

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW



#### 2.1 Common words

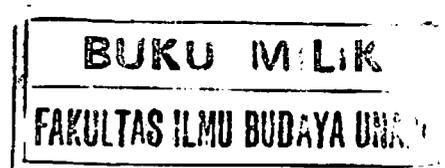
One of the earliest and most forceful insights of corpus linguistics was the importance of common words (Sinclair, 1999, p.157). A frequency describes how often certain words occur in a particular of text. According to Wright (1979), the words that are more frequent or happening often can be called as common words. Common words established a connection between the rank frequency of a word and the number of words at that rank. Sinclair (1999) suggests the common words are the words that occur in almost every line of printed English. The words *the*, *and*, and *of* in English account for 5% of all text. A words that occurs only two or three times in a million words is still quite a common one, e.g. names of trees such as *elm* , *birch*, and *hazel*.

Natural language frequency report counts of the number of times a word appears in sample of text and words that appear more frequently tend to appear in greater variety of contexts (Dennis, 1995 cited in Nelson & McEvoy , 2000). High frequency words occur in more samples of text than low frequency words and as consequences, high frequency words may be connected with greater variety of different words than low-frequency words (Nelson and McEvoy, 2000). In association tasks, high-frequency words produced more associates. Common words appear to have more connections from other words because greater variety

of words produced them as associates. (Howes, 1957 cited in Nelson & McEvoy, 2000).

Frequency counts of the number of times a given word occurs in a sample of printed words (Kucera and Francis, 1967, cited in Nelson and McEvoy, 2000). It seems compatible with the item-specific idea that frequency counts capture accessible because they are experienced more often and also because more words produce them as associates. Accessibility counts were determined by computer program that simply counted the number of times that each word was produced as a response by another word. High frequency word is within a word's associates appears for the most part to be independent of frequency occurrence. High frequency words are produced by more words in general (Rubin, 1986 cited in Nelson and McElvoy, 2000). Common words are more accessible in memory because more words in the language bring them to mind (Nelson and McElvoy, 2000). The effects of word frequency were examined in oral productions of subjects reading list of common words (Geffen and Luszcz, 1983). The reading time measure indicated that high-frequency list was read more quickly than low frequency list. The existence of word frequency bears on the interpretation of common words. The subject then produced the high-frequency word list in sequence.

Chung and Nation (2003, p.252) stated that the best way to determine vocabulary for any word is to use a rating scale that classifies words based on how closely related they are to particular subject area. Therefore, vocabulary's classification in text should be conducted. Nation (2001, p.11) mentioned that



there are four kinds of vocabulary in the text : high-frequency word, academic words, technical words, and low-frequency word. High-frequency words are the most frequent 2,000 word families of English. This vocabulary covers 80% of the running words of academic text and newspaper, and around 90% of conversation and novels (Nation, 2001, p13-17). Moreover, a content word is also classified as the high frequency word. The second type of vocabulary is academic vocabulary which is frequent to wide range of academic field. This vocabulary is like specialized extension of the high frequency words for the learners with academic goals 570 word families from Academic Word List (Coxhead, 1988 cited in Nation, 2001, p.11). The third type of vocabulary is technical vocabulary that is the word which are closely related to the topic and associated with a particular subject area of the text, such as in economic, medical, and many other areas. According to Chung & Nation (2003, p.104) the technical words are mostly used by people who have interest in examining in a specialized text. The fourth type of vocabulary consists of all the words that are not in high-frequency words, academic words, and technical words for other subject areas.

## **2.2 Language and Gender**

The writer uses language and gender theory proposed by Lakoff (2004). Through her work *Language and Women's Place*, Lakoff proposed that women's language tends to use hedge which reflects uncertainty, empty adjective like *divine, charming* etc, which represents the femininity (Lakoff, 2004, pp. 78-79). It indicates that women's language is considered as a weak and unassertive then woman tends to show the powerless language. Lakoff (cited in Coates, 2004,

p.223) who states that women have special adjectives, e.g. specialized color term, like lavender, maroon, aquamarine.

Gender and sex have different sense in the terms of language and gender research. Gender is considered as the basis of socio-culture behavior, while sex refers to show a biological distinction (Holmes, 2008). Gender builds on biological sex (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003). Sex is to very large extent biologically determined whereas gender is a social construct involving the whole of genetic, psychological, social, and cultural differences between males and females (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 315).

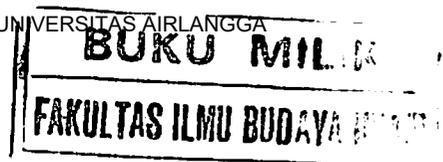
Sociolinguists have been interested in investigating whether gender could influence the linguistic features, for example pronunciation, grammar, and communication style. A lot of sociolinguists are fascinated about the way women and men communicated and whether there are linguistic gender differences (Coates, 2004). We will look at some of the evidence that there are gender differences in language use. There is a linguistic marker that is used to show the difference in the context of language and gender. It mostly involves adding or the usage of suffixes to word that represents where women “belong” occupationally. A waiter becomes a waitress, a god becomes a goddess and an actor becomes an actress. (Goddard & Patterson, 2001).

Men and women are viewed to have linguistic varieties in terms of words they used. The linguistics varieties arise because language as social phenomenon is closely related to social attitude. It means that human beings are not distinguished as males and females based on biologically, but also expectations

social roles from the society. Females and males, father and mother are given with different role attached to them. The father calls for expected roles of breadwinner, disciplinarian, and ultimate decision marker in household (Lindsey, 1990, p.2). The term of 'women' indicates the existence of euphemistic terms for women's principle, that of 'housewife' (Lakoff, 2004, p.52). Mother is closely related to roles involving love, nursing, and self-sacrifice.

One of the issues of gender and language tends to concentrate to social gender, which is the distinction we make when we use words like 'man' and woman to classify individuals in terms of their social roles (Yule, 2006, p.223). The social role of individuals as men or women indicates that is unrelated to biology, although the biological distinction (male, female) underlies the social distinction (father, mother). It is in the sense of social gender, through the process of learning how to become a 'boy' or a 'girl', that we inherit a gendered culture. (Yule, 2006, p.223). The problem of boys still exists today which cannot be separated from the fight. It is commonly known that the boys has a strong feel, Eckert &Mc Connell-Ginet (2003, p. 143) report that parents often describe the boys as troublesome and argumentative and the girls as 'nice'. Hong and Hwang (2012: 347) suggest that girls tended to express encouraging types of words, such as "Go" or "Hurry up," more than boys did while boys tended to use more negative expression, such as words with scolding connotations.

Gendered practice in language use can be seen from differences of word choice. The results of the linguistics analysis are presented by Willemsen (1998:857) that the girls' magazine using more emotive words like love and hurt,



while the boys' magazine using more tough cool or words and expressions, i.e., words that do not show emotion but 'cool'. Willemsen (1998) said that the girl's magazine contains more intensifying adverbs. Lakoff found that the differences of men's and women's language occur in their word choices. Lakoff (cited in Coates, 2004, p.223) states that women have special adjectives, e.g. specialized color term, like neigh, ecru, aquamarine, lavender, maroon.

Louise Kessler (cited in Stockwell, 2007, p. 61) wanted to test the ability of two groups of men and women to give verbal descriptions from magazine a series of photographs. She found that both of men and women used the most color terms. However, men tended to use modifiers with their color terms: 'very green, unusually green, rather green, slightly green. The women tended to use adjectives as intensifiers instead: 'bold reds', 'vibrant color'. Beside that women used far more evaluative adjectives, such as nice, beautiful. It means that women dealing sensitively with exclusive language that comes up in. Lakoff (2004) pointed out, for the most part women are not expected to use 'strong' expletives, such as 'damn' or 'shit' but are encouraged to substitute weaker ones like 'oh dear' or 'fudge'. This difference in words between men and women permits men the opportunity to express strong emotions.

Lauren Buckland (cited in Stockwell, 2007, p. 60) conducted a study to express characteristics semantic domain by asked five men and five women to write down the first 50 words in a piece of paper. The result showed that the women tended to produce words that referred to their immediate concrete surroundings (table, chair, carpet, badge, laundry, basket). Men tended to favor

abstract words (speed, music, fellowship) and were much more likely to produce sequences by word-play (night, fright, kite, bin, brown, blue) than women. (Stockwell, 2007, p. 60). Willemsen (1998: 854) expects that the masculine language in boy's magazine will contain more judgmental adjectives, whereas the feminine language of girl's magazine will contain more intensifying adverbs, more emotion words, more adjectives in general.

### 2.3 Word Classes in Indonesian

Alwi, et al. (2010, p.35) stated that Indonesian word class are categorized into four classes that are *verba* (verb), *adjectiva* (adjective), *nomina* (noun) and *adverbial* (adverb). The first classification of word classes that the writer discusses in this study is verb. *Verba* (verb) is one of the word classes which explains about the action or activity of the subject in a sentence. According to Alwi et. al. (2003, p.87) there are four characteristics of verbs that are: verbs have the main function as predicates, verbs refer to action or process, verbs cannot be added to prefix *ter-*, and verbs cannot be combined with the word expresses the meaning of *sangat*. The examples of Indonesia verbs are *makan* (eat), *baca* (read), *belajar* (learn), and *tidur* (sleep).

Based on the form of verbs, there can be distinguished into *verba dasar bebas* and *verba turunan* (Kridalaksana 2005, p. 51). In a simple form, verbs can stand without any affix in syntactic context. For example, *suka ada, pulang, pergi, mandi, datang*. In contrast, *verba turunan* (derivative) is involved in affixation, reduplication, process combine or compound verb. Affixed verbs need affixation such as prefix, suffix and confix. According to Alwi et.al. (1998, p.10),

appropriate prefixes for verbs are (*meng-*, *per-*, *ber-*, *di-* and *ter-*) and suffixes that are used for verbs are (*-kan*, *-i* and *-an*) and confixes for verbs are (*ke-an* and *ber-an*). The examples of affixed verbs are *bertemu* (meet), *membeli* (buy) and *bernyanyi* (to sing). Moreover, reduplication verb is repeating the simple verbs and it can be also added to affixation and also called as repeatedly word (Alwi et.al. 2005, p.102). There are two types of reduplicated verbs: repeated simple verbs to become one word such as *lari-lari* (run), *senyum-senyum* (smile), and *marah-marah* (angry), and reduplicated verbs which can be added by affixation such as *terka-menerka* (guess) and *tembak-menembak* (shoot-out). The last types of verba turunan, compound verbs are the combination of two different simple verbs to become one meaning. In compound verbs, affixation and reduplication can be also happened (Alwi et. al. 2005, p.102). The example of compound verbs are *campur tangan* (interfere), *salah sangka* (misconception), and *unjuk rasa* (demonstrate),

Second classification of word classes is *adjective*. *Adjectiva* (adjective) is the other type of word classes which functions to explain the more specific information about the noun in a sentence. Adjectives are the category words that have possibility to be combining with particle *tidak*. Adjectives have also possibility accompanied by particles *sangat*, and *agak* (Kridalaksana, 2005 p.59). In addition, adjectives can also be used as predicates that refer to a condition (Alwi et. al. 2003, p.172). Morphologically, adjectives are divided into four types. The four types that divide adjectives are simple adjectives, affixed adjectives, reduplicated adjectives and compound adjectives (Kridalaksana 2005, p.66).

There are seven types of simple adjectives that are adjectives of characteristic, adjectives of size, adjectives of color, adjectives of time, adjectives of distance, adjectives of emotion and adjectives of sense (Alwi et.al 2003, p.172). Adjectives of characteristic explain about the quality of physical or mental such as *indah* (beautiful) and *panas* (hot). Then, adjectives of size refer to something that can be measured quantitatively, such as *pendek* (short) and *tebal* (thick). Adjectives of color explain about variety of colors such as *hitam* (black) and *merah muda* (pink). Adjectives of time refer to period of process or situation such as *cepat* (fast) and *lambat* (slow). Adjectives of distance explain about the distance of two things or places such as *dekat* (near) and *jauh* (far). Then, adjectives of emotion refer to mood or feeling such *happy* (bahagia) and *cemas* (worried). The last, adjectives of perception explain about what is perceived by the senses such as *harum* (fragrant) that can be perceived by smelling and *terang* (bright) that can be perceived by vision.

The other classification of adjectives is affixed adjectives. Prefixes for adjectives are *me-* and *ter-* such as for *menggembirakan* (cheering) and *terhormat* (honourable). Suffixes that are appropriate for adjectives are *-i*, *-iah* and *-wi* such as *abadi* (everlasting) and *manusiawi* (humane). Then, classification of adjectives to repeat such as *muda-muda* (young) and *kecil-kecil* (small). Reduplication adjectives can be also added to the confix *ke-an* such as *kekanak-kanakan* (childish) and *keibu-ibuan* (motherly). In the last, compound adjectives which combine two lexemes such as *tinggi hati* (arrogant) and *murah hati* (generous).

The third classification of word classes that the writer discusses in this study is noun. *Nomina* (noun) is the type of word classes in content words which functions to explain the detail information in terms of human beings, animals, things, concept or the description. The examples of Indonesian nouns are *kucing* (cat), *buku* (book), *guru* (teacher), *meja* (table), *kelas* (class), *rumah* (house). Characteristics of nouns in syntax perspective can be divided into three that are nouns which tend to occupy the function as subject or object, nouns which can be combined with the particle *bukan* and never be combined with the particle *tidak*, and nouns which can be followed by adjectives (Alwi et.al 2003, p.213).

According to Kridalaksana (1998, p.41), morphological nouns can be divided into four that are simple nouns, affixed nouns, reduplicated nouns and compound nouns. First, simple nouns are the simple words without any change. For example, *batu* (stone), *ketela* (cassava). Second, affixed nouns which have a prefix, infix or suffix. Prefixes that are appropriate for noun are (*ke-*, *per-*, *pel-*, *pe-*, *pem-*, *peng-*, *penge-*), infixes that are used for nouns are (*-el*, *-em*, *-er*, *-in*), and appropriate suffixes for nouns are (*-an* and *-kan*). Words which are included in affixed nouns such as *keuangan* (finance), *geligi* (teeth), *perpaduan* (fusion), and *pelukis* (painter). Third, reduplication noun is the process where the words are repeated either completely or partially. Reduplicated nouns consist of three parts that are full reduplication such as *rumah-rumah* (houses) and *buku-buku* (books), reduplication with phoneme variation such as *sayur-mayur* (vegetable) and *lauk-pauk* (dishes) and affixed reduplication such as *tetamu* (guests) and *gilang-gemilang* (bright). Fourth, compound nouns mean the process of combining

lexemes to produce a single grammatical word. Morphologically, compound nouns are divided into simple compound and affixed compound. Compound nouns which are divided into simple compound such as *tata tertib* (regulation) and *jejak langkah* (biography), affixed compound such as *sekolah menengah* (junior high school) and *kakak beradik* (sister or brother).

The fourth classification is adverb. Adverbs are the words that have the capacity to co-occur mainly with adjectives. The example of Indonesian adverb are *alangkah* (how), *agak* (rather), *akan* (will). Adverb can be used to indicate aspect, modality, quantity, or quality of verbs, adjectives (Kridalaksana, 1998, p.53). Aspects have to do with whether an action, state, event, or quality is going on, begins, not yet finished, or has finished, for example the word *tengah*, *mulai*, *baru*, *sudah*. Modality has to do with the attitude of the speaker in relation to certain action, event, condition, or situation, for example the word *akan*, *boleh*, *jangan*, *belum-belum*. Quantity has to do with the frequency or the number of the occurrence of certain action, event or condition, for example *selambat-lambatnya*, *sering*. Quality has to do with the character or value in certain action, event, attribute, or situation, for example *saling*, *masih*, *senantiasa*, *doing*, *maha*, *serba*, *tinggi-tinggi*.

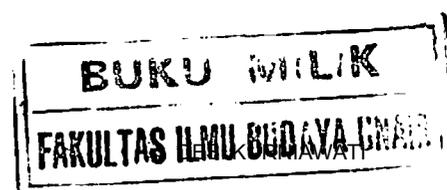
#### 2.4 Previous Studies

In a review of previous studies that is closely related to this research, the writer found a thesis written by Hanum (2012) entitled *Corpus-Based Analysis on the Typical Nouns and Verbs used in the Health Section of Men's Health Magazine and Women's Health Magazine*. Her thesis discussed the differences of

language used in men and women magazine. She observed Men's Health Magazine and Women's Health Magazine as her data. The purposes of her research were to identify the typical nouns and verbs used in men's magazines and women's magazines and to investigate the typical nouns and verbs in men's magazines compared women's magazines based on the log likelihood calculation. She found the similarities of the typical nouns and verbs are *study, say, risk, and cancer*. Moreover, she found that the typical nouns and verbs in Men's Magazine are *iodine, researcher, diet, concussion, prostate cancer, and cancer*. While the typical nouns and verbs in Women's Magazine are *breast, brain, woman, sleep, pap, and sex*. She used the theory of Language and Gender by Lakoff (2004) and theory classification of vocabulary by Chung and Nation (2003) to analyze the data.

The writer found another thesis entitled *A Study of the Role of Adjective Semantically Found In The Articles Of Women's Magazine InStyle And Men's Magazines Details* by Ekasari (2008). This thesis discussed the differences and similarities of language use for women and men, which were framed by using adjectives semantically and the data were taken from InStyle and Details magazine. She found that the articles of women's magazine tend to use color, size, time, emotive, miscellaneous descriptor and classifier adjectives. Aritanti used the theory of language and gender by Lakoff (1975) and theory of adjectives by Biber (1988) to analyze her data.

Third, a previous study from Yang (2010) entitled *A Study of Adjectives and Nouns in the Language of Advertisement*. This study discussed the gender



differences in the language of advertisements in female magazine (*Elle, True Romance, and Live It*) and male magazine (*Car and Driver, Soccer, and Esquire*). The result of this study is in female magazines, nouns and adjectives tend to emphasize or refer to color, relationship, emotion, senses, and art. While in male magazines words are related with quantity, superiority, adventure, strength and achievement are mostly used.

However, the previous studies above are more concerned with men and women magazine as their object of the study, while in contrast, this study utilizes the girls and boys magazine as the object of this study that are different in terms of age. The previous research is limited to analyze the use of adjectives in articles of magazine, while in this study the writer analyzes the content words that are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs then compared to both of magazines. Moreover, in previous study the writer chooses health topic and fashion topic in articles while in this study the writer analyzes in topic articles are music, fashion, school and hi-tech.

# **CHAPTER III**

## **METHODS OF THE STUDY**

