CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework

In this section is used to review the theories and the problem studies, which are significant in answering the research question in the previous chapter. This study is focused on the women’s language features using by two female characters in difference movie, the similarities and differences woman’s language features between Carly and Aya, and some factors that influence the differences woman’s language features between Carly and Aya and to know how it is happened.

2.1.1 Language and Gender

Gender differences in language become established early and are then used to support the kinds of social behavior males and females exhibit. It is mainly when males and females interact that the behavior each uses separately becomes noticeable. As Holmes (1992, p. 330) says,

The differences between women and men in ways of interacting may be the result of different socialisation and acculturation patterns. If we learn the ways of talking mainly in single sex peer groups, then the patterns we learn are likely to be sexspecific. And the kind of miscommunication which undoubtedly occurs between women and men will be attributable to the different expectations each sex has of the function of the interaction, and the ways it is appropriately conducted.

One consequence of such differences is that women’s speech has often been devalued by men, for, as Tannen rightly observes, her difference approach in
no way denies the existence of male dominance (1993, p. 9). (In Wardhaugh, 2006:328)

The reason why men’s and women’s speech differ is because boys and girls are brought up differently and men and women often fill different roles in society. Moreover, most men and women know this and behave accordingly. If such is the case, we might expect changes that make a language less sexist to result from child-rearing practices and role differentiations which are less sexist. Men and women alike would benefit from the greater freedom of choice that would result. (Wardhaugh, 2006:333)

Trudgill found that women tended to use the prestige form more than men (women over thirty years of age also tended to use the prestige forms of the other phonetic variables he studied more than men). He also found that women (more than men) tended to over-report their pronunciation, that is, when asked about their pronunciation, said they produced more ‘prestigious’ sounds than they actually did. (Jane, 2006:7)

In biological factors pitch of the voice, for instance, is produced by vibration of the vocal cords can be set to vibrate. Thick and heavy vocal cords vibrate more slowly than lighter ones. Since men tend to develop a larger larynx than women, their voices tend to be pitched lower. By considering the pitch, it is not difficult to determine which voice belongs to, whether it belongs to men or women.

Psychologically, men and women are biologically different. Women are somehow predisposed to be involved with one another and to be mutually
supportive and non-competitive. While, men are innately predisposed to independence. In social organization as an appearance of power, men use what power they have to dominate each other and, of course, women. While women must learn to dominate others too, women included. Men constantly try to take control, to interrupt, and so on. Women are relatively powerless they opt for more prestigious language forms. Men and women are social beings who have learned to act in certain ways. Men learn to be men and women learn to be women, linguistically speaking. They have learned to do different things with language.

Simply, language and gender studies is a subfield of sociolinguistics, which deals with linguistic gender differentiation reflected in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, as well as women’s and men’s speech interaction patterns. Male and female language is different. Women, as a social group, have their own language characteristics. (Qi Pan, 2011)

2.1.2 Women’s Language

When we turn to certain grammatical matters in English, we find that Brend (1975) claims that the intonation patterns of men and women vary somewhat, women using certain patterns associated with surprise and politeness more often than men. In the same vein, Lakoff says that women may answer a question with a statement that employs the rising intonation pattern usually associated with a question rather than the falling intonation pattern associated with making a firm statement. According to Lakoff, women do this because they
are less sure about themselves and their opinions than are men. (Wardhaugh, 2006:321)

Women’s linguistic behaviour is often characterised as being concerned with co-operation (more positively polite than men) and avoidance of conflict (more negatively polite than men). This characterisation is based on the assumption that women are powerless and display their powerlessness in language; these forms of politeness are markers of their subordination. (Sara, 2003:203)

Robin Lakoff’s Language and Woman’s Place (LWP), published in 1975, was one of the first publications of its time to address the relationship between language and gender. As a result, LWP served as the impetus for both linguists and feminists alike to look more closely at gender variation in language. “Women’s language”, a term coined by Lakoff, became a commonly used identifier among language and gender researchers. According to Lakoff, women’s language describes how women use language and how language is used to talk about women, both which position women as powerless. This position has been adopted by a number of sociolinguistics and feminists. In an effort to support Lakoff’s rationale with empirical evidence (Lakoff’s argument was based entirely on personal observation), many studies focused on identifying and quantifying the linguistic resources that men and women utilize when they speak. The overall goal of such studies has often been the classification of certain linguistic features as occurring more often in women or in men.
However, other researchers have found that gender variation in language is not as clearly and easily defined as much of the earlier research may claim. The influence of context (local and global), social factors other than gender (ethnicity, age, socioeconomic status), and issues of power have also been found to play a role in how men and women use language.

Women’s language refers not so much, and, not only, to concrete speech forms associated with a feminine speech style, but rather to a network of sites, practices, and discourse that produce the metapragmatic knowledge of how women speak (or how women should speak)” (Inoue, 2004, p. 39-49). In other words, women’s language is a term dealing with discourse about how women should speak rather than a term dealing with women’s actual language use. (Vranic, 2013)

2.1.3 Lakoff’s Theory of Women’s Language Features

The beginning of the term ‘women’s language’ began in the 1970s with Robin Lakoff’s search for specific features of women’s speech. Her book *Language and women’s place* from 1975 has been very influential on further research on this notion. Lakoff characterized women’s speech features as follow:

2.1.3.1 Lexical Hedges or Filler

Hedges are words that convey the sense that the speaker is uncertain about what he or she is saying, or can not vouch for the accuracy of the statement, such as “kind of”, “sort of”, “you know”, “I think”, “I suppose”, “I guess”, “well”, “you see”, “like” and etc.
Hedges seem to appear more often in women’s speech. There is another justifiable use in which the hedge mitigates the possible unfriendliness or unkindness of a statement, that is, for the sake of politeness. (Qi Pan, 2011)

2.1.3.2 Tag Questions

Tag question is a syntactic device listed by Lakoff, which may express uncertainty. Lakoff proposed that tags are used when a speaker is stating a claim but has less than full confidence in the truth of the claim. In some situations, then, a tag question would be perfectly legitimate sentence form.

She proposed that women used one particular type of tag question more than men. The type in which the speaker’s own opinions are being expressed, as in the example above. The effect is to convey uncertainty and lack of conviction.

Lakoff argued that women frequently used tag questions where they were reluctant to state a proposition baldly: ‘The way prices are rising is horrendous, isn’t it?’ (1975: 16). Holmes looked more closely at the functions of tag questions, and identified two main differences between women’s and men’s language use: Women used more ‘facilitative’ tags, inviting the addressee to contribute to the conversation (e.g. ‘You’ve got a new job, Tom, haven’t you?’). Men, on the other hand, used more ‘epistemic modal’ tags, expressing uncertainty about the information conveyed (e.g. ‘Fay Weldon’s lecture is at eight isn’t it?’). (Swann, 2003)

Hence, one might be tempted to maintain that tag questions are indicative of linguistic weakness since they imply that the speaker needs to seek confirmation from the hearer, even of the speaker’s own internal states (e.g. It’s
hot in here, isn’t it?). However, tag questions can just as readily be interpreted as interactional facilitators, since they may serve to draw listeners into conversation, or even as tools to enhance a confrontational tone (e.g. You do realize you’re late again, don’t you?). (Schilling in Mesthrie, 2011:222)

2.1.3.3 Rising Intonation on Declaratives

Women have more variation in pitch and intonation in general. Also, they tend to exaggerate more and often use a rising intonation in what are considered declarative statements, which creates a sense of uncertainty and indecisiveness. As stated by Lakoff (2004:50), the use of rising intonation indicates that there is unwillingness to be very assertive in carrying an opinion. For example:

a) It’s really good?

b) Oh… it has already six o’clock?

Through this feature, the speaker provides a confirmation since she is unsure if her opinion will be agreed by the addressee so that rising intonation in declaratives is used to show that the speaker leaves the decision open to the addressee in a non-forceful way.

2.1.3.4 ‘Empty’ Adjectives

Women are said to have their own vocabulary for emphasizing certain effects on them, words and expressions. They tend to use adjectives which convey emotion rather than intellectual thought (‘adorable’, ‘divine’, and the more contemporary ‘sweet’ and ‘cute’). Some of these adjectives are neutral in which both men and women can use them while some of these adjectives are largely used more by women. The representatives of both types are as follows:
Neutral     Women Only
Great        Adorable
Terrific    Charming
Cool         Sweet
Neat         Lovely
             Divine

2.1.3.5 Precise Color Terms

Lakoff stated that women make far more precise discriminations in naming colors than do men; words like beige, ecru, aquamarine, lavender, and so on, are unremarkable in a women's active vocabulary, but absent from that of most men. We might ask why fine discrimination of color is relevant for women, but not for men. A clue is contained in the way many men in our society view other 'unworldly' topics, e.g. high culture and the Church, as outside the world of men's work, relegated to women and men whose masculinity is not unquestionable.

2.1.3.6 Intensifiers

The other feature that is found in women’s speech is intensifiers such as so, just, very, such, or quite. Women are likely to use intensifiers to persuade the hearers for give their agreement to the speaker. Numerous documents show that women, compared with men, use more intensifiers to strengthen what they want to express. Some adverbs, like awfully, pretty, terribly, vastly, nice, quite and so, are more easily found in women’s language.
2.1.3.7 *Hypercorrect Grammar*

Lakoff notes that women tend to use “hypercorrect” grammar, including standard pronunciations such as *going* rather than *goin’* and avoidance of non-standard forms like *ain’t*. She holds that women’s language as she describes it is “weaker” than men’s, and so she is often characterized as taking a “deficit” approach. This characteristic is related to “superpolite” language.

2.1.3.8 *“Superpolite” Form*

This is related to the fact that women are supposed to behave and communicate politely and carefully. Women shows their use of super polite form in their speech through several ways, some of them are by having less assertive, making an indirect request, using euphemism, using hypercorrect grammar, and so on. The more particles in a sentence that reinforce the notion that it is a request, rather than an order, the politer the result. Look at the sentences below:

a. Close the door.

b. Please close the door.

c. Will you close the door?

d. Will you please close the door?

e. Won’t you close the door?

Sentence (a) is a direct order, (b) and (c) simple requests, and (d) and (e) compound requests.

2.1.3.9 *Avoidance of Strong Swear Words*

Lakoff stated that the difference between using ‘shit’ (or ‘damn’, or one of many others) as opposed to ‘oh dear’, or ‘goodness’, or ‘oh fudge’ lies in how
forcibly one says how one feels - perhaps, one might say, choice of particle is a function of how strongly one allows oneself to feel about something, so that the strength of an emotion conveyed in a sentence corresponds to the strength of the particle. Look at these sentences:

a. Oh fudge, my hair is on fire.

b. Shit, you broke my glasses!

From the examples above, we can see the difference between the sentence a and sentence b. We can classify the sentence a as part of ‘women’s language’, then b as ‘men’s language’.

As children, women are encouraged to be ‘little ladies’. (Lakoff, 1973) Little ladies don’t scream as vociferously as little boys, are chastised more severely for throwing tantrums or showing temper: ‘high spirits’ are expected and therefore tolerated in little boys; docility and resignation are the corresponding traits expected of little girls.

2.1.3.10 Emphatic Stress

Emphatic stress is a special stress that is given by the speaker to some word in a sentence, usually to single out, compare, correct, or clarify things. Women like to use emphatic stress to strengthen the strength of an assertion, for example “Your mother is really kind!” and “It was a brilliant performance”. The word brilliant is one example of emphatic stress that used to strengthen the meaning of the utterance.
2.1.4 Possible Factors that Shape the Features of Female Language

The factors that shape the features of female language are not only the influence of physiology and psychology, but also because of the influence of the society and the culture. The difference of social work distribution, cultural factors and social psychological factors are all responsible for the appearance of these characteristics. (Qi Pan, 2011)

2.1.4.1 Social Factors

As language is closely related to social attitudes and it reflects language’s, creators’ and users’ thought as well as attitudes and cultural values. And people’s attitudes are affected by social ideology and their own value orientation, which will, in turn, have great influence on people’s evaluations about objects. Therefore, early linguists’ attitudes towards women’s language are inevitably influenced by their social ideology and value orientation. Specifically speaking, their evaluation about women’s language is based on several social factors: women’s social status, women’s sex role socialization and dominant gender system.

2.1.4.2 Culture Factors

The relationship between language and culture is interactive and language is one expression, one mirror and carrier of culture. Thus, the image of women’s language, of course, is closely linked to cultures, like sex discrimination, western women’s subculture and Bible, so is the early evaluations about western women’s language. On the whole, in the sense of culture, their evaluations are affected by such factors, like gender culture, gender ideology and gender stereotypes.