CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of research on language and media, particularly on advertisements. The importance of language in advertising will also be clarified in order to understand and analyze advertisements.

The next section defines language and gender as well as the aspects pertaining this area of study. A review of related literature will make clear the approaches adopted by various researchers who undertook projects related to language and gender.

The following section provides previous research on gender in advertisements and includes gender bias. Finally, the social context and studies that are relevant will also be discussed, which include ethnicity, age, occupation and attributes.

2.1 Advertising and Advertisements

Advertising is a communicative situation in which language operates in accordance with the purposes and actual possibilities of this type of communication (Harris, 1999). Advertising is a message designed to promote or sell a product, a service or an idea, and reaches people through varied types of mass communication.

In everyday life, people come into contact with many different kinds of advertising. Printed advertisements are found in newspapers and magazines; poster advertisements are placed in buses, subways, and trains, neon signs are found scattered along downtown streets while billboards dot the landscape along highways. Commercials also intersperse radio and television programs.

Advertising is a multibillion-dollar industry. In many businesses, it increases sales of products and services. Popularity is also gained through advertisements depending on the amount of advertising done. Manufacturers try to persuade people to buy their products whilst business firms use advertising to promote an "image" for their company, gain new customers and increase sales through advertisements. Individuals, political candidates and their parties, organizations and groups like governments and armed forces use advertisements to advertise. Special interest groups promote a cause or try to influence people's thoughts and actions, for instance, a "No Smoking" campaign. Politicians use advertisements to win votes whereas people advertise in newspapers to sell cars, homes, property, or other items.

The American Marketing Association has defined advertising as any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by any identified sponsor (Bolen, 1984:6). In the broad domain of advertising, the most basic function of advertisements is to communicate. The communication must inform, persuade or do both.

A persuasive advertisement can be defined as an advertisement whose main function is to persuade the potential customer or receiver that he or she needs to buy a product, use a service, support a cause or take a specific action. This type of advertisement is the most widely used form because its main function is to persuade consumers to change or modify their buying behavior in favor of the product or service advertised. Informative advertisements, on the other hand, inform the consumers about goods, services or ideas and then tell them how to get them by means of the identified sponsor.

According to Leech (1966:27), in order to describe and define any situation of linguistic communication, certain areas should be made clear, which include identifying the participants, the objects relevant to the communication, the medium of communication and the purpose or effect of communication.

The participants involved in advertising are a copywriter and an audience. The first category, which is the copywriter, is usually represented by an advertising agency, where a group of people work on the production of a certain message on behalf of the advertiser. The second category stands a group of people or audience, who usually by chance are exposed to advertising from different sources. The relevant objects are products or services being advertised. However, not all of them are actually mentioned or discussed in a message. Moreover, they may not be physically or sensibly present. Such advertising involves a complex process of creating a positive image of a certain company, or even an attempt to sell a lifestyle, a value or an emotion.

The most important distinction of medium is between speech and writing. However, under this heading, such types of media are television, radio and print advertisements. Furthermore, print advertising can be presented in the form of newspaper messages, billboards, special advertising brochures etc. Each type has its own advantages, available facilities and flaws.

In the advertising situation, involving a form of inferential communication, "purpose" and "effect' are two different things. The effect of advertising may take different forms and need not coincide with the purpose. It is only partly a question of buying or not buying the product. However, the purpose remains fairly constant, that is to make people purchase products or services advertised.

2.1.1 Types of Advertisements

In general, advertising can be divided into two major groups, which are commercial and non-commercial. The commercial division includes consumer advertising, trade advertising and corporate advertising.

Consumer advertising is directed at a mass audience, trade advertising is used by manufacturers to communicate with their retailers via trade press and corporate advertising is advertising done by companies to affect people's awareness of and attitudes to the organization as a whole rather than its products or services.

The non-commercial division, on the other hand, consists of government advertising for various purposes. These include public service information and charity advertising that are intended to give publicity to the needs and objectives of an association or organization conducted for charitable or benevolent purposes (Hermerēn, 1999).

Basically, the types of advertisements can be reflected in the diagram below:

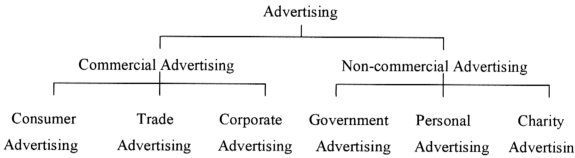

Diagram 2.1 Types of Advertisements

In order to provide a clearer picture, the researcher had come up with Diagram 2.1. where personal advertisements are grouped under the non-commercial division, as it is not meant to make profit.

2.1.2 Importance of Language in Advertising

According to Frith (1995:185), language can exert a powerful influence over people and their behavior. This is especially true in the field of advertising. An advertisement is both a marketing tool and a cultural artifact.

The advertisement is an element of popular culture and will normally offer some product or service that is represented as satisfying some consumer need or desire. The choice of language to convey messages with the intention of influencing people is important. Although the visual content and design in advertisements have a very great impact on the consumer, it is the language that helps people to identify a product and remember it.

The English language is known for its extensive vocabulary as it may have five or six meanings to a word compared to many other languages that may have only one or two words, which carry a particular meaning. Moreover, the meanings of these five or six words may differ very slightly and in a very subtle way. Therefore, it is important to understand the connotations of a word. The target audience also puts its own meaning into certain words, as different people may interpret language in different ways (Cronin, 2000).

One important issue that has come up in the analysis of advertising is how much of the processing is conscious on the part of the reader, and how much of it is unconscious or unavoidable. It is not easy to avoid comprehending some advertisements when you are presented with one. The situation is much like when you are sitting next to a stranger who is talking on a mobile telephone: it is very hard to simply ignore the communication (Dunhill, 2002:16). Thus, it shows that advertising is a form of communication, and we find ourselves participating every day either consciously or subconsciously.

It is important to remember that the almost unconscious act of getting the basic meaning of an advertisement is quite different from additional issues of interpreting regarding whether an advertisement is convincing or not, whether it might influence audience's behavior or not, or whether it is approved of the kind of scene and social values that are apparent to in the advertisement. The analytic perspective that is presented here takes the view that advertising is treated as ordinary communication, and that advertising language is treated as ordinary language. There is ample evidence that this is true (Gonzalez, 2000).

Advertising language is not qualitatively different from ordinary language, and that the ideas from linguistics and semiotics that have been applied in many domains of language and cultural behavior carry over directly to the analysis of advertising. The application of the key concepts of presupposition and relevance with respect to advertisements is based on the idea that readers treat advertisements as normal, rational communication.

2.2 Language and Gender

Language is an effective and common method of communication. There are two sexes which use this form of communication: 'male' and 'female'. Sex is the biological categorization of people whereas gender is the interpreted identity that males and females choose to take on. If we accept that these sexes are of people of different worlds, then it is also inevitable that there are certain differences in the usage of language among these two separate gender (Vanfossen, 1998).

The difference in language use is not primarily due to the different sexes but mostly because of sex role stereotyping and socialization. This is to say that culture and society tend to construct this language difference.

Research into language and gender did not really begin in a systematic or serious way until the early 1970s. However, this is not to suggest that no one before had ever noticed or mentioned of gender related differences in speech. Such differences have always been a source of fascination, especially with respect to the ways in which these manifested themselves with non-Western societies and for centuries, travelers, missionaries and scholars have reported on what they regarded as unusual and exotic. The fact that scholars from a variety of disciplines have engaged in research into language and gender has led not only to a great many existing results but also to more and more questions as researchers have come to grips with the complexity of the problem.

The studies that have been going on in the area of language and gender have focused on anything from different syntactical, phonological or lexical uses of language to aspects of conversation analysis, such as topic nomination and control, interruptions and other interactional features. While some research has focused only on the description of differences, other work has sought to show how linguistic differences both reflect and reproduce social difference.

Generally, research into language and gender may be categorized into two major categories.

The first has to do with sexism in language or the ways in which speakers and writers demonstrate their different cultural attitudes toward men and women. The second major category concerns major possible or alleged differences in actual speech of men and women. Coates (1988) suggests that research on language and gender be divided into studies that focus on dominance and those that focus on difference.

The first, which is the dominance approach, sees women as an oppressed group and interprets linguistic differences in women's and men's speech in terms of men's dominance and women's subordination. Researchers using this model are concerned to show how male dominance is enacted through linguistic practice. Dominance models are based on the idea that one gender and in most cases, the male, dominates society. As a result, its members use 'powerful' language reflective of this larger and more established social rule. Members of the other gender, usually the female, use 'powerless' language, which reflects their diminished role in society.

Robin Lakoff's rampantly speculative writings reflect this kind of thinking, as does Candace West and Don H. Zimmerman's work on conversational interruptions. What is beneficial about this model is that it takes both genders into account. Its disadvantages, however, include the fact that this model tends to make gender differences seem hopeless in that they are interpreted as being caused by an all powerful unchanging society that leaves little room for individuals to grow and change.

Researchers who follow the power or dominance approach include Zimmerman and West (1975), Fishman (1978, 1980) and Spender (1980). They argue that the considerable economic power men have over women in society permeates into language, resulting in male domination in spoken interaction. Male domination of society's power structures ensures that men's speech is always more highly valued.

The second and newer approach, the difference model, emphasizes the idea that women and men belongs to different subcultures and the differences in women's and men's speech are interpreted as reflecting and maintaining gender-specific subcultures. Coates (1997:413) believes that the culture/difference approach arose as a backlash to the power or dominance framework.

Zimmerman and West (1975) concluded that men's dominance in conversation via interruption mirrors their dominance in contemporary western culture. Interruption is 'a device for exercising power and control in conversation' because it involves 'violations of speakers' turns at talk' (West and Zimmerman, 1983, p.103). Although men typically enjoy greater status and power than women in most societies, the inference is that men are more likely than women to assume they are entitled to take the conversational floor. Since West and Zimmerman's early work, many studies have replicated their findings. However, many other studies have either found no gender differences (e.g. Carli, 1990; Dindia, 1987) or have found that women interrupt more than men (e.g. Kennedy & Camden, 1983; Nohara, 1992).

Although a few interruptions occurred in Zimmerman and West's (1975) recorded conversations, the pattern of interruptions between same and mixed gender interactants was different. In same gender interactions, the distribution of interruptions was fairly equally divided between speakers. In contrast, in mixed gender interactions, men made nearly all of the interruptions of women's speech.

Generally, there are some characteristics of both sexes in communication. Men speak in a higher, rougher and direct tone without hesitating and they choose a faster and a slightly rougher and direct tone speech. Women, on the other hand, speak by using tag questions, qualifiers and fillers in order to soften their speech and by doing this; they avoid direct rough and threatening language. Women also tend to speak more slowly and clearly. This is due to the gendered expectations imposed on the society that we either behave as a man or woman in accepted forms in communication. Men and women do not speak different languages (Lakoff, 1973).

Some linguists believe that women are aware of their low status in society and as a result, use more standard speech forms, in their attempt to claim equality or achieve high social status. In a sense, they are up in arms against men's society. "It would appear, then, that women have not universally accepted the position in the lower ranks, and that, out-of-awareness, and in a socially acceptable and non-punishable way, women are rebelling" (Key, 1975: 103). Furthermore, as Trudgill (1983a: 167-168) suggests:

Women are more closely involved with child-rearing and the transmission of culture, and are therefore more aware of the importance, for their children, of the acquisition of (prestige) norms...Men in our society have traditionally been rated socially by their occupation, their earning power, and perhaps by their abilities - in other words, by what they do...It may be, therefore, that they [women] have had to be rated instead, to a greater extent than men, on how they appear.

In most societies, there are interesting differences between the speech of men and the speech of women. In the Louisiana language Koasati, for example, certain words are pronounced differently by men and by women. In Japanese, men and women use some different words for the same thing.

Gender differences in one society may not be the same as that of another society. This is the reason why the researcher has examined how male and female perceived each other in this set of corpus. Take for example in the Western countries where females usually participate more openly in arguments, discussions and are able to speak more freely and comfortably in the presence of male. This may not necessarily be so for their counterpart in the Middle East or Eastern countries. The women in these countries, for instance, do not frequently participate in debates, as their customs make them feel uncomfortable to speak openly in the presence of males. This is due to their upbringing since childhood and this situation reflects that the biological aspects do not affect gender differences in language very much.

McArthur and Resko (1975) found that overall men appeared more often than women in television advertisements and that men and women differed in terms of credibility (men being authorities and women users), role (women portrayed in terms of their relationship to others and men in a role independent of others), location (men shown in occupational settings and women in the home), persuasive arguments (men gave more `scientific' arguments than women), rewards (women were shown obtaining approval of family and males, while obtained men social and career advancement) and product type (men were authorities on products used primarily by women). Thus, the researcher would look into the issues mentioned and identify if the elements above apply in the data collected especially on the issues of credibility, role and location.

2.4 Social Context and Studies

This section will look at the definitions and related literature of the social context investigated in the present study, which include ethnicity, age, occupation and attributes.

2.4.1 Ethnicity and Race

Race refers to physical variations that are treated by members of a community or society as socially significant. Ethnicity refers to cultural practices and outlooks of a given community that have emerged historically and tend to set people apart. Race is not biologically determined.

One of the most frequently documented examples of sexism in the English language has been the use of 'he' and 'man' for both masculine and gender neutral terms, to refer to males and to human beings in general. Anti-sexist language guidelines argue that 'he' and 'man' should be used exclusively to refer to males. Where the intention is to refer to people of both sexes, alternative gender neutral terms should be used. Since there are not universally agreed alternatives, many writers adopt an individual policy:

I have used two devices to combat the sexism, which is widespread in the English language. In some places, I have used she as well as he when a neutral between-sexes pronoun is required. In other places, I have followed the increasingly common practice of using they and their as singular forms after a neutral noun.

(Atkinson, 1987: p.VIII)

Another point to present is the differences of 'occupational titles'. This difference in the titles helps to understand which job is meant for men and which is for women (Vanfossen, 1998). Examples include 'barmaid', which will only be applied by women and 'waiter' which will only be filled in by men. However, masculine and feminine forms of a word tend not to have equivalent meanings. Words referring to women may have connotations of lower status, other pejorative connotations and sometimes even sexual connotations. These include words like master and mistress, bachelor and spinster, governor and governess, manager and manageress and lord and lady.

Examining language use may lead to significant "discoveries" as to the structure of society or a specific community and the values and the concomitant expectations - that permeate it and determine the ways in which individuals are viewed and treated. Interestingly, language always implies more than what is literally meant. It is not reasonable to draw much attention to some of the factors responsible for the differences in women's linguistic behavior when not a word was said about men's linguistic behavior. Hence, it should concede that the society had been carried away by the general tendency to view men's behavior, in general, and linguistic behavior, in particular, as a yardstick against which women's actions are to be assessed. In fact, it has only "skimmed the surface" of the whole matter.

2.3 Gender in Advertisements

In our society today, we are bombarded with hundreds of advertisements everyday. We have grown so accustomed to seeing them that we may not stop to look at what is being displayed to us. Advertisements are created to specifically attract a certain group of target audience. While attempts of universal advertisements have been made, for the most part advertisements are viewer specific, which is also known as narrowcasting. Narrowcasting is defined as direct media channels to specific segments of the audience (Straubhaar and LaRose, 1999:527) .

Advertisements tend to suggest an "ideal" image for both men and women; as a result of all these ideal images, our society has created cultural icons of what we should look like and many of these cultural icons appear in our advertisements in order to persuade us to buy a product.

Expectations regarding gender-role relationships, as subtly implied by both television and magazine advertising, may operate as socialization agents on several levels (Rosenthal, 1974; Jones, 1977; Geis, Brown, Jennings, and Porter, 1984). First, they appear to represent all members of society, due to the fact that they are broadcasted publicly. Second, the individuals portrayed in the advertisements appear to accept these relationships and thus they serve to validate the roles described. Third, since advertisements portray the roles and attitudes of both men and women in society, they define social expectations and they also serve to educate the viewer as to acceptable versus unacceptable behaviors (Goffman, 1976). Thus, advertising involves the ritualization of our social world and encourages the coninuum of gender stereotyping in the society.

Gender stereotypes occur when generic attributes, opinions or roles toward either gender are applied. Gender stereotypes are apparent everywhere in our society, especially in the media. Companies display advertisements and commercials to gear toward the common belief of gender stereotypes. They portray women in housecleaning and child rearing roles to sell cleaners and baby products.

However, when it comes to selling beer and cars to men, the image of women in revealing outfits, or a sweating man out in the yard working hard on his lawn are usually seen (Katz, 2003). These gender stereotypes are used to sell the products to the people they believe would use them most, showing them in the "situations" they would most likely be in.

The issue of facial versus body views in advertising has been studied (e.g. Hall and Crum, 1994; Archer, Iritani, Kimes and Barrios, 1983; Sullivan and O'Connor, 1988). In general, they have concluded that women's bodies and body parts are portrayed more often in print and television advertising than are women's faces and that the opposite is true for portrayals of men. Further, facial views are perceived by the viewer as projecting intelligence and ambition while body views are not (Archer, Iritani, Kimes and Barrios, 1983). Thus, these studies suggest that the disparity between men and women with regard to facial versus body views may also lead to a disparity with regard to the degree of intelligence that these images project with men being perceived more favorably than women.

McArthur and Resko (1975) found that overall men appeared more often than women in television advertisements and that men and women differed in terms of credibility (men being authorities and women users), role (women portrayed in terms of their relationship to others and men in a role independent of others), location (men shown in occupational settings and women in the home), persuasive arguments (men gave more `scientific' arguments than women), rewards (women were shown obtaining approval of family and males, while obtained men social and career advancement) and product type (men were authorities on products used primarily by women). Thus, the researcher would look into the issues mentioned and identify if the elements above apply in the data collected especially on the issues of credibility, role and location.

2.4 Social Context and Studies

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2.4.1 Ethnicity and Race

Race refers to physical variations that are treated by members of a community or society as socially significant. Ethnicity refers to cultural practices and outlooks of a given community that have emerged historically and tend to set people apart. Race is not biologically determined.

Rather, it is a set of social relationships that allow individuals and groups to be assigned attributes and competencies based on their biologically grounded features (Giddens, Duneier, and Appelbaum, 2003)

Religion, on the other hand, is defined as a cultural system of commonly shared beliefs and rituals that provides a sense of ultimate meaning and purpose by creating an idea of reality that is sacred, all-encompassing and supernatural (Berger, 1967; Durkheim, 1965, orig.1912 Wuthnow, 1988). There are three key elements in this definition:

1. Religion is a form of culture,
2. Religion involves beliefs that take the form of ritualized practices,
3. Religion provides a sense of purpose – a feeling that life is ultimately meaningful.

(Giddens, Duneier, and Appelbaum, 2003)

There are various studies on the issue of ethnicity in advertisements, for instance, Humphrey and Schuman (1984) discovered that, between 1950 and 1980, the occupational level of Afro Americans as portrayed in *Time* and in *Ladies' Home Journal* rose in the sense that they were no longer portrayed as maids or servants. White authority figures, however, were still portrayed in supervisory roles in regard to Afro Americans of low socioeconomic status and in regard to Afro Americans children.

It was also found that in predominately white neighborhoods, people would not see advertisements with black people in them, as products would not sell that way (Craig, 1990). Similarly, in black neighborhoods, people will not see advertisements with white people in them strictly because some black people will not buy a product endorsed by a white person. Driving around Chinatown, people would see Chinese people in all the advertisements. Selling to the proper race is just a good marketing strategy. There is an exception when it comes to races selling to one another for instance, in the market of sporting goods; there is no line to cross. Sporting goods are overall a universal product in many ways. It has nothing to do with being racist, but all to do with culture, as companies want to sell to the right audience. Hence, the researcher would examine if writers of a particular ethnicity would advertised for potential partners of the same or different group.

2.4.2 Age

Even though in the 21st century where attitudes are considered more 'liberal', relationships where age differences are significant especially for younger men and older women will cause suspicion. There have always been relationships with age differences but what seem to change are people's attitudes to relationships with age differences, whether from a cultural perspective, religious point of view or the sociological taboos built around gender and age. When men and women are faced with choosing their partners, they may still need to conform to what their culture expects (Presser, 1975).

It is interesting to note that relationships with large age differences between spouses have been shown to affect the quality of spousal relationships in the form of a diminished value consensus between husbands and wives and resulting tensions (Presser, 1975). Large age differences could also affect the success of marriages. Statistically, marriages where husbands are considerably older than their wives are more likely to break up than those where couples are of a similar age or where wives are older than husbands (Tzeng, 1992). Spousal relationships with age differences also has implications for the status of women with very large age differences having been found to signify the lower status of women (Veevers 1984; Presser 1975; Casterline et. al 1986).

A decline in relationships with age differences between spouses has been present in many countries where the proportion of marriages with husbands much older than the wife has decreased while there has been a slight increase of wife – older marriages (Mensch, 1986). Such a trend of age preference indicates that this is affected by changes of age at marriage, marital history, women's education and women's status in society. This issue will also be examined in the data collected to find out if men can accept older partners and women; younger men.

2.4.3 Occupation

Historically, women's efforts to join the workforce were not taken seriously by society because women were only supposed to work until they married (Renzetti and Curran 1999).

Women's work was viewed as trivial, and therefore they were confined to menial tasks such as rolling cigars and folding books. Today these conditions have improved, in that women are now present in various fields, with many of them requiring more skills than those they previously filled. However, what has not changed is the mentality that women's work is somehow lesser in merit, which justifies their lower wages and their higher concentration in lower-prestige positions (Renzetti and Curran 1999).

Women have been received with such resistance in the workplace because many still view their proper place as in the home and with the children. Many women who wish to have both a full-time career and a family find the demands overwhelming, and have made difficult personal decisions to forego or delay marriage and bearing children (Kaufman 1984). Kaufman noted, "A successful professional career requires early achievement and uninterrupted competition for continued success-timing based on a male pattern" (Kaufman 1984:156).

While women have succeeded in overcoming the barriers that have historically held them back from more prestigious occupations, modern society has created new obstacles to complete success and equality in the labor force. Devaluation of women's activities is entrenched in the major cultures and religions of the world, reducing women's pay and the likelihood of promotion in comparison to men, thus preserving a sex-gender hierarchy (Kaufman 1984; Reskin and Padavic 1994).

Gender manifests itself in the workplace in various ways. Women and men are concentrated in different fields, with women in lower-ranking positions, and being less likely to hold positions of authority. As a result they also earn less than men (Reskin and Padavic 1994). One prominent example of this is found in the world of academia, a major focus of this study. Men tend to occupy the higher-ranking positions, such as principals and professors, while women are generally teachers and teacher's aids (Renzetti and Curran 1999).

According to International Labor Office (1999) statistics, women represent 36% of the Malaysian workforce. However, half of this comprises women working as unpaid, family workers. Even though the number of economically active women has increased, the largest growth in women's participation has been in the middle and low-level jobs such as clerical and production jobs. While more women are entering professional sectors, this is largely restricted to nursing and teaching professions.

In 1980, women accounted for only 7% of employers in the economically active population of Malaysia. Although there was an increase in 1990, female employers had only reached 8.5%, with men comprising the vast majority in the employer status. Conversely, women continued to greatly outnumber men in unpaid work, 64% women to 35% men in 1990. In private sectors, women carried on to collect lower wages than their male colleagues. The adult economic activity rate was also less for women than men, with 42% of women economically active compared to 79% of men. In 1998, the female labor force accounted for 38% of the total labor force.

Manufacturing accounts for 27.9% of GDP (1998). Women represent almost 10% of the workers. Major products include electronic components, as Malaysia is one of the world's largest exporters of semi-conductor devices, electrical goods, and appliances. Women are more present in the manufacturing sector and in the end sales and services sectors, but they do not outnumber males in any case.

Women's participation in the government sector is important as government is still the single largest employer, although the share of the private sector is rapidly increasing. Women are concentrated in jobs traditionally open to them, such as education services. Also, in sectors such as medical and health services, in general, women still work as nurses rather than as doctors or hospital administrators. Hence, it would be interesting to look the writers', as well as the preferred partners' occupations.

While technological changes in industries have led to changes in skills and knowledge requirements of workers, women are still concentrated more in low-skilled jobs and labor-intensive operations. Similar patterns of gender segregation in the occupational structure persist in both the public and private services sectors, whereby women are not represented to the extent that their male counterparts are at professional and sub-professional levels. However, at the combined professional and technical levels, there are proportionally more women (12.7%) than men (8.4%) due to the size of the health and education sectors and to the preponderance of women in teaching and nursing.

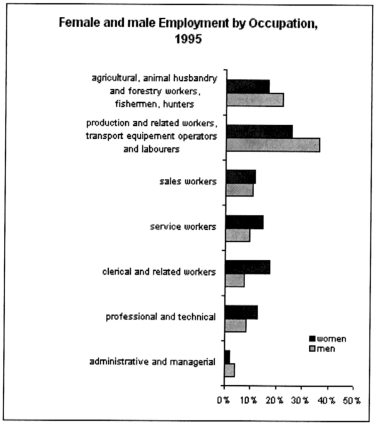

Diagram 2.2 Labor Force Survey (Source: Asian Development Bank, 1995)

There has been an increasing number of women in administrative and managerial jobs (from 9% to 19%) between the mid 1980s and the mid 1990s.

However, this indicator tends to overestimate the decision-making power of women, since these jobs cover numerous levels of responsibility, and since women tend to be concentrated in jobs where the level of responsibility is low. Employment patterns reveal that women are concentrated in labor-intensive operations in the manufacturing sector as clerical workers, equipment operators, production workers and service workers - positions that require little pre-employment training.

However, as the manufacturing industry is moving towards more skill-intensive production methods, there will be additional pressure to reduce training costs by: (i) retaining experienced workers, (ii) giving some preference to women with prior experience, or (iii) rehiring persons who have been absent from the work force for an extended period. Even if, proportionally, women contribute more to family life, most of them end up belonging to the dependent labor force, along with men.

2.4.4 Attributes

Macquarie University psychology PhD graduate, Dr Fiona Papps (2001), set about answering questions regarding how big a part a woman's appearance really plays in her ability to get a guy to commit and what about what he looks like in her research. She surveyed 108 men and women about their understanding and beliefs about romantic relationships and commitment. It was found that men strongly indicated that in general, women needed to be beautiful to get a relationship and that women were much more manipulative than men. One of the interesting findings in Papps' research is that men placed importance on looking good to attract a woman, which is supported by this study. However, men in this corpus placed personalities and characteristics as essential, as opposed to physical attractiveness when advertising for potential partners.

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2.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, language and gender is an area that requires more research in order to identify whether the differences in men and women's speech are due to differences or dominance. The explanations offered by the power/dominance and cultural/difference approaches are now thought to be too simplistic in their explanations. Both approaches have polarized gender, resulting in assertions that men speak one way whilst women speak another. A prime example of this is the view that females tend to favor co-operative, rapport-seeking speech styles, whereas males tend to favor competitive, status-seeking speech styles. Viewing men and women in this dichotomized way results in a gross oversimplification of the complexity of language and gender. It not only ignores the diversity of speech in groups of women and in groups of men but it also ignores cultural differences and differences that may be the result of other social variables such as age, class and ethnicity.