CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the writer explains the approach of the study, they are; language and gender, Internet linguistics, Internet language features, common word-formation, playful language sound, and review f related studies.

2.1 Language and Gender

Gender is not something we are born with, and not something we have, but something we do (West and Zimmerman 1987) - something we perform (Butler 1990), as cited in Penelope Eckert and Sally McConnell-Ginet's Language and Gender 2003. Gender does not mean the distinction of sexes only - male and female, but more than that, it carries a broader meaning which affects our attitude or behavior, thought, language style, and the way we dressed up. It is the social elaboration of biological sex. A circle of society can affect the construction of one's gender from his or her biological sex. According to Shapiro (1981), Gender refers to the social, cultural, psychological constructs that are imposed upon biological differences (sex) in which they vary from one language to another, one culture to another, in the way in which they order experience and action. The people would not have the idea on how to interact with others, or how to judge them and talk about them, unless they can attribute a gender to them (Eckert & Ginet, 2003). From the opinions of some proficients above, it can be concluded that gender is the construction of one's identity which is influenced by the society and its culture as a result of biological differences referring to male or female.

The language – gender relationship has been the interest for several decades to talk about. The different ways and styles of males and females' language in communicating each other has been investigated by raising into the questions that Lakoff (as cited in Eckert & Ginet, 2003) proposed: (1) that women and men talk differently and (2) that differences in women's and men's speech are the result of -- and support -- male dominance.

Further explanation of answering question number(1), Lakoff asserted that women and men speak differently because of fundamental differences in their relation to their language, perhaps due to different socialization and experiences early on. Lakoff then, claimed that women tend to use several features in talking or known as 'women's linguistic features' such as the use of hedges (I guess, kind of, sort of, and so on.), polite forms (euphemism), tag questions, speaking in italics, "empty" adjectives (Cute, sweet, lovely, and so on.), hypercorrect grammar and punctuation, avoid profanity or swear words, direct quotations, specialized color terms, question intonation in declarative contexts.

Various methods have been used to find out if males and females speak differently such as the frequency of *interruptions and directiveness; topic control and verbosity* in the speech of both sexes. Haidar (as cited in Sara Mills, 1955) noted that in interruptions and directiveness methods found that they appeared more often in the speech of males (Garvey 1975; Zimmerman and West 1975; Ervin-Tripp 1977; Mitchell-Kernan and Kernan 1977; Andersen 1978; Esposito 1979; Goodwin 1980) while topic control and verbosity methods conducted in male-female dialogue, indicated that topics initiated by males tend to dominate

conversation (Fisherman 1978, 1983; Leet-Pellegrini 1980), and that males generally speak more than females (Eakins and Eakins 1976; Berryman 1980; Swann 1988), and that males were found to be more talk active than females (Haas (1978, cited in Coates 1986)).

From all those arguments and perspectives of linguists above showed that females' language is less powerful compared to males'. This supported by Lakoff (1975) who saw women's language as the 'language of powerlessness," a reflection of their subordinate place in relation to men. Nevertheless, the last argument about less powerful language of females was disputed by the findings of (Smith and Connoly 1972; Clarke-Stewart 1973 (cited in Mills 1995)) which found that girls, among young children, were on the whole more talk active and more linguistically able than boys. The next argument supporting this issue came from an experiment that Herring and Nix (1997) conducted in on-line classrooms which turned out that female students also participate more than male students sometimes even when the teacher, who controls the interaction, is male.

For the question number (2), Lakoff argued that those differences appeared because of male dominance in speaking. In which later on, there came to be called the *dominance approach*. An experimental study supported this approach was conducted by Pamela Fishman (1983) (as cited in Eckert & Ginet, 2003, p.112) on the private conversations of several graduate student heterosexual couples. The study indicated males dominating their partners through the strategic use of both silence and interruption. The result was that female often failed in trying to start a conversation on a topic of their choosing.

2.2.Internet Linguistics

The existence of the internet in 1990s has affected the language use on communication. As a consequence, the term Internet linguistics was used by Crystal (2011) to refer to scientific study of all manifestations of language in the electronic medium. For a simple definition but carries broader meaning, he defined it as the study of language on the Internet. This term includes *computer-mediated communication* (CMC), *electronically mediated communication* (EMC) or *digitally mediated communication* (DMC), *Cyberspeak, Netspeak, Netlish, Weblish, Electronic discourse, computer-mediated discourse* (CMD), *e-language, e-linguistics, cyberlinguistics*, and other complex terms that are used to represent the language used on electronic interactions as communication media where they are all connected with Internet wireless network which has to do with online setting (e.g. e-mail, chat, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)

Danet (2001) divided online communication into two modes; synchronous (real time) and asynchronous (postponed time). In synchronous term, an individual can simultaneously logged on to chat and join an ongoing conversation in real time by typing just as face-to-face speakers hear their interlocutors writing their messages as they are spoken. While in asynchronous term, an individual experiences a time lag between the messages being sent and that with the recipient receives or reads them.

Further, Electronic communication itself can be divided up along two dimensions, as added by Baron (2004). One is synchronicity (synchronous or asynchronous). The other is audience scope – the communication is addressed for

a single person (one-to-one) or for a larger audience (one-to-many). In relation to both different time and scope dimension, the scheme of the examples of each is provided in table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Examples of synchronous and asynchronous.

Audience	Mode/Synchronicity	
Scope	Synchronous	Asynchronous
One-to-one	Instant messaging	Email, texting on mobile
		phones
One-to-many	Computer conferencing,	Newsgroups, Listservs,
	MUDs, MOOs, chat, Second	Usenet, blogs, Myspace,
	Life	Facebook, Youtube, Twitter,
		Instagram, etc.

In this thesis, the writer determined Instagram as one-to-many asynchronous communication since it provides free access to information posted and it sometimes needs a time lag between direct messages (dm) sent and the reply, also on the comments replied by the user of the account owner.

In online setting, the way in which the users communicate with others are not that far nor different to everyday face-to-face interaction. The language may also include verbosity, assertiveness, use of profanity, politeness (and rudeness), typed representations of smiling and laughter, and degree of interactive engagement.

Herring in *The Handbook of Language and Gender* (2003) argued that in the type of asynchronous CMS which occurs in discussion lists and newsgroups on the Internet and Usenet, males are more possibly to post longer messages, begin and close discussions in mixed-sex groups, state opinions confidently and strongly, use rude language and in most cases, denote an opposition toward their interlocutors. In contrast, females tend to post relatively short messages, qualify and justify assertions, apologize, express support of others, and in general, denote an "aligned" state toward their interlocutors.

In this kind of communication dimension, politeness is one of prevalent tools where gender is cued. Women are more likely to thank, appreciate, and apologize. They tend to keep the conversation they held under the rules of cooperative principle. In contrast, men mostly come up to give less attention to politeness. They bring out *bald face-threatening acts* where they are more likely to use freedom of expressions (Herring 1994, 1996a, 1999). Yule (2006) defined the word 'face' as public self-image. This is an emotional sense where every member of society wants to be recognized and valued. Every person wants to be respected by others to maintain their self-esteem in the society. This maintenance is related to the way how one communicates toward others.

Further, *bald-face threatening acts* means a threat represented within acts of communication where someone feels his or her self-image is threatened by the use of a direct speech when someone get others to do something. For example, *Show me the truth!*, *i want some coffee*. In this case, someone speaks in a direct

way without concerning more to another person's feeling because she or he might feel to have more social power over others.

Meanwhile, in synchronous CMC, Herring found a research revealed that males and females tend to participate more equally in terms of both number of messages and average message length, females might also receive more responses to their message compared to males. It is contrary to Broadhurst and Herring's statement (1993) that females tend to participate less and receive fewer responses from others in asynchronous CMC. To say the stereotype that females are represented by having powerless language is not the main issue to refer to their language this nowadays since there are some research and studies showed the opposite. This is because females now have changed their ideas about women's place – that they are subordinate to men. That stereotype then has been broken down as a result of males dominance which has long repressed them so that they are anxious to get out of the restrain which withstands them.

In online setting, Crystal (2006) argued that the Internet is so clearly a predominantly written medium (for its spoken dimension). He pointed out five main types for written language which have been recognized by many stylistic approaches, they are:

- 1. *Graphic* features: the general presentation and organization of the written language, defined in terms of such factors as distinctive typography, page design, spacing, use of illustrations, and color.
- 2. Orthographic (or graphological) features: the writing system of an individual language, defined in terms of such factors as distinctive use

- of the alphabet, capital letters, spelling, punctuation, and ways of expressing emphasis (italics, boldface, etc.).
- 3. *Grammatical* features: the many possibilities of syntax and morphology, defined in terms of such factors as the distinctive use of sentence structure, word order, and word inflections.
- 4. *Lexical* features: the vocabulary of a language, defined in terms of the set of words and idioms given distinctive use within a variety.
- 5. *Discourse* features: the structural organization of a text, defined in terms of such factors as coherence, relevance, paragraph structure, and the logical progression of ideas.

In this research, the writer focused on orthographic or graphological features because it talks about digital writing form which the readers first see in a text, such as the use of alphabet, capital letters, spelling, punctuation, and ways of expressing emphasis (italics, boldface, etc.).

2.3 Internet Language Features

Crystal (2006) defined Internet language features as the features that are used to provide the absences of non-verbal signs in online setting to make the meaning of a context clear due to the lack of visual contact. From that definition, it can be simply implied that Internet language features is features of a language used in online setting which is in the form of written aspects. Internet language features refer indirectly to *Orthographic* (or *graphological*) features as it talks about the forms and styles in the aspects of written language. Danet (2001)

proposed some features of digital writing in which they function to counterbalance the nature of the medium as attenuated 'speech' and to help deliver the messages as fast as possible, since we cannot type as fast as we speak.

Table 2.2 Common Digital Writing by Danet (2001)

Multiple punctuations	Type back soon!!!!!!!
Eccentric spelling	Love youuuu soooooo much!
Capital letters	I'M REALLY ANGRY AT YOU
Asterisks for emphasis	I'm really *angry* at you
Written-out laughter	Hehehe, hahahaha
Music/noise	Mmmmmm, MMMMMM
Description of actions	*grins*, *exhale*, <g>, <grin></grin></g>
Emoticons (smiley icons)	© (smile) ;-) (wink) ⊕ (frown)
Abbreviations	LOL, BRB, FYI
Rebus Writing	CU (see you)

In this research, the writer used the Internet Language Features proposed by Danet (2001) as the main theory in analyzing written language in online setting. The explanation of each feature will be discussed further as follows:

1. Multiple Punctuations

The use of multiple punctuations such as exclamation marks and questions marks is considered as punctuation of expressiveness. in other word, it can be called as emotive punctuation (Crystal, 2006). This kind of feature

often emerges at the end of a sentence. For instance; "are you sure???", "Hey, that's cool!!!" or it can be the combination of both punctuation "OMG!! Are you silly??!!!"

2. Eccentric Spelling

According to Danet and Herring (2007) eccentric spelling or intentional reproduction of spoken language used is an expressivity resource. This feature exists by duplicating the letters to pronounce a playful spelling as if they are spoken. For example; "Seruuu yaa", "yuhuuuuuu", "lucuuuuuw", "Asyikkkkkkkk capatuuh pacar baru"

3. Capital Letters

The use of capital letters is to give emphasis to the words which enable to take the reader's attention. According to Danet and Herring (2007), the use of capital letters in online setting is to signify loud speech or shouting. For example: "SEMANGAT!", "NEXT KITA PASTI BISA 20K TEMANTEMAN", "OH MY GOD"

4. Asterisks for Emphasis

The asterisks symbol is used to emphasize a word or phrase to improve their speech-like quality (Danet, 2001). For example: "*escape* to Mars", "sama *tos*"

5. Written-out laughter

This device is clearly to express a sound, especially the sound of laughter. For example: *hehehe, wkwkw, hahaha, lol.*

6. Music/noise

This feature is used to formulate the sounds effect such as mmm, argh, ah.

7. Description of Action

This feature is examined in terms of asterisks that enclose a verb; the verb spelled out between angle brackets and the initial letter alone of the verb in angle brackets (Nishimura, 2003 in Danet & Herring, 2007). For example: *smile*, <Smile>.

8. Emoticons

According to Crystal (2006), emotion is a combination of keyboard characters designed to show an emotional face expression; they are typed in sequence on a single line, and placed after the final punctuation mark of a sentence.

For example: :) = \odot , :(= \otimes .

9. Abbreviations

Abbreviation is a shortened word or phrase which functions to save valuable typing time in online setting. For example: LOL stands for "Laughing Out Loud", BRB stands for "Be Right Back", GWS which means "Get Well Soon".

10. Rebus Writing

The use of letters or numbers to represent the phonetic sequence that constitutes its realization in spoken language (Anis 2003 in Danet & Herring, 2007). Crystal (2006) stated that in this feature of online communication, the sound value of the letter or numeral acts as a syllable

of a word. For example: *CU* for "see you", *2nite* for "tonight, *2moro* for "tomorrow".

Apart from these features by Danet (2001), the writer also used another features that are considered include in Internet language to identify the language used on Instagram. The additional features are *clipping* and *blending* from common word-formation that will be explained further in the following paragraph.

2.4 Common Word-Formation

Yule (2010) defined word formation as the formation of a new word or term which is different from the use of the old word. There is a lot of regularity in the word-formation process in a language either spoken or written. This formation appears to save time both in speaking and typing. Moreover, this research talks about language used in the Internet where common word-formation is most encountered to type or to write faster and more efficiently. The word-formation methods of Internet language that are used as additional features are clipping and blending.

2.4.1 Clipping

Clipping is the reduction or shorten form of a word which has more than one syllable (Yule, 2010). One is likely to clip words that are frequently used to save time, e.g. bike for bicycle, math for mathematics, ad for advertisement. The same thing in Indonesia language, for instance makasih for trimakasih, motor for sepeda motor, even some clipping words in English have been adapted and

accepted as common words used in bahasa Indonesia or what is so-called as 'borrowing word'. For example, gym for gymnastics, a burger instead of hamburger.

Clipping can be classified into four types: front clipping, back clipping, front and back clipping, and phrase clipping (SUN Hong-Mei, 2010).

1. Front Clipping

Front clipping is the shortening form of a word with the front part clipped. For example, *cause* for *because*, *copter* for *helicopter*, and so on.

2. Back clipping

Black clipping is the shortening form of a word with the back part clipped. For example, *fan* for *fanatic*; *disco* for *discotheque*, and so on.

3. Front and back clipping

Front and back clipping the shortening form of a word with the front and back part clipped. In this case, the middle part of the word is taken. For example, *cuz* for *because*; *flu* for *influenza*, etc.

4. Phrase clipping

Phrase clipping is the shortening form of a phrase that consists of two words with the front part of the first word taken, while the remaining parts are clipped. For example, *pub* for *public house, pop* for *popular music, typo* for *typographical error*, and more.

2.4.2 Blending

Blending is the formation of a new word or term by combining two separate forms (Yule, 2010). For example, the word *smog* is derived from the combination of two separate words *smoke* and *fog*, *gasohol* (gas + alcohol), *brunch* (breakfast/lunch), *motel* (motor/hotel) etc.

SUN Hong-Mei (2010) categorizes word-formation processes in mainly two types of blends that she found in Internet English:

- 1. The combination of one part of one word and one part of the other word ora word plus a part of another word. For Example;
 - Netizen = net citizen, infochannel = informal channel, Webster = web master, commernet = commercial network, netzine = net magazine, and so on.
- 2. The combination of a letter of one word and another word. For example;

 e-mail = electronic mail, e-book = electronic book, e-cash = electronic

 cash, and so on. We have e-ktp in Indonesia language for elektronik KTP

 (kartutandapenduduk) or Electronic identity card.

Further, the writer also examined the availability of another type of blends in Internet Indonesian since the research object is in bahasa Indonesia. The following another two additional features that are used to analyze the features of Internet language come from playful language sound that will be explained in the following paragraph.

2.5 Playful Language Sound

In this more modern world, style and trend not only affects the outfit and things of people wear but also the way they speak and utter the words – the language. Some people prefer to use playful pronunciation and mishit the word as if the baby's chattering – it sometimes happens by changing the letter of a word with another letter or by adding another letter of a word for yielding a playful sound. In this case, young people are the objects of the users, who regarded the sound as 'bahasa alay' or 'alay' language which refers to a language that is played and mishit by the users which yielded out a change in the pronunciation of a word as well as in the written form to bring out exaggerated impression. According to Koentjara Ningrat in Meriani's Opini Remaja Tentang Penggunaan Bahasa Alay Dalam Iklan Televisi 2014:

"Alay is something that emerged among Indonesian youth whose status wanted to be recognized among their peers. This symptom will arguably change the style of writing, the style of dressing up which may lead to increasing self-narcissist." (read: Internet true users, like blogger and kaskuser).

In the study of language, alay language may refer to "diachronic", that is the language spoken by a group of people within a certain time, and it will develop in a particular period (Meriani, 2014). The development of this diachronic language is notable to be studied because it is a social phenomenon which lives and develops due to certain social phenomena. For example, by the time the writer was a high school student in around 2007/2008, she found a notable characteristic

of written language especially in short message service (SMS) and facebook. It was the unification of uppercase and lowercase in a word, also the use of numbers instead of some letters.

Q 9Hy d'HumMzZ!!! (Aku lagi di home = i'm at home)

 $kNp\ ci3\ qMue\ M4r4h\ eA\ ??\ (Kenapa\ sih\ kamu\ marah\ ya?=Why\ are\ you\ angry?$

CiNt4 i2 M9Kn bUt4, L0v3 i5 bLiNd!!! (Cinta itu mungkin buta = Love is Blind)

Early emergence of alay language is characterized by widespread of the use of abbreviations in sending short message or SMS (Kruliane, 2012). Later on, it develops along with the development of technology. The use of social media such as Friendster, Facebook, Twitter, BBM and Instagram is supposed to increase style and variety of language in virtual world where it is all connected with Internet network. Therefore, there comes up the term *Internet language*.

Alay language mostly appear in social media where the users can share their ideas or feelings in a freeer language, compared to those in a formal language which is used in a text-book, business letter, correspondence, research, journals, and so on, which deals with scientific language such as those used in the school, in the office or an institution.

Here are the examples of 'alay' language in Indonesia language;

Semangat may become cemungut or mangats (fighting)

Terimakasih = makasih, maaci (Thank you)

Banget = bingits, ngets (so much)

Cantik = cantq, tantik, ntik, cans (beautiful/pretty)

Mau = mao (want to)

Kece = ketche, ketjehh (cool)

Iya = yoi, iyut (yes)

Kali = keles (maybe), and many more.

If any, even the sound of word is formed too far from its spelling and written form such as the invitation phrase *yuk* becomes *kuy*, *sehat* becomes *tahes* which are formed by spelling it backwards. Such this case is sometimes found in bahasa Indonesia.

This playful language sound is used by the writer to analyze the features of Internet language since this kind of spelling usually appears in the language used in social media. Some additional features coming from playful language sound that are used by the writer to analyze Internet language features are *replacement of letter* and *deletion of letter* from orthographic of 'Alay' language by Kelana (2010). Further explanation of each will be given in the following paragraphs.

1. Deletion of letters

Deletion of letter happened when one or more phonemes are deleted from a word. For instance, the word *sudah* changed into *udah* by deleting phoneme /s/ or *dah* by deleting phoneme /s/ and /u/. The word *saja* changed into *aja/aj/ja*, etc.

2. Replacement of Letters

The process of this replacement is by replacing one or more phoneme of a word into one or more other phoneme. The replacement of letter with another is supposed to give excessive impression, flirtatious, and childish. The common phonemes replaced of a word are generally the phonemes with similar articulatory. For example;

- a. Phoneme /s/ is changed into phoneme /c/ or /z/
- e.g. $Makasih \rightarrow Makaci$, $kesel \rightarrow kezel$.
- b. Phoneme /t/ is replaced with phoneme /d/
- e.g. Banget → Banged
- c. Phoneme /ng/ [ŋ] is replaced with phoneme /nk/

This replacement happens due to some English vocabularies in which phoneme /nk/ is pronounced as /ng/ [\mathfrak{n}] such as in the word $thi\underline{nk}$ and $dri\underline{nk}$. This later on, played by some Indonesian people to produce alay language such as in the writing of a word $sene\underline{ng} \longrightarrow cene\underline{nk}$ in which phoneme /ng/ is replaced into /nk/.

Both features are considered as Internet language features seeing that they usually appear in online setting. Thus, the writer used the two features as additional features in analyzing Internet language features on Instagram. In addition, the writer also examined the new forms or terms of language which are found in Internet – Instagram.

2.6 Review of Related Studies

There are several previous studies examined the language used by male and female on the Internet. The studies that closely related to this study entitled *Gender Similarities and Differences in Online Identity and Language Use Among Teenage Bloggers* by David Huffaker, B.A. (2004) from Georgetown University, Washington, DC, and that by Avrilla (2014) from Airlangga University with title *The Internet Language Features and Dictions of Male and Female Commenters on Music Videos: A Case Study on Videos "Adore You" by Miley Cyrus and 'I'm A Freak" by Enrique Iglesias on Youtube.*

Huffaker (2004) examined issues of online identity and language use among teenagers (ages 13 – 17) who create and maintain weblogs or blogs, which are personal journals created by individuals and made publicly accessible on the Internet. His findings show that males in average use more emoticons in their posts than females. Males also reveal their sexual identity (homosexuality) more often than females. Males expose their location more often than females, while females provide a link to a personal web site more often than males. Finally, the significant conclusion of the whole on his thesis is that males use a more active and resolute language than females.

The second study by Avrilla (2014), investigated the typical Internet language features and dictions used by different Youtube users sexes in they way they comment controversial music videos from a female and a male singer that have contents of female's body exploration. The results indicated that males and

females have different Internet language features when they are writing in online setting. In most cases, males in both videos used Multiple Punctuation – multiple periods to express pauses, while females in both videos mostly used Emoticons to express their feeling. In addition, males and females are more expressive when commenting a female video than a male's in which it is considered controversial. Furthermore, she found that males use taboo words more often than females which mean her finding displayed females as polite language users. In conclusion, she revealed that females are more talk active than males based on the total words that they produce in commenting both controversial videos on Youtube.

Another research about Internet language used by male and female coming from this department has been conducted by Badriah (2015) with the title *Internet Language Features Used By Male and Female Online Shopper on Instagram*. In her reserach, she identified the difference typical Internet language features used by male and female online shopper on Instagram when they were giving comments. The results show that both users (male & female) frequently use abbreviations to save time and multiple periods to express pause. The difference of both lied on the use of eccentric spelling which displayed male users use more vowel extension while female users tend to use consonant repetition. Besides, female users tend to use more varied emoticons than male users.

The similarities of those three studies I mentioned above with this study lies on the same subjects – language use of male and females on the Internet. Meanwhile the difference lies on the focus as well as the object of the study.

Huffaker (2004) focused on the issues on how teenagers (ages 13-17) construct their identity in online setting, and how the language use used in their weblogs or blogs. The second and Third study by Avrilla (2014) and Badriah (2015) both examined the Internet language features used by male and female but came up with different focus and objects. Avrilla investigated the Internet language features on how male and female express their ideas and feelings through comments on controversial music videos on Youtube. While Badriah (2015) investigated the Internet language features on how male and female do shopping in online shop – Instagram, when they were giving comments.

This study then, also discusses on how male and female, without specific age, express their ideas, feelings or thoughts through comments, yet the writer focused in examining the comments they write toward humor video content posted in Instagram or what has come to be known as *vidgram* (video instagram) and how they give respond to it.

To sum up, in examining the typical Internet language features, the writer used common digital writing proposed by Danet (2001) as the main theory and another additional features coming from word-formation by Yule (2010) and playful language sound which noticed on orthography of 'alay' language by Kelana (2010).