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**Gender Differences in Conversational Style among EFL learners; The
Case of the Third Year Students of English at Mohamed Seddik Ben
Yahia University-Jijel.**

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Science of Language Studies

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Dedication

I, Miss Tiouane Hana, dedicate this work to:

My parents Dalila & Youcef;

My sisters: kenza, Hanane, Amina and their husbands;

My brother, Mohamed and my little sister Noudjoud;

My nephew, Ziad;

I dedicate this work to all my closest and lovely friends especially Selma, Lidia, Bouchra, Messaouda, Insaf, Hanine, Meriem, Amina and Mohrez who helped me in so many ways.

To all those whom I have forgotten to mention.



Dedication

I, Miss ***Wafia Djabelkhier***, dedicate this work to:

My dear parents who are the light of my life & the source of my happiness;

My brothers: *Mounir, Abdelhak & Islam*;

My sisters: *Mounia, Amina & soumia*;

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ABSTRACT

Language variation, according to gender, has long been established as a working principle and a major social factor in sociolinguistic investigations. The aim of this research is to examine the differences between the speech of males and females in the university of Mohamed seddik ben Yahiya-jijel and to attempt to figure out some reasons behind these differences. Responses to the questionnaire that was administered to 60 third year EFL learners at Mohamed Seddik ben Yahia University-Jijel and a video from a TV show confirm or refute the assumption that males and females' speech is different. The results obtained revealed that despite the fact that language for both men and women is acquired at the same age, in the same circumstances and following the same stages, its use differs for both sexes and each sex uses a language vocabulary according to their gender, in addition to specific styles. By this it can be said that the assumption is confirmed.

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List of Abbreviations

BCT	Basic Color Terms
EFL	English as a Foreign Language



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General Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Such expressions as: “Men do not talk about their feelings “; “Men and women do not have the same topics of conversation”; “Men and women use different words to express the same thing” and, as opposed to, “women use indirect ways to express themselves” are heard in the English Community. People argue on the fact that language is sexist; they even comment on why the personal pronoun ‘he’ has always been used in speech and writing. For fairness, some writers have already started to the pronoun ‘she’ in their writings.

Aim of the Study

The present study is an attempt to investigate the speech of males and females learners of English as a foreign language at Mohamed Seddik ben Yahia University of Jijel and to figure out the reasons behind the differences which exist between their conversational styles and their ways of speaking.

Research Questions

To achieve the above stated aim, the following questions are to be asked:

1. Why do men and women speak differently?
2. Is the difference between men and women’s speech due to the societal element or some others elements?
3. Does the difference between men and women’s speech lead to any kind of stereotyping?

Assumption

To answer the above asked questions the study departs from the assumption that despite the fact that the two genders acquire their language in much the same way and in the same period of time, their ways of speaking display some noticeable differences.

Research Methodology

To check the validity of the research assumption, a questionnaire will be conducted and a video will be analyzed for the purpose of data collection. The target population in the questionnaire will be that of the third year learners of English as a foreign language at Mohamed Seddik ben Yahia University of Jijel.

Structure of the Study

The present study is composed of two chapters: the first one is theoretical, it represents the literature review of the research; the second one is practical and it represents the description of the tools of research together with findings of the investigation as well as suggestions and recommendations for further research.

Chapter One: Women Talk versus Men Talk

Introduction

Males' speech and females' speech have been observed to differ in their form, topic, content, and use. This chapter which is the theoretical part of this work, is devoted to introduce the reader to some features of language differences between males and females speech, starting by language and gender in verbal and nonverbal communication, gender and speech differences, theories about deficit, dominance and difference, gender and politeness, gender stereotypes, language, culture and society. Finally, this research will give some causes behind these differences.

1. Section One: Speech Differences between Genders

1. Language and Gender

Do men and women speak the same language? This question is not new. The past three decades were characterized by a zeal for the linguistic discussion concerning this Mars-and-Venus theory. Tannen (1990), published a book "*you just don't understand: men and women in conversation*" concerning this topic. As cited by Gillespie (March 25, 2013), Even who does not know the book, communication with someone of the opposite sex introduces what the title means. Understanding typical gender differences in conversation will help to communicate more effectively even when speaking with someone from another planet!

Communication is the means by which ideas and information are spread between people. It is used to express feelings, emotions, opinions and values, to learn and teach, and also to improve status. Communication is therefore vital to human interaction be it between parents and children, bosses and employees or even husband and wife. The characteristics of those involved in any interaction can affect communication. Good communication is difficult

to master, gaps in communication arise when the intended meaning is not transmitted or the meaning is misunderstood. The resultant miscommunication is mainly due to the different styles of communication among people.

Good and effective communication can therefore be affected by many things including the situation, time, culture, and gender. The assertion that gender affects communication in different ways has been accepted by a large part of the population today. In any study of communication, there is variability in what is meant by communication. Canary & Dindia (1992), stated that some individuals may consider only the verbal attributes whereas yet others will consider nonverbal interactions and the smart will focus on both. In this work, both verbal and nonverbal aspects of communication will be considered.

1.1 Verbal Communication

According to Hanes (2015), verbal communication refers to the use of sounds and language to relay a specific message. It serves as a vehicle for expressing desires, ideas and concepts and it is necessary to the processes of learning and teaching. It is better suited to communication through technology over long distances. In combination with nonverbal forms of communication, verbal communication acts as the primary tool for expression between two or more people.

Gray (1992), author of *“Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus”* stated that when communicating verbally, men tend to seek and offer solutions, while women tend to focus on empathy. As cited by Cameron (2007), this is a reflection of the fact that men are more goal-oriented while women are more relationship-oriented. The male brain is better adapted to visual-spatial and mathematical tasks whereas the female brain excels in verbal tasks. Men prefer action to words; women like to talk; so women are more verbal communicative than men.

Tannen's anecdote (1990), concerning this particular point says that a woman sues her husband for divorce. When the judge asks her why she wants a divorce, she explains that her husband has not talked to her in two years. The judge asks her husband: "Why haven't you spoken to your wife in two years?" He replies: "I didn't want to interrupt her". Gender communication differences extend to non-verbal communication as well.

According to Krauss (1965), signs and symbols are considered as the major signals that make up verbal communication. Words act as symbols, and signs are secondary products of the underlying message and include things like tone of voice, blushing and facial expressions.

1.1.2 Types of Verbal Communication

Interpersonal communication and public speaking are the two main important types of verbal communication.

1.1.2.1 Interpersonal Communication

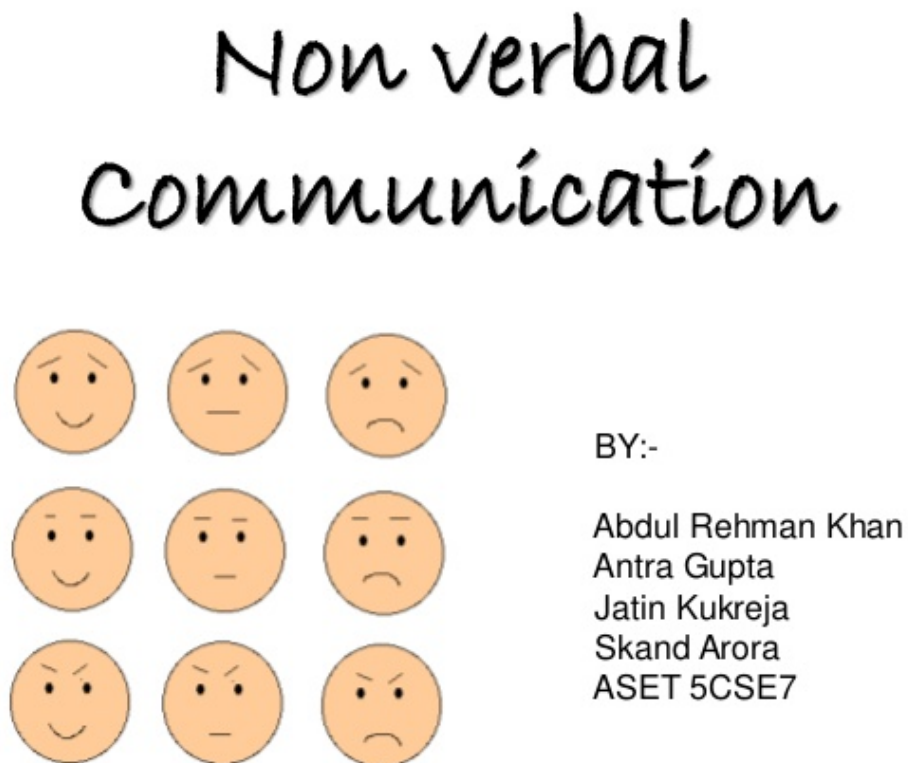
Hanes (2015), says that interpersonal communication generally refers to a two-way exchange that involves both talking and listening. During interpersonal communication, there is message sending and message receiving. Successful interpersonal communication is when the message senders and the message receivers understand the message.

1.1.2.2 Public Speaking

Hanes (2015), mentions that public speaking involves one more people delivering a message to a group. It is the process of performing a presentation or a speech to a live audience. Public speaking is commonly understood as formal.

1.1.3 Nonverbal communication

Figure 1.1: Non-verbal communication



Source: <http://www.nickyhayes.co.uk/nicky/OHP/ch15ohp.html>

Barbour (1976), says “actions speak louder than words”. Nonverbal communication or body language refers to those actions that are distinct from speech. According to Mehrabian (2007), it includes facial expressions, hand and arm movements, postures, positions and other movements of the body, legs or feet. Glass (1992), believed that nonverbal communication has been consistently shown to be different in the two sexes. Nonverbal communication is to convey a message to another person through actions or body gestures. It involves numerous elements, such as facial expression, intonation, volume, word choice, eye contact and many others. According to Carnes (2015), it is more immediate than verbal communication, but its meaning is typically more ambiguous. Certain forms of nonverbal

communication, such as the use of the eyes, can convey emotions more effectively than words can. Some technological means of communication, such as films, can effectively convey many forms of nonverbal communication.

According to *the website Body Language Expert*, women tend to be better at interpreting non-verbal messages than men; men are also less adept at sending subtle non-verbal messages. Sometimes the receiver must choose between trusting the verbal message or the non-verbal message, because verbal and non-verbal messages in some cases may become inconsistent with or even contradictory to each other. Women tend to be better than men at detecting such inconsistencies.

Mack (2015), says that nonverbal messages serve to repeat, accent, and complement, regulate or substitute for a verbal message. Non-verbal communication modes (2010), claims that nonverbal communication involves those nonverbal stimuli in a communication setting that are generated by both the source speaker and his or her use of the environment and that have potential message value for the source or receiver listener. It means that the message is translated without creating it verbally.

Barbour (1976) in his book *"Louder Than Words: Non-Verbal Communication"* states that only seven percent of communication is based on words. In order to increase the likelihood that other people can understand, it is very important to know how to use non-verbal communication effectively.

1.1.4 Are Man and Woman Equal in Nonverbal Communication?

Berkeley Media (2015), stated that gender has impact not only on verbal messages but also on the nonverbal channels of communication. There are various differences between males and females regarding non-verbal communication such as; in a conversation women

stand closer to each other, whereas men maintain greater distance from each other; women use more eye contact while speaking; men reveal less emotion than women through facial expressions; women are more likely to return a smile when smiled at and generally they smile more than men. These are the main examples about gender differences in non-verbal communication that can be noticed in our society.

2. Gender and Speech Differences

Sociolinguistics is a field of study that reviews how language varies within social groups. Here are some different language features about how men and women use language differently.

2.1 Tag Questions

2.1.1 Definition

Having both the ability to strengthen or to weaken an utterance, tag questions are intricate depending on context, since there is no interrelationship between their form and their function. They are complex in phonology and syntax and can differ in intonation, syntactic derivation, in their lexical form and polarity.

Tag questions are sentences in which a speaker makes a declarative statement and add on a “tag” in the form of a question in order to request confirmation or disconfirmation of the statement from the addressee. Lakoff (1975) defines the tag question as:

A declarative statement without the assumptions that the statement is to be believed by the addressee: one has an out, as with questions. [The] tag gives the addressee leeway, not forcing him [sic] to go along with the views of the speaker (p.16).

In the tag the auxiliary remains constant when the clause is declarative or interrogative and includes an auxiliary, as is: *you aren't in pain, are you?*

When there is no auxiliary in the clause which is declarative or interrogative, the verb of the clause is replaced by *do* in the tag, as is: *you know her well, do you?*

There are two types of polarity among tag questions: *constant* polarity in which both phrases are positive as in “*you've survived the weaning, have you?*” and *reverse* polarity in which one phrase is positive and the other is negative as in “*you've survived the weaning, haven't you?*”. Naslin (1984), stated that in constant polarity tag questions, the speaker doesn't express personal opinion about the truth of the proposition, whereas in reverse polarity tag questions, the speaker believes the proposition to be true. Tags occur generally at the end of an utterance and they are pronounced with a falling or rising intonation.

2.1.2 The Use of Tag Questions

According to Lakoff (1975), women have been shown to use tag-questions more frequently than men do. In order to avoid coming into conflict with the addressee and as a signal of their reluctance to make direct assertions, they are associated with a wish for confirmation or reinforcement which signals a lack of self-confidence in the speaker.

Holmes (1984), distinguishes two functions of tag questions: **modal** vs. **affective**. Modal tags “request information or confirmation of information of which the speaker is uncertain.” Affective tags “are used not to signal uncertainty on the part of the speaker, but to indicate concern for the addressee.” In addition to the two functions Holmes (1995), tag questions can be divided into four subgroups; softening tags, epistemic modals tags, challenging tags and facilitative tags. Epistemic modals tags (such as: The exam is at twelve, isn't it?) express the speaker's uncertainty towards a statement, and are referential rather than

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affective, since they focus on the accuracy of the statement made and not on the addressee's feelings. Challenging tags (such as: You understand that, don't you?) are, according to Holmes (ibid), "Confrontational strategies, they may pressure a reluctant addressee to reply or aggressively boost the force of a negative speech act" (p. 80). Facilitative tags (such as: You have a new car, haven't you?) have a different function, they usually hedge a statement, and are used as positive politeness devices since they invite the addressee to participate in a conversation. Softening tags (such as: that was really stupid, wasn't it?), on the other hand, are used for negative politeness, in order to soften the force of utterances, such as directives and criticism. In addition to expressing uncertainty, insecurity and the desire to be accepted, tag questions also function as expressions of politeness and they facilitate communication. Holmes (1990-1995) summarized usage of tag questions according to four categories represented in Table 1.

Table 1.1: Categories and Functions of Tag Questions

<i>Category</i>	<i>Function</i>
Modal meaning (content-oriented)	To express uncertainty
Affective meaning (hearer-oriented)	to express positive politeness
Facilitative	To invite the addressee to participate in conversation
Softening	To express negative politeness
	To reduce the force of criticism and or directive
challenging	To intensify force of negative speech act
	To force addressee to contribute to conversation

2.1 Hedges

2.2.1 Definition

Before starting, a distinction between the two words **hedges** and **hedging** is needed. Hedges are the linguistic devices and Hedging is the act of using these devices in spoken and written discourse.

The origin of the word “hedge” goes back to the 1970s and to Lakoff (1973) who was the first scholar to introduce this concept. He gives them this definition: “words whose job is to make things fuzzy or less fuzzy” (Lakoff, 1973) which means that words are used to *weaken* or to clarify a preposition. Lakoff’s idea of hedges focuses on the logical properties of words and phrases rather than the communicative values in the use of hedges which means that he was interested on the semantic aspects of these devices that serve a function of fuzziness. That is why he was not supported by the other linguists who consider that the use of hedges is not only related to semantics but can carry a pragmatic function as well.

Hedges are expressions such as some modal auxiliary verbs, adverbs and adjectives such as; may be, sort of, kind of, I think, I mean, perhaps and recent newcomer the word “knows” which express the speaker’s certainty (uncertainty) and preserve the face of the speaker and hearer. *I’m not sure, as far as I know* are hedges used by people to reduce the force of their utterances and soften the effect of their statements. These devices are used by both sexes to express uncertainty but women’s speech is described as “tentative”, and this assertion is linked to the claim that women use more hedges than men do. Hedges have other labels as cited in Holmes (1995), are “downgraders”, “compromisers” (James 1983), “downtoners” (Quirk et al. 1985), “weakeners” (Brown and Levinson 1987) and “softeners” (Crystal and Davy 1975) (p.73).

2.2.2 Hedging Devices

Skelton (1988), categorizes hedges into many devices that convey a deficiency of commitment to the truth value of the content of an utterance. These devices include grammatical classes as modal auxiliaries, introductory verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The following devices in the table below are based on Hyland's categorizations (1994 & 1998).

Table1. 2: Hedging Devices Functions

No	Category	Item	Function
1	Modal auxiliary Verbs	Could/can Might/May Will/ Must Would Should/ Shall	Root possibility Lack of confidence Necessity and assurance justifier Assertion weaken and softener Hypothetical necessity
2	Introductory Verbs	I believe/ I suggest/ I think It appears/ it seems/ it sounds	Lack of commitment/ lack of confidence/ claim softener
3	Probability Adjectives	Potential/ Possible	Ambiguity
4	Adverbials	Probably/ Possibly/ Usually/ Occasionally	Doubt and uncertainty

2.2.3 The Different Uses of Hedges

Some linguists believe that gender has an influence on the use of hedges. Trying to reduce confrontation with an addressee who may hold a different view, because they are socialized to defer to others and avoid conflict women have been found to use hedges more than men do.

Lakoff (2004), includes to his statement four different types of hedges: one type that expresses uncertainty, another type that is used for the sake of politeness, one that is used as an apology for speaking and one that is used to preface declarations or questions. Hedges that express uncertainty are used by the speaker because he is uncertain or cannot assert for the reliability of the statement, such as: *you know*, *well* and *kind of*. Hedges that are used for the sake of politeness to mitigate an utterance that could sound unkind, like the hedge '*sort of*'. Hedges that are used as an apology, such as *you know* occur even when the speaker is certain of the truth of what is being said and he is sure that there is no possibility to offend the hearer. This hedge is according to him used as an apology for speaking at all, for example "there is no shame of coming back, *you know*". The last type of hedges being mentioned by Lakoff (ibid) is that which is a preface to declarations or questions are used when the speaker is uncertain of the proposition and want to indicate this uncertainty. Examples of these hedges are "*I guess one could say...*" (Prefacing declaration) and "*I wonder if we should ...*" (prefacing question). These hedges give the impression that the speaker has the feeling of being inferior. To arise out of the fear of seeming too masculine by being assertive and saying things directly, women use the last kind of hedges.

Talbot (1998), describes hedges as filler items that reduce the force of an utterance and claims that hedges are used to add tentativeness to a statement, for example the hedges *you know*, *well* and *kind of* (p.39). Hedges that are used as filler items while the speaker thinks

about what to say can be used together with other filler pauses, for example vocalizations such as “uh” or “uhm”. Swerts and Hirschberg (2010), stated that these filler items may occur at the beginning of a sentence when the speaker is uncertain. Aijmer (1986), these hedges may also occur in the middle of a sentence, before the term that the speaker is uncertain about, for example “something, *you know*, academic” (p.13). Aijmer (ibid), this type of hedge does not seem to occur at the end of the utterance (p.7).

Talbot (1998), adds that hedges can be used to weaken the strength of an assertion that might cause offense, like *sort of* and *about*. One can also use hedges to avoid sounding too sure of oneself or too dogmatic, for example the hedge *might* (p.39-90). Cameron (1990), performed a study on men’s and women’s use of the hedge *you know*, and she found that women used this expression more than men. Cameron explains that this is due to the different ways one can use the hedge *you know*. She writes that *you know* is used as an attention-getting device, as a way to see if the interactional partner is following, listening and attending to one’s remarks (p.237). Cameron (ibid), also suggests that the hedge is used to invite the other speaker to respond in order to engage them in the conversation (p.237-240). Aijmer (1986), supports Cameron’s study and suggests that *you know* can be placed utterance-finally when it functions as interactive hedges, which are hedges that invite other speakers to respond or check if they are listening to what the speaker is saying (p.12).

In general, hedging uses cannot be limited. They can serve many uses depending on the context. They vary in accordance with different situations and different relations between participants in various and countless communicative interactions.

2.2 Minimal Responses

2.3.1 Definition

Minimal responses also called “back-channels” are known as paralinguistic features such as *mmhmm*, *yeah*, *uh-huh*, and *right* which are uttered by a listener during a speech event, it indicates a certain level of engagement with the speaker. These words are used in a conversation to show the listener’s support and interest toward the speaker’s topic which signals a positive attention to the current speaker. The same forms such as *yeah*, *right* or *hmmmm* can be used by the listener to signal a lack of interest to the speaker’s topic, they are called *delayed minimal responses*.

Minimal responses can also be interpreted in non-verbal communication by nodding, smiling and other types of body language. Yule (1996) says:

Within an extended turn, however, speakers still expect their conversational partners to indicate that they are listening. There are many different ways of doing this, including head nods, smiles, and other facial expressions and gestures, but the most common vocal indications are called backchannel signals or simply back channels. (p.75)

2.3.2 The functions and Uses of Minimal Responses

Back-channels are well placed in conversations and do not interrupt the flow of the speaker and they occur more in collaborative floors, means once the floor is occupied by all speakers they are obliged to mark their continued presence and involvement in it. Females have been shown that in a mixed sex group conversation use minimal responses more frequently than their male counterparts, which shows that women are more active listeners than men.

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Minimal responses can serve two functions. First, to show a complete agreement or disapproval of what is being said, and the second to facilitate the stream of conversation between the participants and to indicate the attentiveness of the listener as a sign to keep going with the conversation. Minimal responses are used by males and females for different purposes. When they are used by females, it means that they are listening. While men use them to imply that they agree with what is being said. While, when they do not agree, they will interrupt the speaker, rather than listening to the end. This leads to gender differences in taking turns in a conversation. Moreover, some research has found that women when conversing in groups of same sex use minimal responses for facilitative purposes, but when conversing with male partners use them to show agreement as a function. On the other hand, men, use the same amount of facilitating and agreement functions of minimal responses whether in same or mixed groups.

Gardner Rod (2004) analyzes the functions of some common minimal responses such as *Mm/hm*, *Uh-huh*, *Yeah*, *Oh*, *Right*, based on his research. *Yeah* (*Yes*, *yep*, and so on) can be viewed as agreement and acknowledgement, showing the supportive to the current speaker. Other forms such as *Mm*, *hm*, *Uh-huh* are generally used as keeping the conversation going, showing the good listenership to the current speaker, indicating the high listenership and low speakership incipency. *Mm* is weaker in agreement than *yeah*, with low speakership incipency. *Okay* indicates the change of topic or activity, which shows relatively high speakership incipency. *Oh* indicates that the listener is attracted by the current speaker for the speaker's message is something new to the listener. *Oh* here shows high speakership incipency. *Alright* has the function of agreement and acknowledgement, with high speak ship incipency.

3. Features of conversational style

3.1 Turn Taking

According to Yule (1996), human beings are talkative creatures and the basic structure of talk is “I speak-you speak- I speak- you speak”. It is common knowledge that it takes at least two speakers to communicate in a conversation. It is also known that these two participants assume different roles in turns and usually only one participant speaks at one time. That is when one person talks the other should listen to him /her. This indicates that only when the current speaker stops the others could have His/her turn to speak (p.71).

According to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), a turn consists of not merely the temporal duration of an utterance but also an obligatory right to speak which is allocated to a particular speaker. In this model no gap and no overlapping occur. This model is context content independent. According Sacks et al (ibid), the conversational turns are unpredictable; our utterances, our actions and the order in which we say or do things cannot be determined in advance. In this account, very little of our utterances is predictable. Turn taking has been observed in debates, speeches, conferences, and talk shows, formal and in formal mode of conversation. Specialized form of turn taking is present in formal and high class meetings and conversation in which when one speaker finishes his/her point then other begins. When human being either male or female speaks sub consciously that someone is noticing them, they speak naturally and takes turn or overlap each other in conversation and interrupts one another

Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), stated that turn-taking is the most fundamental organizational feature of conversation. There is a set of rules that govern the turn-taking system, which is independent of various social contexts: (a) when the current speaker selects the next speaker, the next speaker has the right and, at the same time, is obliged to take the next turn; (b) if the current speaker does not select the next speaker, any

one of the participants has the right to become the next speaker. This could be regarded as self-selection; and (c) if neither the current speaker selects the next speaker nor any of the participants become the next speaker, the current speaker may resume his/her turn (p.704).

Victoria De Francisco (1991) says that, “Female linguistic behavior characteristically encompasses a desire to take turns in conversation with others, which is opposed to men’s tendency towards centering on their own point or remaining silent when presented with such implicit offers of conversational turn-taking”.

It is sometimes claimed, though, that women break the rules of the turn-taking procedure less frequently than men do, and conversely, are interrupted more than men are. Of importance, however, is to examine this claim in relation to the context of the conversation. Not all simultaneous speech is a fight for power, and overlaps can indeed create connections and solidarity between two speakers.

Two gender differences in such turn taking are worthy of examination, these being ‘interruptions’ and ‘asking questions’.

As cited in Montgomery (2008), interruptions can be characterized where a listener “penetrate [es] well within the grammatical boundaries of a current speaker’s utterance”. These penetrations increase in proportion to the asymmetry of the relationship (p.191).

Studies indicate that in mixed gender conversations, men are much more likely to interrupt women. A study by Zimmerman and West, for example, found that 96% of the interruptions were made by males to females (p.192). According to Holmes (2008) partially as a result of these interruptions, females use the statement strengthening features of intensifiers and emphatic stress. They do this because “they think that otherwise they will not be heard or paid attention to” (p299). Holmes here is demonstrating the power inequality between the sexes in conversation.

As cited in Montgomery (2008), the second issue with gender roles in turn taking is asking questions. A study by Fishman found that women asked two and a half times more questions than men, which means that the females are doing the “interactional shitwork” (p.187). This again lends support to Holmes’ idea that females are supportive in conversations, compared to the combative nature of male conversations (p.303).

3.2 Interruptions

Interruptions are often described as evil intention to cut the flow of the current speaker’s speech and to grab the floor to make one’s own points. A distinction between overlaps and interruptions is needed, according to Coates (1993), who defined Overlaps as instances of slight over-anticipation by the next speaker: instead of beginning to speak immediately following current speaker’s turn, overlapping the last word. Interruptions, on the other hand, are violations of the turn taking rules of conversation. Next speaker begins to speak while current speaker is still speaking, at a point in current speaker’s turn, which could not be defined as the last word. Interruptions break the symmetry of the conversational model.

According to Tannen (1994), interruption refers to “when a second speaker usurps another speaker’s right to continue speaking by taking the conversational floor in the absence of any evidence that the other speaker intended to relinquish the turn”. That means violation of a speaker’s turn.

West and Zimmerman (1983), provide a widely accepted definition of interruption as ‘a device for exercising power and control in conversation’ and ‘violations of speakers’ turns at talk’.

West and Zimmerman (ibid), made two important studies that show that in patterns of overlaps and interruptions there is a significant difference in same –sex and cross-sex conversations. In cross-sex conversation, women are interrupted by men, and when that happens, men are usually successful to gain the floor, whereas women do not succeed when

interrupting. In same-sex conversations, where each speaker contributed with about the same number of interruptions and overlaps. Nearly all the errors and intrusions were made by men in the cross-sex conversations and women are the most likely targets of successful interruptions even when they are in higher-status positions.

Coates (2004), based on the study found that in the context of family, fathers tend to interrupt more than mothers and both parents tend to interrupt girls more than boys. It seems that fathers try to control conversation more than mothers, and both parents try to control conversation more with daughters than with sons.

According to Stenstrom (1994), there are three most obvious reasons for interruptions in a conversation: speaker B is under the impression that speaker A has nothing more to say; speaker B feels he or she is well informed and speaker A need not elaborate on the topic; speaker B wants to speak at a particular point in the ongoing talk before it is too late. All these reasons can lead to competitive talks and tend to break the symmetry of the conversational model: the interrupter prevents the speaker from finishing her or his turn, at the same time gaining a turn for her-/himself (p.73).

Tannen (1994), also discusses the strategy of interruptions and how it affects the speaker in a conversation. She thinks that interruption can be partly caused by speakers' different conversational styles. To decide whether a speaker is violating another speaker's rights, one has to know very much about both speakers, the situations and most important what the context is about. All these factors influence whether or not the speaking rights have been violated and how significant the violation is.

3.3 Level of Talkativeness

According to Bonvillian (2007), women have been said to be more talkative than men with regard to the discussion of emotions (p.337).

According to Sattel (1983), “in some encounters, men are more silent than women, particularly in regard to discussion of emotions”. Bonvillian (2007), stated that however many studies contradict these results. The suggestion may originate in a stereotype: “The stereotype is that women are more emotional than men, suggesting that women both experience and express more emotion. The truth is that women and men experience emotions relatively equally, but women are expected to experience and express (337).

4. Gender and Lexicon

According to Eckert and McCanneell-Ginet (2003), the lexicon is a repository of cultural preoccupation which results a deep and extensive link between gender and lexicon. The lexicon is the most changeable part of language and an important site for bringing in new ideas. Different language users have access to somewhat different lexicons; because lexical items have content in different domains (p70). The term gender will refer to grammatical gender only, which should be distinguished from biological gender, that is, nouns that take their gender according to the sex of their referent. While both grammatical and biological gender might involve the same agreement process, there is an important difference between them regarding gender assignment. The value of biological gender is determined by the conceptual message of the utterance, and more especially, by the sex of the noun’s referent. On the other hand, the value of grammatical gender is an inherent property of a noun (Levelt ET al.1999) and is stored and retrieved from the mental lexicon. Speakers of gender languages must retrieve gender information from the mental lexicon and compute gender agreement fairly frequently during the speech’s course (Cognitive Aspects of Bilingualism, p99.100). Rogers (1987), Dewaele and Véronique (2001), argued that the correct use of grammatical gender is perhaps one of the harder linguistic phenomena to be mastered by learners of second language. According to Dominguez, Cuetos and Seguí, (1999), there was a

study aims at verifying whether Portuguese gender-inflected nouns and adjectives are represented as full forms as suggested by Spanish data.

5. Gender Differences in Color Naming

According to Mylonas, Paramei and MacDonald (1978) in their book *Gender Differences in Color Naming*; various linguistic studies have demonstrated gender differences in color lexicon. Lin, Luo, MacDonald and Tarrant (2001), Nowaczyk (1982), Rich (1977), Thomas, Curtis and Bolton, (1978), stated that women were shown to possess a more extensive and more elaborate color vocabulary than men. According to Berlin and Kay (1999), in addition to basic color terms, women use more elaborate terms, or BCT hyponyms, such as *mauve*, *scarlet*, or *chartreuse*. Nowaczyk (1982), Rich (1977), Simpson and Tarrant (1991), stated that females also offer many more ‘fancy’ color terms, like *emerald green* or *cerise pink*. In the other hand, men tend to use predominantly BCTs accompanied by various modifiers, as well as compound names comprising BCTs. Furthermore, Arthur, Johnson and Young (2007) claimed that females’ descriptions of color have greater affective value, Yang (2001), also display a wider aesthetic range. Anyan and Quillian (1971), stated that at each age in early childhood girls name colors better than boys. (Rich (1977), Swaringen et al (1978) Nowaczyk (1982) argued that women tend to use more elaborate vocabularies than men. In a study of color naming in English and Chinese, Lin et al (2001) found that female subjects used more names than male subjects. Frank (1990), stated that advertisers take advantage of this in their choice of color terms used in catalogues, with more variation in the terms for women’s clothing than for men’s clothing. According to Gurura and MacDonald (2005), in an another study of color harmony, it was found that blue, pink, purple were perceived by the average female observer as being less harmonious than by the average male observer, but the reverse for brown.

6. The use of swear words

Andersson and Trudgill (1992) have defined swearing as “a type of language use in which the expression (a) refers to something that is taboo and/or stigmatized in the culture; (b) should not be interpreted literally; (c) can be used to express strong emotions and attitudes”. The word *shit* can be used as a representative example; it literally refers to a tabooed item, excrement. However, when the word is used for swearing, the literal and referential meaning is lost. Instead it is used in an emotive sense, to express feeling and attitudes (p.53). Swearing is usually associated with very informal language or lower-class speakers.

Swearing is one of the common indicators used by scholars Lakoff (1975), Coates (1996) to argue that men tend to gain competitiveness or assertiveness during communications.

The classic sociolinguistic pattern is the assumption that there are fundamental differences in the way men and women speak, and to highlight these differences in linguistic studies. The main differences that have previously been pointed out are that women are said to use more formal language and polite forms, and generally aim to come closer to a standard speech norm than men. As stated in Stapleton (2003), these ideas have been reinforced by a number of influential linguists such as Trudgill (1974) and Lakoff (1975) (p.22), and according to Ljung (2006), it has been concluded that women are more aware of the social impact that language has than men, and that they therefore adapt their speech by using more correct forms than men in their attempting to come close to standardized speech norms (p.93).

According to Jay and Janschewitz (2008), when it comes to expletive usage, the gender differences that have been emphasized have been that men use more, and stronger, more offensive, expletives than women, but that women use milder swear words with a higher frequency than the men. It has also been shown that both genders are more comfortable

with expletive usage in same-sex groups, but that men are more likely to swear in public than women (p.274).

2. Section two: Theories and Concepts on Language and Gender

2.1 Deficit

The deficit approach was the first feminist approach to the study of language and gender. It assumes that the linguistic variations between women and men are the result of women's lack of power and assertiveness. Robin Lakoff was the first feminist linguist who described the features of women's use of language and conversational behavior in terms of their lexical choices and the syntactical formation of their utterances in her article "Women's Language" (1973) and later work *Language and Woman's Place* (1975).

Lakoff (1973) also described women's typical use of language. She argues that women's language and conversational behavior is deficient and not as adequate as men's way of speaking because they lack the ability to express themselves forcefully and decisively, and their higher use of standard forms and polite formulas. This deficiency, however, is by no means a natural fact, but a result of women's socialization. Since girls are taught to 'speak like a lady', which means that they have to be less dominant and forceful in conversations, they lack the appropriate linguistic competence to convey their ideas and attitudes convincingly.

Chambers (2008), stated the proposition that women by their more refined use of language somehow compensate for their shortcoming or try to improve their less than secure social position. Unlike men, who are judged by their occupation or earning abilities, women are judged by their appearance (p.143). The way they speak is one of the ways their status can be confirmed or even improved.

2.2 Dominance

According to Cheshire and Gardner-Chloros (1998), the dominance approach to gender and language, assumes that sex differences in conversational behavior result from the fact that men exert power and control over women in male-female interaction. The claim is that powerless members of society (usually women) use more prestigious forms to protect their faces and at the same time pay attention to faces of others (p.9). Therefore, the focus shifted from a description of the separate features of “women’s language”, for instance in terms of word choice, to the interactional aspects of gender-specific speech behavior, but still without treating gender as a flexible product of social interactions. Proponents of this framework like Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley (1975), Dale Spender (1980), and Pamela Fishman (1978, 1983) are convinced that men abuse their allegedly greater power, which is said to result from their higher social status and assumed superiority to women, because they interrupt women more often and determine the topics in a conversation. The dominance approach claims that women speak the way they speak not because they are women but because they live under the men’s dominance. In is not necessarily the language of women, it is rather the language of the group with the lack of power in society.

Dominance is the approach applies in Lakoff’s thesis (1973), women’s language has been described as tentative, lacking power and authority which reflect and sustain the subordinate position of women. It is also related with face needs.

It is based on preconceived idea that men’s speech is perfect and complete (the norm) as opposed to that of women which is defective and incomplete because though to be less important due to the fact that it is associated with their low position in society.

2.3 Difference

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The difference approach also called the sub-cultural or two-culture approach was introduced by Malz and Borker (1982), cited from Bucholtz, (2003, p.49) and has been widely popularized by Deborah Tannen, for example in her book *You Just Don't Understand* (1990).

Maltz and Borker (1982) and Tannen (1990) as major proponents of the difference approach contend that women and men behave differently in conversations on account of their socialization into different subcultures approximately at the age of 5 to 15 since they acquire distinctive gender roles in communication within same-sex peer groups. Their play patterns are distinctively different. Boys' groups are bigger, hierarchically structured and competitive. For them, language is a way to gain and maintain status. Girls' groups are smaller (often only two "best friends"), cooperative and supportive. Language is a tool for creating and preserving good relationships. Boys and girls learn how to communicate in their same-sex peer groups and this creates the difference in their speaking patterns.

This approach is based on the premise that men and women are often represented as belonging to two separate sub-cultures. That is, even within the same group, they belong to different or separate cultural worlds due to their different socialization. As a result, according to Uchida (1992), they establish different relations with society, and this is also noticeable in ways of speaking which are particular to each sex, so they develop different verbal cultures. However, an important aspect of this approach emphasizes that neither men's language nor women's language is better or worse. This approach is careful not to put women in a position of victims and refuse to admit all the difference between men and women to male's dominance.

The three approaches: deficit; dominance and difference approaches have tried to show how gender variations expressed through language are observable through language behavior.

Bolinger (1980), stated that the first two approaches are not favorable to women. It is often noted how startling it is that although women show “better” language behavior, it is still considered as the behavior pattern that needs explanation. In other words, men’s behavior is unmarked, while women’s is marked. Men’s use of language is taken as a norm and anything else is considered a deviation. This is not really surprising when accepting the dominance approach; “normal” is always what the powerful group represents and “different” or even “wrong” what subordinate group represents. There was a shift with the third approach, the difference approach, as it is trying to be more impartial, claiming that there is a difference but both women’s and men’s use of language are equal and just as much valuable.

2.4 Gender and Politeness

As cited in Cambridge University press (2003), it is difficult, if not impossible, to approach the relation between gender and politeness as a question of investigation of the production, by individual male or female of a number of linguistic features which are assumed to be unequivocally polite or impolite. It should instead consider the complexity of the relationship between gender and politeness by analyzing certain practices which are considered to be polite or impolite within particular communities of practice, stereotypically gendered.

In recent years there has been a sudden increase of publications dedicated to linguistic politeness and gender issues. Tannen (1990), Uchida (1992), Holmes (1995), Coates (1996) or Macaulay (2001). Sara Mills’ volumes are considered as valuable contributions to change patterns in the studies of politeness and gender which offers a new perspective on the relation between gender and politeness. There was a claim that politeness cannot be understood simply as a property of utterances, or even as a set of choices made solely by individuals, but rather as a set of practices or strategies which communities of practice

develop, affirm, and contest, and which individuals within these communities engage with in order to come to an assessment of their own and other's behavior and position within the group. Brown and Levinson's (1987), work on politeness formulates a new more process-oriented and performative model of language production and interpretation which describes gender at the level of discourse rather than only at an individual and utterance level and examines the stereotypes which abound in research on language and gender. Brown and Levinson work (ibid), stress the importance of politeness in avoiding communication breakdown between individuals. Much other work on politeness expends on the modal proposed by Brown and Levinson, and it is therefore at the core of any sociolinguistic exploration in this field. Gino Eelin (2001), has argued that, "The names Brown and Levinson have become almost synonymous with the word 'politeness' itself". Sara Mille (2003), also has stated that "there modal of politeness has influenced almost all of the theoretical and analytical work in this field". Brown and Levinson's model is based on the notion of face, which is essentially an individual's self-esteem, and they use to explain politeness behavior in social interaction.

2.5 Gender Stereotypes

From the article of Campbell and Storo (1994):

Educators, and as people, we tend to assume that females and males are different — are indeed "opposite sexes." We see someone's sex as an important predictor of their abilities and interests and assume that if we know someone is a girl or a boy, we know a lot about them. That assumption is wrong! Knowing someone's sex may tell us a lot about them biologically but it tells us very little about them in other ways. Knowing someone is a woman does not tell us if her athletic ability is

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closer to Martina Navratilova's or a couch potato's. Knowing someone is a man tells us nothing about whether his math skills reflect those of an Einstein or a math phobic.

According to Sharon Begley (2000), stereotypes present a trap into which many people can fall. Effectively, at a very young age when boys are brought up to be strong and powerful, and girls to be more mince and lady-like, gender stereotypes are nurtured. Eddleston, Veiga, and Powell (2003), claimed that all children around the age of four have a wide understanding of their gender and combat in order to adhere these existing roles. Claude Steele and Joshua Aronson (1995), reported on a study that showed how the existence of negative stereotypes affects people who are part of the stereotyped groups. They proposed that people feel threatened in situations in which their performance will identify them as examples of their group's negative stereotype. Steele and Aronson (ibid), labeled this situation **stereotype threat** because the presence of these negative stereotypes threatens performance and self-concept. Even if the person does not believe the stereotype or accept that it applies, the threat of being identified with a negative stereotype can be an ever-present factor that creates tension and anxiety about performance in that person. Timmers, Fischer, and Manstead (2003), stated that stereotypically females are labeled are more emotional than men, and Robsinon and Johnson, (1997), claimed that north American cultures typically label females as more emotionally intense. The female gender role has been defined as exhibiting traits and behaviors such as nurturance, sensitivity, warmth, empathy, dependency, compliance, emotionality, and passivity. Begley's article (2000) included examples of how powerful stereotypes are in affecting performance. Reminding people of their membership in a stereotyped group such as, asking them about their gender just before starting the test, was enough of a cue to affect performance negatively. Steele (1997), another example, Women who believed that the mathematics test would reveal their underlying ability performed more

poorly than the one who had different beliefs about the test's diagnostic ability. Latino women were affected by stereotype threat on a test of mathematical and spatial ability (Gonzales, Blanton, & Williams, 2002).

2.5.1 What is gender stereotype?

According to Ross Davis gender “stereotypes are over-generalizations about the characteristics of an entire group based on gender. While gender stereotypes have been popularly perceived as having negative connotations, they can also have positive ones as well”. As cited in Newsweek (Nov 6, 2000), the concepts of gender stereotype and gender role tend to be related. When people associate a pattern of behavior with either women or men, they may overlook exceptions and individual variations and come to believe that the behavior is inevitably associated with one gender but not the other. Therefore, gender roles furnish the material for gender stereotypes (p.160).

2.5.2 Gender Stereotype Vs Gender Role

As cited in Newsweek (Nov 6, 2000), the term *gender role* refers to the activities or behaviors which are typically associated with women or men, whereas *gender stereotype* refers to the beliefs associated with the characteristics and personalities appropriate to men and women (p183). Schneider (2005), provides common female stereotype traits which are emotional, affectionate, sympathetic, friendly, sensitive, and sentimental; whereas stereotypic males' traits includes dominant, self-confident, forceful, aggressive, rational, and unemotional.

3. Section Three: Language, culture and society

3.1 The Relationship between Language and Culture

Senll-Hornby (1995), suggests that "language is not seen as an isolated phenomenon suspended in a vacuum but as an integral part of culture" (p. 39). That is, the role of culture is considered as the core principle that helps in developing a set of communicative norms. She states that Wilhelm von Humboldt is the one who made the connection between culture, language and behavior (Senll-Hornby, 1995, p. 40).

Our social lives are principally conducted by means of language. When it is used in contexts of communication, it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways. So, language is a part of culture and plays a very important role in culture. Without language, culture would not be possible. On the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture; it reflects culture. Language is the symbolic representation of people and their culture, and it compromises their ways of living and thinking.

Language and culture, intrinsically dependent on each other, have evolved together through the history. Their mutual interdependence can find proof in the rise of civilization, the development of writing and human communication.

To sum up, cultural reality is expressed by language, it embodies cultural reality and it symbolizes cultural reality.

3.2 The Relationship between Language and Society

One of the main uses of language is to communicate meaning, but it is also used to establish and to maintain social relationships. Therefore, language is connected closely with society. The language a person uses often reveals his or her social background. On the other hand, there exist social norms that determine the type of language to be used on a certain occasion; and language changes are often caused by social changes.

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In terms of Wardhaugh (2000), the relationship between language and society can be analyzed from the following aspects: Firstly, social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and behavior. Certain evidence may be adduced to support this view: the age-grading phenomenon whereby young children speak differently from mature adults; studies which show that the varieties of language that speakers use reflect such matters as their regional, social or ethnic origin and possibly even their sex or gender. Secondly, linguistic structure or behavior may either influence or determine social structure. Thirdly, the influence is bi-directional: language and society may influence each other. Apparently, Ronald gives us a very comprehensive explanation of the relationship between language and society.

In this world language play the most important role in the society. Language is used to communicate with each other every day. Styles of language between males and females are quite different. Gender differences exist in the use of language. Humans are born with different biological sexes, and their culture helps them to be educated into different genders through the process of socialization. Gendered women and men are considered two different branches of subculture. In this sense, cross-gender communication is a kind of cross-cultural communication. Women and men belong to different subcultures because they enjoy their own set of shared symbolic ideas held by a collectivity within a larger society.

As a social phenomenon language is closely related to the structure of the society in which it is used, and the evaluation of a linguistic form is entirely social. It is not surprising to know that the language used by men and women have some special features of their own. It has been observed by linguists that women are usually more status-conscious than men in the English-speaking world; therefore, their speech closely approaches the standard variety than the speech of men. Thus, the social and cultural structure influences linguistic patterns and

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individuals' behavior as well, leading to linguistic variations in the way men and women communicate and how they both deal with their surroundings in the daily life.

Conclusion

This research can be said to be a small contribution in the study of language and gender. This chapter dealt with many aspects that highlight the major differences in the males' and the females' conversational style to shed some light on the main features of the differences and the reasons behind them.

Chapter two: Data Collection, Analyses and Discussion

Introduction

The previous chapter of this study was a review of literature about language and its different uses by males and females, even when they mean the same thing. It was an attempt to look for the reasons behind this difference and its impacts on the speech of both genders.

Whereas this chapter represents a discussion of the results obtained from the analysis of the Video taken from a TV show and the questionnaire administered to the students of the third year English degree in the University of Mohamed Seddik Ben-Yahiya. The students' awareness of the differences in their conversational style will be investigated in this chapter. This will be formed out of the analysis of data collected from the questionnaire, then, it will be concluded with a discussion of the results.

1. Section One: The Questionnaire

2.2 Description of the Questionnaire

2.2.1 Student's Questionnaire

This questionnaire is devoted to students to know to what extent they think that males and females use language differently and to figure out the style used by both. The questionnaire is composed of 25 questions. The students are asked to answer by 'Yes' or 'No', 'male' or 'female' and to choose the adequate answer from the different options. They are also to justify their answer in some questions.

2.2.2 The Participants

In this present research, the questionnaire was devoted to third year English students. The questionnaire has been distributed to 60 participants, but only 52 copies have been collected back, so the total number of participant is 52 participants of third year LMD student of English at Mohamed Seddik Ben-Yahiya.

2.3 Analyze and Discussion

Q1: what is your gender?

Table 2.1: Student's gender

Gender	%
Male	42%
Female	58%

According to the results, we notice that the number of males is less than that of females.

We have in our population 42% of males and 58% of females.

Q2: Do you think that males and females use language differently?

Table2.2: The Use of Language by Males and Females

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Yes	17	77%
	No	5	23%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Yes	29	97%
	No	1	3%
	Total	30	100%

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According to the results collecting from the questionnaire, the majority of both males and females think that the language used by males is different from the language used by females. Only 23% of males and 3% of females did not consider the differences in the language use between the two sexes. These results confirm the works of many researchers on this field such as Deborah Tannen (1999), Gray (1992) and many other researchers.

Q3: which of these two types of conversation carry more weight?

Table2.3: Gender Differences in Verbal & Nonverbal Communication

Gender	Options	N°	%
Male	Verbal communication	18	82%
	Nonverbal communication	4	18%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Verbal communication	16	53%
	Nonverbal communication	14	47%
	Total	30	100%

As seen in the table above, 82% of males show that verbal communication is the most effective means of communication, and only 18% give much importance to nonverbal communication. Whereas the statistics of females' views are convergent; 53% show positive attitude toward the verbal communication, and 47% show positive attitude toward the nonverbal communication. So, there is a significant difference between men and women use of language regarding the verbal and the nonverbal means of communication. These results confirm the studies of the website Body Language Expert in the point that women tend to be

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better detecting and interpreting non-verbal messages than men, and this is what makes the non-verbal means of communication carry more weight in women's conversation.

Q4: which gender do you think uses more non-verbal communication?

Table 2.4: Males' Opinion "Which Gender Uses More Non-Verbal Communication"

Gender	%
Male	50%
female	50%

Males: according to males the results are divided into two halves. 50% of males answer that males use more non-verbal communication and body gestures in their speech, and 50% have an opposite view.

Table 2.5: Females' Opinion "Which Gender Uses More Non- Verbal Communication"

gender	%
male	47%
female	53%

Females: the answers of the females view did not have a significant difference of those of males. 47% of males claim that they use more non-verbal communication, and 53% have an opposite claim.

Q5: Do you agree with? "Politeness and gender regarding language communication is more directed to women than men".

Table2.6: Politeness and Gender

Gender	Yes	No
Male	95%	05%

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Female	100%	00%
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According to the results obtained, both males and females of the population of the study have the same attitude toward this question. 100% of females show positive attitude toward the relation between politeness in language communication and females. 95% of males are also agreed with this view; however 5% are not. These results go with the work of Brown and Levinson work (1987) on politeness which formulates a new more process-oriented and performative model of language production and interpretation which describes gender at the level of discourse rather than only at an individual and utterance level and examines the stereotypes which abound in research on language and gender .

Q6: do gender stereotypes affect the way we speak? If yes give one example.

Table2.7: Gender Stereotype and Language

Gender	Yes	No
Male	56%	45%
Female	70%	30%

Some examples:

- Girls do not swear or speak in loud voice.
- A boy who did not smoke is like a girl.

As seen in table number four, the majority of population claims that gender stereotypes affect the way we speak, but with a higher average on the females views. 70% of females claim that gender stereotypes affect their way of speaking, whereas 30% claim the opposite. In the other hand, 56% of males agree with claim and the others are not. According to the finding obtained there is a great relation between the language we use and the stereotypes in our society in both genders, and according to the examples given by the third

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year students of English the effect of stereotypes on both genders we can notice that this effect varied from positive and negative effect. Stereotype threat (Steel & Aronson, 1995) or negative stereotypes threatens performance and self-concept as in the second example (A boy who did not smoke is like a girl) there is a negative stereotype threat. On the other hand the first example (Girls do not swear or speak in loud voice) there is a positive stereotype.

Q7: Do you think that males swear more than females?

Table2.8: The Use of Swear Words in Males' Speech

Gender		Number of student		%
Male	Yes	16		73%
	No	6		27%
	Total	22		100%
Female	Yes	25		83%
	No	5		17%
	Total	30		100

Almost all the males use swear words, and from the results in the table 73% of the males claim that they swear more than the females, that's what 83 % of females think too. Whereas 27% of males think that they don't swear more than females, there are also 17% of females who think that males do not use swear words more than them.

When asking them why they think so, many responses were collected, some said, that: females don't swear because they tend to be more polite and respectable and to protect their status, others said that men swear because it's natural for them to do, they consider it a way for showing their power and dominance.

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From the results, it's asserted that men use more, and stronger, more offensive, expletives than women, but that women use milder swear words with a higher frequency than the men. According to Jay and Janschewitz (2008), it has also been shown that both genders are more comfortable with expletive usage in same-sex groups, but that men are more likely to swear in public than women.

Q8: who uses tag questions more?

Table2.9: The Use of Tag Questions

Gender		Number of student		%
Male	Males	6		27%
	Females	16		73%
	Total	22		100%
Female	Males	2		7%
	Females	28		93%
	Total	30		100%

Table6 shows that almost all the females (93%) think that they use more tag questions in their speech than males do. In the other hand, 73% of males think that females are using more tag questions than they do.

These results approve the work of Lakoff (1973) who said that women have been shown to use tag-questions more frequently than men do, in order to avoid coming into conflict with the addressee and as a signal of their reluctance to make direct assertions, they are associated with a wish for confirmation or reinforcement which signals a lack of self-confidence in the speaker.

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Q9: Who uses minimal responses (such as mmmm, uh-uhh...) more?

Table2.10: The Use of Minimal Responses

Gender	Number of student		%
Male	Males	6	27%
	Females	16	73%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Males	6	20%
	Females	23	77%
	Both	1	3%
	Total	30	100%

From the table's results, it is shown that most of the males (73%) think that females use Minimal responses more, and 27% think that they are also used by males.

In the other hand, the majority of females (77%) claim that minimal responses are more common in their speech, 20% claim that they are also used by males. Whereas only one female (3%) think that they are used by both sexes.

The results go with the work on the theoretical part which said that females have been shown that in a mixed sex group conversation use minimal responses more frequently than their male counterparts, which shows that women are more active listeners than men.

Q10: Do you think that hedges (expressions such as well, you know, I think, I believe...) are more common in females' speech than males' speech?

Table2.11: The Use of Hedges in Females' Speech

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Yes	18	82%
	No	4	18%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Yes	29	97%
	No	1	3%
	Total	30	100

From the table's results, it's noticed that both sexes share the same opinion that hedges are more common in females' speech, males with 82% and females 97% of the population. Only four males (18%) and one female (3%) don't agree.

Hedges are used by both sexes according to Lakoff (1973), to express uncertainty but women's speech is described as "tentative", and this assertion is linked to the claim that women use more hedges than men do.

Q11: What is the goal of women when they apologize?

Table2.12: The Goal of Apologies in Females' Speech

Gender	Options	N°	%
Male	To appear superior	3	14%
	To avoid problems	11	50%
	To shorten arguments	0	0%
	To maintain connection	3	14%
	Multiple choices	5	23%

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	Total	22	100%
Female	To appear superior	5	17%
	To avoid problems	10	33%
	To shorten arguments	1	3%
	To maintain connection	7	23%
	Multiple choices	7	23%
	Total	30	100%

In this table, it is found that most females (50%) and males (33%) share the same point of view about the females' goal when they apologize and it is "to avoid problems". 23% of males and 14 % of females think that women apologize to maintain connection. Other males (3%) and 5% of females argue that the use of apologies has the goal to appear superior. No male and only one female (3%) think that apologies are used to shorten arguments. We have also those persons who have multiple choices 23 % of males and 23% of females think that women apologize for many purposes.

Q12: Who talks more?

Table2.13: Who Talks More

Gender		Number of student		%
Male	Males	1		5%
	Females	21		95%
	Total	22		100%
Female	Males	2		7%
	Females	28		93%

Gender Differences in Conversational Style

Total	30	100%
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The table's results show an agreement between males (95%) and females (93%) about who talk more and both think that females do, only one male (5%) and two females (7%) think the opposite that males talk more.

The data collected confirm what Bonvillian (2007), stated concerning women's level of talkativeness regarding men's level.

Q13: are there lexical items reserved to men or to women?

Table2.14: lexical items of women

	Yes	No
Males & Females	94%	6%

According to the results collected by the questionnaire, 94% of the population claims that there are lexical items reserved to men/ women, only 6% negate. As it was stated in the book "Language and Gender", as long as the term gender will refer to grammatical gender, the lexicon is a repository of cultural preoccupation which results a deep and extensive link between gender and lexicon.

Q14: who have more extensive color vocabulary?

Table2.15: the use of color vocabulary

	Males	Females
Males & Females	21%	79%

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The results in the table above show that 79% of the population thinks that women have a more extensive color vocabulary, whereas 21% thinks that there is only one vocabulary to both sexes. The results are confirmed in the “book Gender in color naming”. According to Mylonas, Paramei and MacDonald (1978), women were shown to possess a more extensive and more elaborate color vocabulary than men. In addition to basic color terms (BCT), women use more elaborate terms (BCT hyponyms).

Q15: Men are more likely to interrupt women than to interrupt other men.

Table2.16: Males’ Interruptions

Gender		Number of student		%
Male	Yes	15		68%
	No	7		32%
	Total	22		100%
Female	Yes	19		63%
	No	11		37%
	Total	30		100

This table shows that more than a half of males (68%) and females (69%) think that men are more likely to interrupt women than to interrupt other men, and 32% of males, and 37 % of females do not think that they do.

This question can support the work of West and Zimmerman who made a study that shows that in cross-sex conversation, women are interrupted by men, and when that happens, men are usually successful to gain the floor, whereas women do not succeed when interrupting. In same-sex conversations, where each speaker contributed with about the same number of interruptions and overlaps. Nearly all the errors and intrusions were made by men

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in the cross-sex conversations and women are the most likely targets of successful interruptions even when they are in higher-status positions.

Q16: During conversations, women spend more time looking at their partner than men do.

Table2.17: Women's look at their partner

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Yes	18	82%
	No	4	18%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Yes	21	70%
	No	9	30%
	Total	30	100

Table14 shows that most of males (82%) agree with the fact that females spend more time looking at their partner than men do, 18% of them do not agree with that fact. In the other hand, 70% of females think that they really more time looking at their partner, whereas 30% of them don't have the same view. This confirms what is stated by communication studies (2005), concerning women usefulness of eye contact.

Q17: Which gender uses a more formal language? Why?

Table2.18: The Use of Formal Language

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Males	10	45%
	Females	12	56%

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	Total	22	100%
Female	Males	1	3%
	Females	29	97%
	Total	30	100%

Table 15 shows almost a half of males (45%) that females use more formal language; the other 56% of them think that males use more formal language.

The majority of females (97%) consider that they use more formal language than males do; only one female (3%) has a different view.

Why formal language by females? The answers were, because females are more respectful, polite, they tend to show prestige and elegance, to look more polite. Males do not use it a lot, because they don't care about formality.

Q18: Who describes things more?

Table2.19: Describing Things by Gender

Gender	Number of student		%
Male	Males	3	14%
	Females	19	86%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Males	1	3%
	Females	29	97%
	Total	30	100%

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Almost all the male students see that females describe things more than males to the extent that they represent 86% of the respondents of this question, 14% do not see the same thing and think that males describe things more than females.

97% of females see that things are described more by females than males, only one female (3%) see that males do that more than females do.

Q19: Who talks without much information content?

Table2.20: Information Content in Gender Talk

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Males	11	50%
	Females	11	50%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Males	11	37%
	Females	19	63%
	Total	30	100%

Speaking about information content in gender talk, 50% of males think that males talk without much information; the other 50% think that females do.

In the other side, 63% of females assume that females talk without much information content, while males are thought by 37% of females to talk without much information.

Q20: Is it true that females use language to establish intimacy as a basis of friendship more than males do?

Table2.21: the Use of Language to Establish Intimacy

Gender		Number of student	%
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Male	True	20	91%
	False	2	9%
	Total	22	100%
Female	True	28	93%
	False	2	7%
	Total	30	100

This table shows that the majority of students, males 91%, and females 93% consider that females use language to establish intimacy as a basis of friendship more than males do.

Only two males (9%) and two females (7%) see that language is not used by females to establish intimacy.

Q21: Do you agree that females talk about feelings and relationships while males prefer talking about impersonal topics?

Table2.22: Females Talk about Feelings and Relationships, and Males Talk about Impersonal Topics.

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Yes	21	95%
	No	1	5%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Yes	28	93%
	No	2	7%
	Total	30	100

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95% of males and 93% of females agree with the fact that females talk feelings and relationships while males prefer talking about impersonal topics. Only one male (5%) and two females (7%) have a different point of view.

Q22: Expressions such '*would you mind...*', '*I'd appreciate if...*' are more common in males' or females' speech?

Table 2.23: The Use of Expressions Such '*would you mind...*', '*I'd appreciate if...*'

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Males	9	41%
	Females	13	59%
	total	22	100%
Female	Males	7	23%
	Females	23	77%
	Total	30	100%

In this question, 59% of male's students answered by saying that expressions such '*would you mind...*', '*I'd appreciate if...*' are more common in females' speech. 41% think that they are more common in males' speech.

77% of females see that such expressions are more common in their speech, while 23% answered by saying that, they are more common in males' speech.

Q23: Men tend to use few words, short sentences to express themselves?

Table 2.24: Males' expressiveness

Answers	%
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True	8%
False	92%

In this question, almost all the population (92%) answered by saying true, that is to say that men tend to use few words and short sentences to express themselves. While only 8% of them answered by false.

Q24: Who govern the conversation, control its topics?

Table2.25: The Control of Topics

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	Males	17	77%
	Females	5	23%
	Total	22	100%
Female	Males	13	43%
	Females	17	57%
	Total	30	100%

From the table above, it is shown that 77% of males and 43% of females think that males control and govern the conversation and it's topics, whereas, 23% of males and 57% of females think that females control it.

Q25: Women tend to initiate more topics to maintain the mainstream of a conversation.

Table2.26: The Mainstream of a Conversation

Gender		Number of student	%
Male	True	19	86%

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Female	False	3	14%
	Total	22	100%
	True	24	80%
	False	6	20%
	Total	30	100

86% of males and 80% of females consider that women tend to initiate more topics to maintain the mainstream of a conversation. In the other side, only 14% of males and 20% of males answered by saying false, that is, women do not tend to initiate more topics to maintain the flow of a conversation.

2. Section Two: The Video

2.4 Description of the video

This video is a section of the TV show '*Dr.Phil*' where *Oprah* was the guest TV share. She was warmly received by the fans share and the announcer who is the Dr.Phil. Oprah was influenced by this reception. She entered to the studio salutes her fans by hand gestures and a big smile on her face, and embraced the announcer share. She keeps expressing her joy by repeating the word 'wow' many times. She uses a lot of body gestures while speaking. She talks more than the announcer share using a lot of words and he avoids interrupting her, she also uses language to establish intimacy and uses hedges while speaking.

2.5Analyses and discussion

2.5.1Non-verbal communication

It is well apparent that Oprah used a lot of face and body gestures while speaking. This is what we call *the non-verbal communication* which is very used especially in female's speech. This non-verbal communication adds more weight to Oprah's speech; it can effectively convey messages that cannot be replaced by verbal communication such as embracing which is one of the non-verbal means used by women since they prefer physical closeness in their conversations. In addition to Oprah's verbal expressions of pleasure, she expressed her feelings non-verbally during the conversation using eye contact and over smiling. In contrast Dr.Phil used less non-verbal communication during the conversation.

2.5.2 Talkativeness and Emotional

Oprah's speech confirms the claim that females talk more than males. She took the largest period of time and she used lots of expressions to express her ideas, especially her

feelings by keeping repeating the word ‘wow’. It is clearly noticeable that she was the more talkative in the conversation. Timmers, Fisher and Manstead, (2003), argued that stereotypically females are labeled are more emotional than men, that applies on Oprah’s speech.

2.5.3 Interruption

According to the video we can notice that Dr.Phil avoided interrupting Oprah when she was speaking since Interruption is described as evil intention to cut the flow of current speaker’s speech.

2.5.4 The use of hedges

Oprah in her conversation hedging using expressions such as ‘you know....’ while speaking to Dr.Phil, which expresses the speaker’s uncertainty.

2.5.5 Minimal responses

We can notice the use of minimal responses in Oprah’s speech such as ‘uhhh’ which indicates that Oprah was listening to Dr.Phil and keep going with the conversation. This indicates that Oprah was an active listener. While Dr.Phil marked his continued presence and involvement in the conversation by nodding and smiling, this can also be interpreted in non-verbal communication.

2.5.6 Turn taking

According to the video the structure of talk which is according to Yule (1996) “I speak-you speak-I speak-you speak” is respected, when Dr.Phil finished his utterances Oprah immediately took the turn and starts her speech. We can notice that sometimes Oprah broke the rules of turn taking and started speaking even though Dr.Phil did not finish his speech. This situation confirms the claim of Victoria DeFancisco (1991) “Female linguistic behavior characteristically encompasses a desire to take turns in conversation with others, which is

opposed to men's tendency towards centering on their own point or remaining silent when presented with such implicit offers of conversational turn-taking".

Conclusion

In the previous chapter which is the practical part of the research, by means of the data collected by a student's questionnaire and a video from a TV show. It is concluded that the third year EFL learners at the University of Mohamed Seddik ben Yahia-Jijel have differences in their conversational style which contribute in making their speech differs especially according to their gender. Tag questions, minimal responses, hedges and turn taking are major aspects of differences, even the non-verbal communication is a feature of difference in males' and females' speech.

Limitations of the study

Like any other field research, the present study inevitably contains some limitations, the most important of which are:

The impossibility of covering all the students and the lack of males in the third year classes, the lack of time was also a limitation.

Another limitation consist the behavior of some students who showed refusal to answer the questionnaire and some do not take the subject seriously. The main problem we face is the lack of books in the university library.

Recommendations for further research

The present study represents a very small contribution in the study of language and gender. It is an attempt to study just one aspect which is men and women's differences in speech at the vocabulary level and speech styles.

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Research of this kind, that is to say sociological and linguistic data is an attempt to increase one's understands of language and its relation to gender. Such kind of research helps those who make comparative studies, especially the future post-graduate students.

General Conclusion

Our study has been concerned with investigating men's and women's speech of the third year students in the department of English. It has allowed us to investigate the difference between males and females' speech in relation to the research questions:

1. Why do men and women speak differently?
2. Is the difference between men and women's speech due to the societal element or some others elements?
3. Does the difference between men and women's speech lead to any kind of stereotyping?

In order to deal with such subject, the review of the literature has been a great help for us when constructing the general background about this subject "gender differences in the conversational style". Those backgrounds are the basis of our field of work.

In order to confirm or invalidate the assumptions of the present study, data were collected using a questionnaire as well as video taken from a TV show as research instruments. The participants were both males and females third year EFL.

The research instruments have been analyzed on the basis of differences at the vocabulary level, speech patterns and the use of the linguistic forms. The Results obtained seem to sustain the research assumption and show that although men and women acquire language at the same age and in the same circumstances, they do not use the same vocabulary even when they mean the same thing.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Students' questionnaire

Students Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is part of a research. We will be very grateful if you can be helpful with your answers to the following questions by putting a cross in front of the answer of your choice.

Thank you in advance

1. What is your gender?

1- Male ☐

2- Female ☐

2. Do you think that males and females use language differently?

1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

3. Which of these two types of conversation carry more weight?

1- Verbal communication ☐

2- Nonverbal communication ☐

4. Which gender do you think uses more nonverbal communication?

1- Males ☐

2-Females ☐

5. Politeness in gender is more directed to women than men?

1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

6. Do gender stereotypes affect the way we speak? If yes give one example.

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1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

.....

.....

7. Do you think that males swear more than females? Why?

1-Yes ☐

2- No ☐

.....

.....

8. Who uses tag questions more?

1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

9. Who uses minimal responses (such as *mmm*, *uh-uhh...*) more?

1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

10. Hedges (expressions such as *well*, *you know*, *I think*, *I believe...*) are more common in females' speech than males' speech.

1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

11. What is the goal of women when they apologize?

1- To appear superior. ☐

2- To avoid problems. ☐

3- To shorten arguments. ☐

4- To maintain connection. ☐

12. Who talks more?

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1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

13. Are there lexical items reserved to men or to women?

1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

14. Who have more extensive color vocabulary?

1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

15. Men are more likely to interrupt women than to interrupt other men.

1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

16. During conversations, women spend more time looking at their partner than men do.

1- Yes ☐

2- No ☐

17. Which gender uses a more formal language? Why?

1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

.....
.....

18. Who describes things more?

1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

19. Who talks without much information content?

1- Males ☐

2- Females ☐

20. Is it true that females use language to establish intimacy as a basis of friendship more than males do?

1- True ☐

2- False ☐

21. Do you agree that females talk about feelings and relationships while males prefer talking about impersonal topics?

☐

☐

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1- Yes

2- No

22. Expressions such '*would you mind...*', '*I'd appreciate if...*' are more common in males' or females' speech?

1- Males

☐

2- Females

☐

23. Men tend to use few words, short sentences to express themselves?

1- True

☐

2- False

☐

24. Who govern the conversation, control its topics?

1- Males

☐

2- Females

☐

25. Women tend to initiate more topics to maintain the mainstream of a conversation.

1- True

☐

2- False

☐

Thank you for having cooperated...

Appendix 2: The Video

Résumé

La variation linguistique selon le sexe a toujours été établie comme un principe et un majeur facteur dans l'investigation de la sociolinguistique. Le but de cette recherche est d'examiner les différences entre les mâles et les femelles lors de leurs usages de la langue à l'Université Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahya-Jijel et d'essayer de trouver les causes derrière ces différences. Les réponses aux questionnaires qui ont été administré à 60 étudiants de la troisième année licence Anglaise de l'université mentionnée précédemment, et à l'aide aussi d'une vidéo tirée d'une émission de télévision sont les outils utilisés pour confirmer ou éjecter l'hypothèse que le discours des males et des femelles est différent. Les résultats obtenus révèlent que malgré la langue est acquise au même âge, dans les mêmes circonstances et en suivant les mêmes étapes son utilisation diffère d'un sexe à l'autre. A partir de cela, on peut dire que l'hypothèse est confirmée.

ملخص

تم تأسيس الاختلاف اللغوي باعتبار الجنس كمبدأ وعامل رئيسي في التحقيق في علم اللغة الاجتماعي. الغرض من هذه المذكرة هو دراسة الفروق بين الذكور والإناث في استخدامات اللغة في جامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى، جيجل ومحاولة العثور على الأسباب الكامنة وراء هذه الاختلافات. الاستعانة بالإجابات على الاستبيانات التي تم توزيعها على طلاب السنة الثالثة في الجامعة رخصة إنجليزية المذكورة أعلاه، إضافة إلى فيديو مأخوذة من برنامج تلفزيوني هي الأدوات المستخدمة لتأكيد أو نقض الفرضية. أظهرت النتائج أنه على الرغم من اكتساب اللغة في نفس العمر ونفس الظروف، إلى أن استخدامها يختلف من جنس لآخر. من هنا، يمكن القول أن الفرضية تم تأكيدها.