CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. 1. Language and Gender

Language is not only a communication tool, but also a place which contributes to the survival of the stereotype. Fromkin et al., (2003: 482) argue that language reflects sexism in society. Language itself is not sexist, just as it is not obscene; but it can connote sexist attitudes as well as attitudes about social taboos or racism. Wood (2009: 118) claims that language is one of our most complex symbol systems. The language we learn and use both reflects and reinforces cultural views and values, including those about gender.

The concept of gender and the concept of sex have distinct meaning although people use the terms *gender* and *sex* interchangeably. Maggio (1988) stated that gender was seen as the cultural part of what it is to be a man or a woman. Words such as 'womanly' or 'manly' and 'masculine' or 'feminine' were viewed as not being connected with a person's biological sex, but as describing culturally variable characteristics. Gender was therefore cultural (cited in Archer & Lloyd, 2002). On the other hand, Wood (2009) stats that sex is a designation based on biology, whereas gender is socially constructed and expressed. Moreover, a stereotype is a generalization about an entire class of phenomena based on some knowledge of some members of the class. Many people stereotype women as emotional and weak and men as rational and strong. Such stereotypes can distort our perceptions (Wood, 2009, p. 123).

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Gender distinction also distinguishes the division of labor between men and women. The gendered division of labor in western society relies heavily on the allocation of women's function to the domestic, or private, realm and men's to the public realm. People often connect this division of labor to reproductive roles. Women, as bearers of children, are assigned not only to delivering their children, but to rising, and to the nurturing not only of children but of entire families, and to the care of the home in which families are based. In the division into private and public, women are generally in charge of caring for people's everyday needs -- clothing, feeding, cleaning, caring for children -- maintaining people and their living space on an everyday basis (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003, p.38) .

Moreover, they state that there is also an emotional division of labor in which women are expected more than men to remember birthdays, soothe hurt children, and offer intimate understanding. Wood (2009) argues that most females are encouraged to be sensitive to others and to relationships this relates women's standpoint as caregivers who often take care of children and sick family members. Women also far outnumber men in caring professions, such as social work, counseling, nursing, and human resources. Women's involvement in caring encourages them to develop a standpoint that prioritizes attending to others and being able to read their feelings and needs.

The division of labor is continued with some stereotypical view as men are more expected to judge, to offer advice and expertise, or to ''figure out'' mechanical problems. Men construct things out of wood and metal while women construct things out of fibers. Men play contact sports; women play individual

sports that do not involve physical contact. At home, women cook meals, clean homes, care for children; men do yard work, look after cars, and do house repairs. Men's activities can acquire prestige simply by their association with men, regardless of their inherent value. While most domestic cooks are women, men dominate in professional cooking -- particularly in haute cuisine. This process of gendered assessment becomes evident when what were once men's jobs lose their associated power and prestige as women begin to occupy them (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003, pp. 40-41).

Sexist language is one means by which a culture or society can perpetuate sexist attitudes. Holmes & Sigley (2002) determine the use of pseudo-generic terms, such as *-man* and *he;* gender-neutral terms such as *chairperson;* sexist suffixes such as *-ess* and *-ette*; indicate that women are often assigned subordinate status by virtue of their gender alone, and that they are treated linguistically as subordinate, regardless their actual power or social status in a particular context. The English language appears to collude in the subordination of women, in that females are 'marked' compared to males.

One striking fact about the asymmetry between male and female terms in many language is that when there are male/ female forms for the most part is unmarked and the female term is created by adding a bound morpheme or by compounding, such *prince*; *princess*, *actor*; *actress*, *host*; *hostess*, *heir*; *heiress* in which the suffix *-ess* transforms a male or generic noun into a female (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003, p.60). Additionally, lexical items as well, refer directly to male and female (as in the case of *male* and *female; girl* and *boy*).

Having established the concept of gender in language, a number of terminological distinctions beyond the typological level such *grammatical gender*, *lexical gender, referential gender* and *social gender* which focus more on the representation of women and men in a language will be explained.

2. 2. Categories of Gender

As stated earlier, this chapter introduces a number of terminological distinctions, which will focus more directly on the representation of women and men in a language; they are grammatical gender, lexical gender, referential gender and social gender. As mentioned previously, since English does not have a grammatical and referential gender, I focus my research on two categories; they are social and lexical gender.

2. 2. 1 Grammatical Gender

In Proto-Germanic, as in other Indo-European languages, all nouns, moreover, have grammatical gender. Hellinger & Bußmann (2002: 7) state that "grammatical gender is an inherent property of the noun, which controls agreement between the noun (the controller) and some (gender-variable) satellite element (the target) which may be an article, adjective, pronoun, verb, numeral or preposition." Grammatical gender indicates that every noun had to be masculine, feminine, or neuter. This grammatical gender had no necessary connection with sex or with animacy: the names of inanimate objects could be masculine or feminine, and the names of sexed creatures could be neuter (Barber et al., 2012, p.93). However, Hellinger and Bußmann (2002) note that a language might reduce

the number of its grammatical gender classes, as in the case of some Germanic, Romance, and most Iranian languages, or lose its original gender system completely, as happened in English and Persian.

Hellinger & Bußmann (2002) indicate that a "gender language" or language with grammatical gender is a language when there are just two or three gender classes, with considerable correspondence between the class membership and lexical/ referential gender in the field of animate/ personal nouns. Languages with grammatical gender represent only one type of nominal classification requiring the interaction of at least two elements, i.e. of the noun itself and some satellite element that expresses the class to which the noun belongs.

The lack of grammatical gender in a language does not mean that "gender" in the broader sense cannot be communicated. There are various other categories of gender, e.g., "lexical" and "social" gender, which may be employed to transmit gendered messages. Thus, "gender languages", languages with classifiers or noun classes, as well as those languages that lack noun classification completely (English, Finnish, Turkish), can resort to a variety of linguistic means to construct gender-related messages (Hellinger & Bußmann, 2002, pp. 5-6).

2. 2. 2 Lexical Gender

Lexical gender in English refers to the existence of lexical units such as *mother, sister, son* and *boy* are lexically specified as carrying the semantic property [female] or [male] respectively, which may in turn relate to the extra-linguistic category of referential gender (or "sex of referent") (Hellinger & Bußmann, 2002, p.7). Furthermore, Hellinger & Bußmann (2002) note that in

English such nouns may be described as female-specific or male-specific, in contrast. In any language, lexical gender is an important parameter in the structure of kinship terminologies, address terms, and a number of basic, i.e. frequently used personal nouns. Lexical gender may or may not be marked morphologically.

In English, most human nouns are not formally marked for lexical gender, with exceptions such as *widow – widower* or *steward – stewardess*, which show overt gender marking by suffixation. In addition, the choices of masculine/male expressions as the normal or "unmarked" case with the resulting invisibility of feminine/ female expressions are reflections of an underlying gender belief system, which in turn creates expectations about appropriate female and male behavior" (Hellinger & Bußmann, 2002, p. 10).

2. 2. 3 Referential Gender

Hellinger & Bußmann (2002: 8) show how referential gender relates linguistic expressions to the non-linguistic reality; more specifically, referential gender identifies a referent as "female", "male" or "gender-indefinite". In gender languages, a complex relationship between grammatical gender and referential gender obtains for the majority of personal nouns, with typical gender-related asymmetries in pronominalization and coordination. For example, a personal noun like colloquial Spanish zorrón ''prostitute'' is grammatically masculine, has a lexical-semantic specification as [female], and is generally used to refer to females.

2. 2. 4 Social Gender

Social gender is a category that refers ''to the socially imposed dichotomy of masculine and feminine roles and character traits'' (Kramarae &Treichler, 1985). Hellinger & Bußmann (2002: 11) identify that social gender arises from ''stereotypical assumptions about what are appropriate social roles for women and men, including expectations about who will be a typical member of the class of, say, surgeon or nurse.''

Since social gender is very active with English professional titles; Fuertes-Olivera, (2007: 225) states that many high-status occupational terms such as *professor* will be pronominalized as male-specific *he* in contexts where referential gender is either not known or irrelevant. On the other hand, low-status occupational titles, such as *schoolteacher* tend to be presented as female terms. However, even for general human nouns such as *pedestrian*, *consumer* or *patient*, traditional practice prescribes the choice of *he* in neutral contexts.

According to Hellinger and Bußmann (2002), social gender has to do with stereotypical assumptions about what are appropriate social roles for women and men, including expectations about who will be a typical member of the class of, say, *surgeon* or *nurse*. Deviations from such assumptions will often require overt formal markings, as in English *female surgeon* or *male nurse*. However, since the majority of general personal nouns can be assumed to have a male bias, it seems plausible to suggest that – irrespective of whether the language does or does not have grammatical gender –underlying is the principle "male as norm".

2. 3. Corpus Linguistics Point of View

Corpus linguistics is study of language based on examples of real life language use which uses a collection of natural or "real word" texts known as corpus. Moreover, McEnery and Hardie (2012) define Corpus Linguistics as the study of language data on a large scale – the computer-aided analysis of very extensive collections of transcribed utterances or written texts. Today, corpus linguistics has been applied in a wide range of areas, including lexicography, grammar, sociolinguistics, language learning, translation studies, stylistics, dialectology, and historical linguistics.

There are two types of category in conducting research of Corpus Linguistics such as corpus based and corpus driven and corpus driven. According to McEnery & Hardie (2012), Corpus-based studies typically use corpus data in order to explore a theory or hypothesis, typically one established in the current literature, in order to validate it, refute it or refine it. On the other hand, According to Tognini-Bonelli (2001: 84–5), corpus-driven linguistics rejects the characterization of corpus linguistics as a method and claims instead that the corpus *itself* should be the sole source of our hypotheses about language. It is thus claimed that the corpus itself embodies its own theory of language (cited in McEnery & Hardie, 2012, p.6). Based on Baker (2010), there are some techniques or processes that we can analyze from corpus data such as: *Frequency, Concordance,* and *Collocation*.

- Frequency is the base of corpus linguistics. It refers to the number of times word occurs in corpus. Word frequency is the frequency number of word. The list of word frequency will show frequent word from the most to the least.

- Concordance *a Concordance is a* table of all of the occurrences of a linguistic item in a corpus. Concordances are an important aspect of corpus linguistics in that they allow qualitative analyses to be carried out on corpus data, letting the researcher explore individual cases in detail. By analyzing the concordances, researchers are able to identify linguistic pattern, such as grammar, meaning, pragmatics and discourse.

- Collocation is a way of demonstrating exclusive or frequent relationship between words. If two words collocate, it will have a tendency occur near or next to each other. Collocation therefore indicates a relationship, but we may need to carry out concordancing work in order to identify exactly how the relationship is manifested in language. Identifying collocates will gives us an indication about connotation meaning of the word.

2. 4. Lexical Words

According to Dixon, (2005: 81) the lexical words of a language can be grouped into a number of semantic types, each of which has a common meaning component and a typical set of grammatical properties. One of the grammatical properties of a type is its association with a grammatical Word Class, or Part of Speech. Moreover, Dixon (2005) reports that there are three semantic types, such as types associated with the noun class, types associated with the adjective class,

and types associated with verb. The descriptions of each types are explained in this following sections.

2. 3. 1. English Noun Class

There are five major types associated with the grammatical class noun in English (Dixon, 2005, pp.82-83):

1. Concrete reference, e.g. *girl, horse, wrist*. Semantic types with concrete reference are always linked to the noun class. This type includes:

- Human; One subgroup of human relates to:

    ➢ Rank (*lady, lieutenant, chief*);

    ➢ Social group (*nation, army, crowd, company*);

    ➢ Kin terms (*father, daughter, uncle, wife*).

- Other animate;

- (Body and other) parts;

- Inanimate. Inanimate may be further subdivided into:

    ➢ Flora;

    ➢ Celestial and weather (e.g. *sun, wind, shade*);

    ➢ Environment (*air, water, stone, forest*);

    ➢ Artefacts (*building, market, door*).

Members of this type are almost all basic noun roots, although there are a few which are derived from verbs (e.g. building).

2. Abstract reference. Subtypes here include:

- Time (time itself, as well as words referring to position in time, e.g. *future, yesterday*, and units of time, e.g. *month, moment, night, summer*);

- Place (*place*, together with words referring to position or direction, e.g. *front, edge, north*, and to units of measurement, e.g. *mile*);

- Quantity (*number, amount, age, size, length,* etc.);

- Variety (e.g. *type, character, shape* and types of shape such as *circle, line*);

- Language (*sound, word, sentence, noun*); and general abstract terms such as *idea, unit, problem, method, result, truth*.

Members of this type are also predominantly basic noun roots although there are some derived stems, e.g. distance, height, and truth.

3. States (and properties). This covers both the mental (*pleasure, joy, honour; ability, sagacity*) and the corporeal (e.g. *ache; strength*) domains. Some are basic nouns (e.g. *anger, hunger*) but many are derived from adjectives (e.g. *jealousy*) and a few from verbs (e.g. *delight*).

4. Activities. Some are basic nouns, e.g. war, game, but most are derived from verbs, e.g. *decision, speculation, whipping, sale*. For almost every activity noun there is a corresponding verb, even if it is not always cognate, e.g. *play* for *game*.

5. Speech acts, e.g. *question, order, report, description, talk, promise*. In each case there is a related verb; this is usually cognate, e.g. answer, *congratulat(ion),* although there are some exceptions, e.g. *question/ask.*

2. 5. Previous Studies

The study about the representation of men and women in a particular textbook as learning material has never been conducted before at the English Department of Airlangga University, Indonesia. Therefore, the previous studies referred to in this thesis are not taken from the theses made by the students at this Department. The two previous studies that are related to my study are taken from research conducted by Holmqvist and Gjörup (2006) from University of Malmo, Sweden, and the one made by Fuertes-Olivera (2007) from the University of Valladolid, Spain. The description of their research and the comparison with the writer's research are explained in the following sections.

2. 5. 1 The Representation of Gender and Gender Roles in English

Textbooks

Holmqvist and Gjörup (2006) investigate the representation of gender and gender roles in English textbooks. Additionally, they explore how women and men are described and to what extent the textbooks show equality between the sexes. This study comprises the examination of six textbooks used in secondary and upper secondary school, two of which were published in the 1970s which are still in use in schools in Malmö. The key methods of this study are the gender distribution of narrators and main characters, the description of gender/gender roles and the representation of gender in illustrations. The illustrations are included by investigating some pictures that reflect stereotypical appearances and pictures that exceed stereotypical appearances. The results show that there is an

imbalance in the number of female protagonists; an over-representation of male authors and those occupations for female characters are mainly stereotypical or non-existent.

The difference between the writer's topic and the research conducted by Holmqvist and Gjörup is that they focused on what extent the textbooks show equality between the sexes seen from the occupations between men and women and they disregard the nouns that are related to gender possessiveness. In this study, the writer focuses not only on the occupations that are related to males and females, but also the nouns that are related to gender possessiveness that are related to males and females in Murphy's grammar book.

2. 5. 2 A Corpus-Based View of Lexical Gender in Written Business English

Fuertes-Olivera (2007) investigates lexical gender in specialized communication. Unlike Holmqvist and Gjörup (2001), he concerns on Business English rather than the English textbooks. The key method of his study is the forms of address, professional titles, and 'generic man' in a corpus of written Business English, which amounts for about 10 million words. Fuertes-Olivera found mixed results in his study. On the one hand, he found that the 'male-as-norm' principle contributes to reinforcing typical gender stereotypes. For instance, for each woman referred to in the Business English corpus, there are more than 100 occurrences for man. On the other hand, he also found that advocates of non-sexist English have influenced written Business English.

The differences between the writer's topic and the research conducted by Fuertes- Olivera is that he focuses on the use of lexical gender as: forms of address, professional titles, and 'generic man' while in this study; the writer focuses not only on the professional titles, but also the nouns that are related to gender possessiveness. In addition, Fuertes-Olivera concentrates mainly on the Business English while in my study; the writer aims to observe the representation of males and females in a British grammar book as general English.