

GENDER AND HEDGING: TRANSLATIBILITY OF DIFFERENCE IN AGATHA
CHRISTIE'S THIRD GIRL

by

Haya H. Alajmi

A Thesis Presented to the Faculty of the
American University of Sharjah
College of Arts and Sciences
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Master of Arts in
Translation and Interpreting (English/Arabic/English) (MATI)

Sharjah, United Arab Emirates

February 2015

© 2015 Haya H. Alajmi. All rights reserved.

Acknowledgements

Special thanks and appreciation go to Dr. Said Faiq, my thesis supervisor, for his fruitful guidance, effective support, endless patience and kindness. It has been such a great honor to be one of his students. I have learnt a lot from him, especially in the fields of cultural studies and interpreting and I am truly grateful for that.

I am really thankful and grateful to Dr. Basil Hatim, whose wide knowledge has helped and inspired me to use critical thinking in my studies. I do appreciate everything he has done to enrich my experience. Special thanks and gratitude also go to Dr. Ahmed Ali. It was an honor to have my first MATI class with him. I do still remember how valuable and enjoyable all the discussion my colleagues and I used to have in his courses. I also thank Dr. Sattar Izwaini for the course I took with him.

Finally, no words can express my appreciation, gratitude and thanks to all the people who have helped me get through this experience. Though I was away from home, my mother, sisters, brothers and friends have been such a great motivation to make me carry on and overcome all difficulties I faced on my way. This thesis would not have been completed without their love, support and encouragement.

Approval Signatures

We, the undersigned, approve the Master's Thesis of Haya, H. AlAjmi

Thesis Title: Gender and Hedging: Translatability of Difference in Agatha Christie's Third Girl

Signature Date of Signature
(dd/mm/yyyy)

Dr. Said Faiq

Professor

Thesis Advisor

Dr. Basil Hatim

Professor

Thesis Committee Member

Dr. Ahmed Ali

Assistant Professor

Thesis Committee Member

Dr. Ronak Husni

Head of Arabic and Translation Studies Department

Dr. Pia Anderson

CAS Graduate Programs Director

Dr. Mahmoud Anabtawi

Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences

Dr. Khaled Assaleh

Director of Graduate Studie

Dedication

To mother and father (may his soul rest in peace).

Abstract

As a linguistic tool, hedging has been examined by logicians and scholars to explore the vagueness and imprecision it creates in discourse. Generally, men are said to be more accurate, precise, assertive and confident in their use of language, while women tend to lack confidence and as such hedge more. Further, women hedge for socio-emotional functions, while men use hedging, when they do, for epistemic functions. This debate notwithstanding, hedging may be a problematic issue in translation due to its ambiguity. Translators often adopt literal translation to maintain the stylistic form of hedging neglecting along the way the communicative value that highlights the difference created by gender in hedging. The aim of this thesis, therefore, is to investigate these hypotheses by assessing the translator's amendments to achieve the desired effect intended by hedging in the source text. The thesis examines how hedges were handled in the Arabic translation by Al-ajyal publishers (2005) of Agatha Christie's *Third Girl* (1966). The thesis concludes that women, perhaps contrary to received wisdom, are more assertive, yet facilitative in their communication and use few hedges. Yet, the translation adopts literal translation and deletion as the most frequent strategies in rendering hedges. Literal translation is not the best strategy to preserve the epistemic functions of hedges. Also, it fails to maintain the socio-emotional functions. It would ruin the intended meaning the author intended in the source text.

Search Terms: Gender, hedging, epistemic, socio-emotional, mixed-sex groups, literal translation, communicative translation, skopos.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	3
List of Tables	9
List of Figures	10
Chapter One: Introduction	11
Chapter Two: Gender in Language	14
2.1 Genderlect	14
2.2 Social and Cultural Verities in Gender Speech	16
2.2.1 Minimal Responses	17
2.2.2 Questions	17
2.2.3 Conversational Turn Taking	18
2.2.4 Verbal Aggression	18
2.2.5 Politeness	19
2.3 Language and Translation	20
2.4 Major Issues in Translation	21
2.4.1 Literal Translation	25
2.4.2 Free Translation	26
2.5 Skopos Theory and Translation	27
Chapter Three: Gender and Hedging	29
3.1 Hedging	29
3.2 Definitions	30
3.3 Hedging Devices	31
3.3.1 Modal Auxiliaries	31
3.3.2 Introductory Verbs	33
3.3.3 Probability Adjectives and Adverbs	33
3.3.4 Frequency Adverbs	33
3.4 Hedging Functions	34
3.5 Hedging and Pragmatics	37
3.6 Relevance Theory	39
3.7 Gender and Hedging	41
3.8 Epistemic and Socio-emotional Functions in Gender	42
3.9 Gender and Hedging in Genre	43
Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Discussion	46
4.1 Data	46

4.2 Methodology	47
4.3 Analysis	48
4.4 Discussion	63
Chapter Five: Conclusion	70
References	72
Vita	79

List of Tables

Table 1: Hedging devices functions.....	34
Table 2: Approximators and shields tools	35
Table 3: Male characters hedging	49
Table 4: Female characters hedging	56
Table 5: Frequency of using hedges in male/female dialogues	64

List of Figures

Figure 1: Frequency of using hedging	65
Figure 2: Male/Female frequency of hedging tools	66
Figure 3: Functions of hedging use.....	67
Figure 4: Frequency of translation strategies	68

Chapter One: Introduction

In its written and spoken modes, language is an effective means of human communication where different identities, cultures and ideologies are revealed and expressed. Since communication between different nations and languages is norm, the need for translation becomes an important requirement for many purposes and different texts. According to Catford (1965) "translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another" (p.1). Thus and for centuries, scholars and theorists have developed various theories and methods to demonstrate the most appropriate approaches to facilitate communication through translation process.

According to Newmark (1988), "there is no such an ideal or perfect translation" (p. 6), but there is the possibility of producing a satisfactory translation. Unfortunately, this view is not accepted by most professional translators, who seek to produce a high level of naturalness in the target text (TT). Newmark further states:

A translator works on four levels: translation is first a science, which entails the knowledge and verification of the facts and the language that describes them—here, what is wrong, mistakes of truth, can be identified; secondly, it is a skill, which calls for appropriate language and acceptable usage; thirdly, an art, which distinguishes good from undistinguished writing and is the creative, the intuitive, sometimes the inspired, level of the translation; lastly, a matter of taste, where argument ceases, preferences are expressed, and the variety of meritorious translations is the reflection of individual differences. (1988, p. 6)

Newmark stresses the essential role of translators to produce a successful and natural transition of the source text (ST), and always try to extend their knowledge and experience for the sake of improving their skills to transfer information in multilingual communication contexts.

Because it involves language, translation deals with various linguistic and syntactic characteristics of different cultures. Some are rendered very easily, but others may cause complications in the translation process. Hedging is one of the linguistic characteristics that cause problems for translators. Hedges are considered as rhetoric expressions used in a proposition, which add a state of vagueness and fuzziness that

would affect the truthfulness of a statement. These devices include many linguistic features such as modal auxiliary verbs, introductory verbs, possibility adverbs, possibility adjectives and If clauses. The main function of using these devices is to express a lack of confidence and show a sense of unassertiveness in the proposition. In literary texts, such as fiction, hedging is expressed through dialogues and conversations. Since conversation can exist in same-sex groups and mixed-sex groups, hedging is expressed differently by men and women due to certain functions, which, consequently, show a difference in the use of this language phenomenon across genders. In this case, translation would be a double-edged weapon, especially, when it deals with hedging as a device that expresses different functions for different genders. The translator's role here is to show this difference to save the pragmatic function by focusing on the implicit message of a hedge.

Within this context, the aim of this thesis is to examine different hedging devices used by both men and women and the functional purposes, epistemic and socio-emotional functions of using hedges. For this purpose, the thesis assesses the strategies employed in handling examples of hedging in the Arabic translation by Al-ajjal publishing house (2005) of Agatha Christie's novel *Third Girl* (1966).

The thesis is divided into five chapters, including this introductory chapter. Chapter two explores the relation between language and gender by reviewing the notion of genderlect and the frequent linguistic differences between men and women in communicative interactions. It also provides a selected review of the most common translation strategies that are used by translators based on a cultural perspective.

Chapter three starts by discussing hedging in details. It provides the main definitions of hedging and identifies the devices and categories of hedging. The chapter ends with an examination of how hedging in literary discourse.

Chapter four investigates Agatha Christie's novel *Third Girl*. It starts by briefly discussing discourse analysis and its relevance to the functional assessment. It then focuses on the importance of hedging and its distinction by gender. The chapter also discusses the role of the translator in rendering hedges by both men and women to hopefully reveal the implicit purpose behind the original use of hedges. The chapter then presents the methodology, data analysis and a discussion of the use of hedging

devices, functions expressed by speakers and the strategies used in the translation to deal with these devices.

The final chapter summarizes the thesis and presents some recommendations about gender hedging and translation.

Chapter Two: Gender in Language

The chapter starts by presenting the theory of genderlect. It focuses on the different linguistic variations that distinguish male and female speech practices in various situations. The chapter also provides a review of the most relevant theories and strategies of translation.

2.1 Genderlect

Both the revolution of women's rights at the beginning of the 20th Century and the feminist movements of the 1970s of the last century have played an important role in constructing gender studies to examine men and women socially, politically, and linguistically. Many scholars have established various research projects in gender studies. Robin Lakoff and Janet Holmes, for example, were among the first who published a number of studies and are considered pioneers in this field.

When gender is analyzed in any context, "sex" as a term is always interfered, as they are both commonly perceived to serve as synonyms. According to the *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary* (2010), the definition of "gender" is "the state of being male or female or one of the categories (masculine, feminine, and neuter) into which words (such as nouns, adjectives, and pronouns) are divided in many languages", whereas "sex" is defined as "the state of being male or female".

The two definitions provided by the dictionary show no real distinctions except for the part of language in the definition of gender. However, some theorists believe that gender is a different notion and it is not a biological one at all. Butler (1990) proposes that there is "a radical discontinuity between sexed bodies and culturally constructed genders" (p. 6). That is, gender is a personal, social and cultural development of some repeated acts in one's life, done over time to produce appearance and interaction as well. In other words, gender is not a state acquired at a very early age once in life as some believe, but it is a continuous development produced by repeated actions in life. This implies a complete cultural involvement in forming the personal changes.

Some feminist and sociolinguistic scholars, working under the now-established rubric "gender studies", define the field as the area of studying and analyzing gender activity in terms of social representations, cultural interference and historical or religious influences. It also studies ethnicity, location and nationality in the fields of literature, language, politics, history, sociology, and media studies. The French feminist Simone de Beauvoir says in her book *The Second Sex* (1949), translated by (H.M. Parshely, 1989); "One is not born a woman, one becomes one" (1989, p vii). According to Beauvoir, one becomes "one" only under certain cultural conditions. This concept supports the idea of referring the term "gender" to both cultural and social structures of masculinism and feminism, not only of being male or female. Nonetheless, Beauvoir's notion was not fully supported. Butler (1990, p. 8) says:

There is nothing in her account that guarantees that the "one" who becomes a woman is necessarily female. If the body is a "situation", as she claimed, there is no resource to a body that has not been interpreted by cultural meaning; hence, sex could not qualify as a prediscursive anatomical facticity.

The important link between gender and language has grown in the fields of linguistics and sociolinguistics, so much so that a branch of language called "genderlect" has been established. The field of genderlect investigates the verities of speech as means of variable communication between genders. According to Lakoff, R. (1973), women experience their linguistic practices in two ways, "in the way others teach them to use language and the way how language use deals with them" (p. 46). This claim indicates that women are forced to act some certain subservient functions. It follows that there are lexical items for men and others for women. This is, mainly, due to cultural, social, historical and political influences that help create these linguistic boundaries in the way both genders communicate.

In 1990, Deborah Tannen published her theory on gender and language and their relation to culture. She established her theory "genderlect" to focus on how the two genders, male and female, communicate differently. She believes that men and women have different dialects, different linguistic concepts and different ways of communicative features in a cultural frame (Tannen, 1990). Thus, the theory of genderlect is presented to highlight these peculiarities. Genderlect, as defined in the *Free Online Dictionary* (2009), is "a variety of speech or conversational style used by

a particular gender". Tannen (1990) suggests that the goal of her theory is to recognize the language of the binary genders and to achieve a mutual respect and understanding during interactive communication.

2.2 Social and Cultural Verities in Gender Speech

The relation of culture and language is important in how we understand communicative ways of men, women, or even children, in different conditions and situations. Communicative interactions cannot be processed without a set of linguistic tools and devices that include words, phrases, sentences, dialect, body gestures, and intonations. All these are factors that shape a language regardless of gender variations. Faiq (2010) defines language as "no more than the combination of a good grammar book and a good dictionary" (p. 15). He bases his definition on how users use language and for what purposes. He believes that "use depends very much on the user, and language as a whole assumes its importance as the mirror for the ways a culture perceives reality, identity, self and others" (p. 15). Moreover, Senll-Hornby (1995), suggests that "language is not seen as an isolated phenomenon suspended in a vacuum but as an integral part of culture" (p. 39). That is, the role of culture is considered as the core principle that helps in developing a set of communicative norms. She states that Wilhelm von Humboldt is the one who made the connection between culture, language and behavior (Senll-Hornby, 1995, p. 40). In other words, language is something dynamic that can express culture and the individuality of language users of different genders, locations and minorities. Thus, the social and cultural structure influences linguistic patterns and individuals' behavior as well, leading to linguistic variations in the way men and women communicate and how they both deal with their surroundings in the daily life.

The factors of social class, race, location, religion, and ethnicity can help in creating differences in daily conversational speeches. Consequently, gender linguistic aspects will vary. The following aspects illustrate some areas where differences in male and female communication are detected:

2.2.1 Minimal Responses

Producing a response is one common way in the communicative behavior found in male and female speeches. In particular, when a person speaks, s/he expects to receive a response from the listener. This relationship between interlocutors can be processed in two ways. First, when it is delivered while one interlocutor is talking, and the second is delivered after the interlocutor finishes talking.

According to Reid (1992), minimal responses can be seen as verbal and non-verbal signs in a personal conversation. These signs, such as uh-uh, mmm, yeah, ohh or shaking the head, are used when the listener wants to show feedback in order to tell the speaker that the idea is understood. Both men and women employ these minimal responses in conversations to show the interactive function of communication rather than a specific gender function.

Minimal responses can serve two functions. First, to show a complete agreement or disapproval of what the speaker is saying, and the second to facilitate the conversation between the participants and to indicate the listener's attentiveness as a sign to carry on with the conversation. In research on language and gender, Maltz and Borker (1982) and Tannen (1990) indicate "that women and men have different functions of using minimal responses in which women use minimal responses to show a signal of support or active listening while men use them as a sign of agreement" (cited in Fellego, 1995, p. 186). Moreover, some research has found that women use minimal responses for facilitative purposes when conversing in groups of the same sex, but use them to show agreement as a function when conversing with male partners. On the other hand, men, whether in same or mixed groups, tend to use the same amount of facilitating and agreement functions of minimal responses.

2.2.2 Questions

In language, men and women have their different ways to ask questions in conversations. In general, men use questions as a request for gaining information. On the other hand, women tend to use questions as rhetorical means to engage others in a conversation or as a technique for acquiring attention. Tag questions follow declarative statements as in the following two examples:

- *You called me yesterday, **didn't** you?*
- *She is Sara, **isn't** she?*

Lakoff, R. (1973) believes that women's use of tag questions is due to their uncertainty and lack of confidence. As such, women try to avoid committing themselves when using tags. She assumes that this is a way that women use to avoid having conflict with the others, especially men with the aim of avoiding being seen unsure, weak or lacking confidence.

However, some scholars oppose Lakoff's Claim. Holmes (1995), for example, observes that women use a certain type of tags described as "positive tags". These tags are used to facilitate communication and show a sense of cooperativeness; whereas men tend to use tags but only to for epistemic meaning.

2.2.3 Conversational Turn Taking

Turn taking is a process when people, in a conversation, decide who speaks next. When it comes to male and female communicative interactions, it is claimed that men systematically tend to interrupt women in conversations. This means that men's dominance is the factor, which shapes conversations between speakers. This notion supports the point presented by Lakoff, R. (1973) about men's dominance and the powerless language of women. She believes that men are more dominant because they are physically powerful. Zimmerman and West (1975) agree with her. They have concluded that interruptions in same-sex conversation are few. However, they suggest that it comes to male-female interaction, "males assert an asymmetrical right to control topics and do so without evident representations" (Zimmerman and West, 1975, p. 124). That is, men interrupt more than women do in cross-sex conversations. As a result, they are more dominant in turn taking in mixed gender conversations.

Differences in gender turn taking are not constant. They, however, are related to the context of the speech. Furthermore, gendered features in conversational turn taking are the result of cultures that play an important role in shaping the reflection of gendered speech variations.

2.2.4 Verbal Aggression

Verbal abuse or aggression can be a very strong weapon used by either a man or a woman. This hateful action, known as reviling, is defined in *Merriam-Webster*

Online Dictionary (2010) as "to speak about (someone or something) in a very critical or insulting way or to subject to verbal abuse".

Biologically, women are weaker than men. Consequently, researchers indicate that women tend to use abusive language more than men. Whereas, men tend to use physical abuse more than women. However, Kathy Bosch (2007) indicates that both males and females tend to use the same amount of abusive language in their relationships. She believes that verbal aggression can be "sometimes disguised as "good natured" humor or "pet names". Some expressions such as "You fatty", "Hey jerk", "You're stupid" are used in daily conversations between friends, partners, sisters and brothers as accepted norms in language. As a result, people may feel comfortable using this kind of language, but the context will always determine appropriateness daily chats.

2.2.5 Politeness

Many cultures have different means for showing politeness and language is one of the best means to express it in communication. Politeness functions to show the speaker's admiration and respect reflecting the social status of both the speaker and the hearer in certain situations. Politeness is characterized as a particular good manner, body gesture, or an etiquette in a certain situation to construct a positive communicative interaction. In speech, politeness is identified by two kinds: negative and positive (Brown and Levinson 1978)

Positive politeness shows people's wish to be admired in their surroundings. Usually, speakers use this kind of communication to establish a positive relationship. On the other hand, negative politeness refers to one's wish to remain independent and free without practising any obligations. According to Lackoff, R. (1973) and Holmes (1995), women are more polite than men in both same-sex and mixed-sex interactions. Holmes bases this assumption on the perception of what language is used for. Men tend to use language as a means to send or obtain information, while women tend to use it to keep in touch with others in their surroundings. For instance, women receive compliments and regard them as effective signs in a dialogue. Men, on the other hand, oppose this notion of compliments appreciated by women, and consider it as an ambiguous action in conversation. For example:

1. **Female:** *I like your dress*
2. **Male:** *A good choice man*

In the first example, the female uses her way of expressing compliments to create a connection and to start a conversation. While in the second example, the man uses his way to create a connection, but to rather make an evaluative judgment on his friend's choice only.

According to Yule (2010), "face" is another relevant means of expressing politeness in a conversation. He defines politeness as "as showing awareness and consideration of another person's face" (p. 135). This definition implies the concept of negative and positive face and is called "face-threatening" or "face-saving" act (Yule 2010, p. 135).

Lakoff, R. (1973) claims that women use negative face more than men as a tool to express their disagreements with negative emotions because they use a powerless language. Yule (2010) describes the functions of using negative and positive faces concept. He states:

Negative face is the need to be independent and free from imposition. Positive face is the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group. So, a face-saving act that emphasizes a person's negative face will show concern about imposition (I'm sorry to bother you...; I know you're busy, but...). A face-saving act that emphasizes a person's positive face will show solidarity and draw attention to a common goal (Let's do this together...; You and I have the same problem. (p. 35)

He expresses the function of using a positive face in a conversation to stay connected with the other, while a negative face is used to show independency. In general, women's language always presents facilitative and communicative results unlike men who always feel dominant and keep away from impositions. So, women use positive face more when communicating with others.

2.3 Language and Translation

To establish cultural and linguistic contacts with others, translation, as a communicative process, remains almost the only channel. According to Roman Jakobson, translation is of three types: intralingual, interlingual and intersemiotic types. The first type makes changes and word replacements within the same language, the second one deals with two languages from different cultures by replacing a word from one language with another one in another language to give the same effect, and the last

type is a process for rendering non-verbal signs, or a "translation between two semiotic systems (a semiotic system being a system for communication" (Hervey and Higgins 2006, p. 7).

The dictionary meaning of translation as a term is "words that have been changed from one language into a different language" (*Mariam-Webster Online Dictionary*, 2010). Newmark (1988) describes translation as a process of "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text" (p. 5). This definition stresses the message that the author intends to send to the receiver, where the focus is mostly on establishing equivalence. However, translation "is not an abstract equivalence game, divorced from real people's actions in a social context" (Robinson, 1997, p. 25). Hatim and Munday (2004) consider translation as "a phenomenon that has a huge effect on everyday life" (p. 3). This coincides with Robinson's notion of translation that focuses not only on the object that should be rendered as an equivalent, but also on the effect of translation as a product. Translation is seen here as the whole process that covers linguistic, cultural, and political requirements in life.

2.4 Major Issues in Translation

When we think about the history of translation, we should point out to the theories that differ as a result of the historical era, political states, cultures and the nature of languages. The birth of translation dates back to the days of the Romans. Jacobsen claims that this domain is a Roman invention and the difference between word-for-word and sense-for-sense was established in the days of the Roman system of translation, and that the debate about these two dichotomies has continued in one way or another up to the present time. He points out that both Cicero and Horace, the first theorists in the first century BC, had a great influence on Western translation studies (cited in Bassnett, 2002, pp.47-51).

Later, Bible translation marked a turning point in translation studies. According to Munday (2001), the approach of "St. Jerome, fourth century CE, in translating the Greek Septuagint Bible into Latin would affect the latter translations of the Scriptures" (p.7). In other words, this helped to establish the ground for contradictory ideologies in

the Western part of Europe, especially the Reformulation period in the sixteenth century (Munday, 2001, p. 7).

During the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, translation studies has developed and often competing theories were formulated. For example, John Dryden (1631-1700) established three basic types of the translation process, or types:

- 1) metaphrase or word for word and line by line, from one language into another
- 2) paraphrase or translation with latitude, or sense-for-sense translation
- 3) imitation or when the translator abandons the text of the original as he sees fit (Bassett, 2002, p. 66)

The volume of Alexander Fraser Tytler, *The Principles of Translation* (1791) was pioneer in a period that considered translators as artists who were faithful to the source text of the author and to the receiver at the same time. He sets up three basic principles. They are:

- 1) the translation should give a complete transcript of the idea of the original work
- 2) the style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original
- 3) the translation should have all the ease of the original composition (Bassett, 2002, p. 69).

The era of Romanticism in the nineteenth century led to a contradiction between English and German theorists in viewing the translation process, especially in the domain of literature. They both debated how to explain the process of translation, whether as a creative or a mechanical initiative (Bassett, 2002, p. 70).

She states:

In England, Coleridge (1772–1834) in his *Biographia Literaria* (1817) outlined his theory of the distinction between Fancy and Imagination, asserting that Imagination is the supreme creative and organic power, as opposed to the lifeless mechanism of Fancy. This theory has affinities with the theory of the opposition of mechanical and organic form outlined by the German theorist and translator, August Wilhelm Schlegel (1767–1845) in his *Vorlesungen über*

dramatische Kunst und Literatur, (1809) translated into English in 1813. (Bassentt, 2002, p.70)

The second half of the twentieth century witnessed a considerable explosion of many theories and models of translation. Theorists such as Koller, Catford, Nida and Newmark were pioneers for their theories in the linguistic models of translation. On the other hand, the communicative approach in translation was led by Reiss, Nord and Vermeer. In the 1990s, theorists like Bassenett and Lefevere presented the cultural shift in translation studies.

Since translation is tied to different languages as a mediator between two cultures, linguistic equivalence, either formal or dynamic, has dominated translation studies. Eugene Nida was among the first theorist to distinguish between formal and dynamic equivalence. He defines formal equivalence as the one which "focuses attention on the message itself, in both formal and content One is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible to the different elements in the source language" (cited in Munday, 2001, p. 41). While dynamic equivalence, on the other hand, "is based on the principle of equivalent effect, where the relationship between the receptor and message should substantially be the same as that which existed between the original receptor and the message"(cited in Munday, 2001, p. 42).

Moreover, Catford presented a further type of equivalence, namely textual. He presents a differentiation in use between textual equivalence and formal correspondence. He states:

The formal equivalence is any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text. A formal correspondent, on the other hand, is any TL category (unit, class, structure, element of structure, ect.) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the 'same' place in the 'economy' of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL. (Catford, 1965, p. 27)

This means that formal correspondence results in textual equivalence, which is achieved by "translation shifts". These shifts include unit, structure, class and level shifts (Catford, 1965, p. 73).

In his book, *A Textbook of Translation* (1988), Newmark differentiates between eight methods of translation: word-for-word, literal, faithful, free, semantic, idiomatic, communicative, and adaptation (pp. 45-47). The most remarkable ones are communicative and semantic translation methods, which match Nida's dynamic and formal types of equivalence.

Vinay and Darbelnet also identify some translation strategies. In their book, *Comparative Stylistics of French and English* (1995), they distinguish between two major types of translation: direct and oblique. Direct translation includes literal translation, borrowing and calque, while oblique translation includes modulation, transposition, adaptation and equivalence (Munday, 2001, pp.56-58).

The 1970s and 1980s witnessed a move from linguistic approaches to translation to the beginning of functionalist and communicative approaches to translation analysis (Munday, 2001, p 73). Reiss' communicative approach is based on the categorization of functions by the German theorist Karl Bühler, namely informative, expressive and operative. She links three purposes to the language dimensions and text types in which they are used: logic for the informative, aesthetic for the expressive and dialogic for the operative. Then, she recognizes a fourth type, which is an audiomedial text, such as films, and written and spoken media that supplement three functions (Munday, 2001, p 73).

In the 1970s, *skopos* was introduced by Vermeer as a term for the purpose or function of translation. In his theory, Vermeer focuses on the method of translation that determines suitable strategies for producing functionality (Munday, 2001, p. 79). As for the text analysis, Nord presents two types of translation: documentary translation, in which the receiver is fully aware of the translation presented, and instrumental translation, which provides the receiver with a natural text without the awareness of the translation itself (Munday, 2001, pp. 81-82). As for discourse analysis, Hatim and Mason (1990) developed a model that focuses on the pragmatic and semiotic features, paying more attention to the ideational and interpersonal functions of discourse in translation (Munday, 2001, p. 99). Bassent and Levefere focus on the interaction and interference of culture in translation, and thus "they move the translation as a text to translation as a culture" (Munday, 2001, p. 127).

The field of translation studies has witnessed a rapid growth. The debate of literalism and functionalism in translation is an old one in itself, but still ongoing today. As a result, the emergence of different theories in translation helps in creating a variety of choices in deciding what effective process for producing an acceptable translation one can opt for.

The literature is full translation techniques and strategies, but two types have dominated both theory and practice. They are literal and free translation as terms that serve the functions of semantic and communicative translations. Semantic translation is the process of word-for-word rendering where term choices from a dictionary come to replace their equivalents in the target language. This type of translation is said to be boring, complex and awkward. It only concerns changing the meaning without considering the linguistic and cultural requirements of the target language. On the other hand, communicative translation is the opposite. It focuses on the target language to create the same effect of the original text. Communicative translation is considered as sense-for-sense rendering. This type is said to be smooth, clear, direct and creative where translators find themselves not tied to particular linguistic or semantic barriers in the text.

2.4.1 Literal Translation

As mentioned above, literal translation involves rendering on the level of words, phrases and sentences by providing the corresponding equivalents in the target language. It also involves the grammatical structures of the source language and then converting them into similar ones in the target language. The lexical items are transferred individually with no real concern of what the context refers to.

The problem with literal translation is that it cannot work in all kinds of contexts. Newmark (1988) suggests that it is "sometimes advisable to retreat from literal translation when faced with SL general words for which there are no 'satisfactory' one-to-one TL equivalents." (p. 76). This type of translation cannot produce a good literary text because of the distortions it can create on the semantic and stylistic levels. This means that literal translation has very little communicative value, particularly between culturally different languages. As discussed in Munday (2001), Vinay and Darbelent have distinguished strategies like modulation, adaptation,

transposition and equivalence. Still, they believe that literal translation is common and ideal in translation, but warn against the excessive use of literal translation since this may lead to undesirable consequences because literal translation:

1. gives a different meaning;
2. has no meaning;
3. is impossible for structural reasons;
4. does not have a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL;
5. corresponds to something at a different level of language. (cited in Munday, 2001, p. 57)

But scholars like Newmark (2001) see literal translation as the best type for non-idiomatic and nonliterary texts.

2.4.2 Free Translation

Free translation is the communicative process of translation. It is a process that discards literalness and unnaturalness at all levels. Its main function is to convey the meaning in a creative way. The translator can add information, ignore facts, or omit a word or a sentence that might not be important within the context. Free translation has proved its success in translating literary texts, idiomatic languages and humor. Translators adopt some techniques to succeed to produce free translations such as:

- **Addition**

Addition is a strategy in translation "in which something is added to the TT which is not present in the ST ... Examples of translation by addition frequently occur when either general consideration of English usage or specific contexts require something to be added"(Dickins, Hervey and Higgins 2006, p. 24). In other words, addition is used in some contexts when there is a purpose or a specific need for adding information that does not exist in the ST.

- **Omission**

As a procedure, omission or deletion is used in free translation when the translator decides to omit unnecessary meanings, words, or a full sentence that might not help the context as a whole. This implies that deleting a lexical item from the text would not harm or distort the whole context especially when such items do not carry

any vital functions in the text. Furthermore, omission can help avoid repetition and redundancy in translation.

Some translators may like using the omission technique in translation. However, they should be aware of the cultural differences when dealing utilizing this technique. They need to have a considerable knowledge of the source culture to ensure they do not omit or delete what may be of vital importance.

- **Foreignization and Domestication**

Venuti has introduced foreignization and domestication to the debate in translation studies. Foreignization "entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which are excluded by dominant cultural values in the target language"(cited in Munday, 2001, p. 147). It connects cultural and linguistic features to make the reader understand the author's point of view.

Translators believe that it is a faithful strategy as it maintains the values of a specific cultural concept. Yet, some translators may not respect these values. Consequently, they render lexical expressions simply as they appear in the source text. Consequently, the relationship, which must be considered in this process, would be lost with not function preserved or effect achieved on the reader

Domestication, on the other hand, "entails translating in a transparent, fluent, invisible style in order to minimize foreignness of the TT" (Munday, 2001, p. 146). Domestication as a translation strategy used to ensure that cultural and linguistic aspects are accepted in the target culture, hence minimizing differences. Domestication accommodates the foreign text within the cultural values of the target text. Translators tend to use this type of translation to meet the preferences of readers so much so that some foreign texts become popular in different cultures mostly because of domestication strategy.

2.5 Skopos Theory and Translation

By definition, skopos is the "Greek word for 'aim' or 'purpose' " (Munday, 2001, p. 78). According to Vermeer 1989, it is "the technical term for the aim or the purpose of a translation" (p. 221). Here, the focus is mainly on the TT as a functional product.

This is determined when the translator manages to define the purpose of creating the TT and, consequently, chooses the appropriate methods to achieve a functional result. For skopos, Vermeer (1989, p. 224)

- a. the translation process, hence the goal of this process;
- b. the translation result, hence the function of the *translatum*;
- c. the translation mode, hence the intention of this mode.

Similarly, Reiss (1971) confirms that "intention" is the speech aim, which can lead to establishing communication. She believes that "through the intention, verbalized by the author in his text, this text receives a communicative function for the process of communication" (Reiss, 1971, p. 161). This leads to the importance of functionalism in the text-type model proposed by Reiss.

To match functionalism with the theory skopos, Vermeer and Reiss, (1984), set a number of rules to achieve an adequately desirable function and result, TT. These rules are:

1. A *translatum* (or TT) is determined by its skopos;
2. A TT is an offer of information (*Informationsangebot*) in a target culture and TL concerning an offer of information in a source culture and SL;
3. A TT does not initiate an offer in a clearly reversible way;
4. ATT must be internally coherent;
5. A TT must be coherent with a ST;
6. The five rules above stand in a hierarchical order, with the skopos rule predominating. (cited in Munday, 2001, p. 79)

This Chapter has examined genderlect by discussing the linguistic variations of male/female speech in different situations. It has also presented a short review of the main strategies and theories of translation. The next chapter explores the phenomenon of hedging and its relation to pragmatics to show gender distinctions in hedging use.

Chapter Three: Gender and Hedging

This chapter examines hedging. It provides the definitions of this linguistic phenomenon, including the semantic and pragmatic aspects of different approaches. The chapter then presents the categories and devices of hedging and functions, including epistemic and socio-emotional functions. The chapter ends by discussing hedging and its relation to gender in fiction.

3.1 Hedging

Logicians and philosophers have long questioned the matter of "false" and "truth" values in language. They believe that natural sentences are "either true, false, or at worst nonsense" (Lakoff, G. 1973, p. 458). He suggests that natural language has vagueness and fuzziness boundaries, and as such natural sentences would be rather true, false or nonsense to a certain degree. Zadeh,(1965) deals with the concept of fuzziness without using "hedging" or "hedges" as a term when he introduced his fuzziness theory in his article "*Fuzzy Set*" in 1965. Lakoff, G. is the first to use the term "hedging" or "hedges" and connected it with fuzziness theory.

Hedges are expressions such as some modal auxiliary verbs, adverbs and adjectives that are used to add a degree of uncertainty. In fact, "Lakoff was not interested in the communicative value in the use of hedges but was concerned with the logical properties of words and phrases" (Markkanen *et al.*, 1997, p. 4). In other words, his focus is mainly on the semantic aspects of hedges that serve a function of fuzziness.

George Lakoff's idea of hedging was not supported by other linguists. Some did not consider that the use of hedging devices is only related to semantics. These devices can carry a pragmatic function as well. Prince *et al.* (1982) illustrate the semantic and pragmatic functions of hedging tools. In a study on medical discourse, they identify two categories of hedges. The first relates to the use of approximators, and the second to the use of shields (Crompton, 1997, p. 273). These types are "those that affect the truth of proposition called approximators and shields which do not affect the truth-conditions but reflect the degree of the speaker's commitment to the truth-value of the whole proposition" (Markkanen *et al.*, 1997, p. 5). They indicate that

"approximators express fuzziness in the propositional content itself, while shields operate as devices that create fuzziness between the speaker and the propositional content" (cited in Crompton, 1997, p. 273). Thus, a distinction between these two types must be clarified in such communications.

Hedges and hedging tools in language have been investigated by different scholars and linguists in various fields and areas. They have examined hedging devices to emphasize the semantic and pragmatic effects on the receiver. As such, different definitions to clarify the concept of hedging have been proposed.

3.2 Definitions

As for the concept of "hedging", many scholars in linguistics, philosophy and pragmatics have given definitions to distinguish the impact of this feature that would add to language's naturalness as a semantic and pragmatic device. As mentioned above, according to Zadeh (1972), hedging is a set class of fuzziness (p. 338). He defines it as a class with no sharp boundaries or limitations in which "the transition of membership to non-membership is gradual rather than rapid" (Zadeh, 1972, p.131). Later, George Lakoff presented hedging as "a set of words or phrases that function to make things fuzzier" (Lakoff, 1973, p. 471). Lyons (1977) defines hedging as "any utterance in which the speaker explicitly qualifies his commitment to the truth of the proposition expressed by the sentence he utters... is an epistemically modal or modalised sentence" (cited in Hyland, 1994, p. 240). The definition of Lyons involves the speaker's commitment in uttering the sentences in different situations. Based on that, he says that hedging is an utterance produced by a speaker in which s/he qualifies the degree of commitment to the truth's proposition in the sentence uttered (Martin, 2005, p. 70).

Within the context of pragmatic interference, Brown and Levinson (1978) have related hedging to social politeness by regarding hedges as negative politeness strategies to avoid disagreement. According to Hyland (1998), hedging is a communicative strategy that can decrease the force of statements. These definitions go along with what Holmes (1995) suggests. She identifies hedges as weakeners, softeners, and downtoners used in utterances and then function to express uncertainty in such

sentences. Salager-Meyer (1994) agrees pretty much with this notion when she argues that hedging devices are used to add a probability degree to mitigate propositional information in the text. However, some scholars stress that hedges are not used only for mitigation, but also for convincing and influencing people too.

These definitions vary in use, discourse and functions and show that there is no clear-cut agreement on categories of hedges either in their forms or functions, as Markkanen *et al.* (1997) write, "it should be emphasized that no linguistic items are inherently hedgy but can acquire this quality depending on the communicative context or the co-text" (p. 6).

3.3 Hedging Devices

Hedging is a feature that is expressed by different linguistic categories. Skelton (1988), for instance, categorizes this into many devices that deliver a deficiency of commitment to the truth-value of the content of an utterance (Hyland, 1994, p.242). These devices include grammatical classes described as modal auxiliaries, introductory verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The following devices are based on Hyland's categorizations (1994 &1998).

3.3.1 Modal Auxiliaries

Modality use is considered as a major device of hedging. The use of modal auxiliary verbs can vary in accordance with their contexts. Such auxiliaries can be found frequently in academic writing, for example, while other auxiliaries are found in scientific or literary contexts. This distinction in use depends on the function itself. It has been assumed that modality is always connected to the epistemic function. Markkanen and Schröder (1997) say "this connection is very clear in the case of modal verbs with epistemic meanings" (Markkanen *et al.*, 1997, p. 7). Thus, they are classified according to this function whereby they move the message of an utterance from certainty to doubt. The following are the most commonly used modal auxiliary verbs for hedging:

- **Can/ Could**

The modal verbs "can/could" carry the meaning of possibility. Its epistemic meaning occurs in interrogative and negative contexts, which creates assumptions and uncertainty in an utterance. Similarly, the modal auxiliaries "may/ might" have the same epistemic meaning as "can/could". "Could", expresses the possibility to assess the value of truth as well (Hayland, 1998).

- **Must**

From a grammatical prospective, the modal verb "must" is always seen in English language as a marker used to express a clear necessity. Thus, it refers to a certainty that varies in degrees from strong to weak levels (Hyland, 1998). On the other hand, "must" carries a sense of obligation too as well. In other words, it occurs whenever the concept of "need" is inferred.

- **Should/ Shall**

In grammar, both "shall and should" express a sense of necessity, but in a lower range than "must". The modal "should" is sometimes used as an alternative option for "must" due to the tentative sense it implies. It shows lack of confidence and possibility in an utterance (Hayland, 1998).

- **Would/Will**

The modal verb "would" is a marker that indicates a sense of prediction in a situation, which occurs in the past. "Will", the present form of "would", expresses necessity, in a similar way to "must", but in a lower range. "Would" is similar to "could" especially if a speaker or a writer wants to express possibilities in a present situation more than "will" (Hyland, 1998).

- **May/Might**

The modal verbs "may/might" occur in different contexts as hedging devices. They are considered typical hedges that serve possibilities and hesitations. According to Hyland (1998), "might" can serve a better function to present ambiguity more than "may" because it indicates less certainty in statements. Palmer (1990) and Perkins

(1983) suggest that "might and may" express a high degree of attentiveness and a distant possibility (cited in Hyland, 1994, p.246).

3.3.2 Introductory Verbs

Lexical verbs such as "believe, suggest, indicate, assume, tend to" are considered as hedging devices and called introductory verbs. These verbs serve mitigation and then lessen the sense of commitment and the truth-value of an utterance. Thus, speakers or writers, according to Perkins (1983), use such verbs to add a sense of doubting rather than describing to avoid full commitment and present a subjective opinion or suggestion rather than giving a fact (cited in Hyland, 1994, p.248). Introductory verbs are used in some utterances to serve the function of doubt as a means of justification to support a claim.

3.3.3 Probability Adjectives and Adverbs

Probability adjectives and adverbs are other forms of hedging in spoken and written contexts. Holmes (1988) suggests that "these grammatical classes make up around 27% of the devices used to express epistemic modality in written discourse" (cited in Hyland, 1994, p. 249).

Modal adjectives such as "possible, probable, potential and apparent" serve a degree of uncertainty (Hyland, 1994). Hyland (1998) concludes that adjectives are used more frequently as hedging in research articles because they function to downgrade the writer's commitment. On the other hand, adverbials such as "probably, possibly, apparently" are used more than adjectives. They are used to affect the proposition's meaning. This is due to the role of adverbs that serve the function of a downgrader, which reduces the effect of the verb.

3.3.4 Frequency Adverbs

Another category related to adverbs is frequency adverbs. This category is typically described as unspecified words that mainly refer to time. They are words such as "rarely, occasionally, and usually", which function as indefinite devices that can be good choices for hedging purposes. Indefiniteness helps users not to commit full assertion. At the same time, adverbs with indefinite degree share the same function of other adverbs in general. They are, also, considered as downgrader devices to decrease the potential force or effect of an utterance.

In general, many linguists, such as Hyland (1994, 1998), Fraser (1990), Salager-Meyer (1994), Skelton (1988), and others have identified some functions of hedging devices. Some agree on the categorization of the functions of some devices, while others oppose such categorization. The following table summarizes the common identified functions of different hedging devices:

Table 1: Hedging devices functions

No	Category	Item	Function
1	Modal auxiliary Verbs	Could/ Can	Root possibility
		Might/May	lack of confidence
		Would	Assertion weaken & softener
		Will/ Must	Necessity and assurance justifier
		Should/Shall	Hypothetical necessity
2	Introductory verbs	I Believe/ I suggest/ I think	Lack of commitment / lack of confidence / claim softener
		It appears/ it seems/ it sounds	
3	Probability adjectives	Potential/ Possible	Ambiguity
4	Adverbials	Probably/ Possibly/ Usually/ Occasionally	Doubt and uncertainty

3.4 Hedging Functions

As a linguistic tool used in oral or written texts, hedging varies according to its function within different communicative situations. In other words, hedging can serve different functions that can change according to the propositional situation itself.

Many functions have been put forward for the various hedging devices. In his article "*Hedging in academic writing: Some Theoretical Problems*", Crompton (1997), points out "that a definition that serves no based function designates a 'rag-bag' category

of features understood in different ways by different people" (p. 281). In general, hedging tools are most commonly seen as serving two functions. The first one expresses the lack of commitment to the truth of something people say (Hyland, 1998). The second function serves as an alternative softener and politeness strategy to reduce the force and the effect of utterances in order to make the hearer accept what has been said in a conversation or a written text (Brown and Levinson, 1979). This means that the second function emphasizes the interpersonal aspects of hedging, which can be seen as a politeness strategy.

A study by Prince *et al.* (1982) on medical discourse shows that hedging serves two specific categories of functions: *approximators* and *shields* (cited in Crompton, 1997, p. 273). The first one presents a semantic aspect of utterances, while the second presents a pragmatic aspect. The function of *approximators* adopts a term of a non-standard representation of some figures, while shields serve a function of a linguistic reflection of a commitment and obligation on the part of the speaker. Additionally, *approximators* can be divided in two subcategories: the adaptors and rounders, and *shields* are also divided into two subgroups: the plausibility shields and attribution shields (Crompton, 1998, p.273). There are different hedges used under these subcategories as the following table shows:

Table 2: Approximators and shields tools

Hedges			
<i>Tools of Approximators</i>		<i>Tools of Shields</i>	
<i>Adaptors</i>	<i>Rounders</i>	<i>Plausibility Shield</i>	<i>Attribution shields</i>
Might	Over	I suggest	X says that
Could	Roughly	I think	According to
Sort of	Around	I am afraid	It's believed
A little	About	I wonder	

Adaptors are tools used as modifiers in which a term is adapted in a communicative interaction to reveal the truth degree of the original proposition. For example: *Her attitude was a little rude last night*

In this sentence, the main function is to show criticism. The speaker used the adaptor "a little" to soften criticizing her attitude. Accordingly, the degree of truth is affected and criticism is acceptable in this case.

Rounders, however, are considered as measurement devices. They are used in a statement to limit the degree of a certain subject. Consider the following example:

I paid approximately \$10,000 to buy this diamond ring

The speaker here does not give the exact price. The speaker tries to make the statement not too far from the given fact, bearing in mind that the hearer will understand the meaning the speaker wishes to deliver.

Plausibility shields are tools that refer to the speaker's speculation upon something. They include the first pronoun (singular and plural) to express the speaker's willingness to take responsibility for an alternative idea to be a reference. For example:

As the door is open, I suppose he is still in the office

Here, the tone of the speaker is moderated in a way to avoid imposing his/ her thought on the hearer. Thus, "*I suppose*" is used here to imply a reference to the utterance. Attribution shields serve the same function of speculating. The difference is that they include a third person structure, for example:

John says that the company will increase the yearly bonus for all employees

In this example, the speaker avoids personal involvement and mitigates the responsibility of uttering a certain statement.

In general, hedging functions cannot be limited. They can serve many functions depending on the context. They vary in accordance with different situations and different relations between participants in various and countless communicative interactions. Thus, many approaches have been presented to investigate this linguistic phenomenon in different fields.

3.5 Hedging and Pragmatics

Besides the semantic aspects of hedging devices, the interpersonal aspect of hedging as a communicative strategy has been analyzed by many linguists and theorists. The analysis is based on the communication situation, particularly the effect of the relationship between the sender and the receiver in face-to-face communication.

As discussed above, some scholars identify the function of hedging as a way of protection a sender uses in a certain situation. To examine the implicit interactive effect of hedging devices, some pragmatic approaches have explored hedging as a strategy is used to avoid conflict in an interactive situation, considering the status and the relationship between the discourse participants. These interpersonal features mainly relate the theory of politeness presented by Brown and Levinson (1978).

Watts (2003) explains the notion of linguistic politeness as the language that helps to avoid directness. It is "the language a person uses to avoid being too direct" (p. 1). This implies that there is a personal relationship that drives participants, implicitly, to interact with each other for the purpose of achieving a desired result of a given information in a certain conversation.

In the 1960s, politeness theory was first introduced by Paul Grice through his study of the conversational maxims. These maxims are quality, quantity, relation and manner and together form the cooperative principles. Grice (1975) suggests that the maxim of quantity relates to the quantity of the information to be provided.

1. make sure your contribution as informative as required (for the current proposes of the exchange);
2. do not make your contribution more informative than is required. (Grice, 1975, p. 45)

The maxim of quality refers to:

1. do not say what you believe to be false;
2. do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence. (Grice, 1975, p. 46)

Under relation, Grice (1975) suggests that a speaker has to "be relevant" (p.46). The fourth maxim is described under the category of manner. Here, the speaker pays

attention to what to be said, how to be said, and to whom (Grice, 1975, p. 46). He includes some steps for accomplishing the results desired in order not to violate this maxim. They are:

1. avoid obscurity of expressions;
2. avoid ambiguity;
3. be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity);
4. be orderly. (Grice, 1975, p. 46)

Later, Fraser (1990) used Grice's notion of conversational maxims to associate politeness with interpersonal communication. He agrees with Grice's main idea of how the cooperative principle can operate. He says that the "PC [Cooperative Principle] provides that you should say what you have to say; when you have to say it, and the way you have to say it" (Fraser, 1990, p. 222).

Before Fraser's work, Lakoff, R. (1973) was one of the first scholars to study politeness from the perspective of conversational maxims. However, "Lakoff explicitly extends the notion of the grammatical rule and its associated notion of well-formedness to pragmatics" (Fraser, 1990, p. 223). She based her theory on two basic areas of linguistic competence involved in linguistic interactions, namely the Gricean maxims the principle of politeness.

Later, Leech (1983) has developed his notion of politeness. He sees politeness as interpersonal rhetoric devices, which involve more six maxims. Leech labels them as interpersonal rhetoric maxims, which are "the tactic maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim and sympathy maxim" (Leech, 1983, p. 16).

Apart from Grice's theory, Brown and Levinson (1978) have developed their politeness theory, which somehow contradicts the Gricean cooperative principle. For Brown and Levinson (1978), a distinction must exist between Grice's notion of the conversational maxims and linguistic politeness. They assume that politeness is seen as a social principle of linguistic behavior. Their theory is originally based on the face concept, considering it as a binary notion grouped into two concepts: positive and negative face.

Working on the interpersonal aspect, Brown and Levinson (1978) examine hedging as a means that is linked to the notion of the face-threatening act. In this case, hedging can be used as a way of self-protection when the sender can limit the force or the effect of an utterance. Consequently, hedging is a strategy that protects the sender's negative face on a certain occasion when the speaker thinks that s/he has good reasons to do an act that has been criticized by the addressee. Yet, there is no guarantee that is used to save negative politeness. It depends on the language of the user and the different situations of interaction. In sum, hedging can be regarded as interpersonal system of interactions designed to minimize the potential conflict that interferes with all human communication acts (Lakoff, G. 1973). The notion of the negative face is regarded as another way of showing positive politeness through hedging. Brown and Levinson (1978) point out that positive politeness is used for the purpose of avoiding disagreements. They argue that hedging, in this case, urges the sender not to send his opinion in a precise way, which, in turn, drives the addressee to use general knowledge to understand the given utterance. Then, the sender may downgrade the hedge when the positive face of the addressee is threatened by complaints or criticism by the sender. It is considered as a strategy that aims to protect positive face.

3.6 Relevance Theory

As an extension of Grice's conversational maxims and cooperative principle, the theory of relevance was introduced by Sperber and Wilson in 1985. Their theory aims to clarify a kind of communication that mainly reflects the implicit inferences, which "explain how the hearer infers the speaker's meaning on the basis of the evidence provided" (Sperber & Wilson, 2002, p. 607). Therefore, it involves the participants (hearer/ reader/ audience) in such communicative situations for seeking the suitable meaning that fits their expectations. The theory is mainly based on two principles: the cognitive principle and the communicative principle.

The cognitive principle entails what sort of things that may be relevant, when they should be relevant and what effect is produced in a contextual implication. To stress the importance of cognitive environment, Gutt (1989, p. 44) states:

The notion of cognitive environment is a very wide one; it includes information that can be perceived in the physical environment, that can be retrieved from memory - for example, information derived from preceding utterances would be stored there - and furthermore information that can be inferred from these two sources.

In relevance theory, Sperber and Wilson (2006) believe that utterances are important factors that raise the level of expectations in any context not because speakers are to employ Cooperative Principles and maxims, but "because the search for relevance is a basic feature of human cognition, which communicators may exploit" (p. 608). Thus, an input, such as a sight, utterance, sound and memory, is connected to her/his background information, which are already available to yield conclusions that concern the hearer. The process is done either by answering a question in mind, settling a doubt, correcting an idea, improving a piece of knowledge, or confirming a suspension (Sperber & Wilson, 2006). In addition, the contextual implication plays an important role in forming relevance in such situations. This helps to produce an effect that infers input and context together, and then yields further implications. To highlight the relevance degree, Sperber and Wilson (2006) state:

Relevance is not just an all-or-none matter but a matter of degree. There are potentially relevant inputs all around us, but we cannot attend to them all. What makes an input worth picking out from the mass of competing stimuli is not just that it is relevant, but that it is MORE relevant than any alternative input available to us at that time. Intuitively, other things being equal, the more worthwhile conclusions achieved by processing an input, the more relevant it will be. (p. 609)

The relevance of communication is an inferential communications that is not intended only to affect the thought of audience, but also to get them to recognise the intentions others have (Sperber & Wilson, 2002, p. 211). Relevance theory calls the inferential communication ostensive-inferential communication that involves layers of intention. These layers are:

- a. The informative intention: the intention to inform an audience of something.
- b. b. The communicative intention: the intention to inform the audience of one's informative intention. (Sperber & Wilson, 2006, p. 211)

The communicative intention is achieved when understanding between participants exists. Consequently, this leads the audience to grasp the informative intention. Ostensive-inferential communication generally involves "the use of an

ostensive stimulus, designed to attract an audience's attention and focus it on the communicator's meaning," (Sperber & Wilson, 2006, p. 211). By producing it, the communicator encourages the audience to presume that the cognitive input, as involved, is relevant enough to be worth processing. As a result, this helps to create a presumption of optimal relevance that entails attracting the audience to expect conclusions in terms of effect and effort. The ostensive stimulus is:

- a. Relevant enough to be worth the audience's processing effort.
- b. The most relevant one compatible with communicator's abilities and preferences. (Sperber & Wilson, 2006, p. 212)

This approach shows how important the communicator is in relating information in a certain context. The theory connects all the participants to produce an assumption or expectation that relates to the cognitive and communicative relevance.

3.7 Gender and Hedging

Gender differences in language and communication interactions have been studied for a long time, and the use of hedging in language has been the subject of arguments between different researchers. Robin Lakoff's work, *Language and women's Place* (1973), has had a great impact on research in this area. She suggests that women's language presents a sense of lack of authority and confidence, thus they adopt the unassertive style of communication in which "expression of uncertainty is favored" (Lakoff, R. p. 45). She, also, refers to a group of linguistic devices described as women's language that, basically, serves this function. Their language includes tag questions, intensive adverbs, empty adjectives, hesitation, compound requests and hedging tools. She bases her main theory on both personal and hypothetical examples (Dixon and Foster, 1997, p. 90). On this basis, her ideas were attacked. Although some scholars support Robin Lakoff's theory, there are studies that contradict her view that there are no sex differences in language use, in general, and in hedging use, in specific. But, this is inconclusive. Preisler (1986), claims that "women used more linguistic devices expressing tentativeness more than men"(cited in Holmes, 1995, p. 108). On the other hand, Holmes (1995) argues that "women's use of hedges expresses interpersonal warmth and not, as many researchers have maintained, linguistic tentativeness. It is typically men, she suggests, who employ hedges to convey imprecision and incertitude" (cited in Dixon & Foster, 1997, p 89).

The idea here is that men use hedging devices to convey uncertainty and imprecision in conversations; not women. Nevertheless, several contradictory studies and findings have shown that "gender differences in hedging are subtle and subject to marked variation across speakers and contexts of use" if they exist in language use (Dixon and Foster, 1997, p. 90).

3.8 Epistemic and Socio-emotional Functions in Gender

Holmes (1995), investigates the usage of some hedging devices in everyday conversations to establish gender distinctions that some scholars assume they exist in language use.

By analyzing the grammatical, contextual and intonational information of using hedging devices, Holmes concludes that hedging can serve particular functions (cited in Dixon and Foster, 1997, p. 91). She suggests that the affective "socio-emotional" and "epistemic" functions are significantly distinct through the use of hedging. The socio-emotional role of hedging mainly expresses interpersonal solidarity. That is "the willingness ... to relinquish power and work with his or her interlocutors in a spirit of cooperation (Hatim, 2013, p. 292); while, the epistemic role, on the other hand, serves a function that shows uncertainty and doubts about the truthfulness of statements.

In her study, Holmes (1995) "identifies the relationship in gender communication" (Dixon and Foster, 1997, p. 91) and suggests that women use hedging as a way to express positive politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1978) that varies in different formal and informal contexts (Holmes, 1995, pp. 90-91). She points out that women, for instance, use the hedge of *sort of* to express an emotional function. In other words, they tend to soften statements to show feelings and concerns, while the hedge *you know* is used by women to facilitate communication with others. On the other hand, the same two hedges, *sort of* and *you know*, are used in conversations to indicate an epistemic or referential function if used by men, either in same or mixed sex-groups, meaning that "men hedge in order to register degrees of verbal hesitancy and uncertainty" (Dixon and Foster, 1997, p. 91).

These findings challenge the notion of "women's language" of Lakoff, R. (1973). She shows women as insecure communicators thus they tend to use some linguistic devices, including hedging tools to mitigate and keep away from committing themselves and avoid responsibility in their utterances. Yet, Holmes (1995) believes that women are sensitive and caring communicators rather than deficient ones, and that it is men who apply certain linguistic devices such as hedging to deploy indecisive talk that was criticized by Lakoff, R. (1973) and other scholars.

3.9 Gender and Hedging in Genre

Scholars have examined hedging as a rhetoric tool in political and scientific discourses, and in oral conversations and dialogues as well. Literary texts and fiction have received little attention concerning hedging devices. As such, hedging has not remained largely unexplored in fiction and literature.

The aim of this thesis is to study hedging devices and their functions in a creative-fictional discourse and to explore the differences between genders in a hedgy text. This type is described as a written communication in which an explicit relationship can be found between authors, who formulate and deploy some linguistic devices for their prose purposes, and readers, who would be affected by the authors' use of language. The type of language used in this discourse tends to focus on describing certain themes, some ideologies, imagery and philosophical concepts. All these items can be seen in the context of the developments of the main characters in fictional stories to engage readers and reflect the writer's attitude (Hyland, 1998).

Hedging is one of the linguistic devices that can develop a relation between the writer and the reader, on the one hand, and create a relation between the writer and the message intended to be expressed, on another. Swales & Feak, (1994) believe that "in written texts, the use of hedging represents a lexical and syntactical means to reduce the authors responsibility of a proposition by deploying hesitation, uncertainty, indirectness and politeness in order to decrease imposition on the reader" (cited in Hinkel, 2005, p. 30). According to Myers (1989), hedging devices in written texts reflect a relationship between the author and the reader rather than reflecting the relation of a

degree of possibility or uncertainty of using a statement. The potential readership and the author's personality cooperate together to show the meaning based on the text and the communication situation (Markkanen & Schröder, 1997), which means that hedges direct readers to evaluate a proposed proposition (Hyland, 1994).

Within genre studies, male and female stereotypes have been identified. As Carter *et al* (1997) suggest, there are, in fictional text, chattering and nagging women, and, on the other hand, there are strong and sufficient men (Ortells, E. & Posteguillo, S. 2002, p.154). This characterizes a reflection of reality of language habits and norms of men and women produced by an author. Nevertheless, these habits have been rejected by many researchers of gender studies. Kramer (1977), for example, shows that British and American men, in different circumstances, do talk more than women do (Ortells and Posteguillo, 2002, pp. 154-155). This leads us to believe that men tend to speak more to cover a sense of uncertainty in their statements in dialogic interactions in literature, which is the phenomenon explored in this thesis.

Though there have been significant studies in the dialogic interaction in drama discourse, some studies have focused on this linguist distinction in novels and, specifically, in crime fiction led by Agatha Christie and other in the twentieth century. The concept of fiction of any kind is to represent conversations between characters to show realism in a particular situation, which implies that all linguistic devices are employed to achieve a certain purpose the author intends to present. The realistic effect in fiction can involve hesitations, uncertainty and false starts. Accordingly, hedging is seen as a vital linguistic feature in crime or detective fiction. The atmosphere of this kind of fiction is full of questions and doubts in order to find the truth. Thus, the author tends to insert the statements with a considerable amount of hedges in order to represent the cautious reactions of his/her characters in fiction, and realism can be represented within the context.

As for gendered hedging in crime fiction, authors tend to present social and political situations to achieve their desirable effect on readers. Generally, female authors try to represent their female characters as equal to male ones in a society dominated by men. The difference noticed is that women hedge in same-sex groups, while men hedge more in mixed-sex groups. Although these differences do not exist in

all situations and researchers do not agree totally, Bucholtz (1999) and Ehrlich (1999) suggest that women struggle to justify their representations through a specific linguist style in an established group (Ortells & Posteguillo, 2002).

This chapter has examined hedging devices and functions. It has also discussed the relationship between the pragmatics of hedging and gender and how this is reflected in literature. The following chapter presents data, analysis, and a discussion of the findings and results.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Discussion

This chapter analyzes gendered hedging devices in Agatha Christie's *Third Girl*. The chapter examines the functionality of using these devices to mitigate or express a lack of confidence by showing the influence of gender when hedging is used by men and women. It assesses the strategies used in the Arabic translation to convey the implicit meanings of hedges and whether the functionality of hedges is preserved through translation.

4.1 Data

Agatha Christie is one of the most famous authors of English literature. She is associated with a special genre in literature, which is crime or detective fiction. She excelled in this area and managed to make a unique name for herself in prose writing. Detective fiction is mainly based on a crime, usually a murder, when all characters are under the spot in the novel to find out hidden facts and the true murderer. This feature of this type of literature is the main reason for choosing Agatha Christie's *Third Girl* (1966), as a source of the data analyzed in my thesis. Since the degrees of the truth and facts are questioned through the use of hedging, *Third Girl* is a suitable choice for analysis in this thesis.

Third Girl belongs to the series of Hercule Poirot's stories. The plot of the story takes us back to the 1930s. It is about three girls sharing a flat in London. The first, Claudia, is a secretary, the second, Frances, is a painter who sometimes travels to the art galleries, and the third is Norma, the disturbed girl, who visits Poirot's office thinking that she committed a murder. Norma thinks that she killed a woman living in the same building. Poirot peruses the case in order to find out who is the real murderer. Poor Norma is being drugged to convince her that she actually kills people and thus guilty of all murder cases. That is why she goes to ask for Poirot's help. While Poirot is investigating, another murder is committed by Frances. She killed David, Norma's boyfriend trying to frame Norma. Poirot does not believe that the disturbed Norma could kill any one. His doubts focus on Frances, who is, in fact, Norma's stepmother who disguised herself by using a blonde wig to cover her dark hair and to commit the

crimes, and tries to blame them on Norma to push her out of the way and then have the fortune of Mr. Restarick all to herself.

Agatha Christie, a British author, presented masterpieces in fiction. Many critics have considered her as the "Queen of Mystery" or "The Queen of Crime Fiction". With no doubt, Agatha Christie has used a formula for success that helps keeping her novels on the top of the best sellers up till now. This formula must be her writing style, nothing else, which manages to represent the Englishness spirit in an interesting way. She introduced the tropes that are known, nowadays, as the classical mystery structure: a murder, a number of suspects who hide some surprises, a detective who seeks to know the murderer and the shocking turns at the end of the story. As for the character of the detectives, Christie has presented many interesting ones throughout her fiction, but the most successful one is deductive Poirot, who became a long-running character found in 33 novels and 54 short novels. He is a retired police officer who speaks compound English sentences and says few phrases in French. His English is highly influenced by his French. Christie introduced Poirot with a high-level register. He inserts his English sentences with some French words such as "excusez-moi." This helps to spread Poirot's popularity in the world through Christies' fiction.

The Arabic translation of Agatha Christie's *Third Girl* was published by Al-ajyal publishers (2005). The novel was translated by Nabil Elbaradei and edited by Ramzi Hassun. The Arabic text consists of 336 pages and divided into 25 chapters. The translated text is recognized by its number, 76, which is a serial number that reflects the number of the original text in English.

4.2 Methodology

It is assumed that women use hedges more than men. Moreover, many theorists support the notion that suggests that men are more accurate and assertive than women, thus they tend to use few hedging devices in their communication. On this basis, this thesis investigates the gender differences in using hedging as a linguistic device for different functions in a literary translated text. In a way, the thesis sets out to check the truth value of this suggestion. It tries to prove that women are more assertive and certain

when using hedging devices as they try to produce facilitative interactions in communication more than men do. To do so, this thesis attempts to answer the following questions:

- i. What are the different means of expressing gendered hedging in detective fiction?
- ii. How are the functions of unassertiveness and uncertainty of using hedging in dialogues realized?
- iii. Who uses hedges more, men or women, in interactive communication?
- iv. What are the strategies translators use to render gendered hedging to preserve its effective functionality?
- v. Assess the translator's adjustments used to reflect the effects and the functions of gendered hedging.

The analysis examines twenty examples taken from the novel, *Third Girl*, and their Arabic translations. The analysis method adopted here is as follows:

- i. Analyzing the hedging devices used by both genders in the ST and TT.
- ii. Analyzing the translator's strategies in rendering the hedging devices. The focus here is to highlight the amendments effected by the translator to reflect the epistemic and socio-emotional functions of hedging.
- iii. Identifying the most frequently used strategies in the translation of the chosen twenty examples on the basis of the theoretical approaches discussed in chapters two and three of this thesis.

4.3 Analysis

The role of text analysis relies on many important aspects that translators are assumed to tackle with the aim of producing effective translations. Nord (1991) presents her model for translation, which Munday (2001, p. 82) describes as:

A model, which is based on a functional concept, enabling understanding of the function of the ST features and the selection of the translation strategies to the intended purpose of the Translation. Thus she shares many of the premises of Reiss and Vermeer's work.

The features, which should be preserved, "are related to the equivalence- based linguistic approaches focused on the ST text" (Nord, 1997, p. 7). According to Vermeer, (1989), there are some certain requirements that should exist to fulfil the equivalence linguistic approaches. The aspects of these requirements include "style, form, content and function, in which they must be preserved or at least a translation must seek to preserve them as far as possible" (cited in Nord, 1997, p. 7).

Given the function of translation, the 20 examples of hedging divided 50-50 between men and women are analyzed here. The analysis examines the translation of the English examples of hedges into Arabic bearing in mind choices made to reflect the desired functionality of the hedges in the ST.

Table 3: Male characters hedging

A. Male Characters Hedging		
No	ST	TT
1	It was long ago that I encountered him. He will probably have forgotten. It was a matter of espionage and of scientific development of a certain invention.	كان لقاني به قبل فترة طويلة جداً، ولعله نسي ذلك الآن. كان ذلك في قضية تجسس تتعلق ببعض التطورات العلمية لاختراع معين.
2	It is not I who can send you to one! You need not be alarmed. You could go to a doctor entirely on your own behalf if you liked. You can go and say to him the things you have been saying to me.	ليس أنا من يستطيع أرسالك إلى طبيب! لا حاجة لأن تقلقي. يمكنك أن تذهبي إلى طبيب بمحض إرادتك إن شئت. يمكنك ان تذهبي إليه وتقولي له الأشياء التي كنت تقولينها لي.
3	That interests me. You would almost, it would seem, prefer that it should be you. You are attracted to the idea that it was your hand who slipped the fatal dose of this, that or the other.	أها، ذلك يثير اهتمامي. يبدو الأمر وكأنك تكادين تفضلين أن يكون الفاعل انت. إنك منجذبة إلى الفكرة القائلة إن اليد التي دسست تلك الجرعة القاتلة من هذه المادة أو تلك إنما كانت يدك أنت.

4	It sounds as though you have a bad memory. You don't understand. They're all- wicked things.	يبدو من ذلك وكأن لديك ضعفا بالذاكرة. فقالت نورما: انت لا تفهمني، فكل ما أعنيه من أشياء ... إنما هي أشياء شريرة.
5	I have a daughter named Norma. And she is in trouble, difficultly of some kind? Not that I know of.	لي ابنة أسمها نورما، وهي ابنتي الوحيدة. وهل هي في مشكلة، او في مصاعب من نوع ما؟
6	My wife is quite certain that he came to the house that day hoping to escape observation. He knows, perhaps, that he is not welcome there.	إن زوجتي واثقة تماماً من أنه جاء الى البيت في ذلك اليوم وهو يأمل ان لا يراه أحد. فقال بوارو: لعله يعرف أنه ليس موضع ترحيب هناك، اليس كذلك؟
7	Well, sir. If I might put it that way, if you will allow me, I would say he had got it badly, sir.	حسناً يا سيدي، إن كنت تسمح لي بقول ذلك، فإنني أقول إنه شديد التعلق بها. يمكن القول إن تفكيره كله منصب عليها.
8	Yes, death was instantaneous, I am glad to say. Of course, it might have been an accident.	نعم ويسعدني القول إن الوفاة كانت فورية. ربما كان ذلك حادثاً بالطبع.
9	She may have lost her memory or – or she may – I mean, she might be sick. Ill.	ربما كانت قد فقدت ذاكرتها أو .. أو ربما .. أعني قد تكون مريضة.
10	First of all, she's not an addict. There are no marks of injections. Someone or other, perhaps the boy, perhaps someone else was administering drugs to her without her knowledge. No just a purple heart or two in the modern fashion. A rather interesting medley of drugs.	و في البداية أقول إنها ليست مدمنة، ليست عليها آثار لحقن، لقد كان أحدهم - أو ربما كان هو الفتى أو غيره - يدس لها المخدرات دون معرفة منها. ليس مجرد حبة أو اثنتين من الأنواع السائدة الحديثة، بل خلطة مخدرات تثير الاهتمام.

Example 1:

- **Poirot: It was long ago that I encountered him. He will probably have forgotten.** It was a matter of espionage and of scientific development of a certain invention. (p. 51)

- بوارو: كان لقائي به قبل فترة طويلة جداً، ولعله نسي ذلك الآن. كان ذلك في قضية تجسس تتعلق ببعض التطورات العلمية لاختراع معين. (ص. 44)

In this example, Poirot is having a chat with Mrs. Restarick trying to figure out her relationship with her stepdaughter, Norma. As discussed in chapter three, the phrase "probably" is an adverb that helps to soften full commitment and the claim of the speaker, as he was not sure enough. In addition, he says "long ago" which is used also to soften what is being said and also to make Poirot more cautious in uttering facts in his conversation to avoid responsibility if they turn out to be not true.

The translator rendered these hedges through communicative translation, which is acceptable in this case. His rendering of "لعل" helps to add doubts in the context. The literal translation, here, would not be giving a functional effect in the context due to its ambiguity. As a result, the translator opted for modulation to produce an acceptable meaning of the unit signaling thus an epistemic function. As discussed in chapter three, the effect of relevance is high in the context. The cognitive side of "كان لقائي به قبل فترة" "طويلة جداً" which shows the communicator's doubts to commit himself has deployed a relation with the notion of "will" which is rendered as "لعل" to meet the expectations of the targeted audience.

Example 2:

- **Poirot:** It is not I who can send you to one! You need not be alarmed. **You could go to a doctor entirely on your own behalf if you liked.** You can go and say to him the things you have been saying to me. (p. 128)
- بوارو: ليس أنا من يستطيع إرسالك إلى طبيب! لا حاجة لأن تقلقي. يمكنك أن تذهبي إلى طبيب بمحض إرادتك إن شئت. يمكنك أن تذهبي إليه وتقول له الأشياء التي كنت تقولينها لي. (ص. 120)

In Example 2, three hedges are used: a modal auxiliary (could), an adverb (entirely), and an If clause. As mentioned in chapter three, the use of "could" expresses a degree of possibility in the proposition. It is used to downgrade the assumption of the speaker to make the receiver accept it as normal. This means that the speaker tries to mitigate a fact by avoiding being direct. The other hedge comes to prove the speaker's cautiousness. The adverb "entirely" also downgrades the fact that has been said implicitly by Poirot to the girl. Poirot could have said "you are sick, go to a doctor", but

the author preferred to release this truth in a non-factual way especially when the If clause occurs in the proposition. Thus, she relies on the audience expectations to draw a conclusion, especially, that Poirot's reaction was not expected. As a detective, Agatha did not show the firm part of this character to let the reader participate to expect his words of the speaker.

The translator rendered "could" literally as "يمكنك". The concept of "يمكنك" in Arabic is used to serve the possibility and the ability of having or doing something. Thus, this hedge, giving a suggestion to avoid being direct, is maintained in the TT. On the other hand, "entirely" is deleted in TT. Instead, the translator dealt with the second half of the sentence by adopting the modulation strategy whereby the implicit message of the ST is reproduced through "بمحض إرادتك" instead of saying "بنفسك" had the translator adopted literalism. Although "entirely" is not altered in the TT, the mitigation state of the whole proposition and its functionality were preserved.

Example 3:

- **Poirot:** That interests me. **You would almost, it would seem, prefer that it should be you.** You are attracted to the idea that it was your hand who slipped the fatal dose of this, that or the other. (p. 130)

▪ بوارو: آها، ذلك يثير اهتمامي. يبدو الأمر وكأنك تكادين تفضلين أن يكون الفاعل انت. إنك منجذبة الى الفكرة القائلة إن اليد التي دست تلك الجرعة القاتلة من هذه المادة أو تلك إنما كانت يدك أنت. (ص. 123-122)

In Example 3, many hedges, such as would, should, seem and almost, are found in the ST. This implies a high degree of fuzziness and a state of cautiousness indicating the importance of the assumption of the proposition. The modal auxiliary "would" is repeated twice and the modal auxiliary verb "should" is used once. As mentioned in chapter three, the existence of "would" many times in the ST is a way of conveying a prediction, which means that the speaker was trying to be indirect in uttering the statement. The modal "should" presents an obligation degree in the ST. The other hedges "almost and seem" also indicate the uncertainty of the speaker's findings.

The translator deleted one use of the modal verb "would". At the same time, the modal verb "should" is deleted too, and the sense of obligation in the TT is lost. The

translator altered the hedges of "seem" as "يبدو" and "almost" as "تكادين" serving the denotative meaning found in the dictionary. Therefore, the TT is not as hedgy as the ST, since two modal verbs are deleted in the TT. Sacrificing one use of the modal verb "would" is acceptable, but "should" is important here to reinforce the claim.

Example 4:

- **Dr. stillingfleet: It sounds as though you have a bad memory.** You don't understand. They're all- wicked things.(p. 152)

▪ **دكتور ستينغفليت: يبدو من ذلك وكأن لديك ضعفاً بالذاكرة.** فقالت نورما: انت لا تفهمني، فكل ما أعنيه من أشياء ... إنما هي أشياء شريرة. (ص.142)

In this example, one hedge is found in the sentence. The introductory verb "sounds" is used by the doctor to describe something negative he noticed in the disturbed girl he rescued. As discussed in chapter three, the function of using this kind of hedging is to show uncertainty in one's assumption and to avoid committing oneself in difficult situations. Physicians are always direct in making statements, which means that they are usually assertive. However, the situation is different here, the doctor is afraid of hurting the girl's feelings by informing her of a harsh assumption. Thus, he uses a hedge to avoid being direct. Here, the hedge serves an epistemic function of evaluating the addressee's mental memory.

The translator used the first choice equivalent to render "it sounds" as "يبدو من ذلك". This gives the same uncertainty and doubts expressed in the ST. In addition, the translator used transposition in "you have a bad memory" in "لديك ضعفاً بالذاكرة" as a suitable connotation. Literalism here would have killed the effect of the hedge.

Example 5:

- **Mr. Restraick: I have a daughter named Norma. And she is in trouble, difficultly of some kind? Not that I know of.** (p. 169)

▪ **السيد ريسطاريك: لي ابنة أسمها نورما، وهي ابنتي الوحيدة. وهل هي في مشكلة، او في مصاعب من نوع ما؟** (ص. 158)

In this example, Mr. Restarick uttered two hedges: an adverb and an approximator. The adverb "difficultly" is used to evaluate the trouble he thinks his daughter Norma is in, which serves an epistemic function in the proposition as

discussed in chapter three. The hedgy phrase "of some kind" expresses the speaker's unassertiveness and doubt in evaluating the situation of the trouble.

In the TT, the translator adopted transposition to alter the first part of the proposition. This change is not an obligatory one since the translator could have kept the evaluative sense that Mr. Restarick produced in his utterance. The hedge "difficultly" is also transposed. The translator made a grammatical shift by rendering it as a noun "مصاعب" to maintain the author's purpose and add fuzziness to the context. The phrase "of some kind" is rendered literally as "من نوع ما" and preserves the function of fuzziness of an evaluative situation in the ST.

Example 6:

- **Mr. Restarick: My wife is quite certain that he came to the house that day hoping to escape observation.** He knows, perhaps, that he is not welcome there?(p. 172)

▪ السيد ريستاريك: إن زوجتي واثقة تماماً من أنه جاء الى البيت في ذلك اليوم وهو يأمل ان لا يراه أحد. فقال بوارو: لعله يعرف أنه ليس موضع ترحيب هناك، اليس كذلك؟ (ص. 160)

In example 6, an adverb is used as a hedge. It is a shield to convey an assumption in the statement. Due to his uncertainty, Mr. Restarick referred his assumption to what his wife believed, and consequently, he was not assertive enough to utter the fact.

The TT provides a literal translation of "quite" and "certain". The functionality of the ST is not highly preserved since the translator used the first choice denotation, and leaving the implicit message of the statement to be figured out by the reader.

Example 7:

- **George: Well, sir. If I might put it that way, if you will allow me, I would say he had got it badly, sir.** (p. 203)

▪ جورج: حسناً يا سيدي، إن كنت تسمح لي بقول ذلك، فإبني أقول إنه شديد التعلق بها. يمكن القول إن تفكيره كله منصب عليها. (ص. 190)

In this example, three kinds of modal auxiliary verbs, two If clauses and an adverb are used. As discussed in chapter three, Hyland (1998) stresses that "might" is a better choice to reflect hesitation and ambiguity. The modal "might" in this example

gives a degree of hesitation and lack of confidence about a certain notion. The modals "will" and "would" both serve a sense of prediction. As a result, they represent an epistemic function in the proposition.

Both "will" and "would" can be problematic in translation causing confusion for translators. As mentioned in chapter two, deletion is not always a good decision whenever a problem in translation occurs. Unfortunately, the translator deleted all the auxiliaries in this sentence; leaving the TT with a high degree of certainty, which is not expressed by the author in the ST and, thus, relevance is lost. It is obvious that the speaker is giving his judgment in a very humble way enveloped within hesitation and prediction. Further, "If I might" and "will" were not rendered into Arabic. Instead, the translator used the present form of "allow" "تسمح" without referring to the future "will" that gives a prediction sense in the ST. Then, the translator used "أقول أنني" neglecting the modal verb "would" in the ST, which serves an important function. The addition of "يمكن القول إن تفكيره كله منصب عليها" is a repeated idea that is not needed in the TT.

Example 8:

- **Poirot:** Yes, death was instantaneous, I am glad to say. **Of course, it might have been an accident.** (p. 251)

▪ **بوارو:** نعم ويسعدني القول إن الوفاة كانت فورية. ربما كان ذلك حادثاً بالطبع. (ص. 234)

The modal auxiliary "might" is used here to allow the speaker committing to the fact of the proposition. The translator rendered the modal as "ربما" choosing the first denotative option, which doesn't succeed in preserving the mitigation degree and doubts of the source statement.

Example 9:

- **Mr. Restarick:** She may have lost her memory or – or she may – I mean, she might be sick. Ill. (p. 274)

▪ **السيد ريسستاريك:** ربما كانت قد فقدت ذاكرتها أو .. أو ربما .. أعنى قد تكون مريضة. (ص. 252)

In example 9, four hedging markers are used. The modal auxiliaries "may" and "might" are used twice and once respectively. They both represent the function of ambiguity and uncertainty though, as mentioned in chapter three, "might" can also serve

a distant possibility more than "may" can in certain cases as mentioned in chapter three. The phrase "I mean" is also used to mitigate Mr. Restarick's commitment.

The translator rendered all the hedges of the ST literally. This helped the translator to preserve the ambiguous notion the speaker intended to mitigate the notion of the proposition due to his uncertainty. However, the existence of "كانت" in the first unit of the sentence is not appropriate.

Example 10:

- **Dr. Stillingfleet:** First of all, she's not an addict. There are no marks of injections. **Someone or other, perhaps the boy, perhaps someone else was administering drugs to her without her knowledge.** No just a purple heart or two in the modern fashion. A rather interesting medley of drugs. (p. 342)
- **الدكتور ستيلينغفليت:** و في البداية أقول إنها ليست مدمنة، ليست عليها آثار لحقن، لقد كان أحدهم - أو ربما كان هو الفتى أو غيره - يدس لها المخدرات دون معرفة منها. ليس مجرد حبة أو اثنتين من الأنواع السائدة الحديثة، بل خلطة مخدرات تثير الاهتمام. (ص. 315)

In this example, the adverb "perhaps" is repeated twice. This means that the whole notion is fuzzy. The speaker avoids being direct by using "perhaps", cautiously, in order not to accuse anyone of drugging the girl.

The translation of "perhaps" as "ربما" in TT is literal and does not affect the given hedge. Although "perhaps" is mentioned twice in the ST, the translator mentioned only one hedge and replaced the other with the Arabic particle "أو" to avoid repetition. He should have repeated it since it presents a function in the ST.

Table 4: Female characters hedging

B. Female Characters Hedging		
No	ST	TT
11	I shouldn't worry if I were you. She'll ring up or turn up sooner or later, I suppose.	ما كنت لأقلق لو كنت مكانك. أظنها ستخايرنا أو تظهر عاجلاً أم آجلاً.
12	Well, I'm in rather a special position, as you might say.	يمكنك القول إنني في موقف خاص بعض الشيء.

13	I have not got time now. You can tell me this evening if you want to tell me something. Anyway, I am not in the mood.	لا وقت لدي الآن، يمكنك أن تخبريني بذلك مساء اليوم إن كنت تريدين إخباري بشيء. وعلى أية حال فلست بمزاج يسمح بذلك.
14	Very interesting. Here I am actually trailing someone. Just like in my books.	أمر مثير جداً، ها أنا ذا هنا أطارده شخصاً حقيقياً! تماماً كما في رواياتي.
15	I except I can do something to myself anyway.	أحسب أن بوسعي أن أفعل شيئاً بنفسني على أية حال.
16	Anyway, he used to write me at Christmas, send me Christmas presents or arrange for one to come to me. That was about all. So, he did not really seem very real to me. He came home about a year ago because he had to wind up my uncle's affairs and all that sort of financial thing.	على أية حال، كان يكتب إلي في الأعياد ويرسل لي هدايا. كان ذلك هو كل شيء. ولذلك فإنه لم يبدُ - بالفعل - حقيقياً بالنسبة لي. عاد إلى الوطن منذ نحو عام لأنه كان مضطراً لتصفية أمور عمي.
17	You see I thought it would be such an excellent opportunity. I'm sure you're frightfully angry but you needn't to be, you know.	الحقيقة أنني رأيت ان هذه ستكون فرصة ممتازة. إنني واثقة من أنك غاضب جداً، ولكن لا ضرورة لغضبك في الواقع. وسأشرح لك.
18	I meant my hero was following someone and I thought to myself, "Really, I know very little about following people". I meant I'm always using the phrase in a book and I've read a lot of books where people do follow other people.	أعني أن بطل الرواية كن يلاحق شخصاً، وقد فكرت قائلة لنفسني: " أنا لا أعرف - فعلاً - سوى القليل عن ملاحقة الناس ". أعني أنني استعمل هذه العبارة دوماً في رواياتي، كما قرأت الكثير من القصص التي يلاحق فيها الناس اشخاصاً آخرين.
19	I do not want to set down. I have very little time. I just came to tell you that it is absolutely untrue. I am very honest and I do what I am told.	لا أريد الجلوس. ليس لدي من الوقت إلا القليل. جئت فقط لأخبرك بأن ذلك غير صحيح إطلاقاً. إنني نزيه جداً وأفعل ما يُطلب مني.

20	I will satisfy your curiosity. I found I was having less and less patience with parents.	سوف أشبع فضولك. لقد وجدت أنني أصبح أقل صبراً مع والدي الطالبات.
----	---	---

Example 11:

- **Frances: I shouldn't worry if I were you.** She'll ring up or turn up sooner or later, I suppose.(p. 89)
- فرانسيس: ما كنت لأقلق لو كنت مكانك. أظنها ستخايرنا أو تظهر عاجلاً أم آجلاً. (ص. 82)

In example 11, two hedging markers are used by Frances when talking with her roommate. The modal auxiliary "should" is usually used in statements to show a degree of obligation. In this proposition, Frances has, directly, expressed a fact that had already been known. This means that she would not bother herself thinking about what happened to Norma. This gives a sense of lack of interest and importance. Consequently, it means that both hedges are used to reflect a lack of obligation related to the assumed truth.

Although the equivalent of "should" in Arabic is "ينبغي", the translator conveyed the implicit meaning of "should" through "ما كنت لـ". This is a good choice because it is expressed in the negative form. Here, the translator avoided literalism to render "should", producing a free translation, instead. The structure "if I" was rendered literally, making the meaning in the TT too direct and clear.

Example 12:

- **Claudia:** Well, I'm in rather a special position, as you might say. (p. 89)
- كلوديا: يمكنك القول إنني في موقف خاص بعض الشيء. (ص. 82)

In this example, Claudia uses many hedging markers when talking to Frances. The hedge "rather" is used when the speaker is not sure of the notion expressed in the proposition. Moreover, "well" has a pragmatic meaning of "I am not interested in talking, but I have to carry on". As discussed in chapter three, women tend to be more facilitative, thus the hedge is used here to facilitate the flow of a conversation because Claudia seems confident, whereas "rather" comes to add an approximation in the

utterance. AS discussed in chapter three, the modal auxiliary "might" carries an epistemic function indicating a degree of prediction and hesitation, but in this situation, the segment carries a sarcastic meaning since Claudia does not like her reaction in Norma's absence.

In the TT, the translator deleted "well", failing thus to alter the implicit meaning in the text. The modal verb is rendered here as "يمكنك", which is an obvious equivalent for "might". The phrase "بعض الشيء" is used to stand for "rather" in the TT giving a suitable connotation and meaning.

Example 13:

- **Claudia:** I have not got time now. **You can tell me this evening if you want to tell me something.** Anyway, I am not in the mood. (p. 91)
- **كلوديا:** لا وقت لدي الآن، يمكنك أن تخبريني بذلك مساء اليوم إن كنت تريد إخباري بشيء. وعلى أية حال فلست بمزاج يسمح بذلك. (ص. 84)

The example contains two hedges used by Claudia. The modal auxiliary "can" is a means used to assess the value of truth and to express a root possibility (see chapter three in this thesis). In this proposition, Claudia is sure that there is something strange with her roommate, thus the use of "can" comes to add a degree of possibility of doing something. The other hedge is the If clause, which decreases the possibility degree found in "can".

The obvious equivalent of the modal "can" in the Arabic dictionary is "يستطيع" or "تستطيع" or "باستطاعتك", and all mean that the ability sense is highly present in the Arabic equivalent as an obligation. Nevertheless, the same modal can be rendered into Arabic using another dictionary equivalent "يمكنك" or "ممكّن" or "بإمكانك", which serve a degree of possibility. Yet, the translator's choice is quite acceptable, especially with the existence of the If clause in the ST, which downgrades the high possibility state of the modal verb.

Example 14:

- **Mrs. Oliver:** Very interesting. **Here I am actually trailing someone.** Just like in my books. (p. 106)
- **السيدة أوليفر:** أمر مثير جداً، ها أنا ذا هنا أطارّد شخصاً حقيقياً! تماماً كما في رواياتي. (ص. 99)

In this example, Mrs. Oliver uses an adverb as a hedging tool. The adverb "actually" downgrades the effect of the verb "trailing". Here, Mrs. Oliver is direct in a way for accepting the idea that she was trailing someone and she had no way to get herself out of such an embarrassing situation. Thus, the hedge is used to soften the effect of the action as if she was admitting what she was involved in.

Unfortunately, the hedge serves no function in TT. The problem is that the rendering of "actually" was not altered effectively in the TT. The translator opted for "حقيقة" as an equivalent of "actually". As discussed in chapter two, coherence and cohesion are important factors that lead to functionality in translation. Unfortunately, the product, TT, here is neither coherent nor cohesive. Besides the semantic meaning, "actually" carries a pragmatic message that signals the speaker's full commitment to a certain action. Thus, the desired effect in the ST is not well preserved in the TT.

Example 15:

- **Mrs. Oliver:** I expect I can do something to myself anyway. (p. 109)
▪ السيدة اوليفر: أحسب أن بوسعي أن أفعل شيئاً بنفسى على أية حال. (ص. 101)

In this example, Mrs. Oliver is expressing her thought through a monologue. In general, the introductory verb "I expect" indicates a sense of mitigation. However, the situation is different here. The woman is alone talking to herself as if she is thinking aloud. Consequently, the mitigation sense is not terribly needed, especially when she used the modal auxiliary "can", which expresses, on the other hand, the ability and possibility of doing something.

The TT presents a good rendering of the first hedge. The translator could have presented "أظن" for example, but he did not because it carries a meaning of uncertainty. Given that "أحسب" signals the concept of "الاعتقاد", the translator succeeded in using "أحسب" to convey a sense of expectation. The modal verb "can" is translated literally, which may harm the overall meaning of expressing desired function in the proposition.

Example 16:

- **Norma:** Anyway, he used to write me at Christmas, send me Christmas presents or arrange for one to come to me. That was about all. **So, he did not really seem**

very real to me. He came home about a year ago because he had to wind up my uncle's affairs and all that sort of financial thing.(p. 125)

- **نورما:** على أية حال، كان يكتب إلي في الأعياد ويرسل لي هدايا. كان ذلك هو كل شيء. **ولذلك فإنه لم يبدُ – بالفعل حقيقياً بالنسبة لي.** عاد إلى الوطن منذ نحو عام لأنه كان مضطراً لتصفية أمور عمي. (ص. 117)

In a dialogue between Norma and Poirot, Norma uses two hedges. The hedges are an adverb "really" followed by the verb "seem". Both hedges, serve a degree of approximation and evaluation. The girl is making a judgment by assessing her father through the years. This justifies the use of hedges, which do not come into this example to serve a lack of confidence. Implicitly, the notion that the girl's language did not signal a hesitation or prediction function indicates that she was assertive when uttering her judgment here.

The translator used literal translation to render the hedges in the example. The translator rendered "seem" as "يبدُ" using the first denotative equivalent in the dictionary. For "really", the literal choice cannot serve the intended effect. The translator altered it with "بالفعل", which serves no function.

Example 17:

- **Mrs. Oliver:** You see I thought it would be such an excellent opportunity. **I'm sure you're frightfully angry but you needn't to be,** you know. (p. 135)
- **السيدة أوليفر:** الحقيقة أنني رأيت ان هذه ستكون فرصة ممتازة. **إنني واثقة من أنك غاضب جدا، ولكن لا ضرورة لغضبك في الواقع.** وسأشرح لك. (ص. 127)

In this example, Mrs. Oliver used an adverb as a hedge in her conversation with David. The personality of Mrs. Oliver, as writer of crime stories, shows the confident side when she utters her sentence. She starts by stating her full commitment to the situation, and the phrase "I'm sure" presents the fact of the proposition. Her purpose was not to hide something or mitigate it. On the contrary, she admits that she is doing something unacceptable, hence, her use of the adverb "frightfully" as a way to facilitate a communication and get more information (this is norm of women, as discussed in chapter three of this thesis).

The translator adopted the strategy of modulation to render the adverb and changed it into as "غاضب جداً". He did not use a literal equivalent, which would be something like "على نحو مخيف" or "بشكل مروع" and would result in an awkward translation and would kill the desired effect on the reader as intended in the ST.

Example 18:

- **Mrs. Oliver:** I meant my hero was following someone and I thought to myself, **"Really, I know very little about following people"**. I meant I'm always using the phrase in a book and I've read a lot of books where people do follow other people. (p. 135)

▪ **السيدة اوليفر:** أعني أن بطل الرواية كن يلاحق شخصاً، وقد فكرت قائلة لنفسي: "أنا لا أعرف – فعلاً – سوى القليل عن ملاحقة الناس". أعني أنني استعمل هذه العبارة دوماً في رواياتي، كما قرأت الكثير من القصص التي يلاحق فيها الناس اشخاصاً آخرين. (ص. 127)

Two hedging markers are used in this example. The adverb "really" is used in this context to support the notion of the proposition which is "very little" in reference to Mrs. Oliver's limited knowledge. These two hedges assess Mrs. Oliver's judgment of her ability. As discussed in chapter three, the phrase "very little" is an approximator used to downgrade a fact, which is the case in this example. Moreover, the woman is direct in expressing an implicit wish to transmit a sense of commitment; as if she is apologizing for making the addressee feels that she was following him.

The two hedges were rendered literally. The translator used "فعلاً" as an equivalent of "really". This translation is not fully suitable since the hedge reflects a pragmatic function, serving to recognize a particular action. The phrase "very little" is rendered as "القليل", which lacks the communicative value of the proposition.

Example 19:

- **Sonia:** I do not want to set down. I have very little time. **I just came to tell you that it is absolutely untrue.** I am very honest and I do what I am told. (p. 234)

▪ **سونيا:** لا أريد الجلوس. ليس لدي من الوقت إلا القليل. جئت فقط لأخبرك بأن ذلك غير صحيح إطلاقاً. إنني نزيه جداً وأفعل ما يُطلب مني. (ص. 219)

In a conversation between Sonia and Poirot, she used two hedges; both are adverbs. The use of these adverbs in this proposition signal a sign of full confidence and commitment since the girl did not avoid facing a conflict with the detective.

In the TT, the translator, again, resorts to the literal strategy to translate these hedges. This translation does not maintain desired effect of hedging in the ST. Here, the translator used the approach of Vinay and Darbelent in translation, as discussed in chapter two, which recommends literal translation. However, he forgot that they believe that literalism should be avoided when there is a good reason dictates otherwise.

Example 20:

▪ **Mrs. Battersby: I will satisfy your curiosity.** I found I was having less and less patience with parents.(p. 282)

▪ **السيدة باترسباي: سوف أشبع فضولك.** لقد وجدت أنني أصبح أقل صبراً مع والدي الطالبات. (ص. 260)

Mrs. Battersby commits herself to an obligation in a conversation with Poirot. The modal auxiliary "will" expresses a necessity and possibility in the present context. In addition, the modal signals a pragmatic function, which shows a degree of implicit politeness in order to fulfil an obligation.

The translator rendered the modal verb "will" literally. The first equivalent option for "will" in Arabic is "سوف", which conveys the same commitment to the obligation expressed in the ST.

4.4 Discussion

The analysis highlights the uses of hedging devices in a literary text in order to show how gender distinction can reflect this linguist feature from a functional perspective in Arabic translation. It examines 20 examples chosen from the novel and their Arabic translations. The analysis shows that the use of different hedging devices varies according to the user, situation, gender and the interpersonal interference of participants in communication. The following table shows the frequency of hedging devices of male and female characters that are analyzed under section 3 above.

Table 5: Frequency of using hedges in male/female dialogues

Items	Hedging of Male characters	Hedging of Female characters	Sum
Modal Auxiliary Verbs	12	5	16
Adverbials	8	7	15
Probability Adjectives	1	3	4
Introductory Verbs	2	2	5
Approximators	3	3	5
If Clauses	3	2	5
Sum	29	22	50

As illustrated in table 5, 20 examples of hedging devices were analyzed. The total of all hedges used is 50 instances of modal auxiliaries, adverbials, adjective, If clauses, introductory verbs, and approximators. The analysis has shown that the most frequent use of hedging device is the modal auxiliaries. This high ratio of using this device is due to the variable types of modals verbs such as, would, might, should and could. Moreover, the functionality of modal auxiliary verbs helps users fulfill the message of the statement for different implicit and explicit purposes, consequently, most auxiliaries are found in some of the analyzed examples. The second frequent use of hedging devices found in the analysis is the use of adverbials. This type of devices is used in 15 different instances in the analyzed dialogues. Introductory verbs, approximators, and If clauses come in third place as the most frequently used hedging devices in the data analyzed here. They were all used three times in different situations in the chosen units of the ST. The least frequent used hedging device is probability adjectives. The analysis indicates that the modal auxiliaries exceed the general use of other hedging devices, not only in this thesis, but also in everyday life conversation as an important linguistic feature for expressing ideas whether directly or indirectly.

In addition, the analysis also focuses on who uses hedging devices more. The analysis indicates that culture and gender influences affect the use of hedging devices.

Through the analysis of the 20 examples, it is apparent that men hedge more than women in different cases. For instance, example 3 presents many hedges uttered by Poirot, which shows how male use hedging more in their conversations. Women, on the other hand, use less. In example 18 Mrs. Oliver used two hedges only. This illustrates that women, compared to men, do not hedge a lot. The following chart shows the percentages of hedge use as reflected in our data analysis:

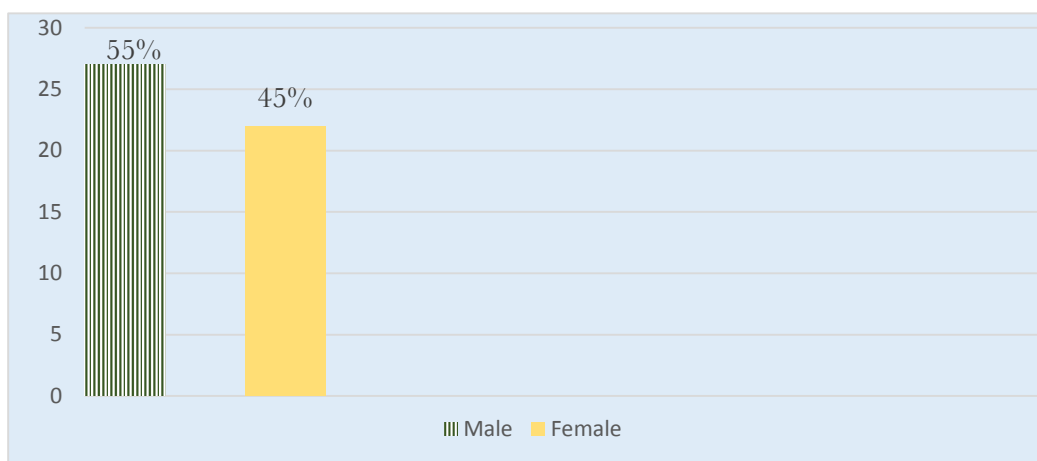


Figure 1: Frequency of using hedging

To be more specific, the use of hedging devices varies according to gender differences. As shown in table 5 above, modal auxiliaries are the most frequent devices used. Yet, to support the dominant use of hedging, modal auxiliaries were used by men, in different instances, more than women. In the examples of both male and female characters, the percentage shows that men used 73.3% of all modal verbs, whereas women used only 33.3% in their conversational interactions. For instance, example 9 illustrates this point pretty much. The adverbials were not equally used by both genders. The analysis also shows that men tend to use introductory verbs and If clauses more than women (60% by men and 40% by women). Approximators contradict the latter finding. It appears that women like to use them more than men. The analysis indicates that 60% of approximators were used by women, whereas, 40% were used by men. In addition, 75% of adjectives occurrences were used by women and 25% by men. Figure 2 below shows the total percentages of hedging devices used by men and women:

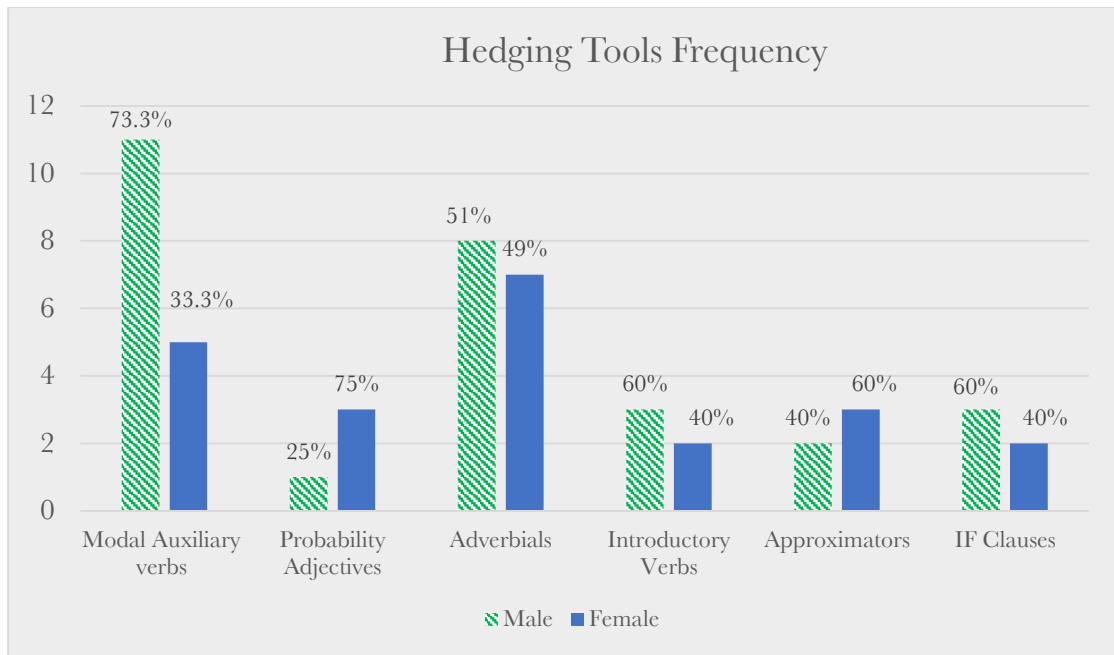


Figure 2: Male/Female frequency of hedging tools

As mentioned in the previous chapters, Lakoff, R. (1973) assumes that women use powerless language such as hedges to show a sense of mitigation and uncertainty and to avoid direct conflict with others, especially men. However, the findings of this thesis contradict Lakoff's assumption. They support the notion studied and presented by Holmes (1995). For Holmes, men are hedgier than women. When they use hedging in their conversation, the level of epistemic function increases indicating unassertiveness in the proposition. On the other hand, women use hedges but differently. She indicates that women hedge to express a socio-emotional function, which allows them to facilitate their relations with the surroundings through their conversational interactions. In the analysis of the ST, the results show that women mostly present socio-emotional functions more than epistemic functions through their interactions, whereas, men show mitigation through hedging by expressing epistemic functions more than socio-emotional ones. The following chart shows the percentages of hedging functions expressed in the 20 examples analyzed in this thesis.

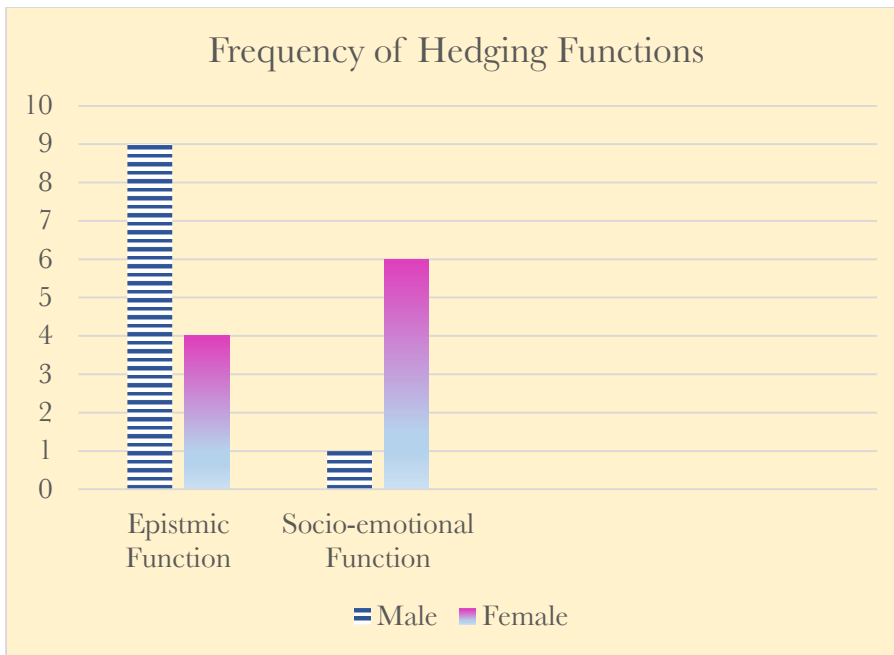


Figure 3: Functions of hedging use

To convey the effective functions of the hedges as linguistic features used in everyday life conversation, in general, and in literary texts, in particular, translators need to pay attention to the functions of hedging and hedges. Due to the obvious differences between English and Arabic languages, translators need to be aware of such distinctions and choose the most appropriate techniques strategies to remain faithful to the ST hedging. The Arabic translation of the ST examples analyzed here adopts some strategies to render the hedges.

For the epistemic and socio-emotional functions, literal translation does not seem to be an acceptable strategy in rendering some hedging devices. This strategy, unfortunately, failed to handle others as we can find in example 18.

As discussed in the analysis above, gender distinction through the use of hedging should be reflected in the translation. The translator's literal strategy cannot reflect either the functionality or effect of both epistemic and socio-emotional functions. This indicates that communicative translation instead should be used whenever gender differences occur in language. Figure 4 shows the strategies used in the translation of the examples analyzed here.

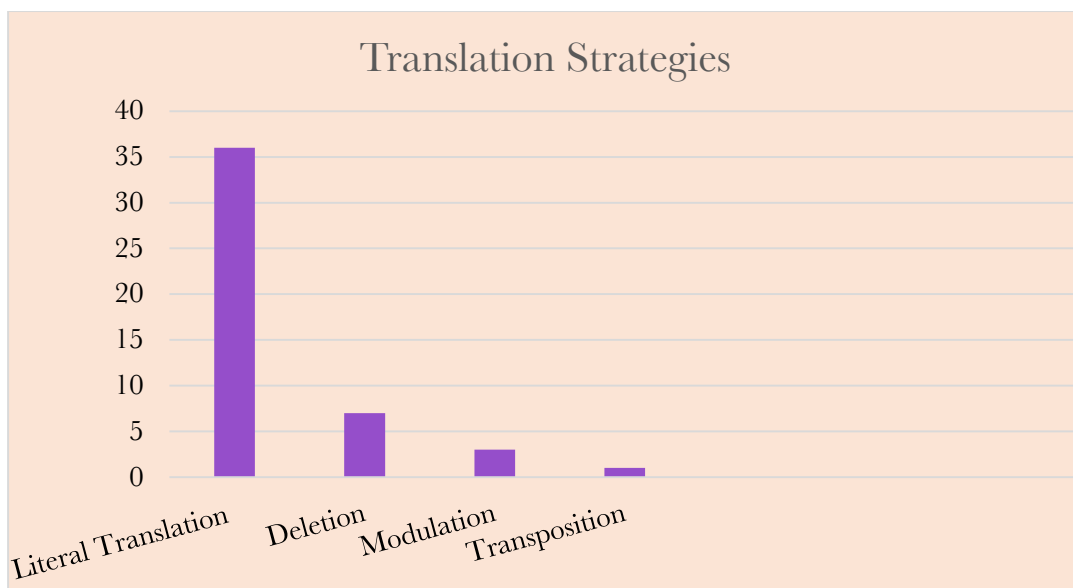


Figure 3: Frequency of translation strategies

Figure 4 shows that only four strategies were used in the translation of the hedging devices: literal translation, deletion, modulation, addition, and transposition.

Literal translation is used as the most frequent method in rendering hedges in the chosen examples. This strategy involves word-for-word rendering by providing the denotative equivalent as it appears mostly in dictionaries. Sometimes, languages have a direct and ineffective word-for-word equivalence, thus literal translation would distort the meaning of the ST. Consequently, most instances were not successful when translated literally.

The second frequently used strategy in rendering hedges is deletion. As shown in the Arabic text, it seems that the translator has adopted the deletion strategy perhaps due to a lack of awareness of what the target language can offer. In this case, the translation misses the function of the deleted hedges, affecting thus the meaning and the functionality of the hedges in the ST.

The third frequently used strategy is modulation. This strategy helps translators change the viewpoint of a statement without necessarily changing the meaning of a given word or phrase. Some adverbials in used in the examples discussed above were rendered through modulation. In general, it is acceptable to this strategy with hedging devices as it keeps the implicit message of the hedges of the ST.

Transposition was the least used strategies in the translation of hedging devices in the examples discussed above. Sometimes, addition can play a negative role similar to deletion if it used in translation. Translators think that adding a word or a segment to the TT would strengthen the meaning. In examples discussed here, the translator used addition just once, and it is acceptable since it seems to support the pragmatic meaning of the hedging device of the ST. The translator also used transposition only once, which can be an effective way for solving the problems associated with the translation of hedges.

This chapter has examined the features of hedging in a literary text. It has analyzed 20 examples chosen from Agatha Christie's *Third Girl* and their Arabic translations to determine gender difference in terms of use and functionality of hedging devices and has discussed presented. The next and final chapter covers the conclusion of the thesis offers some recommendations for this aspect of translation.

Chapter Five: Conclusion

Although hedging is an important rhetoric tool that has been studied in different types of discourse, research on hedging, specifically in literary discourse, is relatively limited. Most studies focus on hedges and hedging as a linguistic phenomenon that evaluates the naturalness and truthfulness level of propositions in fictional texts. In light of this issue, this thesis has examined hedging devices from a gender perspective. It has analyzed the frequency of using hedging devices in order to find out who hedges more than the other, men or women. On this basis, the epistemic and socio-emotional functions have been analyzed to see if there is a link between gender distinctions and the use of hedging devices. This was done in conjunction with the strategies used in translating hedging devices from English into Arabic taken from Agatha Christie's *Third Girl*. In all, twenty examples were chosen for analysis. These examples seemed to have caused some difficulties for the translator.

The analysis reported that the previous chapter has shown that men tend to use hedging to avoid committing themselves and to mitigate telling the truth. This means that men tend to be more epistemic in dealing with facts in conversation, which as a result, shows their doubts and guesses. Women, on the other hand, also hedge, but in at a lower level. The analysis has shown that women tend to use hedging to facilitate communication more than as a way of being cautious in communicating a certain fact in a proposition. Women's use of hedging devices in communicative interactions reflects socio-emotional functions.

As for the translation of the hedging examples discussed, four strategies were used in rendering the hedges in the twenty analyzed examples. Literal translation was the most frequent strategy used in rendering hedges by both genders. This finding illustrates that literal translation is not the most appropriate method, even if the equivalences of some English hedges exist in the TL. The second frequent frequently used strategy was, unfortunately, deletion. It seems that when faced with problems, the translator opted for deletion. As a result, the translations tended to miss the pragmatic meaning intended by the author of the ST. The strategy of modulation and transposition were also used, but they were the least frequent strategies.

The findings of this thesis suggest that hedging is a significant linguistic characteristic of the English language that needs more attention and research, particularly when it is associated with translation. Literalism is not the best choice to preserve faithfulness of the ST. As a result, pragmatic translation is the only strategy that should be used to deal with hedges. The findings also suggest that more research is needed in the area of gender and hedging in Arabic.

Finally, the findings and results of this thesis are relative as the field of hedging and gender distinctions and their effect on communication require more detailed studies. This thesis is presented as a step in this direction.

References

- Bassnett, S. (2002). *Translation Studies*. Third edition. Routledge, New York & London. Retrieved on November 8 2014, from http://elearning2.uniroma1.it/pluginfile.php/136809/mod_resource/content/1/Translation%20Studies%2-Susan%20Bassenet.pdf
- Bosch. K. (2007), When Words Are Used As Weapons: Verbal Abuse (For use with youth.), (Part 4 of a 4 part series). Retrieved on September 26, 2014, from <http://www.ianrpubs.unl.edu/pages/publicationD.jsp?publicationId=912>
- Brown, P and Livenson S. (1978). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge University Press, UK. Retrieved from http://books.google.com.sa/books?id=OG7W8yAXjcC&printsec=frontcover&hl=ar&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false
- Butler, J. (1990). *Gender Trouble; Feminism and supervision Identity*. Routledge, Chapman & Hall. Inc. London & New York. Retrieved on September 29, 2014, from <http://autof.files.wordpress.com/2010/02/butler-judith-gender-trouble-feminisim-and-the-subversion-of-identity-1990.pdf>
- Catford, J.C. (1965). *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*. Oxford University Press, UK. Retrieved on November 9, 2014, from <http://ar.scribd.com/doc/97199603/95074003-J-C-Catford-A-Linguistic-Theory-Oxford-Univ-Press-1965>
- Crompton, P. (1997). Hedging in academic writing: Some Theoretical Problems. *English for specific proposes. Vol.16, No. 4*, (pp. 271-187), Published by Elsevier Science Ltd. Printed in Great Britain. Retrieved from [http://www.academic.edu/478555/Hedging in academic writing Some theoretical problems](http://www.academic.edu/478555/Hedging%20in%20academic%20writing%20Some%20theoretical%20problems).
- De Beauvoir, S. (1989). *The Second Sex*. (H.M. Parshely, Trans.), New York, USA. (Original work published 1948). Retrieved on September 24, 2014, from <http://burawoy.berkeley.edu/Reader.102/Beauvoir.I.pdf>

- Dixon, J.A. and Foster, D. H. (1997). Gender and Hedging: From Sex Differences to Situated Practice. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*. Vol. 26, No. 1, (pp. 89-107). Retrieved on October 10, 2014 from <http://www.ello.uniosnabrueck.de/uploads/Category/GenderandHedging.pdf>
- Faiq, S, (2010). The cultural Salad in/of Translation. In Faiq, S (Ed.), *Culture in dialogue, A Translational Perspective* (pp. 13-21). Antwerp –Apeldoorn Garant.
- Fellego, A. M. (1995). Patterns and Functions of Minimal Response. Vol. 70, No. 2. Duke University Press, UK. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/discover/10.2307/45581?uid=3737432&uid=2129&uid=2&sid=70&uid=4&sid=211105258175823>
- Fraser, B. (1990). Prospective on Politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, (pp. 219-236), North-Holland. Retrieved on October 5, 2014, from http://rodas.us.es/files/01a11452-5a1f44f8-902335169c6dc03de/1fraser_wimba_SCORM.zip/files/fraser.pdf
- Gender. (2010). [Def. 1&2]. In *Merriam-Webster online*. Retrieved from www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/gender
- Gederlect. (2009). [Def. 1]. In *Free Dictionary online*. Retrieved from <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/gederlect>
- Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and Conversation. *Reprinted from Syntax and Semantics3: Speech arts, Cole et al. "Logic and conversation*, (pp.41-58). Retrieved on October 4, 2014, from <http://www.ucl.ac.uk/ls/studypacks/Grice-Logic.pdf>
- Gutt, E. A. (1989). Translation and Relevance (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from <http://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/1317504/1/241978.pdf>
- Hatim, B. and Munday, J., (2004), *Translation; An advanced resource book*. Psychology Press, 2004, Routledge Applied Linguistics Retrieved on September 25, 2014, from http://books.google.ae/book/about/Translation.html?id=0wt5L0McL2YC&redir_esc=y

- Hatim, B. (2013) *Teaching and Researching Translation*. Second Edition, Candlin & David R. Hall. Routledge, London & New York.
- Hervey, D. and Higgins. (2006). *Thinking Arabic Translation: A Course in Translation Method: Arabic to English*. Routledge. London & New York.
Retrieved on September 25, 2014, from
<http://archive.org/stream/ThinkingArabicTranslation#page/n35/mode/2up>
- Hinkel, E. (2005). Hedging, Inflating, and Persuading in L2 Academic Writing. *Seattle University, Applied Language Learning, 2005, Vol. 15, Nos, 1&2*, (pp. 29-53). Retrieved on October 8, 2014, form
<https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CBwQFjAA&url=http%3A%2Fwww.elihinkel.org%2Fdownloads.htm&ei=UVhrVO2tJpLsaLGhgJAK&usg=AFQjCNF7yFveryoUjhbsF516vFRTPiTrFQ>
- Holmes, J. (1995) *Women, Men and Politeness*. Tylor & Francis, Routledge (2013), New York. Retrieved on September 20, 2014, from
<http://books.google?hl=ar&lr=&id=UgIvAgAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PP1&dq=women+men+and+politness+holmes&ots=N1ceihf9x&sig=6RO13QdbafMALfsOCwlcPseYgA&rediresc=y#v=onepage&q=women%20men%20and%20politness%20holmes&f=false>
- Hyland, K. (1994) Hedging in Academic Writing and EAP Textbooks, English for Specific Purposes. *Vol. 13, No. 3*, (pp. 239-256). Elsevier Science Ltd, USA.
Retrieved on September 27. 2014, from
<http://www2.caes.hku.hk/kenhyland/files/2012/08/Hedging-in-academic-writing-and-EAP-textbooks.pdf>
- Hyland, K. (1998). *Hedging in scientific research articles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. Retrieved from
<http://benjamins.com/#catalog/books/pnb.45/preview>
- Introduction to Communication, Genderlect theory of Deborah Tannen (n.d).
Retrieved on September 25, 2014, from <http://pencil-pushing.blogspot.ae/2012/40/week-10-genderlect-theory-of-deborah.html>

- Lakoff, G. (1973). Hedging A Study in Meaning and Criteria and the Logic of Fuzzy Concept. *Journal of Philosophical Logic* 2 (4): (pp.458 – 508). Retrieved on September 19, 2014, from <https://georgelakoff.files.wordpress.com/2011/01/hedging-a-study-in-meaning-criteria-and-the-logic-of-fuzzy-conceptsjournal-of-philosophical-logic-2-lakoff-19731.pdf>
- Lakoff, R. (1973). Language and Women's Place. *Language in Society, Cambridge University Press, Vol. 2, No.* (pp. 45-80). Retrieved on September 23, 2014, from <http://kwcel.org/KWC EL 2013/Extension Material files/Lakoff 1973-%20Language%20and%20Women%27s%20palce.pdf>
- Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. Longman Linguistics Library. London and New York. Retrieved on December 30, 2014, from <https://abudira.files.wordpress.com/2012/01/principles of pragmatics godfrey leech lancaster.pdf>
- Markkanen, R. and Schröder, H. (1997). Hedging: A Challenge for Pragmatics and discourse Analysis. In Markkanen, R. (Eds.) et al. *Hedging and Discourse: Approaches to the Analysis of a Pragmatic Phenomenon in Academic Texts*. (pp. 3-21). Berlin, Walter de Gruyter. Retrieved from http://books.google.ae/books/about/Hedging and Discourse.html?id=srsxDOTAUgQC&redir_esc=y
- Markkanen, R. (Ed) et al. (1997) *Hedging and Discourse: Approaches to the Analysis of Pragmatic Phenomenon in Academic Texts*. Berlin, Walter de Gruyter. Retrieved from http://books.google.ae/books/about/Hedging and Discourse.html?id=srsxDOTAUgQC&redir_esc=y
- Martin, M. P. (2005). *The Rhetoric of the Abstract in English and Spanish Scientific Discourse: A Cross-Cultural Genre-Analytic Approach (Europäische ... 21: Linguistics/Serie 21: Linguistique)*. Peter Lang AG. European Academic Publishers, Bern 2005. Retrieved on November 21, 2014, from <http://books.google.sa/books?id=dGIXgadhygwC&pg=PA70&lpg=PA&dq=lyons+1977+hedges&source=b&ots=iWJDnqJLMV&sig=48olvhCQEFCOCloyyi>

3cOX35HvI&hl=ar&sa=X&ei=SS1vVM5IMitaaXugYgG&ved=0CC4Q6AEw
AQ#v=onepage&q=lynos%201977%20hedges&f=false

- Munday, J. (2001). *Introducing Translation studies: Theories and Applications*.
Routledge. USA & Canada Retrieved on September 25, 2014, from
[http://staff.uny.ac.id/sites/default/files/pendidikan/Donald%20Jupply,%20S.S.,%
20M.Hum/Reference%20Book%203Introducing%20Transtion%20StudiesTheo
ries%20and%20applications.pdf](http://staff.uny.ac.id/sites/default/files/pendidikan/Donald%20Jupply,%20S.S.,%20M.Hum/Reference%20Book%203Introducing%20Transtion%20StudiesTheories%20and%20applications.pdf)
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. Prentice Hall, UK. Retrieved on
September 25, 2014, from [http://www.academic.edu/4022864/A Translation Book
by Peter Newmark](http://www.academic.edu/4022864/A%20Translation%20Book%20by%20Peter%20Newmark)
- Nord, C. (1997). *Translating as a Purposeful Activity: Functionalist Approaches
Explained*. University of Applied Scns of Magdebur-Stndal, Germany (pp. 131-
143). Retrieved on October 15, 2014, from
<http://journal.teflin.org/index/php/teflin/article/viewfile/108/96>
- Ortells, E. & Posteguillo, S. (2002). Stylistic Gender differences in the Literary
Representation of Detective Talk. *Jaume I University.Revista Alicantina de
Estudios ingleses* 15 (2002), (pp.153-1) Retrieved from
[http://rua.ua.es/dspace/bitstream/10045/5259/1/RAEI 15 10.pdf](http://rua.ua.es/dspace/bitstream/10045/5259/1/RAEI%2015%2010.pdf)
- Reid, J. (1992). Gender differences in minimal responses. *Bundoora, Victoria :
Linguistics Program, La Trobe University, Volume 5*. Retrieved from
<http://arrow.latrobe.edu.au:8080/vital/access/manager/Repository/latrobe:33134>
- Reiss, K (1971). Type, Kind and Individua;ity of Texts: Decsion making in translation
(Kitron, S. Trans). In Venuti, L. *The Translation Reader* (Eds.), (pp.160-171)
Routledge, New York. Retrieved on January 6, 2015 from
[http://www.tlu.ee/UserFiles/Katariina%20Kolloed%BE/E%20Banhard/ebooksclu
b.org The Translation Studies Reader-1.pdf](http://www.tlu.ee/UserFiles/Katariina%20Kolloed%BE/E%20Banhard/ebooksclub.org%20The%20Translation%20Studies%20Reader-1.pdf)
- Reville. (2010). [Def. 1]. In *Merriam-Webster online*. Retrieved from
<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/revile>

- Robinson, D. (1997). *What is Translation? Centrifugal Theories, Critical Interventions*. Kent State University Press, Kent, Ohio and London, England.
- Salager-Meyer, F. (1994). Hedges and Textual Communicative Function in Medical English Written Discourse. Elsevier Science Ltd. *Vol. 13 No. 2*, (pp. 149-170). USA. Retrieved from:
[http://file:///C:/Users/clasic/Downloads/00b495221fa92a4a59000000%20\(3\)](http://file:///C:/Users/clasic/Downloads/00b495221fa92a4a59000000%20(3)).
- Sperber, D & Wilson, D. (2006). Relevance Theory. In Laurence, R. H and Gregory, W. *The Handbook of Pragmatics*. (pp. 608 – 632). USA, Blackwell. Retrieved from <http://www.stiba-malang.ac.id/uploadbank/pustaka/MKLINGUISTIK/HANDBOOK%20OF%20PRAGMATICS%20HORN.pdf>
- Sex. (2010). [Def. 1]. In *Merriam-Webster online*. Retrieved from www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/sex
- Snell-Hornby. M, (1995), *Translation Studies, an integrated approach*. The Netherlands. John Benjamins Publishing North America.
- Translation. (2010). [Def. 1]. In *Merriam-Webster online*. Retrieved from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/translation>
- Vermeer, H. J. (1989) Skopos and Commission in Translational action (Chesterman, A. Trans). In Venuti, L. *The Translation Reader (Eds.)*, (pp.221-232) Routledge, New York. Retrieved on January 6, 2015 from [http://www.tlu.ee/UserFiles/Katariina%20Kolloed%C5%BE/E%20Banhard/ebooksclub.org The Translation Studies Reader-1.pdf](http://www.tlu.ee/UserFiles/Katariina%20Kolloed%C5%BE/E%20Banhard/ebooksclub.org%20The%20Translation%20Studies%20Reader-1.pdf)
- Watts, R. (2003). *Politeness*. Cambridge University Press, UK. Retrieved on October 5, 2014, from <http://assets.cambridge.org/97805217/90857/sample/9780521790857ws.pdf>

West, C. and Zimmerman, D. H. (n.d). *Small Insults and Doing Gender*. Retrieved from [http://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CBwQFjAA&url=http%3A%2Fwww.sagepub.com%2Fupmdata%2F13287 Chapter 3 Web byte Candace West and Don H Zimmerman.pdf&ei=xuJqIsjxavKQgbAO&usg=AFQjCNG5I160BDYAAN6-kLqOL8BPT7PBVQ](http://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CBwQFjAA&url=http%3A%2Fwww.sagepub.com%2Fupmdata%2F13287%2FChapter%203%20Web%20byte%20Candace%20West%20and%20Don%20H%20Zimmerman.pdf&ei=xuJqIsjxavKQgbAO&usg=AFQjCNG5I160BDYAAN6-kLqOL8BPT7PBVQ)

Yule. G., (2010), *The Language Study*. Fourth Edition, Cambridge University Press. Retrieved on September 24, 2014, from [http://faculty.mu.edu.sa/public/uploads/1378843468.6083The%20Study%20Of%20Language%20\(2th%20Edition\).pdf](http://faculty.mu.edu.sa/public/uploads/1378843468.6083The%20Study%20Of%20Language%20(2th%20Edition).pdf)

Zadeh, L. A. (1965). Fuzzy set. *Information and Control*, 8 (pp. 338-353). University of Caledonia. Retrieved on September 28, 2014, from <http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~zadeh/papers/Fuzzy%20Sets-Information%20and%20Control-1965.pdf>

Zadeh, L. A. (1972). Fuzzy languages and their relation to human intelligence. *Man and Computer. Proc. int. Conf.*, Bordeaux 1970, (pp. 130-165), (Karger, Basel 1972). Retrieved on November 21, 2014, from <http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~zadeh/papers/Fuzzy%20Languages%20and%20their%20Relation%20to%20Human%20and%20Machine%20IntelligenceMan%20and%20Computer%20Proc%20Intl%20Conf-1970.pdf>

Zimmerman, D. H and west, C (1975). *Sex Roles, Interruptions and Silence in Conversations*. University of California, USA. Retrieved on November, 11, 20, 2014, from <http://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/zimmermanwest1975.pdf>

Work Examined

Christie, A. (2002). *Third Girl*. Harper Collins Publishers, London, UK. Copyrights© 1966 Agatha Christie Limited (a Chorion Company). All rights reserved. www.agathachristie.com, ISBN 978-0-00-712110-6

كريستي، أغاثا: الفتاة الثالثة. ترجمة نبيل البرادعي. ط 3. دار الأجيال للترجمة والنشر 2005.

Retrieved on August 15, 2014, from <http://www.liilas.com/vb3/t53722.html>

Vita

Haya H. Alajmi holds a B. A. in English language and literature from Damman University. She has over five years of academic experience in teaching and translation at Damman University and different governmental institutions in Saudi Arabia. She joined the MATI program at AUS in Spring 2013.