

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the researcher needs theories to collect and analyze the data. The researcher divided this chapter into two parts. The first part is the review of the underlying theory and the second is the previous study.

A. Review of Related Theory

In this subchapter, the researcher will present done related theories that will be used in analyzing the data.

1. Pragmatics

The study of meaning is carried out by the addresser so that the meaning is generated by the addressee in a communication called pragmatic (Yule, 1996). Peccei (1999) provides an explanation that understanding the meaning is not only based on linguistic knowledge but also includes knowledge of physical and social. In this case, the addressee is not just a study of addresser's meaning, but more in-depth that is recognizing about meaning but also recognizing the addresser's meaning by his / her utterances (Yule, 2006).

Murcia, et al. (1989) provides a broader explanation that pragmatic is the study of relationship explicitly between linguistics forms and human as the users. Therefore, pragmatic is concerned with people intentions, assumptions, beliefs, goals, and all kinds of actions while using language. Pragmatics is concerned with the use of these tools in meaningful communication (Griffiths, 2006). It is about the interaction of

semantic knowledge with our knowledge of the world, taking into account the context of use. It is simply said that pragmatics is the study of the addresser's meaning.

The area of pragmatics deal with the addresser's meaning and contextual meaning. In this case, addresser's meaning is concerned with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances rather than what words and phrases in those utterances might mean in and of themselves. An example, when the addresser who has come back from the school at noon and says "I'm hungry", semantically views of this utterance is that the addresser feels pangs of hunger. However, pragmatically a view is that probably functions as a request for lunch. On the other hand, if the addresser after having completed lunch and says, "I'm hungry", pragmatically views of this utterance is that probably functions as a complaint expressions. Perhaps the addresser asks request for dessert. From the explanation above, to understand what the addresser means, necessarily context that can be used as a consideration to understand the meaning of the addresser utterance. Therefore, Murcia, et.al (1989) state that any utterance can take on various meanings depending on who produced it and under what circumstances. Therefore, from the explanation above can be concluded that pragmatics is a study about the addresser meaning based on the context.

In communication, the addresser does not only convey what it says but also what it implies. It also explores how the addressee's intention in

order to arrive at an interpretation of the user's intended meaning. It is related to the contexts and situation which such language uses occur in some way, how to use language socioculturally in appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in communicative interaction.

Pragmatics allows us to understand the meaning not only based on the meaning of the sentences but also based on the situation and our background knowledge; furthermore, pragmatics is a general study of how context influence the way sentence conveys information.

2. Context

As mentions in the previous part that contextual factors are important to point in studies of pragmatic with discourse in the study. Nunan (1993) states that context refers to the situation giving rise to the discourse and within which the discourse is embedded. From that statement, context is simply defined as the circumstance or situation around which influence the conversation. Thus, it is an essential factor in the interpretation of utterances and expressions.

Furthermore, Nunan (1993) also categorizes the context into two types; they are linguistics and nonlinguistic context. The first one is related to the language surrounding the discourse, while the second one is associated with the other-than-language or experimental context within which the discourse takes place. The non-linguistics context includes:

- a. The types of communicative events (e.g.: joke, story, lecture, sermon, conversation, and greeting);

- b. The topic;
- c. The purpose (function, e.g. stating, describing, thanking, and praising);
- d. The setting (physical aspects, such as location and time, and psychological aspects: emotional situation);
- e. The participants and the relationship between them; and
- f. The background knowledge and the assumption of the participants.

Dell Hymes uses the acronym speaking to introduce the context in the use of language which is often associated with communicative competences (Wardhaugh, 2006);

1) Setting and scene (S)

Setting refers to the time and place and physical condition where the conversation takes place. Meanwhile, scene refers to the abstract, psychological situation or cultural definition of an event.

2) Participant (P)

Participants refer to various relationships of speaker-listener, address-addressee, or sender-receiver. It includes the social specified role in the choice of languages, such as the levels of formality and informality.

3) Ends (E)

Ends refer to the expected outcomes or the purposes and the goals which are resulted in the conversation.

4) Act sequence (A)

Act sequence refers to the actual form and content of what is said, the utterances which are used, and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic.

5) Key (K)

Key refers to the tone, manner, or spirit where the particular message is conveyed. It is also in relation with the nonverbal actions such as behavior, gesture, and posture.

6) Instrumentalities (I)

Instrumentalities refer to the choice of the channel used in the conversation, such as spoken or written, as well as the choice of the actual form of speech such as register, dialect, or code which is chosen by the speakers.

7) Norms of interaction and interpretation (N)

Norms of interaction and interpretation refer to the specific behaviors and properties associated with the conversational exchange, such as the way to open the conversation in a specific language which is related to its cultural aspects.

8) Genre (G)

Genre refers to the forms or the types of utterances, such as poems, proverbs, jokes, sermons, prayer, lectures, or editorials.

Holmes (2001) also proposes that a conversation occurs by the influence of social factors. Those social factors are commonly shortened as 5W (Who, Whom, Where, What, and Why).

a) The participants (Who or Whom)

‘Who is speaking?’ and ‘To whom they are speaking?’ refer to the participants of the conversation speaker and listener or addresser and addressee. It also includes the relationship occurring between the participants.

b) The setting or social context (Where)

‘Where are they speaking?’ refers to the settings physical or psychological contexts around the conversation. The physical aspect includes the location, time, season, and year. Meanwhile, the psychological aspects involve the feeling of the speaker.

c) The topic (What)

‘What is being talked about?’ refers to the topic being discussed in the conversational exchange. The understanding of the topic by the participants is necessary to maintain the conversation. Consequently, the same background knowledge and assumption is a must for both the speaker and the listener.

d) The function (Why)

‘Why they are speaking?’ refers to the purpose of the conversation, such as informing, commanding, inviting, suggesting, promising, greeting, congratulating, and thanking.

3. The Roles of pragmatics in ELT

In applying four English skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing occur not separately, but each ability correlates with others in the process of English learning and teaching. For example, before students are able to speak English well, as a second language, they first get the knowledge of correct pronunciation, appropriate vocabulary, even the use and compilation of sentences from listening to their teacher's speaking. This is called listening. They can also get it all from reading a text.

Using and compilation of its sentences does not occur freely. There are rules that should they convey through English can be understood correctly and pragmatically. These are the rules in forming well and correct pragmatic competencies in English language teaching (Deda MA, 2013);

- a) The goals and the objectives of language must be designed to meet learners' learning needs so that they are able to develop and improve their communicative competence. This is happening because the main purpose of second language learning is to provide the communication fluency and accuracy both in written and spoken mode in communication. The first thing that must be done by language teachers and learners is they must pay attention to designing communicative communication in order to achieve communicative competence as the purpose of communication.

Stern (1983) summarized 'competence' in language teaching as:

- i. The intuitive mastery of the forms of language.
- ii. The intuitive mastery of the linguistic, cognitive, affective and sociocultural meanings, expressed by the language forms.
- iii. The capacity to use the language with maximum attention to communication and minimum attention to form.
- iv. The creativity of language use.

Obviously, the term competency invites teachers and learners to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic skills, to achieve communication completely and accurately.

- b) The language teacher should design the course material to engage the learners in the pragmatic, coherent and functional uses of language for communicative purposes. As Erton (1997:7) claimed, "The functional study of language means, studying how language is used. For instance, trying to find out what the specific purposes that language serves for us, and how the members of a language community achieve and react to these purposes through speaking, reading, writing and listening".

Pragmatic learners' competencies must be well developed so that they are able to communicate accurately. The development of coherence and the ability to react in different situations will show a good level of functional competence. The grammar of target language

should not be taught separately from its use. The learner must be able to practice the knowledge of the language.

- c) There are a number of activities useful for the development of pragmatic competence. Moreover, they should raise the learners' awareness of the importance of such competence in the process of acquiring the target language. Mey (1993) stated that Linguistic behavior is social behavior. People talk because they want to socialize, in the widest possible sense of the world: either for fun, or to express themselves to other humans, or for some 'serious' purposes, such as building a house, closing a deal, solving a problem, giving information and so on.

Mey (1993) also claimed that language is a tool for humans to express themselves as social beings and the language used in certain contexts is important in terms of linguistic interactions that occur. Such a context naturally presupposes the existence of certain societies, with implied and explicit values, norms, rules and laws, and with all living conditions: economic, social, political and cultural.

4. Cooperative Principles

The way a person does various activities with various approaches to interaction is called the cooperative principle (Grice, 1975). The addresser shapes his/her utterances to be understood by the addressee. For example, when X produces an utterance, then Y will respond it relevantly. In the cooperative principle, Grice divides the principle into four maxims;

there is the maxim of quality, the maxim of quantity, the maxim of relevance and maxim of manner.

5. Hedges

a) Definition of Hedges

Hedges are to protect the addresser that what he/she says is not totally accurate. Dealing with this, Yule states that hedge an expression used by speakers when they are not sure to observe cooperative principles (1996). With hedges, the utterances get neutral and plain.

b) Classification of Hedges

Yule divides hedges into four types; these are hedges of the quantity maxim, hedges of the quality maxim, hedges of relation maxim, and hedges of manner maxim (1996).

1) Hedges of the quality maxim

Hedges of the quality maxim will apply when the addresser has the limited information and the addresser does not fully obey the information. The degree of informativeness of messages can be eliminated by using some phrases *as far as I know.....; I am not sure if this is true.....; I may be wrong, but.....; I may be mistaken, but.....; I am not sure if this is right, but.....;, I guess.....; and so on.*

As far as I know, smoking damages your health.

In this utterance, the addresser is making a very strong statement saying *smoking damages your health*. If this is the case, it means that the addresser is fully responsible with the quantity of the information he/she share. But by prefacing it with, *as far as I know*, the addresser simultaneously eliminates the quantity of information being conveyed and advises the addressee to measure how much he/she observes the maxim of quality.

2) Hedges of the quantity maxim

When the addresser does not as truthful as normally expected, he/she will practice the hedges of the quality maxim. The well-roundedness of utterances can be hedged with some phrases, among other things are *they say,.....; as you probably know,*; *I can't stay more,*; *I probably do not need to say this, but.....*; *so, to cut a long story short,.....; I won't bore you with all the details, but.....* and many others.

***I probably do not need to say this, but I
came across your boyfriend in Cineplex 21
with her former girlfriend.***

Prefacing the utterance with *I probably do not need to say this, but.....*, the addresser suggests that his/her addressee needs to gauge how much he abides by the maxim of quantity. Those phrases suggest that the message may not be as well founded as would normally be expected. So, *I probably do not need to say this,*

but..... serve a comment on the extent to which the addresser is abiding by the maxim of quantity.

3) Hedges of the relation maxim

The hedges of relation maxim will be used by the addresser if he/she does not obey that his/her says is relevant. Phrases which can be used for showing the irrelevance are *oh, by the way,.....; I am not sure if this is relevant, but.....; I don't want to change the subject, but.....; I don't know if this is important, but.....; This may sound like a dumb question, but.....; Well, anyway.....* and others.

Oh, by the way, have you seen my book?

Just imagine that it is stated by one of your friends in the middle of the discussion on the movie. Those utterances show that the speaker would like to change the current topic. To signal his/her addressee that he/she violates the maxim of relation, he/she prefaces his/her utterances with *oh, by the way,.....*

4) Hedges of the manner maxim

The addresser delivers messages in perspicuous ways by using hedges of manner maxim. The addresser delivers the messages because the messages may be obscure, ambiguous, not brief, and not in good order. Expression that can be used to signal the perspicuous ways are *I am not sure if this is clear, but.....; I*

don't know if this makes sense, but.....; this may be a bit tedious, but.....; if you see what I mean.....; this may be a bit confused, but..... and so on.

I am not sure if this is clear, but locution is the utterance and illocution is the act.

Please imagine that the utterance is stated in front of engineering students, who are not familiar with pragmatics concepts. Stating *locution is the utterance and the illocution is the act*, the addresser realizes that she presents an obscure topic. To signal the obscurity the addresser hedges the utterance by saying *I am not sure if this is clear, but.....*

6. Communicative Competence

Widdowson (1989) described the communicative competence is not a matter of knowing rules for the composition of sentences and being able to employ such rules to assemble expressions from scratch as and when occasion requires. It is much more a matter of knowing a stock of partially preassembled patterns, formulaic frameworks, and a kit of rules, so to speak, and being able to apply the rules to make whatever adjustments are necessary according to contextual demands. Communicative competence in this view is essentially a matter of adaptation, and rules are not generative but regulative and subservient.

Thus, as Widdowson said, communicative competence is the ability to put language for communicative purposes. The communicative

competence considers language as a tool used for communication. This competency focuses on the development of four language skills, and on the correlation between the skills. Canale and Swain (1980) considered the term communicative competence as a mediator which refers to the relationship between grammatical competence (the knowledge of the rules of language) and the sociolinguistic competence (the knowledge of the rules of language use).

Communicative competence includes some aspects; these are sociolinguistic competence, interactional competence, cultural competence, strategic competence, discourse competence, and pragmatic competence that will explain below;

a) Sociolinguistic competence

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to interpret the social meaning of a linguistic item and to decide and use language in an appropriate social meaning for communicative purposes. As Savignon (1983) mentions that sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of socio-cultural rules of discourse and language. It requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used; the roles of participants, the information they share, and the function of interacting.

As Erton (2007) further explains in his article applied Pragmatics and Competence Relations in Language Learning and Teaching, the sociolinguistic information which the speakers convey

to each other share a pragmatic competence which helps them to interpret and act in different situations by making use of different contextual clues. There are also included components like; culture and interaction, which reflect the fundamental concepts of verbal and non-verbal communication

b) Interactional competence

Kramsch (1986) in her article From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence defines the term interaction as interaction entails negotiating intended meanings, i.e., adjusting one's speech to the effect one intends to have on the listener. It entails anticipating the listener's response and possible misunderstandings, clarifying one's own and the other intentions and arriving at the closed possible watch between intended, perceived, and anticipated meanings.

As Erton (2007) concludes, considering this definition, it can be said that interactional competence not only makes the use of structural rules of language but also runs the psycho-linguistic and socio-linguistic functions of language which help to provide accuracy and clarity to the mutual comprehension of the speech acts covered in the course of a conversation. Thus, the so-called functional competence, involves the ability to establish the tie between the question and its equivalence in particular real-life situation, recognizing the speaker's intention by evaluating his/her body language, awareness of the semiotic symbols used, types of social

interaction (i.e. introducing, greeting, farewell, etc.), the communicative functions of language, acting accordingly and appropriately.

c) Cultural competence

Lyons (1990) defines the term culture as, “Culture may be described as socially acquired knowledge: i.e. as the knowledge that someone has by virtue of his being a member of a particular society.” Thus, cultural competence can be defined as the ability to understand and use language in a way that would be understood by the members of that culture.

According to Le (1978), "When we come to the central question of 'competence' we have to ask: 'What is it an individual needs to know, in order to operate as a member of this society?' Society only exists in the competence of its members to make it work as it does; a language only exists in the competence of those who use and regard themselves as users of that language, and the latter competence is the essential mediating system for the former."

Here, the term competence is regarded as a living social action which affects social behavior in order for the latter to be achieved clearly and to avoid misunderstandings.

d) Strategic competence

Canale and Swain (1980) defined strategic competence as an ability which deals with the knowledge of language and the ability to

use this knowledge effectively and appropriate to purpose in order to take an active part in communicative interaction.

As Erton (2007) further clarifies, "... the strategic competence is the link that ties 'everything' together. A typical example for this case can be: if you are late to a meeting and if you need to find a good excuse, the white lie that you utter at that time is a product of your strategic competence which reflects criteria of the competence types that the language used has. However, under the title of strategic competence, the critical and the creative aspects of the human mind can also be considered as well."

Thus, under such speaking terms, there is accordance between strategic competence and critical thinking. Richards (1998) says, "Critical reflection refers to an activity or process in which experience is recalled, considered and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as the basis for the evaluation and the decision-making and as a source for planning and action."

As Richards mentioned as well, critical thinking is part of an evaluation of language and information, both being based on experience and knowledge. There might be included other factors such as accuracy, coherence, unity. As such, this process can be

considered as a strategy between questions and answers, stimulating critical thinking.

e) Discourse competence

Erton (2007) says “... discourse competence deals with the ability to arrange sentences into cohesive structures. In Discourse Analysis, the term discourse competence is studied within the limits of conversational interaction where language is considered a tool for successful communication. Such interactional patterns can be of great variety.”

As Akmajian (1997) exemplifies, “There are many forms of discourse and many forms of talk exchange. Letters, jokes, stories, lectures, sermons, speeches, and so on are all categories of discourse; arguments, interviews, business dealings, instruction, and conversations are categories of talk exchanges. Conversations (and talk-exchanges in general) are usually structured consequences of expressions by more than a single speaker.”

Therefore, the development of discourse competence helps the language learner to gain insight by experiencing different interactional patterns in varying socio-cultural and physical contexts.

f) Pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence refers to the ability to comprehend, construct, and convey meanings that are both accurate and appropriate

for the social and cultural circumstances in which communication occurs.

Blackman (cited in Barron: 2003) identified pragmatic competence as one element of communicative competence, placing pragmatic competence as part of illocutionary competence, which is a combination of speech acts and speech functions along with the appropriate use of language in context.

In simple terms, Pragmatics is about culture, communication, and in the case of second languages, about intercultural communication. In order for second language learners to acquire pragmatic competence, they need to acquire cultural understanding and communication skills.

According to Watzlawick, on Novinger (2001) "We cannot communicate. All behavior is communication, and we cannot behave." Every behavior or action can be considered communication, and each of our actions reflects our cultural background including our opinions towards gender, religion, sexual orientation, lifestyle, politics, and even personal space.

7. Classroom Discourse

The concept of language classroom discourse has undergone various interpretations. Nunan (1993) views classroom discourse as the distinctive type of discourse that occurs in classrooms. Discourse in the language classroom is a matter of the oral use of language in the

classrooms. At least 35 years ago, an important direction in applied linguistics and education research sought to understand the nature and implications of classroom interactions, or what is commonly referred to as «classroom discourse». One influential approach to the study of spoken discourse, as acknowledged by (McCarthy, 1991), was carried out by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) at the University of Birmingham. Sinclair and Coulthard suggested a three-tier approach, beginning-middle-end, to focus on the distinct (moves) that take place in discourse, which can be considered as question-answer-comment in the classroom environment, or command-acknowledgment-polite formality, as occurs in a shop between the client and the shopkeeper.

Broadly speaking, classroom studies can be viewed from three different perspectives (Johnson and Johnson, 1998):

- 1) From the perspective of interaction (between teacher/learners with each other).
- 2) From the perspective of the effects of instruction on language development.
- 3) From the perspective of whether different methods of instruction have different effects on language development.

According to (Chang, 1999), discourse in a classroom can be divided into four structures as follows: IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback), Instruction, Probing Questions, and Argumentation.

IRF: IRF may have a traditional pattern of discourse when the teacher asks a question, the student answers and the teacher evaluates. The teacher continues to ask another question and so the sequence continues. «In this typical three-part structure, the teacher initiates a question in order to check a student's knowledge, a student's responses, and the student's response is evaluated with feedback from the teacher» (Our focus) (Richards et al., 1992). The students' answers are usually brief and students are concerned about giving correct answers that are expected by the teacher. The main role of the teacher is asking questions, but only a few students are actively involved.

Instruction: Another type of discourse is giving instructions. The teacher gives directive or informative statements. The students do not answer verbally; however, they understand the statements as instructions by following them physically.

Probing Questions: The probing question is another discourse structure. The teacher asks Referential questions or «thinking questions» (Brown, 2001) and the students are encouraged to give longer answers through their thinking. Their answers may challenge the teacher's position. However, the evaluation does not come immediately after the students' responses.

Argumentation: Argumentation can be regarded as probing questions where the teacher involves the students in a challenging situation in order to make them justify their reasons. The questions asked

are commonly Referential questions, which try to elicit predictions, explanations, and clarification from the students. The argumentation may be in question or statement forms.

8. Oral Communication in ELT

The notion of oral communication (OC) has many interpretations and among the most frequently used words to describe it are the transmission, understanding, interaction, meaning making, and symbolic process. It is generally defined as a process where participants interact with one another for the purpose of creating and exchanging meaning. Oral communication reflects the persistent and powerful role of language and communication in human society. As Halliday (1978) explains, communication is more than merely an exchange of words between parties; it is a sociological encounter and through an exchange of meanings in the communication process, social reality is created, maintained and modified.

Communication is a dynamic interactive process that involves the effective transmission of facts, ideas, thoughts, feelings, and values (Rahman, 2010). Rahman (2010) adds oral communication is the spoken interaction between two or more people by exchanging of meaning and understanding. The interaction is far more complex than it seems. As the speaker and hearer, they should get the successfully of communication. For successful communication, students require more than the formal ability to present well and a range of formulaic expressions. Successful

communication is context-dependent and therefore embedded in its particular discourse community (Bizzell, 1989).

To achieve successful oral communication, there are several factors that must be considered;

i. The teaching situation

Lightbown & Nina (1999) point out two different ways of instructing pupils when teaching a foreign language, where *the traditional instruction environment focuses on learning the target language itself* and *the communicative instruction environment* emphasizes using the target language in conversations and other interactive language activities. According to Lightbown & Nina (1999), the traditional structure-based approach to foreign language teaching emphasizes practicing isolated grammatical structures and through this creating habits whereas the communicative approach focuses on communicating meaning. In the communicative approach teaching only focuses on grammar in order to make the communication work.

All language teachers should strive for pupils becoming communicatively competent. In order for this to happen the teacher should encourage the pupils' own initiative to express themselves orally in the target language classroom (Ericsson 1993). A learner-centered activity such as group work, which forces pupils to talk to each other spontaneously asking each other questions and

responding in a natural way, is one example of how this can be practiced. Through group-work "students produce not only a greater quantity but also a greater variety of language functions (for example, disagreeing, hypothesizing, requesting, clarifying, and defining)" (Lightbown & Nina, 1999).

Brumfit in Johnson & Morrow (1986) claims that pupils in the foreign language classroom should frequently be exposed to the target language and the pupils should be given many opportunities to use the language. Further Brumfit points out that foreign language pupils learn the target language by using the language systematically and by experimenting with these systems which they have created.

ii. Motivation

Learning is an active process within the pupil and when acquiring new knowledge motivation has a decisive influence on the result (Ericsson 1993). With the increased emphasis on communication in the foreign language classroom, a very challenging task for foreign language teachers is to get the pupils to take an active part in conversations where they express themselves freely. A reason why this can be hard is the fact that pupils do not really have a real reason to talk to each other and the language classroom many times feels artificial to them. Ur (2005) claims that in order to get the pupils to communicate with each other and

express themselves freely in the target language it is necessary to use interesting topics, but more importantly, the discourse must have a meaningful purpose.

A language can never be regarded as an isolated phenomenon but instead, the language should always be taught and practiced in a context (Ericsson 1993). In the 60s Ausubel distinguished between rote learning and meaningful learning, where he argued that different items of a language should not be acquired separately. According to Ausubel language should be acquired in a meaningful way (in Brown, 2000).

Tornberg (1997) points out how important it is that pupils understand that what they practice and learn in the foreign language classroom is meant to be used outside the classroom situation, in reality. According to Tornberg pupils tend to associate foreign language teaching only with what they practice in the classroom. Ur (2005:9) also mentions the importance of using exercises in the foreign language classroom that are useful to the pupils outside the school. Ur points out the advantage of letting the pupils practice oral communication through role-play since role-play "is close to genuine discourse and provides useful practice in the kinds of language the learners may eventually need to use in similar situations outside the classroom".

Granath & Vannestål (2008) suggest that language teachers could use the Internet for meaningful communication in the foreign language classroom. Through the Internet language teachers have the possibility of letting the pupils practice communicating in an authentic context. According to Granath & Vannestål language teachers use the computer in their teaching mostly for word-processing and information search and very few language teachers use the computer for authentic communication. The pupils in the English foreign language classroom could, for instance, communicate with pupils in different parts of the world via e-mail, chats or communicate orally via for instance Windows Live Messenger or Skype. They could also participate in an authentic discussion forum on the Internet provided by for example Le Monde or BBC. Granath & Vannestål also mention that even though some of these types of communication are written, most of them use a form of language that is similar to spoken language.

iii. Self-esteem

Speakers' emotions, or the affective domain, have a significant impact on foreign language learning. Even though linguists agree on this it is difficult to describe the factors scientifically (Brown, 2000). One of the factors of the affective domain is self-esteem. Brown (2000) also examined the relationship between self-esteem and a learner's willingness to

communicate in the target language. He noted that “a high level of communicative ability does not necessarily correspond with a high willingness to communicate.”

Tornberg points out that pupils who study a foreign language usually think that it is important to be able to speak the language. However according to Tornberg to be able to communicate in the target language a certain amount of self-esteem is required: “The pupil has to more or less decide to dare to throw him-/herself into that uncertainty that limited language knowledge means” (Tornberg, 1997). Brown (2000) also mentions the importance of pupils being courageous in the foreign language classroom and points out that a pupil’s self-esteem is stimulated by a classroom climate where the pupils accept each other.

In communicating, the speaker and listener must also pay attention communication strategy. Communication Strategy is defined as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his or her meaning when faced with some difficulty” (Dornyei, 1995). Communication Strategies help the learners to keep on using the language in communicating with others. According to Dornyei (1995), there are twelve types of Communication Strategies:

- a) Message abandonment: the strategy of leaving message unfinished because of language difficulties. For example; a learner says "he took

the wrong way in mm..." (He/she does not continue his/her utterance).

- b) Topic avoidance: the strategy where learners try not to talk about concepts which they find it difficult to express. For example; a learner avoids saying certain words or sentence because he/she does not know the English terms or forget the English terms.
- c) Circumlocution: the strategy used by learners in which they describe or paraphrase the target object or action. For example: if a learner does not know the word corkscrew, he/she replaces it by saying '*the thing that you use to open the bottle*'.
- d) Approximation: the strategy in which a learner uses an alternative term to express the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible. For example; *ship* for *sailboat*; *a pipe* for *water pipe*.
- e) Use of all-purpose words: This is the strategy when learners expand an empty lexical item to the context where certain words are lacking. For example; the overuse of the words *thing*, *stuff*, *make*, *do*, *what-do-you-call-it*, *what-is-it*.
- f) Word coinage: a learner creates an L2 word based on his/her knowledge of morphological rules. For example; *vegetarianist* for *vegetarian*. (*vegetarianist* is not stated in the dictionary).
- g) Use of nonlinguistic means: a learner uses non-linguistic resources such as mime, gesture, facial expression, and sound imitation to help

him/her in expressing the meaning. For example; a learner uses his/her hands and acts like flying to refer to *birds*.

- h) Literal translation: the strategy in which learners translate a lexical item, an idiom, or a structure from their L1 to L2. For example: *do not enter sign for no entry sign*.
- i) Foreignizing: learners use the L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically. For example; a learner does not know the word tap, he/she uses the L1 word, that is *kran* but with L2 pronunciation, so he/she says *kren*.
- j) Code-switching: the strategy in which learners use their L1 word with L2 pronunciation. For example: if a learner does not know the word *baki*, he/she will say '*baki*' with L2 pronunciation.
- k) Appeal for help: the strategy where the students ask other students or teacher for help because they do not know or forget some words, structures, or idioms. for example; a learner may ask his/her friend by saying '*What do you call.....?*'
- l) Use of fillers/hesitation devices: a learner may use filling words to fill pause and to gain time to think. For example: *well, as a matter of fact, now let me see, I think, you know, you see, um, mm, ah, sort of, OK, right, really*.

9. Speaking Skill

There are many definitions of speaking according to experts. Harmer (2007) states speaking in the ability to speak fluently and

presupposes not only knowledge of language features, but also the ability to process information and language 'on the spot' while Quiantly (1990) defines speaking as the process of transmitting ideas and information orally in a variety of situation.

Nunan (2006) defines speaking as the use of language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called fluency. Speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and nonverbal symbols, in a variety of contexts (Chaney, 1998). Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994).

Therefore, the researcher concludes that speaking is the ability to produce the language and share their ideas.

There are six categories of oral production that are expected from learners in the classroom. They are imitative, intensive, responsive, transactional, interpersonal, and extensive (Brown, 2001). The explanation for each of the categories is given below;

i. Imitative

A limited speaking practice may be spent on generating tape recorder speech. For example, learners practice an intonation contour or try to pronounce particular speech sounds. An activity of this kind is carried out to focus on some particular language elements.

ii. Intensive

Intensive speaking includes any speaking activity to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. This activity can be self-initiated, or a form of pair-work activity in which learners goes over certain forms of language. The forms of language learned can be passive voice or causative.

iii. Responsive

Responsive requires replies; replies to the teacher or to fellow learners. This may take the form of comments to other learners' explanation. These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into the dialog. For the examples below;

T: How are you today?

S: Pretty good, thanks, and you?

T: What is the main idea in this essay?

S: The United Nations should have more authority.

T: So, what did you write for question number one?

S: Well, I wasn't sure, so I left it blank.

iv. Transactional (dialogues)

Transactional is an extension of responsive. In this activity, learners make dialogues in which they communicate their feelings or opinions or specific information. The following is an example of how a responsive is extended into transactional.

T: What is the main idea in this essay?

S: The United Nations should have more authority.

T: More authority than what?

S: Than it does right now.

T: What do you mean?

S: Well, for example, the United Nations should have the power to force a country like Iraq to destroy its nuclear weapons.

T: You don't think the UN has that power now?

S: Obviously not. Iraq is still manufacturing nuclear bombs.

v. Interpersonal (dialogues)

Interpersonal dialogues are carried out to maintain social relationships among the participants/interlocutors. In this activity, the dialogues do not merely ask for information. There are factors that should be taken into account such as what register will be used, whether colloquial language is used rather than a formal one if sarcasm is involved and so forth. The following example is taken from Brown (2001).

Amy : Hi Bob, how's it going?

Bob : Oh, so so.

Amy : Not a great weekend, huh?

Bob : Well, far be it from me to criticize, but I'm pretty miffed about last week.

Amy : What are you talking about?

Bob : I think you know perfectly well what I'm talking about.

Amy : Oh, that... How come you get so bent out of shape over something like that?

Bob : Well, whose fault was it, huh?

Amy : Oh, wow, this is great. Wonderful. Back to square one. For crying out loud,

Bob : I thought we'd settled this before. Well, what more can I say?

Learners need to learn how such features such as the relationship between interlocutors, casual style, and sarcasm are coded linguistically.

vi. Extensive (monologues)

An extended monologue is carried out by intermediate and advanced learners. The forms may take in oral reports, summaries, short

speeches, or presentation. In an extensive monologue, learners can either prepare this earlier or not.

B. Review of Previous Studies

Many studies have been done related to the matter of hedges types in ELT classroom discourse. The study was using hedges by the tertiary students when addressing questions in a discussion session of a presentation to the presenters and the lecturer. There were nine students of Language in using a course of the master of English education program in a State University in Bandung. Introductory phrases were the most frequently-used forms used to hedge and hedges function mostly to attenuate epistemic commitment in addressing questions. Although hedges used when addressing questions in a discussion session of a presentation, some findings indicated that the hedges were not entirely in line with academic conventions. Then, the researcher used qualitative research and the data conducted by transcribing and coding the hedges types used by tertiary students (Faris, 2015).

Hedging devices also used in Kurdish spoken of 35 people discourse to indicate a lack of complete commitment to the truth of the proposition, and a desire not to express the commitment categorically, or to lessen the impact of an utterance. The research showed that hedging as a mitigating device is extensively employed in different conversations. The study has shown hedging devices have the same roles in Kurdish as they have in English. They used hedges to reduce the certainty and sureness of the utterances. It indicated that some pragmatics devices modify the epistemic strength of the statement

in the Kurdish language just as they do in English and Arabic. The researchers conducted data by applied observation, tape recording, and interviews (Behnam & Khaliliaqdam, 2012).

Hedges of the speeches of King Abdullah II of Jordan, as well as to examine the pragmatics functions of these devices. Twenty-five political speeches of King Abdullah II, randomly selected from the official website of King Abdullah were analyzed adopting Salager-Meyer's taxonomy. The study revealed that the most frequently used hedging device in King Abdullah's speech is modal auxiliaries, and the most frequently used hedging device subcategory is the modal auxiliary "can". The findings suggest that these hedging devices fulfill several pragmatics functions. These findings contribute to the understanding that speaking a second language (Arabic, in the case of King Abdullah II) neither affects the types of hedging devices nor the functions these devices perform. Moreover, contrary to scientific discourse (e.g., medicine), the research concludes that political discourse as a non-scientific genre resort to hedging devices to express indirectness, politeness, lack of commitment and probability. The researchers applied a mix method there is a quantitative and qualitative approach (Rabab'ah & Rumman, 2015).

China English lecturer often use interpersonal metafunction when teaching English in their classroom. It aims is the classroom environment or teacher-student relationship becomes a concern for the registries features of teacher talk in EFL classroom and the application of hedges can contribute to

the positive emotional response in the process of learning. This study is determined by the contextual variables, and it can enable learners to move beyond their current interlanguage receptive and productive capacities. The method in this study is qualitative research by applied classroom observation and transcription from the teacher-students interaction (Jixin & Xiaoting, 2017).

Not only in China, but a study in Iranian also showed that there is a significant difference in using of hedges between female and male English lecturer' spoken. Their teaching experience varied from 15-19 years with their age ranged between 41 until 50 years old. This study shows that male lecturer use hedges more often than female lecturer with a difference in the female corpus is 35,54 compared to 41,93 in male lecturer corpus. The researchers used a mix method in this study. The first approach in this study is a qualitative approach. In other words, they are carefully analyzed in their contexts that are functioning as hedges. One teaching session of each instructor was videotaped and the instructors were asked to view their video and to recollect their reasons for resorting to different activities for teaching. Their recollections were recorded and transcribed. And the second is the quantitative approach, which is also presented to identify the frequency of various devices and to produce comparable data across the genders (Tajik & Ramezani, 2018).

A study has been conducted also on the use of hedges and boosters in L1 and L2 argumentative paragraphs of Turkish students. The results of this

study showed the participants in this study often express an appropriate degree of certainty and pragmatics vagueness while writing in L1 and L2. The findings further indicate that there is a parallelism between the teaching materials used in academic writing classes and the types, frequencies, and functions of hedges and boosters produced in L2 paragraphs. This research showed that the frequency of using hedges in L2 is higher than L1. It happened because of differences in their language and culture (Sedef, 2012).

All of those previous studies stated that how to use hedges in spoken utterances and written utterances. However, its only focus on teachers' and students' presentation analyzed by qualitative research (transcribed and coded the hedges' type), the king's speech applied observation, tape recording, and interviews (qualitative research), English teacher's talk analyzed by qualitative research applying classroom observation and transcription, even the differences of using hedges by male and female researched by using mix method namely qualitative and quantitative, and students' written analyzed by descriptive statistics qualitative approach.

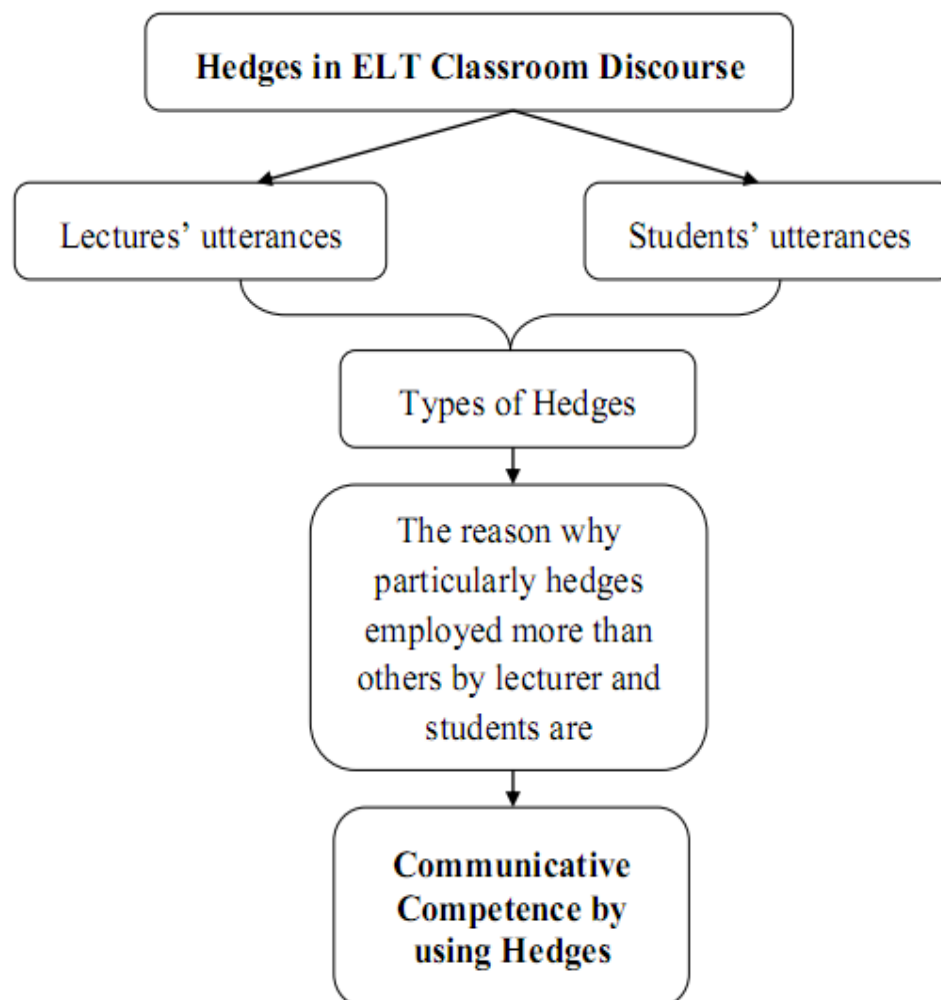
These make the current research is different because the current research is about hedges in ELT classroom discourse especially in teachers' and students utterances, furthermore to understand the impact of hedges used by teachers and students to the flow of communication in the classroom. The current research will provide an explanation of how communicative competence by using hedges in ELT classroom. Thereafter, the researcher analyzed the data by applying qualitative research used classroom observation, documentation, and interview the

teachers and students who used hedges in their utterances. Therefore, although there may have been researched with similar topic and method, the result of the research will have been different.

C. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual frameworks of hedges in ELT classroom which can be drawn in this present study are as follow:

Diagram 2.1. Conceptual Framework



Hedges in ELT classroom discourse consists of lecturers' and students' utterances. The utterances get from lecturer lectures, the

communication between lecturers and students, and also the communication between student and others. The appropriate oral languages which polite can be obtained by analyzing the types of hedges that are used by teachers' and students' utterances with their contexts in the classroom. There are four types of hedges; hedges of the quality maxim, hedges of the quantity maxim, hedges of the relation maxim, and the last is hedges of the manner maxim.

Not only to know the types of hedges used in classroom discourse but also know the reason why particularly hedges employed more than others by lecturer and students are. The function of this step is to make ensure that they really have used hedges in their utterances. In addition, this aims also to find out the reasons why they kind of hedges in their utterances.

It believes that by understanding the reason why particularly hedges employed more than others by lecturer and student are, this can help to confirm the researcher's interpretation about the use of hedges by lecturers and students. It means that when they understand how to use hedges, reasons, and objectives of hedges, it will help addressers and addressees to understand their context of communication more clearly. It can also add deep insight into pragmatic functions in the communication. Thus, this study intended to understand the types of hedges that use in ELT classroom discourse. Afterwards, how the impact of hedges used by teachers and students on the flow of communication in the classroom is.