

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this second chapter some based theories is explained more clearly for supporting data analysis in this research. The theories used in this research are Language as a means of communication, Spoken and written language, Pragmatics, Development of the term hedges, Hedges by Lakoff ( 1972 ) and Halliday ( 1994 ), Taxonomy of hedges by Salager and Meyer ( 1997 ), four reasons for hedging by Salager - Myer, Hedges by Iragiliati ( 2007 ), and Gossip.

#### 2.1 Language as a means of communication

People use language to communicate with others. It means that language is used as a means of communication. Communication takes place when a move made by a participant gets a response from the other participant. In communication, people use language to convey information and to lead each other toward an interpretation of meanings and intentions. In other words language is used as a medium of communication. In relation to this, Ventola (1979:267) states that :

Language as a means of communication can be used not only for the transmission of informative messages but also for establishing and maintaining contact between people. Establishing and maintaining social relationships with others are very needed. Everyday people express their social function of language when they interact casually with one another.

From Ventola's statement above there is a fact that language is used as means for people to conduct their social interaction. It is clear that in communication there is an exchange of meaning among the interactants. They construe their experiences in meaning and communicate it to each other through language. Here, language plays an important role to present the meaning above. In communication language is dividing in two kind of language form, there are spoken and written language.

## 2.2 Spoken and written language

Spoken language is not the same as written one. They have different characteristic features. Since this study focuses on the students' writings that is written language, it is important to know the differences between spoken and written language. Gerot and Wignell (1994:158) say that spoken and written language differ in a number of ways. Written language is not simply speech written down. Speaking and writing are manifestations of the same linguistic system but in general they encode meaning in different ways because they have evolved to serve different purposes.

The term "written language" does not only refer to language which is written down. Likewise the term "spoken language" does not only refer to language which is said aloud. For example if someone reads an academic paper aloud, the features of the language are more like those of written language than spoken language. Similarly if we transcribe language, the written down version has more in common with spoken language than it does with written. What is at issue here is not just the medium through which language is transmitted but, more importantly, the way meanings are encoded. The key register here is the mode and the key difference between spoken and written language is the relationship between language in the context of speaking (or writing).

Eggins (1994:57) mentions the differences between spoken and written language as shown in table 2.1 :

Table 2.1 Characteristic Features of Spoken and Written Language

<b>SPOKEN LANGUAGE</b>	<b>WRITTEN LANGUAGE</b>
Turn-taking organization	Monologic organization
Context dependent	Context independent
Dynamic structure - interactive staging - open-ended	Synoptic structure - rhetorical staging - closed, finite
Spontaneous phenomena (false start, hesitations, interruptions, overlap, incomplete clauses)	"Final draft" (polished) indications of earlier drafts removed

Everyday lexis	“Prestige” lexis
Non-standard grammar	Standard grammar
Grammatical complexity	Grammatical simplicity
Lexically sparse	Lexically dense

Source: (Eggins,1994:57)

From the two dimensions of mode above, the basic contrast between spoken and written language can be characterized. The situations where spoken language is used typically interactive situations, i.e. our stretch of talk organized turn by turn. The speakers keep taking turns by certain mechanism. On the other hand, this kind of turn-by-turn sequencing of talk is not found in any written language.

Spoken language is typically more dependent on its context than written language is. In contrast, written language tends to be more independent of its immediate context. Spoken language is context dependent because we are usually in the same place at the same time when we talk to each other, our language can depend in part on the context. We will be able to interpret the pronoun or demonstrative from the on-going context we share. On the other hand, a written language needs to stand more or less by itself. It needs to be context independent. We 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. Written language, however, will be organized synoptically because it is intended to encode our reflections on a topic. Spoken language contains spontaneity phenomena such as hesitation, false starts, repetitions, interruptions etc, while written language usually doesn't have such features. Spoken language usually uses everyday language lexis such as slang, and doesn't follow the standard grammar, but written language usually uses more prestigious vocabularies and uses standard grammar. Spoken language has a 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.

Written language/text generally has a much higher lexical density than spoken language. The lexical density of the text can be calculated by expressing the number of content words in a text/ sentence as a proportion of all the words in the text/sentence.

Language can also be the tool which can deliver the meaning of the message from the message sender to the receiver. Meaning is explained more clearly in the study of pragmatic.

### **2.3 Pragmatics**

Based on George Yule pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker ( or writer ) and interrupted by a listener ( or reader ). It has consequently, more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves. Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning.

This type of study necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in in a particular context and how the context influences what is said. It requires a consideration of how speakers organize what they want to say in accordance with who they're talking to, where, when, and under what circumstances. Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning.

This 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 undsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated. We might say that it is the investigation of invisible meaning. Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said

This perspective then raises the question of what determines the choice between the said and the undsaid. 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 speaker

determine how much needs to be said. Pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance.

## **2. 4 Development of the Term 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 concerned 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 Lakoff'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 Vandekoppe'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 Skelton remarks, hedges can be viewed as part of the larger phenomenon called commentative potentials of any language.

Research on LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) 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 one's 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 linguistic features which have received considerably more attention. Skelton (1988) argues that epistemic comments are equally common in the arts and sciences, occurring overall in between one third and one half of all sentences. Along the same lines, Gosden (1990) reports that writer's

perception of uncertainty realized through 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% all of the forms used to denote epistemic modality; Butler (1990) states that they account for approximately 1 word in every 100 in scientific articles; Hanania and Akhtar (1984) report that they make up 8.1% all of finite verbs (can and may being the most frequent); finally, modals were also found to constitute 27% of all lexical hedging devices in Hyland's (1994) corpus of biology articles.

## **2.5 Hedges**

Lakoff ( 1972 : 54 ) states that hedges is words whose job it is to make things more or less fuzzy. Halliday ( 1994 : 54 ) refers to modality as the area of meaning that lies between yes and no", taking in either yes or no and both yes and no. because judgements about truth and falsehood, certainly and doubt, probability and possibility play such an important role in our lives, they allow a wide range of lexical, grammatical, and strategic realisations. There are enormous number of ways writers can signal tentative assessments of referential information, and a variety of reasons for doing so, therefore it is worth making the obvious point that hedges represented by surface phenomena of texts and we require their presence to detect the function. The most apparently categorical statement may draw on participant understanding to convey attitudes about its content or readers, but we are able to say little about this without linguistic confirmation.

## **2.6 Taxonomy of hedges**

Typically, hedging is expressed through the use of the following "strategic stereotypes" (Salager-Meyer, 1997: 109-110) :

## 1. Modal auxiliary verbs

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

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

## 2. Modal lexical verbs

Modal lexical verb (or so called “speech act verb” used 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 way (Banks, 1994), there 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.

- d. Without specific training, medical students' communication skills **seem** to decline during medical training.

### 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, estimate, suggestion, and adverbs (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.

### 4. Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time

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

### 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 author's 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.

## 6. if clauses

This is usually realized through the use of the following phrases: **if true, if anything,**

for example:

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

## 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, for 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.

## **2.7 Four reasons for hedging**

Here are four reasons for hedging based on the theory of Salager-Myer:

### **1. Minimize the “threat-to-face”**

Since one of the functions of hedges is to minimize the threat-to-face, the theory of Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) 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 public or in private situations. Usually someone try to avoid embarrassing other person, or making them feels uncomfortable.

### **2. Be 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 writers“ understanding and may be used to negotiate an accurate representation of the state of the knowledge under discussion.

### **3. Be positive or negative politeness strategies**

According to Brown and Levinson, politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearers' "face." In other words, politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with these FTA's. 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 face is 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.

#### 4. Conform 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.

#### 2.8 Hedges by Irigiliati ( 2007 : 107 )

Another research on hedge in EAP Medical was conducted by Irigiliati (2007). Irigiliati (2007: 107) in her article medical discourse, also discussing about hedging, she stated the types of hedges as **lexical verbs, adverbials, words that convey the truth of a statement, modal verbs, adjectives, modal nouns, the use of empathics, and strong words.**

##### 1. Lexical Verbs (**Indicate, Appear, And Propose**)

Example :

- a. she **appears** to be more silent these days.
- b. The committee **proposed** the Jury to give the verdict.
- c. She **indicated** that the problem was serious

##### 2. Adverbials (**Quite, Almost, And Usually**)

Example :

- a. the movie is **quite** interesting
- b. she has **almost** finished
- c. they are **usually** placed either after the main verb or after the object

##### 3. Words That Convey The Truth Of A Statement (**Probably, Generally, Evidently**)

Example:

- a. he will **probably** remember tomorrow

b. **generally**, you can break up the sentences using the full stop at the end of a logical and complete thought that looks and sounds right to you.

c. The enormous study was so full of things **evidently** in constant use.

#### 4. Modal Verbs (**Would**)

Example :

If I were elected president next year, I **would** cut the cost of education.

#### 5. Adjectives (**Likely And Most**)

Example:

a. Janus is **most likely** in the group to commit crime because Janus has a history of mania

#### 6. Modal Nouns (**Possibility, Assumption, And Estimate**)

Example :

a. In Mexico human sacrifices were very common; the lowest **estimate** is 20,000 annually.

b. The **possibility** of escape was nil so secure was our twelve foot square cell.

c. Seem, however, to warrant us in making the **assumption** that it was.

#### 7. The Use Of Emphatics (**Of Course, Clearly, Obviously, Definitely**)

Example :

a. He was right, **of course**, but his harsh words were like salt on a raw wound.

b. His gaze was **clearly** focused on her half exposed breasts.

c. It was **obviously** strange to her to think that this stern handsome man should be Andrusha- the slender mischievous boy who had been her

d. This **definitely** the same guy that killed the Delaware girl we nearly caught.

## 8. Strong Words (**Significant, Substantial, And Powerful**).

Example :

- a. it must had a **significant** price since it was surrounded by so many diamonds !
- b. This structurally facilitated a **substantial** expansion in the role of government
- c. The dark one is the most **powerful**, and the grows more so, as the population of the worlds increase.

## 2.9 Gossip

According to meriam webster dictionary, the simple definition of gossip is the information about the behavior and personal lives. Beside meriam webster dictionary, some competents have their own gossip definition.

According to Gerot and Wignell ( 1994 ), gossip does not only give information to the reader as the social function of information news genre, but also gives opinion within the text, similar to the social function of exposition, discussion, or narrative genre.

An interesting counterpoint to the gossipviolates-privacy charge was articulated by Schoeman (1994). He argued that gossip, far from violating privacy, is in fact consistent with privacy norms because it attenuates direct and public conflict. People usually know they are being (or will be) talked about when deviating from norms: "We all fully expect to be discussed by others who know us, with no sense of impropriety" (Schoeman, 1994, p. 80), even if we prefer not to be. Gossip provides the offended with a subtle way to pressure the offender. A public figure, for instance, may capitulate to gossip for a transgression, yet be relieved that the affair did not "get into the papers." (In the case of positive gossip about a person, the gossiper is spared being obsequious while buoying the target's reputation with a "third-party endorsement".

Rosnow ( 2001, p203) said, There is no denying that gossip, like rumor, "can steal illusions, wreck relationships, and stirup a cauldron of trouble".

Stirling in 1956, remarked upon gossip as socially beneficial in that it facilitates information flow, provides recreation, and strengthens control sanctions, thereby creating group solidarity.

It also can be “an outlet for hostile aggression” (Stirling, 1956, p. 263). Stirling thus implied the four social functions of gossip encountered repeatedly in gossip literature in the years since her article: information, entertainment, friendship (or intimacy), and influence.

First, as a mechanism of information exchange, gossip is frequently described as an efficient and, at times, exclusive means of gathering or disseminating information.

Second, Gossip as entertainment can be readily inferred by observing conversationalists passing the time gossiping.

Third, The friendship or intimacy function of gossiping refers both to dyadic interchanges and to the way in which gossip brings groups together through the sharing of norms, thereby establishing boundaries to distinguish insiders from outsiders.

Fourth, Establishing friendship at the dyadic or group level is closely related to boundary enforcement and gossip’s influence function, widely discussed by gossip writers. As a means of corralling (or expelling) the wayward and eccentric, gossip is acknowledged to be an efficient social mechanism. The aim of gossip could be either to reform or to stigmatize the sinner.

