

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The second chapter explains review of related literatures which discuss the ideas and theories underlying the subject matter of the study as a result of library activity. It consists of language as tool to conduct communication which describes the use of language in many different ways and for many purposes and spoken language as used in our daily life. Pragmatics that shows the ability to communicate intended message in any socio-cultural context and to interpret the message of the interlocutor. The theoretical of hedges which presents their forms and functions, focusing on the politeness function they have. The taxonomy of hedging in the academic discourse community will also be discussed. Short story which explain about what is short story is and about the type and its function.

#### 2.1 Language

People use language to engage socially, initially within the family, and later in a wider network of relationships and cultural experiences. Such experiences create a sense of belonging and enhance general well-being. Language also enables people to give expression to their feelings, ideas, and concerns. As they mature, it is through language that they will communicate their personal needs and claim.

According to Halliday (2004:8), " A language is resource for making meaning-a semogenic system, together with the process with instantiate the system in form text (spoken and written discourse). : Meanwhile Ramelan (1991:8) says that each member within the society needs a tool of communication which is called language. By language human can deliver express, show the human message, ideas, and wishes together. As social creatures, we need to interact and to communicate with other peoples. We

can't interact and communicate by self. It becomes the most important aspect in our human being.

Language can be categorized into two; they are spoken and written language. Spoken language does not only refer to language which is said aloud. It is typically more dependent on its context than written language. In spoken language, we concern about the diction, grammar, pronunciation, fluency in speaking, and vocabulary that support communication. In contrast, written language does not only refer to language which is written down. It tends to be more independent of its immediate contexts. Spoken language is a human natural language in which the words are uttered through the mouth. From the point of view of linguistic evolution, spoken is prior to written language.

### **2.1.1 Language as communication tool**

Language is an important tool for communication. It allows people to know each other though they come from different culture and background. It is the easiest and most effective way to communicate with other people. This happens because basically language is a part of society. It has been staying in our life and we have acquired it since we were a child.

The most important fact about language as a system is its organization into functional component. It is obvious that language is used in multitude of different processes.

One thing that needs to be remembered is the language that is used in communication must be known together by speaker and hearer. Without that, communication cannot function well and its purpose cannot be reached. Therefore, there are so many people learning foreign language as their second language. Above all, language will always be a means of conversation.

### **2.1.2 Spoken language**

Both spoken and written languages are used by people to communicate one another. According to Eggins (1994:57) the characteristic feature of spoken language below. Spoken language can be characterized. The

situations where spoken language is used typically interactive situations, i.e. our stretch of talk organized turn by turn. Spoken language is typically more dependent on its context. Spoken is context dependent because we are usually in the same place at the same time when someone talk to each other, our language can depend in part on the context. People will able to interpret from the on-going context we share. People cannot start writing an essay by mentioning pronoun or demonstrative because the readers will not be able to interpret it. Spoken language has dynamic structure because a spoken interaction tends to accompany action, so the structure of the talk will be dynamic. Spoken language contains spontaneity phenomena such as hesitation, false starts, repetitions, interruption etc. Spoken language usually uses everyday language lexis such as slang and does not follow standard grammar. Spoken language is higher level of grammatical intricacy. Grammatical intricacy refers to the number of clauses per sentence, and can be calculated by expressing the number of clauses in a text as a proportion of the number of sentences in a text. One of spoken language unit used by speakers in a dialogue or conversation to communicate each other is an utterance. Schiffrin (1994:386) says that "in communication, people use utterance to convey information and to lead each other toward an interpretation of meanings and intentions". Study of how the construct the meaning and how grammar is used in language, by considering the language as the resource is called systemic functional linguistic.

## **2.2 Pragmatics**

Pragmatics one a branch of linguistics that be related and respect with the study of meaning conveyed by speaker or author then they interpreted by partners of speech on communication between spoken and written. However pragmatic include what the analysis and compare what the word means by phrase linguistically. Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning as distinct from word or sentence meaning. Yule (1996:4). Based on the

statement note that pragmatics is the study of meaning delivered by speakers regardless of meaning of words or sentences. Capelen and Lapore (2005: 136) suggest that pragmatics is the study of how meaning is affected by context. Based on the statement is known that pragmatics is a science that requires interpretation in a specific context and how contexts mentioned influence means. Pragmatics needed meaning intended by speaker to the hearer, the speaker needs to know what he says with, where, when, and under what circumstances the speech occurred. Pragmatics is the study of the relation between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding. Levinson (1983:21). Based on the statement know that to understand the meaning ones language, speakers demanded just knowing the meaning of the word in relation to the context as a basis for understanding a language, so it can be deduced with what is assumed to be, or what has been said previously.

As instances of usage governed by pragmatical rules, Morris noted that “interjections such as Oh!, commands such as Come here!, expression such as Good Morning! And various rhetorical and poetical devices, occur only under certain definite conditions in the users of the language” Morris (1938:48). Would still today be given a treatment within linguistics pragmatics but Morris went on to expand the scope of pragmatics in accord with his particular behavioristic theory of semiotics Black (1947:28). “it is a sufficiently accurate characterization of pragmatics to say that it deals with the biotic aspect of semiosis, that is with all the psychological, biological and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of sign” Morris (1938:54). It has consequently more to do with the analysis of what the people mean by their utterance than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves. Pragmatic also concerned with the type of study necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said. It requires consideration of how speakers organize what they want to say in

accordance with who they are talking to, where, when, and what circumstances. Then pragmatic concerned the study of how more gets communicated than is said, approach also necessarily explores how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning. This type of study explores how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated. We might say that it is the investigation of invisible meaning and pragmatic concerned the study of the expression of relative distance, perspective than raises the question of what determines the choice between the said and unsaid. The basic answer is tied to the notion of distance. Closeness, whether it is physical, social, or conceptual, implies shared experience. On the assumption of how close or distant the listener is, speakers determine how much needs to be said. There are Pragmatics concerned while we used the language as speaking people's intended meanings, their assumption, their purposes or goals, and the kind of action (for example, request) that they are performing when they speak.

On the other hand and especially within analytical philosophy, the term pragmatics was subject to a successive narrowing of scope. Here the philosopher and logician Carnap wa particularly influential. After an initial Morrisian usage (Carnap,1938:2), he adopted the following version of the trichotomy: If in an investigation explicit reference is made to the speaker, or to put it in more general terms, to the user of the language, then we assign it [the investigation] to the field of pragmatics... If we abstract from the user of the language and analyze only the expressions and their designate, we are in the field of semantics. And, finally, if we abstract from the designata also and analyze only the relations between expressions, we are in (logical) syntax.

Unfortunately Carnap`s usage of the term pragmatics was confused by his adaption of Morris`s further distinction between pure and descriptive studies and he came to equate pragmatics with descriptive semiotics in general and thus with the study of natural (as opposed to logical) language

(Carnap, 1959:13). But Carnap was not even consistent here: he also held (Carnap, 1956:7) that there was room for a pure pragmatics which would be concerned with concept like belief, utterance and intension and their logical inter-relation. This latter usage, now more or less defunct, explains the use of the term in, for example the title of a book by Martin (1959:84). Thus at least four quite different senses of the term can be found in Carnap's works, but it was the definition quoted above that was finally influential.

### 2.3 Hedges

The study of hedges is well linked to pragmatics which Spencer-Otey and Zegarac (2002) define as the study of relationship between language forms, messages and language users. The use of hedge as a linguistic term goes back at least to the early 1970s, when G. Lakoff published his article entitled *Hedges: A Study in Meaning Criteria and the Logic of Fuzzy Concepts*. At that time, Lakoff was not interested in the communicative value of the use of hedges but was concern with the logical properties of words and phrases like *rather*, *largely*, *in a manner of speaking*, *very*, in their ability to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy (Lakoff, 1972:195).

Markkanen and Schröder (200:2-3) explained that the term of hedge has moved far from its origins, particularly since it has been adopted by pragmatists and discourse analysts. The term is no longer used only for expressions that modify the category membership of a predicate or a noun phrase. They then explained that in accordance with Lakkoff's main concern, however, the term later been defined, for example by Brown and Levinson as a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership that is partial or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected. They also quoted Vande Kople's view of hedges that considers the use of hedges as showing a lack of full commitment to the propositional content of an utterance. In other words,

hedges (e.g. perhaps, seem, might, to certain extent) are by him seen as modifying the truth-value of the whole proposition, not as making individual inside it more imprecise.

Furthest away from the original concept of hedge are those approaches in which hedges are treated as realizations of an interactional/communicative strategy called hedging. Thus, Markkanen/Schröder (1989; 1992), who discuss the role of hedges in scientific texts, see them as modifiers of the writer's responsibility for the truth value of the propositions expressed or as modifiers of the weightiness of the information given, or the attitude of the writer to the information. According to them, hedges can even be used to hide the writer's attitude. Markkanen and Schröder also suggest that hedges offer a possibility for textual manipulation in the sense that the reader is left in the dark as to who is responsible for the truth value of what is being expressed (Markkanen and Schröder, 2000:4). As to the motivation for the use of hedges, a lot of the discussion has concentrated on their use in spoken discourse, and the most frequently mentioned motivating factor is politeness, as defined by Brown/Levinson (1987). In their view, hedges are mainly used for negative politeness in face-saving, in which they are put to elaborate use. In positive politeness they figure only in expressions of extremes, like marvellous and appalling, which are typical of this form of politeness, 'safely vague' because they leave it to the addressee to figure out how to interpret them. Hedges can also be considered as the interactive elements which serve as a bridge between propositional information in the text and the writer's factual interpretation. As Skleton remarks, hedges can be viewed as part of the larger phenomenon called commentative potentials of any language. Natural languages are reflective, not only saying things, but also reflecting on the status of what they say.

Research on LSP (language for Specific Purpose) has repeatedly shown that hedges are crucial in academic discourse because they are central

rhetorical means of gaining communal adherence to knowledge claims. Indeed scientific truth is as much the product of social as that of an intellectual activity and the need to convince ones fellow scientific of the facticity of the experimental results explains the widespread use of hedges in this type of discourse.

Hyland (1994), for example, asserts that hedging exhibits a level of frequency much higher than many other linguistics features which have received considerably more attention. Skelton (1988) argues that epistemic comments are equally common in the art and sciences. Along the same line, Gosden (1990) report that writer's perception of uncertainly realized thought modality markers constitutes 7.6% of grammatical subjects in scientific research papers. More specifically, modals appear to be the typical means of marking epistemic comment in research papers: Adams Smith (1984) found that they make up 54% of all the forms used to denote epistemic modality; Butler (1990) state that they account for approximately words in every 100 in scientific articles; Hania and Akbar (1984) report that they make up 8.1% of all finite verbs (can and may being the most frequency); finally, modals were also found to constitute 27% of all lexical hedging devices in Hyland's (1994) corpus of biology articles.

## **2.4 Taxonomy of hedges**

Although not totally comprehensive or categorically watertight, the scheme below represents the most widely used hedging categories, at least in scientific English. Typically, hedging is expressed through the use of the following "strategic stereotypes" (Salager-Meyer, 1997: 109-110):

### **2.4.1 Modal Auxiliary Verbs**

Modal auxiliary verbs are the most straightforward and widely used means of expressing modality in English academic writing, the tentative ones being: *may, might, can, could, would, should*. For the examples:



- a. *Such a measure **might** be more sensitive to changes in the health after specialist treatment.*
- b. *Concerns that naturally low cholesterol levels **could** lead to increased mortality from other causes may well be unfounded. (Observed the cumulative hedging effect: the main and subordinate clauses are both hedged).*

#### 2.4.2 Modal Lexical Verbs

Modal lexical verbs also called “speech act verb” use to perform act such as doubting and evaluating rather than they merely describing. Of varying degree of illocutionary force, to seem, to appear (epistemic verbs), to believe, to assume, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate. Although a wide range of verbs can be used in this ways (Banks, 1994). Three tends to be a heavy reliance on the above-mentioned examples especially in academic writing for example:

- a. *Our analyses **suggest** that high doses of the drug can lead to relevant blood pressure reduction. (Here too we have a cumulative hedging effect).*
- b. *These results **indicate** that the presence of large vessel peripheral arterial disease may reflect a particular susceptibility to the development of atherosclerosis. (Same cumulative hedging effect as above).*
- c. *In spite of its limitations our study **appears** to have a number of important strengths.*

#### 2.4.3 Adjectival, Adverbial, and Nominal Modal Phrases

These forms of hedges include probability adjectives: e.g. Possible, probable, un/likely, nouns: e.g., assumption, claim, possibility, estimation, suggestion, and adverb which could be considered as non-verbal nouns: e.g., perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, virtually, apparently. Example:

- a. Septicaemia is **likely** to result, which might threaten his life.
- b. **Possibly** the setting of the neural mechanisms responsible for this sensation is altered in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome.
- c. This is **probably** due to the fact that Greenland Eskimos consume diets with a high content of fish.

#### 2.4.4 Approximates of degree, quantity, frequency and time

These can be realized through for example, approximately, roughly, about, often, occasionally, generally, usually, somewhat, somehow and a lot of. Example:

- a. Fever is present in **about** a third of cases and sometimes there is neutropenia.
- b. Persistent subjective fatigue **generally** occurs in relative isolation.

#### 2.4.5 Introductory phrases

Introductory phrases can be realized through phrases such as I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that, which express the authors personal doubt and direct involvement. Example:

- a. **We believe** that the chronic fatigue syndrome reflects a complex interaction of several factors. There is no simple explanation.
- b. **To our knowledge** your answer is not right.

#### 2.4.6 If clauses

This is usually realized through the use of following phrases if true and if anything. Example:

- a. **If true** then our study contradicts the myth that fishing attracts the bravest and strongest men.

### 2.4.7 Compound hedges

These are phrases made up of several hedges, the commonest forms being: A modal auxiliary combined with a lexical verb with a hedging content (e.g., it would appear) and a lexical verb followed by a hedging adverb or adjective where the adverb (or adjective) reinforces the hedge already inherent in the lexical verb (e.g., it seems reasonable/probable). Such compound hedges can be double hedges (it may suggest that; it seems likely that; it would indicate that; this probably indicates); treble hedges (it seems reasonable to assume that); quadruple hedges (it would seem somewhat unlikely that, it may appear somewhat speculative that), and so on. Example:

- a. *There are probably many Southeast Asia students who **would like to** study there, but who must choose Malaysia or Singapore instead for economic reasons.*
- b. *That **may seem** a lot to accomplish in our country.*

### 2.5 Four reasons for hedging

Hedges are used for some purposes here are four reasons for hedging based on the theory of salvager Myer:

#### 1. Minimizing the “threat-to-face”

Since a one of the functions of hedges is to minimize the thread-to-face, the theory of face threatening acts (FTSs) is very important to understand. The term ‘face’ in linguistics refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and maintaining that ‘self-esteem’ in publics or in private situations. Usually someone try to avoid embarrassing other person, or making them feels uncomfortable. In their book, politeness: Some Universal in Language Usage, Brown and Levinson (1987:67) explain the term face as follows:

Our notion of 'face' is derived from that of Goffman (1967) and from the English folk term, which ties face up with notions of being embarrassed or humiliated, or 'losing face'. Thus face is something that is emotionally invested and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction. In general, people cooperate (and assume each other's cooperation) and maintain face in interaction, such cooperation being based on the natural vulnerability.

Some acts which threaten a person's face are called face threatening acts (FTAs). FTAs are acts that infringe on the hearer's need to maintain his/her self-esteem, and be respected. Yule (1996:36) explained that in most circumstances a person will want to minimize that threat of such an act. A person may, equally, employ a face saving act. For example, if a neighbor is playing very loud music you might say, 'I am going to go and tell them to stop that noise right now, proposing a face threatening act which imposes on the neighbor choice and freedom to act as well as express no closeness or solidarity. Your partner however, might propose a 'face saving act' by saying, 'Perhaps you could just ask them if they are going to stop soon because it is getting late and people need to get to sleep'. Brown and Levinson (1987:68) also explained.

## 2. Being a way of being more precise in reporting results

Salager-Meyer and Banks claim that the exclusive association of hedges with evasiveness can obscure some important functions of hedging, and that expressing a lack of certainty does not necessarily show confusion or vagueness. Indeed one could consider hedges as ways of being more precise in reporting results. Hedging may present the true state of the writer's understanding and may be used to negotiate an accurate representation of the state of the knowledge under discussion.

In fact, an academic writer may well wish to reduce the strength of claims simply because stronger statements would not be justified by the

experimental data presented. In such cases, researchers are not saying less than what they mean but are rather saying precisely what they mean by not overstating their experimental result. Being too certain can often be unwise, academics want their readers to know that they do not claim to have the final word on the subject, choosing instead to remain vague in their statements. Hedges then are not a cover-up tactic, but rather a resource used to express some fundamental characteristics of modern science (uncertainty, skepticism and doubt) which reveal the probabilistic nature science started acquiring during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. (During the 17<sup>th</sup> and the 18<sup>th</sup> centuries and the first half of the close inter-connection between different scientific fields, no scientist can possibly claim to wholly master the field of knowledge of a given discipline. The seem/suggest combination of the example above could display the speaker's genuine uncertainty and thus allow him to offer a very precise statement about the extent of his confidence (or lack thereof) in the truth of the propositional information he presented.

### 3. Being positive or negative politeness strategies

According to Brown and Levinson, politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearer's 'face'. In other words, politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with these FTAs. Brown and Levinson in Paltridge (2000:49) also state that politeness is based on the notions of positive and negative face. The definitions of both faces are stated as follows:

Positive face refers to a person's need to be accepted, or liked, by others, and to be treated as a member of a group knowing that their wants are shared by others. Negative face refers to a person's need to be independent and not be imposed on by others. Myers (1989) argues that hedges are better understood as positive or negative politeness strategies, i.e., as sophisticated rational strategies used to mitigate two central

positions expressed in scientific writing to present claim (or findings) pending acceptance by the international scientific community, and to deny claims and to make a claim is to try to impose one's opinions on other. The author are usually presenting a claim to the scientific community while trying to convince their readers of the relevance of their findings. But, in doing so, they remain somewhat vague because they cannot claim to have final word on the subject. In the social interaction involved in all scientific publishing, hedges permit academics to present their claims while simultaneously presenting themselves as the "humble servants of the scientific community" (Myers, 1989:4). As soon as a claim becomes part of the literature, it is then possible to refer to it without any hedging, as the following example illustrates.

*Influenza is the most important viral infection of the respiratory tract.*

Thus because new result or conclusion have to be thoughtfully fit in to existing literature, hedging is not simply a prudent insurance against overstating an assertion, but also a rational interpersonal strategy which both support the writer's position and builds writer-reader (speaker/listener) relationship. A hedged comment could reflect a polite and diplomatic disagreement or it might also display genuine uncertainty on the speaker's part (definition 2).

4. Conforming to an established writing style.

Banks (1994) argues that a certain degree of hedging has become conventionalized, i.e., that the function of hedges is not necessarily to avoid face-threatening acts (definition No. 1), but simply to conform to an established writing style. This established style of writing arose as a consequence of the combination of the needs and stimuli mentioned in definition 1, 2, and 3 above. A totally unhedged style would not be considered seriously by journal editors.

It should be made clear at this stage that it is difficult to be sure in any particular instance which of the four above-mentioned concepts is intended nor need we assume that the authors of hedged utterances always know why they hedge their statements in the first place. (Salager-Meyer, 1994) stated that hedges are the first and foremost the product of a mental attitude and decisions about the function of span of language are bound to be subjective.

## **2.6 Short story**

According to Marilyn Singer a short story is in some ways, like a photograph, a captured moment of time that is crystalline, thought something mysterious, arresting, though perhaps delicate. But while a photograph may or may not suggest consequences, a short story always does. In the story moment of time something important, something irrevocable has occurred. The change may be subtle or obvious but it is definite and definitive. The short story usually concerned with a single effect conveyed in only one or a few significant scenes. The short story was not generally regarded as a distinct literary form, as a genre the short story received relatively little critical attention through the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and the most valuable studies of the form were often limited by region or era. The short story focused on techniques of writing. There are many of the best technical works for creating the short story, advise the young reader, alerting the reader to the variety of devices by their skill writer especially in the short story. On the other hand many of these works are no more than treatises on how to make a short story.

### **2.6.1 Short story as a part of Literary Genres**

Literature as the core of artistic writing always becomes the object of analysis or research for those related to the scope of academics. The analysis of the literature can be very wide then the people attempt to analyze it through its genres.

Usually, many people know that literature genres can be divided into three parts, they are: poetry, prose and drama. But it not to be proper a references in scientific analysis, since the division does not cover all forms of literary genres universally. According to Edgar V. Roberts (Roberts, 1995:2); “literature may be classified into four categories or genres, there are prose fiction, poetry, drama and notification prose. Usually the first three are classed as imaginative literature”.

Based on the quotation above, the literary genres can be divided into four genres; there are prose fiction, poetry, drama and notification prose.

The object of the study in this thesis, the prose fiction itself, has some sub genres, just as stated by Edgar V. Raberts (Roberts, 1995:2). There are prose, fiction, narrative fiction, includes myths, parables, romances, novels, and short stories. While the complete division of prose fictions genres as stated by Richard Taylor (Taylor, 1981:41). “There are a great many subdivisions of narrative fiction, but they group themselves roughly into antique or outmoded forms: the folk tale, epic, romance, allegory and satire on the one hand and contemporary forms: the short story and the novel on the other”.

Shortly, Richard Taylor devides the prose fiction into seven sub divisions; there are the folk tale, epic, romance, allegory and satire, novel and short story. Through the quotation above, it is known that the prose fiction is divided into some sub divisions one of them is the short story.

### **2.6.2 The definition and characteristics of short story**

Short story as a part of the prose fictions genres can be defined as the prose fictions works that may be read in a brief time. This according Edgar Allan Poe who states that the short story has the ‘unity of effect or impression’ was of prime importance, and this unity could be obtained only in works that could be read at one sitting (Stone, 1976:5). According to Poe’s definition, the short story also has unique characteristics. One of them is the



'unity of effect and impression'. This unity also becomes the factor that distinguishes the short story with other prose fiction genres especially with the novel.

The definition of the short story based on the time of reading it, it also enough to describe the short story. Edgar V. Roberts in literature: Introduction to reading and writing (Robert, 1995:1707) defines that the story, "A compact, concentrated work of narrative fiction that may also contain description dialogue, and commentary. Poe used the term 'brief prose tale' for the short story, and emphasized that it should create a major, unified impact".

While Richard Taylor (Taylor, 1981:48) also defined that "The short story, on the other hand, is particularly modern conception and did not gain recognition as an important literary form until the last half of the nineteenth century. It is similar to the novel in all characteristics except that it limits itself to a single, complete episode and makes up in comprehension and intensity for what it lacks in scope and breadth of vision. The short story is an outgrowth of the modern concern for the examination of artistic material and form. In it we see the basic unit or building block of the novel isolated for examination.