

A Comparative Study on the English to Persian Translation of Hedges in the Abstracts of M.A. Theses in English Translation Studies

Elham Azarbad*1, Vahid Ghahraman2

¹MA candidate in English Language Translation Studies, Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch, Tehran, Iran ²Assistant Professor of TESOL, Iran Encyclopedia Compiling Foundation, Tehran, Iran

Received: 14 May, 2018 Accepted: 12 July, 2018

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the distribution of functions and forms of hedging devices in the abstracts of master's theses in two languages (English and Persian) written by Iranian students. To this end, 70 abstracts of M.A. theses were selected as the corpus. The total number of words in both English and Persian abstracts were 19,933 and 23,073, respectively. The categories of hedges were extracted based on Hyland's taxonomy of hedge. The data were analysed using a number of Chi-Square analyses. The results showed that there was a significant difference between English and Persian texts in the use of hedging. There were more hedging devices in English abstracts, while the Persian versions employed fewer hedge devices. The differences were interpreted to be related to the degree of awareness, purpose, cultural background of the learners, etc. The findings of this study can be helpful in teaching academic writing, teaching Persian to speakers of other languages, and translation instructors.

Keywords: Form, Function, Hedging, Metadiscourse

INTRODUCTION

The concept of hedging was first introduced by Lakoff (1973, p. 471) as the words or phrases that represent fuzziness that are used to modify the verity value of the proposition. Hyland (1998) believed that a hedge is a linguistic device that has two essential objects: lack of complete commitment to the truth of a proposition and desire not to express that commitment categorically. In another seminal paper, Hyland (1994) clarified two reasons for the use of hedging devices. Firstly, hedges allow claims to be made with due

caution, modesty, and humility. Secondly, the status of such claims is diplomatically negotiated when referring to the work of colleagues and competitors.

One of the most important aspects in the translation process which should be considered is faithfulness and understanding of the source text to convey the purpose of the writer to the reader. The most noticeable point which has not received enough attention is when the author by using the hedging makes a fact more indistinctive or ambiguous. Researchers must be very careful of the method they present their hypotheses, results, and conclusions. They hedge whenever they are not

^{*}Corresponding Author's Email:

St_e_azarbad@azad.ac.ir

sure how much exactly their works are, and to reduce the opposition of others against their statements. The present study hopes to identify and compare the forms and functions of hedging devices in theses through only one specified discipline, and between English and Persian. In addition, this research compares the frequency of forms and functions of hedging devices across the abstract sections.

The word 'hedging' in literal meaning indicates the sense of 'restrict', 'defense', or 'limit'. This term in language, usually refers to those statements which cause uncertainty, means that they carry inaccuracy, or in other words, decrease the strength of the statements that speakers or authors produce (Chan & Tan, 2000). The term hedging itself is broad and multi-functional and often overlaps with other aspects such as modality, politeness, indirectness and vagueness.

The interest in hedging and using it in academic/scientific writing has been growing in recent years. Hedging in the academic world is cited as "uncertainties, indirectness, and nonfinality" (Mauranen, 1997, p. 115). It is interesting that hedges play a major role in academic discourse. Although academic writing traditionally was assumed to be merely impersonal and informational, today it is generally recognized that academic discourse is interactional (Hyland, 1998).

Hence, if scholars want to effectively bring forward logics, they must formulate their claims to be as acceptable as possible to their colleagues (Hyland, 1998). This work is what Meyer (1997) has called "strengthening the argument by weakening the claim" in his study of written academic discourse. This 'weakening of the claim' is achieved mainly through hedging. In a hedged form even radical allegations seem more cautious and experimental, which raises their fortunes of approval. Hence, the academic world suggests a good condition for studying hedging in its interpersonal operation.

Varttala asserts (2001) that the rationale for using hedges in academic writing lies in the fact that this type of writing must be prepared to con-

front a rather not sympathetic response of the audience. Academic writing should be able to raise the writer's reliability forming a trusted description of the researcher's analysis. Hence, persuasion becomes a rather essential part for the consecution of this means. As Varttala says:

This need apparently rises from the requirements imposed upon the RA author by the assumed degree of the audience's background knowledge and the possibility of opposing views on the part of the readership, it being clear that alongside the theories and methods preferred and conclusions drawn by one scientist or group of scientists, there may exist other approaches to the phenomenon under scrutiny (p. 67).

So, it seems that using hedges is an unsought trail through the structure of academic writing. On the whole, hedges can fit academic authors with a diversity of resources for the creation of their discourse in a context. Authors infix their writing through a certain social universe and they reflect agreed discourse functions in their works. To do this, there are some aspects which cause writing to become an academic piece of writing. Methadiscourse features are those aspects which connect the text to its context and they are applied strongly through academic texts. According to Hyland (2005, p. 37) methadiscourse is selfreflective linguistic article referring to the evolving text and to the author and assumed reader of that text.

Despite the fact that functions of hedges have received a lot of attention, no one can find a unity in the company of researchers about the functions that hedge words fulfill. The first function of hedges was introduced by Coates (1991) that is the expression of doubt and less (more) confidence. Generally, hedges are applied to express uncertainty. Coates (1991) believes that man as a talker, uses hedging to show his lack of trust in truth of the proposition expressed in the statement.

Some researchers have proposed that this theory deals with women's use of discourse. How-



ever, Holmes' (1982) analysis that was based on an equal number of female and male speeches, shows contrasting with those of Lakoff 's; it was shown just in 33 of 89 cases the women used hedges did they signal uncertainty, whereas men expressed uncertainty 50 times of a total 87 (Coates, 1991). Lakoff, along with other researchers, is the most outstanding researcher who investigated 'hedging' from various perspectives. Furthermore, other researchers have studied about hedges from different sides too, and they have focused on specific genre types, revealing functions and characteristics of hedges in textbooks and student discourse (Hyland, 1996), economic texts (Donohue, 2006), medical discourse (Salager Meyer, 1994; Varttala, 2001), research article abstracts (Gillaerts& Van de Velde, 2010; Hu & Cao, 2011), and molecular genetics articles (Hyland, 1994). Among all of the noted genre types, the functions of hedges in written discourse, especially in scientific discourse, have changed to the focus point of a significant number of studies.

Hyland (1994) noted two primary patterns for the functions of hedge words and sums them up: representing assertions with sure degree of caution, modesty and humility, and diplomatic negotiation of the claim when referring to work of collogues and competitors. In addition, he noted that whenever a writer needs to expand his supposition into knowledge, he also needs to attain acceptance from the audience. To achieve this, he needs "linguistic and rhetorical means of persuasion" (Hyland, 1994, p. 435), and this may be the

basis for applying of the hedge words. Crompton (1997, p. 273) specified an expression for hedge words that the main function is to clearly define the author's lack of commitment to the truth value of a proposition. Clemen (1997) believed that the approach of gaining hedging is from setting statements in context instead of straight forward utterance.

Varttala (2001) considered the issue from another viewpoint. He believed that the hedge words have various functions in different specialist and common research articles. To him, in a common research article, hedging represents textual precision and interpersonal negative politeness, and in specialist research articles it functions as textual tools for both imprecision and precision and a feature of interpersonal positive politeness. Specialist articles mention to those articles that are written by an expert for other experts, while popular articles mention to those articles that are written by an expert to non-expert readers.

Hyland (1998) observed that hedges can express a range of different meanings; hence, the proposed model is not stringent as it is not always possible to distinguish between the meanings or to relate one linguistic form to a specific function. A hedge does not always permit a single, unequivocal pragmatic interpretation; thus, the polypragmatic model was created. Hence, Hyland (1998) designed the polypragmatic model for hedging devices to consider for the multifunctional character of hedging words. He, by providing this design, presents the Figure 1:

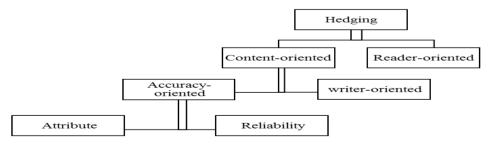


Figure 1. Categorization of the Scientific Hedges



According to this model, Hyland (1998) divides hedges within the context of academic discourse into two main categories: content-oriented and reader-oriented hedges. From his point of view, Content-oriented hedges serve to make less the connection between propositional tenor and a non-linguistic mental representation of reality; they hedge the relationship between what the author says about the world and what the world is supposed to be like (1998, p. 162). He also divided the content-oriented hedges into accuracyoriented and writer-oriented hedges. These two categories conflict each other. Hyland explains that the principal function of accuracy-oriented hedges is to attain to validity by indicating departure from an ideal or by indicating that a proposition is based on an acceptable argument or logical deduction in the absence of complete consciousness They ask that the reader interpret what is stated is true as far as can be specified.

The major difference between writer-oriented and accuracy-oriented hedges is that writeroriented hedges concern with the writer's presence in the text while accuracy-oriented ones increases precision. Therefore, "...accuracyoriented hedges are proposition-focused..." (Hyland, 1998, p. 170). The category of accuracyoriented hedges consists of attribute and reliability hedges. Attribute hedges are used "to indicate the degree of precision intended and convey the sense in which an idea may be held to be true" (Hyland, 1998, p. 165). Attribute hedges consist of items such as adverbs, style disjuncts, and qualification. Reliability hedges, however, indicate "writers' confidence in the certainty of their knowledge" (Hyland, 1996, p. 437), and convey the author's certain or uncertain truth in a proposition. Reliability hedges are expressed by epistemic modal verbs, epistemic adjectives, epistemic nouns and adverbs, content disjuncts, and proposition of alternative claims (Hyland, 1996).

One of the main categories of Hyland's polypragmatic model is a *reader-oriented* one, which often deals with the interpersonal interaction between readers and authors. *Reader-oriented* hedges bring readers to reply and judge about the truth value of the proposition by involving them in a talk and show them as thoughtful individuals. A great number of devices such as modal verbs, personal pronouns, references, the indefinite article, conditionals, questions, epistemic verbs might be used in order to build this writer reader relationship. *Writer-oriented* hedges limit the involvement in the statement in order to protect themselves against a likely distortion of the proposition; in fact they deal with the writer's presence in the text. For the purpose of this study, the six following questions were put forward:

- 1. Is there any significant difference between the Persian and English abstracts of M.A. theses in English Translation Studies in terms of form in the case of *modal verbs*?
- 2. Is there any significant difference between the Persian and English abstracts of M.A. theses in English Translation Studies in terms of form in the case of *epistemic lexical verbs*?
- 3. Is there any significant difference between the Persian and English abstracts of M.A. theses in English Translation Studies in terms of form in the case of *epistemic adjectives*?
- 4. Is there any significant difference between the Persian and English abstracts of M.A. theses in English Translation Studies in terms of form in the case of *epistemic adverbs*?
- 5. Is there any significant difference between the Persian and English abstracts of M.A. theses in English Translation Studies in terms of form in the case of *epistemic nouns*?
- 6. Is there any significant difference between the Persian and English abstracts of M.A. theses in English Translation Studies in terms of *function*?

METHODS

The initial corpus of this study was based on a collection of 88 English and Persian abstracts extracted from M.A. theses of English Translation Studies from 2004--2011. Eighteen of them did



not contain any hedging devices; hence, the researcher ignored them and the final corpus was based on 70 of the abstracts that were compared for their use of hedging in English and their Persian renderings. All abstracts have been written by Persian Iranian students in Iran.

They all provided information about how translators, who were trained in the relevant field, put their abilities into action in rendering abstracts using hedging devices. The abstracts were selected randomly from among Iranian universities. Hopefully, the present corpus size affords some valid and qualified conclusions although, it is possible that a larger number of abstracts in the corpus would present different findings. The limited size of the research corpus was due to the manual approach for corpus analysis. In addition, the majority of the online abstracts still are not accompanied with their Persian translation.

The first section, the English abstracts written by Persian Iranian authors, comprised of 70 abstracts with 93 words in the shortest and 602 words in the longest abstract sections. The latter part, the Persian articles written by the same Persian Iranian writers, comprised of 70 abstracts which range in size from 97 words to 646 words in the abstract sections. Generally, according to what was said above, 70 abstracts which include 43,006 words (19,933 words in English and 23,073 words in Persian) in both languages were analyzed.

To examine the extent of the author's awareness of the hedging phenomenon during translation and associated linguistic elements, the researchers considered applying one framework for the analysis of hedging devices. The employed framework was Hyland's taxonomy of hedges based on Hyland (1998). For practical reasons, the quantitative analysis is limited to lexical items. The researcher supposed on the basis of Hyland's taxonomy of hedges for the form of hedging devices which he used himself in his research (2005), included the following categories of hedging devices for the present study: Modal verbs (would, may, could), Epistemic lexical verbs (indicate, suggest, appear, propose), Epis-

temic adjectives (*likely, possible, apparent*), Epistemic adverbs (*apparently, probably, relatively, generally*), Epistemic nouns (*possibility*).

Based on this list, there are 101 hedging devices. The checklist is presented in Appendix A. As for the function analysis of hedging devices, the researchers employed the adapted classification which is based on the Hyland's (1998) polypragmatic model: writer-oriented and accuracyoriented. In the process of this research, certain steps were taken which are presented next: Firstly, all of the abstracts were typed in *Microsoft* Word. Secondly, every abstract was read word by word in order to identify and locate the hedges. Then, a list of the items was provided which were expressing hedges by Hyland (2005) for English abstracts and the list of these words or phrases for their Persian translation of this study which were used as an instruction. Next, the researcher classified them into the five types of hedges based on Hyland's (1998) classification. After that, the number of hedges was recorded in each abstract and in each language separately. Finally, a number of *Chi-square* tests were used to determine any significant difference in terms of distribution of hedging devices across both languages (Persian and English).

RESULTS Distribution of *modal verbs* in English and Persian abstracts

Table 1.

Chi-Square Test of the Modal Verbs

N	7
Chi-square	6
Df	1
Sig.	0.014

The findings of Table 1 show that the sig. = 0.014, p < 0.05, so it can be claimed that at the 95% CI, the hedges were significantly different in terms of *modal verbs*, in English and Persian abstracts. So, it indicates that the number of frequencies of the *modal verbs* in English abstracts is greater than the number of frequencies in the

Persian ones. According to analysis, 66 *modal verbs* are counted in the abstract of Persian and English, of which 48 hedges were found in the English abstracts and 18 hedges in the Persian ones, which indicate the amount of *modal verbs* in the English abstracts are greater than the Persian abstracts.

Distribution of *epistemic lexical verbs* in English and Persian abstracts

Table 2.

Chi-Square Test of the Epistemic Lexical Verbs

N	12
Chi-square	9
df	1
Sig.	0.003

The results in Table 2 indicate that the sig. = 0/003, p < 0/05, then it can be claimed that at 95% CI, the hedges were significantly different in terms of *epistemic lexical verbs*, in English and Persian abstracts. According to what was achieved, about 31 *epistemic lexical verbs* are counted in the Persian and English abstracts, of which 22 hedges were found in the English abstracts and nine hedges in the Persian ones, which indicates *epistemic lexical verbs* in English abstracts are more commonly used than Persian abstracts.

Distribution of *epistemic adjectives* in English and Persian abstracts

Table 3.

Chi-Square Test of the Epistemic Adjective Hedges

N	3
Chi-square	3
df	1
Sig.	0.083

The findings of Table 3 show that the sig. = 0.083, p > 0.05; hence, it can be claimed that at the 95% CI of the hedges in terms of the *epistemic adjectives* have been distributed evenly. It indicates that there is no significant difference in the frequency of the *epistemic adjective* in Eng-

lish and Persian abstracts. About 31 *epistemic adjectives* are counted in the abstracts of Persian and English, of which 12 hedges have been found in the English abstracts and 5 hedges in the Persian ones, which indicates *epistemic adjectives* in English abstracts are slightly more than Persian ones.

Distribution of *epistemic adverbs* in English and Persian abstracts

Table 4.

Chi-Square Test of the Epistemic Adverb Hedges

N	14
Chi-square	9
Df	1
Sig.	0.003

The findings of Table 4 reveal that the sig. = 0.003, p < 0.05; therefore, it can be claimed that at the 95% CI of the hedges in terms of the *epistemic adverbs* were not distributed equally. It indicates that there is no significant difference in the frequency of the *epistemic adjective* between the English and Persian abstracts.

The results of the analysis indicate that about 53 *epistemic adverbs* are counted in the Persian and English abstracts, of which 36 hedges have been found in the English abstracts and 17 hedges in the Persian ones, which shows that the number of *epistemic adverbs* in English abstracts are more than Persian ones.

Distribution of *epistemic nouns* in English and Persian abstracts

No *epistemic noun* was used in the abstracts; thus no tests were conducted. According to the results of the *Chi-square* analyses, there was a significant difference in English and Persian abstracts in terms of using *modal verbs*, *epistemic lexical verbs*, and *epistemic adverbs*, while there was no significant difference in the use of *epistemic adjectives*.



Distribution of *function* in English and Persian abstracts

Table 5.

Chi-Square Test of Function of the Hedges

N	2
Chi-square	2
df	1
Sig.	0.157

The findings of Table 5 reveal that the sig. = 0.157, p > 0.05; accordingly, it can be claimed that at the 95% CI of the hedges in terms of the *function* have distributed evenly. It indicates that there is no significant difference in the frequency of the *functions* in English and Persian abstracts. The descriptive Table 6 is used to determine the frequency of which categories are different.

Table 6.

Frequency of Function of the Hedges in the English and Persian Abstracts

	Frequency in English	Frequency in Persian	Total
Functions of hedges	104	40	144
Accuracy-oriente	ed 82	31	113
Writer-oriented	22	9	31

Table 6 illustrates that the 144 hedges in terms of *function* are counted in Persian and English abstracts, of which 104 hedges were found in English abstracts and 40 hedges in Persian ones, which indicates that the amount of *function* of hedges in English abstracts is greater than Persian abstracts.

DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS

Since the findings are based on a relatively limited sample of theses, no strong generalization can be made, but they point to new directions for inquiry on a larger scale. The current study is limited to a selection of lexical items that the readers of scientific texts are most likely to interpret as hedges.

Regarding the use of hedging by non-native speakers of English who want to function in the academic context, Salager-Meyer (1994) believed that they must be able to recognize hedging devices in written texts and employ these markers when necessary in their own research work. Using hedging devices is a common feature of scientific texts. Considering the importance of hedging devices in scientific journals, there might be a need for greater and more systematic attention to be given to this important interpersonal strategy (Hyland, 1994).

Although there were similarities in the categories of hedging devices observed in English and Persian abstracts, significant differences between the frequencies of hedges in the two languages were noted. The findings of the study revealed that English abstracts were more heavily hedged than Persian ones. Indeed, as hedging deals with vagueness, indeterminacy and doubt, English authors seem to apply more hedging devices than Persian writers as confirmed by Davoodifard (2006).

The whole result of this research is not far from what the researchers expected before the study and this research is a scientific method for the accuracy of that assumption. Many reasons can be brought forward to justify the more frequent occurrence of hedging devices in any research genre. This is discussed here with respect to discipline, data, sample size and the role of the researchers.

Structure: Every language has a unique structure. The structure of language is directly related to the level of accuracy and simplicity of the translation. The simpler the language, the easier it is to translate that language to another one.

Culture: Persian writers have more courage than English ones; as a result, Persian authors express statements more assertively and use a lower frequency of hedges, whereas English authors are less assertive and apply a higher frequency of hedges for expression of their claims and findings. Tahririan and Shahzamani (2009) mentioned that national culture is effective on the written text and it is one of the main factors of



diversities within the texts of all languages. Moreover, Jalilifar et al. (2011) believe that English writers use more hedging devices in academic texts which shows English users are more careful in expressing their claims. Consequently, it seems that Persian authors are less cautious of presenting claims. Sample size: In quantitative studies, researchers can have a large data set based on a large number of participants. Qualitative research genres, however, involve behavior, analysis and experiences, and therefore the number of participants or the research sample size cannot be very large because of the data collection method that authors are supposed to apply. Behnam et al. (2012) stated that the number of participants is higher in larger studies which means that researchers need to pay more attention to their claims; hence, they use hedging devices more frequently. Section: the abstract part of a thesis is to emphasize purpose and framework of the study. Accordingly, the writer tries to present the summary of the whole study without referring to the ideas, tables, evidence, and examples. Moreover, based on the analysis of other studies including Hyland (1998), Varttala (2001), and Falahati (2008), the frequency of hedges in the discussion section of research articles is more compared to the other sections such as abstract or conclusion. Language proficiency: According to Hyland (2000), writers of different fields have a diverse view and approach to their readers; therefore, the higher the author's awareness and language proficiency, the higher the frequency of hedges in the research text. Also Nikroo (2010) suggests that there is a deep relationship between students' knowledge and the quality of their rendering. Accordingly, students with a high level of knowledge of sentence structure can translate better. Gender: Some researchers believe that female writers are more careful than male ones in using key points and the general context of the text. According to Lakoff (1973), hedging is one of women's language features and they apply hedging devices as a language characteristic more than men. On the other hand, some findings reject that claim. Hassani and Farahani (2014)

are among those who believe that men use more hedges in their articles than women. Moreover there are many researchers such as Zarei (2011) who believe there is no difference between males and females in the use of structure and approaches of rendering.

The present study had several limitations including the following: Many researches have been done in the field of translation studies, but a limited number is associated with this research. The research studies in the past make the basis of literature review and help lay a foundation for the recognition of research problems which are being investigated. There is no strong evidence to assume how large a corpus is useful for a certain study. In the first step after choosing the topic and what should be done, the researchers began to collect theses abstracts. The first plan for gathering data was finding over 200 abstracts from Irandoc, but the researchers found out that it was not an up-to-date data base for researchers. Moreover, it was not possible to use the thesis data base for students who visited other universities. No statistical adjustments have been made for the comparison and analysis of corpora. At the moment no such software is developed for Persian corpora. Therefore, Persian corpus had to be analyzed manually.

CONCLUSION

This research sought to investigate the comparison of the forms and functions of the hedging devices in English and Persian abstracts written by M.A. students in Iran. The model employed was based on Hyland's (1998) taxonomy of hedges in academic writings. However, all of the hedging terms proposed by Hyland (1998) did not appear in the corpus as the writers tended to use a variety of hedges throughout the abstract sections in their article. By comparing English and Persian abstracts and using the Chi-square test, it was found that there is significant difference in the frequency of the hedges. Concerning hedging devices, modal verbs, epistemic lexical verbs, epistemic adjectives, epistemic adverbs were found out. The category of epistemic nouns



were absent in the corpus. Moreover, the most frequent hedging devices used were *modal verbs* in both English and Persian languages. Considering the above analyses, it can be concluded that awareness of specific linguistic features and of the typical discursive practices of the field in question are needed. Iranian writers seem to make little use of attitude markers and responsibility markers in their abstracts irrespective of the language they write in. That is, they do not desire to make explicit statement of their personal views. The collected results are hoped to be useful for both teaching second language writing in general as well as teaching English academic writing for Persian advanced learners and Persian scholars.

The findings of the present research are helpful more for M.A. students to make and develop their thesis. These findings help academic students to know the scope of applying hedging devices in various texts. Students should also be noted that hedges are useful for them when they want to get their articles published in journals that are reviewed by native English speakers and therefore find a voice in their discipline. Furthermore, the present study would aid non-native English foreign language students to improve their writing ability in grammar, especially uses of hedging devices. Language instructors, particularly in second language and foreign language contexts should familiarize learners with the role and importance of hedging devices in academic writing. In addition, the findings indicated that the education system needs to have more effective curriculum in writing courses. The findings of this study suggest that hedging is a topic that deserves more attention in specific academic purposes and researches, and perhaps most importantly, opens new vistas for further research. Based on the findings and implications from the present study, there would be no need for further research that would interrogate some issues as follows: It is suggested that researchers could collect two corpora, for example, for comparing the use of hedging devices among two different genres: medical research articles and those in the humanities. Researchers can study the different sections of theses for examining hedging devices to see if the findings are different from those of the present study. There could be a study that would search whether authors are aware of the hedging devices that they use in their claims. There could also be a study that would investigate whether or not a researcher could be said to have over hedged or under hedged. Researchers might limit the study of hedging devices in terms of research questions. For example, apart from the forms and functions of hedges, other sides of this phenomenon can be examined such as a typical collocation of hedges. Researchers can apply various theoretical models for investigating hedging devices to see if the results are different from those of the current study. This study has provided useful information regarding the existence of the hedging phenomenon in academic discourse to indicate that there is still room for further research within this genre. It is hoped that the present study may inspire other researchers to further explore such important issues.

References

- Behnam, B., Naeimi, A., &Darvishzade, A. (2012). A Comparative Genre Analysis of Hedging Expressions in Research Articles: Is Fuzziness Forever Wicked. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 2(2), 20.
- Chan, S. H., & Tan, H. (2017). MAYBE, PERHAPS, I BELIEVE YOU COULD-MAKING CLAIMS AND THE USE OF HEDGES. *THE ENGLISH TEACHER*, 9.
- Clemen, G. (1997). The concept of hedging: Origins, approaches and definitions. *Markkanen, R. & Schroder, H.(eds)*, 235-248.
- Coates, J. (1991). Women talk: Conversation between women friends. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Crompton, P. (1997). Hedging in academic writing: Some theoretical problems. *English* for specific purposes, 16(4), 271-287.
- Davoodifard, M. (2006). A contrastive analysis of hedging in English and Persian research Articles: Linguistic and cultural variations across languages and disci-

- plines. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran.
- Donohue, J. P. (2006). How to support a one-handed economist: The role of modalisation in economic forecasting. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25(2), 200-216.
- Falahati, R. (2008). A contrastive study of hedging in English and Farsi academic discourse. *ESP Across Cultures*, 5, 49-67.
- Gillaerts, P., & Van de Velde, F. (2010). Interactional metadiscourse in research article abstracts. *Journal of English for Academic purposes*, 9(2), 128-139.
- Hassani, M. T., &DastjaniFarahani, M. (2014).A Discourse Analysis of Gender Differences in the Use of Hedging Devices in Applied Linguistics Research Articles. English Language Teaching, 1(1), 59-73.
- Holmes, J. (1982). Expressing doubt and certainty in English. *RELC journal*, 13(2), 9-28.
- Hu, G., & Cao, F. (2011). Hedging and boosting in abstracts of applied linguistics articles: A comparative study of English-and Chinese-medium journals. *Journal of pragmatics*, 43(11), 2795-2809.
- Hyland, K. (1994). Hedging in academic writing and EAF textbooks. *English for specific purposes*, 13(3), 239-256.
- Hyland, K. (1996). Writing without conviction? Hedging in science research articles. *Applied linguistics*, 17(4), 433-454.
- Hyland, K. (1998). *Hedging in scientific research* articles (Vol. 54). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Hyland, K. (2000). Hedges, boosters and lexical invisibility: Noticing modifiers in academic texts. *Language Awareness*, 9(4), 179-197.
- Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc..
- Jalilifar, A., Shooshtari, Z. G., &Mutaqid, S. (2011). The Effect of Hedging

- Instruction on Reading Comprehension for Iranian University Students. *Research in Applied Linguistics*, 2(1), 69-89.
- Lakoff, G. (1973). Hedges: A study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *Journal of philosophical logic*, 2(4), 458-508
- Mauranen, A. (1997). Hedging in language revisers' hands. RESEARCH IN TEXT THEORY, 115-133.
- Meyer, P. G. (1991). Hedging Strategies in Written Academic Discourse: Strengthening the Argument by Weakening the Claim. Hedging and Discourse: Approaches to the Analysis of a Pragmatic Phenomenon in Academic Texts, 24, 21.
- Nikroo, P. (2010). The relationship between the knowledge of sentence structure and quality of translation. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 4(1).
- Salager-Meyer, F. (1994).Hedges and textual communicative function in medical English written discourse. *English for specific purposes*, *13*(2), 149-170.
- Tahririan, M. H., &Shahzamani, M. (2009).Hedging in English and Persian editorials: A contrastive study.
- Varttala, T. (2001). Hedging in scientifically oriented discourse. Exploring variation according to discipline and intended audience, Tampere University Dissertations. Electronic Dissertation http://acta.uta.fi/pdf/951-44-5195-3.pdf (10.10.2003).
- Zarei, G. R., &ofTechnology, I. (2011). Functional analysis of Iranian learners' L2: Complimenting in written discourse. *International Journal of Language Studies* (*IJLS*), 5(2), 109-122.

Biodata

Ms Elham Azarbad received her bachelor's degree from Alborz University in English Translation and master's degree from Islamic Azad University South Tehran Branch in English Translation Studies in Iran. Her areas of interest include translation and teaching English, which interest her to carry out this research and conduct further research in future.

Email: St_e_azarbad@azad.ac.ir

Dr Vahid Ghahraman is assistant professor of applied linguistics/TESL at Iran Encyclopedia Compiling Foundation, Tehran, Iran. His areas of interest include teaching EFL language skills cross-cultural pragmatics, and cultural translation.

Email: ghahraman@iecf.ir

Appendix

Table for list of hedges according to Hyland (2005):

about	certain level	from our perspective	mainly	presumably	suspect
almost	claim	from this perspective	may	probable	suspects
apparent	claimed	generally	maybe	probably	tend to
apparently	claims	guess	might	quite	tended to
appear	could	indicate	mostly	rather x	tends to
appeared	couldn't	indicated	often	relatively	to my knowledge
appears	doubt	indicates	on the whole	roughly	typical
approximately	doubtful	in general	ought	seems	typically
argue	essentially	in most cases	perhaps	should	uncertain
argued	estimate	in most instances	plausible	sometimes	uncertainly
argues	estimated	in my opinion	plausibly	somewhat	unclear
around	fairly	in my view	possible	suggest	unclearly
assume	feel	in this view	possibly	suggested	unlikely
assumed	feels	in our opinion	postulate	suggests	usually
broadly	felt	in our view	postulated	suppose	would
certain amount	frequently	largely	postulates	supposed	wouldn't
certain extent	from my perspective	likely	presumable	supposes	