

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Language and Gender

In the society, it is an open issue that men and women differ in their communication. In some communities, gender differences influence the language use among the members of the communities. The differences of the language use reflecting the social status or the power differences among them. If a community is very hierarchical, for instance, and within each level of hierarchy men are more powerful than women (Holmes, 2008). They believe that males are seen as logical, rational, aggressive, exploitative, strategic, independent, and competitive. Females are thought to be intuitive, emotional, submissive, empathic, spontaneous, nurturing, and co-operative. It seems that men to be superior to women and the women are subordinate to the men (Morgan, 1986, p.179; cited in Goddard & Patterson, 1988, p.32) and can be said that female has less power than male (Lakoff, 2003). Because of the power difference, female area of the work place is also limited. They are more in the inside home, for example women contributed to the household economy (Ferree, 1990); they are taking care of the children (Meyer, 2010), tend to prepare food than others (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003). However, they are more detail in everything (Svenson, 2006).

According to a well-known figure of language differences dealing with gender, Lakoff (1975, pp. 78-80) sees that women differ from men in their speaking, women have a large stock of words related to specific interest; “empty”

adjectives like *divine*, *charming*, and *cute*; question intonation like tag questions and rising intonation in statement context; hypercorrect grammar; super polite forms; the use of hedges of various kinds like *well*, *I guess*, and *I wonder*. On the other hand, boasting, swearing and topics such as football are the characteristics of men's talk (Coates, 2004). However, these features are usually found in the face to face interaction context.

Moreover, in written text, the vocabularies of women differ from men, even more in their use of adverbs. As Newman, Groom, Handelman, & Pannebaker (2008) found that in writing, women tend to use more intensive adverbs. For example, 'So' is claimed as having something of the eternally feminine about it. This adverb is a great favorite with ladies in conjunction with an adjective. For example 'It is *so* lovely!', 'He is *so* charming', 'Thank you *so* much' (Coates, 2004).

Some researchers assumed that women are a wordier gender, as a speaker are talking too much and have longer sentence than men (Newman, Groom, Handelman, & Pannebaker, 2008). They become talkative not only in workplace conversations, but also in a daily conversation and seem like dominating the conversation. But then, the evidences showed the contrary, men give more contribution in the talks than women. Male have more words and turns in the conversation (Newman, Groom, Handelman, & Pannebaker, 2008). It was shown by Spender (1979) in Coates' book that woman are normally allowed no more than 30 per cent of talking time. Furthermore, Herring, Johnson and DiBenedetto (1998, cited in Coates, 2004, p.118) based on their observation, showed that

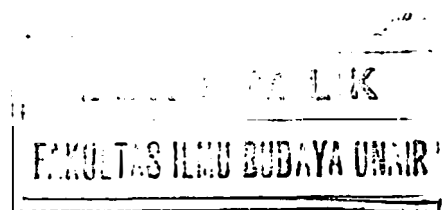
during a discussion of 'men's literature' which lasted five weeks, the men contributed 70 per cent of the total words and also used more words per contribution than female participants did. To find out more about this phenomenon, the writer will analyze the differences of language used between male and female students in writing essays according to the vocabulary used.

2.2 Morpho Syntactic Features

According to Radford (1998, p.1), morphosyntax refers to the combination between morphology and syntax. Morphology is the study of how words are formed out of smaller units. It is not just concerned with the principle of the formation of the word, but also the interpretation of the word itself. Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words can be combined together to form phrases and sentences and also the interpretation of them. Some features that are learned in the study of morphosyntax are words, phrases, and sentences as described below.

2.2.1 Words

Words are considered to be the basic elements of language that we are used every day. Some researchers have defined the word 'word' itself although it is complex to be defined. Stockwell & Minkova (2001) explained that word is the smallest unit that one thinks of as being basic to saying anything. It is the smallest unit of sentence composition and the smallest unit that we are aware of when we consciously try to create sentences, for example the word *genetic*, *type*, and *notion*.



According to Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams (2011, pp. 36-37), Words are an important part of linguistic knowledge and constitute a component of our mental grammars. When you know a word, you know its sound (pronunciation) and its meaning because each word is a sound-meaning unit. Each word in the mental lexicon includes other information as well, such as whether it is a noun, a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction. In addition, Fromkin, et al (2011, p. 39) says that languages make an important distinction between two kinds of words that are content words and function words.

Content words are the words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These words denote concepts such as objects, actions, attributes, and ideas that we can think about like children, anarchism, soar, and purple. Content words are sometimes called the open class words because we can and regularly do add new words to these classes.

A noun as the member of the open classes is a word used to refer to people (*boy*), objects (*backpack*), creatures (*dog*), places (*school*), qualities (*roughness*), phenomena (*earthquake*) and abstract ideas (*love*) as if they were all “things”. A noun can be defined as a form that comes after an article (*a, the*) and can take inflections for possessive (-’s) and plural (-s). Of course, not all nouns (e.g. *information, mud*) have all these characteristics. A verb is a word used to refer to various kinds of actions (*go, talk*) and states (*be, have*) involving people and things in events (*Jessica is ill and has a sore throat so she can’t talk or go anywhere*) (Yule, 2010, p.82).

Other content words members are an adjective and an adverb. An adjective is a word used, typically with noun; to provide more information about the things (*happy people, large objects, a strange experience*) because it is actually denotes an attribute. While adverb, is a word used, typically with verbs, to provide more information about actions, states and events (*slowly, yesterday*). Some adverbs (*really, very*) are also used with adjectives to modify information about things (*Really large objects move slowly. I had a very strange experience yesterday*) (Yule, 2010, p.82).

Another kinds of words is function words. The members of function words are conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and pronouns. These words called function words because they specify grammatical relations and have little or no semantic content. For example, the articles indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite—the boy or a boy. The preposition of indicates possession, as in “the book of yours,” but this word indicates many other kinds of relations too. These words also called as closed class words. It is difficult to think of any conjunctions, prepositions, or pronouns that have recently entered the language (Fromkin et al, 2011).

One of the members of function words is conjunction. Conjunctions are the words like *and, but, because, and when*, used to make connections and indicate relationships between events, for example Chantel’s husband was so sweet and he helped her a lot because she couldn’t do much when she was pregnant. The other kind is preposition. The prepositions are words like *at, in, on, near, with, and without*, used with nouns in phrases providing information about

time (*at five o'clock, in the morning*), place (*on the table, near the window*) and other connections (*with a knife, without a thought*) involving actions and things (Yule, 2010, p.83).

Another kinds are the articles and the pronouns. Articles are words like *a, an, and the*, used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those “things” (*You can have a banana or an apple*) or identifying them as already known, for example I’ll take the apple. While pronouns are words (*she, herself, they, it, you*) used in place of noun phrases, typically referring to people and things already known (*She talks to herself. They said it belonged to you*) (Yule, 2010, p.83).

Words can also be grouped in terms of their meaning. In grouping the words, it used *WordNet*. The *WordNet* is a large lexical database of English. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are grouped into sets of cognitive synonyms (synsets), each expressing a distinct concept (Princeton University, 2013). From this software, the words can be categorized based on the meaning of each word.

2.2.2 Phrases

In this side, according to Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (2007, p.95) a phrase can consist of either one word or more than one word because actually words make up phrases, which behave like units. There are five major types of phrases, noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase.

A noun phrase in the strict sense consists of a noun as head, either alone or accompanied by determiners (which specify the reference of the noun) and modifiers (which describe or classify the entity denoted by the head noun) (Biber

et al, 2007, p. 97), for example *a house, the house, and these houses*. The head noun can also be followed by complements, which complete the meaning of the noun and typically take the form of *that*-clauses or infinitive clauses, for example *The popular **assumption** that language simply serves to communicate "Thoughts" or "ideas" is too simplistic, He feels awkward about her **refusal** to show any sign of emotion.*

Verb phrases contain a lexical verb or primary verb as head or main verb, either alone or accompanied by one or more auxiliaries (Biber et al, 2007, p. 99). The auxiliaries specify the way in which the action, state, or process denoted by the main verb is to be interpreted. In addition, the first auxiliary has the special role of operator, for examples *was walking, had been making, can see, and should have said.*

Like as noun and verb phrase, Adjective phrases contain an adjective as a head, optionally accompanied by modifiers in the form of single words, phrases, and clauses, for example *so lucky* and *desperately poor* (Biber et al, 2007, p. 101). The accompanying elements in an adjective phrase characteristically indicate the degree of the quality denoted by the adjective (e.g. *'How lucky: poor?'*) or describe the respect in which the quality is to be interpreted (e.g. *'Guilty/ slow in what respect?'*).

An Adverb phrase is like adjective phrase in structure, except that the head is an adverb. Optional modifiers may precede or follow the adverb head. They typically express degree for example in the phrase of *pretty soon, fortunately enough* (Biber et al, 2007, p. 102). In 'fortunately enough', the word fortunately

as the adverb become the head of the phrase followed by 'enough' as the modifier.

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition and a complement, most typically in the form of a noun phrase. The typical prepositional phrase may indeed be viewed as a noun phrase extended by a link showing its relationship to surrounding structures (Biber et al, 2007, p. 103). Preposition which takes complement clauses, normally they are only *wh*-clauses and *ing*-clauses, for example 'component drawings carry instruction on where they are used'. In that sentence, 'on where they are used' is the prepositional phrase, which is 'on' as the preposition head and followed by 'where they are used' as a *wh*-clause.

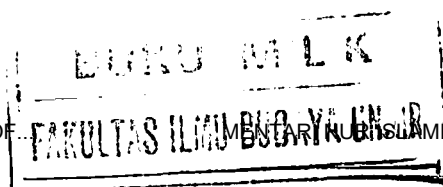
2.3 Related Studies

There were some studies which have been shown by some researchers about male and female language. The first research was conducted by Soedjono (2012) with is the title *The Comparison between the Language Used by Male and Female Peers in Twitter*. In her research, she investigated the typical words used by male and female in Twitter communication. The result that she got was the features that were shared between online communication and face-to-face communication were the same. By using qualitative approach with corpus, this study revealed, the most typical words in female tweets are: *I, and, sepatu, my, lucu, order, to, iklanin, and kaos*. It means that it refers to fashion/shopping. However, male tend to discuss sports in online communication. The most typical words in male tweets are *via, frend, halamadrid, Madrid, barca, idol, gag, bu, and*

menang. Another finding found by the author includes the different use of pronouns and similarity in the use of abbreviations and also spelling changes for vulgar words.

The second research was conducted by Ekasari (2008), with is the title *A Study of the Role of Adjectives Semantically Found in the Articles of Women's Magazine InStyle and Men's Magazine Details*. In her research, she examined the differences and the similarities of language use focused on adjective semantically in the different magazines, women's magazine, *InSyle* and men's magazine, *Detail*. In those magazines showed that both of them used two groups of adjectives, descriptor adjective and classifier adjective. The writer discovered that the articles of women's magazines tend to use color, size, time, emotive, miscellaneous descriptor, affiliative, and topical classifier adjectives. Moreover, in women's magazine exhibits greater consistency of women's language features proposed by Lakoff by using a lot number of empty adjectives and precise color terms. Furthermore, women's magazine exhibits women's language characteristic for being detail in describing something. While, some findings indicate that men's magazine does not always depict masculinity.

The differences between this study and the research conducted by Soedjono (2012), is the subject research. In this study, the writer examined the students of Basic Essay Writing class of Universitas Airlangga, while Soedjono's examined the peer users of twitter. Moreover, In this study, the object of the study is the paragraphs of the male and the female students of Basic Essay Writing of Universitas Airlangga, nevertheless the object of Soedjono's is the tweets of the



male and the female users in twitter. On the other hand, the difference between this study and the research conducted by Ekasari (2008) is the focus of the study. In her research, she focused on the adjectives only. Meanwhile, in this study focuses on the vocabularies.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF THE STUDY