CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this literature review, the writer discussed about Syntax, Language, Theories of Differences between Men and Women Language, Characters, Movie, The Ugly Truth and Theoretical Framework.

2.1 Syntax

Syntax is the part of the grammar that represents a speaker's knowledge of the structures to construct phrases and sentences out of morphemes and words (Fromkin p.106). Laurel J. Brinton in his book *The Structure of Modern English: A Linguistic Introduction* wrote that syntax is the study of the sequences of words which form the structures of sentences.

According to O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, and Katamba in their book *Contemporary Linguistic: an Introduction (1996)*, syntax is the analysis of sentence structure – it focuses on the 'architecture' of grammatical sentences, with an emphasis on the manner in which words are combined to form various types of sentences. They also said the term of syntax refers not only to the structure of sentences, types, uses, connection, and the variations authors choose, but also to smaller structures within sentences. Phrases (any group of words) and clauses (groups

of words that contain a subject and a verb) are also syntactic elements that require a reader's attention.

Based on the definitions above, syntax is the part of the grammar that represents a speaker's knowledge of the structures to construct phrases and clauses to form a various types of sentences. In other words, it studies how sentence are being constructed by analyze the part of the sentence. The essential idea, like all literary features, syntax must be examined in terms of how it contributes to purpose, meaning, and effect, and also to help an author achieve his/her purpose. Simply, the purpose of the syntax are how the sentence structure which is basically group of words be arranged and to show the writer's skills in writing because word patterns and sentence structures need to be modified at times to fit certain types of writing and also to reveal what is the writer intention using such a sentence, because a different structure of sentence, it may cause a different meaning. Here is an example in which the meaning may changes according to the different syntax:

Q: "What kind of pizza do you want?"

From the question above, there are 2 answers arise to compare a different syntax.

A1: "I don't want JUST peperoni."

A2: "I JUST don't want peperoni"

In the first answer, it means that the person wants peperoni and other toppings on top of their pizza while the second one, it means that the person wants anything except peperoni as their toppings.

From the example above, it is clearly seen that syntax takes an important role to construct a meaning in a sentence. Thus, syntax is having a really deep connection with sentence and its component.

When one talk about syntax, it cannot be separated from what it is called *Syntactical Analysis*. Syntactical analysis or known also as Parsing is to break (a sentence) down into its component parts of speech with an explanation of the form, function, and syntactical relationship of each part (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary International Student's Edition). According to University of Virginia in their linguistic journal (1995), Parsing is recognizing whether a sentence is grammatically well formed and identifying the function of each component. Parsing is the process of analyzing a string of symbols, either in natural language or in computer languages, according to the rules of a formal grammar. (Laurel J. Brinton p.120)

From the definition above, it can be concluded that Syntactical Analysis is breaking down a sentence into its component to see or recognizing whether a sentence is grammatically well formed and also to identify the function of each

component. The function of syntactical analysis itself is can be used to determine what kind of sentence that are being analyzed.

To do syntactical analysis, one better know the following component of the sentence structure:

Sentence Length – Are the sentences short or long? (divide into *telegraphic, short, medium,* and *long* categories)

Sentence Beginnings and Endings – Is there variety or does a pattern emerges? (*Anaphora & epistrophe*)

Word Order – Are words set out in a special way for a specific purpose or effect?

Rhetorical Question – A question that expects no answer, it draws attention to a point or leads a reader to a specific view, answer, etc.

Arrangement of Ideas – Are ideas set out in a special way for a purpose or effect? (*loose, periodic, parallel, natural order, inverted order, split order, and interrupted order sentences*)

Sentence Classifications – Consider the following in examining sentence structures. There are two divisions in this section Basic Sentence Types Purposes

(*declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamatory*) and Basic Sentence Types Structures (*simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex)*

.   Each of following component above can be analyzed separately to dig more about the component and to find its relationship between others and to see the function.

2.1.1 Sentence Structure

The process of writing places many demands on every writer, as planning, drafting, and revising all require considerable cognitive effort. However, of all these writing components and processes, creating sentences may be the most complex. Sentence is a set of words expressing a statement, a question or an order, usually containing a subject and a verb (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary p.1212). According to Richard Nordquist (1990), sentence is the largest independent unit of grammar: it begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point. The sentence is traditionally (and inadequately) defined as a word or group of words that expresses a complete idea and that includes a subject and a verb. Marjolijn H.Verspoor and Kim Sauter in their book *English Sentence Analysis: An Introductory Course* (1997) wrote that the term sentence is derived from Latin *sentential*, which literally meant 'feeling' or 'opinion'. In the field of grammar, this meaning has specialized to mean 'an utterance that expresses a feeling or opinion,' but a more technical definition would be 'a grammatically self-contained speech unit

consisting of a word, or a syntactically related group of words that expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation (Marjolijn and Kim Sauter p.33).

The late historian Barbara Tuchman once wrote, "When it comes to language, nothing is more satisfying that to write a good sentence" (quoted in Beene, 1996, p.7) Sentences represent vehicles of communication that are literally miniature compositions. When writers produce sentences, they are converting their mental ideas and intentions into syntactically acceptable written form capable of transmitting particular messages to readers. Depending on a writer's choices, intent, and ability, a composition can contain an extensive variety of syntactically different sentence - some shorter and some longer; some designed to inform or command; others intended to convey emotions, make a statement, or pose questions. For example, a writer can use a short sentence for emphasizing a critical point or for simple dialogue, and then slip in a more complex sentence construction to elaborate a key concept or plot twist. Writers can also repeat certain elements within series of sentences for a specific effect. Whatever the length may be, however, each sentence will ideally make a unique and identifiable contribution to the whole.

Knowing the basic sentence structures or sentence types of English helps writers in a variety of ways. Knowing the basic sentence types offers writers control over how they choose to present information. For some writers, learning the basic sentence patterns can make it easier to check sentence structure at the editing stage of

writing. However, some sentences may have more than one subject and/or predicate but if we know what the sentence types we deal with, it could probably help with writing and constructing a sentence in many ways in the future. There are four main sentence types proposed by Schumaker & Sheldon (1985): simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and complex-compound sentences. They said alternating between sentence types will add variety to the rhythm of writing, making it more engaging to the reader.

Simple sentences

Simple sentences (or also known as independent clause), minimally contains one subject and one verb and is a complete statement. For example:

"She laughed".

It only contains one subject (she) and one verb (laughed) on it (in other word only consist of simple clause). Other descriptive phrases can be added, but the sentence remains simple

"In the middle of the night, she laughed weirdly for a full 30 seconds."

Compound sentences

A compound sentence minimally consists of two or more main clauses that are joined by a coordinating conjunction or a semi-colon (one simple clause plus another simple

clause). Note that a comma without a coordination conjunction is a comma splice and is incorrect. In a compound sentence, the ideas in both parts of the sentence are equally emphasized by the writer. For example:

"Whales cannot breather under water for they have lungs instead of gills".

The above sentence is one of a compound sentence because both clauses are independent and may stand on their own. The connecting word for, which expresses reason, connects those two clauses and expresses what those two situations have to do with each other.

Complex sentences

A complex sentence is a sentence that contains at least one full dependent clause with its own subject and predicate and a dependent clause. A dependent clause is a clause that starts with a subordinator like *because, although, if, who, where, when, that* and so on.

The difference between a compound and complex sentence is that in a compound sentence, both parts are really just simple, independent sentences. In a complex sentence, the dependent clause cannot stand on its own and functions as a constituent (subject, object, adverbial, or attribute) of the main clause, or in some cases it is only a part of another sentence constituent. For example:

"John, who always kicks the ball hard, is the player who scores the most."

The sentence above is an example of complex sentence. Basically, it is only "John is the player" as a main clause (or independent clause). The clause "who always kicks the ball hard" is only a constituent of the subject (John) and the clause "who scores the most" is the constituent of the object (the player). Both of those clauses cannot be stand alone.

Compound-complex sentence

A complex-compound sentence (or compound-complex sentence) is a sentence that consists of at least two simple and one or more dependent clauses. The punctuation rules remain the same: the two simple sentences are joined by one of the two methods described above, and the dependent clause is punctuated (or not) depending on whether it precedes or follows an independent clause. For example:

"He went to college and I went to a market where I bought this book"

"I like Mathematics but my brother likes Biology because he wants to be a doctor"

In the first sentence of above sentences, there are two independent clauses, "he went to college" and "I went to a market" combined (or compounded) with the

coordinating conjunction "and". The dependent clause is "where I bought a book" used to modify the object (a market).

In the second sentence, there are also two independent clauses, "I like Mathematics" and "my brother likes Biology" combined with the coordinating conjunction "but". The dependent clause is "because he wants to be a doctor" used as an result from a reason before (wants to be a doctor).

2.1.2 Syntactical Choices

Fernanda Ferreira and Paul E. Engelhardt (2006) from Michigan State University in their research stated that "our capacity for language enables us to communicate virtually any thought or idea, and this is in large part because the language faculty evolved a syntactic component. Syntax allows words to be combined to create unique combinations of meaning. And although all human languages share some universal syntactic properties – for example, all allow the creation of some type of plural – the constraints on how constituents may be generated vary substantially. Thus, an English speaker knows that verbs usually come before their objects, whereas Japanese speakers learn the opposite setting of this parameter for arranging words and arguments."

But even though the grammar of any particular language constrains the way words may be put together, all languages also give the speaker some freedom of choice. Even English, which is often characterized as a language that offers little in

the way of word ordering options (MacWhinney, Bates, & Reinhold, 1984), allows the speaker to choose from among at least a few different forms to express the same essential idea and all of that choices form are affected by many factor: status, relationship, and gender.

As mankind has gender difference, language is the same. Xia Wenjing (2012) from Chongqing University in her research stated that there is a consensus that language has gender difference as a social behavior in communication. These reflect the traditional social culture, mode of thinking and values. With the development of society, it is more and more necessary to research the relationship between gender and language. In the field of linguistics, the relationship between language and gender has been by many sub-areas studied, but many focus on the male and female language differences. Existence of gender differences determines the language response of sex differences and gender differences in language promote and deepen the requirements and regulations of the social and cultural life of different gender. One of the differences in language between genders is the differences in syntactic structure choices.

2.2 Language

Language is the most important aspect in the life of human beings. We use language to express inner thoughts and emotions, make sense of complex and abstract thought, to learn to communicate with others, to fulfill our wants and needs, as well

to establish rules and relationships. According to Ormrod (2001), language can be defined as verbal, physical, biologically innate, and a basic form of communication. Behaviourists often define language as a learned behavior involving a stimulus and a response. Often times they will refer to language as verbal behavior, which is language that includes gestures and body movements as well as spoken words (Pierce and Eplin: 1999, p.107). According to Oxford Learner's Advanced Dictionary (2001), language defined as the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country. Language can also be defined as a human system of communication that uses arbitrary signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols.

When defining language, one have to be careful to not to exclude symbols, gestures, or motions. This is because if one excludes these from definition, it will be denying the language of deaf community for example. From all definition above, it can be concluded that language is a system where human beings communicate with and dealing with everything that can be used to transfer the meaning from speaker to hearer.

Language can have many aspects on it and language can be varying to the different aspect. There are symbol of language, rules of language, the speaker and addressee, context, and many more. When it comes to the speaker and addressee aspect, there are also many factors that affect the language to going well in this section. One of the factors that affect speaker and addressee aspect is gender.

Gender and language cannot be separated from every human being (female or male). There exist some differences in the language between men and women, for example the syntactic structure of choices. There is a common belief that women talk more than men, yet research findings consistently contradict this. Women tend to use more standard forms of English. Women use language to create and maintain social cohesiveness and their activities are generally co-operative and non-competitive (Wahyu: 2011 p.2). Women like to use tag questions most in syntactically. After declarative sentences, speaker plus an additional questions and usually want the listener to agree with their point of view. The reason using tag questions is women unsure about the questions and asks the hearer to make sure about the information. In the contrary, men are more likely to use declarative sentence to give a statement about something. Men avoiding ask because it may show weaknesses.

According to Deborah Tannen (1990), men who approach conversation as a contest are likely to expend effort not to do support other's talk, but to lead the conversation in another direction, perhaps one in which they can take center stage by telling a story or joke. But in doing so, they expect their hearer to mount resistance. Women who yield to these efforts do not do so because they are weak or insecure that they didn't have enough experience in deflecting attempts tp grab the conversational wheel. They see steering the conversation in a different direction not as a move in a game, but as a violation of the rules of the game (Tannen 1990:215).

2.2.1 The Semantics of Gender

Semantic (study of meaning) in gender means that everything that has meaning to some gender (male or female). According to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1972), there are two kinds of gender in: a grammatical gender, which is formal and natural gender, which is semantic. In languages with grammatical gender, as in many Indo-European languages, all nouns are marked for gender and it is said that the gender assignment to masculine, feminine or neuter classes cannot be determined on the basis of semantic features of being animate or inanimate, male or female. In the contrary, in languages with natural gender, gender is assigned according to semantic features. Nouns referring to male beings are of masculine gender, nouns referring to female beings are of feminine gender, and nouns referring to inanimate referents are of neuter gender.

Cameron (1992) and Coates (1993) as quoted from Anggala (2011) give examples: 'fourteen survivors, three of them women ..'' people are much more likely to be influenced by their wives than by opinion polls,' where the underlined element is clearly not gender-neuter in the succeeding context. In many ways in Indo-European countries, many terms of abuse are female based like if one say a "pro" and most people will recognize it as a highly competent for men and prostitute for women and there are still no real equivalents for male terms of abuse for words "tart", "whore" and "bitch" when it is spoken seriously.

Lauren Buckland, as quoted from Anggala (2011), conducted a study to discover whether men and women instinctively preferred to express themselves in characteristic semantic domains (natural gender). She asked 5 men and 5 women to write 50 words that popped out in their heads as fast as possible. It comes to the result that women tended to produce words that referred to their immediate concrete surrounding (table, chair, etc) while men tended to use words that more likely sequences by the word play (night, fight, flight, etc).

2.2.2 Men and Women Language

Eakins (1978) observed that men and women use different vocabularies. According to Lakoff (1975) and Crawford (1995), women and men speak in several different ways. According to Tannen, she claims that male and female communication is cross-cultural. Men and women may grow up in the same country, society and culture, but they are member of different genders, different subcultures. Men and women talk differently: they apply different speech norms and have different expectations for their interlocutors. Misunderstanding between the sexes easily arises in discourse. Tannen stated that juxtaposition of power on the male side and solidarity on the female side is the key difference between their communities.

In the male community, power and status are important values that every mal will endeavor to attain and maintain. Men perceive life in hierarchies, and continuously struggle to show or defend their status in society. In communication, too,

one is always one-up or one-down. Furthermore, men value independence, their language creates distance.

The female world differs in attitudes and values. Women live in communities. Instead of regarding life as containing hierarchical order, they cooperate and form networks. They value intimacy and will often try to show similarity. They get involved into each other's lives and form close relationships with one another.

The attitudes shown above are reflected in men's and women's behavior as well as in their language. In communication with members of their own sex, expectations of the interlocutor's utterances and reactions are fulfilled. However, when men and women engage in discourse, many misunderstandings arise and result in unhappiness, disappointment towards each other.

Due to the different cultural values and attitudes, the same words can be interpreted differently by men and women. For example the words status and power carry different associations for men than they do for women, just as connotation for intimacy vary each gender.

As mention above, much research has been done to dig more about the differences in language between men and women. One of the linguists that had done the research about differences in using language between men and women is Susan Herring. She proposes a several categories for men and women language. In Herring Men's language: A study of discourse of the Linguist (Herring p.7), she identifies a

set of features hypothesized to characterize a stylistic variety conventionally recognizable as 'women's language' as opposed to 'men's language'. These are the Men's language: Strong Assertions, Self Promotion, Presuppositions, Rhetorical Questions, Authoritative Orientation Challenges Others, and Humor/Sarcasm. While Women's languages are Attenuated Assertions, Apologies, Explicit Justification, Questions, Personal Orientation, and Supports Others.

2.2.2.1 Men Language

As mentioned above, Herring proposes men speech characteristics into several categories: Strong Assertions, Self Promotion, Presuppositions, Rhetorical Questions, Authoritative Orientation Challenges Others, and Humor/Sarcasm.

Strong Assertion

Strong assertion is a confident and forceful statement of fact or belief that exerting great force in conversation.

Self-Promotion

Self- promotion is the action of promoting or publicizing oneself or one's activities especially on a forceful way to other participant in conversation.

Presupposition

Presupposition is a thing tacitly assumed beforehand at the beginning of a line of an argument or course of action. Statement of accept something as true and act on the basis.

Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions happened when asked in order to produce an effect or to make a statement rather than to elicit information. Often happened when someone wants to clarify and make sure the statements that he or others said before.

Authoritative Orientation

Authoritative orientation is a person's basic attitude, beliefs or feelings in relation to a particular subject or issue that able to be trusted as being accurate or true and unlikely to be improved upon.

Challenge Others

Challenge others is a dispute the truth or validity of invite to a person that is different from one already mentioned to engage in a contest.

Humor/Sarcasm

Humor is the quality of being amusing or comic especially as expressed in literature or speech, while sarcasm is the use of irony to mock or convey contempt.

2.2.2.2 Women Language

Herring categorize women's language as contrary from the men's language. She also divides it into several categories: Attenuated Assertions, Apologies, Explicit Justification, Questions, Personal Orientation, and Supports Others.

Attenuated Assertion

Attenuated assertion can be concluded as a confident and forceful statement of fact or belief that extremely weakness other statements from other speakers in conversation.

Apologies

An apology usually is a regretful acknowledgement of an offence or failure when someone has mistaken to other person in conversation.

Explicit Justification

Explicit justification is the action of showing something to be right that exists or has done that stated clearly and in detail and also leaving no room for confusion or doubt.

Questions

As we know, a question is a doubt about the truth or validity of something. Women often ask question about man things that they don't know or understand.

Personal Orientation

Personal orientation is person's basic attitude, beliefs or feelings in relation to a particular subject or issue that belonging to or affecting a particular person rather than anyone else.

Supports Others

Support others is giving approval, comfort or encouragement to a person or thing that is different from one already mentioned or known about.

2.3 Theories of Differences between Men and Women Language

Gender and language cannot be separated from every human being (female or male). Many linguists have done some researches upon this subject. They all agree that between men and women, there exist some differences in language. There are Robin Lakoff, Deborah Tannen, and Susan Herring.

Robin Lakoff stated that women use a "more-polite" language than men. There is common belief that women talk more than men but research shows it contradict. Lakoff also stated that women prefer to talk privately than she has to deal with public. At last, Lakoff proposes some categories to explain about women's language in her book *Language and Women's Place.*

It is quite similar for what Deborah Tannen stated. Tannen, as Lakoff's student, also gives a theory about the differences in language between men and women. Further, Tannen concentrated not only in women's language like Lakoff's stated, but also in men's language. She gives a term Genderlect (coined term of Gender and Dialect) and also gives a further explanation about what makes the differences in a general view.

Continuing the research that Tannen had done, Susan Herring give more vivid explanation about the gender differences. She gives a theory that proposes about women and men speech characteristic.

2.3.1 Deborah Tannen's Theory

Genderlect theory states that each gender speaks, essentially, a different language. These concepts all tie together to form concept that men and women produce and value communication differently because they are cultural distinct. Just as different people and cultures have varying dialects of the same language, men and women have different genderlects. Deborah Tannen coined the term 'Genderlect' to describe the way that the conversation of men and women are not right and wrong, superior and inferior, they are just different, and so should men and women understand and take account of the very real differences of the other.

The term genderlect use to refer to the different lexical and grammatical choices that are characteristically made by men and women (Anggala : 14). The male

genderlect is based on the importance of status and respect while the female genderlect is built on connections between individuals and mutual liking. Females seek to establish emotional connections and a firmer relationship through their communications, while men seek to simply inform through one-way, straightforward communication.

Tannen stated that genderlect is the features at the level of discourse and interaction that mainly realize the underlyzing variation in the socialization of men and women. For example, men seem to see the purpose of the conversation as information gathering, whereas women see it as a support mechanism, and both groups act accordingly. Tannen proposed six fundamental differences in male and female genderlect; connection and status, emotion and rapport, private and public, listening and interrupting, jokes and stories, and conflict (Tannen: 182). This terms distinct the way male and female in everyday communication.

2.3.2 Lakoff's Theory

Robin Tolmach Lakoff (November 27, 1942) is a professor of linguistics at the University of California, Berkeley. Her 1975 book *Language and Woman's Place* is often credited with establishing language and gender as an object of study in linguistics and other disciplines. Lakoff's introduces to the field of sociolinguistic in her work *Language and Woman's Place* many ideas about women's language that are now often commonplace. It has inspired many different strategies for studying language and gender, across national borders as well as across class and race lines.

Her work is noted for its attention to class, power, and social justice in addition to gender. She proposes that women's speech can be distinguished from that of men in a number of ways, including:

1. **Hedges**: Phrases like "sort of", "kind of", "it seems like"

2. **Empty adjectives**: "divine", "adorable", "gorgeous"

3. **Super-polite forms**: "Would you mind..." "...if it's not too much to ask" "Is it o.k if...?"

4. **Apologize more**: "I'm sorry, but I think that..."

5. **Speak less frequently**

6. **Avoid coarse language or expletives**

7. **Tag questions**: "You don't mind eating this, do you?". Subsequent research has cast some doubt on this proposition

8. **Hyper-correct grammar and pronunciation**: Use of prestige grammar and clear articulation

9. **Indirect requests:** "Wow, I'm so thirsty." – really asking for a drink

10. **Speak in italics**: Use tone to emphasis certain words, e.g., "so", "very", "quite"

Furthermore, Lakoff developed the "Politeness Principle", in which she devised three maxims that are usually followed in interaction. These are: Don't impose, give the receiver options, and make the receiver feel good. She stated that

these are paramount in good interaction. By not adhering to these maxims, a speaker is said to be 'flouting the maxims'.

2.3.3 Susan Herring's Theory

Susan Herring, who conducts a study of discourse of the linguist, identifies a set of features hypothesized to characterize a stylistic variety conventionally recognizable as women's language as opposed to men's language. She proposed a several categories to differentiate a language that been used by male and female. There are Attenuated Assertions, Apologies, Explicit Justification, Questions, Personal Orientation, and Supports Others for women and Strong Assertions, Self Promotion, Presuppositions, Rhetorical Questions, Authoritative Orientation Challenges Others, and Humor/Sarcasm for men.

It is different from the others theory because it gives a more specific characterization to the male and female speech while others only gives what are the condition that, probably, male or female speak in that way.

2.4 Characters

A character is a person in a narrative work of arts, such as novel and film. Character, particularly when enacted by an actor in the theatre or cinema, involves "the illusion of being a human person." In literature, characters guide readers through their stories, helping them to understand plots and ponder themes.

Since the end of the 18th century, the phrase "in character" has been used to describe an effective impersonation by an actor. Since the 19th century, the art of creating characters, as practiced by actors or writers, has been called characterization.

The character is divided into two major division, major character and minor character. The major character, sometimes, called a protagonist. It may take a form as a hero or heroine. Usually, the main character are doing some good in the storyline and become the main point who affect the event. In the contrary, the person who oppose the protagonist called antagonist.

A protagonist (from Ancient Greek *(protagonistes)*, meaning "one who plays the first part, chief actor") is the main character (the central or primary personal figure) of a literary, theatrical, cinematic, or musical narrative, who ends up in conflict because of the antagonist. The audience is intended to most identify with the protagonist. The terms *protagonist* and *main character* are variously explained and, depending on the source, may denote different concepts. In fiction, the story of the protagonist can be told from the perspective of a different character (who may also, but not necessarily, be the narrator). An example would be a narrator who relates the fate of several protagonists, perhaps as prominent figures recalled in a biographical perspective.

An antagonist (from Greek - *antagonistēs* , "opponent, competitor, enemy, rival", from anti- "against" to contend for a prize,") is a character, group of characters, or institution that represents the opposition against which the protagonist must

contend. In other words, an antagonist is a person or a group of people who oppose the main character(s). In the classic style of stories wherein the action consists of a hero fighting a villain/enemy, the two can be regarded as protagonist and antagonist, respectively. The antagonist may also represent a major threat or obstacle to the main character by their very existence, without necessarily deliberately targeting him or her.

2.5 Movie

A film, also called a movie or motion picture, is a series of still images on a strip of plastic which, when run through a projector and shown on a screen, creates the illusion of moving images. A film is created by photographing actual scenes with a motion picture camera; by photographing drawings or miniature models using traditional animation techniques; by means of CGI and computer animation; or by a combination of some or all of these techniques and other visual effects. The process of filmmaking is both an art and an industry.

Films usually include an optical soundtrack, which is a graphic recording of the spoken words, music and other sounds that are to accompany the images. It runs along a portion of the film exclusively reserved for it and is not projected.

Films are cultural artifacts created by specific cultures. They reflect those cultures, and, in turn, affect them. Film is considered to be an important art form, a source of popular entertainment, and a powerful medium for educating— or indoctrinating—citizens. The visual basis of film gives it a universal power of

communication. Some films have become popular worldwide attractions by using dubbing or subtitles to translate the dialog into the language of the viewer.

The individual images that make up a film are called frames. During projection, a rotating shutter causes intervals of darkness as each frame in turn is moved into position to be projected, but the viewer does not notice the interruptions because of an effect known as persistence of vision, whereby the eye retains a visual image for a fraction of a second after the source has been removed. The perception of motion is due to a psychological effect called beta movement.

The name "film" originates from the fact that photographic film (also called film stock) has historically been the medium for recording and displaying motion pictures. Many other terms exist for an individual motion picture, including *picture*, *picture show*, *moving picture*, *photoplay* and *flick*. The most common term in the United States is *movie*, while in Europe *film* is preferred. Terms for the field in general include *the big screen*, *the silver screen*, *the movies* and *cinema*; the latter is commonly used in scholarly texts and critical essays, especially by European writers. In early years, the word *sheet* was sometimes used instead of *screen*.

2.6 The Ugly Truth

The Ugly Truth is a 2009 American romantic comedy film directed by Robert Luketic. It tells about one of the morning show producer, Abby Richter (Katherine Heigl), who control everything and seems like being a dominant in every aspect she

could. She has a checklist with items about the ideal man for her; however she cannot find any man that fulfills her prerequisites. Her show has problems with the low ratings and the TV direction hires the cynical chauvinist Mike Chadway (Gerard Butler) that hosts the popular and gross mannish show "The Ugly Truth" about what men and women really want in a relationship. Abby has frictions with Mike and he proposes to help her to get her attractive neighbor Colin that fulfills her checklist; in return she would support him in the show. Abby dates Colin but when Mike is invited to participate in the Craig Ferguson's Late Late Show in San Francisco, they get closer and fall in love for each other. But out of the blue, Colin arrives in Abby's room and she has to make a decision.

The film was released in North America on July 24, 2009 by Columbia Pictures. The film opened to third place at the box office—behind *Harry Potter and the Half-Blood Prince* (in its second weekend) and the newly released *G-Force*—with $27,605,576 and the highest per-screen average in the top 10. As of November 8, 2009, the film has grossed $88.7 million domestically and $110.7 million from foreign markets for a worldwide total of $199.4 million, becoming Katherine Heigl's second best grossing film behind *Knocked Up*. In Great Britain and Ireland, the film topped the box office and took in £1.9m in its opening weekend, fighting off competition from *G.I. Joe: The Rise of Cobra*, which entered at number two with £1.7m.

Reviewing from its success upon premiere, no wonder it has many awards in the process. The Ugly Truth won a BMI Film Music Award in the category of "Film Music" in the 2010. In the 2009, Katherine Heigl was nominated for the Best Actress in Comedy Movie in Teen Choice Award and Satelite Award. In the 2010, it is Butler's turn to be nominated in Teen Choice Award as Choice Movie Actor: Romantic Comedy.

2.6.1 The Plot of the Movie

Abby Richter (Katherine Heigl) is a morning show TV producer in Sacramento, California. Abby firmly believes in true love and is a big supporter of complex self-help books such as *Chicken Soup for the Soul* and *Men Are from Mars, Women Are from Venus*. Coming home from a disastrous date, she happens to see a segment of a local television show, *The Ugly Truth*, featuring Mike Chadway (Gerard Butler), whose cynicism about relationships prompts Abby to call in to argue with him on-air. The next day, she discovers the TV station is threatening to cancel her show because of its poor ratings. The station owner has hired Mike to do a segment on her show.

At first, the two have a rocky relationship; Abby thinks Mike is crass and disgusting while Mike finds her to be naive and a control freak. Nevertheless, when she meets the man of her dreams, a doctor named Colin (Eric Winter) living next to her, Mike convinces her that by following his advice she will improve her chances

with Colin. Abby is skeptical, but they make a deal: If Mike's management of her courtship results in her landing Colin, proving his theories on relationships, she will work happily with him, but if Mike fails, he agrees to leave her show.

Mike succeeds in improving the ratings, brings married co-anchors Georgia and Larry closer and successfully instructs Abby to be exactly what Colin would want through a number of pointers including: always laugh at his jokes and say he is amazing in bed. Mike is invited to appear on The Late Late Show with Craig Ferguson and is offered a job at another network. Abby is forced to cancel a romantic weekend away with Colin, during which they had planned to finally sleep together, and instead fly to Los Angeles to persuade Mike to stay with her show.

They drink and dance and Mike admits he does not want to move because he wants to stay in Sacramento near his sister and nephew. In the hotel elevator, they passionately kiss, but go to their separate rooms. Mike, dealing with the intensity of his feelings for Abby, calls on her room only to find Colin has shown up to surprise her. Mike leaves. Abby is upset and soon realizes Colin only likes the woman she has been pretending to be, not the real her. She breaks up with him.

Mike quits and takes a job with a rival TV station in Sacramento, and ends up doing a broadcast at the same hot air balloon festival as Abby. He cannot resist intruding when she kicks the new "Mike Chadway" imitator off the air and goes into a tirade about what cowardly weaklings' men are. The balloon takes off while they argue. Abby says she broke up with Colin, and Mike admits he loves her. Abby kisses

him while they fly off, all of which is broadcast due to a camera mounted in the balloon. The film ends with Abby and Mike in bed. When Mike asks if she was faking it, Abby smirks and responds, "You'll never know."

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This study analyzed the syntactical choices between main characters in The Ugly Truth movie using Susan Herring speech characteristic of gender, through the different types of sentences employed by male and female in the The Ugly Truth movie script. The writer chose Herring's theory because it is more suitable to the study than 2 other theories (Lakoff and Tannen), because they are not specific enough to give and illustrate how the syntactical choices of men and women would be.