

Gender Differences in the Use of Politeness Strategies in Formal Written Discourse by EFL Saudi Students

Maha Hamed Alsoraihi

Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics, College of Arts, Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University, Riyadh

Abstract

This study aims to examine the effect of gender on the use of specific politeness strategies in written discourse by EFL students. It contributes to the growing body of research on gender and writing. It suggests that linguistic politeness is one way that we construct our gender identity in written discourse. This study distinguishes between female and male written discourse by focusing on some linguistic politeness strategies which have been usually associated with female-typical language use. These strategies include: politeness units, questions, hedges, intensifiers and personal involvement. This study concludes that gender differences grow out of experience, learning, and self-definition in the family and in the culture. The concern with the influence of gender on learning is associated with the belief that men and women have differing learned roles, behaviors, and self-perceptions in society. Thus, the more a culture has an impact on the behaviors of men and women, the less freedom the latter have in manipulating their assigned social roles.

Introduction

During the last decades researchers have examined a number of emerging issues related to the broad topic of language and gender, including the study of gender role differences and their impact on male/female speech and communication styles (Smith, 1985; Coates, 1986; Philips, Steels, and Tanz, 1987). Research results in this area have confirmed the existence of clearly defined stereotypes for men and women as well as a high consensuality with respect to sex role perceptions. For example, women are generally perceived as less competent, less logical, and less objective than men, whereas men are perceived as lacking interpersonal sensitivity, warmth, and expressiveness compared to women (Ashmore & Tumia, 1980; Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Hargreaves & Colley, 1987).

Associated with the study of gender-linked differences in communicative styles, researchers have also raised questions about the likelihood of differences in the writing of men and women. Consistent with the socio-pragmatic trend in language studies, there has been a growth of interest in text, discourse analysis, and in the analysis of features of written texts (Watts, 2003; Ivy, 2007; Geyer, 2008). Consequently, the study of writing has taken on a new significance. This study aims to examine the effect of gender on the use of specific politeness strategies in written discourse by EFL students.

One way in which writing functions as a vehicle for constructing gender is by enabling writers to reflect upon and eventually reform the gender roles they assume in their lives (Watts, 2002; Geyer, 2008; Walkinshaw, 2009). That is, by favoring certain gender-typical stylistic features, a writer assumes a gendered identity along some continuum of female-to-male voice. Identifying those stylistic features, verifying their distribution by gender, determining their effect on readers' perceptions of writers' gender identity, and eventually determining their impact on readers' judgments of composition quality--these types of inquiries constitute the major thrusts of research on gender and writing. It suggests that linguistic politeness is one way that we construct our gender identity in written discourse (Mills, 2003; Ivy, 2007; Richardson & Robinson, 2008).

This study contributes to the growing body of research in gender and writing. It suggests that linguistic politeness is one way that we construct our gender identity in written discourse. This study applies to Saudi male and female students. Therefore, it is important to give a brief idea about the socio-cultural background of the Saudi society.

Socio- Cultural background of Saudi Society

The kingdom of Saudi Arabia occupies most of the Arabian Peninsula, the original homeland of the Arab people and Islam. The cultural identities Saudi Arabian citizens express are principally those of Muslim and Arab, linking them to millions of people beyond the nation's borders. Arabic is the language of all Saudi citizens. Classical Arabic (*fusha*) in the Quraan and modern standard forms is used for religious rituals, poetry, lectures, speeches, broadcast, written communications, and other formal purposes. Conversationally, people use colloquial Arabic. There are many sub-dialects and internal variants. English is the main second language.

Strict gender segregation is sanctioned by the society. Males and females who are not barred from marriage by incest rules should not interact in individual or group settings. Women may work in settings where they do not have contact with unrelated men (Al-Naqeeb, 1990).

Further, men have more rights than do women. Women are not allowed to drive and cannot travel abroad without the permission of a male guardian (*mahram*). Women are dependent on fathers, brothers, or husbands to conduct almost all their private and public business. They have to wear a veil and remain out of public view. However, women can own a property in their own names and invest their own money in business deals. Women's status is high in the family, especially in the roles of mothers and sisters. Significant numbers of women have had high levels of success in academia, literary productions, business, and other fields, yet their achievements go publically unmarked and they are barred from most aspects of public life (Al-Torki, 1999).

As part of the government's plan to develop human resources and change Saudi society, the King Abdullah Scholarship Program was introduced in 2005 to provide opportunities for Saudi students to continue their education abroad. This program provides financial and academic support. It is geared towards all fields, such as Medicine, Engineering, Science, Math and Computers. It includes all degree levels. Moreover, these students, their spouses and children receive monthly stipends. They also receive full tuition, medical and dental coverage. Annual roundtrip airline tickets for the students and their families are also provided.

This study is about Saudi males and females who have been given this opportunity to continue their studies in the USA through the King Abdullah Scholarship Program. This study investigates their use of politeness strategies in writing formal letters with the purpose of finding some differences and similarities which might be attributed to the cultural background these stu-

dents come from. The following section will shed some light on the basic concepts used throughout this paper.

Terminology

Before turning to a discussion of gender differences in using politeness strategies in written discourse, a brief note on terminology should be given. The distinction between the terms *gender* and *sex* has been noted in a number of studies (Deaux & Major, 1990; Poynton, 1985; Roen & Johnson, 1992; Schor, 1992; Ivy, 2007). However, Rhode (1990) reminds us of the interdependence of social and biological factors. In a fashion similar to West and Zimmerman (1991), Scott (1988) explains that gender is "a social category imposed on a sexed body" (p.32).

Although agreeing with the distinction, Coates and Cameron (1988) prefer the term *sex* to describe the social category because *gender* has a technical meaning for linguistics. In this study, both terms are used: *sex* to denote biological differences, and *gender*, as McConnell-Ginet (1985) does, to refer to the "complex of social, cultural, and psychological phenomena attached to sex" (p.76). Chodorow (1989), Thorne and Henley (1975), and Hymes (1974) agree with McConnell-Ginet's observation that the term *gender* "suggests an arbitrariness of conventionality in the sociocultural construction of the (nonsexual) significance of sex and sexuality" (p.77).

To invoke the term *gender*, as opposed to *sex*, is to presuppose that the essential factors that categorize one person as female and another as male are socially constructed (Kessler & McKenna, 1978; Watts, 2002). Gender is a psychosocial construct, and not simply a matter of biological contingency. This notion is acknowledged when speaking of gender in a verb-like sense: "doing gender" or "gendered identities" (e.g., West & Zimmerman, 1991; Howard III, 2005; Eriksen & Kress, 2008; Walkinshaw, 2009).

Further, the ubiquitous term *sex role* has not been defined with clarity; its usage differs across disciplines. That is, in anthropology sex role refers to social positions, in sociology to social relationships, and in psychology to behavior differences. In psychology, a pre-dominant view is that sex role refers to a set of behaviors and characteristics that are typical of men and women that are shaped by common social assumptions and expectations, and masculinity and femininity (Miller, 1986).

Writing is an important mode of action by which people gender themselves. One way in which writing functions as a vehicle for constructing gender is by enabling writers to reflect upon and eventually reform the gender roles they assume in their lives. This implies that language behaviors result from gender. Notably, gender is constructed individually and culturally (Kess-

ler & McKenna, 1979). As Robin (1988) notes, writing is a "human activity that constructs roles. Texts bring social contexts into existence" (p.13). Surely, therefore, writing is one behavior through which people do the work of constructing gender identities for themselves, one behavior through which people impose definitions of gender on contexts. Writing instruction in both traditional (Morahan, 1981) and nontraditional (Cooper, 1989) settings can profitably center on gender identity as a topical locus for student writing projects.

The following sections give a brief explanation of the importance of this study together with its questions, hypotheses, and a short survey of its theoretical framework.

Gender and oral /written language:

The most well-known study of gender differences in oral language is Lakoff's early work, *Language and Woman's Place* (1975). Although it has been widely criticized for its lack of empirical evidence, Coates (1986) noted that "it is the work that for many people marks the beginning to twentieth century linguistic interest in sex differences" (p.18). Although subsequently empirical research has not supported all of Lakoff's early claims, the body of research does suggest that men's language-use tends to be task-oriented, proactive and dominant while women's language tends to be social-emotional, reactive, and supportive (Aries, 1987; Gilligan, 1982). Moreover, Maltz & Borker (1982) claims that differences arise out of different sociolinguistic subcultures. They find, along with Coates (1988) and Tannen (1990), that the "most significant difference between male and female communicative competence is that men's conversational style is based on competitiveness, while women's is based on cooperativeness" (Coats, 1988, p.70).

Although much of the work in gender and language has focused on speech, scholars have also observed variations in written discourse. For example, Keroes (1990) provides empirical evidence suggesting that women are more likely to select topics focusing on interpersonal relationships, whereas men tend to choose topics emphasizing more autonomous themes. Thus, with the growing realization that speech and writing constitute systematically different means for the realization of meaning, the study of writing has taken on a new significance.

Therefore, this study contributes to the growing body of research on gender and language in written discourse by examining specific politeness strategies that males and females use to persuade others. Identity is dynamic and it is something that is presented and re-presented, constructed and reconstructed in interaction (including in written communication). As has been

mentioned earlier, much of the work in gender and language has focused on speech. However, writing (as this study suggests) is an important mode of action by which people gender themselves.

This study distinguishes between female and male written discourse by focusing on some linguistic politeness strategies which have been usually associated with female-typical language use. These strategies include: politeness units, questions, hedges, intensifiers and personal involvement. The following section will highlight briefly the questions and the hypotheses of this study.

Questions of the study:

- 1 - Do female students make use of these politeness strategies in their written discourse more frequently than male students do?
- 2 - Does gender as a social variable indeed influence the way we make use of these politeness strategies in a written discourse?
- 3 - Do male students really adopt a competitive style while female students adopt a cooperative style based on solidarity and support?

Study Hypotheses

- 1 - This study claims that females use these politeness strategies in written discourse with greater frequency than males do.
- 2 - This study claims that gender as a social variable does indeed influence the production of written discourse in formal settings.
- 3 - This study claims that male students adopt a competitive style while female students adopt a cooperative style based on solidarity and support.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework basic to this research is Brown's and Levinson's (1978) sociolinguistic theory of politeness. This theory is useful for the analysis of politeness strategies in persuasive discourse as they are used to redress face-threatening acts (FTAs). Since the initial articulation of this paradigm in 1978, it has been the key to a wide range of empirical studies. It has also been cited commonly in the sociolinguistic literature as an important construct of cross-cultural communication studies.

In Brown's and Levinson's terms, people use language to address face concerns. Politeness involves showing concern for two kinds of face needs: first, negative face needs or the need not to be imposed upon; and secondly, positive face needs, the need to be liked and admired. Consequently, polite

people avoid obvious face-threatening acts, such as insults and orders; they generally attempt to reduce the threat by softening such acts or expressing them indirectly.

Johnson (1992) explains that in peer reviews, FTAs are of two types. Although this study focuses on persuasive letters, the definitions still apply. First, the entire act of writing the letter is considered a face-threatening act because what often appears is negative criticism or strong disagreement. The entire act of letter writing, then, is hereafter referred to as a *global FTA*. Within the letter, writers use specific strategies such as questions, suggestions, and individual criticism to persuade. These are referred to as *specific FTA*.

Thus, this study is based on the framework which claims that linguistic politeness is, in fact, a gender typical linguistic feature. In the most general sense, linguistic politeness is concerned with "a special way of treating people, saying and doing things in such a way that takes into account another person's feelings" (Brown, 1980:114).

It is worth mentioning that Brown's and Levinson's work is based on the linguistic theory of Halliday (1985) and Halliday and Hasan (1985), which emphasizes the importance of the social functions of language. Because of their functional basis, units of politeness must be necessarily understood as semantic rather than syntactic phenomena.

As for hedges, in a 1980 study of women in a Mayan community, Brown finds that women in her sample used hedges with greater frequency than men did. Further, Coates (1986: 114) suggests that women exploit such forms in order to respect the face needs of all participants, to negotiate sensitive topics, and to encourage open discussion.

Moreover, Goody's article on polite questions (1978) provides the basis scheme for analyzing polite questions in this study. In her article, she identifies four main modes of questions and situates them along a continuum ranging from pure information questions which simply elicit a response, to deference questions which give advantage to the one questioned, to rhetorical questions and to balance questions which puts the questioner "one-up".

Furthermore, this study also makes use of a coding scheme suggested by Roen and Johnson (1992) who examine the use of personal pronouns as indicators of personal involvement. They assess the degree of explicit reference to oneself as measured by the use of first person pronouns, as well as the degree of explicit reference to the addressee as measured by the use of second person pronouns.

Review of Literature

Earlier studies of men's and women's written language reflected the correlation between gender and a limited set of formal abstract linguistic features. Hiatt's (1977) investigation studies a large corpus of male and female texts for sentence length and complexity, number of similes, and kinds of adjectives. Scates (1981) investigates male and female writing styles by analyzing word choice, syntax, and figurative language. Further, Keene (1985) examines freshmen composition for differences in length of composition, choice of vocabulary, and types of punctuation. Also, Peterson (1986) analyzes freshmen argumentative texts for coordination, deductive connections, personal references, and abstract generalizations. Moreover, Sterkel (1987) investigates differences by analyzing undergraduate students in business communications.

In their valuable work on gender-typical style in written language Rubin and Greene (1992) analyzes college students' spontaneous expressive writing and revised instrumental writing to lexical, syntactical, and text-level analyses for features previously linked to writer's gender. Their findings indicate that the writing of men and women is more similar than it is different and that both men and women adopt similarly and appropriately to the differing demands of the two types of discourse. Overall, this group of writing studies shows gender-based differences to be sex- preferential rather than sex- specific patterns, as no set of characteristics, linguistic or otherwise could be assigned to a single sex.

In contrast to these studies, another group of studies of differences in men's and women's writing has adopted a pragmatic orientation, such as analyzing differences in topic choice, vocabulary, content development, and themes of assertiveness and connectedness. Thus, Waters (1975) analyzes freshman themes for subject matter, word choice, perspective, and tone; Flynn (1988) examines topic choice in drafts and revisions of freshman essays; Keroes (1986) examines essays for identifiable differences based on male concerns relating to autonomy and female concerns relating to connectedness; and Lynch and Strauss-Knoll (1987) examine students' descriptive writing responses for differences in vocabulary. The results of these studies on differences in men's and women's written language are, at best, mixed. Male and female writing styles studied in the aforementioned groups seem to be more similar than different and the differences found are due more to modes of discourse than due to gender. Although it remains the case that

there is little agreement regarding differences in the writing of men and women, the questions and claims upon which these studies have been founded are suggestive.

In addition to gender differences in student writing, research has revealed that gender stereotypes may influence the way teachers respond to student writing. For example, secondary teachers tend to evaluate female writing more favorably than male writing (Baker, 1954; Donelson, 1963; Martin, 1970, 1972; National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1980; Roen, 1992; Stalnaker, 1941; Woodward & Phillips, 1967). Roulis (1990) also finds that university-level instructors rate female writers higher on socio-intellectual, aesthetic, and cooperative factors. Of course, some of these results may indicate that particular groups of women do, indeed, write more effectively than men do.

Flynn (1988) proposes that these stylistic differences may be attributable to women's affiliative rather than competitive interests. Flynn suggests that women may rely on identification and collaboration to resolve conflict. Lunsford and Ede (1990) also endorse collaboration as a "feminine" mode of composing. In spite of these mixed and inconclusive findings on argumentative styles of writing, recent scholarship has continued to criticize different modes of argumentation in favor of a feminist writing pedagogy (Cooper, 1989; Flynn, 1988; Gearhart, 1979; Lamb, 1991; Ivy, 2007; Richardson & Robinson, 2008).

Moreover, the concern with the influence of gender on learning is associated with the belief that men and women have differing learned roles, behaviors, and self perceptions in society so that a strong social construction of the assumption of power and control is brought into the classroom (Annas & Maher, 1992). Further, some studies have focused mainly on students' writing letters in order to examine their gender identities (Alkhatib, 2001; Biesenbach, 2007). Alkhatib's study (2001) displays the effect of gender on learning. This study focuses on personal letter writing as a mode of communication between an L2 writer and an L1 reader. It examines 120 personal letters in terms of the sociocultural background of the writers. It establishes a link between the type of material collected and its situational and cultural contexts.

Other Arabic studies have emphasized the fact that factors such as social differences, contextual differences, and identity differences enter into play in the daily performances of gender. These studies present contextua-

lized data where the main contribution to the field of gender studies in the Arab/Muslim world is to assert that understanding language and gender can be achieved only within a given socio-cultural context (Kharraki, 2000; Rashidi, 2000; Sadiqi, 2003).

Explanations for Gender Differences

Much of the current scholarship on gender and language has attempted to explain gender differences. Chodorow (1978) hypothesizes that, as a result of being parented primarily by a woman, men and women develop different gender identities. Through their early relationship with their mother, women develop a sense of self that is continuous with others. Men, on the other hand, develop a sense of self based on denial of this relationship. Thus, the female gender identity is based on a basic sense of connectedness, whereas the male gender identity is grounded in the belief in a separate self.

Building on Chodorow (1978) work, Gilligan (1982) proposes that women's epistemologies are grounded on an ethic of care and responsibility rather than an ethic of autonomy and justice. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) group women's perspectives on knowing into five major epistemological stances: silence, received knowledge, subjective knowledge, procedural knowledge, and constructed knowledge.

Three theories of gender differences have emerged from major studies. The first theory posits that linguistic differences might be the result of subcultural differences (Maltz & Borker, 1982; Tannen, 1982). This theory is particularly useful for describing variations within same-sex groups. However, Poynton (1985) considers this theory inadequate for describing variations in mixed-sex groups that she claimed are more accurately characterized as differences in power (see also West, 1984; West & Zimmerman, 1977). As Poynton observes, "men are culturally legitimated as powerful and women are not.... Hence, relations between women and men are culturally defined as between powerful and powerless and this shows up linguistically in a variety of ways" (pp. 84-85).

Miller (1976) extends Poynton's claim with the contention that women are repositories of qualities of affiliativeness, relatedness, empathy, and nurturance that are devalued and distorted in male-dominant culture and by men. Therefore, she recommends that women reclaim and revalorize these qualities. Moreover, Miller claims that women are characterized by greater sensitivity to nonverbal signals as well as greater expressions of vulnerability,

weakness, and helplessness than men. She theorizes that these qualities are due to the subordinate position of women which require them to please men as well as to express unacceptable emotional experiences such as vulnerability and helplessness. Men need to deny such emotional experience because they are incompatible with the characteristics of male identity, especially achievement.

The third theory of interest to current scholars is the psychological gender role or gender schema theory. This theory posits that an individual's gender orientation rather than his or her biological sex is the most important factor influencing written production (Bem, 1974, 198; Richardson & Robinson, 2008). Rubin and Greene (1992) find tentative support for this hypothesis, suggesting the need for further research in this area.

Methodology

Participants

As has been mentioned earlier, the participants of this study are Saudi male and female students who have been enrolled in the King Abdullah Scholarship Program in USA. Currently, there are more than 30,000 Saudi students in the USA who are exposed to one of the best educational systems in the world. Saudi Students (males and females), learning English as a foreign language in three USA universities, were asked to write in a form of a persuasive letter about a specific topic provided by the researcher. This mode of discourse encourages students to employ politeness strategies associated with a direct address. Data were collected from nearly 30 male students and 33 female students who were between the ages of 20 and 25 years old. Politeness strategies, hedges, questions, and intensifiers, were counted and analyzed as creating a gender identity of the writer. Results are presented in the form of tables followed by examples and discussion in order to validate the hypotheses of the study mentioned above.

This study has been carried out on Saudi students who have been successful in getting admission to follow their studies in three USA universities: The University of Texas, Austin, The University of Denver, Colorado, and Georgetown University in Washington DC. These students were enrolled in ESL programs in these three universities for nearly six months and were categorized at the advanced level. They were asked to write a letter to the Director of The Saudi Cultural Mission in response to a decision concerning limiting the activities of Saudi clubs as an attempt to lower the annual financial budgets of these clubs.

It is important to say that this study has nothing to do with the written styles or the quality of writing in general. This study focuses on some linguistic features (politeness strategies) as used by students to create their gender identity as males or females. Basically, students were asked to identify their age, gender, academic level, and nationality before writing the persuasive letter. Moreover, they were asked not to provide their names in order to give them the chance of expressing their ideas freely.

Procedures and Instruments:

Based on previous studies of male and female discourse practices in speech, a number of variables are used, such as politeness strategies (Brown and Levinson, 1978), polite questions (Goody, 1978; Keenan, Schieffelin, & Pratt, 1978), hedging (Belenky et al., 1986) and the use of intensifiers (Roen and Johnson (1992) and Wolfson (1989). Unlike Piché and Roen (1987), a study of cognition and writing, the primary lens for analysis of this study was the gender of the writer. As described earlier, students were asked to write a persuasive letter to express their concern about Saudi club activities in USA universities. Samples were collected, numbered, sorted, and analyzed by using both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. The overall results of the total politeness strategies were presented by using the SPSS program (Statistical Package for the Social Science). This program makes use of Levene's test which is used to assess variance homogeneity within two or more samples. Data were analyzed according to the following units of analysis:

Politeness strategies:

- P1: Express understanding
- P2: Seek one's understanding
- P3: Express appreciation or thanks
- P4: Reference to future resolution, consensus, or understanding
- P5: Express support
- P6: Express understanding but disagree

Questions:

- Q1: Asking for pure information
- Q2: Expressing interest in the addressee
- Q3: Masking or command an assertion
- Q4: Seeking agreement or consensus (Rhetorical)

Hedges:

H1: Hedge on a negative criticism

H2: Hedge on a complaint

H3: Hedge on a request

H4: Hedge on an offer

H5: Hedge on a suggestion

H6: Hedge on an insult

H7: Hedge on an assertion

H8: Hedge on a statement of agreement

Intensifiers & Personal Involvement

First- person pronoun

Second- person pronoun

Results & Discussion

Politeness Units.

A politeness unit is defined as a phrase or group of phrases that contain certain polite discourse strategies (see Brown and Levinson, 1978). This study examines the extent to which male and female students use politeness strategies in their persuasive letters: expressing understanding, seeking understanding, expressing appreciation or thanks, referring to future resolution, expressing support, and expressing understanding but disagreeing.

A common strategy was to precede a disagreement with an agreement (AGREE + DISAGREE). For example, one student in the study wrote: *"It would be possible to think of this decision as a solution, but practically many students do not agree with it"*. Another one wrote: *"I totally agree that these club activities do cost a lot of money, but I don't agree with the idea of eliminating some of these activities"*. These students tried to create a point of identification while at the same time disagreeing with the Director. Another polite discourse strategy was to acknowledge the validity of the addressee's points, arguments, or concerns. One student wrote: *"We really appreciate what you are doing for us as students,...but these activities are very important to our life here in the States."*. Another one wrote: *"I totally understand the decision, but we as students, might find our own solutions to help in supporting such activities"*. Another example for "expressing understanding" is what one student wrote: *"The decision might help in lowering the club's annual budget, but its impact on the spirit of the students will be great"*. Results in (Table.1 & Chart.1) show that female students made use of this politeness

strategy more than male students did, with the percentage of 77.08% for the females and 22.91% for the males.

Examining the strategy of seeking one's understanding, it is found that in this study female students made use of this strategy more than males did (see Tables.1& Chart.1) with the percentage of 78.66% for females and 21.33% for males. Examples of the use of such strategy are as follows:

- How about taking part in supporting these activities in our own way?
- Wouldn't be better to ask our students for help?
- Think of doing this in another way that wouldn't affect us.

Concerning the strategy of "expressing appreciation and thanks", the results show that almost all the students (males and females) concluded their letters with the use of this strategy. This is because it is well known that such form (a letter) usually ends with the use of such a politeness technique by almost all the people. However, the frequency of using such a strategy (see Table.1 & Chart. 1) illustrates that female students applied this strategy more than the male students did with the percentage of 56.2%.

As for the last three strategies, Table. 1& Chart.1 show that female students made use of them more than the male students did, with the percentage of 68.5% (females) and 31.49% (males) for referring to future resolutions, 72.77% (females) and 27.22% (males) for expressing support, and 74.09% (females) and 25.9% (males) for expressing understanding but disagree. These results definitely support the first hypothesis which claims that females make use of politeness strategies in their writing more than males do. Examples of these strategies are as follows:

Reference to future resolutions:

- It would be better if you suggest anything else we can do for the club.
- If you have other suggestions, please let us know.
- We are looking forward to meeting you to explain our views.
- I will be more happy if you take my letter in consideration and give us your suggestions.

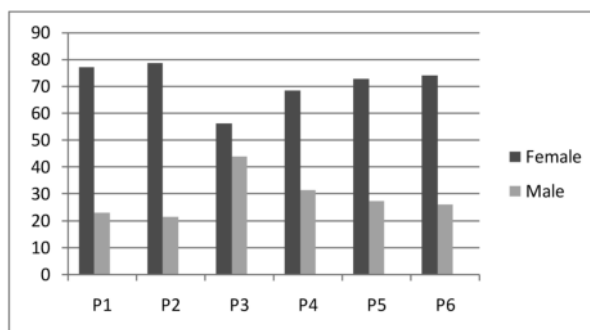
Expressing support:

- How about taking part in supporting these activities our own way?
- I really support your efforts, but we need another chance.
- I am sure we, as students, are ready to help.

The following table.1 & Chart.1 illustrate gender differences concerning the frequency use of politeness units mentioned above:

Politeness unit	Female no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage	Male no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage
P1:Express understanding	33	148	77.08%	30	44	22.91%
P2: Seek one's understanding	33	118	78.66%	30	32	21.33%
P3:Express thanks	33	77	56.2%	30	60	43.79%
P4: Reference to future resolutions	33	124	68.5%	30	57	31.49%
P5:Express support	33	139	72.77%	30	52	27.22%
P6:Express understanding but disagree	33	143	74.09%	30	50	25.9%

(Table.1: Gender differences in using politeness strategies)



(Chart.1: Gender differences in using politeness strategies)

Thus, Table.1 & Chart.1 show significant differences in the use of politeness strategies, especially the use of P1, P2, P4, P5, and P6. As for the third strategy "express thanks", all the student concluded their letters with making use of this strategy. However, female students scored higher than male students concerning frequency. These results support the hypothesis that claims females use politeness strategies in written discourse with greater frequency than males do. These results also go side by side with the results of the previous research

and studies mentioned throughout this paper. The following section discusses the findings and the statistical results concerning the strategy of asking questions by female and male students in their letter writing.

Questions

This study examines the use of questions as politeness strategies as Goody (1978) and Keenan et.al. (1978) do. Specifically, this study looks at four kinds of questions: asking for pure information, expressing interest in the addressee, masking a command or assertion, and seeking agreement. Table 3. illustrates the frequency of the use of these types of questions by male and female students. The results related to the use of questions as politeness units do not offer much support for the commonly made observation that females tend to use them more often than males do. It is found, in this study, that female students asked for pure information more than male students did with the percentage of 77.77% (see Table.2& Chart.2).

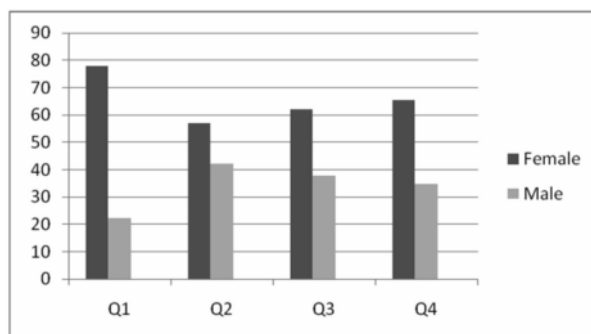
Examples of these types of questions as found in students' letters are :

- How many Saudi students in USA universities? (Asking for pure information)
- Do you think we don't appreciate your efforts? (Expressing interest in the addressee)
- Well, I just want to ask: do we have another option? (Masking a command or assertion)
- Don't you think we can fix this out? (Seeking agreement)

The following Table.2 & Chart.2 illustrate the frequency use of these types of questions by male and female students in their writing.

(Table.2: Gender Differences in the Use of Questions as Politeness Strategies)

Politeness unit	Female no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage	Male no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage
Asking for pure information.	33	14	77.77%	30	4	22.22%
Expressing interest in the addressee	33	11	57.89%	30	8	42.10%
Masking a command or assertion.	33	18	62.06%	30	11	37.93
Seeking agreement.	33	17	65.38%	30	9	34.61%



(Chart.2: Gender Differences in the Use of Questions as Politeness Strategies)

These results show the effect of gender on the students' writing. This might be attributed to the assumed suggestion in Saudi society that women talk a lot and consequently ask lots of questions. As it is noticed in Chart.2, female students asked lots of questions concerning type (1): "asking for pure information" which definitely reflects women's nature. However, male students scored high in asking the third type: "making a command or assertion" which also reflects men's tendency to gain power and act powerfully. Hedges which are typically related to females' tendency to respect the face of others will be discussed in the following section.

Hedges

Hedges are another politeness strategy examined in this study. Hedges are words or phrases which soften or weaken the force with which something is said. Hedges are typically adverbs, such as *just*, *quite*, *really*, *sort of*, which have very little meaning on their own (Koester, 2004, p.122). This study examined males' and females' use of hedges in their persuasive letters to the Director of the Cultural Mission. In particular, an emphasis is made on looking at hedging of the negative criticism, complaints, requests, promises, offers, suggestions, insults, assertions, and agreement.

Throughout the collected samples, it is noted that hedging an offer was linearly dependent on others. Only hedging on assertions yielded significant results (see Table.3). Consequently, several logically related kinds of hedges are combined, as described by Brown and Levinson (1978): hedging threats to others' positive face, hedging threats to others' negative face, hedging threats to own positive face, and hedging threats to own negative face. To do this, several logically related hedges are assumed into the following categories suggested by Brown and Levinson: (a) hedging threats to others' positive face: hedges on negative criticism + hedges on complaints + hedges on suggestions + hedges on insults + hedges on assertions of

propositions; (b) hedging threats to others' negative face: hedges on requests + hedges on suggestions; (c) hedging threats to own positive face: hedges on suggestions + hedges on assertions of propositions; and (d) hedging threats to own negative face: hedges on promises + hedges on offers. Example from the collected samples are:

Hedging assertions:

- I think, coming activities will cost less than before.
- We think this decision will help us in reconsidering our limits.
- I believe this will not happen again.

Hedging threats to others' positive face:

- Well, is this the only solution to save money?
- I think, money is all what you think about "people"!
- I believe, you are far away from the real problem.

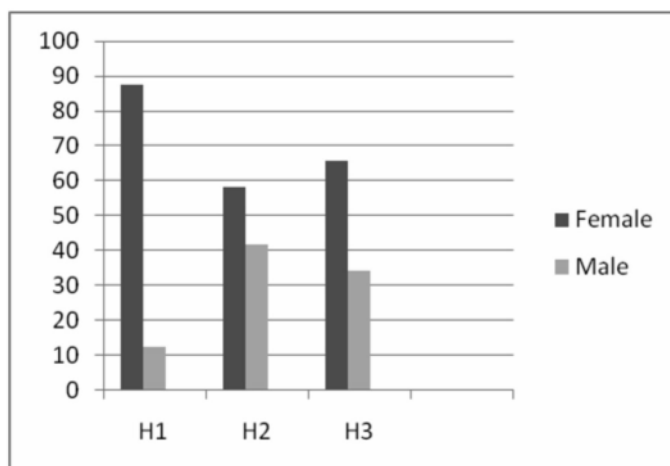
Hedging threats to own positive face:

- I believe, it would be helpful if we understand our options.
- Well, let's think of it and give ourselves another chance.
- Well, how about trying to have these activities within the new limits?

In this categorization, two of these four analyses yielded significant results: hedging threats to others' and own positive face. These results, especially the last two dealing with positive face, support the observations of many scholars (Deuchar, 1988; Johnson & Roen, 1992; Roen and Johnson and Roen, 1992) whose research suggests that females do attend to positive face more than males do (see Table.3 & Chart.3). There are several possible reasons for this attention: women lack social power (Deuclar, 1988; Hekman, 1990; Poynton, 1989); they desire to facilitate verbal interaction (Coates, 1988a; Gilligan, 1982; Tannen, 1986).

Table.3: Gender Differences in the Use of Hedges

Variable	Female no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage	Male no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage
Hedging Assertions	33	63	87.5%	30	9	12.5%
Hedging threats to others' positive face	33	14	58.33%	30	10	41.66%
Hedging threats to own positive face	33	23	65.71%	30	12	34.28%



(Chart.3:Gender Differences in the Use of Hedges)

Intensifiers and Personal Involvement

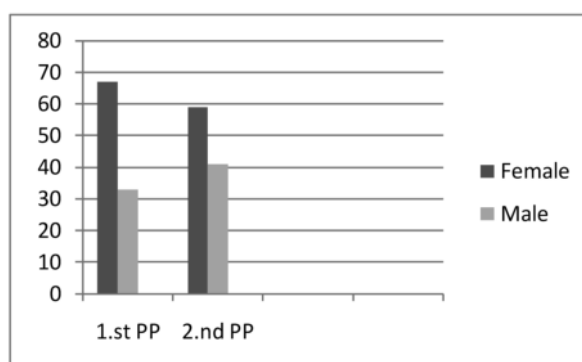
The literature on politeness theory suggests that women intensify their compliments more than men do (Wolfson, 1989; Roen and Johnson, 1992). In this study, it is noted that the use of intensifiers is generally less because of the greater formality of the setting, the seriousness of the topic, the written modality, and the situational equality of the participants. However, it is also found that women did use significantly more compliments intensifiers (such as *very interesting*, *really enjoyed*, *actually*, etc. than did men in this study.

To examine personal involvement in the politeness strategies applied in this study, two pronouns are counted: first and second- person pronouns that appeared within the politeness units described previously (except in questions). Results yielded no significant differences on any of these measures (see Table.4 & Chart.4). These results contradicted those of earlier studies (Herbert, 1990; Johnson, 1989,1992; Johnson and Roen, 1992; Roen and Johnson, 1992; Rubin and Greene, 1992; Wolfson, 1989a) that have found gender differences in personal involvement and intensifiers. It may be that in politeness strategies other than compliments, personal involvement, and intensifiers serve a less important interpersonal function (Hlliday, 1978, 1985; Halliday and Hasan, 1985).

The following table, 4 and Chart, 4 illustrate gender differences concerning the frequency use of the strategy of personal involvement found in this study.

Table 4: Gender Differences in the use of First and Second- Person Pronouns

Personal Involvement	Female no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage	Male no.	Frequency of usage	Percentage
First-person pronoun	33	79	66.94%	30	39	33.05%
Second- person pronoun	33	33	58.92%	30	23	41.07%



(Chart 4: Gender Differences in the Use of First and Second- person pronouns)

It is interesting to note that men, in this study, exhibited high relative frequencies of certain features. Concerning second- person pronoun, male students scored a percentage of 41.07% which is higher in frequency than the other personal involvement strategy. This definitely reflects men's attitude towards exercising power and authority. First person pronoun constitutes one example- that had been conceptually linked to women's discourse. This study reflects this concept with the percentage of 66.94% as found in females' written letters. Examples of the use of these strategies are:

First -person pronoun:

- I agree that these activities cost a lot.
- Sometimes, I wonder if we can afford it.
- I really appreciate your understanding and concern.

Second- person pronoun:

- We really appreciate what you are doing.
- It would be better if you give us your suggestions.

- I believe, you are far away from the real problem.

Further, it is worth mentioning that throughout this study, not enough data were found to support or validate the hypothesis mentioned earlier which claims that males adopt a competitive style while females adopt a cooperative one. This might be due to the formality of the setting and the choice of one single topic to write about. Studies which prove such hypothesis mostly rely on the variety of types of topics chosen by males and females which genuinely reflect their competitive or cooperative styles.

Overall results of the frequency use of politeness strategies

This section discusses the overall results of the total frequency usage of the politeness strategies by female and male students. These results are calculated by using the SPSS program which makes use of Levene's test which can assess variance homogeneity within the two groups. These results are presented through the following two tables (5 & 6). The first table presents the descriptive statistics while the second one presents the inferential statistics.

Table 5: The Average Use of the Politeness Strategies by M&F

Gender & PS		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
F	T PU	33	22.6970	3.21602	.55984
M		30	9.8333	2.65334	.48443
F	T Q	33	1.8750	.83280	.14722
M		30	1.2308	.42967	.08427
F	T H	33	3.0303	1.07485	.18711
M		30	1.1923	.40192	.07882
F	T Pi	33	3.3636	1.27029	.22113
M		30	2.0667	.82768	.15111
F	Total	33	30.9091	3.78619	.65909
M		30	14.0000	2.80394	.51193

The above table gives the descriptive statistics for the average use of the politeness strategies by the two groups: male and female students. In this table, N refers to the total number of each group (33 females & 30 males). The next column refers to the average use of each strategy followed by the

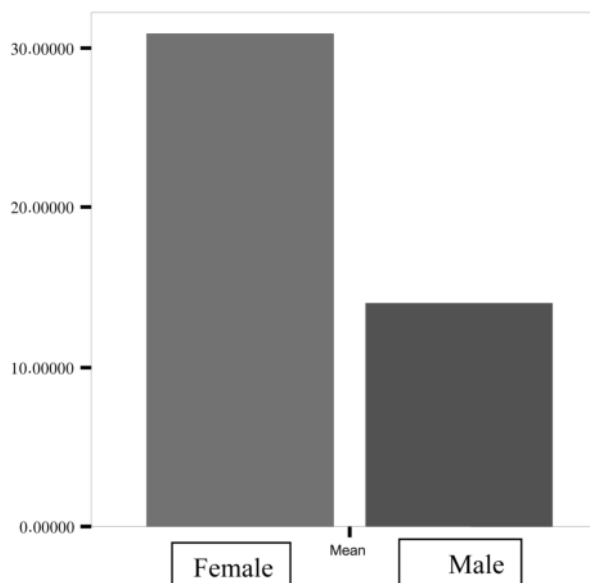
standard deviation of the frequency use of each strategy. The last column gives the standard error of the mean for each group. Standard error of the mean is a measure of how much the value of the mean may vary from sample to sample taken from the same distribution. These results can be explained further by examining the following table:

Table 6:Independent Samples Test: Levene's Test for Equality of Variance

Politeness Strategies		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
T PU	Equal variances assumed	2.365	.129	17.216	61	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			17.375	60.459	.000
T Q	Equal variances assumed	8.048	.006	3.573	56	.001
	Equal variances not assumed			3.798	48.222	.000
T H	Equal variances assumed	9.206	.004	8.264	57	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			9.053	42.647	.000
T PI	Equal variances assumed	8.158	.006	4.749	61	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			4.842	55.509	.000
Total	Equal variances assumed	4.915	.030	19.977	61	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			20.261	58.688	.000

This above table (6) represents the second part of the output which gives the inferential statistics. The first column represents the politeness strategies used in this study with the abbreviations: T PU (Total Politeness Units), T Q (Total Questions), T H (Total Hedges), and T PI (Total Personal Involvement). The columns labeled "Levene's Test" tell us whether an assumption of the t-test has been met. The t-test assumes that the variability of each group is approximately equal. The column labeled "Sig." under the heading of Levene's Test shows the significance of the p value of the t-test. If the significance of this test is less than 0.05, then variances are significantly different. In this study, the significance value is 0.01. In this case, we should look at the bottom row of the output (the row labeled "Equal variances not assumed"). The column labeled "t" gives the observed or calculate t value. The column

labeled "Sig. (-2 tailed)" gives the two tailed p value associated with the test. Thus, the t-test revealed a satisfactory reliable differences between the two groups. The following graphic chart illustrates the overall results of this study concerning the frequency use of politeness strategies:



(Chart 5:Mean Statistics)

Thus, the overall results of the frequency usage of the politeness strategies in the writing of male and female students in this study go side by side with those previous studies which claimed that women use polite strategies in their speech or written outcome more frequently than men do. These results support the first and hypotheses mentioned early in this study.

To sum up, this study contributes to the growing body of research on gender and language in written discourse by examining specific politeness strategies that EFL students (male and female) use to persuade others. As Roen and Johnson (1992) note, there are social consequences, both positive and negative, for using linguistic strategies associated with male and female language.

Whatever theory might be used to explain the kinds of gender differences that are found, Chodorow (1989) reminds us that gender differences must be represented as points on a continuum rather than as absolute dichotomies. Moreover, Chodorow insists that these differences should be

conceptualized as both psychologically and socially situated; these differences grow out of experience, learning, and self-definition in the family and in the culture. In short, this study supports Chodorow's conclusion when she states that these differences do not necessarily imply distinctness and separateness; rather, they represent a particular way of being connected to others. We should think of these differences as processual; they are created and situated rather than permanent.

Conclusion and Implications

To understand writing as a kind of gendering activity, we would need to become privy to how people negotiate their gender identities in interaction with different aspects of rhetorical context. No doubt this study, would require rich and diverse data. Several writing samples are needed to be collected in order to know how the process of writing strengthen, weaken, or redefine the writer's own sense of gender identity.

This study draws attention to reconsidering the differing academic experience men and women receive in elementary, intermediate, secondary, and higher education. The concern with the influence of gender on learning is associated with the belief that men and women have differing learned roles, behaviors, and self-perceptions in society so that the strong social construction of the assumption of power and control is brought into the classroom. Thus, the more a culture has an impact on the behaviors of men and women, the less freedom the latter have in manipulating their assigned social roles.

Consistent with these assumptions then are the specific notions of what education is, what the proper roles of students and teachers are, and what the appropriate techniques for evaluations are. Thus, the endeavor for the growing research on gender studies is to explore issues of gender, gender equality, and differences in the ways males and females write, think, speak, read, and participate in the classroom.

This study is considerably more modest in scope than the research outlined throughout this study. Still, it may furnish some tentative notions about writing and gender. It also may show how researchers use writing as an opportunity for exploring what it means to be a gendered person. In that way, learning to write and developing gender are part of the same process.

Finally, it must be emphasized that gender is assigned and perceived only within the value system of a specific culture. It is only inside a culture that gender performance acquires meaning. Therefore, this study raises important questions about gender, politeness, and language usage that need to be further investigated. Language and gender in Saudi Arabia is a worthwhile project that can benefit feminist linguistics and women studies at large.

Works Cited

- Alkhatib, M. "The Pragmatics of Letters". *World Englishes* 20. 2 (2001): 179-200. Print.
- Al-Naqeeb, Khaldoun. "Society and State in the Gulf and Arab Peninsula". *International Journal of Middle East Studies* 25 (1993): 539-51. Print.
- Al-Torki, Soraya. *Women in Saudi Arabia: Ideology and Behavior among the Elite*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1996. Print.
- Annas, P., & Maher, F. "Feminist Pedagogies and Differences in the Classroom". *Radical Teacher* 42. 2 (1992). Print.
- Aries, E. "Gender and Communication". *Sex and Gender*. Eds. P. Shaver & C. Hendrick. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 1987. 149-176. Print.
- Ashmore, R. D. & Tumia, M. L. "Sex Stereotypes and Implicit Personality Theory: A Personality Description Approach to the Assessment of Sex Role Stereotypes". *Sex Roles* 6 (1980): 501-518. Print.
- Baker, W.D. "In Investigation of Poor Writers". *College Composition and Communication* 5 (1954): 23-27. Print.
- Belenky M., Clinchy B., Goldberger N., & Tarule J. *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice, and Mind*. New York: Basic Books, 1986. Print.
- . "Gender Schema Theory: A Cognitive Account of Sex Typing". *Psychological Review* 88 (1981): 354-364. Print.
- . "The Measurement of Psychological Androgyny". *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 42 (1974): 155-162. Print.
- Biesenbach, S. "Students Writing Emails to Faculty: an Examination of E-politeness among Native and Non-native Speakers of English". *Language, Learning & Technology* II (2007): 82-112. Print.
- Brown P., & Levinson S. "Universals in Language Usage: Politeness Phenomena". *Questions and Politeness Strategies in Social Interaction*. Ed. E. N. Goody. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978. 56-289. Print.
- Brown, Penelope. "How and Why Are Women More Polite: Some Evidence from Mayan Community." *Women and Language in Literature and Society*. Eds. Sally McConnell-Ginet; Ruth Broker & Nelly Furman. New York: Praeger, 1980. 111-49. Print.
- Broveman, I. K., Vogel, S. R., Broveman, D. M. Clarkson, F. E., Rosenkrantz, P. S. "Sex-role Stereotypes: A Current Appraisal". *Journal of Social Issues* 28 (1972): 59-78. Print.

- Chodorow, N. J. *Feminism and Psychoanalytic Theory*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1989. Print.
- Coates, J. *Women, Men, and Language*. London: Longman, 1986. Print.
- Coates, J., & Cameron D. Eds. *Women in their Speech Communities*. New York: Longman, 1988. Print.
- Cooper, M. M. "Women's Way of Writing". *Writing as Social Action*. Eds., M. M. Cooper & M. Holzman. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook, 1989. 141-156. Print.
- Deaux, Ed. D. L. K., & Major B. "A Social-Psychological Model of Gender". *Theoretical Perspectives on Sexual Difference*. Rhode, New Haven, CT: Yale University Press 1990. 89-99, 215-278. Print.
- Deuchar, M. "A Pragmatic Account of Women's Use of Standard Speech". *Women in Their Speech Communities*. New York: Longman, 1988. 27-32. Print.
- Donelson, K. L. "Variables Distinguishing Between Effective and Ineffective Writers at the Tenth Grade Level" (Vinton). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 24, 2734A. 1963, (University Microfilms, No. 63-07998).
- Emig, J. *The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1971. Print.
- Eriksen, K. & Kress V. "Gender Diagnosis: Struggles and Suggestions for Counselors". *Journal Counseling and Development* 86 (2008): 23-32. Print.
- Farrell, T. J. "The Female and Male Modes of Rhetoric". *College English* 40 (1979): 909-921. Print.
- Flynn, E. "Composing as a Woman". *College Composition and Communication* 39 (1988): 423-435. Print.
- . "Politicizing the Composing Process and Women's Ways of Interacting: A Response to A Conversation with Mary Belenky." *Journal of Advanced Composition* 11 (1991): 173-178. Print.
- Fuller, M. "The Great Lawsuit: MAN Versus MEN. WOMAN Versus WOMEN". (1979). In R.
- Gottesman, L. B. Holland, D. Kalstone, F. Murphy, H. Parker, & W. H. Pritchard, Eds. *The Norton Anthology of American Literature* Vol. 1,. New York: Norton, 1384-1425. Print. (Reprinted from *Boston Dial*, July 1843, 4, 1-47).
- Gearhart, S. M. "The Womanization of Rhetoric". *Women's Studies International Quarterly* 2 (1979): 195-201. Print.

- Gilligan, C. "In a Different Voice". *Psychological Theory and Women's Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1982. Print.
- Geyer, Naomi. *Discourse and Politeness*. London: Continuum, 2008. Print.
- Goodwin M. H., & Goodwin C. "Children's Arguing". *Language, Gender, and Sex in Comparative Perspective*. Eds. S.U. philips, S. Steek, & C. Tanz. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1987: 200-248. Print.
- Goody, E. N. "Towards a Theory of Questions". Ed. E. N. Gooday. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978. 17-43. Print.
- Halliday, M. A. K. *An Introduction of Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold, 1985. Print.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan R. *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social Semiotic Perspective*. Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press, 1985. Print.
- Hargreavaes, D. J., & Colley, A. *The Psychology of SexRoles*. London: Hemisphere, 1987. Print.
- Henley, N. M., & Kramarae C. "Gender, Power, and Miscommunication". *Miscommunication and Problematic Talk*. Coupland, H. Giles, & J. M. Wiemann, Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 1991. 18-43. Print.
- Hiatt, M. *The Way Women Write*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1977. Print.
- Holmes, J. "Language and Gender". *Language Teaching*, 24 (1991): 207-220. Print.
- Howard, Iii, J. "Watts, R.J". *Women and Language* 28 (2005): 45-51. Print.
- Hymes, D. *Foundations in Sociolinguistics*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1974. Print.
- Ivy, Diana. *Gender Speak: Personal Effectiveness in Gender Communication*. London: Allyn & Bacon, 2007. Print.
- Johnson, D. M., & Roen D. H. "Complimenting and Involvement in Peer Reviews: Gender Variation". *Language in Society* 21 (1992): 27-57. Print.
- Kharraki, A. "Gender Differences in Politeness Strategies Among Moroccan Arabic Speakers". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Oujda: Mohamed I University, 2000. Print.
- Keene, N. A. "Male/Female Language: A Stylistic Analysis of Freshman Compositions". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertaton, Illinois State University. 1985.
- Keenan, E. O., Schieffelin B. B., & Pratt M. "Questions of Immediate

- Concern". *Questions and Politeness: Strategies in Social Interaction*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978. 44-55. Print.
- Keroes, J. "But what do they Say? Gender and the Content of Student Writing". *Discourse Processes* 13 (1990): 243-257. Print.
- Koester, A. *The Language of Work*. London: Routledge, 2004. Print.
- Lakoff, R. *Language and Women's Place*. New York: Harper & Row, 1975. Print.
- Lamb, C. E. "Beyond Argument in Feminist Composition". *College English* 42 (1991):11-24. Print.
- Lunsford, A., & Ede, L. "Rhetoric in a New Key: Women and Collaboration". *Rhetoric Review* 8 (1990): 234-241. Print.
- Lynch, C., & Strauss-Noll M. "Mauve Washers: Sex Differences in Freshman Writing". *English Journal* 76 (1987): 90-94. Print.
- Maltz, D. N., & Borker, R. A. "A Cultural Approach to Male-Female Miscommunication". *Language and Social Identity*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1982. 196-261. Print.
- Martin, W. D. "The Sex Factor in Grading Composition". *Research in the Teaching of English* 6 (1972): 36-47. Print.
- McConnell-Ginet, S. "Language and Gender". *Linguistics: The Cambridge Survey*. Ed. F.J. Newmeyer. Vol. 4. *Language: The Socio-Cultural Context*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1985: 75-99. Print.
- Miller, J. B. *Toward a New Psychology of Women*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1976. Print.
- Mills, S. *Gender and Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- National Assessment of Educational Progress. (1980). *Writing Achievement, 1969-79. Results from the Third National Writing Assessment*. Vol. 1. *Denver: Education Commission of the States* (2003).
- Peterson, S.L. "Sex-based Differences in English Argumentative Text: A Tagmemic Sociolinguistic Perspective". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Texas, Arlington, 1986.
- Piché, G. L., & Roen D. H. "Social Cognition and Writing: Interpersonal Cognitive Complexity and Abstractness and the Quality of Students' Persuasive Writing". *Written Communication* 4 (1987): 68-89. Print.
- Philips, S., Steel, S., & Tanz, C. *Language, Gender and Sex in Comparative Perspective*. London : Cambridge University Press, 1986. Print.

- Poynton, C. *Language and Gender: Making the Difference*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 1985. Print.
- Preisler, B. *Linguistic Sex Roles in Conversation: Social Variation in the Expression of Tentativeness in English*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 1986. Print.
- Rashidi, L. "The Interface of Language and Gender in Morocco". *Feminist Movements: Origins and Orientations*. Eds. Sadiq, S. Et. al. Faculty of Letters Dhar El Meharz, Fes, 2000. Print.
- Richardson, Diane & Victoria Robinson. *Introducing Gender and Women Studies*. London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2008. Print.
- Roen, D. H., & Johnson D. M. "Perceiving the Effectiveness of Written Discourse Through Gender Lenses: The Contribution of Complimenting". *Written Communication* 9 (1992): 435-464. Print.
- Roulis, E. "The Relative Effect of Gender-linked Language Effect and a Sex Role Stereotype Effect on Readers' Responses to Male and Female Argumentative-Persuasive Writing". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1990. Print.
- Rubin, D. L., & Greene K. "Gender-typical Style in Written Language". *Research in the Teaching of English* 26 (1992): 7-40. Print.
- Sadiqi, Fatima. *Women, Gender and Language in Morocco*. Boston: Bill, 2003. Print.
- Scates, C. M. "A Sociolinguistic Study of Male/Female Language in Freshman Composition". Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg, 1981. Print.
- Schor, N. "Feminist and Gender Studies". *Introduction to Scholarship in Modern Languages and Literatures*. Ed. J. giibaldi. New York: Modern Language Association, 1992. 262-287. Print.
- Scott, J. *Gender and the Politics of History*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1988. Print.
- Smith, P. *Language, the Sexes and Society*. Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell 1985. Print.
- Stalnaker, J. M. "Sex Differences in the Ability to Write". *School and Society* 54 (1941): 532-535. Print.
- Sterkel, K. S. "The Relationship Between Gender and Writing Style in Business Communications". Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, Greekey, 1987. Print.
- Tannen, D. "Ethnic Style in Male-female Conversation". *Language and Social*

- Identity*. Ed. J.J. Gumperz. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press 1982. 217-231. Print.
- Tannen, D. *You Just Don't Understand*. New York: Morrow, 1990. Print.
- Thorne B., & Henley N. "Difference and Dominance: An Overview of Language, Gender, and Society". *Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance*. Eds. B. Trane & N. Henley . Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1975. 5-42. Print.
- Thorne B., Kramarae C., & Henley N. "Language, Gender and Society: Opening a Second Decade of Research". *Language, Gender and Society*. Eds. B. Trorne, C. Kramare & N. Hantey. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House/Harper & Row, 1983. 7-24. Print.
- Walkinshaw, Ian. *Learning Politeness: Disagreement in a Second Language*. (Contemporary Studies in Descriptive Linguistics) London: Peter Lang Publishing, 2009. Print.
- Watts, Richard. "From Polite Language to Educated Language: the Re-emergence of Ideology", *Alternative Histories of English*. London: Routledge, 2002. Print.
- Watts, Richard. *Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003. Print.
- Waters, B. L. "She Writes like a Woman". Paper Presented to at the Southeast Conference on Linguistics, Atlanta (1975).
- West, C. "When the Doctor is a Lady". *Symbolic Interaction* 7 (1984): 87-106 Print.
- West C., & Zimmerman D. H. "Doing Gender". *The Social Construction of Gender*. Eds. J. Lorber & S. A. Farrell. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 1991. Print.
- Wolfson, Nessa. " Pretty is as Pretty Does: A Speech Act View of Sex Roles." *Applied Linguistics* 5.3 (1984): 236- 44. Print.
-

مجلة دراسات الخليج والجزيرة العربية



مجلة علمية فصلية محكمة تصدر عن مجلس النشر العلمي - جامعة الكويت
صدر العدد الأول منها في يناير عام 1975م

رئيس التحرير
أ.د. بدر عمر العمر

ترحب المجلة بنشر البحوث والدراسات العلمية المتعلقة بشؤون
منطقة الخليج والجزيرة العربية في مختلف علوم البحث والدراسة .

ومن أبوابها

- البحوث العربية.
- البحوث الإنجليزية.
- ملخصات الرسائل الجامعية:
- ماجستير - دكتوراه.
- عرض الكتب ومراجعتها.
- التقارير : مؤتمرات - ندوات
- البيولوجرافيا العربية.

الاشتراكات

ترسل قيمة الاشتراك مقدماً بشيك لأمر - جامعة الكويت
مسحوب على أحد المصارف الكويتية

داخل دولة الكويت : للأفراد : 3 دنانير - للمؤسسات : 15 ديناراً
الدول العربية : للأفراد : 4 دنانير - للمؤسسات : 15 ديناراً
الدول الغير عربية : للأفراد : 4 دنانير - للمؤسسات : 15 ديناراً

توجه جميع المراسلات باسم رئيس تحرير مجلة دراسات الخليج والجزيرة العربية

Tel.: (+965) 24833215 - 24984066 - 24984067
www.pubcouncil.kuniv.edu.kw/jgaps

Fax: (+965) 24833705

P.O. Box 17073 Al-Khaldiah, 72451 Kuwait
E - mail : jgaps@ku.edu.kw

www.ku.edu.kw