

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Language is central to social interaction in every society, regardless of location and time period. Language and social interaction have a reciprocal relationship language shapes social interactions and social interactions shapes language. No doubt that language is a key of communication between the different societies which includes different kinds of categories depending on gender and different purpose which language use according to the situation. Women use language more correctly because of sensitive to the social implication of using language, women use more prestige variants than men. Language and gender the area of study within sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, and related to the investigate varieties of speech associated with a particular gender, or social norms for such gendered language use. For instance women more polite than men and men tendencies to non self-disclosure and professing advice when confronted with others, because men usually solves their problems by themselves. On the other hand women sharing their problems and experiences with others often to offer sympathy. Also, the difference in changing the topic of conversation the root of the conception that women talk too much and may still sparker the same thinking, women more prestige variants than men. Consequently leading to the creation of stigmas preventing women or men from using a certain type of linguistic behavior without being stigmatized. These preconceived ideas also fuel societal stereotypes and may impact people's standards concerning what is desirable from each gender.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The present study attempts to investigate the differences in using English language among men and women. To provide information about how men and woman have differences in changing the topic of conversation (for instance, women use usually question tag in speech and men use more swearing in speech), and how they use different terms from each other. How women use self disclosure than men, and in which ways women show that they are politeness more than men. To provide the learners of sociolinguistics with useful information to supply in this field, and contribute the knowledge.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The aims of the study:

- 1- To investigate the difference of using English language between men and women.
- 2-To explain how women and men are difference in change the topic in the conversation.
- 3- To explain how women are use self-disclosure more than men.
- 4-To find out how men and women have difference polite expressions in their language.

1.4 Questions of the Study

The study will provide answers for the following questions:

- 1-To what extent women are difference in changing the topic of Conversation more than men?
- 2-How women use self disclosure more than men?
- 3- To what extent men and women are difference in polite expressions in their language?

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

The differences of using English language between men and women depended on their needs and their specific purposes according to the situation and manner which language use for. The hypotheses include:

- 1-Women are difference in changing the topic of conversation more than men.
- 2-Women use self disclosure more than men.
- 3- Men and women are difference in polite expression in their language.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study provide the importance of sociolinguistics varieties and the differences of using English language among gender. The significance of this study to supplied the field of sociolinguistics with more information and knowledge, additionally provide benefits of the sociolinguistics learners.

1.7 Method of the Study

This study is descriptive in nature. It adopts the descriptive analytical method. The researcher used the questionnaire as instrument to gather information and choice randomly thirty students from Sudan University of Science and Technology as sample in order to prove the hypotheses that set above. The questionnaire evaluates according to statistical analysis through using presenting way of analysis data collections.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The scope of the study in terms focus on sexism (Applied linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Language and gender). The study use descriptive analytical method. This study is limited to investigating the differences of using language among men and women. Thirty students (fourth year) at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Education English Language department. During the academic year of 2019.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

Part one: Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

Language and gender has been characterised by interdisciplinarity, with valuable contributions from anthropology, various forms of discourse analysis, education, literary theory, media studies, social psychology, sociology, women's studies and lesbian and gay studies as well as sociolinguistics more narrowly defined. Many, or more probably most, contributors to the field have been feminists, and there has been an emphasis both on the development of theory and on more practical concerns. Language and gender is a topic that is of interest in its own right; it is also important because of what it can add to understanding of language and how it works, and to the sociolinguistic study of language. Sexism, or sexist 'bias' in historical approach, looking first at studies of distinctive female and male forms in certain languages, also try to give a sense of some of the debates that have characterised, and continue to characterise, this highly dynamic research area. Holmes(1995:320).Such empirical studies show tendencies: they suggest that women tend to speak in one way and men in another. Clearly not all women, or all men, talk in the same way, and the way people talk also differs considerably in different contexts. These are points to which we return below. Lakoff (1975: 7) Claimed that women use a number of language features that, collectively, indicate uncertainty and hesitancy. These features, deny women the opportunity to express themselves strongly, and make what they are talking about appear trivial. Lakoff (1975:8).

2.1 Definitions Language

Language connecting between the people and language is central to social interaction in every society.

1. Language is a system for the expression of thoughts, feelings, etc. by the use of spoken sound or conventional symbols. (Francis Y.Lin, 2019).

2. Language is a system of communication which consists of a set of sounds and written symbols which are used by the people of a particular country or region for talking or writing.

(Fatchul Muin, 2019)

3/Language is a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures or marks having understood meaning . (Merriam Dictionary, 2019).

2.2 Definitions of Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language it involves analyzing language form , language meaning , and language in context.

(Kernerman, 2019).

Also linguistics is the study of language and how it put together and how it functions. Words are arranged in a certain order, and sometimes the beginnings and ends of the words are changed to adjust the meaning then, the meaning itself be affected by the arrangement of words and by the know ledge of the speakers about what the hearer will understanding.

(Lango Plazo, 2019).

Also study of human speech including the units, nature, and modification of language. (Florian, 2018).

2.3 Sociolinguistic Varieties

Sociolinguistics is study the relationship between language and society. Sociolinguistics interested in explaining why speak and use language differently in different social context, and concerned with identifying the social functions of language and the way it used to convey social meaning. Examining the way

people use language in different social contexts provides a wealth of information, about the way language works as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language. Also sociolinguistics is interested in the different types of linguistic variation used to express and reflect social factors. The kind of information which is relevant to language choice include how well know the other person and whether they are socially superior. Holmes (1947:1). Sociolinguistics deals with inter –relationships between language and society. It has strong connections to anthropology the investigation of language and culture and to sociology through the crucial role that language plays in the organization of social groups and institutions. Yule (1996:239).

Sociolinguistics studies of gender differences have shown the power of stereotyping. Exploring the correlations between gender relate to the linguistics differences and social differences between the gender. Another way to see how closely language and social variation are related. Spolsky (1998:36).

Sociolinguistic varieties study the ways in which language interacts with society. Spolsky(1998:37).On the other hand, sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of effect of any and all aspects of society including cultural norms, expectations, and context , on the way language is used .It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables (e.g, ethnicity , age , etc) and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social (Richard Nordquist, 2015) . The basic premise of sociolinguistics is that language is variable. As a result, language is not uniform or constant. Rather, it is varied and in consistent for both the individual user and within and among groups of speakers who use the same language, people adjust the way they language use according to their social situation. (Womtelo,2019). The linguistic form use by men and women contrast to different degrees in all the use of language communities, there are other ways too in which the linguistics behavior of women and men differs. It claimed

women are more linguistically polite than men. For instance and that women and men emphasis different language functions. Holmes (1947: 34).

2.4 Sexism and Feminist

The words use to refer to certain individuals or groups reflect individual non-linguistic attitudes and also reflects the culture and views of society. Language reflects sexism in society. Language itself is not sexist, just as it is not obscene, but it can connote sexist attitudes as well as attitudes about social taboo or racism. Changes in English are taken place which reflect the feminist movement and the growing awareness on the part of both women and men that language may reflect attitudes of society and reinforce stereotypes and bias. Rodman and F (1993:310). Language is one of the most powerful means through which sexism and discrimination are perpetrated and reproduced the content of gender stereotypes, according to which women should display communal warmth traits and men should display a genetically competence traits, is reflected in the lexical choices of everyday communication .as a consequence, language subtly reproduces the social asymmetries of status and power in favor of men, which are attached to the corresponding social roles.

Similarly, masculine noun and pronouns are often used with a genetic function to both men and women .However, such linguistic forms have the negative effects of making disappear in mental representations. Although the use of gender-fair linguistic expressions can effectively prevent these negative consequences and promote gender equality, there are even more implicit forms of gender bias in language that are difficult to suppress. By choosing terms at different levels of abstraction, people can affect the attributions of the receiver in a way that is consistent with their stereotypical beliefs. Linguistic abstraction, is a very subtle resource used to represent women in a less favorable way and thus to enact gender discrimination without meaning to discriminate or even be aware that this linguistic behavior has discriminatory results. In order to reduce gender bias. Sexism stereotypes are beliefs about the attributes of men and

women and produce expectations about what they are like and should be like. According to the social role theory, sexism stereotypes originate in the gender typical social roles. Men and women have historically held different social roles, men have been more likely to engage in tasks (eg. speed, strength, and the possibility of being away from home for long periods of time). Whereas women have been more likely to stay home and engage in family tasks, such as child rearing. Women are expected to engage in a feminine gender role that reflects communal qualities but not a genetic ones. Sexism involves behavior which maintain social inequalities between women and men (Colonies Chris, 2016). One particular bit of sexism in languages that has aroused much comment is the gender systems that so many of them have, the he-she-it 'natural' gender system of english or the le-la or der-die-das 'grammatical' gender systems of French and German. The possible connections between gender systems (masculine, feminine, neuter) and gender differences (male, female, neither) are various. To the apparently biased 'no person in his right mind would do that.' again, he-she distinctions can often be avoided - sometimes clumsily, to be sure - so it probably does not follow that languages with gender distinctions must be sexist, It is the people who use languages who are or who are not sexist; Chinese, Japanese, Persian, and Turkish do not make the kinds of gender distinctions english makes through its system of pronouns, but it would be difficult to maintain that males who speak these languages are less sexist than males who speak English! There certainly are gender differences in word choice in various languages.

Japanese women show they are women when they speak, for example, by the use of a sentence-final particle ne or another particle wa. In Japanese, too, a male speaker refers to himself as boku or ore whereas a female uses watasi. Whereas a man says boku kaeru 'I will go back' in plain or informal speech, a woman says watasi kaeru wa .Wardhaugh (1995:319-320).

2.5 Gender and Language

Lakoff (1975:14) found that women language use - she seemed to be suggesting that the way women speak is inadequate in several respects. She related these claims to social inequalities between women and men, arguing that women's speaking style denied them access to power. Lakoff's claims were based on informal observations and her own intuitions about language use. They have given rise to considerable debate, and have been investigated in several empirical studies, some of which we refer to below. Lakoff herself has revisited these early ideas in a later publication based on her work. Lakoff's interpretations in terms of power or dominance have been common among other researchers. In an analysis of conversations between couples, Fishman(1983:89) found that women gave more conversational support than men. They expressed interest in their partner's conversational topic, and made more frequent use of minimal responses such as mmh, yeah and right, indicating their involvement. Topics raised by men therefore had a greater chance of success (of being elaborated upon and pursued) than those raised by women. Fishman saw women's conversational supportiveness as an 'expected' characteristic of being female: women are expected to keep conversation going. But she also related her interpretation to power. she argued, is 'a human accomplishment situated in everyday interaction'. Coates(1988:95) Has focused on informal conversation in all-female groups in an interesting further study she also contrasts this with talk in all-male groups her account of women's talk is highly positive. She found that the conversations she analysed were characterised by cooperation, with women concerned to support one another's contributions rather than compete for the floor. Coates provides a useful corrective to the 'deficit' view of women's speech proposed by Lakoff and also to some work in the 'dominance' tradition which, while not suggesting that women's speech was deficient, did imply that it was relatively ineffective. Setting a high value on women's talk, and illustrating this with examples from all-female groups, cannot actually refute the

claim that women are routinely disadvantaged in interaction with men. However, critical of the focus on miscommunication in interactions between female and male speakers. They argue that interpretations based on miscommunication ignore the power dimension in relations between women and men; they ignore the evidence, from a number of studies, that men's 'different' speaking styles allow them to interact. Cameron (1995:150) That, in her attempt to avoid any negative assessment of men speaking styles, also concerned about the absence of a power dimension in work that takes a cultural difference position. She traces the roots of this to one of the principles that underlie much of modern linguistics: that different language varieties are equal in linguistic terms, and it is wrong to label some varieties as inferior. This relativist position is, she argues, misplaced in relation to language and gender: the relationship between women and men is complementary but unequal, and simply understanding difference is to leave this unchallenged. She suggests that this position is untenable particularly for feminist researchers: 'feminism is not about celebrating the skills required of women by our present arrangements, but about changing those arrangements root and branch. Feminism must question sexual divisions of labour in every sphere of life' Cameron(1995:198). While critiques of popular accounts of gender differences in language, such as Cameron presents a more popular account, attempting to dispel 'myths' about women's and men's language for a more general audience. Cameron argues that myths matter for instance, they may affect career opportunities and other life chances. Sociolinguistic evidence is drawn on here as a form of social intervention designed to encourage and enable people to question popular stereotypes. Cameron(1995:198).

2.6 Language and Gender Consist Types of gender:

Language and gender itself is an area of study within sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, and related fields that investigates varieties of speech associated with a particular gender, or social norms for such gendered language use. Language and gender consist of:

2.6.1 Changing the Topic of Conversation:

The difference may well be at the root of the conception that women chatter and talk too much, and may still speaker the same thinking in same men. In this way lowered estimation of women may arise. Men and women have difference topics from each other, Women topics include: gossip, men, shopping, child-rearing and personal relationship. On the other hand, men topics include: firm, sport, women, political and cars. Holmes (1947:37).

2.6.1.1 Gossip:

Gossip is describes the kind of relaxed group talk that goes on between in informal contexts .in western society, gossip is defined as(idle talk) and considered particularly characteristic of women interaction. It is overall function for women are to affirm solidarity and maintain the social relationship between the women involved. Women gossip focuses predominantly on personal relationships, on personal problems and feelings. It may include criticism of the behavior of others. But women tend to avoid criticizing people directly because this would cause discomfort. A common men reaction to this behavior is to label it two- faced, but this is to mistake it purpose which is often to relieve feeling and reinforce shared values. Rather than simply communicate referential information. In gossip sessions women provide a sympathetic response to any experience recounted focusing almost exclusively on the effective message - what says about the speaker feeling and relationships rather than it is referential content. Recordings of women group for instance, show how women built on and developed each other topics, told and anecdotes in support of each other points, and generally confirmed the attitudes and reactions of other participants.

Holmes (1947:38).

2.6.2 Self – Disclosure:

Self-disclosure is the process was originally defined as telling others about the self. Also, self-disclosure is process of communication by which one person reveals information about themselves to another. The information can be descriptive or evaluative, and can be include thoughts, feelings, aspirations, goals, failures, successes, and favorites, dreams, as well as ones likes and dislikes. Social penetration theory posits that there are two dimensions to self-disclosure: breadth and depth. Both are crucial in developing a fully intimate relationship. The range of topics discussed by two individuals is the breadth of disclosure. The degree to which information revealed is private personal is depth of that disclosure.

Self disclosure is easier for breadth to be expanded first in a relationship because of it is more accessible features; it consists of outer layers of personality and everyday lives, such as occupations and preferences. Depth is more difficult to reach, and includes painful memories and more unusual traits that we might hesitate to share with others. Men and women have different self-disclosure which women sharing their problems and experiences with others, often to offer sympathy and they usually asked their friends about their problems. On the other hand men tendencies to non-self-disclosure and professing advice or offering a solution when confronted with another's problems because men usually solve their problems by themselves.

(Nemo bis, 2019).

2.6.3 Gender and Politeness

Some researchers have drawn on politeness theory to interpret women's and men's language use. Robin Lakoff argued that part of women's social role was that of "arbiter of morality, judge of manner" Lakoff (1975:52), and this encouraged them to be linguistically polite. one of the most influential early accounts of gender and politeness, Brown (1980:225) related on the model of

politeness she developed in which politeness is described as showing concern for people's 'face', and two types of politeness are distinguished: positive politeness, which has to do with the expression of warmth or friendliness towards others; and negative politeness, which has to do with not imposing on others, or threatening their face. She found that women in the Tenejapan community used the extremes of positive and negative politeness, while men spoke more 'matter-of-factly'. Furthermore, women had certain characteristic styles of politeness. Brown relates these findings to the social positions of women and men in Tenejapan society – women's relative powerlessness, for instance, their vulnerability in relation to men and their need to protect their reputations. Brown places greater emphasis on the importance of context, showing how the female protagonists in a court case are able to engage in angry confrontation, flouting the norms of language behaviour. Politeness theory has been drawn on in the interpretation of women's linguistic deference in Japanese, and it seems consistent with linguistic behaviour in other contexts - for instance the use of hlonipha in African languages. A study of (English) language use in New Zealand, carried out by Janet Holmes, was also informed by politeness theory. Holmes argued that women utterances show evidence of concern for the feelings of the people they are talking to more often and more explicitly than men's do' Holmes(1995:226-6). She related this claim to several aspects of women's and men's language use, including the conversational features listed earlier part of her discussion focuses on hedges, including tag questions. While Lakoff claimed they were used by women more than by men, empirical support for this has not been consistent.

2.6.4 Women Language and Gendered Positioning

Stereotypes regarding female speech which are more myths than truth for example, a common stereotype is that women talk, a lot, yet controlled studies show just the opposite is true when men and women are together that is, in mixed group, the women seem to talk less than the men. Furthermore, when

society itself institutionalize such attitudes, the language reflects this. When everyone in society is truly equal, and treated as such there will be little concern for the asymmetries which exist in language. Rodman (1993: 310).

2.6.4.1 Women Language

Social role theory suggests that women pursue managerial style of interaction based on solidarity and support, they prefer to collaborate and perceive forming and maintaining relationships as a communal activity women opt for more prestigious variants in order to protect themselves in dealing socially with the more powerful. Linguistic forms typical of women speech and language use such as hedges, hypercorrect grammar, super polite forms, question intonation in declarative and powerless nature of women language.

(Sri Wahyuning, 2018).

In the early 1970s, American linguist Robin Lakoff proposed that American women were constrained to soften and attenuate their expression of opinion through such devices as:

1. Tag questions (“this election mess is terrible, isn’t it?”)
2. Rising intonation on declaratives (A: “When will dinner be ready?”
B: “Six o’clock?”)
3. The use of various kinds of hedges (“That’s kinda sad” or “it’s probably Dinner time”)
4. Boosters or amplifiers (“I’m so glad you’re here”)
5. Indirection (saying “Well, I’ve got a dentist appointment then” in order to convey a reluctance to meet at some proposed time and perhaps to request that the other person propose an alternative time)
6. Diminutives (panties)
7. Euphemism (avoiding profanities by using expressions like piffle, fudge, or heck; using circumlocutions like go to the bathroom to avoid “vulgar” or tabooed expressions such as pee or piss)

8. Conventional politeness, especially forms that mark respect for the addressee there were other elements in the picture she painted of “women’s language,” but the main focus was on its “powerlessness,” seen as deriving from the “weak” stance or position those women. Overall, Lakoff proposed, a distinctive part of speaking “as a woman” is speaking tentatively, side stepping firm commitment and the action. “subject” deliberately evokes the “subject position” terminology of postmodern theorists and others who find the traditional notion of a unitary and coherent self problematic. Although our own thinking is informed by feminist and postmodern theorizing, our focus as linguists is on grounding the abstract notions of discourse and of subject positions in concrete linguistic practices. Finally, adopt the term “positioning” because it brings together stance towards ideas and towards others. Women are disempowered by being constrained to use “powerless” language, ways of speaking that simply are not very effective in getting others to think or do what the speaker wants them to. Cameron argued that in positioning themselves as women, in taking up a certain place in the gender order, those who made use of the various resources she identified were also positioning themselves as powerless, women speak more assertively, to move away from the positions Lakoff had identified as constitutive of powerlessness and of “women’s language.” But Cameron highlights the more central moral: how an utterance is interpreted does not depend solely on the linguistic forms used but on the interpreter’s view of the utterer. Main clause conveys (thus, the absence of unshakeable conviction) and also serve to connect the speaker more firmly to others. Establishing such connections may ultimately strengthen a speaker’s position by enlisting social support for the speaker and their ideas and projects. It is easy to criticize Lakoff’s specific claims about gender and the use of particular forms, but her pioneering work had the important effect of directing attention to the critical issues of power in the interaction of language and gender. She also focused attention on some kinds of linguistic resources that might be

central to constructing gendered identities and relations and, most importantly for our present purposes, gendered discourse positions. Rodman (1993:312).

2.6.4.2 Negative Politeness

To acknowledge others' rights and claims is at the heart of negative politeness, of showing respect, and negative politeness very often enters into gendered norms for language use. Showing respect generally looks very much the same as showing deference. Deference, however, involves not only respect: it also implies placing others' claims above one's own, subordinating one's own rights to those of others. Often what is offered as simple respect may be interpreted as deference, especially if the respect-giver does not overtly press their own position. If the recipient interprets the respect as deference and thereby assumes a position of advantage, then the respect-giver who does not challenge this assumption ends up in effectively the same position as the person who defers. Marking the other's position as higher than one's own or assuming a lower position, is one way to show respect and does not necessarily involve giving up one's own status claims. The bower vis-a-vis the other, but mutual bowing shows mutual respect. Forms show solidarity or familiarity when used reciprocally by equals show disrespect or condescension when used nonreciprocally, and forms that show respect between equals show deference or subordination if their use is nonreciprocal. Again and again, there are norms enjoining the use of respect forms to status superiors and countenancing the use of familiar forms to status inferior.

Address forms are sensitive indicators of how speakers are positioning their addressees, those to whom they are speaking. In English, forms like *sir* or *ma'am* or social titles like *Dr.*, *M.*, or *Ms.* assign a high position to the addressee, express the speaker's respect for the addressee. By simply acknowledging the addressee's claims, they may also express social distance and the absence of solidarity between the speaker and the addressee. Rajend et al (200:214).

2.6.4.3 Men Language

Men are beginning to make more frequent use of hedging devices as cultural norms change and they are increasingly encouraged to express themselves emotionally differences remain, however, in the ways that men use some hedging devices . Whereas women tend to use the hedging device you know as an indicator of politeness, men use it when there is a presumption of shared knowledge between the speaker and recipient. Men talk when engaging in conversations with each other the emphasis is generally placed on physical activities such as fishing or playing video games rather than on verbal communication. When they do talk, they tend to choose conversation topics such as money, sport, cars, politics, women and business. Men like to have the bottom line given to them before they hear the details, while the opposite is true of women. Rodman (1993:311).

2.7 Some Different Features

2.7.1 Genetic Difference

That there are differences between men and women is hardly a matter of dispute. Females have two X chromosomes whereas males have an X and a Y; this is a key genetic difference and no geneticist regards that difference as unimportant. On average, females have fat and less muscle than males, are not as strong, and weigh less. They also mature more rapidly and live longer. The female voice usually has different characteristics from the male voice, and often females and males exhibit different ranges of verbal skills. However, we also know that many of the differences may result from different socialization practices. For example, women may live longer than men because of the different roles they play in society and the different jobs they tend to fill. Differences in voice quality may be accentuated by beliefs about what men and women should sound like when they talk, and any differences in verbal skills may be explained in great part through differences in upbringing. Wardhaugh (1995:157).

2.7.2 Sociocultural Difference

It has often been noted that there is far more reading failure in schools among boys than girls, but it does not follow from this fact that boys are inherently less well equipped to learn to read, for their poor performance in comparison to girls may be sociocultural in origin rather than genetic. There is also an important caveat concerning all such studies showing differences between groups, and the two genders are just groups like any other; Wardhaugh (1995:158) and will repeat here. For many in the two groups under comparison there will be no difference at all: the next person you meet on the street may be male or female, tall or short, long-lived or short-lived, high-voiced or low-voiced, and so on, with not one of these characteristics being predictable from any other. Numerous observers have described women's speech as being different from that of men. Also there is a bias here: men's speech usually provides the norm against which women's speech is judged. we could just as well as know men's speech differs from that of women, but investigators have not usually gone about the task of looking at differences in that way. for example, in discussing language change in Philadelphia, Labov (2001:119) deliberately recasts his statement that 'women conform more closely than men to sociolinguistic norms that are overtly prescribed, but conform less than men when they are not' to read that men 'are less conforming than women with stable linguistic variables, and more conforming when change is in progress within a linguistic system. He does this so as to avoid appearing to bias his findings. any view too that women's speech is trivial, gossip-laden, corrupt, illogical, idle, euphemistic, or deficient is highly suspect; nor is it necessarily more precise, cultivated, or stylish or even less profane than men's speech. Such judgments lack solid evidentiary support. For example, apparently men 'gossip' just as much as women do; men's gossip is just different. Men indulge in a kind of phatic small talk that involves insults, challenges, and various kinds of negative behavior to do exactly what women do

by their use of nurturing, polite, feedback-laden, cooperative talk. In doing this, they achieve the kind of solidarity they prize. It is the norms of behavior that are different. In the linguistic literature perhaps the most famous example of gender differentiation is found in the Lesser Antilles of the West Indies among the Carib Indians. Male and female Caribs have been reported to speak different languages, the result of a long-ago conquest in which a group of invading Carib speaking men killed the local Arawak-speaking men and mated with the Arawak women. The descendants of these Carib-speaking men and Arawak-speaking women have sometimes been described as having different languages for men and women because boys learn Carib from their fathers and girls learn Arawak from their mothers. This claim of two separate languages is now discounted. What differences there are actually do not result in two separate or different languages, but rather one language with noticeable gender-based characteristics. There is also a very interesting example from English of a woman being advised to speak more like a man in order to fill a position previously filled only by men. Margaret Thatcher was told that her voice did not match her position as British Prime Minister: she sounded too ‘shrill.’ she was advised to lower the pitch of her voice, diminish its range, and speak more slowly, and thereby adopted authoritative, almost monotonous delivery to make herself heard. She was successful to the extent that her new speaking style became a kind of trademark, one either well-liked by her admirers or detested by her opponents. In the area of morphology and vocabulary, many of the studies have focused on English. In a paper which, although it is largely intuitive, anecdotal, and personal in nature, is nevertheless challenging and interesting, Lakoff (1973:9), claimed that women use color words like mauve, beige, aquamarine, lavender, and magenta but most men do not. She also maintains that adjectives such as *adorable*, *charming*, *divine*, *lovely*, and *sweet* are also commonly used by women but only very rarely by men. Women are also said to have their own vocabulary for emphasizing certain effects on them, words and expressions such as *so good*,

such fun, exquisite, lovely, divine, precious, adorable, darling, and fantastic. Furthermore, the English language makes certain distinctions of a gender-based kind, e.g., actor-actress, waiter-waitress, and master-mistress. Some of these distinctions are reinforced by entrenched patterns of usage and semantic development. For example, master and mistress have developed quite different ranges of use and meaning, so that whereas Joan can be described as Fred's mistress, Fred cannot be described as Joan's master. Other pairs of words which reflect similar differentiation are boy-girl, man-woman, gentleman-lady, bachelor-spinster, and even widower-widow. In the last case, whereas you can say 'She's Fred's widow,' you cannot say 'He's Sally's widower.' Lakoff cites numerous examples and clearly establishes her point that 'equivalent' words referring to men and women do have quite different associations in English. A particularly telling example is the difference between 'He's a professional' and 'She's a professional.' Other investigators have documented the same phenomenon in other languages, for example in French uses of *garçon* and *fille*. One of the consequences of such work is that there is now a greater awareness in some parts of the community that subtle, and sometimes not so subtle, distinctions are made in the vocabulary choice used to describe men and women. Consequently, we can understand why there is a frequent insistence that neutral words be used as much as possible, as in describing occupations e.g., chairperson, letter carrier, salesclerk, and actor (as in 'She's an actor'). If language tends to reflect social structure and social structure is changing, so that judgeships, surgical appointments, nursing positions, and primary school teaching assignments are just as likely to be held by women as men (or by men as women), such changes might be expected to follow inevitably. This kind of work does two things: it draws our attention to existing inequities, and it encourages us to make the necessary changes by establishing new categorizations (e.g., Ms), and suggesting modifications for old terms (e.g., changing policeman to police officer and chairman to chairperson). However,

there is still considerable doubt that changing waitress to either waiter or waitperson or describing Nicole Kidman as an actor rather than as an actress indicates a real shift in sexist attitudes. Reviewing the evidence, Romaine (1999:326) concluded that ‘attitudes toward gender equality did not match language usage. Those who had adopted more gender-inclusive language did not necessarily have a more liberal view of gender inequities in language. Wardhaugh (1995:118-120).

2.7.3 Socialisation Difference

In still another study, this time one that used an experimental setting, Freed and Greenwood (1996:53) recorded and analyzed the casual conversations of approximately thirty-five minutes each of eight same-sex pairs of friends, four male and four female. They focused particularly on the use of you know and questions. the setting of each of the 35-minute conversations was manipulated so that each conversation provided a period of ‘spontaneous’ talk, one of ‘considered’ talk, and finally one of ‘collaborative’ talk. Freed and Greenwood found no differences in the use of you know and questions: “‘women and men of the same speech community, speaking in same pairs in the same conversational context, with equal access to the conversational floor, do not differ either in the frequency of the use of you know or in the number of questions uttered’”.

Women and men also use you know and questions for the same purposes. It is the linguistic task or the speaking situation that determines the style of speaking not the gender of the speaker. They add that ‘just as the communicative style of women has been overly stereotyped as cooperative, so too the verbal style of men has been over generalized as competitive and lacking in cooperativeness.’ When we do observe gender differences in language behavior we are confronted with the task of trying to explain them. One explanation is that languages can be sexist. For now, three other claims are of interest. The first claim is that men and women are biologically different and that this difference has serious consequences for gender. Women are somehow predisposed psychologically to

be involved with one another and to be mutually supportive and non-competitive. On the other hand, men are innately predisposed to independence and to vertical rather than horizontal relationships. There appears to be little or no evidence for this claim; it seems rather to be a clear case of stereotyping, which offers no more than a facile solution to a difficult problem.

The second claim is that social organization is best perceived as some kind of hierarchical set of power relationships. Moreover, such organization by power may appear to be entirely normal, justified both genetically and evolutionarily, and therefore natural and possibly even preordained. Language behavior reflects male dominance. Men use what power they have to dominate each other and, of course, women, and, if women are to succeed in such a system, they must learn to dominate others too, women included. Men constantly try to take control, to specify topics, to interrupt, and so on. They do it with each other and they do it with women, who, feeling powerless, let them get away with it, preferring instead to seek support from other women. Consequently, since women are relatively powerless they opt for more prestigious language forms to protect themselves in dealing with the more powerful. At the same time the use of such forms serves to mark them off from equally powerless males of the same social class. Women may also have weaker social networks than men but they show a greater sensitivity to language forms, especially standard ones.

Lakoff (1975:13) adopts the position that men are dominant and women lack power. Women may have to behave more like men if this unequal relationship is to be changed. Others share Lakoff view. For example, DeFrancisco (1997:324) proposes that 'power be placed at the centre of (feminist) analysis and that gender, race, ethnicity, social class, age, sexual orientation, and other social categories be examined as political tools of oppression.' Crawford (1995:225) is another who declares that power relations best explain what happens when men and women interact linguistically. Her explicit goal is 'to create a feminist social science for all women'. Talbot (1998:159) sounds a cautionary note: 'a major

determinant of the dominance framework is that male dominance is often treated as though it is pan-contextual. But all men are not in a position to dominate all women' furthermore, anthropologists have pointed out that women are never without power and effectively control some societies.

Dominance clearly fails as a universal explanation of gendered language differences. The third claim, which does not actually deny the second claim, is that men and women are social beings who have learned to act in certain ways. Language behavior is largely learned behavior. Men learn to be men and women learn to be women, linguistically speaking. Society subjects them to different life experiences. This is often referred to as the difference (sometimes also deficit) view as opposed to the dominance view just mentioned.

2.7.4 Communicate and Miscommunicate Difference

Maltz and Borker (1982:202) propose that, in North America at least, men and women come from different sociolinguistic sub-cultures. They have learned to do different things with language, particularly in conversation, and when the two genders try to communicate with each other, the result may be miscommunication. The mhmm a woman uses quite frequently means only 'I'm listening,' whereas the mhmm a man uses, but much less frequently, tends to mean 'I'm agreeing.'

Consequently, men often believe that 'women are always agreeing with them And then conclude that it's impossible to tell what a woman really thinks,' Whereas 'women get upset with men who never seem to be listening' Maltz and Borker (1982:202). They conclude that women and men observe different rules in conversing and that in cross-gender talk the rules often conflict. the genders have different views of what questioning is all about, women viewing questions as part of conversational maintenance and men primarily as requests for information; different conventions for linking; different views of what is or is not 'aggressive' linguistic behavior, with women regarding any sign of aggression as personally directed, negative, and disruptive, and men as just one

way of organizing a conversation; different views of topic flow and topic shift; and different attitudes toward problem-sharing and advice-giving, with women tending to discuss, share, and seek reassurance, and men tending to look for solutions, give advice, and even lecture to their audiences. Tannen (1990:148) is undoubtedly the best-known proponent of the claim that women and men have been raised to live in different subcultures. Consequently, “cross-cultural communication”. In various interesting and entertaining accounts, Tannen has tried to show how girls and boys are brought up differently. Part of the socialization process is learning not only gender-related activities and attitudes but gender related language behavior. Gender differences in language become established early and are then used to support the kinds of social behavior males and females exhibit. It is mainly when males and females interact that the behavior each uses separately becomes noticeable. As Holmes (1992:330) found that, the differences between women and men in ways of interacting may be the result of different socialisation and acculturation patterns. And the kind of miscommunication which undoubtedly occurs between women and men will be attributable to the different expectations each sex has of the function of the interaction, and the ways it is appropriately conducted.

2.7.5 The Difference According to the Community

One consequence of such differences is that women’s speech has often been devalued by men, for, as Tannen rightly observes, her difference approach in no way denies the existence of male dominance Tannen (1993:9). Tannen’s solution is an interesting one, although one not without its critics. She believes that men and women should try to understand why they speak as they do and try to adapt to each other’s styles. However, the self-help nature of her 1990 book you just don’t understand might seem to thrust much of such work onto the shoulders (or tongues?) of women rather than men. Although by no means as big a best-seller as John Gray’s men are from mars, women are from venus, Tannen’s book was widely acclaimed, so its message obviously spoke to many

people, women in particular. As Talbot (1998:193) observes of the book, with its appearance of objectivity and neutrality and its stress on differences and equality, Tannen's approach provides a "comfortable explanation" for some troublesome issues. A variation of the third claim is found in the concept of 'community of practice.' according to Eckert and M (1998:458), gender issues are essentially complex and not easy to separate from other issues. they deplore the fact that too often, gender is abstracted whole from other aspects of social identity, the linguistic system is abstracted from linguistic practice, language is abstracted from social action, interactions and events are abstracted from community and personal history, difference and dominance are each abstracted from wider social practice, and both linguistic and social behavior are abstracted from the communities in which they occur.

In order to understand what is happening when people acquire and use language, Eckert and M explain this: a community of practice is an aggregate of people who come together around mutual engagement in some common endeavor. Ways of doing things, ways of talking, beliefs, values, power relations - in short, practices - emerge in the course of their joint activity around that endeavor. A community of practice is different as a social construct from the traditional notion of community, primarily because it is defined simultaneously by its membership and by the practice in which that membership engages. Indeed, it is the practices of the community and members'

Differentiated participation in them that structures the community socially. The various as a kinds of differences arise in such circumstances, including gender differences: 'gender is produced and reproduced in differential forms of participation in particular communities of practice the relations among communities of practice when they come together in overarching communities of practice also produce gender arrangements' Wardhaugh(1995:491). Individuals participate in various communities of practice and these communities interact in various ways with other communities.

As still another example that gender differences in language may be social in origin rather than linguistic study of norms and norm-breaking in Malagasy. Among the Malagasy, men do not put others into situations in which they may lose face. They use language subtly, try to maintain good communication in their relationships, and avoid confrontations. They can be direct and straightforward, and because they can be so, they perform tasks, such as interacting with strangers, buying and selling when these require negotiating a price, and reprimanding children, which men prefer not to perform. In this society, then, it is the men who are indirect and the women (and children) who are direct. But the most interesting fact is that it is indirectness of speech which is prized in Malagasy society and regarded as 'traditional' and it is the men who employ it. On the other hand, 'direct speech. Is associated with a loss of tradition, with contemporary mores' and it is found among women and children. Wardhaugh (1995:142).

Women are definitely inferior to men in this society too, for 'where subtlety and delicacy (which are prized characteristics) are required in social situations, men are recruited,' but 'where directness and explicitness (necessary at times but not prized characteristics) are desired in social situations, women are recruited' Wardhaugh(1995:143). Consequently, once more we can see how the speech of the genders reflects their relationship within the total society.

The kinds of evidence we have looked at strongly suggests that men and women differ in the kinds of language they use because men and women often fill distinctly different roles in society. Expect that the more distinct the roles, the greater the differences, and there seems to be some evidence to support such a claim, for the greatest differences appear to exist in societies in which the roles of men and women are most clearly differentiated. Since boys are brought up to behave like men in those societies and girls to behave like women, the differences are also perpetuated. In societies that are less rigidly stratified and in which men's and women's roles are less clearly differentiated, we may expect to

find a reflection of this situation in the language that is used and also, if change in society is occurring, change in the language too. This is, indeed, what we do find, men and women, and even boys and girls, exhibit certain differences in language use in such cities as New York, Norwich, reading. Most of those differences can be explained by the different positions men and women fill in society. Men have more power and may be more assertive; women tend to be kept 'in their place' but aspire quite often to a different and 'better' place. Women therefore appear to be more conscious of uses of language which they associate with their 'betters' in society, that is, those they regard as being socially superior. They therefore direct their speech toward the models these provide, even to the extent in some cases of hypercorrection, women, therefore, tend to be in the vanguard of change toward the norms of the upper classes, and lower middle-class women are at the very front.

One consequence is that sometimes the speech of certain women is being hypercorrect. Once again difference rather than deviance might be a better characterization, with the difference arising from the different experiences that females and males have of the world.

Men have power, even lower-class men. They are less influenced linguistically by others and, in the case of the lower working class, may seek solidarity through the 'toughness' that nonstandard varieties of the language seem to indicate. If they lead in any kind of change, such change may well be away from the norm. Wardhaugh(1995:202). Women may not find appropriate the kinds of solidarity that men seek through the use of a particular language or certain kinds of language. The peasant women of Oberwart in Austria seek not Hungarian-speaking peasant husbands, but German-speaking worker husbands and, in doing so, lead the traditionally bilingual peasant population away from Hungarian–German bilingualism toward German monolingualism.

Language action, is social action, and to bring about linguistic change is to effect social change. Some feminists want to go further than 'cleaning up' the

language and even deny any possibility of ‘neutrality.’ their expressed mission is to ‘reclaim’ language for themselves Spender (1985) adopts a Whorfian view of language declaring that: ‘language helps form the limits of our reality. It is our means of ordering and manipulating the world. It is through language that we become members of a human community, that the world becomes comprehensible and meaningful. That we bring into existence the world in which we live.’

2.7.6 Different in Speech

Also apparent, as Freed has indicated (2003:117), that “‘despite the enormity of our research results, the public representation of the way women and men speak is almost identical to the characterization provided thirty years ago.’” too often researchers talk only to each other, research results are either ignored or misrepresented, and stereotyped views continue to influence how people think and behave. Men’s and women’s speech differ because boys and girls are brought up differently and men and women often fill different roles in society. Moreover, most men and women know this and behave accordingly. If such is the case, expect changes that make a language less sexist to result from child-rearing practices and role differentiations which are less sexist. Men and women alike would benefit from the greater freedom of choice that would result. However, it may be utopian to believe that language use will ever become ‘neutral.’ humans use everything around them and language is just a thing in that sense to create differences among themselves. Speech may well be gendered but there actually may be no easy solution to that problem.

Wardhaugh (1995:329-333).

2.8 Part Two: Previous Studies

- 1. Hassan Osman Ismail, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Investigate the differences between women's and men's speech, August, 2016.**

Investigate the differences between women's and men's speech in Sudan specifically in Khartoum state at three localities Khartoum, Omdurman, and Bahari. The researcher limited (30) citizen from different localities, from women and men as samples and the researcher used the questionnaire for data collection, there are some results the researcher has reached into: women speak more than men, women speech more sensitive and correct and high prestige than men. Men speech is using swear and taboo expressions and speak traditionally, as they focus their speech on politics, economics and business. The researcher recommends the students of linguistics in Sudan to cover the area of sociolinguistics because there is complete absence of writing in this field. The majority of writing in this field from western societies.

- 2. Oktanika Wahyu Nuranah, Turkish, Male and female student's linguistic politeness in speaking classroom, October 2017.**

Communicative competence emphasizes that the knowledge of grammatical rules is not sufficient to communicate comprehensively, therefore it needs pragmatic knowledge. Without pragmatic understanding. Besides, one important aspect of pragmatic competence is politeness. Many researches have been conducted in this field, however only few that specifically revealed the differences between male and female linguistic politeness in speaking classroom, whereas its primary data are utterances. It becomes a conducted in the speaking classroom of university student, especially international relations major students. The observation is conducted based on the adaptation from DCT by Bahous and Diab (2012). Furthermore, the data are analyzed using some politeness theories. The result showed that in general, female students are more polite compared to male students. At last, teachers should understand this fact by

do not expecting male students to be as polite as female, basically they are unique their way.

3. **Neda Khanlarzadeh, Sharif University of Technology, Tehran (IRAN), March, 2015, The study of women's and men's language:**

As most of the studies on genderlectand social stereotypes reveals there are some significant differences between women's language and men's. It has been believed that women are polite, respectful toward social norms and emotional while men are less polite, carefree, dominant in conversation and interested in to mundane issues. This study tried to investigate about these differences through asking 60 participants' opinions (30 men and 30 women) by questionnaire in Iranian context; the questionnaire is based on the previous related studies and theories. The results indicate that men and women are by some means similar in their language in certain respects and some of the previous studies were quite intense in illumination of the differences.

4. **Xiufang Xia Qingdao University of Science and Technology, China, August 2013, Gender Differences in Using Language.**

The differences between men and women in using language have been studied long time before. This paper mainly discussed the differences from the aspects of pronunciation, intonation, vocabulary, syntax, manners, attitudes, and non-verbal differences in using language between men and women. Besides the differences in various aspects, the paper tries to record the changes of these differences. On the basis of these differences and changes, the paper also tries to make some explanation to these differences and changes.

5. **Jacqueline Stratford, Oxford ,USA,200, Women and men in conversation:** a consideration oftherapists' interruptions in therapeutic discourse.

Studies of day-to-day conversation have shown that interrupting can be used as a gendered means of determining both conversational topic and speaker. This paper explores the nature of interruptions in therapeutic conversations in this

light. Drawing upon two recent studies of therapists' interruptions, the author offers some preliminary ideas for consideration by therapists, clinical supervisors and researchers.

2.9 Summary of the chapter

This chapter include two parts. First part include literature review represented the differences of using the language between men and women through includes the important topics which show how far men and women are different in changing topic of conversation, self disclosure and how men and women are different in using politeness expressions in their language.

The second part include previous studies which include five studies related to this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter contains a description of methodology used in the study. It also contains the sample of the study, the data collection and reliability and validity of the questionnaire of the study.

3.1 Methodology of the study

A descriptive analytical approach is adopted throughout this study. The present study tries to describe the nature of the phenomenon and the problem, and present it as it, and consequently highlight the area of differences which need more concentration. The information was gathered through answering questionnaire.

3.2 Population of the Study

The population of this study is drawn exclusively from Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Education, English Language Department, fourth year students (both male and female).

3.3 Sample of the Study

Thirty students from Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Education, English Language Department,(fourth year students) both male and female, as a sample for the study.

3.4 Instruments of the Study

The questionnaire is used as instrument of the study, which include three hypotheses and every hypothesis include six statements.

3.5 Validity of the Study

The validity of the questionnaire, the researcher prepared a questionnaire, then showed it to three lectures doctors of English Language at Sudan University of

Science and Technology, Dr Abass Mukhtar, Dr Hillary Marino Pitia and DR Susan Alfadil. They expressed their opinions, and advised to make some addition, omission and modifications related to questionnaire.

Table(3.1) shows the questionnaire referees their degree, jobs and place of working.

Name	Degree	Job	Address
1.Hillary. M. Pitia	PHD	Assistant Professor	Sudan University of Science and Technology
2.Abass Mukhtar	PHD	Assistant Professor	Sudan University of Science and Technology
3. Susan Alfadil	PHD	Assistant Professor	Sudan University of Science and Technology

3.6 Reliability of the Study

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement produce the same results on repeated trials.

Cranach's alpha method:

Where reliability was calculated using Cranach's alpha equation shown below:

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{n-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation total grades}}$$

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation total grades}}}$$

Cronbach alpha coefficient = (0.79), a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study

Validity coefficient is the square of the islands so reliability coefficient is (0.89), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

Reliability for statement of hypotheses:

Table (3.2)

	Cronbach's Alpha	Coefficient of honesty
Statement one	.112	0.33
Statement tow	.395	0.62
Statement three	.291	0.54
For all	.580	0.76

The reliability for all statement is greater than 0.64 this indicated that the scale is valid for measuring the questionnaire.

3.7 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter the researcher described the methodology of the study, the tools which are used to collect the data of the study, the sample of the study which selected randomly. Moreover, it also included the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis and Discussion of the Results

4.0 Introduction:

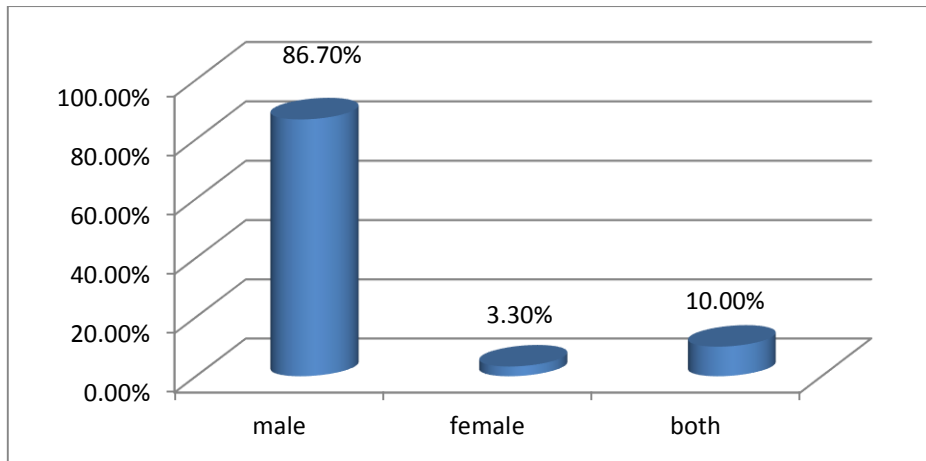
In this chapter, the researcher deals with the population and sample of the study, presenting, analyzing and discussing the data of the study, explaining the methodology used to describe the sample and the data collection tool used in the questionnaire. Thirty students chosen randomly as a sample from Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Education English language department. The researcher used SPSS for analysis data.

4.1 Hypothesis one: Women are difference in changing the topic of conversation more than men.

Table (1):

4.1.1 Tendency to talk about jobs, cars, sports, and firms.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	26	86.7%
Female	1	3.3%
Both	3	10.0%
Total	30	100.0

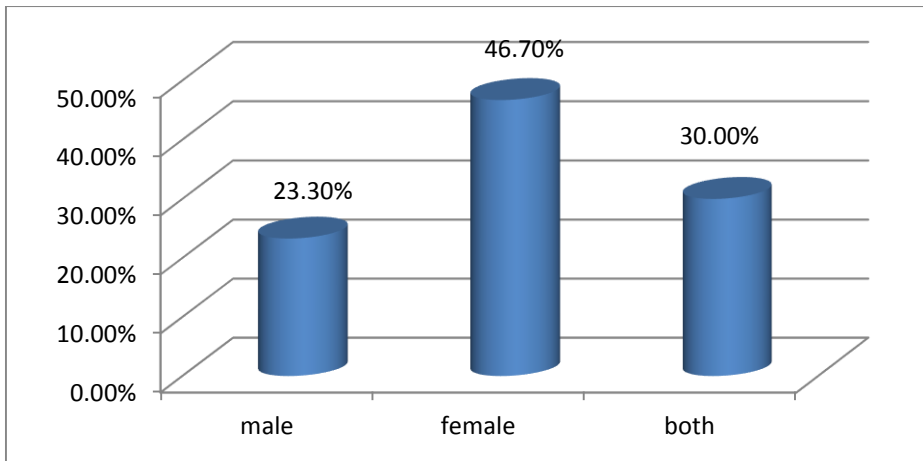


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (86.7%) , female (3.3%) ,and both (10%) ,so the highest percentage (86.7%) is going to direction of male answer, so that male tendency to talk about jobs, cars, sports, and firms than female.

Table (2):

4.1.2 Aptness to interruption in the middle of conversation.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	7	23.3%
Female	14	46.7%
Both	9	30.0%
Total	30	100.0%

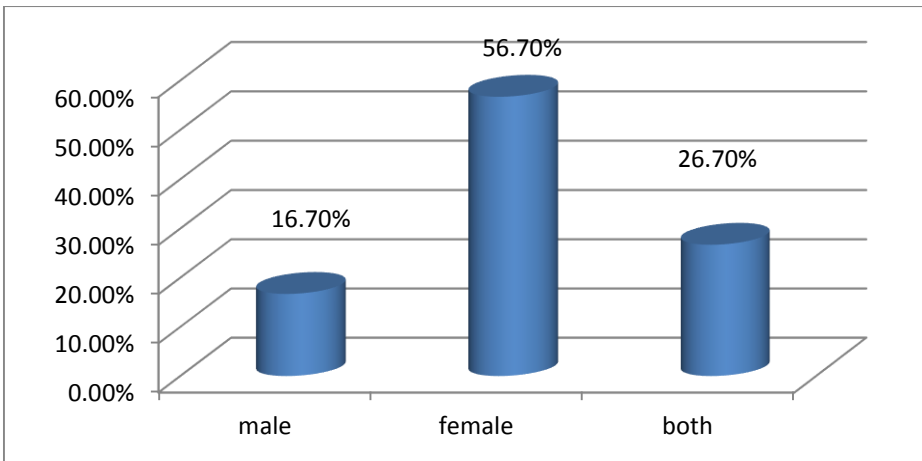


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (23.3%) , female (46.7%) ,and both (30%) ,so the highest percentage (46.7%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female aptness to interruption in the middle of conversation than male.

Table (3):

4.1.3 Tends to gossip.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	5	16.7%
Female	17	56.7%
Both	8	26.7%
Total	30	100.0%

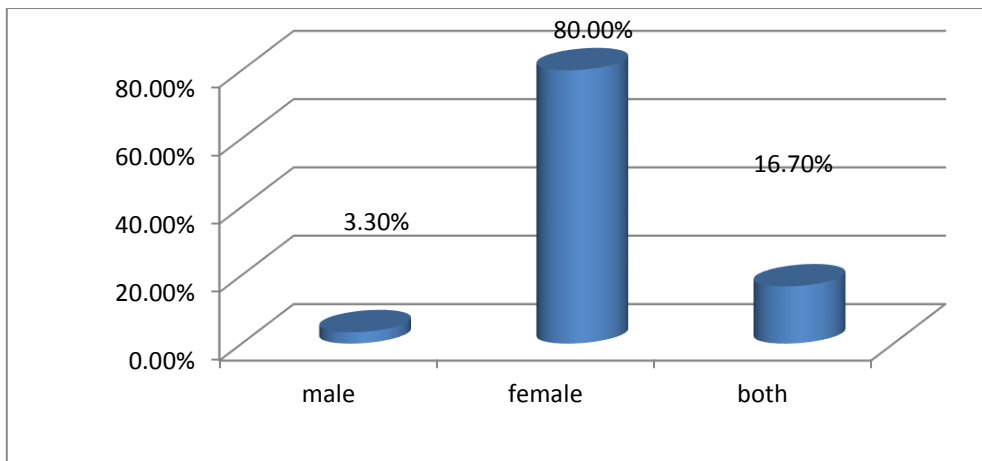


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (16.7%) , female (56.7%) ,and both (26.7%) ,so the highest percentage (56.7%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female tends to gossip than male.

Table (4):

4.1.4 Tends to talk about personal relationship.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	1	3.3%
Female	24	80.0%
Both	5	16.7%
Total	30	100.0%

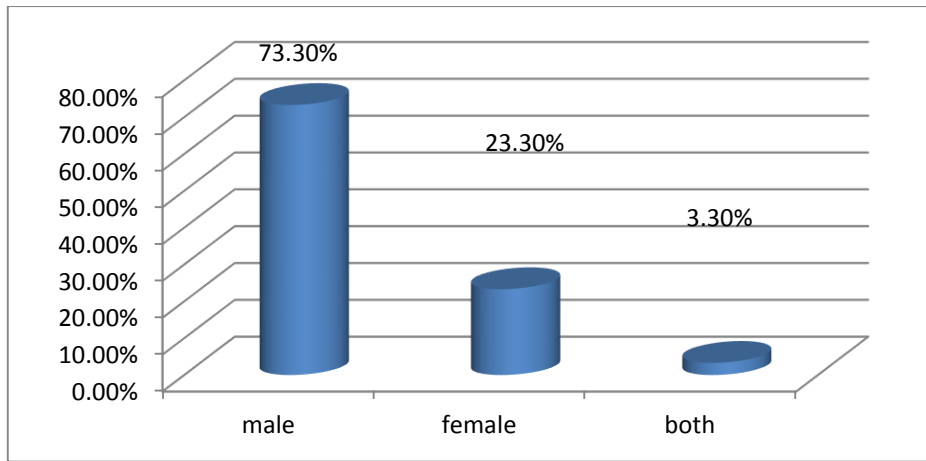


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (3.3%) , female (80%) ,and both (16%) ,so the highest percentage (80%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female tends to talk about personal relationship than male.

Table (5):

4.1.5 Prone to use swearing in their speech.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	22	73.3%
Female	7	23.3%
Both	1	3.3%
Total	30	100.0%

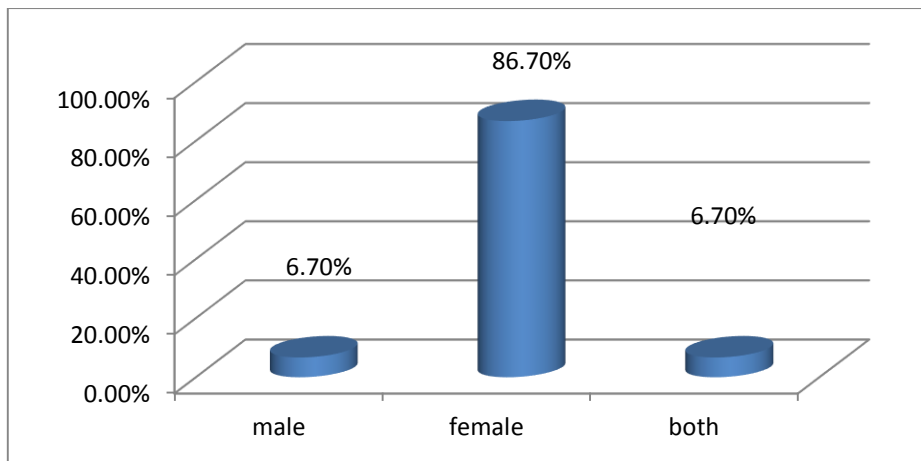


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (73.3%) , female (23.3%) ,and both (3.3%) ,so the highest percentage (73.3%) is going to direction of male answer, so that male prone to use swearing in their speech than female.

Table (6):

4.1.6 Talk about shopping, fashions, and child – rearing.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	2	6.7%
Female	26	86.7%
Both	2	6.7%
Total	30	100.0%



The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (6.7%) , female (86.7%) ,and both (6.7%) ,so the highest percentage (86.7%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female talk about shopping, fashions, and child – rearing than male.

4.1.7 Discussion of the results:

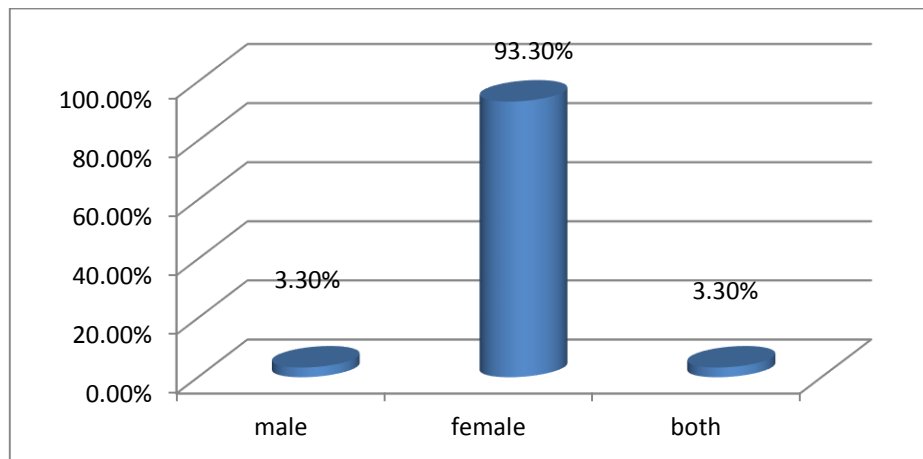
From the tables above (1,2,3,4,5,6) own hypothesis one: Women are difference in changing the topic of conversation more than men , we see that male tendency to talk about jobs, cars, sports, and firms than female. Female aptness to interruption in the middle of conversation than male. Female tends to gossip than male. Female tends to talk about personal relationship than male. Male prone to use swearing in their speech than female. Female talk about shopping, fashions, and child- rearing than male, so that the hypothesis one is achieved that means women are difference in changing the topic of conversation more than men.

4.2 Hypothesis two: Women use self disclosure more than men.

Table (7):

4.2.1 use more gestures and words signifying feeling emotion and psychological issues.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	1	3.3%
Female	28	93.3%
Both	1	3.3%
Total	30	100.0%

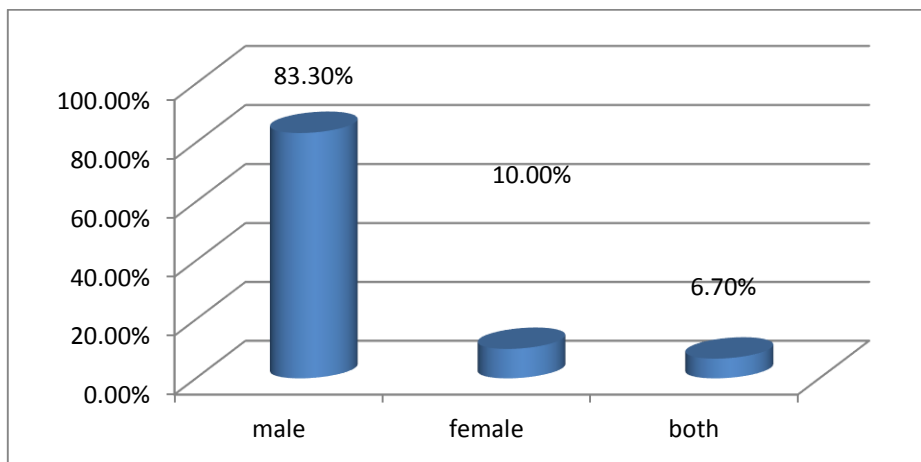


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (3.3%) , female (93.3%) ,and both (3.3%) ,so the highest percentage (93.3%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female use more gestures and words signifying feeling emotion and psychological issues than male.

Table (8):

4.2.2 Tend to non- self disclosure and professing advice or offering a solution when confronted with another's problems.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	25	83.3%
Female	3	10.0%
Both	2	6.7%
Total	30	100.0%

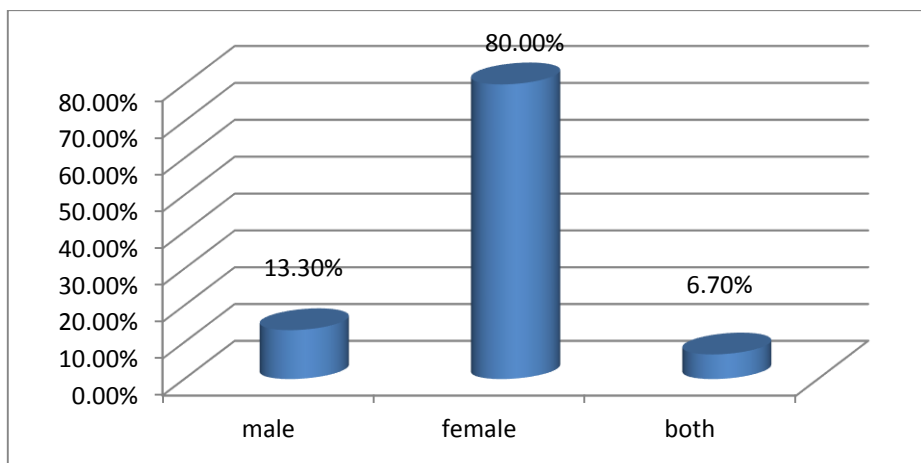


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (83.3%) , female (10%) and both (6.7%) ,so the highest percentage (83.3%) is going to direction of male answer, so that male tend to non- self disclosure and professing advice or offering a solution when confronted with another's problems

Table (9):

4.2.3 Sensitive and emotional in their language use.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	4	13.3%
Female	24	80.0%
Both	2	6.7%
Total	30	100.0%

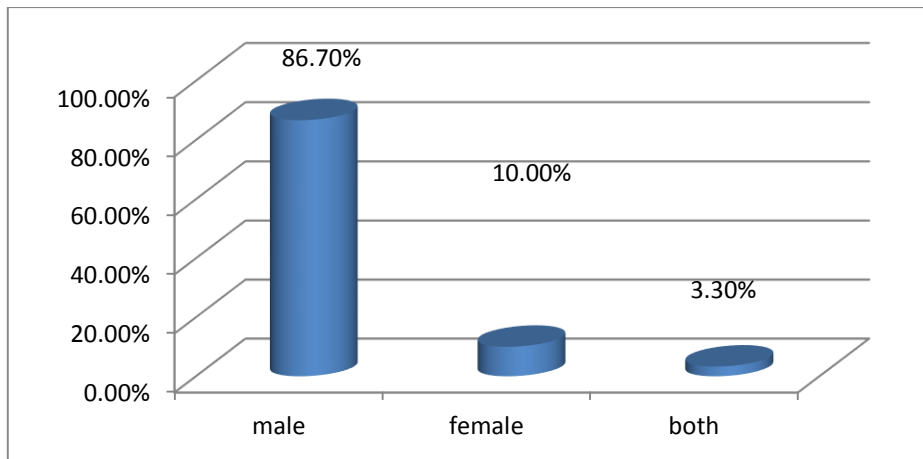


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (13.3%) , female (80%) ,and both (6.7%) ,so the highest percentage (80%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female sensitive and emotional in their language use than male.

Table (10):

4.2.4 Usually solve their problems by themselves.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	26	86.7%
Female	3	10.0%
Both	1	3.3%
Total	30	100.0%

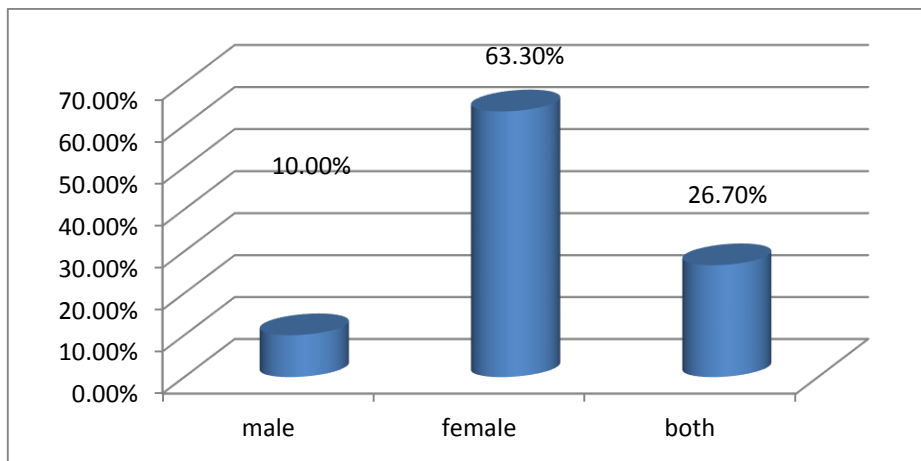


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (86.7%) , female (10%) ,and both (3.3%) ,so the highest percentage (86.7%) is going to direction of female answer, so that male usually solve their problems by themselves than female.

Table (11):

4.2.5 Tend to use intensifiers which regularly lead to hyperbole in their language use.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	3	10.0%
Female	19	63.3%
Both	8	26.7%
Total	30	100.0%

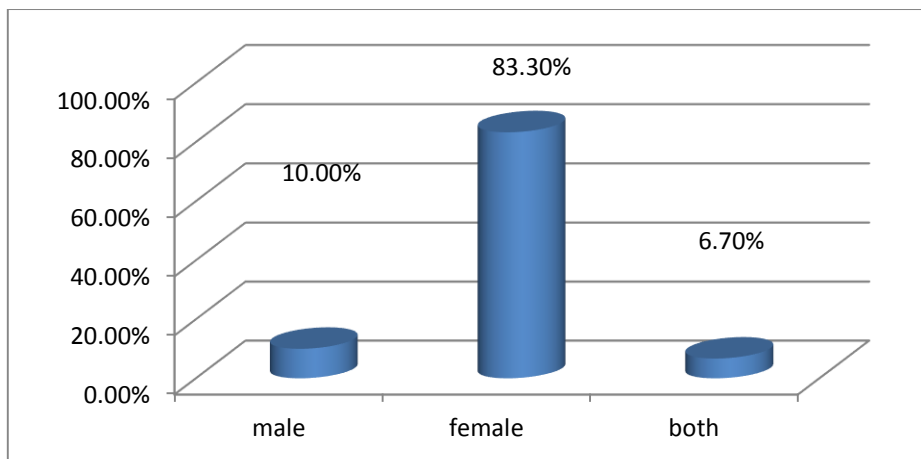


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (10%) , female (63.3%) ,and both (26.7%) ,so the highest percentage (63.3%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female end to use intensifiers which regularly lead to hyperbole in their language use than male.

Table (12):

4.2.6 Propensity to sharing their problems and experiences with others, often to offer sympathy.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	3	10.0%
Female	25	83.3%
Both	2	6.7%
Total	30	100.0%



The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (10%) , female (83.3%) ,and both (6.7%) ,so the highest percentage (83.3%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female propensity to sharing their problems and experiences with others , often to offer sympathy.

4.2.7 Discussion of the results:

From the tables above (7,8,9,10,11,12,) own hypothesis two: Women use self disclosure more than men. As the result of the questioner researcher found that: Female use more gestures and words signifying feeling emotion and psychological issues than male.

Male tend to non- self disclosure and professing advice or offering a solution when confronted with another's problems. Female sensitive and emotional in their language use than male. Male usually solve their problems by themselves than female. Female tend to use intensifiers which regularly lead to hyperbole in their language use than male.

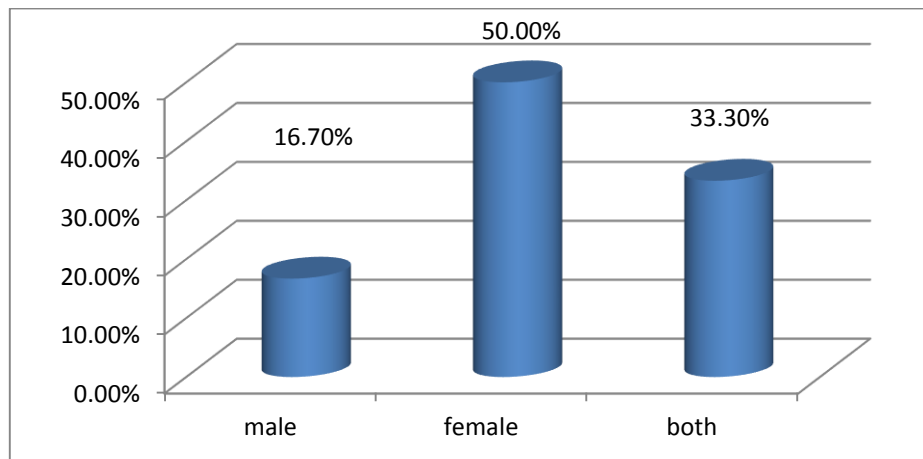
Female propensity to sharing their problems and experiences with others, often to offer sympathy than male. So that the hypothesis two is achieved that means women use self disclosure more than men.

4.3 Hypothesis three: Men and women are difference in using polite expressions in their language.

Table (13):

4.3.1 Tend to have good manners or etiquette.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	5	16.7%
Female	15	50.0%
Both	10	33.3%
Total	30	100.0%

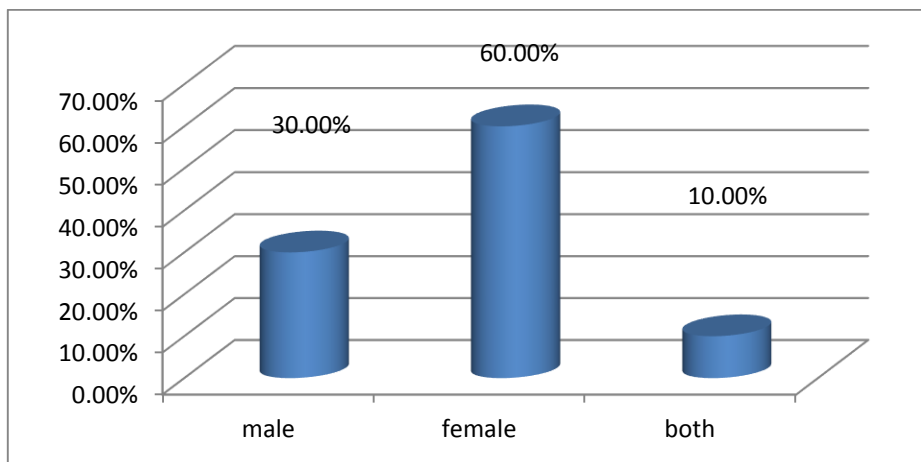


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (16.7%) , female (50%) ,and both (33.3%) ,so the highest percentage (50%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female tend to have good manners or etiquette than male.

Table (14):

4.3.2 Prone to use polite formula forms in their language use.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	9	30.0%
Female	18	60.0%
Both	3	10.0%
Total	30	100.0%

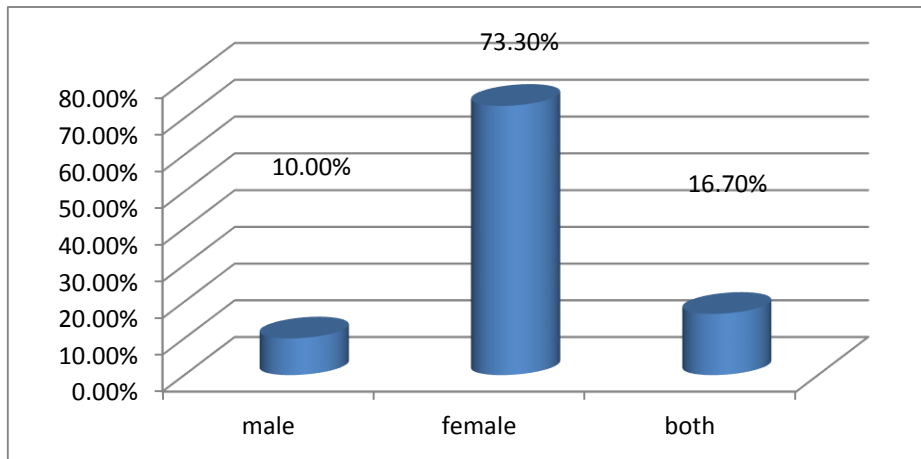


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (30%), female (60%), and both (10%), so the highest percentage (60%) is going to the direction of female answer, so that female is prone to use polite formula forms in their language use.

Table (15):

4.3.3 Tend to apologize.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	3	10.0%
Female	22	73.3%
Both	5	16.7%
Total	30	100.0%

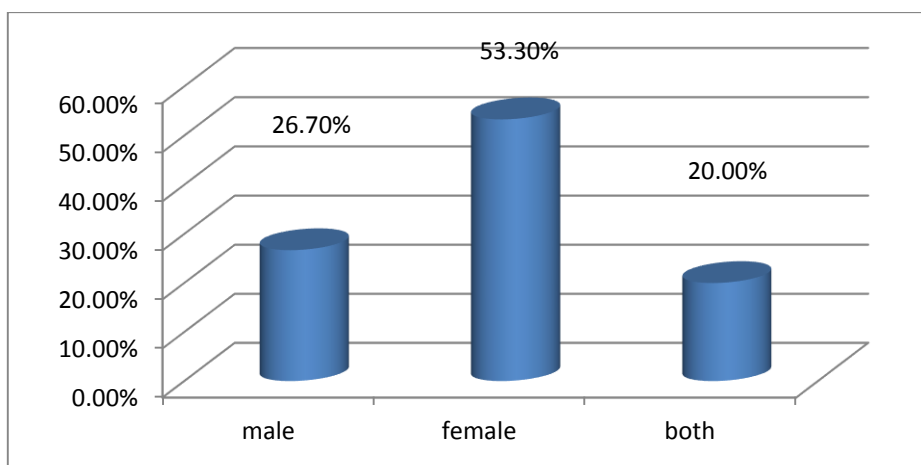


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (10%) , female (73.3%) ,and both (16.7%) ,so the highest percentage (73.3%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female tend to apologize.

Table (16):

4.3.4 More expressive and delicate in using language.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	8	26.7%
Female	16	53.3%
Both	6	20.0%
Total	30	100.0%

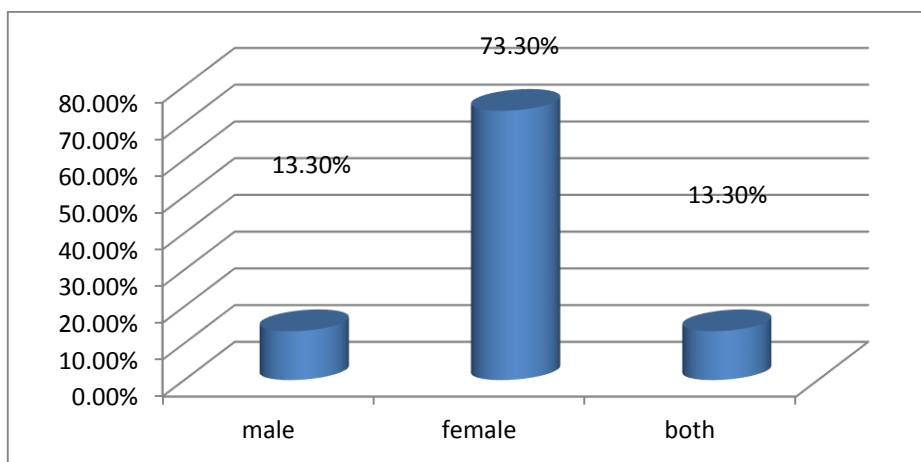


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (26.7%) , female (53.3%) ,and both (20%) ,so the highest percentage (53.3%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female more expressive and delicate in using language.

Table (17):

4.3.5 Speak more correctly because of being sensitive to the social implication of their speech.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	4	13.3%
Female	22	73.3%
Both	4	13.3%
Total	30	100.0%

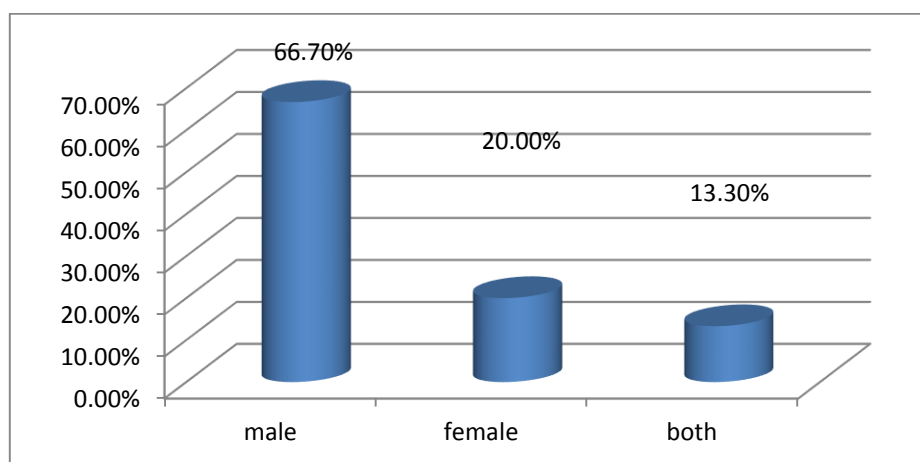


The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (13.3%) , female (73.3%) ,and both (13.3%) ,so the highest percentage (73.3%) is going to direction of female answer, so that female speak more correctly because of being sensitive to the social implication of their speech.

Table (18):

4.3.6 Tend to be more directive and use simple words in language used.

	Frequency	Percent
Male	20	66.7%
Female	6	20.0%
Both	4	13.3%
Total	30	100.0%



The result in the above table and figures points the answers of sample studies of statement and shows percentage in male (66.7%) , female (20%) ,and both (13.3%) ,so the highest percentage (66.7%) is going to direction of male answer, so that male tend to be more directive and use simple words in language used.

4.3.7 Discussion of the results:

From the tables above (13,14,15,16,17,18,) own hypothesis three men and women are difference in using polite expressions in their language .

Female tend to have good manners or etiquette than male. Female prone to use polite formula forms in their language use. Female tend to apologize. Female more expressive and delicate in using language female speak more correctly because of being sensitive to the social implication of their speech. Male tend to be more directive and use simple words in language used so that the hypothesis three is achieved that means men and women are different in using politeness expression in their language.

4.4 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter the researcher used descriptive method. The researcher used SPSS for data analysis which collected through using the questionnaire that distributed to thirty students from Sudan University of Science and Technology as a sample.

CHAPTER FIVE

Main findings, Summary, Recommendation and Suggestion Further Studies

5.0 Introduction

This chapter contains summary of the previous chapters, in addition the findings and recommendations which the study has come out with.

5.1 Findings of the Study

This study aimed to increase awareness towards the differences of using English language between men and women. The following are some of the major findings of the study.

1. Women are different in changing the topic of conversation more than men.
2. Men tendency to talk about jobs, cars, sports, and firms. And women talk about shopping, fashions, and child – rearing than men.
3. Women use self disclosure more than men.
4. Women use more gestures and words signifying feeling emotions and psychological issues than men, and men tend to non- self disclosure and usually try to solve their problems by themselves.
5. Men and women are different in using politeness expression in their language.
6. Women tend to have good manners or etiquette than men. Women prone to use polite formula forms in their language use. And women tend to apologize.

5.2 Summary

This study aimed to investigate the differences of using language between men and women. The first chapter presented a proposal of the study, while chapter two contains literature review and previous studies includes relevant information related to the research topic. Also chapter three presents methodology of the study which show the descriptive method and use a questionnaire as instrument, and selected randomly thirty students (fourth year) from Sudan university of science and technology, college of education English language department as a sample, while chapter four contain data analysis which the researcher used SPSS for data analysis, and chapter five contained the summary, findings and recommendations of the study.

5.3 Recommendations of the Study

The researcher recommends firstly, the students of linguistics in Sudan cover the field of sociolinguistics, because sociolinguistics play very important role in our life. Secondly, to supplied the field of sociolinguistics with relevant knowledge in order to contribute the information. Thirdly, sociolinguistics should be recognized as an important element in linguistics teaching process from the beginning.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

Based on the findings of this study.

1. Investigating the differences in using polite formula among gender.
2. Investigating the differences between men and women in speech.
3. To what extent how women use different language from men.
4. To explore the differences among gender in using self disclosure.

