



Gendered Language: Men's vs Women's Uses of Address Terms within New Interchange Series

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Abstract

This study set out to check the addressing behavior within men's and women's talk in the written conversations in English language textbook series titled 'New Interchange book' by Richards, Hull and Proctor, (1998) from Cambridge University Press. In line with this aim, the present researchers initially prepared descriptive tables for both formal and informal contexts in three theme categories (Social, Cultural & Economic) vis a vis four case appropriations (men*men, men*women, women*men, women*women). The distributions of interlocutors were coded through content analysis techniques. The major findings indicated that the highest percentage of detected address terms belonged to pronouns (67.7%). The proportions for gender appropriations between interlocutors for this address term showed that the case condition with women to men (52.3%) and men to women (36.4%) had the highest rates as compared with other cases. Then, in the final stage, the datasets were scrutinized in terms of theories on gender disparity in the instructional materials. This paper has some pedagogical implications in terms of addressing term inequality as mapped on gender status within ELT books, which might indirectly change the balance against full and rich contexts for effective learning to occur.

Keywords: address terms, gender, men's talk, supremacism, women's talk

Introduction

The social and discursive constructiveness of language associated with interaction and gender are among interesting L2 lines of inquiry within socio-cultural era (Butler & Trouble, 1990; Daraz, Ahmad & Bilal, 2018; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 1992; Ugwu & de Kok, 2015, etc.). Existing studies related to critical gender representation with instructional materials (Ahmad & Shah, 2019; Dabbagh, 2016), and gender dimensions (Palmén, Arroyo, Müller, Reidl, Caprile, & Unger, 2020) are among these disputes.

One critical issue regarding gender effect on interaction subject matters is addressing behavior as mapped on men's versus women's exchange of information, which might contain the extent of women's role (Nemati & Bayer, 2007; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Addressing behavior within gendered language framework can bring about so many useful information that can create socially inferential meaning while learners are focusing on the linguistic content in their instructional textbooks in another language. This is because talk, as a discursive practice, and a pre-given repository of words, signifies a person's use of words and grammar, which is regulative of communication and understanding in instructional textbooks (Kates, 2018) as some instances of educational discourses.

The address terms such as personal names, job titles, kinship related terms, personal pronouns, religious oriented expressions, honorifics, and terms of intimacy etc. have long been discussed with diverse socio-linguistic aspects such as solidarity (Brown & Gilman, 1961), social distance (Hymes, 1967), respect (Moles, 1974), nature of relationship between interlocutors (Brown & Ford, 1961) and quite recently gender among other aspects (all cited in Aliakbari & Toni, 2013). This is because gender is conceptualized as a fluid category whose meaning is being constantly negotiated through interaction with different symbolic systems in social practices. It is not surprising, therefore, that language and gender researchers have devoted so much attention to different popular discourses such as newspapers (Litosseliti, 2002), women's magazines (Caldas-Coulthard & Coulthard, 1996) shopping channels (Bucholtz, 1999), and the web (Herring, 1993) among other discourse types. Among these discourses, textbooks play a

pivotal role within language classrooms in all types of educational institutions - public schools, colleges, and language schools - all over the world.

Based on Oyetade's definition (1995), address terms refer to words or expressions used in different modes such as interactive, dyadic and face-to-face situations to designate the person being talked to. In the present study, there was an attempt to examine how gendered language is substantiated and explicated through gender supremacy. Principally, this can be examined to check if this subject is debatable through Dominance (Lantz, Pieterse & Taylor, 2018) or Difference theory (Uchida, 1992) in the existing literature.

Two of the most significant theories on social differences between male and female personalities are "*difference*" vs. "*dominance*" theories (Uchida, 1992). According to the "*difference theory*", men and women, even those within the same group, live in different or separate cultural worlds and, as a result, they promote different ways of speaking. Women use interactive devices which encourage others to contribute and participate, and signal that they are paying attention while men tend to compete for the floor, interrupt frequently, assert their views strongly and disagree badly with others. In contexts where the primary function of talk is interpersonal or social, women tend to contribute more when the primary role of talk is referential and focused on information-oriented talk, and men are more willing than women to contribute in public, formal contexts (Eisenman, 1997; Holmes, 1992).

Hence, in this theory, cross-gender communication is to be taken as cross-cultural or bi-cultural communication. In contrast, in "*dominance theory*", men and women are believed to inhabit a cultural and linguistic world, where power and status are unequally distributed. In this theory, also called *power-based theory*, the focus is on male dominance and gender division. Although men and women, from a given social class, belong to the same speech community, they may use different linguistic forms. The linguistic forms used by women and men are contrasted to some extent in all speech communities.

Women tend to use the standard language more than men do. Climate (1997) believed that females generally use speech to develop and maintain relationships. They use language to achieve intimacy. Tannen (1990)

detailed that women speak and hear a language of connection and intimacy, while men speak and hear a language of status and independence. Tannen also specified that such a communication resembles cross-cultural communication where the style of communication is different. According to Kaplan and Farrell (1994) and Leet-Peregrini (1980), messages (e-mails) produced by women are short and their participation is driven by their desire to keep the communication going rather than the desire to achieve consensus.

The investigation and identification of differences between men's and women's speech date back across time. Until 1944, no specific piece of writing on gender differences in language was published. As stated by Grey (1998), it was in the 1970s that comparison between female cooperativeness and male competitiveness in linguistic behavior began to be noticed. Mulac (2006) concentrated on the term '*gender as culture*' and ran an empirical study on linguistic differences between men and women. Swallowe (2003) reviewed the literature on differences between men and women in the use of media for issues such as interpersonal communication. Lakoff (1975) believed that women use more hedges than men do. She identified three types of hedges as follows: those showing that the speaker is unsure; those used for the sake of politeness and finally those characterizing women's language - the language of those who are out of power in society.

In England, a new research tradition has been developed using the combined tools of conversation analysis, feminism, and social psychology. This approach to discourse includes several strands, which differ theoretically and methodologically in spite of their broadly similar feminist project (Bucholtz, 2003). Most of these scholars have been influenced by and have contributed to the development of discursive psychology, a branch of psychology that uses discourse analysis rather than controlled experimentation as its primary method (Edwards & Potter, 1992).

Among subjects related to language variables were the interlocutors' bilingualism. For example, Özcan (2016) concentrated on the variation of address terms used during spontaneous conversation among some Turkish mono-lingual speakers and Turkish-Danish bilinguals which usually take place among socially equal interlocutors. It became evident that

monolingual children had used a great range of address terms while bilingual children utilized only some address terms such as first names.

More recent attention has focused on the provision of cultural values as regards address terms (He & Ren , 2016). The authors thought some factors such as globalisation and new technologies were identified as major contributing factors for the decline of many address terms in Mainland China and in effect many Chinese address terms are of little use, and new expressions are instead being constantly developed.

Regarding cultural values, this is thought-provoking in that in some languages with religious rigor among its participants, alternating address terms are commonly used with regard to females such as the landlord-“Saheb Khooneh”, standing for the female owner of a house, or calling the first son’s name along with the word “Mother’s”. Nevertheless, in some contexts, eliminating females’ first names can be a norm such as American culture, which is related to the effect of gender and age. As Ford and Brown (1961, cited in He & Ren, 2016) remarked, “In American English, male first names very seldom occur in full form. They are almost always either abbreviated or diminutised or both, whereas female first names are more often left unaltered” (p.164). Quite contrary to face to face interactions, in the virtual world and through online interactions, some scholars believed that age and gender can be of no relevance since in such contexts, nominal forms do not usually occur and communicated between interlocutors because participants are less familiar with one another (Placencia, 2015). Yet, in other studies, familiarity was even rejected as an influential factor on the choice of address terms. As an instance, Parkinson (2020) accentuated this fact by giving explication over two address terms such as “mate” and “guy”. In his research, he demonstrated that regarding “mate”, which is used for speaking to one person and “guys” to a multitude of addresses, these two terms were used for still a lot number of functions for example attracting attention, ending a task for “guys” and modifying face threats for “mate”. In all, the level of formality for the address terms as such was considered as irrelevant. In contrast, among existing disputes on gender effect and the choice of address terms, Giles-Mitson (2016) worked out some conventionally masculine address terms, which were turning into more

gender neutral among English language native speakers like the terms *mate*, *bro*, *man* and *guys*.

Although address terms had been discussed in the light of different factors as above-cited, the impact of gender, as a fluid variable, in the complex interaction between interlocutors within instructional ELT textbooks was a rarity. In the present research, an attempt was made to fill in this gap by seeing this effect through the outlook of gendered language with hidden supremacism frameworks within best-sellers in the ELT market. Consequently, the following research questions were proposed in this study:

RQ1: What were the address terms that men/women used when speaking to an opposite/same gender within New Interchange Series?

RQ2: How were the detected address terms used in the formal vs. informal contexts by the two gender on four case appropriations (men*men, men*women, women*men, women*women)?

Method

In line with the aims of the present study, content analysis (Gaur & Kumar, 2018), as a reliable and sound approach, towards analyzing written discourse was utilized having a recourse to the context of instructional materials. A Context study as such then consisted of a number of steps, which involved gathering information about the product and its intended context of use, and using this information to plan an evaluation. In this status quo, having an awareness of contextual factors is important throughout the materials development process. To develop a product which is appropriate and usable for its intended users, the contexts in which that product is used should then be considered from the very early stages of product specification and design for evaluative aims.

Documentation

In the present study, the researcher was intended to work on “New Interchange Series student book” (Fifth Edition), by Richards, Hull and Proctor (1998) published by Cambridge University Press (CUP) which is still mostly used in some Iranian language teaching institutes though it is a decade or more since it has lastly been revised. In its development, a quick search on the resourceful sites revealed that there was a series of sources

and supplies for both teachers and students. Across a mixture of instructional platforms including online, interactive whiteboard and mobile apps, the publishers of this series had provided multi-level readers with a collection of lessons. Each lesson has twelve main parts including 1) snapshot, 2) conversation, 3) grammar, 4) word-power, 5) listening, 6) discussion, 7) writing, 8) perspectives, 9) pronunciation, 10) grammar plus a reading section. But what mattered to this research was the second part (conversation) of each lesson.

Non-probability sampling was used in this study to ensure a sound, typical and representative sample over comparable lessons based on topic first, and then, after classifying the subject themes within all four books (Intro, Interchange 1, 2 & 3) in the selected series, twenty-two conversations (one-third of all incorporated lessons: no.61) were randomly selected for analysis.

Procedure

In order to collect a representative sample, diverse topics in the selected book were first surveyed in terms of subject. Within New Interchange Series (Intro, 1, 2 & 3), diverse subjects were existing. The researchers first classified them into different semantic categories disparately such as 'greetings', 'jobs', 'foods and diets', 'hobbies', 'birth', 'news', 'culture', 'life events', and 'movies'. Then, the categories were axially classified into related but more general, inclusive groupings such as peoples' individual vs. social life, cultural events in conversations, and economic issues related to men and women. As an instance, individual life could comprise sub-categories such as background of life, success stories, love and marriage, exercise, funny things to do, personal health and psychological disorder. In return, social category included subcategories such as greetings, sports, love and marriage, and within economic strand, issues having a financial outlook such as job skills, equipment, etc. in these series, which were allocated precisely and recursively. Then, the selection of the lessons was made based on topic relevance to the participants in interactions and mapped on diverse contexts and topics so that topic bias on the issue under the study was eradicated.

Table 1 illustrates the final topic assessment at this stage. In each case, for brevity reasons, just some example lessons are provided for precise reviewing.

Table 1

Variations of Topic Assortment in New Interchange Series (All Four Books)

Analyzed Books	Economic	Social	Cultural
Intro	*Jobs (lessons 8: What do you do), *Places (lesson 13: You can't miss it), *Equipment (lesson 2: what's this?)	*Hobbies (lesson 14: Did you have fun?), *Public transportations (lesson 6: my sister works downtown), *Sport (Lesson 10: I can't ice-skate very well)	*Nationality (lesson 3: Where are you from?) *Zone time (lesson five: What are you doing?) * Date (What are you going to do?) *Birth places (lesson 15: Where are you born?)
Interchange 1	*Geography(lesson 14: The biggest and the best)	*Family connection (lesson 5: tell me about your family), *Exercise (lesson 6: How often do you exercise?), *Neighborhood (Lesson 8: What's your neighborhood like?)	*Jewels and dresses (lesson 3: How much is it?) *Music (lesson 4: Do you like Rap?) *Appearance (lesson 9: What does she look like?)
Interchange 2	*Inventions (lesson 7: What's this for?) *House/Apartments (lesson 3: time for change)	*Success stories (lesson 12: It could happen to you.) *Job skills (lesson 10: I don't like working on weekends)	*Holidays, Festivals (lesson 8: Let's celebrate!)
Interchange 3	*Successful businesses (lesson 12: The right Stuff)	*Love and Marriage (lesson 1: That's what friends are for), *News (lesson 4: What a story!), *Life events (lesson 11: Life's little lessons)	*Movies (lesson 13: behind the scenes),

Three different criteria were used in this study to screen the nature of address terms as shown in Table 2. In view of that, there was an attempt to examine the distribution of interlocutors when they used address terms vis a vis four case appropriations (men*men, men*women, women*men, women*women), and the formal vs. informal relationship between

interlocutors (friendship, family relationship, neighboring, etc.) with regard to the main variable in this study-gender status in interactions with regard to text and context mapping. Table 2 exemplifies text-context mapping that was followed in this research for data analysis procedures.

Table 2
Distributions of Interlocutors in Context based on Kinds of Utilized Addressing Terms, Observed Appropriations and Relationship Status

Context of Conversations	Kinds of Addressing terms	Observed Appropriations	Relationship between Interlocutors
Code 1: Home Code 2: Gym Code 3: Office Code 4: Stadium Code 5: Park Code 6: Street Code 7: Ceremony Code 8: School Code 9: beauty salons Code 10: University Code 11: Airport	Code 1: *Personal first names (Jack, Joes), Code 2: *personal pronouns (you, I, us, them), Code 3: *last names (Johnson, Brown), Code 4: *Titles (dr., prof., etc.) Code 5: Other: A mixture of addressing terms (Mr. Brown, Miss Boris, Joe Brown)	Code 1: men*men, Code 2: men*women, Code 3: women*men, Code 4:women*women	Code 1: Friendship, Code 2: Family relation, Code 3: Colleagues, Code 4: Neighborhood

Initially, the distributions of the counted frequency/rates were detected through content analysis and recursive coding shown in terms of the type of addressing terms and kinds of relationship in diverse conditions including home, gyms, office, stadiums, etc. as shown in the assigned codes in Table 2. Regarding formal contexts, reference was normally given to those official occasions such as schools, university, and office where interlocutors customarily use more formal expressions while for informal contexts, reference was made to casual events such as parties, home, beauty salons and gym among others in which informal use of language is to an excess. Then, for analyzing the addressing terms, all criteria in Table 2 were considered together within three categories of Social, Cultural and Economic as shown in the preceding Table 1.

Table 3 shows an example/excerpt of the analyzed samples in this regard with assigned codes and categories in Table 2 in the social category as given to the selected lessons in all four books.

Table 3
Examples of Analyzed Samples in the Social Category

Social Category	Books	Kinds of Observed Addressing terms	Observed Appropriations	Relationship between Interlocutors	Context of the Conversation
Conversation 7(1), p. 4	Intro	1	3	1	5
Conversation 7(2), p. 4	Intro	1	2	1	5
Conversation 3, p. 37	Inter 1	2	3	1	1
Conversation 8, p. 11	Inter 2	2	3	3	11

Other summary tables were also prepared for the other context categories including cultural and economic and for all four books.

Initially, the researchers summarized the facts and figures in terms of statistical tables for all the lessons and summary figures for all three categories within all four books. Then, in the final stage, for analyzing the meaningfulness of the appropriation status of the interlocutors, datasets were scrutinized in terms of both descriptive and inferential tests. For credibility aims, the datasets in each stage of sampling and data analysis were meticulously collected and re/examined with another researcher with a PhD degree in TEFL to reach sound results. After recurrent reference to the informed person, categorizations of themes and subthemes were confirmed for validity aims.

After preparing descriptive tables from content analysis and interpretive comments for each context regarding the addressing terms that male and female characters had used in speaking to the opposite/same gender, statistical results were collected from SPSS and possible interpretations were provided.

Results

In this study, in line with the aims of the research, the researchers relied on different criteria to screen the nature of address terms including the distributions of interlocutors when they used address terms vis a vis four case appropriations (men*men, men*women, women*men, women*women), within both formal and informal contexts between interlocutors (friendship, family relationship, neighboring, etc.).

Initially, the distributions of the counted frequency/rates are shown in terms of the spotted address terms in diverse conditions. Then, in the final stage, for analyzing the meaningfulness of the appropriation status of the interlocutors, the datasets are scrutinized in terms of both descriptive and inferential tests.

Results Related to RQ1: The Proportion of the Overall Address Terms Detected in the Sampled Datasets

After sampling the data from the selected books, sixty-five circumstances which involved address terms were described in the following sections.

Table 4 shows the distribution of all three detected address terms in the sampled datasets without any consideration for the spotted contexts, interlocutors' gender and relationship at this stage.

Table 4
Address Terms as Detected in the Sampled New Interchange Series

		F	P	VP	CP
Valid	Name	18	27.7	27.7	27.7
	Pronoun	44	67.7	67.7	95.4
	Lastname	3	4.6	4.6	100.0
	Total	65	100.0	100.0	

Notes: In the above table, F stands for frequency, P, percent, VP, valid percent and CP, cumulative percent respectively.

As illustrated in Table 4, within address term detections including: First Name=18, Pronoun=44 and Last name=3, the highest percentage belonged to pronouns (44, 67.7%) and the lowest was the last name (3, 4.6%).

Results Related to RQ2: The Proportion of the Spotted Address Terms in Terms of the Relationship between Interlocutors in Context (Formal & Informal)

The frequency counts and rates for the detected address terms (three types: pronouns, first names, title with last names) were aligned with four observed relationship types (four conditions: friendship, family relation, being co-worker, neighborhood). Table 5 below shows the spreading in this regard.

Table 5

Distribution of the Individual Address Terms Based on Kind of Relationships between Interlocutors

		Relationship type				Total
		Friendship	Family Relation	Co worker	Neighborhood	
Address Name	FC	14	1	2	1	18
	P	77.8%	5.6%	11.1%	5.6%	100.0%
Pronoun	FC	34	1	9	0	44
	p	77.3%	2.3%	20.5%	0.0%	100.0%
Last Name	FC	0	0	2	1	3
	P	0.0%	0.0%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
Total	FC	48	2	13	2	65
	P	73.8%	3.1%	20.0%	3.1%	100.0%

Notes: In the above table, FC stands for Frequency Count, and P for Percent.

In the next stage, the intention was to clarify in what ways, interlocutors/speakers having diverse relationship with one another used the spotted address terms within selected conversations. Address terms were accordingly assessed into four modes/conditions (man to man, man to woman, woman to woman, & woman to woman). Table 6 below exhibits the distribution of the counted frequencies and percentage rates in this regard.

Table 6
Distribution of the Address Terms Based on the Gender Appropriation between Interlocutors

		Addresses				
		Man to man	man to woman	woman to man	woman to woman	Total
AddressName	FC	1	7	9	1	18
	P	5.6%	38.9%	50.0%	5.6%	100.0%
Terms	FC	0	16	23	5	44
	P	0.0%	36.4%	52.3%	11.4%	100.0%
Last	FC	1	0	0	2	3
	P	33.3%	0.0%	0.0%	66.7%	100.0%
Name	FC	2	23	32	8	65
	P	3.1%	35.4%	49.2%	12.3%	100.0%

As depicted in Table 6, the pronouns with the highest frequency counts were considered in terms of their distribution in the datasets. In Table 6, the case condition with woman to man (23, 52.3%) and man to woman (16, 36.4%) had the highest rates as compared with woman to woman (5, 11.4%) and man to man with a zero frequency. Also, in the “first names” category, woman to man (9, 50%) and man to woman (7, 38.9%) with nearly the same dispersion were in the next proportions. Other rates in the condition rows/columns had the least frequencies. To find out if the differences were significant, Chi-square tests and subsequent Fisher’s Exact Test for small datasets in SPSS were run as shown in the following Table 7.

Table 7
Fisher's Exact Test for the Distribution of the Address Terms Based on the Relationship between Interlocutors as Addresses

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-Exact sided)	Sig.Exact (2-sided)	Sig.Point (1-sided)	Sig.Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	21.238 ^a	6	.002	.004		
Likelihood Ratio	15.548	6	.016	.012		
Fisher's Exact Test	13.748			.012		
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.426 ^b	1	.232	.252	.153	.065
N of Valid Cases	65					

A chi-square test of independence series was performed to examine the relation between addressee appropriations on four above-mentioned

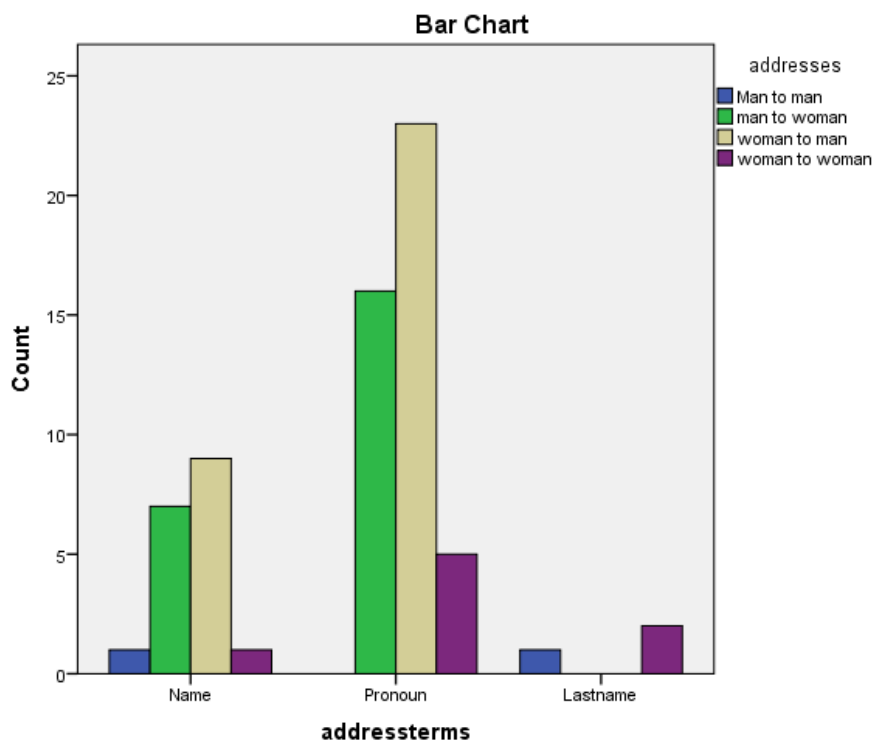
conditions and the address terms they used in the sampled conversations, the results of which are shown in Table 7. The relation between the variables was significant, $\chi^2(6, N = 65) = 13.748, p = .01$. Furthermore, the subsequent directional test for examining the power of the observed significance between the addressee appropriations and the address terms showed a large power based on Exact Fishers Test for small data. Therefore, the following prioritized propositions with the most frequency rates could be conveyed:

In “*First Names*” category, in ‘women to men’ appropriation, women were more likely (50%) to use the first names of their addresses as compared with men.

In “*Pronouns*” category, in ‘women to men’ appropriation, women were more likely (52.3%) to use pronouns when they addressed their male interlocutors.

In “*Last names with title*” category, in ‘women to women’ appropriation, women were more likely (66.7%) to use the last names of their addresses with the same gender.

The following figure clearly shows the distributions for the remaining other case conditions having lesser frequencies.



A Bar Chart Exhibiting the Address Terms Based on the Spotted Gender Appropriations in Sampled American Files Series

As shown on the Bar chart, the address terms had the first names with the most ratio for ‘woman to man’ then ‘man to woman’. In the second section, for pronouns, the highest percentage was for ‘woman to man’ and the next was for ‘man to woman’ and the lowest was for ‘woman to woman’. Interestingly, in ‘man to man’ case, no frequency counts were marked. At the end (last name with title) just ‘man to man’ and ‘woman to woman’ were available with ‘woman to woman’ having more proportions. In general, it could be mentioned that when men were addressing each other, they did not tend to use pronoun at all but they used more pronouns when they talked to women and finally women used more pronoun when they talked to each other as compared with other address terms. In the next section, possible inferences are brought in the light of recent theories.

Discussion

Regarding the overall proportion of the address terms as detected in the sampled datasets, it became evident that in the first place, the highest percentage belonged to pronouns (67.7%) and the lowest was the last name (4.6%) for four detected appropriations including men vs. men, men vs. women, women vs. men, and women vs. women. The proportions for gender appropriations between interlocutors as the summary tables showed, for pronouns having a large proportion, the case condition with women to men (52.3%) and men to women (36.4%) had the highest rates as compared with other cases. In the second step, gender variations on four assigned conditions were considered. As related table indicated, pronoun superiority as recurrent addressing terms in the sampled book was also conspicuous within friendship inside one spotted informal context variety and co-worker from formal context counterparts. Such superiority in terms of pronoun use as the dominant address term was missing and/or infrequent in the other spotted contexts. In order to check gender appropriations, another representative table was extracted from datasets that showed in "Pronouns" category, in 'women to men' appropriation, women were more likely (52.3%) to use pronouns when they addressed their male interlocutors.

With regard to the most frequent uses of address terms, it became clear that pronouns among both men and women were the most highly cited when participants in conversations addressed each other as opposed with other address terms such as title words, loaded words for female participants to show more respect such as madam, mom, etc. in the analyzed conversations in the sampled series. Regarding this issue, it could be mentioned that the book developers in this series were ostensibly ignorant of still many other address terms that could enrich the context for cross-cultural understanding for international learners. As Aliakbari and Toni (2013) stated, other categories for address terms such as general and occupation titles, kinship related terms, religious oriented expressions, honorifics, and terms of intimacy happened in Persian language.

As Yusuf (2002, cited in Ghazanfari Moghaddam & Sharifi Moghaddam, 2014) remarked, in English culture, native speakers are ignorant of women roles in the public society and one clue for that is the use of masculine

words and terms more than the ones that are pertained with female creatures. This was for sure in line with the gained results in terms of conducted linguistic analysis that was carried in this research.

One of the more important developments in our understanding of the relationship between language and gender in the last couple of decades is the recognition that the gendering of language is semiotically complex. Obviously, this could be related to the contexts for which such gender variation was conspicuous. As to gendered language, on behalf of the topics chosen for female characters, only inferior topics such as beauty, relationships and emotional events had been chosen for female characters and more important topics were devoted to men such as politics, technology and sports as declared by Deficit Theory (Lakoff, 1975).

With the development of communication technology and globalization of interactions, cross-cultural interactions seem to be the central issue of communication. Effective communication with people of different cultures is especially challenging because cultural values are reflected in people's speech (Hashemian, 2014; McElhinny, 2008). The questions that become critical at this point can be to specify the reasons why understanding gender in this way might be particularly helpful for studying language, in today's version of a global economy. One of the most important lessons of feminist thought, namely- gender categorization- can structure nodes of thought whose thematic subject is not explicitly gendered at all. Gender and language have, individually and together, been summoned up to undergird or legitimate other social relations. Women are thus construed as socially equal, but biologically different creatures. Debates about gender and language during the U.S. occupation of Japan after World War II were debates about whether or how to modernize gender, as they naturalized certain ideas about how language and gender complicate the conditions. Gender always seems to be available as a tool for signaling differentiation; nonetheless, there are some points at which gender is foregrounded as the idiom through which difference and inequity are understood. Implications for pedagogical understanding are hitherto very important to enrich English students' roles in language classes (McElhinny, 2008).

Different cultures have different values and norms that influence the way people interact with each other. To communicate successfully, people need

more than linguistic competence; they need communicative competence too (Hashemian, 2014).With the emergence of English as an international language, development of learners' intercultural norms and rules of pragmatic appropriateness have become an essential aspect of many English Language Teaching(ELT) programs to achieve effective communication among interlocutors (Petraki & Bayes, 2013; Rose & Kasper, 2001).

Every language variety conveys information about cultural and social aspects of its speech community. Some varieties structurally encode this information, whereas others may convey it through non-linguistic means (Musumeci, 1991). Based on the findings of the present study, English teachers and all those who are involved in language teaching can use such information to increase the quality of their education by selecting a variety of resourceful teaching materials to enrich the addressing behavior of students. This study also provided evidence for the importance of address terms for increasing teachers' awareness over intercultural understanding that EFL learners might get out of the texts they are exposed to through conversations and dialogues as situated contexts for learning.

The greatest use of personal pronouns in this study was already supported in Aliakbari and Toni's study (2013) in which they regarded that the abundant uses of personal pronouns in English language might have caused interlocutors' tendency to make less benefit of still other forms of addressing, which can show lesser amounts of courtesy on the part of English speakers in these series of the books. Instead, a sense of formality is clearly seen in the datasets. Nevertheless, further research can explore other functions that address terms could play in utterances apart from first/last position because of the kind of addressing terms.

The data for the proportion of the spotted address terms in terms of the relationship between interlocutors designated some patterns like friendship, family relationship, neighboring among others, which showed that for the personal "pronouns", the most appropriations belonged to friendship as an informal context and the ones in the next ranks belonged to personal "first/small names" in the same category, and finally "last name" mostly occurred in "co-worker" category within formal conditions.

The proportions for gender appropriations between interlocutors as the summary tables showed, the case condition with women to men (52.3%) and men to women (36.4%) had the highest rates as compared with other cases. With the emergence of English as an international language, the development of language learners' intercultural norms and rules of pragmatic appropriateness has become an essential aspect of many English Language Teaching (ELT) programs to achieve effective communication among interlocutors (Petraki & Bayes, 2013; Rose & Kasper, 2001).

In a nutshell, the importance of textbooks becomes greater in an EFL context like Iran because opportunities do not usually arise for communication beyond the classroom. In some contexts, teachers are free to choose their own textbooks. The vast majority of teachers, however, have textbooks suggested, prescribed, or assigned to them (Razmjoo, 2007). Ansary and Babaii (2002) asserted that a textbook is a framework which can regulate the programs, and help learners think their learning is taken seriously. Learning that is communicated through textbooks is not devoted to linguistic content only and diverse paralinguistic issues are also in process.

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