors such as complaints, compliments, advice, etc., have both *social* and *illocutionary* goals. Social goals reside within individuals who want to maintain good relationships. Thus, different speech acts support social goals or compete for social purpose--as with speech acts of complaint.

Leech divided the illocutionary function into four types of speech events--competitive, convivial, collaborative, and conflictive--and believed that speech acts of complaint should be included in a subcategory of conflictive illocutionary functions. Leech (2014:89) defined it as follows:

CONFLICTIVE: The illocutionary goal conflicts with the social goal, e.g., threatening, accusing, cursing, reprimanding.

Leech further argued that in conflictive situations such as those that are threatening or accusing--and complaining in the present study--politeness is not relevant. "Conflictive speech events do not normally involve politeness (except perhaps ironically), as there is no reason to be polite when the nature of the speech event is to cause deliberate offense" (Leech, 2014, 90).

If Leech's maxims are applied to the current study, complaining is not what individuals want to do since it conflicts with their social goals. However, complaining continues and it is beneficial to know how and why. If we apply the Leech maxim of approbation, no complaint should occur. However, two forms of the politeness scale may be used to examine complaints, directness, and the usage of mitigations. It should follow that the more indirect complaints are, the more interactors follow the approbation maxim.

The third approach to politeness was established by Goffman (1967 b) who associates the concept of "face" with politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 61) define *face* as "the public self-image that every member (of a society) wants to claim for himself." Goffman argues that speakers have two types of face: a positive one during which an individual wants to be loved by others, and a negative one used when an individual feels more independent. A face violation is considered a face-threatening act (FTA).

2.4.2 Politeness Theory: Brown and Levinson (1987)

Building on Goffman's work, Brown & Levinson (1987) place face and rationality at the center of the Politeness Theory, and these concepts are incorporated into the present study. Face

can be either negative, "the desire to be unimposed upon, unimpeded in one's actions," or positive, "the desire to be approved of, admired, liked, validated" (Huang, 2017).

Brown and Levinson (1987) contend that speakers are rational and have a common goal when they communicate during conversations. Moreover, drawing on data analysis from different languages and cultures, they argue for universal roles that govern politeness such as being polite to superiors and strangers. Social norms and values vary from one culture to another, and to different degrees (Huang, 2017). In Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987), universality can be illustrated in the "face want" that most people want to preserve, whether positive or negative.

Brown & Levinson (1987) also consider the speech act of complaint as a FTA to the H since it affects the H's face want of solidarity with others (positive face) and the need to be autonomous and respected (negative face). How the S and the H interact determines the face type and politeness strategies. Since a complaint is a FTA, there may be more use of indirect complaints and internal and external modifications to lessen the complaint's effect.

Building on face and rational concepts, Brown and Levinson (1987) argue for other contextual factors such as social power, social distance, degree of imposition, and psychological factors to impact speech act choices. They have proposed five strategies that individuals can employ to either perform a face-threatening act or avoid one entirely, as shown in Figure 4.

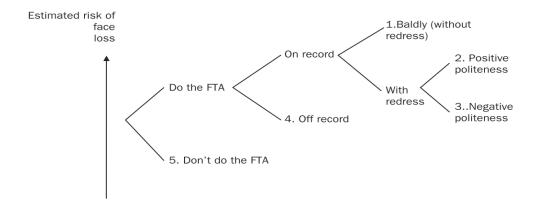


Figure 4 Brown and Levinson's FTA strategies

Based on the Pragmatic of Politeness by Leech: Oxford University Press, 2014, P.30.

As shown in Figure 4, the strategies are ordered in ascending order according to the estimated risk of face loss (i.e., politeness and indirectness). Strategy 1 shows the highest amount of directness and face-threatening act by using a "bald-on-record." However, the speaker may use strategy number 5 to avoid a face-threatening act.

The speaker may use strategy number 2 (i.e., positive politeness) when the hearer's positive face is taken into account, showing solidarity or endearment. Additionally, if the speaker wants to attend to the hearer's negative face, mitigation is used to lessen the face threat act (i.e., negative politeness). Hints and metaphors can illustrate "off-recorded" politeness when the speaker chooses indirect speech acts to express the FTA. Finally, the speaker may not choose to completely perform the FTA.

To determine the politeness level of a complaint, the "weightiness" of the face-threatening act is calculated using three variables: social distance between speakers and hearers (D), Power (P), and ranking of imposition (R). As a result of these variables' impact on speech acts of complaint, the definition of complaint become more complex, particularly when applied to

Twitter. Even though politeness is necessary for analysis and answering specific research questions, the majority of complaints encountered in the present study were more impolite than polite, thereby increasing the need to employ Culpeper's Impoliteness Theory (2011), which if discussed below.

2.4.3 Impoliteness Theory: Culpeper's (2011)

Earlier discussions of Politeness Theory by Leech (2014), and Brown and Levinson (1987), demonstrate that the theory appears to be relatively optimistic in terms of human interaction, whereas social harmony is always present and unpleasant communication is ignored. Also, the concept of face is disputed by Culpeper (2011) who contends that Brown and Levinson (1987) disregard the impact an individual's face has on a group surrounding an individual (collectivistic culture).

Culpeper (2011) states that impoliteness is a challenging concept to describe because it is dependent on the surrounding context and offers the following definition: "Impoliteness comes about when: (1) the speaker communicates face-attack intentionally, or (2) the hearer perceives and/or constructs behavior as intentionally face-attacking, or a combination of (1) and (2)" (Culpeper, 2011, p. 23).

Another important impoliteness concept involves face. Culpeper (2011) showed that the concept of face in Brown and Levison's (1987) Theory of Politeness was influenced by the West's individualistic culture--it ignores the role of face in relation to society and the group surrounding an individual. This criticism led Culpeper (2011) to incorporate the "Rapport Management" paradigm (Spencer-Oatey, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2005, 2007).

The Rapport Management Modal divides face into three levels: (1) individual, (2) interpersonal, and (3) group. Furthermore, the modal consists of five categories, three of which describe face type: quality, relational identity, and social identity. The remaining two categories are equity and association (cf. Culpeper 2011: 27–41).

Quality face refers to individuals' desire to be liked and positively evaluated for their personal qualities. Social identity face relates to individuals' desire to be liked for their social roles in society. Social face, or identity face, differs from the quality face in that it is more related to the group of people surrounding an individual (i.e., collective). Relational face relates to social face in that any social role entails social relationships.

Equity relates to individual rights such as being respected and not being forced to partake in unwanted actions. Similarly, association is about how compatibly people interact with each other and build relationships. In addition to the five categories, Culpeper includes taboo. It is a subcategory of sociality rights and a physical self-category to account for intimidation in the data.

Culpeper (2011) lists nine impoliteness strategies: insults, criticisms, challenging questions, condescensions, message enforcers, dismissals, silencers, threats, and negative expressions. The insults strategy is comprised of four subgroups: personalized negative vocatives, personalized negative assertions, personalized negative references, and personalized third-person negative references.

Table 1 Culpeper's Impoliteness strategies, 2011. pp.135-136

Impoliteness strategies	Examples
Insults / Personalized negative vocatives	[you] [fucking/rotten/dirty/fat/little/etc.]
	[moron/fuck/plonker/dickhead/berk/pig/shit/bastard/loser/liar/minx/b rat/slut/squirt/sod/bugger/etc.] [you]
Insults / Personalized negative assertions	[you] [are] [so/such a]
misuits / Tersonalized negative assertions	[shit/stink/thick/stupid/bitchy/bitch/hypocrite/disappointment/gay/nu
	ts/nuttier than a fruit
	cake/hopeless/pathetic/fussy/terrible/fat/ugly/etc.]– [you] [can't do]
	[anything right/basic arithmetic/etc.]— [you] [disgust me] / [make
	me] [sick/etc.]
Insults / Personalized negative references	[your] [stinking/little]
_	[mouth/act/arse/body/corpse/hands/guts/trap/breath/etc.]
Personalized third-person negative references	(in the hearing of the target)— [the] [daft] [bimbo]— [she]['s] [nutzo]
Pointed criticisms/complaints	[that/this/it] [is/was] [absolutely/extraordinarily/unspeakably/etc.]
	[bad/rubbish/crap/horrible/terrible/etc.]
Unpalatable questions and/or presuppositions	why do you make my life impossible? – which lie are you telling me? – what's gone wrong now? – you want to argue with me or you
presuppositions	want to go to jail?— I am not going to exploit for political purposes my opponent's youth and inexperience.
Condescensions	(See also the use of 'little' in Insults)— [that] ['s/ is being]
	[babyish/childish/etc.] Message enforcers—listen here (preface)—you
	got [it/that]? (tag)— do you understand [me]? (tag)Dismissals— [go]
a'!	[away]-[get] [lost/out]- [fuck/piss/shove] [off]
Silencers	[shut] [it] / [your] [stinking/fucking/etc.] [mouth/face/trap/etc.]— shut [the fuck] up
Threats	[I'll/I'm/we're] [gonna] [smash your face in/beat the shit out of
	you/box your ears/bust your fucking head off/straighten you out/etc.]
	[if you don't] [X]— [you'd better be ready Friday the 20th to meet
	with me/do it] [or] [else] [I'll][X]— [X] [before I] [hit you/strangle
Nagativa avpraggivas	you]
Negative expressives	(e.g. curses, ill-wishes)– [go] [to hell/hang yourself/fuck yourself]– [damn/fuck] [you]
	[иштијиск] [уди]

The conclusion is based on various evidence types, including video recordings, informant reports, and corpus data. The author also combined data from different languages such as Turkish, Chinese, Finnish, and German. Although no Arabic data was examined, the variety of cultures included in the data make it suitable to satisfy the current study's goal.

Even if the Impoliteness Theory fills the gap left by politeness when focusing on one aspect of social communication (i.e., politeness), each theory appears to regard politeness and impoliteness as two distinct ideas. This constraint prompted Locher and Watts to develop the Relational Work Theory in which both politeness and impoliteness are elements on a spectrum. The framework is described in the following section.

2.4.4 Relational Work: Locher and Watts (2005)

Despite recognizing the significance of Brown and Levison's (1987) Politeness Theory, Locher and Watts (2005) criticize it, arguing that it is a theory of face work and mitigation rather than one that explains politeness. Furthermore, the theory fails to account for more negative and impolite forms of communication such as rudeness and abuse. Locher and Watts also criticize the Politeness Theory for disregarding social factors that influence communication.

When Locher and Watts (2005) perceived the shortcomings of the Politeness Theory and developed the Relational Work Theory, they defined relational work as "the effort individuals make to negotiate connections with others" (Locher & Watts, 2005, p. 10). As demonstrated in Figure 5, the key aspect of the Relational Work Theory is that it encompasses all types of politeness on the continuum, from unpleasant behavior to overly polite behavior.

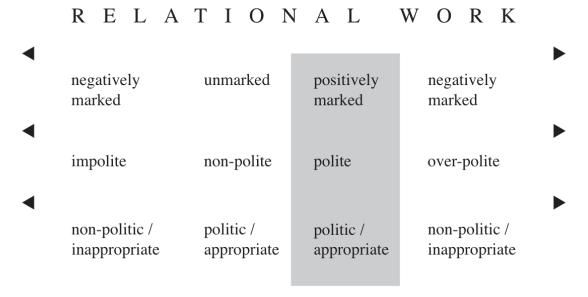


Figure 5 Relational Work by Locher and Watts., 2005, P.12

Importantly, the Relational Work Modal covers both polite and impolite communication, unlike the politeness theories of Leech (2008), Brown and Levison (1987), and the Impoliteness Theory of Culpeper (2011). In addition, relational work explains the social differences between polite and impolite behavior. The modal includes four categories: impolite and negatively marked behavior (column 1), non-polite but appropriate behavior (column 2), polite and appropriate behavior (column 3), and overpolite and inappropriate behavior (column 4). Despite the advantages of including all types of possible polite and impolite social communication, the distinction between each category is still subjective and differs from one culture to another.

Mindful of the various ideas posited by politeness, impoliteness, and relational work, the present study incorporated PP with Politeness Theory and Face Work (Brown & Levinson, 1987) to explain the finding. However, as the analysis will show below in the Results section, most of the complaints collected included impoliteness behavior which necessitated the use of

Culpeper's (2011) Impoliteness Theory. Additionally, the finding show that some complaints cannot be clearly categorized as either polite or impolite, making the use of Locher and Watts' (2005) Relational Work even more essential.

2.5 Complaints

Many scholars have studied speech acts of complaint in an effort to develop a precise definition of the behaviors. As the following discussion shows, defining a complaint in precise, formal language is not a simple feat. Section 2.7 contains an overview of the proposed definitions of speech act and complaint (Edmondson & House, 1981; Edwards, 2005; Heinemann & Traverso, 2009; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987, 1987a; Sacks, 1995; Trosborg, 1995). Section 2.7.1 summarizes prior research on speech acts of complaint. The following section, 2.6, provides an overview of various definitions of complaints, and the one used in the present study (Trosborg, 1995).

2.6 Definition of complaint

Complaint is one of the most difficult types of speech to define formally due to the difficulty of distinguishing between other related speech actions such as insult, threat, criticism, accusation, and warning (Edwards, 2005; Laforest, 2002). However, there are several proposed definitions of complaint in the literature. The present study will utilize Trosborg's (1995) definition of complaint: "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 complainee) responsible, either directly or indirectly" (Trosborg, 1995, pp. 311-312).

Edmondson and House (1981) define a complaint as "a verbal communication whereby a speaker expresses his negative view of a past action by the hearer (i.e., for which he holds the hearer responsible), in view of the negative effects of consequences of that action vis a vis himself" (Vladimirou et al., 2021). Thus, a prior offense is the source of complaint. In the present study, *prior offense* is associated with the company's poor service. However, complaints on Twitter can be complex due to addressivity issues in which complaints are not always sent or addressed directly to the hearer who causes the complaints. Secondary and other recipients are possible due to the nature of Twitter (Vladimirou et al., 2021). The data is devoid of spoken communication; it exclusively focuses on written Tweets.

A general definition of complaint has been proposed by Heinemann and Traverso (2009). They argue that complaining is a cooperative speech act depending on both the complainant and complainee, and to complain, the complainant holds "someone (to some person, organization or the like)" responsible for the act (Heinemann & Traverso, 2009). Additionally, complaint is generally defined as, "the slightest negative valence" that can be accounted as a complaint (Heinemann & Traverso, 2009).

Edwards (2005) has noted that complainers do not consider their complaints as "complaints"; they prefer to use more gentle negative terms such as "criticizing" or "trouble telling" (Edwards, 2005:24). Thus, the present study addressed whether complainers who complain on Twitter explicitly indicate they are complaining, or refrain from characterizing their speech acts as complaints.

Complaining is a sequenced activity that, like other long sequences such as troublesjokes-and-storytelling, deviates from the conventional turn-by-turn allocation in interactions. Complaint sequences come in two orders: (1) Begin with a praise and followed it with the contrastive "but." For example, "I like you, but you talk a lot." (2) The opposite—begin with a complaint, add *but*, then add something else. For example, "He is not smart, but I like him" (Sacks, 1992, pp. 360-361).

The present study investigated whether Saudi participants used the above sequences to complain; and if so, what sequence did they use most often? Did their Saudi complaints contain praise for Noon or just negative complaints? What contrastive words did they use?

According to Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), the speaker holds the hearer accountable for past or continuing activity and conveys "displeasure or aggravation as a response" to the action. Furthermore, for speech acts of complaint to occur, the speaker must meet the following preconditions (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987):

- a) S expected a favorable event to occur (an appointment, the return of a debt, the fulfillment of a promise, etc.) or an unfavorable event to be pre? vented from occurring (a cancellation, damage, insult, etc.). The ACT (A) results, therefore, in the violation of S's expectations by either having enabled or failed to prevent the offensive event.
- b) S views A as having unfavorable consequences for S. A is therefore the offensive act.
- c) S views H as responsible for A
- *d)* S chooses to express his/her frustration and disappointment verbally.

In the present study, the preconditions associated with a complaint may be true in (a), (b) and (c), but not (d) since written Tweets constituted the data. Furthermore, it was worth investigating whether the complainers on Twitter mentioned that their expectations were violated, as argued in (a). This determination was crucial in the present study since complaints were about poor service that did not meet customer expectations.

Speaker must consider two criteria while determining whether to engage in an act of complaint (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987). First, the speaker must evaluate the context to determine whether there is a possible reverse or repairer to soften the complaint. Second, the speaker must consider the face of both the speaker and the hearer since complaining is a FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The speaker's complaint may range in its severity, where punishment against the H is the most severe complaint strategy and opting out is the least severe.

The present study utilized the general definition of *complaint* provided by Trosborg (1995)--that overlapping speech acts such as criticism, disapproval, accusation, warning, insult, and threat will be included in complaints, since they are hard to distinguish and are face-threatening. "In Leech terminology, the complaint is a representative of the conflictive function, which includes the act of threatening, accusing, cursing, and reprimanding" (Trosborg, 1995). In his taxonomy, Trosborg (1995) considered various FTAs as different complaint strategies or directive acts, proposing that requests and threats be considered directive acts that can be added to the complaint. The taxonomy is presented in 3.1.1.2.

This distinction has been made in other studies that have examined speech acts of complaint (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; Edmondson & House, 1981; Edwards, 2005; Heinemann & Traverso, 2009; Laforest, 2002; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987). However, some have considered these different complaint act strategies, while others such as Trosborg (1995) have considered them directive acts that can be added to complaints.

Brown and Levinson (1987) distinguish between complaint, disapproval accusation, criticism, and other FTAs. Also, Ishihara and Cohen (2014) differentiate between threatening and complaint, leading to the term, *speech act set*--a speaker may use one type of speech act in

combination with another distinct act. "In complaining, you could include a threat, which constitutes a speech act distinct from complaining (e.g., 'OK, then. If you won't turn your music down, I'll call the police'!)" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2014).

In this current study, FTAs refer to threats as directed actions, and accusations as complaint methods. It was critical to determine if complainants used these FTAs or not, and if they did, how they used them.

Although the study focused on the definition of speech acts of complaint provided by Trosborg (1995) in identifying complaints, the study examined other definitions of complaint (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; Edmondson & House, 1981; Edwards, 2005; Heinemann & Traverso, 2009; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Sacks, 1995) to determine what aspects of these definitions occurred in CMC Twitter complaints.

2.6.1 Previous complaint studies

Speech acts of complaint have been researched from various perspectives, but largely from a pragmatists point of view. Most have focused on either interlanguage pragmatics (Abdolrezapour et al., 2012; El-Dakhs et al., 2019; Ezzaoua, 2020; Kakolaki & Shahrokhi, 2016; Kreishan, 2018; Laabidi & Bousfiha, 2020; Li & Suleiman, 2017; Lukić & Halupka-Rešetar, 2020; Mofidi & Shoushtari, 2012; Sukyadi, 2011; Yuan & Zhang, 2018) or cross-linguistics studies (Al-khawaldeh, 2016; de Leon & Parina, 2016; Farnia et al., 2010; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993; Spees, 1994) (Farnia et al., 2010) (Kozlova, 2004) (Chen et al., 2011). The general goal has been to examine speech acts of complaint using semantic formulas and complaint strategies.

Since the present investigation aimed to examine speech acts of complaint in Arabic in CMC on Twitter, the focus of the literature review was on studies that examined complaints in

speaker's first (native) language (i.e., monolingual). The investigators examined written complaints in general, and written CMC complaints on Twitter.

Section 2.6.2 below provides an overview of studies that have examined complaints in languages other than Arabic, and Section 2.6.3 provides an overview of studies that have examined complaints in Arabic as well as relevant studies that have researched complaints in CMC.

2.6.2 Complaints in other languages

Bonikowska (1988) conducted a study examining speech acts of complaint among undergraduate British English speakers, and provided four reasons why students opt out when facing an action (A), leading him to conclude that opting out should be considered a speech act within the realm of pragmatics. The four reasons relate to conditions that prompt acts of complaining, or the act's relationship to the speaker's goal or other relevant contextual factors.

In the interest of logical progression, it is important to discuss studies that have investigated complaints in non-Arabic languages prior to examining complaints in Arabic. One of the most cited works in speech acts of complaint was done by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) who examined how advanced Hebrew learners and native Hebrew speakers differ in complaint behavior. They developed a severity of complaint perception scale and had 70 participants complete a discourse completion questionnaire that included 20 situations. They subsequently categorized complaints into five strategies: (1) Below the level of reproach. A speaker chooses to not complain explicitly. For example, if the hearer spills a cup of coffee, the speaker will say, "Don't worry about it"; (2) Expression of annoyance or disapproval. The speaker complains indirectly. For example, a speaker might say, "This is unacceptable behavior"; (3) Explicit

complaint. This is a direct complaint made by the speaker. For example, "You are inconsiderate"; (4) Accusation and warning. A speaker accuses and warns a hearer during a face-threatening act. For example, "Next time, I'll let *you* wait for hours"; (5) An immediate threat. A speaker verbally attacks the hearer. For example, "I'm not moving one inch before you change my appointment." The findings show that most complaints center around the middle of the scale.

Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) examined the differences in speech acts of complaint between intermediate and advanced learners of Hebrew as a second language. What is relevant to the present study is that in their initial analysis they used three native speaking groups:

American, British, and Hebrew. The study employed a DCT composed of twenty-five situations; and in written responses, the participants evaluated the severity of each situation. The results showed that one third of the participants opted out, and that all three groups were very direct in their responses--almost 70% were direct unmitigated complaints. Click or tap here to enter text.

Another well-known speech acts of complaint study was House and Kasper's (1981) investigation of English and German complaints. They used role play to examine verbal complaints via speaker pairs in each language. The study analyzed complaints based on an eight-level scale, with eight being the most direct way to complain. The results showed that the German group was more direct than the British group, numbering seven and eight on the scale; the British group did not come close to this level. Overall, the finding showed that both groups' complaints centered around level six of directness.

Boxer (1993) examined both indirect complaints and commiseration. The study aimed to examine the role of social distance on both complaint and commiseration conditions by comparing the results with Wolfson's Theory of Social Distance. The data contained 426

conversations that took place in northeastern US university communities which were recorded and transcribed. Boxer differentiates between direct and indirect complaints. In direct complaints, the addressee is held accountable for the offensive act; whereas in indirect complaints, the addressee engages in "griping" and "grumbling." The focus of the study was on indirect complaints defined as: "The expression of dissatisfaction to an interlocutor about a speaker himself/herself or someone/something that is not present" (Boxer, 1993). The results showed that indirect complaint patterns differ from Wolfson's finding--that indirectness increases when interactors are of different statutes. The results showed that indirect complaints to strangers and intimate addressees have dissimilar patterns.

A review of speech acts of complaint studies suggest that investigators have either employed discourse completion tasks or role play as research methods. These techniques are useful for controlling contextual factors that influence complaints; however, they result in unnatural language production. In addition, the small number of participants in some of the studies makes it difficult to generalize results. For instance, House and Kasper's (1981) study only included four participants. The purpose of the present study was to investigate complaints made by Saudi speakers. Henceforth, the following section will examine pertinent literature on Arabic complaints.

2.6.3 Complaints in Arabic

El-Dakhs, Al-Haqbani, et al. (2019) examined speech acts of complaint among Saudi native speakers of Arabic. The data were collected via six roleplays using 120 Saudi speakers of Najdi dialects spoken in the central region of Saudi Arabia. The data were then coded using Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy. The study aimed to examine the role of contextual and social

factors such as age, gender, social distance, and social dominance on Saudis' complaints. The finding showed that Saudis use directive acts, most often blaming the addressee and demonstrating disapproval. Also, the finding showed similar usage of initiators and internal and external modifiers, with internal modifiers being the most often used. Social dominance and social distance appear to play a role in the way Saudis complain. For instance, with distant addressees, Saudis use more initiators, whereas, they use more internal modifiers with non-distant addressees.

Furthermore, El-Dakhs, et al. (2019) found that in terms of social dominance, high-status participants received the most indirect complaints, while lower-status participants received the most direct complaints. Age was shown to have a more significant effect than gender. For example, young squids used more hedges than older participants, and older participants employed a greater variety of complaint strategies than younger participants.

A recent study on the speech acts of Saudi and Egyptian Arabic complainers was conducted by El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) who used roleplay to elicit complaint strategies from 120 undergraduate students. The data were analyzed using Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy, and the results were similar to those found in their previous study (El-Dakhs, et al., 2019). Most often, both groups used directive acts such as request and threats, with request used most frequently. Also, both groups employed all complaining strategies in the taxonomy and showed a high level of directness in their complaints. The least direct complaint strategies, such as hints and opting out, were the least used by both groups. Additionally, both groups employed internal modifiers more than initiators and external modifiers. Social variables such as gender, social distance, and

social dominance were also examined, the findings indicating that social distance and dominance played a significant role in speech acts of complaint for both groups.

In an interlanguage pragmatics study, Rashidi (2017) examined speech acts of complaint among three groups: native Saudi speakers of Arabic, Saudi learners of English, and native English speakers. The study used a DCT to examine 183 written complaints. The findings showed that the three groups used request, hint, and annoyance strategies the most. The results also showed a negative transfer in almost all strategies used by Saudi learners of English except direct accusation.

In a cross-culture study, Al Khawaldeh (2016) determined the number and types of politeness strategies that Jordanian Arabic and British English individuals use to complain. Al-Khawaldeh (2016) found similar numbers of complaints were used to save hearers' face; however, a distinguishable difference in the types of complaints used by Jordanians and Americans was identified. Al-Khawaldeh's (2016) study has limitations, as the author admits, because social distance and other variables such as age and gender of the interlocutors were not examined.

Al-Shorman (2016) compared speech acts of complaint between Jordanian Arabic speakers and Saudi Arabic speakers using a DCT that contained 12 hypothetical situations by analyzing 150 undergraduate students' complaints. The results showed that both groups used a wide range of strategies that fell into four complaint categories: "direct complaint, offensive act, calmness and rationality, and opting out" (Al-Shorman, 2016). The study also demonstrated that the Saudi group complained more frequently than the Jordanian group, and that the two groups

differed in offensive act strategies. Social status also came into play during complaints--higher status addressees received complaints after those of lower status.

Migdadi et al. (2012) examined fifteen Jordanian on-air radio show episodes comprised of 120 complaint calls in Jordanian Arabic, during which Jordanian citizens called to complain about current issues such as a "lack of public services." The study employed the Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987) as a theoretical framework. The results showed that Jordanian callers attempted to build a relationship and solidarity with the host in order to resolve their problems. Complainers were instructed to announce the topic, state the problem, reiterate the problem, and request a solution (Migdadi et al., 2012). A limitation of the study was that complainers were not allowed to address their complaints to hearers who had caused the problem, and this may have changed the positive tone they used with the radio show host.

Al Hammuri (2011) examined how Jordanian and American college students express and respond to indirect complaints. The study also examined the frequency, similarities, and strategy differences used by the two groups. Other contextual variables such as gender and social distance were also examined. The total number of student participants was 60, divided into two groups. The data was collected via a DCT comprised of 20 hypothetical situations. The results showed that Jordanian and American students employ similar complaint strategies. The data analysis also found that both gender and social distance play a role in using complaint strategies. The disparities were linked to Jordanian and American students' social and cultural differences.

Similarly, Al-Omari (2008) compared Jordanian Arabic and American English speakers' complaints using a DCT. The results showed that overall, both groups used similar strategies. However, joking and demands for justification were only employed by the American group; the

Jordanian group used more strategies and was the only to employ regret. Additionally, the American group showed more directness than the Jordanian group. There was also a statistically significant gender difference. Based on Arabic complaint studies, it is evident that most have relied on DCT or role play which can generate unnatural language patterns. Thus far, studies have focused on complaints in spoken or written Arabic--none of them have examined CMC, creating a gap in the literature. Additionally, previous studies on Saudi complaints have been limited to spoken complaints and a single location in Saudi Arabia (Najd province). The present study focused on Saudi Arabic complaints from across the country.

In CMC, Vásquez (2011) examined speech acts of complaint reviews from the travel website, TripAdvisor. The study examined 100 negative reviews written in English to determine whether spoken complaints differed from written complaints. The results showed that a sizable number of complaints juxtaposed negative and positive statements. Employing the definition of complaint provided by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), a similar number of complaints contained the expectation that the problem would not be solved. Furthermore, the study found advice and recommendation to be the most frequent *speech act set* offered in response to a complaint. Finally, the study observed both direct and indirect complaints; however, indirect complaints occurred most frequently.

Meinl (2013) examined speech acts of complaint in both German and British English writing on eBay. The manually collected data included German and British English feedback forums between 2004 and 2006, and consisted of 800 complaints divided equally between the two groups. The analysis showed that both groups demonstrated similarities and differences in complaint realizations.

The groups differed in complaint directness in that the members of the German group were more direct and threatened the addressees more often than the British when they had not received an expected item. The British used insults more often than the Germans when the items were not returned, and the Germans preferred self-conclusion as a strategy to complain when the item was different than expected. The two groups also differed in how they intensified their complaints; the German group preferred to use exclamation marks, whereas the British group preferred to use pronouns to blame complainees. Despite differences between the German and British complaints, the groups showed similar patterns--explicit complaints were the most often used strategies among both groups, and both groups used more intensifying than mitigation features in their complaints.

Vladimirou, et al. (2021) examined the realization of complaints in CMC on Twitter. They used addressivity and diachronicity to determine how complaints become aggressive on social media, as well as how complex addressivity (multiple addressees) and related complex participation lead to aggressive complaints. The study found that complex addressivity leads to escalation, and that complainers do not agree with complainees—they share the same cause.

Vladimirou and House (2018) examined impoliteness of Twitter, investigating approximately 1,000 tweets about the Greek prime minister, Alexis Tsipras. The study suggested a new label for online impoliteness, *ludic impoliteness*, wherein Twitter is a productive space for impoliteness and entertainment. Ludic behavior seems to deliver a serious message using a comical approach. To achieve ludic behaviors in Twitter, participants use entextualization, resemiotisation, and virality. The tweets included various semiotic resources to criticize the Greek prime minister by using the English language, code-switching and code-mixing, as well as

Greek culture references. The study also noted how the hashtag meaning can shift from its original meaning. Participants also used strategies that facilitated impoliteness such as "condescend, scorn, ridicule" (CSR), analogy and juxtaposition. The study also showed how a meme can play an important role as a source and starting point for impoliteness.

Another study that examined impoliteness in CMC was conducted by Amir & Jakob (2018). It described the impoliteness methods that were used on the famous soccer player Cristiano Ronaldo's Facebook page. The authors acquired 424 comments from Facebook and analyzed the data using Culpeper's (2011) Impoliteness Theory. They found that Facebook users deploy sarcasm, insults, and profanity--with insults being the most prevalent impolite strategy. The study contended that anonymity, the absence of nonverbal clues, and emotion constitute rudeness in the comments. A weakness of the study was the small sample size utilized, making it impossible to generalize the results to all Facebook users. In addition, the authors failed to provide a precise description or operationalization of what they believed to be impoliteness, rendering the data less random.

Hammod and Abdul-Rassul (2017) conducted a study that examined Facebook impoliteness using Culpeper's (1996) framework to analyze Arabic and English impoliteness in Facebook comments. Four impoliteness strategies were identified: bald on record, positive impoliteness, negative impoliteness, and sarcasm--with positive and negative impoliteness being the most prevalent. The study found no differences in impoliteness levels between English and Arabic comments; however, English speakers deployed more complex strategies than Arabic speakers. The study highlighted the effect of context on impoliteness tactics employed by both

Arabic and English speakers. It also emphasized that anonymity is not the sole factor influencing rudeness; Facebook users with full names also left disrespectful comments.

Harb (2021) examined Arabic comments on 19 Facebook pages in three genres: religion, politics, and society. The study examined approximately fifty-thousand words using Locher and Watts's (2005) politeness framework. The study identified ten strategies that Arabic speakers use to show disagreement. The author argues that these strategies cannot be classified as either polite or impolite but are appropriate using Locher and Watt's (2005) Relational Work. The study found that Arabic speakers use unmarked (politic/appropriate) strategies 45% of the time for contradiction, challenge, supplication, elimination, mild scolding, and claimed irrelevancy. Also, the results showed that negative-marked strategies (verbal attack and verbal irony) and positively marked strategies (counterclaim, argument avoidance) were used similarly at 29% and 26%, respectively.

Using Culpeper's (1996) impoliteness framework, Kadri et al. (2021) analyzed impoliteness strategies employed by Malaysian Twitter users during 442 interactions directed at the Malaysian royal family and found that Malaysians use five strategies: bald on record, positive politeness, negative impoliteness, off record, and sarcasm. The off-record strategy was used most often (31%), and positive impoliteness was used least often (13.2%). The results suggested that the role of state power was not very effective—the researches arguing that this was perhaps due to internet access, age of the users (the younger generation), and the political beliefs Malaysians held against the royal family.

Angouri and Tseliga (2010) investigated impoliteness in CMC among two groups conversing in forums: Greek students and academic professionals. Using Culpeper et al.'s (2003)

impoliteness framework, 200 online posts were analyzed. They concluded that: (1) impoliteness is determined by discourse context and social context; (2) there are other causes of impoliteness, including the aim of communication, the forum's roles, and the social relationships among interactors; (3) participants' use of various spellings and punctuation to communicate rudeness can be influenced by the medium of the study; and (4) individuals' identity plays a substantial role in impoliteness.

Other studies appear in the literature which have focused on written complaints that do not involve CMC such as the Hartford and Mahboob (2004) investigation that compared model and authentic letter complaints to editors selected from self-help books written in American English, Urdu, and South Asian English. The study found that all letters shared the same discourse organizations: "introduction, praise, attention-getter, background, complaint, appeal to the editor, request for redress, suggestion, justification for request or suggestion" (Hartford & Mahboob, 2004). The directness of complaints was found to be similar in all letters. However, directness differed in range and distribution.

Another study that examined written complaints, but not in CMC, was conducted by Ranosa-Madrunio (2004) who examined the discourse structure of "letters to the editor" complaints in both Philippine and Singapore English and found that similar discourse strategies were used, and that both request and suggestion speech acts co-occurred with a complaint. There was a slight difference in the length of letters and use of the introduction in the samples. It was also noted that Philippine English complaints were indirect, whereas Singaporean complaints were more direct (Ranosa-Madrunio, 2004).

Most of the complaint studies found in the literature review relied on DCT, which can render unnatural data. Also, it appears that very few studies have focused on speech acts of complaint on Twitter; and more specifically, no study has examined such speech acts in Arabic on Twitter. Moreover, most of the earlier investigations relied on insufficient amounts of data. The focus thus far has been on spoken complaints; little attention has been paid to written complaints in CMC. Also, CMC differs from previous studies on written complaints in that it is often not edited, colloquial in tone, and available to many users on a variety of devices. The difference between spoken and written complaint, and complaint in CMC suggests the need for a concise definition of speech acts of complaint in CMC, which is one of the goals of the present study.

This study filled these gaps by evaluating written Arabic complaints in CMC. Hence, it investigated public complaints on Twitter to Noon's customer care account. Additionally, the study addressed the directness level of complaints on Twitter. RQs 1-4 were answered using Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy. Furthermore, to answer research questions about complaints' RQs 5-8 characteristics, the study used a corpus-based analysis following Vásquez's (2011) work.

Finally, the study employed statistical analysis to answer the research questions; chisquare tests were employed according to variable type. The following section will provide additional details about the study's methodology.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Following a discussion of the study's underlying theoretical approach, Chapter 3 discusses methodology. It discusses pilot data outcomes (3.1), data collection methodology (3.2), data coding techniques (3.3), and the pros and cons of the methodology used (3.4).

3.1 Pilot Study

I was introduced to politeness theory and speech acts in the Pragmatics course taught during the Fall 2018 semester, and to the relationship between language and gender in the Language and Gender course taught during the Fall 2019 semester. My work on speech acts of complaint was extended in the qualifying exam, where I conducted a study on the role of age and gender in the speech act of complaining. I employed a Likert scale questionnaire in which 147 male and 145 female Arabic-speaking Saudis (N = 292) rated six hypothetical situations. The findings showed that both males and females have a high and similar likelihood of complaining. Nevertheless, further analysis shows that male participants are significantly more hesitant to complain to a young female, and female participants are considerably more cautious about complaining to older male interlocutors. Moreover, regardless of gender, the complainers' age plays a significant role in complaining among Saudis, where young and old Saudis show more politeness than a middle-aged group. When taking the addressee's age into account, there was a lower likelihood of complaint when the addressee was young or old compared to the middle-aged group.

The limitation of using hypothetical situations and discourse completion tasks is that participants may not use natural language, which would lead to an inaccurate conclusion about

the speech act under analysis. Thus, in this study, I first tried examining spoken complaints in Arabic. However, this type of data was not available at the time of the study. This limitation led me to examine written complaints on Twitter, where naturally occurring complaints are expected.

I ran a pilot study consisting of 149 public tweets written in Arabic for a corpus linguistics class in Fall 2021. The data was further analyzed in the spring of 2022. The corpus featured complaints from Saudi online shopping customers who expressed dissatisfaction for various reasons. The data was manually gathered to look for complaint related speech acts; irrelevant tweets were eliminated. Although the search method was beneficial in that it focused on complaints, a downside is that the tweets' quantity was limited and the data acquired was recent. Each tweet in the dataset was screenshotted and then manually coded in an Excel file. Subsequently, R was used to count frequency and relative frequency and to visualize the results graphically.

The findings indicated that Saudis use various complaint strategies, and that they are very direct in their complaints, threatening their own and the addressee's faces. Over half of all complaints included the most straightforward strategy--direct blaming. However, the hinting strategy--the least direct strategy--was the least employed.

The pilot study had limitations. One issue was that the corpus of the study was relatively small since the data was manually collocated. Another issue was that the tweets contained screenshots, forcing me to examine the data solely using a pragmatic approach, not a corpus analysis. These limitations led to an improved method of collecting tweets--using Twitter API,

where thousands of tweets can be randomly selected and examined.¹ Also, corpus-automated software, AntConc, could be used for the corpus analysis.

3.2 Data collection procedures

Two methods can be used to conduct corpus research. The first is to build the corpus from collected data, or use already built ones (Sifianou, 2015). For those using web data, one approach is called "Web as a corpus," and the other is "Web for corpus building" (Fletcher, 2007). The present study followed the second approach employing Twitter as a data source.

The study aimed to analyze speech acts of complaint on Twitter. Two collection procedures could be used to achieve this goal. First, complaints on Twitter could be accessed using an application programming interface (API), followed by using a Twitter API account via R codes to scrape tweets, or through third-party tools that facilitate API access such as DataSift. Second, data could be collected manually by copying tweets' texts onto an Excel sheet, or screenshotting the texts and then transforming them into an Excel sheet. Collecting the data manually might not have been a practical method for collecting many tweets to build a corpus.

Thus, I used the first approach to help gain bigger data. Initially, I created a Twitter API account to access tweets via the R program, and different packages were used to download and clean the corpus (R Core Team, 2017). R program search methods were chosen to scrape the tweets. To focus speech acts of complaint toward one addressee and avoid noisy data, I collected tweets addressed only to Noon's customer care account by using the user mentioned timeline (@noon_cares). This also helped avoid the inclusion of re-tweet tweets known to be misleading when counting frequency (Harvey, 2020).

¹ The APA was free at the time this study was conducted. However, the tool is no longer free as of Feb. 9, 2023.

Twitter API imposes rate limits when scraping the data; thus, data scraping took relatively longer, and tweets appeared online from July 11, 2022, to October 11, 2022.

Various methods (corpus vs. pragmatics) were used to analyze the present study's data, necessitating different data sets according to each utilized method. The data was divided into two main data sets--data for corpus analysis (target corpus and reference corpus), and a data set for more focused pragmatics analysis. Table 2 illustrates the data sets.

Table 2. Data of the study

Data set type	Original number of scraped tweets	Clean and filtered tweets	Selected tweets for analysis
Target corpus data	7,536	6,099	6,099
Reference corpus	28,112	7,503	6,099
Pragmatic data	5,227	1,366	1,000

Target corpus data constitute the first data set. Tweets for the target corpus were scraped in nine rounds; the original number of tweets was 7,536. Contrary to filtering steps in the other data set for the pragmatics analysis, filtering and cleaning were different for the target corpus.

Cleaning the data was necessary for the corpus analysis since automated analysis requires cleaned data.

Thus, the data were cleaned in R by first removing non-Arabic or English words or letters; all numbers; diacritics; single letters alone; newlines; tabs; beginning and end spaces; and empty, duplicated, and fewer than two-word rows. Unwanted spaces were reduced to one space, and different letters were normalized to one letter.

This cleaning phase facilitated frequency counting and the analysis in AntConc by providing greater data consistency. After cleaning the target corpus, the data was downloaded into Microsoft excel spreadsheets and filtered to only include tweets addressed to the Noon

customer care account (@noon_cares). After cleaning and filtering the target corpus from 7,536 tweets, the target corpus contained 6,099 tweets.

The second set of data was utilized as the corpus of reference. By comparing the frequency of the same word across the target corpus and the reference corpus to determine which of these words occurred more frequently, the reference corpus is utilized to identify the keywords. By identifying the keywords that are utilized in complaints, the analysis of keywords will ultimately aid in answering the research questions concerning the definition of complaint. In addition, by classifying the keywords, the keyword analysis will assist us in understanding how the complaining discourse develops in CMC.

Tweets written to the Saudi News account on Twitter were chosen (@SaudiNews50) to build the reference corpus for several reasons: (1) the target corpus included tweets, (2) there should be an equal number of tweets in both target and reference corpuses--which is very important for frequency accuracy, (3) filtering and cleaning processes can be applied to both data sets, and (4) tweets in both Twitter accounts were primarily written by Saudi speakers of Arabic.

The reference corpus was first scraped and cleaned in R using the same steps applied to the target corpus. The scraped was done in four rounds, the process taking fewer rounds because I was able to scrape a larger number of tweets each time. Also, the data was downloaded and filtered into Microsoft Excel spreadsheets. Only tweets addressed to the Saudi News account on Twitter were included in the data. After cleaning and filtering 28,112 tweets, only 7,503 remained. Since an equal reference corpus to the target corpus would increase accuracy, especially for the frequency estimation of low-frequency words and log ratio (Harvey, 2020), I randomly selected 6,099 tweets—the same number of tweets in the target corpus.

The third set of data was used for a pragmatics analysis. The goal was to examine 1,000 tweets. For this analysis, 5,227 tweets were scraped in R, and the data were filtered in the Excel sheet and cleaned in R. It was not necessary to clean the data completely as was done for the target and reference corpus, because the pragmatic tools used in the tweets--punctuation, emoticons, letter repetitions, and word repetitions which play a role in the pragmatics analysis--had to be coded. However, duplicate tweets, unnecessary spaces, non-Arabic words, and empty rows were eliminated. Also, duplicate rows were eliminated to avoid duplicate tweets.

The data was then downloaded into Microsoft Excel spreadsheets, and the tweets were filtered. Only 100 or more characters in each tweet were included in the data set since very short tweets would not have had enough linguistic elements for a pragmatics analysis. Also, only tweets addressed to the Noon customer care account (@noon_cares) were included; other tweets were eliminated. Thus, initial complaints to the Noon customer care account were the focus of the data because other tweets may have included unrelated customer discussions. From the 5,227 tweets, the data was subset to 1,000 for pragmatics analysis.

Figure 6 depicts the data collection process, the cleaning and filtering process, and the final complaint datasets analyzed in the study.

Data collection

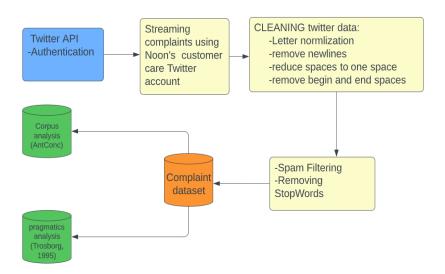


Figure 6. Data collection diagram showing the process of gathering and building the corpus 3.3 Data analysis

Virtanen (2009) contends that the use of corpus and pragmatics analysis is crucial to better understanding discourse. Thus, in the present study I used both approaches to better understand speech acts of complaint in Arabic on Twitter. First, the corpus method was used to identify the complaint's discourse (Baker et al., 2013; Harvey, 2020; McEnery & Baker, 2015; (Vásquez, 2011) and answer RQs 5-8. Second, a more focused analysis was carried out manually using Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy to answer the pragmatics research questions RQs1-4.

Methods of data analysis are broken down into further detail in Section 3.3.1 (corpus method) and the pragmatic analysis method is discussed in section 3.3.1.2. Following a

discussion of both analysis methods, the advantages and disadvantages of both methods are presented in section 3.4.

3.3.1 Data analysis (corpus method)

The corpus of the present study was analyzed in AntConc 4.1.2 (Anthony, 2022). Several AntConc tools were used--keywords, a keyword in context (KWIC), wildcard tool, concordance lines and collocations--depending on the research question of interest. Furthermore, the 100 keywords were categorized manually to explore patterns in the data. The frequency of lexical items related to complaints were reported. Thus, search words depended on the research question under analysis. The following section discusses how the research questions related to the corpus were answered.

3.3.1.1 How each research question related to the corpus analysis was answered

(RQ1) How often do complainants refer their complaints to their expectations? (Olshtain and Weinbach, 1987).

To answer the (RQ1), it was necessary to determine whether complaints included words or phrases linked to the term *expectations*. Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) argued that when a customer's expectations aren't satisfied, the phrase *expectations* should demonstrate that.

The keywords analysis determined whether a form of the word expectations occurred more significantly in the target corpus compared to the reference corpus, while a KWIC analysis provide all instances when the word appeared in different parts of speech (POT) in addition to the context surrounding the token. Also, the wildcard tool was used to search for words containing the root of the word consists of three characters (w,g,?). For example, the noun /tawagu?/, "expecting, expectation", and the verb /tawaga?a/ "he expect"/ tawaga?tu/ "I expect".

Since Arabic is a root-based language, a different part of speech is formed by adding various suffixes and prefixes. The frequency was then reported, and examples were provided.

(RQ2) To what extent do Arabic complaints juxtapose positive observation? And in what order (Sacks, 1992)?

To address RQ2 about complaints sequence. Complaints are often comprised of positive and negative statements, and contrastive words often divide them. To answer RQ2, it was important to know whether positive and negative words occurred significantly more often in the target corpus, as well as whether contrastive words were used to contrast two statements. It was also beneficial to know the surrounding context and whether negative and positive statements had been used.

First, the 100 keywords categorized in the first step were read to determine whether positive or negative words occurred more significantly in the corpus. Additionally, the KWIC tool was used to search for contrastive words in Arabic such as *lakin*, *bass* ("but"). However, reading the context surrounding contrastive words was important in order to be certain whether a contrast had been made, since contrastive words can be employed as discourse markers with functions other than contrasting two statements. Thus, the collocation tool and concordance lines were used to examine the surrounding semantic context to the right and left of a token.

(RQ3) Do complainers make it apparent that they're complaining? How often do complainers expressly state that they are complaining (Edwards, 2005)?

Question (RQ3) is related to the corpus analysis in the study and the definition of complaint provided by Edwards (2005). The first part of the question asked whether complainers explicitly show they are complaining. In other words, do complainers use the word *complaint* in their

complaints. To answer this question, I first reviewed the results of the 100 keywords and determined whether any form of the word *complaint* occurred significantly more often in the corpus. Also, the KWIC tool was useful in searching for different forms of *complaint* and the number of times it occurred. Additionally, the wildcard tool was used to search for different POT of *complaint* using the root of the word *shaka*, meaning to complain.

(RQ4) Does the complaint occur as a speech act set according to Cohen and Olshtain, (1993) and Olshtain and Weinbach (1987)?

To answer (RQ4), whether other speech acts of complaint occur in conjunction with other speech acts such as suggestion, warning, threat, recommendation, and advise, the keyword list was reviewed to determine the presence of related terms. KWIC, concordance, and cluster analysis was then utilized to identify items associated with each speech act.

3.3.1.2 Pragmatics analysis (method)

In order to answer RQs 5-8, the second method was used to conduct a discourse analysis of complaints. The data was coded using Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy. It compared speech acts of complaint used by Danish and English native speakers as well as three groups of Danish English learners at varying proficiency levels. The study employed interactive role-play to gather data.

The learners' performances were compared to native Danish to detect difficulties in performing acts of complaint. The study also examined complaint strategies, perspectives, and modifications as well as the roles of other contextual factors such as dominance and social distance. Intercultural differences were also reported.

The results showed that native speakers of both English and Danish use more complaint strategies than learner groups. All groups referenced both the complainer and the complainee,

but no statistical difference was found. However, there was a significant difference between the frequency of defocalized references to the complainer and the complainee. Furthermore, the results showed that native speakers used more internal and external modifiers than the learner group. The results showed that native English speakers use more hinting strategies than Danish native speakers who were more direct during complaints. Also, the learner group seemed not to be as affected by dominance and social distancing as the native groups.

3.3.1.2.1 Trosborg's (1995) model

3.3.1.2.2 Complaint strategies

The present study used Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy model to analyze the data because it is flexible and has been proven to be effective in studying Arabic complaints (El-Dakhs & Ahmed, 2021).

Table 3. Trosborg's (1995) model

Complaint strategies (Presented at levels of increasing directness)			
(Presented at levels of increasing directness) Situation: Damaged car Hearer has borrowed speakers' car and damaged it.			
Categories:	Example:		
Cat.I: No explicit reproach Str.1 Hint	-My car was in perfect order when I last drove it.		
	-There was nothing wrong with my car yesterday.		
Cat. II: Expression of disapproval Str.2 Annoyance	-There's a horrible dent in my car. Oh dear, I just bought it.		
Str.3 Consequences	-How terrible! Now I won't be able to get to work tomorrow. Oh, damn it, I'll lose my insurance bonus now.		
Cat. III: Accusation Str.4 Indirect	-You borrowed my car last night, didn't you?		
Str.5 Direct	-Did you happen to bump into my car.		
Cat. IV: Blame Str.6 Modified blame	Honestly, couldn't you have been more careful.		
Str.7 Explicit blame (behavior)	-It's really too bad, you know, going around wrecking other peoples' carsHow on earth did you manage to be so stupid?		
Str.8 Explicit blame (person)	-Oh no, not again! You thoughtless, bloody fool! You've done it again.		

Based on the Interlanguage Pragmatics of Trosborg: Walter de Gruyter, 1995, P.319

As illustrated in Table 3, Trosborg's taxonomy divides complaints into four main categories, each with several subcategories. There are eight strategies in total. Strategy 1 (hint) is the least direct strategy, and strategy eight (Explicit blame (person)) is the most direct one.

3.3.1.2.3 Directive acts

Directive acts are either added to complaints or implied; they help complainers make complainees repair damages. Directive acts are usually forced by moral judgments about a condemned action wherein a complainer attempts to prevent the complainee from repeating an unwanted action. It can be achieved through a request for repair, a threat, or a request for forbearance.

3.3.1.2.4 Focalized and defocalized references

Referencing the complainer and the complainee in a complaint is important. If the addressee is not mentioned in the complaint, the complaint might be ambiguous.

Trosborg (1995) distinguishes between two types of complainer referencing: Focalizing and defocalizing. In focalizing references, the emphasis is on the speaker. If a complaint references the speaker, the complaint may include the first-person pronoun "I," non-pronominal, proper, and common nouns. In defocalizing references, complainers do not reference themselves in the complaints in order to refrain from responsibility. However, it is also possible for the complainer not to include the addressee by employing the first-person plural pronoun "we."

Furthermore, Trosborg also proposed three categories: class-inclusive references, all-inclusive references, and pseudo inclusive references. In the class inclusive category, "complainers avoid attacking the complainee personally" (Trosborg, 1995); they defocalize the reference by speaking on behave of a group of people using the plural pronoun "we."

In all-inclusive references, the complaint includes reference to the complainer, the addressee, or others. An all-inclusive class is more general than a class-inclusive reference. Finally, pseudo-inclusive references can be found in political and academic settings. During complaints, higher-stake speakers often employ the plural pronoun "we."

From the hearer's perspective, the complainer may use the pronoun "you" or common noun to explicitly reference the complainee. In contrast, complainers may choose not to mention the addressee who cases the action in order to hide the addressee's identity, or the addressee is not known, or it is not crucial to mention the addressee in the complaints, or the speaker is being indirect, or the addressee is already known. Terms such as "one, someone, they" and "people" are often used to devocalize the addressee (Trosborg, 1995), rendering the complaint less offensive and creates fewer personal conflicts.

3.3.1.2.5 Internal and external modification

Trosborg (1995) proposed two types of internal modifiers or "modality markers": downgraders and intensifiers. Downgrading involves mitigations in which there are eight subcategories: downtowners, understaters, hedges, subjectiviers, cajolers, and appealers. Intensifying, on the other hand, involves complainers who direct their complaints aggressively using intensifiers, and commitment upgraders and lexical intensification.

External modification is used by complainers who use few direct complaints and attempt to justify their displeasure by using supportive words such as "preparators, disarmers, providing evidence" and "substantiation" (Trosborg, 1995).

Additionally, several factors can prompt the speaker to blame the addressee for offensive actions, including "aggravating the offense, repeated action, lack of consideration, no excuse,

general nuisance, breach of contract or promise, deception of expectation, and appeal to the complainee's moral consciousness" (Trosborg, 1995). For further information on complaint strategies, directive acts, reference focalization, defocalization, and internal and external modification, see Trosborg (1995).

3.3.1.3 Personal Arabic pronouns

The Arabic language is rich in morphology that is distinguished by number (singular, dual, and plural) in the first person, and by number and gender (masculine and feminine) in second and third person pronouns.

Table 4 shows the personal pronouns used in the data. The modification I made is based on the use of the personal pronoun since tweets were written in Arabic dialect forms showing morphological differences. For example, in Table 4, it can be seen that the dual form is not included since the data does not show any use of this form, nor is the second-person plural feminine form, as it is not used in the data either. Furthermore, the second-person singular pronoun was only coded by number since most of the tweets used plural forms, so the distinction seemed necessary. Also, the second-person plural form was only used in masculine forms.

Table 4 shows in column one the number and gender of the pronoun. Then, the second column shows the independent personal pronouns. The third column shows suffixes indicating possessors or objects of a verb. The third and fourth columns show suffixes and prefixes of the subject; these suffixes are attached to the verb to indicate the subject and the tense of the verb.

Table 4. Personal pronouns in the Arabic dialect

Number and gender	Independent	Suffixes indicating	Suffixes of the	Suffixes and
	personal	possessor, or object	subject "suffix	prefixes of the
	pronoun	of a verb	tense"	subject, in prefix
				tenses
First person	ana	Suffixes: i	t	
singular		ya		
		ni		
First person plural	Ihna/nahnu	-na	-ta	n-
Second singular	inta	-ka	-ta	t-
masculine				
Second singular	inti	-ki	-ti	ti(na)
feminine				
Second plural	intum	-kum	-tum	tu(na)
masculine				
Third singular	huwa	-hu	-a	у-
masculine				
Third singular	hiyah	-ha	-at	t-
feminine				
Third plural	hum	-hum	-u	yu(na)
masculine			(T. 0. D. 1054)	1

Based on the Personal-pronoun system of classical Arabic (Trager & Rice, 1954), Jstor, p. 225.

3.3.2 Data coding (pragmatic method)

The data was coded in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to identify different pragmatic categories for analysis. The data was read line-by-line to code the following variables: complaint

strategies, directive acts, internal and external modifications, and complaint perspectives. The coding of categories followed that prescribed by Trosborg (1995). Also, Arabic examples (El-Dakhs & Ahmed, 2021) were used to guide the coding of examples. An example of the coding procedures used for complaint strategy variables is provided in Figure 7.



Figure 7. Sample coding for complaint strategies

Figure 7 illustrates that each tweet in column A was read more than once, and the complaint strategies found were coded in column C. The tweets could include more than one strategy. Thus, the number of tweets in column B could be repeated accordingly. After coding the tweets, the R program was used to count relative frequency, visualize results, and conduct statistical measures.

3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of automated and manual analysis

The traditional methodology employed in corpus analysis is to search for a word or phrase related to a targeted speech act containing a pragmatic meaning. For instance, a researcher might investigate a speech act of complaint by searching for how the word "worst" was used (Vásquez, 2011), or searching the speech act of apology by searching for the word "sorry" (Aijmer & Rühlemann, 2015) or "evgenia,"--politeness in Greek (Sifianou, 2015). This type of search is called the lexical search approach by Aijmer and Rühlemann (2015). The advantage of this approach is that extensive data can be investigated, providing a general perception of a specific topic via its frequency of use, trend in usage, and surrounding co-text. Additionally, automated corpus tools can provide grammatical structure and discourse analysis information.

Despite the advantages of using the automatic lexical search method mentioned earlier, there are some disadvantages. For example, pre-identified words do not always have identical meanings in all contexts, and some meanings are conventional (Aijmer & Rühlemann, 2015).

The manual analysis utilized in the present study focused on coding the data using Trosborg's taxonomy. The advantage that discourse analysis provides is that the complaint's context can be examined carefully by the researcher. However, the coding process can be subjective. Thus, I tried to follow the examples provided in Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy and the keywords used in each category. Also, El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) analyzed Arabic complaints and provided definitions for each category in the taxonomy, which was helpful in coding complaints using keywords found in definitions and examples.

Researchers including House and Kasper (2011), Laforest (2002), and Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) have proposed various taxonomies in the literature to examine complaint

strategies. However, I chose Trosborg's taxonomy due to its flexibility; adjustments can be made based on the findings. Also, the taxonomy has already been used with Arabic complaints and shown to be both efficient and flexible (El-Dakhs & Ahmed, 2021)

Chapter 4

Results

Section 4.1.1 presents the corpus analysis findings. Using the concordance tool, AntConc, the study's corpus addressed RQs1–4. The analysis helped answer the corpus research issue of what definition of the speech act of complaint may be applied to online complaints. In addition, the results revealed other speech acts in the data. Examining complaint directness also revealed the extent of face-threatening behavior. A more focused analysis is provided in Section 4.2. Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy was used to analyze and code the data. The pragmatics analysis in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 presents the complaint strategies and directive acts used by Arabic speakers to address research question RQ5.

To answer research question RQ6, 4.2.3 examines complaints from both the complainant's and the complainee's points of view, and how direct complaints were when they were produced. Section 4.2.4 examines complaints' internal modifications to answer research question RQ7 about complaints' degree of politeness and directness. Finally, section 4.2.5 discusses the external modification of complaints to address research question RQ8. It investigates how Saudis avoid social confrontation and justify their complaints.

In the pragmatics section, examples are provided for each analyzed category, and the researcher translated them into English. These samples are rendered in Arabic and translated into

English. Following the examples, relative frequency, graphical representation, and statistical tests employed are discussed.

4.1 Corpus analysis results

First, the keywords tool was used to explore the top 100 keywords (Baker et al., 2013; Harvey, 2020; McEnery & Baker, 2015; Vásquez, 2011). A keyword is defined by McEnery and Baker (2015) as "a word which occurs significantly frequently in a corpus when compared against a second corpus." After uploading both the target corpus and the reference corpus (tweets written to the Saudi News account on Twitter @SaudiNews50) in AntConc, the results indicated that the target corpus contained 6,099 tweets and 80,779 tokens, while the reference corpus contained the same number of tweets, but 67,960 tokens. The keyword tool was then used to show the top 100 keywords. The results of the keyword analysis are presented in Part 4.1.2. Problems encountered with Arabic data are explained in the following section.

4.1.1 Arabic and twitter data issues

There were problematic result issues that had to be acknowledged and solved before the keywords could be analyzed. For starters, there were variations in keyword rankings because some terms with identical meaning were spelled differently due to dialectal variances or writing convenience, as shown in example (1).

- (1) a. رد-وا /rud-u:/ Respond-You.PL "Respond"
 - b. رد-ور/rud-u/ Respond-you.PL "Respond"

In 1a, the imperative verb in plural form, "respond," is written with the letter "alif, /a/" at the end of the word. However, in 1b, the letter "alif, /a/" was not used. This difference in writing is not due to dialectal differences, but to writing convenience since adding the letter at the end will not cause ambiguity. Another example is the prepositional phrase, "with you," as illustrated in 2.

- (2) a. معكم / m\script-kum/ With-you.PL "With you"
 - b. معاكم / msa-kum/ With you.PL "With you"

In 2a, the preposition is written without the letter "alif," and can be transcribed phonetically as "a." However, the letter in 2b is used in other Saudi Arabic dialects, often in the west province of Saudi Arabia.

Lemmatization is one method for overcoming spelling variations in AntConc. For group examples it can be helpful in counting frequency, but it does not reveal the order of tokens.

This type of data also lacks annotation boundaries, reducing the collocation tool's efficiency and necessitating a more careful reading. For example, one word in a tweet may collocate with another word from a different tweet. Thus, the KWIC tool was used, and concordance line files were referenced when necessary.

4.1.2 Top 100 keywords

In order to analyze the corpus, the methodologies of Baker et al. (2013), Harvey (2020), and McEnery and Baker (2015) were followed. Initially, the keyword tool was used to determine the most frequently occurring terms in the target corpus. Comparing the target corpus to the

reference corpus yielded a list of the most prevalent keywords. The analysis, however, concentrated on the top 100 keywords.

kens: 80779		Type	Rank	Freg Tar	Fren Ref	Range Tar	Range Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)	
Noon_data.txt	1	الخاص	1	801	22	1	1	813.090	0.020	
Noon_uata.txt	2	نون	2	643	2	1	1	763.438	0.016	
	3	الرد	3	519	8	1	1	564.798	0.013	
	4	تم	4	627	32	1	1	561.617	0.015	
	5	الطلب	5	475	4	1		541.223	0.012	
	6	طلبت	6	381	2	1	1	444.120	0.009	
	7	خاص	7	511	35	1	1	419.971	0.013	
	8	عليكم	8	616	72	1	1	405.283	0.015	
	9	الطلبيه	9	316	0	1	0	386.387	0.008	
	10	طلبيه	10	302	0	1	0	369.244	0.007	
eference Corpus	11	السلام	11	433	33	1	1	342.895	0.011	
ame: my_corpus	12	لي	12	540	72	1	1	329.932	0.013	
Files: 1	13	طلب	13	283	9	1	1	279.697	0.007	
okens: 67960	14	المنتج	14	229	1	1	1	268.587	0.006	
audi_news.txt	15	الميلغ	15	393	43	1	1	267.032	0.010	
	16	المندوب	16	218	0	1	0	266.437	0.005	
	17	يتم	17	351	33	1	1	255.749	0.009	
	18	العملا	18	217	1	1	1	254.013	0.005	

Figure 8. A screenshot of the keyword analysis results in AntConc

Figure 8 is a screenshot of the keyword analysis. First, the results show the *type*, which is the list of keywords. Second, the *ranking* of those keywords. Then, the frequency of the keywords in the target corpus (i.e., Feq_Tar), and the frequency of the keywords in the reference corpus (i.e., Feq_Ref). Following that, the range columns show the range of the keyword across the number of files in both the target and reference corpus. The *likelihood* column shows the statistical significance of the keywords in the target corpus compared to the reference corpus. Finally, the *effect* shows how unusually the keywords are occurring.

In the current analysis, I'm only focusing on the likelihood to show the keywords that occur statistically more in the compliant corpus (i.e., the target corpus) compared to the reference

corpus (i.e., the Saudi news tweets). Figure 9 illustrates the top ten keywords with the addition of a translation of those keywords.

Туре	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)
الخاص	The DM	1	801	22	813.09
نون	Noon	2	643	2	763.438
الرد	The response	3	519	8	564.798
تم	Were/ was/ have been	4	627	32	561.617
الطلب	The order (masculine)	5	475	4	541.223
طلبت	I order	6	381	2	444.12
خاص	DM	7	511	35	419.971
عليكم	On you	8	616	72	405.283
الطلبيه	The order (feminine)	9	316	0	386.387
طلبيه	An order (feminine)	10	302	0	369.244

Figure 9 Top ten most frequent keywords in the target corpus

As can be seen in the top ten keywords list in Figure 9, the phrase "the DM" was the most frequent keyword in the target corpus. Also, the company name Noon was the second most frequent keyword. However, we must note that some of the keywords are grammatically distinguished in Arabic by gender, but they are semantically similar. For example, the keyword (the order, masculine) was ranked fifth, and the feminine form was ranked ninth.

One potential solution to address this issue is to utilize the lemmatizing function available in AntConc. Lemmatizing (the DM, the DM) and (the order (masculine, feminine), an order) are two examples. The results will display the frequency and rankings as shown in Figure 10 and Table 5.

Table 5 Lemma list results with translation.

Rank	Lema in	Lema in	Lemma	Lemma word	Frequency	Total
	Arabic	English	word	forms in English		Frequency
			forms in	(Gender)		
			Arabic			
2	الخاص	The DM	الخاص	The DM	(801)	1312
			خاص	DM	(511)	
3	طلبيه	Order	طلبيه	Order	(302)	1093
			الطلبيه	The order	(316)	
				(Feminine)		
			الطلب	The order	(475)	
				(Masculine)		

The results show that the different forms of the word "DM" were the most frequent, with a total of 1312, and the different forms of the word "order" occurred in 1093.

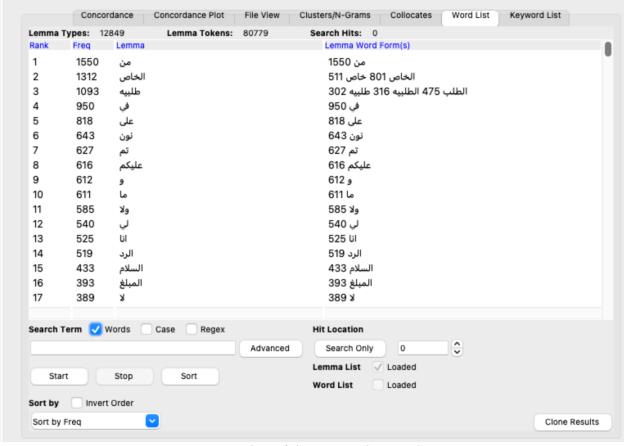


Figure 10 A screenshot of the Lemma list results in AntConc

However, since the goal is to look at the keywords results, the top 100 keywords were selected and categorized into eight groups, following McEnery and Baker (2015) (see Table 6).

Although the process of categorizing the 100 keywords was subjective--as noted by McEnery and Baker (2015) --I tried to categorize the keywords in a manner that would help explain the speech acts of complaint discourse. In Appendix (a), keyword categories are written in both Arabic and English with additional information such as the frequency and keyness.

This categorization was a first step in understanding the discourse of Arabic complaints on Twitter. A further close reading of keywords and lexical items related to the definition of "speech act of complaint" was examined.

Table 6. Top 100 keywords in the Noon corpus

Category	Keywords				
Reference to the complainer	I order, I have/ for me, my order, my order (different writing), My money, with me, my order (different writing), I sent, I, I want, I contacted, I have, I order, my problem, my shipment, I received, I Waite, and I, I contact, and I paid, I want (different writing), I order (feminine)				
Reference to the addressee:	Noon, on you, the delegate/ representative, a delegate/ representative from you, with you, with you (different writing), you have, you answer, for you/you have, your response, that you, answer (imperative) sing, answer (imperative)plural, answer (imperative) plural (different writing).				
Retail Trade terms	The response, the order(f), an order(f), an order (m), the order (m), the product, amount, customer/clints, the delivery, the delivery (syn), service, return, Contact/communication, the shipment, a product, the customer, same, message, shipping, bank (adj), company, contact, the delivery, trade, retrieval/return, the return, it arrived, discount, delivery, a shipment.				
Polite and positive terms	the peace, please, please/I hope, please/hope, thanks, peace,				
Negative terms	Not/no/never, the problem, and not, solution, complaint, very, important, bad, any. Unfortunately.				
Twitter terms	dm, the dm, in the dm, on the dm				
Time reference words:	today, days, one hour, date, a day, a week, two weeks, a month, now				
	were/was/have been, being/done/				
Passive forms:	take place, and being/done/take place.				
Not categorized	on				

References to the complainer

The first category included *references to the complainers*. As Trosborg (1995) noted, one way to know the directness of a complaint is to view the complainer's perspective. When

complainants refer to themselves, they express responsibility in the complaint, increasing the chance of a face threatening act. As shown in Table 6, complainers use different types of phrases and pronouns to refer to themselves in their complaints. The total number of references to the complainant was 21, and the total frequency was 3,715.

As noted, the results of the 100 keywords did not include terms to defocalize the complainer. However, complainers referred to themselves using both independent first-person pronouns to show their involvement in a complaint; for example, the first-person pronoun in independent form /ana/ "I" or in enclitic forms such as /tfalab-t/ "order-I."

When examining the target corpus, the independent first-person pronoun /ana/ appeared 525 times, with the conjunction /w-ana/ "and I" appearing 201 times. However, the the first-person pronoun in enclitic forms such as the first-person singular pronouns (I) as in /tsalab-t/ "my," and /talab-i/ "order-my" was not feasible to extract due to its morphological complexity. For example, when using the wildcard search method, the results were not informative. In other examples, the results of the wildcard search for the suffix /t/ showed both the suffix /t/ as in /tsalab-t/, and the noun /al-wag-t/ "the time." A search for the suffix /i/ showed a related example, /talab-i/ "order-my," and an unrelated one, /tani/ "second." These results showed the limitations of only using corpus tools, as well as the importance of a more focused pragmatics analysis.

Reference to the addressee

When complainers referred to addressees, they used fewer references than when they referred to themselves--by 15 times. Also, the total number of references was lower than the number of complainer references (3,284). Most of the references to addressees used the enclitic /kum/ "you." Also, the keywords list did not include the independent singular and plural second

person pronoun /anta/ and /atum/, respectively. Beside using pronouns to address the addressee, the proper noun "Noon" was used significantly often. The token, "noon," was the second most frequent token in the top 100 words list, with a frequency of 643.

When complainers want to hold the addressee as the complainant agent, they use the second-person pronoun "you" (Boxer, 1993; Trosborg, 1995). The target corpus analysis showed that Arabic complaints employed the independent form of the second-person pronoun /antum/ 125 times, and /anta/ "you" 25 times. However, most of the second person pronouns were used in the enclitic plural masculine form /kum/ (3,006 times) such as "on you, from you, you answer, with you, you have, you answer, for you, with you, your respond, and that you."

Retail trade terms

The retail trade category included terms related to trade and customer service communication. The category included 30 terms that were used 5,661 times. The high number of trade terms used was expected due to the context of the data. Also, as the results show, this category had the highest number of different terms used. and the highest total frequency.

Polite and positive words

Complainers used only six different polite and positive terms, with a total frequency count for positive terms at 1,191. The most frequently used polite word used in the keywords was the initiator, /al-salam/ "the peace," which ranked at 11 with a frequency of 433. The same word appeared 78 times without the article /al/ "the"--for example, "peace."

Negative terms

The negative terms category contained 10 distinct terms with a total frequency of 2,052. Complainants used a greater variety of negative terms than polite terms, some having negative connotations such as "complaint," while others such as "solution" appeared on occasion to have a

positive meaning. However, when the word "solution" was analyzed in 100 concordance lines, the findings revealed that it frequently appeared in negative collocations such as "was not," "will not be," "there is none," "without," and "I do not desire." The examples in 3-9 below include the negative terms found in the negative terms category.

(3) "After two months the problem was not solved, and I did not get my money back"

(4) "But really won't and will not solve anything"

(5) "And there is not any solution but delay"

In Examples 3-5, the use of the word, "solution," showed that the word occurred after negation, and the context showed the word's negative context. Only two examples showed "solution" used positively, as in Examples 6 and 7.

(6) Thank you, the problem is solved.

(7) Thank you; the problem is solved, and the money has been refunded in full. You deserve the gratitude.

شكرا لكم تم حل المشكلة وارجاع المبلغ كامل تستحقون الشكر

In examples 6 and 7, "solution" is used in a positive context. Other examples show the word within *requesting contexts* 24 times.

(8) "Please solve the problem."

ارجو منكم حل المشكلة

(9) "I want a solution; I don't want a robot response every time."

In Examples 8 and 9, the complainer used request phrases such as "please" in 8 and "I want" in 9. Also, the cluster results showed the word "solution" often occurred in different parts of speech with similar meanings such as in "solution" and "solve." Also, the token, "solution," collocated with negative words such as "the problem" in Examples 56, "to the problem" in Example 14, "my problem" in Example 12, "a problem" in Example 10, "the issue" in Example 5, and "complaints" in Example 14.

Similarly, the term, "solution," collocated with "the problem" 72 times; this collocation ranked highest in the findings related to collocations. The phrase, "to the problem," was used 18 times, making it the second-highest ranking collocate. The second highest collocate was the prepositional phrase, "to the problem" that was used 18 times.

Twitter

In the Twitter terms category, one finds terminology unique to Twitter. I included four different variants of the Arabic word, (الخاص) /al-xas/, meaning "the DM," in this category. The total frequency of Twitter terms was 1,483. Based on the results of the top 100 keywords, the most frequent token in the corpus was the noun /al-xas/, "the-DM," with 801 Twitter terms. Although the Arabic word /al-xas/ can also indicate "for or belonging to," it is commonly used to mean "the DM." Customers frequently use the term to request that the company review the DM to which they send their requests.

When searching the concordance for the term "the DM," I discovered that it appeared with the preposition "on" 100 times. The content word(s) that frequently collocated with the

preposition "on" were "the response" (al-radd). For example, "the DM" collocated 58 times with "the respond," 26 times with the imperative verb in plural form /rud-u/, 12 times with the imperative verb in singular form /rudd/ "answer," and 3 times with the second person plural pronoun /t-rud-un/ "answer-You.PL."

Another finding in the concordance was the collocation of the word "the DM" with polite words. For example, the words /mumkin/, /alraja:?/, /arju/, jurja;/, and /fad^clan/ all of which translate into the English word "please" occurred 56 times.

(10) <u>Please</u>/can you respond on the DM.

(11) <u>Please</u> respond on the DM.

As illustrated in Examples 10 and 11, polite words initiated tweets to request a response from the company. Also, another collocation with "DM" is the phrasal verb "I hope." Other examples simply informed the company that a request or a response had been sent to the DM.

(12) The respond was done on the DM.

(13) I hope you answer the DM.

Example 12 contains "DM" in polite terms to inform the company that a response had been sent to the DM. Example 13 contains "DM" with the polite term, "I hope."

Time reference words:

The keyword analysis results indicated that the complainer used *time references* to intensify their complaints. Time references were frequently used to relate a company's delay or

an unresolved issue. The analysis showed that complainers used 10 different time references, with a frequency total of 1,965.

The most common time reference was the word /al?:n/ "now," which ranked 38 with a frequency of 355. Within the 100-example concordance lines, the word was often followed by the negation "not" 95 times. Customer were complaining about a problem not being solved, a refund not being received, a delivery delay, or a lack of communication.

- (14) As usual, the problem until now has not been solved. Where is your relevant department? كالعاده الى الان لم يتم حل المشكله وينه قسمكم المختص هذا
- (15) Peace be upon you; the product does not match the photo and it was returned, and until now the refund was not received.

(16) I have a shipment and it's supposed to be delivered today and util now no one contacted me to deliver it, I hope you have creditability on dates.

Passive forms:

The top 100 keywords' final category included the past verb (نخ) /tam.ma/, meaning "to be or become complete or finished." With a total frequency of 1,084, the results showed three different forms of the verb /tam.ma/, referring to something that happened in the past. A complainer used it to hide his/her role in the complaint. It serves as a passive construction in that the subject is unknown and the word can be translated into "was" or "has been."

Adding a prefix or suffix can change the meaning of a verb as well as the time of the event. For example, /ja-tm/ can be used to refer to an ongoing event, but when used with a negation, it refers to a previous event. In the present form, it is often used with a negation and

contrasts with the meaning of completion, so the complainer often complains that something is not completed.

Overall, based on the above discussion of 100 keyword categories, the retail trade terms category includes the highest number of terms (30), and the highest total frequency (5,661). Furthermore, complainers used more terms to refer to themselves in complaints than focusing on the addressee. Also, the number of negative terms used were greater than the positive terms.

Not all 100 keywords were helpful in answering the research questions. However, it is important to first discuss whether the 100 keywords included words related to the research questions. Following that discussion, the target corpus is examined in accord with each research question.

4.1.3 Corpus analysis of speech acts of complaint definitions

The first research question (A1) asked whether the complaints contained words or phrases associated with the term "expectations" as proposed by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987). They contend that when complaining, the speaker holds the addressee accountable for the action. Thus, in the analysis, I searched for forms of the word "responsible" to determine whether the complainants held the addressees expressly liable for the undesirable conduct of interest. Additionally, the analysis examined other approaches to determine if any of those held the addressee responsible.

The top 100 keywords list did not contain any form of the word "expect." I used the wildcard tool to look for any form of the target word. The results showed forms of "expect" such as (متوقع "expected," (متوقع) "expected," (أتوقع التوقعت /متوقعه) "I did not expect," and (توقع) "expected him," (ماتوقعت) "I did not expect," and (توقع) "expected him,"

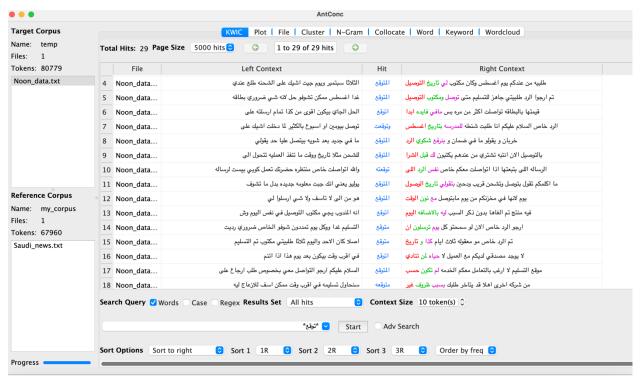


Figure 11. A screenshot of the concordance lines of the word "expect."

As Figure 11 illustrates, the KWIC results showed 29 examples of the word "expect," and it was determined after reviewing the concordance lines of those examples, that the word "expectation" was used to express dissatisfaction with a delayed delivery in 15 examples.

- (17) Not true; the <u>expected</u> date for receiving the item was on the website before I registered the request. Some honesty with your customers.

 غير صحيح التاريخ المتوقع لا استلام الطلب موجود في الموقع قبل ان اقوم بتسجيل الطلب اشوي مصداقيه مع عملانكم
- (18) My order is ready for delivery; when will it arrive? It says that the <u>expected</u> delivery is tomorrow, August; can you find a solution because it is something very important?

(19) Very simple items, and it took more than a week and did not deliver, and the <u>expected</u> date has passed, which is today, and I still have not received my order.

اغراض بسيطه ولها اكثر من اسبوع ماوصلت ووصل التاريخ المتوقع الي هو اليوم لو يعدي هاليوم وطلبيتي ماوصلت والله مايحصل خبيير

(20) Peace be with you. I ordered two weeks ago, and it has yet to be delivered. The <u>expectation</u> was that it would be delivered in October, and now that October has arrived need the order urgently.

سلام عليكم طلبت من اسبوعين وللحين ماوصلت والمتوقع وصول الطلب اكتوبر والحين صرنااكتوبر احتاج الطلبيه ضروري

Examples 17-20 showed that the word "expect" collocated with terms related to delivery and time such as "delivery," "date," and "October." Only a few examples indicated that the company was unable to live up to the standards set by the clients, as illustrated in Examples 21-23.

(21) I was not expecting this talk from Noon.

ماكنت اتوقع من نون هالكلام

(22) I paid this amount of money because I <u>expected</u> Noon to be a strong and reliable company.

انا دافع المبلغ لان كنت اتوقع ان نون شركه قويه ووضحه

(23) I don't want to deal with you. The service was not as <u>expected</u>.

لا ار غب بالتعامل معكم الخدمه لم تكون حسب المتوقع

Additional evidence demonstrated that consumers did not have very high expectations of Noon, and that they anticipated receiving subpar service as expressed in Examples 24-26.

(24) The same <u>expected</u> response and nothing new; shortly, someone will call me to tell me what the problem is.

الرد المتوقع ما في جديد بعد شويه بيتصل عليا حد يقولي ايه المشكله

- (25) I <u>expect</u> the earliest time will be a day if you are honest, and I rule that out. اتوقع في اقرب وقت بيكون بعد يوم هذا اذا اتنم صادقين استبعد هذا الشي
- (26) You called me and said you'd return my money, but you didn't, as I <u>expected</u>. You're only stalling.

اتصلتوا قلتوا بترجعون فلوسي مثل ماتوقعت ماعندكم سالفه بس تماطلون

As previously discussed, customer expectations were frequently not met, and the complaints were frequently related to delivery delays. According to the results of the clustering

tool, "the expected date" and "the expected delivery" ranked top and second, respectively. Similarly, the results of the collocate tool showed the word (المتوقع) "is expected" collocated with the word(s), "the date," or "date."

Explicitly using the word "expect" was not the only approach complainers used to express that their expectations had not been met. The analysis showed that complaints included the word "supposed," and the results of the wildcard search showed all possible forms of the word. A wildcard search indicated that it was used 102 times.

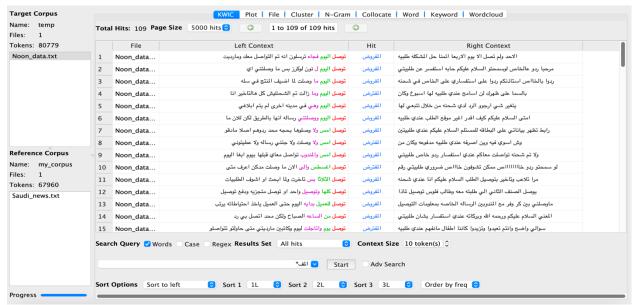


Figure 12. A screenshot of the concordance lines of the word "supposed."

Similarly, the tokens "expect" and "supposed" were often used to show disappointment about the company not making a delivery on time. For example, the concordance line analysis showed the word collocated with the phrase (توصل اليوم) "to arrive today." The analysis showed that in 72 examples, customers complained about a delivery time, as shown in Examples 27-30.

(27) It is Sunday, and it did not arrive until Wednesday. I hope you can solve the problem.

The order was supposed to arrive today, but suddenly you sent me a message saying you had communicated with me, and I did not respond.

الاحد ولم تصل الا يوم الاربعا اتمنا حل المشكله طلبيه المفروض توصل اليوم فجاه ترسلون انه تم التواصل معك ومارديت

(28) Today the shipment is supposed to be delivered, brother; take it out with the representative or delegate.

اليوم المفروض التسليم وين الشحنه يا خوي خرجوها مع المندوب

(29) You said you would get back to me within hours, but I did not see that. I was supposed to receive the order two days ago.

فلتو راح تردو علي خلال ساعات ولا شفت شي طلب المفروض استلمته من يومين

(30) My shipment was supposed to arrive today, but until now, no one has contacted me.

In other examples, the word "supposed" was used to complain about not receiving a compensation as in Example 31; not receiving an apology as in Example 32; or about how the company should take care of product protection before delivery as in Example 33.

(31) This was the second order and was canceled. I'm supposed to receive compensation for the amount deducted.

- (32) I swear this is very wired from Noon and its products and finally she told me we will contact you. I swear she was supposed to apologize and solve the issue quickly.
- والله غريبه نون ومنتجاتهم وفي الاخر تقولي بنتواصل معك والله المفروض تعتذرو و تخلصو الموضع بسرع
 (33) I found the cream hot, and it is not supposed to be exposed to heat. I wish you would put
 a sticker on these products for the delivery representative.

حصلت الكريم حار المفروض مايتعرض لهذه الحراره ليتكم حاطين ستكر للمناديب خصوصا على هذه المنتجات نون للمعلوميه هذه ثاني تجربه يوصلني حار و توبه

The second part of Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) definition of *complaint* is that the speaker holds the addressee responsible for the action. In regard to the keyword list, the complaints did not include any form of the word "responsible." The wildcards search indicated that "responsible" was used only 18 times.

(34) Noon Express informed me that they have nothing to do with Namshi orders and that delivery is your <u>responsibility</u>.

(35) You respond that you are not <u>responsible</u> for the codes, and I'm not sure who is then <u>responsible</u>. I entered your site, and it gave me a discount, and when I finished the order, the discount was still there, which means there is a deception.

(36) This is stupid; it is obvious how many times I contacted you and you did as well, but there is no solution but delay, and we are sorry. You are not reasonable.

Holding the agent responsible can be achieved by more than just using the word, "responsible." As Boxer (1993) and Trosborg (1995) argued, when a speaker wants to hold the addressee accountable for an action, he/she uses the second person pronoun, increasing the directness of the complaint. The analysis showed that the second person singular /anta/ "you" was used 57 times.

- (37) Now, why did you write me the letter on the DM? What is my benefit?

 الان انت كاتب لى هذا الخطاب في الخاص ليه انا وش استفيد
- (38) It is the same thing, and you act like you solved the problem. You said on the DM we will file the complaint and they will call me.

However, according to the findings, the second person plural form /antum/ "you," was used far more frequently than any other form--180 times.

(39) You said receive the order and make return and we will return it.

(40) You are liars; you even lie to the ministry of trade. I'm telling you that the refund request is still pending, and the money is not back in the wallet.

When the complainer did not want to hold the addressee responsible, a third-party complaint was used such as the personal pronouns /hum/ "they." The pronoun /hum/ was used 17 times.

(41) They did not deliver my order, and they do not want to refund me.

(42) The problem is that my order is express and I want to travel, and they do not want to deliver it.

Independent pronouns usage was not the only approach Arabic speakers used; other enclitic pronouns, both in the second and third person, were also employed. For example, when comparing the suffix for the second-person pronoun "you," the results showed 3,006 occurrences compared to the results of the third-person suffix "they," which totaled 411--clearly indicating that complainers held the company as the agent of the complaints, and that their complaints were direct in nature. The use of second-person pronouns also indicated that complainers were face-threatening the addressees when they increased the directness of their complaints.

However, it was not feasible to extract all potential enclitics from Arabic pronouns. This is because Arabic pronouns are connected as suffixes or prefixes to a variety of verbs and nouns, which led to unrelated findings.

According to Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) definition of *speech acts of complaint*, speakers may complain because they expect the fulfillment of a promise. As indicated in the discussion above, the promises that Noon did not keep were related to delivery time and poor service. Additionally, the results showed only 29 examples of explicitly used forms of the word "expect." However, customers used the word "supposed" to avoid unfavorable service from the company, using the word more than 72 times.

Another crucial component of Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) definition of speech acts of complaint is that the speaker considers the addressee responsible for undesirable conduct. The results showed only 18 examples of complainers using any form of the word "responsible." However, other approaches such as using second-person pronouns or third-party complaints can be used to hold an addressee responsible (Boxer, 1993; and Trosborg, 1995).

Their research indicates that complaints were relatively more direct since the use of second-person pronouns was more common than the use of third-person pronouns. It is important to note that this research focused on independent pronouns and some enclitic pronouns in Arabic, which might indicate a strong trend. Despite this, other enclitic pronouns existed in the data but were not retrieved.

To help address RQ2, Sacks (1992) argues that complaints often arise sequentially in his concept of complaint. Complaints are often composed of two statements, one that is positive and one that is negative, and contrastive words are often used to join them.

To determine whether the complaints on Twitter followed this sequence, I used the wildcard tool to search for instances when the contrastive word in Arabic /lakin/ "but" was used and observed that the token had been used 223 times. Furthermore, 100 examples were selected randomly and closely examined to determine whether the complaints included positive or negative phrases.

The results showed only four examples of Sack's (1992) suggested order of praise: plus *but*, plus a complaint.

(43) Thanks, but please answer me again.

(44) Thanks, but I did not find the one I want the white and black

(45) Peace be upon you please I'm trying to understand but I can't order something and pay for it, and it is ripped what is this degradation

(46) I appreciate your apology but unfortunately bad expedience never again.

More than two-thirds followed the neutral statement sequence--a purchase the customer made, plus "but," plus the negative complaint.

(47) Peace be upon you. I received the order, but it was missing one product.

(48) This is the message "the refund order to your account is approved but I did not receive the money.

(49) The order was received, but unfortunately it is not as stated on the receipt.

The opposite order suggested by Sacks (1992) in which the sequence in the complaint starts with a complaint or negative statement, plus "but," pulse a positive statement was not found in the selected samples. However, 10 examples did show the sequence of negative statement, plus "but," plus another negative statement.

(50) Allah suffices me, and He is the best disposer of affairs among you, and everyone contacts me, but it is better to file a complaint on you.

(51) I'm tired of texting you for three months, you respond on the DM but to no avail.

(52) Everyone complains from you, be ashamed and close your account and your store, but you are used to humiliation.

The cluster analysis showed that the word /lakin/ collocated with negative words such as a negation /lam/ /ma/ "not, no, never," and /ma/ /la/ "don't, no, not," with a total frequency of 50. Another negative word that collocated with /lakin/ was /lɪlasaf/ "unfortunately" (7) times the problem (6) times. The collocated tool analysis results were similar to that of the cluster analysis; the negation /lam/ was ranked first and occurred 15 times.

The analysis showed that very few (only four) of the complaint examples followed Sack's (1995) complaint sequence and included a positive statement. However, most of the complaints followed the neutral sequence: a statement, plus "but," plus a negative statement. Additionally, a new complaint sequence surfaced using the contrastive word "but" to connect

two negative statements—an occurrence not mentioned in Sacks' (1995) description of a complaint sequence.

The third research question, RQ3, concerned with the explicit manner of complaining (Edwards, 2005) prompted yet another search. The word /ʃakwa/ "complaint" was among the top 100 keywords found, ranking 58 with a frequency of 104. Additionally, a close examination of concordance lines indicated that the word could be categorized to show that a complaint had been filed:

(53) A complaint has been filed with the Ministry of Trade; no one else will preserve my right but them.

(54) Every day, the same talk; I filed a complaint, and we will see at that time what will happen.

The word could also be categorized to show that a complainer indirectly threatened to file a complaint:

(55) Tomorrow, God willing, I will file a complaint against you with the Ministry of Trade, so you stop scamming.

(56) The delivery date is meant to be Thursday, but I have not received anything, and I have requested several times with no results. God willing, I will file a complaint to the Ministry of Trade.

موعد التوصيل كان المفروض يوم الخميس وما جاني شي وكل شويه ارفع ومافيه فايده ان شا الله برفع شكوى في وزاره التجاره Another pattern indicating that a complainer threatened an addressee was seen when the word "complaint" was combined with the present verb "to file." In these situations, complainers were informing the addressee that they wanted to file a complaint and explained why.

(57) Peace be upon you. I want to file a complaint. Two days ago, a representative from Noon came and returned a machine, and I was not contacted.

(58) Peace be upon you. I want to file a complaint: "I have an order from Monday, and the representative called me and told me he was in the neighborhood, and until now, Thursday, it has not been delivered; why?

(59) Where can I file a complaint against Noon? I have been asking them to refund me for two months and there has been no response.

The collocation analysis tools revealed that the noun "complaint" frequently collocated with the past tense verb "filed" as illustrated in Table 7.

Table 7 Collocation of the word complaint.

word	Collocation	frequency
complaint	filed	12
	I filed	9
	And filed	4

When the complainer wanted to warn, request, or threaten the addressee about filing a complaint, the noun "complaint" collocated with future tense verbs such as "I will complain" 8 times, and "to file" 13 times. As can be seen, the mention of past complaints occurred more often

than threats to complain in the future or the desire to complain. This was also true when searching for the verb "complain" in the past tense: "I complained" occurred 5 times in contrast to "I will complain," which occurred 3 times.

Regarding RQ4, a speech act in general does not occur in isolation, but with other speech acts. This observation led Olshtain and Cohen (1983) to introduce the "speech act" concept and determine whether other speech acts occurred with complaints in the data. In the present investigation, the first ranked common word on the keywords list was the token "the DM." The cluster tool displayed the data's top cluster phrases when setting the cluster size to four words, with a minimum frequency of two. The results of the cluster analysis showed 53 different clusters with the word "DM," and 35 were requests. The requests were routed to the Noon account in order to either respond to a customer's question or to process request on the DM. For example, the top three clusters included requests such as "Please answer the DM" (32), and "I hope you answer the DM" (11).

However, it was difficult to tell by only looking at the cluster results whether these requests co-occurred with the act of complaining or were just isolated requests. To gain a more accurate analysis by reading the full tweets, a closer reading of examples in the file tool was required. The readings showed that most requests occurred in isolation; however, there were cases in which the requests and complaints co-occurred, as in Examples 60-62.

(60) I'm sorry to hear that. Check the DM. I have been contacting you for a week and I did not find an answer. I expect to receive the shipment, and you are still changing the date of delivery, and your team does not know they are responsible.

يوسفني سماع ذلك تفقدوا الخاص ف انا متواصل معاكم منذ اسبوع ولم اجد نتيجه اتوقع اني راح استلم الشحنه وانتم تعدلون في موعد التسليم والفريق المعنى مايدري انه معنى (61) Please respond. Payment was made in full in advance, and until now the order has not been delivered, and it has been days. Please respond in the DM.

(62) Please check the DM because your response was not appropriate.

The imperative verb (رحو) "respond" ranked 21 in the top 100 keywords, with a frequency of 201. It was another token indicating the presence of a speech act of request in the data, and it was frequently collocated with the token DM. Like the token DM, the verb "respond" often occurred in isolation. However, there were examples showing the co-occurrence of the request with speech acts of complaint.

(63) Bad services respond to the DM.

(64) Answer the DM I need to get a refund.

(65) I received an incomplete order and had already paid for it. Respond to the DM.

In the top 100 keywords list, the token "complaint," which occurred as a speech act of complaint," co-occurred with a speech act of threat, as discussed with Examples 55–59.

The following examples showed a speech act of advice combined with a speech act of complaint.

The wildcard search for the word (انصحکم، انصح) "I advise" indicated the word appeared 18 times, and four of those times it was used as a noun.

(66) Noon' client must contact you in order to get the order delivered, and in the end "contact us on the DM" why don't you text on the DM. I do not recommend shopping with you.

اصبح العميل لدى نون يلحق وراكم عشان توصل طلبيه واخرتها تواصل معنا على الخاص ليه انتم ماترسلون على الخاص لا انصح بتجربه التسوق معكم

(67) I advise everyone to stay away from Noon. There is too much fraud and counterfeit goods, and the maintenance guarantee is fake. Do not trust them, and I have had bad experiences with them. They are very polite on the timeline, but their handling on the DM is the worst.

انصح الجميع بالابتعاد عن نون فهناك الكثير من الغش والبضايع المقاده وضمان وصيانه وهميه لا تثقوا بهم ولدي تجارب مريره معاهم وعلى العام مودبين وفي الخاص قمه الدناه في التعامل

(68) It is widely regarded as the worst app. I advise you not to deal with them.

معروف اسوا تطبيق اتعاملت معاه انصحكم لاحد يتعامل معاه

A warning was also included with the advice. The wildcard search for the word (احذر) "beware--I warn you" indicated the token was used six times, and the token (انتبه/و) "watch out" six times.

- (69) Beware of dealing with Noon and be very careful to trust their mythical dates. No one of their employees knows where my shipment is, and they all have the same answer.

 احذر من التعامل مع نون واحذر بشده من تصديق مواعيدهم الخرافيه لا احد من موظفينهم يعلم اين شحنتي كلهم نفس
- (70) I warn everyone from dealing with this site and Noon's failed management.

(71) I requested a refund, and until now I have not received the money in my account. Watch out for them, and do not order from them ever.

(72) Noon was known for delivery, but now be careful who you buy from; before purchasing, they provided you with a delivery date, but after the purchase, they changed it to a different date. The last order took more than two weeks to complete. International sites deliver faster, even though I have a premium subscription.

تميز موقع نون كان بالتوصيل الان انتبه تشتري من عندهم يكتبون لك قبل الشرا المتوقع للشحن مثلا تاريخ ووقت ما تنفذ العمليه تتحول الى تاريخ اخر طلبيه لي عندهم اخذت اكثر من اسبو عيين هزلت المواقع الدوليه صارت توصل اسرع منهم وهذا انا بعد حسابي نون مميز

The complainant offered advice to other customers either after the complaint, as in Example 66, or before the complaint, as in Example 67. Additionally, advice was given in the form of a warning to other customers either before or after the complaint, as shown in Examples 69-72.

4.1.4 Corpus analysis Summary

The top one-hundred keywords were categorized into four groups, revealing that complainants referred to themselves more frequently than they referred to addressees, and also indicating their complaints were direct. High directness was also demonstrated by the absence of complainant defocalization.

Moreover, Twitter terms had the greatest number of occurrences across all categories. Moreover, when comparing the frequency of positive and negative keywords, the data revealed that negative terms occurred more frequently: 1,191 against 2,052.

The second section of the analysis is devoted to examining *speech acts of complaint* definitions. According to Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), complainers show dissatisfaction when their expectations are not fulfilled. In 29 cases that were examined in the present study, the complainants explicitly referenced their expectations using various forms of the term "expect." However, the complainants indirectly expressed that their expectations had not been met by choosing fewer threatening words. For example, they utilized the word "supposed" 102 times.

The second component of Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) definition addresses the notion of holding the addressee accountable for an infraction. According to the present findings, the

word "responsible" appears 18 times in complaints, indicating that addressees were being held explicitly responsible.

Addressees can be held reasonable in a variety of ways, such as using the pronoun "you" in the second person (Boxer, 1993; Trosborg, 1995). The current findings indicated that the complainers held addressees responsible, and used the independent second person singular pronoun /anta/ "you" 57 times, and the plural form /antum/ 180 times. Use of the second person showed that complaints were very direct, and that addressees were held responsible for the negative action.

Another indication of extreme directness was that the independent third-person pronoun "they" was used only 17 times. Comparing the enclitic forms of second and third pronouns also confirmed a high level of directness. Specifically, the enclitic pronoun /kum/ was used 3,006 times more often than the third-person suffix /hum/, which was used only 411 times.

The second significant finding relates to Sacks' (1992) contention that complaints frequently occur in a sequence. Only four of the selected one-hundred examples displayed the specified sequence: positive statement, plus "but," plus complaint. Conversely, the opposite order--negative complaint, plus "but," plus positive statement--was only observed 10 times. In addition, most of the examples followed the pattern of neutral statement, plus "but", plus a negative review. This was also observed in the collocation analysis of the contrastive word /lakin/ "but," which frequently collocated with negative words such as "negation," "unfortunately," and "problem."

Edwards' (2005) definition of speech acts of complaint suggests that the complainant need not expressly state that he/she is complaining. However, according to the keywords results,

the noun "complaint" was among the top 100 keywords with a ranking of 58, and was used 104 times.

A close examination of concordance lines for the noun "complaint" revealed that the term was used to inform recipients of a complaint. Other examples demonstrated that the term was used in conjunction with other speech acts, including threats and requests. The observation of other identified speech acts also relates to Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) contention that complaints rarely occur in isolation.

The frequent use of requests was a further observation. In the cluster analysis, the most notable keyword was "the DM" and revealed a significant number of requests. However, the requests were frequently made independently. The frequent occurrence of the word "respond" was among the top 100 keywords (201 occurrences) and was another indicator of an extensive use of requests.

The use of speech acts of advice during complaints was also observed in the data; however, the lexical search results revealed that advice terms were only mentioned four times. Advice was given 12 times and might have been offered as a warning to other consumers. Having presented the corpus analysis of the data above, the following section will concentrate on the pragmatics-based analysis of complaints using the taxonomy developed by Trosborg (1995).

4.2 Pragmatics analysis results

4.2.1 Complaining strategies

This section will concentrate on the pragmatics-based complaint analysis using the taxonomy developed by Trosborg (1995). Examples of complaint strategies employed by Saudis on Twitter--hints, annoyance, consequences, indirect accusation, direct accusation, and modified blame (behavior)—will be discussed.

4.2.1.1 Category I: Hints

In hinting strategies, the complainant holds the complainee responsible, but does so indirectly and does not explicitly express that the complainee is liable for the offense. This method of using hints is typically employed to avoid conflict with the complainee and to save face for the complainer. In the present study, 2.8% of the complaint strategies consisted of hinting. Noon clients posed questions in the form of inquiries or questions about problems they were experiencing. The tweets pointed to deficiencies in the quality of service that Noon offered, as the following examples demonstrate under Example 73:

(73)

a) "Peace be with you, I ordered an item that was meant to be delivered today because I'm flying this morning if God wills, why hasn't it arrived?"

b) "This is the second time I've bought something and received something entirely different. The problem is that I returned it and was given another one that was also different."

c) "The item was purchased and returned, and I purchased the same item at a reduced price; I still had 20 in my wallet today, but I saw they removed it."

تم شراء منتج وتم ارجعه بالمحفظه ورجعت اشتريت نفس المنتج لكن بسعر اقل باقي بمحفظتي20 اليوم دخلت لقيتهم سحبين ماتبقي لي من نقود التي بالمحفظه

4.2.1.2 Category II: Annoyance

The data revealed that the most common complaint strategy (35.8%) was annoyance. In Example 74 below, the complainant clearly expressed unhappiness and disapproval about how the firm was addressing the situation; yet, the complainant did not hold the complainee accountable for the problem.

(74)

a) "I received an email that included no updates. <u>I am very upset</u> because every time someone calls me, they are unaware of the background of my problem."

b) "What, I've had my order for three days, but no person has phoned or done anything. How much longer must I wait? How about a week, a month, or two months <u>haa</u>"

Category III: Consequences

Complainers also expressed the negative consequences they faced as a result of Noon's inadequate service practices, as shown in Example 75. Negative impacts of negative actions were the least often employed strategy used in complaints (0.6%).

(75)

a) "I ordered it on the first of Dhul Hijjah and received it on the fourth, however the scooter was missing four major pieces and could not be utilized. I filed a complaint, and you promised to address the issue. Today is the 15th, and I still haven't solved the problem. I

b) "If a representative called me to return my order, I would stop.

Aside from the embarrassment you caused me with my purchase, it was a gift for my father; he never received it, and I never received my money."

complainee by expressing the negative effects of poor customer service.

4.2.1.3 Category III: Indirect accusation

Complainants demonstrated that Noon was the indirect agent of the action, as shown in Example 76. Based on the data presented, it appeared that complainants seldom (3.8%) resorted to indirect accusation as a complaint strategy.

(76)

a) "I purchased a sale item; after two weeks, the order was canceled. Is the offer bogus, and hence the request was canceled, suggesting that the product was unavailable?"

b) "Is it possible that your employee lacks class or sophistication? On Friday at 9:30am, I received a phone call from a representative."

In Example 76, complainers employed the indirect approach of accusation by asking a question which showed that he/she accused the company--but indirectly.

4.2.1.4 Category IV: Direct accusation

Complainants explicitly accused Noon of conducting negative actions in straightforward accusations. According to the analysis, direct accusation was the third most common complaint approach, accounting for 14.5% of the total complaints. In Example 77, the complainant directly accused the company of being liars and thieves.

(77)

- a) "You are <u>liars and thieves</u>, and everyone is whining as a result. Be embarrassed of your appearance and close your business and account, although I doubt you will because you are used to receiving complaints."

 انتم حر امیه و کذابین و الکل بشتکی منکم استحوا علی وجیهکم و قفلوا حسابکم و متجر کم افضل لکن تعودوا علی البهذله
- c) "Why did you only react after I protested to the Ministry of Commerce, and why was the whole money not refunded? You are the online retailer that lies the most, and your customer service department also consistently offers defective items."

ليش ما تم ارجاع المبلغ كامل وليش ما رديتوا على الالما اشتكيتكم لوزاره التجاره انتم اكذب متجر الكتروني واكذب خدمه عملا واكثر متجر يبيع بضاعه تالفه

4.2.1.5 Category IV: Modified blame

Employing the modified blame strategy, a complainer expressed his anger toward Noon by stating that the company was supposed to take a different approach to their service, using the word "supposed." Only a small percentage of complainers (1.5% total) took advantage of modified blame.

(78)

a) "I have an order, which is **supposed** to be delivered to me on Saturday, but the representative asked to postpone it to the another day and i still did not get it. I need it today. The order number ########."

عندي طلبيه المفروض توصلني السبت قبل امس بس المندوب طلب تاجليها الى ثاني يوم وثاني يوم ماجتني ابغاها اليوم ضروري ############ رقم الطلب b) "I have an order that was **supposed** to be here on Sunday, but it still hasn't. The representative cannot be reached or found. This is a consistent problem. Do not give a deadline if you are irresponsible."

عندي طلبيه <u>المفترض</u> تصل الاحد وما وصلت حتى الان و لا يوجود طريقه للتواصل أو تتبع المندوب هُذَّا الشي يتكرر دايما اذا ما كنتو ا قد المسووليه لا تلتزمون بتاريخ محدد

4.2.1.6 Category IV: Explicit blame (behavior)

In explicit blame, the complainer explicitly complains about the company's behavior, and all the strategy's focus goes toward the complainer's issues such as "customer service" and an "annoying employee." It is clear that the corporation's activities were the focus of this complaint, rather than the company itself. The data suggested that blaming Noon specifically was the second most common complaint strategy (29.9%).

(79)

a) "<u>The worst company ever</u>, they do not have any professionalism in dealing. A company that does not have employees who are able to resolve complaints"

4.2.1.7 No complaint

The findings indicated that not all Tweets included complaints; 11.2% of them lacked it. Clients wrote tweets with no intention of criticizing the firm; rather, they wanted to enquire about services the company provides. There was no indication of a negative attitude or a desire to complain in any of the tweets, as illustrated in Example 80.

(80)

a) "Peace be upon you. I have a desire to open a store with you in Noon. I have seen the documents required to open the store. My question is, can the self-employment document be a substitute for the commercial register?"

السلام عليكم لدي رغبة في فتح متجر لديكم في نون ، اطلعت على الوثائق المطلوبة لفتح المتجر، استفساري هو هل وثيقة العمل الحر من الممكن أن تكون

b) "Peace be upon you. What is your method of installments, because I tried to pay with my regular Mada Al-Rajhi card, and I could not, what is the solution? because I want to buy this product."

Table 8 and Figure 13 illustrate the frequency and relative frequency of complaint strategies used by Saudis on Twitter in relation to the Noon customer service account. The most common complaint strategies included annoyance (35.8%), explicit blame (behavior) (29.9%), and direct accusation (14.5%). On the other hand, hint, consequences, indirect accusations, and modified blame were the least frequently used strategies, with consequences being the least used of all strategies used by complainers (0.6%). Finally, the results indicated that 155 tweets (11.2%) did not include any type of complaining strategy.

Table 8. Distribution of complaint strategies.

Strategy	Freq	Percentage
8. No complaint	155	11.2
5. Hints	38	2.8
1. Annoyance	439	35.8
2. Consequences	8	0.6
3. Direct accusation	200	14.5
6. Indirect accusation	52	3.8
7. Modified blame	20	1.45
4. Explicit Blame (Behavior)	413	29.9
Total number of complaints	1,379	

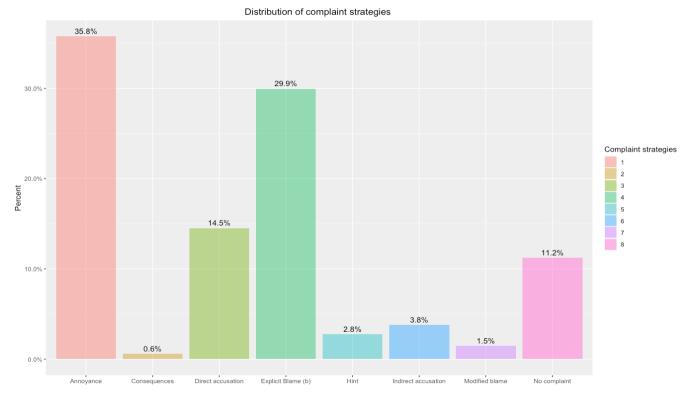


Figure 13. Graphic representation of the distribution of complaint strategies

As a last thought on complaint strategies, it should be mentioned that one of the strategies, explicit blame to a person identified by Trosborg (1995), was not found in the data. This might be because personal relationships are usually not found in such a context. The complainers frequently expressed displeasure about how the corporation dealt with the various services offered.

4.2.2 Directive acts

Directive acts can be added to complaints for various purposes. According to Trosborg (1995), there are three types of directive acts that complainers may add to or imply in their complaints: threats, requests for repairs, and requests for forbearance. However, the analysis of complaints in the present study revealed that there were other types of directive acts such as advice to other customers and drawing one's own conclusion.

4.2.2.1 Request for repairs

If an unfavorable action cannot be undone, the complainant may include a request to cease the unfavorable action in their complaint (Trosborg, 1995). The unwanted action that Noon committed and thus prompted a complaint was frequently reversible. The analysis of customer tweets indicated that most common issues were related to shipping and returns. A majority of the complaints (81%) involved a request for repairs. One possible explanation for the abundance of repair requests is that the data came from a customer service context in which such requests were commonplace.

Complainers requested delivery repairs for various reasons such as delivery delays in Examples 81 and 82, delivery to a wrong address in Example 83, and a delivery approach in Example 84.

(81)

Peace be upon you, I want to file a complaint, Since Monday, I've had a request. The representative called to tell me that he is in the neighborhood, but the request hasn't come yet as of Thursday. why?

(82)

"What is going on since the order was mailed five days ago but hasn't arrived yet after a week? We are not far from your location, but you have been careless in your order deliveries, and the order was delayed and I have an event coming up soon."

I contacted you and informed you that I chose the address in Dammam and not to Riyadh, but hallelujah, the money will go to the advertisements, not for developing the application.

تواصلت معاكم وبلغتكم باني اخترت العنوان الدمام وحاولت قبلها حذف عنوان الرياض بس سبحان الله الفلوس تروح عالاعلانات اما تطوير التطبيق لاحقين عليه

(84)

"I didn't say no. I won't get my goods from you since the items you brought aren't complete. Bring them all, and I will accept them."

نا مار فضت انتم جبتو الاغراض اللي انا طلبت ناقصه ونا ماراح استلم اغراضي على اقصاد جبيوها مره وحده وراح استلمها

Some complained about not getting their refund after returning an item, or a problem with the return process.

(85)

"I purchased a tablet, but when I opened it, it was inoperable. When I asked for a return, I was informed that it was not possible. How is the return denied, and the manufacturer defect and violation of your conditions are the reasons given? Brothers, the tablet is broken and I brought it back in its current state."

شريت تابلت وعند فتحته لا يعمل طلبت إرجاع ووصلتني رسالة تفيد بأن لا يمكن إرجاع المنتج كيف يتم رفض الارجاع والسبب عيب مصنعي وشر وطكم لم تلتزمو بها يا أخوان التابلت يعلق وما يشتغل ورجعته بكامل اغراضة عير مؤهل للإرجاع سنقوم بشحنه لك RASAE700582600 طلب الإرجاع

Some complained about a previous problem for which they had already filed, as in Example 14.

(86)

"I complained, and the responsible team got back to me and requested the information from the Bank Al-Jazira card. Due to my naivete, I provided it. In a quarter of an hour, he called to inform me that the procedure had been canceled without providing any explanation. Does the employee have the authority to ask for card details in this situation?"

ر فعت شكوى وتم الرد من الفريق المعني وطلبوا مني بيانات بطاقة بنك الجزيرة ومن سذاجتي اعطيتهم البيانات ، وبعد ربع ساعة اتصل على ان العملية ملغاه بدون ذكر سبب ، السؤال هنا هل يحق للموظف طلب بيانات البطاقة؟

Some complaints stated the problem to be solved, while others just requested a solution without explaining the problem, as in Example 87.

(87)

"Because the replies to you are known, as I have stated, speaking with you in private is pointless and a waste of time. Please call me or provide us your phone number if you need to reach me."

Finally, some of the requests for data addressed Noon indirectly in the form of a question, as in Example 89.

(89)

"Good morning, Noon. I returned two products worth approximately 80 riyals, and now you have returned 37 riyals in the wallet. May I know what the value of this 37 is?"

In Example 89, the request occurred at the end of a tweet in the form of a rhetorical question: "May I know what the value of this 37 is?" Examining direct acts of request in the data revealed that complainants requested repairs for various reasons, including a delivery issue, a refund issue, and a filed complaint. Additionally, the requests were straightforward with or without explanation.

4.2.2.2 Request for forbearance

Requesting a forbearance was another directive act that appeared in the data. The complainants asked Noon to enhance its services or refrain from taking similar unfavorable actions in the future. The findings showed that requests for forbearance ranked third among directive acts made in complaints, accounting for 3.7% of all such requests.

(90)

"No DM, Read the written text and <u>develop your website</u>. Some offers are fake, some shop reviews are inaccurate, and some products arrive with written descriptions and detailed product information that do not match. <u>If you want to succeed</u>, start by looking at the most

recent activity on the Ali Express website. When that happens, your site will control the entire area."

```
شوف الكلام المكتوب وروحوا طوروا موقعكم بعض العروض وهمية ومتاجر تقييماتها غير صحيحه ومنتجات توصل غير مطابقه الوصف المكتوب وتفاصيل السلعة ماتكتب كاملة تبون تنجحون خوذوا لفه بموقع علي اكسبرس ابدؤوا من اخر ماوصلوا له وقتها بيكون موقعكم مسيطر على مستوى المنطقه كلها
```

In Example 90, the complaint included many requests for website development, avoidance of fraudulent offers, and consideration of other successful shops.

4.2.2.3 Drawing one's own conclusion

Another form of directive act discovered in the data was that a complainant may decide not to buy from Noon in the future due to past experiences. This directive act ranked fourth (3.6%) among the directive acts used.

(91)

a) "Are you kidding me???!! The shipment will take 20 days, but it has not arrived, the first and last time I deal with you. shity delivery "

b) "Delivery policy is bad
Is that to force customers to buy from Express
My order has been in Jeddah for more than two weeks and it has not been delivered
......never again, this is going to be my last order....."

```
سياسة التوصيل اصبحت سيئة
هل ذلك لار غام االعملاء الشراء من اكسبرس
طلبي موجود بجدة لاكثر من اسبوعين ولم يتم توصيله
```

___توبه اخر طلب____

Complainants also expressed regret by using language such as "first and last time," "never again," "last time," etc.

4.2.2.4 Threats

Complainants could be forceful in their complaints, even threatening the complainee's face. Directive acts of threat occurred in conjunction with other directive acts such as repair requests and advice to other customers. The threats often included an intention to file a complaint with the Ministry of Trade, or to stop shopping at the company. According to the findings, threats were the second most common type of directive act in the complaints (9.4%).

(92)

a) "By Allah Almighty, the Noon app is going to be erased right after my order comes in, and you can keep your horrible treatments. I made the mistake of paying for my item before receiving it."

b) Today, I informed the Ministry of Trade today. If you were scammed, you should report it to the Ministry of Trade."

b) "Noon the issue hasn't been resolved and no one has contacted me The amount was not credited to my Noon account as per your request <u>Do you want me to file an official complaint through the platform of the Ministry of Trade?</u> I demand payment and compensation."

4.2.2.5 Advice to other customers

Some complainants advised or suggested that other consumers not shop at Noon, as in Example 93, and some of the advice took the form of warning other consumers, as in Example

94. According to the findings, advising other customers was the directive act employed the least-only 2% of the time.

(93)

"I don't want to communicate with you about anything other than getting my money back. Thank you. I do not want to deal with you. <u>I will advise everyone I know not to deal with you</u>."

"I bought a split air conditioner from them, after they took the full amount, 3 weeks ago, and they did not install the air conditioner for me, even though the offer includes delivery and installation.

And Noon is not accredited in Maarouf

Worst app I have ever dealt with

I advise you to someone who deals with them"

The distribution of directive acts employed by Saudis on Twitter in response to the Noon customer service account is shown in Table 9, and Figure 14.

Table 9. Distribution of directive acts

Directive Acts	Freq	Percentage
1. Advice to others	19	2.0
2. Drawing one's own conclusion	34	3.6
3. Request for forbearance	35	3.7
4. Request for repair	764	81.3
5. Threat	88	9.4
Total	940	

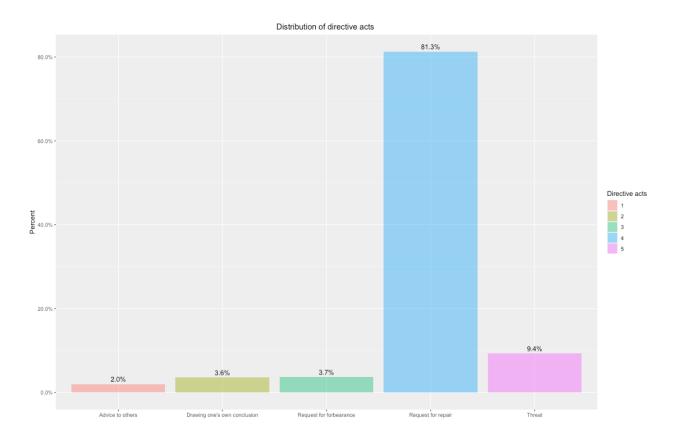


Figure 14. Graphic representation of the distribution of directive acts

Repair requests were the most common directive acts observed (81.3%), and threatening acts were the second most common form observed (9.4%). Other directive actions were utilized in a comparable fashion, including requests for forbearance (3.7%), drawing one's own conclusion (3.6%), and offering advice to others (2.0%).

4.2.3 Complaint perspective

Use of the first-person pronoun illustrates the difference between focalized and defocalized complaints; it shows the complainers' role. However, use of the second-person and "their" pronouns explain to what extent complainers held complainees accountable for negative actions. Thus, it was important to review personal Arabic pronoun in the following section.

4.2.3.1 Focalizing and defocalizing complainers

An analysis of focalizing and defocalizing complainants is another approach to examine the directness level of speech acts of complaint. When complainants refer to themselves in their complaints, they express their involvement and assume responsibility, which is face-threatening. Defocalizing the reference to complainers, on the other hand, attenuates and saves the complainer's face (Trosborg, 1995).

4.2.3.1.1 Focalizing the complainer

To express involvement in complaints, complainers included the first-person singular pronoun /ana/ "I," as illustrated in Example 95. Another way of expressing a complainer's involvement in a complaint is to use the first-person singular pronoun in enclitic forms--as suffixes indicate the possessor /i/ "my" (Example 96), or object of a verb /ni/ "me," or the preposition /i/ "me," or suffixes of the subject /t/ "I" (Example 97). According to the findings, the most common form of the first-person singular pronoun utilized was /ana/ "I" at 56%. The second most common focalizing pronoun was "me" which was utilized by 26.0% of the users. Finally, usage of the initial first-person singular pronoun denoting possession "my" (17.3%) was the pronoun that was utilized least frequently in the process of focalizing complaints.

(95)

"I asked you for milk, but when I got it, it had been out of date for two months. Why are you being so rude? The website wouldn't take the item back, and \underline{I} want my money back." @noon_cares

"My shift ends at 7, I can't be at the delivery site until 7 o'clock And your employee says his shift ends at 4 How is that??"

انا دوامي ينتهي 7 ما اقدر اكون في موقع التسليم إلا الساعة و الموظف حقكم يقول دوامه ينتهي 4 كيف كده ؟

"After three months, when customer service <u>calls me</u>, they tell me my problem will be fixed quickly. They took their money without even thinking about what they were selling. If I file a complaint with the Ministry of Trade, will that <u>help me</u> get my right back, or will I still get the same order?"

In Example 95, the first-person pronoun /ana/ "I" was used in the singular form. In Example 96, the first-person singular pronoun in enclitic forms /i/ was used as a suffix in the noun "shift," indicating the possessor /dawam-i/ "my shift." Finally, in Example 97, use of the first-person singular pronoun in enclitic form was used as the suffix of the preposition /b-i/ "me," and the second pronoun was used as a suffix for the verb "help" indicating the possessor /i/ (me), or object of the verb /ni/ as /tfid-ni/ "help me," or suffix of the preposition /b/ as in /ma?-i/ "with-me" in "me."

4.2.3.1.2 Defocalizing the complainer

(97)

When complainers want to minimize face-threatening acts in complaints and reduce their role as complainers, they use the first-person plural form /nahnu/ "we." According to the findings, the pronoun was utilized 33.6% of the time while addressing complainees. Another way to reduce the complainer's involvement in a complaint is to use the first-person singular pronoun in enclitic forms as suffixes, indicating possessor /na/ "our/us," object of a verb, or preposition /na/ "our/us," or suffixes of the subject /n/ "we". According to the findings, the possessive form "us" was the second most common form used (17.7%), while "our" was the third most common form utilized (8.6%).

The analysis showed that the first-person plural pronoun occurred more often than in enclitic forms, and the reason is that the pronoun /nahnu/ "we" was used more often in standard Arabic, and most tweets were written in Arabic dialects². Also, although the first person plural pronoun /nahnu/ was not used in the data, another dialectal form /ihna/ was used, which has the same meaning as "we" (Example 98).

(98)

"Say we're thieves and admit it, but don't apologize"

In Example 99, the first-person plural pronoun occurred in enclitic forms /n/, which is the suffix of the subject /n-dfas/ "we-pay."

(99)

"Why do you show a product that isn't in stock? Then <u>we</u> pay for it and wait for it to arrive, but it never comes.

Example 100 shows the occurrence of the first-person singular pronoun /na/ "us" as an object of the preposition /?ala/ "on."

(100)

"I swore to God you wouldn't do anything, and I think I'll go back to Amazon. They deliver a complete order, and you install the orders on <u>us</u> as if we were begging you. We pay money, and this is your job."

والله يانون ماعنكم غير الخراط شكلي برجع لامازون يوصلون الطلبية كامله اريح لي منكم تقصدون الأغراض علينا كاننا نشحذكم ترا رافعين فلوس مالكم فضل علينا

² The standard form of the first singular plural pronoun /nahnu/ was used by Noon when communicating with customers. The customers used the pronoun only to quote Noon in their tweets for argument purposes.

Finally, some tweets did not use pronouns in either singular or plural form, which also demonstrates that complainers minimized their role in complaints and reduced the face-threatening act. The data also indicated that complainants did not to use a pronoun 40% of the time.

(101)

"Do you have the right to cancel the order if it's not available after more than a week?" هل يحق لكم بعد اكثر من اسبوع والطلب متوفر غير متوفر كيف غير متوفر بعد اكثر من اسبوع والطلب متوفر في إاالموقع؟

Table 10 and Figure 15 indicate the frequency with which complainant references were focalized and defocalized. When complainants chose to take responsibility for a complaint, the first-person pronoun "I" was the most used reference (56%). However, when complainers chose to downplay their participation in a complaint, no pronoun was used (40%). When a complainers wanted to minimize their role by using a pronoun, the first singular plural form "we" was the one most often used (33.6%).

Table 10. Frequency of reference to the complainer (Focalizing vs. Defocalizing)

Complaint prospective	Reference type	Freq	Percent
	I	1425	56.8
Focalizing	Me	652	26.0
	My	434	17.3
	We	74	33.6
Defocalizing	Us	39	17.7
	Our	19	8.6
	No pronoun	88	40.0

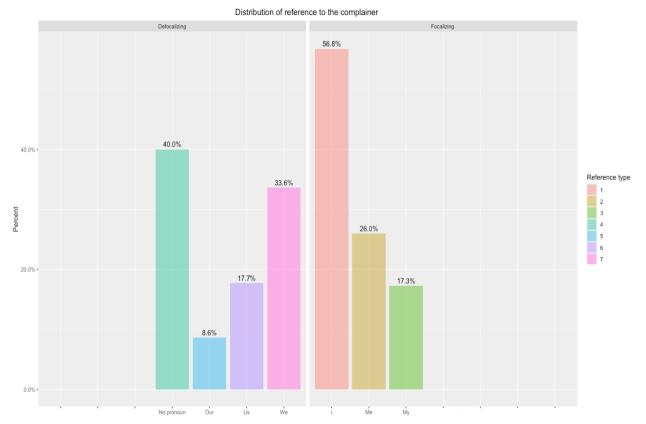


Figure 15 Graphic representation of the focalizing and defocalizing reference to the complainer (Speaker- perspective)

Table 11 and Figure 16 illustrate the total frequency distribution of focalizing and defocalizing references to the complainer. The results showed that focalizing references to the complainer were more frequently used (91.94%) than defocalizing references (8.05).

The total distribution of complainant focalizing and defocalizing is shown in Table 11 and Figure 16, revealing that focalizing was utilized more frequently than defocalizing.

Table 11. Frequency of focalizing and defocalizing the complainer

Reference type	Frequency	Percent
Focalizing	2511	91.94
Defocalizing	220	8.05

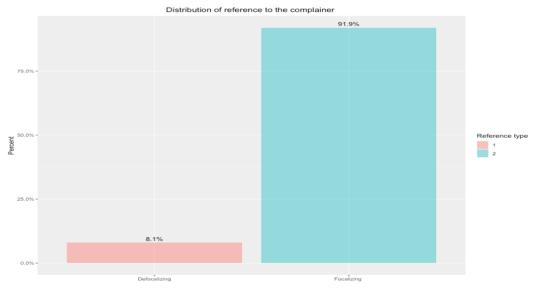


Figure 16. Graphic representation of focalizing and defocalizing reference to the complainer (speaker-perspective)

According to a chi-square test, the distribution of defocalizing and focalizing reference to the complainer differed significantly from the expected distribution; $x^2 = 70.373$, df = 1, p > .001. The frequency of focalizing reference to the complainer (2,511) was reliably higher than the frequency of defocalizing references to the complainer (220).

The result showed that Saudi complainers took responsibility for their complaints and shared their annoyances with Noon.

4.2.3.2 Focalizing and defocalizing the complainee

By focusing on the complainee, complainants may express that the addressee is the agent of the complaint. For various reasons and objectives, the complainant may want to defocalize the reference to the complainee. According to Trosborg (1995), complainants may avoid explicitly mentioning the complainee for reasons such as suppressing information, not knowing the complainee, the unnecessity of mentioning the addressee, avoidance of direct accusation or blame, and the presupposition of knowing the complainee.

The mention of features and hashtags in tweets may make the complainant assume that the addressee is known to everyone who reads the message. To overcome this problem, the analysis coded both references by simply using the body of the tweet. The results demonstrated that, although the addressee was known, complainers frequently focalized references to the complainee.

Another factor that may contribute to complainers defocalizing the complainee is that complainers often direct their comments to other consumers. Additionally, we cannot ascribe implicit references to the complainee in order to avoid direct accusation or blame, as Trosborg (1995) argues, given that several tweets contained direct accusation and blame.

4.2.3.2.1 Focalizing the complainee

Complainants may vent their anger by threatening the addressee's face and establishing the addressee as the complaint's agent. Numerous references may be used to focus on the complainee, including the independent personal pronoun, second singular person [masculine] /inta/ and [feminine] /inti/ "you." Also, often the independent second plural person [masculine] /antum/ was used.

The second person singular pronoun also occurred in the data as a suffix indicating possessor /ka/ "your" [masculine], or /ki/ "your" [feminine]. More often, the second person plural /kum/ "your" [masculine] was noted in the data. The data also showed that the second person pronoun occurred as prefixes for the subject, second singular, plural, masculine and feminine forms, /t-//i/, and /n/ "you" as in Example 28. For ease of coding and explanation, the possessive pronoun was coded as "your," and the second person pronoun was distinguished by the number "you" [plural form] and "you" [singular form], as illustrated in Table 12.

The data suggest that complainants frequently used the second person plural "you" (72.6%). Conversely, the singular form was the least common second-person singular pronoun used to address a complainant. A further indicator of the complainant's centrality is the use of the possessive second-person plural "your" (11.7%). Similarly, Noon was used as a focalizing term for 10.4% of all focalizations.

(102)

"You (P) know the people who complain about <u>you</u>. do you know my phone number or my order number. <u>you</u> don't even bother to contact me, <u>you</u> and <u>you</u>r work group are failures and did not solve my problem and <u>you</u> think you will now."

Finally, the findings indicated that complainants utilized the company name Noon to threaten the recipient. Example 103 shows the use of pronouns "you, your," and the common name, "Noon."

(103)

<u>Noon</u>, why are you being so careless? I asked for paid travel bags, but in the end, I got something that wasn't what I asked for. It's been a month, and I still don't have my money back. You got the request that I sent back to you. I want the problem to be fixed as soon as possible.

4.2.3.2.2 Defocalizing the complainee

Another approach that a complainer may use is defocalizing the complainee by not assigning a pronoun at all, as shown in Example 104. The findings indicated that defocalizing the complainee was accomplished by not using a pronoun (17%). Instead, a passive form was used

as illustrated in Example 104. Additionally, complainers sometimes defocalized the complainee by using a third-person pronoun such as "they, them, their, he, him, his, she, her."

According to the findings, the third person pronoun "they" was used most frequently (32.1%). Among the several defocalizing references in the complaints, usage of the third person plural in the accusative form "them" came in third place (13%) overall. The genitive form of the third person plural "their," on the other hand, was less often used (4.1%).

The second most common pronoun was the third-person singular masculine in the nominative case "he" (22%). However, the accusative case "him" was less frequently employed (7%). Additionally, the complaint utilized the third-person singular masculine in the genitive case "his" less frequently (1.6%). Conversely, the data revealed that the third-person singular feminine form in both the accusative and nominative "she" and "her" were less frequently employed than the masculine forms, at 2.7% and 0.5%, respectively.

Example 104 illustrates an implicit reference to a complainee, and Example 105 exemplifies use of the third-person pronouns "they" and "them."

(104)

"The order was made 2 pieces and one was received, knowing that the two orders were made to be delivered together, and the second piece was not received???"

تم عمل الأوردر 2 قطعه وتم استلام واحد علمان بأن تم عمل طلب الاتنين يوصلو مع بعض ولم استلام القطعه الثانيه ؟؟؟ (105)

"Three months, Every time customer service calls, <u>they</u> say, "We'll solve your problem as soon as we can," but that's just empty talk. <u>They</u> took <u>their money</u> without thinking about what they were selling. If I file a complaint with the Ministry of Commerce, it can help me get my right back or get my order."

ثلاث شهور وكل مايتواصلون معي خدمة العملاء سوف نحل مشكلتك بقرب وقت وكلة كلام فاضى خذو افلوسهم مفكرو في ايش باعو لو اقدم شكوى وزارة التجارة ممكن تفيدني ترجع حقى او يجيني نفس طلبي

The distribution of various references to the complainee is shown in Table 12, and Figure 17. The findings indicated that when the complainant held the addressee responsible for the complaint, the second-person pronoun "you" in plural form was the one most frequently employed (72.6%). However, when the complainant was defocalizing the complainee, the most frequently used pronoun was the plural pronoun "they" (32%).

Table 12. Frequency distribution of reference to the complainee

Complaint prospective	Reference type	Frequency	Percent	
	You (p)	1364	72.6	
Focalizing	Your	220	11.7	
Todanzing	Noon	196	10.4	
	You	100	5.3	
	They	180	32.1	
	Them	73	13.0	
	Their	23	4.1	
Defocalizing	Не	123	22.0	
5	Him	39	7.0	
	His	9	1.6	
	She	15	2.7	
	Her	3	0.5	
	No pronoun	95	17.0	

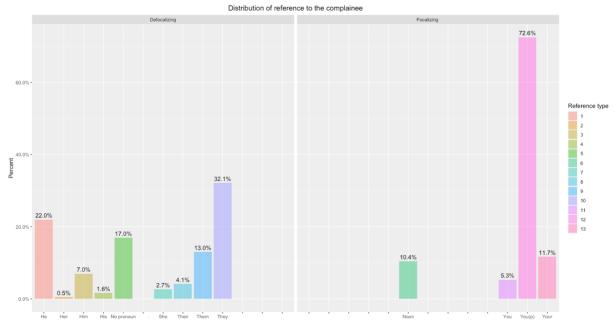


Figure 17. Graphic representation of the focalizing reference to the complainee (Hearer-perspective)

The total frequency distributions of focalizing and defocalizing references to the complainee are shown in Table 13, and Figure 18. The results suggest that Saudi complainants prefer focalizing the complainee (77.0%) over defocalizing (23.0 %).

Table 13. Frequency distribution of reference to the complainee

Complaint prospective	Frequency	Percent
Focalizing	1880	77.0
Defocalizing	560	23.0

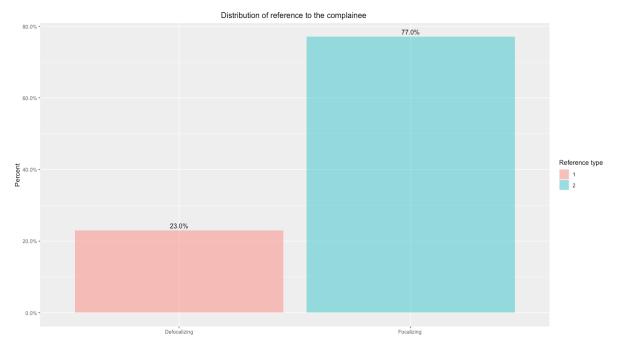


Figure 18. Graphic representation of the focalizing reference to the complainee (Hearer-perspective)

According to a chi-square test, the distribution of defocalizing and focalizing reference to a complainee differed significantly from the expected distribution; x^2= 29.266, df=1, p>.001. The frequency of focalizing reference to the complainee (1,880) was reliably higher than the frequency of defocalizing reference to the complainer (560). The result suggests that complainers held Noon as the agent of negative actions and chose to face a threatening act instead of saving the addressee's face.

It is also important to determine whether complainers focused on themselves in complaints or on complainees. As Table 14, and Figure 19 illustrate, complaints included more references to the complainer than the complainee.

Table 14. Frequency distribution of focalizing reference to the complainee and the complainer

Complaint prospective	Frequency	Percent
Focalizing the complainer	2,511	57.0
Focalizing the complainee	1,880	43.0

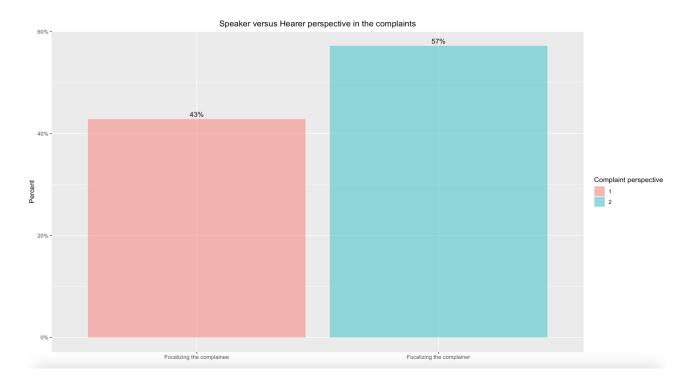


Figure 19. Graphic representation of the focalizing reference (speaker versus hearerperspective)

According to a chi-square test, the distribution of focalizing references to the complainer and the complainee differs significantly from the expected distribution; x^2= 90.677, df=1, p>.001. The frequency of focalizing references to the complainer (2,511) was reliably higher than the frequency of focalizing references to the complainee (1,880). The results suggests that complainers focused more on themselves than on face threatening the addressee in complaints, and that they took responsibility for their complaints (Trosborg, 1995 p. 323).

4.2.4 Internal modification

House and Kasper (1982) express the importance of what they term *modality markers*, since with one level of directness there will be different politeness effects, depending on the type of modality marker (downgraders or upgraders) (House & Kasper, 1982, p. 166).

Similarly, Trosborg (1995) distinguishes between two types of *modifications* in complaints: internal modifications (downgraders and upgraders), and external modifications. I will explain and analyze the first type in this section, and external modification will be explained in section 4.7.

Trosborg (1995) identifies two classes of internal modifiers: upgraders and downgraders. By utilizing upgrading modifiers, complainers may boost the impact a complaint is likely to have on a complainee through aggravation. Conversely, complainers may elect to lessen the effect of their complaint by applying downgraders which help alleviate the conditions under which an offensive was committed, and as a result lower the intensity of the blame (Trosborg, 1995).

The data in the present study suggested that Saudi complainers utilized both forms of internal modifications. Irony, emoticons, letter repletion, time reference, insult, religious terminology, and punctuation constitute upgrading modifications, whereas polite markers, initiators, and subjectiviers constitute downgraders. The following section will provide examples and a frequency analysis of internal modifiers (upgraders 4.6.3.1 and downgraders 4.6.3.2).

4.2.4.1 Upgrading modifiers

4.2.4.1.1 Irony

Sarcasm is a strategy complainers use to make their complaints less direct. Culpeper (2016) defines *irony* as, "emphasize your relative power, be contemptuous, do not treat the other seriously, belittle the other" (Culpeper, 2016: p. 425). To avoid transmitting the traditional and

literal understanding of a complaint, irony may be employed by utilizing Twitter's multimodality, emoticons, complaint hashtag, and a tweets' text. The data revealed that irony accounted for 4.3% of all upgraders in the present study. Example 106 illustrates irony being used in a complaint; the complainant sarcastically interjects an irrelevant interrogative concerning a delivery delay.

(106)

"The greatest and easiest way to solve a problem in an electronic store is to file a complaint, wait 24 hours, and then have it closed for no reason. Then you file a new complaint, which is also closed for no reason, and so on."

أعظم وأفضل طريقة في التاريخ لحل أي مشكلة في المتاجر الالكترونية فتح شكوى والانتظار 24 ساعه ومن ثم يتم اغلاقها بلا سبب ورفع شكوى جديدة وايضا يتم اغلاقها بلا سبب وهكذا 4.2.4.1.2 Emoticons

Emoticons are emotive symbols used to communicate various moods and facial expressions. Emoticons began with text-based (:-), :-(). The new type of emoticon is the graphic emoticon which is used in the present research: ((ω, ω)) (Manganari, 2021).

Complaints in the present study include various types of emotions to show different emotions. The following are emotions found in complaints: angary face, red angry face, slightly smiling face, face with tears of joye, rolling on the floor laughing face, huffing with anger face, thinking face, thumbs down, broken heart, rose, face with raised eyebrow, women facepalming, women shrugging, weary face, and face with masker.

Herring (2010) reports that these emoticons can change the pragmatic meaning of complaints. For example, when a laughing face or smiling face follows a complaint, the complaint will be ironic (Tannen et al., 2015). This was also true in the present data, as shown in

Examples 107 and 108. The data indicated that 2.9% of the upgrading modifiers contained emoticons.

(107)

Order date: June 24.

"Can you believe it's been over two weeks and the order hasn't moved? Every time I talk to you, you say it will arrive and ship soon. Now you say the expected arrival date is July 23, as if you're saying something new \mathfrak{D} !!.Instead of looking why the order is late and speed up the shipping process? \mathfrak{D} "

تاريخ الطلب 24 يونيو

انت متخيل اسبو عين وزيادة ما تحركت الطلبية وكل ما اكلمكم تقول بتوصل وتشحن قريب ودحين بتقولي تاريخ الوصول 2 إاالمتوقع 23 يوليو يعنى انك جبت معلومة جديدة

" الله بدل ما تشوف ليش متأخرة وتسرع عملية الشحن؟

(108)

'If you are confident that things will not get to this point,

Do not buy into the falsehoods that they Check how many days they are behind, and you will see that the response remains the same. I don't believe in you until I see my order tell.



لو تعملون ما تستمرون بسؤكم يالسيئين اف لحد يصدق هبدهم ذا شوفوا كم يوم متأخرين علي وبتشوفون نفس ذا الرد كان ينرد علي ما اصدقكم لين اشوف طلبيتي الله لا معالي ما اصدقكم لين اشوف عليتي الله المستقبل المست

4.2.4.1.3 Letter repetitions

Another approach complainers use to intensify their complaints or to lengthen the pronunciation of a particular sound is repeating alphabet letters. In the current study, repeated letters occurred in 3.9% of the upgrade modifiers.

(109)

Hey, I only got half of what I ordered, and after I paid for the first half, they cancelled the rest of the order. whattttt is the solution to losers?

ياعالم طلبيتي وصلتني نصها ونص لا ودفعت ع الاولى اكثر من نص المبلغ و بعدين الغو باقي الطلب ايشششش الحل ي فاشلين

4.2.4.1.4 Word repetitions

4.2.4.1.5 Time reference

In addition to using the same letter several times as a method of expressing anger, complainants also used the same term multiple times, as can be seen in Example 110. According to the findings, upgrading modifiers were only employed 0.5% of the time in complaints.

(110)

"The most recent time they lied to me about receiving money, they said it was sent to me today, but I did not get it. A scam and <u>failed failed</u> site."

یش موظفینکم لعابین و اخر کلام قالوا لی الیوم توصل فلوس و ماشفت نصب واحتیال منکم موقع فاشل فاشل I must point out that both the repetition of letters and the repetition of words appear to be more characteristic of Arabic than English. However, in English, other aspects of the language, such as using capital letters for the whole phrase or sentences, could be used to intensify the complaint.

Complainers intensified their complaints by mentioning how long the delay time had been since receiving their orders, or the delay in getting repairs after their requests. Participant complainers in this study used time references to show how their problems affected them, thus making their complaints more justifiable. Time reference upgraders made up 14.3% of all upgrading modifiers, ranking third in terms of use. Example 111 illustrates a time reference in a complaint about a refund delay.

(111)

"I ordered it on the first of Dhul Hijjah and received it on the fourth, however the scooter was missing four major pieces and could not be utilized. I filed a complaint, and you promised to address the issue. Today is the 15th, and I still haven't solved the problem. I received one thing,

but the second was incomplete. <u>You spoiled the Eid vacation for the children and did not resolve</u> my problem ****TFFF**."

طلبت بتاريخ ١ ذو الحجة وجاني الطلب بتاريخ ٤ ناقص قطعة رئيسية في الجهاز (سكوتر) مايشتغل بدونها ورفعت شكوى قلتوا خلال ثلاث ايام بنحل مشكلتك لليوم تاريخ ١٥ ماشفت حل مشكلة وصلني سكوتر سليم والثاني ناق<u>ص خربتوا فرحة</u> الاطفال في العيد ولا حليتوا مشكلتي والتيام مشكلتي الاطفال في العيد ولا حليتوا مشكلتي

4.2.4.1.6 Lexical intensification

Swearing or using other words that reveal a bad attitude can intensify a complaint, for example, swearing, rude behavior, and offensive words, as shown in Example 112. The results suggest that lexical intensification was the upgrader most frequently utilized (28.2%).

(112)

"Noon website is a failure and they're thieves.

I returned an order that was not the same as it was offered, and it took me a month and two weeks, but fake messages and annoying fake calls to manipulate a customer"

موقع نون فاشل و حرامية

رجعت طلبية مو نفس معروضه و صار لي شهر و اسبوعين بس رسايل وهميه وازعاج اتصالات وهميه لتلاعب على عميل

4.2.4.1.7 Prayers

Some tweets contained religious prayers as a way to demonstrate the frustration that consumers felt with Noon, as shown in Example 113. The findings suggest that 4.9% of all upgrade modifiers were prayers.

(113)

"Let him see these scammers and hypocrites who call and say the money will be in your account in 48 hours and I did not see from you nothing but a fraud and manipulation of a client. Allah suffices me, for He is the best disposer of affairs."

خليه يطلع هالموظفين نصابين و منافقين يلي تتصل و تقول خلال 48 ساعه فلوس في حسابك وماشفت منكم الا نصب و تلاعب ع عميل اصغر عيالك لتلعب عليي حسبى الله ونعم وكيل ومو محللين و لا مبرين الذمة و اخر مرة اشتري منكم حرامي

4.2.4.1.8 Rhetorical questions

According to the findings, several complaints contained rhetorical questions to render complaints more persuasive. Complainants presented questions without being interested in a responses, as seen in Example 114. According to the findings, 7.1% of upgrading modifiers were letter repeats.

(114)

"Do you recall how many times I received an apology from you? And how many times have you promised to provide a solution for me? You deceive people, and I swear to God, you are the worst retailer I have ever encountered."

عارفين كم مره ارسلتم لي اعتذار ؟؟ وعارفين كم مره وعدتوني في حل المشكلة ؟؟؟ والله بانكم تكذبون على العملاء وانكم اسوأ متجر مر على

4.2.4.1.9 Question

The findings indicated that some of the complaints contained questions that required replies; yet negative sentiment was quite apparent in those questions. Questions in complaints accounted for 6% of all complaints.

(115)

"Peace be upon you. So far, I have not received my order, despite the delay in receiving it until today, Saturday. Why did I contact customer service and he informed me that it will reach me within four hours and it did not arrive, what is the solution?"

السلام عليكم الى الأن لم تصلني طلبيتي بالرغم من تأخير ها عن مو عد التوصيل الأصلي وتأجيل استلامها الى اليوم السبت ليش ودقيت على خدمة العملاء وبلغني انها سوف تصلني خلال اربع ساعات ولم تصل اي<u>ش الحل ؟</u>

4.2.4.1.10 Commitment upgraders

In commitment upgrader tweets, complaining individuals used modifiers to suggest a unique dedication to the argument. For example, they said things like "I'm sure," or "It's apparent, unfortunately" among similar expressions, or adverbs such as "surely, certainly,

unfortunately," and so on (Trosborg, 1995). According to the findings, 3.1% of the respondents were commitment upgraders.

(116)

"I ordered this product, unfortunately, it arrived and the box is damaged and I made a return request and I couldn't, what's the solution, please?"

4.2.4.1.11 Intensifiers

Intensifiers are adverbs or adjectives such as "very, really, absolutely," and are used to intensify a part of a complaint. The employment of intensifiers accounted for 5% of all upgraders utilized in the complaints.

(117)

"I received a general email that did not contain any update. It's coming to me for the third time now. I am very upset because every time someone calls me, they do not know the history of the problem."

4.2.4.1.12 Punctuation

Punctuation is another approach used to intensify a complaint, and the repetition of punctuation adds even more intensity (Vandergriff, 2013). Complainers repeat question marks, exclamation marks, use a combination of questions and exclamation marks, ellipses, and exclamation marks. According to the findings, punctuation was the upgrader that was employed the second most often in complaints (16.4%), as in Example 118.

(118)

"My brother, may peace be upon you. What happened?? You promised to get in touch, but I haven't received a call yet?!!! Do I need to beg you ?? You have the choice to give it back to me or compensate me for my request because this is my money."

السلام عليكم ها اخوي وش صار ؟؟ قلتوا بتتواصلون معي ومحد كلمني الى الان؟!!!! اشحذكم انا ؟؟ ترا فلوسي من حقكم ترجعون لي او تعطوني تعويض لطلبيه ترجعون لي او تعطوني تعويض لطلبيه 4.2.4.1.13 Expression of remorse

Another way to elevate a complaint is to show regret for a previous action, as in Example 119. Remorse upgraders accounted for 3.3% of the total number of upgraders used in complaints. (119)

I'm <u>very regretful</u> that I ordered from you . You won't give my money back, right? You say the same thing over and over like a robot, so you won't be back, right?

Overall, Saudi complaints included a variety of internal modifiers that served to amplify complaints (irony, emoticons, letter repetitions, time references, lexical intensifications, rhetorical questions, questions, punctuations, prayers, letter repetitions, commitment upgraders, and expressions of remorse).

Table 15 demonstrates the frequency distribution of internal modifiers employed to aggravate complaints. The results indicated that lexical intensification was the most often used upgrader (28.2%), and punctuation in the complaint was the second most frequently used upgrade (16.4%). The third most used internal modifier was time reference (14.3). The least often used upgrades were irony and word repetition (0.5).

Table 15. Distribution of internal modifiers (upgraders)

Upgraders	Frequency	Percent
Irony	63	4.3
Emoticons	43	2.9
Letter repetition	58	3.9
Time reference	211	14.3
Lexical intensification	415	28.2
Prayers	72	4.9
Punctuation	242	16.4
Expression of remorse	48	3.3
Rhetorical question	104	7.1
Question	88	6.0
Word repetition	8	0.5
Commitment upgraders	46	3.1
Intensifiers	74	5.0

4.2.4.2 Downgrading modifiers

Downgrading modifiers are employed to ease a complaint and mitigate a complaint's face-threatening nature. The results showed three distinct kinds of downgraders--initiators, polite markers and hedges—in addition to subjectiviers for which I will present examples and a statistical analysis in the next sections.

4.2.4.2.1 Initiators

Complainers may lessen complaint face-threatening by using initiators. The findings showed the following were used: "Peace be upon you, Peace be upon you and the mercy of God, dear, gentlemen, hi, dear brother, brothers, my esteemed brother, brother, sir, good morning, good evening." Initiators accounted for 47.5% of downgrading modifiers, the second-highest proportion of downgrading modifiers in complaints.

(120)

"<u>Peace be upon you</u>, I requested an order from last month and I contact you and every time you change the delivery date on the system."

4.2.4.2.2 Polite markers

Complainers may mitigate their complaint by using polite words to show respect and cooperative behavior such as "please, brother, if you kindly, thank you, if you may, your honor, dear, could you," and so on. The results indicated that polite markers accounted for 49% of downgrading modifiers.

(121)

"If you may, I placed an order and paid for it with Apple Pay. The money was taken out, but the order is still on the chart, and I didn't get a message or email!!"

!! <u>لوسمحت</u> طلبت وحاسبت ابل باي انسحب المبلغ والطلبيه للحين بالسله والاجاني رساله والا ايميل 4.2.4.2.3 Subjectiviers

Subjectiviers are "modifiers that characterize the proposition as the speakers' personal opinion or indicate the speaker's attitude towards the proposition" (Trosborg, 1995). According to the findings, subjectiviers made up 3.5% of all downgrading modifiers, making them the least utilized type of downgrading modifier found in the complaints.

(122)

"Literally a funny app. With this kind of reputation, you could hire a good worker. What I can say is that I think the delivery service is bad bad, <u>and this is my opinion</u>."

حرفيا مضحك تطبيق بسمعه مثل كذا ما يقدر يجيب مناديب صاحين ارجع واقول خدمه التوصيل سييه سييه <u>وهذا رايي</u>

As mentioned above, downgrading was restricted to three types. The results in Table 16 demonstrate their frequency. The results showed that downgraders were employed infrequently compared to upgraders. Polite markers were the most often used (49%), whereas Subjectiviers were the least frequently utilized (3.5.%).

Table 16. Frequency distribution of internal modifiers (downgrading)

Downgraders	Frequency	Percent
Initiator	99	47.5
Polite markers	96	49.0
Subjectiviers	7	3.5

In general, the results revealed that Saudis employed a greater variety of upgraders (thirteen) than downgraders (three). The usage of both internal modifiers is summarized and visually shown in Figure 20.

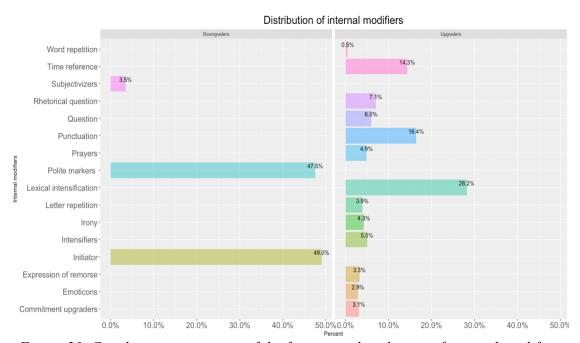


Figure 20. Graphic representation of the frequency distribution of internal modifiers (Downgraders vs. Upgraders)

Furthermore, Table 17 and Figure 21 show the total usage of internal modifiers (upgraders vs. downgraders). The results indicated that upgraders were used more often than downgraders: (87.9%) and (12.1%), respectively.

Table 17. Distribution of internal modifiers (Upgraders vs. Downgraders)

Internal modifiers	Freq	Percentage
Upgraders	1,472	87.9
Downgraders	202	12.1

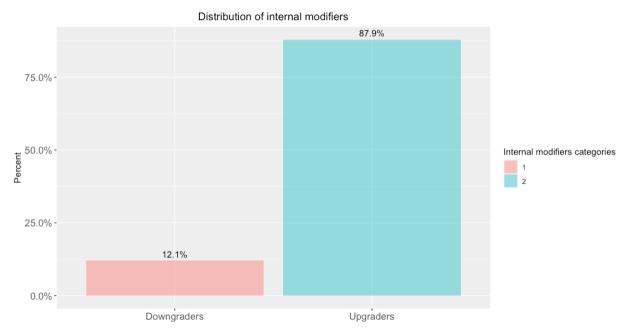


Figure 21. Graphic representation of the internal modifiers distribution

According to a chi-square test, the distribution of downgrader and upgrader modifiers differed significantly from the expected distribution; $x^2 = 963.5$, df=1, p>.001. The frequency of upgrade modifiers (1,472) was reliably higher than that of downgrader modifiers (202).

4.2.5 External modification

Avoiding social conflict and saving the complainant's face are two important aspects of politeness that may be achieved via external modifiers. Complainants may also use external modifiers to support and reinforce claims (Trosborg, 1995). Saudis used the following supportive moves: preparator, offering evidence, and substantiation act.

4.2.5.1 Preparators

Complainers include a preparator in their complaints to successfully organize the structural level of discourse. Preparators is to introduce and prepare the complaint in which the complainer pavs the way for the complaint. (Trosborg, 1995). In the present study most, tweets began by criticizing or accusing Noon directly. However, some complaints, as seen in Example 120, were started by initiators (discussed earlier). After using initiators, complainers either directly expressed their complaints or prepared for them by telling the story of their problem, as seen in Example 123. According to the findings, preparators made up 17.5% of external modifications, making them the third most used type.

(123)

"Peace and mercy of God. <u>I bought a new Tablet from you. It had a factory malfunction, and after a great effort, the device was replaced with a different color but I did not change anything about it, the same fault that was in the first device.</u> what is the solution?"

4.2.5.1.1 Providing evidence

In a complaint, complainants prove that "A did P, and P is bad" (Trosborg, 1995). Knowing the type of multimodality used by complainers, whether a video or a picture, was one drawback of using big data in this investigations rather than taking screenshots of tweets. However, I could count the number of links complainers used to justify their complaints, and symbols or pictures were sometimes included in a text. Another approach I used for counting tweets that provided evidence was reading the tweets' texts. According to the results, the least often employed external modification (7.2%) was providing evidence.

(124)

"Do you want customers?

I messaged you via DM a month ago, and you still haven't fixed the problem. When I open the app, this is what I see. I've tried all the solutions. https://t.co/AD7BmUe7fl"

!ما تبون زباين ؟ تواصلت بالخاص قبل شهر وإلى الآن ما حليتوا المشكلة! إذا فتحت التطبيق طلع لي كذا جربت جميع الحلول https://t.co/AD7BmUe7fl

4.2.5.1.2 Seeking solutions

A third strategy used to substantiate a complaint was the request for the addressee to find a solution. The findings of the current study indicated that looking for solutions was the external modification most often employed (53.1%).

(125)

"May the peace, blessings, and mercy of God be upon you I ordered and paid electronically and you said that it will arrive on Sunday, but it did not! give me a solution"

السلامُ عليكم و رحمة الله و بركاته الحين انا طلبت منكم و دفعت الكتر ونيًا وقلتوا بيتوصل الأحد ، طيب ما وصل إلى هذى اللحظه! اعطوني حل

4.2.5.2 Substantiation

Complainers may include facts and arguments in their complaints to substantiate their claim and action. According to (Trosborg, 1995), there are eight factors that complainers may use to attribute a complaint to the complainee: "aggravating the offense, repeated action, lack of consideration, no excuse, a general nuisance, a breach of contract or promise, deceived expectation, and appeal to the complainee's moral consciousness" (Trosborg, 1995). According to the present findings, the substantiation of external modification was utilized 22.2% of the time. Example 126 shows how a complainer used argument to resolve a complaint.

"You waste our time by communicating with you and the last thing is the same results, "give us proof that you returned two pieces". Where do I get proof from!!! You gave me proof that the representative received one piece alone, not two."

Overall, Saudi complainers on Twitter justified their complaints using four external modifiers: preparators, providing evidence, seeking a solution, and substantiation.

Table 18. Distribution of external modifiers

External modifiers	Freq	Percentage
1. Preparators	206	17.5
2. Providing evidence	85	7.2
3. Seeking solution	626	53.1
4. Substantiation	261	22.2

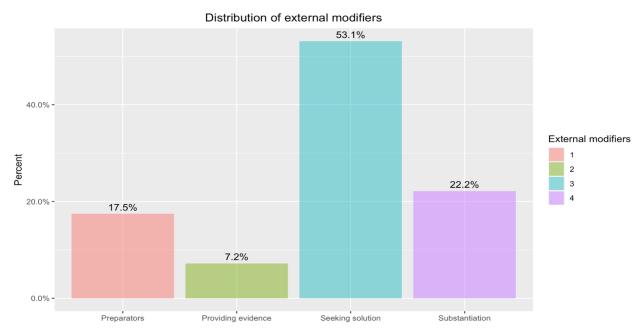


Figure 22. Graphic representation of external modifiers' distribution

Table 18 and Figure 22 show the frequency distribution of all external modifiers.

According to the data, the most often used modifier was seeking a solution (53.1%) and the least used external modifier was providing evidence (7.2%).

Discussion

Corpus and pragmatics findings are discussed in the following section. The findings of the top 100 keywords, keywords in context (KWIC), collocation, and clusters analysis are discussed in Section 5.1 in relation to the prior definition of *complaint*. In Section 5.2, results of the pragmatics analysis will be reviewed in relation to research on speech acts in other languages, Arabic, and CMC studies on speech acts of complaint. The findings of corpus and pragmatics analyses in relation to the politeness theories of Leech (1982, 2014) and Brown, and Levinson (1987) will then be discussed in Section 5.3.

The findings of both corpus analysis and pragmatics will be discussed in relation to other studies that have been conducted on the act of complaining. However, it is worth noting that the topic of speech acts has been examined using a variety of methodologies, making comparisons very challenging. However, the discussion is necessary in order to evaluate the methodologies that have been used. Also, it is important to compare previous theories on spoken speech acts with speech acts in CMC to delineate the differences and similarities between them and formulate an appropriate explanation of how online speech acts develop.

4.3 Previous speech acts of complaint definitions

-Rethinking the definition of speech acts of complaint

4.3.1 Olshtain and Weinbach (1987)

According to Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), one of the fundamental characteristics of speech acts of complaint is not meeting the complainants' expectations. Results of the present study indicated that complainants did not use any meaningful form of the word "expect"--the word did not appear in any of the top 100 keywords. Moreover, the results of the corpus analysis

revealed that in 29 instances, complainants did not explicitly express that their expectations were not satisfied. This result contrasts with that of Vasquez (2011) who observed that one-third of TripAdvisor complaints overtly state their expectations. The present study also found that complainants may utilize alternative lexical phrases to convey an unfulfilled expectation such as "supposed," which was used more frequently than "expectation."

Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) also assert that another characteristic of complaining is that the complainant blames and holds the addressee responsible for the negative behavior. An analysis of the present investigation's target corpus showed that in just 18 instances the word "responsible" was used explicitly. However, alternative expressions were used to indicate that the complainant held the recipient accountable for the negative action. For example, the second-person pronoun was used substantially more often than the third-person pronoun. Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), Boxer (1993a), and Trosborg (1995) noted that use of the second-person pronoun indicates the importance of holding the addressee accountable in complaints.

The use of the second-pronoun in Arabic in the current study differed from Meinl's (2013) observation that the reduced use of second-person pronouns compare to other pronouns, contrasting with Trosborg's (1995) findings. Meinl (2013) attributed these disparities to a complaint's cause and language modality differences.

The present results revealed that those who complained about an unfavorable action did not explicitly use terms such as "expect" or "responsible" (Olshtain and Weinbach, 1987).

Complainants used phrases other than literal terms to report that their expectations had not been met, highlighting the limitation of a lexical search strategy alone.

4.3.2 Sacks (1995)

Sacks' (1995) definition of complaining asserts that complaints usually consist of a positive statement, a contrast word, plus a negative statement. However, the findings of the present study did not support this assumption, as just 4% of the selected samples supported it. Sacks (1995) proposed an opposing sequence in which the complaint begins with a negative statement, follows with a contrastive word, and concludes with a positive statement. However, the present evidence was insufficient to support this assertion, as only 10% of the selected cases followed this sequential order. Negative statements usually followed contrastive terms. It is essential that negative comments regularly contrast with neutral, not positive utterances.

This research indicated that social media complaints are antagonistic and lack objectivity, as customers generally do not share their positive experiences with a business. It is also probable that the complaint's context explained why there were no positive statement in the complaint. In the present study, the context of Twitter likely contributed to the increase in complaint hostility. In addition, complaints in the present study focused on Tweets posted to a customer service account, which is likely to elicit negative sentiments. The findings are similarly consistent with those of Vasquez (2011) who discovered that two-thirds of online complaints are explicit and just one-third demonstrate positive attitudes.

Vladimirou et al. (2021) credit "addressivity" and "diachronicity" for the aggressiveness of Twitter criticisms. Complex involvement in which a complainant may address a primary and secondary addressee, plus the multimodality feature of tweets can contribute to a complaint's aggressiveness. Also, Vladimirou et al. (2021) assert that time is a significant component that contributes to complainants' increased aggression. The examination of top keywords revealed that the use of time reference terms support Vladimirou et al.'s (2021) rationale regarding

aggressiveness on Twitter. However, their study solely examined initial tweets and did not account for user interactions. Despite this, it appeared that initial complaints lacked tact, and positive language was rarely used. Alternately, as shown by the keywords analysis, the importance of time references was recognized.

Another argument highlighted by Vladimirou et al. (2021) is that the justification included in complaints enhances aggression, since the addressee is held accountable for the negative behavior and there is no need for positivity in the complaint. I will discuss complaint justification in the pragmatics discussion section along with external modification in complaint findings.

4.3.3 Edwards (2005)

According to Edwards (2005), another characteristic of a complaint is that the complainant may not acknowledge or attempt to conceal that they are indeed complaining. However, the present investigation's findings contradict this assumption, as "complaint" was among the top 100 keywords. This finding also contradicts those of Vásquez (2011) who reported that just 20% of the complaints they examined contained the word "complaint." The complaint's explicitness may have been driven by the context--customer threats or requests for the recipient to remedy the problem--requiring them to be direct and specific in their demands.

This high-level complaint directness was also observable in the top 100 keywords reference categories. For example, the total number of times there was a reference to the complainant totaled 3,715; however, references to the complainee totaled 3,284. Moreover, the keywords list did not include any form of complainer defocalizing, which shows high-level complaint directness.

4.3.4 Olshtain and Cohen (1983)

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) state that complaints occur with other speech acts. Generally, the current corpus analysis showed the use of threats, advice, and requests. The keywords analysis showed that "request" was the most frequently occurring speech act in the data--for example, the collocation of the word "DM" and an imperative verb such as "respond." Another speech act found in the collocation with the keyword "complaint" was "threats." Finally, the search for lexical terms of advice was the speech act least frequently co-occurring with complaints in the data, with only 18 examples. One explanation for the high use of the request speech act is that the complaint was remedial, and the complainer wanted a solution to their problem.

4.3.5 Corpus discussion summary

Even though complainants chose to be direct or indirect during complaints, a study of the top 100 keywords and categorizations revealed that they made more references to themselves than to the complainees. Additionally, more negative than polite terms were utilized. These differences in complaints reflected their explicitness and high degree of directness.

Regarding past definitions of speech acts of complaints in the literature, the discussion demonstrated that CMC complaints are distinct from interpersonal communication. For example, the prevalence of the phrase "complaint" contradicts Edwards' proposed definition (2005). In addition, the findings do support the assumption that the complaint is presented progressively and with tact, sequence, and ambiguity, as recommended by Sacks (1995) and Jefferson (1984, 1988). However, the findings appear to confirm the *speech act set* notion of Olshtain and Cohen (1983).

Nevertheless, despite complaints' harshness and high-level directness, positive lexical elements such as "the peace" were among the most often used keywords, and they were frequently used as tweet openers to introduce complaints. In addition, complaints included a narrative and explanation. Thus, a complainant had the option to apply varying levels of severity and could choose to either alleviate or amplify the problem. However, hostility and a high degree of directness dominated the complaints.

Although it was possible to analyze a large corpus and assess the frequency and surrounding co-texts, the corpus analysis was limited to lexical terms whose pragmatic meaning was associated with the spoken act of complaining. Also, even though indirectness in the third-person pronoun demonstrated the high directness of complaints, it is difficult to assess unconventional and conventional indirect speech acts using a lexical search (Aijmer & Rühlemann, 2015).

4.4 Pragmatics analysis

4.4.1 Complaining strategies

The first question the study sought to address was how Saudis realized speech acts of complaining, including the methods they employed and the frequency with which they used them. The pragmatics analysis revealed that complainants employed seven distinct complaint strategies. The least utilized strategy was hints, while the annoyance strategy was the most frequently employed method of expressing disapproval (35.6 %). When examining complaint strategy categories, it was found that the majority of complaints were direct complaints (no explicit reproach, 2.8 %; disapproval, 36.4 %; accusation, 18.3 %; and blaming the addressee, 31.35 %).

The discovery of complaining strategies does not correspond with Trosborg's (1995) findings about spoken complaints in both English and Danish native-language groups. The use of hints, for example, was greater in both groups than the use of more direct strategies such as explicit blame--the least utilized strategy. The native English group, for instance, used hints 15.8% of the time, explicit blame (behavior) 1.4% of the time, and no explicit blame at all. In comparison, the Danish group employed hints 13.6% of the time, explicit blame 5.1% of the time, and individual blame 0.5% of the time.

Another well-known study on complaint is Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) investigation of written complaints via a DCT between native Hebrew speakers and Hebrew learners. The findings began with an examination of complaints in native Hebrew, which is pertinent to the present study. In contrast to Olshtain and Weinbach's (1987) findings, almost one-third of the complaints in the present study used the most direct approach. In contrast, complaints in Hebrew tend to fall in the middle of the scale. A comparison does not appear to be useful because directive acts such as threats, which were the most frequently used strategy, and warnings, which were the third most frequently used strategy, were included as complaining strategies by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) and as directive acts in the present study.

However, similar to the high level of directness observed in this study, Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) found that Hebrew complaints used a highly direct strategy (threats) the most, and the least direct strategy (below the level of reproach) the least (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987, p. 203).

Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) conducted a second study to examine speech acts of complaint among British, American, and Israeli cultural groups using written forms of

complaint. The results showed that all three groups used mostly direct strategies without mitigation for almost 70% of their responses.

An investigation of complaining strategies in spoken complaints by House and Kasper (1981) revealed that a German group tended to use more direct complains than the British--as did the Saudis in the present study. The British group used all possible complaints across the study's scale. However, the most common level of complaint was six, which is the standard level.

Geluykens and Kraft (2003) examined the act of complaining in groups of native English and German speakers and learners of English. For native speakers (who were more important to compare with our finding) the present study was more in line with German complaints as they showed more directness in their complaints than the British group. However, the overall findings of the present study contradicted those of Geluykens and Kraft (2003), as both groups' complaints were less direct.

No previous study has examined Arabic speech acts of complaint in CMC. First, I will compare the finding with related studies that have examined Saudi complaints, and then discuss the findings as they relate to various Arabic dialects.

The findings are consistent with that of El-Dakhs et al. (2019) who discovered that Saudi speakers tend to employ direct strategies when complaining. For instance, most complaints in the present study employed direct strategies such as disapproval 36% of the time, blame 31% of the time, and accusation 18% of the time. In contrast, in oral complaints (El-Dakhs, et al., 2019), Saudis used direct strategies such as blame 25 % of the time and disapproval 20 % of the time, accounting for nearly half of the complaint strategies. Additionally, the employment of indirect techniques was negligible (hinting, 9 % and opting out, 6 %). A key difference between our

finding and those of El-Dakhs et al. (2019) is that complaints in the current study made extensive use of accusation (18% vs 2%).

Similarly, the study's findings are consistent with those of El-Dakhs & Ahmed (2021) who studied Arabic complaints made by Saudis and Egyptians. Except for the limited usage of accusation in complaints, the data demonstrated that both groups preferred direct techniques.

It must be noted that El-Dakhs et al. (2019) did not provide details regarding the strategies employed in these categories. A second point is that the author's interpretation of the results is questionable because the results of both studies are similar, yet they contend that Saudi complaints are less direct in the El-Dakhs et al. (2019) study than in the El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) study, which leads to a contradiction. In the El-Dakhs et al. (2019) investigation, the author states that the finding is consistent with Hall's (1976) findings, because the strategies employed are not directly showing that "the Arab world highly values strong interpersonal bonds" (El-Dakhs, et al., 2019. p. 282). In contrast, El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) argue that the complaints are direct, which is in opposition to Hall's position (1976).

The results of the current study differ from those of Rashidi (2017) who found that Saudis tend to utilize direct strategies (hints) the least at 23 % of the time, and direct strategies (blaming the behavior) the least at 2 % of the time. Another difference is that complainants in the current study used consequences in their complaints. Rashidi's research, however, revealed the opposite--that Saudi Arabians never use this strategy (Rashidi, 2017).

Al-Shorman (2016), who employed DCT to compare Jordanian and Saudi written complaints, examined Saudi complaints. The results of the present investigation contradict Al-Shorman (2016) who reported that the direct complaint was the least utilized strategy by both

Saudi and Jordanian groups. In addition, Saudis and Jordanians exhibited greater logic and calmness in their complaints, in contrast to the complaints found on Twitter.

We can see from the previous discussion that the results seem to vary from one study to another due to differences in methodologies, languages, and cultures. Thus, it is important to discuss our finding with more related data such as that in CMC, despite the lack of studies on Arabic complaints in CMC.

The results are consistent with complaints found in CMC among German and British English speakers (Meinl, 2013), as well as English speakers (Vásquez, 2011; Vladimirou et al., 2020). Meinl (2013) observed that both German and British speakers employ the same complaint strategies: expressions of disappointment, expressions of anger or displeasure, explicit complaints, negative judgments, drawing one's own conclusions, warning others, threats, and insults. Nonetheless, explicit complaint was the most prevalent strategy used among both German and British speakers.

Vásquez (2011) discovered that two-thirds of the English complaints on TripAdvisor did not contain a positive word about the company, which is consistent with the high degree of directness observed in our study. In a similar vein, Vladimirou et al. (2021) assert that complex addressivity, complex participation, and diachronicity play a significant role in increasing hostility in Twitter complaints. The present study was not concerned with mutual interactor or addressee participation, but rather with initial complaints to one addressee—the company's customer service Twitter account.

4.4.2 Directive acts

The present results revealed that Saudi Twitter complaints included a variety of directive acts, including requests for repairs, requests for forbearance, drawing one's own conclusions,

threats, and advice to other customers. The data revealed that requests for repairs were the most common directive in complaints, at 81%.

The occurrence of these various directive acts was also noted during the corpus analysis.

The analysis revealed a high co-occurrence of requests with the most common keyword, "the DM." However, it was challenging to determine from the collocation analysis whether the speech acts co-occurred with complaints or not.

However, the pragmatic analysis was more focused and revealed the use of "request for repairs" and "request for forbearance." The pragmatic analysis also revealed other speech acts such as threats and advice to other customers.

The co-occurrence of repair requests and complaints has been observed in other complaint-related studies conducted in other languages. For example, Trosborg (1995) found that English and Danish are predominantly used by native English speakers to request repairs, at 16%. However, contrary to the findings of the present study, threats were rarely used. In addition, according to our research, Saudi Arabia engages in more directive acts such as giving advice and drawing conclusions.

Olshtain and Weinbach (1987; 1993) discuss the use of threats and warnings (*advice* in the present study). They report that warnings were utilized more frequently than threats in both studies; requests were not recorded. In contrast, the pragmatic analysis in the present study revealed that 81% of the directive acts were requests, while 9% were threats.

In a different context, the directive act of request was also mentioned in letters to editors containing complaints (Hartford & Mahboob, 2004; Ranosa-Madrunio, 2004). Although a different model was used in the House and Kasper (1998) study, the results of the present study are consistent with it; we identified a request and a suggestion. However, the complaint in the

letter to the editor is less direct because neither study reported warnings or threats. A possible explanation for the lack of directness in the letter to the editor is that the recipient was not the source of the problem. Additionally, interlocutors in letters to editors may wish to maintain a good relationship for future communication. Another reason cited by Hartford and Mahboob (2004) is that the written complaint represents a group rather than an individual, in contrast to complaints on Twitter where the complainant frequently represents himself and the company was directly addressed via the mention function.

The present study's findings are consistent with those of El-Dakhs et al. (2019) who examined Saudi complaints and found that repair requests and threats were used as directive acts. Additionally, their finding is consistent with the fact that directive acts requesting repair were used more frequently than threats in the present study. We found requests for repairs were used 81% of the time, while threats were only used 9% of the time; in El-Dakhs et al. (2019), requests for repairs occurred 29% of the time, and threats occurred only 9% of the time.

In a subsequent study, El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) examined directive acts of Saudis and Egyptian speakers and found that Saudis use both threats and requests for repair; however, Saudis use requests for repair more often than Egyptian speakers.

In an interlanguage pragmatic study, Rashidi (2017) reviewed Saudi complaints and came to the same conclusions. For instance, even though Rashidi (2017) did not consider requests and threats to be directive acts--but rather a strategy for complaining--he discovered that native Saudis used requests in their complaints more frequently (30%) and threats less frequently (8.51%). The findings for directive acts were similar to those of Al-Shorman (2016), who found that both Saudi and Jordanian speakers use requests, threats, and suggestions. Al-Shorman (2016) categorized directive acts such as requests and suggestions as calm and rational strategies,

and offensive acts which are more face-threatening than requests, as offensive acts. The results are comparable to those of the present study in that offensive act, including threats, were employed less frequently than calmness and rationality which were employed 24 % and 63 % of the time, respectively.

The high use of "request" has also been observed in other Arabic dialects such as Jordanian Arabic. For example, Al-Khawaldeh (2016) found that the second most common way people complain is to ask for the situation to be fixed. In their analysis of phone calls to a radio show, Migdadi et al. (2012) also found that among Jordanians, asking for a solution was the second most common complaint strategy.

In CMC, Vasquez (2011) discovered that TripAdvisor review complaints included advice, recommendations, and suggestions. The study supports our conclusion that these three directive acts are semantically equivalent to advice. In contrast, the study did not reveal the use of threats or requests that are frequently employed in complaints.

Meinl (2013) reported that both German and English speakers use threats and warnings, but their usage varies according to the reason. In contrast to our finding, the study did not report the use of requests in either group's complaints. In addition, the German group utilized threats more frequently, contrary to the findings of the present study.

The high use of "request" was expected in our finding since the context was customer care where customers want to remediate problems. Furthermore, the finding showed a pattern of co-occurrence with other speech acts of complaint such as threats, requests, and advice.

4.4.3 - Referential categories

Before discussing the results of the pragmatics analysis of referential categories, it is necessary to discuss referential categories identified through the corpus analysis. The top 100

keywords were categorized into eight thematic categories, two of which related to this discussion--references to the complainant and the addressee.

As evidenced in the classification, complainants referenced both themselves and the addressee; however, the complainants made slightly more self-references than the addressees, 3,715 vs. 3,284, respectively. These findings indicated that complainants focused on themselves and accepted responsibility for their complaints. Additionally, the absence of defocalizing terms in the top 100 keywords demonstrated the prevalence of face-threatening in the complaints. For instance, the keywords were void of third-person pronouns and exclusively included second-person pronouns.

When analyzing the target corpus, it became evident that the complainants referred to themselves more frequently than the addressees. For example, the second-person pronouns /antum/ "you.PL" (125 times) and /ant/ "you.SG" (25 times) were used more frequently than the first-person pronoun /ana/ (725 times).

Due to the rich morphology of Arabic, the corpus analysis of Arabic pronouns revealed a degree of complexity. For instance, searching for both first- and second-person enclitic pronouns was a disadvantage. The search with a wildcard returned unrelated results, and line-by-line reading was required. This demonstrated the importance of combining pragmatics analysis with corpus analysis to gain a deeper understanding of how pronouns were used.

Both independent and enclitic pronouns were manually coded for a pragmatics analysis. The findings revealed that complaints mentioned both the complainant and the complainee.

Consistent with the results of the corpus analysis, both the complainants and complainees focalized references more frequently than defocalized them, demonstrating once more that the complaints were face-threatening both from the complainant's and the recipient's perspectives.

Comparing the findings of the corpus analysis and the pragmatic analysis, the results of the pragmatic analysis confirms the findings of the corpus analysis. For example, focalizing references to the complainer was slightly more prevalent than focalizing references to the complainee. Statistical analysis revealed that the difference between focalizing the complainant and the complainee was statistically significant.

Reference analysis results contradicted those of Trosborg (1995) who found that defocalizing references to the complainant as "it" were most common for both native English and Danish speakers. Also, contrary to the present findings, Trosborg (1995) discovered that the focalizing reference to the complainee "you" and the complainer "I" were used similarly with no statistically significant difference; both references accounted for nearly 30% of the observations. In contrast, the present study's findings are comparable to Trosborg's in that first-person pronoun "I" usage was more prevalent than defocalizing reference "we" usage.

The finding is consistent with that of Meinl (2013) who observed in a study that employed a context highly relevant to the present study that first-person pronouns are predominantly used to focalize complainants in German and British CMC complaints. For both German and British speakers, the complainee and the complainant appear to use focalizing references more frequently than defocalizing.

Complaining is frequently self-centered, and complainants write about their experiences and the problems they face or have faced, requiring them to provide contexts that can result in an increase of focalizing references. An additional factor that might increase this tendency is that complainants do not face the addressee in person as in spoken communication.

It is also important to note that in Twitter, the @ function can be used to address the complainee, so it is possible that using the mentioned tool to address the complainee caused the

compiler to believe the addressee was already known and there was no need to address the complainee again in a tweet text. However, we cannot be sure they did not use second-person pronouns--as there was some indication in the data that they had. However, a greater use of first-person pronouns was evident, and additional research is required to examine and confirm the findings.

4.4.4 Internal modification discussion

Another important parameter used in complaint analysis involves modifications that complainers include in complaints. In the present study, Saudi complainants demonstrated they could intensify or mitigate their complaints, but more toward intensifying than mitigating. They used eleven upgrading modifiers and only three mitigating strategies--preferring to use lexical intensification to upgrade and intensify their complaints. However, they primarily mitigated their complaints by using initiators and polite markers. The result was inconsistent with that of previous studies that examined spoken complaints in other languages. For example, Trosborg (1995) discovered that Native English speakers and Danish speakers employed more downgrading than upgrading modifiers.

In addition, the study's findings contradict another spoken complaint analysis conducted by House and Kasper (1981), which found that downgraders are used to modulate complaints more frequently than upgraders, particularly among British speakers whose complaints are less aggressive. There is also a distinction between the types of downgraders and upgraders. For instance, "downtowner" was predominantly used by German speakers, whereas "hesitator" was frequently employed by English speakers. When upgrading complaints, however, both groups used committer adverbs to demonstrate high-level commitments in the complaints.

The extensive use of downgraders in spoken complaint seems to be the case in Arabic as well. The modification pattern found in the present study contrasts with the finding in El-Dakhs et al. (2019) who discovered that Saudis mitigate their complaints with downgrading modifiers in 61% of internal modifications. On the other hand, Saudis prefer to use polite markers in their complaints, which was found to be the most frequently used modifier in this study and in El-Dakhs et al. (2019) as well—accounting for 42 % of the downgraders. In addition, the number of downgrades in spoken complaints (six) was greater than in the present study (three). By contrast, complainants in the present study used thirteen upgraders that were restricted to intensifiers and swearing by God.

The findings of this study contrast with those of El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) who discovered that both Saudi and Egyptian Arabic speakers frequently employ initiators and internal modification to mitigate face-threatening acts and protect the complainant's negative face (El-Dakhs & Ahmed, 2021).

Native German and English speakers exhibit the same tendency to amplify concerns when they complain in CMC. For instance, Meinl (2013) found that German and British speakers prefer to use intensifiers to amplify complaints as well as time reference modifiers when they have not receive an ordered item. German speakers most often use disarmers, playdowns, and regret expression downgraders to mitigate complaints. This finding is contrary to that of the present study where no participants were found to use initiators (Meinl, 2013).

In the current study, the highly frequent use of lexical intensifiers in the data indicated that swear words and prayers occurred often, which could be attributed to Islam's influence on Saudi complaints. Various studies examining Saudi and Jordanian Arabic complaints have also identified this effect of religion. El-Dakhs et al. (2019) observed that Saudis upgrade their

complaints by swearing by God, and El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021) found that religion plays a role in Saudis' reluctance to use accusation, which is considered a sin if not proven. The religion's effect was also noted by Al-Khawaldeh (2016) who found that Jordanians use prayers frequently in their complaints, compared to British speakers who do not show the same usage.

4.4.5 External modification discussion

The second type of data modification is external modification in which complainants attempt to justify their complaints to save the complainee's face. According to the present findings, Saudis utilized four external modifiers: preparators, providing evidence, seeking solutions, and substantiation. The external modifier seeking solution was the most prevalent.

The present study's findings regarding external modifiers are consistent with those of Trosborg (1995) who discovered that native speakers of both English and Danish use external modifiers such as a perpetrator more frequently than a learners' group. However, Trosborg's findings include additional modifiers such as "disarmer" and "sweetener," which were not observed in this study. As previously mentioned, Trosborg (1995) did not provide a frequency analysis of these external modifiers (Trosborg, 1995, pp. 363–364).

House and Kasper (1981) contend that external modifiers, or what they termed *supportive moves*, can be used as downgrades. They identifies three types--stress, grounder, and preparator—none of which were used frequently by German and British groups (House and Kasper, 1981, P.169).

Geluykens and Kraft (2003) found that both German and English speakers frequently use supportive moves in written complaints via DCT. They divided supportive moves into three categories--natural, confrontational, and solidarity-enhancing moves--and found that natural moves were the most frequently used category, which contradicts the present study's findings

because natural moves include a demonstration of understanding. Nevertheless, both studies revealed the use of conciliation requests and desires. However, the lack of detail in Geluykens and Kraft's (2003) findings precludes a direct comparison with ours (Geluykens & Kraft, 2003, p. 257).

The discovery of a high demand for a solution was made by Hartford and Mahboob (2004). In contrast to our finding, they found that complainers were less clear about what they wanted in their letters to the editors when they vaguely requested redress, demonstrating the importance of saving the addressee's face in this type of deliberate complaint (letter to the editors).

In terms of Arabic complaints, the present study contrasts with the findings of El-Dakhs, et al. (2019) who found that seeking solutions for the complainant was the least supportive move in Saudi Arabia at 8%, while empathy was at 19%. In addition, the findings of our study contradict that of El-Dakhs & Ahmed (2021) in that the subcategory of external modifiers contains modifiers that demonstrate face-saving work by both Saudi and Egyptian Arabic speakers; for example, prayers to God to bless the hearers, empathy, apology, thanks, common grounds, emphasis on good relations, and suggestions of repair.

These supportive moves demonstrate the distinction between CMC complaints and spoken face-to-face interactions in which saving both the speaker's and addressee's face is more important. Al Khawaldeh (2016) discovered that a request redress for a complaint in Jordanian Arabic predominantly employs two strategies: annoyance and disapproval. In contrast to the findings of this present study, Jordanian requests are mitigated more often using headgear to reduce the impact of a face-threatening act.

Similar to Meinl (2013), a CMC analysis of complaints revealed that only sarcasm is employed by German complainants when external modifiers are employed. British speakers use disarmer to mitigate complaints, but German speakers use disarmer, playdown, and regret expressions as additional measures to mitigate complaints. Contrary to the analysis of the present study, no initiators were observed (Meinl, 2013).

4.4.6 Summary

In summary, the analysis of complaints in both the large and small corpus using a pragmatic approach revealed a similar pattern in which Saudis used both direct and indirect strategies when making complaints. Additionally, the 100 keywords analysis showed that more negative terms were used than positive terms. Furthermore, the complaints contained more explicit references than defocalizing or implicit ones.

Additionally, the pragmatics analysis revealed that complaints employed more direct strategies than indirect ones. Saudis were more likely to use direct strategies and upgrading modifiers when they complained on Twitter. In addition, when analyzing reference types employed in the small corpus, focalizing references were utilized more frequently than defocalizing references, and upgrading modifiers were utilized more frequently than degrading modifiers and supportive moves. In contrast, when analyzing directive acts, requests were the most frequently used speech acts of complaint.

One might wonder why Saudi complaints on Twitter were direct and face-threatening. An answer relates to a complainer's anonymity on Twitter. According to Danet 1998; Gilboa 1996; Graham 2008; Herring 1994, 2002, 2004b; and Hiltrop 2003--as cited in Meinl (2013), anonymity on the internet leads to offensive behavior. Vásquez (2011) asserts that the anonymity of both the hearer and the complainant can result in more negative complaints. This may be the

case in our study because users were able to conceal their identity, the addressee was a customer service account, and customers did not know to whom they were sending their complaints.

Anonymity has also been noted in relation to other social platforms such as Facebook. Amir and Jakob (2018) state that people in face-to-face communication have constraints causing them to be less direct compared to CMC where communication is less restrictive (Postmes et al., 1998). Furthermore, Traverso (2009) asserted that face-to-face communication should be less direct and more accommodating.

When analyzing speech acts, it is essential to also consider contextual factors such as social dominance, social distance, and degree of imposition (Levinson & Brown, 1987).

Although these factors are unknown in tweets, there are no social ties between customers and the business, and the degree of imposition varies according to how customers perceive negative effects. Moreover, one possible explanation for high-level directness in complaints is that the complainant has a higher customer status than the company. Speech acts of complaint studies such as those by Trosborg (1995) and Olshtain & Weinbach (1987) have discovered that complaint is less face-threatening to the addressee with high dominance.

CMC lacks pragmatic tools found in spoken language such as prosodic phonology and facial expression, which may contribute to complainers' high level of directness and impolite communication. The results demonstrated that complainers needed to use CMC pragmatic tools like emoticons, letter repetitions, word repetitions, and punctuation to make up for the lack of pragmatics tools available in spoken communication.

In the present study, the severity of the situation on Twitter was another possible explanation for the complaints' level of directness, which is consistent with Pomerantz's (1986) assertion that direct complaints are only used when indirect complaints fail to receive adequate

attention. This might be true based on data extracted from examples where the complainer informed the addressee about a filed complaint, as shown in Examples 127 and 128.

(127) A complaint has been filed with the Ministry of Trade; no one else will preserve my right but them.

(128) Every day, the same talk; I filed a complaint, and we will see at that time what will happen.

Additionally, the complainant may wish to demonstrate that the recipient is liable for the unfavorable action. According to Danet (1998), Gilboa (1996), Graham (2008), Herring (1994, 2002, 2004b) and Hiltrop (2003), explicit complaints on Twitter may be the result of the complainant's anonymity and lack of accountability (Meinl, 2013).

Politeness Theory may help explain directness as a contextual factor residing in power, distance and degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson, 19987). The following section will discuss this in greater detail.

- 4.5 Findings in relation to Politeness Theory
- -Viewing the findings through Politeness

A crucial question regarding Saudi complaints on Twitter is whether the complaints were polite or impolite, and whether the concept of politeness was relevant in this context. To answer the question, I will discuss the findings in relation to Leech's (1982, 2014) conversational maxims and Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory.

4.5.1 Leech (1982, 2014)

Leech (1983, 2014) argues that interlocutors often show politeness over impoliteness by following the six maxims he proposed. In the case of speech acts of complaint--maxim of approbation--Leech argues that the speaker should minimize dispraise and give high value to the addressee. The findings in both the corpus analysis and the pragmatics analysis showed that Saudi complaints violated this maxim in most cases.

Keyword categories in the corpus analysis showed that complainers may have adhered to the maxim of approbation when they used polite words or when they chose to refer to themselves more than to the addressee. However, comparisons of negative terms with polite terms, and focalizing references with defocalizing references showed a violation of the maxim of approbation.

The pragmatics analysis indicated that complaints included indirect complaining strategies such as "hints," which could be considered polite complaints, and showed that complainers adhered to the maxim of approbation. However, the finding showed that hinting represented only 2.8% of the complaints. Violations of the approbation maxim were more evident with a high use of words such as "annoyance, explicit blame, and accusation."

Complainers also chose to adhere to the maxim of approval by using defocalizing references for both the complainer and the complainee. However, similar to the finding in the corpus analysis, focalizing references were used more significantly, showing that complainers violated maxims more than adhering to them.

The use of downgrading modifiers provides another method for complainers to adhere to the maxim of approbation. However, the finding showed that upgrading modifiers were used relatively more often, indicating a maxim violation. When external modifiers were used in complaints, modifiers did not seem to violate the maxim of approval since there should have been more objectivity and justification in the complaints, and minimized disapprovals.

Another issue with Leech's perspective is that he views complaints as conflictual illocutionary acts and contends that politeness is irrelevant. Such a position would suggest that all complaints in the current study were impolite, which was not the case. According to the findings, complainants were courteous while employing polite language, hints, external modifiers, and degrading modifiers.

In addition, the data contradict Leech's notion that social goals are the reason why people desire to preserve excellent relationships. This argument may be more rational when individuals present themselves face-to-face. However, CMC and social media, especially Twitter, do not support this stance. This concept is contrasted by the fact that complaints were sent to a firm whose addressee was unknown to the complainant, a factor that may have contributed to the complaints' aggressive and direct nature.

Leech's maxims demonstrate that complaints are more complex than simply obeying or breaching the maxim. It is difficult to assume that complainers are impolite when they violate the maxim and are courteous when they do not. Leech advocates using both the pragmalinguistics scale--which was explored in the study in relation to the languages by complaints--and the sociopragmatics scale not available in CMC. For example, social distance, social dominance, and degree of imposition are unavailable in this situation, making politeness evaluations more challenging.

4.5.2 Brown and Levinson (1987)

High-level directness used in complaints on Twitter raises questions about the concept of "face work" and politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The analyses in the corpus and

pragmatics sections show that face-work between interlocutors can be saved or threatened when complaining. However, it was clear that complainers tended to choose complaint and threaten addressees.

Starting with the keywords analysis, the top token accruing in the corpus was the phrase "the DM." By looking at how the word was used with other words, it was clear that the person making the complaint considered the positive face of the addressee by using the speech act of "request." Polite words were used to soften the request. Thus, complainants in this case did not choose to perform the FTA. However, the results showed that the frequency of negative terms for that was higher than for polite terms, showing complainers were little concerned about the addressee's face and that they chose to complain on record.

Another finding in the keywords analysis that suggested complainers were not concerned about the addressee's face was the absence of defocalizing references to both the complainers and the addressees. Additionally, the categorization of top keywords showed that complainers used more references to the addressees than themselves in the complaints, showing they were less concerned with the addressee's face.

The face threating act in complaints was also apparent when the definition of the speech acts of complaint was discussed. For example, in Sacks' (1992) sequence of complaints, he argues that both positive and negative statements should occur; however, the present study's results showed that only 4% of the selected examples praised the addressee, and the collocation analysis showed that contrastive words collocated with negative terms, again showing that complaints were initiated blatantly.

Additionally, complaining on record baldly was also apparent when the word "complaint" was among the top 100 keywords. This contrasts with Edwards' (2005) claim that

complainers do not explicitly show they are complaining when using the bald on record strategy, which is the most direct strategy proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987).

The pragmatics analysis indicated that complaints included strategies that were indirect and less FTA such as hints, which showed off-record politeness in the complaints. However, this was the least used strategy; more on-record and explicit strategies were used. Complainers were less concerned about the addressee's face.

Similar to the corpus finding, the complaint's prospective analysis showed that complainers employed focalizing references more often than defocalizing references.

Complainers were face-threatening the addressee's negative face and their own positive face.

The FTA was also seen when complaint modifications were analyzed. The results showed that negative politeness was seen in the use of downgrading modifiers and external modifiers.

However, upgrading modifiers occurred more frequently, accounting for the high FTA in complaints.

Similar to Leech's (1982, 2014) argument regarding politeness calculations, Brown and Levinson (1987) state that other contextual factors such as social distance, dominance, and degree of imposition also influence politeness. We can assume that complainers tweeted their complaints to a stranger since it was a customer care account, but the identity of the person was unknown. Additionally, we can also assume that complainers perceived themselves as having higher social dominance than the addressee since they were very direct in their complaints, and they did not consider the addressee's face. One problem that makes the calculation of politeness challenging is the degree of imposition, since the severity of the complaint depends on the complainer and how that individual evaluates it.

4.5.3 Politeness Theory summary

The corpus and pragmatic analyses results contradict Leech's (2014) Politeness Theory that claims people show more politeness than impoliteness by violating the maxim of approbation. The face-work and politeness modalities proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), contend that complainers use face-saving strategies as well as FTA strategies. Also, the lack of information about the negative action's degree of imposition that caused the complaint in the first place, makes the calculation of politeness on Twitter challenging.

Since the politeness theories provided by Leech (2014) and Brown and Levinson (1987) do not provide a clear interpretation of the present study's findings, and are only concerned with one aspect of the spectrum, namely politeness, the Impoliteness Theory by Culpeper (2011) and relational work by Locher & Watts (2005) provide better insight into the discovery of Arabic complaints on Twitter.

4.5.4 Impoliteness

In his definition of impoliteness, Culpeper (2011) argues that the speaker attacks the face of the addressee, and/or the addressee must perceive the action as a face-threatening act.

Individuals view a certain behavior as impolite when it conflicts with their expectations and wants--according to the social organization. The act of impoliteness causes, or is thought to cause another person emotional damage, and the intention of the act is one of the factors that affects the degree of offense (Culpeper, 2011, p. 23).

In our data, speakers communicated a face-threatening act by complaining to the Noon customer care Twitter account. However, it is difficult to know whether the complainer on Twitter intended to be impolite or whether the addressee perceived the act as threatening. The addressee in the present study was a customer care account, and the response from the customer

care account to a face-threatening act was automatic and polite due to customer service constraints.

In the present study, impoliteness occurred when the customer did not receive the expected and desired service from Noon. By looking at the top 100 keywords, we can see that the reference to the complainer semantically indicated that the customer's need was not satisfied and the token centered around the complainer. For example, the reference to the complainer included terms such as: "I order, I have/for me, my order, my order (different writing), my money, with me, my order (different writing), I sent, I, I want, I contacted, I have, I order, my problem, my shipment, I received, I Wait, and I, I contact, and I paid, I want (different writing), I order "(feminine).

Culpeper (2011) also mentioned that impoliteness is a negative attitude toward specific behaviors. Among the top 100 keywords, negative terms occurred more often than positive ones. However, attending to only the top keywords did not seem very informative since the keywords appeared out of context. Thus, the pragmatics analysis was more appropriate to use for interpreting the finding with the Impoliteness Theory.

The findings in the pragmatics analysis were divided into Trosborg's (1995) four main categories: complaining strategies, directive acts, internal modification, and external modification.

Not all categories indicated impoliteness. Thus, categories such as downgrading and external modifiers were not analyzed since they were used to soften complaints, which logically would not indicate impoliteness. Also, the complainer's perspective was eliminated because the reference categorizers did not semantically show politeness. Thus, the analysis focused on complaining strategies, directive acts, and internal modification (upgrading modifiers only).

Examples in each category were evaluated to determine what category could be categorized as impolite according to Culpeper's (2011) findings. Complaints were categorized as impolite following keywords in the examples accompanying Culpeper's impoliteness strategies (Table 1).

When the complaining strategies were initially examined, we could see that the more direct and face threatening a strategy, the more likely it would show less politeness and a direct strategy; hinting at the complaint or showing annoyance, however, would show more politeness. Thus, strategies such as *indirect accusation*, as shown in Example 129, were classified as impolite strategies and labeled by Culpeper as challenging or unpalatable questions.

Indirect accusation/challenging or unpalatable questions

"I purchased a sale item; after two weeks, the order was canceled. Is the offer bogus, and hence the request was canceled, suggesting that the product was unavailable?"

Furthermore, direct accusations in complaints included negative terms, as shown in Example 130. In the example the complainer used face-threatening words such as "liars and thieves" to express anger toward the company. Culpeper categorizes negative terms such as "liars and thieves" under the *insult* strategy.

(130)

direct accusation strategy/ Insults:

"You are <u>liars and thieves</u>, and everyone is whining as a result. Be embarrassed of your appearance and close your business and account, although I doubt you will because you are used to receiving complaints."

انتم حراميه وكذابين والكل يشتكي منكم استحوا على وجيهكم وقفلوا حسابكم ومتجركم افضل لكن تعودوا على البهذله

Insults in Culpeper categorization include negative lexical items. In the present data, we can see the use of negative words in direct accusation strategies, as in Example 130.

On the other hand, the *modified blame* strategy did not seem to show any impoliteness in the complaints (See Examples 78 a and b).

Finally, *explicit blame* included negative terms that were categorized in Culpeper under pointed criticisms or complaints.

Explicit blame indicated impoliteness in the complaint as illustrated in Example 131. Adverbs such as "absolutely" were categorized in Culpeper under *Pointed criticisms/complaints* and in the present study analysis *explicit blame*. In example 131, the complainer expressed the complaint using pointed criticism terms such as "absolutely."

(131)

Explicit blame /pointed criticisms/complaints

"<u>Absolutely the worst company</u>, they do not have any professionalism in dealing. A company that does not have employees who are able to resolve complaints" اخس شركة على الإطلاق ليس لديهم أي احترافيه في التعامل شركة ماعندها موظفين قادرين على حل الشكاوى

Now, we move to *directive acts*. There were five categories in the pragmatics analysis: request for repair, request for forbearance, drawing one own conclusion, threats, and advice to other customers. Only *threats* in directive acts seem to be in line with Culpeper's (2001) finding, as shown in Example 132.

(132)

Threats

"By Allah Almighty, the Noon app is going to be erased right after my order comes in, and you can keep your horrible treatments. I made the mistake of paying for my item before receiving it."

بحول الله بس توصل طلبيتي تطبيق نون ينحذف وخليكم على اسلوبكم السيئ طلبيتي مدفوعه غلطتي ادفع قبل الاستلام

In regard to upgrading modifiers, rhetorical questions were in line with the impoliteness strategy found in Culpeper (2011) where it was labeled as *challenging* or *unpalatable questions*, as shown in Example 133. Questions were frequently asked in complaints on Twitter and were of two types: the first type showed no negative attitude and the customer wanted to find an answer. However, the second type came in the form of a rhetorical questions, such as in Example 133 where the customer asked questions just to display their anger about the service.

(133)

Rhetorical questions/challenging or unpalatable questions

"I purchased a sale item; after two weeks, the order was canceled. Is the offer bogus, and hence the request was canceled, suggesting that the product was unavailable?"

Other impoliteness strategies found in the data were in line with Culpeper (2011) and used negative expressions that can be found in upgrading modifiers as word repetitions ("failed failed") as shown in Example 134, as lexical intensification ("failure and they're thieves") as shown in Example 135, and as prayers and negative wishes, as shown in Example 136.

Word repetition/negative expression

(134)

"The most recent time they lied to me about receiving money, they said it was sent to me today, but I did not get it .A scam and <u>failed failed</u> site"

Lexical intensification/negative expression

(135)

"Noon website is a failure and they're thieves.

I returned an order that was not the same as it was offered, and it took me a month and two weeks, but fake messages and annoying fake calls to manipulate a customer" موقع نون فاشل وحرامية وصار لي شهر و اسبوعين بس رسايل وهميه وازعاج اتصالات وهميه لتلاعب على عميل

Prayers/negative expression (ill-wishes)

(136)

Allah is sufficient for me, and He is the best disposer of affairs, as you wasted my time, and I wish Allah would do the same to you. May Allah postpone all your matters and issues, and may Allah make your children and family incapable of doing anything. May Allah punish you and take from you rather than give to you. May Allah revenge me until you return my right. Allah suffices me, and He is the best disposer of affairs in every unjust person Allah is sufficient

حسبي الله و نعم الوكيل فيكم مثل ما اخرتوني و ماطلتوني الله ياخر كل اموركم و قضاياكم الله يعطل عيالكم و اهاليكم الله يحوجكم و ياخذ منكم ولا يعطيكم الله يوقف عليكم و ينتقم منكم لين تردوا لي حقي حسبي الله و نعم الوكيل في كل ظالم الله الله عليكم و ينتقم منكم لين تردوا لي حقي حسبي الله و نعم الوكيل في كل ظالم الله الله عليكم و ينتقم منكم لين تردوا لي حقي حسبي الله و نعم الوكيل في كل ظالم الله الله عليكم و المنافق الله عليكم و الله عليكم و المنافق الله عليكم و المنافق الله عليكم و الله

The above discussion demonstrates that the five impoliteness strategies found in Culpeper (2011) were also found in the current study despite different labeling: indirect accusation/challenging or unpalatable questions; direct accusation strategy/insults; explicit blame/pointed criticisms or complaints; threats/threats, rhetorical question /challenging or unpalatable questions; word repetition/lexical intensification; prayers/negative expression or ill-wishes.

As seen from the discussion, six out of the nine strategies were found in the present study. However, the current investigation found other impoliteness strategies not mentioned in Culpeper (2001) --for example, the use of upgrading modifiers such as irony, emoticons, and punctuation (Examples 106-108, and 118). These upgrading modifiers showed a negative attitude and can be classified as impolite strategies to upgrade complaints.

As indicated above, only six strategies of impoliteness were used to compare Culpeper's nine strategies. Saudis on Twitter used challenging or unpalatable questions, insults, pointed

criticisms/complaints, threats, challenging or unpalatable questions, and negative expressions (ill-wishes). Although the Impoliteness Theory explains negative and impolite strategies in complaints, it does not explain polite and neutral strategies employed--for example, the use of hinting strategies and annoyance as well as directive acts such as requests for repairs and forbearance, and drawing one's own conclusion.

There are upgrading modifiers in the data that cannot be categorized as impolite--for instance the use of time reference, commitment upgraders, intensifiers, and expressions of remorse, as well as downgrading modifiers that soften complaints such as initiators, polite markers, and subjectiviers. Finally, Impoliteness Theory cannot account for external modifiers used in the data that were also used to mitigate complaints such as preparators, providing evidence, seeking solutions, and substantiation.

Thus, the following section will review Locher and Watts' Relational Work Theory (2005) since it covers all possible politeness levels from impolite to overly polite strategies. It will help cover all the complaint strategies, directive acts, and internal and external modifications.

4.5.5 Relational Work

Impoliteness Theory explains negative and impolite strategies employed in a complaint; however, it does not explain the polite strategies used in the complaint such as the use of less direct strategies found in hinting and annoyance. Also, impoliteness does not explain the use of directive acts such as requests for repair, requests for forbearance, giving advice to other customers, and drawing one's own conclusion. Also, the results showed that complaints include downgrading modifiers and external modifiers, which cannot be classified as impolite since--as argued by Trosborg (1995) --they are used to mitigate the complaint.

Those strategies are difficult to categorize as either polite or impolite. A model that can explain complaint strategies, directive acts, and modifications in the present study is the Relational Work Theory by Locher and Watts (2005) since it does not simply focus on politesse or impoliteness but takes into consideration what can be used in verbal exchange between two aspects of communication: politic, and appropriate.

In their Relational Work, Locher & Watts (2005) categorize communication behavior into four main categories:

- (1) impolite--non-politic and inappropriate
- (2) non-polite--politic and appropriate
- (3) polite--politic and appropriate
- (4) overpolite--non-politic and inappropriate

Judging from the pragmatics analysis, I can argue that politeness strategies and linguistic behaviors in the complaints did not include many overly polite strategies. Furthermore, as Locher & Watts (2005) point out, most of the communication we use is unmarked and appropriate, which is going to be categorized under politic and appropriate level of politeness. However, to test this hypothesis and determine the level of politeness in the current data, categorization of the finding in the pragmatic section is needed.

The categorization and distinction between these categories are subjective, as noted by Locher & Watts (2005): "It is important to stress here that there can be no objectively definable boundaries between these categories if, as we argue later, politeness and related categories are discursively negotiated" (Locher & Watts, 2005, p.12). Thus, to avoid subjectivity, I have UTA IRB approval to include the judgment of three Saudi native speakers.

The participants categorized 35 tweets chosen from each category in the pragmatics analysis: complaining strategies (5), directive acts (5), complaints prospective (4), internal modification (16), and external modification (4).

Participants were asked to categorize 35 tweets according to politeness level following Locher and Watts' (2005) Relational Work. The scale ranged from 1 to 5:

- 1. Impolite
- 2. Neutral
- 3. Polite
- 4. Overpolite
- 5. Unsure

I deviated from the Relational Work scale by changing option 2, which was originally *non-polite*, to avoid possible confusion while rating politeness levels., and added option 5 to detect if the decision was difficult and why. The participants were asked to provide their reasoning if they chose option number 5 and if they chose to categorize the tweets (Appendix B).

The average rating for all tweets was 1.8, indicating that participants viewed most tweets as impolite rather than neutral or polite. Figure 23 depicts the participants' perceptions of politeness within each category of tweets. Notably, 43% of the tweets were deemed impolite, 24% were neutral, 22.1% were considered polite, and 2.9% were considered excessively polite. However, 7.7% were difficult to classify because participants did not know how to assess the level of politeness.

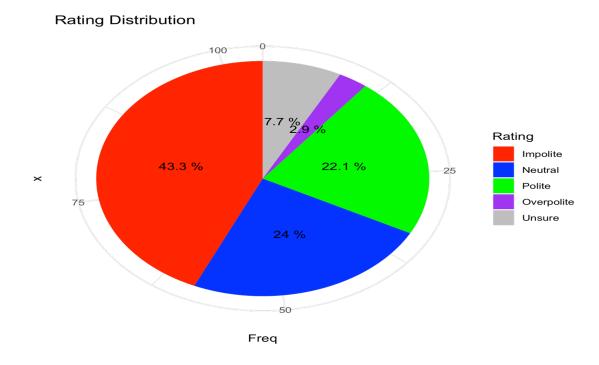


Figure 23. Politeness Ratings Distribution

The scatterplot, Figure 24, depicts the distribution of participant ratings across the various tweet categories. In this visualization, each point on the plot represents a distinct tweet category, while the x-axis represents the ratings assigned to each tweet. The y-axis represents the categories of analyzed tweets.

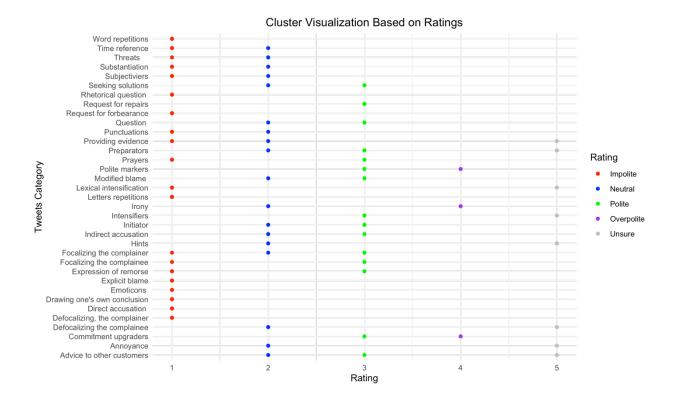


Figure 24. Cluster Visualization Based on Rating

The scatter plot shows that the lowest ratings of 1 (Impolite) is surrounded by the most points, followed by ratings 2 and 3 (Neutral and Polite), and rating 4 (Overpolite). This arrangement suggests that a substantial proportion of participants judged several tweet categories to be less polite or neutral in nature, leading them to assign ratings of 1 or 2. The clustering effect, particularly around lower ratings, highlights a common perception of impoliteness or neutrality within these tweet categories.

Certain categories of tweets received responses indicating a perception of politeness based on the moderate clustering around rating 3. This may suggest that some participants recognized markers of politeness in these categories.

Notably, as ratings increase from 4 to 5, the dispersion of points becomes more pronounced. This divergence indicates a wider range of responses, possibly due to differing interpretations of excessive politeness, or ambiguity in tweet categories receiving these higher ratings.

This pattern can be interpreted within the context of participants' social media etiquette expectations. The dense clustering around the lower ratings may indicate a general tendency to perceive tweets as more direct or neutral, possibly due to the informality and brevity of social media communication. On the other hand, the variance of responses in the higher ratings may reflect participants' nuanced considerations of politeness, in which they attributed varying degrees of formality and politeness to tweet categories.

In greater detail, Figure 25 shows the distribution of ratings across all tweet categories. The stacked bar plot in Figure 25 indicates that some tweets received a total agreement from the rater as impolite (defocalizing the complainer, direct accusation, drawing one's own conclusion, Emoticons, explicit blame). However, request for repairs was the only tweet that received agreement as being polite. In only three instances out of a total of 105 responses did the results indicate that tweets were perceived as excessively polite (commitment upgraders, irony, polite marker). However, as illustrated in Figure 25, only one rater considered these categories to be overpolite. The rest of the tweet categories showed partial disagreement among raters, except for full disagreement in categorizing politeness of advice to other customers.

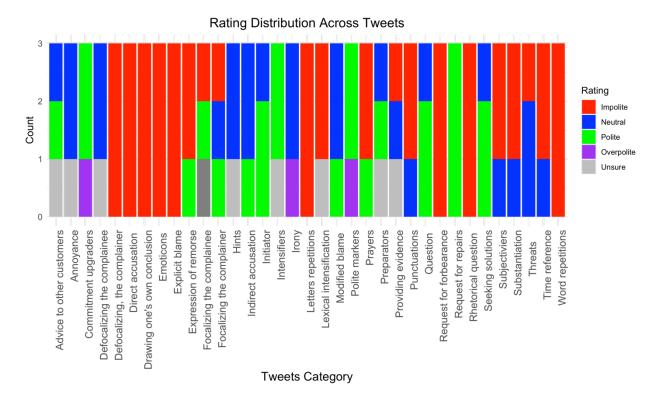


Figure 25. Rating Distribution Across Tweets

The following discusses why participants agreed or disagreed over tweets' level of politeness, as well as the factors that could have caused them to be uncertain or unable to judge the tweet's level of politeness.

As illustrated in Figure 22--the stacked bar plot--participants concurred that the following tweets were impolite: defocalizing the complainer, direct accusation, drawing one's own conclusion, emoticons, and explicit blame. When analyzing why the participants perceived these tweets as impolite, semantically negative words in the tweets were the primary factor. For instance, in Example 137, all three raters agreed that words such as "liars" and "thieves" contributed to the impoliteness.

(137) Direct accusation

"You are <u>liars and thieves</u>, and everyone is whining as a result. Be embarrassed of your appearance and close your business and account, although I doubt you will because you are used to receiving complaints."

انتم حراميه وكذابين والكل يشتكي منكم استحوا على وجيهكم وقفلوا حسابكم ومتجركم افضل لكن تعودوا على البهذله

Another example was when the complainers were drawing their own conclusion, as in Example 138.

(138) Drawing their own conclusion

"Are you kidding me???!! The shipment will take 20 days, but it has not arrived, the first and last time I deal with you. shity delivery Θ "

All raters agreed that the phrase "are you kidding me" and word "shity" were the reasons they viewed the tweet as impolite. Also, one of the raters mentioned that the way the complainer was drawing his own conclusion about purchasing in the future was impolite. Furthermore, all raters agreed that complaints including emoticons such as in Example 138 was impolite. However, all raters noted that semantically negative words drove their judgments.

(139) Emoticons

"If you work well, you will not continue to be this <u>bad</u> you are really <u>bad</u>, Do not buy into the falsehoods that they Check how many days they are behind, and you will see that the response remains the same. I don't believe in you until I see my order tell.



لو تعملون ما تستمرون بسؤكم بالسيئين اف لحد يصدق هبدهم ذا شوفوا كم يوم متأخرين علي وبتشوفون نفس ذا الرد كان ينرد علي ما اصدقكم لين اشوف طلبيتي الله لا For instance, in Example 139, all raters agreed that the use of the negative word "bad" was their reason for categorizing the tweet as impolite. Only one of the raters mentioned the use of the emoticons as an additional reason.

However, the participants only agreed about politeness for a tweet when the complainer used a directive act to request repairs.

(140) Request for repairs

Peace be upon you, I want to file a complaint, Since Monday, I've had a request. The representative called to tell me that he is in the neighborhood, but the request hasn't come yet as of Thursday. why?

For Example, 140, all raters agreed that the use of the initiator "Peace be upon you" and the polite explanation of the problem was why they perceived the tweet as polite. For example, rater 1 wrote, "because he wrote Peace be upon you and explained the problem without impolite words."

Use of the initiator, "Peace be upon you," in other tweets was also mentioned by all raters. Furthermore, polite markers and a polite request style were also mentioned by the raters. For example, all raters agreed that the use of "If you may" (Example 141) made them view tweets as polite. Rater 2 viewed it as overpolite because of the polite marker in the tweet. (141) polite marker

"If you may, I placed an order and paid for it with Apple Pay. The money was taken out, but the order is still on the chart, and I didn't get a message or email!!"

These results show the importance of using initiators such as "Peace be upon you." It was among the top 100 keywords, as discussed earlier in the corpus analysis section (5.1). Thus, in Arabic it seems to be one of the important elements in CMC on Twitter, and it affects the realization of politeness.

Rater 1 noted that a tweet appeared more polite if it was written in standard Arabic, and rater 2 noted that giving a reason for the complaint made him view a tweet as polite. Overall, the use of initiators and polite markers were the main reasons given for viewing tweets as polite.

When participants viewed tweets as neutral and had difficulty categorizing tweets, the main reason noted from their responses was that they found the tweets politic and free of semantically negative words. It must also be noted that rater 3 did not provide any reasons for his choices.

Some tweets were categorized as neutral even though initiators were used. Furthermore, when the complainer threatened the addressee, as in Example 142, two raters found the tweets to be neutral.

(142) Threats

"Noon the issue hasn't been resolved and no one has contacted me The amount was not credited to my Noon account as per your request <u>Do you want me to file an official complaint through the platform of the Ministry of TradeI demand payment and compensation."</u>

يا نون مازال الامر لم يحل ولم يتصل بي احد ولم يتصل بي احد ولم ينزل المبلغ في حسابي في نون حسب طلبكم هل بهذا تريدونني ان اقدمها شكوى رسميه عن طريق منصة وزارة التجاره واطالبكم الدفع والتعويض

When raters were unsure, which did not happen very often in the data, the use of polite and impolite words in the tweets caused the rater to be unsure about the answer. For Example, 143, rater 1 mentioned that the use of the initiator and the impolite way a question was asked at the end made him unsure how to categorize the tweet.

(143) Preparators

"Peace and mercy of God. <u>I bought a new Tablet from you. It had a factory malfunction, and after a great effort, the device was replaced with a different color but I did not change anything about it, the same fault that was in the first device. what is the solution?"</u>

From the above analysis, agreement on the impoliteness of tweets was often derived from semantically negative words. However, the judged politeness of tweets was also derived from semantically positive words such as initiators and polite markers. However, if the tweets included both negative and positive semantic words, most of the tweet's categorization fell in the middle range of politeness.

- Relational Work Theory by Locher and Watts (2005)

In accordance with Locher and Watts's (2005) Relational Work Theory, the dichotomy between politeness (Brown and Levison, 1987) and impoliteness (Culpeper, 2011) does not appear to apply to Arabic complaints on Twitter. The results of the current study, however, contradict Locher and Watts' (2005) assertion that most of our utterances are unmarked and appropriate. The results indicated that a significant proportion of tweets fell into the impoliteness category, and that social media communication is typically more face-threatening and impolite than face-to-face interactions.

The objective of pragmatics analysis was to determine where these categories fell according to the Relational Work Model. I organized the tweets according to the raters'

consensus. Thus, if two raters agreed on the complaint's politeness, the complaint was classified as such.

As previously mentioned, a complete disagreement was found only in categorizing advice to other customers; however, the tweet's rating tended to be near the high end of the scale because no one perceived it as impolite (neutral, polite, or unsure). Other tweets, however, demonstrated agreement between at least two raters. Based on this information, I classified the tweets as shown in Table 19.

Table 19 Politeness categorization according to the modified Relational Work

Impolite 1	Neutral	Polite 3	Overpolite 4
 Direct accusation Drawing one's own conclusion Defocalizing, the complainer Explicit blame Expression of remorse Lexical intensification Prayers Punctuations Subjectifiers Substantiation Time reference Focalizing the complainer Defocalizing the complainee Preparators Request for forbearance Focalizing the complainee Letters repetitions Rhetorical question Providing evidence Emoticons Word repetitions 	 Annoyance Hints Indirect accusation Irony Modified blame Threats 	 Request for repairs Commitment upgraders Initiator Polite markers Intensifiers Question Seeking solution 	

As illustrated in Table 17, most of the complaints were categorized and perceived as impolite. Also, there was not even partial agreement that a complaint was overpolite. In addition, an examination of the complaint strategies revealed that direct accusation and explicit blame

were presumed to be the most face-threatening and impolite strategies. However, hints, annoyances, and modified blame tended to be neutral since two raters viewed them as neutral.

As discussed earlier, the current study made use of Trosborg's (1995) classification of complaint strategies that addresses *directness*. The results are in line with that classification system in terms of explicit blame as a direct strategy. However, the results also suggest that Arabic speakers view direct accusation as more direct than modified blame, and thus should be ranked higher in terms of directness and face-threateningness. This result is in line with El-Dakhs et al. (2021), Al-Shorman (2016), El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021), all of whom found that Saudi, Egyptian, and Jordanian Arabic speakers avoid direct accusations in their complaints. Other complaining strategies, including hints, annoyances, modified blame, and indirect accusations, seemed to show the same level of politeness since two raters agreed they were neutral and less face-threatening.

Directive acts contained in complaints, drawing one's own conclusion, and requesting forbearance were judged impolite. However, requests for repairs were viewed as polite. Lastly, threatening the recipient of a complaint was viewed as neutral and not face-threatening.

Complaint perceptions that led to categorization revealed that the employed reference did not appear to mitigate complaints, even when defocalizing references were used. This result suggests that the use of negative semantic lexical terms in complaints had a greater effect on the perception of impoliteness than the use of focalizing or defocalizing references.

When evaluating how complaints were perceived, it was clear that in contrast to Trosborg (1995), neither focalizing nor defocalizing both complainer and complainee references caused raters to view the tweets differently. This was also noted when examining participant responses.

No rater mentioned that the use of certain references or their absence determined their perception of a tweet.

Directive acts ranged from impolite to polite. The most recurring reason for politeness variations was the tweet's style. For instance, when a complainer used an impolite form to request something of a company, the request form was viewed by the rater as impolite. The opposite was true for both threats and requests for repairs, where complainers did not use negative words in their complaints.

Complaint modification observations showed that most upgrading modifiers reduced perceived politeness, rendering a complaint rating as impolite. However, modifiers such as "irony" were perceived as neutral. In addition, when complainants employed questions, intensifiers, and commitment enhancers, their complaints were regarded as polite. When complaints contained both upgrading and downgrading modifiers such as initiators and polite markers, downgrading modifiers were perceived as having a greater impact than upgrading modifiers, in addition to appearing less face-threatening and more polite. However, it is important to note that not all downgrading modifiers exhibited the same effect, as downgrading modifiers such as substantiation, preparators, and providing evidence did not influence the rater's complaint politeness evaluations when negative words were used.

Therefore, we can conclude that downgrading and upgrading modifiers affected the perception of politeness in the sense that upgrading modifiers led to impoliteness perception while downgrading modifiers led to politeness perception. However, the most influential downgrading complaint modifiers appeared to be polite markers, initiators, and possible solutions; however, when a complaint contained semantically negative words, they were perceived as impolite.

The categorization of complaining strategies and modifications differed from that of Harb (2021) in that the number of complaint strategies, perceptions, and modifications used in each category were significantly higher in the present study (35 vs. 10). Also, strategies in the present study such as substantiation were classified as impolite, as opposed to being positively rated by Harb (2021). On the other hand, some strategies found in Harb (2021) such as religion and prayer, and supplication were also present in the present study. Moreover, insults and irony were identified in both investigations. However, irony was classified as impolite in Harb (2021) and neutral in the current study.

4.6 Summary and conclusion

Chapter 4 showed the results of the corpus analysis, pragmatic analysis, and politeness analysis. In the corpus analysis, first, the keyword analysis showed the complaint included more negative terms than positive terms and more focalizing references than devocalizing references, showing the high level of face-threatening directness in the complaints.

More importantly, the results contradict the previous definition proposed by both Edwards (2005) and Sacks (1995), showing the difference between compiling in CMC and face-to-face interaction. Furthermore, the results are in line with Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) notion of the speech act set.

The second part of the analysis is related to the pragmatic analysis using Trosborg (1995). The finding showed that Saudi complaints include more direct and face-threatening strategies and upgrading modifiers, which shows the high level of directness in the complaint. The high level of directness was also noted since focalizing references were used more often. Finally, requests were the most common form of speech in Saudi complaints.

The third part of chapter four was about the level of politeness in the tweets. The findings showed that complaints in CMC cannot be viewed as either polite or impolite, which makes the Relational Work Theory by Locher and Watts (2005) more suitable to analyze complaints in CMC. The rating of the complaints by native Saudi speakers revealed that complaints tend to be mostly impolite. However, a different level of politeness was also noted, except that no complaint was viewed as overly polite.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and implications

To summarize, the present study examined speech acts of complaint on Twitter using corpus and pragmatics methods. The study first examined the top 100 keywords and found that complaints included relatively more self-referential and negative terms, indicating a high degree of directness and explicitness. However, mitigating terms such as initiators were also noted in the corpus, indicating that complaints may include both direct and mitigated components.

While conducting a corpus analysis that examined previously published definitions of speech acts of complaints, it became clear that CMC communication differs from interpersonal communication. The results of the present investigation contradict the claim proposed by Edwards (2005) that complainers often explicitly avoid showing that they are complaining. Furthermore, the results contradict Sacks' (1995) complaint sequence since most of the complaints did not include a positive comment about the addressee. Finally, the result is in line with the speech act set notion proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) in that complaints do occur with other speech acts such as requests and threats. The results are also in line with Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) proposed definition of those complaints which states that complains occur when expectations are not met. However, the keywords analysis failed to indicate that complaints used keywords in the definition, but other words with the same meaning were found in the corpus.

Following the relatively large corpus analysis, a more focused pragmatics analysis showed similar complaint patterns. For example, Arabic complaints on Twitter included various

complaint strategy types. However, the findings showed that complainers frequently employed highly direct strategies such as annoyance, direct accusation, and explicit blame. The analysis also showed a greater usage of upgrading modifiers than downgrading modifiers. Also, focalizing references were used more often than defocusing references. Finally, the results indicated usage of other speech acts in complaints. However, requests were the most common type of speech act observed.

The study subsequently examined Arabic complaint politeness on Twitter, the findings of which support the findings of both the large corpus and the focused corpus reported in the pragmatics analysis section. The results support the conclusion that Arabic complaints on Twitter, in general, tend to be impolite. However, polite markers and initiators were also noted and shown to be crucial in reglazing the politeness levels of complaints. Furthermore, the findings also suggest that approaching politeness from one angle was not useful; the relational work by Locher and Watts (2005) was shown to be more effective since it accounts for all politeness levels within complaints.

Overall, the study sheds insight into Arabic complaints in CMC, a subject that has received little attention in the literature. Additionally, the data demonstrates that complaints in CMC are direct and face-threatening. However, it is important to look at less direct and mitigated complaints to gain a full understanding of CMC. The results also demonstrate the significance of examining speech acts in CMC as well as the necessity of viewing politeness as a scale that varies from impolite to overpolite. This preliminary study on Arabic complaints should serve as a springboard for future research in CMC and social media.

Implications and future work

The results demonstrated the importance of combining both corpus and pragmatics analyses. The corpus analysis showed the ability to analyze big data and see complaint patterns, whereas the pragmatics analysis demonstrated the importance of analyzing a context to understand the meaning of keywords related to speech acts as well as strategies and modality markers in the data.

The study begins by addressing four research questions pertaining to the definition of the speech act of complaint through the application of corpus analysis. An implication that arises from the corpus analysis pertains to the definition of acts of complaint. The findings revealed that certain prior definitions of the speech act were inapplicable within the CMC. Specifically, only the definitions put forth by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987) and Olshtain and Cohen remained relevant (1983).

The study shows the importance of distinguishing between complaints utilizing spoken communication and complaints utilizing written communication in CMC. It is also important to acknowledge how cultural differences might differentially impact speech acts in face-to-face communication but not in CMC, as various investigations have demonstrated that Arabic, German, and British speakers (Meinl, 2013), and English speakers (Vásquez, 2011) (Vladimirou, et al, 2021) demonstrate relatively more direct and confrontational attitudes. However, each language has its own specific features that distinguish it from others. In the current data, for example, Arabic speakers used letter and word repetitions to express their anger because they cannot use letter capitalization as possible in written German and English (Meinl, 2013).

In the pragmatics section, the study conducted a more targeted analysis to address four additional questions. The result stresses the significance of examining the Arabic language, as it

reveals distinct complaint strategies in comparison to other languages, particularly regarding the ranking of complaint strategies' directness. The pragmatic analysis highlights the significance of scrutinizing pragmatic linguistic tools that would be omitted from corpus-based analysis.

The study then examined politeness and impoliteness of speech acts in general and speech acts of complaint on Twitter. The results show that communication on social media tends to be impolite and directly threatening; however, the study did not ignore the variety of politeness levels found on Twitter. Thus, the framework proposed in Locher and Watts' (2005) Relational Work proved to be more effective than viewing politeness as either polite, as proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), or impolite as described by Culpeper (2011).

The results of the study can benefit Noon in different ways. For example, improving customer satisfaction by knowing the reoccurring issues in the complaints. the results can help the company addressee those issues which will lead to customer satisfaction and improvement in the company performance and completion.

The results can also help the company improve their chatbot training knowing the different possible complain patterns found in the current study. This improvement will lead to better a response from the chatbot according to the customer need in the complaint.

One limitation of the present study relates to the lack of contextual factors such as social power, distance, and degree of imposition. Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory contributed to the realization of how important it was to determine a complaint's level of politeness on Twitter. Similarly, Leech (1983, 2014) emphasizes the importance of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics factors when calculating the politeness levels of speech acts. Thus, considering social dominance and degree of imposition, more research is needed on Arabic complaints in CMC.

Another limitation of the study is that it focused on initial complaints addressed to Noon's customer care account on Twitter. In future studies, the focus should be on interactions between Twitter users to determine how the speech act is performed. This is crucial, because we need to examine the role of addressivity in tweets and how the complexity of participation on Twitter might affect the way Twitter users complain, as it has already been shown to increase aggression (Vladimirou, House, & Kadar, 2021).

Additionally, Twitter's character limit has expanded from a total of 240 to 4,000 characters since the study was conducted. Therefore, it will be necessary to study complaints in longer tweets and ascertain whether tweet length influences individuals' complaints.

A further weakness of this study is the lack of demographic information related to the tweets. Future research should investigate how demographics affect complaints. Presently, however, demographic information is only accessible through scraping tweets using the Twitter API.

Moreover, the analysis in the present study is based on Twitter corpora, which suits the objective of evaluating naturally occurring data. However, future research could continue to investigate Arabic speech acts of complaint in spoken corpora containing paralinguistic indicators such as prosody, pitch, and intonation.

Finally, the current study focused on complaints on only one social media platform. It will be important in the future to investigate Arabic acts of complaint on other social media platforms and on other online complaints in CMC. As the study demonstrated, Arabic complaints in CMC are not well researched, and additional research is needed with a greater number of comparisons to draw more concise conclusions.

Appendix A

Top 100 Keywords.

Reference to complainer terms

Number	Reference to the complainer	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq Ref	Range Tar	Range Ref	NormFreq Tar	NormFreq Ref	NormRange Tar	NormRange Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
1	طلبت	I order	6	381	2	1	1	4716.572	29.429	1	1	444.12	0.009
2	J.	I have/ for me	12	540	72	1	1	6684.906	1059.447	1	1	329.932	0.013
3	طلبيۍ	My order	22	189	1	1	1	2339.717	14.715	1	1	220.037	0.005
4	فلوسي	My money	25	182	2	1	1	2253.061	29.429	1	1	203.464	0.004
5	معی	With me	26	240	16	1	1	2971.069	235.433	1	1	198.669	0.006
6	طلی	My order	35	143	2	1	1	1770.262	29.429	1	1	156.735	0.004
7	ارسلت	I sent	36	124	0	1	0	1535.052	0	1	0	151.485	0.003
8	ابي	I want	46	164	16	1	1	2030.231	235.433	1	1	117.435	0.004
9	انا	l	49	525	190	1	1	6499.214	2795.762	1	1	111.226	0.013
10	تواصلت	I contacted	54	97	2	1	1	1200.807	29.429	1	1	102.049	0.002
11	عندي	I have	60	263	68	1	1	3255.797	1000.589	1	1	91.627	0.006
12	اطلب	I order	61	104	6	1	1	1287.463	88.287	1	1	89.86	0.003
13	ابعی	I want	63	103	6	1	1	1275.084	88.287	1	1	88.751	0.003
14	مشكلئ	My problem	66	68	0	1	0	841.803	0	1	0	83.051	0.002
15	شحنى	My shipment	71	66	0	1	0	817.044	0	1	0	80.607	0.002
16	وصلبي.	I received	74	72	1	1	1	891.321	14.715	1	1	78.936	0.002
17	انتظر	I Waite	75	82	3	1	1	1015.115	44.144	1	1	78.895	0.002
18	وانا	And i	88	201	54	1	1	2488.27	794.585	1	1	66.805	0.005
19	اتواصل	I contact	90	61	1	1	1	755.147	14.715	1	1	65.827	0.002
20	طالبه	I order (feminine subject)	90	61	1	1	1	755.147	14.715	1	1	65.827	0.002
21	ودفعت	And I paid	97	49	0	1	0	606.593	0	1	0	59.84	0.001

Reference to addressee terms

Number	Reference to the Addresee	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
1	نون	Noon	2	643	2	1	1	7959.99	29.429	1	1	763.438	0.016
2	عليكم	On you	8	616	72	1	1	7625.744	1059.447	1	1	405.283	0.015
3	المندوب	The delegate/ representative	16	218	0	1	0	2698.721	0	1	0	266.437	0.005
4	منكم	From you	19	271	12	1	1	3354.832	176.574	1	1	250.713	0.007
5	ردو	Answer (imperative) plural	21	201	2	1	1	2488.27	29.429	1	1	226.307	0.005
6	ىرد	Answer (imperative) singular	28	207	10	1	1	2562.547	147.145	1	1	187.54	0.005
7	معكم	With you	33	175	8	1	1	2166.405	117.716	1	1	160.628	0.004
8	ردوا	Answer-you (plural) (imperative)	37	121	0	1	0	1497.914	0	1	0	147.818	0.003
9	عندكم	You have	40	191	18	1	1	2364.476	264.862	1	1	138.889	0.005
10	تردون	You answer	41	118	1	1	1	1460.776	14.715	1	1	134.166	0.003
11	لكم	For you/ you have	44	242	43	1	1	2995.828	632.725	1	1	121.229	0.006
12	مندوب	The delegate/ representative	64	87	3	1	1	1077.013	44.144	1	1	84.656	0.002
13	معاكم	With you	87	62	1	1	1	767.526	14.715	1	1	67.016	0.002
14	ردكم	Your response	97	49	0	1	0	606.593	0	1	0	59.84	0.001
15	انکم	That you	99	83	8	1	1	1027.495	117.716	1	1	59.724	0.002

Appendix

Retail Trade terms

Number	Retail Trade terms	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
1	الرد	The response	3	519	8	1	1	6424.937	117.716	1	1	564.798	0.013
2	الطلب	The order (masculine)	5	475	4	1	1	5880.241	58.858	1	1	541.223	0.012
3	الطلبيه	The order (feminine)	9	316	0	1	0	3911.908	0	1	0	386.387	0.008
4	طلبيه	An order (feminine)	10	302	0	1	0	3738.595	0	1	0	369.244	0.007
5	طلب	An order	13	283	9	1	1	3503.386	132.431	1	1	279.697	0.007
6	المنتج	The product	14	229	1	1	1	2834.895	14.715	1	1	268.587	0.006
7	المبلغ	amount	15	393	43	1	1	4865.126	632.725	1	1	267.032	0.01
8	العملا	Customer/ clients	18	217	1	1	1	2686.342	14.715	1	1	254.013	0.005
9	التوصيل	Delivery	27	199	8	1	1	2463.512	117.716	1	1	187.966	0.005
10	خدمه	Service	29	210	12	1	1	2599.686	176.574	1	1	182.05	0.005
11	ارجاع	Retrieval	30	149	0	1	0	1844.539	0	1	0	182.048	0.004
12	التواصل	Contact/ communication	34	238	27	1	1	2946.31	397.293	1	1	158.643	0.006
13	الشحنه	The shipment	42	109	0	1	0	1349.361	0	1	0	133.151	0.003
14	منتج	A product	43	137	5	1	1	1695.985	73.573	1	1	131.915	0.003
15	رقم	Number	45	236	41	1	1	2921.551	603.296	1	1	120.308	0.006
16	العميل	The customer	47	117	4	1	1	1448.396	58.858	1	1	114.047	0.003
17	نفس	same	53	243	51	1	1	3008.208	750.441	1	1	105.503	0.006
18	رساله	A message	55	128	10	1	1	1584.57	147.145	1	1	100.273	0.003
19	الشحن	Shipping	62	86	2	1	1	1064.633	29.429	1	1	89.084	0.002
20	البنكى	Bank	65	69	0	1	0	854.182	0	1	0	84.273	0.002
21	سريكه	Company	67	127	15	1	1	1572.191	220.718	1	1	82.837	0.003
22	تواصل	Contact	68	143	21	1	1	1770.262	309.005	1	1	82.06	0.004
23	التسليم	Delivery	69	79	2	1	1	977.977	29.429	1	1	80.866	0.002
24	التجاره	Trade	70	119	13	1	1	1473.155	191.289	1	1	80.779	0.003
25	اسبرجاع	Retrieval	72	102	8	1	1	1262.704	117.716	1	1	79.778	0.003
26	الارجاع	The return	73	65	0	1	0	804.665	0	1	0	79.386	0.002
27	وصلت	It arrived	78	108	11	1	1	1336.981	161.86	1	1	75.809	0.003
28	خصم	Discount	81	103	10	1	1	1275.084	147.145	1	1	73.887	0.003
29	توصيل	Delivery	82	93	7	1	1	1151.289	103.002	1	1	73.827	0.002
30	شحنه	Shipment	83	67	1	1	1	829.423	14.715	1	1	72.971	0.002

Polite and positive terms

Number	Polite and positive terms	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
1	السلام	The peace	11	433	33	1	1	5360.304	485.58	1	1	342.895	0.011
2	ممكن	Please	23	299	29	1	1	3701.457	426.722	1	1	214.843	0.007
3	ارجو	Please/ I hope	32	162	4	1	1	2005.472	58.858	1	1	166.492	0.004
4	الرجا	Please/ hope	52	101	2	1	1	1250.325	29.429	1	1	106.777	0.002
5	شكرا	Thanks	77	118	14	1	1	1460.776	206.004	1	1	76.778	0.003
6	سلام	Peace	92	78	5	1	1	965.597	73.573	1	1	65.31	0.002

Appendix

Negative terms

Number	Negative terms	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
1	لم	Not /no / never	20	363	43	1	1	4493.742	632.725	1	1	236.76	0.009
2	المشكله	The problem	24	276	25	1	1	3416.73	367.863	1	1	204.215	0.007
3	ولم	And not	31	204	13	1	1	2525.409	191.289	1	1	171.247	0.005
4	حل	Solution	39	225	27	1	1	2785.377	397.293	1	1	145.61	0.006
5	شكوي	Complaint	58	104	5	1	1	1287.463	73.573	1	1	94.28	0.003
6	مرھ	Very	59	288	80	1	1	3565.283	1177.163	1	1	91.809	0.007
7	صروري	Important	85	70	2	1	1	866.562	29.429	1	1	70.348	0.002
8	سييه	Bad	86	77	4	1	1	953.218	58.858	1	1	68.445	0.002
9	اي	Any	89	324	119	1	1	4010.943	1751.03	1	1	66.647	0.008
10	للاسف	Unfortunately	95	121	20	1	1	1497.914	294.291	1	1	63.98	0.003

Twitter terms

Number	Twitter terms	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)	
1	الخاص	The DM	1	801	22	1	1	9915.944	323.72	1	1	813.09	0.02	ĺ
2	خاص	DM	7	511	35	1	1	6325.902	515.009	1	1	419.971	0.013	ĺ
3	بالخاص	in the DM	50	104	2	1	1	1287.463	29.429	1	1	110.327	0.003	ĺ
4	عالخاص	On the dm	83	67	1	1	1	829.423	14.715	1	1	72.971	0.002	ı

Time reference terms

Number	Time reference terms	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
1	الان	Now	38	355	78	1	1	4394.707	1147.734	1	1	147.61	0.009
2	اليوم	Today	48	311	77	1	1	3850.011	1133.019	1	1	113.971	0.008
3	ايام	Days	51	218	39	1	1	2698.721	573.867	1	1	108.602	0.005
4	توصل	Arrive	56	119	8	1	1	1473.155	117.716	1	1	98.172	0.003
5	ساعه	One hour	79	136	21	1	1	1683.606	309.005	1	1	75.468	0.003
6	تاريخ	Date	80	82	4	1	1	1015.115	58.858	1	1	74.063	0.002
7	يوم	Day	93	353	137	1	1	4369.948	2015.892	1	1	65.102	0.009
8	اسبوع	A week	94	129	23	1	1	1596.95	338.434	1	1	64.397	0.003
9	اسبوعين	Two weeks	96	73	5	1	1	903.7	73.573	1	1	59.843	0.002
10	شهر	A month	100	189	53	1	1	2339.717	779.871	1	1	59.462	0.005

Passive terms

Number	Passive terms	Translation	Rank	Freq_Tar	Freq_Ref	Range_Tar	Range_Ref	NormFreq_Tar	NormFreq_Ref	NormRange_Tar	NormRange_Ref	Keyness (Likelihood)	Keyness (Effect)
	نم	Were/ was/ have been	4	627	32	1	1	7761.918	470.865	1	1	561.617	0.015
í	ينم	Being/done/take place	17	351	33	1	1	4345.189	485.58	1	1	255.749	0.009
3	وتم	And Being/done/take place	57	106	5	1	1	1312.222	73.573	1	1	96.538	0.003

Appendix B

Relational Work Questionnaire.

(English Version)

- Please read the tweets below and respond to the questions that follow each tweet:

Tweet (1)

•	ordered an item th God wills, why ha		e delivered today because I	m flying
سصلت رقم الطابيه.	ر ان شا الله ليش ماووو) اليوم لاني مسافر الفجر	ىندي طلبيه طلبتها على اساس توصل	السلام عليكم د
Q1 - What is the Lev	el of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsu	re
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	why?	
Q3- What wording	in the tweet led	l you to your an	swer?	
Tweet (2)				
me, they are unaware	of the background	of my problem."	oset because every time som	
بكلمني شخص ما بيعرف	مستاء جدا لانه کل مرة	ي للمرة الثالثة الأن. انا	عام لا يحتوي على اي تحديث. يصلنا	وصلني ايميل تاريخ المشكلة
Q1 - What is the Lev				رین
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsu	re
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	why?	

Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your ar	iswer?	
Tweet (3)				
"I purchased a sale in the request was cance	•		anceled. Is the offer bogus, ar unavailable?"	ıd hence
و فر المنتح؟	ذلك تم الغاء الطلب لعدم ت	ب هل العرض و همي لذ	عليه عرض بعد اسبو عين تم الغاء الطا	طلبت طلب
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	:
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	why?	
appearance as	nd close your busin ceiving complaints.	ess and account, o	esult. Be embarrassed of your although I doubt you will beca وكذابين والكل يشتكي منكم استحوا عل	use you
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	;
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	ı why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	you to your ar	iswer?	

Tweet (5)

Tweet (7)

"I have an order, which is **supposed** to be delivered to me on Saturday, but the representative asked to postpone it to the another day and i still did not get it. I need it today. The order number #######."

عندي طلبيه المفروض توصلني السبت قبل امس بس المندوب طلب تاجليها الى ثاني يوم وثاني يوم ماجتني ابغاها اليوم ضروري ########## رقم الطلب

	•
Q1 - What is the Level of politeness in the previous tweet:	
1. impolite 2. Neutral 3. Polite 4	. Overpolite 5. Unsure
Q2- If you select option 5, could you briefly explain why	ı?
Q3- What wording in the tweet led you to your answer	
Tweet (6)	
Peace be upon you, I want to file a complaint, Since Morrepresentative called to tell me that he is in the neighbor come yet as of Thursday. why?	, ,
طلبيه من يوم الاثنين كلمني المندوب انه في الحي والى الان الخميس ماوصلت ايش السبب	السلام عليكم ابغى ارفع شكوى عندي ا
Q1 - What is the Level of politeness in the previous tweet:	
1. impolite 2. Neutral 3. Polite 4	. Overpolite 5. Unsure
Q2- If you select option 5, could you briefly explain why	/ ?
Q3- What wording in the tweet led you to your answer	·?

reviews are inaccurate information that do not on the Ali Express we	te, and some product ot match. If you wa bsite. When that ha	cts arrive with wrong to succeed, standard pens, your site v	Some offers are fake, some shop itten descriptions and detailed product rt by looking at the most recent activity vill control the entire area." نبوف الكلام المكتوب وروحوا طوروا موقعكم
ۣب	بر مطابقه الوصىف المكتو	حه ومنتجات توصل غب	عض العروض و همية ومتاجر تقييماتها غير صحيـ تفاصيل السلعة ماتكتب كاملة
			رفاضيل النسعة هاندنب كاملة نبون تنجحون خوذوا لفه بموقع علي اكسبرس ابدؤو رقتها بيكون موقعكم مسيطر على مستوى المنطقه ك
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	eet:
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	າ why?
Q3- What wording	in the tweet led	you to your ar	ıswer?
Tweet (8)			
"Are you kidding me! last time I deal with y	-	_	but it has not arrived, the first and
ىيل زي الزفت	نر مر ه اتعامل معکم تو ص	پ <i>سی ماو صلت اول و ا</i> ذ	تم تستهبلونننن ؟؟؟!! الشحنه بيصبير لها ٢٠ يوم وا
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	eet:
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure
Q2- If you select or	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explain	n why?
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your ai	ıswer?

T	weet	(9)
_	*****	\/ /

"Noon the issue hasn't been resolved and no one has contacted me The amount was not credited to my Noon account as per your request Do you want me to file an official complaint through the platform of the Ministry of Trade. I demand payment and compensation."

يا نون مازال الامر لم يحل ولم يتصل بي احد ولم يتصل بي احد ولم ينزل المبلغ في حسابي في نون حسب طلبكم هل بهذا تريدونني ان اقدمها شكوى رسميه عن طريق منصة وزارة التجارة واطالبكم الدفع والتعويض

			ع والتعويض	واطالبكم الدفي
Q1 - What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsur	e
Q2- If you select o	ption 5, could yo	u briefly explair	why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your an	swer?	
Tweet (10)				
			er than getting my money bad I know not to deal with you.	
عرفه بعدم التعامل معكم	ى معكم وسأنصح كل من ا	شكرا ولا اريد ان اتعاما	اصل معكم غير ارجاع قيمة الطلب و	لا اريد اي تو
Q1 - What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsur	e
Q2- If you select o	ption 5, could yo	u briefly explair	why?	

Q3- What wording			nswer? 	
Tweet (11)				
	ring so rude? The w	•	out of date for two ake the item back, a	months. and I want my money
ع من الموقع انا ابغا	ار هذا وماقبل الاسترجاع	ل شهرين ايش الاستهت	منكم وجاني منتهي من قبأ	انا كنت طالب طلببة حليب ا استرجع فلوسي
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous tw	eet:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select o	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explai	in why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your a	nswer?	
Tweet (12)				
"Say we're th	ieves and admit it, l	but don't apologi	ze"	
		<i>قفو ه</i>	بس شغل نعتذر و ناسف و	اعترفوا قولوا احنا حراميه ا
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous tw	eet:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select o	ption 5, could yo	u briefly explai	in why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	you to your a	nswer?	
Tweet (13)				

"You (P) know the people who complain about you. do you know my phone number or my order number. you don't even bother to contact me, you and your work group are failures and did not solve my problem and you think you will now."

انتم تعرفو انا ابت من الناس الي تشتكي عليكم كم رقك جوالي او رقم طلبي حتى ما قللتكم نتواصل عالخاص تحلو المشكله انتم وفويق عملكم فاشلين من ماحليتو مشكلتي تحلونها الحين

Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	n why?	
Q3- What wording		l you to your an	iswer?	
Tweet (14)				
	as made 2 pieces an livered together, an		\sim	
نلام القطعه الثانيه ؟؟؟	يوصلو مع بعض ولم اسا	ن تم عمل طلب الاتنين	نِم <i>استلام واحد علمان بأ</i>	تم عمل الأوردر 2 قطعه و
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	n why?	
Q3- What wording	in the tweet led			
Tweet (15)				

[&]quot;The greatest and easiest way to solve a problem in an electronic store is to file a complaint, wait 24 hours, and then have it closed for no reason. Then you file a new complaint, which is also closed for no reason, and so on."

ماعه ومن ثم يتم اغلاقها بلا يتم اغلاقها بلا سبب و هكذا	_		· في التاريخ لحل أي مشكلة في	أعظم وأفضل طريقة
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. V	Unsure
Q2- If you select o	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	ı why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	you to your ar	iswer?	
Tweet (16)				
Do not buy in	-	at they Check hov	point, many days they are be believe in you until I s	-
		"		
00000	يوم متأخرين علي وبتشو	ىدق ھبدھم ذا شوفوا كم	ِن بسؤكم يالسيئين اف لحد يص اشوف طلبيتي الله لا	لو تعملون ما تستمرو علي ما اصدقكم لين
المالمالمالمالي يربحكم		0000		
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. V	Unsure
Q2- If you select o	ption 5, could yo	u briefly explair	n why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your ai	iswer?	
Tweet (17)				

Hey, I only got half of what I ordered, and after I paid for the first half, they cancelled the rest of the order. what is the solution to losers?

ياعالم طلبيتي وصلتني نصها ونص لا ودفعت ع الاولى اكثر من نص المبلغ و بعدين الغو باقي الطلب ايشششش الحل ي فاشلين

Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could you	u briefly explain	why?	
Q3- What wording				
Tweet (18)				
The most recent time but I did not get it .A .	-		y, they said it was .	sent to me today,
واحتيال منكم موقع فاشل فا	ل فلوس و ماشفت نصب	كلام قالوا لي اليوم توص	موظفینکم لعابین و اخر ک	یش ه
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could you	u briefly explain	why?	
Q3- What wording				
 Tweet (19)				

I've been contacting you for over a month, even with phone calls, and your excuse was shamefully bad usage, and you know the problem and the goods cannot be authentic.

أكثر من شهر وانا اتواصل معاكم حتى بمكالمات هاتفية وفي الأخير بكل وقاحة كان عذركم سوء استخدام وأنتم عارفين المشكلة وإن البضاعة يستحيل تكون أصلية

Q1 - What is the Lev	21 - What is the Level of politeness in the previous tweet:			
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	n why?	
Q3- What wording	,			
Tweet (20)				
I returned an	e is a failure and th order that was not t t fake messages and همیه و از عاج اتصالات	the same as it was d annoying fake co	alls to manipulate	a customer" وقع نون فاشل و حرامية
Q1 - What is the Lev				
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite	5. Unsure
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	n why?	
Q3- What wording				
Tweet (21)				

Allah is sufficient for me, and He is the best disposer of affairs, as you wasted my time, and I wish Allah would do the same to you. May Allah postpone all your matters and issues, and may Allah make your children and family incapable of doing anything. May Allah punish you and take from you rather than give to you. May Allah revenge me until you return my right. Allah suffices me, and He is the best disposer of affairs in every unjust person Allah is sufficient.

ر نعم الوكيل في كل ظالم الله سيبكم الله عسيبكم الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل	ردوا لي حقي حسبي الله و	عُليكم و ينتقم منكم لين ت	و ياخذ منكم و لا يعطيكم الله يوقف ع	يحوجكم
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsu	ıre
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	ı why?	
Q3- What wording	in the tweet led	you to your an	iswer?	
Tweet (22)				
"Do you recall how n And how many times I You deceive people, a	have you promised	to provide a solut	2	ntered."
		ر علي	ارسلتم لي اعتذار ؟؟ ه و عدتوني في حل المشكلة ؟؟؟ إن على العملاء وانكم اسوأ متجر مر	و عار فین کم مر
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsu	ıre
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could you	u briefly explair	why?	
Q3- What wording	; in the tweet led	you to your an	 swer?	
Tweet (23)				

حسبي الله و نعم الوكيل فيكم مثل ما اخرتوني و ماطلتوني الله ياخر كل اموركم و قضاياكم الله يعطل عيالكم و اهاليكم الله

[&]quot;Peace be upon you. So far, I have not received my order, despite the delay in receiving it until today, Saturday. Why did I contact customer service and he informed me that it will reach me within four hours and it did not arrive, what is the solution?"

تلامها الى اليوم السبت ليش			لم تصلني طلبيتي بالرغم من ملاء وبلغني انها سوف تصلن	
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5.	Unsure
Q2- If you select o	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	ı why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your an	iswer?	
Tweet (24)				
"I ordered this produ and I made a return r			0	
			سف وصلني والعلبة حقته مط جاع وماقدرت وش الحل اذا	
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous twe	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5.	Unsure
Q2- If you select o	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explair	n why?	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	you to your an	aswer?	
Tweet (25)				

"I received a general email that did not contain any update. It's coming to me for the third time now. I am very upset because every time someone calls me, they do not know the history of the

problem."

بكلمني شخص ما بيعرف	مستاء جدا لانه كل مرة	ي للمرة الثالثة الان. انا	ميل عام لا يحتوي على اي تحديث. يصلنه عا:	رصلني ايد ١٠ ١٠ ١٠
Q1 - What is the Lev	vel of politeness in	the previous two		ناريخ المث
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explaii	n why?	
Q3- What wording	in the tweet led	you to your a	nswer?	
Tweet (26)				
•	l yet?!!! Do I need	to beg you ?? You	You promised to get in touch, bun have the choice to give it back y."	
؟؟ تر ا فلوسي من حقكم	ى الان؟!!!! اشحذكم انا '	ن معي ومحد كلمني الـ	كم ها اخوي وش صار ؟؟ قلتوا بتتواصلو ي او تعطوني تعويض لطلبيه	لسلام علي نرجعون لـ
Q1 - What is the Lev	el of politeness in	the previous two	eet:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	
Q2- If you select op	otion 5, could yo	u briefly explaii	n why?	
Q3- What wording	; in the tweet led	you to your a	nswer?	
Tweet (27)				
I'm very regretful that same thing over and c	•	_	my money back, right? You say k, right?	, the
وبوت ولا راح ترجع صح	يدون نفس الكلام كانكم ر	عون فلوسي صح ؟ بتع	اقوا شي اني طلبت من عندكم .مراح ترج	انا ندمانه ا

Q1 - What is the Level of politeness in the previous tweet:

1.	impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5	. Unsure
Q2- If	you select o	ption 5, could you	ı briefly explain	why?	
Q3- V	Vhat wording	g in the tweet led	you to your an	swer?	
Twee	et (28)				
		I requested an orde	r from last month	and I contact you an	d every time you
	السيستم	ة تغيرون موعد التسليم ع	اتواصل معاكم و كل مر	طلبية من الشهر الفائت و	السلام عليكم، انا طالب
Q1 - V	What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous twee	et:	
1.	impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5	. Unsure
Q2- If	you select o	ption 5, could you	ı briefly explain	why?	
Q3- V	Vhat wording	g in the tweet led	you to your an	swer?	
Twee	et (29)				
	•	an order and paid for art, and I didn't get		y. The money was tall!!"	aken out, but the
لا ايميل	له والاجاني رساله و	المبلغ والطلبيه للحين بالسا	ماسبت ابل باي انسحب	لوسمحت طلبت و م	
Q1 - V	What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous twee	t:	
1.	impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5	. Unsure

	Q2- If you select option 5, could you briefly explain why?			
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	you to your a	nswer?	
Tweet (30)				
"Literally a funny ap say is that I think the	·		ould hire a good worker. What I can is my opinion."	
يه سبيه و هذا ر ايي	واقول خدمه التوصيل سب	مناديب صاحين ارجع	ىر فيا مضحك تطبيق بسمعه مثل كذا ما يقدر يجيب	
Q1 - What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous two	eet:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	
Q2- If you select o	•		n why? 	
Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	you to your a	nswer?	
Tweet (31)				
"Peace and mercy of a great effort, the de it, the same fault that	vice was replaced w	rith a different col	t. It had a factory malfunction, and afte lor but I did not change anything abou blution?"	
استبدال الجهاز مع اختلاف			سلام عليكم ورحمة الله. اشتريت منكم جهاز تاب ج لمون اللون بس ما اغير فيه شي نفس العطل الا	
Q1 - What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous two	eet:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	
Q2- If you select o	ption 5, could you	u briefly explain	n why?	

Q3- What wording in the tweet led you to your answer?			
Tweet (32)			
"do you want customers? I messaged you via DM a month ago, and you still haven't fixed the problem. When I open the app, this is what I see. I've tried all the solutions. https://t.co/AD7BmUe7fl"			
إما تبون زباين ؟ تواصلت بالخاص قبل شهر وإلى الأن ما حليتوا المشكلة! إذا فتحت التطبيق طلع لي كذا جربت جميع الحلول https://t.co/AD7BmUe7fl Q1 - What is the Level of politeness in the previous tweet:			
1. impolite 2. Neutral 3. Polite 4. Overpolite 5. Unsure			
Q2- If you select option 5, could you briefly explain why?			
Q3- What wording in the tweet led you to your answer?			
Tweet (33)			
"May the peace, blessings, and mercy of God be upon you I ordered and paid electronically and you said that it will arrive on Sunday, but it did not! give me a solution"			
السلامُ عليكم و رحمة الله و بركاته الحين انا طلبت منكم ودفعت إلكترونيًا وقلتوا بيتوصل الأحد ، طيب ما وصل إلى هذي اللحظه! اعطوني حل			
Q1 - What is the Level of politeness in the previous tweet:			
1. impolite 2. Neutral 3. Polite 4. Overpolite 5. Unsure			
Q2- If you select option 5, could you briefly explain why?			

Q3- What wording	g in the tweet led	l you to your ai	ıswer? 	
Tweet (34)				
	ned two pieces". W	here do I get pro	last thing is the same results, "gi of from!!! You gave me proof tha	
اجيب اثبات !!! انتم			ن وقتنا بالتواصل معكم واخر شي نفس النتي ي اثبات ان المندوب استلم قطعه وحده وليست	
Q1 - What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous two	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	
Q3- What wording Tweet (35)	g in the tweet led	l you to your ai	ıswer? 	
does not have employ	vees who are able to	resolve complain	onalism in dealing. A company tha nts'' مركة على الإطلاق ليس لديهم أي احتر افيه ف	
Q1 - What is the Le	vel of politeness in	the previous two	et:	
1. impolite	2. Neutral	3. Polite	4. Overpolite 5. Unsure	
Q2- If you select o	ption 5, could yo	u briefly explaii	n why?	
O3- What wording	in the tweet led	 l vou to vour a	 1swer?	

(Arabic Version) اقرأ التغريدات التالية ثم أجب على الأسئلة التي تليها: (1) "السلام عليكم عندي طلبيه طلبتها على اساس توصل اليوم لاني مسافر الفجر ان شا الله ليش ماووو صصلت رقم الطلبيه" . السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟ ١. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟ السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟ **(Y)** " هل يحق لكم بعد أكثر من اسبوع؟ الغاء الطلب لانو غير متوفر كيف غير متوفر بعد أكثر من اسبوع والطلب متوفر في الموقع؟!!" السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟ ١. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟ السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟ **(**\mathbb{7} "طلبت طلب عليه عرض بعد اسبو عين تم الغاء الطلب هل العرض و همي لذلك تم الغاء الطلب لعدم توفر المنتج؟" السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟ ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة ١. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة

السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	
(٤)	
" أنتم حر اميه وكذابين والكل يشتكي منكم استحوا على وجيهكم وقفلوا حسابكم ومتجركم افضل لكن ت	ي تعودوا على البهذله"
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟	
۱. غیر مؤدبة ۲. محایده ۳. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	
	رم ماجتني ابغاها البوم
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟	
۱. غیر مؤدبة ۲. محایده ۳. مؤدبة ک. مؤدبة بشکل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	
السؤال التّالت: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	
·/·	
"السلام عليكم ابغى ار فع شكوى عندي طلبيه من يوم الاثنين كلمني المندوب انه في الحي والى الان ا السبب "	ف الخميس ماوصلت ايش

		المرتبط المرتبط	(٩) " يا نون <i>ماز ال الامر لم يحل و</i> ا
	بكم	سابي في نون حسب طلا اقدمها شكوي	
		يض"	واطالبكم الدفع والتعوب
	ريدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغ	السؤال الأول: ما هو
 عير متأكد من الإجاب 	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
ر لماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثّاني: إذا قم
بتك في السوال الأول؟	 ي قادتك لاختيار اجا	, الكلمات أو الأسباب الت	السؤال الثالث: ماهي
			(۱۰)
بد ان اتعامل معكم وسأنصح كل من اعرفه بعدم التعامل معك	<i>طلب وشکرا و لا ار</i> ید	عكم غير ارجاع قيمة ال	الا اريد اي تواصل م
	ريدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغ	السؤال الأول: ما هو
 عير متأكد من الإجاب 	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
لماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السوال الثاني: إذا قم
.,			
	 ي قادتك لاختيار اجا	، الكلمات أو الأسباب الت	السوال الثالث: ماهي
	 ي قادتك لاختيار اجا 	. الكلمات أو الأسباب الت 	السؤال الثالث: ماهي

	يدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغر	السؤال الأول: ما هو
 عير متأكد من الإجابة 	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
نماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثاني: إذا قم
تك في السوال الأول؟	ي قادتك لاختيار اجابن	الكلمات أو الأسباب التر	السؤال الثالث: ماهي
	و ناسف وقفوه"	در امیه بس شغل نعتذر	(۱۲) "اعترفوا قولوا احنا .
	يدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغر	السؤال الأول: ما هو
 عير متأكد من الإجابة 	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
لماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر	ت باذتيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثاني: إذا قم
تك في السؤال الأول؟	ي قادتك لاختيار اجابن	الكلمات أو الأسباب التر	السؤال الثالث: ماهي
			(۱۳)
رقم طلبي حتى ما قالتكم نتواصل عالخاص تحلو المشكله		ن الناس الي تشتكي عليك بين من ماحليتو مشكلتي	
	يدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغر	السوال الأول: ما هو
 عير متاكد من الإجابة 	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
لماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثاني: إذا قم
تك في السوال الأول؟	ي قادتك لاختيار اجابن	الكلمات أو الأسباب التر	السؤال الثالث: ماهي
			(\£)

م استلام القطعه الثانيه ؟؟؟"	لاتنين يوصلو مع بعض ولـ	مان بأن تم عمل طلب ا	عه وتم استلام واحد عله	"تم عمل الأوردر 2 قط
		دة السابقة؟	ستوى التأدب في التغريد	السؤال الأول: ما هو مس
٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	ذ ر؟	هل يمكن أن تذكر لما	باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت
	في السنوال الأول؟	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك أ	 للمات أو الأسباب التي	السؤال الثالث: ماهي الن
				(10)
2 ساعه ومن ثم يتم اغلاقها	ية قتح شكوى والانتظار 4	ة في المتاجر الالكترون بلا سبب و هكذ"ا	ي التاريخ لحل أي مشكا ديدة وايضا يتم اغلاقها	"أعظم وأفضل طريقة فـ بلا سبب ورفع شكوى جـ
		دة السابقة؟	ستوى التأدب في التغريا	السوال الأول: ما هو مس
٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	ذ ا؟	هل يمكن أن تذكر لما	باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	السوال الثاني: إذا قمت
	في السوال الأول؟	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك أ	للمات أو الأسباب الت <i>ي</i>	السؤال الثالث: ماهي الن
				(۱۲)
أموفون نفس ذا الرد كان ينرد	إكم يوم متأخرين علي وبتث	يصدق هبدهم ذا شوفو	سؤكم بالسيئين اف لحد ف طلبيتي الله لا	لو تعملون ما تستمرون با على ما اصدقكم لين اشو
00000 پرېمکم	00000000	"00000		-
		دة السابقة؟	متوى التأدب في التغريد	السؤال الأول: ما هو مس
٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	ذ ا؟	هل يمكن أن تذكر لما	باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت

السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	في السوَّال الأول؟	
(1Y)			
"ياعالم طلبيتي وصلتني نصها ونص لا ودفعت فاثىلين "	ع الأولى اكثر من نص	ل المبلغ و بعدين الغو باقي ال	ى <i>طلب ايشششش الحل ي</i>
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغري	ة السابقة؟		
۱. غیر مؤدبة ۲. محایده	٣. مؤدبة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥٠	هل يمكن أن تذكر لم	اڈا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	في السوّال الأول؟	
(¹^)			
"ليش موظفينكم لعابين و اخر كلام قالوا لي اليو	م توصل فلوس و ماثا	م <i>فت نصب واحتيال منكم مو</i> ق	يع فاشل فاشل"
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغري	ة السابقة؟		
۱. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده	٣. مؤدبة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	هل يمكن أن تذكر لم	اذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	في السوّال الأول؟	
(19)			
" أكثر من شهر وانا اتواصل معاكم حتى بمكاله المشكلة وإن البضاعة يستحيل تكون أصلية "	ت هاتفية وفي الأخير	ِ بكل وقاحة كان عذركم سوء	, استخدام وأنتم عار فين
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغري	ة السابقة؟		
١. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده	٣. مؤدبة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة

	ماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر ا	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثاني: إذا قم
	ك في السوّال الأول؟	ي قادتك لاختيار اجابتا	الكلمات أو الأسباب التر	السوال الثالث: ماهي
				(۲۰)
ت و همیه لتلاعب علی عمیل "	سایل و همیه واز عاج اتصالان	مهر و اسبو عین بس ر	در امية ، معروضه و صار لي ش	" موقع نون فاشل و . رجعت طلبية مو نفس
		ريدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغ	السوال الأول: ما هو
٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	ماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر ا	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثاني: إذا قم
	 ك في السوال الأول؟	 ي قادتك لاختيار اجابتا	الكلمات أو الأسباب التر	السؤال الثالث: ماهي
				(۲۱)
عطل عيالكم و اهاليكم الله مُ الوكيل في كل ظالم الله	ِ كُلُ اموركم و قضاياكم الله يـ: ردوا لي حقي حسبي الله و نعم	ي و ماطلتوني الله ياخر يكم و ينتقم منكم لين تر	ئيل فيكم مثل ما اخر تونــ و لا يعطيكم الله يوقف عا	"حسبي الله و نعم الوك يحوجكم و ياخذ منكم حسبيكم إلى "
		ريدة السابقة؟	مستوى التأدب في التغ	السوال الأول: ما هو
٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	ماذا؟	ه، هل يمكن أن تذكر ا	ت باختيار الإجابة رقم	السؤال الثاني: إذا قم
	 ك في السوال الأول؟	 ي قادتك لاختيار اجابتا	الكلمات أو الأسباب التر	السؤال الثالث: ماهي
				(۲۲)

ال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟ ير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة ال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذًا؟ ال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	" عار و عار ف و الله بـا
ال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟ ال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	السوا
ال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	۱. غب
	السوا
	۲۳)
دم عليكم الى الأن لم تصلني طلبيتي بالرغم من تأخير ها عن مو عد التوصيل الأصلي وتأجيل استلامها الى اليوم السبت ودقيت على خدمة العملاء وبلغني انها سوف تصلني خلال اربع ساعات ولم تصل ايش الحل ؟"	"السلا ىيش و
ال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟	السوا
ير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	۱. غب
إل الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	السوا
ال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟	
(۲٤)
بت هذا المنتج وللاسف وصلني والعلبة حقته مطعوجة و غير سليمة بسوي طلب ارجاع وماقدرت وش الحل اذا سمحت "	ا طلا وجبيت
ال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟	السوا
ير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	۱. غب
ال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	السؤا

السؤال الثالث: ماهي الن	للمات أو الأسباب التي	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	في السوّال الأول؟	
(۲۰)				
"وصلني ايميل عام لا يـ تاريخ المشكلة "	ىتوي على اي تحديث.	يصلني للمرة الثالثة ا/	ن. انا مستاء جدا لانه کل مر	ة بكلمني شخص ما بيعرف
السؤال الأول: ما هو مس	متوى التأدب في التغري	بدة السابقة؟		
١. غير مؤدبة	۲. محایده	۳. مؤدبة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت	باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥	، هل يمكن أن تذكر لم	اذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الن		قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	في السوّال الأول؟	
(۲۲)				
"السلام عليكم ها اخوي ترجعون لي او تعطوني	وش صار؟؟ قلتوا بتتوا نعويض لطلبيه "	صلون معي ومحد كله	ني الى الإن؟!!!! اشحذكم انا	؟؟ تر ا فلوسي من حقكم
السوال الأول: ما هو مس	متوى التأدب في التغري	بدة السابقة؟		
١. غير مؤدبة	۲. محایده	٣. مؤدبة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت	باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥	، هل يمكن أن تذكر لم	اذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الن	 ئلمات أو الأسباب التي	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	في السوّال الأول؟	
(۲V)				
"انا ندمانه اقوا شي اني	طلبت من عندكم .مراح	<i>۽ تر</i> جع <i>ون فلوسي صح</i>	. ؟ بتعيدون نفس الكلام كانكم	روبوت ولا راح ترجع
"סייב				
السؤال الأول: ما هو مس	متوى التأدب في التغري	بدة السابقة؟		
١. غير مؤدبة	۲. محایده	٣. مؤدبة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 غير متأكد من الإجابة

	ماذا؟	هل يمكن أن تذكر له	، باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت
	ك في السؤال الأول؟	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	لكلمات أو الأسباب التي	 السؤال الثالث: ماهي ا
ـ التسليم عالسيستم "	 و ک <i>ل مرة تغیرون مو</i> ع	ت و اتواصل معاكم ا	ب طلبية من الشهر الفائد	(۲۸) " السلام عليكم، انا طاأ
		دة السابقة؟	ستوى التأدب في التغريد	السؤال الأول: ما هو م
رط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفر	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	ماذا؟	هل يمكن أن تذكر له	، باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت
	 ك في السوال الأول؟	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	لكلمات أو الأسباب الت <i>ي</i>	السؤال الثالث: ماهي ا
﴿ اليملِل "	السله و لا جاني رساله و'		سبت ابل باي انسحب الم	 (۲۹) " لوسمحت طلبت و حا
		دة السابقة؟	ستوى التأدب في التغريد	السؤال الأول: ما هو م
رط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفر	٣. مؤدبة	۲. محایده	١. غير مؤدبة
	•.			
	مادا؟	هل يمكن أن تذكر له	، باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت
			، باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥،	
توصیل سییه سییه و هذا رایی"	 ك في السؤال الأول؟ 	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك	 لكلمات أو الأسباب التي	السؤال الثالث: ماهي الا
توصیل سبیه سبیه و هذا رایي"	 ك في السؤال الأول؟ 	قادتك لاختيار اجابتك 	 لكلمات أو الأسباب التي	السؤال الثالث: ماهي المسؤال الثالث: ماهي المسؤال (٣٠)

لسؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟
لسؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال الأول؟
(٣1)
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله. اشتريت منكم جهاز تاب جديد وكان فيه عطل مصنعي وبعد جهد جهيد تم استبدال الجهاز مع ختلاف اللون اللون بس ما اغير فيه شي نفس العطل اللي كان في الجهاز الاول . والحل معاكم طيب ؟"
لسؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟
١. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة
لسؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟
(٣٢)
ا اما تبون زباين ؟ واصلت بالخاص قبل شهر وإلى الأن ما حليتوا المشكلة ! إذا فتحت التطبيق طلع لي كذا جربت جميع الحلول https://t.co/AD7BmUe7fi"
لسؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟
١. غير مؤدبة ٢. محايده ٣. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط ٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة
لسؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟
(٣٣)
السلامُ عليكم و رحمة الله و بركاته

الحين انا طلبت منكم ودفعت الِكتر ونيًا وقلتوا بيتوصل الأحد ، طيب ما وصل الي	ما وصل إلى هذي اللحظه! اعط	عطوني حل"
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟		
۱. غیر مؤدبة ۲. محایده ۳. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدب	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	 عير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	باذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال	، في السوّال الأول؟	
(٣٤)		
" تضيعون وقتنا بالتواصل معكم واخر شي نفس النتيجة، عطنا اثبات انك رجعت عطوني اثبات ان المندوب استلم قطعه وحده وليست ثنتين ما نقول الاحسبي الله و	، انك رجعت قطعتين انا من ويا (حسبي الله ونعم الوكيل"	رين اجيب اثبات !!! انتم
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟		
۱. غیر مؤدبة ۲. محایده ۳. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدب	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	باذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال	، في السوال الأول؟	
(٣٥)		
" اخس شركة على الإطلاق ليس لديهم أي احترافيه في التعامل شركة ماعندها م	ئة ماعندها موظفين قادرين علم	ملى حل الشكا <i>وي</i> "
السؤال الأول: ما هو مستوى التأدب في التغريدة السابقة؟		
۱. غیر مؤدبة ۲. محایده ۳. مؤدبة ٤. مؤدب	٤. مؤدبة بشكل مفرط	٥. غير متأكد من الإجابة
السؤال الثاني: إذا قمت باختيار الإجابة رقم ٥، هل يمكن أن تذكر لماذا؟	اذا؟	
السؤال الثالث: ماهي الكلمات أو الأسباب التي قادتك لاختيار اجابتك في السؤال	 ، في السوال الأول؟	

			4.	
Λ	nn	an	dix	7
$\overline{}$	1)1	CII	(11)	•
	\cdot PP			•

Note:

The document was written in Arabic by the researcher, who is a native speaker of Arabic and holds a bachelor's degree in Arabic language, a master's degree in linguistics, and a fifth-year PhD in linguistics.

References

- Abdolrezapour, P., Dabaghi, A., & Kassaian, Z. (2012). Iranian EFL learners' realization of complaints in American English. *GEMA Online® Journal of Language Studies*, 12(2), 711–725.
- Aijmer, K., & Rühlemann, C. (2015). Corpus pragmatics. Cambridge University Press.
- al Hammuri, L. O. (2011). A pragmatic study of complaint and advice strategies used by Jordanian and American undergraduate university students: Guidelines for teaching these speech acts.
- Al-khawaldeh, N. (2016). A Pragmatic Cross-Cultural Study of Complaints Expressions in Jordan and England. 5(5). https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.5n.5p.197
- Al-Omari, S. K. (2008). A pragmatic analysis of complaining strategies in Jordanian Arabic and American English. Yarmouk University.
- Al-Shorman, R. A. (2016). Saudi and Jordanian Undergraduates' Complaining Strategies: A Comparative Intralanguage Educational Linguistic Study. *Arab World English Journal*, 7(1), 203–228. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol7no1.14
- Amir, N. A., & Jakob, J. C. (2018). An analyzing impoliteness strategies used in facebook.
- Angouri, Jo., & Tseliga, Theodora. (2010). "You have no idea what you are talking about!" From edisagreement to e-impoliteness in two online fora.
- Anthony, L. (2022). AntConc (Version 3.4. 3)[Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University.
- Asher, R. E., & Simpson, J. M. Y. (1993). The encyclopedia of language and linguistics.
- Austin, J. (1962). Austin, How to do things with words. Oxford, Clarendon Press.
- Baker, P., Gabrielatos, C., & McEnery, T. (2013). Discourse analysis and media attitudes: The representation of Islam in the British press. Cambridge University Press.
- Bar-on, D. (2013). Origins of meaning: Must we 'go Gricean'? Mind & Language, 28(3), 342-375.
- Beißwenger, M., & Lüngen, H. (2020). CcMC-core: a schema for the representation of CMC corpora in TEI. *Corpus*, 20.
- Birner, B. J. (2012). Introduction to pragmatics. John Wiley & Sons.
- Bonikowska, M. P. (1988). The choice of opting out. Applied Linguistics, 9(2), 169–181.
- Boxer, D. (1993). Social distance and speech behavior: The case of indirect complaints. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 19(2), 103–125. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(93)90084-3
- Brandom, R. (1983). Asserting. Noûs, 637-650.
- Brandom, R. (1994). *Making it explicit: Reasoning, representing, and discursive commitment.* Harvard university press.
- Brandom, R. (2000). Articulating reasons. Harvard University Press.
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987a). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (Vol. 4). Cambridge university press Cambridge.
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987b). Politeness Theory, 1987. Available at: Http://En. Wikipedia. Org/Wiki/Politeness theory.
- Chen, Y., Chen, C. D., & Chang, M.-H. (2011). American and Chinese complaints: Strategy use from a cross-cultural perspective.
- Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1993). The production of speech acts by EFL learners. *Tesol Quarterly*, 27(1), 33–56.
- Culpeper, J. (1996). Towards an anatomy of impoliteness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 25(3), 349–367.
- Culpeper, J. (2011). *Impoliteness: Using language to cause offence* (Vol. 28). Cambridge University Press.

- Culpeper, J. (2016). Impoliteness strategies. *Interdisciplinary Studies in Pragmatics, Culture and Society*, 421–445.
- de Leon, K. D., & Parina, J. C. (2016). A study of Filipino complaints in English and Tagalog. 3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®, 22(1).
- Deveci, T. (2015). The Complaint Speech Act Set Produced by University Students Speaking English as a Foreign Language. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal*, *Special 4*(1), 2161–2171. https://doi.org/10.20533/licej.2040.2589.2015.0287
- Dummett, M. (1981). Frege: Philosophy of language. Harvard University Press.
- Edmondson, W. J., & House, J. (1981). Let's talk, and talk about it: a pedagogic interactional grammar of English. Urban & Schwarzenberg.
- Edwards, D. (2005). Moaning, whinging and laughing: The subjective side of complaints. *Discourse Studies*, 7(1), 5–29.
- El-Dakhs, D. A. S., & Ahmed, M. M. (2021). A variational pragmatic analysis of the speech act of complaint focusing on Alexandrian and Najdi Arabic. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 181, 120–138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2021.05.023
- El-Dakhs, D. A. S., Rahman, M., Muhammad, M., & Amroun, F. (2019). The Saudi EFL learners' complaint behavior: a study on interlanguage pragmatics. *Asian EFL Journal Articles*, 24(4), 295–317.
- Ezzaoua, O. (2020). The Interlanguage of Moroccan EFL learners: The Case of Complaints. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 20(1), 6–11.
- Farnia, M., Buchheit, L., & Banu, S. (2010). A contrastive pragmatic study of speech act of complaint in American English and Malaysian. *International Journal*, 30, 11–24.
- Fletcher, W. H. (2007). Concordancing the web: promise and problems, tools and techniques. In *Corpus linguistics and the web* (pp. 25–45). Brill.
- Geluykens, R., & Kraft, B. (2003). Sociocultural variation in native and interlanguage complaints. In *Meaning through language contrast* (pp. 251–261). John Benjamins.
- Green, M. (2010). Précis of self-expression (oxford, 2007). Acta Analytica, 25(1), 65–69.
- Grice, H. P. (1957). Meaning. The Philosophical Review, 377–388.
- Grice, P. (1989). Studies in the Way of Words. Harvard University Press.
- Hammod, N. M., & Abdul-Rassul, A. (2017). Impoliteness strategies in English and Arabic Facebook comments. *International Journal of Linguistics*, *9*(5), 97–112.
- Harb, M. (2021). Disagreement among Arabic speakers in faceless computer-mediated communication. *Journal of Politeness Research*, 17(2), 233–264.
- Harris, D. W., Fogal, D., & Moss, M. (2018). Speech acts: The contemporary theoretical landscape. *New Work on Speech Acts*, 1–39. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198738831.003.0001
- Hartford, B., & Mahboob, A. (2004). Models of discourse in the letter of complaint. *World Englishes*, 23(4), 585–600. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0083-2919.2004.00378.x
- Harvey, R. (2020). Twitter reactions to the UN's #HeForShe campaign for gender equality: A corpusbased discourse analysis. *Journal of Corpora and Discourse Studies*, *3*(0), 31. https://doi.org/10.18573/jcads.12
- Haugh, M. (2010). Intercultural (im) politeness and the micro-macro issue. *Pragmatics across Languages and Cultures*, 7.
- Heinemann, T., & Traverso, V. (2009). Complaining in interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41(12), 2381–2384. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.10.006

- House, J., & Kasper, G. (2011). Politeness markers in English and German. In *Conversational routine* (pp. 157–186). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Huang, Y. (2017). The Oxford handbook of pragmatics. Oxford University Press.
- Ide, S. (1989). Formal forms and discernment: Two neglected aspects of universals of linguistic politeness.
- Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*. Routledge.
- J, A. (1962). UNCLliSS1F If O. How to Do Things with Words, 1–163.
- Kadri, H. K. Bin, Mohamed, R. B., Shafie, S. F. B., Yahya, N. B., & Zaini, Z. B. (2021). Impoliteness Strategies Inflicted by Twitter Users: The Case of Interaction with Malaysian Royal Family. *E-Jurnal Bahasa Dan Linguistik (e-JBL)*, 3(2), 94–103.
- Kakolaki, L. N., & Shahrokhi, M. (2016). Gender differences in complaint strategies among Iranian upper intermediate EFL students. *Studies in English Language Teaching4 (1)*, 1–15.
- Kozlova, I. (2004). Can you complain? Cross-cultural comparison of indirect complaints in Russian and American English. *Prospect*, 19(1), 84–105.
- Kreishan, L. (2018). Politeness and speech acts of refusal and complaint among Jordanian undergraduate students. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 7(4), 68–76.
- Laabidi, A., & Bousfiha, A. (2020). Speech Act of Complaining: Socio-Pragmatic study of Complaint by Moroccan EFL Learners. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(2), 148–155.
- Laforest, M. (2002). Scenes of family life: Complaining in everyday conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34(10–11), 1595–1620. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00077-2
- Lakoff, R. T., & Lakoff, R. (1990). Talking power. Basic Books.
- Leech, & Geoffrey. (2014). The pragmatics of politeness. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Li, R., & Suleiman, R. R. R. (2017). Language proficiency and the speech act of complaint of Chinese EFL learners. 3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®, 23(1).
- Locher, M. A., & Watts, R. J. (2005). Politeness theory and relational work.
- Lukić, M., & Halupka-Rešetar, S. (2020). Supportive moves in the speech act of direct complaint in English and Serbian: A cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic analysis. Годишњак Филозофског Факултета у Новом Саду, 45(5), 113–131.
- Manganari, E. E. (2021). Emoji use in computer-mediated communication. *The International Technology Management Review*, 10(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.2991/itmr.k.210105.001
- McEnery, A., & Baker, P. (2015). Corpora and discourse studies: Integrating discourse and corpora. Springer.
 - $https://www.researchgate.net/publication/269107473_What_is_governance/link/548173090cf22\\525dcb61443/download\%0Ahttp://www.econ.upf.edu/~reynal/Civil$
 - wars 12December2010.pdf%0Ahttps://think-
 - asia.org/handle/11540/8282%0Ahttps://www.jstor.org/stable/41857625
- Meinl, M. E. (2013). *Electronic complaints: an empirical study on British English and German complaints on eBay* (Vol. 18). Frank & Timme GmbH.
- Migdadi, F., Badarneh, M. A., & Momani, K. (2012a). Public complaints and complaint responses in calls to a Jordanian radio phone-in program. *Applied Linguistics*, *33*(3), 321–341. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams011

- Migdadi, F., Badarneh, M. A., & Momani, K. (2012b). Public complaints and complaint responses in calls to a Jordanian radio phone-in program. *Applied Linguistics*, *33*(3), 321–341. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams011
- Millikan, R. (1984). Language, truth, and other biological categories. *Cambridge, Mass: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press. Search In.*
- Millikan, R. G. (1984). Language, thought, and other biological categories. MIT Press. [RGM](1993) White Queen psychology and other essays for Alice. MIT Press. [RGM](1996) Pushmi-pullyu representations. In: Philosophical
- Millikan, R. G. (1998). Proper function and convention in speech acts. *The Philosophy of Peter F. Strawson*, 25–43.
- Millikan, R. G. (2005). Language: A biological model. Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Mofidi, M., & Shoushtari, Z. G. (2012). A Comparative Study of the Complaint Strategies among Iranian EFL and ESL Students--The Study of the Effect of Length of Residence and the Amount of Contact. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(11), 118–124.
- Montgomery, B. (2014). In defense of assertion. *Philosophical Studies*, 171(2), 313–326.
- Olshtain, E., & Weinbach, L. (1987a). Complaints: A study of speech act behavior among native and non-native speakers of Hebrew. In J. Vershueren & M. Bertuccelli-Papi (Eds.), *The pragmatic perspective* (pp. 195–208). John Benjamins.
- Olshtain, E., & Weinbach, L. (1987b). Complaints: A study of speech act behaviour among native and nonnative speakers of Hebrew. In J. Verschueren & M. Beruccelli-Papi (Eds.), *The Pragmatic Perspective: Selected Papers from the 1985 International Pragmatics Conference*. Benjamins, 195-208.
- Olshtain, E., & Weinbach, L. (1993). Interlanguage features of the speech act of complaining. *Interlanguage Pragmatics*, 108, 22.
- Pak, A., & Paroubek, P. (2010). Twitter as a corpus for sentiment analysis and opinion mining. *LREc*, *10*(2010), 1320–1326.
- Parasie, N. (2016). *Alabbar, Saudi Sovereign Wealth Fund Launch E-Commerce Firm Noon WSJ*. https://www.wsj.com/articles/alabbar-saudi-sovereign-wealth-fund-launch-e-commerce-firm-noon-1479046128
- R Core Team. (2017). R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [Computer Software]. In (*No Title*). R Foundation for Statistical Computing. http://www.R-project.org.
- Ranosa-Madrunio, M. (2004). The discourse organization of letters of complaint to editors in Philippine English and Singapore English. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics*, 35(2), 67–97.
- Rashidi, N. M. (2017). An interlanguage pragmatic study of Saudis' complaints. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 15(2), 11–19.
- Sacks, H. (1995). Lectures on conversation (J. Gail, Ed.; Vol. 66, Issue September). Blackwell.
- Salam El-Dakhs, D. A., & Ahmed, M. M. (2021). A variational pragmatic analysis of the speech act of complaint focusing on Alexandrian and Najdi Arabic. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2021.05.023
- Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts 1. Language in Society, 5(1), 1–23.
- Searle, J. R., & Searle, J. R. (1969). Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language (Vol. 626). Cambridge university press.
- Sifianou, M. (2015). Conceptualizing politeness in Greek: Evidence from Twitter corpora. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 86, 25–30. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2015.05.019

- Sloan, L., & Quan-Haase, A. (2017). *The SAGE handbook of social media research methods*. Sage. Sloan, L., Quan-Haase, A., Kitchin, R., & Beninger, K. (2017). Social Media Research Methods. In *University of Aberdeen*.
- Spees, H. (1994). A cross-cultural study of indirectness. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 5(2).
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2000). Rapport management: A framework for analysis. *Culturally Speaking:* Managing Rapport through Talk across Cultures, 1146.
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2002). Managing rapport in talk: Using rapport sensitive incidents to explore the motivational concerns underlying the management of relations. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34(5), 529–545.
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2004). *Culturally speaking: Managing rapport through talk across cultures*. A&C Black.
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2005). (Im) Politeness, face and perceptions of rapport: unpackaging their bases and interrelationships.
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2007). Theories of identity and the analysis of face. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 39(4), 639–656.
- Sukyadi, D. (2011). Complaining in EFL Learners: Differences of Realizations between Men and Women (A Case Study of Indonesian EFL Learners at the English Department of The Indonesian University of Education). *PAROLE: Journal of Linguistics and Education*, 2(1 April), 1–25.
- Tannen, D., Hamilton, H. E., & Schiffrin, D. (2015). *The handbook of discourse analysis*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Trager, G. L., & Rice, F. A. (1954). The personal-pronoun system of Classical Arabic. *Language*, 30(2), 224–229.
- Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies* (Vol. 7). Walter de Gruyter.
- Unger, P. (1978). Ignorance: A case for scepticism. OUP Oxford.
- Vandergriff, I. (2013). Emotive communication online: A contextual analysis of computer-mediated communication (CMC) cues. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *51*, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2013.02.008
- Vásquez, C. (2011). Complaints online: The case of TripAdvisor. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(6), 1707–1717.
- Vasquez, C. (2011). Complaints online: The case of TripAdvisor Author's personal copy.
- Vásquez, C. (2014). The discourse of online consumer reviews. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Virtanen, T. (2009). Discourse linguistics meets corpus linguistics: theoretical and methodological issues in the troubled relationship. *Corpus Linguistics*, 49–65.
- Vladimirou, D., & House, J. (2018). Ludic impoliteness and globalization on Twitter: 'I speak England very best' #agglika_Tsipra, #Tsipras #Clinton. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *134*, 149–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2018.05.005
- Vladimirou, D., House, J., & Kádár, D. Z. (2021). Aggressive complaining on Social Media: The case of #MuckyMerton. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 177, 51–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2021.01.017
- Watts, R. (1992). J. 1992. Linguistic politeness and politic verbal behavior: reconsidering claims for universality. *Politeness in Language: Studies in Its History, Theory and Practice. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin*, 1–17.

- Wierzbicka, A. (1991). Cross-cultural Pragmatics: The Semantics of Human Interaction. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.(1999). Emotions Across Languages and Cultures: Diversity and Universals. Cambridge University Press.
- Williamson, T. (2002). Knowledge and its Limits. Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Yuan, Z., & Zhang, R. (2018). Investigating longitudinal pragmatic development of complaints made by Chinese EFL learners. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *9*(1), 63–87.
- Zappavigna, M. (2011). Ambient affiliation: A linguistic perspective on Twitter. *New Media and Society*, 13(5), 788–806. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444810385097
- Zappavigna, M. (2012). Discourse of Twitter and social media: How we use language to create affiliation on the web (Vol. 6). A&C Black.
- Zappavigna, M. (2017). 8. Twitter. In *Pragmatics of Social Media* (pp. 201–224). https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110431070-008